

A Review on Heparin Induced Thrombocytopenia in Chronic Kidney Disease

Meera Ajay^{*1}, E. Samjeeva Kumar², Prasobh G.R³

¹ B Pharm student, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Centre, Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India. 695502.

² Associate Professor Department of Pharmacy Practice, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Centre, Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India. 695502

³ Principal, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Centre, Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India. 695502

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ABSTRACT: Heparin induced thrombocytopenia remains a commonly encountered iatrogenic complications of heparin therapy in hospitalized patients. In the nearly 6 decades since the initial description of the diseases, there have been major advances in understanding the pathogenesis of HIT, its varied clinical complications and treatment. Clinician treating patients with heparin should determine platelet count at baseline and hence forth at regular intervals beginning from fifth day of therapy. We recommended commencement of warfarin therapy concurrently with heparin infusion and discontinuation of heparin once warfarin has become effective.

KEYWORDS: Heparin, thrombocytopenia, warfarin, platelet, low molecular weight heparin

CHRONICKIDNEYDISEASE(CKD)

[1]. The term "chronickidneydisease" means damage to the kidneys and it cannot filter blood. If the damage is worse, the kidneys may stop working. This is called kidney failure, or end-stage renal disease (ESRD). If kidneys fail, the person will require dialysis or a kidney transplant in order to survive.

Etiology

- Diabetes
- High blood pressure (hypertension)
- Heart disease
- Having a family member with kidney disease
- Being African-American, Hispanic, Native American or Asian
- Being over 60 years old

I. INTRODUCTION

2. Classification of CKD based on GFR value

Stages of CKD	GFR	Description	Prevalence in the USA (% of population)
1	≥ 90 ml/min + proteinuria	Kidney damage with normal or increased GFR	3.3
2	60-89 ml/min proteinuria	Kidney damage with mildly decreased GFR	3.0
3	30-59 ml/min	Moderate reduction in GFR	4.3
4	13-29 ml/min	Severe reduction in GFR	0.2
5	< 15 ml/min	Kidney failure	0.1

3

• **Symptoms of kidney failure**

- Itching
- Muscle cramps
- Nausea and vomiting
- Not feeling hungry
- Swelling in your feet and ankles Too much urine(pee) or not enough urine
- Trouble catching your breath
- Trouble sleeping
- Back pain
- Diarrhea
- Fever
- Nose bleeds
- Rash
- Vomiting

4. **Complications of CKD**

Some of the common complications of CKD include:

- Anemia
- bone disease
- heart disease
- high potassium
- high calcium
- fluid buildup

5. **Stages of CKD**

[2]. Chronic kidney disease (CKD) refers to 5 stages of kidney damage, from very mild damage in Stage 1 to complete kidney failure in Stage 5. The stages of kidney disease are based on how well the kidneys can do their job—to filter waste and extra fluid out of the blood.

- Stage 1 with normal or high GFR (GFR > 90 mL/min)
- Stage 2 Mild CKD (GFR = 60-89 mL/min)
- Stage 3A Moderate CKD (GFR = 45-59 mL/min)
- Stage 3B Moderate CKD (GFR = 30-44 mL/min)
- Stage 4 Severe CKD (GFR = 15-29 mL/min)
- Stage 5 End Stage CKD (GFR < 15 mL/min)

6. **Diagnosis of CKD**

- eGFR (estimated glomerular filtration rate)

[3]. The eGFR

is a sign of how well your kidneys are cleaning your blood.

Body makes waste all the time. This waste goes into the blood. Healthy kidneys take the waste out of blood. One type of waste is called creatinine. If there is too much creatinine

in blood, it might be a sign that kidneys are having trouble filtering your blood.

- Urine test

This test is done to see if there is blood or protein in your urine (pee).

If you have blood or protein in your urine, it may be a sign that your kidneys are not working well.

- Blood pressure

This test is done to see how hard your heart is working to pump blood.

High blood pressure can cause kidney disease, but kidney disease can also cause high blood pressure. Sometimes high blood pressure is a sign that your kidneys are not working well.

For most people, a normal blood pressure is less than 120/80 (120 over 80).

7. **Treatment**

[4]. Damage to kidneys

is usually permanent. Although the damage cannot be fixed, you can take steps to keep your kidneys as healthy as possible for as long as possible.

- Control your blood sugar if you have diabetes.
- Keep a healthy blood pressure.
- Follow a low-salt, low-fat diet.
- Exercise at least 30 minutes on most days of the week.
- Keep a healthy weight.
- Do not smoke or use tobacco.
- Limit alcohol.
- Talk to your doctor about medicines that can help protect your kidneys.

If you catch kidney disease early, you may be able to prevent kidney failure. If your kidneys fail, you will need dialysis or a kidney transplant to survive.

8. **Drug therapy**

Diuretics:

- o High ceiling

Furosemide, Bumetanide, Torasemide Medium efficacy: Benzothiadiazines,

Hydrochlorothiazide, Hydroflumethiazide, Benzthiazide

- o Thiazide like

chlorthalidone, Metolazone, Xipamide, Indapamide, clopamide

- o Weak or adjunctive diuretics:

Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor-

Acetazolamide Osmotic diuretic -Mannitol,

isosorbide, Glycerol Potassium sparing diuretics:

Aldosterone antagonist Renalepithelial Na⁺chan

nelinhibitors: Amiloride

Hyperkalemia

1. Iv 10% calcium gluconate
2. Raise threshold for excitation
3. Sodium bicarbonate
4. Shift potassium into cells
5. Correct acidosis
6. Sodium polystyrene sulfonate
7. Cation exchange resin
8. Resin in bowel exchange potassium
9. Evacuate potassium rich stool from body
10. Educate patient that diarrhea may occur due to laxative.

