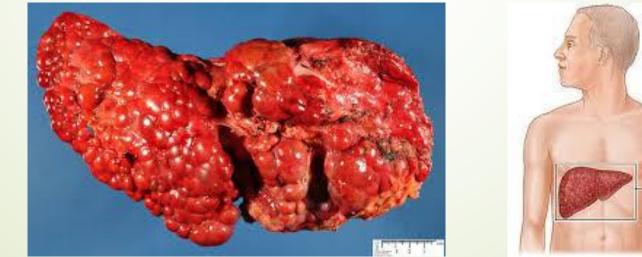
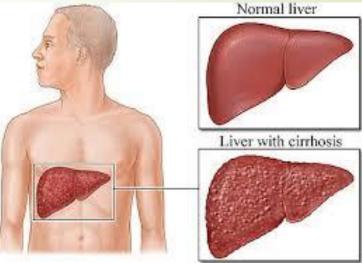
Liver Cirrhosis

Dr. Muhannad R. M. Salih B.Sc, M.Pharm (Clinical Pharmacy), Ph.D, RPH Pharmacy Department, Al-Rasheed University College muhanad_rmk@yahoo.com

Background

- Cirrhosis is the conversion process of normal hepatocyte into structurally abnormal nodules. Consequently, leading to hepatocytes destruction and replacement by fibrous tissue.
- The number of normally functioning liver cells reduces further, because of continued hepatocyte death, the clinical condition deteriorates progressively with the development of liver failure.

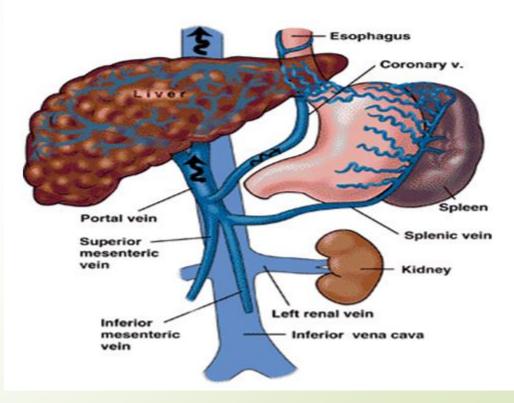




Background

The anatomical changes within the liver increase resistance to blood flow from the portal system, causing an increase in pressure within this system resulting in portal hypertension, one of the major complications of cirrhosis.

Portal Hypertension



- Alcohol is the single most significant cause of liver disease throughout the Western world accounting for between 40% and 60% of cases of cirrhosis in different countries.
- Liver disease related to recent alcohol consumption presents a broad spectrum, ranging from the benign fatty liver disease to alcoholic hepatitis, a condition with an immediate mortality of between 30% and 60%.



Alcohol

An estimated 20% of alcohol abusers develop progressive liver fibrosis, which can eventually lead to alcoholic cirrhosis, typically after a period of 10–20 years of heavy indulgence.





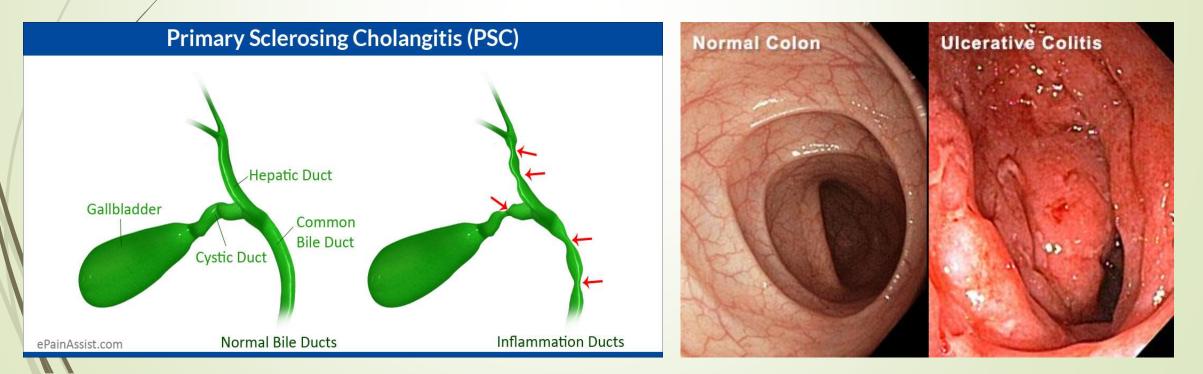
- Viral hepatitis B, C, D.
- Drugs including Isoniazid, methyldopa, methotrexate, phenothiazine, estrogen, anabolic steroids, amiodarone.
- Nonalcoholic fatty liver: is very similar to alcohol-induced disease is now well recognized in a number of settings including
 - obesity
 - diabetes mellitus
 - metabolic syndrome

