

AIMS Genetics, 4(1): 1-20. DOI: 10.3934/genet.2017.1.1 Received: 12 October 2016 Accepted: 19 December 2016 Published: 26 December 2016

http://www.aimspress.com/journal/Genetics

Review

Cardiac biomarkers in dialysis

Usman Mahmood¹, David W Johnson^{1,2,3,*} and Magid A Fahim^{1,2,3}

- ¹ Department of Nephrology, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Australia
- ² Australasian Kidney Trials Network, School of Medicine, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia
- ³ Translational Research Institute, Brisbane, Australia
- * Correspondence: Email: david.johnson2@healath.qld.gov.au; Tel: +61-7-3240-5080; Fax: +61-7-3240-5480.

Abstract: Cardiovascular disease is the major cause of death, accounting for approximately 40 percent of all-cause mortality in patients receiving either hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis. Cardiovascular risk stratification is an important aspect of managing dialysis patients as it enables early identification of high-risk patients, so therapeutic interventions can be optimized to lower cardiovascular morbidity and mortality. Biomarkers can detect early stages of cardiac injury so timely intervention can be provided. The B-type natriuretic peptides (Brain Natriuretic peptide [BNP] and N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide [NT-proBNP]) and troponins have been shown to predict mortality in dialysis patients. Suppression of tumorigenicity 2 (ST2) and galectin-3 are new emerging biomarkers in the field of heart failure in both the general and dialysis populations. This article aims to discuss the current evidence regarding cardiac biomarker use to diagnose myocardial injury and monitor the risk of major adverse cardiovascular events in patients undergoing dialysis.

Keywords: Biomarkers; Cardiovascular disease; Chronic kidney disease; Dialysis; Galectin; Hemodialysis; Natriuretic peptide; brain; N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide; Suppression of tumorigenicity 2; Troponin

1. Introduction

There is a huge burden of cardiovascular disease in patients undergoing hemodialysis with over 80% of patients having at least one cardiac diagnosis at baseline i.e. ischemic heart disease (IHD) (39%), congestive heart failure (40%), arrhythmia (31%), or other heart diseases (63%) [1,2]. Cardiac

disease-related mortality rates are reported to be 18.4 per 100 patient-years and account for approximately 30% of all deaths in this group, making cardiovascular disease the leading category of death after withdrawal from renal replacement therapy [3]. These rates represent a 10–30 folds increased risk of cardiovascular death compared with age-, gender- and diabetic status-matched cohorts from the general population and remain valid across diverse geographic regions [4]. Cardiovascular disease is also a major cause of morbidity, with hospitalization rates of 34.7–56 per 100 patient-years [1], making it the leading cause of hospitalization among patients on hemodialysis regardless of age.

The excessive burden of cardiovascular disease in populations with renal disease is due to the fact that cardiovascular disease is both an important cause and consequence of chronic kidney disease (CKD). There is a high prevalence of traditional cardiovascular risk factors, particularly diabetes mellitus and hypertension, in individuals with end-stage kidney disease (ESKD) compared with the general population [1,2,4,5]. Moreover, ESKD is itself an independent risk factor for cardiovascular disease [6], mediated through a variety of pathophysiological mechanisms, including volume overload [7], sympathetic nervous system over activity [8], hyperparathyroidism [9] and oxidative stress [10].

Sudden cardiac death (SCD) is the single leading cause of death in dialysis populations [1] and is reported to be primarily related to underlying cardiomyopathy, rather than coronary artery disease [2,11]. The ability to identify ESKD patients at high risk of cardiovascular disease, particularly SCD, is crucial to instituting timely intervention and improving clinical outcomes. Emerging cardiac biomarkers, such as B-type natriuretic peptides, troponin and other novel peptides, show considerable promise in this regard. For the purpose of this review, we define a cardiac biomarker as a serological marker reflecting myocardial end organ injury and associated with an altered risk of major adverse cardiovascular events (MACE).

