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Donor pretreatment with gadolinium chloride improves early graft function and survival after porcine liver transplantation

Received: 17 October 2002
Revised: 6 May 2003
Accepted: 14 May 2003
Published online: 15 July 2003
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Abstract Kupffer cell depletion by gadolinium chloride ($GdCl_3$) in rat livers has previously been proven to minimize hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury after experimental liver transplantation (LTX). In the current study, we evaluated the effects of donor pretreatment with $GdCl_3$ on hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury, macro- and microcirculation, and endotoxin clearance of the liver in a porcine model of experimental LTX. Two groups of 12 pigs were treated either with intravenous NaCl (0.9%; control) or $GdCl_3$ (20 mg/kg). Twenty-four hours after pretreatment, hepatic macrocirculation was quantified by Doppler flowmetry and liver parenchymous microcirculation by implanted thermodiffusion electrodes. The liver grafts were transplanted after 4–6 h of cold ischemia in University of Wisconsin (UW) solution. At 1 and 24 h after LTX, the perfusion values were re-evaluated and histology, biochemical (aspartate aminotransferase, AST) and functional parameters (partial thromboplastin time, prothrombin time, and bilirubin) were analyzed. Furthermore, endotoxin clearance of the liver was evaluated at all time points. In $GdCl_3$ -treated animals 80% of the Kupffer cells were destroyed, and

24 h after LTX ischemia/reperfusion injury in treated grafts was significantly lower in comparison to controls, as shown by histology, AST levels (741 ± 490 U/l in controls vs 379 ± 159 U/l in treated grafts, $P < 0.05$), survival (67% vs 92%), and enhanced macro- (total transhepatic blood flow [THBF] = 112 ± 22 ml/min per 100 g in controls vs 157 ± 45 ml/min per 100 g in treated grafts, $P \leq 0.05$) and microcirculation (thermodiffusion [TD] = 73 ± 9 ml/min per 100 g in controls vs 90 ± 16 ml/min per 100 g in treated grafts, $P \leq 0.05$). Despite destruction of the macrophage system in the liver, the transhepatic endotoxin gradient of treated livers was enhanced before and 1 h after transplantation (58% in controls vs 85% in treated grafts, $P < 0.05$). Destruction of Kupffer cells of donors by pretreatment with $GdCl_3$ in pigs is effective in preventing liver graft dys- and nonfunction after LTX. Pretreatment with $GdCl_3$ does not diminish but increase hepatic endotoxin clearance.

Keywords Porcine liver transplantation · Kupffer cells · Endotoxin · Primary graft nonfunction · Hepatic microcirculation

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Introduction

The existing critical shortage of grafts is still a major problem in clinical liver transplantation (LTX). A feasible way to expand the existing donor organ pool could be aggressive use of marginal grafts. As the rate of primary nonfunction after LTX can reach 15%, selective pretreatment of grafts appears to be a promising concept in order to optimize organ function after transplantation [1, 2, 3]. The function of nonparenchymal liver cells appears to be crucial to the success of LTX [4, 5, 6]. Kupffer cells play a key role in the pathophysiology of hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury. One of their main functions is the elimination of toxins such as endotoxin (lipopolysaccharide, LPS) and bacteria from splanchnic circulation. Kupffer cells are also of relevance with regard to antigen presentation and specific immune response [7]. Activation of Kupffer cells during graft reperfusion by endotoxin leads to the production of reactive oxygen species, stimulates lipid peroxygenation [7, 8, 9], and augments the release of mediators such as thromboxane, prostaglandins, leukotrienes, tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interleukins, and proteases [10, 11].

In a rat model it was documented that treatment with gadolinium chloride (GdCl₃) effectively destroys 80% of Kupffer cells within 24 h [12]. GdCl₃ particles are incorporated by macrophages via phagocytosis and are then ingested into lysosomes where acidic pH leads to free Gd³⁺ ions, which causes the destruction of Kupffer cells. Kupffer cell destruction by GdCl₃ in rats has proved successful in the prevention of alcoholic liver injury, minimizes ischemia/reperfusion injury particularly in pre-injured organs following both warm and cold ischemia, and prevents primary graft dysfunction after experimental LTX [13, 14, 15, 16]. GdCl₃ has never been used before on either humans or animals aside from rats.

