

BOLUS ADMINISTRATION OF TRANEXAMIC ACID WITH A MAINTENANCE DOSE
VIA INFUSION AND STRICT BLOOD PRESSURE CONTROL FOR NON-TRAUMATIC
INTRACEREBRAL HEMORRHAGES

By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

I.	FRONTISPIECE	i
II.	ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
III.	TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
IV.	LIST OF FIGURES	ix
V.	LIST OF TABLES	xii
VI.	ABSTRAK	xiii
VII.	ABSTRACT	xv
1.	Introduction	1
1.0	Spontaneous intracerebral hemorrhage	1
1.1	Incidence and outcome	1
2.	Literature Review	2
2.0	Spontaneous intracerebral hemorrhage	2
2.1	Introduction	3
2.2	Pathophysiology	4
2.3	Diagnosis, clinical features, and outcome	7
2.4	Management	9
2.5.i.	Overall principles	9

2.5.ii. Early assessment and management	10
2.5. iii. Acute hemostatic treatment	10
2.5. iv. Management of mass effect causing intracerebral hypertension	12
2.5. v. Management of blood pressure	13
2.5.vi. Management of intraventricular hemorrhage and hydrocephalus	15
2.5.vii Surgical evacuation	16
2.5.viii Posterior fossa surgery	18
2.5.ix. Management of medical complication	19
2.5.xi. Intracerebral bleeding related to the use of oral anticoagulant	21
2.5 Role of tranexamic acid in intracerebral hemorrhages	23
2.6 Chemical structure of tranexamic acid	25
2.7 Mechanism of action	25
2.8 Clinical pharmacology	25
2.9 Indications of tranexamic acid	27
2.10 Dosage and administration	27
2.11 Contraindication	28
2.12 Pregnancy	28

2.13	Geriatric use	29
2.14	Adverse reaction	30
3.	Estimating the volume of intracranial hematoma on computed tomography (CT)	30
4.	Study hypothesis	33
5.	Objectives	33
4.1	General	33
4.2	Specific	33
6	Methodology	34
6.1	Research design	34
6.2	Study setting and period	34
6.3	Sampling frame	
6.4	Selection Criteria	34
6.4.1	Inclusion criteria	35
6.4.2	Exclusion criteria	35
6.5	Sampling size and sampling	36

6.5.1 Sampling procedure	36
6.5.2 Sample size calculation	36
6.4 Sampling method	38
6.5 Techniques of data collection	38
6.6 Hematoma volume calculation technique	40
6.8.i Planigraphic method	40
6.7 Plans for minimizing study errors	40
7. Flow chart	41
8. Results	42
8.1 Descriptive analysis	48
8.2 Distribution of age	48
8.3 Distribution of cases included in the study based on sex	49
8.4 Distribution of cases based on ethnic group	50
8.5 The co-morbidities of 30 patients	51
8.6 The time of symptom onset to the 1st CT scan in the control group	52
8.7 The time of symptom onset to the 1st CT scan in the treatment group	53
8.8 The Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) score of 30 patients on admission	54
8.9 Distribution of the presenting symptoms of 30 patients	55
8.10 Hematoma location in 30 patients	56
8.11 Distribution of the hematomas according to the brain hemisphere	57

8.12	The hemoglobin level of 15 patients in the control group	58
8.13	The hemoglobin level of 15 patients in the control group	59
8.14	The total white blood cell count (TWBC) of 15 patients in the control group	60
8.15	Figure 8.14: The TWBC of 15 patients in the control group	61
8.16	The platelets count of 15 patients in the control group	62
8.17	The platelets count of 15 patients in the treatment group	63
8.18	Fifteen patients in the control group show a normal fibrinogen level of and international normalized ratio (INR)	64
8.19	Fifteen patients in the treatment group show a normal fibrinogen level and INR	65
8.20	The mean temperature (Celsius) for 15 patients in the control group	66
8.21	The mean temperature (Celsius) for 15 patients in the treatment group	67
8.22	The documented blood pressure in the accident and emergency (A&E) department for 15 patients in the control group	68
8.23	Blood pressure chart from the ward admission until 24 h after antihypertensive medication for the control group	69
8.24	Documented blood pressure in the A&E department for 15 patients in the treatment group	70
8.25	Blood pressure chart from the ward admission until 24 h after antihypertensive medication for the treatment group	71
8.26	Hematoma volume (cm ³) difference in the control group and the GCS on admission and after 24 h	72
8.27	GCS score chart for 15 patients in the control group	74

