



Approach to Anemia

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Definition of Anemia

Reduction in one or more of the major red blood cell measurements obtained as a part of the complete blood count (CBC):

• Hemoglobin concentration, hematocrit, or RBC count

WHO criteria for anemia in men and women are hemoglobin <13 and <12 g/dL, respectively

Normal Ranges

Normal hematologic parameters in adults

Parameter	Men	Women
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	13.6 to 16.9	11.9 to 14.8
Hematocrit (%)	40 to 50	35 to 43
RBC count (× 10 ⁶ /microL)	4.2 to 5.7	3.8 to 5.0
MCV (fL)	82.5 to 98	
мснс	32.5 to 35.2	
RDW (%)	11.4 to 13.5	
Reticulocyte count (x 10 ³ /microL or x 10 ⁹ /L)	16 to 130	16 to 98
Platelet count (× 10 ³ /microL)	152 to 324	153 to 361
WBC count (× 10 ³ /microL)	3.8 to 10.4	

Classification of Anemia Based on MCV

- Microcytic Anemia MCV <80
- Macrocytic Anemia MCV >100
- Normocytic Anemia MCV 80-100

Causes of anemia in adults

RBC size/	Reticulocyte count		
MCV	Low or normal*	Increased	
Microcytic MCV <80 fL	 Iron deficiency (late) Anemia of chronic disease/inflammation Sideroblastic anemias 	 Thalassemia Hemolysis[¶] 	
Normocytic MCV 80 to 100 fL	 Bleeding (acute) Iron deficiency (early) Anemia of chronic disease/inflammation Bone marrow suppression (cancer, aplastic anemia, infection) Chronic renal insufficiency Hypothyroidism Hypopituitarism Excess alcohol Copper deficiency/zinc poisoning 	 Bleeding (with bone marrow recovery) Hemolysis[¶] Bone marrow recovery (eg, after infection, vitamin B12 or folate replacement, and/or iron replacement) 	
Macrocytic MCV >100 fL	 Vitamin B12 or folate deficiency Excess alcohol Myelodysplastic syndrome Liver disease Hypothyroidism HIV infection Medications that interfere with nuclear maturation (hydroxyurea, methotrexate, some chemotherapy agents) 	 Hemolysis[¶] Bone marrow recovery (eg, after infection, vitamin B12 or folate replacement, and/or iron replacement) 	

Microcytic Anemia

A decreased MCV (<80 fL) reflects a defect in cellular hemoglobin synthesis.

Causes of Low MCV

- Iron deficiency: Restricted iron availability (iron deficiency and some cases of anemia of chronic disease/anemia of inflammation which can cause functional iron deficiency)
- **Decreased globin chains:** Qualitative abnormalities in globin proteins such as thalassemia, hemoglobin (Hb) C and HbE
- **Decreased heme:** Abnormalities of the heme porphyrin ring, including congenital sideroblastic anemias and **lead poisoning**

Causes of Very low MCV

Iron deficiency and thalassemia are the most likely causes of a very low MCV (<80 fL)

Mentzer index:

The ratio of the MCV to the red blood cell (RBC) count is useful in predicting the likelihood of thalassemia trait versus iron deficiency

If the ratio of MCV (in fL) to RBC count (in millions of cells/microL) is less than **13**, thalassemia is more likely than iron deficiency

Evaluation of Microcytic anemia

All Patients:

- Serum iron
- Total iron binding capacity (TIBC)
- Transferrin
- Serum ferritin concentration
- Calculated transferrin saturation (TSAT)

Evaluation, cont.

- Iron studies will identify iron deficiency (the most likely diagnosis for microcytic anemia) and ACD/AI in most cases
- Mild microcytosis with iron studies showing low iron, low TIBC, and highnormal to high ferritin and presence of chronic inflammatory condition is consistent with ACD/AI

Evaluation, Cont.

Normal iron studies: Hemoglobin quantitation should be ordered in individuals with microcytic anemia who do not have iron deficiency or ACD/AI to identify **beta thalassemia or other hemoglobinopathies**

Individuals with normal hemoglobin:

- Basophilic stippling suggests possible lead poisoning, and whole blood lead levels should be measured.
- The diagnosis of sideroblastic anemia requires a bone marrow examination.