[5]. Drugs associated with increased serum levels of potassium, such as beta-blockers, mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists, calcineurin, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatories, trimethoprim, and heparin should be adjusted or replaced in the occurrence of this complication

Hypertension

1. Antihypertensive drugs
 2. Diuretics
 3. Beta adrenergic blockers
 4. Calcium channel blockers
 5. Angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors
 6. Angiotensin receptor blocker agents.
- Hypertension is both a common result and a frequent cause of chronic kidney disease. It may be prevented by adequate treatment, thereby preventing a further decline in renal function.

Renal osteodystrophy

1. Phosphate intake restricted to <1000mg/day
2. Phosphate binder
3. Calcium carbonate
4. Bind phosphate in bowel and excreted
5. Sevelamer hydrochloride
6. Lower cholesterol and LDLs

[6]. Renal osteodystrophy describes the four types of bone disease associated with chronic kidney disease:

- I. Secondary hyperparathyroidism
- II. Osteomalacia
- III. Mixed renal osteodystrophy
- IV. Adynamic bone disease

Anemia

1. Erythropoietin
2. Epoetin alfa
3. Administered IV or subcutaneously
4. Increased hemoglobin and hematocrit in 2 to 3 weeks

[7]. Complications

1. Hypertension
2. Headache
3. Iron supplement
4. If plasma fructin <100mg/ml

Side effect

1. Gastric irritation, constipation
2. May make stool dark in color
3. Folic acid supplement
4. Needed for RBC formation
5. Removed by dialysis
6. Avoid blood transfusion
7. Nutritional therapy
8. Protein restriction
9. Water restriction

9. Treating complications

[8]. Kidney disease complications can be controlled to make more comfortable. Treatment may include:

- High blood pressure medications. People with kidney disease may experience worsening high blood pressure. Your doctor may recommend medications to lower your blood pressure — commonly angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors or angiotensin II receptor blockers — and to preserve kidney function. High blood pressure medications can initially decrease kidney function and change electrolyte levels, so you may need frequent blood tests to monitor your condition. Your doctor will likely also recommend a water pill (diuretic) and a low-salt diet.
- Medications to lower cholesterol levels. Your doctor may recommend medications called statins to lower your cholesterol. People with chronic kidney disease often experience high levels of bad cholesterol, which can increase the risk of heart disease.
- Medications to treat anemia. In certain situations, your doctor may recommend supplements of the hormone erythropoietin (uh-rith-roe-POI-uh-tin), sometimes with added iron. Erythropoietin supplements aid in production of more red blood cells, which may relieve fatigue and weakness associated with anemia.
- Medications to protect your bones. Your doctor may prescribe calcium and vitamin D supplements to prevent weak bones and lower your risk of fracture. You may also

taken medication known as phosphate binders to lower the amount of phosphate in your blood, and protect your blood vessels from damage by calcium deposits (calcification).

- A lower protein diet to minimize waste products in your blood. As your body processes protein from foods, it creates waste products that your kidneys must filter from your blood. Your doctor may also ask you to meet with a dietitian who can suggest ways to lower your protein intake while still eating a healthy diet.

10. Treatment for end-stage kidney disease

If your kidneys can't keep up with waste and fluid clearance on their own and you develop complete or near-complete kidney failure, you have end-stage kidney disease. At that point, you need dialysis or a kidney transplant.

- [9]. Dialysis. Dialysis artificially removes waste products and extra fluid from your blood when your kidneys can no longer do this. In hemodialysis, a machine filters waste and excess fluids from your blood. For a period of time, the dialysis solution drains from your body, carrying the waste with it.
- Kidney transplant. A kidney transplant involves surgically placing a healthy kidney from a donor into your body. For some who choose not to have dialysis or a kidney transplant, a third option is to treat kidney failure with conservative measures. Potential future treatments

Regenerative medicine holds the potential to fully heal damaged tissues and organs, offering solutions and hope for people who have conditions that today are beyond repair.

Regenerative medicine approaches include:

- Boosting the body's natural ability to heal itself
- Using healthy cells, tissues or organs from a living or deceased donor to replace damaged ones
- Delivering specific types of cells or cell products to diseased tissues or organs to restore tissue and organ function.

11 Patient counseling

Lifestyle and home remedies

As part of your treatment for chronic kidney disease, your doctor may recommend a special diet to help support your kidneys and limit the work they must do.

Ask your doctor for a referral to a dietitian who can analyze your current diet and suggest ways to make your diet easier on your kidneys. Depending on your situation, kidney function and overall health, your dietitian may recommend that you:

- [10]. Avoid products with added salt. Lower the amount of sodium you eat each day by avoiding products with added salt, including many convenience foods, such as frozen dinners, canned soups and fast foods. Other foods with added salt include salty snack foods, canned vegetables, and processed meats and cheeses.
- Choose lower potassium foods. Your dietitian may recommend that you choose lower potassium foods at each meal. High-potassium foods include bananas, oranges, potatoes, spinach and tomatoes. Be aware that many salt substitutes contain potassium, so you generally should avoid them if you have kidney failure.
- Limit the amount of protein you eat. Your dietitian will estimate the appropriate number of grams of protein you need each day and make recommendations based on that amount. High-protein foods include lean meats, eggs, milk, cheese and beans. Low-protein foods include vegetables, fruits, breads and cereals.

12 Prevention of CKD

[11]. If the patient is having diabetes or high blood pressure, working with doctor to keep the blood sugar and blood pressure under control is the best way to prevent kidney disease.