8.28	Chart showing the hematoma volume differences between the 1st CT and the 2nd brain CT in the control group	75
8.29	Hematoma volume (cm ³) differences in the treatment group with a GCS score on admission and after 24 h	76
8.30	GCS score chart for 15 patients in the treatment group	77
8.31	Chart showing the hematoma volume differences between the 1st CT and 2nd CT in the treatment group	78
8.32	Volume expansion differences between the treatment and control groups	79
8.33	Hematoma volume chart for the treatment and control groups	80
8.32	Glasgow outcome scale (GOS) comparison of the treatment and control group	81
8.34	Statistical analysis using the Mann-Whitney U test	82
9. Discussion		83
10. Conclusions		89
11. Limitations of the study		90
12. Recommendations and future research		90
13. Appendices		92
14. References		107

FIGURES	DESCRIPTION	PAGE
Figure 2.3:	The cascade of a neural injury initiated by an intracerebral hemorrhage	5
Figure 2.3.i:	Progression of a hematoma and edema on computed tomography	7
Figure 2.4:	Detection of microhemorrhages using magnetic resonance imaging and computed tomography scans	8
Figure 2.7.i:	Structural formula of tranexamic acid	25
Figure 2.8.i:	The mechanism of action of tranexamic acid (TXA). The fibrin-binding site on the plasminogen is occupied by TXA, preventing fibrinolysis. t-PA, tissue plasminogen activator; FDP, fibrin degradation products.	26
Figure 2.16:	The volume for an ellipsoid object is $\frac{4}{3} \times \pi \times a \times b \times c$	31
Figure 2.16.i:	An axial computed tomography slice displaying the planimetric method of linear measurement using the DicomWorks software	32
Figure8.2:	Distribution of patients' ages	48
Figure 8.3:	Distribution of included cases based on sex	49
Figure 8.4:	Distribution of cases based on ethnic group	50
Figure 8.5:	The co-morbidities of 30 patients	51

Figure 8.6: The time of symptom onset to the 1st computed tomography scan in the control group	52
Figure 8.7: The time of symptom onset to the 1st computed tomography scan in the treatment group	53
Figure 8.8: The Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) score of 30 patients	54
Figure 8.9: The symptoms at presentation	55
Figure 8.10: The hematoma location	56
Figure 8.11: The hematoma location according to the brain hemisphere	57
Figure: 8.12: The hemoglobin level of 15 patients in the control group	58
Figure 8.13: The hemoglobin level of 15 patients in the treatment group	59
Figure 8.14: The total white blood cell counts (TWBC) of 15 patients in the control group	60
Figure 8.15: The total white blood cell counts (TWBC) of 15 patients in the treatment group	61
Figure 8.16: The platelet count of 15 patients in the control group	62
Figure 8.17: The platelet count of 15 patients in the treatment group	63
Figure 8.18: Fifteen patients in the control group show normal hemoglobin and international normalized ratio levels	64

Figure 8.19: Fifteen patients in the control group show normal hemoglobin and international normalized ratio levels	65
Figure 8.20: The mean temperature (Celsius) for 15 patients in the control group	66
Figure 8.21: The mean temperature (Celsius) for 15 patients in the treatment group	67
Figure 8.22: The documented blood pressure in the accident and emergency department for 15 patients in the control group	68
Figure 8.23: Blood pressure chart from the ward admission until 24 h after antihypertensive medication in the control group	69
Figure 8.24: Documented blood pressure in the accident and emergency department for 15 patients in the treatment group	70
Figure 8.25: Blood pressure chart from the ward admission until 24 h after antihypertensive medication in the treatment group	71
Figure 8.27: Chart showing the Glasgow Coma Scale score of 15 patients in the control group	74
Figure 8.28: Chart showing hematoma volume differences between the 1st brain computed tomography (CT) scan and the 2nd brain CT in the control group	75
Figure 8.30: Chart showing the GCS score of 15 patients in the treatment group	77

