# ВЕСТНИК ТРАНСПЛАНТОЛОГИИ И ИСКУССТВЕННЫХ ОРГАНОВ



УЧРЕДИТЕЛЬ: ОБЩЕРОССИЙСКАЯ ОБЩЕСТВЕННАЯ ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ ТРАНСПЛАНТОЛОГОВ «РОССИЙСКОЕ ТРАНСПЛАНТОЛОГИЧЕСКОЕ ОБЩЕСТВО»

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# XII ВСЕРОССИЙСКИЙ СЪЕЗД ТРАНСПЛАНТОЛОГОВ (С МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫМ УЧАСТИЕМ)

# THE 12TH ALL-RUSSIAN CONGRESS OF TRANSPLANTOLOGISTS (WITH INTERNATIONAL PARTICIPANTS)

#### Глубокоуважаемые коллеги!

30 сентября – 2 октября 2024 года в Москве состоялся XII Всероссийский съезд трансплантологов с международным участием, приуроченный к 55-летию Национального медицинского исследовательского центра трансплантологии и искусственных органов имени академика В.И. Шумакова Минздрава России (юбилею НМИЦ ТИО им. ак. В.И. Шумакова была посвящена страница главного редактора в предыдущем номере нашего журнала).

Всероссийские съезды и конгрессы трансплантологов проводятся традиционно, но в этом году собы-

тие получилось особенно праздничным и знаменательным. Во-первых, благодаря юбилейным торжествам, приветствиям и награждениям, которыми были отмечены весь коллектив, руководство Центра и многие заслуженные сотрудники, а также в силу важности и высокого качества профессиональной информации, представленной на съезде. В программу съезда вошли анализ и обсуждение новейших достижений трансплантологии:

- уникальный клинический опыт трансплантации сердца с обсуждением широкого круга проблем – от пригодности донорского сердца для трансплантации до лечения кардиопатии сердечного трансплантата в отдаленные сроки;
- применение вспомогательного кровообращения у взрослых и детей, с трансляцией операции по имплантации отечественной системы механического кровообращения, разработанной в ФГБУ «НМИЦ ТИО им. ак. В.И. Шумакова» Минздрава России;
- анализ 10-летнего опыта трансплантации легких в НМИЦ ТИО им. ак. В.И. Шумакова; мастер-класс по интервенционной бронхоскопии в трансплантации легких;



### Dear colleagues,

The city of Moscow hosted the 12th All-Russian Congress of Transplantologists from September 30 to October 2, 2024. The international event was held to celebrate the 55th anniversary of the Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs ("Shumakov Center"). This anniversary was commemorated on the Editor-in-Chief's page in the last issue of our journal.

All-Russian congresses and conventions of transplantologists are traditional events, but this year's event was

particularly festive and noteworthy. This was so firstly due to the anniversary festivities, welcoming speeches and awards that were given to the entire Shumakov Center staff and management, as well as many distinguished employees, and because of the importance and high quality of the expert knowledge presented at the Congress. The program of the event featured some analysis and conversation about the most recent advancements in transplantology such as:

- Exceptional clinical experience in heart transplantation with a discussion of a wide range of transplant topics – from suitability of donor heart for transplantation to long-term management of transplant cardiomyopathy;
- The use of assisted circulation in adults and children, along with a broadcast of the procedure on implantation of a Russian-made mechanical circulatory system, developed at Shumakov Center;
- A review of Shumakov Center's ten years of lung transplant experience; a master class on interventional bronchoscopy in lung transplantation;

 актовая лекция почетного профессора Б.Л. Миронкова – «Эндоваскулярная хирургия в трансплантологической практике».

Обсуждались новые подходы к решению «старых» проблем при трансплантации печени, с демонстрацией операции по лапароскопическому изъятию левого латерального сектора печени у родственного донора;

- важные вопросы физической, социально-педагогической, психологической реабилитации маленьких пациентов после трансплантации органов;
- иммунологические и другие факторы риска в трансплантации гемопоэтических стволовых клеток и солидных органов;
- технологии клеточной, тканевой инженерии и регенеративной медицины для компенсации или замены функций пораженных органов и тканей человека на молекулярном, клеточном и тканевом уровнях и многое другое.

Участникам была предоставлена возможность посещения 23 мероприятий с разнообразной тематикой, в рамках которых прозвучало более 120 докладов, посвященных медицинским, организационным аспектам оказания трансплантологической помощи и донорства органов. Специалисты со всей страны и из зарубежья приняли участие в конференциях, методических совещаниях, семинарах, «круглых столах», обсуждениях, мастер-классах и постерной сессии.

Постерная сессия «Зеркало современной трансплантологии» была посвящена 25-летию журнала «Вестник трансплантологии и искусственных органов». Конкурсная комиссия оценила 30 ранее отобранных для презентации стендовых докладов разных научных школ из разных регионов нашей страны. Грамоту признания коллег получил постер «Лапароскопическая резекция печени у родственного донора с получением трансплантата 2-го сегмента с использованием флуоресцентной навигации», представленный сотрудниками НМИЦ ТИО им. ак. В.И. Шумакова. Все остальные постеры удостоились публикации в настоящем номере журнала, учитывая их высокие научную ценность и качество оформления.  A lecture titled "Endovascular surgery in transplantology practice" by emeritus professor Boris Mironkov.

- New approaches to solving "old" problems in liver transplantation were discussed, with a demonstration of a laparoscopic procedure to remove the left lateral sector of the liver from a related donor;
- Important issues on physical, socio-pedagogical and psychological rehabilitation of young patients after organ transplantation;
- Immunological and other risk factors in solid organ and hematopoietic stem cell transplantation;
- Cellular, tissue engineering, and regenerative medicine technologies to compensate or replace the functions of diseased human organs and tissues at the molecular, cellular and tissue levels, and much more.

Participants had the opportunity to attend 23 events covering a range of topics, where more than 120 reports on medical, organizational aspects of transplant care and organ donation were presented. The conferences, methodological meetings, seminars, roundtable discussions, master classes, and a poster session were attended by experts from across the country and overseas.

A poster session titled "Mirror of Modern Transplantology" was dedicated to the 25th anniversary of the Russian Journal of Transplantology and Artificial Organs. The competition committee evaluated 30 poster papers from different scientific schools from different regions in Russia, which had been previously selected for presentation. A poster with the title "Laparoscopic hepatectomy in a related donor with an S2 monosegment graft using fluorescence navigation", presented by some personnel at Shumakov Center, was awarded a certificate of recognition by colleagues. All other posters were accepted for publication in this issue of the journal, given their high research value and excellent design.

Sincerely,

С уважением, главный редактор академик РАН С.В. Готье

Sergey Gautier, Fellow, Russian Academy of Sciences Editor-in-chief, Russian Journal of Transplantology and Artificial Organs DOI: 10.15825/1995-1191-2024-4-8-13

# KIDNEY TRANSPLANTATION IN CHILDREN WITH A COMPROMISED INFERIOR VENA CAVA: A UNIQUE EXPERIENCE AT SHUMAKOV RESEARCH CENTER

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Compromised inferior vena cava (IVC) is a rare but life-threatening condition in low-birth-weight children who require kidney transplantation (KT) to survive. **Objective:** to demonstrate a comprehensive approach to KT in children with IVC atresia. **Materials and methods.** In the period from December 2019 to April 2024, 5 kidney transplants were performed in children with atresia or obliteration of the IVC at Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs. The average age of the children at transplantation was  $4.6 \pm 2.7$  (from 1 to 8 years) years, body weight  $13.5 \pm 4$  (from 8.3 to 19.5) kg. **Results.** Vertical midline transperitoneal approach was performed, the right lobe of the liver, as well as the accessible part of the subhepatic IVC were partially mobilized. The renal graft was positioned on the right side with the formation of venous anastomosis with the accessible part of the subhepatic IVC. All the children had primary graft function. There were no acute rejection episodes at year 1 post-transplant. The average renal graft glomerular filtration rates in recipients at 3 months and at 1 year post-transplant were  $95.9 \pm 9.6$  ml/min per  $1.73 \text{ m}^2$  and  $80.6 \pm 26.2$  ml/min per  $1.73 \text{ m}^2$ , respectively. **Conclusion.** When the iliac veins and/or distal IVC are compromised, venous outflow into an accessible IVC segment is the preferred option. Transplantation in the left orthotopic position and other mentioned revascularization techniques are complex surgical techniques with a higher risk of thrombotic complications in the early postoperative period.

Keywords: kidney transplantation in children, pediatric kidney transplantation, inferior vena cava compromise, inferior vena cava thrombosis.

### **INTRODUCTION**

Venous system compromise, particularly involving the inferior vena cava (IVC), is a rare but potentially life-threatening condition in low-birth-weight children who require kidney transplantation (KT) for survival. Congenital anomalies of the great vessels, prior abdominal surgeries, and prolonged or repeated placement of temporary or permanent central venous catheters for renal replacement therapy (RRT) can result in narrowing or complete obliteration of the IVC lumen. In most instances, IVC compromise significantly challenges the technical feasibility of KT [1].

In children weighing 15 kg or less, vascular anastomosis of the graft typically involves the distal aorta and IVC. However, in cases of IVC atresia or absence, venous anastomosis – performed in a restricted operative field using available central or peripheral veins – may result in impaired venous outflow. This can lead to venous hypertension and increase the risk of graft thrombosis. Historically, children with absent or thrombosed IVCs were considered high-risk candidates for graft loss and were frequently deemed unsuitable for transplantation [1-3].

However, Eneriz-Wiemer et al. [1] reported 6 successful kidney transplants in children with IVC thrombosis using deceased donor grafts, all of which resulted in satisfactory outcomes. In their approach, the authors favored the use of small renal allografts to ensure that venous outflow did not exceed the drainage capacity of the iliac or adjacent collateral veins [2, 4, 5].

Some authors have used segments of the open IVC or iliac vein [6], ovarian vein [7, 8], left renal vein, and even the superior or inferior mesenteric veins or the portal vein [9–11]. Despite these efforts, a universally accepted surgical strategy for KT in the setting of IVC atresia or thrombosis has yet to be established.

Therefore, the aim of this study was to present a comprehensive surgical approach developed at Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs ("Shumakov Center") for performing KT in pediatric patients with IVC atresia.

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#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Between December 2019 and April 2024, five KTs were performed in pediatric patients with IVC) atresia or obliteration at Shumakov Center. The average age of recipients at the time of transplantation was  $4.6 \pm 2.7$  years (range: 1–8 years), and their body weight ranged from 8.3 to 19.5 kg (mean:  $13.5 \pm 4$  kg). All patients were on RRT prior to transplantation: 4 patients (80%) were on peritoneal dialysis (PD), while 1 (20%) was on long-term hemodialysis (HD).

The leading underlying causes of end-stage kidney disease were congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract in 3 patients (60%), autosomal recessive polycystic kidney disease in 1 patient (20%), and infantile nephrotic syndrome in 1 patient (20%). Notably, none of the patients exhibited clinical signs or symptoms of IVC thrombosis.

KT was performed using deceased donor organs in 4 cases and a living related donor in 1 case. Detailed recipient characteristics are summarized in Table.

All recipients underwent standard pre-transplant evaluation protocols. At the preoperative stage, each patient underwent intravenous bolus contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT) scan using the GE Revolution EVO CT scanner (General Electric, USA), followed by three-dimensional (3D) image reconstruction. Contrast enhancement was utilized to delineate the vascular anatomy of the abdominal aorta, iliac arteries, IVC, and iliac veins, in order to identify suitable zones for vascular anastomosis (Fig. 1).

Renal function was assessed based on serum creatinine levels and the estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR), calculated using the Schwartz formula. Post-transplant follow-up ranged from 1 to 55 ( $23 \pm 19$ ) months.

#### RESULTS

A vertical midline transperitoneal approach was used for all recipients. Depending on clinical indications and the need to create adequate space for graft placement, patients underwent either unilateral right nephrectomy

Table

Casa	Sov	Height,	Weight at time of	Type of	Age at time of trans-	Time on	Related or de-	Right or left
Case	Sex	cm	transplantation, kg	RRT	plantation, year	RRT, year	ceased donor	kidney
1	F	100	13.5	PD	8	3.1	Deceased	Left
2	F	86	12	PD	3	1.9	Deceased	Left
3	М	109	19.5	PD	6	2.2	Deceased	Right
4	F	96	14	HD	5	1.8	Deceased	Right
5	F	71	8.3	PD	1	0.9	Related	Left

#### **Recipient characteristics**

Note: RRT, renal replacement therapy; PD, peritoneal dialysis; HD, hemodialysis.

Blind-ending segment of the IVC in the subhepatic space



Fig. 1. Contrast-enhanced CT scan to visualize the vascular architecture of the abdominal aorta and iliac arteries

or bilateral nephrectomy (Fig. 2, a). The right lobe of the liver and the accessible area of the subhepatic IVC were partially mobilized (Fig. 2, b).

Following preparatory steps, the renal graft was placed on the right side, with venous anastomosis constructed to the accessible portion of the subhepatic IVC (Fig. 3). The renal artery was anastomosed to the aorta and/or common iliac artery where two graft arteries were present. When the left kidney was used, the graft vein typically provided adequate length. In cases where the right kidney was used, the graft vein was lengthened using a segment of the donor's vena cava (Fig. 4).

In all cases, ureteral-bladder anastomosis was performed using the Lich-Gregoir technique, with the placement of a graft ureteral stent (Fig. 5). The stent was removed on day 21 post-transplantation.

Immunosuppressive therapy followed a standardized regimen consisting of three medications: calcineurin inhibitors, mycophenolic acid, and glucocorticosteroids.



Fig. 2. Intraoperative anatomical features: a, horseshoe kidney nephrectomy; b, mobilized section of the subhepatic inferior vena cava on a holder



Fig. 3. Features of the formation of vascular anastomoses in conditions of IVC deficiency: a, vascular anastomoses after reperfusion; b, elongation of the renal vein of the graft due to the donor's IVC site; c, vascular anastomoses before reperfusion



Fig. 4. Right kidney, renal vein reconstruction using IVC



Fig. 5. CT scan - urinary phase



Fig. 6. Intravenous bolus contrast-enhanced CT scan MSCT 3 months after kidney transplantation

All patients exhibited primary kidney graft function, with no instances of acute rejection observed within the first year after transplantation. A follow-up intravenous bolus contrast-enhanced CT scan was performed 3 months post-KT (Fig. 6). The mean eGFR of the renal grafts at 3 months was  $95.9 \pm 9.6 \text{ mL/min}/1.73 \text{ m}^2$ . By the end of the first year, mean eGFR for the five functioning grafts was  $80.6 \pm 26.2 \text{ mL/min}/1.73 \text{ m}^2$ .

#### DISCUSSION

Compromised IVC may be detected in pediatric patients requiring KT for survival. Historically, this condition was regarded as an absolute contraindication to KT due to significant technical challenges and the heightened risk of graft thrombosis resulting from impaired renal venous outflow. Detailed preoperative imaging of the vascular network is therefore crucial, particularly in children with congenital anomalies or a history of repeated central venous catheter placement for RRT. When IVC compromise is suspected, a thorough preoperative assessment of the vascular anatomy is essential to guide surgical planning and ensure the feasibility and safety of KT.

Intravenous bolus contrast-enhanced multislice CT scan combined with 3D reconstruction is an accurate, reliable, and noninvasive tool for assessing organ transplantation feasibility [11]. This imaging technique enables detailed visualization of the patient's vascular anatomy, allowing for identification of optimal sites for vascular anastomosis, particularly in cases of IVC or iliac vein thrombosis or atresia. In our clinical experience, the thrombus-free subhepatic segment of the IVC has proven to be the most suitable site for renal vein anastomosis. This approach aligns with findings reported by Salvatierra et al. [12], who emphasized that, in pediatric recipients with IVC thrombosis receiving large renal allografts, an open segment of the IVC is preferred for the venous anastomosis.

Martinez-Urrutia et al. [5] also reported successful orthotopic left KT in 4 children with infrarenal IVC thrombosis. In these cases, the renal allografts were positioned orthotopically on the left, and venous anastomosis was performed either with the subhepatic IVC or the recipient's native renal vein following ipsilateral nephrectomy. However, this technique presents certain limitations. One significant drawback is the insufficient length of the donor renal vein, particularly when using a right kidney graft, which introduces additional technical complexity during venous anastomosis. Another concern is the potential for external compression of the graft vein by the root of the small-bowel mesentery. In our view, the technical limitations associated with the Martinez-Urrutia technique can be mitigated by lengthening the donor renal vein using a segment of the donor IVC, thereby facilitating more secure and tension-free anastomosis.

Several researchers have proposed the use of the portal venous system for kidney graft revascularization. In these techniques, venous outflow is achieved through the creation of porto-renal or mesenterorenal shunts [10–11]. From a technical standpoint, anastomosis of the donor renal vein to the superior mesenteric vein (SMV) appears relatively straightforward, as the SMV is anatomically accessible and has adequate length for mobilization within the abdominal cavity. However, a significant limitation of this approach lies in the size mismatch between the donor renal vein and the recipient's SMV, which may increase the risk of venous thrombosis. Furthermore, this type of venous reconstruction is associated with a higher risk of graft malposition or rotation [10].

### CONCLUSION

A comprehensive preoperative assessment of the potential recipient is essential for determining the most appropriate surgical tactics for KT in children with venous anomalies. In cases where the iliac veins and/or distal IVC are compromised, using an accessible segment of the subhepatic IVC for venous outflow remains the preferred option. Alternative approaches, such as orthotopic transplantation on the left side or revascularization using the portal venous system, represent technically demanding procedures that are associated with an elevated risk of early postoperative thrombotic complications.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# IMPACT OF INTRAOPERATIVE ASSESSMENT OF RENAL ALLOGRAFT ARTERIAL BLOOD FLOW ON VASCULAR COMPLICATIONS AND THEIR PREVENTION STRATEGIES

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**Objective:** to use intraoperative fluorometry to assess the impact of renal allograft arterial blood flow on vascular complications. Materials and methods. The study included 285 patients who underwent kidney transplantation (KT) at Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs (from May 2022 to July 2023). Patients were distributed into 2 comparison groups. Group 1 (49 patients, 17.2%) underwent intraoperative flowmetry, while group 2 (236 patients, 82.8%) did not. Following graft reperfusion, renal transplant arterial blood flow was measured in real time. Next, ureteroneocystostomy was performed, and then the graft was placed in the iliac fossa in its optimal position and the measurement was repeated. Results. Intraoperative vascular complications occurred in 6 patients (12.2%) in the intraoperative flowmetry group. Those with vascular complications exhibited statistically significantly lower renal arterial volumetric blood flow (VBF) rate immediately after reperfusion ( $94 \pm 93 vs. 291 \pm 147$ ; p = 0.002) and after reassessment at the end of ureteroneocystostomy  $(160 \pm 88 \text{ vs. } 349 \pm 157; \text{ p} = 0.006)$ . A VBF of less than 120 mL/min contributed to the intraoperative decision to immediately revise the anastomosis. Following revision and reanastomosis of the arterial channel, there was no significant difference in VBF rate and PI values between recipients with the complications and the group without. Conclusion. Prophylactic application of intraoperative fluorometry in KT allows to obtain objective data about the quality of vascular anastomosis and timely prevent irreversible vascular complications, thus preserving the renal graft in the postoperative period.

*Keywords: kidney transplantation, vascular complications in renal transplantation, intraoperative fluorometry, prevention of vascular complications.* 

#### INTRODUCTION

Vascular complications remain the leading cause of early kidney graft loss following transplantation. These complications may arise from various factors, including technical errors during vascular anastomosis formation, complex arterial reconstruction in cases involving multiple renal arteries, vascular intimal injury, compartment syndrome, diminished arterial inflow due to iliac artery spasm, vascular kinking or torsion, suboptimal graft positioning within the retroperitoneal space, and underlying coagulopathies [1–4].

In clinical practice, the assessment of graft reperfusion injury is frequently based on the surgeon's subjective judgment, supplemented by limited objective indicators such as immediate urine output, and the color and turgor of the graft. Therefore, the availability of reliable intraoperative tools for evaluating graft perfusion is critical. Such tools should be safe, easy to use, and capable of delivering rapid and reproducible results. Most importantly, they must provide a quantitative assessment of arterial blood flow and tissue perfusion. A robust intraoperative evaluation of renal graft hemodynamics is essential for early detection of vascular complications, prediction of graft function, and prevention of graft loss [5].

Intraoperative transit time flowmetry (TTFM) is a non-invasive technique that measures the "transit time" of ultrasound signals transmitted between two transducers across a blood-filled vessel. This method provides objective and real-time information regarding the quality of arterial anastomoses, particularly following arterial reconstructions, and helps identify potential technical errors [6]. The use of intraoperative TTFM to assess the quality of anastomoses of arteriovenous fistulas, aortocoronary shunts, as well as in the performance of native renal artery reconstructions has ben shown to reduce the rate of intraoperative anastomotic revisions from 8% to 3% [6].

This study aimed to evaluate the impact of arterial blood flow quality in renal allograft vessels, as measured

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by intraoperative TTFM, on the incidence of vascular complications and the effectiveness of subsequent intraoperative interventions.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Between May 2022 and July 2023, a total of 298 kidney transplants were performed at Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs. The study included 285 patients with end-stage chronic kidney disease who were candidates for kidney transplantation (KT), aged from 1 to 70 years (mean age:  $38.1 \pm 17.8$  years). These included 160 men (56.1%) and 125 women (43.9%). Thirteen patients were excluded from the study due to receiving kidneys from a donation after cardiac death, as such grafts are more frequently associated with delayed graft function.

The patients were divided into two groups for comparison: Group 1 (49 patients, 17.2%) underwent intraoperative TTFM, while Group 2 (236 patients, 82.8%) did not. KT was performed using a standard technique, regardless of donor type. In 90% of cases, vascular anastomoses were created end-to-side with the external iliac vessels. Arterial blood flow in the graft was measured in real time using the Veri-Q system (Medistim ASA, Oslo, Norway) immediately following graft reperfusion (Fig. 1).

Following next was ureteroneocystostomy, where the kidney graft was positioned optimally in the iliac fossa, and a second arterial blood flow measurement was performed. The space between the flow probe and the arterial vessel was filled with sterile saline.

Ultrasound transit-time flowmetry uses a specialized probe sized according to the diameter of the target vessel. The probe emits ultrasound signals in the direction of blood flow, and measures the "transit time" of the signal between transmitting and receiving transducers via a reflector within the bloodstream. During measurement, parameters such as mean volumetric blood flow rate, pulsatility index (PI) and percentage of diastolic volume filling are determined [7–9].

Among these, PI is a key indicator of anastomotic quality and graft perfusion. It is calculated as the difference between maximum and minimum flow velocities divided by the mean flow velocity, and is expressed as an absolute value. A PI in the range of 1–2 is generally considered acceptable, while higher values suggest increased flow resistance – commonly due to vascular stenosis [7, 9].

Mean volumetric blood flow (VBF) is not always a reliable standalone marker of anastomotic integrity, as it is influenced by several variables, including blood viscosity, graft resistance, the caliber of the recipient artery, and the anatomical and functional characteristics of the graft. The percentage of diastolic volume filling reflects the proportion of diastolic-phase blood flow returning through the anastomosis during the cardiac cycle [7, 9].

Immunosuppressive therapy consisted of calcineurin inhibitors, with dose adjustments based on therapeutic drug monitoring, in combination with mycophenolate



Fig. 1. Intraoperative flowmetry: a, probe; b, intraoperative renal artery flowmetry performed after graft reperfusion

mofetil and/or mycophenolic acid, and methylprednisolone administered in standard dosages.

Following data collection, all patient information was compiled into a unified spreadsheet for analysis. Statistical processing was carried out using SPSS version 26 (IBM SPSS Inc., USA). Parametric variables were expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (M  $\pm$  SD), while nonparametric data were presented as median (Me) and interquartile range (IQR = Q3–Q1).

For dependent sample comparisons, the paired Wilcoxon signed-rank test was employed, while independent groups were compared using the Mann–Whitney U test. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis was used to calculate the area under the curve (AUC), and to determine the sensitivity, specificity, and threshold values for each parameter.

To evaluate the prognostic significance of renal arterial VBF rate and PI in predicting vascular complications, univariate logistic regression analysis was performed. Model calibration was assessed using the Hosmer–Lemeshow test, and predictive power was expressed via the Nagelkerke coefficient of determination. The overall significance of the model was evaluated using the Wald chi-square test. A p-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant for all tests.

#### **STUDY RESULTS**

A comparative analysis of the clinical characteristics of kidney transplant recipients included in the study was conducted (Table 1).

Patients in group 1 were statistically significantly older than those in group 2 (p = 0.007). Gender distribution between the groups was comparable (p = 0.633). Body mass index (BMI) was also significantly higher in group 1 compared to group 2 (p = 0.043). A comparative analysis of underlying diagnoses, types and durations of renal replacement therapy (RRT), and types of transplantation revealed no statistically significant differences between the groups (p > 0.05 for all variables). However, there was a trend toward more frequent use of flowmetry in patients undergoing peritoneal dialysis (14% in group 1 *vs.* 6% in group 2; p = 0.058).

A comparative analysis of donor characteristics showed that donors in group 1 (where flowmetry was performed) were significantly older than those in group 2 (median age 54 [IQR 44–62] *vs.* 48 [IQR 38–57]; p =0.011). Other donor characteristics, including BMI, gender, and laboratory results, were comparable between groups (p > 0.05 for all).

A comparative analysis of surgical characteristics based on the use of intraoperative TTFM was conducted. Parameters such as surgery duration, intraoperative blood loss, ischemic time, graft type, and frequency of vascular reconstructions were evaluated. No statistically

Table 1

Indicator	Flowmetry, $n = 49$	Non-flowmetry, $n = 236$	P-value			
Age, years, Me (IQR)	46.4 (32.4–59)	37.9 (23.1–51.5)	0.007			
Sex, n (%)						
Men	26 (53%)	134 (57%)	0.622			
Women	23 (47%)	102 (43%)	0.033			
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup> , Me (IQR)	25.8 (20.1–27.9)	22.4 (19.5–26)	0.043			
Diagnosis, n, %						
Chronic glomerulonephritis	9 (18%)	59 (25%)	0.322			
Diabetic nephropathy	10 (20%)	29 (12%)	0.132			
CAKUT	8 (16%)	54 (23%)	0.312			
Nephropathy of unknown etiology	5 (10%)	37 (16%)	0.325			
Polycystic disease	7 (14%)	19 (8%)	0.168			
Other	10 (20%)	38 (16%)	0.464			
RRT (HD), n, %	34 (69%)	171 (72%)	0.663			
RRT (PD), n, %	7 (14%)	15 (6%)	0.058			
RRT time to KT, months, Me (IQR)	18 (9–55)	27 (12–58)	0.469			
RRT (HD) time to KT, months, Me (IQR)	20.1 (8.7–55.4)	29.3 (12.8–58.5)	0.437			
RRT (PD) time to KT, months, Me (IQR)	16.8 (8.9–84.2)	14.5 (9.2–29.1)	0.671			
Type of transplantation, n, %						
Living donor	17 (35%)	85 (37%)	0.702			
Deceased donor	31 (65%)	142 (63%)	0.792			

#### Comparison of clinical characteristics of recipient groups

*Note:* BMI, body mass index; CAKUT, congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract; RRT, renal replacement therapy; HD, hemodialysis; PD, peritoneal dialysis; KT, kidney transplantation.

significant differences were observed between the groups for any of these characteristics (p > 0.05 for all).

Additionally, a subgroup analysis was performed on 49 patients who underwent intraoperative TTFM, comparing renal arterial VBF rate (Q) and PI at two time points: after graft reperfusion and after completion of ureteroneocystostomy. Patients were categorized based on the presence or absence of intra- or postoperative vascular complications. Among these, 6 patients (12.2%) developed vascular complications, while 43 patients (87.8%) did not.

In patients with vascular complications, the VBF rate was significantly lower both after graft reperfusion (p = 0.002) and after ureteroneocystostomy (p = 0.006)

compared to patients without complications. Conversely, PI values measured after graft reperfusion were significantly higher in the complication group (p = 0.037). However, PI values following ureteroneocystostomy did not differ significantly between the groups (p = 0.079).

ROC analysis was performed to assess the prognostic significance of renal arterial VBF rate and PI in relation to the development of vascular complications (Fig. 2).

Renal arterial VBF rates measured both after graft reperfusion and following ureteroneocystostomy were found to be statistically significant predictors of vascular complications (p < 0.001). These parameters demonstrated high predictive accuracy, with VBF rates providing 87.2% and 85.7% accuracy at the respective time points.

Table 2

Results of comparative analysis of flowmetric indicators

Indicator	Vascular complications,	No vascular complications,	P-value
	n = 6	n = 43	
Volumetric blood flow rate through the renal artery after graft reperfusion (ml/min), Mean ± SD	$94 \pm 93$	$291 \pm 147$	0.002
PI after graft reperfusion, Me (IQR)	2 (1.7–2.1)	1.3 (0.8–2)	0.037
Renal arterial VBF after ureteroneocystostomy (mL/min), Mean $\pm$ SD	$160 \pm 88$	$349 \pm 157$	0.006
PI after ureteroneocystostomy, Me (IQR)	1.7 (1.5–2)	1.2 (0.7–1.6)	0.079

Note: VBF, volumetric blood flow; PI, pulsatility index; SD, standard deviation; Me, mean; IQR, interquartile range.



Fig. 2. Assessment of the prognostic significance of indicators of vascular complications (ROC analysis results)

A post-reperfusion VBF rate  $\leq 120 \text{ mL/min}$  was associated with an increased risk of vascular complications, demonstrating a sensitivity of 83.3% and a specificity of 88.4%. Similarly, a post-ureteroneocystostomy VBF rate  $\leq 230 \text{ mL/min}$  predicted complications with 83.3% sensitivity and 79.1% specificity.

Similarly, a post-reperfusion PI was also significantly associated with vascular complications (p < 0.001), with a predictive accuracy of 76.4%. A post-reperfusion PI  $\geq$ 1.65 yielded a sensitivity of 83.3% and specificity of 65.1% for predicting complications. However, the PI value obtained after ureteroneocystostomy did not demonstrate statistically significant predictive value (p = 0.060).

### Results of comparative analysis of flowmetric indicators by donor type and vascular reconstruction

Among the 49 kidney transplant recipients who underwent intraoperative TTFM, 18 patients (36.7%) received grafts from living related donors, while 31 patients (63.3%) received grafts from deceased donors. A comparative analysis was performed to evaluate renal arterial VBF rate and PI both after graft reperfusion and following ureteroneocystostomy, stratified by donor type (Table 3).

The post-ureteroneocystostomy PI was significantly lower in patients who received a renal graft from a living related donor compared to those who received a graft from a deceased donor (p = 0.011). However, other parameters – renal arterial VBF rate after reperfusion and after ureteroneocystostomy, as well as post-reperfusion PI-did not show statistically significant differences between the two donor groups (p > 0.05 for all indicators).

A comparative analysis of renal arterial VBF rate and PI was performed based on whether vascular reconstruction was required (Table 4). Among the 49 patients, vascular reconstruction was performed in 16 cases (32.7%), while 33 patients (67.3%) did not undergo any vascular reconstruction.

Our comparative analysis revealed that following vascular reconstruction, there was a statistically significant decrease in renal arterial VBF rate (p = 0.007) and PI (p = 0.022) after graft reperfusion. In contrast, VBF rate and PI measured after ureteroneocystostomy did not differ significantly between the groups. However, the VBF rate after ureteroneocystostomy in patients who underwent vascular reconstruction was slightly lower than in those without reconstruction, with a difference approaching statistical significance (p = 0.058).

Regression analysis confirmed that vascular complications were significantly associated with renal arterial VBF rate both after graft reperfusion (p = 0.011) and following ureteroneocystostomy (p = 0.018) (Table 5). In contrast, PI did not demonstrate a statistically significant predictive value for vascular complications.

The regression coefficients for renal arterial VBF rate were negative, indicating that higher flow rates are associated with a lower risk of vascular complications. Specifically, the likelihood of complications decreases by approximately 1% for each unit increase in VBF rate. The probability of complications was explained by 40.8% of the variance in VBF rate after graft reperfusion and by 32.6% of the variance in VBF rate after ureteroneocystostomy, suggesting that post-reperfusion

Table 3

#### Comparative analysis of flowmetric indicators depending on donor type

Indicator	Living related donor,	Deceased donor,	P-value
	n = 18	n = 31	
Renal arterial VBF after graft reperfusion (mL/min), Mean ± SD	$298 \pm 170$	$249\pm146$	0.288
PI after graft reperfusion, Me (IQR)	1.15 (0.8–1.9)	1.6 (1–2.3)	0.209
Renal arterial VBF after ureteroneocystostomy (mL/min), Mean ± SD	$351\pm168$	$312\pm159$	0.422
PI after ureteroneocystostomy, Me (IQR)	0.85 (0.6–1.2)	1.4 (0.8–1.8)	0.011

Note: VBF, volumetric blood flow; PI, pulsatility index; SD, standard deviation; Me, mean; IQR, interquartile range.

Table 4

#### Comparative analysis of flowmetric indicators by donor type

Indicator	Vascular reconst-	No vascular reconst-	P-value
	ruction, $n = 16$	ruction, $n = 33$	
Renal arterial VBF after graft reperfusion (mL/min), Mean ± SD	$184\pm135$	$308\pm149$	0.007
PI after graft reperfusion, Me (IQR)	1.8 (1.5–2.05)	1.2 (0.7–1.7)	0.022
Renal arterial VBF after ureteroneocystostomy (mL/min), Mean $\pm$ SD	$264\pm153$	$357\pm160$	0.058
PI after ureteroneocystostomy, Me (IQR)	1.4 (0.9–1.7)	1 (0.6–1.6)	0.152

Note: VBF, volumetric blood flow; PI, pulsatility index; SD, standard deviation; Me, mean; IQR, interquartile range.

#### Constant, $B \pm SE$ HL test $\mathbb{R}^2$ P-value Factor Regressor, $B \pm SE$ Renal arterial VBF after graft reperfusion (mL/min) $-0.015 \pm 0.006$ $0.627 \pm 0.864$ 0.553 0.408 0.011 $0.242\pm0.148$ $-2.583 \pm 0.596$ 0.164 0.142 0.101 PI after graft reperfusion $-0.011 \pm 0.005$ Renal arterial VBF after ureteroneocystostomy (mL/min) $0.758 \pm 1.002$ 0.868 0.326 0.018 $0.274 \pm 0.17$ $-2.5 \pm 0.587$ 0.214 PI after ureteroneocystostomy 0.091 0.108

#### **Regression analysis results**

Table 5

*Note:* VBF, volumetric blood flow; B, regression coefficient; SE, standard error; HL test, Hosmer–Lemeshow test; R<sup>2</sup>, Nagelkerke's coefficient of determination.



Fig. 3. Calculation of complication probabilities. PI, pulsatility index

measurements are a more robust predictor than posureteroneocystostomy values.

Based on these findings, we calculated the estimated probabilities of vascular complications using the VBF rates obtained after graft reperfusion and after ureteroneocystostomy (Fig. 3).

The assessment of the predictive significance of these indicators revealed that they do not play a statistically significant role in predicting vascular complications.

#### DISCUSSION

Despite being widely practiced and successfully performed by many surgeons globally, KT poses challenges in predicting vascular complications and graft dysfunction, even with extensive experience. Transplant surgeons often rely on careful intraoperative visual and ultrasound evaluation, yet these measures do not always predict the development of complications [10–11].

The occurrence of vascular complications in the perioperative period significantly impacts graft function and survival, underscoring the importance of preventing such complications. Analysis of the causes of these complications reveals three key areas that require special attention: donor organ characteristics (such as angioarchitecture and potential vascular damage during procurement), recipient risk factors (including vascular abnormalities, blood coagulation disorders, and atherosclerotic lesions of major arteries), and the technical aspects of the surgical procedure [12–14]. However, there is currently no unified approach for the intraoperative prevention of vascular complications. The use of flowmetric parameters in solid organ transplantation remains a novel and

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insufficiently explored method of prophylaxis, offering both research and practical significance.

Bhatt et al. were among the first to apply this technique in KT. The authors assessed blood flow through the renal artery of the graft, which was found to be 114–120 mL/min. They also temporarily occluded the external iliac artery distal to the renal graft arterial anastomosis, resulting in a near doubling of blood flow to 205 mL/min. Following this, the renal artery anastomoses were revised twice, after which blood flow rates returned to normal. In one case, a high PI (>5) indicated a technical imperfection in the anastomosis. In another case, an accidental entrapment of the graft in the suture of the opposite side of the arterial anastomosis was observed [6].

In our study, 6 patients (12.2%) in the group where intraoperative TTFM was used experienced intraoperative vascular complications, while the remaining 43 patients (87.8%) did not. In the group with vascular complications, intraoperative TTFM revealed statistically significantly lower renal arterial VBF rates immediately after reperfusion  $(94 \pm 93 \text{ vs. } 291 \pm 147; \text{ p} = 0.002)$  and after re-evaluation at the end of ureteroneocystostomy (160  $\pm$ 88 vs.  $349 \pm 157$ ; p = 0.006). A VBF rate of less than 120 mL/min contributed to the intraoperative decision to immediately revise the anastomosis. After revision and repeated anastomosis of the arterial bed, VBF rates and PI values did not differ significantly between recipients with and without complications. In the postoperative period, no further vascular complications were observed in patients after correction of the arterial anastomosis.

In addition to the efficacy of intraoperative blood flow measurement using flowmetry for monitoring the patency of vascular anastomoses and assessing the technical challenges of renal arterial reconstruction, intraoperative flowmetry data have also been shown to correlate with graft function [15–16].

Król et al. conducted intraoperative TTFM in 72 kidney transplant patients with a single renal artery. They excluded cases of acute rejection, early graft loss, and primary non-function from their analysis, then categorized the remaining patients into groups with primary and delayed graft function. A high perioperative resistive index (RI) was identified as a predictor of delayed graft function (52.6% vs. 15% for patients with an RI >0.70) and poorer long-term kidney graft function, extending up to 2 years post-transplant [17].

Hoff et al. demonstrated the successful use of intraoperative Doppler ultrasound in surgical decisionmaking for KT involving two graft veins. The Doppler ultrasound revealed the presence of retrograde diastolic flow, enabling the surgeons to perform an anastomosis of the inferior polar renal vein with the external iliac vein without compromising renal perfusion [18].

### CONCLUSION

The prophylactic use of intraoperative flowmetry during KT provides objective data on the quality of vascular anastomoses, allowing for timely intervention to prevent irreversible vascular complications and thereby preserving kidney graft function post-transplant.

#### The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# EARLY OUTCOMES OF KIDNEY TRANSPLANTATION IN RECIPIENTS WITH TYPE 1 DIABETES MELLITUS AND END-STAGE KIDNEY DISEASE RESULTING FROM DIABETIC NEPHROPATHY

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**Objective:** to analyze early outcomes of kidney transplantation (KT) in patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1D) and stage 5 chronic kidney disease resulting from diabetic nephropathy. Materials and methods. The study group included 145 T1D patients who underwent KT at the kidney and pancreas transplant department of Sklifosovsky Research Institute for Emergency Medicine between January 1, 2007 and December 31, 2023. Among them were 57 men (39.3%) and 88 women (60.7%), the median age was 41.5 [35–47] years. The median age at disease onset was 14.6 [9-17] years. Organ donors consisted of 100 (69%) men, 40 (27.6%) women, and there was no information on the sex of 5 donors (3.4%). Donor median age was 46 [35.5–53] years. Results. Ninety-nine recipients (68.3%) had primary renal allograft function (PRAF), whereas 46 recipients (31.7%) had delayed function. The median time for azotemia to normalize was 6 [3; 6] days in PRAF patients and 20.5 [14; 27] days in those with delayed function. Overall, there were 9.7% (n = 14) surgical complications, 12.4% (n =18) acute rejection crisis, and 9.7% (n = 14) infectious complications. Median serum creatinine and urea levels at discharge were 123 [99–164] umol/L and 10 [7.4–14] mmol/L, respectively; median fasting blood glucose levels before transplantation and at discharge were 9.8 [7.8; 12] mmol/L and 8.1 [6.5; 10] mmol/L, respectively. A total of 125 patients (86.2%) were discharged with adequately functioning kidney graft, while 13 patients (9%) were discharged with graft dysfunction that did not require renal replacement therapy; one patient (0.7%) was transferred to the outpatient stage of treatment to continue dialysis therapy; however, renal allograft function was restored within 2 months post-transplant. Conclusion. Although T1D patients remain the most severe category of dialysis patients, our findings suggest that KT is an effective treatment option for them with high graft and recipient survival rates.

Keywords: kidney transplantation, diabetic nephropathy, chronic kidney disease, type 1 diabetes mellitus.

### INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a heterogeneous group of metabolic disorders characterized by chronic hyperglycemia resulting from impaired insulin secretion, insulin action, or both. It is classified as a chronic disease with significant socioeconomic impact due to early disability and high mortality rates. According to the International Diabetes Federation, the global prevalence of DM among individuals aged 20–79 is estimated at 537 million [1]. The growth rate of DM cases is concerning, far exceeding earlier predictions, with the number of affected individuals expected to nearly double by 2045, reaching 783 million [1, 2].

In the Russian Federation, the National Diabetes Registry reports that as of January 1, 2023, over 4.9 million people were registered with diabetes, accounting for 3.3% of the population. Among them, more than 277,000 individuals were diagnosed with type 1 diabetes (T1D), representing 5.6% of the diabetic population. Over a 13-year period (2010–2022), the prevalence of T1D increased from 146 to 191 cases per 100,000 population [3]. A one-time cross-sectional analysis of diabetic complications in T1D on January 1, 2023, revealed the following frequency of microvascular complications: diabetic neuropathy (41.3%), diabetic nephropathy (DN)/ chronic kidney disease (CKD) (22.8%), and diabetic retinopathy (DR) (28.9%) [4].

Individuals with diabetes represent the fastest-growing group among those receiving renal replacement therapy (RRT). In 1985, when the first edition of Diabetes in America was published, 20,961 people with diabetes were receiving RRT, comprising 29% of all

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new chronic kidney disease (CKD) cases. By 2012, this number had surged to 239,837, accounting for 44% of all new CKD cases [5]. The prevalence of diabetes-related CKD varies globally, with the condition representing 10-15% of CKD cases in Europe, but rising to 45% in the United States [6, 7].

Patients with diabetic CKD on dialysis face lower survival rates compared to those with non-diabetic CKD. Although dialysis techniques have improved survival, diabetic dialysis patients often have a median survival of less than three years. Cardiovascular disease (58%) and infections (13%) were the leading causes of death among diabetic dialysis patients between 1995 and 2009. In contrast, diabetic patients who undergo kidney transplantation (KT) tend to have significantly better longterm survival outcomes compared to those on RRT [8].

The 5-year survival rate for KT recipients with T1D is significantly lower compared to recipients with nondiabetic CKD, primarily due to the higher incidence of mortality related to cardiovascular complications [9, 10]. Despite advancements in RRT, diabetic CKD remains a major risk factor for poor posttransplant outcomes and continues to be an independent predictor of posttransplant mortality [11].

Reports suggest that simultaneous pancreas-kidney transplants (SPKTs) are associated with better survival rates for patients with diabetic nephropathy than other transplant options. SPKTs reduce mortality by decreasing the incidence of cardiovascular complications and secondary diabetic complications [12, 13]. However, this approach is linked to a higher incidence and severity of complications during the first year after surgery compared to isolated KT. These complications include prolonged hospitalization, higher re-hospitalization rates within the first 30 days post-surgery, more severe infectious complications, and increased perioperative mortality [14–16].

Meanwhile, in the long term, SPKTs offer improved patient survival, especially for recipients with a longfunctioning pancreas graft. For example, the 10-year survival for SPKT recipients is 50% higher than for those undergoing a KT alone [15, 16]. Unfortunately, organ shortages mean that not all T1D recipients can receive SPKTs. Consequently, KT remains the most viable treatment for diabetic CKD, offering improved quality of life and lower mortality rates in this patient population [8, 17].

**Objective:** to analyze early KT outcomes in patients with T1D and stage 5 CKD resulting from DN.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### **Recipient characteristics**

The study group comprised 145 recipients with T1D who underwent KT between January 1, 2007, and December 31, 2023, at the Kidney and Pancreas Transplant

Department of Sklifosovsky Research Institute for Emergency Medicine in Moscow. Among these recipients, 57 (39.3%) were men, and 88 (60.7%) were women. The median age was 41.5 years [range: 35–47], with a median body mass index (BMI) of 22.3 kg/m<sup>2</sup> [range: 19.8–25]. The median age at disease onset was 14.6 years [range: 9–17].

Of the recipients, 17 (11.7%) underwent pre-dialysis KT, while 128 (88.3%) had received RRT prior to transplantation. Of those on RRT, 86 patients (67.2%) were on long-term hemodialysis (HD), and 42 (32.8%) were on peritoneal dialysis (PD). The duration of RRT ranged from a few months to 15 years, with a median duration of 2 years [range: 1–4]. Among the recipients, 17 (13.3%) had been on RRT for less than one year, 86 (67.2%) had been on RRT for 1–5 years, 22 (17.2%) had been on RRT for some than 5 years, and 3 (2.3%) had been on RRT for over 10 years.

The majority of patients (93.1%) underwent primary KT, while only 6 (2.8%) underwent repeat KT. Before transplantation, 67 recipients (46.2%) had preserved residual urine output of more than one liter per day. In addition to DN, recipients had other secondary diabetic complications of varying severity, including diabetic polyneuropathy.

Pre-transplant macroangiopathy, particularly coronary heart disease, was present in 31 recipients (21.4%). Of these, 7 (22.6%) had a history of myocardial infarction, and 9 (29%) underwent coronary artery stenting as part of the KT preparation process. Nine (6.2%) patients had a history of stroke before transplantation. Nineteen patients (13.1%) had a history of trophic ulcers on the lower limbs, with 14 (73.7%) requiring amputations of one or more toes. Ninety recipients (62%) had chronic urinary tract infections, which required treatment for urosepsis and/or antibacterial therapy.

#### **Donor characteristics**

The organ donor pool included 100 males (69%) and 40 females (27.6%); gender information was unavailable for 5 donors (3.4%). The median donor age was 46 years [range: 35.5–53]. Brain death was confirmed in 143 donors. The primary causes were stroke in 99 donors (68.3%) and traumatic brain injury in 41 donors (28.3%). Cause of death could not be determined in 3 donors (2.1%). Two recipients (1.3%) received kidneys from living-related donors.

At the time of organ procurement, median serum creatinine and urea levels in donors were 95.3  $\mu$ mol/L [range: 72–112] and 6.3 mmol/L [range: 4–7.59], respectively. Microbiological examination of the transplant grafts revealed the presence of microbial flora in 9 donors (6.2%).

#### Surgical features of kidney transplantation

KT was performed using a standardized surgical approach. Access to the retroperitoneal space was estab-

lished, followed by mobilization of the external iliac vessels. The kidney allograft (KAG) was revascularized by creating arterial and venous anastomoses between the graft and the recipient's external iliac vessels. Urinary drainage was achieved through ureteroneocystostomy, connecting the donor ureter to the recipient's bladder. Median cold ischemia time of KAG was 13.5 hours [range: 11–16].

#### Immunosuppressive therapy

All patients received baseline triple-drug immunosuppressive therapy (IST), with or without induction. Induction IST using mono- or polyclonal antibodies was administered to 124 recipients (85.5%). Among them, 97 patients received monoclonal antibodies: basiliximab in 88 cases (60.7%) and daclizumab in 9 cases (6.2%). Polyclonal antibody therapy was given to 27 patients, comprising horse-derived antithymocyte globulin in 7 cases (4.8%) and rabbit-derived antithymocyte globulin in 20 cases (13.8%). In the remaining 21 patients (14.5%), methylprednisolone alone was used for induction.

Maintenance IST consisted of a triple-drug regimen including a calcineurin inhibitor, an antimetabolite or proliferative signal inhibitor, and corticosteroids. Tacrolimus was prescribed to 108 recipients (74.5%), while cyclosporine was used in 37 cases (25.5%). As the second drug, mycophenolic acid derivatives were used in 143 patients (98.6%), while everolimus was used in 2 patients (1.4%). Methylprednisolone was included in the regimen of 144 patients (99.3%); only one patient (0.7%) received a steroid-free maintenance IST regimen.

**Study design:** observational longitudinal retrospective, cohort, single-center study.

**Inclusion criteria:** technically successful KT in patients with T1D and stage 5 CKD resulting from DN.

**Non-inclusion criteria:** technically unsuccessful KT; SPKTs.

#### Graft function assessment criteria

Primary initial graft function was defined as the absence of a need for RRT during the first 7 days posttransplant. Delayed initial graft function was defined as



Fig. 1. Patient recruitment scheme for the study

the requirement for at least one session of extracorporeal detoxification within the first postoperative week. Death-uncensored graft loss was defined as return to RRT, death with a functioning graft, or repeat pre-dialysis KT. Death-censored graft loss excluded deaths with a functioning graft from the definition of graft loss.

### Statistical data processing

Statistical analysis was conducted using Statistica for Windows v. 10.0 (StatSoft Inc., USA) and StatTech v. 2.8.8 (StatTech LLC, Russia). The Shapiro–Wilk test was used to assess the normality of data distribution. Quantitative data were expressed as median (Me) and interquartile range [Q1–Q3]. Qualitative data were compared using Pearson's Chi-square test; for binary variables, Fisher's exact two-tailed test was applied. The Mann–Whitney U test was used for comparisons between two independent groups of non-parametric data. Overall survival and functional graft survival were estimated using the Kaplan–Meier method. A p-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant in single comparisons.

### RESULTS

#### Initial graft function

Primary initial KAG function was observed in 99 recipients (68.3%), while delayed graft function occurred in 46 recipients (31.7%). In patients with primary initial graft function, median time to azotemia normalization was 6 [3–6] days. In cases of delayed function, median time extended to 20.5 [14–27] days. Median number of hemodialysis sessions required during the recovery phase of graft function was 6.5 [4–9].

### Frequency of surgical complications

Early postoperative complications related to urinary tract reconstruction were noted in 7 recipients (4.8%): in six recipients, ureteroneocystostomy failure was attributed to necrosis of the distal ureter. These cases required reoperation with excision of the necrotic ureteral segment and repeat ureteroneocystostomy (Clavien–Dindo grade IIIb). In one case, ureteroneocystostomy failure resulted from an infectious process due to transplantation of a primarily infected KAG. This led to suppuration of the surgical wound and abscess formation in the graft bed, classified as Clavien–Dindo grade IVa. Renal transplantectomy was performed to preserve the patient's life.

Lymphocele formation in the KAG bed was observed in 6 recipients (4.1%) during the early postoperative period. In 5 cases, the condition required only dynamic observation and was classified as Clavien–Dindo grade I. One patient required surgical intervention, corresponding to Clavien–Dindo grade IIIb. Ureteral stricture developed in one recipient (0.7%), leading to hydronephrotic transformation of the KAG. This complication necessitated initial nephrostomy placement, followed by surgical excision of the strictured ureteral segment and repeat ureteroneocystostomy (Clavien–Dindo grade IIIb).

#### Frequency of acute rejection crisis

The overall incidence of acute rejection was 12.4% (n = 18). All cases presented with unexplained decrease in diuresis, elevated azotemia, and graft enlargement with ultrasound evidence of edema. In 9 patients, acute rejection episodes were successfully managed with methylprednisolone pulse therapy alone (3 injections totaling 1–1.25 g). Three patients received combined therapy consisting of methylprednisolone pulse therapy and infusions of polyclonal antithymocyte antibodies. In 6 patients, triple-modality therapy was administered, including methylprednisolone pulse therapy, polyclonal antithymocyte antibody infusions, and plasmapheresis sessions.

In total, 17 patients (94.4%) demonstrated favorable clinical and laboratory responses to anti-rejection therapy, with normalization of diuresis and azotemia, and restoration of graft function confirmed by instrumental assessments. In one patient (5.6%), therapy proved ineffective; the graft was deemed nonviable and required transplantectomy.

#### Frequency of infectious complications

The overall incidence of infectious complications was 9.7% (n = 14). Among these, 8 recipients developed graft pyelonephritis in the early postoperative period. Management involved administration of broad-spectrum antibacterial therapy, tailored according to microbiological findings from urine cultures, which identified *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Enterobacter spp.* as the predominant pathogens.

Four recipients experienced postoperative wound infections, necessitating surgical revision and sanitation of the graft bed, followed by secondary wound healing.

Two patients developed cytomegalovirus (CMV) pneumonia during the early postoperative phase. Both were successfully treated with ganciclovir-based antiviral therapy, demonstrating favorable clinical responses.

Hospitalization period for recipients ranged from 7 to 83 days, with a median duration of 23 [17–30] days.

Laboratory parameters at discharge: Median creatinine and urea levels at discharge were 123 [99–164]  $\mu$ mol/L and 10 [7.4–14] mmol/L, respectively. Pretransplant fasting blood glucose levels ranged from 3.5 to 22 mmol/L, with a median of 9.8 [7.8–12] mmol/L. During the first three days post-transplant, blood glucose levels varied between 3.3 and 30 mmol/L, with a median of 15 [12–17] mmol/L. At discharge, glucose levels ranged from 3.9 to 19.5 mmol/L, with a median of 8.1 [6.5–10] mmol/L.

Pre-transplant daily insulin dose ranged from 0.3 to 1.49 U/kg, with a median of 0.7 [0.55–0.9] U/kg. In the

early postoperative period (first three days), insulin requirements increased to 0.45–2.37 U/kg, with a median of 0.99 [0.8–1.25] U/kg. By discharge, doses ranged from 0.35 to 1.7 U/kg, with a median of 0.88 [0.7–1.1] U/kg.

Pre-transplant glycated hemoglobin levels ranged from 4.4% to 13.4%, with a median of 7.7 [6.9–8.6]%. Post-transplant values ranged from 5.5% to 11.3%, with a median of 7.3 [6.7–8.3]%.

In-hospital and 90-day death-uncensored renal graft and recipient survival: In-hospital recipient survival was 100% (n = 145), and graft survival was 95.85% (n = 139). A total of 125 patients (86.2%) were discharged with a functioning graft and serum creatinine levels below 200  $\mu$ mol/L. An additional 13 patients (8.97%) had functioning grafts with creatinine levels above 200  $\mu$ mol/L, but did not require RRT. One patient (0.69%) was discharged for continuation of RRT in the outpatient setting; graft function was subsequently restored within 2 months post-transplantation.