Theoretically, pretreatment of liver donors with GdCl₃ could completely diminish hepatic endotoxin clearance and could thereby significantly increase the risk of infection or sepsis. Although there have been no reports with regard to infections in rats treated with GdCl₃, only little data exist on the function of the reticulo-endothelial system and endotoxin clearance after GdCl₃ treatment in large animal models.

The aim of the present study was thus to evaluate the effects of GdCl₃ in a pig model. We intended to answer the following questions:

1. Does pretreatment with GdCl₃ effectively lead to the destruction of Kupffer cells in pigs?
2. Does the destruction of Kupffer cells modify hepatic macro- and microperfusion?
3. Does GdCl₃ diminish ischemia/reperfusion injury?
4. Does GdCl₃ improve graft function and survival after LTX?

5. Does the destruction of Kupffer cells influence hepatic endotoxin clearance?

Materials and methods

Groups of animals

Orthotopic LTX was performed on 24 healthy young pigs (German domestic pigs) in ITN. Two experimental groups of animals were formed:

- (A) The control group ($n = 12$)
- (B) The GdCl₃ group ($n = 12$)

In the control group A, LTX was performed without GdCl₃ donor pretreatment. In the therapy group B, donors were pretreated with GdCl₃ in a standardized dosage of 20 mg/kg. GdCl₃ was dissolved in acidic 0.9% NaCl solution (pH = 3.0) and over 5 min slowly infused into the central caval vein 24 h before surgical donor hepatectomy. Animals of group A received an infusion of acidic 0.9% NaCl solution in a comparable volume.

Experimental liver transplantation

All experiments were performed under general anesthesia and during continuous cardiopulmonary monitoring (systemic arterial and central venous blood pressure, oxygen saturation, pH, blood gases, and hemoglobin concentration). During donor hepatectomy, arterial and portal graft perfusion was performed with University of Wisconsin (UW) solution at 4°C. Orthotopic LTX was performed after 4–6 h of cold ischemia. A porto-jugular silicone shunt was inserted to bridge the anhepatic phase of 50 min at maximum. The suprahepatic inferior caval vein was sutured, while cuff anastomoses were performed in the portal and infrahepatic inferior caval vein. The graft was rinsed with 2 l Ringer's solution before reperfusion. For anastomosis of the hepatic artery VCS clips were used. The anastomoses of the common bile duct was stented with a tube.

Measurement protocol

Hepatic micro- and macroperfusion, liver histology, and blood samples were evaluated in donors before hepatectomy and in recipients 1 and 24 h after transplantation. Sterile blood samples for endotoxin level were taken from both the portal and jugular veins in recipients (1) directly before transplantation, (2) 1 h afterwards, and (3) 24 h after LTX. Recipients that survived 24 h (the technical failure rate was 10%) after LTX were re-operated, graft perfusion was re-evaluated, and blood samples and biopsies were taken. After the experiments, all animals were killed by infusion of potassium in deep anesthesia.

Laboratory parameters

Central venous blood samples were taken before explantation and in recipients before and during explantation, and then at 1 and 24 h after portal venous reperfusion. Blood counts, liver enzymes (aspartate aminotransferase [AST], alanine aminotransferase [ALT]), bilirubin, prothrombin time (PT), and partial thromboplastin time (pTT) were determined.

Liver perfusion

Blood flow in the hepatic artery and portal vein was measured by implanted Doppler flow probes (Transonic Systems, Ithaca, N.Y.). Total transhepatic blood flow (THBF) was calculated by the addition of both parameters. Thermodiffusion electrodes (Thermal Technologies, Cambridge, Mass.) were implanted in the liver parenchyma to evaluate parenchymous liver microperfusion [17]. This technique of thermodiffusion (TD) has been described previously in detail [18].

