PATOPHYSIOLOGY OF THE LIVER



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LIVER CELLS

- hepatocytes
- reticuloendothelial cells
- Kupffer cells
- endothelia
- hepatic stellate cells (HSC), Ito cell, lipocytes



Hepatocytes – polarized cells

- basolateral membrane (surface) sinusoids, bloodstream
- apical (canalicular) membrane bile canaliculus

Liver structure



<u>Blood flow</u>

- * portal vein
- * hepatic artery
- * capillary fenestrations
- * low resistence



<u>Conditions for normal liver</u> <u>functioning</u>

- sufficient amount of hepatocytes
- appropriate blood flow through liver: sufficient contact of cells with blood

* Functional liver reserve

* Capacity for regeneration

Damage of the liver

disturbance of hepatocytes death of hepatocytes loss of liver parenchyme

- activation of other liver cells
- change of liver structure
- liver blood flow disturbances





Principle causes of liver damage

- viruses
- alcohol
- circulatory disturbances
- metabolic diseases
- hepatotoxic substances incl. drugs
- tumors
- systemic diseases

Hepatitis A Virus











Circulatory disturbances

* blood congestion right heart failure – nutmeg liver



* hypoperfusion, e.g. due to shock

Metabolic diseases

- hemochromatosis
- porphyria
- Wilson's disease
- glykogenosis
- thesaurosis

Wilson's disease

(hepatolenticular degeneration)

AR inherited disorder (1:30 000) of copper metabolism impairment of normal excretion of hepatic copper toxic accumulation of the metal in liver, brain and other organs low serum ceruloplasmin concentration

Neuropsychiatric damage



The entire March 1912 issue of Brain was devoted to S. A. Kinnier **Wilson's description of familial hepatolenticular degeneration**. On the left is one of Wilson's original patients, demonstrating the characteristic posture of the arms and hands and fixed facial features with involuntary mouth opening. On the right is the cut brain of one of Wilson's patients, showing <u>bilateral degeneration of the lenticular</u> nuclei.





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Kayser-Fleischer ring

Hepatic disturbances

- acute hepatitis
- fulminant hepatitis
- chronic active
- hepatitis
- cirrhosis

ATP7B gene (13th chromosome) P type, copper-transporting ATPase more than 40 mutant forms have been identified

Hemochromatosis

- disorder of iron storage
 mostly AR inherited disease (almost 0,3% incidence with incomplete penetration) inappropriate increase in intestinal iron absorption
- deposition of excessive amount of iron in parenchymal cells with tissue damage

Porphyria

inherited or acquired disorder of specific enzymes in the heme biosynthetic pathway with accumulation of porphyrins of their precursors

some of them – mainly PCT (*porphyria cutanea tarda*) – represent higher risk of cirrhosis and even hepatocellular carcinoma

Chemicals, toxins, drugs

* tetrachlormethan and other solvants

* faloidin

* PARACETAMOL = ACETAMINOFEN

* many others... !!!



Liver reaction to damage

damaging factors liver reaction liver disease

RESOLUTION

Activated HSC



INITIATION PERPETUATION PROGRESSION

Hepatitis

<u>Etiology</u>

- * viruses clascical (A,B,C,D,E...)
- * other viruses and bacteria (e.g. CMV, Leptospira)
- * alcoholic hepatitis

Clinical forms

- * acute (ev. fulminant)
- * chronic (B, mainly C)
- persistent (CPH)
- active (CAH) progression



Liver steatosis, steatohepatitis





<u>Etiopathogenesis</u>

<u>Alcoholic</u>

* energy

- * metabolic changes
- * cytochrome induction
- * increased TNF α production

Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH)

* insulin resistence, obesity, DM 2, hyperlipoproteinemia

- * malnutrice, profound weight loss
- * toxic substances, drugs



Liver cirrhosis

- * hepatic injury
- * fibrosis
- * nodular regeneration
- * irreversible distortion of normal liver architecture
- * blood flow disturbances
- * loss of parenchyma





Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)



* mainly occurs in cirrhosis

- * etiology is largely common with cirrhosis
- viruses (HBV and HCV!)
- alcohol a toxins (e.g. aflatoxins, mycotoxins)
- hemochromatosis, porphyria
 combination
- * studies on molecular level
Clinical features of liver diseases

1) progressive hepatocellular dysfunction and loss of hepatocytes

 2) disturbances of blood flow through liver
 - portal hypertension

Portal hypertension





* prehepatic * (intra)hepatic * posthepatic

Intrahepatic PH:

- * presinusoidal
- * sinusoidal
- * postsinusoidal



Mechanisms:

