

CLINICAL IMPORTANCE OF BIOCHEMICAL MARKERS OF CARDIAC DAMAGE IN HEMODIALYSIS PATIENTS

Dejan Petrovic¹, Nikola Jagić², Vladimir Miloradović³, Biljana Stojimirović⁴

¹Center for Nephrology and Dialysis, Clinic for Urology and Nephrology, ²Department for Interventional Radiology, Center for Radiology Diagnostics, ³Department for Cardiology, Clinic for Internal Medicine, Clinical Center „Kragujevac“, Kragujevac; ⁴Clinic for Nephrology, Institute for Urology and Nephrology, Clinical Center of Serbia, Belgrade, Serbia

KLINIČKI ZNAČAJ BIOHEMIJSKIH MARKERA SRČANOG OŠTEĆENJA KOD PACIJENATA NA HEMODIJALIZI

Dejan Petrović¹, Nikola Jagić², Vladimir Miloradović³, Biljana Stojimirović⁴

¹Centar za nefrologiju i dijalizu, Klinika za urologiju i nefrologiju, ²Odsek za interventnu radiologiju, Centar za radiološku dijagnostiku, ³Odeljenje kardiologije, Klinika za internu medicinu, Klinički centar „Kragujevac“, Kragujevac;

⁴Institut za urologiju i nefrologiju, Klinika za nefrologiju, Klinički centar Srbije, Beograd, Srbija



Received/Primljen: 11. 12. 2007.

Accepted/Prihvaćen: 27. 02. 2008.

ABSTRACT

Cardiovascular diseases are the most frequent cause of morbidity and mortality in patients on regular hemodialysis. Cardiovascular mortality in this patients subset is approximately 9% per year, and among cardiovascular complications, the left ventricle hypertrophy, ischemic heart disease and congestive heart failure are the most prevalent. Risk factors for atherosclerosis and cardiovascular complications in hemodialysis patients are: high blood pressure, lipid metabolism disorder, oxidative stress, microinflammation, hypoalbuminemia, anaemia, hyperhomocysteinemia, high concentration of asymmetric dimethylarginine-ADMA and secondary hyperparathyroidism. Diagnostic strategy for early detection of patients with higher risk for cardiovascular complications should include the following: tests for cardiovascular risk factors detection (homocystein, ADMA), tests for estimation of microinflammation, coronary artery plaque instability and vulnerability risks (CRP), tests for detection of markers of ischemia and damage of cardiac tissue, (cTnT, cTnI), as well as myocardial function tests (ANP, BNP, Nt-proBNP). Precise detection of the most sensitive of high risk for cardiovascular complications enables right timing for adequate therapeutic strategy, which means high degree of survival of the patients with end stage of renal disease.

Key words: renal dialysis, cardiovascular diseases, morbidity, mortality, diagnosis

SAŽETAK

Kardiovaskularne bolesti su najčešći uzrok morbiditeta i mortaliteta bolesnika koji se leče redovnim hemodijalizama. Stopa kardiovaskularnog mortaliteta kod ovih bolesnika iznosi približno 9% godišnje, a među kardiovaskularnim komplikacijama najveća je prevalencija hipertrofije leve komore, ishemijske bolesti srca i kongestivne srčane slabosti. U faktore rizika za razvoj ateroskleroze i kardiovaskularnih komplikacija kod bolesnika na hemodijalizi spadaju: povišen arterijski krvni pritisak, poremećaj metabolizma lipida, oksidativni stres, mikroinflamacija, hypoalbuminemija, anemija, hiperhomocisteinemija, povećana koncentracija asimetričnog dimetilarginina-ADMA i sekundarni hiperparatireoidizam. Dijagnostička strategija za rano otkrivanje bolesnika sa povećanim rizikom za razvoj kardiovaskularnih komplikacija treba da uključi: testove za određivanje faktora kardiovaskularnog rizika (homocistein, ADMA), testove za procenu mikroinflamacije, nestabilnosti plaka koronarnih arterija i rizika njegovog prskanja (CRP), testove za određivanje pokazatelja ishemije i oštećenja srčanog tkiva (cTnT, cTnI), kao i testove za određivanje pokazatelja funkcije miokarda (ANP, BNP, Nt-proBNP). Utvrđivanje najosetljivijih parametara visokog rizika za razvoj kardiovaskularnih komplikacija omogućava pravovremenu primenu odgovarajuće terapijske strategije, koja obezbeđuje visok stepen preživljavanja bolesnika sa završnim stadijumom hronične slabosti bubrega.

Ključne reči: hemodijaliza, kardiovaskularne bolesti, morbiditet, mortalitet, dijagnoza

INTRODUCTION

Cardiovascular diseases are the most frequent cause of morbidity and mortality in patients on regular hemodialysis. Annual cardiovascular mortality in these patients is approximately 9% (1, 2), and among cardiovascular complications, the most prevalent are left ventricle hypertrophy, ischemic heart disease and congestive heart failure (1–6). Risk factors for cardiovascular complications in hemodialysis patients are: high blood pressure, lipid metabolism disorder, oxidative stress, microinflammation, hypoalbuminemia, anaemia, hyperhomocysteinemia, high concentration of asymmetric dimethylarginine-ADMA, high blood flow through the vascular access for hemodialysis and secondary hyperparathyroidism (table 1) (6–17).

Table 1. Cardiovascular risk factors in hemodialysis patients.