Living a healthy lifestyle can help prevent diabetes, high blood pressure and kidney disease, or help keep them under control. Follow these tips to lower your risk for kidney disease and the problems that cause it:

- Follow a low-salt, low-fat diet
- Exercise at least 30 minutes on most days of the week
- Have regular check-ups with your doctor
- Don't smoke or use tobacco
- Limit alcohol

13. HEPARIN

[12]. Heparin is a sulfated polysaccharide with a molecular weight range of 3000 to 30 000 Da (mean, 15 000 Da). Heparin is used to treat and prevent blood clots caused by certain medical conditions or medical procedures. It is also certain medicines can increase your risk of bleeding while you are using heparin, such as aspirin or other NSAIDs (nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs) including ibuprofen (Advil, Motrin), naproxen (Aleve, Naprosyn, Naprelan, Treximet), celecoxib (Celebrex), diclofenac (Arthrotec, Cambia, Cataflam, Voltaren, Flector Patch, Pennsaid, Solareze), indomethacin (Indocin), meloxicam (Mobic), ketoprofen (Orudis), ketorolac (Toradol), mefenamic acid (Ponstel), nabumetone (Relafen), piroxicam (Feldene), and others. This includes prescription, over-the-counter, vitamin, and herbal products. Do not start a new medication without telling your doctor before surgery to reduce the risk of blood clots.

Forms of heparin

Unfractionated heparin

Low molecular weight heparin

Mechanism of action

It produces its major anticoagulant effect by inactivating thrombin and activated factor X (factor Xa) through an antithrombin (AT)-dependent mechanism. Heparin binds to AT through a high affinity pentasaccharide, which is present on about a third of heparin molecules. For inhibition of thrombin, heparin must bind to both the coagulation enzyme and AT, whereas binding to the enzyme is not required for inhibition of factor Xa. Molecules of heparin with fewer than 18 saccharides lack the chain length to bridge between thrombin and AT and therefore are unable to inhibit thrombin. In contrast, very small heparin fragments containing the pentasaccharide sequence inhibit factor Xa via AT. By inactivating thrombin, heparin not only prevents fibrin formation but also inhibits thrombin-induced activation of platelets and of factors V and VIII.

[13]. The main limitation of heparin results from its propensity to bind to positively charged proteins and surfaces. Pharmacokinetic limitations are caused by AT-independent binding of heparin to plasma proteins, proteins released from platelets, and endothelial cells, resulting in a variable anticoagulant

response and the phenomenon of heparin resistance. AT-independent binding to macrophages and endothelial cells also results in dose-dependent clearance. Other limitations include (1) the inability of heparin to inactivate factor Xa in the prothrombinase complex or thrombin bound to fibrin or to subendothelial surfaces and (2) the complications of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia and osteopenia.

- Because the anticoagulant response to heparin varies among patients with thromboembolic disorders, it is standard practice to adjust the dose of heparin and monitor its effect by measurement of the activated thromboplastin time (APTT) or, when very high doses are used, by the activated clotting time (ACT).
- The value of the APTT is limited because commercial APTT reagents vary considerably in responsiveness to heparin. The APTT should be measured ≈ 6 hours after a bolus dose of heparin, and the continuous intravenous (IV) dose should be adjusted according to the result. Various heparin dose-adjustment nomograms have been developed, but none are applicable to all APTT reagents, and the therapeutic range must be tailored accordingly. Standardization can be achieved by calibration against plasma heparin concentration by using a therapeutic range of 0.3 to 0.7 U/mL, based on an anti-factor Xa chromogenic assay, or a heparin level of 0.2 to 0.4 U/mL, by protamine sulfate titration. The dose of heparin should be reduced when used concurrently with fibrinolytic agents or IV platelet glycoprotein (GP) IIb/III receptor antagonists.

14. Drug Therapy

- [14]. Anticoagulants: parenteral anticoagulants
- Indirect thrombin inhibitors - Heparin, low molecular weight heparins (Enoxaparin, Reviparin, Dalteparin) Fondaparinux, Danaparoid
- Direct thrombin inhibitors - lepirudin, Bivalirudin, Argatroban
- Oral anticoagulant: Direct factor Xa inhibitor Rivaroxaban
- Oral direct thrombin inhibitor : Dabigatran etexilate
- Coumarin derivatives: warfarin sodium, Acenocoumarol, Ethylbiscoumacetate

- In vitro anticoagulants: Heparin, sodium edetate, sodium citrate, sodium oxalate

15. Pharmacology

[15]. Heparin is given parenterally because it is not absorbed from the gut, due to its high negative charge and large size. Because of its short biologic half-life of about one hour, heparin must be given frequently. Unfractionated heparin has a half-life of about one to two hours after infusion whereas LMWH has a half-life of four to five hours. The use of LMWH has allowed once-daily dosing, thus not requiring a continuous infusion of the drug. If long-term anticoagulation is required, heparin is often used only to commence anticoagulation therapy until an oral anticoagulant, e.g. warfarin, takes effect.

The anticoagulant activity of heparin is mainly attributable to the action of a specific pentasaccharide sequence that acts in concert with antithrombin, a plasma coagulation factor inhibitor. However, it is increasingly recognized that heparin has many other pharmacological properties, including but not limited to antiviral, anti-inflammatory, and anti-metastatic actions. Many of these activities are independent of its anticoagulant activity, although the mechanisms of these other activities are recurrently less well defined.

Nonetheless, heparin is being exploited for clinical uses beyond anticoagulation and developed for a wider range of clinical disorders.

16. Pharmacokinetic:

Heparin binds reversibly to its target sites of action, antithrombin and the other serine proteases involved in coagulation, especially activated factor X. It also binds to other plasma proteins, including fibrinogen, plasmin, albumin, and lipases. The volume of distribution of heparin is then, under most circumstances, limited to the plasma volume. In all likelihood, the anticoagulant is transferred to reticuloendothelial cells, which may also provide the means for its degradation. Many of the difficulties inherent in assessing the kinetic properties of heparin, as well as its clinical efficacy, may be attributed to:

- (1) [16]. its molecular heterogeneity;
- (2) its wide spectrum of binding sites and their respective kinetic properties and dissociation constants;

- (3) differences among methods for measuring heparin effect and concentration;
- (4) the dose dependence of the drug's half-life;
- (5) variation in patient response to heparin;
- (6) the specific indication associated with it; and
- (7) the presence of hypercoagulation syndromes associated with deficits of antithrombin.