Histology

Liver wedge biopsy was performed immediately before graft explantation in the donor and at time points 60 min and 24 h after portal reperfusion in recipients. The biopsy specimens were cut into blocks of less than 1 mm in diameter and immediately stored in formalin. Paraffin sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin. All histologic examinations were performed in a blinded fashion with the use of a computer-assisted histology analyzer and a video microscope (Leitz, Germany). The number of macrophages, necrotic hepatocytes, and intracellular vacuoles was analyzed in five random high power fields (magnification $\times 400$), and average numbers were calculated.

Endotoxin assay/endotoxin neutralizing capacity

Sterile central and portal venous blood samples were taken immediately after laparotomy, before portal reperfusion at the end of the hepatic period (47 ± 6 min), and 60 min after portal reperfusion. The samples were centrifuged at 2000 rpm. Serum was stored at -80°C until definite analysis. Serum endotoxin and endotoxin neutralizing capacity in the plasma were measured by means of the automated kinetic turbidimetric limulus amoebocyte lysate microtiter test (a biological test for the toxic activity of endotoxin) with intraindividual internal standardization (Pyroquant-Associates of Cape Cod, Woods Hole, Mass.) [5].

In order to evaluate the endotoxin clearance function of the liver during the early phase of reperfusion, we assessed the transhepatic LPS gradient defined as:

$$\text{Hepatic LPS gradient} = (\text{portal LPS concentration} - \text{systemic LPS concentration}) / (\text{portal LPS concentration} \times 100)$$

Ethics and animal rights

Approval for the experimental procedures was obtained by the German Committee for Animal Care, Regierungspräsidium Karlsruhe, Germany. During the experiments all animals received human care in compliance with the United States National Research Council's criteria for human care, as outlined in the *Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals*, prepared by the National Institutes of Health (NIH publication no. 86-23, revised 1985). All experiments were performed under general anesthesia and during continuous cardiopulmonary monitoring.

Statistics

Data are given as mean values \pm standard deviation (SD). Fisher's exact test or Student's *t*-test were used to test the statistical significance of differences where appropriate (SigmaStat 2.03 for Windows). *P*-values of less than 0.05 were considered to define statistical significance.

Table 1 Liver histology 24 h after reperfusion of control or GdCl₃-treated grafts. Biopsy specimens were fixed in formalin, embedded in paraffin, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin. All histologic examinations were performed using a computer-assisted histology analyzer and a video microscope (Leitz, Germany). In every biopsy, five randomized high power fields (magnification $400\times$) were examined by two different analyzers

	Necroses (<i>n</i>)	Polymorph nucleated leukocytes per field (400 \times)	Vacuoles
Controls	57 \pm 9	96 \pm 33	27 \pm 10
GdCl ₃ group	21 \pm 2	38 \pm 5	5 \pm 2
<i>P</i>	< 0.005	< 0.05	< 0.05

Results

Kupffer cell depletion

GdCl₃ treatment in pigs was effective in the destruction of Kupffer cells. In donor liver biopsies of animals of group B, the number of macrophages was reduced by 80% compared to the control group. An average number of 20 ± 8 macrophages per high power field was seen in the control livers, while GdCl₃-treated animals only had 4 ± 5 macrophages per field in the tissue ($P < 0.05$, Table 1).

Graft function and animal survival after liver transplantation

The survival rate at 24 h after LTX in Kupffer cell-depleted animals was considerably improved compared to recipients of untreated grafts (11 vs 8, Fig. 1). Hepatocellular injury, reflected by serum AST at 1 h after reperfusion, was significantly lower in recipients of GdCl₃-treated livers (203 ± 94 U/l vs 127 ± 63 U/l, $P < 0.05$). On the first postoperative day, AST was lower in recipients of treated livers (741 ± 490 U/l vs 379 ± 159 U/l, $P < 0.05$, Fig. 2). No differences in transaminases were found in donors between treated and untreated animals.