Figure 8.31: Chart showing the hematoma volume differences between the 1st computed tomography (CT) scan and the 2nd CT scan in the treatment group	78
Figure 8.31: Chart showing the difference in hematoma volume between the treatment and control groups	80
Figure 8.32 Glasgow outcome scale (GOS) comparison of the treatment and control group	81

TABLES	DESCRIPTION	PAGE
Table 8.1:	The demographics of 30 patients with intracerebral hemorrhages who were admitted to the Hospital Sultanah Aminah Johor from September 2012 to October 2013	42
Table 8.26:	The difference in hematoma volume (cm ³) in the control group on admission and after 24 h	72
Table 8.29:	The difference in hematoma volume (cm ³) in the treatment group on admission and after 24 h	76
Table 8.30:	The differences in volume expansion between the treatment and control groups	79
Table 8.33:	Statistical analysis using the Mann-Whitney U test	82

ABSTRAK

TAJUK:

PEMBERIAN BOLUS INTRAVENOUS UBAT TRANEXAMIC ACID DIKUTI OLEH PEMBERIAN SECARA INTRAVENENOUS INFUSI SERTA PENGAWALAN KETAT TEKANAN DARAH BAGI RAWATAN PENYAKIT STROK JENIS PENDARAHAN OTAK

PENGENALAN

Pendarahan spontan dalam otak merangkumi 10-15% daripada kes strok dengan insidens 10-30 kes per 100 000 orang setiap tahun dan dijangka akan meningkat 2 kali ganda dalam tempoh 30 tahun akan datang. Mortaliti dan morbiditi yang berkaitan dengan perdarahan spontan dalam otak masih tinggi. Sehingga kini masih tiada rawatan yang terbukti efektif untuk pendarahan spontan dalam otak. Faktor penting untuk meramal prognosis pesakit adalah pertambahan saiz hematoma. Tranexamic Acid (TXA) adalah ubat anti- fibrinolisis yang berkesan dalam mengurangkan pendarahan. Kajian ini adalah untuk menilai keberkesanan tranexamic asid berbanding placebo dalam menghalang pertambahan saiz pendarahan pada pesakit dengan pendarahan dalam otak

METODOLOGI

Dalam penyelidikan, a single blinded, randomized placebo-controlled trial. Labetolol digunakan untuk mencapai target sistolik tekanan darah 140-160 mmHg. Imbasan Otak (CT Brain)

dilakukan dalam tempoh 24 jam untuk menilai perubahan saiz hematoma. Objektif utama kajian ini adalah untuk menguji kesan tranexamic acid terhadap perubahan saiz pendarahan. Objektif lain yang ingin dicapai dengan kajian ini adalah menguji pelaksanaan dan kesan sampingan TXA ini terhadap pendarahan spontan dalam otak.

KEPUTUSAN

Seramai 30 orang pesakit direkrut dalam tempoh dari September 2012 dan Oktober 2013. Mean umur 45 tahun, dengan predominasi lelaki (70%), paras tekanan darah sistolik 150 mmHg, mean skor kesedaran (GCS 13/15), median masa dari serangan stroke kepada perawakan (5.5 jam), masa dari perawakan kepada rawatan (20 minit) lokasi hematoma (internal capsule 80%, thalamus 13.3% dan head of caudate 6.66%). Mean pertambahan saiz hematoma adalah 0.16 ml dan 3.07mls masing- masing pada kumpulan yang diberikan TXA dan placebo. Analisis statistik menunjukkan penurunan dalam peningkatan saiz hematoma dalam kumpulan TXA berbanding kumpulan placebo ($p < 0.5$)

KESIMPULAN

Pesakit yang hadir dengan pendarahan dalam otak secara spontan akibat dari tekanan darah yang tidak terkawal yang mana tidak memerlukan pembedahan harus diberikan kombinasi rawatan dengan pemberian bolus ubat tranexamic acid 1 gram diiringi dengan dos infusi 1g / 8jam serta mengawal secara ketat bacaan tekanan darah dibandingkan dengan pengawalan tekanan darah sahaja. Namun, kajian perawakan berganda harus dilakukan dengan melibatkan pelbagai pusat rawat untuk tujuan evaluasi yang lebih signifikan.

