

## Thrombotic Disorders

(See also *Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine*, 17<sup>th</sup> Edition, Chapters 111 and 112)

### Definition

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- Thrombosis
  - Formation of a blood clot within the vascular system
  - Occurs normally in response to hemorrhage
  - When it occurs at the wrong place or at the wrong time, thrombosis can lead to reduced blood flow to critical organs such as the brain, lungs, and myocardium.
- Thrombotic disorders
  - Group of inherited and acquired disorders that cause abnormal activation of the hemostatic system
  - Lead to increased risk of thrombosis
  - Also known as hypercoagulable state
  - Play a major role in the pathogenesis of venous thromboembolism
  - Play a less clearly defined role in the pathogenesis of arterial thrombosis
- Thrombophilia: term used to describe primary thrombotic disorders
  - Inherited disorders
    - Factor V Leiden (resistant to inhibition by activated protein C)
      - 5–8-fold increased risk of thrombosis in heterozygotes
      - 50–80-fold increased risk in homozygotes
    - Antithrombin III deficiency
    - Protein C deficiency
    - Protein S deficiency
    - Prothrombin gene mutation (*G20210A*)
      - 2–4-fold increased risk in heterozygotes
      - 10-fold increased risk in homozygotes
  - Acquired disorders
    - Antiphospholipid antibody syndromes; 10-fold increased risk
      - Anticardiolipin antibody (ACLA) thrombosis syndrome
      - Lupus anticoagulant (LA) syndrome
    - Malignancy; 10–20-fold increased risk
    - Major surgery; 6-fold increased risk
    - Immobilization; 11-fold increased risk
    - Oral contraceptive use; 4-fold increased risk
    - Thalidomide use (or its congeners) especially in combination with dexamethasone; 10–20% incidence
    - Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia; 50-fold increased risk
    - Pregnancy; 5-fold increased risk
    - Myeloproliferative disorders
    - Inflammatory bowel disease
    - Nephrotic syndrome
    - Paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria: 40% incidence

- Hyperviscosity syndrome; Waldenstrom's macroglobulinemia, multiple myeloma
  - Trauma
- Combined disorders
  - Oral contraceptive use in a Factor V Leiden heterozygote; 35-fold increased risk
- See Antiphospholipid Antibodies and Inherited Prothrombotic Disorders for details of these disorders.

## Epidemiology

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- Incidence
  - Deep venous thrombosis (DVT): 1% of persons annually in the general population >60 years of age
  - Pulmonary embolism (PE): 69 cases per 100,000 persons annually
  - Factor V Leiden
    - Particularly common heritable defect associated with a hypercoagulable state
    - Present in 20% of cases of unexplained venous thromboembolism
    - May account for 25% of recurrent DVT or PE
  - Deficiencies of antithrombin, protein C, and protein S
    - Account for <10% of all recurrent venous thrombosis
    - Mild (heterozygous) antithrombin deficiency the most common defect (1 in 2000 population; 1% of DVT)
  - Prothrombin gene mutation (*G20210A*)
    - Heterozygotes account for ~18% of cases with family history of venous thrombosis and 6% of first episode of DVT.
  - Antiphospholipid antibodies
    - Present in 10–20% with venous thrombosis
    - ACLA thrombosis syndrome >5 times more common than LA thrombosis syndrome
    - Present in 1–5% of young, healthy population
    - Present in 12–30% of patients with systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE)
    - Increases with age and coexistent diseases
  - Hyperhomocystinemia
    - 10–20% prevalence in venous thrombosis
  - Most cases of DVT occur in people with multiple risk factors that may include:
    - Smoking; 2–3-fold increased risk
    - Obesity; 2–3-fold increased risk
    - Immobilization; 11-fold increased risk
    - Surgery; 6-fold increased risk
    - Oral contraceptive use; 4-fold increased risk
    - Malignancy; 10–20-fold increased risk
- Age
  - More common with advanced age
  - Hazard ratio 1.7 for every decade of life after age 55
  - DVT incidence 17/100,000 for age 40–49 years; 232/100,000 for age 70–79 years
- Sex
  - More common in women than men