Neither renal nor hepatic disease, nor the biological tissues from which heparins are extracted commercially, seem to influence the drug's kinetic properties as much as variations in clearance and response to heparin among individual patients. Many comparisons among available studies are difficult because of the wide variation in the assay methods employed in them. It would appear that optimum therapy with heparin can be achieved only when the individual patient's response to, and rate of elimination of, heparin are taken into account concurrently.

Absorption: Heparin is not absorbed from GI, must be given IV or subcutaneously.

Metabolism: metabolized in liver and reticuloendothelial system.

Elimination: The average half life is 1.5 hrs and is dose dependent excreted in the urine.

Natural degradation or clearance:

[17]. Lower doses of heparin have a much shorter half-life than larger ones. Heparin binding to macrophage cells is internalized and depolymerized by the macrophages. It also rapidly binds to endothelial cells, which precludes the binding to antithrombin that results in anticoagulant action. For higher doses of heparin, endothelial cell binding will be saturated, such that clearance of heparin from the bloodstream by the kidneys will be a lower process.

Dosage and administration

- Intravenously, 20 to 40,000 unit/day dose
- Subcutaneously, 8,000 to 10,000 units every 8h

Contraindications

- Severe thrombocytopenia
- Patient in whom suitable blood coagulation test cannot be performed
- Hypersensitivity to heparin or any other product in

- Ingredients
- Do not administer product containing benzyl alcohol as a preservative to neonates, infants, pregnant women, or breastfeeding women
- Patients with hypersensitivity to product and bisulfates

Management

Heparin has an immediate effect on blood clotting but it acts for only 4-6 hours. The effect of heparin is best assessed by APTT. Act by activating antithrombin and inactivates Xa, I, Xa etc

- [18]. Consult the physician to determine the safety of stopping heparin during postoperative periods.
- Delay the surgery for 6 hours after stopping heparin or use of heparin antagonist like protamine sulphate.
- Start heparin once a good clot is formed.

Drug interaction

[19]. Interaction with: Alteplase

Antihistamines Antithrombin Cephalosporin Penicillin Parenteral

Interactions

- Prophylaxis and treatment of venous thromboembolism and pulmonary embolism;
- Atrial fibrillation with embolization;
- Prevention of clotting in arterial and cardiac surgery;
- Prophylaxis and treatment of peripheral arterial embolism;
- Anticoagulant use in blood transfusions, extracorporeal circulation, and dialysis procedures.

Adverse reaction

- Hematologic
- Cardiovascular
- Dermatologic
- Musculoskeletal
- Endocrine

Clinical Use of Heparin

[20]. Heparin is effective for prevention and treatment of venous thrombosis and pulmonary embolism (PE), for prevention of mural thrombosis after myocardial infarction (MI), and for treatment of patients with unstable angina and

MI. Although heparin is used to prevent acute thrombosis after coronary thrombolysis, recent reports question the benefits of heparin in this setting where patients are also treated with aspirin

17. THROMBOCYTOPENIA

Thrombocytopenia is a condition in which it shows low blood platelet count. Platelets (thrombocytes) are colorless blood cells that help blood clot. Platelets stop bleeding by clumping and forming plugs in blood vessel injuries. Thrombocytopenia might occur as a result of a bone marrow disorder such as leukemia or an immune system problem. It affects both children and adults. Thrombocytopenia can be mild and cause few signs or symptoms. In rare cases, the number of platelets can be so low that dangerous internal bleeding occurs.

[21].

Platelets initiate a sequence of reactions that eventually lead to the formation of a blood clot.

Thrombocytopenia is lower than a normal number of platelets (less than 150,000 platelets per microliter) in the blood. Normal platelet counts range from 150,000 to 400,000 per microliter in the blood.

Platelets are one of the cellular components of the blood along with white and red blood cells. Platelets play an important role in clotting and bleeding. Platelets are made in the bone marrow similar to other cells in the blood. The fragments of these megakaryocytes are platelets that are released into the bloodstream. The circulating platelets make up about two-thirds of the platelets that are released from the bone marrow. The other third is typically stored (sequestered) in the spleen **Signs and symptoms may include:**

- Thrombocytopenia or low platelet count is lower than a normal number of platelets (less than 150,000 platelets per microliter) in the blood.
- Thrombocytopenia may be inherited or acquired when conditions occur, such as the use of certain drugs.
- Causes of thrombocytopenia can be classified into three groups:
 - Diminished production (caused by viral infections, vitamin deficiencies, aplastic anemia, drug-induced)
 - Increased destruction (caused by drugs, heparin [HIT], idiopathic, pregnancy, immune system)
 - Sequestration (caused by an enlarged spleen, neonatal, gestational, pregnancy)

- Thrombocytopenic symptoms may include:
 - Petechiae (superficial tiny areas of bleeding into the skin resulting in small reddish spots)
 - Fatigue
 - Purpura (easy or excessive bruising)
 - Prolonged bleeding cuts
 - Spontaneous bleeding from the gums or nose
 - Jaundice
 - Heavy menstrual bleeding that's unusual for the female
 - Blood in the urine or stools
 - Enlarged spleen (splenomegaly)
 - Bleeding that will not stop
 - DVT (deep vein thrombosis)
- Individuals should seek medical care if they have one or more of these symptoms.
- Doctor that may be consulted for thrombocytopenia include emergency medicine, internal medicine, hematologists, and immunologists.
- The diagnosis of thrombocytopenia is confirmed by blood tests that determine platelet count.
- Treatment of thrombocytopenia varies depending on the cause and the severity of the condition.
- Complications of thrombocytopenia can be severe (organ damage and death).
- If treated early and effectively, the prognosis for thrombocytopenia is usually good. However, if diagnosed later in the disease process, or if HIT is the cause, the prognosis decreases.