Morphologically verified primary non-function was observed in 4 patients (2.76%). These patients were discharged for continued outpatient RRT and were re-listed for repeat KT.

Two recipients (1.38%) underwent in-hospital transplantectomy. In one case, persistent graft dysfunction due to an uncontrollable acute rejection crisis led to the graft being deemed nonviable and subsequently removed. In the second case, although the graft was initially functioning, a primary graft infection led to postoperative wound suppuration and abscess formation in the graft bed. To preserve the patient's life, a transplantectomy was performed, IST was discontinued, and targeted antibiotic therapy was initiated based on microbiological sensitivity testing.

The 90-day patient survival rate (post-discharge) was 97.2%. Death-uncensored graft survival was 93%, while death-censored graft survival reached 97.2%.

Among the 139 recipients (95.86%) discharged with functioning grafts, 3 patients developed elevated azotemia in the early post-discharge period. Two of these cases were attributed to immunological complications. In the first patient, graft biopsy revealed borderline changes and signs of calcineurin inhibitor toxicity. The treatment strategy involved pulse glucocorticoid therapy and a reduction in tacrolimus dosage, resulting in clinical improvement and normalization of azotemia. The second patient's biopsy indicated early antibody-mediated rejection and acute tubular necrosis. In addition, CT angiography revealed graft artery stenosis. The patient underwent arterial stenting, combined with pulse glucocorticoid therapy, which led to normalization of graft function. The third patient was diagnosed with ureteroneocystostomy stenosis. Placement of an internal ureteral stent successfully resolved the obstruction, contributing to normalization of renal graft function.

Graft loss occurred in 4 recipients (2.9%). In 3 cases, immunological complications were the cause of graft failure, with diagnoses confirmed post-discharge at another hospital. In the first case, graft rejection led to the development of destructive-necrotic foci, as confirmed morphologically, necessitating transplantectomy. The second patient experienced acute vascular rejection (Banff grade 3), with necrotic foci, requiring transplantectomy. In the third case, acute vascular-cellular rejection (Banff grade 2b–3) did not respond to anti-crisis therapy, and there were no indications for transplantectomy. In the fourth case, transplantectomy was performed due to abscessed graft pyelonephritis. All four patients resumed long-term hemodialysis (HD) following graft loss.

One patient died with an adequately functioning graft due to a septic lesion against the background of fungal



Fig. 2. Kidney graft survival rate in the early postoperative period



Fig. 3. Survival of recipients with T1D in the early postoperative period

pneumonia. Among those discharged with primary nonfunction (n = 4, 2.76%), all continued to receive RRT. Of these, 1 had the allograft removed in the early posttransplant period due to abscessed graft pyelonephritis, while 2 patients died from cardiovascular complications.

Two patients were discharged without functioning grafts (n = 2, 1.38%). Of these, one later underwent repeated KT in the long-term period, while the other died in the early post-transplant period due to cardiovascular complications.

#### DISCUSSION

Diabetes remains a socially significant disease due to the continually rising incidence rates, which remain concerning. Secondary diabetic complications lead to high disability and mortality, significantly reducing the quality of life for these patients. Non-transplant treatment options for stage 5 CKD resulting from DN have limited effectiveness, making KT the preferred treatment. KT has been shown to substantially improve both the duration and quality of life for these patients [18].

Patients with diabetic CKD that has progressed to stage 5 CKD represent the fastest-growing group among those needing renal RRT. Registry data from various countries show that DM is consistently ranked as the second or third most common disease among patients on the kidney transplant waiting lists.

The frequency of post-KT surgical complications in T1D patients varies widely, with reports ranging from 1% to 30% [19–21]. In our study, the overall rate of surgical complications was 9.7%. Notably, 35.7% of complications (n = 5) were classified as Clavien–Dindo grade I, requiring no surgical intervention. The remaining 57.1% of complications were grade IIIb, necessitating surgical intervention under general фтуыеруыщф. Only one complication was of grade IVa, which led to graft loss.

The overall frequency of immunological complications of KT ranges from 4.8% to 19% according to existing medical literature [21, 22]. In our study, 12.4% of patients experienced immunological complications. The diagnostic protocols, immunological monitoring, and anti-crisis therapy used in our center were highly effective. Only one patient experienced graft loss due to immunological causes.

According to several studies, the overall incidence of infectious complications in the early postoperative period after KT is estimated at 2%–25% [19, 21, 23], or 9.7% according to data from our center. The selected protocols for prophylactic antibiotic treatment and management of infectious complications were effective in preserving graft function. Only one patient required transplantectomy due to transplantation of a primarily infected kidney graft to preserve the patient's life.

A total of 138 patients (95.2%) were discharged with a functioning kidney graft. One patient, who was

discharged to continue RRT, had their graft function restored 2 months after KT. The incidence of primary non-function was 2.8% (n = 4). Two patients (1.4%) had their allografts removed during the hospital stay due to immunological and infectious complications.

In-hospital survival rates for kidney transplants in our study were 95.9%, with a 90-day death-uncensored graft survival of 93% and 90-day recipient survival of 97.2%. In comparison, other transplant centers report 98–99% survival rates [24, 25]. However, such publications are rare, as most studies focus on 1-year and longer posttransplant outcomes. The difference in survival rates may be attributed to factors such as initial condition of recipients, concomitant conditions, and the more stringent selection criteria used by other centers for placing patients on the kidney transplant waiting list.

#### CONCLUSION

The fatalities recorded in our study highlight the high mortality associated with cardiovascular complications in patients who experience renal graft loss and must return to RRT dialysis. It is clear that patients with T1D and stage 5 CKD present as one of the most complex patient groups. They require more extensive pre-transplant evaluations when being placed on the waiting list, careful preparation for transplantation, and closer management during the early and late postoperative periods.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# RIGHT LOBE LIVING DONOR LIVER TRANSPLANTATION – EXPERIENCE FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF HEPATOBILIARY SURGERY

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Background. Living-donor liver transplant (LDLT) is a life-saving procedure for patients with end-stage liver diseases. **Objective:** to evaluate the outcomes of the first independent LDLT performed at the Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Vakhidov Republican Specialized Surgical Research and Practical Medical Center of Surgery, and to demonstrate that liver transplantation (LT) is a feasible procedure at our institution. Materials and methods. From October 2021 to December 2023, 40 right lobe LDLTs were performed in our department. Short-term and long-term outcomes in recipients were assessed. The outcomes of transplant hepatectomy were also evaluated. Results. Hepatic artery thrombosis developed in 1 case (2.5%); arterial anastomotic stenosis was detected in 3 cases (7.5%), which were repaired by endovascular balloon dilation; splenic artery steal syndrome was diagnosed in 3 cases (7.5%), which was resolved by endovascular splenic artery embolization. One patient (2.5%) developed portal vein thrombosis. Two patients (5%) had portal vein stenosis 10 months after transplantation; endovascular balloon angioplasty was performed with good clinical effect. Biliary complications accounted for 45%, of which 89% were biliary leaks and 11% were anastomotic biliary stricture. In-hospital mortality was 12.5%. Conclusion. The results of our experience and analysis of post-transplant complications are comparable with those of the world literature and are acceptable at the stage of implementation of the LT program. Transplantation is feasible at our center, but it is necessary to improve surgical and conservative treatment techniques in order to minimize early and late postoperative complications.

Keywords: liver transplantation, living-donor liver transplant, cirrhosis.

### **INTRODUCTION**

Since Thomas Starzl performed the first human liver transplant (LT) in 1963 [1], the global transplant community has evolved from isolated clinical attempts to widespread acceptance of LT as a treatment for acute and chronic liver diseases, malignant tumors and other liver conditions. Over the decades, the spectrum of indications for LT has expanded to include numerous nosological entities. As global demand for LT continues to grow, living donor liver transplantation (LDLT) has emerged as a vital alternative for patients who might otherwise die while awaiting a cadaveric organ. In recent years, LDLT has been established as a safe and effective treatment, with outcomes comparable to those of deceased donor liver transplantation (DDLT). Importantly, LDLT also contributes to substantially expanding the limited donor organ pool [2].

The leading etiological factors in this region are chronic viral hepatitis B and C [3, 4]. Until 2018, there was no legal framework to support organ transplantation in the country. This changed in 2018, when the government enacted a decree officially authorizing LDLT. Subsequently, in February of the same year, a pioneering team from the Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs (Moscow, Russian Federation), led by Sergey Gautier – Fellow of the Russian Academy of Sciences – performed the first series of liver transplants in Uzbekistan. However, routine performance of these procedures began only in October 2021 [5].

**Objective:** the objective of this study was to evaluate the outcomes of the first 40 cases of LDLT performed at the Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Vakhidov Republican Specialized Surgical Research and Practical Medical Center of Surgery in Tashkent, in order to demonstrate the feasibility of LT in a hospital-based setting.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

The LDLT program in Uzbekistan commenced on a regular basis in October 2021 at the aforementioned center. Both the donor and recipient surgical procedures, as well as the postoperative management, were conducted

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under the direct supervision of two experienced transplant physicians.

This retrospective review was based on prospectively collected data from transplants performed between October 2021 and December 2023. The median follow-up period was 7 months (range, 1–26 months).

#### **Recipients**

During the study period, 40 adult right lobe liver transplants were performed. The cohort included 28 male patients (70%) and 12 female patients (30%), with a median recipient age of 40 years (range, 18–56 years). The mean Model for End-Stage Liver Disease (MELD) score was 18 (range, 10–30). The primary indications for LT were cirrhosis secondary to hepatitis B and D virus co-infection (34 cases), hepatitis C virus-related cirrhosis (3 cases), autoimmune hepatitis (2 cases), and toxic hepatitis (1 case).

All patients presented with portal hypertension and its complications, including esophageal varices (100%), variceal bleeding (7 cases), splenomegaly (100%), and cytopenia (100%). Seven patients underwent pre-transplant endoscopic variceal ligation to prevent bleeding, while three patients underwent splenic artery embolization due to hypersplenism. Two patients presented with stage 3 portal vein thrombosis, classified according to the Yerdel system.

No ABO-incompatible transplantations were performed in this cohort. Perioperative care for all patients was conducted in accordance with the Enhanced Recovery After Surgery (ERAS) protocol [6]. Additionally, all patients with viral hepatitis received antiviral therapy preoperatively, continuing until a sustained virological response was achieved.

The demographic and clinical characteristics of the recipients are summarized in Table 1.

### Donors

All recipients in the study underwent right-lobe LDLT. Of the 40 transplants performed, 37 involved living related donors. The donor-recipient relationships were as follows: 11 sons, 10 brothers, 9 sisters, 4 cousins, 1 father, 1 nephew, and 1 aunt. In accordance with national legislation in Uzbekistan, spouses may serve as organ or tissue donors if the marriage has lasted for at least three years. Based on this provision, three wives were approved as donors in this series.

All donors underwent evaluation following a standardized protocol, which was adapted to the specific requirements of our center [7]. This comprehensive assessment included initial screening of medical history, body mass index (BMI), and ABO blood group compatibility, as well as a full blood count, biochemical profile, coagulation tests, and virological screening for hepatitis B and C (HBV and HCV). Cardiopulmonary evaluation included electrocardiography (ECG), echocardiography, and chest radiography.

Imaging studies included abdominal ultrasound, contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT) with evaluation of hepatic vascular anatomy, and magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography (MRCP) for biliary tract assessment. Esophagogastroduodenoscopy was also performed. Donor liver steatosis was evaluated using liver elastometry.

In addition to medical testing, all donors underwent psychosocial evaluation and legal counseling to confirm their eligibility and to verify their relationship to the recipient.

Donors with cardiovascular disease, neurological or psychiatric disorders, and hepatic steatosis grade S1 or higher (as assessed by elastometry) were excluded from consideration. Additional exclusion criteria included a low graft-to-recipient weight ratio (GRWR), and variant portal vein anatomy. Only donors with type 1 portal vein anatomy, as defined by the Nakamura classification [8], were accepted.

Liver volumetric analysis was performed to ensure donor safety. Only those with an estimated residual liver volume of at least 35% were deemed eligible. Donors were also excluded if the right hepatic artery diameter was less than 2 mm. Donors with complex venous anatomy in hepatic segments V and VIII – specifically those with multiple segmental branches requiring technically demanding venoplasty – were not considered suitable candidates.

Perioperative donor management adhered to the ERAS Society guidelines [9].

### Surgical technique

The graft used in all cases was the right liver lobe. Liver procurement was performed using a conventional surgical technique. Afferent and efferent vessels, along with the bile ducts of the right lobe, were carefully mobilized using precision techniques. The resection plane was identified by temporarily clamping the inflow to the right lobe, marking the demarcation line. In anatomically complex or unclear cases, intraoperative Doppler imaging was employed to assist in defining the resection plane. Parenchymal transection was conducted using a CUSA Excel device (Integra, USA) in combination with bipolar forceps, with continuous irrigation of the coagulation field using saline. Vascular structures supplying the left lobe were preserved. The bile duct was carefully dissected and transected without coagulation.

Histidine-tryptophan-ketoglutarate solution (HTK, Custodiol, Dr. F. Köhler Chemie, GmbH, Germany) was used in all cases for graft preservation. Venoplasty was performed when segment V and VIII veins measured  $\geq$ 5 mm in diameter; polytetrafluoroethylene grafts were

used. In two cases, a conduit was fashioned using the donor's falciform ligament and the recipient's umbilical vein (Fig. 1). When multiple bile ducts were found in

Table 1

Data	Values $(n = 40)$
Age, years	40 (18–56)
Sex, n (%)	
Men	28 (70%)
Women	12 (30%)
Indications for transplantation, n (%)	
Hepatitis B + D virus	34 (85%)
Hepatitis C virus	3 (7.5%)
Autoimmune hepatitis	2 (5%)
Toxic hepatitis	1 (2.5%)
MELD	18 (10–30)
Signs of portal hypertension	40 (100%)
Portal vein thrombosis before transplantation	2 (5%)
Follow-up after transplantation, months	7 (1–26)
Operation time, minutes	570 (410–785)
Blood loss	1200 (600–5000)
Graft weight, grams	720 (515–940)
GRWR. %	1.05 (0.7–2.0)
Graft phleboplasty	
Single RHV. no repair performed	28 (80%)
2 IRHV. no repair performed	3 (7.5%)
3 IRHV, joining the orifices	2 (5%)
Joining of the orifices of yeins S8 and RHV	2 (5%)
PTFE graft. S5 vein	1 (2.5%)
PTFE graft S8 vein	1 (2.5%)
PTFF graft joining of \$5 and \$8 yeins	1 (2.5%)
Falciform ligament conduit joining of S5 and S8 veins	1 (2.5%)
Implical vein graft joining of \$5 and \$8 veins	1 (2.5%)
Number of caval anastomoses	1 (2.576)
	26 (65%)
	14 (35%)
Arterial anastomosis	11(0070)
Split suture	17 (42 5%)
Twisted suture	21 (52 5%)
Split suture anastomosis with splenic artery	2(5%)
Splenic artery ligation	2 (376)
HA diameter mm	4 2 (2 8–6 0)
SA diameter mm	86(52-101)
Difference between SA and HA diameters %	95 (4-239%)
SA ligation n (%)	35 (87 5%)
Biliary reconstruction	55 (67.576)
Bilio-biliary anastomosis (1 duct)	11 (27 5%)
Bilio-biliary + biliodigestive anastomosis	1 (25%)
Biliodigestive anastomosis (1 duct)	7 (17 5%)
Biliodigestive anastomosis (2 ducts 1 anastomosis)	10 (25%)
Biliodigestive anastomosis (2 ducts, 1 anastomoses)	4 (10%)
Biliodigestive anastomosis (2 ducts, 2 anastomoses)	<b>6</b> (15%)
Biliodigestive anastomosis (3 duets, 1 anastomosis)	1 (2 5%)

Baseline characteristics of recipients and the surgical features

*Note:* MELD, Model for End Stage Liver Disease; GRWR, graft-to-recipient weight ratio; PTFE, polytetrafluoroethylene; RHV, right hepatic vein; IRHV, inferior right hepatic vein; HA, hepatic artery; SA, splenic artery.

close proximity, ductoplasty was performed by unifying the ducts with a continuous twisted suture using PDS 5/0 polydioxanone suture.

Where technically feasible, caval reconstruction was performed using the piggyback technique with lateral clamping of the hepatic veins, thereby preserving continuous blood flow through the inferior vena cava. In cases where the graft contained multiple right hepatic veins, additional caval anastomoses were performed as required. The recipient's portal vein was anastomosed to the graft portal vein in an end-to-end fashion using 5/0 Prolene suture.

Arterial anastomoses were carried out using various techniques, depending on vessel size and anatomical considerations. For donor right hepatic arteries with diameters less than 2.5 mm or in cases of significant size mismatch between donor and recipient arteries, interrupted sutures were placed using 7/0 Prolene under binocular magnification  $(3.5\times)$ . When the donor artery diameter exceeded 2.5 mm, a continuous twisted suture technique with 7/0 Prolene was employed. All arterial anastomoses were performed with the recipient's common hepatic artery; however, in two cases, the splenic artery was used due to marked intimal atherosclerosis of the common hepatic artery. Intraoperative Doppler ultrasound was routinely used to assess arterial inflow immediately following arterial anastomosis and again after biliary reconstruction and completion of hemostasis.

We also established specific criteria for splenic artery ligation to prevent splenic artery steal syndrome (SASS). In cases where the splenic artery diameter exceeded the hepatic artery diameter by 50% or more – as determined by preoperative contrast-enhanced CT imaging – splenic artery ligation was indicated. This procedure was performed either at the level of the splenic hilum or at the origin from the celiac trunk. To prevent arterial insufficiency and mitigate the risk of portal hyperperfusion [10–11], grafts with a GRWR of more than 0.9% were used.

Biliary reconstruction was performed using either duct-to-duct anastomosis or Roux-en-Y hepaticojejunostomy with external stenting [12]. A duct-to-duct biliary anastomosis was selected when the graft contained a single bile duct with a diameter exceeding 3 mm. In all other cases, a Roux-en-Y hepaticojejunostomy was performed, accompanied by the placement of external biliary stents [26].

#### Immunosuppressive therapy

Immunosuppression was initiated with basiliximab at 20 mg for induction. This was followed by intraoperative administration of methylprednisolone (10 mg/kg) immediately after portal vein reperfusion. The maintenance immunosuppressive regimen included tacrolimus in combination with low-dose methylprednisolone. Mycophenolate mofetil was added as clinically indicated. Target serum tacrolimus levels were maintained between 6 and 9 ng/mL. Decisions regarding discontinuation or substitution of immunosuppressive agents were guided by the occurrence of adverse effects and patient-specific tolerance.



Fig. 1. Venous outflow reconstruction variations: a, vein reconstruction of segments 5 and 8 using the donor's falciform ligament; b, vein reconstruction of segments 5 and 8 using a polytetrafluoroethylene graft

### Postoperative vascular monitoring and prophylaxis against vascular complications

All patients received comprehensive thromboprophylaxis to minimize the risk of vascular complications. Prophylaxis against postoperative arterial complications included the administration of alprostadil (prostaglandin E1) immediately following arterial reperfusion. Starting on the first postoperative day, low-molecular-weight heparin (LMWH) was administered, and low-dose aspirin was introduced on postoperative day 4. Alprostadil was discontinued 7 days postoperatively, while LMWH was continued for 2 weeks after transplantation. Aspirin therapy was maintained for 3 months postoperatively. In cases of significant coagulopathy, signs of bleeding, or platelet counts below  $50 \times 10^{9}$ /L, thromboprophylaxis was modified or temporarily halted until the complications were addressed. Additionally, intravenous fluid support was provided with daily monitoring of fluid balance.

For the first 7 days following transplantation, patients underwent regular ultrasound monitoring using Logiq P6 (General Electric, USA) and DC-40 (Mindray Medical International Limited, China) ultrasound systems, both equipped with standard C6-2 convex sensor units. The initial postoperative ultrasound to assess arterial blood flow was performed after the patient was transferred to the intensive care unit. Subsequent ultrasound exams were conducted every 6 hours during the first week postsurgery. After the first week, monitoring was reduced to once daily. In cases with complications, ultrasound monitoring continued for more than 1 week as needed [11].

The following Doppler ultrasound findings were considered indicative of deteriorating hepatic arterial blood flow: difficulty visualizing the artery, changes in the resistive index (RI) – either an increase above 0.85 or a decrease below 0.5 – and a reduction in arterial peak systolic velocity to less than 15 cm/sec. In such cases, we initiated continuous heparin infusion, beginning with a bolus dose of 80 U/kg followed by a maintenance infusion at 18 U/kg/hr. Activated partial thromboplastin time was monitored every 6 hours [11, 13, 14].

If hepatic arterial flow was not visualized by ultrasound, an emergency contrast-enhanced CT scan was performed, or the patient was urgently transferred to the endovascular suite for diagnostic angiography. Upon confirmation of arterial insufficiency, immediate revascularization was undertaken [15].

To monitor portal vein blood flow, Doppler ultrasound was used to assess both volumetric and linear flow velocities. If signs of occlusive portal vein thrombosis were detected within the first 72 hours post-transplant, the patient underwent relaparotomy with revision of the anastomosis. In other cases, heparin prophylaxis was initiated.

# Variables evaluated and statistical processing

Baseline variables including age, sex, body weight, and date of surgery were analyzed for both donors and recipients. Postoperative complications were classified according to the Clavien–Dindo classification system [16]. For patients who experienced complications, the Comprehensive Complication Index (CCI) [17] was additionally calculated. Unlike the Clavien–Dindo system, which records only the highest-grade complication per patient, the CCI accounts for the cumulative burden of all complications, providing a more comprehensive measure of postoperative morbidity and overall patient severity.

Short-term outcomes were defined as events occurring during the initial hospitalization period. Long-term outcomes were assessed over a follow-up period of up to 26 months postoperatively. Continuous variables were reported as medians with corresponding ranges, while categorical variables were expressed as absolute numbers and percentages. Patient survival rates were estimated using the Kaplan–Meier method. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Statistical analyses were conducted using Microsoft Excel (USA), Orange3 (Slovenia), and IBM SPSS Statistics version 26 (USA).

### RESULTS

### **Recipients**

The median operative time for recipients was 570 minutes (range: 410–785 minutes), with a median intraoperative blood loss of 1,200 mL (range: 600–5,000 mL). In 28 cases (70%), the right lobe grafts had a single right hepatic vein (RHV) without significant accessory veins; these cases required only a single caval anastomosis, and venoplasty was not performed. In 5 cases (12.5%), accessory inferior RHVs (iRHVs) were present: 1 iRHV in three cases (7.5%) and 2 iRHVs in two cases (5%). In patients with two iRHVs, the RHVs were combined into a single venous orifice and two caval anastomoses were performed during reconstruction. In cases with a single iRHV, dual caval anastomoses were performed without additional venoplasty.

In 3 patients, polytetrafluoroethylene grafts were used for venous outflow plasty due to the presence of significant S5 and S8 veins. In one case (2.5%), a conduit fashioned from the donor liver's falciform ligament was used for venoplasty of the S5 and S8 branches. In another case, the recipient's dilated umbilical vein served as a conduit for similar reconstruction. Overall, 14 patients (35%) required 2 caval anastomoses. All arterial anastomoses were performed using the recipient's common hepatic artery, except in 2 cases where the splenic artery (SA) was used due to severe atherosclerotic changes in the common hepatic artery. In 35 cases (87.5%), the SA diameter exceeded the hepatic artery (HA) diameter by 50% or more. The mean HA diameter was 4.2 mm (range: 2.8–6.0 mm), while the mean SA diameter was 8.8 mm (range: 5.2–10.3 mm). The median difference in diameter between the SA and HA was 95% (range: 4–241%). The median GRWR was 1.1 (range: 0.7–2.0).

In all 35 cases where the SA diameter exceeded the HA diameter by  $\geq$ 50%, SA ligation was performed to prevent SASS. Among these, the SA was ligated at the splenic hilum in 3 patients, and at the level of the celiac trunk in 27 patients.

Due to anatomical variations in the donor bile ducts, different techniques were employed for biliary reconstruction (see Fig. 2). A duct-to-duct (biliobiliary) anastomosis was performed in 11 patients, while a Roux-en-Y hepaticojejunostomy was used in 28 cases. One patient had an aberrant right hepatic duct, requiring a combined reconstruction approach: a Roux-en-Y hepaticojejunos-



Fig. 2. Biliary reconstruction variations: a, bilio-biliary anastomosis; b, biliodigestive anastomosis on the Roux-en-Y jejunal loop; c, ductoplasty (joining) of two or three ducts and biliodigestive anastomosis on the Roux-en-Y jejunal loop; d, two separate bile duct anastomoses with the Roux-en-Y jejunal loop; e, three bile ducts on the graft – ductoplasty (joining) of two ducts and imposition of two separate bile duct anastomoses with Roux-en-Y jejunal loop; f, common bile duct anastomosis with Roux-en-Y jejunal loop; anastomosis with aberrant bile duct of the liver right lobe

Table 2

Total complications, n	8 of 40 (20%)			
Arterial complications, n (%)				
HAT	1 (14.4%)			
HAS	3 (42.8%)			
Steal syndrome	3 (42.8%)			
HAS when ligating the SA at the splenic hilum	3 of 3 (100%)			
HAS when ligating the SA at the celiac trunk	_			
Steal syndrome after SA ligation	—			
Steal syndrome without SA ligation	3 of 5 (60%)			
Postoperative day of compli-	cation (range)			
HAT	7 (7)			
HAS	3 (3)			
Steal syndrome	4 (0–7)			
Portal vein complication	ns, n (%)			
Complication, n				
PVT	1 (2.5%)			
PVS	2 (5%)			
Postoperative day of complication (range)				
PVT	Postoperative day 2			
PVS	Postoperative month 10.5 (9–12)			

Vascular complications

*Note:* HAT, hepatic artery thrombosis; HAS, hepatic artery stenosis; SA, splenic artery; PVT, portal vein thrombosis; PVS, portal vein stenosis.

tomy for the main bile duct and a separate biliobiliary anastomosis for the aberrant duct. Perioperative characteristics of all patients are summarized in Table 1.

**Rejection.** Among the patients examined, 10% had an episode of acute rejection, occurring between postoperative days 2 and 14. Pulse methylprednisolone therapy was effective in 50% of these cases. However, two patients succumbed to acute graft dysfunction in the early postoperative period. In all cases of suspected graft rejection, the corticosteroid dose was tapered following pulse therapy, and mycophenolic acid was introduced as a third-line agent in the immunosuppressive regimen.

*Vascular complications.* Hepatic artery complications occurred in 7 patients, as detailed in Table 2. All episodes of arterial insufficiency developed within the first postoperative week. Hepatic artery thrombosis (HAT) occurred in one patient. Hepatic artery stenosis (HAS) was diagnosed in 3 patients (42.8%), while SASS developed in another three. Notably, all SASS cases occurred in patients whose SA had not been ligated.

Selective celiacography was performed in all cases of arterial insufficiency. The patient diagnosed with HAT was treated with balloon angioplasty followed by stent placement in the HA. All HAS cases were managed with balloon angioplasty alone, without stenting. Patients diagnosed with SASS underwent SA coil embolization.

Table 3

In one patient with SASS, the arterial anastomosis of the graft was inadvertently damaged during selective angiography, necessitating an emergency relaparotomy to control hemorrhage and subsequent ligation of the SA. No recurrent episodes of arterial insufficiency were observed during the follow-up period.

Portal vein (PV) complications are summarized in Table 2. PV complications occurred in 3 patients. One patient developed acute occlusive portal vein thrombosis (PVT) on postoperative day 2, confirmed by Doppler ultrasound. This was accompanied by a marked elevation in liver transaminases (ALT: 2500 U/L; AST: 1800 U/L) and hyperbilirubinemia ( $210 \mu \text{mol/L}$ ). The patient underwent emergency laparotomy with revision of the portal vein anastomosis and thrombectomy. Despite restoration of adequate hepatic blood flow and intensive treatment, including extracorporeal detoxification, the patient developed severe liver graft dysfunction and died on postoperative day 9.

Two patients developed portal vein stenosis (PVS) within one year after transplantation. Clinically, PVS presented with signs of graft dysfunction (elevated bilirubin levels and cytolytic syndrome), along with features of portal hypertension (cytopenia, ascites). Both patients were successfully treated with percutaneous balloon angioplasty. They are currently under outpatient follow-up with satisfactory liver graft function [18].

*Biliary complications.* Biliary complications were observed in 16 patients, with bile leakage being the most common presentation (14 cases). Two patients developed late-onset biliary strictures: one experienced an anastomotic stricture of a bilio-biliary anastomosis 18 months after transplantation, and the other developed a stricture at the site of a biliodigestive anastomosis 12 months post-transplant.

Among patients with arterial complications, biliary complications were also noted in 4 cases (57.1%): one with HAT, two with SASS, and one with HAS. All four experienced bile leakage, but no biliary strictures were detected in this subset.

In one patient with a biliodigestive anastomosis, a biloma was managed by ultrasound-guided percutaneous drainage. Another patient with a bilio-biliary anastomosis underwent endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP) with biliary stent placement, which successfully controlled the bile leak. In the remaining patients, bile leakage occurred while intra-abdominal drainage tubes were in place and resolved spontaneously without the need for additional intervention.

By comparison, among patients without arterial complications, bile leakage occurred in 10 cases (30.3%) during the early postoperative period (P = 0.039). In this same group, the previously described cases of late-onset anastomotic bile duct strictures also occurred, both of which ultimately required reconstructive surgical intervention.

*Other complications.* All complications were classified as either early or late and are summarized in Table 2. Among the early complications, two patients developed wound seromas (Clavien–Dindo grade I), seven patients experienced pleural effusions requiring drainage, and one patient had gastrointestinal bleeding (Clavien–Dindo

Early and late post-transplant complications

	1 1	
Complication	Early com-	Late com-
(Clavien–Dindo grade)	plications, n	plications, n
Stage 1		
Seroma/wound infection	2	
Stage 2		
Biliary leak	6	
Acute rejection	2	
Chronic rejection		1
De novo hepatitis B virus		1
Stage 3a		
Biliary leak	6	
Right-sided pleurisy	5	
Bilateral pleurisy	2	
Gastrointestinal bleeding	1	
Liver transplant abscesses		3
HAT	1	
HAS	3	
SASS	2	
PVS		2
Stage 3b		
Biliary peritonitis	2	
Anastomotic stricture		2
Intra-abdominal hemorrhage	2	
SASS	1	
Stage 4		
Seizure syndrome	1	
Demyelination of the pons	1	
Biliary sepsis		1
Aspiration	1	
Sepsis	3	
Stage 5		
PVT	1	
Sepsis, MOD	2	
Acute rejection	2	
Covid-19 pneumonia	_	1
Aspiration		1
Chronic rejection		
(non-compliance)		1
Median CCI (for patients	42.6	80.1
with complications)	(8.7–100)	(39.7–100)

*Note:* HAT, hepatic artery thrombosis, HAS – hepatic artery stenosis, PVS, portal vein stenosis; SASS, splenic artery steal syndrome; PVT, portal vein thrombosis; MOD, multiple organ dysfunction; CCI, comprehensive complication index.

grade IIIa). Severe complications included two cases of biliary peritonitis requiring surgical intervention and two cases of internal bleeding – one due to disseminated intravascular coagulation and the other from arterial bleeding at the remaining coronary ligament of the liver (Clavien–Dindo grade IIIb).

Additionally, three cases of sepsis and one case of severe aspiration (on postoperative day 7) were successfully managed. One patient experienced seizures due to elevated tacrolimus levels, which resolved with dose reduction and administration of valproic acid. Another patient developed central pontine myelinolysis, presenting with neurological deficits, reduced consciousness, and aphasia. This occurred in the context of rapid plasma sodium correction (an increase of 11  $\mu$ mol/L within 24 hours) on the first postoperative day, with clinical symptoms appearing on day 8. Diagnosis was confirmed by brain MRI. The patient was discharged in improved condition on postoperative day 30 and remains under neurological follow-up.

Among the late complications, one episode of chronic rejection was recorded, as well as one case of *de novo* HBV, which was managed conservatively. Three patients developed liver abscesses, all of which were successfully treated with percutaneous drainage. One patient was urgently admitted to the intensive care unit 35 days posttransplant with acute cholangitis. Management included temporary cessation of immunosuppressive therapy and initiation of broad-spectrum antibiotics. The patient was discharged after 10 days and continues to be followed on an outpatient basis.

*Mortality.* A total of eight patients died during the follow-up period. In-hospital mortality was 12.5%. The causes of death included sepsis (2 patients), acute rejection (2 patients), and liver failure secondary to PVT (1 patient). Among the long-term deaths, the causes were COVID-19-associated pneumonia, aspiration, and chronic rejection in a non-compliant patient. Overall patient survival is illustrated in Fig. 3.

#### Donor results

Among the donors, 13 were female and 27 were male. The mean BMI was 23.2 kg/m<sup>2</sup>. Based on perioperative data, the median operative time for donors was 342.5 minutes (range: 230–440 minutes), and the median intraoperative blood loss was 250 mL (range: 50-850 mL) (Table 4).

Donor complications are summarized in Table 4. Wound seroma occurred in two donors. One donor developed renal failure during antibacterial prophylaxis with sulperazone, presenting with oliguria, proteinuria, hematuria, edema, and pleural effusion. The condition resolved after sulperazone was discontinued and diuretic therapy was initiated. Two donors experienced wound infections that required prolonged local wound care and antibiotic therapy. Hospital-acquired pneumonia (Clavien–Dindo grade II) was diagnosed in one donor. Pleural effusion developed in two donors, both of whom underwent drainage procedures. Bilomas requiring per-



Fig. 3. Survival of right lobe liver recipients

Table 4

Data	Values $(n = 40)$
Age, years	40 (18–56)
Sex, n (%)	
Male	27 (67.5%)
Female	13 (32.5%)
BMI	23.2 (18–28.3)
Surgery time	342.5 (230–440)
Blood loss	250 (50-850)
Blood loss (Clavien–Dindo)	
Stage 1	
Seroma	1
Stage 2	
Kidney failure	1
Pneumonia	1
Wound infection	2
Hemorrhagic wound discharge	2
Stage 3a	
Right-sided pleurisy	2
Biliary leak (biloma).	2
Stage 3b	
Inferior vena cava hemorrhage	1
Biliary leak	2
Median CCI (for donors	22.7
with complications)	55.7
Hospitalization period, days	10 (7–28)

Donor characteristics and clinical outcomes

*Note:* BMI, body mass index; CCI, comprehensive complication index.

cutaneous drainage were observed in two patients, while another two patients with biliary effusion underwent open surgical revision. One donor experienced hemorrhage due to dislodgement of a clip from the inferior vena cava, necessitating emergency surgical intervention. The median postoperative hospital stay was 10 days (range: 7–28 days). No late complications were observed among donors.

#### DISCUSSION

LDLT has emerged as a life-saving option for adult patients with end-stage liver disease in settings where deceased donor LT is not available [19]. Despite its generally favorable outcomes, LDLT in adult recipients presents significant challenges and risks. Donors are required to undergo major hepatic surgery, which carries the potential for serious complications and necessitates a prolonged recovery period. Ethical concerns are also inherent in the procedure, as the decision to donate a portion of one's liver involves balancing altruistic motivations with the potential impact on the donor's health [20]. In the Republic of Uzbekistan, the absence of a legal framework for DDLT means that LDLT remains the sole viable treatment option for patients in critical need of LT.

Furthermore, LDLT is associated with a higher incidence of post-transplant surgical complications compared to DDLT, with reported in-hospital mortality rates ranging from 3.6% to 18.9% [21-23]. In our study, the complications most frequently associated with mortality included infection, acute graft rejection, and liver graft dysfunction due to PVT. Among the two acute graft rejection cases, both patients exhibited persistent elevation of liver enzymes - alanine aminotransferase and aspartate aminotransferase - alongside rising bilirubin levels, in the absence of clinical or imaging evidence of obstructive jaundice. Infectious causes, including acute cytomegalovirus infection, as well as vascular complications, were ruled out. The primary indications for transplantation in these two patients were autoimmune hepatitis and HBV. Despite the initiation of intensive therapy, including pulse methylprednisolone therapy and extracorporeal detoxification, liver function failed to recover.

Vascular complications in our series were observed at a slightly higher frequency than reported in the literature [11]. We attribute this discrepancy to the learning curve associated with the first 15–20 LDLT procedures performed [24, 25]. Among the patients with arterial complications, three died during the follow-up period. However, the causes of death in these cases were unrelated to the arterial complications themselves. One patient with arterial stenosis succumbed to severe COVID-19induced pneumonia two months post-transplant. A second patient with SASS died from aspiration at home one month after discharge. The third patient, also with SASS, passed away two months following transplantation due to ovarian apoplexy complicated by sepsis, a diagnosis that had been missed by the local healthcare providers.

Biliary complications continue to be a significant challenge in LT and are more prevalent in LDLT recipients. The incidence of these complications varies across transplant centers, but it can reach as high as 30%, with an associated mortality rate of 10%, making them a serious concern for post-transplant patients [26]. Most biliary complications, primarily biliary leakage, occurred in recipients with complex donor bile duct anatomy and those who had arterial complications.

In-hospital mortality in our study was 12.5%, which is comparable to the data reported in the literature [19, 21]. Survival at 26 months of follow-up was 80%.

Regarding LDLT donors, the reported complication rate in the literature is around 25%, with some studies indicating rates as high as 40% [27, 28]. Mild complications are reported in 17% of cases, while major complications account for approximately 5.5%. In our cohort, donor outcomes aligned with these figures.
## CONCLUSION

Our experience with LDLT and the analysis of posttransplant complications are consistent with world literature and align with acceptable standards for the implementation stage of an LT program. Transplantation is feasible at our center, but there is a need to enhance both surgical and conservative therapeutic approaches to minimize the incidence of early and long-term postoperative complications.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# PERIOPERATIVE PROPHYLAXIS OF RENAL ISCHEMIA-REPERFUSION INJURY

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This paper reviews the strategies for correcting ischemia-reperfusion injury (IRI) in kidneys during surgeries and transplantation, discussed and proposed in the current literature. The pathophysiological mechanisms of IRI and a wide range of proposed methods for reducing the severity of injury are considered. The use of such techniques as the combination of ischemic, pharmacological pre- and postconditioning is still being studied. It was observed that researchers were very interested in immunological and biological (stem cell) therapeutic strategies as a potential avenue to lessen the severity of IRI.

Keywords: renal ischemia-reperfusion injury, renal IRI, antioxidants, IRI therapeutic strategies.

Ischemia-reperfusion injury (IRI) is currently a critical issue widely discussed across various fields of medicine, particularly in the context of organ transplantation and surgical or vascular interventions. Therapeutic approaches to correcting IRI vary depending on the organ affected.

This paper specifically focuses on renal IRI, which occurs during kidney surgery and transplantation, and explores potential methods to mitigate kidney injury resulting from IRI during these procedures.

The aim of this paper is to review the proposed and emerging strategies for alleviating the severity of IRI in kidney surgery and kidney transplantation (KT), as discussed in current literature.

Before delving into the methods of correction, their efficacy, and the stages at which they are applied, it is essential to first examine the mechanism of IRI in light of current research.

Mechanism of development. IRI is a form of tissue injury that occurs when blood supply is interrupted or depleted (due to blood loss or ischemia), followed by reperfusion. This process triggers the release of a variety of mediators, leading to cellular injury and, eventually, organ dysfunction. Notably, the injury caused during reperfusion is often more severe than during ischemia itself. During ischemia, tissues are deprived of metabolic reserves and oxygen, which leads to the accumulation of metabolic waste products. The absence of oxygen results in the depletion of energy reserves, such as adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and glycogen. Energy-dependent sodium-potassium ( $Na^+-K^+$ ) exchangers, which help maintain an electrolyte gradient across the cell membrane, become dysfunctional due to energy depletion. As a result, the ion gradient across the cell membrane is disrupted. Sodium ions move into the cells from the extracellular space, while potassium ions shift out of the cells into the extracellular space. In response to the lack of oxygen, metabolic processes switch from aerobic to anaerobic pathways, leading to the accumulation of lactate and intracellular acidosis. This creates a vicious cycle that progressively reduces the efficiency of cellular energy production [1, 2].

Decreased intracellular pH further inhibits glycolysis, while increased intracellular sodium concentration can lead to a secondary rise in intracellular calcium levels. Calcium is also released from the mitochondria through the mitochondrial Na<sup>+</sup>-H<sup>+</sup>/Ca<sup>2+</sup> exchanger. The activity of the sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca<sup>2+</sup> pump, which helps in calcium reuptake, is suppressed, exacerbating the increase in intracellular calcium. As calcium ions accumulate inside the cell, they bind to and activate the regulatory protein calmodulin. This, in turn, activates calciumcalmodulin-dependent protein kinases, phospholipase A2, and proteases, leading to vesicle degranulation. This process releases proinflammatory chemokines and cytokines, such as interleukin-8, von Willebrand factor, and P-selectin, etc. [3].

Intracellular acidosis disrupts the hydrogen ion gradient across the mitochondrial membrane, halting ATP production. This, coupled with the increased levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the mitochondria, exacerbates cellular damage. Increased intracellular calcium and elevated inorganic phosphate levels, resulting from accelerated ATP degradation [4], further influence the state of mitochondrial permeability transition pores (mPTPs). However, during the ischemic phase, low intracellular pH inhibits the opening of these mPTPs [3].

Dephosphorylation of AMP-activated protein kinase exacerbates IRI-induced acute kidney injury (AKI) by

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promoting mitochondrial dysfunction [5], accompanied by impaired mitochondrial iron homeostasis [6].

These processes are now collectively referred to as the ischemic sterile tissue injury theory, which suggests that ischemia leads to the release of endogenous molecules known as damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), such as ATP, calcium, uric acid, and DNA. The cells of the innate immune system recognize these molecular signals, triggering a cascade of events. This includes the release of cytokines that promote chemotaxis, the labeling of damaged cells for clearance (opsonization), and direct cell killing. Such disorders activate the complement system, which, in turn, triggers chemotaxis and facilitates cell death through the formation of the terminal complement complex (C5b-9) [7].

IRI triggers a series of local and systemic pathophysiological mechanisms that ultimately result in cell death through necrosis, apoptosis, and autophagy. Necrosis is an uncontrolled process associated with inflammation [8], whereas apoptosis is a regulated, programmed form of cell death that occurs without inflammation. Apoptosis, as a programmed cell death process, is driven by intracellular changes following reperfusion. These changes include increased ATP production and calcium binding in mitochondria via Na<sup>+</sup>-Ca<sup>2+</sup> exchangers when intracellular pH returns to normal. ROS, generated during ischemia and reperfusion, play a critical role in the opening of mPTPs. During the ischemic phase, mPTPs remain closed due to low intracellular pH. However, when acidosis is corrected during reperfusion, mPTP opening occurs, leading to cell death by mitoptosis [9, 10]. The opening of mPTPs increases mitochondrial outer membrane permeability and facilitates the release of pro-apoptotic proteins like cytochrome c. Evidence suggests that BNIP3-mediated mitophagy plays a vital role in mitochondrial quality control and cell survival during IRI [11]. The loss of cytochrome c from the mitochondrial membrane triggers a cycle of reduced aerobic respiration, increased ROS production, and consequently, amplified apoptotic activity.

Mitochondria contain several antioxidants, such as Mn-superoxide dismutase (Mn-SOD), glutathione, glutathione peroxidase, thioredoxin-2, and glutaredoxin, which neutralize ROS and aid in cellular repair. However, these antioxidant systems become significantly overexpressed during ischemia and reperfusion. Additionally, mitochondrial ROS production stimulates the secretion of extracellular vesicles by epithelial cells, containing RNA, lipids, and proteins, suggesting their involvement in the pathogenesis of the process [12]. Spatial transcriptome sequencing has revealed mechanisms that drive tissue infiltration by immune cells [13].

At the same time, ischemic injury to endothelial cells reduces the production of nitric oxide (NO), endothelium-dependent hyperpolarizing factor, and prostacyclin, thereby increasing the risk of microthrombosis. The oxygen free radicals generated during reperfusion can further damage the vascular endothelium. For instance, superoxide radicals react directly with NO, which results in the loss of NO's physiological activity and the formation of peroxynitrite, a highly cytotoxic free radical [14].

We report the identification of 8-oxoguanine DNA glycosylase (OGG1) as a key mediator of hypoxia- and reoxygenation-induced apoptosis *in vitro*, as well as renal tissue injury in a renal ischemia-reperfusion injury (IRI) model. OGG1 is recognized for its role in the excision repair of damaged nuclear and mitochondrial DNA during IRI. These findings suggest that OGG1 may represent a novel clinical target with therapeutic potential [15, 16].

The N6-methyladenosine (m6A) mRNA methylase METTL14 has been shown to exacerbate renal IRI by suppressing Yes-associated protein 1 (YAP1). The discovery of the METTL14–YAP1 pathway offers a new perspective on the molecular mechanisms underlying IRI and paves the way for the development of innovative therapeutic strategies and molecular targets [17].

In addition to the mechanisms already discussed in the pathogenesis of IRI, recent studies have reported the expression of transient receptor potential melastatin 7 (TRPM7) in renal IRI, a finding previously documented only in IRI of other organs [18]. This novel evidence expands the potential role of TRPM7 in mediating renal injury during ischemia-reperfusion. Furthermore, various signaling pathways influencing gene regulation, including those involving microRNAs (miRNAs), have been explored. Several miRNAs have been identified as either upregulated or downregulated during IRI, suggesting their potential utility as biomarkers for early detection of IRI or as future therapeutic targets in clinical practice [19].

The involvement of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) in renal IRI has been demonstrated, with several potential mechanisms proposed for its protective effects [20]. The renin-angiotensin system has also been implicated in the development and progression of IRI [21].

The measures employed to manage IRI in KT differ significantly from those used in non-transplant kidney surgeries. In transplantation, the first substantial injury to the allograft often occurs while the organ is still in the donor. Notably, the development of ROS-mediated oxidative stress following brain death (BD) is well-documented in both experimental models and clinical observations involving deceased donors. BD is believed to contribute to the maturation of immunostimulatory dendritic cells, which act as potential sources of DAMPs. These DAMPs activate the innate immune system of the deceased donor, particularly following severe trauma, leading to acute systemic autoimmune syndrome. DAMPs released from injured graft cells further stimulate the recipient's innate immune response, triggering the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF), type I interferons, interleukin (IL)-1, IL-6, and various chemokines. Neutrophils play a pivotal role in mediating microvascular occlusion and local tissue destruction during IRI [7].

Consequently, regulated forms of cell death such as necroptosis, pyroptosis, and ferroptosis have been reported in numerous models of post-ischemic reperfusion injury, including those within transplantation contexts. Among these, necroptosis and ferroptosis have garnered particular attention in the field of organ transplantation due to their emerging relevance in mediating graft injury [2, 22, 23]. Recent findings suggest that ferroptosis may represent an first stage of IRI, preceding the subsequent development of inflammatory responses and necrotic cell death [24].

Following donor organ transplantation, reperfusioninduced oxidative stress results in the release of DAMPs, which in turn reignite the innate immune response, creating a booster effect. Mitoglitazone has demonstrated a protective effect against renal IRI by inhibiting ferroptosis through its action on mitoNEET-regulated ferroptosis, also considered as a promising target for therapeutic intervention [25].

A variety of donor resuscitation and graft perfusion strategies have been explored to mitigate the effects of IRI in transplantation. In humans, prevention of IRI remains a major area of investigation, focusing on donor conditioning, modification of preservation solutions, graft reperfusion techniques, and optimization of recipient-targeted interventions [26]. One promising area of research includes the use of pharmacological additives, such as hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), in renal preservation solutions, as well as the modulation of preservation temperatures to improve graft viability and enhance recipient survival rates [27].

To prevent the excessive accumulation of oxygen-derived free radicals during organ storage and reperfusion, several pharmacological strategies have been proposed. These include the incorporation of xanthine oxidase inhibitors like allopurinol into preservation solutions, along with antioxidant agents such as reduced glutathione, mannitol, superoxide dismutase, desferrioxamine, and 21-aminosteroids [28]. Preconditioning of kidney grafts with H<sub>2</sub>S is thought to mitigate IRI.

As previously discussed, intracellular calcium (Ca<sup>2+</sup>) overload is a critical factor in the pathogenesis of IRI. Several strategies have been proposed to mitigate Ca<sup>2+</sup> accumulation during reperfusion, including reducing extracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels in preservation solutions, supplementation with magnesium (Mg<sup>2+</sup>) – which competes with Ca<sup>2+</sup> for binding sites on exchangers and pumps – and pharmacological inhibition of Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx. The lat-

ter involves the use of Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel blockers and Na<sup>+</sup>/ H<sup>+</sup> exchanger inhibitors. However, some experimental studies have reported limited efficacy of verapamil in reducing renal IRI [29].

GM-CSF-induced MCP-1/CCR2 signaling has been implicated in sustaining cross-reactivity between injured tubular epithelial cells, infiltrating immune cells, and myofibroblasts, which promotes chronic inflammation and progressive interstitial fibrosis in the later stages of IRI [30].

The eIF5A hypusination inhibitor GC7 (N1-guanyl-1,7-diaminoheptane) has been shown to protect against ischemic injury. GC7 treatment has been shown to attenuate BD-induced renal injury, preserve mitochondrial homeostasis, and enhance antioxidant defenses, thereby improving post-transplant outcomes [31, 32].

The addition of sigma-1 receptor (S1R) agonists to preservation solutions improves graft function and minimizes structural damage, ultimately leading to enhanced long-term transplant outcomes. By reducing ischemic injury during cold storage, S1R agonists can potentially increase the pool of viable donor organs available for transplantation [33]. Quantitative assessment of ischemic tubular lesions in donor kidney biopsies – in kidneys retrieved after cardiac death – serves as a valuable predictive tool for post-transplant kidney function and is considered a reliable metric for evaluating graft quality [34].

These findings underscore the critical importance of a comprehensive understanding of IRI pathophysiology and the development of effective strategies for mitigating or reversing its effects in clinical practice. However, it is important to acknowledge that, while significant advances have been made in elucidating the mechanisms underlying IRI, the therapeutic approaches for its correction remain relatively underdeveloped [35].

Currently, IRImitigation strategies are broadly categorized into pharmacological and non-pharmacological approaches. The non-pharmacological methods include ischemic preconditioning (IPC) and ischemic postconditioning (IPostC).

IPC involves subjecting the target organ to brief, controlled periods of ischemia followed by reperfusion prior to a more prolonged ischemic stroke. This technique has been shown in both clinical and experimental studies to effectively reduce tissue damage, particularly in organs such as the liver [36]. While the exact protective mechanisms of IPC are still not fully understood, it is thought to slow ATP depletion, enhance autophagy, and preserve mitochondrial function during ischemic stress. In addition, IPC enhances autophagy and reduces cellular damage and mitochondrial dysfunction during injury. The so-called preischemic renal artery washout, proposed in experimental rat models, suggests that flushing the renal artery before ischemia may reduce the burden of circulating leukocytes [37].

IPostC, on the other hand, entails a series of brief, intermittent reperfusion periods, each separated by short occlusion phases, followed by continuous reperfusion. Its beneficial effects have been demonstrated in experimental models [38] and further validated in clinical trials, particularly in cardiac patients [39]. The pathophysiological rationale for IPostC was described as early as 1989 by Russian researcher Marianna Bilenko, who found that perfusion of kidneys with blood twice depleted of oxygen and enriched with antioxidants can significantly reduce the severity of reperfusion injury [40]. Unlike donor preconditioning, which is not always feasible, graft postconditioning offers a more practical and adaptable intervention. It can be tailored to the specific risk factors associated with the donor organ and is particularly valuable in complex cases involving prolonged ischemia [41]. IPostC can also be included in complex non-transplant cases requiring prolonged periods of ischemia.

Non-pharmacological strategies also encompass the use of specially designed electric fields, which have demonstrated efficacy in delaying ATP depletion during ischemia and preserving Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activity. This technique has been shown to reduce renal injury by approximately 45%, as evidenced by plasma creatinine levels of  $1.17 \pm 0.04$  mg/dL in treated groups versus  $1.97 \pm 0.06$  mg/dL in controls. Allograft function improved by over 50% compared to untreated counterparts [42].

Promising results have also been reported with pharmacological preconditioning and postconditioning using metformin, particularly in *ex vivo* models of normothermic machine perfusion involving rat and pig kidneys. These studies indicate that metformin exhibits renoprotective properties, potentially reducing the extent of IRI when administered prior to transplantation [43].

Contemporary pharmacological strategies to mitigate IRI are remarkably diverse. While early approaches predominantly relied on antihypoxants, the current landscape has expanded to include immunological, enzymatic, and biological interventions. However, much of the supporting evidence remains experimental or indirect, particularly concerning the effectiveness of pharmacological organ protection during procurement, preservation, and the early postoperative phase [35].

A number of medications have the ability to limit or completely inhibit ROS formation. These include urea, ceruloplasmin, nicotinic acid, mannitol, trimetazidine dihydrochloride (Trimetazidine), sodium polyhydroxyphenylene thiosulfonate (Hypoxene), and melatonin.

There is also a class of drugs known as scavengers – also referred to as free radical traps or interceptors. Their antioxidant mechanism involves neutralizing lipid radicals, lipoperoxide radicals, and lipid hydroperoxides, thereby interrupting the lipid peroxidation (LP) chain reaction. Examples include tocopherols, oxypyridine derivatives such as ethylmethylhydroxypyridine succinate (Mexidol) and methyl ethylpyridinol (Emoxipin), ionol, flavonoids, glutathione, acetylcysteine, methionine, as well as derivatives of succinic, fumaric, and other organic acids, ubiquinones, selenites, retinols, and carotenoids.

Recombinant preparations used by Russian authors that either inactivate ROS directly or the enhance endogenous biosynthesis of LP inhibitors have also been developed [44].

Vitamins have been used for decades as a means to reduce IRI, and research into their mechanisms and therapeutic potential continues to generate interest. These vitamins are generally classified into two types: watersoluble (hydrophilic), such as ascorbic acid (vitamin C), and fat-soluble (hydrophobic), such as beta-carotene and alpha-tocopherol (vitamin E). Hydrophilic antioxidants primarily interact with oxidants in blood plasma and the cytosol of cells, while hydrophobic antioxidants function predominantly to protect cellular membranes from lipid peroxidation [45]. Curcumin, which has pronounced antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties, has been shown to have a positive effect [46].