Autoimmune hepatitis: is an un-resolving inflammation of the liver characterized by the presence of auto-antibodies. It is usually a chronic, progressive disease which can occasionally present acutely with a severe hepatitis. Autoimmune hepatitis typically occurs in young women, between 20 and 40 years, and often with a family history of autoimmune disorders.



- Primary biliary cirrhosis: is an autoimmune disease of the liver which mainly affects middle aged women (95% of cases are female).
- It is characterized by the presence of anti-mitochondrial antibodies that destruct the interlobular bile ducts leading to progressive ductopenia, fibrosis and cirrhosis.

Primary sclerosing cholangitis: is an idiopathic chronic inflammatory disease resulting in biliary strictures, cholestasis and eventually cirrhosis. There is a strong association with inflammatory bowel disease, particularly ulcerative colitis.



- Metabolic and genetic disorders: There are various inherited metabolic disorders that can affect the functioning of the liver
 - Hemochromatosis
 - Wilson's disease
 - a1-Antitrypsin deficiency
 - Glycogen storage disease
 - Gilbert's syndrome



Sign versus Symptom

Symptom is a phenomenon that is experienced by the individual affected by the disease.

Sign is a phenomenon that can be detected by someone other than the individual affected by the disease.

Clinical symptoms of liver disease

- Weakness, fatigue, and general malaise are common but nonspecific symptoms.
- Weight loss and anorexia are more commonly seen in chronic liver disease.
- Loss of muscle mass is a characteristic of very advanced disease.
- Abdominal discomfort with liver enlargement and ascites is usually in more advanced disease.

Clinical symptoms of liver disease

- Abdominal pain is common in hepatobiliary disease, frequently localized to the right upper quadrant.
- Tenderness (i.e., sensitivity to pain) over the liver is a symptom of acute hepatitis, hepatic abscess or hepatic malignancy.



Clinical symptoms of liver disease

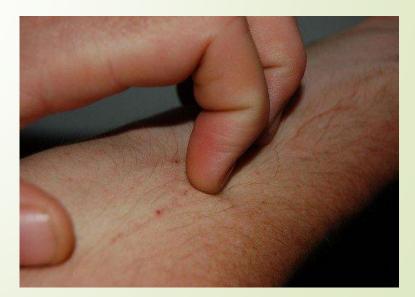
- Jaundice is the most striking symptom of liver disease and can present with or without pain, depending on the underlying etiology of disease.
- Pruritus can be a distressing symptom in cholestatic liver disease and patients usually complain that it is worse at night.
- Patients with acute and chronic liver disease can develop bleeding complications because of defective hepatic synthesis of coagulation factors and low platelet counts.

Signs of liver disease

Cutaneous signs

- Hyper pigmentation result from increased deposition of melanin.
- Scratch marks on the skin suggest pruritus which is common feature of liver disease.





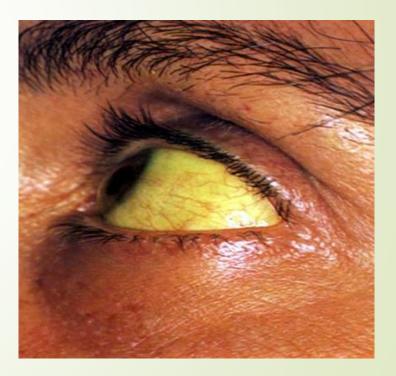
Abdominal signs

- Abdominal distension, notably of the flanks, is suggestive of ascites which can develop in both acute (less commonly) and chronic liver disease.
- Hepatomegaly is a common finding in acute liver disease.
- In cirrhotic patients the liver may be large, but alternatively it may be small and shrunken reflecting end-stage chronic disease.
- Splenomegaly in the presence of chronic liver disease is the most important sign of portal hypertension.