Causes

- Thrombocytopenia means you have fewer than 150,000 platelets per microliter of circulating blood. Because each platelet lives only about 10 days, your body normally renews your platelets supply continually by producing new platelets in your bone marrow.
- [22]. Thrombocytopenia rarely is inherited; it can be caused by a number of medications or conditions. Whatever the cause, circulating platelets are reduced by one or more of the following processes: trapping of platelets in the spleen, decreased

platelet production or increased destruction of platelets.

- It has many causes. You may hear it called by its old name, idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. Although doctors

don't know what causes primary ITP, they know that it happens when your immune system -- your body's main defense against disease -- doesn't work right. Your antibodies, which are supposed to attack infections, instead mistakenly destroy your platelets.

Trapped platelets

The spleen is a small organ about the size of your fist situated just below your ribcage on the left side of your abdomen. Normally, your spleen works to fight infection and filter unwanted material from your blood. An enlarged spleen — which can be caused by a number of disorders — can harbor too many platelets, which decreases the number of platelets in circulation.

Decreased production of platelets

Platelets are produced in your bone marrow. Factors that can decrease platelet production include:

- Leukemia and other cancers
- Some types of anemia
- Viral infections, such as hepatitis C or HIV
- Chemotherapy drugs and radiation therapy
- Heavy alcohol consumption

Increased breakdown of platelets

Some conditions can cause your body to use up

or destroy platelets

faster than they're reproduced, leading to a shortage of platelets

in your bloodstream. Examples of such conditions include:

- Pregnancy. Thrombocytopenia caused by pregnancy is usually mild and improves soon after childbirth.
- Immune thrombocytopenia. Autoimmune diseases, such as lupus and rheumatoid arthritis, cause this type. The body's immune system mistakenly attacks and destroys platelets. If the exact cause of this condition isn't known, it's called idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. This type more often affects children.
- Bacteria in the blood. Severe bacterial infections involving the blood (bacteremia) can destroy platelets.
- Thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura. This is a rare condition that occurs when small blood clots suddenly form throughout your body, using up large numbers of platelets.
- Hemolytic uremic syndrome. This rare disorder causes a sharp drop in platelets,

destruction of red blood cells and impairs kidney function.

- Medications. Certain medications can reduce the number of platelets in your blood. Sometimes a drug confuses the immune system and causes it to destroy platelets. Examples include heparin, quinine, sulfa-containing antibiotics and anticonvulsants.

Drug therapy

- Thromboxane synthesis inhibitor: Aspirin
- Platelet cAMP enhancer: Dipyridamole
- P2Y₁₂ receptor blockers: Ticlopidine, clopidogrel
- Gpantagonist: Abciximab, Eptifibatide

Complications

[23]. Internal bleeding is very dangerous whereas platelet count falls below 10,000 platelets per microliter. Severe thrombocytopenia can cause bleeding into the brain.

Diagnosis

- Blood test. A complete blood count determines the number of blood cells, including platelets, in a sample of your blood.
- Physical exam, including a complete medical history. He or she will also ask you about illnesses you've had and the types of medications and supplements you've recently taken.

Treatment

Thrombocytopenia can last for days or years. People with mild thrombocytopenia might not need treatment. For people who do need treatment for thrombocytopenia, treatment depends on its cause and how severe it is.

If your thrombocytopenia is caused by an underlying condition or a medication, addressing that cause might cure it. For example, if you have heparin-induced thrombocytopenia, your doctor can prescribe a different blood-thinning drug. Other treatments might involve:

- Blood or platelet transfusions. If your platelet level becomes too low, your doctor can replace lost blood with transfusions of packed red blood cells or platelets.

18.

HEPARIN-INDUCED THROMBOCYTOPENIA

- [24]. Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT) is the development of thrombocytopenia (a low

platelet count), due to the administration of various forms of heparin, an anticoagulant. HIT predisposes to thrombosis (the abnormal formation of blood clots inside a blood vessel) because platelets release microparticles that activate thrombin, thereby leading to thrombosis. When thrombosis is identified the condition is called heparin-induced thrombocytopenia and thrombosis (HIT). If someone receiving heparin develops new or worsening thrombosis, or if the platelet count falls, HIT can be confirmed with specific blood tests.

- The treatment of HIT requires stopping heparin treatment, and both protection from thrombosis and choice of an agent that will not reduce the platelet count any further. Several alternatives are available for this purpose; mainly used are:

Danaparoid, Fondaparinux, Argatroban, Bivalirudin

Etiology

Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT) is caused by antibodies that bind to complexes of heparin and platelet factor 4 (PF4), activating the platelets and promoting a prothrombotic state.

HIT is more frequently encountered with unfractionated heparin (UFH) than with low molecular weight heparin (LMWH).

The risk of HIT is highest with prolonged use of heparin for postoperative thromboprophylaxis. However, case studies have also demonstrated the possibility of developing HIT with minimal heparin exposure via intravascular flushes to maintain the patency of indwelling arterial or venous catheters.

Fondaparinux is a synthetic pentasaccharide that catalyzes the inhibition of factor Xa (but not thrombin) by antithrombin, and thus inhibits thrombin generation. A study suggested that fondaparinux may be associated with formation of anti-PF4/heparin antibodies but, in contrast to LMWH, is unlikely to cause HIT because of the poor reactivity of antibodies against PF4/fondaparinux.