Melatonin, a potent antioxidant synthesized by the pineal gland, also plays a significant role in combating oxidative stress and inflammation [47]. It not only scavenges reactive oxygen species and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) but also enhances the activity of key antioxidant enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), and glutathione reductase (GR), contributing to membrane stabilization [36]. Due to its endogenous origin and low toxicity profile, melatonin is typically well tolerated [48, 49]. Emerging evidence supports its therapeutic potential, including studies that highlight the efficacy of melatonin alone [49], as well as in combination with mesenchymal stem cells and their exosomes, in reducing renal IRI in experimental rat models [48].

The prognosis of IRI can be improved by targeting the expression of endogenous cytokines. One such pharmacological agent is sevoflurane, a third-generation halogenated inhalational anesthetic known for its influence on the duration of neuromuscular blockade induced by non-depolarizing muscle relaxants. In experimental studies, pre-treatment with sevoflurane significantly reduced concentrations of TNF-alpha, IL-8 and IL-6 [50]. Sevoflurane has been reported to protect rat kidneys from IRI by reducing the expression of transient receptor potential melastatin 7 (TRPM7) [15].

Anesthetics help limit the elevation of extracellular glutamate levels and inhibit the overactivation of excitatory glutamatergic receptors, both of which are associated with increased oxidative stress in ischemic tissues. In particular, ketamine has been reported to exert beneficial effects in rat models [51].

The use of medical gases in oxidative stress therapy represents an emerging therapeutic approach. These gases can be administered directly to patients via inhalation using a nasal cannula, face mask, or ventilator. IRI has been treated with several therapeutic gases, including hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>), hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), nitric oxide (NO), and carbon monoxide (CO). The therapeutic effects of H<sub>2</sub>S have been demonstrated in rodent models of IRI, and it has been shown that H<sub>2</sub>S can induce reversible hypothermia and an anabiosis-like state. The antioxidant effects of H<sub>2</sub>S may be attributed to its interaction with cytochrome c oxidase and its influence on mitochondrial function. H<sub>2</sub>S may modulate gene expression through pathways involving nuclear factor-kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) [52].

In a rat model, evodiamine administration significantly reduced renal injury resulting from IRI, owing to its potent antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and anti-apoptotic properties [53].

Alkaline phosphatase (ALP) has also emerged as a potential therapeutic agent for attenuating IRI. A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, single-center pilot study investigated the safety and feasibility of peri-procedural ALP administration in living donor KT. Participants in the treatment group received 1000 IU of bRESCAP (bovine RESCue Alkaline Phosphatase, test substance name: bovine intestinal alkaline phosphatase, bIAP; EC 3.1.3.1). The study concluded that bRESCAP administration was safe, feasible, and may help reduce IRI-induced renal inflammation. Notably, this was the first trial to assess the use of bRESCAP in the context of KT, and further studies are currently planned to explore its therapeutic potential [55].

Inhibition of pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase-4 (PDK4) has been demonstrated to improve kidney IRI outcomes by reducing succinate accumulation during ischemia and preserving mitochondrial function during reperfusion [56]. Downregulation of G protein-coupled receptor kinase 4 (GRK4) has been shown to exert a protective effect against kidney IRI [57].

The NFAT inhibitor 11R-VIVIT has been shown to reduce renal fibrosis in mice after IRI. As a peptide inhibitor of nuclear factor of activated T-cells (NFAT), 11R-VIVIT was found to exert a renoprotective effect during a transition to chronic kidney disease after IRI. The study's findings support the hypothesis that NFAT2 inhibition may represent a promising new therapeutic strategy to prevent post-IRI kidney fibrosis [58].

In another mouse study, researchers identified a fucosylated ligand associated with ischemic injury that plays a role in initiating complement activation and AKI. The findings suggest that administration of supraphysiological levels of L-fucose in the renal cortex may exert therapeutic effects, likely through altering the cell-binding properties of collectin-11 (CL-11). These preliminary results warrant further investigation [59].

Propofol has been reported to confer a protective effect against IRI, although its precise mechanism of action remains unclear [60].

The polyoxylate-based copolymer APP-103, which incorporates vanillyl alcohol (VA) into its hydrophobic polymer backbone, has demonstrated high sensitivity and specificity to hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ). In experimental models, APP-103 was shown to be safe and effective in improving renal function after IRI and enhancing survival following KT [61].

Prostacyclin (PGI<sub>2</sub>), a product of prostacyclin synthase (PGIS), has also been identified as a renoprotective agent in IRI-induced AKI cases. The PGIS/PGI<sub>2</sub> axis presents a promising therapeutic target in AKI [62]. Another promising compound is N-(p-Amylcinnamoyl) anthranilic acid, an inhibitor of phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> and a potential melastatin-2 receptor blocker, which has shown protective effects against renal IRI [63].

Semaglutide, a GLP-1 receptor agonist, was found to exert renoprotective effects through modulation of inflammatory and oxidative pathways, particularly via the PI3K/AKT signaling pathway [64].

Disulfiram has demonstrated efficacy in ameliorating IRI-induced AKI by inhibiting the caspase-11–GSDMD pathway. Interestingly, disulfiram selectively blocked this pathway without significantly affecting classical pyroptosis markers such as NLRP3 and ASC, suggesting its targeted action on caspase-11-mediated pyroptosis [65].

Inhibition of NADPH oxidase 1 (NOX1) has also shown protective effects in the context of kidney IRI [66].

Cholecalciferol (vitamin  $D_3$ ), a clinically available compound, has been reported to protect kidney function in IRI by reducing ROS production, inhibiting NF- $\kappa$ B activation, and suppressing GSDMD-mediated pyroptosis [67].

Gold-platinum nanoparticles (AuPt NPs) – consisting of a gold core and a loosely branched platinum shell – have been proposed as a novel therapeutic strategy for renal IRI) [68]. Mitoglitazone improves kidney IRI by inhibiting ferroptosis [25, 69]. Modulation of NF- $\kappa$ B signaling via exosomal delivery is being explored as a potential therapeutic approach for AKI resulting from IRI [70].

There is also growing evidence suggesting sex hormones influence the susceptibility to renal IRI. Female sex hormones, particularly estradiol, appear to confer protective effects, while male hormones may exacerbate ischemia-induced renal injury [71]. Experimental studies in rats have shown that estradiol administration significantly reduces renal injury and improves outcomes following IRI [72, 73]. Multipotent adult progenitor cells (MAPC<sup>®</sup>) have potent immunomodulatory properties that may mitigate IRI [74]. This is the first reported series in which cell therapy was successfully delivered directly to human donor kidneys as an isolated *ex vivo* perfusion platform. Kidneys treated with MAPC cells exhibited improved clinically relevant outcomes, along with reduced tissue injury and lower levels of pro-inflammatory biomarkers. These effects may be mediated through alterations in circulating cytokines or secretion of soluble anti-inflammatory mediators. This approach could represent a paradigm shift in transplant medicine, offering a novel opportunity to treat donor organs directly prior to transplantation in order to minimize IRI [75].

Of particular interest is recent work exploring advanced technologies such as 3D renal organoids and kidneyon-a-chip platforms. The review provides information for creating models to study acute renal conditions associated with IRI [76, 77].

In addition, a study identified two distinct IRI clusters based on differentially expressed necroptosis-related genes (DE-NRGs). The researchers developed predictive models for delayed graft function (DGF) and graft survival, providing a framework for early prevention and personalized management of postoperative complications in KT recipients [78].

Russian researchers have also made significant strides in investigating potential solutions to IRI. In recent years, Netrebenkoet et al. have presented several studies examining the effects of various substances on the severity of kidney IRI. Notably, infliximab has shown experimental effectiveness in kidney IRI models, demonstrating a positive impact on IRI severity [79–81]. Similarly, a combination of a peptide mimicking the alpha helix of erythropoietin beta has been found to exert a beneficial effect in kidney IRI [81–83].

Carbamylated darbepoetin [84] and arginase II [85] have been demonstrated in experiments to be effective in preventing kidney IRI. Acyzol, based on zinc bisvinylimidazole diacetate, has been proposed for use as post-ischemic pharmacological conditioning. In preclinical studies, Acyzol showed positive effects when administered starting from the first day after surgery [86].

Goncharov et al. developed a genetically engineered construct encoding the PSH enzyme. In a mouse model, administration of a chimeric recombinant protein (PSH antioxidant enzyme) 15 minutes prior to ischemia was shown to reduce the severity of kidney IRI, offering a form of pharmacological ischemic preconditioning (IPC) [87, 88]. Additionally, Goncharov's team proposed the recombinant protein TAT-Prx2, a modified human peroxiredoxin 2, for intravenous administration to mitigate complications associated with kidney IRI. This protein was shown to enhance cellular resistance to IRI in experimental models [89]. Further research also demonstrated its efficacy in liver IRI [90].

Of significant scientific and practical interest are the works of Russian authors focused on understanding the mechanisms and developing preventive strategies for IRI in various organs. A substantial body of work by Konstantin Popov has provided in-depth and comprehensive analyses of the mechanisms underlying liver IRI and various treatment methods [91–100]. Other studies have also explored approaches to liver IRI treatment, contributing to a growing body of research in this area [101–105].

Several studies by Russian researchers have addressed the challenges posed by myocardial IRI [106–113]. While a detailed review of these studies is beyond the scope of the current discussion, their inclusion highlights the broad scientific interest in IRI-related research.

Furthermore, the development of the biobank model offers promising potential for large-scale studies, aiding in the prediction and prevention of IRI across various organ systems [114].

Based on the analysis of a broad spectrum of studies addressing the treatment of IRI, it is evident that there is currently an active, multidirectional, and pathophysiologically grounded effort to identify effective strategies for mitigating kidney injury associated with IRI. Continued development and refinement of approaches – such as combined ischemic preconditioning and postconditioning, alongside pharmacological and mechanical preand post-ischemic interventions – reflect this dynamic field of investigation.

Several of the pharmacological agents presented, including those with novel structures, mechanisms of action, and methods of synthesis, offer considerable promise and highlight important avenues for future research. The search for optimal solutions will persist until a standardized, situation-specific protocol for ischemic conditioning is established.

#### The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# FEATURES OF THE ETIOLOGY, PATHOGENESIS AND EPIDEMIOLOGY OF RENAL CELL CARCINOMA IN KIDNEY TRANSPLANT RECIPIENTS

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Renal cell carcinoma (RCC) in a kidney transplant is a rare condition as it occurs in the donor kidney of a recipient undergoing immunosuppressive therapy and differs exceptionally from a similar cancer that develops in the native kidney. Given the relative rarity, characteristic specificity of RCC in transplant recipients, and the difficulty in diagnosis and treatment, this type of tumor is less thoroughly studied than the "standard" RCC. However, as more transplants are performed and recipients are being detected with this pathology more frequently, the study of this tumor becomes significantly relevant.

Keywords: kidney graft, renal cell carcinoma, etiology, pathogenesis, epidemiology.

## INTRODUCTION

Kidney transplantation (KT) is widely recognized as the most effective treatment for end-stage chronic kidney disease (CKD). Compared to dialysis, KT significantly improves overall survival and enhances quality of life for patients [1]. In the Russian Federation, according to the most recent report from the Nationwide Registry of Renal Replacement Therapy by the Russian Dialysis Society, there are 9,984 kidney transplant recipients, representing 16.5% of all patients requiring renal replacement therapy (RRT) [2]. Annually, over 1,000 kidney transplants are performed in Russia, and this number continues to rise [3].

Despite the clear benefits of KT, a major ongoing challenge remains even with advances in surgical techniques and immunosuppressive therapies, graft longevity remains a critical issue in the field of transplantation [4].

Graft and recipient survival rates after KT vary significantly – not only between countries, but also among transplant centers within the same country. For instance, a single-center cohort study conducted by E. Van Loon et al. (2020), which examined long-term graft and recipient survival, reported that 42.2% of recipients had graft failure within ten years, necessitating either a return to dialysis or a re-transplantation [5].

Similarly, a 2013 report by the American Society of Transplant Surgeons, based on data from the Scientific Registry of Transplant Recipients (SRTR), noted marked improvements in graft survival rates over time. According to this review, the 10-year overall survival rate for kidney transplants from both living and deceased donors had increased from 35–40% to 55–60% compared to the previous decade. Five-year graft survival was highest in living donor recipients under the age of 11 (89%) and lowest in deceased donor recipients aged 11–17 years (68%) [6].

Taken together, a synthesis of global literature suggests that, on average, approximately 40–42% of kidney grafts fail within ten years of transplantation, regardless of donor type or recipient characteristics [4].

One of the contributing factors to graft loss in KT recipients is the development of malignant tumors, particularly renal cell carcinoma (RCC) within the graft. This paper focuses on the etiology, pathogenesis, and epidemiology of RCC in the context of KT.

Multiple studies have demonstrated that KT recipients face a significantly increased risk of RCC compared to the general, non-transplanted population [7–9]. For instance, according to the 2023 Clinical Guidelines – Renal Parenchyma Cancer, RCC incidence in Russia was reported to be 16.9 cases per 100,000 population (0.016%) in 2017 [10].

Various single-center studies suggest a much higher incidence of RCC among KT recipients. For example, a study by Guillaume Ploussard et al. (2012) estimated the incidence at approximately 0.5% [7]. However, the statistical robustness of such studies is limited due to small sample sizes, typically encompassing only a few dozen RCC cases.

More comprehensive data comes from a large metaanalysis conducted by Griffith et al. (2017), which reviewed 56 studies published between 1988 and 2015.

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This analysis found the incidence of RCC in transplant recipients to range from 0.19% to 0.5%, representing a more than 10-fold increase compared to the general population (0.017%) [11]. In total, the analysis documented 174 cases of solid renal tumors among 163 KT recipients worldwide as of 2017.

Over time, as the number of kidney transplants and the duration of recipient follow-up have increased, a growing body of research has emerged investigating variations in RCC incidence among transplant recipients, with studies now examining differences across geographic regions and racial populations.

Thus, Chun-Chieh Yeh, et al. in 2020 published a large study based on the Taiwan's National Health Institute Research Database for the period from 1997 to 2011, which included 5038 kidney transplant recipients (50% living related-donor, 50% deceased-donor transplants). This study found that in the Taiwanese population, the likelihood of developing RCC occurring in a recipient was 37.3 times higher than in the general world population. Based on this, the authors concluded that "regional endemic epidemiologic factors play significant roles in the development of RCC in kidney transplant recipients and that each regional organ transplant program should tailor and establish its surveillance protocol based on epidemiologic data [12].

It should be noted that about 90% of RCC cases in transplant recipients are found in the native kidneys, and only about 10% are detected in the transplanted organ itself [13].

It is reasonable to anticipate that the rising number of transplants, combined with the increasing average age of both donors and recipients, may contribute to a future increase in RCC incidence within graft kidneys [14].

This trend is supported by comparative meta-analyses: the number of RCC cases in kidney transplant recipients reported worldwide has increased significantly – from 163 cases as of 2017 (according to a meta-analysis by Griffith et al.) to 357 cases by 2023 (as reported in a more recent meta-analysis by Fabio et al.) [11, 13]. This reflects a more than twofold increase in detected cases over a six-year period [11, 13].

# CURRENT TRENDS IN THE SELECTION OF DONOR ORGANS FOR KIDNEY TRANSPLANTATION

In response to the growing global shortage of donor organs, there is a discernible shift in transplant practices toward relaxing the selection criteria for donor kidneys. A notable trend involves the increased use of extended criteria donor kidneys, including those from elderly individuals and even reconstituted kidneys with previously undiagnosed or historical RCC [15–16].

The aforementioned risks, combined with the growing number of kidney transplants and prolonged survival of transplant recipients, are likely to result in a progressive increase in the detection of RCC within graft kidneys – both in absolute numbers and as a percentage relative to RCC in native kidneys. It is important to note that the previously cited estimate – where only 10% of RCC cases in transplant recipients occurred in graft kidneys – was reported during a period when strict donor selection criteria were consistently applied [17–18].

Supporting this trend, Hendrik Eggers et al. (2019) published the results of a retrospective study involving 5,250 KT recipients at Hannover Medical School (Germany), revealing a significantly higher incidence of RCC in graft kidneys – 2.36%, compared to the previously estimated 0.5% [19].

In line with these findings, several authors, including Warren H. and Olsburgh J., emphasize that with the growing use of organs from elderly donors and the increasing longevity of graft survival, the development of neoplasia within the renal graft is likely to become a more prevalent clinical challenge for both urologists and transplant surgeons [20].

### ETIOLOGY AND PATHOGENESIS

RCC in a transplanted kidney presents a unique pathological entity. On one hand, the tumor originates in the donor kidney, whose tissues are genetically distinct from the recipient. On the other hand, the graft functions long-term within the recipient's physiological environment, becoming integrated into the homeostatic system, yet remains subject to ongoing immune surveillance due to its allogeneic nature. Importantly, tumor development and progression occur under the influence of chronic immunosuppressive therapy [21–22].

Immunosuppression is a risk factor for malignant tumors in transplant recipients. It compromises the immune system's ability to recognize and destroy emerging cancer cells [23]. This increased risk is largely attributed to prolonged viral infections with oncogenic potential and a partial loss of immune surveillance mechanisms [24–25].

A number of studies have investigated the impact of specific immunosuppressants on the risk of cancer development in KT recipients. These studies emphasize the crucial role of natural killer (NK) cells, CD4+, and CD8+ T-cells in virus-specific immunity and the elimination of tumor cells [26]. Notably, lymphocyte-depleting agents such as polyclonal anti-T-lymphocyte antibodies (e.g., ATG-Fresenius S) [27], monoclonal anti-CD52 antibody alemtuzumab [28], and calcineurin inhibitors (CNIs) like cyclosporine and tacrolimus [29] have been shown to modulate these immune responses. In particular, calcineurin inhibitors (CNIs) act by inhibiting T- cell activation and proliferation through suppression of interleukin-2 (IL-2) production. In addition, CNIs have been associated with a direct upregulation of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and transforming growth factor beta-1 (TGF- $\beta$ 1) [29]. A study by Engels et al. demonstrated that CNIs significantly increase circulating levels of VEGF and TGF- $\beta$ 1, potentially promoting the proliferation and survival of malignant cells in transplant recipients [30]. A dose-dependent elevation of TGF- $\beta$ 1 levels has been documented both *in vitro* and *in vivo* [29].

This creates a clinical dilemma: while low-dose CNI regimens are linked to reduced risk of malignancy, they simultaneously increase the risk of acute rejection [31]. As research progresses, a growing body of evidence supports the antitumor potential of proliferation signal inhibitors, particularly sirolimus and everolimus, which belong to the class of mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibitors (mTOR-I) [23, 32–33].

The primary immunosuppressive mechanism of mTOR-Is involves the inhibition of T-cell activation and proliferation, achieved through suppression of IL-2 signaling and cell cycle arrest [25, 27, 34]. Beyond their immunosuppressive role, mTOR pathways also regulate amino acid metabolism, ribosome biosynthesis, transcriptional programming, cell growth, proliferation, senescence, and lifespan in virtually all human cells. Consequently, mTOR signaling is involved in angiogenesis, tumor progression, and metastasis [35–38].

The use of mTOR inhibitors as part of immunosuppressive regimens can reduce the incidence of *de novo* malignancies in transplant recipients. However, this benefit must be weighed against their side effect profile, which can lead to treatment discontinuation in some cases.

In addition to immunosuppressive therapy, other established risk factors for RCC in the graft include prolonged end-stage CKD, extended dialysis duration, advanced recipient age, and a personal history of RCC in the native kidneys [39–40].

# FEATURES OF MORPHOLOGICAL FORMS OF RCC IN KIDNEY TRANSPLANT RECIPIENTS

In terms of morphological characteristics, the largest meta-analysis to date – encompassing 129 studies conducted between 1980 and 2020 and published by Fabio et al. in 2023 – revealed that the most frequent histological subtype of RCC arising in graft kidneys is the papillary type, accounting for 42.5% of all cases. This is followed by clear cell carcinoma at 40.2%, and chromophobe carcinoma at 3.5% of cases [13].

By contrast, in the general population of patients without a history of KT or dialysis, the predominant histological subtype is clear cell carcinoma, comprising up to 90% of cases, as documented in earlier epidemiological studies [41–42].

The higher prevalence of papillary RCC over clear forms in a kidney graft may be attributed to the factors described above [39–40, 43].

Further insight into the morphological spectrum of RCC in renal transplant recipients is provided by a large retrospective study by Billis et al., which analyzed RCC cases in patients undergoing dialysis or KT between 2003 and 2016 [44]. This study revealed an increased incidence of rare histological subtypes, specifically acquired cystic disease-associated RCC (11.8%) and clear cell papillary RCC (5.9%), which are exceedingly uncommon in patients not receiving dialysis or transplantation. Notably, both of these subtypes were only recently recognized and were officially included in the World Health Organization (WHO) Classification of Renal Tumors in 2016 [45–46].

Of particular significance, papillary RCC was the most frequently identified subtype in this patient group, accounting for 64.7% of all tumors [44]. It has been proposed that papillary RCC in transplant or dialysis patients may be associated with c-MET oncogene activation, trisomy of chromosomes 7 or 17, and loss of the Y chromosome, although these genetic mechanisms remain under investigation [11].

In addition, current research is examining the potential role of ischemic injury – both warm and cold ischemia – during donor kidney procurement and transplantation as a contributing factor to the increased risk of developing papillary RCC in the graft [11].

The third most common histological subtype of RCC identified in renal grafts is chromophobe carcinoma (3.5%) [13, 47–48]. One particularly noteworthy case involved the detection of chromophobe RCC in a transplanted kidney following the onset of macrohematuria nearly three decades post-transplant in a patient with a history of three prior kidney transplants [49].

Among other histological forms of tumor in a transplanted kidney, it is worth mentioning the single, at this time of observation, cases of mucinous tubular and spindle cell variant of RCC [50], oncocytoma [51], and benign anastomosing hemangioma that mimicked RCC [52].

In summary, the predominance of papillary RCC over clear cell RCC in kidney grafts represents a distinctive histopathological profile that differentiates transplantassociated renal tumors from those typically arising in the native kidneys of patients without a history of transplantation or dialysis.

#### ORIGIN OF RENAL TRANSPLANT TUMORS

For a long time, the origin of tumors developing in transplanted kidneys remained a subject of uncertainty. It was traditionally believed that RCC in the graft originated exclusively from donor-derived cells, a view supported by several genetic analyses of newly diagnosed cases [53].

However, a pivotal study published in 2009 by Boix et al. challenged this notion. Using microsatellite analysis, the authors provided the first evidence of RCC in a renal transplant arising from recipient-derived cells [54–55].

The accumulation of renal cancer cases in KT recipients enabled a landmark scientific study in 2023 at Municipal Clinical Hospital No. 52 in Moscow, aimed at elucidating the etiology of RCC in graft kidneys. The researchers analyzed chromosomal DNA from both tumor and surrounding normal tissue of the transplanted kidneys. Using short tandem repeat (STR) markers, they confirmed that in 100% of cases, the tumor originated from donor-derived tissue.

Notably, this study was the first in the world to assess Von Hippel–Lindau (VHL) gene expression in a cohort of KT recipients. The findings provided compelling evidence of genetic determinism in the development of clear cell RCC in graft kidneys. The authors concluded that this tumor type most likely arises from an inherent genetic predisposition in the donor renal parenchyma, which is exacerbated by long-term immunosuppressive therapy in the recipient [56].

# FEATURES OF RENAL TUMORS IN KIDNEY RECIPIENTS

In a comprehensive study by Fabio et al. examining the quantitative characteristics of renal tumors in kidney grafts, it was found that the majority of RCC cases (84.5%) presented as solitary tumors, with most falling into the cT1a stage category (83.6%). In contrast, among patients with multifocal lesions, the proportion of cT1a tumors was notably lower at 67.9%.

Histologically, clear cell RCC was more prevalent in multifocal tumors (39.6%), whereas papillary RCC predominated in solitary lesions (42.7%), with clear cell tumors accounting for 40.2% in this group.

When classified by Fuhrman nuclear grading, the majority of solitary tumors were grade 2 (60.1%), while multifocal tumors were more frequently high-grade, with 41.7% classified as grade 3 [13].

It is important to note that, in contrast to the extensively studied "classical" RCC observed in non-transplanted patients, RCC in KT recipients remains poorly understood and is currently the subject of active investigation [57–58].

For instance, the aforementioned comprehensive meta-analysis by Fabio et al., published in 2023, emphasized the limited volume of literature on this topic. According to their findings, the majority of publications (73%) were clinical case reports, 21% were retrospective single-center studies, and only 4% comprised retrospective multicenter analyses. Notably, as of 2023, only 357 cases of RCC in transplanted kidneys had been documented worldwide [13].

This relative scarcity of data can be attributed to the narrow scope and highly specialized nature of the subject, as well as the limited number of transplant centers with the capacity and expertise to study such cases in detail – typically no more than one or two per country.

# CONCLUSION

RCCs arising in the native kidneys of renal transplant recipients differ from those occurring in the native kidneys of individuals without transplantation or dialysis in several key aspects. These tumors exhibit a complex interplay of genetic factors, a tendency for multifocal growth, and a potential connection to chronic immunosuppressive therapy. Furthermore, there is a potential for increased incidence of this tumor in the future, as transplant numbers rise and recipient follow-up periods continue to lengthen under current clinical conditions.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# A RARE CASE OF TRANSPLANT HEPATECTOMY FOR METACHRONOUS COLORECTAL CANCER METASTASIS (*DE NOVO*)

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In the presented case, a patient who underwent liver transplant procedure for cirrhosis resulting from chronic hepatitis C was diagnosed with colorectal cancer 12 years after the operation. A combined treatment plan consisting of right hemicolectomy followed by nine cycles of adjuvant polychemotherapy using the FOLFOX6 regimen was performed. Seven months following the conclusion of treatment,  $22 \times 35$  mm foci in segment 8 was detected as a sign of metastatic liver disease. The patient had a transplant hepatectomy. At present, the relapse-free survival is 22 months.

Keywords: liver transplantation, transplant hepatectomy, cirrhosis, colorectal cancer, liver metastasis.

## INTRODUCTION

The number of organ transplant recipients continues to grow, reflecting significant advancements in transplant care within our country. According to the 15th Report from the Registry of the Russian Transplant Society, approximately 21,969 organ recipients were under medical follow-up in Russia by the end of 2022 – equivalent to 151.0 per 1 million population [1]. As clinical experience in managing these patients increases, so does the length of their post-transplant follow-up. However, the use of immunosuppressive therapy, an essential component of post-transplant care, remains a known risk factor for the development of malignancies at various time points after surgery [2].

Immunosuppressive therapy following organ transplantation compromises the recipient's ability to control viral infections, thereby increasing the risk of infectionassociated malignancies such as non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, Kaposi's sarcoma, liver cancer, and cervical cancer. Certain immunosuppressive agents, particularly calcineurin inhibitors and azathioprine, have been shown to promote de novo carcinogenesis through mechanisms that extend beyond their immunosuppressive effects. The rising average age of transplant recipients further contributes to the overall increased risk of malignancy. In liver transplantation (LT) for hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), tumor recurrence remains a significant concern. It is essential to differentiate between post-transplant recurrence of the primary tumor and the emergence of de novo malignancies. Less frequently, cancer may arise from latent malignancies in the donor that went undetected prior to organ procurement. However, current evidence suggests that the risk of donor-derived cancer transmission is extremely low – estimated at no more than 0.05% [3].

In Russian literature, studies addressing the risk of malignant neoplasms in transplant recipients are extremely limited [4]. In contrast, the international literature contains a substantially greater number of studies exploring the risk factors, incidence, and types of malignancies that occur following organ transplantation. Malignant tumors diagnosed in transplant recipients are more aggressive. Median survival rates for cancers such as colorectal, lung, breast, prostate, and bladder cancer are significantly lower in transplant patients compared to the general population [5–8].

A 2021 Mayo Clinic study examined the risk and timing of the most common gastrointestinal (GI) malignancies – particularly colorectal cancer (CRC) and pancreatic cancer - in liver transplant recipients, with the aim of optimizing screening strategies for this population. The study analyzed data from the United Network for Organ Sharing (UNOS) on the incidence of malignancies over a 20-year period (1997-2017) in post-transplant patients compared to the general population. A total of 866 de novo GI malignancies were identified, including 405 cases of CRC. The highest incidence of CRC was observed among recipients with primary sclerosing cholangitis, as well as in recipients over the age of 50 with cirrhosis due to nonalcoholic steatohepatitis, HCC, or cholangiocarcinoma. These findings help define a highrisk group of liver transplant recipients who may benefit

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from more intensive and individualized CRC screening protocols [9].

A 2021 study from South Korea analyzed 8,734 liver and kidney recipients, 66 of whom were diagnosed with *de novo* CRC. The incidence of *de novo* CRC in liver recipients was 3.1-fold higher in males and 2.25-fold higher in females. *De novo* CRC was diagnosed in 13.6% of patients within the first year after surgery, in 31.8% between 1 and 5 years, and in 54.6% more than 5 years after surgery [10].

An emerging area of particular clinical interest is the occurrence of CRC metastases in transplanted livers. The management and treatment strategies for such cases continue to be a subject of active research.

The world's first documented case of CRC metastasis in a transplanted liver was reported by Spanish authors in 2017. The patient was diagnosed with a welldifferentiated colon adenocarcinoma 12 years after undergoing LT. Following colon resection, the patient's immunosuppressive regimen was modified to include an mTOR proliferative signaling inhibitor (everolimus). Six months later, follow-up imaging revealed metastatic lesions in segments IV and VII of the liver graft. The patient subsequently underwent a left hemihepatectomy combined with radiofrequency ablation of the lesion in segment VII [11].

In light of such occurrences, a 15-year follow-up case of a liver transplant recipient from our own clinical practice presents particular interest and is worthy of detailed discussion.

#### CASE DESCRIPTION

A 67-year-old male patient (52 years old at the time of LT) underwent orthotopic LT from a deceased donor on August 8, 2009, due to hepatitis C virus (HCV)-induced liver cirrhosis, classified as Child-Pugh class C. The indication for transplantation included decompensated cirrhosis with portal hypertension, grade 1–2 esophageal varices, splenomegaly with hypersplenism, and ascites. The postoperative period was uneventful.

The patient was initiated on standard immunosuppressive therapy with cyclosporine at a dose of 75 mg twice daily. In October 2009, routine biochemical testing revealed elevated liver enzyme levels. A liver biopsy was performed, confirming acute graft rejection. Glucocorticoid pulse therapy was administered, with a total dose of 2000 mg.

A month later, under the influence of glucocorticoid therapy, an increase in the patient's HCV viral load was observed. As a result, antiviral therapy with pegylated interferons combined with ribavirin was initiated in December 2009. A delayed virologic response was achieved by June 2010.

In August 2010, a protocol biopsy of the liver graft revealed moderate fibrosis, corresponding to F2 on the Knodell, METAVIR, and Ishak scoring systems. However, six months after completing antiviral therapy, in December 2010, HCV reappeared in the bloodstream.

From May 27 to July 21, 2016, the patient was hospitalized due to graft dysfunction caused by severe acute rejection, confirmed by histological examination. Two courses of intravenous methylprednisolone pulse therapy were administered. In response to ongoing graft dysfunction, immunosuppressive therapy was modified – cyclosporine was discontinued and replaced with tacrolimus at a dose of 2.5 mg twice daily. Following clinical improvement, the patient was discharged for continued outpatient follow-up.

In the autumn of 2016, the patient underwent antiviral therapy for hepatitis C using a regimen of direct-acting antivirals (DAAs), specifically sofosbuvir and ledipasvir, administered over a 6-month course. Since the initiation of DAA therapy, hepatitis C RNA has remained undetectable in the blood by polymerase chain reaction (PCR).

In September 2017, the patient presented with severe generalized weakness, jaundice, and itching. Diagnostic evaluation revealed an anastomotic biliary stricture causing obstructive jaundice. Management was staged: initially, percutaneous transhepatic cholecystostomy was performed under ultrasound guidance for external biliary drainage, aiming to decompress the biliary system and reduce bilirubin levels. Following stabilization, a Roux-en-Y hepaticojejunostomy was performed on September 17, 2017.

The postoperative period was complicated by intraabdominal bleeding and the formation of an abdominal hematoma, necessitating multiple relaparotomies and abdominal cavity sanitation procedures. The patient developed sepsis, which was managed successfully with intensive antibacterial therapy. After stabilization, the patient was discharged and has since been monitored on an outpatient basis.

In January 2021, following a COVID-19 infection, a routine follow-up examination revealed a decrease in the patient's hemoglobin level to 89 g/L for the first time. In accordance with the diagnostic protocol for anemia of unclear etiology, standard tests were initiated. Videoguided esophagogastroduodenoscopy showed no abnormalities. However, video-guided colonoscopy identified a tumor in the hepatic flexure of the colon (Fig. 1). A biopsy was performed, and histological analysis confirmed a moderately differentiated adenocarcinoma of the colon.

A computed tomography (CT) scan of the abdomen and pelvis revealed thickening of the colonic wall in the region of the hepatic flexure, with no evidence of additional focal pathology in the abdomen. A chest CT scan showed no signs of pulmonary lesions. Tumor marker levels were as follows: carbohydrate antigen (CA) 19-9 at 15.4 U/mL and carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA) at 2.28 ng/mL. Based on clinical and histological findings, the patient was diagnosed with colon cancer of the hepatic flexure: cT4aN0M0 G2 (moderately differentiated adenocarcinoma), corresponding to stage IIB, clinical group 2. Immunosuppressive therapy was modified by reducing the dose of tacrolimus and introducing everolimus.

On December 02, 2021, the patient underwent radical surgical treatment – extended right hemicolectomy, D3 lymphadenectomy. Histological examination of the tumor: moderately differentiated adenocarcinoma pT4aN1c.

After surgical treatment, the patient underwent 9 cycles of adjuvant polychemotherapy (PCT) using the FOLFOX6 regimen. This included oxaliplatin (85 mg/m<sup>2</sup> administered intravenously over 2 hours on day 1), calcium folinate (400 mg/m<sup>2</sup> intravenously over 2 hours), followed by an intravenous bolus of fluorouracil (400 mg/ m<sup>2</sup>), and a continuous 46-hour infusion of fluorouracil (total dose 2400 mg/m<sup>2</sup>, 1200 mg/m<sup>2</sup> per day). All PCT cycles were completed without dose reduction by August 2021.

During a routine follow-up examination on March 22, 2022 – seven months after completing chemotherapy – an abdominal CT scan revealed a mass in the right lobe of the liver graft, measuring  $22 \times 35$  mm (Fig. 2).



Fig. 1. Video colonoscopy. Hepatic flexure colon cancer in a patient (arrow)

A PET-CT scan performed on April 7, 2022 (Fig. 3) revealed a secondary lesion in the liver graft, demonstrating increased metabolic activity with a maximum standardized uptake value (SUVmax) of 5.61. No other hypermetabolic foci were detected.

As part of the diagnostic protocol, the patient underwent video colonoscopy on April 11, 2022. The findings were consistent with status post right hemicolectomy, and no focal pathology was observed. Blood tumor marker levels were as follows: CA 19-9 at 20.1 U/mL and CEA at 4.55 ng/mL. The Fong Clinical Risk Score for colorectal cancer recurrence was 2, indicating an estimated one-year survival of 89% and a 5-year survival of 40% following metastasectomy.

On May 16, 2022, the patient underwent atypical resection of liver segment 8. Intraoperatively, the liver appeared steatotic. A focal lesion measuring  $25 \times 35$  mm was identified on the diaphragmatic surface of segment 8. Intraoperative ultrasound of the liver graft confirmed the absence of additional focal lesions (Fig. 4).

Histopathological examination of the resected liver specimen confirmed the diagnosis of metastatic colorectal adenocarcinoma. The demarcated edge located in non-tumorous liver tissue (R0) (Fig. 5).

Molecular genetic analysis of the extracted DNA revealed an activating G13D mutation in exon 2 (codon 12) of the KRAS gene (NM\_033360.3), which is known to confer resistance to anti-epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) therapy.

In light of these findings, immunosuppressive therapy was adjusted to monotherapy with everolimus, a proliferation signal inhibitor in the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) drug class.

The patient was discharged from the hospital on postoperative day 7 in satisfactory condition. However, on day 14, his condition deteriorated with the onset of tachyarrhythmia. He was urgently admitted to a city cardiology on-call hospital with an episode of paroxysmal atrial fibrillation, which was managed conservatively.

During further evaluation, right-sided hydrothorax was identified. Repeated pleural punctures were perfor-



Fig. 2. CT modeling of a focal liver graft mass in a patient. Metastasis is indicated by an arrow

med, and serous fluid was evacuated. Subsequently, the patient developed pleural empyema accompanied by signs of sepsis. In this connection, he was transferred to an oncologic dispensary for inpatient management. From June 23 to August 1, 2022, he underwent treatment for pleural empyema and hemothorax, which included drainage and sanitation of the right pleural cavity, along with antibacterial therapy. He experienced



Fig. 3. Computed tomography and positron emission tomography images in a patient. Metastasis is indicated by an arrow



Fig. 4. Intraoperative photo (arrows indicate liver graft metastasis)



Fig. 5. Morphological examination of the removed liver graft metastasis

a prolonged febrile period with body temperatures reaching 38–39 °C. Once his condition stabilized, he was discharged for outpatient follow-up.

At the end of August 2022, the patient again developed a fever reaching 38.9 °C. From September 5 to October 11, 2022, he underwent inpatient treatment in the surgical organ transplant department, Privolzhsky District Medical Center, presenting with right-sided hydropneumothorax and pneumonia of the upper lobe of the left lung. Despite antibacterial therapy with Thienam (2 g/day), the fever persisted. Microbiological culture of the right pleural cavity revealed Acinetobacter baumannii at a concentration of  $10^5$  CFU/mL. Following a change in antibiotic therapy to Baccefort (4 g/day), the patient's fever subsided, and he was discharged in satisfactory condition.

At present, the patient remains under regular outpatient follow-up. Colonoscopy, as well as abdominal and chest CT scans, are conducted according to established surveillance protocols. As of the time of writing this paper, there is no evidence of recurrence of the oncologic process, and liver graft function remains satisfactory. The duration of follow-up since the transplant hepatectomy is 22 months.

#### DISCUSSION

Liver transplant recipients face an elevated risk of developing *de novo* malignancies due to prolonged immunosuppressive therapy required to prevent acute and chronic graft rejection. The overall incidence of CRC in this population is higher compared to the general population. Although current strategies aimed at reducing immunosuppressive load have helped mitigate the risk of *de novo* cancers, they do not fully eliminate the potential for graft fibrosis and rejection.

A French national study found that 13.45% (1,480) of 11,004 adult patients who received a liver transplant between 2000 and 2013 developed a de novo malignancy. The most common types of *de novo* malignancy were: hematological malignancy (22.36%), non-melanoma skin cancer (19.53%), and lung cancer (12.36%); CRC (4.9%) ranked 6th [12]. According to a systematic review and meta-analysis including 29 studies, the risk of developing CRC in patients who have had a liver transplant is 2.6 times (95% CI 1.7–4.1) higher than in the general population, and the risk of de novo cancer gradually increases starting from the first year after transplantation and peaks after 6–10 years of follow-up [13, 14]. In this regard, the International Liver Transplantation Society (ILTS) at the ILTS-SETH conference (2022) adopted a consensus on prevention and early detection of de novo malignancies after liver transplantation with recommendations to perform colonoscopy 1 year after transplantation and then 3-5 years later. Earlier and more frequent screening is indicated for high-risk patients (liver transplantation for hepatocellular carcinoma,

primary sclerosing cholangitis, over 50 years of age, with a history of colon polyps) [15].

CRC is still the third most commonly diagnosed malignancy in the general population, accounting for 7.2% [16].

Long-term survival of liver recipients and the increasing trend for patients to receive a donor organ at an older age have added additional risks of developing CRC. CRC after LT is more often a right-sided lesion, is aggressive, and is associated with a higher rate of metastasis and poor survival [17].

Specialized treatment for relapsed or *de novo* cancer in transplant recipients should adhere to general oncologic principles as outlined in current clinical guidelines [18].

In the presented clinical case, the patient underwent definitive surgical intervention as the initial step, which remains the optimal treatment approach for a primary localized colorectal malignancy. Based on histopathological analysis of the resected specimen, the disease was restaged as pT4aN1c, warranting the initiation of adjuvant chemotherapy using the FOLFOX regimen to reduce the risk of disease progression [19].

Large-scale studies have demonstrated that adjuvant chemotherapy significantly improves both overall survival and progression-free survival in patients with stage N  $\geq$  1 or stage T3N0M0 colorectal cancer [20, 21]. Notably, adjuvant chemotherapy can be administered effectively alongside standard immunosuppressive therapy without the need for dose reduction [22].

In the general population, 30-50% of CRC patients develop liver metastases [23]. In the present clinical case, dynamic follow-up revealed metastatic lesions within the liver graft. Transplant hepatectomy, at this stage of surgical advancement, remains a relatively rare procedure. A significant contribution to the understanding of liver resections in transplant recipients was provided by the Charité Clinic in 2020. Between 2004 and 2017, the clinic performed 4,100 liver resections, of which 14 were in patients who had previously undergone LT (0.34%). The primary indications for liver resection after transplantation included recurrent combined hepatocellularcholangiocarcinoma and post-LT biliary and vascular complications leading to liver abscesses. However, metastatic lesions developing in a transplanted liver in the context of a *de novo* cancer are extremely rare.

According to European, American, and Asian guidelines, surgical resection is the recommended first-line treatment for resectable colorectal liver metastases, given its high efficacy compared to other methods [24–27]. Following these clinical guidelines, the patient underwent surgical treatment, specifically an R0 liver resection. Early diagnosis and radical treatment in accordance with established standards have resulted in a favorable longterm outcome, with the patient remaining recurrence-free for 22 months.

## CONCLUSION

As the number of organ recipients increases, along with the age of recipients and the duration since transplantation, the risks of malignancies also rise. These trends are becoming more prominent in contemporary medical practice.

To detect *de novo* cancers early in solid organ recipients, regular follow-ups with both transplant surgeons and oncologists are essential. Upon the detection of cancer, immunosuppressive therapy should be switched to mTOR proliferation signal inhibitors. The treatment of malignancies in organ transplant recipients should adhere to general oncological principles as outlined in clinical guidelines. While a history of solid organ transplantation in cancer patients necessitates adjustments to immunosuppression, it does not limit the use of systemic polychemotherapy.

This clinical case highlights the need for a multidisciplinary approach in managing patients after organ transplantation, emphasizing the collaborative efforts of transplant specialists, hepatologists, infectious disease experts, oncologists, chemotherapy specialists, and other healthcare professionals.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# FULMINANT EMPHYSEMATOUS PYELONEPHRITIS IN A TRANSPLANT KIDNEY (CLINICAL OBSERVATION AND LITERATURE REVIEW)

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Emphysematous pyelonephritis (EPN) is a necrotizing infection of the renal parenchyma and its surrounding areas that causes gas accumulation around the renal parenchyma, collecting system and surrounding tissues in the process of vital activity of several microorganisms. EPN occurs nearly exclusively in people with diabetes. Treatment strategies for EPN have evolved over the past 20 years, with minimally invasive procedures replacing nephrectomy, which has resulted in lower mortality rates (12.5–13%). EPN is rare in kidney transplant (KT) recipients and is characterized by a severe, often fulminant course with a high rate of adverse outcomes, which is determined primarily by background immunosuppressive therapy. There is no universally accepted consensus on the radiographic classification of EPN in KT recipients and its management. We present the first description of EPN in transplanted kidney in a 45-year-old woman with post-transplant diabetes, obesity and recurrent urinary tract infections. Massive antibiotic therapy (ABT), percutaneous nephrostomy, transplantectomy, renal replacement therapy, selective cytokine adsorption, and ventilatory support were all administered on the patient after she was admitted to the hospital with increasing clinical symptoms of sepsis and multiple organ failure. Death occurred on the fourth day after disease onset. The article examines 38 clinical cases from the English-language segment of the medical literature from the late 1970s to the present. EPN in KT recipients is characterized by the predominance of male gender, including among the deceased, rapid development of sepsis and acute kidney injury. There was no statistically significant difference in the frequency of emergency transplantectomies among surviving and deceased patients. Mortality was 28%. The issue of EPN in transplanted kidney requires more research and the development of optimal therapeutic plans, including surgical strategies.

Keywords: emphysematous pyelonephritis, renal graft, diabetes mellitus, transplantectomy, clinical case.

# INTRODUCTION

Emphysematous pyelonephritis (EPN) is a rare, severe infection of the kidney that causes gas to accumulate in the tissues. It's characterized by a necrotizing inflammation of the renal parenchyma, collecting ducts, and surrounding tissues [1, 2]. Gas formation results from the metabolic activity of certain bacteria, including *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and some others, which primarily generate gas through glucose fermentation. Consequently, EPN predominantly occurs in patients with diabetes mellitus (DM). The current mortality rates for EPN in patients with native kidneys range from 12.5% to 13% [3, 4].

EPN in kidney transplant (KT) recipients is extremely rare, with only a few dozen cases reported worldwide

to date. When it does occur, EPN in KT recipients is typically severe and fast-developing, leading to a high rate of unfavorable outcomes, including graft loss. Due to the limited number of reported cases, there is no established consensus on its diagnosis and management in KT recipients. We present the first documented case of EPN in a KT recipient in the Russian Federation.

**Objective of the study:** the aim of this study is to explore the clinical features and progression of EPN in KT recipients based on our case report and existing literature. We also seek to compare the radiologic classification approaches for EPN in native kidneys versus KT recipients and discuss modern strategies for patient management, including surgical interventions.

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#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study presents a clinical case of EPN in a KT recipient with post-transplant diabetes mellitus (PTDM), obesity, and recurrent urinary tract infections (UTIs). The analysis includes initial clinical and laboratory data, the course of the disease, radiologic diagnostics, conservative and surgical treatments, and pathomorphological findings about the KT. Thirty-eight cases of EPN in KT recipients, reported from the late 1970s to the present, were reviewed and summarized from English-language medical literature.

## **CLINICAL CASE**

A 46-year-old female patient was evaluated at a consultative and diagnostic nephrology center starting in 2017, following allogeneic kidney transplantation from a deceased donor. Her medical history includes end-stage renal failure due to chronic glomerulonephritis in 2016, which required treatment with hemodialysis. KT function was immediate, and she was placed on a triple-drug immunosuppressive therapy (IST) regimen (tacrolimus, mycophenolic acid, and methylprednisolone).

In the post-transplant period, the patient developed insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus with difficult-tocontrol hyperglycemia, as well as recurrent UTIs. The patient was hospitalized on three separate occasions and received multiple courses of antimicrobial therapy. Her baseline serum creatinine level remained stable, not exceeding 130 µmol/L. However, a sudden deterioration occurred on February 9, 2024, marked by a fever of up to 38.5 °C, pain localized to the KT area, worsening general weakness, nausea, repeated vomiting, and the onset of anuria.

She was initially admitted to a local hospital and, on February 10, 2024, was transferred to our clinic with a preliminary diagnosis of renal graft dysfunction. Upon admission, the above symptoms persisted, though her mental status remained unchanged.

Physical examination: height 155 cm, weight: 100 kg, body mass index (BMI): 41.6 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, and stable hemodynamics.

Local findings: Marked palpation tenderness in the left iliac region (transplant zone), with edema of the surrounding soft tissues of the anterior abdominal wall.

Laboratory screening in the emergency unit revealed metabolic acidosis and hyperlactatemia. Additional findings included leukocytosis (14.86 × 10°/L), hemoglobin 128 g/L, C-reactive protein (CRP) 37.5 mg/L, elevated serum creatinine at 256.4 µmol/L, plasma glucose 10.35 mmol/L, and glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) at 9.9%. In light of acute kidney injury (AKI) and associated metabolic disorders, the patient was admitted to the intensive care unit (ICU). A contrast-enhanced multislice computed tomography (MSCT) scan was subsequently performed (Fig. 1).

Contrast-enhanced abdominal and pelvic MSCT (Fig. 1) revealed edema of the peritransplant and periureteral soft tissues. Gas bubbles were identified within the lumen of the renal pelvis and calyces of the allograft



Fig. 1. Contrast-enhanced MSCT of abdominal and pelvic organs, venous phase: a, sagittal plane: gas bubbles in the kidney transplant calyxes (arrow), shriveled kidney (blue arrow); b, oblique plane: narrowing in the area of the ureteropelvic junction obstruction in kidney allograft (arrow), dilated calyces (blue arrow), perigraft tissue edema (red arrow)

(Fig. 1, a). A pronounced narrowing of the pelviureteric junction was observed, with high-density material within its lumen (Fig. 1, b), accompanied by dilatation of the pelvicalyceal system and a non-dilated ureter. The transplant parenchyma showed homogeneous contrast enhancement, with no signs of structural destruction. No excretion of contrast agent was observed during examination.

An emergency percutaneous nephrostomy (PCN) was performed, yielding urine mixed with mucous-purulent material. Given the high initial risk factors for multidrug-resistant flora – including decompensated diabetes mellitus, obesity, ongoing IST, prior antimicrobial treatment, recurrent UTIs, and recent hospitalization – em-



Fig. 2. Renal allograft during transplantectomy. Purulent debris areas are visible through the graft capsule

*pirical antibiotic therapy with piperacillin/tazobactam was initiated.* 

Renal replacement therapy was started in the form of prolonged venovenous hemodiafiltration. However, within the first 24 hours of observation, the patient experienced a rapid and profound deterioration of vital functions, progressing to distributive shock and multiple organ failure. This necessitated mechanical ventilation and vasopressor therapy.

Laboratory findings revealed a dramatic escalation in systemic inflammatory markers: leukocytosis (47.8 ×  $10^{9}/L$ ), C-reactive protein (CRP) 447.6 mg/L, interleukin-6 (IL-6) >1000 pg/mL (reference: 0.00–6.40), interleukin-2 (IL-2) 5054 GE/mL (reference: 158–623), procalcitonin (PCT) >13 ng/mL, total protein 33.4 g/L, albumin 17 g/L, and platelets 34 ×  $10^{9}/L$ .

Considering the fulminant course of EPN in the KT recipient, complicated by systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) and multiple organ failure, a multidisciplinary team concluded that emergency transplantectomy was indicated for life-saving purposes. Surgical intervention was performed on February 12, 2024 (Fig. 2).

Following the isolation of Escherichia coli producing extended-spectrum beta-lactamases from both urine and blood cultures, antimicrobial therapy was escalated to meropenem in combination with amikacin. Intensive care measures included a multimodal extracorporeal detoxification strategy, comprising selective hemoperfusion, cytokine adsorption, and therapeutic plasma exchange.

Despite comprehensive treatment, the patient's condition continued to deteriorate rapidly. One day after the transplantectomy and on day 4 from disease onset, she died due to progressive multiple organ failure and refractory distributive shock. Findings from pathomorphological examination of the explanted kidney transplant are presented in Fig. 3.



Fig. 3. Cortical layer of the kidney with diffuse, predominantly neutrophilic infiltration of the interstitium and abscess formation. Leukocytic cylinders are detected in the tubule lumen. Interstitial fibrosis and tubular atrophy. The glomerulus appears ischemic: a, H&E stain, magnification  $40\times$ ; b, PAS, magnification  $40\times$ 

#### DISCUSSION

By the end of the 19th century, several reports had described the presence of gas within the kidneys and urinary tract. In 1898, Kelly and MacCallum presented their clinical observations and summarized the data available at that time. They identified three primary causes of "pneumaturia": gas formation within the urinary tract due to invasive interventions or trauma (e.g., urological procedures or masturbation); the presence of fistulous connections between the bladder and bowel (congenital, acquired, or iatrogenic); and UTIs caused by gas-forming microorganisms [5].

The term emphysematous pyelonephritis (EPN) was introduced later, following the 1962 publication by Schultz and Klorfein, who analyzed 13 cases of renal and upper urinary tract gas accumulation due to infection [6]. In true EPN, the presence of gas is directly attributable to microbial activity, primarily from gas-producing pathogens.

It is important to recognize some historical terminological ambiguity: while "emphysematous pyelonephritis" technically describes infections involving both the kidney parenchyma and upper urinary tract, the term is sometimes used in the literature to include isolated "emphysematous pyelitis," which is limited to the collecting system.

# Features of pathogens in emphysematous pyelonephritis

In approximately 70% of EPN cases, *Escherichia coli* is identified as the primary causative agent. Other members of the *Enterobacterales* order, most notably *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Proteus spp.*, as well as non-fermenting Gram-negative bacteria such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, serve as less common etiologic agents [3, 7]. Up to 33% of the isolated pathogens are producers of extended-spectrum beta-lactamases [1, 2]. These bacteria are characterized by a high degree of structural heterogeneity and a frequent association with multidrug resistance [2, 8, 9].

Considerable attention has been directed toward identifying bacterial virulence factors that contribute to the onset and fulminant progression of EPN. In a comparative study, Tseng and Wu evaluated a broad spectrum of pathogenicity determinants expressed by E. coli strains isolated from EPN cases and contrasted them with strains obtained from patients with acute kidney infections not associated with gas formation.

The virulence genes of E. coli strains isolated from both groups were remarkably similar. However, a notable distinction was the significantly higher prevalence of the urovirulence-specific protein (usp) gene in EPNassociated strains – detected in 94% of patients with EPN versus only 67% in those with non-EPN. Additionally, there was a trend toward a lower frequency of the papG allele II gene among EPN pathogens [10]. Interestingly, epidemiological studies in both adult and pediatric populations have consistently demonstrated a predominant presence of the papG gene in strains responsible for acute pyelonephritis and recurrent UTIs in women [11].

EPN pathogens exhibit high biochemical activity, with the ability to shift to mixed acid and alcohol fermentation of glucose – processes that result in the production of hydrogen and carbon dioxide. In DM patients, elevated glucose levels in renal tissues create an ideal environment for the proliferation of gas-forming bacteria and promote high metabolic rates that lead to massive gas accumulation. In addition, uropathogenic strains of *E. coli* are known to produce a cytotoxic necrotizing factor, which induces tissue necrosis. The breakdown of necrotic tissue further contributes to additional release of methane and ammonia through the catabolism of amino acids [12].