Biopsy specimens of GdCl₃-treated grafts taken 24 h after transplantation had significantly less severe signs of ischemia/reperfusion injury compared to untreated grafts, as shown by the number of necrotic cells, infiltrating leukocytes, and vacuoles (Table 1, Fig. 3). With regard to excretory liver function, no differences were seen in donors 1 h after reperfusion, while at 24 h after transplantation bilirubin levels in GdCl₃-treated livers were markedly lower than in controls (1.03 ± 1.05 mg/dl in controls vs 0.36 ± 0.28 mg/dl bilirubin i.s. in the treatment group). Partial thromboplastin time was lower in Kupffer cell-depleted organs compared to controls 1 day after LTX (30 ± 34 s in controls vs 17 ± 2 s in the treatment group). No differences between groups were seen for prothrombin time.

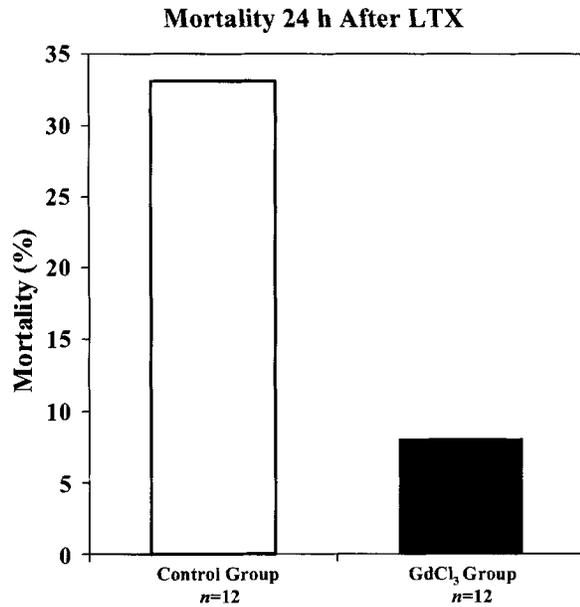


Fig. 1 Mortality 24 h after liver transplantation (LTX) in control or Kupffer cell-depleted animals ($n = 12$)

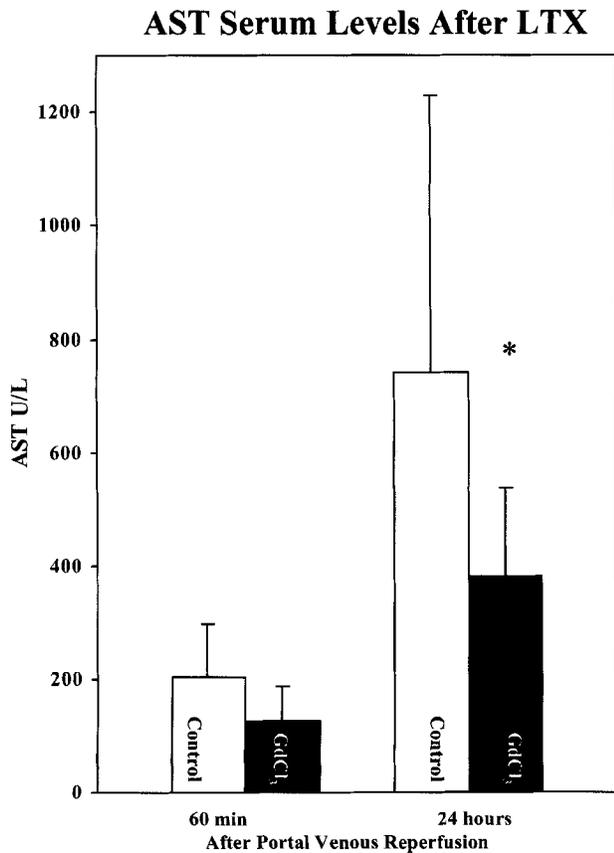


Fig. 2 Serum transaminases 60 min and 24 h after liver transplantation (LTX) in recipient pigs with and without GdCl₃ treatment (AST aspartate aminotransferase). * $P < 0.05$, Student's *t*-test