CATEGORY		RISK FACTORS
TRADITIONAL		Cigarette Smoking Hypertension Hyperlipidemia Diabetes mellitus Obesity
NON TRADITIONAL	HEMODYNAMIC	Anaemia Retention of Na ⁺ and H ₂ O AV fistula (QAV > 1000 mL/min)
	METABOLIC	Hypoalbuminemia Hyperhomocysteinemia Oxidative stress Microinflammation Secondary hyperparathyroidism

Modified according to reference (3).



Laboratory tests in clinical cardiology

Four groups of laboratory tests are used in clinical cardiology: 1) tests for cardiovascular risk factors detection (homocystein, asymmetric dimethylarginine-ADMA, C-reactive protein, lipids, oxidatively changed LDL lipoprotein-oxLDL, malondialdehyd-MDA); 2) tests for estimation of microinflammation, (coronary artery plaque instability and vulnerability risks, choline, PAPP-A - protein A related with pregnancy); 3) tests for detection of markers of ischemia and damage of cardiac tissue, (IMA - Ischemia modulated albumin, Creatin kinase-CK, lactat dehydrogenase-LDH, SGOT-serum glutamat oxalat transaminase, cardiac troponin-cTn); 4) Myocardial function tests (ANP-atrial natriuretic peptid, BNP-brain natriuretic peptid, N terminal-pro BNP-Nt - proBNP) (figure 1) (18–21).

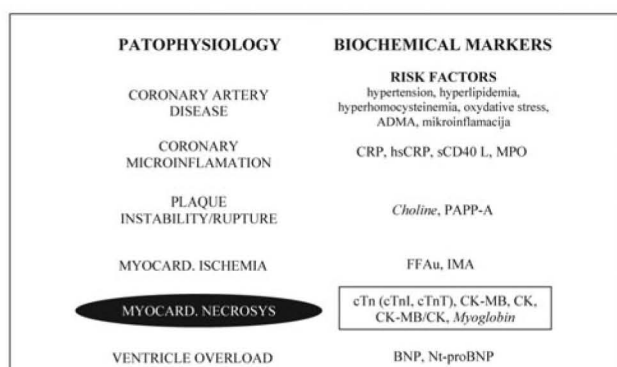


Figure 1. Biochemical markers for heart disease evaluation. Modified according to reference (18). CRP - C-reaktive protein, sCD40L - soluble CD40 ligand, MPO - myeloperoxidase, PAPP-A - protein A binded with pregnancy, FFA - free fatty acid, IMA - ischemia modulated albumin, CK - Creatine phosphokinase, CK-MB - Creatine kinase-isomer MB, cTnI - cardiac troponin I, cTnT - cardiac troponin T, BNP - brain natriuretic peptid, Nt-proBNP - N terminal fragment proBNP.

Test for risk factors determination and cardiovascular risk stratification

Homocystein is product of metabolism of essential aminoacid metionin (figure 2) (22). Metionin is demethylised into Sadenosylmetionin, which is important methyl group donor for different biological reactions. When S-adenosylmetionin lose methyl group it turns into homocystein, which can further be metabolised in two ways: by re-methylation process or by trans-sulfuration process (22–25). Re-methylation process has two ways. First way of re-methylation is included in the folate cycle. Metabolically active folate, 5-metyltetrahydrofolate (5-MTHF), in the presence of an enzyme from the folat cycle, reductase 5-MTHF, serves as a donor of the methyl groups, and the cofactor is vitamin B12. Other way of re-methylation uses betain as a methyl group donor, and doesn't depend on folate cycle, having rather small role in the re-methylation. By the process of trans-sulfuration, homocystein is transmitted into cystein, and for that reaction vitamin B6 is essential, as a cofactor, and enzyme β -cystation sintase (22–25). Average homocystein concentration in plasma of a healthy person is 6–12 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ (22). In the patients who are treated with hemodialysis hyperhomocysteinemia is assumed if homocystein concentration in the plasma is $\geq 15 \mu\text{mol/L}$ (22). Mild hyperhomocysteinemia is assumed if homocystein concentration in the plasm is between 15–30 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, modest hyperhomocysteinemia

is between 31–100 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, and true hyperhomocysteinemia is considered if plasma concentration of homocystein is above 100 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ (23).

More than 80% of patients on hemodialysis has elevated plasma concentration of homocystein (16, 24). Hyperhomocysteinemia blocks activity of dimethylarginine dimethylhydrolase-DDAH enzyme, which has a specific role in the process of degradation of asymmetric dimethylarginine and contributes in accumulation of ADMA in endothelial cells and triggering of atherosclerotic process (21–26). Hyperhomocysteinemia is the risk factor for atherosclerosis and cardiovascular complications in patients on hemodialysis (21–26).