## Clinical presentation and risk factors for adverse outcomes in emphysematous pyelonephritis

The clinical presentation of EPN largely mirrors that of acute purulent pyelonephritis [1, 2]. Patients typically present with fever and chills, flank pain (often in the lumbar or subcostal regions), nausea, and vomiting. In cases of a fulminant course, there may be extensive manifestations of distributive shock and SIRS. Mental status disturbances, ranging from mild confusion to coma, are possible. The underlying causes of altered mental status in EPN patients should be evaluated individually, considering factors such as systemic intoxication, uncontrolled hypotension, DM decompensation (e.g., hyperglycemia or ketoacidosis), and, air embolism affecting the cerebral venous system. Altered mental status is a critical symptom that influences diagnostic and therapeutic tactics. There are isolated reports of the so-called "gas embolism" phenomenon in EPN cases, with gas being observed in the pulmonary artery, pelvic vessels, and even the upper sagittal and cavernous sinuses in patients with EPN of native kidneys [13, 14].

For a time, it was believed that the development of EPN required the presence of three conditions: DM (particularly poorly controlled diabetes), urinary tract obstruction, and an infectious agent capable of producing gas. However, as more data became available, it became evident that not all these factors need to be present for EPN to develop [15]. Huang et al. identified four key factors that play a determining role in the pathogenesis of EPN: presence of gas-producing bacteria, high tissue glucose levels, impaired tissue perfusion, and an altered immune response [12]. According to a meta-analysis by Desai et al. (2022), more than 80% of patients with EPN have DM, 16% have urolithiasis, and 20.5% suffer from obstructive uropathy [3]. In contrast, in the 1980s, it was believed that urinary tract obstruction accompanied EPN in at least 40% of cases, particularly in bilateral lesions or in cases where the only kidney was affected by EPN [7].

EPN involving native kidneys is more common in women, with a prevalence 1.8 to 6 times higher according to different studies. This is thought to be due to the anatomical characteristics of the female urogenital system. The left kidney is considered to be more vulnerable [5, 7, 12]. Interestingly, despite the higher incidence of EPN in women, men tend to experience a more unfavorable outcome (as highlighted in a meta-analysis by Ngo et al., 2022) [4]. Other risk factors for an unfavorable outcome in EPN include: signs of developing distributive shock (such as hemodynamic instability on admission, confusion, and the need for pressor therapy), confusion despite stable hemodynamic indices, laboratory parameters indicating the intensity of systemic inflammatory response, and secondary disorders of hemostasis and acid-base balance (initial thrombocytopenia, hypoalbuminemia, hyponatremia, hyperlactatemia, metabolic acidosis), AKI, and the extent of gas expansion as seen on CT imaging [1, 4, 12, 16, 17].

#### Approaches to diagnosis

In the 1930s and 1940s, early reports suggested the possibility of visualizing renal gas through radiography [15]. Currently, the primary method for diagnosing EPN is native computed tomography (CT). This method not only helps to identify the presence of gas but also allows for the assessment of its extent. The radiological classification proposed by Huang and Tseng in 2000 [12] is widely recognized as the best method for classifying EPN. According to this classification, EPN is divided into four classes based on the presence of gas in the collecting system, renal parenchyma, peri- and paranephric spaces, and whether one or both kidneys are involved (Table 1).

It is important to note that the renal fascia, with its anterior leaflet known as Gerota's fascia, encircles the kidney along with the surrounding fatty tissue, dividing the retroperitoneal space into two areas: the perinephric space (located within the renal fascia) and the perinephric space (located outside it).

Ultrasound (US) imaging has limited sensitivity for visualizing renal gas in patients with EPN. The primary ultrasound indicator of gas within the renal parenchyma and collecting system is the presence of linear hyperechogenic foci of varying sizes, often accompanied by distal reverberations. The characteristic "dirty sha-

Table 1

Radiological classification of EPN (Huang-Tseng, 2000 [12])

Class	Gas detection zone
Class 1	Gas in the collecting system only
Class 2	Gas in the renal parenchyma with no extension
	beyond the organ
Class 3A	Extension of gas or abscess to perirenal space
Class 3B	Extension of gas or abscess to pararenal space
Class 4	Bilateral EPN or solitary kidney with EPN

dow", which is a type of distal acoustic shadow, helps differentiate gas accumulation from a renal nodule. In some cases, the movement of these hyperechogenic gas foci within the collecting system, as the patient changes body position, can assist in distinguishing them from nodules [18].

An important indirect sign of gas presence in the perirenal space is the disappearance of renal visualization, which is particularly noticeable during KT ultrasound. However, it is crucial to note that ultrasound has a low sensitivity for diagnosing EPN, meaning that the absence of ultrasound signs does not exclude the diagnosis of EPN.

# Treatment approaches for emphysematous pyelonephritis

Over the past two decades, treatment approaches for EPN have evolved significantly. Nephrectomy as the first-choice strategy has given way to minimally invasive interventions, such as percutaneous nephrostomy (PCN), ureteral stenting, and abscess drainage, all in conjunction with aggressive antibiotic therapy (ABT) [1].

This shift toward less invasive tactics is largely driven by the high mortality rates associated with emergency nephrectomy. According to a meta-analysis by Desai et al. (2022), which included data from 1146 patients (1980–2020), the cumulative mortality rate for EPN was 12.5%. However, the mortality rate specifically for those undergoing emergency nephrectomy was significantly higher at 27% [3].

The choice of empirical ABT for EPN is a complex process that requires careful consideration of several factors. These include the risk of infection with multidrugresistant bacteria, the patient's specific prognosis, and changes in drug pharmacokinetics, especially in cases of hypoalbuminemia or critical conditions. Previously recommended third- and fourth-generation cephalosporins, as well as fluoroquinolones, are no longer as effective due to the widespread resistance of Enterobacterales bacteria producing extended-spectrum beta-lactamases, which are common pathogens in UTIs, including EPN [8, 9]. Therefore, carbapenems from Group 2 and "new" inhibitor-protected cephalosporins remain the most appropriate choices for initiating therapy [19–21].

An attempt to algorithmize the management of EPN patients was made by Huang and Tseng in 2000. They analyzed the course and outcomes of EPN in 48 patients and identified thrombocytopenia, AKI, shock, and impaired consciousness as key risk factors. According to their algorithm, patients in grade 1 or 2 should receive ABT and PCN. For grade 3 or 4 patients with one risk factor, ABT and PCN are still indicated, but if two or more risk factors are present, nephrectomy should be considered [12]. This algorithm has been widely adopted in clinical practice; however, in light of modern resuscitation strategies that have evolved over the last 25 years, we believe that the approach, especially regarding risk

factors, may need to be updated. To this day, determining the optimal therapeutic strategy for EPN remains a subject of ongoing debate.

# Emphysematous pyelonephritis involving the renal graft

We identified 38 cases of EPN in KT recipients published in the English-language medical literature from the late 1970s to the present day [22–58]. The characteristics and course of EPN in KT recipients, based on this literature analysis and our current observation, are summarized in Table 2.

An analysis of the data in the table shows a cumulative mortality rate of 28%. Among KT recipients, males were predominant (59%), and the age range was from 12 to 76 years, with a mean age of  $51 \pm 14$  years. In the fatal cases, there was a clear male predominance (n = 9, 82%), compared to male representation (n = 14, 50%) in the surviving group. The mean age of surviving versus dead patients was not significantly different, at  $49 \pm 15$ vs.  $56 \pm 12$  years (p = 0.17). DM was present in 82% of cases, and PTDM developed in 9 patients (23%).

Failure to achieve glycemic and glycated hemoglobin targets was a common finding among KT recipients who developed EPN. A notable anamnestic risk factor was the presence of recurrent UTIs, observed in 35% of cases. Unlike the general population with EPN in native kidneys, obstructive uropathy was rarely reported among KT recipients.

Several isolated reports have linked the onset of EPN in KT recipients with urologic or angiographic procedures performed shortly before the disease debut, particularly among DM-free patients. For example, Althaf et al. [47] described a case of EPN following transurethral resection of the prostate. Boltan et al. [38] attributed the development of EPN to bladder catheterization, identifying it as an iatrogenic trigger. Salehipour et al. [41] reported the rapid onset of EPN and graft loss in a patient who underwent renal artery stenting while febrile. A notable case was also presented by Spanish researchers, who diagnosed EPN three weeks after renal artery embolization in a non-functioning KT [35].

The most common presenting symptoms were fever (76%) and abdominal pain (58%), typically localized to the graft area, though in some cases the pain was diffuse or associated with palpable tension over the transplant site. Confusion was reported in 30% of patients, while oliguria or anuria occurred in 28%. Gastrointestinal symptoms such as nausea or vomiting were present in 20%, whereas diarrhea or constipation were documented only sporadically.

A rare but notable case involved the simultaneous occurrence of EPN in the kidney transplant and both native kidneys [58]. Additionally, EPNs affecting non-functioning grafts have been reported in three observations [35, 51, 53], highlighting the diagnostic challenge of distinguishing between non-functioning kidney graft

intolerance syndrome and infectious complications, as both may present with similar clinical features [59]. Although comprehensive laboratory data were often lacking, leukocytosis with a neutrophilic shift was commonly observed, suggesting a significant systemic inflammatory response in many cases.

Data on the causative pathogen were available for 33 out of 39 patients. *E. coli* was the most frequently detected organism, isolated in 20 cases (60.6%) from urine and/or blood cultures. In two of these cases, *E. coli* was found in combination with *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *K. pneumoniae* alone was detected in 7 patients (21.2%). Less commonly reported pathogens included Bacteroides species (2 cases), *Enterobacter* (1), *Salmonella* in combination with *Enterobacter* (1), *Proteus* species (1), and *Candida glabrata* (1).

IST is a clear predisposing factor for EPN in KT recipients. The time interval from transplantation to onset of EPN – effectively the duration of IST – ranged widely from 2 weeks to 11 years. However, the influence of specific IST regimens or the duration of immunosuppression on the risk of developing EPN remains uncertain. Interestingly, a recent case reported the development of severe fungal EPN necessitating transplantectomy just one week after initiation of empagliflozin, likely triggered by drug-induced glycosuria [55].

AKI was reported in 26 patients (67%), including the present case. The development of oligo/anuria due to AKI at the onset of EPN is characteristic in KT recipients, as the infection typically involves the only functioning kidney. In contrast, AKI in EPN affecting native kidneys is less common and usually occurs in cases of bilateral involvement or in patients with a solitary native kidney.

Due to the lack of consistent reporting in the reviewed cases, it is not possible to reliably assess the impact of body mass index (BMI) on the clinical course and prognosis of EPN in KT recipients. However, our patient was morbidly obese, which likely contributed to challenges in maintaining adequate personal hygiene.

Instrumental diagnosis of EPN in KT recipients requires specific consideration. It should be emphasized that in seven cases, KT ultrasound either revealed or suggested the presence of gas in the parenchyma or collecting system. Despite this, ultrasound remains the primary method for diagnosing EPN in KT recipients.

As the number of documented cases of EPN in KT recipients increased, it became clear that the radiological classification system proposed by Huang and Tseng had limitations. First, this classification automatically categorizes EPN in KT as grade 4, since the infection typically affects only a single kidney. Second, the classification's division of the disease into peri- and paranephric spaces is only applicable in native kidneys, where Gerota's fascia is present.

# Table 2

Publications	on clinical	cases of	'EPN in	renal	allografts (	(1977 - 2024)
I GOILCHOID	on chinem	CHOCO OI		I CIICCI I	Serio Literes (	

Author, publica- tion year	Age, sex	DM	Uncon- trolled DM	RUTIs	Clinical presenta- tion on admission	Causative agent	Gas distribution on admission	Treatment	Out- come
Parameswaran et Feest 1977 [22]	53, f	Yes (PTDM)	N/A	No	Low-grade fever, pain around the KT, AKI, confu- sion	Proteus spp.	KT	TE + ABT	Alive
Brenbridge et al. 1979 [23]	33, m	Yes (PTDM)	N/A	No	Low-grade fever, pain around the KT, AKI	E. coli	KT + perirenal space	TE + ABT	Alive
Balsara et al. 1985 [18]	32, m	No	-	No	Fever, confusion	E. coli	KT + RCS	PD + ABT	Alive
Potter et al. 1985 [24]	31, f	Yes	N/A	Yes	Fever, pain around the KT, AKI	E. coli	KT + perirenal space	TE + ABT	Alive
O'Donnell et al. 1985 [25]	27, m	Yes	N/A	N/A	Fever, tension in the KT area	Entero- bacter spp	KT + perirenal space	ABT	Alive
Glen et al. 1989 [26]	66, f	Yes	N/A	N/A	Fever, confusion	E. coli	N/A	PD + ABT	Alive
Kalra et al. 1993 [27]	35, m	No	-	N/A	Painful urination	K. pneu- moniae	N/A	TE + ABT	Dead
Akalin et al. 1996 [28]	62, m	Yes	N/A	N/A	Painful urination, confusion	K. pneu- moniae	RCS	ABT	Alive
Cheng et al. 2001 [29]	55, m	Yes (PTDM)	No	No	Fever, pain around the KT	E. coli	KT	PD + ABT	Alive
Iqubal et al. 2004 [30]	39, f	Yes (PTDM)	No	Yes	Fever, abdominal pain, AKI, con- fusion	E. coli	KT + perirenal space	PD + ABT	Alive
Ishigami et al. 2004 [31]	67, f	Yes (PTDM)	No	No	Low-grade fever, pain around the KT	Not detec- ted	RCS	TE + ABT	Alive
Al-Makadma et Al-Akash 2005 [32]	12, m	No	-	Yes	Fever, vomiting, abdominal pain, tension in the KT area, AKI	E. coli	RCS	ABT	Alive
Fujita et al. 2005 [33]	49, f	Yes	Yes	No	Fever, pain around the KT, blood in urine, AKI, confusion	Salmonela spp. + En- terobacter spp.	KT + perirenal space	TE + ABT	Alive
Arai et al. 2006 [34]	61, m	Yes	N/A	N/A	Abdominal pain, AKI, confusion	E. coli	KT + perirenal space	TE + ABT	Dead
Ortiz et al. 2007 [35]	40, m	No	-	No	Fever, abdominal pain	Bacte- roides capillosus	KT + RCS	TE + ABT	Alive
Chuang et al. 2007 [36]	51, m	Yes (PTDM)	Yes	No	Fever, abdominal pain	E. coli	RCS	PD + ABT	Alive
Baliga et al. 2007 [37]	52, f	Yes	No	Yes	Fever, pain around the KT, vomiting, AKI, confusion	E. coli	KT	ABT	Alive
Boltan et al. 2008 [38]	76, m	Yes	Yes	No	Fever, AKI	K. pneu- moniae	KT + perirenal space	PD + TE + ABT	Alive
Debnath et al. 2009 [39]	52, f	Yes	N/A	Yes	Fever, abdominal pain, AKI	N/A	KT	ABT	Alive
Schmidt et al. 2009 [40]	55, m	Yes	N/A	No	Fever, abdominal pain, AKI	E. coli	KT + perirenal space	TE + ABT	Alive

#### End of table 2

Author, publica- tion year	Age, sex	DM	Uncon- trolled DM	RUTIs	Clinical presenta- tion on admission	Causative agent	Gas distribution on admission	Treatment	Out- come
Salehipour et al. 2010 [41]	23, f	No	-	No	Fever, nausea, vo- miting, blood in urine, pain around the KT, AKI	N/A	KT + perirenal space	TE + ABT	Alive
Al-Geizawi et al. 2010 [42]	58, f	Yes	Yes	No	Fever, nausea, vomiting, AKI, confusion	K. pneu- moniae	KT	PD + ABT	Alive
Alexander et al. 2012 [43]	51, f	Yes (PTDM)	No	Yes	Fever, abdominal pain, vomiting, AKI, confusion	K. pneu- moniae	KT + perirenal space	PD + ABT	Alive
Tsai et al. 2012 [44]	46, m	Yes	N/A	No	Fever, pain on palpation of KT	E. coli	KT	ABT	Dead
Agreda Casta- neda et al. 2014 [45]	74, f	Yes	Yes	No	Fever, AKI	E. coli	KT	TE + ABT	Alive
Tienza et al. 2014 [46]	53, m	Yes	Yes	Yes	Low-grade fever, weakness, AKI	S. epider- midis + E. coli	KT + RCS	PD + ABT	Alive
Althaf et al. 2014 [47]	71, m	No	-	Yes	Fever, abdominal pain, vomiting, AKI, confusion	E. coli	KT + perirenal space	ABT	Dead
Narcisse et al. 2016 [48]	62, f	Yes (PTDM)	No	No	Fever, abdominal pain, diarrhea, AKI	K. pneu- moniae	KT	TE + ABT	Alive
Alhajjaj et Pas- ha 2016 [49]	71, m	Yes	N/A	N/A	Shortness of breath, constipa- tion, vomiting, tension in the KT area, AKI	N/A	KT + perirenal space	ABT	Dead
Oliveira et al. 2016 [50]	58, m	Yes	N/A	Yes	Fever, weakness	E. coli + K. pneu- moniae	KT + perirenal space	PD + TE + ABT	Dead
Bansal et al. 2016 [51]	60, m	Yes	Yes	No	Fever, abdominal pain	Bacteroi- des	KT	TE + ABT	Dead
Crouter et al. 2017 [52]	61, m	Yes	Yes	No	Fever, shortness of breath, AKI, confusion	N/A	KT	ABT	Alive
Rajaian et al. 2019 [53]	44, m	Yes	Yes	Yes	Fever, tension in the KT area	E. coli	2 KT + perire- nal space	TE + ABT	Alive
Ambinder et al. 2021 [54]	51, m	No	-	No	Fever, weakness, AKI	N/A	KT	PD + TE + ABT	Dead
Cases-Corona et al. 2022 [55]	53, m	Yes	No	Yes	N/a	Candida glabata	N/A	TE + ABT	Alive
Abu Jawdeh et al. 2022 [56]	49, f	Yes	Yes	Yes	Normothermia, abdominal pain, AKI, confusion	E. coli	KT + perirenal space	TE + ABT	Alive
Hassanein et al. 2022 [57]	51, f	Yes	N/A	No	Worn out	K. pneu- moniae	KT	TE + ABT	Dead
Chippa et al. 2022 [58]	71, m	Yes	Yes	Yes	On a ventilator from another facility	E. coli	KT + perirenal space	ABT	Dead
Trushkin et al. 2024	46, f	Yes (PTDM)	Yes	Yes	Fever, pain around the KT, AKI	E. coli	RCS	PD + TE + ABT	Dead

*Note:* DM, diabetes mellitus; PTDM, post-transplant diabetes mellitus; RUTIs, recurrent urinary tract infections; AKI, acute kidney injury; KT, kidney transplant; RCS, renal collecting system; PD, percutaneous drain; ABT, antibiotic therapy; TE, transplantectomy.
#### Table 3

#### EPN stages in renal allografts (Al-Geizawi, 2010 [42])

Stage 1	Gas in the collecting system
	Gas in <50% of the renal parenchyma, with
Stage 2	minimum extension to perirenal space, quickly
	controlled sepsis
	Gas in >50% of the renal parenchyma or extensi-
Stage 3	ve spread to perirenal space or evidence of organ
	failure, or uncontrolled sepsis, or refractory shock

The absence of Gerota's fascia at the transplant site results in a more rapid spread of the purulent destructive process within the abdominal cavity in KT recipients.

In 2010, Al-Geizawi et al. proposed a revised classification system that accounts for the unique characteristics of KT, including an assessment of gas distribution in the allograft based on CT findings, as well as some clinical features of patients [42] (Table 3).

According to the authors, CT imaging plays a crucial role in the early detection and ongoing monitoring of EPN. Stages 1 and 2, as identified on CT, justify the use of minimally invasive, nephron-preserving surgical interventions, which serve as an alternative to emergency nephrectomy. Stage 3, however, necessitates more aggressive surgical management. Schmidt et al. recommend using the "pulmonary window" mode on CT to better visualize the true distribution of gas within the allograft parenchyma and surrounding tissues, [40].

However, an analysis of EPN outcomes in KT recipients, including both published cases and our own clinical experience, suggests that the patient's classification stage according to the Al-Geizawi et al. system does not necessarily correlate with the disease outcome. In our case, radiological findings indicated stage 1, which is typically associated with a favorable prognosis. Additionally, several studies have highlighted the presence of severe comorbidities in patients who experienced fatal outcomes. These included acute myocardial infarction in a patient with severe mitral valve disease [51], sudden cardiac death [49], fulminant hepatitis [34], and EPN in a patient with COVID-19 complicated by cryptococcal infection [58]. The exacerbation of underlying comorbidities in the context of EPN in KT recipients likely plays a key role in the onset of a fatal outcome, regardless of the radiological stage of the disease.

# CONCLUSION

The analysis of literature data and our own clinical experience leads to several practical considerations for the structured management of patients with EPN in KT recipients.

1. An optimal management algorithm for patients with EPN in KT recipients has yet to be developed due to the limited number of published cases and data.

- 2. The presence of initial DM and ongoing IST significantly increases the likelihood of infection dissemination, leading to SIRS, multiple organ failure, and distributive shock.
- 3. The presence of gas in the allograft, regardless of its spread according to the Al-Geizawi et al. classification, represents a poor prognostic indicator. It negatively affects both graft survival and the overall clinical course of the disease.
- 4. Patients with EPN in KT recipients should be promptly transferred to the ICU, regardless of baseline hemodynamic status, renal function, or acid-base balance, to initiate comprehensive intensive therapy, considering the patient's comorbid background.
- 5. The decision regarding the volume and sequence of surgical interventions (PCN and transplantectomy) should be carefully individualized, guided by a multidisciplinary team approach.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# SINGLE-CENTER EXPERIENCE IN KIDNEY TRANSPLANTATION: OUTCOMES, CONCLUSIONS, AND PERSPECTIVES

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Kidney transplantation (KT) remains the best treatment for patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD) stage 4–5. It helps patients live longer, have better quality of life, and undergo improved medical and social rehabilitation. This paper examines the outcomes of KT performed between 2019 and 2023. Materials and methods. There were 1,106 KTs deceased donor KTs performed between January 1, 2029, and December 31, 2023. The recipients had a median age of 45 (37-54) years, with 664 (60%) males and 442 (40%) females. Donors were mainly males (n = 706, 63.8%), with the median donor age being 50 (43–57) years. Induction immunosuppressive therapy (IST) with monoclonal antibodies was administered to 859 (77.7%) recipients, with polyclonal antibodies to 122 recipients (11%), and induction without antibodies to 125 recipients (11.3%). Triple-drug baseline IST consisted of a combination of calcineurin inhibitors, antimetabolites and glucocorticoids. Tacrolimus was the most often utilized calcineurin inhibitor (n = 961, 86.9%), while cyclosporine was used less often (n = 145, 13.1%). Mycophenolic acid (n = 1041, 94.1%) was used as the second medication in most recipients, while everolimus (n = 54, 4.9%) and azathioprine (n = 11, 1%) were used less often. **Results.** Primary initial renal graft function was noted in 714 patients (64.6%) and delayed in 392 recipients (35.4%). Overall incidence of surgical complications was 11.6% (n = 130), and immunological complications 9.9% (n = 109). At hospital discharge, 768 recipients (69.4%) had satisfactory kidney allograft (KAG) function, while 276 recipients (25%) were discharged with graft dysfunction; median serum creatinine and blood urea levels were 158 (120-204) µmol/L and 11 (8-16) mmol/L, respectively. Twenty-six recipients (2.4%) were discharged to continue renal replacement therapy; 28 recipients (2.6%) underwent in-hospital graft nephrectomy. Twelve individuals passed away during the hospitalization phase. The cumulative uncensored in-hospital graft and recipient survival rates were 97.5% (n = 1078) and 98.9% (n = 1094), respectively. Conclusion. KT is an effective and safe transplant modality for stage 4–5 CKD. Our KT outcomes are consistent with those of reputable transplant centers around the globe.

Keywords: kidney transplantation, post-kidney transplant complications, immunological complications, acute kidney transplant rejection, kidney transplant survival, recipient survival.

# **INTRODUCTION**

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) remains a significant financial burden worldwide and a major challenge for modern medicine. According to international data, kidney disease affects over 10% of the global population [1]. Approximately 850 million individuals worldwide are living with various stages of CKD, and about 3.9 million progressing to kidney failure [2]. A study by Vivekanand Jha et al. estimates that the average annual cost of treating CKD at stages IIIa, IIIb, IV, and V are approximately \$3,060, \$3,544, \$5,332, and \$8,736 per patient, respectively [3].

As of December 31, 2020, a total of 60,547 patients with stage 5 CKD in our country were on renal replacement therapy (RRT). Of these, 83.5% (n = 50,563) were undergoing dialysis-based treatment [4]. Non-transplant treatment options for this condition are limited, serving primarily as a "bridge to transplantation", which remains the most effective surgical intervention [5]. Kidney transplantation (KT) offers significantly improved quality and duration of life compared to dialysis-based RRT, offering superior outcomes in terms of medical and social rehabilitation. More than 100,000 kidney transplants are performed globally each year. In 2022 alone, 102,090 kidney transplant procedures were carried out [6], the majority

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involving deceased donors. Despite the reasonable expansion of donor eligibility criteria and advancements in organ preservation technologies, critical organ shortage persists, leading to a significant gap between the demand for and availability of transplant care [7–9].

One of the pressing challenges in clinical KT remains the prevention and management of delayed graft function (DGF), which leads to prolonged hospitalization and increased treatment costs. Currently, the incidence of DGF ranges widely from 20% to 62.2% [10-21]. Despite advances over the past two to three decades in protocols for the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of immunological complications, these issues remain the leading cause of renal graft loss. Surgical complications, occurring in 16% to 46% of cases, also contribute significantly to increased morbidity and extended hospital stays [22-27]. Infectious complications continue to have a profound negative impact on both graft and recipient survival rates [28–36]. The development and implementation of modern, evidence-based protocols for patient management and the treatment of post-transplant complications are therefore crucial for improving outcomes.

Globally, it is common practice within the transplant community to publish KT outcomes from both individual transplant centers and national registries. Unfortunately, in the Russian literature, such comprehensive reports remain unreasonably scarce [37]. With this article, we aim to initiate and encourage the regular publication of transplant outcomes by other transplant centers in our country.

**Objective:** to analyze KT outcomes performed at the transplant center with the highest annual volume of deceased-donor KTs in the Russian Federation during the period 2019–2023.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

From January 1, 2019, to December 31, 2023, a total of 1,106 deceased-donor KTs were performed at the Kidney and Pancreas Transplant Department, Sklifosovsky Research Institute for Emergency Medicine. This Institute currently holds the highest annual volume of deceased-donor KTs in the Russian Federation. The annual distribution of transplant procedures performed during this five-year period is illustrated in Fig. 1.

#### **Recipients**

The study included 1,106 KT recipients, comprising 664 men (60%) and 442 women (40%). Recipient ages ranged from 18 to 75 years, with a median age of 45 years (interquartile range: 37-54). The age distribution based on WHO classification is shown in Fig. 2.

Body mass index (BMI) ranged from 14 to 39, with a median of 25 (IQR: 21–28). Among the patients, 83 (7.5%) were underweight, 469 (42.4%) had normal weight, 355 (32.1%) were overweight, 169 (15.3%) had obesity class I, and 30 (2.7%) had obesity class II. Blood group distribution among recipients was as follows: 0(I) - 398 patients (36%), A(II) - 417 (37.7%), B(III) - 210 (19%), and AB(IV) - 81 (7.3%).

The underlying conditions leading to stage 4–5 CKD included: chronic glomerulonephritis in 461 patients (41.7%), polycystic kidney disease – 142 (12.8%), diabetes mellitus – 127 (11.5%), tubulointerstitial diseases – 101 (9.1%), hypertensive nephroangiosclerosis – 80 (7.2%), nephropathy of unknown origin – 59 (5.3%), congenital anomalies of the urinary system – 55 (5.0%), and other less common conditions – 81 patients (7.3%) (Fig. 3).

The majority of recipients (n = 1000; 90.4%) received RRT prior to transplantation. Of these, 772 patients (69.8%) underwent maintenance hemodialysis, and 228 (20.6%) were on out-patient peritoneal dialysis. The remaining 106 recipients (9.6%) were in the predialysis stage IV CKD at the time of transplantation.

Elevated levels of pre-existing anti-HLA antibodies were observed in 103 patients (9.3%). Among them, 75 had antibodies targeting HLA class I antigens, with mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) values ranging from



Fig. 1. Number of deceased donor kidney transplants by year for the period 2019–2023



Fig. 2. Distribution of patients by age group according to the World Health Association classification for the period 2019–2023

505 to 14,444 (median 1567; IQR: 681.5–4188.5). Anti-HLA class II antibodies were present in 66 patients, with MFI ranging from 503 to 14,116 (median 1887; IQR: 788.8–7539). Both Anti-HLA class I and class II antibodies were detected in 43 patients (41.7%).

# **Kidney transplantation**

Most recipients underwent primary KT (n = 990; 89.5%), while the remaining patients (n = 116; 10.5%) received repeat kidney transplants (second or third procedures). Cold ischemia time ranged from 7 to 27 hours, with a median of 15 hours (IQR: 12.5-17.5 hours).

# **Donor characteristics**

The donor cohort was predominantly male (n = 706; 63.8%). Donor age ranged from 18 to 73 years, with a median age of 50 years (IQR: 43–57 years). According to the WHO age classification, 627 donors (56.7%) were middle-aged, 317 (28.7%) were young adults, and 160

(14.5%) were classified as elderly. Two donors (0.2%) had undocumented age.

The majority of donors (n = 861; 77.8%) were diagnosed with brain death after a stroke. The distribution of donor types is shown in Fig. 4.

Of the total donor pool, 671 donors (60.7%) met standard criteria, while 433 (39.2%) were classified as expanded criteria donors. Information was unavailable for two donors (0.2%). The median duration of donor hospitalization prior to organ retrieval was 2 days (IQR: 1-3.25 days).

Table 1 presents the immunological HLA compatibility and incompatibility characteristics of donor-recipient pairs.

# Immunosuppressive therapy

All patients received induction and triple-drug baseline immunosuppressive therapy (IST). Induction IST with monoclonal antibodies was administered to 859 recipients (77.7%), while polyclonal antithymocyte globu-



Fig. 3. Structure of the main diseases that led to chronic kidney disease stage 4–5 in patients of the study group. DM, diabetes mellitus; CAKUT, congenital anomalies of kidney and urinary tract



Fig. 4. Structure of donor types. DBD, donation after brain death; TBI, traumatic brain injury; DCD, donation after circulatory death

Table	l
Immunological HLA match/mismatch between	
donor and recipient	

Indicator	Me	Q1–Q3
Number of HLA class I antigen mismatches (n, %)	2.00. 50.00	1.00–2.00. 25.00–50.00
Number of HLA class II antigen mismatches (n, %)	1.00. 50.00	1.00–2.00. 50.00–100.00
Total number of mismatches (n, %)	3.00. 50.00	2.00–4.00. 33.40–66.80
Number of class I antigen matches (n, %)	1.00. 25.00	0.00-1.00 0.00-25.00
Number of class II antigen matches (n, %)	1.00. 50.00	0.00–1.00. 0.00–50.00
Total number of matches (n, %)	1.00. 16.70	1.00–2.00. 16.70–33.40



Fig. 5. Structure of induction immunosuppressive therapy. Sim, basiliximab (simulect); Thymo, polyclonal antithymocyte antibodies – human immunoglobulin (rabbit); ATGAM – polyclonal antithymocyte antibodies – human immunoglobulin (equine); Methypred, methylprednisolone

lin was used in 122 recipients (11%). In 125 recipients (11.3%), induction therapy was carried out without the use of antibodies (Fig. 5).

The triple-drug baseline IST regimen consisted of a combination of calcineurin inhibitors, antimetabolites, and glucocorticosteroids. Among calcineurin inhibitors, tacrolimus was predominantly used (n = 961, 86.9%), with cyclosporine being less commonly administered (n = 145, 13.1%).

As the antimetabolite component, mycophenolic acid was used in the majority of recipients (n = 1041, 94.1%). Everolimus was used in 54 patients (4.9%), and azathioprine in 11 patients (1%). No steroid-free IST regimens were used during this period.

#### Statistical data processing

Statistical analysis was performed using StatTech v. 4.0.6 (StatTech, Russia). The distribution of quantitative variables was assessed using the Shapiro–Wilk test (for sample sizes <50) or the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test (for sample sizes >50).

For variables with a normal distribution, results were presented as the arithmetic mean (M) and standard deviation (SD), along with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI). In cases where data did not follow a normal distribution, results were expressed as the median (Me) and interquartile range (Q1–Q3). Categorical variables were described using absolute counts and percentages (%).

Comparison of two groups by a quantitative variable with a non-normal distribution was performed using the Mann–Whitney U test. For comparisons among three or more groups, the Kruskal–Wallis test was applied, followed by Dunn's post hoc test with Holm's correction for multiple comparisons.

Analysis of categorical variables in  $2 \times 2$  contingency tables was carried out using Pearson's chi-square test (when the expected frequencies were >10) or Fisher's exact test (when the expected frequencies were <10). For multi-field contingency tables, Pearson's chi-square test was used to compare proportions.

#### RESULTS

#### **Renal graft function**

Immediate graft function was observed in 714 recipients (64.6%), while delayed graft function (DGF) occurred in 392 patients (35.4%). The time to azotemia normalization ranged from 1 to 66 days, with a median of 8 days (IQR: 4–14 days). In DGF cases, the median number of extracorporeal detoxification procedures required was 4 (IQR: 2–8).

#### Surgical complications

The overall incidence of surgical complications was 11.6%, with 130 complications recorded in 128 patients. The distribution of surgical complications according to the Clavien–Dindo classification is presented in Table 2.

A classification of surgical complications is presented in Table 3.

#### Immunologic complications

The incidence of immunologic complications was 9.9%, with 109 episodes of acute rejection occurring in 107 patients. The onset of acute renal graft rejection ranged from 1 to 58 days post-transplant, with a median onset of 10 days (IQR: 6–17 days). The patients with rejection episodes received pulse corticosteroid (methyl-

Table 2

Structure of surgical complications according to the Clavien–Dindo Classification

Category of surgical complications	n, abs	%
Ι	4	3.1
Π	6	4.6
IIIa	25	19.2
IIIb	70	53.8
IVa	21	16.2
IVb	4	3.1

Table 3

#### Types of surgical complications

Type of complication	n, abs	%
Occlusive arterial thrombosis	2	1.5
Non-occlusive venous thrombosis	17	13.1
Subcapsular renal transplant hematoma	22	16.9
Transplant renal artery kinking	1	0.8
Post-renal transplant lymphoceles	37	28.5
Urinary leakage	44	33.8
Ureteral stricture	4	3.1
Urethral stricture	1	0.8
Bleeding	2	1.5

prednisolone) therapy as follows: 31 patients received polyclonal antithymocyte antibody infusions, including 22 with rabbit antithymocyte globulin, 9 with equine antithymocyte globulin, 21 patients underwent plasmapheresis (1–6 sessions; mean:  $3.48 \pm 1.25$  sessions), followed by intravenous immunoglobulin administration.

#### Outcomes

At the time of hospital discharge, 768 recipients (69.4%) demonstrated satisfactory kidney allograft (KAG) function, with serum creatinine levels below 200  $\mu$ mol/L. An additional 276 recipients (25%) were discharged with KAG dysfunction, defined as serum creatinine levels exceeding 200  $\mu$ mol/L, but without the need for RRT. The median serum creatinine among these two groups was 158  $\mu$ mol/L (IQR: 120–204  $\mu$ mol/L), and the median blood urea level was 11 mmol/L (IQR: 8–16 mmol/L).

Twenty-six recipients (2.4%) with adequately perfused grafts were transferred to the outpatient stage of care for RRT continuation. Twenty-eight recipients (2.6%) underwent graft nephrectomy during hospitalization for various clinical indications (see Table 4).

A total of 12 recipients (1.1%) died during the hospitalization period: 8 patients with a functioning renal graft and 4 patients following graft removal. The causes of death are presented in Table 5.

The cumulative uncensored graft survival rate during hospitalization was 97.5% (n = 1078), while the recipient survival rate for the same period was 98.9% (n = 1094).

Reason for KAG nephrectomy % n, abs 42.9 Acute rejection crisis 12 Venous thrombosis 21.4 6 Sepsis 5 17.9 1 3.6 Donor pathology 1 3.6 Cortical necrosis Bleeding from KAG 1 3.6 3.6 1 Bleeding from biopsy site Necrosis of the lower pole of KAG 1 3.6

Causes of in-hospital renal graft loss

Table 5

Table 4

Causes of in-hospital recipient mortality

Cause of death	n, abs.	%
Sepsis	5	41.7
Acute heart failure	3	25.0
COVID-19	2	16.7
Hypoxic brain injury	1	8.3
Acute stroke	1	8.3

#### DISCUSSION

According to registry data, the global incidence of CKD has been increasing steadily in recent years [38]. Dialysis-based RRTs are crucial for supporting patients with end-stage renal disease while they await KT, significantly extending their lifespan and improving their quality of life [5, 39]. However, there remains a critical gap between the demand for and the availability of kidney transplants, primarily due to a severe shortage of donor organs. Even with the expansion of criteria for graft suitability, this issue persists. Worldwide, the annual number of KTs performed exceeds 100,000, with the United States leading - a record of 25,487 KTs in 2021 [40]. In the Russian Federation, 1,562 KTs were carried out in 2022, with 1,334 from deceased donors and 228 from living-related donors [41]. Over the last decade, the Kidney and Pancreas Transplant Department, Sklifosovsky Research Institute for Emergency Medicine, has performed the highest number of deceased-donor KTs in the country.

Delayed graft function (DGF) remains one of the most common complications following kidney transplantation, negatively impacting early outcomes. It is associated with increased rejection rates, prolonged hospitalization, and consequently higher treatment costs [42–45]. A large study by Kim et al. found that DGF led to an average increase in costs of approximately \$18,000 (10%) (\$130,492 versus \$112,598, P < 0.0001), 6 additional days of hospitalization (14.7 versus 8.7 days, P < 0.0001), and 2 extra days in the ICU (4.3 versus 2.1 days, P < 0.0001). Furthermore, multiple dialysis sessions were associated with an additional cost of \$10,000 compared to patients who only required one session [46]. The reported incidence of DGF varies between 24% and 62% [21, 40, 47–50]. In our study, DGF incidence was 35.4%.

While not the primary cause of renal graft failure, surgical complications in kidney transplantation significantly increase patient morbidity and prolong hospitalization. The overall incidence of surgical complications following KT can range from 12% to 25%, with vascular complications occurring in 0.8% to 6% of cases [22, 24, 26]. The most common non-vascular surgical complications are urologic issues, affecting 2.5% to 30% of patients, and nephrotransplant bed lymphocele, which can range from 0.6% to 40% [22, 24]. In our center, the incidence of surgical complications was 11.6%. The incidence of acute graft rejection in the early postoperative period varies between 10% and 30% according to the available literature [51–53]. In our study, the incidence of immunological complications was 9.9%.

We evaluated in-hospital survival rates for both kidney transplants and recipients, which were 97.5% and 98.9%, respectively, aligning with the survival rates seen in leading transplant centers worldwide.

# CONCLUSION

KT remains an effective and safe treatment option for stage 4–5 CKD patients. The outcomes achieved in our center – including the incidence of surgical and immunological complications, as well as in-hospital survival rates for both grafts and recipients – are comparable to those reported by leading international transplant centers.

#### The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# HEART TRANSPLANTATION IN PATIENTS UNDERGOING EXTRACORPOREAL CARDIOPULMONARY RESUSCITATION IN IN-HOSPITAL CARDIAC ARREST

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**Objective:** to analyze heart transplant (HT) outcomes in patients who suffered cardiac arrest requiring extracorporeal cardiopulmonary resuscitation (ECPR) by peripheral veno-arterial extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (VA-ECMO). Materials and methods. The study included 41 patients (14 (34.1%) women and 27 (65.9%) men, aged  $42.6 \pm 16.8$  (40.0 [30.5; 54.0]) years with in-hospital cardiac arrest. The causes of cardiac arrest were acute decompensated heart failure (n = 19; 46.3%), irreversible graft dysfunction (n = 9; 22.0%), postcardiotomy acute heart failure (n = 5; 12.2%), acute myocardial infarction (n = 4; 9.8%), and acute graft rejection (n = 4; 9.8%). Results. Twenty-seven (65.9%) patients had cardiac arrest in the intensive care unit (ICU) and 14 (34.1%) outside ICU. The interval between femoral artery puncture and ECPR initiation was 4-17 ( $9 \pm 5$ ) minutes, while that between cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) initiation and peripheral VA-ECMO was  $26 \pm 9$  minutes. Atonic seizure developed in 11 (26.8%) of 41 patients while receiving VA-ECMO. Of the 41 patients, 30 (73.2%) had irreversible brain damage. Four (9.8%) patients were discharged from the hospital without neurological or multiple organ dysfunction. In 26 (63.4%) patients (10 (38.5%) women and 16 (61.5%) men) aged 14 to 63 ( $40.7 \pm 15.8$ ) years, ECPR and subsequent treatment resulted in survival to HT while receiving VA-ECMO (duration 1-11 (4.0 [1.5; 5.0]) days). The age of the heart donor (6 (23.1%) women and 20 (76.9%) men) was 44.0 ± 9.9 years, the cumulative Eurotransplant Heart Donor Score was  $16.9 \pm 2.7$ , the Donor Risk Index was  $6.3 \pm 1.5$ , and the estimated incidence of severe primary graft dysfunction (RADIAL scale) was  $15.4 \pm 3.7\%$ . Graft ischemia lasted for  $188 \pm 72$  (170.0 [141.25; 185.0]) minutes. Five (19.2%) recipients developed severe dysfunction, which required continuation of peripheral VA-ECMO in the postperfusion period. The cause of death (n = 4; 15.3%) in the early post-HT period was irreversible multiple organ dysfunction. Conclusion. In-hospital survival after emergency HT in recipients who underwent ECPR before transplantation is 84.7%.

*Keywords: cardiac arrest, peripheral veno-arterial extracorporeal membrane oxygenation, heart transplantation.* 

# INTRODUCTION

Patients waiting for a heart transplant (HT) are at higher risk of cardiac arrest (CA), both inside and outside of hospitals, because of the advanced stages of heart failure and the underlying irreversible heart disease they have [1]. Extracorporeal cardiopulmonary resuscitation (ECPR), which uses veno-arterial extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (VA-ECMO) after conventional cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) fails, using manual or mechanical chest compressions, is a growing life-saving intervention for both out-of-hospital and in-hospital CA (IHCA) [2, 3]. ECPR has demonstrated better survival rates in patients who have suffered CA compared to standard CPR [4].

The **objective** of this study was to evaluate HT outcomes in patients who experienced CA necessitating an ECPR.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study included 41 patients (14 women [34.1%] and 27 men [65.9%]) with a mean age of  $42.6 \pm 16.8$  years (median 40.0 [IQR: 30.5-54.0] years), who had IHCA requiring ECPR between 2011 and 2023. ECPR was initiated due to no spontaneous recovery of heart rhythm and effective hemodynamics despite conventional CPR. These cases represented 3.4% (n = 41/1217) of all VA-ECMO initiations at our institution during the study period.

Sudden CA occurred in the context of decompensated chronic heart failure (CHF) in 19 patients (46.3%), irreversible cardiac allograft dysfunction in 9 (22.0%), postcardiotomy cardiogenic shock in 5 (12.2%), acute HF due to myocardial infarction in 4 (9.8%), and acute cardiac graft rejection in 4 patients (9.8%).

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Among the 41 patients included in the study, the underlying cardiac pathology was dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM) in 18 cases (43.9%), coronary heart disease (CHD) in 10 (24.4%), irreversible cardiac graft dysfunction in 9 (22.0%), and heart graft rejection in 4 patients (9.8%). Fourteen patients (34.1%) were on the heart transplant waiting list (HTWL) and had been admitted for pre-transplant management. An additional 9 patients (22.0%) were hospitalized for assessment within the potential HT candidate program.

All patients initially underwent conventional CPR in accordance with established clinical protocols, using either manual or mechanical chest compressions [5, 6]. ECPR was initiated after 20 minutes of unsuccessful conventional CPR, defined by failure to restore electrical cardiac activity, adequate myocardial contraction, or systemic hemodynamics. The decision to proceed with ECPR was made in line with current international guidelines and protocols [7].

During continued manual or mechanical chest compressions, percutaneous puncture and catheterization of the common femoral artery and vein (on one or both sides) were performed using 14–16 G single-lumen intravascular catheters. In 21 patients with pre-existing femoral artery catheterization for invasive blood pressure monitoring, this access was used to expedite placement of the femoral arterial ECMO cannula. Femoral access was guided either by anatomical landmarks or ultrasound using a portable device.

Following successful vascular access, 5,000 units of unfractionated heparin were administered intravenously for systemic anticoagulation. An Amplatz Super Stiff J-Tip guidewire (0.89 mm in diameter, 260 cm in length), or its equivalent, was introduced through the intravascular catheter placed in the femoral vein. After stepwise dilation of the percutaneous track, the femoral venous ECMO cannula was inserted to a depth of 35–45 cm, depending on the patient's anthropometric characteristics. The arterial cannula was inserted using the same technique. Both cannulas were then connected to the ECMO circuit, and VA-ECMO was initiated with the following initial settings: volumetric blood flow rate of 2.5–4.0 L/ min, gas flow rate of 4.0–8.0 L/min, and FiO<sub>2</sub> of 1.0.

Immediately after ECMO initiation, targeted temperature management was implemented for neuroprotection and prevention of irreversible cerebral injury. This included cooling the patient to 35.0–35.5 °C via the ECMO heat exchanger [8], elevating the head of the resuscitation bed to 35–45°, applying ice packs to the head, and administering intravenous mannitol and hypertonic sodium solution. These measures aimed to achieve serum osmolarity of 310 mOsm/L and serum sodium concentration of 145–155 mmol/L [9].

Hearts from brain-dead donors were used for HT. The presence and number of expanded criteria donation factors were documented according to widely accepted definitions for standard and expanded heart donation. Donor heart marginality was quantitatively assessed using the Eurotransplant Heart Donor Score, the Donor Risk Index, and the RADIAL score. The probability of developing severe primary graft dysfunction was estimated using the RADIAL score.

Quantitative data are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (M  $\pm \sigma$ ) and as median with interquartile range (Me [Q1; Q3]).

# RESULTS

In all cases, CA occurred in the presence of witnesses (medical staff or other patients). Specifically, 27 patients (65.9%) experienced CA in the intensive care unit (ICU), 12 (29.3%) in the ward, and 2 (4.9%) in the X-ray surgical operating room. The time of CA occurrence was distributed as follows: 9:00 AM to 6:00 PM in 22 patients (53.7%), 6:00 PM to 12:00 AM in 11 patients (26.8%), and 12:00 AM to 9:00 AM in 8 patients (19.5%).

The initial cardiac rhythm recorded upon connection to the ECG monitor was ventricular fibrillation in 26 patients (63.4%), ventricular flutter in 4 (9.8%), and bradyarrhythmia or asystole in 11 (26.8%).

In all cases, ECPR was preceded by comprehensive CPR, which included manual chest compressions in 31 patients (75.6%) and/or automatic mechanical compressions in 10 patients (24.4%). In 8 patients (38.1%) with asystole or severe bradycardia, endocardial pacing electrodes were placed.

In 32 patients (78.0%), CPR was initiated or continued in the ICU, where subsequent VA-ECMO preparation and connection were also carried out. Among the 12 patients who experienced CA in the ward, 7 were transferred to the cardiac surgical operating room for ongoing CPR. In 8 cases from this group, to avoid interruption of CPR and minimize time to VA-ECMO initiation, femoral artery puncture and cannulation were performed directly on the transport trolley wheelchair.

The interval between CPR onset and the initiation of femoral artery puncture for subsequent cannulation ranged from 14 to 35 minutes (mean  $23 \pm 8$  minutes) in patients (n = 27) who experienced CA in the ward, and from 4 to 20 minutes (mean  $11 \pm 7$  minutes) in patients (n = 14) who experienced CA in the ICU or X-ray surgical operating room.

In all cases, peripheral VA-ECMO was initiated via cannulation of the femoral vessels, either unilaterally (n = 34; 82.9%) or bilaterally (n = 7; 17.1%). Cannula sizes used for arterial access ranged from 15 F to 19 F, while venous cannulation utilized 21 F to 28 F cannulas.

Initial VA-ECMO settings included a pump speed of 7167  $\pm$  320 rpm, an extracorporeal blood flow rate of 3.91  $\pm$  0.27 L/min (or 2.14  $\pm$  0.19 L/min/m<sup>2</sup>), gas flow of 5.7  $\pm$  0.9 L/min, and a fraction of inspired oxygen (FiO<sub>2</sub>) of 1.0.

The mean time from CPR onset to VA-ECMO initiation was  $26 \pm 9$  minutes. The time from the start of femoral vascular puncture to the beginning of ECPR ranged from 4 to 17 minutes, with a mean of  $9 \pm 5$  minutes.

The interval between CPR initiation and VA-ECMO connection was significantly shorter in patients who experienced CA in the ICU compared to those in the ward  $(22 \pm 8 \text{ minutes } vs. 38 \pm 13 \text{ minutes, respectively; p} = 0.001).$ 

In 100% of cases, restoration of cardiac rhythm and mechanical heart activity – confirmed by the appearance of an arterial pressure waveform and visible ventricular contractions on transthoracic or transesophageal echocardiography – was achieved within 3 to 20 minutes after VA-ECMO initiation. Ten patients (24.4%) had a spontaneous return of rhythm, while the remaining 30 patients (75.6%) required repeated antiarrhythmic therapy or electrical defibrillation. Indirect cardiac massage was maintained until both rhythm restoration and mechanical ventricular activity were confirmed, ensuring continued upper body perfusion and decompression of the cardiac chambers.

Following successful peripheral VA-ECMO initiation and cessation of active resuscitation, the superficial femoral artery was catheterized in all patients to prevent lower limb ischemia from . This was achieved via percutaneous puncture in 33 cases (80.5%) and open surgical access in 8 cases (19.5%).

In 6 patients (14.6%), progressive deterioration of left ventricular systolic function and clinical/radiological signs of pulmonary edema necessitated percutaneous left atrial drainage. This was performed to relieve volume overload in the left heart chambers using an additional venous drainage cannula (18–21 F), inserted through the interatrial septum via transfemoral venous access.

Eleven (26.8%) out of 41 patients receiving VA-EC-MO had irreversible brain damage with the development of atonic coma and subsequent death (Fig.). The other 30 patients (73.2%) did not exhibit signs of irreversible neurological injury. In 4 patients (9.8%) - 3 with cardiac graft rejection and 1 with postcardiotomy acute heart failure – VA-ECMO was successfully discontinued on days 3 to 6. These patients were discharged from the hospital without clinically significant neurological deficits or manifestations of multiple organ dysfunction.

In 26 patients (63.4%) – including 16 males (61.5%) and 10 females (38.5%), aged 14 to 63 years (mean age 40.7  $\pm$  15.8 years) – ECPR followed by intensive care resulted in survival to HT while on VA-ECMO support. The underlying pathology in this subgroup (n = 26) included DCM (n = 12; 46.2%), CHD (n = 7; 26.9%), and irreversible cardiac graft dysfunction (n = 7; 26.9%).

All patients were successfully weaned to spontaneous breathing while continuing VA-ECMO support, with a maintained extracorporeal blood flow of  $3.1 \pm 0.5$  L/min (or  $1.78 \pm 0.46$  L/min/m<sup>2</sup>). In addition to extracorporeal circulatory support, all patients (n = 26) received sympathomimetic cardiotonic or vasopressor agents to support systemic hemodynamics and residual left ventricular function. Specifically, dopamine was administered in 23 patients (88.5%) at a mean dose of  $5.7 \pm 2.1$  µg/kg/min (median 6.0 [4.0; 7.0] µg/kg/min), adrenaline in 10 patients (38.5%) at 22.0 ± 12.9 ng/kg/min (median 17.5 [10.0; 37.75] ng/kg/min), dobutamine in 5 patients (19.2%) at 4.0 ± 2.7 µg/kg/min (median 3.0 [2.5; 4.0] µg/kg/min), and noradrenaline in 2 patients at 50 and 80 ng/kg/min, respectively.

The absence of impaired consciousness, severe organ dysfunction, electrolyte or metabolic impairments, and high pulmonary hypertension at the time of donor heart availability served as key criteria for proceeding with HT (Table 1). The duration of VA-ECMO support prior to HT in these patients ranged from 1 to 11 days, with a mean of  $4.1 \pm 2.9$  days and a median of 4.0 [1.5; 5.0] days.



