

The presence of cyanosis or evidence of a right-to-left shunt suggests congenital heart disease presenting in the adult, particularly tetralogy of Fallot or Eisenmenger's syndrome (**Chap. 236**). Increased blood viscosity raises pulmonary artery pressure; hypoxemia can lead to increased pulmonary vascular resistance. Together, these factors can produce cor pulmonale.

Polycythemia can be spurious (related to a decrease in plasma volume; Gaisbock's syndrome), primary, or secondary in origin. The secondary causes are all associated with increases in EPO levels: either a physiologically adapted appropriate elevation based on tissue hypoxia (lung disease, high altitude, CO poisoning, high-affinity hemoglobinopathy) or an abnormal overproduction (renal cysts, renal artery stenosis, tumors with ectopic EPO production). A rare familial form of polycythemia is associated with normal EPO levels but hyper-responsive EPO receptors due to mutations.

## APPROACH TO THE PATIENT: Polycythemia

As shown in **Fig. 77-18**, the first step is to document the presence of an increased red cell mass using the principle of isotope dilution by administering  $^{51}\text{Cr}$ -labeled autologous red blood cells to the patient and sampling blood radioactivity over a 2-h period. If the red cell mass is normal ( $<36$  mL/kg in men,  $<32$  mL/kg in women), the patient has spurious or relative polycythemia. If the red cell mass is increased ( $>36$  mL/kg in men,  $>32$  mL/kg in women), serum EPO levels should be measured. If EPO levels are low or unmeasurable, the patient most likely has polycythemia vera. A mutation in *JAK2* (Val617Phe), a key member of the cytokine intracellular signaling pathway, can be found in 90–95% of patients with polycythemia vera. Many of those without this particular *JAK2* mutation have mutations in exon 12. As a practical matter, few centers assess red

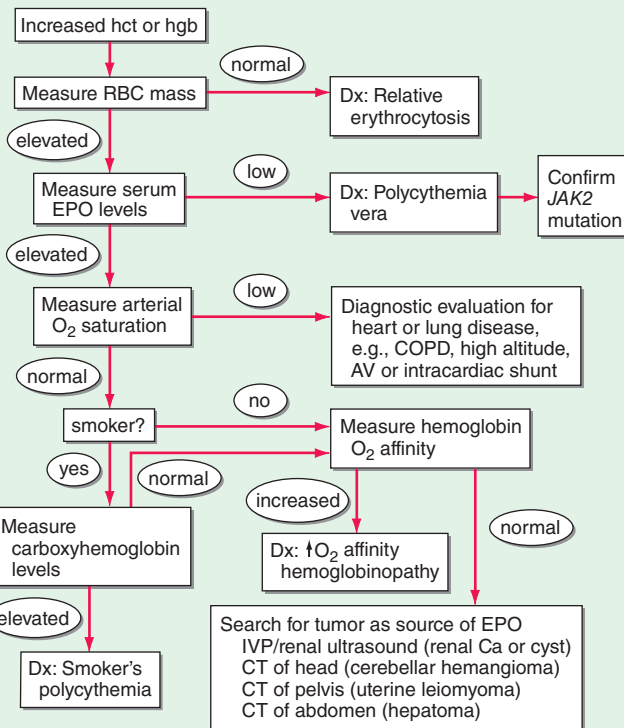
cell mass in the setting of an increased hematocrit. The short workup is to measure EPO levels, check for *JAK2* mutation, and perform an abdominal ultrasound to assess spleen size. Tests that support the diagnosis of polycythemia vera include elevated white blood cell count, increased absolute basophil count, and thrombocytosis.

If serum EPO levels are elevated, one needs to distinguish whether the elevation is a physiologic response to hypoxia or related to autonomous EPO production. Patients with low arterial  $\text{O}_2$  saturation ( $<92\%$ ) should be further evaluated for the presence of heart or lung disease, if they are not living at high altitude. Patients with normal  $\text{O}_2$  saturation who are smokers may have elevated EPO levels because of CO displacement of  $\text{O}_2$ . If carboxyhemoglobin (COHb) levels are high, the diagnosis is "smoker's polycythemia." Such patients should be urged to stop smoking. Those who cannot stop smoking require phlebotomy to control their polycythemia. Patients with normal  $\text{O}_2$  saturation who do not smoke either have an abnormal hemoglobin that does not deliver  $\text{O}_2$  to the tissues (evaluated by finding elevated  $\text{O}_2$ -hemoglobin affinity) or have a source of EPO production that is not responding to the normal feedback inhibition. Further workup is dictated by the differential diagnosis of EPO-producing neoplasms. Hepatoma, uterine leiomyoma, and renal cancer or cysts are all detectable with abdominopelvic computed tomography scans. Cerebellar hemangiomas may produce EPO, but they present with localizing neurologic signs and symptoms rather than polycythemia-related symptoms.

## 78 Bleeding and Thrombosis

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### AN APPROACH TO DIAGNOSING PATIENTS WITH POLYCYTHEMIA



**FIGURE 77-18** An approach to the differential diagnosis of patients with an elevated hemoglobin (possible polycythemia). AV, atrioventricular; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; CT, computed tomography; EPO, erythropoietin; hct, hematocrit; hgb, hemoglobin; IVP, intravenous pyelogram; RBC, red blood cell.

The human hemostatic system provides a natural balance between procoagulant and anticoagulant forces. The procoagulant forces include platelet adhesion and aggregation and fibrin clot formation; anticoagulant forces include the natural inhibitors of coagulation and fibrinolysis. Under normal circumstances, hemostasis is regulated to promote blood flow; however, it is also prepared to clot blood rapidly to arrest blood flow and prevent exsanguination. After bleeding is successfully halted, the system remodels the damaged vessel to restore normal blood flow. The major components of the hemostatic system, which function in concert, are (1) platelets and other formed elements of blood, such as monocytes and red cells; (2) plasma proteins (the coagulation and fibrinolytic factors and inhibitors); and (3) the vessel wall.

### STEPS OF NORMAL HEMOSTASIS

#### PLATELET PLUG FORMATION

On vascular injury, platelets adhere to the site of injury, usually the denuded vascular intimal surface. Platelet adhesion is mediated primarily by Von Willebrand factor (VWF), a large multimeric protein present in both plasma and the extracellular matrix of the subendothelial vessel wall, which serves as the primary "molecular glue," providing sufficient strength to withstand the high levels of shear stress that would tend to detach them with the flow of blood. Platelet adhesion is also facilitated by direct binding to subendothelial collagen through specific platelet membrane collagen receptors.

Platelet adhesion results in subsequent platelet activation and aggregation. This process is enhanced and amplified by humoral mediators in plasma (e.g., epinephrine, thrombin); mediators released from activated platelets (e.g., adenosine diphosphate, serotonin); and vessel wall extracellular matrix constituents that come in contact with adherent platelets (e.g., collagen, VWF). Activated platelets undergo the release reaction, during which they secrete contents that further promote aggregation and inhibit the naturally anticoagulant endothelial cell