- a) **increased flow** through portal region caused by vasodilation and by hyperkinetic circulation
- b) **increased resistence** in liver circulation
- *mechanical* due to structural changes and fibrosis in liver
- <u>functional</u> (endothelial dysfunction, HSC activation, elevated production of vasoconstrictory endothelin, decreased production of vasodilatory nitric oxid NO)



Consequences and main clinical manifestations of portal hypertension

- * portocaval (portal-to-systemic) shunting
- * blood stagnation in abdomen organs
- * gastointestinal bleeding
- * hepatic (portosystemic) encefalopathy (PSE)
- * ascites
- * splenomegaly
- * circulatory disturbances
- * hepatorenal syndrome
- * spontaneous bacterial peritonitis



Enlargment of blood vessels that anastomose with the portal vein – <u>varices</u>

- * bleeding
- * blood shunting directly to systmic circulation
- nutrients
- gastrointestinal hormones
- drugs
- toxic substances exogenous and gut-derived

Disturbances of hemostasis

- coagulopathy synthesis of coagulation factors
- thrombocytopenia splenomegaly...
- decreased clearance of activated factors

Hepatic encephalopathy

- acute LF
- portosystemic encephalopathy

<u>**Pathogenesis</u>** has not been completely elucidated yet, the role of several factors is supposed</u>

- *ammonia* and other gut-derived substances
- disturbances in *blood-brain barrier (BBB) permeability* (cytokines – TNF-α, NO...)
- disturbances in *neurotransmission* (↑GABA, ↓glutamate, ↑endogenous benzodiazepins, neurosteroids)
- false neurotransmiters (e.g. octopamin)
- increase of benzodiazepin receptors (peripheral type) in astrocytes
- changes in aminoacid spectrum (\uparrow aromatic, \downarrow branched)
- osmotic changes and brain edema in hepatic encefalopathy during acute LF
- role of proinflammatory cytokines (IL-1, IL-6, TNF-α) on blood-brain barrier permeability and on endothel in brain vessels (e.g. induction of NO production with changes in brain circulation)
- other: deposits of manganese in gl. pallidus, phenol, short-chain fatty acids...









Precipitating factors:

- bleeding,
- proteins,
- constipation,
- renal failure with blood urea increase (source for ammonia generation in gut),
- drugs,
- electrolyte imbalance,
- infection, surgery etc.

CIRCULATORY DISTURBANCES

PORTAL HYPERTENSION SPLANCHNIC VASODILATATION (NO etc.) SYSTEMIC UNDERFILLING VASOCONSTRICTION IN OTHER ORGANS, MAINLY IN THE KIDNEYS **CIRCULATORY CHANGES – SYSTEMIC CIRCULATION**

DECREASE OF SYSTEMIC RESISTANCE

INCREASE OF CARDIAC OUTPUT

HYPOTENSION

TACHYCARDIA

HYPERKINETIC CIRCULATION





Mechanisms of origin:

- a) portal hypertension
- b) hypoalbuminemia
- c) circulatory changes (vasodilation, hyperkinetic circulation)
- d) water and sodium retention key role of the *kidney* in ascites formation
- e) lymphatic vessels disorders

These mechanisms are responsible also for edema (except for portal hypertension).



vasodilatation

portal hypertension





Sequelae of ascites:

- a) increase in body weight (might be another complication in general bad status)
- b) diaphragm elevation (decreased lung vital capacity)
- c) negative impact on GIT
- d) mechanical influencing abdomen wall, hernias etc.

HEPATORENAL SYNDROME (HRS)

portal hypertension

splanchnic vasodilatation

increased production of splanch. VD substances

severe arterial underfilling

BP decrease

stimulation of vasoconstrictive — vasoconstriction mechanisms in the brain and the limbs

vasoconstriction in the kidneys

HRS

renal vasoconstrictors prevail over renal vasodilatatory mechanisms (mainly prostaglandines)

HEPATORENAL SYNDROME (HRS)

Renal failure in patients with advanced (chronic) liver disease, the histological appearance of the kidneys is normal, they can be transplanted

The hallmark of HRS is <u>vasoconstriction</u> in the renal circulation due to sympathic system and RAAs activation. Endothelins a leukotriens might be also involved.

The vasoconstrictor systems are activated as a response to vasodilation induced by e.g. NO, which persists in splanchnic regions while in the kidneys leads to vasoconstriction.

Protective action on kidney perfusion have prostaglandins (caution with many drugs !)