Whole homocystein plasma concentration is independent predictor of cardiovascular mortality in patients on regular hemodialysis. Patients on hemodialysis with homocystein

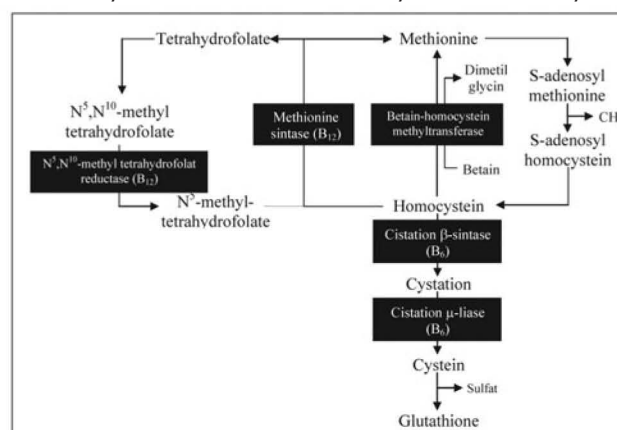


Figure 2. Biochemical paths of homocystein synthesis and degradation.

plasma concentration $\geq 37.8 \mu\text{mol/L}$ have 8.2 fold greater risk for cardiovascular mortality comparing to homocystein blood concentration below 22.9 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ (27). Asymmetric dimethylarginine is a result of degradation of methylated proteins (figure 3). Methylation of the arginine residuals inside different proteins and/or polypeptids is done by means of N-methyltransferase I and II (methylase I and II). S-adenosylmethionine serves as a methyl groups donor for the process of methylation of arginine residuals of proteins. As a result of methylation of arginine residuals become S-adenosyl-L-homocystein (SAH) and methylised proteins (proteins that contain ADMA) (9–12). Enzyme protein arginine methyltransferase I (PRMT I) takes part in the processes of asymmetric dimethylarginine-ADMA synthesis. By hydrolysis of methylated proteins ADMA is liberated. Asymmetric dimethylarginine is the most important endogenous blocking substance of Nitrous oxide-NO synthesis in endothelial cells (eNOS) (9–12). In healthy population, normal concentration of ADMA in plasma is $\leq 1,0 \mu\text{mol/L}$, in patients on hemodialysis $\leq 2.2 \mu\text{mol/L}$, and if in concentrations between 3–15 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ ADMA is blocking NO synthesis in endothelial cells and triggers the process of atherosclerosis. (12). Accumulation of ADMA in endothelial cells secondary leads to malfunction of the system of L-arginine/NO (9–12).

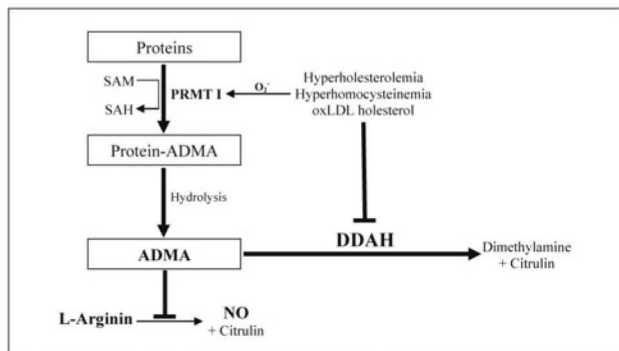


Figure 3. Biochemical paths of creation and degradation of asymmetric dimethylarginine-ADMA. SAH-S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine, DDAH-dimethylarginine dimethylhydrolase, PRMT I-protein arginine methyltransferase I, NO-nitrous oxide.

Main path of degradation of ADMA is processed by means of enzyme dimethylarginine dimethylhydrolase-DDAH. Upon the action of this enzyme ADMA is degrading till dimethylamine and L-citrullin (28). In hemodialysis patients elevated ADMA concentration is due to diminished activity of DDAH enzyme. Oxidative stress, microinflammation and hyperhomocysteinemia considerably diminish activity of this enzyme and elevate concentration of ADMA (28). Upon the enzyme aminotransferase dimethylarginine pyruvate-DPT, one part of ADMA is metabolised into α -keto acids (28).

Patients on hemodialysis with left ventricle hypertrophy have highly significant statistically elevated plasma ADMA concentration comparing to the patients with normal left ventricle mass (10). By multivariant analysis it is proved that ADMA is independent risk factor for left ventricle hypertrophy (10). In hemodialysis patients ADMA is strong predictor of cardiovascular complications development and overall mortality (11). Every one $\mu\text{mol/l}$ rise of ADMA in plasma is followed by overall risk mortality rise of 26% (11).

Microinflammation is independant risk factor for cardiovascular complications in patients on hemodialysis (29). Local and systemic inflammation have important role in pathogenesis of acute coronary syndrom. Inflammatory process has important role in prediction of plaque perspective, eg. plaque stability. C-reactive protein, reactant of acute phase of inflammation, has important role in the atherosclerosis process, progression and rupture of atherosclerotic plaque (29). Normal concentration of CRP in plasma is $\leq 5 \text{ mg/L}$, and concentration of CRP $> 10 \text{ mg/L}$ expresses elevated risk of development of cardiovascular complications in patients on hemodialysis (29).

Highly-sensitive CRP (hsCRP), serum amyloid A-SAA and other reactants of acute phase of inflammation and/or cytokines are used as a markers of inflammation and predictors of development of cardiovascular complications in hemodialysis patients (29, 30). Between hsCRP concentration and risks for coronary artery disease, there is statistically significant relation (29–31).

Tests for estimation of plaque instability and risk of its rupture

Elevated concentration of soluble CD-40 ligand indicates aggravated prothrombotic activity and possibility of development of coronary thrombosis. After thrombocyte activation there is significant rise and liberation of soluble fragments-

CD40 ligands which express prothrombotic activity (sCD40L). Elevated concentration of sCD40L enables recruitment of certain subset of patients with elevated risk of acute coronary syndrome (18–21, 32).

(Myeloperoxidase)-MPO is an enzyme secreted by different inflammatory cells, including activated neutrophils and monocytes/macrophages, present in atherosclerotic plaques. Elevated myeloperoxidase concentration in serum is a predictor of development of acute coronary syndrome (18–21, 32).