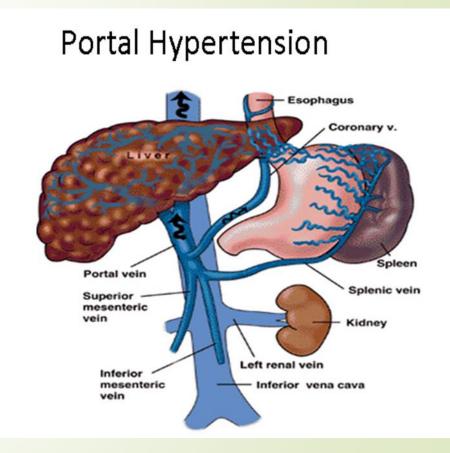
Jaundice

Jaundice is the physical sign regarded as synonymous with liver disease and is most easily detected in the sclerae.

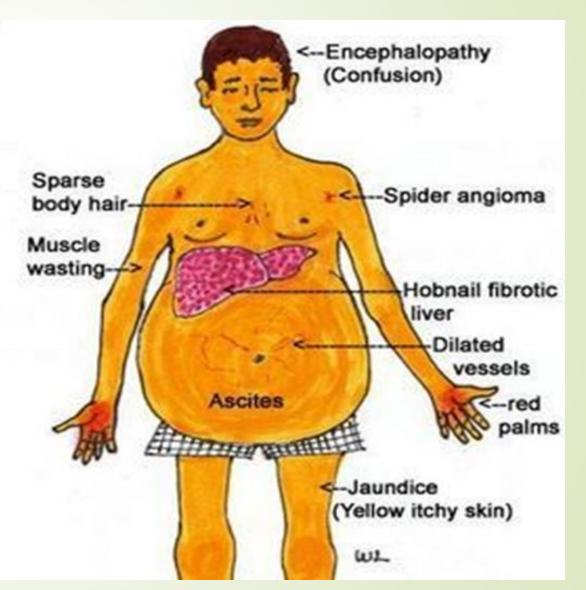




- Increased hepatic resistance to portal flow due to cirrhosis causes portal hypertension.
- The increased pressure in the portal venous system leads to shunting of blood to the systemic circulation.



- Bypassing of blood from the liver to the systemic circulation lead to:
 - ascites
 - encephalopathy



- When blood pressure increases in the portal vein system, veins in the esophagus, stomach, and rectum enlarge to accommodate blocked blood flow through the liver.
- As the blood pressure in the portal vein system continues to increase, the walls of these expanded veins become thinner, causing the veins to rupture and bleed. This is called variceal bleeding.

One serious complication of portal hypertension is variceal bleeding.





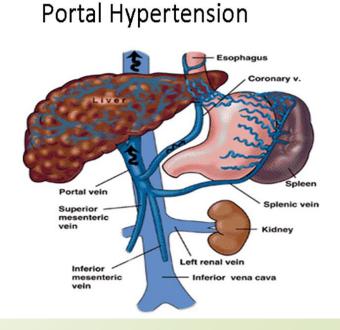
Hepatic encephalopathy

- Hepatic encephalopathy is defined as a spectrum of neuropsychiatric abnormalities in patients with liver dysfunction.
- It is characterized by
 - personality changes
 - intellectual impairment
 - depressed level of consciousness