Liver Biopsy 24 hours after Reperfusion

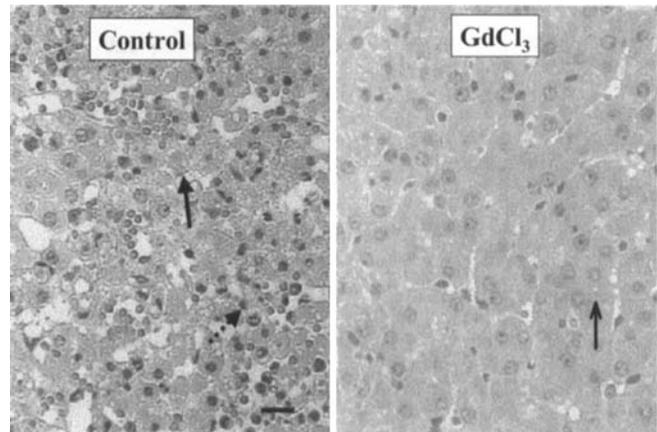


Fig. 3 Hematoxylin and eosin stain (magnification 400 \times) of liver histology 24 h after liver transplantation (LTX). Biopsy samples were taken from control or Kupffer cell-depleted grafts 24 h after LTX. Note the marked ischemia/reperfusion injury in the control with necrotic cells (arrow), leukocytes (dotted arrow), and vacuoles compared to GdCl₃ grafts. The bar indicates 25 μ m

Macro- and microcirculation

Twenty-four hours after injection of GdCl₃, hepatic arterial and portal blood flow (THBF) and hepatic microcirculation (TD) were significantly enhanced. In untreated donors, THBF was 112 ± 24 ml/min per 100 g compared to 171 ± 40 ml/min per 100 g in GdCl₃-treated pigs ($P < 0.001$, Fig. 4). Hepatic arterial blood flow had almost doubled (21 ± 9 ml/min per 100 g vs 39 ± 17 ml/min per 100 g, $P < 0.01$), while portal venous flow was increased by more than 30% in treated livers (118 ± 17 ml/min per 100 g vs 170 ± 54 ml/min per 100 g, $P < 0.01$). Microcirculation was substantially increased in GdCl₃-treated livers compared to controls. In untreated animals TD was 65 ± 4 ml/min per 100 g, after Kupffer cell depletion TD increased to 90 ± 14 ml/min per 100 g ($P < 0.001$, Fig. 4). No significant differences in THBF or TD mean values between both groups were seen at 60 min after reperfusion. In therapy group B however, a significant rise in THBF and TD was found 24 h after LTX compared to controls. THBF was increased by 40% (112 ± 22 ml/min per 100 g vs 157 ± 45 ml/min per 100 g, $P \leq 0.05$). TD showed a 20% elevation compared to controls (73 ± 9 ml/min per 100 g vs 90 ± 16 ml/min per 100 g, $P \leq 0.05$, Fig. 5).

Endotoxin levels

While portal endotoxin levels were not different before, during, and after LTX, systemic endotoxin levels were significantly lower 1 h after reperfusion in recipients of

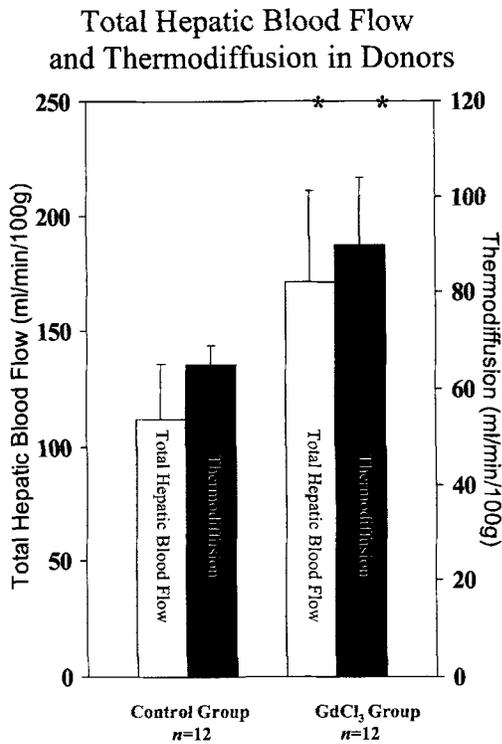


Fig. 4 Transhepatic blood flow (THBF) and parenchymous liver microcirculation (TD) in Kupffer cell-depleted and untreated donors before liver graft hepatectomy. * $P < 0.05$, Student's *t*-test