Elevated activity of phospholipase D and choline liberation in plasma, is connected with atherosclerotic plaque rupture and onset of acute coronary syndrome. Elevated concentration of choline in plasma, in patients with normal concentration of cardiac troponins, enables recruitment of certain subset of patients with elevated risk of unstable angina pectoris (18–21, 32).

Plasma Protein A binded with pregnancy - PAPP-A is a glycoprotein of high molecular weight (200 kD), which is synthesised in syncytio-trophoblasts. Presence of this protein is proved in unstable atherosclerotic plaque of coronary arteries, and elevated concentration in plasma is a warning sign of possible development of acute coronary syndrome (18–21, 32).

Tests for markers of ischemia and cardiac tissue damage

Free fatty acids-FFAs in blood of patients with acute myocardial ischemia show early signs of myocardial damage. Albumin modified by ischemia-IMA (ischaemia-modified albumin) is another marker of early myocardial damage (18–21, 32).

Traditional enzymes, like CK and LDH, due to their high molecular weight (84 kD and 144 kD) do not penetrate membrane until the myocytes aren't irreversibly destructed. (monophasic excretion) (19, 20, 32). Creatine kinase-CK is dimer composed of M and/or B subunits (CK-MM, CK-MB, CK-BB isoenzymes). Isoenzyme CK-MM is mostly in striated skeletal musculature (97% of whole CK) (32, 33). Isoenzyme CK-MB is mostly found in heart muscle, and accounts for 15–40% of total activity of Creatin kinase (32, 33). An insignificant amount of CK-MB is present in striated muscles as well (2–3% of total creatine kinase activity). Isoenzyme CK-BB is mostly present in brain, colon, ileum, stomach and urinary bladder (32, 33). Activity of whole creatine kinase-CK in plasma and concentration of isoenzyme CK-MB rise after 4–6 hours of myocardial damage, reaching the peak concentration after 12–24 hours, and after 48–72 hours it is getting back to normal values (32, 33). Isoenzyme MB creatine kinase (CK-MB) is more sensitive marker of myocardial damage than whole CK, but this isoenzyme concentration can be elevated after striated muscles damage as well (32, 33). Ratio CK-MB/total CK above 5% suggests myocardial infarction $\frac{\text{CK-MB}}{\text{CK}} \times 100 (\%)$. Concentration of total creatine kinase-CK $> 232 \text{ U/L}$ and CK-MB $> 16 \text{ U/L}$, as well as ratio CK-MB/CK $> 5\%$ suggests acute myocardial infarction (33). There are two CK-MB isoenzymes of creatine kinase: CK-MB1 and CK-MB2. In normal blood CK-MB isoenzymes are equally distributed, in ratio 1:1. Substantial CK-MB2:CK-MB1 ratio changes 2–4h after myocardial damage. CK-MB2:CK-MB1 ≥ 1.5 ratio is used as a diagnostic criterion of myocardial damage (34, 61). Ratio of



CK-MB isoenzymes normalizes after 18–30h. Normal ratio of isoenzymes CK-MB2:CK-MB1 = 1, which stays still after 6h of the onset of chest pain, excludes the diagnosis of myocardial infarction (32, 33). But, in hemodialysis patients activity of CK-MB after myocardial damage is not fully reliable. Activity of CK-MB can be elevated in 5–50% in hemodialysis patients even in the absence of cardiac symptoms or any data on cardiac damage (34). Isoenzymes LDH, as α -HBDH (α -hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase) and LDH isoenzyme 1, are more specific in diagnostic of myocardial damage compared to whole LDH (32, 33).

Myoglobin is protein of 17 kD of molecular weight, being in cytoplasm of heart and striated myocytes, and is easily liberated after cellular damage (33). Its concentration in blood elevates after 2–3 hours after myocardial damage. According to ESC/ACC (European Society of Cardiology/American College of Cardiology) myoglobin concentration and CK-MB in blood are used as early markers of myocardial damage (32, 33). Distribution of carbonic anhydrase III is limited to skeletal muscles, and its use in combination with myoglobin rises sensitivity of myoglobin in diagnostics of myocardial damage. Elevated ratio myoglobin/carbonic anhydrase III stresses myocardial damage (32, 33). Myoglobin concentration in blood is not used in routine clinical work (32, 33).

Cardiac troponins (cTnT and cTnI) mark myocardial cell destruction (20, 21). Complex of troponins consists of troponin C-cTnC, troponin T-cTnT and troponin I-cTnI, and its main function is regulation of contractility of heart muscle (33). Cardiac troponin I-cTnI (molecular weight of 26 kD) blocks activity of actinomyosine ATP-ase. Troponin C-cTnC (molecular weight 18 kD) is binding for cTnI, opposing the inhibiting effect of cTnI, and serves as a place for calcium binding, inevitable for the process of contraction. Troponin T-cTnT (molecular mass of 39 kD) stabilises complex cTnC/cTnI and binds for actin-myosin filament (34, 61). A great deal of cardiac troponins (cTnI, cTnT) intracellularly are attached to myofibrils, and small amount is free (6–8% cTnT and 3–4% cTnI). Cardiac troponins are excreted in phase of reversible (cytosolic form) and irreversible (cytosolic and structure form) myocardial ischemia and enables early detection of minimal myocardial damage. According to guidelines of ESC/ACC (European Society of Cardiology/American College of Cardiology) cardiac troponins are used as markers for evaluation of acute coronary syndrome, due to higher sensitivity and specificity compared to other markers (table 2) (32, 33).