Pathophysiology

Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia is defined as a decrease in platelet count during or shortly following exposure to heparin [1]. Although it is almost a century since the discovery of heparin, the defining features of HIT were first described in the early 1970s [2] followed by increasing reports of a condition suspected to have an underlying immunological basis. We now know

that HIT is a potentially devastating immune-mediated reaction caused by the development of IgG antibodies against the complex of heparin and platelet factor 4 [3]. IgG/PF4/heparin complexes bind and activate circulating platelets through their Fc receptors promoting thrombin generation and platelet aggregation. Paradoxically, this is clinically manifested by an increased propensity for arterial/venous thrombosis despite a falling platelet count. The condition often will affect patient groups who are already at an increased thrombotic risk due to their clinical predicament such as those with renal failure or requiring renal replacement therapy. Such patients will often have coexistent causes for thrombocytopenia other than HIT.

Complications

Possible complications of HIT include the following:

- Deep venous thrombosis
- Pulmonary embolism
- Myocardial infarction
- Occlusion of limb arteries (possibly resulting in amputation)
- Transient ischemic attack and stroke
- Skin necrosis
- End-organ damage (eg, adrenal, bowel, spleen, gall bladder, or hepatic infarction; renal failure)
- Death

Epidemiology

In the United States, approximately 12 million individuals, or one third of hospitalized patients, have some heparin exposure yearly. A study by Smythe and colleagues estimated the frequency of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT) to be 0.76% in patients receiving therapeutic doses of intravenous unfractionated heparin (UFH) and less than 0.1% in patients receiving antithrombotic

prophylaxis with subcutaneous UFH, with an overall risk of HIT of about 0.2% in all heparin-exposed patients.

Other studies in the literature quote frequencies as high as 1-

5%. High frequencies of HIT are especially common in surgical patients receiving prolonged postoperative thromboprophylaxis (eg, for 10-14 days following orthopedic surgery or after coronary artery bypass and/or valve replacement surgery.) Mortality/Morbidity

HIT is a severe prothrombotic condition, with affected individuals having a greater than 50% risk of developing new thromboembolic events. The mortality rate is approximately 20%, and approximately 10% of patients require

amputations or suffer other major morbidity. A consecutive study with 108 hospitalized patients diagnosed with HIT showed that thrombotic complications occurred in about 29%. Early, severe falls in platelet counts in elderly patients receiving heparin appear to be associated with the development of thrombotic complications.

Thrombosis associated with HIT can involve the arterial system, the venous system, or both. Thrombotic complications may include deep venous thrombosis, stroke, myocardial infarction, limb ischemia, and, rarely, ischemia of other organs. The thrombotic complications are fatal in about 29% of patients, and an additional 21% have to undergo limb amputations. Although HIT is a hypercoagulable disorder, patients remain at risk for major bleeding. A review by Pishko et al found that over a third of patients with HIT who were exposed to an alternative anticoagulant experienced a major bleeding event.

Diagnosis

HIT is a clinical-pathological syndrome where an observed fall in the platelet count should prompt the clinician to first weigh the likelihood of a diagnosis of HIT on clinical grounds. The 4T scoring system is most widely known and is used to assess how compatible the clinical picture is with a diagnosis of HIT. Interestingly, scoring systems used to assess the clinical pre-test probability of HIT may underscore patients who have a similar likelihood for both HIT and other causes for thrombocytopenia such as patients with renal failure. Because of the challenges of clinical diagnosis, physicians rely heavily on laboratory testing; however, it is important to recognize that HIT antibody formation may occur without consequential thrombocytopenia and the full clinical HIT picture.

Laboratory testing to detect antibody formation in HIT can be

broadly classified into platelet activation assays or immunological assays targeted towards PF4 or heparin. Functional tests, which measure platelet activity in the presence of the patient's serum and heparin, e.g. heparin-induced platelet aggregation and the serotonin release assay offer greater specificity; however, these tests are complex and technically demanding. Consequently, most tend to perform the ELISA with the limitation that low titre antibodies of no clinical significance may be detected. As it is only IgG antibodies that activate platelets, IgG-specific immunological assays are now commercially

available. A further consideration in interpreting the test results relates to the absolute optical density (OD) values, a marker of antibody levels where increased levels correspond to a greater risk of HIT. The 2012 BCSH Guidelines suggest that a cut-off point for a positive test should be used when using an immunological ELISA to look for HIT antibodies, rather than simply reporting a positive or negative. A retrospective study of the trend of sequential quantitative results obtained using an ELISA immunoassay showed that initial high negative OD values (0.7–1.0) have a significant chance of becoming clearly positive (>1.0) with repeat testing suggesting sequential testing in such cases.

A pre-test probability of at least 4 using the 4T Scoring System should be taken together with the type of assay used and the quantitative result to determine a post-test probability. In routine clinical practice, as many clinicians do not have direct access to the complete portfolio of laboratory assays, it would be reasonable to discuss suspected cases and investigation with the haematology team and laboratory.

Once clinically suspected, the principles of treatment involve cessation of all heparin formulations and initiation of an appropriate alternative anticoagulant. Discontinuation of the trigger alone is not sufficient as there needs to be targeted treatment against the thrombin storm as well as protection against subsequent thrombotic events, which occur in as many as 40–50% of the patients over the next several days or weeks. Reflex platelet transfusion directed toward thrombocytopenia or minor bleeding is also contraindicated and should only be reserved for life-threatening haemorrhage to avoid potential exacerbation of thrombotic risk.

If HIT is suspected in a dialysis patient, dialysis needs to be performed heparin free. However, saline infusions are labour intensive and seem to have a high treatment failure rate and daily dialysis is not always feasible. Using one of the available alternative anticoagulants might be a more long-term option. Currently, three non-heparin anticoagulants that do not cross-react with HIT antibodies, danaparoid, lepirudin and argatroban are available for anticoagulation in HIT.

Where HIT occurs with unfractionated heparin, LMWH should not be used as an alternative due to up to 50% cross reactivity. Although the HIT syndrome in itself is rarely associated with bleeding, the alternative

anticoagulant treatment options carry a bleeding risk and therefore should be carefully chosen.

