

Decision Making in Critical Care Medicine

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Lower Gastrointestinal Bleeding

Ujwal Prakash Dhundi

■ INTRODUCTION

The term acute lower gastrointestinal (LGI) bleeding denotes bleeding which occurs from a source distal to the ligament of Treitz. The causes of acute LGI bleeding are given in **Table 1**. We must keep in mind that nearly 10% patients are later found to have upper GI (UGI) tract bleeding who were initially thought to be having LGI bleeding. Therefore, in all patients suspected to have LGI bleed, we must keep in mind the possibility of UGI hemorrhage.

CLINICAL FEATURES

A patient with LGI bleeding typically complains of hematochezia, i.e., the passage of bright red or maroon-colored blood or blood clots per rectum. Generally, the color of blood from the left colon is bright red, and that from the right colon is maroon colored and it is mixed with stools. Infrequently bleeding from the right side of the colon may present with melena.

Laboratory features in a patient with LGI bleeding usually have normocytic red cells if the bleeding is acute; microcytic red cells or iron deficiency anemia suggest chronic bleeding.

Patients with acute LGI bleeding and normal renal function have normal blood urea nitrogen (BUN) to creatinine or urea to creatinine ratio (<20:1 or <100:1, respectively).

INITIAL EVALUATION AND MANAGEMENT

The evaluation and management of a patient with acute LGI bleeding should occur simultaneously. The goals of management are to establish that the source of bleeding

TABLE 1: Causes of lower gastrointestinal bleeding.		
Anatomic	Diverticulosis, hemorrhoids, fistula, rectal ulcers	
Vascular	Angiodysplasia, ischemia, radiation colitis	
Inflammatory	Inflammatory bowel disease, infection	
Neoplastic	eoplastic Polyps and cancers	
Miscellaneous Post polypectomy		

is from LGI bleeding, identify the severity of bleeding and triage the patient to the appropriate management setting, and simultaneously initiate and continue resuscitation as required.

Initial evaluation: The goals of the evaluation are to identify the severity of bleeding, if bleeding is from an UGI source, and to identify the factors which might interfere with the subsequent management.

History: This includes prior history of bleeding, reviewing medical records to identify the potential source of bleeding, and comorbidities which might affect the patients' subsequent management.

Medication history should probe for the use of medications that might be associated with the risk of bleeding and impaired coagulation, such as antiplatelets, anticoagulants, and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory medication. The presence of specific symptoms may indicate the possible source of LGI bleeding, e.g., painless hematochezia in diverticular bleeding, change in bowel habits in malignancy, and abdominal pain in colitis.

Physical examination: It should aim at the assessment of hemodynamic stability and examination of stools to ascertain if it is melena or hematochezia. Signs of hypovolemia include resting tachycardia, orthostatic hypotension, and supine hypotension. Abdominal pain on examination suggests the possibility of inflammatory source of bleeding such as ischemic or infectious or perforation.

Laboratory tests: Complete blood count, liver function test, coagulation test, and serum chemistries should be sent, and hemoglobin concentration should be monitored based on the clinical condition of the patient every 2–8 hours.

Differential diagnosis: The primary differential diagnosis for LGI bleeding should be UGI bleeding as approximately 10–15% of the patient with severe hematochezia will actually have UGI bleeding. Finding that corroborate likely UGI bleeding is hemodynamic instability, orthostatic

hypotension, and elevated BUN to creatinine ratio or urea to creatinine ratio >20–30:1 or >100:1, respectively. However, the possibility of UGI bleeding source is reduced if there are blood clots in the stool. Consideration to UGI endoscopy should be given if there is a high suspicion of UGI bleeding.

Initial management: This involves triaging the patient to the appropriate level of the hospital setting for better management. The management of bleeding involves general supportive measures, appropriate fluid and blood resuscitation, and the management of coagulopathy, reversal (if possible) of effects of anticoagulant, and antiplatelet agents.