#### Extracorporeal cardiopulmonary resuscitation

Fig. Study flow diagram

Table 1

#### Data (M $\pm \sigma$ and Me [Q1; Q3]) from preoperative examination of heart recipients who underwent extracorporeal cardiopulmonary resuscitation at the pre-transplant stage (n = 26)

Parameter	Value
Age, sex a	and anthropometric indicators
Age, years	40.7 ± 15.8 (39.0 [30.0; 53.0])
Female, n/%	10 (38.5%)
Height, cm	$171.6 \pm 10.7 (170.0 [166.6; 176.0])$
Weight, kg	73.3 ± 15.9 (77.5 [63.5; 84.25])
Body surface area, $m^2$	$1.87 \pm 0.24 \; (1.90 \; [1.70; 2.04])$
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	$24.6 \pm 4.0 (24.80 [22.87; 27.04])$
Invasive central h	emodynamic and echocardiographic study
mAP, mmHg	66.8 ± 12.8 (74.5 [66.5; 80.75])
HR per min	$107.7 \pm 25.6 \ (107.5 \ [86.5; 130.25])$
RAP, mmHg	8.6 ± 3.4 (8.0 [5.25; 12.0])
mPAP, mmHg	$28.5 \pm 10.3 \ (26.0 \ (20.0; 27.75))$
PCWP, mmHg	20.8 ± 9.9 (20.0 [12.5; 27.75])
CI, l/min/m <sup>2</sup>	$1.57 \pm 0.53$ (1.50 [1.30; 1.70])
TPG, mmHg	7.7 ± 3.0 (8.0 [5.0; 10.0])
PAP, Woods units	$2.99 \pm 1.94$ (2.70 [1.70; 3.30])
La	boratory examination
Hb, g/L	$102.6 \pm 19.1 \ (95.0 \ [90.5; \ 118.5])$
Red blood cell, 10 <sup>9</sup> /L	3.6 ± 0.7 (3.4 [3.18; 3.76])
Platelets, 10 <sup>9</sup> /L	$139.4 \pm 103.0 (102.0 [79.25; 191.25])$
White blood cells, 10 <sup>9</sup> /L	11.7 ± 6.1 (10.1 [7.08; 15.68])
Albumin, g/L	36.1 ± 6.8 (35.0 [32.5; 40.0])
Total protein, g/L	$62.4 \pm 10.7 (35.0 [32.5; 40.0])$
Urea, mmol/L	$11.4 \pm 5.8 \ (10.1 \ [7.43; 14.4])$
Creatinine, µmol/L	$111.1 \pm 49.1 \ (110.0 \ [85.58; 131.80])$
Total bilirubin, µmol/L	50.7 ± 43.6 (33.4 [17.48; 80.97])
ALT, U/L	$66.9 \pm 122.4$ (36.6 [26.0; 48.28])
AST, U/L	82.0 ± 123.8 (36.0 [33.0; 38.0])
INR	$1.47 \pm 0.17 (1.40 [1.34; 1.58])$
pH <sub>в</sub>	$7.43 \pm 0.09$ (7.40 [7.40; 7.50])
BE <sub>B</sub> , mmol/L	$1.6 \pm 3.7 \ (2.6 \ [-0.9; \ 3.4])$
Р <sub>в</sub> О <sub>2</sub> , мм рт. ст.	33.6 ± 6.6 (33.8 [28.1; 37.5])
$S_{B}O_{2}, \%$	$60.9 \pm 15.8 (58.7 [46.5; 71.5])$
Blood lactate, mmol/L	2.1 ± 1.7 (1.4 [1.0; 2.4])
Blood Na <sup>+</sup> , mmol/L	138.3 ± 3.1 (138.0 [136.0; 141.0)]

*Note:* BMI, body mass index; mAP, mean arterial pressure; HR, heart rate, RAP, right atrial pressure; mPAP, mean pulmonary artery pressure; PCWP, pulmonary capillary wedge pressure; CI, cardiac index; TPG, Transpulmonary pressure gradient; PAP, pulmonary artery pressure; ALT, alanine transaminase; AST, aspartate transaminase; INR, international normalized ratio. 45.0 [36.0; 52.0]) and a mean body weight of 86.8  $\pm$  14.9 kg (median 85.0 [75.0; 100.0] kg). The graft-to-recipient weight ratio was  $1.20 \pm 0.54$  (median 1.10 [0.90; 1.30]). Brain death resulted from traumatic brain injury in 9 cases (34.6%) and non-traumatic causes in 17 cases (65.4%). Two donors (7.7%) experienced cardiac arrest and underwent CPR lasting 6 and 11 minutes, respectively. Mechanical ventilation duration averaged  $2.4 \pm 1.7$  days (median 2.0 [1.0; 3.0] days).

During donor management, sympathomimetic support was required in 23 cases (88.5%) with norepinephrine administered at  $621 \pm 388$  ng/kg/min (median 550.0 [300.0; 900.0] ng/kg/min), and dopamine in 8 cases (30.8%). Echocardiographic and laboratory findings for heart donors (n = 26) are summarized in Table 2.

Expanded criteria for heart donation were identified in 16 donors (61.5%), with an average of  $1.4 \pm 0.4$  expanded criteria factors per donor. The mean Eurotransplant Heart Donor Score was  $16.9 \pm 2.7$  (median 16.5 [15.5; 18.0]), the Donor Risk Index was  $6.3 \pm 1.5$  (median 6.0 [5.5; 7.75]), and the predicted incidence of severe primary graft dysfunction based on the RADIAL score was  $15.4 \pm 3.7\%$  (median 16.25 [12.50; 18.50]%).

Table 2

#### Data (M $\pm \sigma$ and median with interquartile intervals) obtained from heart donor examination at transplantation to recipients who underwent ECPR at the pre-transplant stage (n = 26)

Parameter	Value	
Echocardiographic study parameters		
Aorta, cm	3.1 ± 0.4 (3.0 [2.8; 3.5])	
Left atrium, cm	$3.9 \pm 10.7 \ (170.0 \ [166.6; 176.0])$	
Right ventricle, cm	$2.5 \pm 0.2 \ (2.50 \ [2.40; 84.25])$	
IVS, cm	$1.15 \pm 0.16 \ (1.10 \ [1.00; 1.20])$	
LVEDV, ml	96.6 ± 32.1 (88.0 [80.0; 102.0])	
SV, ml	$60.5 \pm 20.2 \ (58.0 \ [63.0; 68.0])$	
LVEF, %	$64.4 \pm 7.0 \ (65.0 \ [63.0; \ 68.0])$	
Mitral valve	$1.0 \pm 0.2$ (1.0 [1.0; 1.0])	
(regurgitation), degree	$1.0 \pm 0.3 (1.0 [1.0, 1.0])$	
Tricuspid valve	$0.94 \pm 0.17(1.0[1.0, 1.0])$	
(regurgitation), degree	0.94 ± 0.17 (1.0 [1.0, 1.0])	
Laborat	ory examination	
Hb, g/L	$102.6 \pm 19.1 \ (95.0 \ [90.5; \ 118.5])$	
White blood cells, 10 <sup>9</sup> /L	$12.4 \pm 3.2 \ (12.5 \ [11.0; \ 13.75])$	
Total protein, g/L	$65.6 \pm 7.5 \ (67.0 \ [60.0; 72.5])$	
Urea, mmol/L	$6.8 \pm 2.9 (5.20 [3.50; 7.40])$	
Creatinine, µmol/L	97.8 ± 23.9 (87.5 [72.25; 98.5])	
Total bilirubin, µmol/L	$50.7 \pm 43.6 (33.4 [17.48; 80.97])$	
Blood glucose, mmol/L	10.8 ± 4.7 (8.9 [7.5; 11.5])	
Troponin I, pg/mL	$0.19 \pm 0.08 \; (0.10 \; [0.02; \; 0.45])$	
pH <sub>B</sub>	$7.44 \pm 0.16$ (7.40 [7.30; 7.50])	
BE <sub>n</sub> , mmol/L	$2.2 \pm 1.5$ (2.3 [0.55; 3.25])	

*Note:* IVS, interventricular septum; LVEDV, left ventricular end-diastolic volume; VA, stroke volume; LVEF, left ventricular ejection fraction; Hb, hemoglobin.

The average duration of anesthesia was  $463 \pm 159$  minutes (median  $435.0 \ [407.5-482.5]$  minutes), and the surgical time averaged  $307 \pm 64$  minutes (median  $320.0 \ [262.5-358.5]$  minutes). Mean heart graft ischemia time was  $188 \pm 72$  minutes (median  $170.0 \ [141.25-185.0]$  minutes), while the duration of cardiopulmonary bypass averaged  $119 \pm 39$  minutes (median  $109.0 \ [96.25-125.0]$  minutes).

Maximum doses of sympathomimetic cardiotonic agents administered during surgery included dopamine hydrochloride in all patients (n = 26, 100%) at  $6.2 \pm 2.0 \text{ mcg/kg/min}$  (median 6.0 [6.0–7.5]), adrenaline hydrochloride in 25 patients (96.2%) at  $42.7 \pm 18.2$  (median 40.0 [40.0; 60.0]) ng/kg/min, and dobutamine hydrochloride in 5 patients (19.2%) at  $4.0 \pm 1.4 \text{ mcg/kg/min}$  (median 4.0 [4.0–4.0]).

In the preperfusion period, the VA-ECMO centrifuge pump speed was  $6778 \pm 358$  rpm (median 6600 [6600-6800]), and the extracorporeal blood flow rate was  $2.90 \pm 0.44$  L/min (median 2.80 [2.60-3.23] L/min). At the end of surgery, these parameters were  $5274 \pm 711$  rpm (median 4950 [4725-5975]) and  $1.65 \pm 0.75$  L/min (median 1.50 [1.13-2.23] L/min), respectively.

Early cardiac graft dysfunction with hemodynamic compromise was observed in 5 recipients (19.2%), necessitating continued VA-ECMO in the postperfusion period at blood flow rates exceeding 2.0 L/min (range 2.3-3.7 L/min; mean  $3.2 \pm 0.4$  L/min).

Perioperative blood loss averaged  $3499 \pm 3679$  mL (median 2000 [1550–4400] mL), requiring transfusion of red blood cell mass (1735.0 ± 1173.2 mL; median 1240.0 [1052.25–1798.25]), fresh frozen plasma (2413.2 ± 2012.9 mL; median 1820.0 [1066.25–2495.0]), and platelet mass (276.4 ± 135.9 mL; median 240.0 [157.5–397.5]).

Postoperative mechanical ventilation lasted for  $12.6 \pm 6.9$  hours (median 12.0 [9.5–16.5]). In patients without early cardiac graft dysfunction (n = 21), VA-ECMO support continued postoperatively for  $1.8 \pm 0.4$  days (median 1.8 [1.6–1.9]), while in patients with early graft dysfunction (n = 5), support lasted 4–7 days (mean 5.7  $\pm$  0.7 days).

Seven patients (26.9%) required postoperative renal replacement therapy via continuous veno-venous hemofiltration. Four recipients (15.3%) died in hospital due to multiple organ failure, which developed in two cases with and in two cases without early cardiac graft dysfunction.

#### DISCUSSION

In recent years, the number of patients on HTWL has increased significantly – by more than 25% – leading to longer waiting times and increased risk of severe adverse cardiovascular events. Both ambulatory and hospitalized patients awaiting HT face an elevated risk of sudden cardiac death due to life-threatening arrhythmias, such as ventricular tachycardia, ventricular fibrillation, and bradyarrhythmias, particularly in the absence of an implantable cardioverter-defibrillator (ICD) [10]. Notably, the underlying etiology – whether dilated or ischemic cardiomyopathy – does not significantly influence the incidence of sudden death in this population.

Sudden CA accounts for approximately 40–70% of all fatalities among patients awaiting HT [10]. Although ICD use can reduce mortality during the waiting period by 13% or more, the overall death rate from sudden CA in this group remains high [11]. One contributing factor is the limited indication for ICD implantation in patients with CHF classified as NYHA functional class IV, given the higher proportion of non-sudden cardiac deaths in this subset [12]. According to international guidelines, ICD implantation is recommended for potential HT recipients managed on an outpatient basis (class IIa, level of evidence C) [13].

ECPR enables not only the rapid restoration of systemic circulation and correction of blood gas abnormalities but also provides a critical window for identifying the underlying causes of sudden CA and implementing targeted therapeutic interventions [2]. The adoption of ECPR has been associated with improved early and long-term survival rates and better neurological outcomes compared to conventional CPR using manual or automated chest compressions [14].

However, the efficacy of ECPR varies considerably across studies, with reported rates of favorable neurological outcomes and survival ranging from 0.33% to 70.4% and 0.24% to 43.1%, respectively [3]. According to the International Extracorporeal Life Support Organization (ELSO) registry, a total of 28,007 ECPR cases involving adults, children, and neonates have been recorded, accounting for 12.6% of all documented extracorporeal life support cases (n = 222,383) [15]. Reported survival rates following ECPR were 30% in adults, 41% in children, and 42% in neonates. The majority of these CA cases occurred in the hospital [15].

Neurological outcomes and survival rates following ECPR for in-hospital cardiac arrest (IHCA) are generally superior to those for out-of-hospital cardiac arrest (OHCA), with reported survival ranging from 20% to 40% [16]. The success of ECPR in IHCA is strongly influenced by the duration and quality of resuscitative efforts [17]. A study by Bartos et al. (2020) demonstrated that ECPR initiated within 60 minutes of CA was associated with significantly better neurological and functional outcomes compared to conventional CPR alone [18]. Moreover, the study indicated that for every additional 10 minutes of CPR beyond the initial 30 minutes, patient survival decreased by approximately 25%.

The effectiveness of ECPR is further modulated by several factors, including the severity of initial metabolic disorders (e.g., blood pH, lactate levels), patient age, adherence to targeted temperature management protocols, and the timeliness of coronary angiography and subsequent interventions (e.g., angioplasty, stenting) in cases of coronary artery-related CA [2]. Advanced age and prolonged periods of hemodynamic instability prior to ECPR initiation are particularly detrimental, often leading to poorer outcomes during both resuscitation and subsequent intensive care management [19].

Given the multifactorial nature of ECPR outcomes in IHCA, the RESCUE-IHCA mortality prediction score was developed to assess prognosis. This score integrates 6 risk factors: (1) age; (2) presence of pre-existing renal failure; (3) patient type (cardiac vs. non-cardiac; medical vs. surgical); (4) timing of CA (daytime vs. nighttime); (5) initial heart rhythm; and (6) total duration of the CA event [21]. The scoring system ranges from -11 to +13 points. A score above 0 indicates a greater than 50% likelihood of mortality, while scores of 20 and 40 are associated with mortality risks exceeding 75% and 85%, respectively.

ELSO has also developed standardized ECPR protocols tailored to various patient age groups, which include recommendations for post-resuscitation management [7].

The annual institutional volume of ECMO procedures has been identified as a key determinant of ECPR program effectiveness. Centers performing more than 30 ECMO procedures annually report improved survival outcomes, likely attributable to greater cannulation proficiency and more experienced multidisciplinary patient management [22]. To enhance ECPR efficacy, it is recommended to establish specialized ECPR teams comprising an anesthesiologist-resuscitator, a physician trained in both percutaneous and surgical femoral vessel cannulation, and a cardiologist with expertise in acute cardiac care and heart failure management [23]. Integration with cardiogenic shock teams is also considered essential.

However, the widespread implementation of ECPR remains limited by its substantial cost, with treatment expenses ranging from  $\notin 12,000$  to  $\notin 156,000$  per patient. This high financial burden restricts access to ECPR in healthcare institutions with constrained budgetary resources [3].

Our study demonstrates the high efficacy of ECPR in both HT candidates and recipients who experience IHCA. At our center, the annual volume of VA-ECMO procedures – including those performed in the context of heart and lung transplantation, post-cardiac acute heart failure, and other emergent conditions – exceeds 80 cases. This extensive experience with percutaneous femoral cannulation for VA-ECMO, used as short-term mechanical circulatory support (MCS) prior to HT, has enabled the rapid initiation of extracorporeal support during ongoing manual or mechanical chest compressions as part of a comprehensive CPR protocol.

Irreversible brain injury and multi-organ dysfunction were both successfully prevented in 73.2% of patients,

creating the conditions necessary for urgent primary or repeat heart transplantation in 63.4% of cases. Despite the critical nature of the pre-transplant period, the use of temporary MCS, reliance on donor hearts with one or more expanded criteria in 61.5% of cases, and occurrence of early graft dysfunction in 19.2% of recipients, the inhospital survival rate following transplantation reached 84.7%. These outcomes are comparable to, and in some cases exceed, the survival rates reported by other leading transplant centers performing emergency HT supported by VA-ECMO [24–26].

# CONCLUSION

- 1. ECPR with peripheral VA-ECMO results in complete cardiac recovery in 100% of cases of IHCA.
- 2. The incidence of irreversible brain damage in patients who underwent ECPR following witnessed (by medical or nursing staff, patients) IHCA is 26.8%.
- 3. In 73.2% of patients who experienced witnessed IHCA followed by ECPR, the post-resuscitation period is marked by complete recovery of consciousness and the absence of severe multi-organ complications. This enabled subsequent HT (63.4%) or hospital discharge (9.8%).
- 4. In-hospital survival after emergency HT in recipients who underwent ECPR prior to transplantation was 84.7%.

# The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# **10-YEAR EXPERIENCE IN ORTHOTOPIC HEART TRANSPLANTATION IN KUZBASS**

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Background. Orthotopic heart transplantation (OHT) is the gold standard treatment for individuals with endstage heart failure (HF), providing the best survival and quality of life. In Russia, the number of OHT procedures and transplantation of other organs have significantly increased in recent years. At the same time, there is lower perioperative mortality and higher survival in the post-OHT long-period. Objective: to analyze OHT outcomes in Kuzbass over a 10-year period. Material and methods. From January 2013 to December 2023, 72 OHTs (36.7% of those included on the heart transplant waiting list (HTWL) over a 10-year period) were performed at the Research Institute for Complex Issues of Cardiovascular Diseases. Recipient median age was 56 [50.5; 61.0] years, which included 61 men and 11 women. Among the etiologic causes of end-stage HF, ischemic cardiomyopathy was predominant in 65.3% (n = 47) of recipients, whereas dilated cardiomyopathy was present in 25% (n = 18) of recipients. Other cardiomyopathies accounted for 9.7% (n = 7). Results. A total of 196 patients with end-stage HF were included in the HTWL over a 10-year period; 74 (37.8%) of these did not live to get a transplant. The waitlist time was 173 days (5.77 months) – which is slightly longer than the average waiting time of 3.9 months for OHT according to data from European registries. Waitlist mortality was 19.6%. The 10-year average in-hospital mortality rates among patients after OHT were 16.7% and 1-year mortality was 15.3%. These rates are consistent with worldwide trends for this high-tech medical care. Cumulative survival at the end of 2023 was 51.4% (36 patients after OHT). Median length of stay in the hospital was 28 days, with 14 days spent in the intensive care unit. Donor heart anoxia time was 112 [85.25; 170.5] minutes, and cardiopulmonary bypass time was 145 [124; 169.5] minutes. Ten patients (13.9%) required extracorporeal membrane oxygenation, while 8.3% of cases required extracorporeal homeostasis correction. Conclusion. The 10 years of successful experience at the Research Institute for Complex Issues of Cardiovascular Diseases validates the need to develop the OHT program in Kuzbass as a gold standard for treating end-stage HF.

Keywords: heart transplantation, heart failure, organ donation.

Heart failure (HF) is a rapidly escalating global public health concern, currently affecting an estimated 64 million individuals worldwide. It remains associated with high rates of mortality and morbidity, as well as significantly diminished quality of life [1]. The prevalence of HF is expected to continue rising, largely due to the ageing population [1]. In the Russian Federation, data from the ERA-CHF study, a representative sample from the European part of the country, also highlight a marked increase in the prevalence of chronic heart failure (CHF) over the past 16 years, rising from 4.9% to 8.5%. Moreover, the absolute number of individuals diagnosed with CHF more than doubled during this period, increasing from 7.18 million to 12.35 million. The proportion of patients with severe CHF, classified as New York Heart Association (NYHA) functional classes (FC) III-IV, rose from 1.8% to 3.1%, corresponding to an increase from 1.76 million to 4.5 million individuals [2].

Despite advances in therapeutic strategies for HF, the proportion of patients progressing to end-stage heart failure (ESHF) continues to rise. According to large meta-analyses, nearly 10% of patients reach ESHF, defined by NYHA FC III–IV symptoms, despite receiving optimal medical therapy [3]. ESHF is associated with a high 1-year mortality, exceeding 50% following diagnosis [3]. For patients with severe HF, orthotopic heart transplantation (OHT) and left ventricular assist devices (LVADs) remain the most effective and widely recommended treatment options [3].

According to the World Health Organization's Global Observatory on Donation and Transplantation, organ transplantation is performed in 104 countries, encom-

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passing approximately 90% of the global population [4]. Recent data indicate that over 150,000 organ transplants are conducted annually worldwide, representing a 52% increase since 2010<sup>1</sup>. OHT continues to be the gold standard treatment for ESHF, offering the most favorable survival outcomes and quality of life improvements [5]. Over 6,000 heart transplants (HT) are performed globally each year, with a 1-year post-transplant survival rate of about 85% and a current median survival exceeding 12 years [6, 7].

Reports from the International Thoracic Organ Transplant Registry of the International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation demonstrate both an upward trend in OHT procedures and concurrent improvements in postoperative outcomes over recent decades [8]. However, widespread implementation of HT programs remains constrained by factors such as donor organ shortages and the complexities of waiting list management in realworld clinical settings.

In recent years, Russia has seen a significant increase in the number of heart and other solid organ transplants. This trend has been accompanied by decreased perioperative mortality and higher long-term survival after HT [9, 10]. A notable milestone in the development of transplantology in the Russian Federation was achieved in Kuzbass, where the first HT procedure was successfully performed on January 31, 2013, under the leadership of Professor Leonid Barbarash. Fellow of the Russian Academy of Sciences and founder of the Kemerovo Cardiology Center. With active support from the Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs (Moscow), headed by Professor Sergey Gautier, also a Fellow of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Kemerovo became the first city in Russia with a population under 1 million to establish and implement a HT program.

**Objective of the study:** to analyze OHT outcomes in Kuzbass over a 10-year period.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

Within the framework of a registry-based study conducted at the Research Institute for Complex Issues of Cardiovascular Diseases (Kemerovo), data were collected and analyzed during both retrospective and prospective phases. The dataset included information from the heart transplant waiting list (HTWL) and the registry of OHT recipients. The study was conducted in accordance with Good Clinical Practice standards and the Declaration of Helsinki Principles. The study protocol was reviewed and approved by the joint local ethics committee of the Institute. The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Recipients enrolled in the study were diagnosed with end-stage CHF and met the established clinical criteria and indications for OHT, in accordance with the national guidelines of the Russian Federation. These criteria included: refractoriness to optimal pharmacological therapy with a predicted 1-year OHT-free survival <50%; left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) <20%; pulmonary artery occlusion pressure >20 mmHg; decreased peak oxygen consumption (VO<sub>2</sub> peak) <12 ml/kg/min in patients not receiving beta-blockers, or <14 ml/kg/min in those receiving the maximum tolerated dose. Additional indications comprised the presence of severe myocardial ischemia in patients with coronary artery disease for whom revascularization (via coronary artery bypass grafting or percutaneous coronary intervention) was not feasible; and recurrent, refractory, life-threatening arrhythmias unresponsive to electrophysiological interventions, including catheter ablation or implantation of an implantable cardioverter-defibrillator (ICD) [9, 11, 12].

# The main contraindications to inclusion in the HTWL were [11, 12]:

- Elevated pulmonary vascular resistance >5 Wood units, unresponsive to inhaled vasodilators;
- Body mass index (BMI) greater >35 kg/m<sup>2</sup>;
- Age over 80 years amidst comorbidities that increase perioperative risk and compromise long-term prognosis;
- Severe atherosclerosis of the carotid, cerebral, and/ or peripheral arteries associated with organ or tissue ischemia for which surgical correction is not feasible;
- Pulmonary hypertension characterized by a transpulmonary gradient >15 mmHg or pulmonary vascular resistance >5 Wood units, refractory to pharmacologic therapy (e.g., nitric oxide, sildenafil) and/or mechanical circulatory support;
- Severe liver and/or kidney dysfunction;
- Autoimmune diseases, including systemic lupus erythematosus, sarcoidosis, or systemic amyloidosis.

Between January 2013 and December 2023, a total of 72 OHTs were performed at the Research Institute for Complex Issues of Cardiovascular Diseases, representing 36.7% of patients included in HTWL over the 10-year period. Recipient median age was 56 years [IQR: 50.5–61.0], with a predominance of males (n = 61, 84.7%) and 11 females (15.3%) (Table 1).

Ischemic cardiomyopathy was the leading etiology of ESHF) present in 47 recipients (65.3%), followed by dilated cardiomyopathy in 18 (25.0%), and other forms of cardiomyopathy in 7 (9.7%). The majority of patients exhibited a traditional cardiovascular risk profile: arterial hypertension (n = 51, 61.3%), hyperlipidemia (n = 40, 55.6%), prior coronary revascularization (n = 38, 52.8%), and cardiac arrhythmias. Among those with

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> https://apps.who.int/gb/ebwha/pdf\_files/WHA75/A75\_41-ru.pdf.

arrhythmias, atrial fibrillation or atrial flutter was observed in 28 (38.9%), and ventricular arrhythmias in 43 (59.7%) patients.

ICDs were present in 24 patients (33.3%), and an additional 7 patients (9.7%) had ICDs with cardiac resynchronization therapy (CRT-D). Functional capacity, assessed using the 6-minute walk test, corresponded to NYHA FC III in 56 patients (77.8%) and IV in 16 patients (22.2%). All recipients were classified as United Network for Organ Sharing (UNOS) status 2 (urgency on the HTWL) at the time of transplantation.

Surgical technique was predominantly biatrial (n = 71, 98.6%), with only one case (1.4%) performed using the bicaval technique.

In-hospital and 1-year follow-up endpoints were assessed:

- In-hospital (transplanted heart arrhythmia and conduction disorders; graft rejection and dysfunction; infectious complications; bleeding; multiple organ dysfunction syndrome (MODS); kidney failure; acute stroke/transient ischemic attack (AS/TIA); myocardial infarction (MI); need for extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO); tacrolimus overdose; death),
- 1-year follow-up (transplanted heart arrhythmia and conduction disorders; graft rejection and dysfunction; infectious complications; bleeding; MODS; kidney failure; AS/TIA; MI; diabetes mellitus; oncologic diseases; chronic/acute kidney failure; need for ECMO; transplant coronary artery disease (TCAD); tacrolimus overdose; rehospitalizations; death).

Statistical processing was carried out using STATIS-TICA 10.0 software (StatSoft Inc., USA). To assess the conformity of data distribution to normal distribution, the Lilliefors test was employed. A p-value >0.05 indicated normal distribution of the variable. A symmetry test was used to support distributional assumptions.

For variables not meeting the normality criteria, data were presented as median (Me) along with lower and upper quartiles [LQ; UQ]. A p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant. The Mann–Whitney U test was applied for comparisons between independent groups, while the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used for dependent samples. Survival analysis was performed using the Kaplan–Meier method to estimate survival functions.

# **RESULTS OF THE STUDY**

Over the 10-year observation period, there was a consistent increase in the number of OHT performed in Kuzbass. In 2023, a record-high number of procedures was achieved, with 13 OHTs conducted, including 2 performed as single-step interventions (Fig. 1).

HTWL included an average of 29.6 patients per year (range: 21–44 patients) (Fig. 2). Between January 2013 and December 2023, a total of 196 ESHF patients were listed for OHT. Of these, 74 patients (37.8%) died before undergoing transplantation. The average waitlist durati-

**Recipient characteristics** 

Table 1

Indicator		Result
Age, years Me [LQ;UQ]		56 [50.5; 61.0]
Men, n (%)		61 (84.7)
Women, n (%)		11 (14.3)
HTWL time, days		140 [48.0; 339.8]
UNOS-2, n (%)		72 (100)
Ge	enesis of heart failur	re .
ICM, n (%)		47 (65.3)
DCM, n (%)		18 (25.0)
Other CMs, n (%)		7 (9.7)
Medica	al history and risk fa	actors
CHE EC $m(0/)$	FC III	56 (77.8)
$C\Pi\Gamma\GammaC, \Pi(70)$	FC IV	16 (22.2)
AH, n (%)		51 (61.3)
Afib-AF, n (%)		28 (38.9)
VA, n (%)		43 (59.7)
Heart block, n (%)		21 (29.2)
PM, n (%)		5 (6.9)
ICD, n (%)		24 (33.3)
CRT-D, n (%)		9 (12.5)
PCI, n (%)		27 (37.5)
CABG, n (%)		11 (15.3)
DM/CI, n (%)		13 (18.1)
Hyperlipidemia/dyslipidemia, n (%)		40 (55.6)
CKD C3a/C3b, n (%)		14 (19.4)
AS, n (%)		8 (11.1)
COPD/BA, n (%)		5 (6.9)
Smoking, n (%)		8 (11.1)
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup> Me [LQ;UQ]		26.4 [22.7; 29.1]

*Note:* HTWL, heart transplant waiting list; UNOS, United Network for Organ Sharing; ICM, ischemic cardiomyopathy; DCM, dilated cardiomyopathy; CMs, cardiomyopathies; FC, functional class; CHF, chronic heart failure; AH, arterial hypertension; Afib, atrial fibrillation; AF, atrial flutter; VA, ventricular arrhythmia; PM, pacemaker; ICD, implantable cardioverter-defibrillators; CRT-D, cardiac resynchronization therapy with defibrillator; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; CABG, coronary artery bypass grafting; DM, diabetes mellitus; CI, carbohydrate intolerance; CKD, chronic kidney disease; AS, acute stroke; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; BA, bronchial asthma; BMI, body mass index.

on was 173 days (5.77 months), which slightly exceeds the mean waiting time reported in European registries (3.9 months) [13].

Overall HTWL mortality was 19.6%, with the lowest annual mortality observed in 2014 (6.7%) and 2023 (7.5%), and the highest in 2019 (43.3%) and 2020 (37.5%). The elevated mortality rates during 2019–2020 were attributed to the COVID-19 pandemic, particularly among patients with ESHF. Polynomial trend analysis revealed a decline in waitlist mortality from 2021 onward, alongside improved survival to transplantation. This trend is likely associated with introduction of novel

therapeutic agents, such as angiotensin receptor–neprilysin inhibitors (ARNIs) and sodium-glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitors (SGLT2i), in the management of HF patients with reduced ejection fraction (HFrEF).

Over the 10-year period, in-hospital mortality following OHT was 16.7%, and 1-year mortality was 15.3%. These outcomes are consistent with global benchmarks for this type of high-complexity intervention [16, 17]. As of the end of 2023, cumulative survival stood at 51.4%, with 36 OHT recipients still alive.

Median hospital stay post-transplant was 28 days, including a median intensive care unit (ICU) stay of 14 days (Table 2). During the operative and perioperative phases, the median ischemic time of the donor heart (an-



Fig. 1. Average survival between 2013 and 2023. OHT, orthotopic heart transplant; Hosp. M., hospital mortality; Ann. M., annual mortality



Fig. 2. Trends in the number of HTWL patients between 2013 and 2023

Indicator	Result
CPB time, min	145 [124; 169.5]
Donor heart anoxia time, min	112 [85.25; 170.5]
Surgery time, min	283 [247; 330]
Length of stay in the intensive care unit, day	14 [9; 28]
Hospitalization, day	28 [23; 36]
Need for PM, n (%)	37 (51.4)
ECMO use, n (%)	10 (13.9)
Extracorporeal correction of homeostasis, n (%)	6 (8.3)

# Operative and perioperative indicators of heart transplantation

Table 2

*Note:* CPB, cardiopulmonary bypass; PM, pacemaker; ECMO, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation.

oxia) was 112 minutes [85.25; 170.5], while the median duration of cardiopulmonary bypass was 145 minutes [124; 169.5].

ECMO was required in 10 patients (13.9%), and 8.3% of cases required additional extracorporeal therapies.

Among the non-fatal complications during hospitalization, heart arrhythmias and conduction disorders (such as atrial fibrillation, ventricular extrasystole, and His bundle branch block) were the most prevalent, along with MODS, typically observed in patients experiencing cellular rejection or graft dysfunction (Fig. 3).

At the 1-year follow-up, 48 patients remained under observation, while 24 patients had passed away (including those who died during the hospitalization phase). Consequently, the analysis of therapy at the 1-year stage was based on the 48 surviving patients (Table 3). Notably, all patients showed high adherence to their prescribed specific therapy.

During the hospitalization phase, 100% of patients received specific immunosuppressive therapy. Statins and antiplatelet medications were consistently prescribed to all patients, both during the hospitalization period and at the 1-year follow-up. In the early postoperative period, 50% of patients required vasopressor medications, while 62.5% received inotropic agents. Selective cyclic guanosine monophosphate inhibitors were administered to 29.2% of patients during the hospitalization phase.

The use of loop diuretics decreased by the 1-year follow-up, with only 18.8% of patients requiring them (down from 76.4% during hospitalization). Similarly, the use of amiodarone decreased from 20.8% during hospitalization to 4.2% at the 1-year stage. While sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT2) inhibitors were not used during the hospitalization phase, they were prescribed to one patient at the 1-year follow-up.

By 1 year, 5 patients (10.4%) had been switched to everolimus (a selective inhibitor of the mammalian target of rapamycin, mTOR), and 2 patients (4.2%) were receiving corticosteroid therapy.

At 1-year follow-up, the most common non-fatal complications were cellular graft rejection (26.7%) and graft dysfunction (21.7%). In addition, TCAD was identified in 15% of patients, while signs of MI were noted in 5% (Fig. 4). Importantly, the incidence of secondary infectious complications showed a significant decline compared to the hospital phase (8.2% vs. 16.5%, p = 0.023).

A detailed analysis of mortality patterns revealed that in 2015 and 2018, both in-hospital and 1-year mortality were zero. In the years 2017, 2019, and 2021, zero mortality was recorded exclusively during the in-hospital phase. Zero 1-year mortality following OHT was observed in 2016 and 2020 (Figs. 5 and 6). The highest in-hospital mortality rates over the 10-year period were recorded in 2016 (60%) and 2020 (43%), which were also associated with increased rates of non-fatal complications during these years (Figs. 3 and 5).



Fig. 3. Non-fatal complications during in-hospital follow-up. MODS, multiple organ dysfunction syndrome; AS, Acute stroke; TIA, transient ischemic attack

Trend analysis showed a consistent annual increase in the number of OHT procedures, accompanied by a rising trend in cumulative mortality (in-hospital + 1-year) (Fig. 6). In-hospital mortality trend remained relatively

Table	3
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Therapy (groups/drug)	In hospital $(n = 72)$ , n (%)	At 1-year stage $(n = 48)$ , n (%)		
Specific therapy				
Induction of immunosuppression by an anti-interleukin-2 receptor antibody (basiliximab)	72 (100)	_		
Calcineurin inhibitor (tacrolimus)	72 (100)	48 (100)		
Mycophenolates	72 (100)	48 (100)		
Selective mTOR serine-threonine kinase inhibitor (everolimus)	0 (0)	5 (10.4)		
Corticosteroids	72 (100)	2 (4.2)		
Antibacterials	72 (100)	27 (56.3)		
Antifungals	32 (44.4)	26 (54.2)		
Antivirals	72 (100)	26 (54.2)		
Acetylsalicylic acid	72 (100)	48 (100)		
Statins	72 (100)	48 (100)		
RAAS inhibitors	37 (51.4)	26 (54.2)		
Other therap	)y			
Vasopressors	36 (50)	0 (0)		
Inotropes	45 (62.5)			
Selective inhibitor of cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP)	21 (29.2)	0 (0)		
UFH	34 (47.2)	0 (0)		
Loop diuretics	55 (76.4)	9 (18.8)		
Calcium channel blockers	7 (9.7)	4 (8.3)		
Amiodarone	15 (20.8)	2 (4.2)		
OAC	2 (2.8)	2 (4.2)		
BB	0 (0)	2 (4.2)		
ARNI	0 (0)	1 (2.1)		
SGLT2i	0 (0)	1 (2.1)		

#### Therapy after OHT (hospital and 1-year stage)

*Note:* RAAS, renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system; cGMP, cyclic guanosine monophosphate; UFH, unfractionated heparin; OAC, oral anticoagulant; BB, beta blockers; ARNI, angiotensin receptor neprilysin inhibitor; SGLT2i, sodium-glucose co-transporter 2 inhibitor.



Fig. 4. Non-fatal complications during 1-year follow-up. TCAD, transplant coronary artery disease; MODS, multiple organ dysfunction syndrome; MI, myocardial infarction; AS, acute stroke; TIA, transient ischemic attack; CKD, chronic kidney disease; AKI, acute kidney injury, DM, diabetes mellitus

stable without significant fluctuations. According to Kaplan–Meier survival analysis, the median post-OHT survival among patients with more than 5 years of follow-up was 3.07 years [1.19; 6.09] (Fig. 7).



Fig. 5. Trends in 1-year patient mortality after heart transplantation in the period between 2013 and 2023



Fig. 6. Polynomial trend analysis of patient mortality after heart transplantation between 2013 and 2023



Fig. 7. Kaplan-Meier survival curve

#### DISCUSSION

Kuzbass is a major industrial region where circulatory system diseases (CSD) consistently rank as the leading cause of morbidity among the adult population, accounting for 20.6% of the total disease burden. According to data from Kemerovostat (a regional branch of the Federal State Statistics Service for Kemerovo Oblast), HF mortality in the region reached 532.7 per 100,000 population in 2023 – representing 38.2% of all deaths. However, this reflects an 18.8% decrease compared to 2022<sup>2</sup>. HF remains a prevalent and significant contributor to the CSD burden in Kuzbass, reaching critical levels in 2023 and highlighting the need for the widespread implementation of modern therapeutic and surgical interventions.

ESHF prevalence among HFrEF patients can reach up to 40%, making the evaluation for inclusion in HTWL a crucial consideration for this patient group [16, 17]. Globally, the HT rate in 2022 was about 1.5 transplants per million population<sup>3</sup>, whereas in Russia, this figure stood slightly higher at 1.7 per million. Remarkably, Kuzbass recorded 5 HTs per million population in 2023, over 2.9 times the national average.

In 2023, 16 HT centers were operational across Russia, collectively performing 381 HTs – an increase of 73 procedures (+19.16%) compared to the previous year. From the beginning of 2004 through December 2023, a

total of 3,275 OHT have been performed in the Russian Federation.<sup>4</sup>

The estimated need for OHT is typically calculated based on a benchmark of 10 HTs per million population annually. With a population of approximately 2.6 million in 2023, Kuzbass has a projected requirement for 25 OHT procedures per year. Despite a consistent influx of patients into HTWL and its regular updates, a persistent challenge remains the region's low donor activity. This is primarily attributed to factors such as the vast geographical size of Kuzbass and limited transportation accessibility, which in turn restricts the viability of donor organs due to prolonged heart anoxia time. The shortage of donors, coupled with a growing number of eligible candidates, continues to limit access to heart transplantation not only in many regions of the Russian Federation but globally as well [18–22].

According to global statistics, the highest mortality among OHT recipients is observed within the first 6 months post-transplant, with the hospital stay representing the most critical period [23]. In this context, survival outcomes at our center – 83.3% in-hospital survival, 84.7% 1-year survival, and 54.2% 5-year survival – are comparable to those reported by other prominent cardiac surgery centers across Russia. For instance, the Meshalkin National Medical Research Center in Novosibirsk documented an 82% in-hospital survival and 69% 5-year survival over a 10-year period encompassing 66 OHTs

<sup>3</sup> https://www.statista.com/

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> https://rustransplant.com/

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Public Report, Sergey Gautier, December 2023; https://rustransplant.com/

[19]. Similarly, the Sklifosovsky Research Institute for Emergency Medicine in Moscow reported an 82% in-hospital survival from a cohort of 70 OHTs [20]. In Krasnodar, the Ochapovsky Regional Clinical Hospital achieved a 1-year survival of 83.1% based on 230 OHTs performed between 2010 and 2023 [21].

# CONCLUSION

Modern pharmacological therapy, guided by current clinical guidelines, has significantly improved symptom control and survival rates in HF patients with preserved ejection fraction. However, the population of patients progressing to ESHF continues to grow. The successful outcomes achieved over a 10-year period at the Research Institute for Complex Issues of Cardiovascular Diseases highlight the necessity of further developing the HT program in Kuzbass, reinforcing its role as the gold standard for the treatment of ESHF. However, long-term success is contingent not only upon surgical expertise and institutional experience but also on comprehensive recipient preparation by a multidisciplinary team, effective organization of the donor network, and implementation of continuous, structured long-term follow-up for transplant recipients.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# POLYPHARMACY, THERAPEUTIC INERTIA, AND ADHERENCE OF HEART RECIPIENTS TO DRUG THERAPY

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Heart transplantation remains the gold standard treatment for end-stage heart failure. Lifelong immunosuppressive and adjuvant therapy requires constant medical follow-up in order to optimize treatment regimens and increase the adherence of heart recipients to treatment. **Objective:** to study and adapt a method for systematic assessment of the complexity of treatment regimen using the MRCI index, and its link to long-term prognosis in heart recipients. Materials and methods. Results of the study were obtained by analyzing the data of heart recipients observed at the Consultative & Diagnostic Department, Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs (Shumakov Center). The Medication Regimen Complexity Index (MRCI) was used to assess drug therapy. In our study, polypharmacy was defined as taking five or more medications, and high-risk polypharmacy was defined as the use of more than eight medications. The heart recipients were divided into two groups based on how many medications they received daily. Results. The study included patients observed at the Consultative & Diagnostic Department, Shumakov Center from January 2008 to December 2017. The number of drugs taken by the patient at year 5 of follow-up was  $9.2 \pm 4.2$ . During the conducted data analysis, the mean total MRCI score was  $48.72 \pm 19.15$  (from 32 to 70); medications used to treat comorbidities accounted for 42.9% of the total MRCI score, and immunosuppressive therapy accounted for 28.7%. The total MRCI score in the high-risk polypharmacy group was  $58.49 \pm 17.41$ ; medications used to treat comorbidities accounted for 50.27% of the total MRCI score. The analysis revealed a correlation between the total MRCI score and the frequency of hospitalizations. Conclusions. Patient adherence to prescribed treatment is a predictor of favorable prognosis of event-free long-term survival, but low adherence and therapeutic inertness are associated with decreased quality of life, more frequent hospitalizations and higher risk of adverse events. With proper outpatient follow-up of this patient cohort, there were no significant differences in survival in the polypharmacy and high-risk polypharmacy group.

Keywords: heart transplantation, polypharmacy, comorbidity, immunosuppressive therapy, outpatient follow-up.

## INTRODUCTION

In the past decade, the number of heart transplant (HT) recipients requiring dynamic outpatient follow-up has increased, driven by the rise in transplant activity. This follow-up is essential to monitor immunosuppressive therapy, assess graft function, address complications from long-term immunosuppressant use, and manage and prevent concomitant conditions [1].

Currently, the consultative and diagnostic department at the Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs (Shumakov Center) oversees more than 1500 HT recipients from various regions across the Russian Federation [2]. With the extensive experience and personalized care approach developed, long-term survival rates have significantly improved, now exceeding an average of 12 years [3]. Managing HT recipients involves lifelong immunosuppressive therapy combined with medications to prevent the side effects of long-term immunosuppression, as well as adjuvant therapies for treating concomitant conditions [4]. The long-term follow-up of HT recipients is influenced by factors such as interaction between the transplanted organ and the recipient, quality of immunosuppressive therapy and its side effects, and external factors, as well as the patient's genotype and cognitive abilities [5]. In this regard, evaluating both the adequacy of prescriptions and the patient's adherence to medication becomes crucial.

The term "medication regimen complexity" refers to the multiple characteristics of a patient's prescribed medication regimen [6]. Studies have shown that noncompliance with immunosuppressive therapy among HT recipients is as high as 19%, with medication administ-

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ration errors for adjuvant therapy exceeding 43%. These issues are primarily due to the need for daily administration of a large number of medications [7].

A quantitative assessment of medication regimen complexity can be performed using the Medication Regimen Complexity Index (MRCI), based on a specific patient's treatment plan. According to several studies, the MRCI has shown potential as an effective tool for preventing adverse events in HT recipients experiencing polypharmacy [8–10].

The **objective of our study** was to investigate and adapt a systematic approach for assessing treatment regimen complexity using the MRCI, and to explore its relationship with long-term outcomes in HT recipients.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

The results of the study were based on analysis of outcomes in HT recipients under follow-up care at the Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs (Shumakov Center). Outpatient monitoring was conducted by cardiologists from Shumakov Center's consultative and diagnostic department in collaboration with healthcare providers in the patients' place of residence. When necessary, remote consultations were organized through the Shumakov Center's telemedicine system to provide support to local physicians. Adjustments to drug therapy were made on an outpatient basis based on clinical and instrumental examination data. In cases where hospitalization was warranted, patients were admitted to the cardiology ward of Shumakov Center.

All patients underwent routine follow-up examinations, which included clinical evaluations, complete blood counts, biochemical assays, monitoring of blood levels of immunosuppressive drugs, echocardiography, as well as annual coronary angiography and endomyocardial biopsy.

Socio-demographic data – including region of residence, living conditions, marital status, and educational level – along with case histories and outpatient records from patients followed at Shumakov Center, were collected retrospectively. Recipients included in this study were treated in accordance with established clinical guidelines [11].

An adapted and modified version of MRCI was used in this study. To calculate the index, medications prescribed to HT recipients were categorized into three primary groups (Table 1).

Non-pharmacological supplements and herbal preparations were excluded from the analysis and were not recommended for patient use.

All patients received multicomponent immunosuppressive therapy, which typically included a calcineurin inhibitor (tacrolimus) in combination with an antimetabolite (mycophenolic acid or mycophenolate mofetil) or a proliferation signal inhibitor (everolimus), as well as methylprednisolone. The dosage of immunosuppressive drugs was based on the post-transplant period and the assessed risk of graft rejection.

Therapeutic drug monitoring was conducted to maintain target serum levels of immunosuppressive medications. The levels were measured using a Cobas e411 analyzer (Roche, Switzerland) via electrochemiluminescence immunoassay.

According to the literature, polypharmacy is defined as the concurrent use of five or more medications, while high-risk polypharmacy refers to the intake of more than eight medications [12]. Based on the number of medications received daily, HT recipients were divided into two groups: Group 1 included patients receiving 5 to 8 medications per day, and Group 2 included recipients taking 9 or more medications daily [13].

Patients were classified as comorbid if they had two or more coexisting medical conditions, irrespective of their primary diagnosis (ICD-10 code Z94.1, denoting heart transplant status).

MRCI was calculated for all medications self-administered by the patient or taken once daily. The MRCI score represents the cumulative total of points derived from three components evaluated for each individual medication: dosage form, frequency of administration, and any information about the drug. Table 2 summarizes the scoring criteria used to determine the total MRCI score [6].

Table 1

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	
Immunosuppressive drugs	Additional drugs (prevention of complications of	Drugs for the treatment	
	immunosuppressive therapy)	of comorbidities	
Cyclosporine/Tacrolimus	Calcium/Vitamin D	Antidepressants	
Everolimus	Statins	Antihypertensive drugs	
Methylprednisolone	Acetylsalicylic acid	Antiarrhythmic drugs	
Mycophenolate mofetil/	Antibacterials	Diabetes mellitus medications (oral)	
Mycophenolic acid	Antivirals	Anticoagulants	
	Antacids	Diuretics	
	Proton pump inhibitors	Others.	
	Osteoporosis medications		

Groups of medications used in recipients after heart transplantation

#### Table 2

Administration	Dosage forms	Score
route		
	Capsules/tablets	1
	Mouthwashes	2
01	Chewable lozenges	2
Oral	Powders/pellets	2
	Suspensions	
	Sublingual sprays/tablets	2
Local use pro-	Cream/gel/ointment	2
	Solutions	2
	Medicated dressings	2
ducts	Medicated pastes	3
	Plasters	2
	Sprays	1
Eye, nose and	Ear drops/creams/ointments	3
	Eye drops	3
	Eye gels/ointments	3
ear products	Nasal sprays	2
	Nasal drops/creams/ointments	3

# Section A: Dosage form and drug administration route

Administration	Dosage forms	Score
route		
	Metered-dose inhalers	4
	Nebulizer	5
	Turbuhalers	3
Inhalation use	Accuhalers	3
	Aerosols	3
	Oxygen concentrator	3
	Dry powder inhaler	3
	Enemas	2
	Ampoules/vials	4
	Gizzards	3
	Suppositories	2
Others	Injectable dosage forms	3
Oulers	Vaginal creams	2
	Dialysate	5
	Different types of analgesia administered by the patient alone (patient-controlled analgesia)	2

## Section B: Dosing frequency

Dosing frequency	Score
Once a day	1
Once a day if required	0.5
Twice a day	2
Twice a day if required	1
Three times a day	3
Three times a day if needed	1.5
Four times a day	4
Four times a day if needed	2
Every 12 hours	2.5
Every 12 hours as needed	1.5
Every 8 hours	3.5

Dosing frequency	Score
Every 8 hours as needed	2
Every 6 hours	4.5
Every 6 hours as needed	2.5
Every 4 hours	6.5
Every 4 hours as needed	3.5
Every 2 hours	12.5
Every 2 hours as needed	6.5
Use of medications as needed	0.5
Use of oxygen concentrator as needed	1
Oxygen use <15 hours per day	2
Oxygen use >15 hours per day	3

#### Section C: Additional directions

Additional administration directions	Score
Crush	1
Dissolve tablet/powder	1
Administer multiple tablets/inhalations simultaneously	1
Administer within a specified time interval	1

The minimum possible MRCI score for a patient is 1.5, which corresponds to a single tablet or capsule taken once daily as needed. The maximum MRCI score varies and is individually determined based on the patient's specific medication regimen.

Descriptive statistics are presented as arithmetic mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (M  $\pm$  SD). Kaplan–Meier survival analysis was employed to assess event-free survival, with statistical computations performed using IBM SPSS Statistics v23. Comparative analysis between

Additional administration directions	Score
Take with food	1
Take with liquids to wash down	1
Take as directed	2
Reduce/increase dose	2
Alternate dose depending on the time of day	2

groups was conducted using the log-rank test, Mann–Whitney U test, median test, Kruskal–Wallis test, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, and Jonckheere–Terpstra test. For all statistical tests, results were considered significant at p < 0.05.

# RESULTS

Between January 2008 and December 2017, a total of 771 HTs were performed at Shumakov Center. The study excluded cases involving retransplantation, inhospital mortality, and recipients under 18 years of age. So, 607 adult HT recipients under outpatient follow-up at Shumakov Center were included in the final analysis.

At the time of the study, recipient mean age was  $47.84 \pm 11.83$  years. The mean follow-up period post-transplant was  $8.2 \pm 2.8$  years, with a range from 2 to 15 years (Table 3).

The distribution of medications taken by HT recipients at different follow-up periods is presented in Table 4.

As shown in Table 4, by the end of the first year of follow-up, the average total number of medications taken by HT recipients had decreased slightly compared to the number prescribed at hospital discharge  $-6.8 \pm 4.2$  versus  $8.9 \pm 2.7$ , respectively. However, by year 5 of follow-up, this value had increased to  $9.2 \pm 4.2$  (p < 0.05).

When analyzing the average number of medications by drug group, it was observed that in Group 1, the number of immunosuppressive agents used decreased by year 5 (p = 0.02).

There was no statistically significant increase in the number of group 2 medications used during the followup period of 1 to 5 years (p = 0.42). However, a significant increase in the use of group 3 medications was observed by year 5 (p = 0.001). The average number of drugs prescribed for the management of comorbid conditions increased from  $1.2 \pm 1.3$  at the end of year 3 to  $4.3 \pm 2.5$  by year 5 of follow-up.

In assessing multicomponent therapy, MRCI was calculated for all recipients included in the study (Table 5).

The mean total MRCI score among the HT recipients was  $48.72 \pm 19.15$ , with individual scores ranging from 32 to 70. Medications prescribed for the management of comorbidities accounted for 42.9% of the total MRCI score, while immunosuppressive therapy contributed 28.7%.

To evaluate the prevalence of polypharmacy and high-risk polypharmacy, recipients were stratified into two groups based on the number of self-administered and single-use medications, and the groups were compared as presented in Table 6.

In the high-risk polypharmacy group, there was a significantly higher prevalence of arterial hypertension, diabetes mellitus, lipid metabolism disorders, and varying degrees of obesity compared to the lower-risk group (p < 0.05, Fig. 1).

To evaluate the treatment regimen complexity, the MRCI score was calculated for both groups. In the high-

Table 3

Indicators	Values
Age, years	$47.84 \pm 11.83$
Men, n (%)	526 (86.66%)
Women, n (%)	81 (13.34 %)
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	$26.87 \pm 4.78$
Pre-transplan	nt diagnosis
ICM , n (%)	237 (39.04%)
DCM, n (%)	334 (55.02%)
HCM $n(\%)$	7 (1.15%)

General characteristics of recipients (n = 607)

DCM, n (%)	334 (55.02%)		
HCM, n (%)	7 (1.15%)		
Others, n (%)	29 (4.77%)		
Pre-transplant UNOS status			
lA, n (%)	150 (2.47%)		
1B, n (%)	214 (35.26%)		
2, n (%)	243 (40.03%)		
Donor details			
Age, years	$42.25 \pm 11.6$		
Male, n (%)	470 (77.43%)		
Female, n (%)	137 (22.57%)		
$\mathbf{D}$ $\mathbf{M}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{I}$			

*Note:* BMI, body mass index; ICM, ischemic cardiomyopathy; DCM, dilated cardiomyopathy; HCM, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy.

Table 4

Number of medications taken by recipients after heart transplantation at different follow-up periods

Value	At the time of discharge	At year 1 post-HT	At year 3 post-HT	At year 5 post-HT
	after HT ( $n = 607$ )	(n = 604)	(n = 595)	(n = 571)
Total number of drugs	$8.9 \pm 2.7$	$6.8 \pm 4.2$	$8.8\pm4.3$	$9.2 \pm 4.2$
Group 1 drugs	$2.9 \pm 0.2$	$2.5\pm0.4$	$2.1 \pm 0.2$	$2.1 \pm 0.3$
Group 2 drugs	$4.8 \pm 1.2$	$3.0 \pm 1.3$	$2.7 \pm 1.6$	$2.8 \pm 1.4$
Group 3 drugs	$1.2 \pm 1.3$	$1.3 \pm 2.5$	$4.0 \pm 2.5$	$4.3 \pm 2.5$

Table 5

MRCI score of the three drug groups for all recipients included in the study (n = 607)

Drug group	Value
Drug group 1	$14.02\pm2.51$
Drug group 2	$13.76\pm4.58$
Drug group 3	$20.93 \pm 10.42$

risk polypharmacy group, the mean total MRCI score was  $58.49 \pm 17.41$ , with 50.27% of the total complexity attributed to medications prescribed for the management of comorbid conditions.

A comparative analysis of recipient hospitalization rates based on the total MRCI score was also conducted (Fig. 2).