2. B-type natriuretic peptides

B-type natriuretic peptide (BNP) is a member of the natriuretic peptide system, which additionally consists of the A-, C-, D- and V- type natriuretic peptides and urodilatin [12], although D- and V- natriuretic peptides are not endogenous to humans. BNP is primarily expressed and secreted by the heart, particularly the ventricular myocardium [13,14]. However, it can be expressed by a number of extra-cardiac sites, including the brain, adrenal gland, kidney and lungs [15]. Transcription of the BNP gene is induced by a number of pathophysiological stimuli, including mechanical myocardial stretch [16,17] (volume overload) or strain [18] (pressure overload), ischemia [19], pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as interleukin-1 β and TNF α [20], α - and β - adrenergic agonists (sympathetic overactivity) [21], and vasoactive factors, such as endothelin-1 [17] and angiotensin-II [22]. It is important to note that these stimuli overlap significantly with the pathological milieu implicated in the genesis and progression of cardiomyopathy in the dialysis population [7,8], positioning BNP as a potentially important biomarker of cardiac risk in this group.

2.1. Role of BNP/NT-proBNP as cardiac biomarkers in the general population

BNP and NT-proBNP have a number of proven clinical applications in the general population, including improving the accuracy of clinical assessment for diagnosing cardiac failure in patients

presenting with dyspnea [23,24] and estimating prognosis in patients with an established diagnosis of cardiac failure [25]. Over the last decade, 11 randomized controlled trials have examined the role of BNP/NT-proBNP monitoring in guiding heart failure therapy compared to specialist care alone [26-36].

A recent meta-analysis reported that BNP/NT-proBNP-guided heart failure pharmacotherapy resulted in significant reductions in mortality in patients under 75 years of age compared to specialist care alone (hazard ratio [HR] 0.62, 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.45–0.85) [37]. It also resulted in reductions in heart failure and cardiovascular hospitalization [37]. These findings have led to the recommendation that hormonal monitoring be incorporated into specialist care of heart failure patients [38].

2.2. Impact of kidney disease on serum BNP/NT-proBNP concentrations

Both peptides are partially excreted unchanged renally with a fractional renal excretion of 15–20% [39]. Consequently, the vast majority of patients with ESKD have markedly elevated levels of B-type natriuretic peptides, including those without a prior diagnosis of cardiac failure [40]. Using a cut-off value for NT-proBNP of 300 pg/mL (the concentration used to exclude heart failure with 98% certainty in non-dialysis patients presenting with dyspnea) [41], serum NT-proBNP concentrations in the dialysis population are elevated in the order of 3–55 times this diagnostic threshold [42-46] (Table 1). These concentrations far exceed the increment expected due to reduced renal clearance alone and therefore likely reflect the high burden of cardiomyopathy in the renal dialysis population [47].

Biologic or within-person variation of NT-pro-BNP in dialysis patients is an important consideration during interpretation of serial measurements of this cardiac biomarker. Fahim et al. [48] concluded that between-person variation of NT-proBNP was large and markedly greater than within-person variation, indicating that NT-proBNP testing might better be applied using a relative change strategy in this population. Serial NT-proBNP concentrations need to double or halve to confidently exclude change due to analytic and biologic variation alone.

The hemodialysis procedure has also been shown to affect serum concentrations of BNP and NT-proBNP, with low-flux hemodialysis resulting in 2–16% reductions in serum BNP concentrations and 0–12% increases in serum NT-proBNP concentrations [49-52]. This differential clearance is related to the differing molecular weights of BNP (3.5 kDa) and NT-proBNP (8.5 kDa). BNP is a smaller peptide and is cleared by low flux membranes whereas NT-proBNP is only cleared by high flux membranes. The increase in serum NT-proBNP concentration likely reflects the effect of hemoconcentration following hemodialysis and ultrafiltration, since BNP and NT-proBNP are secreted in equimolar amounts from the myocardium. In contrast, hemodialysis using a high-flux membrane reduces the serum concentrations of both BNP and NT-proBNP by 9-40% and 9.4-35%, respectively [49-53]. Hemodiafiltration results in even greater clearance of natriuretic peptides due to its considerably larger dialyser membrane pore size and increased convective clearances [54]. measurement of pre-/post-hemodialysis serum B-type natriuretic Consequently, peptide concentrations is of limited clinical value as observed changes reflect dialysis-related clearance rather than short-term changes in volume state or cardiac function. Indeed, several investigators have reported no correlation between changes in serum BNP or NT-proBNP concentration across a hemodialysis session and ultrafiltration volume, blood pressure change or weight change [54-56].

