

ANTI-COAGULANTS (HEPARIN AND ITS DERIVATIVES)

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Introduction

Common laboratory abnormalities found in patients with COVID-19 not only include lymphopenia, elevation in lactate dehydrogenase, C-reactive protein, and interleukin-6 (IL-6) but also a procoagulant profile¹. Characteristically, elevated concentrations of D-dimer, fibrin degradation products and fibrinogen, and modestly low platelet counts are seen^{2,3}. This type of profile is consistent with the increasing reports of widespread thromboses and disseminated intravascular coagulopathy in COVID-19 patients^{4,5,6,7,8}. Lung involvement has been primarily noted and a strong association between coagulation dysfunction and ARDS was seen and is therefore considered as risk factors for mortality.⁹

Mechanism of Action

Among the anticoagulants that are in standard use and those that are under investigation, heparin is the most widely studied. At present, it is known to have at least four functions based on studies on different clinical conditions.

1. Anti-coagulant

Its anticoagulant properties come indirectly from its binding with antithrombin III (AT) and facilitating the subsequent inhibitory effect of AT on thrombin and activated factor X (factor Xa)^{10,11}. It contains a unique pentasaccharide sequence that has an inhibitory action on factor Xa^{12,13} recently synthesized for its targeted effect.

Types:

- a. Unfractionated (UFH): short acting form, more suitable for patients with renal failure and acute coronary syndromes due to ease of hepatic clearance and better reversibility with protamine sulfate.
- b. Low molecular weight Heparin (LMWH): long acting form such as enoxaparin, dalteparin and tinzaparin, with better adverse reaction profile than the UFH, less requirements for monitoring, higher bioavailability, and the potential for outpatient administration^{14,15}.
- c. Fondaparinux: a synthetic analog of the pentasaccharide sequence of heparin necessary for AT binding as a prerequisite for Factor Xa inhibition and does not affect platelet function¹⁶.

2. Anti-inflammatory

Heparin may **indirectly**, decrease inflammation by blocking the production of more fibrin as well as generation of degradation products. These substances can promote development of inflammation by activating neutrophils and monocytes, inducing the secretion of some inflammatory cytokine as seen in

Figure 4.^{17,18,19}

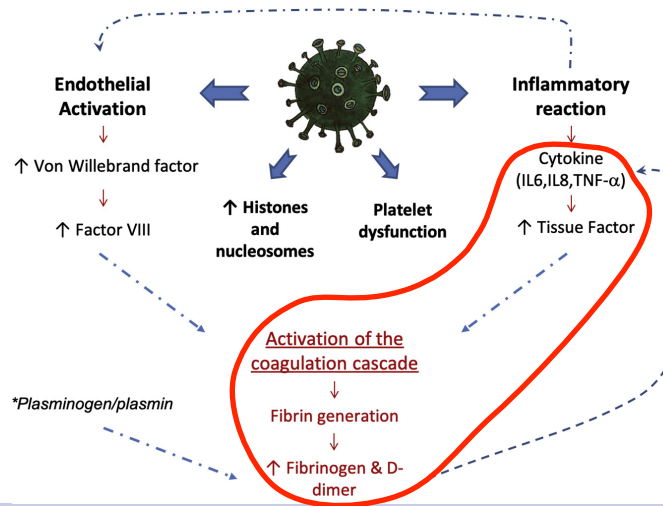


Figure 4. Mechanisms of coagulation impairment in COVID-19 infection. Area encircled shows the relationship between coagulation by-products and augmentation of the inflammatory response. (Adapted from Constanzo, et al)

A possible direct anti-inflammatory action of heparin in COVID-19 is being considered as well. In a systematic review by Mousavi et al in 2015²⁰, it was found out that heparin can decrease the level of inflammatory biomarkers. The review mainly involved the following conditions: asthma, inflammatory bowel disease, cardiopulmonary bypass, cataract surgery and acute coronary syndrome.

Heparin's anti-inflammatory effects may be attributed to its ability to bind with inflammatory cytokines²¹, inhibit neutrophil chemotaxis and leucocyte migration²², sequester acute phase proteins such as P-selectin and L-selectin²³, induce cell apoptosis through tumor necrosis factor α and nuclear factor $\kappa\beta$ pathways²¹, affect histone methylation²⁴, affect mitogen-activated protein kinase and nuclear factor $\kappa\beta$ signal pathways by inhibiting NF kappa β translocation from cytoplasm to the nucleus²⁵ and to neutralize complement factor C5a²⁶.