## Mechanism

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- Thrombi are composed of insoluble fibrin, platelets, and trapped red and white cells and are typically formed on disrupted endovascular surfaces.
- A wide variety of mechanisms can lead to increased thrombus formation, including:
  - Endothelial damage
  - Sluggish blood flow
  - Defective inhibition of coagulation factors
  - Impaired clot lysis
  - Antiphospholipid antibodies
  - See Differential Diagnosis for specific disorders.
- Venous thromboembolism is thought to be caused by underlying genetic predisposition and acquired precipitating events.
- Primary hypercoagulable states are due to:
  - Decreased antithrombotic proteins
    - Antithrombin deficiency
    - Protein C deficiency
    - Protein S deficiency
  - Increased prothrombotic proteins
    - Factor V Leiden
    - Prothrombin gene mutation (*G20210A*)
    - Increased levels of factors VII, XI, IX, VIII, von Willebrand factor

## Symptoms & Signs

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- May be asymptomatic or can manifest as a thromboembolic event such as:
  - Venous thrombosis
    - DVT
    - PE
    - Budd-Chiari syndrome
  - Arterial thrombosis
    - Coronary artery thrombosis
    - Cerebrovascular thrombosis
    - Transient ischemic attacks
    - Mesenteric vascular insufficiency
    - Occlusion of blood flow to extremities
  - Retinal vascular thrombosis
  - Recurrent second trimester miscarriage
  - Placental infarction

## Differential Diagnosis

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### Inherited

- Defective inhibition of coagulation factors
  - Factor V Leiden (resistant to inhibition by activated protein C)
  - Antithrombin III deficiency
  - Protein C deficiency
  - Protein S deficiency
  - Prothrombin gene mutation (*G20210A*)
  - Heparin cofactor II deficiency

- Impaired clot lysis
  - Dysfibrinogenemia
  - Plasminogen deficiency
  - Tissue plasminogen activator (tPA) deficiency
  - PAI-1 excess
  - Factor XII deficiency
- Elevated levels of clotting factors and chemokines
  - Factor VIII
  - Factor IX
  - Factor XI
  - Thrombin-activatable fibrinolysis inhibitor
  - Interleukin-8
- Uncertain mechanism
  - Homocystinuria: thought due to endothelial damage
- For details of these disorders, see Antiphospholipid Antibodies and Inherited Prothrombotic Disorders.

### Acquired

- Diseases or syndromes
  - LA/ACLA syndrome
  - Malignancy
  - Myeloproliferative disorder
  - Thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura
  - Estrogen treatment
  - Tamoxifen treatment
  - Hyperlipidemia
  - Diabetes mellitus
  - Hyperviscosity
  - Nephrotic syndrome
  - Congestive heart failure
  - Atrial fibrillation
  - Paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria
  - Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia
  - Inflammatory bowel disease
- Physiologic states
  - Pregnancy (especially postpartum)
    - HELLP syndrome (*hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, low platelets*)
  - Obesity
  - Postoperative state
  - Trauma
  - Immobilization
  - Intravenous drug use
  - Previous thromboembolism
- Old age

### Diagnostic Approach

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- Complete history, including careful family history, and physical examination aimed at assessing the presence of risk factors
- Thrombotic disorders should be considered in patients with recurrent episodes of venous thromboembolism (DVT or PE)

- Primary thrombotic disorders can often be identified by a careful history.
  - Three important diagnostic clues are:
    - Repeated episodes of thromboembolism without an obvious predisposing condition
    - Family history of thrombosis
    - Well-documented thromboembolism in adolescents and young adults
- Patients who develop DVT or PE without a clear predisposing factor and who have a strong family history, present under age 30, or have 1 or more episodes should have assays for:
  - Antithrombin III
  - Proteins C and S
  - Factor V Leiden
  - Kaolin clotting time (KCT) or dilute Russell viper venom time (dRVVT) if partial thromboplastin time (aPTT) is prolonged

## Laboratory Tests

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### Inherited prothrombotic disorders

- Antithrombin III
  - Normal plasma value is 5–15 mg/L (50–150%).
  - Values only slightly below normal increase the risk of thrombosis.
  - For optimal screening, the antithrombin III concentration is measured by immunoassay, and the plasma antithrombin and heparin cofactor activity are assessed with functional assays.
- Protein C and S
  - Both free and total protein S levels or C4b-binding protein levels should be assessed for maximum accuracy.
  - The correlation between levels of proteins C and S and the risk of thrombosis is not as precise as for antithrombin III deficiency.
- Factor V Leiden
  - Leiden mutation analysis is usually performed by polymerase chain reaction or dot blot assay.
  - Specificity is ~ 100%.