Triage and consultation: The timing and setting of evaluation depend on the severity of the bleeding and the patient's comorbidities. Urgent gastroenterologist consult should be sought right at the beginning for endoscopic evaluation. Surgical or interventional radiology should also be involved in cases with massive hematochezia and in those with highrisk of complications.

Intensive care unit (ICU) admission: Patients with hemodynamic instability, persistent bleeding, and significant comorbid illnesses should be shifted to the ICU for resuscitation and therapeutic intervention. Several features can predict the risk of complications in patients with LGI bleeding (Table 2). The number of high-risk features present increase the risk of poor outcomes in these patients.

General supportive measures in the ICU: Patients should be monitored using an electrocardiogram, pulse oximeter, and frequent measurement of blood pressure. Invasive arterial pressure monitoring is desirable for unstable patients. Oxygen supplementation should be started, and the patient should be kept fasting. Adequate venous access with two large bore cannulas (16 or 18 G) for resuscitation with fluid and blood should be done as needed. Central venous catheter may be inserted later, if vasopressors are required.

Fluid resuscitation: Optimum resuscitation and stabilization of the patient are the most vital components of management. Patients should receive crystalloids while awaiting grouping

TABLE 2: Features predicting the risk of complications in patients with lower gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding.

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Hemodynamic instability	Bleeding inpatient admitted for another reason	
Persistent bleeding	Current use of aspirin	
Significant comorbidities	Prolonged prothrombin time	
Advanced age	A nontender abdomen	
Hypoalbuminemia	Anemia	
Abnormal white cell count	Prior history of bleeding due to diverticular disease or angio-dysplasia	
Elevated blood urea nitrogen		

and cross-matching. If blood pressure fails to respond to initial fluid resuscitation, then the rate of administration should be increased, and urgent interventional angiography should be considered.

Blood transfusion: This should be individualized. A young patient without any comorbid illness may not require blood transfusion until hemoglobin falls below 7 g/L while a patient who is older and has significant comorbidities and coronary artery diseases may be transfused to achieve a higher level of hemoglobin (9–10 g/L). The patient who is actively bleeding and hemodynamically unstable will need a blood transfusion, even if the hemoglobin level is normal.

Management of Coagulopathy, Anticoagulants, and Antiplatelet Agents

The decision regarding continued use of anticoagulant and antiplatelet agents should be individualized in all cases. The risk of holding or reversing anticoagulation should be weighed with the risk of continued bleeding without reversal. In complicated cases, consultation with a prescribing specialist should be obtained to make the final decision. In case of life-threatening bleeding, anticoagulant medications such as warfarin and direct-acting oral anticoagulant (DOAC) should be withheld. Warfarin should be withheld, and prothrombin complex concentrate (PCC) and vitamin K should be administered; in the absence of PCC fresh frozen plasma should be given in bleeding patients with international normalized ratio (INR) more than 2.5.

Platelet transfusion: It is indicated if the platelet count drops below $50,000/\mu L$. Routine platelet transfusion is not indicated in a patient on antiplatelet medication. Endoscopy can be performed on a patient with INR between 1.5 and 2.5. If the INR > 2.5, it needs correction before endoscopy.

Antiplatelet medications: Aspirin should be continued if it is being used for secondary prophylaxis. Dual antiplatelet should not be discontinued without cardiologist consultation in a patient with acute coronary syndrome within 90 days or with a bare metallic stent placed within the past 6 weeks or a drug-eluting stent placed within the past 6 months. Studies have shown increased all-cause mortality in patients with cardiovascular disease and peptic ulcer bleeding on discontinuation of aspirin. The decision to reintroduce this medication will also depend on the risk of thrombosis and bleeding and should be individualized. Low-dose aspirin or antiplatelet agent should be reintroduced within 5 days or earlier if hemostasis is achieved and there is no further bleeding.