Basophilic stippling of red cells in lead poisoning



Peripheral blood smear shows basophilic stippling in several red cells from a patient with lead poisoning. The granules represent ribosomal precipitates. A similar picture can be seen in a number of other conditions including thalassemia, megaloblastic anemia, sickle cell anemia, and sideroblastic anemia.

Courtesy of Carola von Kapff, SH (ASCP).



Macrocytic Anemia, High MCV

An increased MCV (>100 fL) is typically attributed to asynchronous maturation of nuclear chromatin compared to the cytoplasm

Causes and mechanisms of macrocytosis

Vitamin	B12 (cobalamin) deficiency
Folate	deficiency
Drugs	
Antir	etroviral therapies for HIV infection (eg, zidovudine)
Azath	nioprine or 6-mercaptopurine
Cape	citabine
Clade	ibine
Cyto	sine arabinoside
Hydro	oxyurea
Imati	inib, sunitinib
Meth	otrexate
Shift t	o immature or stressed red cells
Reticulo	ocytosis
Action o	of erythropoietin - skip macrocytes, stress erythrocytosis
Aplastic	: anemia/Fanconi anemia
Pure re	d cell aplasia
Prima	ry bone marrow disorders
Myelod	ysplastic syndromes
Conger	ital dyserythropoietic anemias
Some s	ideroblastic anemias
Large g	ranular lymphocyte (LGL) leukemia
Lipid a	abnormalities
Liver di	sease
Hypoth	yroidism
Mecha	nism unknown
Alcohol	abuse
Multiple	myeloma and other plasma cell disorders

Evaluation of Macrocytic Anemia

All Individuals:

- Serum vitamin B12 level should be measured in all patients with unevaluated macrocytosis
- All individuals who are nutritionally compromised or who have had gastric surgery should also have serum folate measured
- In patients without known nutritional/gastric issues who have MCV >110 fL and a normal vitamin B12 level, serum methylmalonic acid (MMA) and serum folate should be measured

Evaluation, Cont.

Individuals with normal B12 and folate levels:

- TSH
- Assess alcohol use: The MCV typically is not >105 fL in alcohol-induced macrocytosis
- Serum copper level: Especially if neutropenia and/or neuropathy are present or if the history reveals zinc ingestion or other risk factors
- The peripheral blood smear: (or report) should be reviewed. If the blood smear shows target cells, liver synthetic tests should be measured

Evaluation Cont.

If the copper level is normal and the blood smear shows evidence of **dysplasia such as bilobed or immature neutrophils or binucleate RBCs**, or other cytopenias, refer to a hematologist for **bone marrow and/or molecular (DNA) studies** on bone marrow or peripheral blood

Normocytic Anemia (Normal MCV)

A normal MCV (**80 to 100 fL**) is the most common finding in anemic men and postmenopausal women

Causes are more numerous and may be multifactorial, an underlying condition may not be apparent, and other findings may be nonspecific

Causes of Normocytic Anemia

Nutrient deficiency: Any of the causes of acquired microcytic or macrocytic anemia, especially early stages of deficiency of iron, vitamin B12, folate, or copper

Multiple causes:

- Combined microcytic plus macrocytic anemia
- The most characteristic situation is simultaneous deficiency of vitamin B12 and iron in an individual with celiac disease or autoimmune gastritis

Hemolytic anemia without marked reticulocytosis:

ACD/AI: Anemia of chronic disease/anemia of inflammation (ACD/AI)

Causes, Cont.

CKD: Anemia of chronic kidney disease (CKD)

HF: Anemia of heart failure (HF), including cardio-renal syndrome due to ACD, Hemodilution, ACEI

Endocrine:

- Anemia with endocrine deficiency, including hypothyroidism, androgen deficiency, or adrenal insufficiency
- In adrenal insufficiency, anemia may be masked by volume contraction)

Causes, Cont.

•Cancer – Cancer-associated anemia, including monoclonal gammopathies.

•Clonal hematopoietic stem cell disorders – Anemia due to a clonal disorder of erythropoiesis (myelodysplastic syndrome, aplastic anemia, or clonal cytopenias of uncertain significance)

• Early blood loss – Blood loss that has not yet caused iron deficiency

Causes, Cont.

PRCA: Pure red cell aplasia.