### Acquired prothrombotic disorders

- There are 2 basic groups of testing for acquired prothrombotic disorders.
  - Antiphospholipid antibodies (e.g., to cardiolipin, phosphatidylserine, and  $\beta_2$ -Gpl)
    - Nonspecific (lupus-like) inhibitors prolong coagulation tests by binding to phospholipids.
    - Assayed by anticoagulant effect (LA activity) or ability to bind to the complex phospholipid cardiolipin (ACLA activity)
    - High titers of immunoglobulin G anticardiolipin (>50 IU) indicate high risk for clotting.
    - Tests for LA or ACLA activity not well standardized; results may vary among and within patients.
  - Coagulation tests
    - Partial thromboplastin time (aPTT): prolonged in the presence of antiphospholipid antibodies
    - KCT and dRVVT: more specific tests for antiphospholipid antibodies
- The best predictor of thrombosis risk is a consistent prolongation of more than 1 coagulation test coupled with a high titer of ACLA activity.

- Repeat testing may be justified if clinical manifestations of the antiphospholipid antibody syndrome (APS) appear.
  - To diagnose APS with or without SLE requires the presence of clotting and/or repeated fetal losses plus
  - At least 2 positive tests for antiphospholipid antibodies, at least 6 weeks apart

## Imaging

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- Duplex venous ultrasonography
  - Noninvasive test used most often to diagnose DVT
- MRI
  - Noninvasive method to detect DVT and PE
  - Useful in suspected thrombosis in pelvic veins or superior and inferior vena cava
  - Used to establish cause of stroke
- CT of chest with contrast
  - Superseding lung scan as principle imaging test for diagnosis of PE
- CT of head
  - To establish cause of stroke
- Ventilation/perfusion lung scanning
  - To diagnose PE
- Pulmonary angiography
  - Most specific examination for definitive diagnosis of PE
- Arteriography
  - To confirm diagnosis and extent of arterial occlusion

## Treatment Approach

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- General
  - Initial treatment depends on the type of thrombosis.
    - See Deep Venous Thrombosis, Pulmonary Thromboembolism, Approach to Stroke.
  - Long-term treatment depends on the underlying disorder.
- Inherited prothrombotic disorders
  - Treatment recommendations are still evolving.
  - All patients who present with thrombosis should receive standard initial therapy with conventional or low-dose heparin followed by 3 months of oral warfarin.
  - It is unclear which patients should go on to receive long-term (possibly lifelong) anticoagulation.
  - See Antiphospholipid Antibodies and Inherited Prothrombotic Disorders for details.
- Acquired prothrombotic disorders
  - Risk factor modification (e.g., discontinuation of prothrombotic medications) or treatment of the underlying disease may reduce risk of thrombosis.
  - Antiphospholipid syndrome due to lupus-related APS
    - Anticoagulation to maintain the internationalized normal ratio (INR) at 3.0 may be beneficial in reducing the incidence of recurrent thromboses.

## Specific Treatments

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### General

- Treatment of thrombotic event varies depending on the type of thrombosis; see:
  - Deep Venous Thrombosis

- Pulmonary Thromboembolism
- Approach to Stroke
- See below for discussion of common antithrombotic agents.
- Treatment or prevention of the underlying thrombotic disorder
  - Discontinue prothrombotic medications.
  - Treat underlying disease, if possible.
  - For treatment of patients with inherited disorders or antiphospholipid antibodies, see Antiphospholipid Antibodies and Inherited Prothrombotic Disorders.
  - In other acquired disorders, continuation of antithrombotic treatment beyond initial treatment period should be considered based the underlying disorder, number of prior episodes of thrombosis, and the patient's risk of bleeding.

### Anticoagulant agents

- See Anticoagulant Therapy for details.
- Heparins
  - Mechanism of action: enhances activity of antithrombin III
  - Unfractionated heparin (UFH):
    - Should be given only if low-molecular-weight heparin (LMWH) is unavailable or parenteral therapy is required
    - Monitor by following aPTT; should be maintained between 1.5 and 2 times upper normal limit.
    - Major complication of UFH therapy is hemorrhage—manage by discontinuing heparin; for severe bleeding, administer protamine (1 mg/100 U heparin); results in rapid neutralization.
  - LMWH
    - Agent of choice for outpatient
    - Can be administered subcutaneously (SC)
    - Monitoring of the aPTT is unnecessary.
    - Less likely to induce antibodies and thrombocytopenia
    - Agents: enoxaparin, dalteparin, tinzaparin
- Warfarin (Coumadin)
  - Mechanism of action
    - Vitamin K antagonist; decreases levels of factors II, VII, IX, X, and anticoagulant proteins C and S
  - Dosing
    - Initial load of 5–10 mg PO qd administered over 2–3 days
    - Followed by titration of daily dose to keep the prothrombin time (PT) 1.5–2 times control or 2–3 times if the INR method is used
  - Complications
    - Hemorrhage, warfarin-induced skin necrosis (rare, occurs in persons deficient in protein C), teratogenic effects
    - Warfarin effect reversed by administration of vitamin K; fresh frozen plasma infused if urgent reversal necessary
  - Interactions
    - Agents that potentiate warfarin effect: chlorpromazine, chloral hydrate, sulfonamides, chloramphenicol, other broad-spectrum antibiotics, allopurinol, cimetidine, tricyclic antidepressants, disulfiram, laxatives, high-dose salicylates, thyroxine, clofibrate
    - Agents that antagonize warfarin effect: vitamin K, barbiturates, rifampin, cholestyramine, oral contraceptives, thiazides
- Pentasaccharides
  - Directly inhibits factor Xa