DIAGNOSTIC STUDIES

After the UGI source of bleeding is excluded, diagnostic colonoscopy is the initial choice for diagnostic evaluation

and treatment of acute LGI bleeding. Other diagnostic studies that can be performed are radionucleotide imaging, computed tomography (CT) angiography and mesenteric angiography. The radiological imaging needs ongoing active bleeding to detect the source and therefore it should be reserved for patients with severe ongoing bleeding or in whom we are unable to find the source.

Colonoscopy: It has the advantage of precisely locating the site of bleeding irrespective of the cause or rate of bleeding, the ability to take biopsy and microbiology samples, and the ability to provide therapeutic interventions. Disadvantages include bowel preparation, poor visualization in inadequately prepared bowel, and the need for sedation and the risk associated with it.

Timing of colonoscopy: The colonoscopy should be performed in the next available setting after bowel preparation. Studies have shown no significant differences in the outcomes in patients with LGI bleeding undergoing colonoscopy in less than 24 hours versus 24–96 hours.

Bowel preparation: Some gastroenterologists prefer unprepared bowel since blood itself is cathartic, but as the cecal intubation rate is lower in unprepared colon and stool may obscure the bleeding source cleaning the colon with 4–6 L of polyethylene glycol is preferred. Bowel preparation should be done cautiously as there is a risk of aspiration and fluid overload. If perforation or obstruction is suspected radiographic studies should be obtained before bowel preparation.

Radiographic imaging: The advantage of radiographic studies is that they can identify the location of bleeding throughout the GI tract including the small bowel, and treatment can be attempted by using angioembolization of the lesion. However, the studies need active bleeding at the time they are being performed to detect the bleeding. In a patient with severe bleeding who is unstable for colonoscopy or with active bleeding despite colonoscopy, CT angiography can be used to identify the patient for angiographic embolization and to determine the site of bleeding before surgery. It is important to note that angiography should immediately follow a positive CT angiography.

Radionucleotide imaging: Radionucleotide scanning is the most sensitive radiographic test which detects the bleeding occurring at the rate of 0.1–0.5 mL/min. It is important to mention that angiography should be promptly done after a positive radionucleotide scan. The disadvantage of a radionucleotide scan is that it is positive only if there is active bleeding at the time of the scan, and it can only localize bleeding to the general area of the abdomen and has a variable accuracy rate.

Computed tomography angiography: Advantages of CT angiography include its wide availability, minimal invasiveness, rapidity, and precision of the anatomical location for the source of bleeding. It detects the bleeding occurring at the rate of 0.3–0.5 mL/min. Disadvantages include lack of therapeutic ability, exposure to radiation, and risk associated with contrast media.

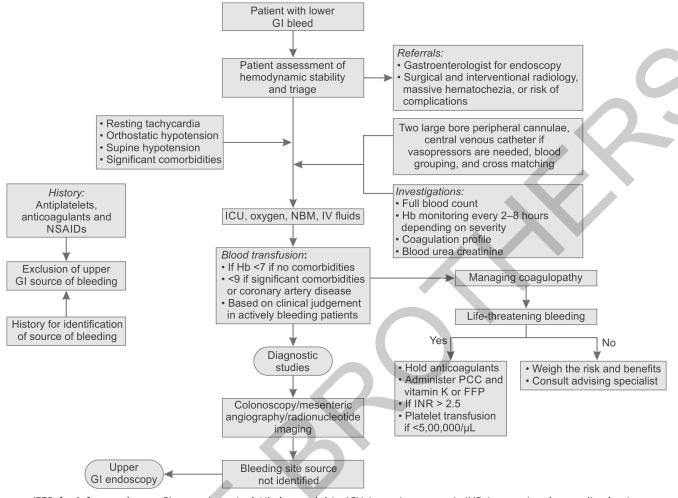
Digital subtraction angiography (DSA): DSA requires a 0.5-1 mL/min rate of bleeding to detect the source of bleeding, and it should be reserved for severely bleeding unstable patients who are not candidates for endoscopy. Its advantages include lack of need for bowel preparation and accurate anatomical localization along with the ability to provide therapeutic interventions. Angiography and intraarterial vasopressin injection are used to stop or reduce the bleeding, but vasopressin has significant side effects such as cardiac arrhythmia and bowel ischemia. Transcatheter angioembolization is a definitive method for stopping the bleeding. Super selective embolization has reduced the risk of bowel infarction significantly. The disadvantages of embolization include bowel infarction, arterial injury, thrombus formation, and contrast-induced nephropathy and subsequent renal failure.