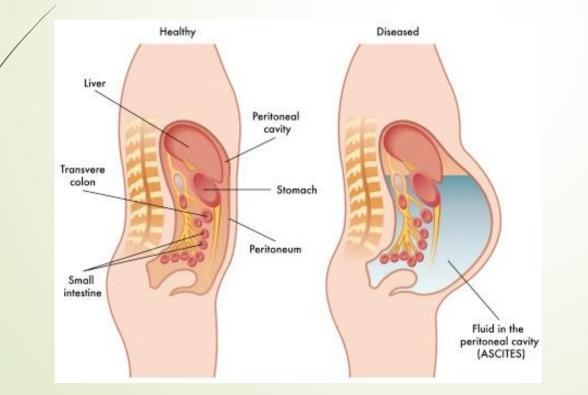
Hepatic encephalopathy

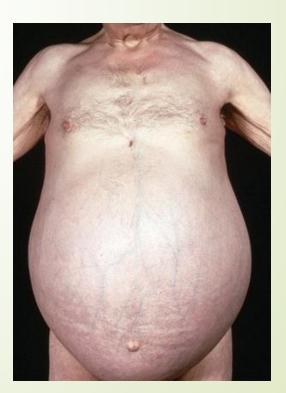
The development of hepatic encephalopathy is explained, to some extent, by the effect of neurotoxic substances, which occurs in the setting of cirrhosis and portal hypertension.



Ascites

- Ascites is a pathologic accumulation of lymph fluid within the peritoneal cavity.
- It is one of the earliest and most common presentations of cirrhosis.





Gynaecomastia

- It tends to be more common in alcoholic liver disease.
- Hypogonadism is common in patients with cirrhosis, males may experience testicular atrophy.
- It occurs because the cirrhotic liver cannot metabolize estrogen leading to feminization in males.



Women menstruation issues

- Women with chronic liver disease may suffer from
 - menstrual irregularity
 - Amenorrhea
 - reduced fertility



Coagulation defects

- Decreases in the vitamin K-dependent factors (prothrombin; factors VII, IX, and X)
- Decreased synthesis of clotting factors
- Reduction of platelet count (thrombocytopenia)

Bleed tendency

Investigations

- All patients with liver disease must undergo a comprehensive assessment to identify the underlying etiology.
- Although causes of acute and chronic liver disease may differ, a similar approach is used to investigate both patient groups.



Biochemical tests

- Liver function tests (LFTs) are
 - Simple
 - inexpensive
 - easy to perform

but usually cannot be used in isolation to make a diagnosis.



Liver function tests

- The liver enzymes usually measured are the
 - transaminase
 - bilirubin
 - alkaline phosphatase
 - γ-glutamyl transpeptidase
- Aspartate transaminase (AST) and alanine transaminase (ALT) are two intracellular enzymes present in hepatocytes which are released into the blood of patients as a consequence of hepatocyte damage.

Liver function tests

- Extremely high values, where transaminases are recorded in the thousands, occur in acute liver disease, for example, viral hepatitis or paracetamol overdose.
- In chronic hepatitis, serum transaminases are rarely more than five to eight times the normal upper limit.
- Simultaneous elevation of the enzyme γ-glutamyl transpeptidase confirms the hepatic origin of an elevated alkaline phosphatase.

Liver function tests

Bilirubin is commonly elevated in hepatocellular pathology and especially in acute hepatitis and end-stage chronic disease.

Serum bilirubin can also increase in Haemolysis.

Synthetic function capacity

It is very important in assessing liver disease.

- Prothrombin time (PT), international normalized ratio (INR) and other coagulation studies are useful short-term markers of the synthetic function, especially in acute liver insults where they reflect the severity of the liver injury.
- PT or INR are also important indicators of chronic liver disease when combined with albumin levels.

Synthetic function capacity

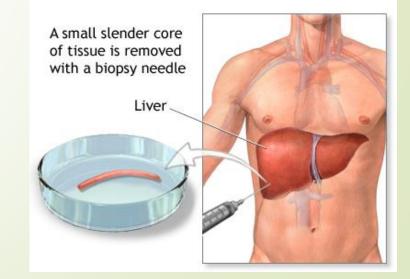
- Serum albumin levels reflect liver function over the previous months rather than days as with coagulation studies.
- Alternative causes of hypoalbuminaemia need to be considered, especially proteinuria.
- Platelets count: Thrombocytopenia is common feature in chronic liver disease found in 30% to 64% of cirrhotic patients.