Table 6

General characteristics of recip	ients, depending	on administration of	of medication

Indicator	Group 1 (use of 5 to 8 drugs), n = 212	Group 2 (use of $\geq 9$ drugs),	Р	
	11 - 512	11 - 293	0.02	
Age, years	$40.09 \pm 12.51$	$49.08 \pm 10.99$	0.02	
$F_{\text{remains}} = \frac{p(\theta_{1})}{p(\theta_{2})}$	42 (12 469/)	230 (80.7878)		
Pennale, fl (76)	42 (15.40%)	39 (13.22%)		
	$23.07 \pm 4.51$	$26.12 \pm 4.95$	0.027	
Secondary concrel advection	27 (11 96%)	21 (10 519/)		
Secondary general education	5/ (11.80%)	<u> </u>	0.82	
Secondary vocational education	143 (45.83%)	145 (49.15%)		
Higher education	132 (42.31%)	119 (40.34%)		
	Pre-transplant diagnosis			
ICM, n (%)	103 (33.01%)	134 (45.42%)	0.69	
DCM, n (%)	186 (59.62%)	148 (50.17%)		
HCM, n (%)	3 (0.96%)	4 (1.36%)		
Others, n (%)	20 (6.41%)	9 (3.05%)		
	Co-existing diseases			
Diabetes mellitus	57 (18.2%)	102 (34.5%)	0.002	
Other endocrinological diseases (except diabetes mellitus)	132 (42.3%)	188 (63.7%)	0.415	
Cerebrovascular diseases	119 (38.1%)	118 (40.0%)	0.639	
Lung diseases	62 (19.8%)	58 (19.6%)	0.948	
Gastrointestinal diseases	254 (81.4%)	286 (96.9%)	0.936	
Dyslipidemia	205 (65.7%)	265 (89.9%)	0.001	
Osteoporosis	113 (36.2%)	197 (66.7%)	0.174	
Gout	60 (19.2%)	107 (36.2%)	0.172	
Arterial hypertension	239 (76.6%)	274 (92.8%)	0.039	
Rheumatic diseases	18 (5.7%)	25 (8.4%)	0.194	
Kidney diseases	207 (66.3%)	255 (86.4%)	0.640	
	Total MRCI score			
Drug group 1	$15.2 \pm 4.98$	$13.71 \pm 2.05$		
Drug group 2	$12.48 \pm 3.16$	$15.38 \pm 5.42$		
Drug group 3	$11.45 \pm 5.48$	$29.4 \pm 9.94$		
Total MRCI score	$39.13 \pm 13.62$	$58.49 \pm 17.41$		

*Note:* BMI, body mass index; ICM, ischemic cardiomyopathy; DCM, dilated cardiomyopathy; HCM, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy.



Fig. 1. Concomitant diseases of recipients depending on the number of drugs used



Fig. 2. Frequency of hospitalization of recipients depending on the total MRCI score



Fig. 3. Survival curves of recipients depending on the number of drugs used

The analysis demonstrated a significant correlation between total MRCI score and hospitalization rate. Patients classified under high-risk polypharmacy required inpatient treatment more frequently, both at Shumakov Center and in other medical facilities (p < 0.05).

Despite the observed difference in hospitalization rates, comparative survival analysis using Kaplan–Meier curves revealed no statistically significant difference in overall survival between recipients with polypharmacy and those with high-risk polypharmacy (Fig. 3).

#### DISCUSSION

The results of this study demonstrated that in the long-term post-HT period, recipients received an ave-

rage of 5 to 15 medications. The MRCI score showed a clear correlation with the number of comorbidities and the presence of complications associated with immunosuppressive therapy, thereby linking MRCI to hospitalization rate. This is the first study to evaluate the impact of MRCI on long-term follow-up outcomes in HT recipients. To date, only a limited number of international studies have addressed the application of MRCI in this specific patient population. Our findings may become the basis for future research on this topic.

On average, each recipient was diagnosed with four comorbidities (requiring 5 to 15 medications) in the posttransplant period, each necessitating ongoing pharmacologic management. The presence of multiple comorbidities, coupled with lifelong immunosuppressive therapy, constitutes a significant risk factor for polypharmacy [12]. As the number of comorbid conditions increases, the demand for a broader scope of pharmacotherapy rises.

This study quantitatively analyzed drug therapy in HT recipients using the MRCI score. In a Spanish study, the reported average MRCI score was 42 [14], whereas in our cohort the mean score was 49. This difference may be attributed to a more detailed comparative analysis of the therapeutic components, particularly the contribution of immunosuppressive therapy and medications used to manage comorbid conditions.

When evaluating MRCI components, notably high scores were associated with the frequency of taking medications and additional instructions across the three main drug groups. These findings emphasize the necessity of a deeper examination of therapeutic regimens in HT recipients, particularly to enhance adherence to therapy.

When compared with MRCI scores in non-transplanted populations, the treatment burden in HT recipients is significantly higher. For instance, in a study conducted by Suzanne et al. [9], patients with mental illness undergoing long-term pharmacotherapy exhibited MRCI scores ranging from 6.21 to 25, considerably lower than those observed in our HT cohort.

Kamila et al. [15] also reported elevated MRCI scores in recipients following liver and kidney transplantation. Their study highlighted that MRCI not only quantifies pharmacologic load but also serves as a valuable analytical tool for evaluating the appropriateness and complexity of prescribed regimens in liver and kidney transplant recipients.

In our study, recipients classified within the highrisk polypharmacy group were notably older and had a greater burden of comorbidities, which accounted for the increased MRCI scores, particularly due to the use of medications aimed at managing comorbid conditions. In this group, no significant differences in survival outcomes were observed when compared to recipients with lower MRCI scores. This finding underscores the personalized approach employed by the multidisciplinary team at Shumakov Center, as well as the strong adherence of HT recipients to their therapeutic regimens.

Our results are consistent with those of Colavecchia et al. [16], who demonstrated a positive correlation between higher MRCI scores and increased hospitalization rates across various clinical scenarios. Similarly, our analysis showed that recipients with elevated MRCI scores had higher rates of inpatient treatment.

Evaluating the prescribed drug therapy through calculation of the MRCI score offers physicians an additional tool to identify patients who require more intensive monitoring during prescription and therapy adjustment. This approach can help reduce the risk of complications associated with multi-drug treatment regimens. Given that HT recipients must take a large number of life-saving drugs, cardiologists at the consultative and diagnostic department of Shumakov Center should prioritize regular assessment of pharmacotherapy in order to enhance adherence and minimize complications.

# CONCLUSIONS

HT recipients in the long-term postoperative period are required to take a broad spectrum of medications, including immunosuppressive and adjuvant therapies. Consequently, it is essential for specialists overseeing these patients to closely monitor pharmacotherapy in order to evaluate potential drug interactions and promote adherence to prescribed regimens. Regular revision of dosages and treatment plans by the attending physician serves as a predictor of favorable long-term, event-free survival. In contrast, low adherence and therapeutic inertia are associated with reduced quality of life, increased hospitalization rates, and a higher risk of adverse events. Importantly, our study showed that with proper outpatient follow-up, there were no significant differences in survival between patients with polypharmacy and those with high-risk polypharmacy.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# DEVELOPMENT OF AN EXTRACORPOREAL PUMP FOR ECMO SYSTEMS

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**Objective:** today, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) systems remain the main type of short-term circulatory support in various clinical situations. One of the main elements of this system is a blood pump. The objective of this study is to develop the first domestic centrifugal pump for use in ECMO systems. **Materials and methods.** Based on a systematic literature review, the main medical and technical requirements for an extracorporeal centrifugal pump were formulated. To create 3D mathematical models of the outer casing of the pump and all its internal components, calculations were performed in CAD software package SolidWorks (SolidWorks Corp., USA). Hydrodynamic test benches were designed and developed to evaluate the performance of the centrifugal pump mockup. The pump was studied to obtain its head-capacity curve (HCC) and hemolytic characteristics. **Results.** 3D modeling of geometrical parameters of the pump flow impeller was performed. Fluid flow was assessed in the rotor rotation range at speeds from 3000 to 7000 rpm. Hydrodynamic bench tests were performed under conditions simulating the resistance of the oxygenator and connecting cannulas. The HCC was obtained based on the given medical and technical requirements for the operating flow range from 1 to 5 l/min at pressure drops of 200 to 400 mm Hg. **Conclusion.** Based on results from the 3D modeling and bench experiments, a model of extracorporeal centrifugal pump was obtained, which showed its efficiency during the first trials. Further experimental studies will be conducted to obtain the energy and biological characteristics of the developed device.

Keywords: 3D computer model, centrifugal pump, extracorporeal pump, head-capacity curve, hemolysis, ECMO.

# **INTRODUCTION**

Recent advancements in technology have led to significant improvements in extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) systems, which have become essential in the management of patients with pulmonary, cardiac, and cardiopulmonary insufficiency. These systems have become more efficient, compact, and even portable [1-2].

The centrifugal pump (CP) is a key component of the extracorporeal circuit in ECMO systems.

It plays a crucial role in maintaining hemodynamic stability by compensating for circulatory failure or partially replacing the heart's pumping function.

Additionally, the CP ensures blood flow through the membrane oxygenator, enabling oxygenation and the removal of carbon dioxide, thus substituting pulmonary function.

The increase in ECMO procedures performed in intensive care units (ICUs) and cardiac resuscitation units over the years has resulted in improved survival rates for critically ill patients.

The development and integration of a Russian-made CP into these systems will further enhance the quality and accessibility of high-tech medical services.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

An analytical review of bibliographic sources on the development of extracorporeal pumps for ECMO systems highlights the following key medical and technical requirements for the CP:

- Body length: up to 80 mm;
- Maximum external diameter: 50 mm;
- Impeller diameter: up to 30 mm;
- Weight: up to 50 g.

The developed pump incorporates a built-in long cylindrical electric motor [3].

The new CP is seated and magnetically coupled, ensuring unobstructed motor operation. The pump head is securely fixed to the motor, with an annular flow section designed to adequately cool the motor under various operating conditions.

The device being developed is a flask-shaped structure that contains an 8-bladed closed impeller mounted on a hinged support. The impeller, with a diameter nearly equal to that of the motor, is positioned between the pump inlet and the motor housing. Centrifugal pumps designed for artificial circulation typically feature impellers with relatively large diameters, around 50 mm

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(e.g., Rotaflow, Maquet, Germany), which allows for pumping blood at low rotational speeds. According to preliminary calculations, the pump head must provide sufficient peripheral speed for an impeller of approximately 30 mm in diameter.

However, this speed could potentially be excessive, increasing shear stress on erythrocytes. The resulting tangential stress in the blood flow layer and the stress proportional to the velocity gradient from erythrocyte momentum exchange may lead to complications [4]. Thus, one of the key areas requiring further development is the detailed calculation of the impeller design, with a focus on minimizing rotor speed.

## 3D modeling methods

The SolidWorks program (Dassault Systèmes, France) was used to create a 3D model of the CP. Through computer flow simulation, a theoretical head-capacity curve (HCC) was developed to analyze the pump model. A review of literature on computer modeling of pump flow revealed that the key focus lies in constructing an accurate computational mesh and selecting an appropriate turbulence model. Inaccuracies in turbulence modeling can lead to significant errors in calculations [5, 6].

To achieve more accurate characteristics, software methods were employed to calculate flow hydrodynamics within the pump cavities. The primary simulation parameters involved stress analysis and flow velocity estimation, aiming to minimize stagnation and recirculation zones. Theoretical data derived from simulations were then compared with actual results obtained from the pump mock-up on a hydrodynamic bench. This bench simulated the conditions of the ECMO procedure using the LivaNova oxygenator (INSPIRE, USA). The operating characteristics of the RotaFlow centrifugal pump, which is widely used in medical practice [7], were considered when selecting the most appropriate pump operating parameters for the mode.



Fig. 1. a, modification of the 8-blade impeller structure; b, 3D model of the impeller

# Developed design of the centrifugal pump impeller

The impeller features a configuration of 4 primary radial vanes, with four additional intermediate vanes positioned between them. These intermediate vanes mirror the shape of the primary vanes but are only half their length. Both the inlet and outlet angles of the blades are oriented perpendicular to the axis. Adjustments to the blade twist angles did not yield notable improvements in hydrodynamic performance and introduced unnecessary complexity to the manufacturing process. The final 8-blade impeller configuration is illustrated in Fig. 1, a, with the corresponding 3D computational model shown in Fig. 1, b.

The proposed CP design includes four inlet channels leading to the impeller, each subdivided by short guide blades. The cross-sectional areas at the inlet and outlet of the impeller flow path are proportionate, and the streamlined channel geometry enables unobstructed fluid transfer. The exponential contour of the duct promotes laminar flow within the pump and ensures optimal alignment with the pump casing.

At the swivel support level, the impeller is equipped with perforations that facilitate flushing of the pump. This design feature effectively reduces thrombogenicity without causing any measurable decline in hydraulic performance.

## Computational fluid dynamics

In addition to experimental evaluation, the pump design was analyzed using computational fluid dynamics with SolidWorks (Dassault Systèmes, France) and Ansys (ANSYS Inc., USA) software. A computational mesh comprising approximately 220,000 elements was generated to represent the entire flow domain. For the simulations, blood was modeled as a Newtonian fluid with a dynamic viscosity of 5.0 mPa·s and a density of 1055 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. Representative results are shown in Fig. 2, illustrating the pressure distribution and flow streamlines within the pump.

The computed HCC was obtained and is presented alongside experimental results to facilitate comparison with bench test data from the pump's operation in a closed-loop circulation circuit.

Computational and mathematical analyses revealed a slight reduction in impeller efficiency, estimated at 5–7%, primarily due to the presence of recirculating flow and the resulting hydrodynamic losses. Numerical simulations indicated elevated flow velocity on the rear side of the impeller and within the orifices. Recirculation through these orifices ranged from 0.3 to 1.0 L/min per orifice, depending on rotational speed and differential pressure. The total internal volume of the pump was 16 mL. Flow transitions remained smooth throughout the helical outlet region. Under ECMO operating conditions (pressure of 350 mmHg and flow rate of 5 L/min), peak tangential shear stress was 125 Pa, while average shear stress was approximately 40 Pa.

#### Prototype centrifugal pump

Based on preliminary computer simulations, a threedimensional model of the centrifugal pump (CP) was developed, as shown in Fig. 3, a. Using this model, the prototype components were fabricated with a largeformat medical 3D printer, the Formlabs 3BL (USA). The parts were produced via stereolithography (SLA), a laser-based 3D printing technology, using Gorky Liquid (Surgical) – a biocompatible, sterilizable surgical photopolymer – with a printing precision of 25  $\mu$ m. The rotor features a working section mounted on a disk supported by a ball bearing, which also houses a magnet for the drive mechanism. The fully assembled prototype pump, prepared for bench testing, is depicted in Fig. 3, b.

The assembly includes a 4-pole magnet paired with a closure ring made from Steel 10, as well as a customfabricated support ball composed of durable aluminum oxide ( $Al_2O_3$ ), also known as corundum or alundum. The CP housing features an outlet fitting with an internal diameter of 3/8 inch. The impeller is rotated externally via a magnetic coupling mechanism.



Pressure [mmHg]

Fig. 2. Particle trajectories at 7000 rpm impeller speed, 2.7 L/min flow and 340 mmHg pressure (ECMO mode)



Fig. 3. a, 3D model of the designed pump; b, model of the designed pump

## Experimental study of HCC

The prototype testing was carried out in two sequential phases. The first phase involved validating the HCC derived from closed-loop computational simulations [8, 9]. Constant rotational speed studies were conducted within a circulatory test loop designed to emulate essential physiological elements such as vascular resistance, fluid inertia, and aortic compliance. The pump was driven using a Deltastream drive (Medos, Germany), as illustrated in Fig. 4. Distilled water served as the working fluid. Pump speeds ranging from 3000 to 7000 RPM were sufficient to achieve extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) operating conditions. However, when the speed exceeded 8500 RPM, the impeller made contact with the pump housing due to increased hydraulic lift forces.

In the second phase of testing, a hydrodynamic perfusion bench, described in detail in [10], was assembled. This bench replicates the configuration of an ECMO system and includes the pump, an oxygenator with an integrated heat exchanger, and an additional oxygenator. The latter is connected to a 5% CO<sub>2</sub> gas mixture and functions as a simulated "patient" (see Fig. 5).

For the pump efficiency study, anticoagulated donor blood diluted to a hematocrit of 25% was circulated through the system. This dilution was chosen to meet the minimum circuit volume requirement of approximately 700 mL.

Hemolysis parameters were assessed (N = 4) by calculating the normalized hemolysis index (NIH) using Formula, as described in [4].



Fig. 4. Evaluation of the HCC of the fabricated centrifugal pump head



Fig. 5. Evaluation of oxygenating properties and hemolysis in ECMO mode (1, LivaNova oxygenator (INSPIRE, USA); 2, deoxygenator; 3, developed centrifugal pump)

N.I.H. g / 100 l = 
$$\Delta$$
freeHb × V ×  $\frac{100 - \text{Ht}}{100}$  ×  $\frac{100}{\text{Q} \times \text{T}}$ ,

where:  $\Delta$ free Hb – increase in free plasma hemoglobin (g/L) during the sampling interval, V – circuit volume (L), Q – blood flow rate (L/min), Ht – hematocrit (%), T – pump operation time (min).

Throughout the experiment, the temperature of the circulating fluid was maintained at a constant 37.5 °C. The total duration of the tests was 6 hours. Upon completion of the experiments, the pumps were inspected for evidence of clot formation.

#### RESULTS

The HCC, presented in Fig. 6, demonstrates an agreement between the predicted and experimental results, with a deviation of  $2.5 \pm 0.5\%$ .

The successful demonstration of the prototype centrifugal pump's operability and efficiency enabled progression to the second stage: a series of studies evaluating oxygenation performance and hemolysis under ECMO conditions. The pump effectively circulated blood through two oxygenators, achieving high levels of oxygen saturation.

The NIH of the pump was measured at 0.001  $\pm$  0.001 g/100 L at the start of the experiment and 0.002  $\pm$  0.001 g/100 L at the end – values that fall within acceptable limits for the given operating conditions. The blood hematocrit decreased from 25  $\pm$  2% to 24  $\pm$  2%, based on averaged data.

## DISCUSSION

Calculations and experimental tests of the CP prototype showed a high correlation with the specified medical and technical requirements. Despite its small size, the pump delivers sufficient hydraulic power to achieve a pressure drop of 300–400 mmHg at a flow rate of 5-6 L/min.

The actual pressure drop deviated from theoretical predictions by no more than 3%. The HCC exhibited a banded structure, which is typical for CP performance profiles. In ECMO mode, the rotor operated at 6000–6500 rpm, which is much lower than the operational speed of the clinically used Deltastream pump (Medos, USA) [11].

The developed impeller design effectively minimized vortex formation and eliminated fluid stagnation zones. The calculated average tangential shear stress was approximately 40 Pa, remaining well below the erythrocyte damage threshold of 150 Pa [4]. Given the 500–600 RPM reduction in rotor speed compared to standard clinical devices, hemolysis levels observed in future experiments are expected to remain within acceptable limits.



Fig. 6. Head-capacity curve of the pump. Dotted line indicates computer modeling, solid line shows bench test results

The use of straight vanes in the impeller design simplifies the manufacturing process of the pump. Evaluation of the proposed vane configuration showed an increase in head pressure while maintaining consistent fluid velocity throughout the flow path. The HCC of this model also indicates enhanced sensitivity to preload, which contributes to increased pulsatility – particularly beneficial in applications involving oxygenators and small-diameter cannulas.

The inclusion of additional ports proved to be an effective modification, facilitating improved pump flushing and enhancing non-thrombogenic properties without any significant compromise in hydraulic performance. A slight increase in impeller torque – up to 7% – was recorded, corresponding to a reduction in impeller efficiency by the same margin. This decrease is attributed to the presence of recirculation zones, which introduce hydrodynamic losses.

Numerical simulations confirmed elevated flow and velocity on the rear side of the impeller and within the added orifices, with secondary flow rates ranging from 0.3 to 1.0 L/min, depending on the head and flow rate.

In the final design, a closed impeller configuration was selected to minimize internal leakage flow while allowing for a larger operational clearance. During perfusion bench experiments, where the pump was integrated into a simulated ECMO circuit, the device showed good overall biocompatibility and low blood damage over a 6-hour test period (N = 4).

The maximum recorded value of NIH was 0.003 g/100 L, attributed primarily to limitations in the precision of the 3D printing process. No blood clots were observed during or after the experiments. The pump effectively overcame the combined resistance of two oxygenators, which totaled approximately 200 mmHg.

#### CONCLUSION

The presented results indicate that the developed centrifugal pump prototype exhibits strong potential for use in ECMO systems. Its hydraulic performance meets the requirements for conventional auxiliary circulatory support systems. Future work will focus on rotor optimization, comparative evaluation of alternative designs, development of a low-volume pump variant, and adaptation of the experimental models for production by casting.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# EFFECT OF PROLONGED CARDIAC GRAFT PRESERVATION ON ADHESION PROTEIN ACTIVATION AND SYNTHETIC ENDOTHELIAL FUNCTION

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**Objective:** to conduct a comparative study of the efficacy of Custodiol<sup>®</sup> cardioplegia (Custodiol HTK, Dr. Franz Köhler Chemie GmbH, Bensheim, Germany) and normothermic autoperfusion of heart graft as a part of an ex vivo cardiopulmonary complex (CPC). Methods. Landrace pigs weighing  $50 \pm 5$  kg and aged 4–5 months (n = 10) were used as the model for a series of acute experiments. In the experimental group (n = 5), the CPC was conditioned by autoperfusion for 6 hours. In the control group, the heart's pumping function was restored after a 6-hour cold preservation with Custodiol<sup>®</sup>. The effectiveness of cardiac graft preservation methods was evaluated by measuring myocardial ischemic markers, endothelial synthetic function, and endothelial cell activation markers (E- and P-selectins, endothelial growth factor). Results. Following cardiac graft reperfusion, the control group exhibited a statistically significant increase in the concentration of myocardial ischemia markers; also, there was a significant decrease in the synthesis of endothelium-derived relaxing factor in the Custodiol® solution preservation group (378.5 [226.4; 539.7] vs. 542.1 [377.6; 853.2]  $\mu$ M/mL in the autoperfusion group, p < 0.05). The degree of coronary endothelial reperfusion injury/activation was several times higher in the control group than in the normothermic autoperfusion conditioning group. Moreover, cardiac output after a 6-hour graft conditioning was 0.63 [0.37; 0.80] and 0.37 [0.23; 0.37] L/min in the experimental and control groups, respectively (p < 0.05). Conclusion. Normothermic autoperfusion showed a significant advantage in preserving the morphofunctional status of the donor heart compared with cold preservation with Custodiol<sup>®</sup> during 6 hours of *ex vivo* graft conditioning.

Keywords: autoperfusion, heart preservation, normothermic perfusion, reperfusion injury, heart transplantation, cold preservation.

## INTRODUCTION

Primary graft dysfunction is the leading cause of death and morbidity in cardiac transplant recipients [1]. Factors such as ischemia time, composition of the preservation solution, and preservation method may contribute to initial endothelial dysfunction and potentially influence long-term endothelial changes, including graft vasculopathy. This has led to an increasing use of myocardial and endothelial markers in both experimental and clinical studies to assess the quality of graft function preservation [2].

One of the inevitable events during the transplant reperfusion phase is the interaction between circulating neutrophils and the coronary endothelium. Endothelial injury represents the primary consequence of reperfusion, initiating a cascade that includes calcium overload in cardiomyocytes (the "calcium paradox"), tissue edema, and generation of reactive oxygen species by neutrophils. This damage begins within 2.5 to 5 minutes after the onset of reperfusion. It involves the initial slowing down or "rolling" of neutrophils along the endothelium, followed by firm adhesion and diapedesis of neutrophils into the myocardium. Once in the tissue, neutrophils interact with cardiomyocytes, leading to cellular necrosis [3].

Leukocyte adhesion to the vascular wall marks the early stage of both the immune and inflammatory responses to reperfusion. In post-ischemic myocardial tissue, neutrophil infiltration significantly impairs cardiac function [4]. Ischemia followed by reperfusion disrupts basal and agonist-stimulated nitric oxide (NO) synthesis [5], a factor known to modulate leukocyte adhesion to the endothelium. Reduced NO availability has been shown to increase leukocyte-endothelial interactions. The onset of reperfusion also triggers a sharp decline in endothelium-derived relaxing factor, alongside a spike in free radical production and P-selectin expression [3, 7].

Anti-adhesion therapy represents a promising new approach to mitigating ischemia-reperfusion injury (IRI).

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One such strategy involves the use of monoclonal antibodies targeting specific adhesion molecules [8]. These adhesion-blocking antibodies help to reduce the extent of myocardial injury following reperfusion [9]. Although the therapeutic use of such anti-adhesion strategies shows potential for enhancing myocardial and coronary function recovery after cardiac surgery or transplantation, their use remains largely experimental at this stage.

Therefore, the continued investigation and clinical implementation of effective, cost-efficient methods for long-term conditioning of donor hearts is essential. Such advancements not only have the potential to expand the geographic scope of donor organ availability, thereby increasing transplant opportunities, but also to significantly improve long-term outcomes by reducing the incidence of graft vasculopathy.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Landrace pigs (females), weighing  $550 \pm 5$  kg and aged 4–5 months (n = 10), were used as the animal model for this series of experiments. Animal care, experimental procedures, monitoring, and euthanasia were conducted in accordance with the European Convention for the Protection of Vertebrate Animals Used for Experimental and Other Scientific Purposes (Strasbourg, March 18, 1986). The study was approved by the local bioethics committee (Protocol No. 2, dated September 1, 2022).

In the experimental group (n = 5), heart conditioning was performed using a 6-hour normothermic autoperfusion of the cardiopulmonary complex (CPC) *ex vivo*, followed by 1 hour of cold cardioplegia with Custodiol<sup>®</sup> HTK solution at 4 °C, and subsequent reperfusion via a circulatory assist device. The control group (n = 5) consisted of hearts preserved for 6 hours using standard cold cardioplegia with Custodiol<sup>®</sup> HTK solution, following conventional protocols (Fig. 1).

#### Preoperative preparation and anesthesia

On the day of the experiment, all animals were premedicated with Zoletil<sup>®</sup> 100, administered on an empty stomach. The dosage was individually adjusted based on the animal's weight and body size. Once anesthesia was induced, the surgical field and the neck area for vascular catheterization were prepared. The animal was then transferred to the operating table and positioned supine for tracheal intubation and placement of central arterial and venous catheters.

The procedures were performed under endotracheal anesthesia using sevoflurane and muscle relaxation with rocuronium bromide. Mechanical ventilation was delivered via a Fabius<sup>®</sup> Plus anesthesia-breathing workstation (Dräger, Germany) with inspiratory positive pressure of 20–30 cm H<sub>2</sub>O, expiratory pressure of 5–8 cm H<sub>2</sub>O, tidal volume of 8 ml/kg, and a respiratory rate of 12–14 breaths per minute.

Physiological parameters were continuously monitored using the IntelliVue MP70 patient monitor (Philips, Netherlands). During the procedure, we recorded invasive blood pressure within the heart chambers and major vessels, electrocardiographic data for arrhythmia detection, and core temperature of the organ complex.

Hematological parameters were assessed using an ABL 800 FLEX automatic blood analyzer (Radiometer, Denmark), in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Central hemodynamic monitoring was conducted via right heart catheterization using a Swan–Ganz catheter, complemented by a portable multifunctional ultrasound system (Philips CX50, Philips Ultrasound, USA) with ECG synchronization.

Coronary vascular resistance (CVR) was calculated using the following formula:



Fig. 1. Study design

$$CVR = \frac{mAP - mRAP}{CBF \times 100 \text{ g}},$$

where, mAP – mean aortic pressure, mRAP – mean right atrial pressure, and CBF – coronary blood flow.

# Surgical technique for the experiment

A functional CPC was procured through midline sternotomy. Isolation of the CPC was started with removal of the pericardium and mobilization of the superior vena cava (SVC), then the brachiocephalic trunk (BCT), left subclavian artery (LSA), inferior vena cava (IVC) were isolated. The trachea was carefully separated from the esophagus using an electrocoagulator, achieving hemostasis. After heparin (3 mg/kg body weight) had been administered, the LSA was ligated as distally as possible, and an introducer was placed through the arterial stump to measure the aortic pressure and to guide diagnostic catheters. Then, the BCT was ligated and crossed, and an 18 Fr arterial cannula was inserted into the arterial stump and connected to the arterial reservoir. After clamping the descending thoracic aorta at the isthmus level, the arterial trunk was opened, and arterial blood was drawn into the reservoir. After blood level and arterial pressure were stabilized, 1-1.5 liters of Ringer's solution was injected into the femoral vein. After that, the vena cava was ligated and crossed, the trachea was crossed and reintubated with a cuffed tube. The functioning CPC was finally separated from the surrounding tissues, transferred to a container with warm saline (38  $^{\circ}$ C), the arterial trunk was clamped, and observation was continued for 6 hours (Fig. 2).

Throughout the autoperfusion period, a continuous infusion of 5% calcium chloride solution (3–5 mL/hour) and 10% glucose (5–10 mL/hour) was administered to maintain electrolyte and glucose levels within the physiological reference range. After 6 hours of normothermic autoperfusion of the CPC, cardioplegia was induced by injecting 2 liters of Custodiol<sup>®</sup> solution (Custodiol<sup>®</sup> HTK, Germany) into the aortic root. The CPC was subsequently stored in Custodiol<sup>®</sup> solution at 4 °C for 1 hour.

After cold storage, the heart was reperfused for 15–20 minutes using a cardiopulmonary bypass (CPB) machine primed with the animal's autologous blood. Electrical defibrillation was performed as needed. Once normothermia and spontaneous cardiac activity were restored, the CPC was filled with blood, isolated, and assessed via ultrasound imaging.

Tissue samples for histological examination were collected from the apex of the left ventricle and the middle lobes of the left and right lungs. Samples were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin, dehydrated through a graded series of ethanol solutions (increasing alcohol



Fig. 2. Diagram of the isolated cardiopulmonary complex: a, stage of blood exfusion into the reservoir and preparation for transfer of the complex into a container; b, stage of final hemodynamic isolation of the cardiopulmonary complex; 1 - heart, 2 - right lung, 3 - left lung, 4 - intubation tube, 5 - Swan-Ganz catheter, 6 - arterial cannula, 7 - blood tank, 8 - trachea, 9 - electrocardiograph electrodes, 10 - clamp

by volume, ABV), and embedded in paraffin using a dispenser with integrated heating and cooling plates. Histological sections,  $4-5 \mu m$  thick, were cut from paraffin blocks using a Microm HM 550 microtome (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, USA).

Prior to staining, the sections were deparaffinized in two changes of pure xylene for 10–15 minutes, then rehydrated through a graded series of ethanol (decreasing ABV, absolute to 70%) and finally rinsed in distilled water. Standard histological stains were applied, including hematoxylin and eosin, Van Gieson's stain with orcein for elastic fibers, and the periodic acid–Schiff (PAS) reaction.

Polarized light microscopy of the myocardium was performed using an Axio Scope.A1 microscope (Zeiss, Germany), equipped with an analyzer and polarizer, AxioCam HRm and HRc cameras (Zeiss, Germany), and ZEN Blue imaging software (Zeiss, Germany).

To prepare the extracts, left ventricular myocardial tissue was weighed, minced, and suspended in 1 mL of PBS, then stored at -70 °C. Samples were homogenized using a KZ-III-FP low-temperature tissue homogenizer (Servicebio Technology Co., Wuhan, China) at -40 °C with 3 mm  $\times$ 2 and 4 mm  $\times$ 1 steel balls, following the manufacturer's instructions. levels were centrifuged at  $16,100 \times g$  for 5 minutes to remove tissue debris. Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and NO concentrations in tissue extracts were normalized to the total protein content of each sample. VEGF levels were quantified using a commercial ELISA kit (Vector-BEST, Novosibirsk, Russia), and NO levels were determined by measuring nitrite levels, a stable end product, using the Griess reagent (Sigma-Aldrich, Darmstadt, Germany), per the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 50 µL of tissue extract was mixed with 50 µL of Griess reagent in a 96-well plate, and absorbance was measured at 492 nm using a Stat FAX-2100 microplate reader (Awareness Technology Inc., USA). Nitrite levels were calculated from a standard calibration curve.

Serum troponin I was measured using a chemiluminescent immunoassay with ARCHITECT STAT Troponin-I reagents on the Architect i2000SR analyzer (Abbott, USA). To assess serum levels of troponin T, heart-type fatty acid-binding protein (H-FABP), E-selectin (SelE), and P-selectin (SelP), blood samples were centrifuged at 1,000×g for 20 minutes. Serum was aliquoted and stored at -80 °C until analysis. These biomarkers were quantified using sandwich ELISA kits (Cloud-Clone Corp., China) specific to swine antigens.

Statistical analysis was performed using Statistica 10.0 software (StatSoft Inc., USA). Descriptive statistics were applied to summarize the data. The significance of differences between groups was evaluated using the nonparametric Mann–Whitney U test for independent groups and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for dependent groups. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant, in accordance with standard criteria for biomedical research.

# RESULTS

In all experiments, graft reperfusion was performed using a CPB machine, maintaining consistent perfusion parameters (300–350 ml/min). However, by the 15th minute, a significant increase in aortic pressure and vascular resistance was observed in all hearts from the control group (Table 1).

At the same time, in all experiments within the control group, restoration of heart rhythm required multiple electrical defibrillation attempts (up to 10 discharges), followed by electrical cardiac stimulation. The reperfusion time required to wean the CPC from CPB, while maintaining an aortic root pressure of no less than 60 mmHg independently, was 87 [67; 102] minutes in the control group, compared to 19 [17.5; 22.5] minutes in the experimental group (p < 0.05).

The degree of ischemia and the effectiveness of the conditioning technique were assessed by measuring the levels of lactate, troponin I, troponin T, and H-FABP in

Table 1

Group	Control	Control (n = 5)		Experimental (n = 5)	
Parameter	Before preservation	After reperfusion	T1	T6	After reperfusion
CO (L/min)	0.83	0.37*	0.84	0.57	0.63 <sup>#</sup>
	[0.74; 1.86]	[0.23; 0.37]	[0.78; 0.94]	[0.26; 0.88]	[0.37; 0.8]
HR (bpm)	96	100	87	98	100
	[86; 105]	(ЭКС)	[78; 96]	[83; 116]	(ЭКС)
iABP (mmHg)	110	162*	115	112	108
	[75; 130]	[158; 210]	[65; 134]	[57; 128]	[84; 137]
CVR (mmHg·min/mL/100 g)	5.4 [4.2; 7.6]	13.9* [9.6; 15.8]	6.3 [5.3; 8.7]	7.1 [6.1; 10.3]	8.8 <sup>#</sup> [5.3; 10.7]

#### Main hemodynamic parameters

*Note.* Data are presented as Me [Q1; Q3]. CO, cardiac output; HR, heart rate; iABP, invasive arterial blood pressure (aortic root); CVR, coronary vascular resistance; T1, 1st hour of autoperfusion; T6, 6th hour of autoperfusion; \*, p < 0.05 compared with baseline (before preservation); <sup>#</sup>, p < 0.05 compared with control group after reperfusion.

#### Table 2

Group	Contro	ol $(n = 5)$	Experimental $(n = 5)$		
Indicator	Before preservation	After reperfusion	T1	T6	After reperfusion
Lactate (mmol/L)	3.3 [2.2; 4.5]	11.8* [10.1; 13.5]	5.8 [5.1; 6.7]	5.3 [4.7; 5.9]	$7.1^{\#}$ [6.3; 8.4]
Troponin I (nmol/L)	175.84 [57.7; 309.9]	317,803.98* [44,509.9; 500,000.0]	144.8 [87.5; 187.7]	_	126,069* <sup>#</sup> [42,437.5; 141,583.1]
Troponin T (nmol/L)	0	988* [648; 1815.5]	0	442* [86.3; 881]	104.5* <sup>#</sup> [55.3; 344.3]
H-FABP (pg/mL)	0.2 [0.02; 1.1]	2.1* [0.1; 2.1]	0	0	0

#### Myocardial ischemic markers

*Note.* Data are presented as Me [Q1; Q3]; H-FABP, heart-type fatty acid-binding protein; T1, 1st hour of autoperfusion; T6, 6th hour of autoperfusion; \*, p < 0.05 vs. baseline (before preservation); <sup>#</sup>, p < 0.05 vs. control group after reperfusion.

## Table 3

Results of the study of myocardial extracts from the left ventricle of the heart

Group	Control $(n = 5)$		Experimental $(n = 5)$		
Indicator	Before preservation	After reperfusion	T1	Before preservation	After reperfusion
NO(uM/mL)	524.3	378.5*	626.8	593.1	542.1#
	[335.1; 733.2]	[226.4; 539.7]	[566.5; 1288.5]	[442.8; 1003.8]	[377.6; 853.2]
VECE (ng/mL)	701.8	978.1	742.3	789.3	777.8
VEGF (pg/mL)	[397.3; 1034.2]	[732.8; 1265.7]	[464.2; 1152.1]	[465.2; 1115.1]	[407.6; 1140.8]
SalE(ng/mI)	0.3	4.4*	0	0.2	0.2#
SelE (lig/IIIL)	[0.05; 2.3]	[0.3; 8.1]		[0.1; 0.4]	[0.05; 0.2]
$S_{al} D (n_{a}/m_{l})$	1.8	5.6*	1.3	1.6	2.4#
Self (lig/lilL)	[0.9; 2.6]	[2.8; 9.1]	[0.8; 1.8]	[1.1; 2.1]	[1.2; 3.2]

*Note.* Data are presented as Me [Q1; Q3]; NO, endothelium-derived relaxing factor; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; SelE, selectin E; SelP, selectin P; T1, 1st hour of autoperfusion; T6, 6th hour of autoperfusion; \*, p < 0.05 vs. baseline (before preservation); #, p < 0.05 vs. control group after reperfusion.

the blood flowing from the coronary sinus (Table 2). The control group showed statistically significant increases in lactate, troponin I, and troponin T levels following the reperfusion phase and restoration of cardiac function, compared to the autoperfusion group (Table 2).

The preservation of synthetic endothelial function was assessed by measuring the levels of endotheliumderived vasorelaxing factor (NO), endothelial growth factor (VEGF), and adhesion molecules E- and P-selectins (Table 3).

The study revealed that after 6 hours of preservation with Custodiol<sup>®</sup> solution, NO levels were significantly lower compared to the normothermic autoperfusion group (378.5  $\mu$ M/mL vs. 542.1  $\mu$ M/mL, respectively, p < 0.05). Additionally, the concentrations of adhesion molecules (E- and P-selectins) were significantly higher in the Custodiol<sup>®</sup> group compared to the autoperfusion group (4.4 ng/mL vs. 0.2 ng/mL for E-selectin and 5.6 ng/mL vs. 2.4 ng/mL for P-selectin, respectively, p < 0.05).

## DISCUSSION

Myocardial reperfusion injury is primarily an iatrogenic phenomenon. A clear cause-and-effect relationship has been established between the degree of endothelial injury and post-ischemic contractile dysfunction in heart transplants [10]. Despite cold cardioplegia being the standard for donor organ preservation, graft function can deteriorate after four hours, particularly in organs from older donors [11]. This organ preservation method remains the leading risk factor for primary allograft dysfunction and mortality [12].

Despite the numerous benefits of *ex vivo* machine warm perfusion, this technology has not been widely adopted in most transplant centers over recent decades. The primary barrier is the high cost of such systems, which hinders their broader implementation in clinical practice [13]. However, evidence suggests that normothermic autoperfusion, as a method of prolonged *ex vivo* normothermic conditioning, is superior to static cold preservation [14]. Unlike machine perfusion techniques, autoperfusion of the donor heart provides optimal conditions for oxygen and energy substrate delivery to the graft, while preserving coronary blood flow's vasomotor autoregulation without subjecting the endothelial layer to excessive shear stress [15].

Recent studies have shown that reperfusion injury involves various components of the inflammatory response, with leukocyte-endothelial interactions playing a central role [16]. The initial interaction between leukocytes and the endothelium triggers the subsequent pathophysiological stages of reperfusion injury - adhesion and migration of neutrophils across the endothelial barrier. Once in close proximity to cardiomyocytes, neutrophils release numerous cytotoxic factors that can lead to myocyte necrosis. The process of leukocyte adhesion to the endothelium begins with rolling along the endothelial surface, a process mediated by the release of adhesion molecules [17]. In the present study, it was demonstrated that 6-hour preservation of cardiac grafts with Custodiol® solution resulted in a significant increase in P-selectin levels compared to normothermic conditioning under autoperfusion conditions. The study of P-selectin is particularly significant because its expression is believed to play a critical role in leukocyte rolling and adhesion to the graft's endothelium [18].

Another reason for the interest in studying the expression of adhesion molecules and endothelial function is the high incidence of graft vasculopathy and the lack of effective treatment for this complication. Previous studies have shown that the intensity of arterial intimal thickening correlates with expression of P-selectin and vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 on endothelial cells in a rat model of chronic heart allograft rejection [19]. Administration of antibodies against P-selectin during reperfusion has been shown to reduce infarct size, decrease leukocyte adhesion to the coronary endothelium, and promote endothelial preservation [20]. Of particular interest are studies that have demonstrated P-selectin expression activation when isolated hearts were subjected to continuous perfusion with a blood-based perfusate [10].

These findings suggest that P-selectin release may not only indicate ischemia and reperfusion (where reperfusion acts as a rapid trigger for increased P-selectin expression) but could also be a general consequence of continuous perfusion through an extracorporeal circulation circuit. Interestingly, prior studies have shown that perfusion of rat hearts with crystalloid solution without an extracorporeal circulation circuit did not result in increased P-selectin levels [19]. In our study, we also observed increased P-selectin expression in the autoperfusion group after cardiac recovery using an extracorporeal circulation circuit. However, despite a twofold increase in P-selectin expression post-reperfusion compared to initial values, these changes were not statistically significant (p > 0.05). Similar results were observed for E-selectin expression, which was significantly increased in the control group, suggesting a higher degree of endothelial reperfusion injury in the control group compared to the autoperfusion group.

Another biomarker for myocardial ischemic injury is H-FABP, which plays a role in cellular fatty acid metabolism by reversibly binding and transporting long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids from cell membranes to mitochondria. Plasma H-FABP levels begin to rise within

1 hour after myocardial ischemia, peak at 4-6 hours, and return to baseline within 24 hours [7]. In the present study, a statistically significant increase in H-FABP levels was observed in the control group compared to the autoperfusion group. There was no increase in H-FABP in the autoperfusion group, even after 6 hours of ex vivo cardiac conditioning, 60 minutes of cold ischemia, and reperfusion. This suggests the high efficiency of autoperfusion as a method for prolonged protection of the donor heart. Similar results were observed for lactate, troponin I, and troponin T levels in the blood flowing from the coronary sinus, highlighting the insufficient efficiency of Custodiol® solution for prolonged (6 hours) cardiac graft preservation. However, further research is needed to explore the predictive value of biomarkers of myocardial injury and endothelial dysfunction in determining the functional outcomes of transplantation.

# CONCLUSION

Prolonged normothermic autoperfusion of a cardiac graft, compared to static cold preservation with Custodiol<sup>®</sup>, can better maintain the physiological conditions of the coronary endothelium and promote the synthesis of regulatory agents by endothelial cells. This, in turn, reduces the severity of IRI. The findings suggest that this method of long-term conditioning for cardiac transplants has significant potential in preventing vasculopathy.

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# MODERN EXTRACORPOREAL CIRCULATORY SUPPORT SYSTEMS (CENTRIFUGAL PUMPS AND OXYGENATORS). LITERATURE REVIEW

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For more than 70 years, short-term mechanical circulatory support devices, as well as methods and skills for their implantation, have been continuously developed and improved. An in-depth study of each of the existing devices is important not only to optimize patient outcomes, but also to create a safer, more effective, smaller-sized new device. This review considers existing temporary circulatory support devices, as well as oxygenators, that supplement the system to protect lung function. Their main technical characteristics and the peculiarities of their application in clinical practice are given. Based on the literature review, we formulated the main directions of extracorporeal membrane oxygenation evolution in Russia.

Keywords: mechanical circulatory support, centrifugal pump, oxygenator, ECMO.

# **INTRODUCTION**

Modern transplantology has greatly improved the treatment of critically ill patients by using innovative pharmacological therapies and advanced medical devices, allowing for organ support or replacement. Among these technologies, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) systems have emerged as a key intervention [1–3]. Currently, ECMO is a highly effective modality for managing acute cardiac and respiratory failure, serving both as a life-sustaining bridge to heart or lung transplantation.

Originally introduced as an experimental physiological technique, ECMO has evolved into a critical clinical tool. It plays a pivotal role in determining whether organ function can be restored or if definitive treatment through transplantation is necessary [4–10].

ECMO involves the cannulation of major blood vessels to connect the patient to an extracorporeal circuit, which includes essential components necessary for its function: cannulas, an oxygenator, and an extracorporeal pump. Oxygenators serve a dual role – oxygenating the blood and removing carbon dioxide [11–13]. Variations among oxygenators are primarily based on their structural design, priming volume, membrane gas exchange properties, and the pressure required to maintain a blood flow rate of 1–5 L/min to achieve adequate oxygenation. Extracorporeal pumps are responsible for generating the necessary pressure and flow within the circuit. In most modern ECMO systems, centrifugal pumps are employed due to their favorable performance characteristics [14, 15].

This review article highlights key advancements in the development and clinical application of the two primary components of an ECMO system: blood pumps and oxygenators.

# EXTRACORPOREAL PUMPS FOR ECMO SYSTEM

Centrifugal pumps are a critical component of the extracorporeal circuit in ECMO systems. They are responsible for maintaining the patient's hemodynamic stability during a procedure by operating at predetermined parameters. These pumps can effectively compensate for circulatory insufficiency or partially substitute the heart's pumping function. They facilitate blood flow through the membrane oxygenator, enabling gas exchange by supplying oxygen and removing carbon dioxide, thus temporarily replacing pulmonary function.

# Maquet Rotaflow (Maquet, Getinge Group, Germany)

The Maquet Rotaflow is a centrifugal pump (CP) specifically engineered to deliver continuous blood flow for the purpose of maintaining or replacing the pumping function of the heart (Fig. 1) [16–19]. In addition to



Fig. 1. Appearance of Maquet Rotaflow

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the centrifugal pump, a continuous life support (PLT) system has been developed to provide both cardiac and respiratory support. The system is capable of generating blood flow rates ranging from 0.5 to 7 L/min. The PLT circuit is designed with a minimal number of primary components to reduce shear stress and turbulence.

The system features a 3 mm diameter, precision ballbearing, low-friction aluminum oxide pump that drives a 4-blade impeller. The pump head is designed to utilize the potential of a radial magnetic drive. The system is automatic but can be manually started in the event of a failure.

The pump fill volume is 32 mL. The inlet and outlet cannulas are 3/8" in diameter; however, the system has been used in neonates and infants using special adapters to fit 1/4" size. The PLS kit includes a highly plasma-resistant polymethylpentene Quadrox iD oxygenator approved for continuous use for 14 days (shown in Fig. 2).

This system integrates an oxygenator and pump to deliver continuous extracorporeal circulatory support for up to 30 days. It features 3/8" inlet and outlet connectors and is capable of providing flow rates up to 7 L/min. These components are coated with biocompatible BIO-LINE or SOFTLINE materials (heparin-free) [20]. The



Fig. 2. Oxygenator Quadrox iD



Fig. 3. Extracorporeal head for the Medos Deltastream DP3 pump

oxygenator is designed with a distinctive membrane fiber arrangement that optimizes interaction with blood flow.

# Medos Deltastream DP3 Pump (XENIOS AG, Germany)

The Medos Deltastream DP3 is an ECMO pump approved for medium-term use of up to 14 days [21–24]. It is a diagonal flow pump that combines features of both centrifugal and axial pumps (Fig. 3). The DP3 is equipped with 3/8" and 1/4" inlet and outlet connectors, has a priming volume of 16 mL, and can generate flow rates of up to 8 L/min.

Flow rates vary by cannula size: up to 8 L/min with a 3/8" outlet and up to 2.4 L/min with a 1/4" outlet. The pump speed is adjustable between 100 and 10,000 rpm. A zero flow mode enables rapid shutdown by reducing the speed to prevent backflow. The system incorporates a ceramic bearing and magnetic clutch, and includes an optional pulsation mode adjustable between 40 and 90 wpm. The DP3 cannot be manually restarted; however, in the event of a failure, the portable console (weighing up to 10 pounds) is equipped with two 90-minute power batteries, ensuring temporary support during power or system failures. Additionally, the manufacturer offers a range of compatible adult and pediatric oxygenators.

# CentriMag/PediVas (Abbott, USA)

The CentriMag and PediVAS are magnetically levitated centrifugal pumps designed to provide extracorporeal support for adult and pediatric patients, respectively [25–30]. The PediVAS system is suitable for use in both neonates and infants. It has a low priming volume of 14 mL, in contrast to the CentriMag's 31 mL (Fig. 4).

The inlet and outlet cannula diameters are 1/4" for the PediVAS and 3/8" for the CentriMag. Owing to differences in impeller design, the PediVAS can deliver flow rates of up to 1.7 L/min at 5500 rpm, while the CentriMag can reach up to 9.9 L/min at the same speed. This corresponds to a maximum working pressure of 540 mmHg for the PediVAS and 600 mmHg for the CentriMag.

Both devices are FDA-approved for up to 30 days of use for ECMO and ventricular assist applications. The PediVAS and CentriMag pump heads are compatible with the same console and system components (Fig. 5).

These CPs are magnetically levitated and operate without bearings, eliminating contact between the impeller and the housing. This design minimizes friction and heat generation, thereby reducing the risk of hemolysis and thrombosis. The motor is passively cooled through ambient-temperature convective airflow.

# Medtronic Pumps (Medtronic Inc., USA)

Medtronic centrifugal pumps – specifically the Adult BPX-80 and Pediatric BP-50 – have been extensively used in open-heart surgery procedures [31–35]. These



Fig. 4. a, CentriMag centrifugal pump; b, PediVas centrifugal pump



Fig. 5. CentriMag drive system

pumps are available in two configurations: the BPX-80, with a priming volume of 80 mL for adult use, and the BP-50, with a 48 mL priming volume for pediatric patients. Both models feature a smooth vortex cone design (Fig. 6).

Both pumps are intended for short-term use. The BPX-80 features 3/8" inlet and outlet cannulae and can deliver flow rates of up to 8 L/min. The pediatric BP-50 pump provides flow rates of up to 1.5 L/min. These pumps are compatible with the Carmeda heparin-coated extracorporeal circuit (Carmeda AB, Sweden), which is designed to enhance biocompatibility.



Fig. 6. a, BPX-80 centrifugal pump for adult patients; b, BP-50 centrifugal pump for pediatric patients



Fig. 7. a, Affinity centrifugal blood pump; b, Medtronic Bio-Console for pump control

The Affinity centrifugal blood pump (AP40), a second-generation model of the BPX-80, offers a reduced priming volume of 40 mL. It incorporates a smooth cone and low-profile fins optimized for minimizing hemolysis (Fig. 7, a). This pump is compatible with the Medtronic Bio-Console and includes a new remote actuator for impeller speed control (Fig. 7, b).

The Affinity centrifugal pump provides blood flow rates of up to 10 L/min at lower rotational speeds compared to earlier Medtronic models. Its design minimizes heat generation by reducing friction from moving components and ceramic spherical bearings. This pump has shown low hemolysis, with less than 0.1 grams of hemoglobin released per 100 L of blood at a flow rate of 5 L/min [36].



Fig. 8. a, LivaNova Revolution centrifugal blood pump; b, Specialized pump control console

# LivaNova Revolution (Sorin Group, UK)

The LivaNova Revolution is another centrifugal pump, featuring a priming volume of 57 mL and 3/8" inlet and outlet connectors (Fig. 8, a) [37]. It is operated via a specialized console and is fully integrated with the Sorin LivaNova control system (Fig. 8, b).

The open impeller design of the LivaNova Revolution pump facilitates easy priming and de-airing. Its housing features an injection-molded nylon magnet impregnated with ferromagnetic particles, enhancing the pump's durability. The LivaNova system can deliver flow rates of up to 8 L/min. The Revolution 5 centrifugal pump received FDA approval for use in ECMO systems for durations of up to 5 days.

# Oxygenators for the ECMO system

A variety of oxygenators are currently available for both adult and pediatric ECMO systems. The key performance parameters of these devices have been analyzed and are summarized in Table 1 [38–44].

Table 1

	Filling volume (mL)	Maximum blood flow rate (rpm)	Gas exchange surface area (m <sup>2</sup> )	Heat exchange surface area (m <sup>2</sup> )	Surface coating	Maximum usage time
Medos HILITE 800 (for pediatric patients)	55	0.8	0.32	0.074	Heparin coating	Long-term use
Medos HILITE 2400 (for adult patients)	95	2.4	0.65	0.16	Heparin coating	Long-term use
Medos HILITE 7000 (for adult patients)	275	7	1.9	0.45	Heparin coating	Long-term use
Getinge QUADROX iD (for adult patients)	250	7	1.8	_	Bioline coating	30 days
Getinge QUADROX iD (for pediatric patients)	81	2.8	0.8	0.15	Bioline coating	30 days
Eurosets ECMO (for adult patients)	225	7	1.81	0.08	Phosphorylcholine	14 days
Eurosets ECMO (for pediatric patients)	190	4	1.35	0.08	Phosphorylcholine	14 days
Paragon Pediatric (for pediatric patients)	175	4	1.23	0.2	Rheopak Albumin coating	15 days
Paragon Mini (for pediatric patients)	225	5	1.78	0.2	Rheopak Albumin coating	15 days
Paragon Midi (for adult patients)	250	7	1.95	0.4	Rheopak Albumin coating	15 days
Paragon Maxi (for adult patients)	290	9	2.44	0.4	Rheopak Albumin coating	15 days
LivaNova EOS (for adult patients)	150	5	12	0.14	Phosphorylcholine	5 days
LivaNova Lilliput II (for pediatric patients)	90	2.3	0.67	0.02	Phosphorylcholine	5 days
Novalung Minilung (for pediatric patients)	95	2.4	0.65	0.074	Heparin coating	29 days
Novalung iLA Membrane (for adult patients)	225	4.5	1.3	-	Heparin coating	29 days
Novalung XLung (for adult patients)	275	7	1.9	0.45	Heparin coating	29 days

Main technical specifications of oxygenators for an ECMO system

Table 2

	Advantages of extracorporeal pumps	Disadvantages of extracorporeal pumps
Maquet Rotaflow Pump	<ol> <li>Minimal shear stress inside the pump cavities.</li> <li>There is a switch to manual operation mode.</li> <li>Continuous use for up to 14 days</li> </ol>	High hemolysis rates
Medos Delta Stream DP3 Pump	<ol> <li>Can create an optional pulsing operation mode from 40 to 90 beats/min.</li> <li>Unique zero flow mode that prevents unwanted backflow.</li> <li>A portable (~10 kg) console with two batteries for 90 minutes</li> </ol>	No switch to manual operation
CentriMag Pump / PediVas Pump	Magnetic levitation that reduces the risk of hemolysis and thrombosis	No backup power supply
Medtronic BPX-80 / BP-50	<ol> <li>There is a heparin-coated modification.</li> <li>High preload sensitivity</li> </ol>	High hemolysis rates. Short-term use
Medtronic Affinity	<ol> <li>Low hemolysis rates.</li> <li>High pump efficiency</li> </ol>	Short-term use
Revolution LivaNova Pump	<ol> <li>Low coefficient of friction due to unsealed bearings.</li> <li>Easy filling and venting of pump cavities.</li> <li>Nylon magnet impregnated with ferromagnetic particles, pressure-cast, with characteristics that, in combination with the impeller, increase the longevity of the pump</li> </ol>	Only 2 channels for pressure measurement and two flow limits can be set. Short-term use

#### Summary data on extracorporeal pump application

# DISCUSSION

This review summarizes the key characteristics of pumps and oxygenators currently used in modern clinical ECMO practice. Based on the collected data, the main advantages and limitations of various extracorporeal pumps have been identified and are presented in Table 2.