ABSTRACT

Title

THE BOLUS ADMINISTRATION OF TRANEXAMIC ACID WITH A MAINTENANCE DOSE VIA INFUSION AND STRICT BLOOD PRESSURE CONTROL FOR NON-TRAUMATIC INTRACEREBRAL HEMORRHAGES

Introduction

Spontaneous intracerebral hemorrhages (ICH) account for 10–15% of all strokes with an incidence of 10–30 cases per 100,000 people/year, and their incidences are expected to double in the next 30 years. Mortality and morbidity associated with ICHs is still high. Until recently, there were no effective evidence-based treatments for acute ICH. ICH growth remains an important predictor of patient outcomes. Tranexamic acid (TXA), an anti-fibrinolytic drug, is known to reduce hemorrhaging in other conditions. The purpose of this study was to assess the effect of TXA compared to a placebo on the growth of hematomas in patients with spontaneous ICH.

Methodology

A single-blinded randomized placebo-controlled trial was conducted using TXA (intravenous 1 g bolus followed by an infusion of TXA at 1g/h for 8 h) in acute (<8 h) cases of primary ICH. Strict blood pressure control (target systolic blood pressure [SBP], 140–160 mmHg) was achieved using labetalol infusion. A repeat brain computed tomography (CT) was performed in the next 24 h to reassess the hematoma growth. The primary objective was to test the effect of TXA on hematoma growth. The secondary objective was to test the feasibility, tolerability, and adverse events of TXA in cases of primary ICH.

Results

Thirty patients were recruited between September 2012 and October 2013. The patients' mean age was 49 with male predominance (70%). The baseline SBP was 150 mmHg, mean Glasgow Coma Scale score was 13–15/15, and median time from stroke to the 1st CT scan was 5.5 h. The hematoma locations were as follows: internal capsule, 80%; thalamus, 13.3%; and head of caudate, 6.66%. The mean total hemorrhage growth was 0.16 mL and 3.07 mL in the treatment and placebo groups, respectively. Statistical analysis showed a reduction in the total hemorrhage growth in the TXA group in comparison to the control ($p < 0.05$).

Conclusions

Patients who present with spontaneous ICH secondary to uncontrolled hypertension should be treated with a combination of a bolus administration of TXA (1 g) and a maintenance dose via infusion (1 g/8 h) with strict blood pressure control, rather than blood pressure control alone. However, a double-blinded randomized study with multicenter involvement is needed for further evaluation of the significance of this finding.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Incidence

Spontaneous, non-traumatic intracerebral hemorrhages (ICH) are a significant cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide. Despite substantial advances in neurovascular critical care, ICH remains the deadliest form of stroke and a major cause of neurological disability. Studies indicate that the proportion of ICH is higher in Asians than in Caucasians, with approximately 20–30% of ICH cases being hemorrhagic (van Asch et al. 2010).

Expansion of the initial hematoma strongly influences morbidity and mortality. The hazard ratio of mortality increases by 5%, with every 10% increase in ICH volume. In addition, each absolute increase in volume (mL) causes patient outcomes to be 7% more likely to shift from independence to dependence, as measured by the six-point modified Rankin Scale. Numerous other studies confirm the relationship of the hematoma expansion with neurological deterioration, poor functional outcome, and death. These relationships appear to be independent from the definition used for hematoma expansion. Moreover, data from the INTERACT 1 trial suggest a clear dose-response relationship between the magnitude of hematoma expansion and functional outcome and mortality, when using either the absolute or proportional definitions of expansion.

Outcome

To date, no individual treatment for ICH has shown a benefit in a randomized controlled trial, although specialized treatment provided at a neuroscience intensive-care unit (ICU) did appear to reduce mortality. Because of its strong relationship with outcomes and the potential to alter its course, hematoma expansion is an appealing therapeutic target. Candidate treatments aimed at

improving ICH outcomes potentially reduce hematoma expansion. However, mortality and morbidity rates associated with ICHs are still high. Until recently, there have been no effective evidence-based treatments for acute ICH. Thus, ICH growth remains an important predictor of patient outcome.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Spontaneous intracerebral hemorrhage

ICHs are an important public health problem associated with high rates of death and disability in adults. Although the number of hospital admissions for ICH has increased worldwide in the past 10 years, mortality rate has not decreased. The results of clinical trials and observational studies suggest that coordinated primary and specialty care is associated with a lower mortality than typical community practice (Gregson et al. 2010).