Partially treated anemia:

- Anemia in process of correction or following transfusion
- A "dimorphic RBC population" (presence of two distinct populations of RBCs of different sizes) may be suspected when an increased RDW is present
- It can be confirmed by examination of the peripheral blood smear, although the distinct populations may not always be recognized

Evaluation of Normocytic Anemia

Reticulocyte count and chemistry panel:

- All individuals with normocytic anemia of unknown cause should have a reticulocyte count and chemistry panel during the initial evaluation
- Abnormalities of this testing should be pursued

Iron studies and hemolysis labs: If the reticulocyte count and chemistry panel are unrevealing, determine serum iron concentration, serum TIBC/transferrin, and serum ferritin concentration measured and transferrin saturation (TSAT) calculated to diagnose iron deficiency or ACD/AI.

Evaluation, Cont.

Additional tests : If hemolysis is absent and there are no other obvious diagnoses, consider conditions such as :

- Cancer,
- Endocrine disorders
- Blood loss
- Nutrient deficiencies.

Reticulocyte parameters for assessing anemia

Absolute reticulocyte count (millions of cells/microL)

= Reticulocytes (%) × RBC count (millions of cells/microL)

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Corrected reticulocyte count (%)
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= Reticulocytes (%) × (observed patient HCT [percent] ÷ 45 [percent])

or

= Reticulocytes (%) × (observed patient hemoglobin [g/dL] ÷ 15 [g/dL])

Reticulocyte production index (no units)

 Corrected reticulocyte count (%) ÷ maturation correction factor* (days)

Indications and thresholds for RBC Transfusion in Adults:

Condition	Hemoglobin threshold for transfusion
Symptomatic patient (eg, myocardial ischemia, hemodynamic instability)	10 g/dL*[1]
Hospitalized patient	
Preexisting coronary artery disease	8 g/dL*
Acute coronary syndromes, including acute MI	8 to 10 g/dL ¶[2]
Intensive care unit (hemodynamically stable)	7 g/dL*[3,4]
Gastrointestinal bleeding (hemodynamically stable)	7 g/dL* ^[5]
Non-cardiac surgery	8 g/dL*[1]
Cardiac surgery	7.5 g/dL*[6,7]
Ambulatory outpatient	
Oncology patient in treatment	7 to 8 g/dL [¶]
Palliative care setting	As needed for symptoms; hospice benefits may vary

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Acute Upper GI Bleeding

The upper gastrointestinal bleeding (UGIB) is defined as bleeding within the intraluminal gastrointestinal tract from any location between the upper oesophagus to the duodenum at the ligament of Treitz

Initial Evaluation

- History
- Exam
- Laboratory tests

History

Hematemesis (either red blood or coffee-ground emesis) suggests bleeding proximal to the ligament of Treitz

Melena: The majority of melena originates proximal to the ligament of Treitz (90 percent), though it may also originate from the oropharynx or nasopharynx, small bowel, or colon

Hematochezia is usually due to lower GI bleeding.

It can occur with massive upper GI bleeding which is typically associated with orthostatic hypotension

History Cont.

Past medical History:

- Varices or portal hypertensive gastropathy in a patient with a history of liver disease or excess alcohol use
- Aorto-enteric fistula in a patient with a history of an abdominal aortic aneurysm or an aortic graft
- Angiodysplasia in a patient with renal disease, aortic stenosis, or hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia
- Peptic ulcer disease in a patient with a history of Helicobacter pylori (H. pylori) infection, NSAID use, antithrombotic use, or smoking

History Cont.

Past Medical History:

- Malignancy in a patient with a history of smoking, excess alcohol use, or
 H. pylori infection
- Marginal ulcers (ulcers at an anastomotic site) in a patient with a gastroenteric anastomosis

History, Cont.

Medication History:

Medications which:

- **Predispose to peptic ulcer formation**, such as aspirin and other NSAIDs, including COX-2 inhibitors
- Associated with pill esophagitis eg. KCl, Doxycycline
- Increase risk of bleeding, such as anticoagulants (including warfarin and the direct oral anticoagulants) and antiplatelet agents (eg, P2Y12 inhibitors and aspirin)
- Associated with GI bleeding, including selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRI), calcium channel blockers, and aldosterone antagonists

History, Cont.

Medication History:

• Alter the clinical presentation, such as bismuth, charcoal, licorice, and iron, which can turn the stool black

Examination

Symptoms:

Symptoms that suggest the bleeding is severe include:

- orthostatic dizziness
- confusion
- angina
- severe palpitations,
- cold/clammy extremities

Examination Cont.