In evaluating CPs for ECMO, considerations extend beyond the performance of oxygenators under varying flow and pressure conditions. Equally important are the pressure and flow requirements within the cannula connected to the patient. In many cases, particularly in patients with low body mass or small vessel diameter, smaller cannulas are required. For instance, at a flow rate of 5 L/min, a 5 mm diameter cannula can produce a pressure drop of up to 150 mmHg. This substantial resistance must be carefully factored into system design and patient management.

The growing number of ECMO procedures performed in intensive care and cardiac intensive care units over recent decades has demonstrated high survival rates among critically ill patients. Currently, the systems in use are predominantly imported, highlighting the need for the development of Russian-made CPs.

The development and implementation of domestically produced CPs is extremely important and essential. It would not only enhance the quality of medical care but also contribute to the creation of locally produced consumables required for clinical procedures.

At this stage, scientific data supporting the selection of specific pump models for further improvement are available. Advancing domestic CPs for clinical use will lay the foundation for the production of locally sourced consumables for ECMO procedures.

# CONCLUSION

Based on the collected data, the use of magnetic levitation and centrifugal flow has proven to be both effective and safe for patient treatment. Reducing undesirable postoperative complications and promoting functional recovery are key clinical objectives in the application of ECMO systems in clinical practice.

In alignment with global standards for the development of such systems, medical and technical requirements have been formulated for the first Russian-made extracorporeal pump currently under development for ECMO circuits. Ongoing research will focus on threedimensional mathematical modeling of the CP design, calculations for the key components, creation of prototypes, and testing them on hydrodynamic test benches to ensure compliance with specified medical and technical criteria.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# BIODEGRADABLE SILK-BASED PRODUCTS FOR REGENERATIVE MEDICINE

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Silk is becoming one of the key materials in contemporary bioengineering and medicine due to its unique physicochemical and biological properties. This review article discusses the main components of silk, fibroin and sericin, their structure and functional characteristics, as well as their importance in the production of biocompatible and biodegradable materials. Modern methods of modifying silk to enhance its mechanical and biological properties are considered, including physical, chemical, and genetic manipulation. The use of silk in tissue engineering, development of medical implants, controlled drug delivery systems, and biosensors is given particular consideration. In conclusion, the prospects for further silk research targeted at creating innovative biomaterials for medical applications are discussed.

Keywords: silk, silk fibroin, tissue engineering, regenerative medicine.

Silk has captivated scientists and researchers for centuries due to its remarkable properties and wide range of applications. In the modern scientific landscape, interest in silk has grown substantially owing to its unique biological, chemical, and mechanical characteristics. Its exceptional biocompatibility, biodegradability, mechanical strength, and ability to be functionalized have positioned silk as a highly valuable material in the development of medical devices and bioengineered constructs.

## COMPLEX CHARACTERISTICS

As a natural biopolymer, silk stands out for its superior physical and chemical properties, distinguishing it from other natural fibers. Its two primary components – fibroin and sericin – are integral to its structure and functionality. The chemical composition and interaction between these proteins play a key role in determining silk's properties and its wide-ranging applications.

Fibroin is the primary structural component of silk, responsible for its strength and elasticity [1]. Chemically, fibroin is a polypeptide composed of long chains of amino acids that form highly ordered structures known as  $\beta$ -sheets. These  $\beta$ -sheets are stabilized by strong hydrogen bonds between adjacent polypeptide chains, contributing to fibroin's distinctive mechanical properties [2]. In addition to these beta sheets, amorphous domains may also be present within the fibroin structure, providing enhanced flexibility to the material.

The structural integrity of fibroin is further reinforced by intermolecular hydrogen bonds that stabilize its threedimensional structure and adds to its mechanical resilience. Fibroin's amino acid composition is predominantly glycine (~50%), alanine (~30%), and serine (~10%) [3]. The high content of glycine and alanine is crucial to its structural properties. Glycine, with its minimal side chain (a single hydrogen atom), allows for tight packing of polypeptide chains, enabling the formation of compact and stable structures. Alanine, with a slightly larger methyl side chain, further stabilizes these structures, enhancing the overall strength of the material.

The high tensile strength of fibroin makes it an ideal material for creating sutures and biocompatible implants that must endure mechanical stress within the body [4]. Its notable elasticity enhances user comfort and enables implants and sutures to adapt to tissue movement and physiological changes [5].

The physicochemical properties of fibroin are critical to its broad range of biomedical applications. These properties include hydrophobicity, chemical resistance, and the capacity to be processed into diverse structural forms. Notably, fibroin exhibits low hygroscopicity [4], which contributes to its mechanical integrity and durability in moisture-rich environments – a characteristic particularly advantageous in reducing the risk of infection in medical settings.

Its chemical stability is another significant attribute; fibroin demonstrates resistance to a wide spectrum of chemical agents, including certain acids and alkalis. This resilience enhances its suitability for use in medical devices and materials that may encounter harsh chemical conditions. Furthermore, fibroin can be fabricated into a variety of formats – such as films, gels, and sutures – thereby extending its applications [6].

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Sericin is the second major protein in silk and plays a critical role as a water-soluble binding agent that holds fibroin fibers together. Unlike the highly ordered structure of fibroin, sericin has an amorphous and less organized structure, rich in polar amino acids such as serine, tyrosine, and aspartic acid. These amino acids facilitate the formation of hydrogen bonds and strong interactions with water molecules, giving sericin its distinctive hydrophilic properties [7, 8].

Due to its high content of hydrophilic amino acids, sericin readily interacts with water, enabling it to retain moisture and form hydrogels. This property enhances its function as a natural adhesive, securing fibroin fibers and contributing to the overall integrity of silk.

The interaction between fibroin and sericin results in a cohesive and functionally efficient silk structure [9]. In natural silk cocoons, fibroin forms the structural core, while sericin coats and binds the fibers, adding strength, stability, and protection against environmental stressors.

The chemical composition of silk largely determines its suitability for various applications [10, 11]. Fibroin fibers, known for their high tensile strength and resistance to external stressors, are widely used in the production of wound dressings, medical implants, sutures, and other biomedical materials. Sericin's hydrophilic nature makes it ideal for cosmetic and medical products aimed at enhancing moisturization and adhesion.

One of silk's key advantages is its biocompatibility, a critical factor for materials used in medical and surgical procedures [5]. Silk fibroin (SF), in particular, integrates seamlessly into biological systems with minimal adverse reactions, largely due to its natural origin and favorable structural properties. As a natural protein, SF is readily recognized by the body, reducing the likelihood of inflammatory responses or immune rejection [12].

When in contact with living tissue, fibroin does not induce severe immune reactions such as inflammation or allergic responses. Its biocompatibility is further supported by its low toxicity and minimal mechanical irritation [13]. Moreover, SF actively supports tissue healing and regeneration. For example, fibroin-based films and scaffolds can function as temporary substrates that facilitate cell attachment, proliferation, and differentiation, thereby creating optimal conditions for tissue repair [14, 15].

#### BIODEGRADATION

Biodegradation is a crucial property of silk as it determines how silk behaves after implantation. Biodegradation refers to the process by which silk is naturally broken down and eliminated from the body through enzymatic and other biological mechanisms that degrade its polypeptide chains [16].

This property makes silk an ideal material for medical implants and other biodegradable biostructures, as it can be gradually absorbed and replaced by natural tissue. Consequently, this reduces the need for repeated surgical procedures and promotes faster patient recovery.

In addition, the biodegradation of silk products minimizes the risk of long-term inflammatory responses and other adverse effects. As a biodegradable material, silk is well-suited for creating temporary scaffolds that support tissue function until the body regenerates its lost tissue.

SF undergoes controlled biodegradation, allowing for precise regulation of the degradation timeline and rate [17]. Various processing techniques are employed to manipulate this process, including structural modifications and incorporation of specific additives [52, 53]. The biodegradation rate can also be influenced by environmental factors such as temperature, humidity, and enzymatic activity within body tissues.

It is also important to note that sericin, the second protein component of silk, is prone to biodegradation as well. Research has demonstrated that, unlike fibroin, which has a denser and more stable structure, sericin is water-soluble and, therefore, more readily biodegraded [54]. This property makes sericin particularly suitable for applications where a faster degradation rate is desired.

# APPLICATION OF SILK FIBROIN IN TISSUE ENGINEERING AND REGENERATIVE MEDICINE

SF is widely used in tissue engineering, primarily to create biocompatible scaffolds that support tissue growth and regeneration [18]. Thanks to its structural strength and flexibility, SF-based matrices can be fabricated into various forms – films, scaffolds, and hydrogels – that closely mimic the natural extracellular matrix of tissues. These matrices facilitate cell adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation, making them effective in regenerating skin, bone, cartilage, and other tissues.

Research has shown that SF scaffolds promote the growth and migration of various cell types, including fibroblasts, osteoblasts, and chondrocytes, thereby aiding in the regeneration of damaged tissues [14, 15, 19]. Furthermore, SF can be modified with bioactive molecules, such as growth factors, to enhance its interaction with cells and further accelerate the regenerative process.

Examples of SF applications in tissue engineering include the creation of skin coatings for treating burns and wounds, as well as bone and cartilage substitutes [10, 14, 19]. Silk-based scaffolds and hydrogels can serve as temporary implants to support tissue regeneration following surgical procedures. In some cases, these materials are combined with other biomaterials, such as collagen or hyaluronic acid, to enhance both their mechanical strength and biological properties. Additionally, ongoing research focuses on creating three-dimensional printed structures made from silk proteins, which could be used for precise reconstruction of complex anatomical structures [20].

#### **MEDICAL IMPLANTS**

Silk is also widely employed in the production of medical implants [21]. A well-known example is surgical suture materials, which offer high tensile strength and minimal immune response [22]. Beyond sutures, silk proteins are used in developing a range of implants, including skeletal fixators, vascular prostheses, and devices for nerve tissue repair. The biocompatibility and mechanical strength of these silk-based implants ensure their stable integration with biological tissues and reliable long-term function.

For instance, SF-based skeletal fixators are used to stabilize and support bone structures in the treatment of fractures and other bone injuries [23, 24]. Unlike traditional metal fixators, silk-based structures are immune to corrosion and can be fully bioresorbable once the healing process is complete. This property reduces the risk of long-term complications and eliminates the need for additional surgeries to remove the fixators.

Silk vascular prostheses are being developed as replacements for damaged or blocked blood vessels [25–27]. Due to its excellent mechanical properties, silk can be processed to replicate the elasticity and strength of natural blood vessels. Furthermore, these silk prostheses can be modified to enhance anticoagulant properties, which helps reduce the risk of thrombosis.

In nerve tissue repair, silk scaffolds are being developed to support the growth and directed repair of nerve fibers [28]. Silk can be used to create microtubules and other structures that guide axon growth, promoting functional recovery from peripheral nervous system injuries. Experimental studies have shown that silk-based implants can significantly enhance nerve fiber regeneration, restoring both sensory and motor functions in animal models [29–32].

#### CONTROLLED DRUG DELIVERY

Controlled drug delivery is another significant application of silk proteins in medicine. SF microspheres and nanoparticles can be used to encapsulate and deliver a range of drugs, including antibacterial agents, anticancer drugs, and proteins. The unique properties of fibroin allow for the regulation of drug release rates, enabling sustained and controlled therapy [33, 34].

For example, fibroin nanoparticles can be used to deliver anticancer drugs directly to tumor cells, minimizing damage to healthy tissues and reducing side effects [35]. Additionally, fibroin microspheres are ideal for vaccine delivery, providing a gradual release of antigens and stimulating a sustained immune response [36, 37]. This approach is particularly valuable for the development of vaccines targeting chronic infections and cancers, where long-term and stable immune system activation is essential.

#### **BIOSENSORS AND DIAGNOSTIC DEVICES**

Recently, researchers have been exploring the use of silk in the development of biosensors and diagnostic devices. Thanks to its biocompatibility and functionalizability, silk provides an ideal foundation for sensors that can detect biomolecules, pathogens, and other critical analytical targets [38]. These sensors have potential applications in disease diagnosis, treatment monitoring, and the development of personalized medical strategies.

Examples of silk-based biosensors include devices designed to monitor glucose levels in diabetic patients, detect specific biomarkers for early cancer diagnosis, and track the condition of wound surfaces to prevent infections [39, 40]. These sensors are not only useful in medical settings but can also be employed in home care, making diagnostics more accessible and convenient for patients. Furthermore, they can be integrated into wearable medical devices, enabling continuous monitoring of a patient's condition and facilitating early detection of any changes [55].

#### **MODIFIED SILK**

Genetically modified silkworms can produce silk enriched with functional peptides and proteins, such as antibacterial agents or growth factors [41]. These genetically modified silks may exhibit enhanced mechanical and biological properties compared to natural silk. For instance, the incorporation of genes encoding elastin-like peptides can improve the elasticity and strength of silk fibers [56]. Additionally, the addition of antimicrobial peptides can make silk more resistant to bacterial infections [57].

Silk proteins are also used in the fabrication of composite materials with enhanced properties. By combining SF with other biomaterials, such as collagen, chitosan, or carbon nanotubes, it is possible to create materials with unique mechanical and biological characteristics [42–44]. These composites have applications in medical implants, tissue engineering, and biosensors. For example, composites made from SF and carbon nanotubes show potential in cardiac tissue engineering for heart repair [45].

Chemical modification of fibroin involves adding various functional groups and molecules to its surface [46]. For instance, incorporating antibacterial agents can make fibroin resistant to bacterial infections [47]. Additionally, modification with growth factors and other bioactive molecules enhances the interaction of silk fibroin (SF) with cells, promoting regenerative processes. Chemically modified fibroin has been shown to significantly improve tissue engraftment and regeneration [48].

Physical modification of silk focuses on altering its structure and morphology to enhance its mechanical and biological properties. For example, creating porous structures can improve permeability and biocompatibility, which is crucial for tissue engineering applications [49, 50]. Nanotechnology enables the fabrication of silk nanostructures with unique properties, such as increased strength and elasticity. Furthermore, physically modified SF has been shown to improve cell adhesion and proliferation, which aids in tissue regeneration and wound healing.

# COMPARATIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF SILK-BASED MATERIALS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS

To clearly compare the characteristics of silk-based materials in various fields of application, Table provides an overview of key properties and benefits. It summarizes the use of fibroin and other silk components in tissue engineering, medical implants, biosensors, and drug delivery systems.

Table

Area of application	Material	Product	Result	Manufacturing method	Article
Tissue engineering	Fibroin	Corneal regeneration membranes	Corneal regeneration membranesStimulates cell growth, supports cell functional activityIrrigation meth		[14, 15]
Tissue engineering	Natural silk fabrics	Tissue regeneration scaffolds	Supports tissue regeneration	Chemical treatment of silk fabrics	[18]
Tissue engineering	Fibroin	Bone regeneration scaffold	Supports cell growth and regeneration	Irrigation method, freeze-thaw	[19]
Medical implants	Silk threads	Surgical threads	Minimal body reaction	Antibacterial treatment, thread tube weaving	[22]
Medical implants	Silk threads	Vascular prostheses	Enhanced tissue integration, excellent biocompatibility	Electrospinning	[25]
Medical implants	Silk threads	Endovascular prostheses	Reliability and long- term stability	Thread tube weaving, chemical treatment	[26]
Medical implants	Silk threads	Elastic vascular prostheses	Reduced risk of thrombosis	Thread tube weaving, chemical treatment	[27]
Neuroregeneration	Fibroin	Nerve regeneration hydrogels	Enhanced regeneration	Chemical modification	[29]
Neuroregeneration	Fibroin	Regeneration nanofiber tubes	Directed growth support	Electrospinning	[30]
Neuroregeneration	Fibroin	Nerve scaffolds	Accelerated regeneration	3D printing	[31]
Neuroregeneration	Fibroin	Hydrogels loaded with stem cells for brain regeneration	Function restoration after stroke	Cell integration into hydrogels	[32]
Drug delivery	Fibroin nanoparticles	Encapsulation of anticancer drugs	Precise delivery, minimization of side effects	Encapsulation	[35]
Drug delivery	Fibroin	Microspheres for DNA vaccine delivery	Improved immunogenicity	Encapsulation	[36]
Drug delivery	Fibroin	Microneedles for transdermal vaccine delivery	Efficient and painless delivery	Chemical treatment, casting of needle molds	[37]
Biosensors	Fibroin	Electrochemical glucose biosensors	Continuous glucose monitoring	Chemical treatment, casting of needle molds	[39]
Biosensors	Fibroin	Colorimetric biosensors on stable platforms	Accurate diagnosis, reuse	Chemical modification	[40]
Genetically modified silkworm	Fibroin	Components for enhancing mechanical properties	Enhanced mechanical properties	Use of transgenic silkworms	[41]
Tissue engineering	Fibroin	Composite matrices for bone regeneration	Enhanced cell adhesion and proliferation	Modification with nano- hydroxyapatite and gelatin	[42]

#### Silk application in medicine and biotechnology

Area of application	Material	Product	Result	Manufacturing method	Article
Tissue engineering	Fibroin	Cardiomyocyte matrices	Enhanced cardiomyocyte function	Electrospinning	[45]
Chemical modification	Fibroin	Modified fibroin	Modified fibroin Enhanced properties		[46]
Tissue engineering	Fibroin	Hydrogels for growth factor delivery	Growth factor delivery	Chemical treatment, UV irradiation	[48]
Tissue engineering	Fibroin	Hydrogels for bone tissue engineering	Enhanced properties	Sequential addition and porogen leaching	[50]
Medical implants	Fibroin Antheraea pernyi	Modified implants	Increased resistance to degradation	Acylation by succinyl anhydride	[52]
Pharmacology	Fibroin-based nanoparticles	Nanocapsules for drug delivery	Controlled drug release	Self-organization of fibroin into nanostructures	[53]
Biosensors	Fibroin	Biosensors and wearable devices	Continuous health monitoring	Formation of flexible fibroin films	[55]
Genetically modified silkworm	Transgenic silk with antibacterial peptides	Antibacterial sutures	Resistance to bacterial infections	Genetic modification of silkworms	[57]

# CONCLUSION

Silk and fibroin continue to be among the most promising materials for research and development across a range of scientific disciplines. The growing scientific interest in silk is driven by its unique properties and broad potential for application in various fields.

A primary area of focus is the development of innovative biomedical materials. For example, biodegradable silk- and fibroin-based implants are being investigated for their potential to repair damaged tissues and organs [51]. Ongoing research aims to create advanced dressings and suture materials that offer enhanced mechanical properties and promote tissue regeneration [18].

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# NATIVE LIVER FIBROSIS IN PEDIATRIC LIVER RECIPIENTS: ASSOCIATION WITH GENETIC POLYMORPHISM IN THE *TGFB1* GENE

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**Objective:** to examine the relationship between native liver fibrosis and *TGFB1* gene polymorphism in pediatric liver recipients. **Materials and methods.** Fibrosis of varying severity was diagnosed (METAVIR scale) based on histological analysis of the native liver of children (45 boys and 62 girls aged 3 to 73 months). Genomic DNA was genotyped by real-time polymerase chain reaction using TaqMan probes. **Results.** The prevalence of the *TGFB1* single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) rs1800469, rs1800470, and rs1800471 was examined in both children with liver fibrosis of varying severity and in healthy individuals. The distribution of rs1800470 in children with fibrosis was 50% homozygotes of major allele, 29% heterozygotes and 21% homozygotes of minor allele. This distribution was not consistent with the Hardy–Weinberg principle (p = 0.00026). Conclusion. Liver fibrosis in pediatric liver recipients is linked to the rs1800470 polymorphism of the *TGFB1* gene. Carriage of the heterozygous rs1800470 genotype may be a protective factor against liver fibrosis in children with liver failure.

Keywords: liver fibrosis, biliary atresia and hypoplasia, pediatric liver recipients, rs1800469, rs1800470, rs1800471.

# INTRODUCTION

In recent years, substantial progress has been achieved in developing a highly effective treatment system for children with congenital hepatobiliary disorders. Advanced surgical techniques for LT have been introduced, many of which are recognized as globally pioneering – including procedures involving ABO-incompatible donors. The number of LTs has notably increased, even among very young pediatric patients. Arguably, the most remarkable accomplishment in this field has been the complete fulfillment of the national demand for pediatric LT, offering a full recovery to patients who were once considered untreatable [1, 2].

Key areas of current research include identifying genetic predisposition patterns, improving methods for predicting disease progression, and developing strategies to prevent post-LT complications. One promising direction for integration into clinical pediatric practice is the investigation of gene polymorphisms that influence the expression of key factors regulating the formation, development, and function of the hepatobiliary system in children before and after birth.

Previous studies have demonstrated that children with liver failure of various etiologies exhibit a distinct distribution of rare haplotypes of the TGF- $\beta 1$  (transforming growth factor beta 1) gene, which regulates the

expression of the key profibrogenic cytokine TGF- $\beta 1$ , compared to healthy individuals. The clinical relevance of three single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the TGFB1 gene – rs1800469, rs1800470, and rs1800471 – has been established, particularly in relation to post-transplant complications such as graft rejection and infections [3, 4].

However, the broad spectrum of liver diseases among the studied patients – including congenital cholestatic and metabolic disorders, as well as acquired cirrhosis and hepatitis – limits the ability to isolate the role of TGFB1 gene polymorphisms. This necessitates further investigation in more homogeneous patient groups. Cirrhosis, a terminal stage of liver fibrosis, is characterized by excessive production and accumulation of extracellular matrix, leading to partial or complete impairment of hepatic function. The fibrotic process involves hepatocytes, lymphocytes, and a cascade of proinflammatory and profibrogenic cytokines [5, 6].

The aim of the present study was to analyze the association between native liver fibrosis and SNPs in the TGF- $\beta 1$  gene – rs1800469, rs1800470, and rs1800471 – in pediatric LT recipients during the early post-transplant period. The findings of this research are expected to clarify the role of TGF- $\beta 1$  gene polymorphisms in the pathogenesis of liver fibrosis and to evaluate their potential

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clinical value in predicting fibrosis risk in pediatric liver recipients.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study included 107 pediatric LT recipients (45 boys and 62 girls) aged 3 to 73 months (median age: 8 months), and a control group of 199 healthy individuals (79 males and 120 females) with a mean age of  $32.7 \pm 9.6$  years.

Indications for LT in the pediatric cohort were endstage liver disease resulting from the following conditions: biliary atresia (n = 61), biliary tract hypoplasia (n = 8), Alagille syndrome (n = 8), Caroli's disease (n = 8), Byler's disease (n = 6), and other rare hepatic disorders (n = 16), including Crigler–Najjar syndrome, glycogen storage disease type I (Von Gierke disease), alpha-1 antitrypsin deficiency, tyrosinemia, fulminant hepatitis, autoimmune hepatitis, and cryptogenic cirrhosis.

Liver fibrosis of varying severity was diagnosed in the recipients based on macroscopic and histologic examination of the native liver explants obtained during transplantation, evaluated according to the METAVIR scoring system: F1 (stellate enlargement of portal tracts without septa) in 5 cases, F2 (portal expansion with isolated porto-portal septa) in 9 cases, F3 (numerous septa without cirrhosis) in 14 cases, and F4 (cirrhosis) in 79 cases.

All patients received treatment and underwent comprehensive clinical, laboratory, and instrumental evaluation in accordance with the protocols at Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs. LT was performed using grafts from living-related donors. Post-transplant, recipients were maintained on double- or triple-drug immunosuppressive therapy regimens.

The detailed methodology and statistical analysis employed in this study have been previously described in our publication, "Association between the Tgfb1 Gene Haplotype and Liver Diseases in Children" [7].



# **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Fig. 1 illustrates the distribution frequencies of three polymorphic variants of the TGF- $\beta I$  gene – rs1800469, rs1800470, and rs1800471 – among pediatric liver recipients with fibrosis.

Comparative analysis of genotype frequencies of the studied SNPs between children with liver fibrosis and healthy controls revealed no statistically significant differences for rs1800469 and rs1800471. However, a significant difference was observed in the distribution of rs1800470 genotypes between the two groups (Fig. 2).

As shown in Fig. 2, a statistically significant difference was observed in the distribution of the heterozygous genotype of rs1800470. In children with liver fibrosis, the AG genotype was 1.6 times less frequent than in healthy individuals ( $\chi^2 = 9.4778$ , p = 0.0236).

In healthy individuals, all three SNPs conformed to Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium. Among children with liver fibrosis, rs1800469 and rs1800471 also demonstrated equilibrium ( $\chi^2 = 1.7648$ , p = 0.23;  $\chi^2 = 0.1236$ , p = 0.99, respectively). However, the distribution of rs1800470 significantly deviated from Hardy–Weinberg expectations ( $\chi^2 = 13.7673$ , p = 0.00026).

These findings suggest that among the three studied SNPs in the TGF- $\beta$ 1 gene, rs1800470 displays a notable deviation from Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium in the group of children with liver fibrosis. This deviation may reflect a potential medical significance of this locus under study.

A comparative analysis of genotype frequencies in children with liver fibrosis and healthy individuals was conducted using different allelic interaction models, including codominant, dominant, recessive, and over dominant (Table).

Table shows significant differences in the distribution of rs1800470 SNP genotypes in codominant (OR = 0.49, CI 0.29–0.84, p = 0.0088) and over dominant (OR = 0.47, CI 0.28–0.77, p = 0.0024) models. The findings suggest that, in both models, the heterozygous AG genotype is significantly less frequent in children with liver fibrosis, potentially serving as a protective factor against



Healthy individuals Children with fibrosis

Fig. 1. Distribution of genotypes rs1800469, rs1800470 and rs1800471 of the TGFB1 gene in pediatric liver recipients with liver fibrosis

Fig. 2. Distribution of rs1800470 genotypes of the TGFB1 gene in healthy individuals and in pediatric liver recipients with liver fibrosis. \* p < 0.05 vs. healthy individuals

#### Table

SNPs/Model	Genotype	Frequency, % children with fibrosis	Frequency, % healthy individuals	OR (95% CI)	P value
	AA	50.0	39.4	1.00	
Codominant	AG	29.2	47.0	0.49 (0.29–0.84)	0.0088*
	GG	20.8	13.6	1.20 (0.62–2.33)	
Dominant	AA	50.0	39.4	1.00	0.076
Dominant	AG-GG	50.0	60.6	0.65 (0.40–1.05)	0.070
Deservine	AA-AG	79.2	86.4	1.00	0.11
Recessive	GG	20.8	13.6	1.66 (0.89–3.09)	0.11
Oren de minert	AA-GG	70.8	53.0	1.00	0.0024*
Over dominant	AG	29.2	47.0	0.47 (0.28–0.77)	0.0024*

# Distribution of the TGFB1 polymorphism rs1800470 in children with liver fibrosis and in healthy individuals in different m odels

\* - p < 0.05.

its development. No significant differences in genotype distribution were observed in the other models. It is important to note that in our previous study, the distribution of the rs1800470 polymorphism in 225 children with end-stage liver failure did not show significant differences compared to healthy individuals. This discrepancy can likely be attributed to the absence of liver fibrosis in some recipients, where the indication for transplantation was based on conditions such as hepatitis and metabolic liver diseases, rather than liver fibrosis [7].

Our data show significant differences in the frequency of TGF- $\beta I$  gene polymorphisms between children with liver fibrosis and healthy individuals, suggesting a potential association between these genetic variants and susceptibility to liver fibrosis.

Several studies have investigated the role of  $TGF-\beta I$ gene polymorphisms in liver fibrosis in adult patients, but their results have been inconsistent. The authors suggest that these discrepancies may be attributed to the ethnic origin of the populations studied [8–10]. While some studies in European populations show a link between liver fibrosis and  $TGF-\beta I$  gene polymorphisms, this association has not been consistently observed in some Asian populations. Furthermore, research has indicated that  $TGF-\beta I$  gene polymorphisms could also play a role in the development of myocardial fibrosis and myocardial infarction [11–13].

The findings of our study may hold both scientific and practical significance. They contribute to a deeper understanding of the role of TGF- $\beta I$  gene polymorphisms in the development of tissue fibrosis and may be useful in assessing individual risk for fibrosis or identifying new therapeutic targets. Moreover, the presence of genotypes associated with an increased risk of fibrosis could be valuable in predicting post-transplant complications or individual responses to immunosuppressive therapy – areas that warrant further investigation.

# CONCLUSION

Liver fibrosis remains a significant clinical issue, with its causes and underlying mechanisms still under active investigation. In the present study, liver fibrosis was linked to TGF- $\beta$ 1 gene polymorphisms. Specifically, among pediatric liver recipients with verified native liver fibrosis, the heterozygous genotype at the rs1800470 locus of the TGF- $\beta$ 1 gene was found to be 1.6 times less frequent compared to healthy individuals. This finding suggests a potential protective role of the heterozygous rs1800470 variant against the development of liver fibrosis. Continued investigation into the TGF- $\beta$ 1 gene polymorphisms may enable personalized prediction of post-transplant complications.

## The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# THE FIRST EXPERIENCE IN NORMOTHERMIC EX VIVO KIDNEY PERFUSION (CASE REPORT)

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**Objective:** to assess if normothermic *ex vivo* machine perfusion (NMP) of a kidney from an expanded criteria donor (ECD) is feasible and safe. **Materials and methods.** NMP of the right kidney from an ECD was performed on a device developed at Botkin Hospital. A solution based on donor's blood with the addition of Ringer's lactate solution and human albumin was used for perfusion. The temperature in the circuit was maintained at 37 °C. Perfusion lasted for 203 minutes, after which the renal resistive index was almost halved from 0.33 to 0.16. 120 ml of urine was obtained. Results. The right kidney was successfully transplanted after perfusion. There was immediate function of the right renal graft in the postoperative period. The recipient's serum creatinine level was 530  $\mu$ mol/L on day 1 following transplantation and 170  $\mu$ mol/L on day 14 of discharge. The left kidney was preserved by static cold storage and further transplanted to the recipient. **Conclusion.** The use of NMP to preserve grafts obtained from ECDs is safe and feasible in clinical practice. Further studies are required to determine the clear indications for its use and to formulate an optimal procedure for its implementation.

Keywords: expanded criteria donor, kidney transplantation, perfusion devices.

#### INTRODUCTION

Organ transplantation is a remarkable achievement of the 20th century that has prolonged the lives of many thousands of patients. However, a major challenge in this field remains the persistent imbalance between the demand for donor organs and their limited availability [1]. One potential strategy to address this shortage is the use of expanded criteria donors (ECDs) [2]. In the context of kidney transplantation, ECDs are typically defined as donors aged 60 years and above, or those aged 50-59 years who present with at least two of the following comorbidities: cerebrovascular cause of death, a history of hypertension, or a serum creatinine level exceeding 132 µmol/L [3]. Despite this approach, organs from ECDs are often considered suboptimal due to concerns over their pathological condition and uncertainties regarding their functional adequacy post-transplant.

Traditional kidney preservation techniques rely primarily on hypothermia. By lowering tissue temperature, enzymatic activity is significantly slowed, with metabolic rates decreasing by approximately two- to threefold for every 10 °C decrease in temperature [4]. Hypothermia slows down adenosine triphosphate (ATP) depletion in the cell, preventing the breakdown of cellular structures. However, as the duration of cold preservation increases, ATP levels continue to decline, eventually leading to cellular necrosis [4, 5].

Cold ischemia time (CIT) is a well-established independent risk factor for post-transplant organ dysfunction and is closely associated with delayed graft function [6]. This is particularly relevant for organs retrieved from ECDs, which are inherently more susceptible to ischemic damage due to pre-existing risk factors that contribute to graft vulnerability [7–9]. While organ donation programs implement various strategies to minimize CIT – especially for ECD organs – logistical constraints often limit the effectiveness of these efforts. As a result, there is a growing interest in modifying mechanical preservation methods, such as dynamic perfusion, to reduce static cold storage duration and improve graft outcomes.

In the past decade, organ perfusion at subnormothermic and normothermic temperatures has garnered significant research interest. Unlike traditional approaches that suppress cellular activity, normothermic conditions aim to preserve aerobic metabolism and promote the restoration of cellular function. This strategy offers several potential advantages over static cold storage (SCS) and hypothermic machine perfusion, including minimizing or avoiding cold ischemia-induced injury. By maintaining physiologic conditions, normothermic machine perfusi-

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on (NMP) can activate cellular recovery mechanisms and enable functional assessment of donor kidneys.

To explore the clinical applicability of NMP within our hospital setting, we developed a preliminary perfusion protocol. Using this approach, we perfused one kidney from a donor older than 60 years prior to transplantation. Both kidneys were subsequently transplanted into recipients at Botkin Hospital. The clinical details and outcomes of this case are presented below.

# **CLINICAL CASE**

#### Donor characteristics

The donor was a 65-year-old male who succumbed to a traumatic brain injury. He remained in the intensive care unit for 55 hours prior to organ procurement. During this period, there were no episodes of circulatory arrest or hypotension. Peak vasopressor support did not exceed 350 ng/kg/min. Initial laboratory values showed a urea level of 4.3 mmol/L and a serum creatinine level of 92.0 µmol/L.

Following the declaration of brain death, the heart, liver, and both kidneys were retrieved. Examination of the right and left kidneys revealed medium-sized organs with a homogeneous color and no tumor-like formations. Each kidney had a single renal artery originating from the aorta, which exhibited atherosclerotic changes, and a single renal vein. Both kidneys were deemed suitable for transplantation and were subsequently transported to Botkin Hospital.

# Kidney preservation under normothermic machine perfusion

The NMP circuit was developed at Botkin Hospital and is based on a Maquet heart-lung machine equipped with a roller pump and a Skipper AF Plus oxygenator (Eurosets). A custom-designed perfusion container, created using 3D modeling, was used to accommodate the kidney during NMP. A view of the right kidney within this container during perfusion is shown in Fig. 1.

The perfusion circuit was primed with 1200 ml of perfusate composed of donor blood collected prior to in situ cold perfusion (800 ml), Ringer's lactate solution, and human albumin, adjusted to achieve a target hematocrit of 15–25%. The right kidney graft was positioned in the perfusion container and connected to both arterial and venous circuits. A thin venous catheter was inserted into the ureter to facilitate urine drainage. Synthetic glucocorticoids, heparin, glucose, insulin, prostaglandin E1, amino acid solution, antibiotics, and sodium bicarbonate were injected into the circuit during perfusion. The perfusion temperature was maintained at 37 °C using a stationary Maquet temperature control device.



Fig. 1. View of a donor kidney in a normothermic perfusion container

Arterial blood samples were taken periodically to monitor acid-base balance, electrolyte levels, and other biochemical parameters. Renal artery pressure was continuously measured and displayed on a separate monitor. Perfusion pressure increased from 90 mmHg at the start to 130 mmHg by the end of the procedure. Urine output was quantitatively measured throughout the perfusion.

The interval between initiation of in situ cold perfusion during organ retrieval and commencement of ex vivo NMP was 300 minutes (5 hours). NMP lasted for 203 minutes. Details are presented in Table 1.

At 15 minutes after initiation of perfusion, urine output was 10 ml. Over the full duration of perfusion, a total of 120.0 ml of urine was produced. Clinical and biochemical analysis of the urine was performed, as detailed in Table 2.

Upon completion of NMP, the right kidney was deemed suitable for transplantation and was successfully transplanted into the recipient. The left kidney was transplanted without undergoing additional perfusion.

#### Result of zero-time kidney biopsies

The right kidney biopsy revealed 15 glomeruli, which appeared anemic and ischemic. Tubular structures demonstrated granular protein dystrophy and epithelial cell necrosis. Arterioles and interstitium showed no pathological features. The left kidney biopsy contained 7 glomeruli, one of which was globally sclerotic. Several glomeruli showed signs of anemia and ischemia. Tubules exhibited granular protein dystrophy and epithelial cell necrosis. Two muscular arteries and the arterioles were without pathological findings. Microfocal interstitial sclerosis was observed.

Conclusion: Findings are consistent with mild to moderate acute tubular necrosis in both kidneys. **Right kidney transplant recipient:** The recipient was a 52-year-old woman with end-stage CKD secondary to polycystic kidney disease. She had been undergoing renal replacement therapy (RRT) via hemodialysis since 2019 and was placed on the transplant waiting list on January 9, 2020. Kidney transplantation was performed on October 10, 2023. Cold kidney storage lasted 300 minutes prior to NMP and 132 minutes following NMP. Upon restoration of blood flow, there were no visible signs of reperfusion syndrome, and urine outflow via the ureter was observed.

A Doppler ultrasound scan performed immediately post-transplantation revealed a resistive index (RI) of 0.75 (see Fig. 2).

Table 1

i arameters of normotherine ex 7770 kinney perfusion						
Measurement time points	Donor blood	0 min, start	15 min	45 min	90 min	180 min
	from the bag	of perfusion				
Perfusion parameters	(before perfusion)					
Renal artery pressure, mmHg		60	90	96	134	130
Perfusion rate, mL/min		180	400.0	430.0	800.0	800.0
Perfusion pressure/rate ratio, resistive index		0.33	0.22	0.22	0.16	0.16
Perfusion temperature, °C		—	37.0	37.1	37.1	37.0
Diuresis, mL		—	10.0	—	30.0	80.0
pH	6.83	6.72	7.22	7.48	7.56	7.99
pO <sub>2</sub> , mmHg	153.0	190.0	180.0	197.0	278.0	293.0
pCO <sub>2</sub> , mmHg	120.8	34.4	16.8	9.3	9.4	7.0
$K^+$ , mmol/L	2.6	3.0	2.9	2.8	3.0	3.3
Na, mmol/L	153.0	152.0	149.0	151.0	154.0	162.0
BE, mmol/L	-13.0	-30.0	-21.0	-17.0	-14.0	2.0
Hct, %	<15.0	<15.0	<15.0	<15.0	<15.0	<15.0
Glucose, mmol/L	35.2	10.7	8.3	8.3	9.4	15.0
Urea, mmol/L			2.0			1.7
Creatinine, µmol/L			44.0			44.0

Parameters of normathermic or vive kidney perfusion

*Note:*  $pO_2$ , partial pressure of oxygen;  $pCO_2$ , partial pressure of carbon dioxide; K<sup>+</sup>, potassium; Na, sodium; BE, base excess; Het, hematocrit.

Table 2

Analysis of a urine sample produced by kidney during *ex-vivo* normothermic perfusion

Parameters	120th minute of perfusion
Urinalysis	
Color	Light yellow
Transparency	Full
Specific weight	1.018
pH	5.5
Glucose, mmol/L	not detected
Protein, g/L	0.1
Ketone bodies, mmol/L	not detected
Urobilinogen, mmol/L	3.4
Leukocytes, count/µL	15.0
Epithelium, per field of view	0–5
Erythrocytes, per field of view	40.0
Cylinders, per field of view	0
Urine chemistry	
K <sup>+</sup> , mmol/L	49.0
Na <sup>+</sup> , mmol/L	62.0
Albumin, mg/L	573.72
Creatinine, µmol/L	181.0

*Note:* K<sup>+</sup>, potassium; Na, sodium.

Urine output on postoperative day 1 was 600 mL. Postoperative hemodialysis was not required. By the time of discharge on postoperative day 14, daily urine output had increased to 1900 mL. Laboratory values at discharge showed a blood urea level of 25.1 mmol/L and a serum creatinine level of 170 µmol/L (see Table 3).

Left kidney transplant recipient (non-perfused): A 54-year-old woman with end-stage CKD secondary to chronic glomerulonephritis and nephrosclerosis. She had been receiving RRT via hemodialysis since September 2021 and was placed on the transplant waiting list on May 13, 2022. Her first kidney transplantation was performed on November 18, 2022; however, the graft was removed on postoperative day 7. A kidney retransplantation was successfully performed on October 10, 2023, with evidence of primary graft function. On postoperative day 1, serum creatinine was 752 µmol/L and blood urea was 20.6 mmol/L. Urine output reached 600 mL within the first 24 hours. No postoperative hemodialysis was required. At the time of discharge on day 14, the patient had a daily urine output of 1900 mL, a blood urea level of 25.1 mmol/L, and a serum creatinine level of 170 µmol/L (see Table 3).



Fig. 2. Doppler ultrasound of the right kidney graft upon completion of transplantation to the recipient

Characteristics of right kidney recipient

Table 3

Characteristics	Right kidney recipient
Gender, male/female	Female
Age, years	52
Diagnosis	Stage 5 CKD, Polycystic kidney disease
Start of hemodialysis	2019
Number of HLA-A, B, Dr mismatches	4
Total cold ischemia time, min	432.0
Resistive index RI, at the end of surgery	0.75
RI, day 1	0.8
RI, day 7	0.76
RI, at discharge	0.67
Graft function	Primary
Number of hemodialysis sessions after transplantation	0
Urea/creatinine, day 1, mmol/L, µmol/L	14.1/530
Urea/creatinine, day 6, mmol/L, µmol/L	26.7/300
Urea/creatinine at discharge, mmol/L, µmol/L	25.1/170
Diuresis, day 1, mL	600
Diuresis at discharge, mL	1900
Inpatient stay, bed days	14

Note: RI, resistive index.

#### DISCUSSION

NMP represents a paradigm shift in donor organ preservation, offering the dual advantage of organ recovery and real-time functional assessment prior to transplantation. This report presents the first documented case of normothermic kidney perfusion (NKP) in clinical practice in Russia. The choice of a donor aligns with the current international strategy of using NMP for ECDs and donors after circulatory death. In this case, the donor was a 65-year-old individual who died from traumatic brain injury, with biochemical markers of renal function within normal reference ranges.

The perfusion circuit, composition of the perfusate, and perfusion protocol are similar to those described by Nicholson and Hosgood [10], leading experts from the United Kingdom with extensive experience in NKP. In 2013, Nicholson and Hosgood [10] published the results of the first clinical application of NMP. Between December 2010 and August 2012, they subjected 18 kidneys from ECDs to NMP. The transplant outcomes were compared with a control group of 47 recipients who received kidneys from ECDs preserved using static cold storage between March 2008 and August 2012 at the same transplant center. Both groups were comparable in terms of donor and recipient age, cold ischemia time, and were limited to first-time kidney transplant recipients.

During perfusion, renal blood flow was continuously monitored. The intrarenal resistive index (RI) was calculated as the ratio of mean arterial pressure to perfusion rate, measured every 5 minutes during the first 15 minutes and then every 15 minutes until the end of perfusion. Total urine output was recorded, and blood gas analysis was performed before and after perfusion to assess acid-base balance [10].

In our case, kidney perfusion was initiated at an arterial pressure of 60 mmHg, which gradually increased throughout the procedure, reaching 130 mmHg by the 180th minute. The perfusion rate also rose progressively, from 180.0 ml/min to 800.0 ml/min. RI decreased almost twofold during the perfusion, from 0.33 to 0.16. The temperature within the perfusion circuit was consistently maintained at 37  $^{\circ}$ C.

Nicholson et al. [10] reported more moderate perfusion parameters, maintaining mean arterial pressures between 52 and 70 mmHg during NMP. While all kidneys in their study demonstrated some fluctuations in RI during the initial 15 minutes of perfusion, a general downward trend in RI was observed. The authors found a statistically significant correlation between RI and donor age (p = 0.027), as well as between RI and reduced urine output during perfusion (p = 0.035).

Similar perfusion characteristics were reported by Canadian authors in their publication detailing the first clinical experience with normothermic perfusion in North America [11]. In their protocol, arterial pressure was initially set at 75 mmHg and maintained at 65 mmHg by adjusting the centrifugal pump speed. At the start of perfusion (0 hour), median renal artery blood flow was 279 mL/min (range: 60–547 mL/min), which increased over time. After one hour of perfusion, median flow had risen to 346 mL/min (range: 206–680 mL/min).

In our case, the partial pressure of oxygen  $(pO_2)$  at the beginning of NMP was below 200.0 mmHg (measured at 190.0 mmHg) and progressively increased throughout the procedure, reaching 293.0 mmHg by the end. The perfusate was prepared using the donor's blood, which was transported in a blood collection bag. Initial analysis of the acid-base status of the perfusate revealed severe acidosis, with a pH of 6.83, markedly elevated pCO<sub>2</sub> (120.8 mmHg), significant base deficit, and extremely high glucose levels. These findings are consistent with anaerobic conditions during donor blood preservation.

Most of these abnormalities were rapidly corrected following the initiation of perfusion, owing to the combined effects of the roller pump and oxygenator, as well as the introduction of sodium bicarbonate solution, potassium chloride to correct hypokalemia, and short-acting insulin to manage hyperglycemia. However, a persistent base (alkali) deficit was observed throughout most of the perfusion, despite repeated sodium bicarbonate administration. We hypothesize this may be due to impaired hydrogen ion excretion and bicarbonate reabsorption, indirectly indicating suboptimal renal function during perfusion – though this hypothesis requires further investigation.

Urine output was first noted at the 15th minute of perfusion. Due to the absence of further active diuresis, furosemide was introduced into the circuit, resulting in a positive diuretic response.

Overall, analysis of both hemodynamic and metabolic parameters during perfusion underscores the importance of strict adherence to protocol. Introduction of drugs into the circuit should be performed through the designated perfuser to prevent abrupt fluctuations in perfusate composition, especially during extended perfusion sessions. In this case, NMP lasted for 203 minutes.

In the study by Mazilescu et al. [11], 13 human kidney grafts were perfused for a median duration of 171 minutes (range: 44–275 minutes). One of the notable findings was the consistently high oxygen level in the perfusate, with a reported median  $pO_2$  of 562 mmHg. A single dose of bicarbonate solution was administered, following which the pH remained stable throughout the perfusion period. Urine output was not observed in 2 of the 13 cases. The authors highlighted a high degree of variability in urine production across the cohort, with a median of 16 mL and a range of 1–104.5 mL during perfusion.

In our study, lactate levels in the perfusate were not measured. However, Mazilescu et al. [11] reported that lactate concentrations remained relatively stable during perfusion, with a median value of 11.6 mmol/L at baseline (range: 7.9–15.25 mmol/L) and 10.13 mmol/L at the end of perfusion (range: 3.06–15.6 mmol/L). These findings suggest that stable lactate levels, despite being relatively high, may be indicative of satisfactory renal perfusion. The authors found no significant differences in perfusion characteristics between grafts that developed delayed graft function and those with immediate (primary) function. Specifically, renal blood flow and intrarenal RI at baseline (313 vs. 260 mL/min, P = 0.23; RI 0.25 vs. 0.31, P = 0.41) and at the end of perfusion (550 vs. 372 mL/min, P = 0.12; RI 0.14 vs. 0.19, P = 0.12) were comparable between the two groups. Similarly, perfusate parameters, including pH, lactate, pO<sub>2</sub>, pCO<sub>2</sub>, and urine production during perfusion did not differ significantly
and showed no correlation with post-transplant graft function or urine output.

It is also worth noting that Mazilescu et al. used a perfusate based on dextran/albumin (Steen solution) supplemented with red blood cells – a composition commonly used in *ex vivo* lung and liver perfusion studies [12, 13]. This solution provides high oncotic pressure, which may account for the generally low urine output observed during perfusion. The authors highlight that future research should shift focus toward analyzing the composition of urine produced during perfusion, rather than volume alone, as a more meaningful indicator of post-transplant kidney function.

# CONCLUSION

Our initial experience with normothermic perfusion of a donor kidney demonstrated the safety and technical feasibility of this technique in clinical practice. Moving forward, there is a need to develop a structured study protocol to assess the applicability and effectiveness of NMP in kidneys retrieved from donors following an outof-hospital cardiac arrest.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# **BACTERIAL TRANSLOCATION IN DECEASED ORGAN DONORS**

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**Objective:** to ascertain the prevalence and risk factors for bacterial translocation (BT) in brain-dead donors (BDDs) during organ and tissue retrieval in health care facilities. Materials and methods. The study included 62 BDDs, featuring 44 males (71%) and 18 females (29%), aged 17 to 64 years. Organ was retrieved in healthcare institutions located in Gomel Oblast in 2019-2022. Bacteriological examination of biopsy material taken from different parts of the intestine, mesenteric lymph nodes (MLNs) and spleen was carried out. The presence of BT was validated when bacterial growth was obtained from homogenized MLNs and(or) spleen by isolating an identical strain from the intestinal lumen. The anthropometric characteristics of BDDs, hematologic, biochemical parameters, and the length of stay in the intensive care unit (ICU) were assessed. Results. Evidence of bacterial translocation was detected in 22 BDDs (35.5%, 95% CI 24.7-48.0). Growth in MLNs and in spleen biopsies was noted in 21 (95.5%) and 7 (31.8%) patients, respectively. The BDDs were categorized into two groups depending on the presence of BT, and the main characteristics were compared. ROC analysis was used to determine the prognostic significance of the main parameters. Risk factors for BT were serum sodium level >144 mmol/L (AUC = (0.759) at the time of retrieval, weight >89 kg (AUC = 0.756), BMI >27.5 (AUC = 0.709), decreased hemoglobin <126 g/L (AUC = 0.665), and ICU stay >2 days (AUC = 0.656). Conclusion. Bacterial translocation is found in 35.5% of BDD cases, and it is accompanied by penetration of bacteria and yeast-like fungi into the MLNs and spleen. Bacterial translocation is linked to excess body weight, hypernatremia, prolonged ICU stay, and decreased hemoglobin levels at the time of retrieval. These factors should be taken into account in the medical management of brain-dead donors (organ donor conditioning).

*Keywords: deceased organ donor, bacterial translocation, organ transplantation, transplantation coordination.* 

# INTRODUCTION

Despite significant advances in therapeutic techniques, organ transplantation remains the only definitive treatment for end-stage organ diseases and is often the sole option when all other conservative treatments have failed [1-3]. With the continuous increase in the number of patients on the transplant waiting list and a decrease in the number of suitable donors, there is a growing organ shortage. This has led to the necessity of expanding the criteria for selecting viable donors. As a result, there is a trend towards accepting older organ donors (brain-dead donors, BDDs), extending the duration of the donor's stay in the intensive care unit (ICU), and adopting more flexible criteria for various homeostatic parameters, such as serum sodium levels, hyperglycemia, and acid-base balance shifts. In addition, there is consideration for donors with sanitized infectious foci [4–6].

Brain death triggers numerous pathological processes that directly impact both the quantity and quality of organs available for transplantation. With the expansion of eligibility criteria for organ donors and prolonged stays in the ICU with highly invasive medical support, a deeper understanding of the underlying pathophysiology of transplant-related organ dysfunction is essential to fully optimize the donor pool [5]. In kidney and liver transplantation, recipients of allografts harvested from deceased donors with a beating heart experience a significantly higher rate of post-transplant complications, such as acute rejection or chronic graft dysfunction, compared to those receiving organs from living donors, leading to worse overall transplant outcomes [6]. The decline in transplant effectiveness cannot be solely attributed to differences in the antigenic composition of donor-recipient pairs. Some studies suggest that the strength of immune response is more closely related to the extent of injury to the donor organ than to the degree of mismatches in donor and recipient human leukocyte antigens (HLA) [7].

Bacterial endotoxemia is a cytotoxic factor that causes injury to potential donor organs, primarily due to increased intestinal permeability. Bacterial translocation (BT) can occur in up to 30–40% of critically ill patients, according to various sources, and is directly associated with elevated inflammatory markers and reduced activity of blood coagulation factors. In response to these inflammatory markers, antigen-presenting T cells trigger cytotoxic reactions, leading to organ damage and dysfunction [8–11].

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Table 1

Given this, it can be concluded that BT is a common condition in potential organ donors. However, the precise mechanisms and factors that correlate with the risk of BT development in effective organ donors are still not fully understood. Identifying these factors and implementing measures to mitigate them could reduce the incidence of organ donor injury and ultimately improve transplant outcomes [6–8].

**Objective:** to determine the prevalence and risk factors for BT in brain-dead donors (BDDs) during organ and tissue procurement in healthcare facilities.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

This observational cohort study included BDDs from whom solid organs were procured, following the legal methodology established for organ donation. Organ procurement was carried out at healthcare facilities in Gomel Oblast (Belarus) from 2019 to 2022. The exclusion criterion was the inability to obtain biopsy material due to a lack of access to the abdominal cavity during procurement (e.g., mono-heart procurement without laparotomy, lung procurement, or heart-lung procurement without laparotomy, vascular allograft procurement). The study received approval from the Ethics Committee of Gomel State Medical University.

The study included 62 BDDs, comprising 44 males (71%) and 18 females (29%), aged between 17 and 64 years. Brain death resulted from traumatic brain injury in 19 cases (30.6%) and non-traumatic brain injury in 43 cases (69.4%). Among the non-traumatic cases, 36 (58.1%) were due to intracranial hemorrhage and 7 (11.3%) to atherothrombotic cerebral circulatory disorders.

All BDDs were managed in the ICU and received enteral nutrition as follows:

- 16 donors (25.8%) received enteral nutrition based on the clinical protocol of the Ministry of Health of the Republic of Belarus;
- 19 donors (30.6%) received standardized enteral nutrition ("Enterolin," 1 kcal/mL) at a dosage of 20 mL/ kg/day, in accordance with national clinical guidelines for intensive care in cerebrovascular insufficiency;
- 27 donors (43.6%) received standardized "Enterolin" enteral nutrition with continuous administration via enteral pumps, accompanied by pharmacological support (prokinetics, eubiotics, and antacids) at therapeutic dosages.

The anthropometric parameters, key hematological and biochemical indicators, as well as ICU length of stay, were assessed for all BDDs. The characteristics of BDDs at the time of organ retrieval are presented in Table 1.