GdCl₃-treated grafts than in recipients of untreated control grafts. One hour after reperfusion, the systemic endotoxin level in recipients of control livers was 39 ± 23 pg/ml, while recipients of GdCl₃ livers had a value of 14 ± 7 pg/ml ($P < 0.001$, Fig. 6). While systemic and portal endotoxin concentrations rose more than thirty-fold in both groups during the anhepatic phase, the hepatic endotoxin clearance only recovered in Kupffer cell-depleted livers after reperfusion. The transhepatic endotoxin gradient at 1 h after reperfusion was significantly higher in Kupffer cell-depleted grafts compared to controls (58% vs 85%, $P < 0.05$).

Discussion

GdCl₃ destroys Kupffer cells in pigs

Knowledge of the mechanisms of Kupffer cell destruction is scarce and originates exclusively from experiments with rats or mice. The preparation of GdCl₃ solution and the correct mode of infusion are crucial to the effectiveness of treatment. GdCl₃ dissolves in acidic pH only. Furthermore, only by cautious systemic infusion is the crystallization process slow enough to form small particles, which can be ingested by macrophages through phagocytosis. If performed in the correct way,

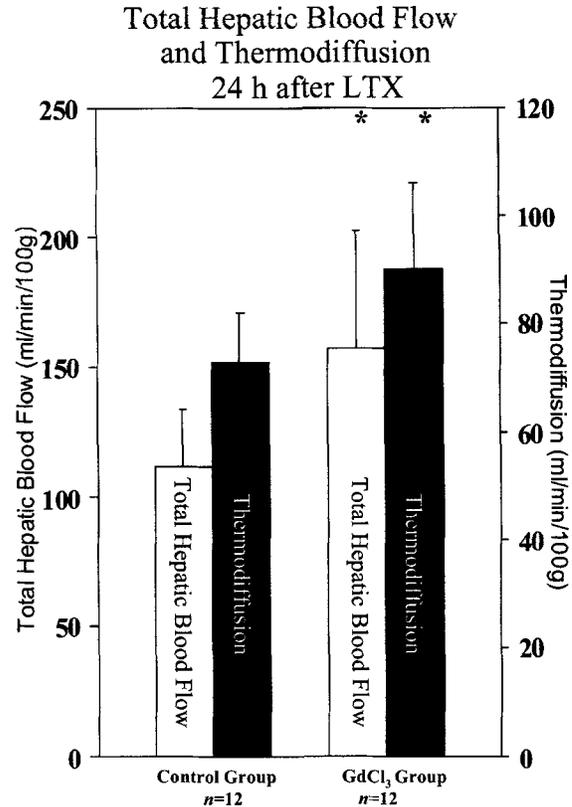


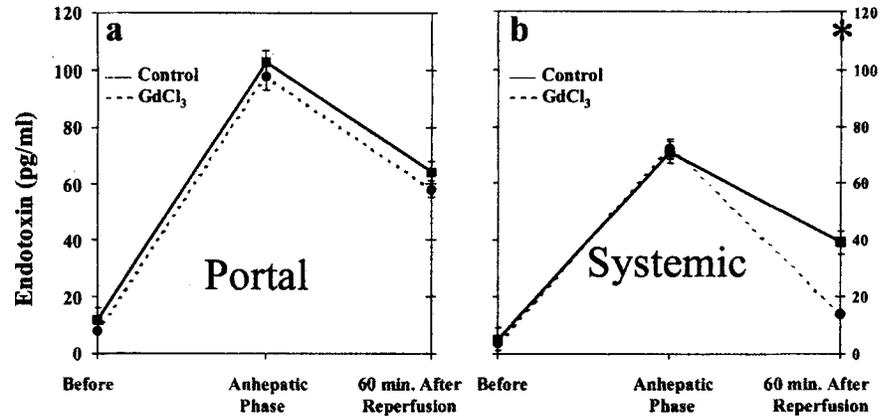
Fig. 5 Transhepatic blood flow (THBF) and parenchymous liver microcirculation (TD) 24 h after liver transplantation (LTX) in control or Kupffer cell-depleted grafts. * $P < 0.05$, Student's *t*-test