Table 2. Characteristics of markers of cardiac damage.

Proteins	Molecular weight	Early detection*	Duration	Sensitivity	Specificity
Protein-FA	12 kD	1.5 - 2.0 h	8 - 12 h	+++	++
Myoglobin	16 kD	1.5 - 2.0 h	8 - 12 h	+++	+
CK-MB	83 kD	2.0 - 3.0 h	1 - 2 days	+++	+++
Troponin I	33 kD	3.0 - 4.0 h	7 - 14 days	++++	++++
Troponin T	38 kD	3.0 - 4.0 h	7 - 14 days	++++	++++
CK	96 kD	4.0 - 6.0 h	2 - 3 days	++	++
sGOT	~103 kD	6.0 - 10.0 h	3 - 5 days	++	+
LDH	135 kD	6.0 - 10.0 h	5 - 7 days	++	+

* hours after the symptom onset, CK-creatin kinase, LDH-lactate dehydrogenase, sGOT-glutamate oxaloacetate transaminase

Elevated concentration of cardiac troponins is found in as much as 40% of patients on hemodialysis, without symptoms of acute coronary syndrome (34–38). In hemodialysis

patients troponin T elevation can be due to left ventricle hypertrophy, systolic dysfunction of left ventricle, voluminous left ventricle and myocardial stretching, coronary microcirculation disturbance, endothelial dysfunction, oxidative stress and microinflammation, episodes of hypotension during hemodialysis, myocardial damage due to calcium and oxalate precipitation, and/or disturbance in troponin fragmentation, as a result of chronic kidney weakness or inadequate hemodialysis (34–38).

In patients on regular hemodialysis, cardiac troponin T (cTnT), compared to troponin I (cTnI), is more sensitive marker of subclinical damage of myocardial cells („minimal myocardial damage“-MMD) and proved as a better predictor of overall cardiovascular mortality (39). Patients on hemodialysis with troponin T concentration >0.10 ng/mL express statistically lower survival rate compared to patients with troponin T concentration <0.03 ng/mL (40). Correlation of cardiac troponin T with left ventricle mass indicates importance of this parameter in depiction of patients with left ventricle hypertrophy and systolic function disturbance (41). Patients with cardiac troponin T concentration > 55 ng/L in serum, have 3.47 fold higher risk of left ventricle hypertrophy, while patients with concentration of cTnT > 150 ng/L have 3.30 fold higher risk of left ventricle systolic function disturbance, compared to patients with concentration of troponin T < 150 ng/L (41). Concentration of cardiac troponin T in serum can serve as a reliable screening parameter for estimation of morphology and function of left ventricle in clinically stable hemodialysis patients (41). Between concentration of cardiac troponin T in serum, inter-ventricular septum thickness, thickness of the posterior left ventricle wall and left ventricle mass, there is highly statistically significant positive correlation (42, 43). Patients with elevated concentration of cTnT (cTnT > 0.10 ng/mL) in serum have significantly higher left ventricle mass index compared to patients with normal concentration of cTnT (44).

Two year mortality in patients with concentration of cTnT < 0.01 ng/mL is 8.4%, 26% in patients with mild elevation of cTnT (cTnT $\geq$ 0.01 and cTnT < 0.04 ng/mL), 39% in patients with serum cTnT ($\geq$ 0.04 and < 0.10 ng/mL), and 47% in patients with extreme elevation of serum cTnT (cTnT $\geq$ 0.10 ng/mL) (42). Patients with serum cTnT concentration $\leq$ 0.040 ng/mL have greatest survival rate, and significantly different compared to patients with concentration of serum cTnT (cTnT $\geq$ 0.10 ng/mL) (42, 45).

Cardiac troponin I has greatest importance in diagnostics of acute coronary syndrome. According to AHA (American Heart Association) Committee guidelines cardiac troponin I is used in diagnostics of myocardial damage in patients with unstable angina pectoris, without ST elevation. This enables diagnosis of myocardial damage before ECG registration of myocardial infarction (46, 47). After myocardial infarction cardiac troponin I can be detected in serum after 3–4 hours, and concentration remains elevated during 7–10 days (46, 47).

Troponin I is more sensitive marker of development of acute coronary syndrome compared to cTnT, and is used as a parameter for diagnostics and stratification of clinical difficulty of patients on hemodialysis developing acute coronary syndrome (48). Patients with concentration of troponin I - cTnI in serum $\geq$ 0.15 ng/mL are marked as a pos-



itive ones, while concentration of cTnI < 0.15 ng/mL is considered normal (34). Concentration of troponin I in serum > 0.8 ng/mL stresses marked damage caused by, and according to guidelines of ESC/ACC (European Society of Cardiology/American College of Cardiology) diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction includes concentration of cTnI $\geq$ 2.0 ng/mL, table 3 (48). Incidence of development of cardiovascular complications in patients on hemodialysis with concentration of cTnI > 0.15 ng/mL statistically highly significant compared to the group of patients with cTnI < 0.15 ng/mL (44). Patients with concentration of cTnI $\geq$ 0.3 μ g/L have higher risk of ACS compared to the patients with a concentration of troponin I < 0.3 μ g/L (49).

Table 3. Enzymes, isoenzymes, cardiac troponin I and their clinical importance in diagnosis of acute coronary syndrome.