The neutralizing effect of heparin on C5a may also reduce its prothrombotic effect of upregulating tissue factor and PAI-1 expression by endothelial cells and monocytes.^{27,28}

Other mechanisms for heparin's anti-inflammatory and anticoagulant effects have been previously studied in obstetric antiphospholipid antibody syndrome. Since a few case reports on COVID19 patients revealed significant levels of antiphospholipid antibodies^{29,30} it would be worth investigating if heparin's therapeutic effects in such patients may be similar mechanistically to what is seen in patients with antiphospholipid antibody syndrome. To prove the theory, more high-quality evidence coming from RCT's are needed.

3. Endothelial protection

In rats, heparin has been shown to antagonize histones which, once released from damaged cells can injure endothelial cells.^{31,32}

4. Anti-viral

In vitro studies have shown that heparan sulfate, an ubiquitous glycosaminoglycan on cell surfaces has been seen to interact with the SARS-Cov-2 spike protein and facilitate viral entry^{33,34} It cleaves the S1 and S2 subunit of the S protein which exposes the S2 subunit, allowing it to bind with the ACE2 receptor. Heparin can bind to SARS-COV-2 and competitively inhibit³⁵ its attachment to the cell surface heparan sulfate. This property was seen in unfractionated heparin and was not appreciated in low molecular weight heparin³⁶.

Clinical Studies

According to a search done at clinicaltrials.gov site, only 3 (2 observational, 1 interventional, no RCT's) studies on heparin and its derivatives have been completed as of this writing but results have not been reported yet. There are at least 9 other studies that are in various stages of development.

Recommended Dose

The International Society of Thrombosis and Haemostasis (ISTH) has also endorsed the guidelines of the Journal of American College of Cardiology which recommends that hospitalized COVID19 patients with respiratory failure, comorbid conditions (cancer, heart failure), bedridden and receiving intensive care should receive pharmacological venous thromboembolism prophylaxis unless with contraindications. No specific doses were given.³⁷

In the Philippines, the Philippine Society of Vascular Medicine (PSVM) has suggested the initiation of anticoagulation prophylaxis if any the following are present in COVID 19 patients:³⁸

- a) ISTH criteria^{39,40}: D-dimer > 2 micrograms/ml ± prolonged protime ± platelet <100x 10⁹/L
- b) Bleeding risk by Padua Prediction score for venous thromboembolism ≥ 4⁴¹
- c) Sepsis-induced coagulopathy (SIC) >4⁴²
- d) Critically ill (admission to ICU requiring mechanical ventilation or FiO₂ of 60% or higher)⁴¹

PSVM recommended doses:

		Enoxaparin	Unfractionated Heparin
Patient's Weight	<80 kg 80-120 kg >120 kg	40 mg SC OD 60 mg SC OD 80 mg SC OD	5,000 u SC Q8H or Q12H (for all weight categories)
Creatinine Clearance (CrCl)	≥ 30 ml/min 15-29 ml/min <15 ml/min	As above (according to patient's weight) 20 mg SC Not indicated	5,000 u SC Q8H or Q12H 5,000 u SC Q12H

Contraindications for heparin prophylaxis include:³⁹

- (1) Platelet $25 \times 10^9/L$
- (2) Active bleeding

The PSVM also advises that anticoagulation should be discontinued when:

- (1) Platelet count $\leq 20 \times 10^9/L$ without bleeding³⁹
- (2) Platelet count $\leq 50 \times 10^9/L$ with PT ratio ≥ 1.5 ³⁹
- (3) General ISTH bleeding criteria:
 - a. Fatal bleeding, and/or
 - b. Bleeding in a critical area or organ (i.e., intracranial, intraspinal, intraocular, retroperitoneal, intra-articular or pericardial, or intramuscular with compartment syndrome and/or
 - c. Bleeding causing a fall in hemoglobin level of 2g/dl (1.24 mmol/L) or more or leading to transfusion of two or more units of whole blood or red cells

Adverse Effects

There is a 10-15% risk of significant bleeding in heparin use.^{43,44} Risk factors for bleeding in the general population is older age, worse illness severity, longer hospital stay, decreased white blood cell and platelet counts which is commonly seen in COVID 19 patients. Another rare complication is heparin induced thrombocytopenia due to the development of antibodies to protein platelet factor 4.⁴⁵ However, this is not seen in the use of fondaparinux.

Conclusion

Although heparin has many immunomodulatory effects, its exact mechanism in improving outcomes for COVID-19 patients has yet to be elucidated. However, its potential in providing prophylaxis of thromboembolism as a consequence of COVID-19 should be considered.

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