- May result in less heparin-induced thrombocytopenia than UFH and LMWH
- Fondaparinux
  - Given SC
  - Does not require monitoring
- Idraparinux
  - Has a half-life of 130 hours, which may facilitate once-weekly dosing for primary and/or secondary prevention of thromboembolic events
- Direct thrombin inhibitors
  - New class of anticoagulants
  - Commonly used in patients with heparin-induced thrombocytopenia
  - Also being compared with LMWHs
  - Agents: lepirudin, argatroban, bivalirudin, ximelagatran
- In-hospital anticoagulation
  - Usually initiated with heparin, with subsequent maintenance on warfarin after an overlap of 3 days
- Duration of therapy depends on underlying condition.
  - Calf DVT with clear precipitating cause: 3 months
  - Proximal or idiopathic DVT: 6–12 months
  - First DVT with documented thrombophilic abnormality: 6–12 months
  - First DVT with antiphospholipid antibodies or 2 or more thrombophilic abnormalities: 12 months
  - Recurrent idiopathic DVT: 12 months minimum
  - PE: 6 months minimum
  - Embolic disease with ongoing risk factor: long term or indefinite

### Fibrinolytic agents

- See Fibrinolytic Therapy for details.
- Mechanism of action: clot lysis by activating plasmin, which degrades fibrin
- Indications include:
  - Acute ST-elevation myocardial infarction within 6 hours of symptom onset
  - Hemodynamically unstable PE
  - Arterial embolic occlusion of extremity
  - Central venous line-associated thrombosis
  - Thrombolysis for DVT
    - Lower incidence of postphlebotic syndrome (chronic venous stasis, skin ulceration) than with heparin therapy
    - Also associated with significant risk of bleeding complications
    - Risks may not outweigh the benefits.
- Tissue plasminogen activator (tPA, alteplase),
  - For acute myocardial infarction (MI) and massive PE (adult > 65 kg), 10-mg IV bolus over 1–2 min, then 50 mg IV over 1 h and 40 mg IV over next 2 h (total dose = 100 mg)
  - tPA is slightly more effective but more expensive than streptokinase for treatment of acute MI.
- Streptokinase
  - For acute MI, 1.5 million IU IV over 60 min; or 20,000 IU as a bolus intracoronary (IC) infusion, followed by 2000 IU/min for 60 min IC
  - For PE or arterial or DVT, 250,000 IU over 30 min, then 100,000 IU/h for 24 hours (PE) or 72 hours (arterial or DVT)
- Urokinase
  - For PE, 4400 IU/kg IV over 10 minutes, then 4400 (IU/kg)/h IV for 12 hours.
- Fibrinolytic therapy is usually followed by period of anticoagulant therapy with heparin.



- Fibrinolytic agents are contraindicated in patients with:
  - Active internal bleeding
  - Recent (<2–3 months) cerebrovascular accident
  - Intracranial neoplasm, aneurysm, or recent head trauma

### Antiplatelet agents

- See Antiplatelet therapy for details.
- Aspirin
  - Effective in treatment of stable and unstable angina, acute MI, transient ischemic attack and incomplete stroke, stroke following carotid artery surgery, and atrial fibrillation
  - Reduces mortality after coronary artery bypass surgery
  - Advisable following peripheral arterial bypass surgery and carotid endarterectomy and in patients with intermittent claudication
  - Minimum effective dose: 75–325 mg/d
- Thienopyridines
  - Clopidogrel (400-mg loading dose then 75 mg/d) together with aspirin may be beneficial in lowering incidence of arterial thrombotic events (stroke, MI) in high-risk patients.