Bacteriological analysis was performed on biopsy samples taken from various sections of the intestine, mesenteric lymph nodes (MLNs), and spleen. BT was confirmed when bacterial growth was detected in homo-

Characteristics of BDDs at the time of retrieval

Indicator	$M\pm SD$
Age (years)	$46.8\pm10.7$
Height (cm)	$174.4 \pm 6.7$
Weight (kg)	$80.9\pm10.9$
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	$26.6\pm3.5$
ICU stay (days)	$3.7\pm2.3$
Hemoglobin (g/L)	$139.7 \pm 16.1$
Red blood cells ( $\times 10^{12}/L$ )	$4.19\pm0.79$
Hematocrit (L/L)	$0.42\pm0.04$
Platelets ( $\times 10^{9}/L$ )	$274.0\pm72.5$
Leukocytes (×10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	$11.4 \pm 3.5$
Urea (mmol/L)	$5.9 \pm 1.3$
Creatinine (µmol/L)	$76.7 \pm 21.0$
pH	$7.39\pm0.03$
Lactate (mmol/L)	$1.28\pm0.51$
Na (mmol/L)	$146.0\pm8.6$
K (mmol/L)	$4.23\pm0.44$

genates of the MLNs and/or spleen, with identification of a strain identical to that isolated from the intestinal lumen.

Statistical processing and data analysis were conducted using SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 26 (IBM Corp., USA). Quantitative variables are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (M  $\pm$  SD). The Mann–Whitney U test was applied to compare quantitative variables between two independent groups. The predictive value of various parameters was evaluated using receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis in MedCalc version 19.4.1. The area under the curve (AUC), along with the corresponding 95% confidence interval (CI), sensitivity (Se), and specificity (Sp) at the determined cut-off points, were calculated. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

# RESULTS

BT signs were detected in 22 BDDs (35.5%; 95% CI: 24.7–48.0). In most cases, microorganisms characteristic of the intestinal microflora were detected in MLNs (21 patients, 95.5%), and in a smaller proportion of cases, in the spleen biopsy samples (7 patients, 31.8%). The detected microorganisms included *Enterococcus faecium*, *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *clostridia*, *Staphylococcus haemolyticus*, and yeast fungi such as *Candida albicans* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* found in various combinations.

Based on the presence or absence of BT, the BDDs were divided into two groups, and their main clinical and laboratory characteristics were compared (Table 2).

ROC analysis was performed to evaluate the predictive value of parameters that demonstrated statistical significance at p < 0.1 between groups, and to determine their boundary values. The results are presented

in descending order of AUC in Table 3 and illustrated in Figs. 1 and 2.

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Indicator	Group 1 (BT), n = 22	Group 2 (no BT), n = 40	Р
Age (years)	$48.0 \pm 10.1$	$46.4 \pm 11.2$	0.802
Height (cm)	$175.0 \pm 6.4$	$173.7 \pm 6.9$	0.338
Weight (kg)	$87.5 \pm 10.8$	$77.0 \pm 6.9$	0.0007
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	$27.8 \pm 3.6$	26.1 ± 3.2	0.071
Stay in ICU (days)	$4.0 \pm 2.7$	$2.5 \pm 1.9$	0.044
Hemoglobin (g/L)	$130.5 \pm 16.4$	$142.0 \pm 15.3$	0.033
Erythrocytes ( $\times 10^{12}/L$ )	$4.51\pm0.80$	$4.05\pm0.78$	0.216
Hematocrit (l/L)	$0.41 \pm 0.04$	$0.42\pm0.05$	0.844
Platelets (×10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	$250.0 \pm 74.9$	$278.5 \pm 71.2$	0.353
Leukocytes (×10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	$12.0 \pm 3.5$	$11.0 \pm 3.5$	0.269
Urea (mmol/L)	$5.8 \pm 4.3$	$5.7 \pm 1.3$	0.901
Creatinine (µmol/L)	$82.5 \pm 21.8$	$72.0\pm20.8$	0.594
pH	$7.38\pm0.03$	$7.39\pm0.03$	0.901
Lactate (mmol/L)	$1.25 \pm 0.54$	$1.15 \pm 0.48$	0.765
Na (mmol/L)	$152.5 \pm 7.4$	$143.0\pm8.1$	0.0006
K (mmol/L)	$4.20 \pm 0.46$	$4.20\pm0.42$	0.594

#### Comparison of the characteristics of BDDs by the presence of bacterial translocation

Table 3

#### Prognostic significance of laboratory and clinical parameters (in descending order of AUC)

Indicator	AUC; 95% CI	Cut-off	Se, %	Sp, %
Na (mmol/L)	0.759; 0.633–0.858	>148	81.8	75.0
Weight (kg)	0.756; 0.631–0.856	>89	50.0	87.5
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	0.709; 0.579–0.817	>27.5	68.2	72.5
Hb (g/L)	0.665; 0.534–0.780	≤126	45.5	87.5
ICU stay (days)	0.656; 0.524–0.772	>2	72.7	50.0



Fig. 1. Prognostic significance of serum sodium levels at the time of retrieval for the presence of BT in BDDs



Fig. 2. Prognostic significance of serum sodium levels at the time of organ retrieval for the presence of BT in BDDs

# DISCUSSION

The analysis identified the most significant predictor of BT in BDDs as a serum sodium level exceeding 148 mmol/L at the time of organ procurement, followed by a body weight over 89 kg (BMI >27.5). Additionally, a hemoglobin level  $\leq$ 126 g/L and an ICU stay longer than two days were also associated with an increased risk of BT. Given the comparable predictive value of body weight and BMI, we recommend prioritizing BMI as a more objective and standardized metric, as it accounts for the donor's height.

Our findings align with previous reports indicating that hypernatremia and excessive body weight in BDDs are significant factors contributing to increased intestinal permeability [8, 9]. These observations underscore the importance of careful medical monitoring of potential organ donors prior to organ retrieval. The presence of BT may be associated with endotoxinemia, which can result in donor allograft injury and negatively affect posttransplant graft function [12].

# CONCLUSION

The incidence of BT among effective organ donors was found to be 35.5%, characterized by the penetration of bacteria and yeast-like fungi into the MLNs and spleen. BT was significantly associated with excess body weight, hypernatremia, prolonged ICU stay, and reduced hemoglobin levels at the time of organ procurement. These findings highlight the importance of considering these risk factors during medical management of potential organ donors, as BT may contribute to allograft dysfunction and adversely impact transplant outcomes.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# PROMOTING ORGAN DONATION IN RUSSIA: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

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Transplantation helps to save the lives of patients with end-stage diseases of the liver, heart, lungs, and kidney. **Objective:** to study the strategies for advancing the idea of organ donation in the Russian Federation. **Materials and methods.** Scholarly publications by Russian researchers on the issue at hand. The study's methodology was based on application of general and specific scientific methods of theoretical analysis. **Results.** An assessment of how opportunities were used to legitimately promote the idea of donation was conducted. **Conclusion.** Modern ways and methods of promoting the idea of organ donation will help to introduce into public attention the importance of organ donation for transplantation.

Keywords: organ transplantation, deceased donation, donor.

# INTRODUCTION

Promotion of the idea of organ donation has become a cornerstone in the advancement of solid organ transplantation programs in Russia [1]. There has been a consistent year-on-year increase in the number of transplant procedures, with 3,057 organ transplants performed in 2023 alone [2]. The establishment of new transplant centers and programs across the Russian Federation has further enhanced transplant activity, expanded waiting lists, and improved access to high-tech medical care for the population [2].

The growth in the number of transplant centers, professional training of physicians across various specialties, and active educational initiatives in the field of organ transplantation and donation have all contributed to shaping a positive public perception of this type of medical care. These efforts support the internal acceptance of transplantation, foster an understanding of its social significance, and underscore its vital role in modern healthcare systems [1].

**Objective:** to examine current approaches to promoting the idea of organ donation in the Russian Federation.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

Analysis of Russian scholarly publications on the promotion of the idea of organ donation. Using general theoretical methods (analysis, synthesis, comparison, generalization), general scientific approaches (comparative legal analysis), and specific scientific methods (concretization, comparative jurisprudence), an analysis of Russian scholarly publications on the promotion of the idea of organ donation in Russia and abroad was conducted. This analysis considered the current legal frameworks and prevailing social realities.

# **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Both the state and society are faced with a critical challenge: instilling in the public consciousness the importance, humanitarian nature, and significance of organ donation. In this context, the idea of addressing the problem of organ shortage through advancement and popularization of living donation warrants broader public and academic discourse.

As Rustamov and Turaeva emphasized, the primary objective of any form of propaganda is to shape public opinion and establish a life position that aligns with the interests of a particular subject [3]. Based on its intended impact, propaganda can be classified into two categories: constructive, which unites citizens around universally recognized values, and destructive, which fosters antihumanist beliefs [3].

Based on the ways of disseminating knowledge and forming beliefs, the promotion of organ donation can be categorized into three main forms: oral (live communication, radio, television), print (publications in mass media), and virtual (Internet portals, websites, social networks).

The oral form – such as lectures, discussions, or meetings with healthcare professionals – involves direct, personal communication. This format allows for a more flexible and adaptive engagement with the audience, depending on their mood, level of awareness, and openness to the subject.

Dissemination of information through print media can reach a wide audience, although it primarily influences

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the older and middle-aged population. Oral communication offers opportunities like thematic TV and radio programs featuring public figures, celebrities, and athletes, that would promote the idea of organ donation. The creation of documentary and feature films addressing this topic also holds strong potential for impact.

In the digital sphere, social networks offer a particularly powerful tool for reaching younger and middleaged audiences. Bloggers, especially those covering topics related to health and lifestyle, act as opinion leaders with vast subscriber bases often numbering in the hundreds of thousands or even millions.

Each mode of communication serves a specific purpose. Oral communication fosters personal engagement and helps dismantle psychological barriers, such as fear or cultural taboos surrounding organ donation. Traditional media, particularly print and broadcast, aims to convey the broader social and ethical importance of organ donation to a large audience. Digital media and social networks help normalize and popularize the topic.

In summary, oral communication makes the topic discussable, traditional media makes it socially relevant and supported, while social media makes it culturally appealing.

In addition, the role of the media in promoting organ donation cannot be underestimated. Well-executed information campaigns that feature compelling, real-life stories of transplant recipients, people of various ages who have received a second chance at life, have the potential to significantly shift public attitudes toward transplantation, presenting it as an essential and life-affirming aspect of modern medicine. Social networks serve as a powerful platform in this regard, enabling broad outreach and formation of active, engaged communities that support the idea of donation.

In accordance with article 8 of the Law of the Russian Federation dated December 22, 1992 No. 4180-I "On the Transplantation of Human Organs and (or) Tissues", there is a legal presumption of consent for deceased organ donation in Russia [4]. However, in practice, relatives of the deceased often object to autopsy and organ retrieval based on personal convictions or religious beliefs.

For example, according to a study by Reshetnikov conducted at the Volga Region Organ and Tissue Donation Coordination Center, relatives of potential donors were asked for consent to retrieve organs for transplantation. These conversations were conducted with the aim of preventing potential conflicts. Out of 124 individuals approached, only 79 (63.7%) gave their consent, while 45 (36.3%) refused [5]. Given that a single organ donor can potentially save up to seven lives, the refusal to retrieve organs from 45 individuals could mean that as many as 315 critically ill patients were deprived of life-saving transplantation.

In his conclusions, Reshetnikov emphasized that the most important factor influencing public attitudes toward

organ donation is the level of awareness about the humanity of transplantology and the vital role this medical field plays in saving lives [5].

In his paper, Reznik outlined the key stages in advancing what he termed the "concept of the sociology of posthumous donation". These include: (1) conducting sociological research involving focus groups, such as medical students, physicians from various fields, and professionals engaged in donor programs; (2) developing standardized informational and educational materials; and (3) disseminating knowledge about postmortem organ donation as a form of social interaction [6].

The study of spiritual, moral, and traditional religious views among the Russian population reveals several factors that hinder citizens' willingness to participate in organ donation. One of the identified issues is the fragmented legal regulation surrounding the promotion of organ donation through social advertising.

Given that Orthodox Christianity and Islam are the most commonly practiced religions in Russia, understanding the perspectives of these faith traditions on organ donation is of particular importance for the effective promotion of donation initiatives.

Some studies have explored the influence of religious beliefs and social attitudes on organ donation in Russia. For instance, Kochetkov and Zudin conducted a questionnaire-based survey at a city hospital in Nizhny Novgorod Oblast to assess attitudes toward deceased organ donation programs. Among the 130 patients surveyed, 75.4% identified as religious. Notably, within this group, the willingness to sign consent for deceased organ donation was significantly lower compared to nonreligious respondents [8].

A more recent study titled "Readiness and Attitude to Types of Donation Among youth" (a mass survey in Kazan, 2023) found that while 70% of young respondents expressed a generally positive attitude toward donation, only 53% confirmed their personal readiness to become a donor [9].

It is important to note that these religions exert considerable influence not only on believers but also on societal values as a whole. As such, the inclusion of religious leaders in public education campaigns about the significance and humanitarian value of organ donation can be a vital component in overcoming resistance and increasing public support [7].

It is evident that raising public awareness about organ donation requires a comprehensive and multifaceted approach. A key component is the implementation of educational campaigns within academic institutions, where students can acquire fundamental knowledge about organ transplantation and understand the societal importance of donation. Integration of specialized courses and interactive activities into the educational curriculum can foster a positive attitude toward organ donation among young people, promoting it as an individually responsible and socially supported practice aimed at preserving health, extending active life, and reinforcing human solidarity.

Finally, it is necessary to develop specialized institutions and support programs that would provide guidance and counseling to both potential donors and their families. Ensuring transparency in the donation process, upholding legal safeguards, and embracing innovative technologies in the field of individual donation can significantly enhance public trust, ultimately saving more lives.

The analysis of scientific literature has identified a promising avenue for enhancing public awareness of the importance and necessity of organ donation: the organization and implementation of educational and informational activities aimed at shaping the public's understanding of organ donation.

In this context, it is crucial to single out the implementation of specialized programs. These programs consist of a series of initiatives designed to provide as many people as possible with accurate and reliable information about organ donation and transplantation.

Educational projects should become a central component of efforts to develop transplant programs. Their goal is to disseminate accurate knowledge about organ transplantation, the patients who rely on it, and the diseases for which organ transplants offer the only hope of survival. These projects should also work to dispel myths surrounding donation and promote the importance of postmortem donation [1].

In many countries around the world, including Brazil, Italy, Spain, Japan, Singapore, Germany, and France, social advertising promoting organ donation is an ongoing effort, particularly targeting young people. Printed visual materials are produced and displayed in public spaces and educational institutions. Examples of such campaigns include posters with messages like "Give Life", "Save Seven Lives", and "Become a Hero. Be an Organ Donor" [10].

In Kazan, in 2024, the All-Russian Exhibition of Social Advertising on Organ Donation, titled "The Real Power is Inside You", was held to raise public awareness about patients waiting for organ transplants [11].

The official portal of the Russian Ministry of Health has a dedicated section on bone marrow and organ donation for transplantation in the section "Organ donation for transplantation", where people can ask questions, read the latest news, and learn about patient stories [1].

The information resource "National Association in the Field of Donation and Transplantology" (https://nadit.ru/) features social advertising in the form of animated mini-movies highlighting the importance of organ donation, such as "Life is the Best Gift", "Thank You, Donor!", "Leaving, I Give You Life", and "Transplantation? I Am for It!" These videos, along with real stories of individuals who became organ donors after sudden death, emphasize how they saved lives [12]. Additionally, the activities of various non-profit organizations deserve recognition. For instance, the charity foundation "Life as a Miracle" supports children waiting for or undergoing liver transplants, while the charity organization "Own Atmosphere" aids individuals in need of lung transplants. The public organization "NEFRO-LIGA" brings together patients with kidney diseases, those undergoing dialysis, and individuals in recovery after kidney transplants, along with their families. The association "RusTransplant" offers vital information for patients, and NEFRO-LIGA continues its support for kidney disease patients and their families.

Shumakov National Medical Research Center of Transplantology and Artificial Organs is a flagship in the field of transplantology in Russia. The Center's management and staff actively promote public awareness by organizing press conferences, educational lectures, and public events dedicated to transplantation and organ donation. It plays a key role in initiatives such as the nationwide "Donor Day" campaign across various regions of the Russian Federation and the All-Russian Transplant Games for individuals living with transplanted organs. In collaboration with the Life as a Miracle Foundation, the Center has also launched online platforms like "Пропечень.pф" and "100 Questions to a Transplantologist", with project answers broadcast in the Moscow subway [1].

Demonstrating medical achievements not only confirms that organ donation saves lives and restores health – enabling recipients to live fully, work, raise families, and enjoy life – but also helps ordinary citizens understand the profound social challenges faced by people with end-stage organ failure, when the only chance for survival is transplantation. Initiatives such as the publication of patient stories in the media, as well as themed photo exhibitions in Moscow parks and on the grounds of the Shumakov Center, allow the public to witness the transformative power of modern transplantation and appreciate the societal value of organ donation.

# CONCLUSION

Promoting the idea of organ donation is a complex yet vitally important educational endeavor. It involves targeted and systematic efforts by public organizations to disseminate scientific knowledge and shape spiritual and moral values rooted in the recognition of the life-saving importance of organ donation. Despite the sensitivity of the topic, its deeply humane goals underscore the necessity of open and thoughtful public dialogue.

The creation of well-crafted social advertising on organ donation has proven to be an effective tool for strengthening positive public opinion on this issue in the Russian Federation [10]. The analysis conducted supports the conclusion that it is both timely and advisable to enhance existing educational and informational efforts. Moreover, the development of new platforms and projects that consistently highlight the value and necessity of donation will help foster a more informed and supportive public attitude, ultimately increasing the willingness of the Russian population to embrace the idea of organ donation.

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# EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF A NEW DEXTRAN-40-BASED COMBINED SOLUTION ON A SMALL LABORATORY ANIMAL MODEL

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Background. Organ shortage remains an unsolved issue in the field of transplantology. It is particularly severe in such a progressive area as lung transplantation. The creation of extracorporeal systems for rehabilitation of donor organs has been made possible by perfusion techniques; however, the search for the best perfusion and preservation solutions remains important. **Objective:** to evaluate the efficacy of the developed solution for preservation and normothermic ex vivo lung perfusion (EVLP), as well as to conduct a comparative analysis with the standard perfusion solution for EVLP. Materials and methods. Experimental studies on small animal models were conducted. All animals were divided into 2 groups - control and experimental. The study stages consisted of: procurement of donor lungs, static cold storage, EVLP and orthotopic left lung transplantation. In the experimental group, the lungs were preserved using an experimental solution, while in the control group, they were preserved in PERFADEX® Plus (XVIVO, Sweden). Static cold storage lasted for 10 hours. Orthotopic left lung transplantation was performed after EVLP. The follow-up period was 2 hours, after which blood samples and sections of the transplanted lung were taken for morphological examination. Upon completion of the experiment, the animal was removed from the experiment by exsanguination. Results. Respiratory index at the end of perfusion was statistically significantly higher in the experimental group (434 mmHg) than that of the control group (394 mmHg). Pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR) in both groups had a downward trend, which is a good prognostic sign of the efficacy of perfusion agents. PVR was lower in the experimental group compared to the control group -36 versus 89 dynes/sec/cm<sup>-5</sup>. Conclusion. The developed combined dextran-40-based solution showed its effectiveness as a preservation agent for static cold storage and as a perfusion solution for EVLP.

Keywords: lung transplantation, ex vivo lung perfusion, preservative solutions, perfusion solution.

# INTRODUCTION

Lung transplantation (LT) has become a highly effective therapeutic option for end-stage lung disease, but access is limited by the insufficient number of donor organs available [1, 2]. Expanding donor selection criteria allows for more organs to be transplanted, but this also increases the risk of primary graft dysfunction with the use of "marginal" or compromised organs [3, 4].

Normothermic *ex vivo* lung perfusion (EVLP) allows for objective assessment of compromised lungs that were previously deemed unsuitable for transplantation. EVLP not only enables evaluation of the organ but also extends preservation times, offering logistical advantages. Moreover, recent developments have highlighted the potential of EVLP as a therapeutic platform for reconditioning donor lungs. Clinical trials have demonstrated the safety and feasibility of transplanting organs assessed through EVLP, with survival rates comparable to those of organs preserved using traditional cold static storage methods [5–7].

The success of EVLP is largely attributed to the pioneering work of Professor Stig Steen, who performed the first human LT following *ex vivo* assessment [8]. A key factor in the success of this perfusion technique was Steen's human albumin-based perfusion solution, known as the Steen Solution<sup>™</sup>. Human serum albumin, a primary component of the solution, maintains physiologically relevant colloid osmotic pressure, minimizing lung damage [9]. Additionally, the presence of dextran 40 in the solution helps reduce the negative impact of leukocytes on the vascular endothelium [10].

Despite the positive properties of the solution, lungs are still susceptible to ischemia-reperfusion injury (IRI) during EVLP. IRI is characterized by an acute inflammatory response and increased oxidative stress, both of which contribute to primary graft dysfunction in the early

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postoperative period [11–13]. It is well established that proinflammatory cytokines in the perfusate and tissue increase significantly over time, even during successful perfusions [14, 15]. The duration of perfusion directly correlates with the degree and severity of LT injury [16, 17].

There is still incomplete understanding of the pathophysiological events occurring during EVLP, and as a result, existing perfusion solutions continue to evolve in terms of composition and addition of new adjuvants. In this context, a combined solution for both preservation and normothermic EVLP has been developed. Unlike the original Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup>, this new solution features dextran 40 and a modified electrolyte composition as its base.

This study aimed to evaluate the efficacy of this experimental solution in comparison to the original Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup>, which is widely regarded as the gold standard for EVLP in clinical practice worldwide.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experiments were conducted using small animal models, specifically male Wistar rats weighing 250–300 g. The following stages were carried out in the series of experiments:

- Lung procurement;
- Static hypothermic storage;
- Ex vivo lung perfusion;
- Orthotopic left lung transplantation.

In the experimental group, donor lungs were preserved using the experimental solution, while in the control group, Perfadex Plus was used as the preserving agent. In all cases, static hypothermic storage was maintained for 10 hours.

The animals were divided into two equal groups: donors (n = 30) and recipients (n = 30). The donor group was further divided into two subgroups:

Group 1 - EVLP using the experimental solution (n = 15);

Group 2 - EVLP with Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup> solution (n = 15).

After *ex vivo* perfusion, orthotopic left lung transplantation (OLLT) was performed. A follow-up period of two hours was observed, after which blood samples and tissue sections of the transplanted lung were collected for morphological analysis.

# Donor lung procurement procedure

The donor animal was placed in a specialized anesthesia induction chamber, where sedation was induced using an isoflurane vaporizer (RWD R5835, China) at a flow rate of 1 L/min and a concentration of 5 vol/%. The depth of anesthesia was monitored by assessing the animal's response to pain stimuli and respiratory rate. Tracheal intubation was performed using a 14 G IV catheter, and the intubation tube was connected to the SAR-830/AP Ventilator (CWE, USA) circuit. Mechanical ventilation (MV) was initiated with 100% oxygen and the following parameters: respiratory rate (RR) 85/min, respiratory volume (V<sub>RV</sub>) 1.2 mL, flow volume  $(V_{FV})$  700 mL/min, peak pressure  $(P_{peak})$  8 cmH<sub>2</sub>O, positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) 3 cmH<sub>2</sub>O, and isoflurane flow at 3.5 vol/%. A median sternotomy was performed, and after dissection of lung tissues and hilar structures, 500 units of heparin were injected through a puncture of the right ventricular apex. After a 3-minute exposure, 12 mL of whole donor blood was drawn into a heparinized syringe. A 2.0/2.5 mm cannula was then inserted into the right ventricle and advanced into the pulmonary artery, while a 2 mm diameter metal angular cannula was placed into the left ventricle for adequate perfusate drainage.

The donor lungs were preserved by antegrade perfusion with Perfadex Plus solution at 4 °C, using a syringe pipette to deliver 20 mL of solution at a rate of 200 mL/h (3.3 mL/min) for an exposure time of 6 minutes [18].

During preservation, the MV parameters were adjusted with atmospheric air as follows: respiratory rate (RR) 40/min,  $V_{RV}$  1.5 mL,  $V_{FV}$  300 mL/min,  $P_{peak}$  6 cmH<sub>2</sub>O, and PEEP 3 cmH<sub>2</sub>O. After graft preservation, the diaphragm, superior vena cava, pulmonary ligaments, and pleura were dissected. The trachea was separated from the esophagus. Once the lungs were fully mobilized, a 14 G plastic cannula was inserted into the tracheal lumen for subsequent ventilation under *ex vivo* lung perfusion (EVLP) conditions. Following the procurement process, the lung graft was placed in a sterile container filled with 30 mL of Perfadex Plus solution for static hypothermic storage, where it was preserved for 10 hours.

# Normothermic *ex vivo* lung perfusion procedure

In the experimental group, the perfusion circuit was filled with 10 mL of the dextran 40-based experimental solution and 12 mL of whole donor blood. In the control group, the extracorporeal circuit was filled with 20 mL of Steen Solution. The following adjuvants were added to the solution in all groups: Glucose 40% (4 U), NaH-CO<sub>3</sub> 4.8% (2 U), Vasaprostane (10  $\mu$ g), Insulin P (3 U), Methylprednisolone (20 mg), Cefazolin (0.5 mg/mL), and Heparin (300 U).

Once the solution temperature reached 25  $^{\circ}$ C during continuous recirculation, the perfusate was analyzed for acid-base and electrolyte parameters, as well as glucose concentration.

For deaeration, the graft was retrogradely filled at a rate of 1 mL/min through the left atrium cannula, passi-

vely with a water column, until the solution appeared in the pulmonary artery cannula. After this, the pump was stopped, and the perfusion line was connected to the pulmonary artery cannula. Initial volumetric perfusion rate was set at 1.2 mL/min, which represents 15% of the target perfusion rate. The required 100% perfusion rate was calculated based on the estimated mass of the lung graft, as determined by the following formula (1):

$$V = 0.0053 \times m - 0.48, \tag{1}$$

where m is animal weight in grams.

The estimated lung graft mass was calculated based on a perfusion rate of 6 mL/min/gram [18, 19]. MV of the lung graft was initiated 15 minutes after the onset of normothermic machine perfusion, upon reaching a temperature of 33 °C. During this period, perfusion parameters were recorded, and pulmonary vascular resistance was calculated.

Gas and electrolyte composition of the perfusate was analyzed before the start of graft perfusion and then at 15-minute intervals. Samples were taken simultaneously from two points in the perfusion circuit: the outflow perfusate from the left atrium and the circulating perfusate sampled after the oxygenator. Comparing oxygen and carbon dioxide levels from these two sampling points enabled evaluation of perfusion efficiency and assessment of the graft's functional status.

At 120 minutes, a final analysis of gas and electrolyte composition was performed. Machine perfusion was then discontinued, and MV was continued. For further preservation, 20 mL of the dextran 40-based experimental solution cooled to 4 °C was infused into the pulmonary artery via the perfusion system at a rate of 200 mL/hour.

# Orthotopic left lung transplantation

Lung implantation was performed using the cuff technique to minimize warm ischemia time and reduce variability due to surgical technique [20]. The principle of this method involves using intravenous catheter segments as cuffs to secure the graft vessels and facilitate implantation into the recipient's corresponding vessels. Specifically, 14 G catheters were used for bronchial implantation, 16 G for the pulmonary artery, and 14–16 G for the pulmonary vein depending on vessel diameter [21, 22].

To minimize warm ischemia and provide local cooling during cuff placement, the graft was irrigated with dextran 40-based preservation solution at 4 °C. The graft was suspended by the lung root and stabilized using a flexible holder. Donor lung vessels were passed through their respective cuffs, with the vascular edges folded over the cuff body and secured using a 7/0 Prolene ligature. The bronchial cuff was prepared and implanted in a similar fashion. This procedure took an average of 30 minutes.

Following anesthesia induction and initiation of MV, the recipient animal was positioned in right lateral decubitus on the operating table. A thoracotomy was performed through the 5th intercostal space, with resection of the 4th rib [23, 24]. The native lung's vascular structures were mobilized, and a vascular clamp was applied to the lung root before removal of the left lung. To prevent twisting of vascular anastomoses, the left main bronchus was implanted first. For ease of cuff placement, the pulmonary artery and veins were incised transversely, and the corresponding cuffs were inserted and secured with ligatures. Upon completion of all anastomoses, the vascular clamp was released to initiate graft reperfusion.

The follow-up period was 2 hours, after which blood was selectively collected from the pulmonary artery and pulmonary veins for gas analysis.

# Morphological study

Following perfusion, samples of the right lung parenchyma were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formaldehyde (pH 7.4) for 24 hours. Similarly, 2 hours after transplantation, samples of the left lung parenchyma were collected and fixed in 10% formaldehyde under identical conditions. For paraffin embedding, the tissue specimens were dehydrated using isopropyl alcohol and cleared with petroleum ether. The samples were then embedded in paraffin blocks and sectioned at a thickness of 5  $\mu$ m.

Histological sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) for microscopic examination. Microscopic analysis was conducted using a Leica DM 750 light microscope (Leica, Germany), equipped with a  $10 \times$ eyepiece and objective lenses of  $4 \times$ ,  $10 \times$ ,  $40 \times$ , and  $100 \times$ magnification. Digital images of the histological sections were captured using an ICC50 camera (Leica, Germany).

Samples were assessed for vascular thrombosis, hemorrhage, interstitial and alveolar edema, and cellular infiltration.

# Statistical data processing methods

Statistical analysis was conducted using the licensed SAS Enterprise Guide 9.4 software. All variables were tested for normality using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk tests. For normally distributed data, parametric statistical methods were applied; in the case of non-normally distributed data, non-parametric methods were used. Group comparisons for variables such as oxygenation index, pulmonary vascular resistance, pulmonary arterial pressure, lactate, glucose, buffer bases, and peak inspiratory pressure were performed using the Kruskal–Wallis test. A p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Box-and-whisker plots were generated using SAS Enterprise Guide 9.4.

#### RESULTS

The experimental study comprised two main phases: EVLP and OLLT in recipient animals. During the EVLP procedure, key indicators reflecting the functional status of the donor lungs were continuously monitored and recorded in both groups. These indicators included oxygenation index (OI) (Fig. 1), pulmonary artery pressure (PAP), and pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR). Comparative analysis of these parameters between the groups was performed using the Kruskal–Wallis test, with p-values <0.05 considered statistically significant.

OI is a key measure of gas transport during lung perfusion, with a lower acceptable value typically considered at 350. The study observed high OI values in both groups. At the beginning of the procedure, median OI in the control group (Steen Solution) was 498.5 [460; 537], and in the experimental group, it was 518 [483; 553]. Statistical analysis revealed no significant differences between the groups (p > 0.05). Throughout the *ex vivo* procedure, the PaO<sub>2</sub>/FiO<sub>2</sub> ratio remained comparable between the two groups; however, a significant increase in OI was noted in the experimental group in the final analysis. Specifically, median OI in the Steen Solution group was 394.4 [373; 416], while in the experimental group, it increased to 434.7 [422; 447], with the difference reaching statistical significance (p < 0.0001).

While the volumetric perfusion rates were identical in both groups during EVLP, differences in PAP were observed (Fig. 2). In the control group, initial PAP values were within the acceptable threshold of 15 mmHg, with a median of 9.07 [7.7; 10.4] mmHg. Throughout the EVLP procedure, PAP fluctuations in this group were minimal, with a final median value of 8.47 [7.2; 9.8] mmHg. In contrast, the experimental group demonstrated a consistently lower PAP, showing a downward trend from an initial median of 4.45 [3.3; 5.6] mmHg to 3.4 [2.9; 3.9] mmHg by the end of perfusion. This notable difference in PAP dynamics played a crucial role in calculating PVR values, which served as an objective indicator of vascular compliance in donor lungs during EVLP (Fig. 3).

Median PVR in the control group was 604.3 [515; 693] Dynes/sec/cm<sup>-5</sup>, whereas in the experimental group, it did not exceed 297.8 [223; 373] Dynes/sec/cm<sup>-5</sup>. These differences were statistically significant. Although both groups exhibited a marked downward trend in PVR during the EVLP procedure, by the end, the group using the experimental dextran 40-based solution demonstrated significantly lower vascular resistance compared to the Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup> group, with median values of 35.8 [31; 41] *vs.* 89.1 [75; 103] Dynes/sec/cm<sup>-5</sup>, respectively (p < 0.0001).

Lactate level dynamics were monitored throughout the perfusion period (Fig. 4).

Lactate dynamics had a general upward trend throughout the EVLP procedure, as expected due to the absence of metabolic pathways for lactate clearance in the *ex vivo* setting. While no statistically significant differences were noted between the groups at the 60- and 90-minute



Fig. 1. Dynamics of oxygenation index during EVLP. The indices are presented as median, vertical lines indicate interquartile range, p is statistical significance

marks, the experimental solution group demonstrated narrower fluctuation ranges in median lactate levels. Importantly, at the final measurement point, the maximum lactate values were significantly lower in the experimental group -7.5 [7.2; 7.6] mmol/L compared to 7.87 [7.8; 8.5] mmol/L in the Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup> group.

After EVLP, OLLT was performed. To assess the functional integrity of the graft post-transplant, OI (Fig. 5) and lactate levels (Fig. 6) were measured twice during the 120-minute post-transplant follow-up period.

After implantation of donor lung, OI values in the group perfused with the experimental dextran 40-based



Fig. 2. Dynamics of pulmonary artery pressure during EVLP. The indices are presented as median, vertical lines indicate interquartile range, p is statistical significance



Fig. 3. Dynamics of peripheral vascular resistance during EVLP. The indices are presented as median, vertical lines indicate interquartile range, p is statistical significance

solution remained significantly elevated, consistently exceeding the critical threshold of 350. The Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup> group exhibited borderline OI values during EVLP, and after two hours of post-transplant monitoring, median OI had declined to 122 [113; 131]. Meanwhile, in the experimental group, median OI remained at 364 [353; 375] (p = 0.000).

Lactate levels, serving as an indirect marker of IRI, remained within the permissible range (below 10 mmol/L) in both groups. However, they were significantly elevated in the group where EVLP was performed using Steen Solution<sup>™</sup>. After 120 minutes of follow-up, the median lactate level in the control group was 8 [7; 9] mmol/L, compared to 6 [5; 6] mmol/L in the experimental group. This, alongside the OI, indicates a reduced functional



Fig. 4. Dynamics of changes in lactate levels during EVLP. The indices are presented as median, vertical lines indicate interquartile range, p is statistical significance



Fig. 5. Dynamics of oxygenation index after transplantation. The indices are presented as median, vertical lines indicate interquartile range, p is statistical significance

status of the donor lung. The differences were statistically significant (p = 0.043).

# Histopathological evaluation post-EVLP

Microscopic examination of lung specimens was done at  $100 \times$  magnification (Fig. 7, a) and  $200 \times$  magnification (Fig. 7, b). Each sample was assessed across the entire tissue section.

Upon completion of the 120-minute perfusion procedure, lung tissue samples were collected for histological analysis. Microscopic examination revealed occasional focal disruptions of the alveolar-capillary membrane, although the overall integrity of the lung parenchyma was preserved. The alveolar spaces appeared distended, but no signs of edema were observed. Mild thickening was noted in the alveolar septa and peribronchovascular regions.

# Histopathological evaluation post-transplant

Histological evaluation of the transplanted lung specimens was performed at  $100 \times$  magnification (Fig. 8, a) and  $200 \times$  magnification (Fig. 8, b), across the entire tissue section in each case.

After OLLT, histological examination of the lung tissue was conducted. Most sections demonstrated preserved architecture of the lung parenchyma with wellexpanded alveoli and no evident structural defects. Occasional microatelectasis was observed in isolated lung



Fig. 6. Dynamics of changes in lactate levels after transplantation. The indices are presented as median, vertical lines indicate interquartile range, p is statistical significance



Fig. 7. Results of morphologic studies: a, histologic picture of donor right lung parenchyma after 120 minutes of EVLP, 100× magnification; b, histologic picture of donor right lung parenchyma after 120 minutes of EVLP, 200× magnification



Fig. 8. Results of morphologic studies: a, histologic picture of donor left lung parenchyma 24 hours after transplantation, 100× magnification; b, histologic picture of donor left lung parenchyma 24 hours after transplantation, 200× magnification

segments. Mild thickening was noted in the alveolar spaces and peribronchovascular regions. Vascular congestion within the microcirculatory bed was present, along with sporadic foci of minor intraalveolar hemorrhage. Slight interalveolar septal edema was identified. The observed morphological picture in both groups is consistent with physiological changes following EVLP and subsequent transplantation and are not indicative of pathological alterations.

# DISCUSSION

EVLP has become a crucial component of LT programs globally. While it has primarily been used for quality assessment of suboptimal donor lungs, its potential for active treatment and functional restoration of donor organs is even greater. One key element of the EVLP procedure is the perfusion solution, which enables the perfusion of isolated lungs without causing edema. Currently, the human albumin-based buffer solution known as Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup> is commercially available. Clinical studies have demonstrated its high efficacy in EVLP, employing various protocols and perfusion durations. Notably, Steen Solution can be used with or without the addition of donor blood. However, several studies have raised both positive and negative aspects regarding the addition of erythrocyte mass [25]. Despite the widespread clinical use of Steen Solution<sup>™</sup>, many research teams are developing alternative perfusion solutions.

The development of new solutions is driven by the need to identify the most optimal formulation for lung perfusion. A key factor in this search is the high cost of Steen Solution<sup>™</sup> and, consequently, the financial limitations it imposes on the EVLP procedure. The high cost has significantly hindered the broader use of EVLP for both evaluation and rehabilitation of donor lungs. This study demonstrated the efficacy of a novel dextran

40-based combination solution. One of the main advantages of this experimental solution is its versatility, as it can be used both as a preservation agent for static hypothermic storage and as a perfusion solution during EVLP.

The study evaluated the efficacy of this experimental solution in a rat EVLP model, followed by single-lung transplantation. A static hypothermic storage period of 12 hours was chosen, as it is considered appropriate for clinical practice and models expanded criteria donation. In most translational *ex vivo* perfusion studies, the perfusion is typically carried out in pig models [26].

Experimental models using large animals are often associated with high maintenance costs and complex logistics. One potential solution to this issue is the use of small laboratory animals as experimental models. While such studies are economically advantageous, they present technical challenges in perfusion. To date, only one EVLP system designed specifically for rats, developed by Harvard Apparatus, is commercially available. Many research teams, however, have opted to design their own benches tailored to specific lung perfusion research needs, aiming to reduce the cost of consumables [27]. In our study, we used a custom-designed low-volume bench with a filling volume of just 25 mL, compared to foreign systems where the primary filling volume typically ranges from 150 mL [28–31]. This compact bench setup enabled a thorough analysis of the properties of the experimental solution, especially as the addition of donor blood was essential as the primary adjuvant. In contrast, experimental platforms with circuit filling volumes over 50 mL complicate the use of donor blood, significantly limiting their utility.

As a result of the study, the respiratory index (RI) at the end of perfusion was statistically significantly higher in the experimental group compared to the control group -434 mmHg versus 394 mmHg, respectively. Despite the higher RI in the experimental group, both groups surpassed the minimum threshold value of 350 mmHg, indicating that the perfusion was effective. PVR decreased in both groups, which is a positive prognostic indicator of perfusion efficacy. However, PVR in the experimental group was significantly lower than in the control group -36 vs. 89 Dynes/sec/cm<sup>-5</sup>, respectively. Morphological analysis showed that lung parenchyma architecture was preserved, with isolated areas of neutrophilic infiltration observed. Some sections displayed areas of alveolar-capillary membrane rupture. Slight thickening of alveolar air spaces and peribronchovascular connective tissue was noted in both groups. These findings highlight the positive attributes of the developed solution compared to the original Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup>. The possibility of using the experimental solution for both preservation and EVLP provides clear advantages over the foreign counterpart. The study demonstrates the recovery of lung function after prolonged hypothermic storage, as evidenced by the increase in RI and decrease in PVR during perfusion.

# CONCLUSION

The dextran 40-based combined solution showed its effectiveness both as a preservative agent for static hypothermic storage and as a perfusion solution for EVLP. The use of a low-volume bench for experimental studies in a rat model enhanced the efficiency of lung graft function analysis while reducing consumable costs. Donor lungs preserved and perfused with the experimental solution exhibited better RI and lower PVR compared to the original Steen Solution<sup>TM</sup>, highlighting its efficacy. Recovery of lung function after prolonged hypothermic storage was confirmed by an increase in RI and a decrease in PVR during perfusion, indicating safe and adequate preservation of the graft. Therefore, the developed dextran 40-based solution presents a promising and effective alternative for preservation and ex vivo perfusion of donor lungs when compared to existing foreign solutions.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# NUMERICAL ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECT OF XENOPERICARDIAL BIOPROSTHETIC HEART VALVE CALCIFICATIONS ON ITS BIOMECHANICS

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**Objective:** to conduct a pilot study of the effect of bioprosthetic heart valve leaflet calcification on biomechanics and to identify the "stress in the material – dysfunction" relationship. **Materials and methods.** The study's focus was on two commercially available UniLine bioprosthetic mitral valves sized 26 and 30 (NeoCor, Russia). The samples were subjected to microcomputer tomographic scanning in order to reconstruct calcium volumes. The resulting 3D models were correlated with prostheses of corresponding sizes and projected to the volume of the locking element in the Abaqus/CAE engineering analysis software (Dassault Systemes, France). **Results.** According to numerical modeling, the maximum principal stresses increased significantly to 90.8 MPa in the samples, the opening decreased qualitatively, and impact on the prosthetic frame increased. Comparison of stress diagrams of numerical simulation with samples demonstrates the relationship between peak amplitude and rupture and thinning localizations in the flap apparatus. **Conclusion.** The work presented demonstrated the findings of a pilot study of the connection between biomechanics in a patient-specific calcified mitral prosthetic heart valve UniLine and macroscopic characterization of explanted samples. The comparative stage showed that stress values correlate with localization of leaflet dysfunction.

Keywords: bioprosthetic heart valves, calcification, dysfunctions, numerical modeling, biomechanics.

# INTRODUCTION

According to various sources, over 9,000 heart valve surgeries are performed annually in the Russian Federation, with bioprosthetic heart valves (BHVs) accounting for at least 19% of these procedures [1]. BHVs offer several advantages over mechanical valves, including the absence of a need for lifelong anticoagulant therapy and the ability to more closely replicate native hemodynamics due to the design and materials of the leaflet components [2-4]. However, more than 30% of BHVs require replacement within 10-15 years due to various dysfunctions, such as calcification, pannus formation, ruptures, and perforations [5]. This highlights the need to investigate the underlying mechanisms [6-8] and develop preventive strategies [8, 9] for degenerative changes in the biological tissues of prosthetic valve leaflets. The main research approaches to addressing bioprosthetic valve dysfunction include:

- imaging techniques (X-ray, computed tomography (CT), micro-CT) [10–12];
- histological analysis [13–16];
- immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence [16–19];
- blotting and proteomic profiling [20–22];

- sequencing [23–25];
- scanning electron microscopy [16, 26, 27].

Most of the aforementioned methods are now integrated in contemporary research, enabling a comprehensive characterization of valve dysfunction, including tissue destruction, cellular and bacterial infiltration, and protein deposition. With the advancement of computer simulation technologies, biomechanical analysis of prosthetic heart valves – both at the level of individual components and the prosthesis as a whole – has become increasingly feasible [28–33]. A major focus of current research is the evaluation of the stress-strain state of the leaflet material and the progression of valve dysfunction over time [32–35].

Initial studies in valve biomechanics modeled the leaflet structure using shell-based approaches, where the material's thickness was a key parameter [28, 34]. More recent efforts have shifted toward volumetric modeling [32], which allows for more accurate representation of *in situ* mechanical behavior. Similarly, calcific deposits can be incorporated either as material properties within the computational mesh [28] or explicitly represented as three-dimensional bodies on the valve surface [32, 34]. However, literature evidence suggests that such degene-

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rative changes may also localize within the thickness of the leaflet tissue itself [36–39]. This highlights a notable limitation in current modeling approaches – the oversimplified mathematical representation of the structural complexities within the leaflet tissue.

To address the shortcomings identified in previous numerical modeling studies of BHV dysfunction, we developed a novel approach for conducting in silico experiments. This method was validated through a comparative analysis involving both an intact (initial) model and a patient-specific model of a BHV. Additionally, the numerical modeling results were compared against dysfunctions observed in explanted xenopericardial mitral prostheses.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study focused on two UniLine bioprosthetic mitral valves (NeoCor, Russia) [40, 41], with diameters of 26 mm and 30 mm (Fig. 1, a), which were electively explanted due to dysfunction after 4.3 and 5.3 years of *in vivo* use, respectively. Within four hours of explantation, photographic documentation of the dysfunctional regions was performed, followed by detailed macroscopic imaging to facilitate comparison with biomechanical simulation outcomes.

Subsequently, both specimens underwent microcomputed tomography using a previously established protocol [27]. The acquired tomographic slices were imported into the Mimics medical 3D engineering software (Materialise, Belgium), where volumetric models of calcific lesions (Fig. 1, b) were reconstructed based on radiodense regions, as described in earlier methodologies [42].

Subsequently, we developed a computational model within the Abaqus engineering analysis environment





(Dassault Systèmes, France), using the Dynamic/Explicit solver. The 3D model of the bioprosthesis, which included polypropylene and wire support structures along with 3 valve cusps (Fig. 1, b), was augmented with volumetric representations of calcifications (Fig. 2, b). A 3D finite element mesh was then constructed, comprising C3D8 hexahedral solid elements for the polypropylene frame and leaflet apparatus, and C3D4 tetrahedral elements for the wire components fabricated from titanium nickelide. The final meshes contained 15,862 and 21,031 elements for the 26 mm and 30 mm prostheses, respectively.

The biomechanical performance of the leaflet apparatus, including calcified regions, was assessed by simulating 2 complete cardiac cycles at a heart rate of 70 beats per minute, spanning a total simulation time of 0–1.8 seconds. Material properties were assigned in accordance with manufacturer specifications [43] and

previously published data [44, 45]. Calcified regions were modeled as rigid bodies, following standard parameters for calcium deposits [44].

Uniaxial tensile test data for the leaflet material [46] were imported into the Abaqus/CAE environment, where coefficients were fitted for a nonlinear constitutive model (Table) using the following strain energy function:

$$W = \sum_{i=0}^{n} C_{i0} (I_1 - 3)^i,$$

where W is strain energy density,  $C_{i0}$  is Rivlin coefficient, and  $I_1$  is first invariant of Green deformation tensor.

Table Coefficients of the nonlinear biomaterial model

C <sub>10</sub> , MPa	C <sub>20</sub> , MPa	C <sub>30</sub> , MPa	C <sub>40</sub> , MPa
0.0071	0.5036	1.023	-0.651



Fig. 2. Modeling methodology: a, pressure applied to the valve plug; b, location of calcifications (blue) in the biomaterial of the flap apparatus (gray)

Contact between the valve leaflets was modeled using a "hard contact" interaction with a coefficient of friction set at 0.2. All components of the prosthesis were integrated into a unified assembly via paired tie-type constraints: specifically, between the nodes of the polypropylene frame and the wire components, as well as between the upper wire component and the lower suture edge of the leaflet. Boundary conditions enforcing complete fixation – zero displacement and zero rotation – were applied to the lower annular wire component (Fig. 1, b). Hemodynamic loading was simulated by applying physiological pressure to the leaflet surface from the left ventricular side (Fig. 2, a, Fig. 1, b).

For comparison, UniLine valve models without calcification – featuring leaflets composed of a homogeneous xenopericardial material – were also simulated under identical conditions. In all modeled cases, the maximum principal stress was used as the key quantitative indicator to evaluate leaflet biomechanics.

# RESULTS

# Modeling of prosthetic biomechanics with no degenerative changes

At this stage, simulations were performed on BHV models in their intact state, without calcification of the leaflet apparatus. The results are presented in Fig. 3.

The analysis revealed increased stress concentrations at the commissural strut regions, with a uniform stress distribution throughout the volume of the polypropylene frame and symmetrical loading of the leaflet apparatus onto the wire component. During the entire cardiac cycle, peak stress did not exceed 11.5 MPa for the 26 mm prosthesis and 16.5 MPa for the 30 mm prosthesis. These values remain well below the threshold for irreversible deformation of the leaflet material [44, 47].

# Modeling considering calcium deposits in the leaflet apparatus

The inclusion of leaflet calcification in the computational model significantly altered the biomechanical behavior of the bioprosthesis. Notably, there was a marked increase in peak maximum principal stress, accompanied by a qualitative reduction in leaflet opening amplitude (Fig. 4).

The most pronounced biomechanical changes were observed in the 26 mm UniLine bioprosthesis model. Peak maximum principal stresses within the calcified regions ranged from 30.5 MPa to 48.8 MPa, predominantly localized at sites of interaction with the wire frame. These elevated stress values are attributed to material stretching during the valve closure phase, with stress amplitudes reducing to an average of 20 MPa during valve opening.

Interestingly, larger-volume calcific deposits exhibited lower peak stress magnitudes compared to smaller clusters – 30 MPa in the closed state versus 6.3 MPa during opening. In addition, both the polypropylene base and wireframe elements experienced significantly increased loading compared to their intact counterparts.

The UniLine bioprosthesis with a 30 mm diameter, due to the greater volume of biomaterial in its leaflet structure, exhibited a more uniform stress distribution compared to the 26 mm model. However, maximum principal stresses in this model remained substantially elevated relative to the intact condition, reaching up to 90.8 MPa during closure and 55.9 MPa in the opening



Fig. 3. Results of numerical modeling of the UniLine bioprosthetic valve of 26 mm (top row) and 30 mm (bottom row) diameter in an intact state at a: closure, T = 1.188 sec; b: maximum opening, T = 1.584 sec

phase, particularly in the region of the leaflet's free edge. There were no significant alterations in the stress experienced by the polypropylene framework component.

# Correlation between biomechanical simulation and explanted bioprosthesis specimens

At this stage, we addressed a key question: to what extent do the simulated calcification zones within the leaflet apparatus, and the associated localized stress concentrations (Fig. 5, b, c), correlate with the structural dysfunctions observed in the explanted prostheses (Fig. 5, a)? The study reveals irregularities and steep gradients in stress magnitude, which correspond to areas of tissue thinning (Fig. 5, b, c) and leaflet tears (Fig. 5, c). These changes are predominantly localized in the commissural regions, suggesting that mechanical stretching plays a critical role in the pathogenesis of structural degeneration.

One plausible mechanism underlying this dysfunction is the abrasion and subsequent disruption of the surface layer of the leaflet tissue at its attachment to the wireframe component. This disruption likely facilitates calcium penetration into the locking element.



Fig. 4. Results of numerical modeling of the biomechanics of the UniLine bioprosthetic mitral valve with a diameter of 26 and 30 mm in a: closed state, T = 1.188 sec; b: open state, T = 1.584 sec



Fig. 5. Comparison of excised samples (a) and comparison of dysfunction areas with modeling results of the UniLine bioprosthetic valves of diameter 26 mm (b) and 30 mm (c). The corresponding comparison areas are highlighted with translucent pointers. The coloring of the diagrams corresponds to the scale of maximum principal stress [0, 2] MPa

#### DISCUSSION

On one hand, various research groups have demonstrated the significant impact of structural alterations on the performance of artificial heart valve substitutes. Hamid et al. (1987) [28] examined how the location of calcium deposits and the presence of perforations influence the vibrational behavior of the leaflet dome. Given the limited computational resources available at the time, the authors focused on estimating the fundamental natural frequency – a key parameter in assessing the mechanical stability and durability of BHVs. Their findings indicated that a central perforation reduced the natural frequency from 55 Hz (in a native, healthy valve) to 52 Hz. Inclusion of calcifications increased the frequency to 62 Hz, while damage involving all three leaflets caused a dramatic rise to 145 Hz.

With advancements in hardware and computing performance, more sophisticated simulations have become possible. In 2016, for instance, researchers presented a model simulating the implantation of a balloon-expandable prosthesis into a calcified native valve, using the commercial Edwards SAPIEN valve (Edwards Lifesciences Inc., USA) as a reference [34]. The study presents detailed stress distribution patterns and analyzes the biomechanical behavior of the leaflet apparatus as influenced by the implantation technique of the prosthesis. The findings demonstrate that stress amplitudes increase notably in regions with calcium accumulations, with the first principal stress component ( $\sigma_1$ ) exceeding 0.5 MPa. In contrast, areas with an intact ("clean") surface exhibit much lower stress, typically below 0.15 MPa. Further advancement of this modeling approach was presented by Qin et al. in 2020 [32], who investigated stenotic heart valves using patient-specific native valve models. Their study revealed a strong correlation between stress distribution and location of calcifications. Stress concentrations were localized at the interface between the leaflet dome and the calcified regions. Quantitative analysis indicated an average increase in stress amplitudes by about  $1.4 \pm 0.08$  times compared to non-calcified models, depending on the extent of the lesion.

On the other hand, numerous histological studies involving both animal models and explanted BHVs have documented structural deterioration characterized by calcium deposits surrounded by a disrupted cellular matrix [36–39]. Microscopic examination of affected tissues reveals detachment of collagen fibers from the mineralized inclusions, a phenomenon attributed to repetitive mechanical impact during the cardiac cycle. This process is believed to underlie the development of ruptures and perforations in BHVs.

A similar observation was made in this study, where regions of tissue thinning and tearing in the excised bioprosthetic specimens corresponded with zones of elevated mechanical stress. The findings underscore the substantial impact of leaflet calcification on the biomechanical performance of the prosthesis. Specifically, calcific deposits markedly alter the distribution and magnitude of maximum principal stresses, thereby impairing the leaflet's ability to reproduce native hemodynamics. The two case studies presented here effectively illustrate the potential relationship between stress concentration and valve dysfunction. However, to establish more generalizable conclusions and to validate these findings, a multicenter study is warranted. Such a study should integrate advanced noninvasive imaging and calcium mapping techniques for biomechanical modeling, alongside modern immunophenotyping approaches. The methodology presented here demonstrates the feasibility of conducting pilot investigations using explanted samples, laying the groundwork for larger-scale research initiatives.

# CONCLUSIONS

The biomechanical impact of calcification within the leaflet apparatus on stress distribution in both the supporting frame and the dome of the cusps was investigated using two UniLine bioprosthetic valves (26 mm and 30 mm in diameter) explanted due to structural degeneration. The analysis revealed a marked increase in peak stress amplitudes – reaching up to 90.8 MPa – in regions containing calcium deposits. These elevated stress concentrations negatively affected the surrounding tissue integrity, contributing to leaflet thinning and rupture. Furthermore, in the 26 mm UniLine valve, structural modeling that incorporated calcifications demonstrated

increased mechanical loading on both the wire support elements and the polypropylene frame component.

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