the destruction of Kupffer cells with GdCl₃ is easily achievable. As shown by histology, more than 80% of macrophages in porcine livers were destroyed in the present study. The data are comparable to results in small animal studies, where Kupffer cell depletion by GdCl₃ has been shown to be effective while no other toxic or pharmacological effects of GdCl₃ treatment were observed [12, 19].

Kupffer cell destruction prevents ischemia/reperfusion injury in pigs

The role of ischemia/reperfusion injury in nonparenchymal cells is crucial. The prevention of injury in these cells is a major goal that can be achieved by organ preservation. Kupffer cells play a sizable role in the mediation of reperfusion injury by production of toxic substances like reactive oxygen species, proteases, and the release of mediators such as interleukins, adhesion molecules, and TNF- α [7, 9, 10, 11, 20]. In rats, destruction of Kupffer cells minimizes a) ischemia/reperfusion injury in the liver after warm and cold ischemia, b) toxic injury by LPS, and c) acute and chronic

Fig. 6 Endotoxin serum concentrations in the portal (a) or suprahepatic caval vein (b) during different stages of liver transplantation (LTX) of grafts from pigs with and without GdCl₃ preconditioning. **P* < 0.05, GdCl₃-treated grafts against controls, Student's *t*-test



ethanol intoxication [9, 14, 15, 19, 21, 22, 23]. Furthermore, pretreatment of alcohol-fed donors with GdCl₃ prevents failure of fatty marginal grafts after experimental LTX [19, 21, 24]. Treatment of porcine donors with GdCl₃ also impressively diminished ischemia/reperfusion injury in our current investigation, as shown by both functional and histological parameters. Mortality, hepatocellular injury, and histologic reperfusion injury after LTX was significantly reduced by prior destruction of Kupffer cells (Figs. 1, 5 and 3, and Table 1). This is the first study to prove that the destruction of Kupffer cells for donor preconditioning is feasible in a large animal model.

Kupffer cell depletion increases macro- and microperfusion in the pig liver

Disturbance of liver graft perfusion is one of the earliest signs of ischemia/reperfusion injury and may reflect early graft function. Several methods have been used to evaluate liver microcirculation. In vivo microscopy with and without fluorescence markers has been used in experimental transplantation of the liver, gut, and pancreas [25]. Thermodiffusion can be used clinically for continuous surveillance of tissue perfusion in the liver as well as in other organs [17]. GdCl₃ pretreatment increased both macro- as well as microperfusion in the donor. The greatest enhancement of more than 80% was detected in the hepatic artery. This effect cannot be attributed just to larger intrahepatic arterio-venous shunt flow volumes since microperfusion in the tissue was also improved (Fig. 4).

The pathophysiological mechanisms of the effects of gadolinium are not yet fully clarified. As Kupffer cells play an important role in intercellular hepatic communication, the lack of mediators like TNF- α , PAF, and leukotrienes could lead to a decreased aggregation of platelets or a diminished release of TNF- α and endothelin-1 by endothelial cells [7, 9, 10, 14, 15, 20, 26]. This

could be responsible for a decreased contraction of the intrahepatic vascular system or of stellate cells [27]. Another mechanism might be the reduced production of reactive oxygen species. These block the enzyme guanylate cyclase, which leads to lower cGMP concentrations and further decreased NO production. This mechanism is enhanced by mediators from activated Kupffer cells. By eliminating Kupffer cells, this pathway might be reduced and more NO would then be produced and released, which would lead to vascular relaxation [3, 19, 26].