Biomarker	Distribution in dialysis population	Diagnostic utility	Monitoring utility
NT-proBNP	Exceeds upper limit of normal in >93%. Between person coefficient of variation 153% [48]	Limited—due to high between person variation and influenced by several pathophysiological factors (volume state, LV function, ischemia and inflammation)	Promising—Change in concentration directly associated with risk of non-fatal and fatal cardiovascular events—precise monitoring limits and interventions yet to be established
Troponin	Exceeds upper limit of normal in >90% even in absence of acute myocardial injury. Between person Coefficient of variation 83% [107]	Useful in acute care settings using serial measurements—a change of >33% excludes biological variation with 99% certainty	Promising—change in serial values associated with risk of mortality, precise monitoring limits and interventions yet to be established [142]
ST2	Unknown	Promising—levels correlate positively with peak CK in ACS [114]	Promising—Prognostic ability not influenced by renal function [117]. Adds prognostic value to NTpro-BNP and cardiac troponins [116]
GAL-3	Unknown	Limited	Promising—independent predictive value for mortality in chronic heart failure [122]

Table 1. Summary of the characteristics and utility of key cardiac biomarkers.

In contrast to hemodialysis, the effect of peritoneal dialysis on the clearance of plasma BNP and NT-proBNP remains unclear. A recent study of eight peritoneal dialysis patients demonstrated that BNP was present in peritoneal dialysis fluid at mean concentration of $19 \pm 4\%$ that of circulating BNP concentrations, suggesting that BNP is cleared by peritoneal dialysis [57]. Whether the same holds true for the larger molecular weight peptide, NT-proBNP, was not investigated, nor was the effect of transporter status and/or ultrafiltration volume on clearance kinetics. In contrast, a study of 11 patients on nocturnal intermittent peritoneal dialysis (NIPD) investigating the effect of a dialysis session on plasma concentrations of BNP/NT-proBNP found no change in circulating concentrations of either peptide across the procedure. Indeed, there was also no difference in concentrations during or between dialysis procedures [58]. The discordance between these studies may reflect the small sample sizes used. The clearance of BNP/NT-proBNP by peritoneal dialysis warrants further investigation to aid the interpretation of serial natriuretic peptide measurements.

2.3. B-type natriuretic peptides as markers of volume state in dialysis

BNP/NT-proBNP concentrations have not been shown to correlate with short-term changes in volume state [55,56]. Their role as volume markers in the medium to long-term remains an important, unresolved issue. Some studies have found no association between circulating levels of these peptides and volume state assessed by clinical examination [59] or bioimpedance [60], although seven larger

cross-sectional studies have reported significant direct correlations between serum BNP/NT-proBNP concentrations and volume state assessed objectively by bioimpedance analysis [61-65], or a combination of clinical assessment, echocardiography and/or chest X-ray findings [66,67]. Thus, the bulk of available evidence suggests that circulating B-type natriuretic peptide concentrations reflect, at least in part, volume state in ESKD over the medium-to-long term. Answering this question definitively will require a longitudinal study with an adequate sample to accurately and repeatedly assess the dynamic relationship between volume state and natriuretic peptide concentrations after controlling for other confounders.