HEPATORENAL SYNDROME (HRS)

- oligoanuria
- increase of serum creatinine and urea
- decrease of GF below 20 ml/min
- tubular functions are preserved
- worsening response on diuretic therapy
- sodium and water retention, edema, ascites, dilutional hyponatremia

Hepatorenal syndrome (HRS)

type I – rapid progression of renal functions with increase of serum creatinin

type II – slower onset

The syndrome is characterized by functional changes in kidney; the histology is normal

Gastrointestinal&digestion disorders

- *Portal-hypertensive gastropathy* (PHG): dilated vessels in the mucosa and submucosa in the absence of inflammation, leading to small or less frequently large erosions. No clinical manifestation but *bleeding* in cases with large erosions.
- *Gastric acid* secretory activity is reduced, whereas the gastric mucosal barrier is impaired.
- Gastric *mucosal haemodynamics*: whether "overflow" (i.e. active congestion) or "stasis" (i.e. passive congestion) causes gastric mucosal hyperaemia is not known
- Disorders of *bile secretion* malabsorption of fat + fat-soluble vitamins
- Impaired *resorption*

Hormonal disturbances

Altered hormone clearance in liver – decreased removal of free steroid hormones from blood and their inactivation, decrease in inactivation of insulin/glucagon

Steroid hormones clearance is diminished – increased peripheral aromatization of androgens to estrogens: *gynecomasty* in man, testicular atrophy, sexual disturbances...

Decrease aldosterone metabolism contributes to the *secondary hyperaldosteronism*



Cholestasis

Bile production and secretion

blood

bile

gut

<u>Liver</u>

- * transport mechanisms in hepatocytes
- * structural hepatocyte integrity
 * energy

Bile flow

- * intrahepatic biliary ducts
- * extrahepatic biliary ducts

Principle bile components

* water

- * bile salts
- * phospholipides
- * cholesterol and other steroids
- * minerals
- * endogenous substances
- * exogennous substances incl. drugs, toxins etc.

Important - *fluidity*

Hepatocyte and transporters

- * hepatocyte damage incl. energetic metabolism
- * inborn defects of transporters
- * competition between various substances during transport
 * change in gene expression of transporters
Hereditary disorders

- * progressive familiar intrahepatic cholestasis (PFIC)
- type 1 MDR3
- type 2 BSEP
- * *Dubin-Johnson syndrome* - cMOAT

Hereditary defects and canalicular transport systems



Canalicular disorders

- * cholangitis incl. autoimmunity
- * granulomas
- * ischemia
- * cystic fibrosis
- * tumors ...

Extrahepatic disorders

* cholelithiasis (stones) * tumors



Consequences

* bile stagnation in the* lack of bile in the intestine

Damage to hepatocytes and liver

- bile acids

- * detergent action, membrane damage
- * lipase activation
- * vasoactive action
- * interference with metabolism, transduction
- * incorporation into membranes, covalent binding to proteins
- * apoptosis
- * immunomodulatory functions

bilirubin
 mitochondrial uncoupling
 jaundice (icterus)

leukotriens hemodynamic effects
 inflammation

- copper lipid peroxidation

- *cholesterol* change in membrane fluidity



biliar cirrhosis

Lack of bile in the intestine

- * lipid digestion disturbed
- * malabsorption, incl. fat-soluble vitamins (hypovitaminosis)
- calcium, bones (D)
- coagulopathy (K)
- damage to epithelium, vision
- disturbances etc. (A)
- * acholic stools

Clinical manifestation

- * jaundice
- * pruritus (bile acids, endorfins)
- * pain (extrahepatic biliary obstruction)
- * sequelae of disturbances of digestion

Gilbert's syndrome

non-conjugated familiar hyperbilirubinemia

incidence: several % in population, mainly men

jaundice can manifest during stress, fasting and can simulate hepatitis

genetic changes in promotor sequence of gene for <u>UDP-glucuronyltransferase</u>. decrease in gene expression

increase in repetitive sequences TA in TATAA region of promotor, which decreases binding of transcription factors

The End (+ supplement)

Cytokine action

influence regeneration × apoptosis fibroproduction origine: inflammation, endotoxin source: parenchymatous and nonparenchymatous cells autocrinne and paracrinne secretion

Intestinal changed permeability and action of endotoxin

long time influence of alcohol portal hypertension endotoxin penetrates to portal blood and stimulates macrophages to production of cytokines, NO, oxygen radicals

Basolateral membrane

* sodium-potassium ATPase * potassium channel * sodium dependent transport (proton, bicarbonate) * NTCP – sodium-taurocholate cotransporter (primary carrier for conjugated bile-salt uptake from portal blood) * OATP1,2 – (sodium independent) organic-anion transporter (multispecific carrier: bile salts, org. anions, bilirubin, estrogens ...)