Imaging techniques

- Ultrasound is a non-invasive, low-risk procedure that is essential in the primary assessment of liver disease as it assesses the size, shape and texture of the liver and screens for dilatation of the biliary tract.
- In patients with chronic liver disease, it assesses patency of the portal vein and may detect signs of portal hypertension (increased spleen size, ascites).
- Computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance Imaging (MRI) scans are regularly used for more precise definition of any abnormalities identified on ultrasound.

Liver biopsy

- Liver biopsy is an invasive procedure with an associated morbidity and mortality, even though extremely low.
- Nevertheless, it remains the gold standard in establishing a diagnosis and assessing the severity of chronic liver disease.



Management

- The deposition of bile salts within the skin is considered to be central to its development.
- However, the concentration of bile salts in the skin does not appear to correlate with the intensity of pruritus.
- Management of pruritus is variable.



- Anion exchange resins like Cholestyramine and colestipol act by binding bile acids and preventing their reabsorption.
- These anion exchange resins are the first line of therapy in the treatment of pruritus.



- Although frequently used, antihistamines are usually ineffective in the management of the pruritus caused by cholestasis and should not be considered first-line therapy.
- A non-sedating antihistamine such as cetirizine (10 mg once daily) or loratadine (10 mg once daily) is preferred as these avoid precipitating or masking encephalopathy.





Sedative antihistamines such as chlorphenamine or hydroxyzine they may be useful at night if the severity of pruritus is sufficient to prevent a patient from sleeping.



- Ursodeoxycholic acid has been shown to be effective in the treatment of pruritus. However, in about 5% of cases it worsens the pruritus.
- Rifampicin induces hepatic microsomal enzymes, which may benefit some patients, possibly by improving bile flow. Its use is restricted by its potential hepatotoxicity and drug interactions with other agents.
- Topical therapy may benefit some patients. Calamine lotion or menthol 2% cream are standard preparations, but improvement of pruritus with such agents is variable.

- Opioid antagonists have been used to treat pruritus because it is believed that endogenous opioids in the central nervous system are potent mediators of itch.
- As a consequence the centrally acting opioid antagonists naloxone, naltrexone and nalmefene are thought to reverse the actions of these endogenous opioids.

Clotting abnormalities

- The majority of clotting factors (with the exception of factor V) are dependent on vitamin K.
- Patients with liver disease who develop unbalanced blood clotting should receive intravenous doses of phytomenadione (vitamin K), usually 10 mg daily for 3 days.



Clotting abnormalities

- Administration of vitamin K to patients with significant liver disease does not usually improve the prothrombin time because the liver is unable to utilize the vitamin to synthesis clotting factors.
- Oral vitamin K is less effective than the parenteral form and so, has little or no place in the management of clotting abnormalities and bleeding secondary to liver disease.

Clotting abnormalities

- Aspirin, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and anticoagulants should be avoided in all patients with liver disease because of gastric ulceration and bleeding.
- NSAIDs have also been implicated in precipitating renal dysfunction and variceal bleeding in patients with end-stage liver disease.
- Although COX-2 inhibitors may cause a lower incidence of bleeding complications, currently they are avoided in patients with liver disease as their use still poses a risk.

Ascites

- The aim in the treatment of ascites is to mobilize the abnormal collection fluid (intra-abdominal fluid).
- Salt reduction combined with fluid restriction (approximately 1–1.5 L/day) are practical measures taken
 - to mobilize fluid
 - To provide weight reduction
 - symptomatic relief

Ascites

- Aggressive weight reduction in the absence of peripheral oedema should be avoided as it is likely to lead to intravascular fluid depletion and renal failure.
- Weight loss should not exceed 300–500 g/day in the absence of peripheral oedema and 800–1000 g/day in those with peripheral oedema to prevent renal failure.

- Spironolactone is usually used as a first-line agent in the treatment of ascites.
- In most instances, a negative sodium balance and loss of ascitic fluid can be achieved with low doses of diuretics.
- Spironolactone can be used alone or in combination with a more potent loop diuretic.