LABORATORY PARAMETER	TIME of DETECTION	CLINICAL IMPORTANCE
Whole creatin kinase - CK	4.0 - 6.0 h	CK > 232 U/L
Isoenzym MB Creatin kinase - CK-MB	2.0 - 3.0 h	CK-MB > 16 U/L
CK and isoenzymes CK-MB ratio	2.0 - 4.0 h	CK-MB/CK > 5%
Isoenzymes Creatinin kinase MB ratio	2.0 - 4.0 h	CK-MB 2/CK-MB 1 $\geq$ 1.5
Cardiac troponin I	2.0 - 4.0 h	cTnI $\geq$ 2.0 ng/mL

Tests for detection of myocardial function markers

In population of patients without kidney disease, cardiac natriuretic peptides are the most important markers of left ventricle damage. These are used as a screening test for early detection of patients with asymptomatic left ventricle disturbance. Early detection of these patients enables timely treatment with angiotensin convertase I blockers and beta blockers, which both prevent congestive heart failure. In this population of patients natriuretic peptides are not used for prognosis and stratification of patients with congestive heart failure, but for the estimation of efficacy of applied therapy for congestive heart failure (50–52).

In patients with ESKD (End Stage Kidney Disease) on hemodialysis, natriuretic peptides (ANP, BNP, Nt-proBNP) have small sensitivity in early detection of patients with heart failure. High prevalence of disturbance of morphology of left ventricle (hypertrophy of left ventricle present in 75% of patients) and volume overload in interdialysis time, diminish diagnostic potential of BNP, as a screening test in diagnostics of heart failure in these patients (52). In these patients BNP is independent predictor of death and left ventricle hypertrophy (53, 54). Patients on hemodialysis with concentration of BNP > 36.1 pmol/L (concentration of ANP > 34.8 pmol/L) have significantly lower death rate (overall and cardiovascular mortality) compared to the patients with concentration of BNP < 14.3 pmol/L, or concentration of ANP < 17.9 pmol/L (52, 53). Between concentration of BNP and Left Ventricle Mass index - LVMi there is statistically significant positive correlation (52–54). Serum BNP concen-

tration is used for estimation of „dry“ body mass in patients on hemodialysis (52).

Diagnostic strategy

End stage kidney disease is a situation with high risk of cardiovascular complications (55), and heart disease of these patients are leading cause of death in this population. Markers of early detection of myocardial damage (troponin I, troponin T) enable depiction of patients with high risk of acute coronary syndrome-ACS, which enables adequate therapy (platelet IIb/IIIa glycoproteins antagonists) (56, 57).

Pointing out the most sensitive parameters for detection of patients with high risk of cardiovascular complications enable proper timing for adequate therapeutic strategy, therefore making high survival rate in patients with end stage kidney disease (55–58). Biochemical markers play key role in diagnostics and therapy of the patients with ACS. Early depiction of myocardial ischemia in the absence of irreversible myocardial damage has a key role in prevention of ACS development. Exceptional importance belongs to the markers of early detection of myocardial ischemia/damage and to the markers of inflammation, coronary plaque instability and its rupture (18–21).

According to ESC/ACC (European Society of Cardiology/American College of Cardiology) Expert Committee guidelines, cardiac troponins (cTnT or cTnI) are used as a GOLD STANDARD in diagnostics of myocardial damage because of high specificity for heart tissue (34). Measuring concentration of cardiac troponins, cTn, in serum enables depiction of the subset of patients with elevated risk of main cardiovascular complications (34).

In patients with ESKD the use of multiple biomarker monitoring is inevitable for prediction of the outcome. C-reactive protein, homocystein, BNP and ADMA are high risk markers of cardiovascular complications in patients with ESKD (58–62). Simultaneous measurement of CRP and cTnI enables depiction of hemodialysis patients with elevated cardiovascular risk, in whom additional diagnostic monitoring and aggressive cardiovascular risk factor correction are necessary (58–62).

Primary strategy for lowering of cardiovascular mortality rate in hemodialysis patients should include antiaggregation therapy (Aspirin tabl. 100 mg/d), statins and beta-blockers, while secondary strategy includes coronary revascularization and percutaneous cardioverter defibrillator implantation (PCDs) (56).

Early detection of ESKD patients with high risk of cardiovascular complications enable adequate and timely therapy, thus lowering cardiovascular mortality rate and improving quality of life in these patients (62, 63).