The ideal alternative for patients on haemodialysis might be argatroban, a synthetic thrombin inhibitor, as it is not excreted by the kidneys and does not require renal dose adjustment. Monitoring is recommended using the activated partial thromboplastin time (APTT) aiming for a target range of 1.5–3.0. Standard initial dosing is 2 µg/kg/min as a continuous infusion except for critical care patients where the SmPC suggests 0.5 µg/kg/min. Standard initial dosing is recommended as a continuous infusion except for critical care patients where the SmPC provides a reduced dosing regimen. It remains unclear if argatroban is dialysable. Whilst one author demonstrated that there was only an insignificant amount of argatroban removed through dialysis compared with endogenous clearance, the product labelling suggests that 20% of the drug can be cleared through haemodialysis.

Danaparoid can also be used however; patients with significant renal disease should receive reduced dosing regimens. Danaparoid is a conjugate of heparin sulphate, dermatansulphate and chondroitin.

Treatment

[25]. Relative to heparin, danaparoid has an increased antifactor Xa: anti-factor IIa activity of around 28:1 versus 1:1. The drug has a predictable dose response and therefore monitoring is usually only required in certain patient populations, in particular those with severe renal disease and body weight less than or greater than 55 or 90 kg, respectively. Prophylactic and therapeutic dosing regimens are available; however, studies suggest that low-dose regimens may be associated with a higher rate of new thrombotic events. Monitoring is performed using the anti-Xa assay using danaparoid sodium as the standard. The use of danaparoid has been studied in critically ill patients and those undergoing haemofiltration/haemodialysis. Example regimes for haemofiltration include 100–400 U/h iv to achieve anti-Xa levels of 0.5–1 U/mL and 40 U/kg iv for haemodialysis. Example regimes for haemofiltration and haemodialysis have been reported. It is not known if danaparoid is dialysable.

Lepirudin, a recombinant hirudin, is a natural thrombin inhibitor and has been shown to reduce the risk of death, new thromboembolic complications and limb amputation during treatment. Standard dosing consists of 0.4 mg/kg bolus followed by 0.15 mg/kg/hr and standard

dosing consists of a bolus followed by an infusion and monitoring employs the APTT aiming for a range of 1.5–2.5. Lepirudin should not be given if the APTT is >2.5 times the normal. The $t_{1/2}$ of lepirudin is significantly prolonged with reduced renal function and therefore 50% reduced dosing for bolus and infusion is advised where creatinine levels are 1.5–2.0 mg/dL and further caution with greater renal impairment. For dialysis patients, where the $t_{1/2}$ is around 50 h, altered doses have been advised pre-dialysis to successfully maintain anticoagulation through dialysis. Lepirudin is dialysable if used with high-flux polysulfonated dialysers.

Although unlicensed in HIT, fondaparinux, a synthetic polysaccharide, has been used favourably in patients with HIT. It lacks the sugar domain necessary to complex with PF4, making the likelihood of inducing HIT extremely low. A number of reports exist detailing its favourable use in HIT, in patients with renal failure and on haemodialysis. The initial daily dose is as per usual (7.5 mg/d for a patient weighing between 50 and 100 kg), but anti-Xa levels are used to judge subsequent doses. Maintenance doses may only require 2.5 or 5 mg daily. Prospective studies suggest that the risk for thrombosis can persist for up to 6 weeks; therefore, a minimum of 2 months has been advised. Warfarin initiation can be considered once the platelet count has returned to baseline using a regime overlapping with the specific alternative anticoagulant that the patient has been receiving. Discontinuation of heparin and initiation of warfarin are not recommended because of reports of venous limb gangrene most likely secondary to warfarin induce protein C depletion combined with the ongoing thrombotic process.

Finally, it is worthwhile to provide affected patients with information about their condition and advice not only about the risk of thrombosis in the acute setting but also to highlight that should they require heparin in the next 120 days, antibody testing may be required as well as the use of alternative anticoagulation. As with other drug-induced adverse events, the patient's case notes should be marked to advise clinicians of future risk. Accurate recognition, evaluation and appropriate treatment of HIT in renal patients remain a considerable challenge and an optimal management regime is not yet backed by sufficient clinical evidence. Due to the low diagnostic specificity of the widely applied PF4-dependent immunoassays to look for HIT antibodies, ironically

there has been a recent epidemic in over-diagnosing HIT. Testing only for IgG class antibodies where the more specific functional assays are not available should improve this. Taking into consideration patient and diagnostic variability, it would seem prudent to discuss management cross-speciality in particular dosing regimens for drugs not typically used outside of the HIT arena. For the future it remains to be seen if the current trend to the increasing use of LMWHs for dialysis will translate into a reduced incidence of HIT in chronic haemodialysis patients. It is yet to be seen what therapeutic role the new oral anticoagulants may play in this niche area.

Management of thrombocytopenia

The management of patients suspected of HIT begins at the time of consultation, often long before results of laboratory testing are available. For patients with a low clinical suspicion of HIT, we do not obtain testing and recommend continuation of heparin therapy. For patients with an intermediate or high clinical suspicion of HIT, we discontinue heparin and initiate an alternative anticoagulant.