- Spironolactone is usually started at 50–100 mg/day, but this varies, depending on
 - patient's clinical status
 - electrolyte levels
 - concomitant drug therapies
- The addition of a loop diuretic, furosemide 40 mg/day enhances the natriuretic activity of spironolactone, and should be used when ascites is severe or when spironolactone alone fails to produce acceptable diuresis.

- The use of more potent diuretic combinations may result in excessive diuresis which can lead to renal failure.
- The initiation and augmentation of diuretic therapy should ideally be carried out in hospital.
- This allows strict urea and electrolyte monitoring to detect impending hyperkalaemia and/or hyponatraemia, which commonly occur with diuretic therapy.

- Generally, if the serum sodium level decreases to less than 130 mmol/L or if creatinine levels rise to greater than 1.5mg/dL then dose escalation of diuretics should be stopped.
- Divertic therapy can be complicated by encephalopathy, hypokalaemia, hyponatraemia and azotemia.
- Gynaecomastia and muscle cramps are side effects of diuretic therapy.

- Ascites is considered to be refractory or diuretic resistant if there is no response with once daily doses of 400 mg spironolactone and 160 mg furosemide.
- Patients on lower doses of diuretics are also considered to have refractory ascites if side effects are a problem.

Paracentesis

- Paracentesis is a procedure to take out fluid that has collected in the belly (peritoneal fluid or ascites).
- The fluid is taken out using a long, thin needle put through the belly.



Paracentesis

- Repeated large volume paracentesis in combination with albumin administration is the most widely accepted therapy for refractory ascites.
- Patients generally require paracentesis every 2–4 weeks and the procedure is often performed in the outpatient setting.
- Paracentesis does not affect the mechanism responsible for ascitic fluid accumulation and so early recurrence is common.

Paracentesis

- Intravenous colloid replacement or plasma expanders are used to prevent adverse effects on the renal and systemic circulation.
- Colloid replacement in the form albumin (equivalent to 100 mL of 20% human albumin solution for every 2.5 L of ascitic fluid removed) is a standard regimen.

Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis

- Patients with ascites should be closely observed for spontaneous bacterial peritonitis as it develops in 10–30% of patients and has a high mortality.
- Presenting signs and symptoms can include
 - Fever and chills (80% of patients)
 - changes in mental status
 - abdominal tenderness (70% of patients)
 - Gastrointestinal bleeding
 - Nausea and vomiting
- It was reported that around 30% of the cases are completely asymptomatic.

Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis

- A high index of suspicion must be maintained when caring for patients with ascites, particularly those with acute clinical deterioration like:
 - Worsening or unexplained encephalopathy
 - Diarrhea
 - Ascites that does not improve following administration of diuretic medication
 - Worsening or new-onset renal failure
 - Ileus (a painful obstruction of the ileum or other part of the intestine)
- However, a leucocyte count of greater than 250 cells/mm³ is diagnostic of this condition.

Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis

- Cefotaxime (2 g, 8 hourly) is effective in 85% of patients with spontaneous bacterial peritonitis and is commonly used as first-line antimicrobial therapy.
- Other antibiotic regimens have been used including co-amoxiclay, but third-generation cephalosporin are the treatment of choice.
- The quinolone, norfloxacin (400 mg/day), has a role in the prevention of recurrence of spontaneous bacterial peritonitis.
- However, the emergence of quinolone-resistant bacteria is a growing problem in the management of spontaneous bacterial peritonitis.

Hepatic encephalopathy

- Therapeutic management is then aimed at reducing the amount of ammonia or nitrogenous products in the circulatory system.
- Lactulose, a non-absorbable disaccharide, it
 - decreases ammonia production in the gut.
 - increases the throughput of bowel contents, by reducing transit time and also increases soluble nitrogen output in the faeces.
 - is broken down by gastro-intestinal bacteria to form lactic, acetic and formic acids. The effect of lactulose is to acidify the colonic contents which leads to the ionization of nitrogenous products within the bowel, with a consequent reduction in their absorption from the gastro-intestinal tract.