2.4. B-type natriuretic peptides as biomarkers of cardiomyopathy in ESKD

Several studies in dialysis populations have demonstrated that BNP/NT-proBNP have an independent and powerful direct correlation with left ventricular (LV) mass [68-71], and with cardiac diastolic [72,73] and systolic dysfunction [43,46,68,70]. A multivariable analysis of the predictors of cardiomyopathy in a cohort of 246 prevalent hemodialysis and peritoneal dialysis patients found that log-transformed serum BNP concentration was a significant predictor of LV ejection fraction $(\beta = -0.48, p < 0.0001)$ and LV mass indexed to height $(\beta = 0.36, p < 0.0001)$ after adjusting for blood pressure, age, diabetes, albumin, hemoglobin, treatment modality, small molecule clearance, and time on renal replacement therapy [68]. Similarly, in a cross-sectional study of 99 hemodialysis patients with preserved systolic function, investigators reported significantly higher BNP concentrations in individuals with diastolic dysfunction compared to those without cardiac dysfunction (314 \pm 162 ng/L vs 131 \pm 77 ng/L, p = 0.01). A cohort study of 199 dialysis patients investigated the relationship between baseline BNP as the exposure and increase in left atrial volume as the outcome. The study demonstrated that baseline BNP concentration was a powerful, independent predictor of increase in left atrial volume [74]. Finally, a longitudinal study of 21 hemodialysis patients undergoing serial measurement of NT-proBNP and LV mass at baseline, 6- and 12- months demonstrated a powerful direct correlation between change in NT-proBNP concentration and change in LV mass (r = 0.78, p < 0.001) [71].

2.5. B-type natriuretic peptides as prognostic biomarkers in ESKD

In addition to the important cardiac and physiological correlations discussed previously, cohort studies using a single baseline serum concentration of BNP/NT-proBNP as the exposure have demonstrated that it is a powerful, independent predictor of heart failure [43,75], sudden cardiac death [11], and both cardiovascular [42-45,68,76] and all-cause mortality [42-45,68] in ESKD. For example, Wang et al. [43] demonstrated that serum NT-pro-BNP concentration was an important risk predictor of cardiovascular congestion, mortality, and adverse cardiovascular outcomes in a cohort study of 230 prevalent peritoneal dialysis patients followed for 3 years.

The strongest support for the potential role of the B-type natriuretic peptides as biomarkers of cardiac risk in the renal dialysis population comes from longitudinal studies employing limited numbers of repeated natriuretic peptide measurements to investigate the relationship between change in peptide concentration and change in risk of mortal events. These studies demonstrated that change in B-type natriuretic peptide concentration correlated directly with change in risk of cardiovascular and all-cause mortality in both incident and prevalent hemodialysis patients [42,76,77]. While these

studies are an important first step in delineating the clinical application of this biomarker in dialysis, they are limited by their paucity of repeated measures, and lack of time to event and accuracy measures (sensitivity and specificity); all of which are essential components to advance this promising marker into clinical practice [78].

3. Cardiac troponins

The troponin complex is composed of three subunits—Troponin C (TnC), Troponin I (TnI), and Troponin T (TnT)—which work in concert to regulate the interaction between actin and myosin required for myofibrillary contraction. Approximately 6% of cTnT and 4% of cTnI are present unbound in the cytoplasm of cardiac myofibrils [79] and can be released rapidly into the circulation following ischemia [80] (with or without necrosis) or in response to myofibrillary stretch/strain, which result in an increase in cell membrane permeability [81]. The remainders of cTnI and cTnT in cardiac myocytes are present in the form of the ternary troponin complex bound to actin and tropomysosin and are released into the circulation when cardiac myofibrils undergo necrosis following ischemia, inflammation, infiltration or trauma. Although evaluation of serum concentrations of troponins for diagnosis of acute coronary syndromes is standard practice in non-renal populations [82], their interpretation in patients with ESKD is more problematic. Several issues continue to confound the interpretation of cardiac troponins in both the acute and chronic settings in ESKD populations, including a lack of clarity regarding what constitutes a significant change in serial measurements, disagreement regarding the pathophysiological associations of troponins, and whether interpretation in chronic settings is best undertaken using single or serial measurements.

3.1. Impact of kidney disease on serum troponin concentrations

Troponin is one of the biologically active structural proteins released into the circulation when cardiac injury occurs with disruption of normal cardiac myocyte membrane integrity. The precise mechanism by which cardiac troponins are cleared from the circulation has not been elucidated, although accumulating evidence suggests that renal clearance plays little, if any, role in the elimination of troponins. Firstly, several cohort studies have demonstrated that a large proportion of renal transplant recipients with elevated pre-transplant cardiac troponin concentrations continue to have elevated concentrations in the first year post-transplant despite a substantial improvement in their glomerular filtration rate [83-86]. Secondly, the half-life of cardiac troponins is not significantly different between patients with and those without chronic kidney disease [87]. Finally, the only circulating form of cTnT measurable in asymptomatic dialysis patients with elevated cTnT concentrations is the intact peptide, which has a molecular weight of 37 kDa thereby making it too large for glomerular filtration [88].