Development of treatment goals for critical care and new sequences of care and specialty practice can improve outcomes after ICH. Specific treatment approaches include early diagnosis and hemostasis, aggressive management of blood pressure, open and minimally invasive surgical techniques to remove clots, techniques for removing intraventricular blood, and management of intracranial pressure. These approaches improve the clinical management of ICH patients, reduce mortality, and increase functional survival (Morgenstern 2010).

2.2 Introduction

Non-traumatic ICH results from the rupture of blood vessels in the brain. It is a major public health problem with an annual incidence of 10–30 per 100,000 population, accounting for 2 million (10–15%) of about 15 million strokes worldwide each year (Morgenstern 2010). Hospital admissions for ICHs have increased by 18% in the past 10 years, which is probably because of the increase in the number of elderly people, many of whom lack adequate blood pressure control and increasingly use anticoagulants, thrombolytics, and antiplatelet agents. Mexican Americans, Latin Americans, African Americans, Native Americans, Japanese, and Chinese have higher incidences of ICH than white Americans (van Asch et al. 2010). These differences are mostly seen in the incidence of deep ICH and are most prominent in young and middle-aged people. The incidence may be decreased in some populations with improved access to medical care and blood pressure control (van Asch et al. 2010).

Primary and secondary (anticoagulant-induced) ICHs have similar underlying pathological changes (Huhtakangas et al. 2011). ICH commonly affects the cerebral lobes, basal ganglia, thalamus, brain stem (predominantly the pons), and cerebellum because of the ruptured vessels due to the hypertension-related degenerative changes or cerebral amyloid angiopathy (Viswanathan et al. 2011). Most bleeding in hypertension-related ICH is at or near the bifurcation of small penetrating arteries that originate from the basilar arteries or the anterior, middle, or posterior cerebral arteries. Small artery branches of 50–700 μm in diameter often have multiple sites of rupture; some are associated with layers of platelet and fibrin aggregates. These lesions are characterized by breakage of elastic lamina, atrophy and fragmentation of smooth muscles, dissections, and granular or vesicular cellular degeneration. In particular, severe atherosclerosis, including lipid deposition, can affect elderly patients. Fibrinoid necrosis of the

subendothelium with subsequent focal dilatations (i.e., micro-aneurysms) leads to ruptures in a small proportion of patients (Takebayashi et al. 2012).

Cerebral amyloid angiopathy is characterized by the deposition of amyloid- β peptide and degenerative changes (e.g., micro-aneurysm formation, concentric splitting, chronic inflammatory infiltrates, and fibrinoid necrosis) in the capillaries, arterioles, and small- and medium-sized arteries of the cerebral cortex, leptomeninges, and cerebellum (Rosand et al. 2009). Cerebral amyloid angiopathy leads to sporadic ICH in elderly people, which is commonly associated with variations in the gene encoding apolipoprotein E, and a familial syndrome in young patients is typically associated with mutations in the gene encoding amyloid precursor protein (Rost NS 2008). White matter abnormalities (e.g., leukoaraiosis) seem to increase the risk of sporadic and familial ICHs, suggesting a shared vascular pathogenesis (Hart & Smith 2004).

ICH associated with oral anticoagulants typically affects patients with vasculopathies related to either chronic hypertension or cerebral amyloid angiopathy, which may represent an exacerbation of an existing risk of a clinical or subclinical disease (Viswanathan et al. 2011).

2.3 Pathophysiology

Regions surrounding hematomas are characterized by edema, apoptosis, necrosis, and inflammatory cells. Hematomas induce injury (Figure 2.3) by causing a mechanical disruption of the neurons and glia, followed by mechanical deformation that causes oligemia, neurotransmitter release, mitochondrial dysfunction, and membrane depolarization (Pérez et al. 2010).

Dependent on the severity of mitochondrial dysfunction, the results of injury range from temporary metabolic suppression (i.e., a hibernation phase) to cellular swelling and necrosis. A secondary cascade of injury is caused by the products of coagulation and hemoglobin breakdown, in particular thrombin, which activates microglia within 4 h after injury (Wu et al. 2013). Activated microglia release products that induce the breakdown of the blood-brain barrier, vasogenic edema, and apoptosis in the neurons and glia (Pérez et al. 2010).