Specific causes of upper GI bleeding may be suggested by the patient's symptoms:

- **Peptic ulcer**-Upper abdominal pain
- **Esophageal ulcer** Odynophagia, gastroesophageal reflux, dysphagia
- Mallory-Weiss tear Emesis, retching, or coughing prior to hematemesis
- Variceal hemorrhage or portal hypertensive gastropathy Jaundice, abdominal distention (ascites)
- Malignancy Dysphagia, early satiety, involuntary weight loss, cachexia

Examination, Cont.

Signs of hypovolemia:

- Mild to moderate hypovolemia (less than 15 percent of blood volume lost) Resting tachycardia
- Blood volume loss of at least 15 percent Orthostatic hypotension
- Blood volume loss of at least 40 percent Supine hypotension
Examination Cont.

Abdominal Pain

- Presence of abdominal pain, especially if severe and associated with rebound tenderness or involuntary guarding, raises concern for perforation
- If any signs of an acute abdomen are present, further evaluation to exclude a perforation is required prior to endoscopy

Laboratory tests

- Complete blood count, serum chemistries, liver tests, and coagulation studies
- **Troponin, serial electrocardiograms and cardiac enzymes** may be indicated in patients who are at **risk for a myocardial infarction**
- Hemoglobin level should initially be monitored every **two to eight hours**, depending upon the severity of the bleed

Laboratory tests, Cont.

Elevated BUN/ Creatinine Ratio:

Patients with acute upper GI bleeding typically have an elevated blood urea nitrogen (BUN)to-creatinine or urea-to-creatinine ratio. Values >30:1 or >100:1, respectively, suggest upper GI bleeding as the cause

Nasogastric lavage

The use of nasogastric tube (NGT) placement in patients with suspected acute upper GI bleeding is **not recommended**, as studies have **failed to demonstrate a benefit with regard to clinical outcomes in regard to mortality**, length of hospital stay, surgery, or transfusion requirement.

Patients only undergo NGT lavage **if particulate matter, fresh blood, or clots need to be removed from the stomach to facilitate endoscopy**

General Management

Patients should receive supplemental oxygen by nasal cannula and should receive nothing per mouth

Evaluation of suspected upper gastrointestinal bleeding



IV Access:

- Two 16 gauge or larger intravenous catheters and/or a large-bore, singlelumen central cordis if HD unstable
- Two 18 gauge IV catheters if HD stable

Airway Protection:

• Elective endotracheal intubation in patients with ongoing hematemesis or altered respiratory or mental status may facilitate endoscopy and decrease the risk of aspiration.



Fluid resuscitation:

IV fluids (eg, 500 mL of normal saline or lactated Ringer's solution over 30 minutes) while being typed and cross-matched for blood transfusion.

Transfusion: For patients with active/brisk bleeding and hypovolemia, transfusion should be guided by **hemodynamic parameters**, the pace of the bleeding, estimated blood loss, and the ability to stop the bleeding, rather than by serial hemoglobin measurements.

Hemodynamic instability: Transfusion cut off hb< 10 gm/dl

Hemodynamically stable: Transfusion cut off hb< 7 gm/dl

Thrombocytopenia — Patients with critical or life-threatening bleeding and a low platelet count (<50,000/microL) should be transfused with platelets.

An upper endoscopy can be performed if the **platelet count is** >20,000/microL, though if the patient is suspected to have active bleeding, it shoulde be attempted to raise the **platelet count to** >50,000/microL prior to endoscopy

Triage

All patients with **hemodynamic instability** or active bleeding (manifested by hematemesis, bright red blood per nasogastric tube, or hematochezia) should be admitted to an **intensive care unit for resuscitation and close observation** with automated blood pressure monitoring, electrocardiographic monitoring, and pulse oximetry

Anticoagulants and antiplatelet agents:

- Endoscopy should not be delayed because of anticoagulant or antiplatelet agent use
- Prior to undergoing upper endoscopy, we wait until the INR is <2.5 to perform the endoscopy