Kupffer cell depletion improves reperfusion after transplantation

Diminished hepatic blood flow and microcirculatory disturbances can lead to primary nonfunction of the graft. Transplantation of Kupffer cell-depleted livers is clearly associated with a better hepatic macro- and microperfusion 1 day after LTX. The best improvement was seen in the arterial blood flow of Kupffer cell-depleted grafts (60%), which reflects diminished tissue injury, but also leads to faster washout of toxic substances and mediators and, thus, an improved supply of oxygen and protective agents (Fig. 5) [9, 19].

Activated Kupffer cells release reactive oxygen species, proteases, TNF- α , adhesion molecules, and other mediators (s.a.), which lead to microcirculatory disturbances and injury, destruction, or apoptosis of other nonparenchymal cells and hepatocytes [7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 20, 28, 29]. This mechanism is boosted by the release of chemotactic mediators and infiltrating leukocytes. Both pathways are reduced in Kupffer cell-depleted livers, even though the release of toxic mediators, reactive oxygen species, and chemotactic factors also originates from endothelial cells [8, 28]. Consequently, after LTX, hepatic perfusion is lower than that in the donor situation. This might also be the cause of the equally reduced perfusion volumes in both groups soon after LTX.

Kupffer cell depletion improves endotoxin clearance in the liver

Kupffer cells represent 80% of the reticulo-endothelial system (RES) in the liver, and their phagocytic function is an important part of the immunologic defense line. By destruction of Kupffer cells, possible danger could arise from bacteria or toxic bacterial products like endotoxin [7, 30]. Even though there are no reports on toxic or sepsis-promoting effects of GdCl₃ treatment to date, the destruction of Kupffer cells in the liver must prove to be a safe procedure before it can be used for donor pretreatment in the human clinical setting. Surprisingly, even though a dramatic rise in LPS concentration during the anhepatic phase was seen in the portal vein in both groups, the extraction of LPS in Kupffer cell-depleted livers was significantly higher 1 h after reperfusion. This effect cannot be explained by improved function of Kupffer cells since the endotoxin clearance of hepatocytes probably was the major cause here [31, 32]. Two reasons can possibly be defined for this effect. Firstly, improved organ perfusion leads to enhanced endotoxin distribution in the liver and, thus, more hepatocytes are perfused. Secondly, the protective effect of Kupffer cell depletion in ischemia/reperfusion injury leads to diminished hepatocellular injury, thus causing improved function of hepatocytes.

Summary and conclusion

Treatment of donors with GdCl₃ causes destruction of more than 80% of the Kupffer cells in the liver. Kupffer cell-depleted livers have a significantly improved perfusion compared to untreated livers. After ischemia/reperfusion, further enhancement of macro- and microperfusion is found in recipients of GdCl₃-treated grafts. GdCl₃ treatment also has a marked and significant protective effect on ischemia/reperfusion injury in pigs, as reflected by graft function, hepatocellular injury, and histology. This protective effect leads to improved endotoxin extraction in transplanted grafts. Treatment of liver donors by Kupffer cell destruction appears to be effective and can potentially be transferred to the clinical setting. Toxic side effects, especially to other transplantable organs of the donor, have to be evaluated before using GdCl₃ in humans.

Acknowledgements This paper was initiated and partially revised by Dr. Ron G. Thurman, Director of the Laboratory of Hepatobiology and Toxicology, University of North Carolina, USA, who died suddenly in July 2001. I had the good fortune to work with him in his laboratory from December 1994 to December 1996. He was a wonderful man and teacher and a brilliant scientist, and I take great pleasure in dedicating this work to him. We wish to thank Prof. R. Urbaschek for the analysis of serum endotoxin concentration. This study was supported by Forschungsförderungsprogramm Universität Heidelberg Nr. 110/99.

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