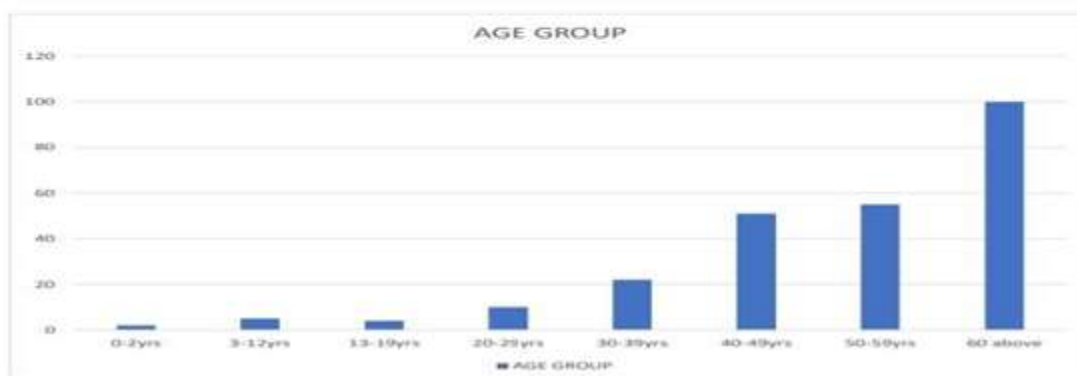
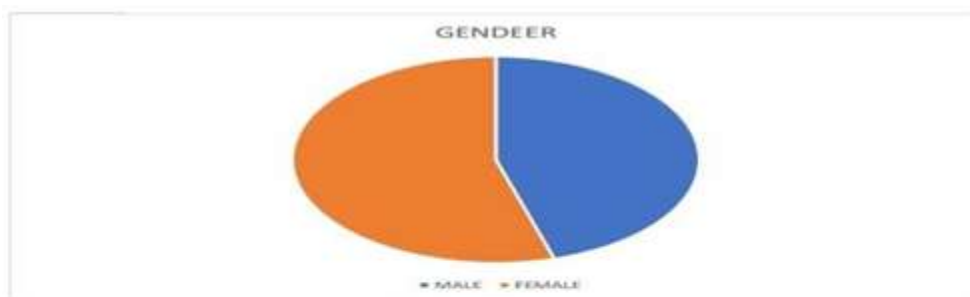
Argatroban is the only non-heparin anticoagulant currently approved by the Food and Drug Administration for the treatment of HIT, but other agents such as bivalirudin and fondaparinux are increasingly used based on successful clinical experience. Due to space limitations, we will not review the pharmacology, dosing, and clinical experience of the non-heparin anticoagulants in HIT. The reader is referred to recent excellent comprehensive reviews on these topics.^{1,36} The choice of alternative anticoagulant is primarily driven by comorbidities and half-life considerations. We prefer to use parenteral direct thrombin inhibitors (DTI) in the critically ill patient, often due to the need for procedural interventions and/or underlying bleeding risk in these patients, in whom a shorter half-life is desirable. We recommend judicious use of these alternative anticoagulants due to high hemorrhagic potential and lack of an antidote. If laboratory evaluation later reveals a low likelihood of HIT, we discontinue alternative anticoagulants and resume heparin therapy. For patients with a laboratory-confirmed diagnosis of isolated HIT, we recommend ultrasound imaging of upper and lower extremities to rule out subclinical thrombosis, because findings of thromboembolic complications would alter the duration of anticoagulation therapy. Once the patient is anticoagulated on an alternative therapy and platelet

counts have increased back to baseline, we initiate warfarin therapy at a low dose (5 mg). Current guidelines recommend up to 4 weeks of anticoagulation with warfarin for patients with isolated HIT and a minimum of 3 months for patients with HIT complicated by thrombosis. For patients with refractory or progressive thromboses on DTIs, we use plasmapheresis with fresh-frozen plasma replacement as salvage therapy to reduce antibody burden. It should be noted that the use of plasmapheresis in HIT is not a categorized indication by the American Society of Apheresis.

19. METHODOLOGY

Disease review study done by receiving the various method throughout the study period. The literature were collected from various sources. These literature are combined and the result of the study were taken and the discussion and conclusion were made. Study period starts from February to September. Study site at Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Center.

II. RESULT



III. DISCUSSION

Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT) is a severe complication that can occur in patients exposed to any form or amount of heparin products. A fall in platelet count and a hypercoagulable state characterize HIT. Here we aim to access the potential complication of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia and recommended treatment of HIT.

The current study revealed that female patients (52%) were more than

males (48%) and the majority of the study population lies between the age group of 22 to 86 years. The mean age of patient with HIT type II was 62.4 years. According to the study, it has been demonstrated that the prevalence of HIT type II is less common in medical patients than surgical patients (0.7% vs 5%) and has a lower incidence with low molecular weight heparin than unfractionated heparin (0.5% vs 5%).

The review by Chang and Parikh demonstrated that

both general and dialysis population, the frequency of HIT Type II is always significantly lower than the presence of HIAs. This is supported by the work of Palomo et al [12] who could find no significant relationship between the presence of HIA and either thrombocytopenia or thrombosis.

To our knowledge there has only been one study aimed at determining the incidence of HIT type II. Yamamoto et al [7] found an incidence of 3.5% in 154 consecutive patients. Increased incidence can be explained by low threshold. Yamamoto et al had for screening for HIAs with indication such as clot in drip chamber or increased circuit pressure associated with 20% of drop in platelet count. 28% of renal units had cases of HIT type II with prevalence ranging from 0.22% to 1.74%.

Haemodialysis patients with HIT type II had an average age of 62 years and no significant difference in gender. The prevalence is considerably lower (0.26 per 100 patients) than previous estimates have suggested and found that haemodialysis patients do not present in classical pattern with HIT type II, as significant proportion have delayed onset and only a minority have developed complications (17%). Anticoagulant being used for the patients but danaparoid predominates.

IV. CONCLUSION

Heparin induced thrombocytopenia remains a commonly encountered iatrogenic complication of heparin therapy in hospitalized patients. In the nearly 6 decades since the initial description of the disease, there have been major advances in understanding the pathogenesis of HIT, its varied clinical complications and treatment. Clinicians treating patients with heparin should determine platelet count at baseline and henceforth at regular intervals beginning from the fifth day of therapy. We recommend commencement of warfarin therapy concurrently with heparin infusion and discontinuation of heparin once warfarin has become effective.

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