REFERENCES

1. Parfrey PS. Cardiac disease in dialysis patients: diagnosis, burden of disease, prognosis, risk factors and management. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2000; 15(Suppl 5): 5868.
2. London GM. Left ventricular alterations and end-stage renal disease. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2002; 17(Suppl 1): 29–36.
3. Rigatto C, Parfrey PS. Uraemic cardiomyopathy: an overload cardiomyopathy. *J Clin Basic Cardiol* 2001; 4: 93–5.
4. London GM. Cardiovascular disease in chronic renal failure: pathophysiologic aspects. *Semin Dial* 2003; 16: 85–94.
5. London GM, Guerin AP, Marchais SJ. Hemodynamic overload in end-stage renal disease patients. *Semin Dial* 1999; 12: 77–83.
6. Goldsmith DJA, Covic A. Coronary artery disease in uremia: Etiology, diagnosis, and therapy. *Kidney Int* 2001; 60: 2059–78.
7. Vidt DG. Inflammation in renal disease. *Am J Cardiol* 2006; 97(2 Suppl 1): 20–7.
8. Wanner C, Zimmermann J, Schwedler S, et al. Inflammation and cardiovascular risk in dialysis patients. *Kidney Int* 2002; 61(Suppl 80): 99–102.
9. Fliser D, Kielstein JT, Haller H, Bode-Böger SM. Asymmetric dimethylarginine: a cardiovascular risk factor in renal disease? *Kidney Int* 2003; 63(Suppl 84): 37–40.
10. Zoccali C, Mallamaci F, Maas R, Benedetto FA, Tripepi G, Malatino LS, et al. Left ventricular hypertrophy, cardiac remodeling and asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA) in hemodialysis patients. *Kidney Int* 2002; 62: 339–45.
11. Zoccali C, Bode-Böger SM, Mallamaci F, Benedetto FA, Tripepi G, Malatino LS, Cataliotti A, et al. Plasma concentration of asymmetrical dimethylarginine and mortality in patients with end-stage renal disease: a prospective study. *Lancet* 2001; 358: 2113–7.
12. Böger RH. The emerging role of asymmetric dimethylarginine as a novel cardiovascular risk factor. *Cardiovasc Res* 2003; 59: 824–33.
13. Zoccali C, Mallamaci F, Tripepi G. Novel cardiovascular risk factors in end-stage renal disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2004; 15(Suppl 1): 77–80.
14. Zoccali C, Mallamaci F, Tripepi G. Traditional and emerging cardiovascular risk factors in end-stage renal disease. *Kidney Int* 2003; 63: 105–10.
15. Balović G, Petrović D. Secondary hyperparathyroidism - a risk factor for development of uremic cardiomyopathy in patients on hemodialysis. *Medicus* 2005; 6: 82–5. (in Serbian).
16. Petrović D, Stojimirović B. Prevalence of risk factors for development of cardiovascular complications in hemodialysis patients. In: Radenković S, ed. *Cardionephrology 3*. Naiss: GIP „PUNTA“, 2007: 35–43. “in Serbian”.
17. Petrović D, Stojimirović B. Vascular access blood flow for hemodialysis - a risk factor for development of cardiovascular complications in hemodialysis patients. *Med Pregl* 2007; 60: 183–6. (in Serbian).
18. Panteghini M. Role and importance of biochemical markers in clinical cardiology. *Eur Heart J* 2004; 25: 1187–96.
19. Majkić-Singh N. Biochemical markers in diagnosing acute coronary syndrome. *Jugoslav Med Biochem* 2003; 22: 289–301. (in Serbian).
20. Majkić-Singh N. The choice of biochemical markers in diagnosing acute coronary syndrome. *Jugoslav Med Biochem* 2005; 24: 1–13. (in Serbian).
21. Panteghini M. Biochemical markers of cardiac disease. *Jugoslav Med Biochem* 2004; 23: 201–11.
22. Friedman AN, Bostom AG, Selhub J, Levey AS, Rosenberg IH. The kidney and homocysteine metabolism. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2001; 12: 2181–9.
23. Culleton BF, Bostom AG. Hyperhomocysteinemia in chronic renal disease. In: Loscalzo J, London GM, eds. *Cardiovascular disease in end-stage renal failure*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2000: 211–28.
24. Petrović D, Stojimirović B. Homocysteine as risk factor for cardiovascular complications in hemodialysis patients. In: Radenković S, ed. *Cardionephrology 2*. Naiss: GIP „PUNTA“, 2005: 31–6. (in Serbian).
25. Petrović D, Radovanović M, Nikolić A, Poskurica M, Stojimirović B. Correlation between homocysteine and left ventricular hypertrophy in hemodialysis patients. *Medicinski Časopis* 2006; 40: 12–8. (in Serbian).
26. Massy ZA. Potential strategies to normalize the levels of homocysteine in chronic renal failure patients. *Kidney Int* 2003; 63(Suppl 84): 134–6.
27. Mallamaci F, Zoccali C, Tripepi G, et al. Hyperhomocysteinemia predicts cardiovascular outcomes in hemodialysis patients. *Kidney Int* 2002; 61: 609–14.
28. Cooke JP. Asymmetrical dimethylarginine: the uber marker? *Circulation* 2004; 109: 1813–8.
29. Lacson E, Levin NW. C-Reactive protein and end-stage renal disease. *Semin Dial* 2004; 17: 438–48.
30. Pearson TA, Mensah GA, Alexander RW, et al. Markers of inflammation and cardiovascular disease. *Circulation* 2003; 107: 499–511.
31. Rao M, Jaber BL, Balakrishnan VS. Inflammatory biomarkers and cardiovascular risk: association or cause and effect? *Semin Dial* 2006; 19: 129–35.
32. Jaffe AS, Babuin L, Apple FS. Biomarkers in acute cardiac disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006; 48: 1–11.
33. Kemp M, Donovan J, Higham H, Hooper J. Biochemical markers of myocardial injury. *Br J Anaesth* 2004; 93: 63–73.
34. Beciani M, Tedesco A, Violante A, et al. Cardiac troponin I (2nd generation assay) in chronic haemodialysis patients: prevalence and prognostic value. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2003; 18: 942–6.
35. Wood GNI, Keevil B, Gupta J, et al. Serum troponin T measurement in patients with chronic renal impairment predicts survival and vascular disease: a 2 year prospective study. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2003; 18: 1610–15.
36. Iliou MC, Fumeron C, Benoit MO, et al. Factors associated with increased levels of cardiac troponins T and I in chronic haemodialysis patients: Chronic Haemodialysis And New Cardiac Markers Evaluation (CHANCE) study. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2001; 16: 1452–8.
37. Iliou MC, Fumeron C, Benoit MO, et al. Prognostic value of cardiac markers in ESRD: Chronic Hemodialysis and New Cardiac Markers Evaluation (CHANCE) study. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2003; 42: 513–23.
38. Babuin L, Jaffe AS. Troponin: the biomarker of choice for the detection of cardiac injury. *CMAJ* 2005; 173: 1191–202.
39. Ishii J, Nomura M, Okuma T, et al. Risk stratification using serum concentrations of cardiac troponin T in patients with end-stage renal disease on chronic maintenance dialysis. *Clin Chim Acta* 2001; 312: 69–79.
40. Conway B, McLaughlin M, Sharpe P, Harty J. Use of cardiac troponin T in diagnosis and progression of cardiac events in patients on chronic haemodialysis. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2005; 20: 2759–64.
43. Mallamaci F, Zoccali C, Parlongo S, et al. Diagnostic value of troponin T for alterations in left ventricular mass and function in dialysis patients. *Kidney Int* 2002; 62: 1884–90.
42. Apple FS, Murakami MM, Pearce LA, et al. Predictive value of cardiac troponin I and T for subsequent death in end-stage renal disease. *Circulation* 2002; 106: 2941–5.