ADDITIONAL TESTING IF THE SOURCE OF BLEEDING IS NOT IDENTIFIED

If the bleeding site is not evident despite thorough LGI evaluation, push enteroscopy (where a small diameter flexible scope is pushed beyond the ligament of Treitz) should be considered in those with severe ongoing bleeding. Push enteroscopy can detect bleeding in up to 60 cm of the proximal jejunum. Capsule endoscopy and deep small bowel enteroscopy (called Sonde enteroscopy) can be done to evaluate the small bowel for bleeding source. In patients in whom the bleeding has stopped, the identification might be very difficult. Those cases should be observed for 24-48 hours. An urgent CT angiography or radionucleotide scan can be obtained to localize the site of bleeding if bleeding recurs. Provocative challenges with thrombolytics, anticoagulants, and vasodilators have been used to help in the diagnosis of elusive bleeding. However, these methods carry a significant risk of bleeding refractory to the treatment and death. Hence, these are used rarely.

■ TREATMENT OF BLEEDING

The treatment of bleeding depends upon the cause of the bleeding. In most cases, bleeding is controlled by therapeutic measures [e.g., four-quadrant submucosal injection of epinephrine (1–2 mL aliquots, dilution 1:20,000), endoscopic tamponade, bipolar coagulation, application of endoscopic clips, bipolar electrocautery, hemostatic powder, argon plasma coagulation] taken at the time to colonoscopy or angiography. In the event the patient is exsanguinating due



Flowchart 1: Management of the patient with lower gastrointestinal bleeding.

(FFP: fresh frozen plasma; GI: gastrointestinal; Hb: hemoglobin; ICU: intensive care unit; INR: international normalized ratio; IV: intravenous; NBM: nil by mouth; NSAIDs: nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs; PCC: prothrombin complex concentrate)

to LGI bleeding, surgery is needed on an emergent basis. The risk of mortality and morbidity in the patient without prior localization of the bleeding site before surgery is higher than in those with a preidentified location of bleeding before surgery.

CONCLUSION

Lower GI bleed usually denotes the bleeding below the level of ligament of Treitz. Typically, lower GI bleed presents with passage of maroon colored stool or blood clots per rectum. The management of lower GI bleed involves evaluation risk factor and potential causes for lower GI bleeds such as antiplatelet and anticoagulants. If the patient is on anticoagulants and antiplatelets medication and coagulopathy should be corrected. Clinical evaluation focuses of hemodynamic assessment and triaging to intensive care based on clinical status. Two large bore cannulas should be ensured always for rapid resuscitation. Diagnostic modalities involve colonoscopy, radiographic imaging and radionucleotide imaging. Radiographic and radionucleotide

imaging needs active bleeding to diagnose the source of bleeding but have potential to treat the cause of bleeding when identified. Other modalities when the source of bleeding is not identified are push enteroscopy and capsule endoscopy. However, is the patient is exsanguinating urgent surgery is might be needed as a life saving measure.

SUGGESTED READING

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Decision Making in Critical Care Medicine

Salient Features

- A quick bedside guide for how to diagnose, assess and manage common and uncommon critically ill patients
- An algorithmic and stepwise approach
- Practical answers to emergencies with quick look at the pathophysiology, etiology, and differential diagnoses
- What to do and what not to do? When to do and when not to?
- Useful for the postgraduate trainees of critical care medicine and also the practicing intensivists.

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