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## Cardiohepatic interactions in heart failure

### *Kalp yetersizliğinde kardiohepatik etkileşim*

To the Editor,

Heart failure (HF) is a fatal and progressive disease, driven by cardiac dysfunction (1). The syndrome of HF is characterized by organ cross-talks, since, heart is central to hemodynamics of many organs both in the form of distributing the oxygenated blood and delivering deoxygenated blood in order to send it to lungs. Among many organ cross-talks in the syndrome of HF, interaction between heart and kidney is relatively well established and defined as "cardiorenal syndrome" (2). Hepatic involvement in the form of cardiohepatic interaction has also been described in patients with chronic HF (3, 4).

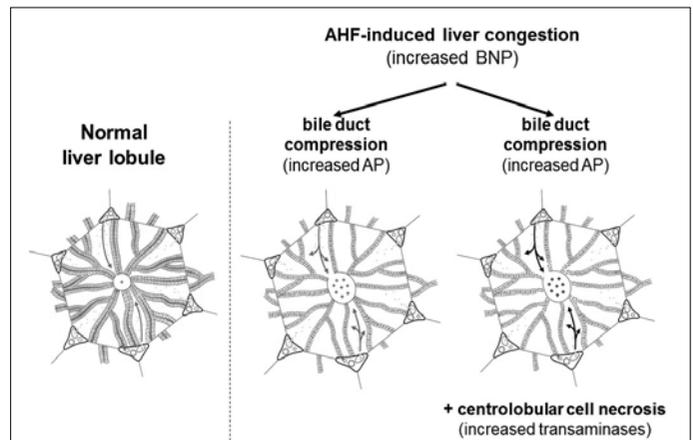
In the recent analysis of the SURVIVE database (5), cardiohepatic dysfunction was present in about a half of this cohort of patients with acute decompensated heart failure (ADHF). Furthermore, it seems liver function tests behave as surrogates of systemic hemodynamics. In the analysis, cholestasis associated biochemical markers were associated with signs of systemic congestion and elevated right-sided filling pressure, while biochemical markers of liver cytolysis were associated with

clinical signs of hypoperfusion. Hence, there are two hypothetical modes of cardio-hepatic interaction proposed within the light of the recent paper: 1) in the form of either predominantly HF-induced cholestasis or 2) predominantly HF-induced liver cell cytolysis. In addition to these two discrete modes of involvements, cardiohepatic dysfunction was shown to be associated with poor long term outcome.

Elevated plasma alkaline phosphatase (AP), alone or in conjunction with abnormal transaminase levels was present in 20% of patients with ADHF at baseline. High basal AP levels were associated with systemic congestion and elevated right-sided filling pressure, including peripheral edema, ascites, tricuspid regurgitation and high plasma levels of creatinine and BNP. The results were confirmatory to the previous studies with pathophysiological background (3, 4). Although, the mechanism by which systemic congestion and elevated right-sided filling pressure causes release of biochemical markers of cholestasis remains uncertain, it is possible that in patients with ADHF, the markedly elevated right-sided filling pressure can possibly be transmitted to centrilobular liver sinusoids which could compress any collapsible structure within the lobule, including bile canaliculi and ductules (Fig. 1). Raised hydrostatic pressure in liver sinusoids can potentiate the compression along with enlargement of liver cells. Such pathophysiology could yield compression of bile ducts and change the direction of bile flow (including AP) towards the blood (5). Hence, AP stands as a biomarker of liver congestion and reflects the extent of right-sided filling pressure in ADHF patients. Along with this mechanism, elevated AP was not associated with poor short-term outcome in the study, since, decongestive therapy has the potential to decompress biliary tract and divert bile flow and hence causing normalization of AP without liver cell death.

In the study, a second discrete profile was characterized by elevated transaminase levels, which were associated with signs of hypoperfusion, including hypotension, tachycardia and cold extremities. Hepatic cytolysis, which yields elevations of alanine and aspartate transaminases (ALT/AST in the study), could potentially be driven by hypoperfusion and/or hypooxygenation of the liver cells of the centrilobular region ("nutmeg liver") that are known to be far away from the dual circulatory supply of the hepatic artery and portal veins. It seems liver ischemia, characterized by elevated liver enzymes, secondary to compromised perfusion, caused by rapid deterioration of cardiac function influenced the in-hospital outcome of the patients with ADHF negatively.