### Interruption of the inferior vena cava

- Patients with recurrent PE despite adequate anticoagulation or those who have a contraindication to anticoagulation are candidates for inferior vena cava interruption, preferably with a removable filter.

### Monitoring

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- UFH therapy
  - Monitor aPTT to achieve target of at 2X normal.
  - Monitor platelet count for possible development of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia.
- Warfarin therapy
  - Monitor PT to maintain a target INR of 2.0–3.0 with high-intensity therapy and 1.5–2.0 with low-intensity therapy

### Complications

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- General
  - Recurrent thromboembolism
- Antiphospholipid syndrome:
  - Arterial thrombosis
    - Coronary artery thrombosis
    - Cerebrovascular thrombosis
    - Transient ischemic attacks
  - Venous thrombosis
  - Retinal vascular thrombosis
  - Recurrent second trimester miscarriage
  - Placental infarction
  - Thrombocytopenia

- Anticardiolipin antibodies can also be associated with:
  - Livedo reticularis
  - Necrotizing purpura
  - Stasis ulcers of ankles
- Rarely, catastrophic antiphospholipid syndrome
  - Massive venous thrombosis
  - Respiratory failure
  - Cerebrovascular accident
  - Renal impairment
  - Liver function abnormalities
  - Adrenal insufficiency
  - Areas of cutaneous infarction

### Prognosis

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- Prognosis depends on the type of thrombosis and the underlying disorder; see
  - Approach to Stroke
  - Deep Venous Thrombosis
  - Pulmonary Thromboembolism
  - Antiphospholipid Antibodies and Inherited Prothrombotic Disorders
- Risk of thromboembolic event
  - Antithrombin deficiency
    - Greater risk of thromboembolic event than other prothrombotic disorders
    - Up to 85% have thromboembolic event by age 50.
  - Correlation between levels of proteins C and S and the risk of thrombosis is not as precise as for antithrombin III deficiency.
  - Factor V Leiden
    - Heterozygosity increases lifetime risk 7-fold.
    - Risk rises steadily with age.
    - Homozygote has 20-fold risk.
    - Heterozygosity coupled with oral contraceptives or pregnancy increases risk at least 15-fold.
    - Additive risk with other inherited defects
  - Inheritance of multiple mutations increases the risk of thrombosis.

### Prevention

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- There is no means of prevention for inherited prothrombotic disorders.
- Avoidance of certain drugs that may cause a hypercoagulable state
  - Oral contraceptives
  - L-asparaginase
  - Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor
  - Tamoxifen

### ICD-9-CM

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- 453.9 Other venous embolism and thrombosis of unspecified site
- 453.\_\_ Other venous embolism and thrombosis, (Use fourth and fifth digits for specificity)

### See Also

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- Anticoagulant Therapy

- Antiphospholipid Antibodies and Inherited Prothrombotic Disorders
- Antiplatelet Therapy
- Approach to Stroke
- Deep Venous Thrombosis
- Fibrinolytic Therapy
- Pulmonary Thromboembolism
- Superficial Thrombophlebitis
- Thrombotic Thrombocytopenic Purpura

### Internet Sites

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- Professionals
  - Venous Thrombosis clinical trials  
ClinicalTrials.gov
- Patients
  - What are Anticoagulants and Antiplatelet Agents?  
American Heart Association

### General Bibliography

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### PEARLS

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- In 1865, Professor Armand Trousseau first reported the association between cancer and thrombosis.
- 95% of venous thromboses are in the veins of the legs.
- A precipitating event can be identified in about 80% of people with their initial venous thromboembolism.
- Venous thromboembolism is actually present in only 20–30% of people suspected of having the problem on clinical grounds.
- In many patients, venous clots are clinically silent and only manifest themselves when PE occurs.

- An exhaustive and expensive search for an occult cancer is not warranted in a patient presenting with their first venous thromboembolism.
  - Occult cancer is detected in 4% or fewer of such patients, and no data suggest that the outcome of the cancer is improved by treatment begun before other symptoms bring the tumor to clinical attention.
- In the setting of migratory or recurrent venous thromboembolism, a complete history and physical examination including rectal and pelvic examinations, complete blood count, routine chemistries (including serum protein levels), prostate-specific antigen and CA-125 levels, chest x-ray, and abdominopelvic ultrasonography is a reasonable approach to detecting an underlying malignancy.
- The greatest risk factor for venous thromboembolism is prior venous thromboembolism; in idiopathic venous thromboembolism, the recurrence rate without anticoagulation is 7–8%/year over the next 2 years.