Canalicular (apical) membrane

* MDR1 – multidrug-resistance-1 P-glycoprotein (ATP depend. excretion of large org. cations, toxins, xenobiotics) * MDR3 – multidrug-resistance-1 P-glycoprotein (phospholipide transport) * BSEP – bile-salt export pump (ATP-depend. bile salt transport into bile, stimulation of bile flow) * MRP2/cMOAT – canalicular multispecific organic-anion transporter (ATP-depend. transport of organic anions incl. bilirubin diglucuronide)

Principle functions of the normal liver

- * energy metabolism and substrate interconversion
- * protein synthetic functions: plasma proteins incl. albumin and coagulation factors
- * solubilization, transport, storage
- * protective and clearance functions, detoxification, inactivation

Mechanisms of virus liver damage

* direct - cell necrosis (HAV)

* indirect, mediated by immune mechanisms, apoptosis, Fas system

Mechanisms of liver damage

Cell damage



necrosis apoptosis

the way of cell death druh may depend on intensity of stimulus and of status of liver cells (ATP, antioxidative mechanisms etc.)

Oxidative stress

- *intracellular* in hepatocyte: 2-5% oxygen oxidative mechanisms in mitochondria detoxification reactions (cytochrom P450) increased due to TNF α , ischemia/reperfusion etc.

- *intercellular* - activated phagocytes, leukocytes nitric oxide

Viruses Toxins

Cytokines (e. g. $TNF\alpha$)

final outcome depends on cell status: depletion of antioxidants (e.g. by alcohol) leads to cell *death*, meanwhile with their abundance the cytokine action might be *proliferative*

Fibroproduction

key role: <u>non-parenchymatous</u> cells autocrinne and paracrinne stimulation

HSC 15 % of cells in liver Disse space retinoid storage heterogenous group of cells, embryon. from neural crest

activation – proliferation / fibroproduction / contractility

<u>Initiation</u> from damaged hepatocytes, endothelial cells, Kupffer cells, change in extracellular matrix production of oxygen radicals

Perpetuation

production of various cytokines and enzymes dividing of HSC, contractility, collagen production, change in extracellular matrix, chemotaxis of HSC and leukocytes, loss of retinoids

<u>Resolution</u> is the *deactivation* possible ? – IL-10 apoptosis

Sodium&Water Balance, Acid-Base Balance

Mechanisms:

- a) hypoalbuminemia
- b) circulation changes (vasodilatation of systemic and splanchnic vascular bed, hyperkinetic circulation, development of vasoconstriction in kidneys)
- c) secondary hyperaldosteronism

water retention
 decreased capacity of patients in excreting water
 ADH, diminished production of prostaglandins in kidney,
 decreased delivery of filtrate to distal parts of nephron and
 collecting tubules

- sodium retention
- "undefilling" hypothesis low renal perfusion due to diminished effective intravascular volume (hypoalbuminemia, systemic and portal circulatory changes with *vasodilation* and hyperkinetic circulation), developing *vasoconstriction in renal circulation* and then functional fluid and sodium retention due to activation of the system *renin-angiotensin-aldosteron* (secondary hyperaldosteronism) and *ADH*, activation of *sympathetic nerves* etc.
- "overflow" hypothesis: primary is increased soldum resorption (probably both in proximal and distal tubules)

Hyponatremia (dilutional) is very often observed together with general increased amount of sodium in body. Hyponatremia reflects the water retention.

- hypokalemia
- metabolic alkalosis (metabolic acidosis develops in terminal phases), in connection with hypokalemia (hyperaldosteronism); depletion of kalium, protons enter the cells, intracellulary is acidosis (!)

Protein metabolism

decreased syntesis of albumin (normally 12 g/day, about 20 days half-life), coagulation factors, transport proteins oxidative deamination and transamination of amino acids

Urea cycle Synthesis of urea from *ammonia* in periportal hepatocytes; requires energy (ATP); key enzyme – carbamylphosphate synthetase

Synthesis of urea is connected with *regulation of acid-base* balance

Alkalemia increases the activity of carbamylphosphate synthetase, the synthesis of urea is increased, synthesis of glutamine is decreased; in kidneys NH_3 (the substrate for urea synthesis) is resorbed + proton

Acidemia inhibits urea synthesis, ammonia is rather transformed in perivenous hepatocytes to glutamine which is transported to kidneys (NH_4^+ is excreted to urine)

Carbohydrate metabolism

Liver plays role of ,,*glucostat*" (glykogen storage, glukoneogenesis, target organ of acting and inactivation of hormons)

chronic LF – cirrhosis: often *insulin resistence or diabetes*

terminal phase or acute severe LF – *hypoglycemia*