Direct oral	anticoagulant	t-associated	bleeding	reversal	strategies
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Type of bleeding	Agent	Possible interventions		
Life-threatening or imminently fatal bleeding (eg, intracranial, retroperitoneal, compartment syndrome, massive gastrointestinal)	Dabigatran (Pradaxa)	 Idarucizumab Activated PCC* (eg, FEIBA) Antifibrinolytic agent (eg, tranexamic acid, epsilon- aminocaproic acid) Anticoagulant discontinuation Oral activated charcoal (if last dose within prior two hours) Hemodialysis RBC transfusions if needed for anemia Platelet transfusions if needed for thrombocytopenia or impaired platelet function (eg, due to aspirin) Surgical/endoscopic intervention if appropriate 		
	Rivaroxaban (Xarelto), apixaban (Eliquis), edoxaban (Lixiana)	 Andexanet alfa (AndexXa) or a 4-factor unactivated PCC (eg, Kcentra) Antifibrinolytic agent (eg, tranexamic acid, epsilon-aminocaproic acid) Anticoagulant discontinuation Oral activated charcoal (if last dose recent enough) RBC transfusions if needed for anemia Platelet transfusions if needed for thrombocytopenia or impaired platelet function (eg, due to aspirin) Surgical/endoscopic intervention if appropriate 		
Minor bleeding (eg, epistaxis, uncomplicated soft tissue bleeding, minor [slow] gastrointestinal bleeding)	Dabigatran (Pradaxa)	Local hemostatic measures Possible anticoagulant discontinuation Half-life (normal renal function [®]): 12 to 17 hours Possible antifibrinolytic agent (eg, tranexamic acid, epsilon-aminocaproic acid)		
	Rivaroxaban (Xarelto), apixaban (Eliquis), edoxaban (Lixiana)	 Local hemostatic measures Possible anticoagulant discontinuation Half-lives (normal renal function¹): Rivaroxaban 5 to 9 hours Apixaban 8 to 15 hours Edoxaban 6 to 11 hours Possible antifibrinolytic agent (eg, tranexamic acid, epsilon-aminocaproic acid) 		

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Emergency reversal of anticoagulation from warfarin for lifethreatening hemorrhage in adults: Suggested approaches based upon available resources

A. If 4-factor prothrombin complex concentrate (4F PCC) is available (preferred approach):

1. Give 4F PCC^{*} 1500 to 2000 units[¶] IV over 10 minutes. Check INR 15 minutes after completion of the infusion. If INR is not ≤1.5, give additional 4F PCC (refer to topic or drug reference for details).

2. Give vitamin K 10 mg IV over 10 to 20 minutes.

B. If 3-factor prothrombin complex concentrate (3F PCC) is available but 4F PCC is not available:

1. Give 3F PCC* 1500 to 2000 units[¶] IV over 10 minutes. Check INR 15 minutes after completion of the infusion. If INR is not ≤1.5, give additional 3F PCC (refer to topic or drug reference for details).

2. Give Factor VIIa 20 mcg/kg IV **OR** give FFP 2 units IV by rapid infusion. Factor VIIa may be preferred if volume overload is a concern.

3. Give vitamin K 10 mg IV over 10 to 20 minutes.

C. If neither 3F PCC nor 4F PCC is available:

1. Give FFP 2 units IV by rapid infusion. Check INR 15 minutes after completion of infusion. If INR \geq 1.5, administer 2 additional units of FFP IV rapid infusion. Repeat process until INR \leq 1.5. May wish to administer loop diuretic between FFP infusions if volume overload is a concern.

2. Give vitamin K 10 mg IV over 10 to 20 minutes.

Dilutional coagulopathy:

Patients who require massive transfusion (defined by institutional protocols, often >3 units RBCs in an hour or 10 units RBCs in 24 hours) may also need replacement of coagulation factors and/or platelets

Medications:

Acid suppression:

- Options include giving an IV PPI every 12 hours or starting a continuous infusion
- PPIs given for the treatment of bleeding peptic ulcers are often given as high-dose continuous infusions (eg, esomeprazole or pantoprazole 80 mg bolus followed by 8 mg per hour)

International Consensus Group guideline **favors high-dose continuous PPI infusions in patients with bleeding ulcers with high-risk stigmata** who have undergone successful endoscopic therapy, since indirect comparisons suggest that high-dose continuous PPI infusions may be superior to non-high dose PPIs when it comes to mortality

Prokinetics:

- To improve gastric visualization at the time of endoscopy by clearing the stomach of blood, clots, and food residue.
- A single Erythromycin dose 250 mg intravenously over 20 to 30 minutes, 30 to 90 minutes prior to endoscopy

Vasoactive medications:

 In patients with suspected variceal bleeding, octreotide is given as an intravenous bolus of 50 mcg, followed by a continuous infusion at a rate of 50 mcg per hour

Antibiotics for patients with cirrhosis:

- Bacterial infections are present in up to 20 percent of patients with cirrhosis who are hospitalized with gastrointestinal bleeding; up to an additional 50 percent develop an infection while hospitalized.
- Such patients have increased mortality
- Patients with cirrhosis who present with acute upper GI bleeding (from varices or other causes) should be given prophylactic antibiotics

Consultations:

- Gastroenterology
- Transfusion medicine
- Hematology
- Surgery/ IR
- Clinician who prescribed an anticoagulant or antiplatelet agent (if relevant)

Diagnostic studies:

Upper Endoscopy:

- Early endoscopy (within 24 hours) is recommended for most patients with acute upper GI bleeding
- For patients with suspected variceal bleeding, perform endoscopy within
 12 hours of presentation
- Endoscopic findings in patients with bleeding peptic ulcers are described using the modified Forrest classification

Endoscopic predictors of recurrent peptic ulcer hemorrhage^[1,2]

Endoscopic stigmata of recent hemorrhage	Prevalence, percent	Risk of rebleeding on medical management, percent
Active arterial bleeding (Forrest Ia)	12% (arterial bleeding + oozing)	55 (arterial bleeding + oozing)
Oozing without visible vessel (Forrest Ib)		
Non-bleeding visible vessel (Forrest IIa)	8	43
Adherent clot (Forrest IIb)	8	22
Flat spot (Forrest IIc)	16	10
Clean ulcer base (Forrest III)	55	5

Other studies:

- CTA
- Colonoscopy

Risk Stratification:

Rockall score and the Blatchford scores

The Rockall score which is calculated after endoscopy is based upon **age**, the presence of shock, comorbidity, diagnosis, and endoscopic stigmata of recent hemorrhage

The Glasgow Blatchford score (GBS) score is based upon the blood urea nitrogen, hemoglobin, systolic blood pressure, pulse, and the presence of melena, syncope, hepatic disease, and/or cardiac failure. The score ranges from zero to 23 and the risk of requiring endoscopic intervention increases with increasing score

Management

Treatment:

Endoscopic therapy: Standard approaches:

- Injection therapy
- Thermal Coagulation
- Hemoclips

Lower GI Bleeding

Acute lower gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding refers to blood loss of recent onset originating from the colon

Overview

- Patients with acute lower gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding typically present with **hematochezia**, although hematochezia may also be seen in patients with massive upper GI or small bowel bleeding
- Rarely, patients with right-sided colonic bleeding will present with melena
- The bleeding will **stop spontaneously in 80 to 85 percent** of patients, and the mortality rate is **2 to 4 percent**

Common causes of lower gastrointestinal bleeding

Anatomic	
Diverticulosis	
Vascular	
Angiodysplasia	
Hemorrhoids	
Ischemic	
Post biopsy or polypectom	У
Radiation-induced telangie	ctasia
Inflammatory	
Infectious	
Inflammatory bowel diseas	se
Ulcer	
Neoplastic	
Polyp	
Carcinoma	



Initial Evaluation

- History
- Physical Exam
- Laboratory Studies

History:

- Prior episodes of LGIB
- Past medical history
- Medications i.e anticoagulants, antiplatelets

Exam:

- Assess for signs of hypovolemia
- Examination of stool to confirm the presence of melena/ hematochezia
- Presence of abdominal pain suggests the presence of an inflammatory bleeding source such as ischemic or infectious colitis or a perforation

Laboratory Tests:

- CBC, BMP, LFTs, Coags
- Hb. Q2 H to Q12 H depending upon the severity of bleeding

Consider Upper GI bleeding source if :

- Hemodynamic instability
- Orthostatic hypotension
- Elevated blood urea nitrogen (BUN)-to-creatinine or urea-to-creatinine ratio (>20 to 30:1 or >100:10)

Triage and Consultations:

ICU LOC:

• High-risk features including **hemodynamic instability** (shock, orthostatic hypotension), persistent bleeding, and/or significant comorbid illnesses

Outpatient Mx:

• Low-risk patients (eg, a young, otherwise healthy patient with minor, selflimited rectal bleeding and no hemodynamic compromise)

Management

General supportive measures :