In conclusion, two discrete profiles of cardiohepatic interaction, identified in the study, seem to be critically important targets in order for physicians to tailor the therapy of patients with ADHF.



**Figure 1. Hepatic microstructure**

(Reproduced from Nikolau M, Parissis J, Yilmaz MB, Seronde MF, Kivikko M, Laribi S, et al. Liver function abnormalities, clinical profile, and outcome in acute decompensated heart failure. *Eur Heart J* 2013; 34: 742-9. with permission of Oxford University Press)

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## Long-term prostaglandin E1 use in newborns with duct-dependent congenital heart diseases: one year experience of a tertiary neonatal intensive care unit in Turkey

*Duktus-bağımlı konjenital kalp hastalıklı yenidoğanlarda uzun süreli prostaglandin E1 kullanımı: Türkiye'de üçüncü basamak bir yenidoğan yoğun bakım ünitesinin bir yıllık deneyimi*

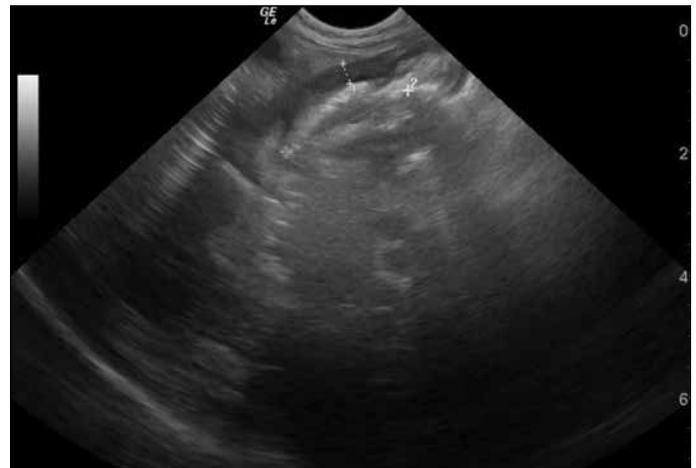
To the Editor,

Prostaglandin E1 (PGE1) is used in patients with duct-dependent congenital heart disease (CHD) to keep ductus open until intervention (1). Duration of infusion is often short but, sometimes prolonged therapy may

be necessary (2). It has been reported that mostly observed complications of long term PGE1 therapy are cortical hyperostosis (CH), gastric outlet obstruction, fluid electrolyte disturbances, and platelet dysfunction (3-5).

In this retrospective case series, 21 newborns with duct-dependent CHD and received PGE1 infusion for longer than 2 weeks were evaluated (Table 1). The mean birth weight and gestational age of the patients were 2982±740 grams and 39.1±2.1 weeks, respectively. The median age of initial PGE1 infusion was three days (1-17). The mean initial dose of PGE1 was 0.022±0.05 mcg/kg/min, and modified accordingly to keep the oxygen saturation above 75%. Average and cumulative dose during treatment were 0.026±0.09 mcg/kg/min and 2219±567 mcg/kg, respectively. The median (min-max) length of the PGE1 therapy was 28 (17-115) days.

Observed complications during long-term PGE1 therapy were noted. The signs of gastric outlet obstruction developed in two patients; at 1<sup>st</sup> case, on 29<sup>th</sup> day of therapy (cumulative dose of 3474 mcg) and at 2<sup>nd</sup> case, on 32<sup>nd</sup> day of therapy (cumulative dose: 4285 mcg). Ultrasonography (USG) showed elongation of the antropyloric channel with increase in wall thickening (Fig. 1). Hypokalemia (serum K level <3.5 mEq/L) developed in 12 patients on 14-25 days of PGE1 therapy. Three patients on additional furosemide therapy had more prominent hypokalemia. Marked hypokalemia (serum K 1.9-2.7 mEq/L) and metabolic alkalosis (bicarbonate concentrations 28-32 mmol/L) developed in four patients with PGE1 dose of 0.035-0.056 mcg/kg/minute. In another patient, with the PGE1 dose of 0.05 mcg/kg/minute, persistent hyponatremia (serum sodium 120-129 mEq/L) with natriuresis (urine Na: 121.2 mmol/L) were observed after 24 days of PGE1 therapy. Polyuria (8 ml/kg/



**Figure 1. Abdominal ultrasonography of one of the patients showing elongation of the antropyloric channel with increase in wall thickening**



**Figure 2. Cortical thickening (hyperostosis) and periosteal reaction on humerus bilaterally and right ulna and radius**