Hepatic encephalopathy

- Lactulose is commenced in doses of 30–40 mL/day and titrated to result in two to three bowel motions each day.
- Patients unable to take oral medication or those with worsening encephalopathy are treated with phosphate enemas.



Phosphate enemas

Hepatic encephalopathy

- Antibiotics such as metronidazole or neomycin may also be used to reduce ammonia production from gastro-intestinal bacteria.
- The use of neomycin has largely been abandoned because of associated toxicity.
- Recent data has supported the use of the rifaximin, it is antibiotic used for treatment of encephalopathy.

Drugs commonly used in the management of encephalopathy

Drug	Dose	Comment	Side effects
Lactulose	15–30 mL orally 2–4 times daily	Aim for 2–3 soft stools daily	Bloating, diarrhoea
Metronidazole	400–800 mg orally daily in divided doses	Metabolism impaired in liver disease	Gastro-intestinal disturbance
Neomycin Used less frequently now	2–4 g orally daily in divided doses	Maximum duration of 48 h	Potential for nephro- and ototoxicity
Rifaxamin	550 mg twice daily	Benefit demonstrated over 6 months use	Allergic reactions, gastro-intestinal disturbance May permit overgrowth <i>Clostridium</i> difficile

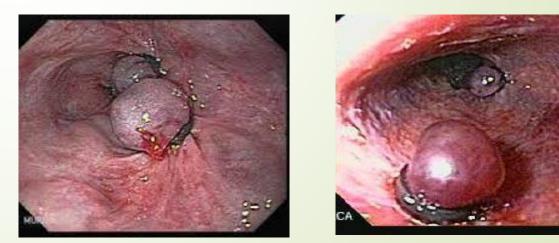
- All patients with cirrhosis and portal hypertension should be considered for endoscopic screening, and patients with large varices should receive primary prophylaxis with β- adrenergic blockers.
- Non-selective β-blockers, such as propranolol, are the medication of choice for
 - primary prophylaxis against variceal bleeding
 - Prevent variceal rebleeding

- The mechanism of action of β-blockers is complex, but they reduce portal hypertension by causing splanchnic vasoconstriction and reduced portal blood flow.
- Propranolol initiate with a dose of 10mg thrice daily, then dose should titrated to reduce resting heart by 25% (i.e., 55-60 beats/min).
- At higher doses β-blockers can have a more marked negative effect on cardiac output and so must be titrated accordingly.



Endoscopic management:

- Variceal band ligation uses prestretched rubber bands applied to the base of a varix which has been sucked into the banding chamber attached to the front of an endoscope.
- Variceal band ligation controls bleeding in approximately 90% of cases. It is associated with few side effects.



Endoscopic band ligation is performed at regular intervals (1-2 weeks) as part of an eradication program to eliminate the varices. Once varices have been eradicated, endoscopic follow-up can be performed less frequently (3 monthly) for the first year, then twice yearly thereafter.

- Several pharmacological agents are available for the emergency control of variceal bleeding.
- Most act by lowering portal venous pressure. They are generally used to control bleeding in addition to emergency endoscopic techniques.
- Vasopressin was the first vasoconstrictor used to reduce portal pressure in patients with actively bleeding varices. However, its associated systemic vasoconstrictive adverse effects limited its use.

- The synthetic vasopressin analogue, Terlipressin, is highly effective in controlling bleeding and in reducing mortality.
- Terlipressin can be administered in bolus doses every 4–6 h and has a longer biological activity and a more favorable side effect profile.
- Once a diagnosis of variceal bleeding has been established, a vasoactive drug infusion (usually terlipressin) should be started without further delay and continued for 2–5 days.

Somatostatin and the Somatostatin analogue, octreotide, are reported to reduce portal pressure. Although they are reported to cause less adverse effects on the systemic circulation, terlipressin remains the agent of choice.

Drugs used in the treatment of acute bleeding varices

Drug	Dosage and administration
Terlipressin	1–2 mg bolus 4–6 hourly for 48 h
Octreotide	50 µcg/h i.v. infusion for 48 h or longer if patient rebleeds

Are yon happy?