- SupplementaL Oxygen
- Two large bore peripheral IVs
- NPO if urgent colonoscopy planned

Fluid resuscitation:

IV fluid boluses w 500 ml NSS/ RL

Blood transfusions:

- Hb. <7 gm/dl if no comorbidities
- Hb. < 8 if CAD

Management of coagulopathies, anticoagulants, and antiplatelet agents:

- If PT prolonged and INR > 1.5- Hold Warfarin and DOACS
- Four Factor PCC and Vit K in patients on coumadin with active bleeding and INR
 >2.5
- FFP if PCC not available
- Platelet transfusion if **platelet count < 50,000**
- Aspirin should be continued for secondary prophylaxis, hold if for primary prevention

Diagnostic Studies:

Colonoscopy:

- **Timing:** On next available basis during their hospitalization after adequate colon preparation
- **Bowel preparation:** 4-6 L of Polyethylene glycol
- No difference in mortality of patients based on urgent vs. delayed colonoscopy

Diagnostic Studies Cont.

Radionuclide imaging:

- Detects bleeding that is occurring at a rate of **0.1 to 0.5 mL/minute**
- Most sensitive radiographic test for GI bleeding

CTA:

- CTA can detect bleeding at a rate of **0.3 to 0.5 mL/minute**
- 85% Sen, 90% specificity

Diagnostic Studies Cont.

Angiography:

- Can detect bleeding at a rate of **0.5 to 1 ml/min**
- Reserved for patients in whom endoscopy is not feasible due to severe bleeding with hemodynamic instability
- CT angiography is commonly used to identify and localize the bleeding source prior to angiography
- Superselective embolization of distal vessels using coaxial catheters decreases the risk of bowel infarction

Diagnostic Studies Cont.

Additional testing if the bleeding site is not identified :

- Upper endoscopy/ push enteroscopy (upper GI source)
- Capsule endoscopy and deep small bowel enteroscopy (identify small bowel bleeding source)

Procedures used for evaluation of lower gastrointestinal bleeding

Technique	Advantages	Disadvantages
Radionuclide imaging	Noninvasive Sensitive to low rates of bleeding Can be repeated for intermittent bleeding	Has to be performed during active bleeding Poor localization of bleeding site Not therapeutic Not widely available
CT angiography	Noninvasive Accurately localizes bleeding source Provides anatomic detail Widely available	Has to be performed during active bleeding Not therapeutic Radiation and IV contrast exposure
Angiography	Accurately localizes bleeding source Therapy possible with super-selective embolization Does not require bowel preparation	Has to be performed during active bleeding Potential for serious complications
Colonoscopy	Precise diagnosis and localization regardless of active bleeding or type of lesion Endoscopic therapy is possible	Need colon preparation for optimal visualization Risk of sedation in acutely bleeding patient Definite bleeding source (stigmata) infrequently identified

CT: Computed tomographic; IV: intravenous.



Evaluation of patients presenting with hematochezia (excluding those with minimal rectal bleeding)



Treatment of the Bleeding site

Varies depending on the source of bleeding

Colonic Diverticular bleed:

- Endoscopic injection of epinephrine in submucos
- Bipolar electrocoagulation

Angiodysplasia:

- Argon plasma coagulation
- Electrocoagulation
- Mechanical hemostasis
- Injection sclerotherapy

Recent Research Articles

GI Bleeding:

• Timing of Endoscopy for Acute Upper Gastrointestinal Bleeding-

N Engl J Med 2020; 382:1299-1308, DOI: 10.1056/NEJMoa1912484

• Conclusion: In patients with acute upper gastrointestinal bleeding who were at high risk for further bleeding or death, endoscopy performed within 6 hours after gastroenterologic consultation was not associated with lower 30-day mortality than endoscopy performed between 6 and 24 hours after consultation

Recent Research Articles Cont.

Daprodustat for the Treatment of Anemia in Patients Undergoing Dialysis

N Engl J Med 2021; 385:2325-2335, DOI: 10.1056/NEJMoa2113379

 Hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF) prolyl hydroxylase inhibitors (PHIs) are as effective as erythropoiesis-stimulating agents (ESAs) in increasing hemoglobin levels

Conclusion:

 Among patients with CKD undergoing dialysis, daprodustat was noninferior to ESAs regarding the change in the hemoglobin level from baseline and cardiovascular outcomes THANK YOU