43. Petrovic D, Obrenovic R, Radovanovic M, Majkic-Singh N, Stojimirovic B. Left ventricular hypertrophy in hemodialysis patients-correlation with cardiac troponins. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2006; 21(Suppl 4): 189.
44. Mallamaci F, Zoccali C, Parlongo S, et al. Troponin is related to left ventricular mass and predicts all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in hemodialysis patients. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2002; 40: 68–75.
45. Dierkes J, Domröse U, Westphal S, et al. Cardiac troponin t predicts mortality in patients with end-stage renal disease. *Circulation* 2000; 102: 1964–75.
46. Roberts MA, Fernando D, Macmillan N, et al. Single and serial measurements of cardiac troponin I in asymptomatic patients on chronic hemodialysis. *Clin Nephrol* 2004; 61: 40–6.
47. Boulter A, Jaussent I, Terrier N, et al. Measurement of circulating troponin Ic enhances the prognostic value of C-reactive protein in hemodialysis patients. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2004; 19: 2313–8.
48. Hussein M, Mooij J, Roujouleh H, Shenawi OA. Cardiac troponin-I and its prognostic significance in a dialysis population. *Hemodialysis Int* 2004; 8: 332–7.
49. Troyanov S, Ly QH, Schampaert E, et al. Diagnostic specificity and prognostic value of cardiac troponins in asymptomatic chronic haemodialysis patients: a three year prospective study. *Heart* 2005; 91: 1227–8.
50. Ritz E, Dikow R, Adamczak M, Zeier M. Congestive heart failure due to systolic dysfunction: the cinderella of cardiovascular management in dialysis patients. *Semin Dial* 2002; 15: 135–40.
51. Schrier RW. Role of diminished renal function in cardiovascular mortality. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006; 47: 1–8.
52. Mark PB, Petrie CJ, Jardine AG. Diagnostic, prognostic, and therapeutic implications of brain natriuretic peptide in dialysis and nondialysis-dependent chronic renal failure. *Semin Dial* 2007; 20: 40–9.
53. Mallamaci F, Zoccali C, Tripepi G, et al. Diagnostic potential of cardiac natriuretic peptides in dialysis patients. *Kidney Int* 2001; 59: 1559–66.
54. Zoccali C, Mallamaci F, Benedetto FA, et al. Cardiac natriuretic peptides are related to left ventricular mass and function and predict mortality in dialysis patients. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2001; 12: 1508–15.
55. Nolan CR. Strategies for improving long-term survival in patients with ESRD. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2005; 16(11 Suppl 2): 120–7.
56. Herzog CA. Cardiac arrest in dialysis patients: approaches to alter an abysmal outcome. *Kidney Int* 2003; 63(Suppl 84): 197–200.
57. Herzog CA, Apple FS. Cardiac biomarkers in the new millennium. *Semin Dial* 2001; 14: 322–3.
58. Ooi DS, Zimmerman D, Graham J, et al. Cardiac troponin T predicts long-term outcomes in hemodialysis patients. *Clin Chem* 2001; 47: 412–17.
59. Apple FS, Murakami MAM, Pearce LA, Herzog A. Multi-biomarker risk stratification of N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein, and cardiac troponin T and I in end-stage renal disease for all-cause death. *Clin Chem* 2004; 50: 2279–85.
60. De Filippi C, Wasserman S, Rosanio S, et al. Cardiac troponin T and C-reactive protein for predicting prognosis, coronary atherosclerosis, and cardiomyopathy in patients undergoing long-term hemodialysis. *JAMA* 2003; 290: 353–9.
61. Zoccali C, Tripepi G, Mallamaci F. Predictors of cardiovascular death in ESRD. *Semin Nephrol* 2005; 25: 358–62.
62. Mallamaci F, Tripepi G, Cutrupi S, Malatino LS, Zoccali C. Prognostic value of combined use of biomarkers of inflammation, endothelial dysfunction, and myocardial pathology in patients with ESRD. *Kidney Int* 2005; 67: 2330–37.
63. Dikow R, Adamczak M, Henriquez DE, Ritz E. Strategies to decrease cardiovascular mortality in patients with end-stage renal disease. *Kidney Int* 2002; 61(Suppl 80): 5–10.