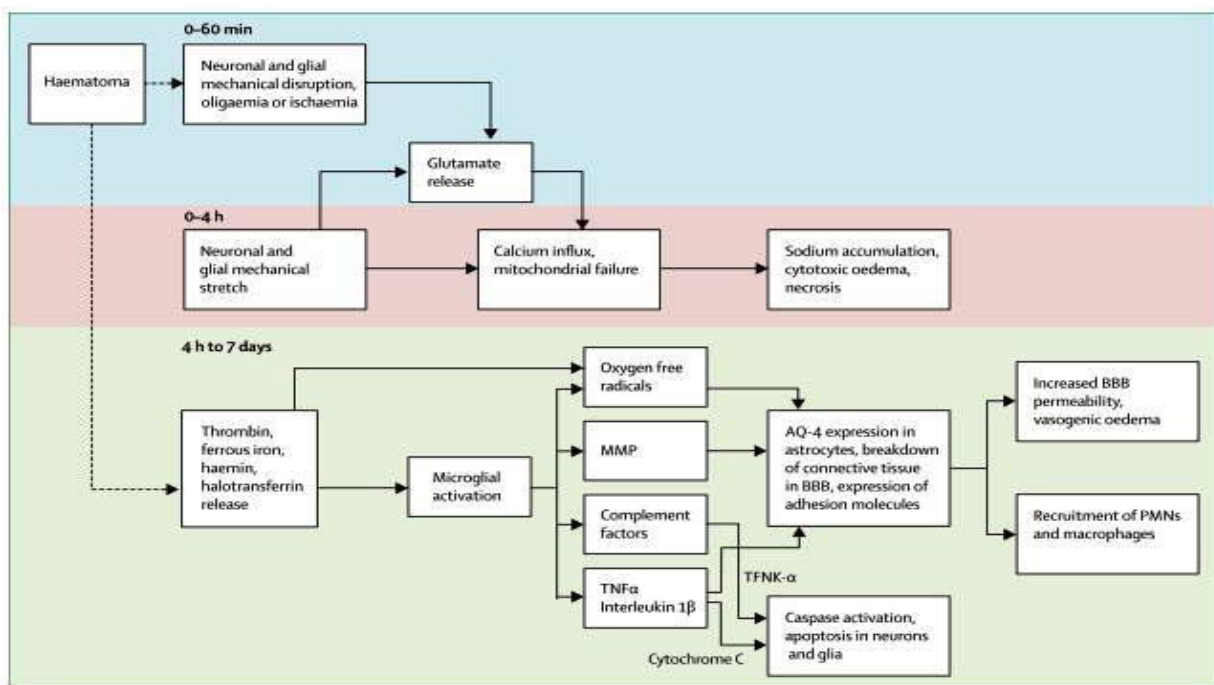


Figure 2.3: The cascade of neural injury initiated by intracerebral hemorrhages (Qureshi et al. 2009)

Hemostasis is initiated by the local activation of hemostatic pathways and mechanical tamponade. However, about 73% of patients assessed within 3 h of symptom onset have some degree of hematoma enlargement, and up to 35% have clinically prominent enlargement (Qureshi et al.

2014). Most hematoma enlargement occurs within 3 h after injury, although enlargement can occur up to 12 h after onset. Perihematomal edema increases in volume by about 75% in the first 24 h after ICH, peaking within 5–6 days and lasting up to 14 days (Al Qureshi et al. 2009). An early large edema volume relative to the hematoma volume has the greatest effect on outcome. However, even an edema that is small initially can increase in volume in the first 24 h after hemorrhage. An acute hypometabolic and hypoperfusion (hibernation) phase with mitochondrial dysfunction and metabolic failure has been reported in the region surrounding the hematoma (Qureshi et al. 2009) (Figure 2.3.i).

Regional hypoperfusion in clinical and experimental studies does not always seem severe enough to induce ischemia, and it may be secondary to hypometabolism. In the presence of very high intracranial pressure and low cerebral perfusion pressure, the risk of global ischemia is high. A variable reperfusion phase lasts from 2–14 days, and a normalization phase develops after 14 days with the re-establishment of normal cerebral blood flow in all viable regions (Kwon 2014 & Greenberg 2009).