Nevertheless, a large proportion of dialysis patients have elevated serum cardiac troponin concentrations, which persistently exceed the 99th centile upper reference limit of troponin assays despite being asymptomatic (Table 1) [89-93]. The prevalence of this finding varies according to the type of cardiac troponin measured and the sensitivity/generation of the assay employed. For cTnT, between 29–43% of patients have been reported to have elevated concentrations using first generation TnT assays [94,95], as compared to 99% of dialysis patients when the latest, fifth

generation high-sensitivity assays are employed [93]. Observational studies have also consistently demonstrated that a higher proportion of dialysis patients have an abnormal cTnT concentration compared with cTnI when both cardiac troponins are measured simultaneously within the same dialysis cohort [96-98]. The precise reasons for the discordance are unknown but may be related to uremia-associated modifications of circulating cTnI, which interfere with measurement, adsorption of cTnI to hemodialysis dialyser membranes [99], and/or anti-cTnI antibodies, which interfere with, assay performance [100]. cTnT and cTnI are partially cleared during hemodialysis with high flux dialysis membranes, but not with low flux membranes [93,98]. This has important implications for the interpretation of serial troponin measurements.

3.2. Interpretation of troponin measurements in dialysis patients in acute care settings

Patients on maintenance dialysis have a high incidence of acute coronary syndromes (9.8–16 per 100 patient-years), which are a leading cause of emergency presentations, hospitalization and death in this population [1,43,101,102]. Accurately diagnosing acute coronary syndromes in dialysis patients is challenging due to the high proportion of patients who present with atypical symptoms and electrocardiographic changes [103,104]. This has led to greater reliance on biomarkers of myocardial injury in this population. However, the interpretation of cardiac troponins from dialysis patients in acute settings is not straightforward given that the majority has cardiac troponin concentrations that persistently exceed the 99th centile upper reference limit of the assay used even when they are well; reflecting established rather than acute cardiovascular pathology [89-93].

In an effort to address this conundrum, the current consensus guideline on the diagnosis of acute myocardial injury requires demonstration of a *change in serial troponin concentrations* with at least one concentration exceeding the 99th centile upper reference limit, occurring in an appropriate clinical context, in order to confirm a diagnosis of acute myocardial injury in dialysis patients [82]. Unfortunately, this recommendation is not accompanied by any evidence-based guidance on precisely how much change in serial measurements constitutes a significant change that can discriminate between biological variation and acute myocardial injury leading to considerable diagnostic confusion [105]. Guidelines have either provided no guidance on the magnitude of change in serial troponins that excludes biological variation in dialysis patients [82,105] or have based their guidance on the analytic performance of troponin assays rather than clinical studies, wherein a 20% magnitude of change has been recommended based on the fact that such a delta equates to 3 standard deviations of the troponin assay's analytic variation [106].

Guidelines for interpreting serial troponin measurements should incorporate data on both the biological variation of cardiac troponins in stable dialysis patients and serial changes in troponins associated with adverse outcomes in dialysis patients. Biological or within-person variation describes the random fluctuation of biomarker levels around a homeostatic set point in healthy individuals or those with stable disease; such fluctuations are of no clinical significance and must be distinguished from pathological changes. Fahim et al. [107] concluded that between-person variation of hs-cTnT in the dialysis population was markedly greater than within-person variation indicating that hs-cTnT testing is best applied in this population using a relative change strategy. An increase of 33% or a reduction of 25% in serial serum hs-cTnT concentrations measured at weekly intervals excludes change due to analytical and biological variation alone with 99% confidence. This study enrolled both hemodialysis and peritoneal dialysis patients and ensured the stability of important covariates,

4. B-type natriuretic peptides and Cardiac Troponins: ready for prime time?

an adverse outcome, and the targets of therapy.

Based on the evidence presented and discussed in this review, troponin has been validated as a useful biomarker in the acute care setting and should be used to diagnose myocardial injury in ESKD patients using a relative change strategy. Consequently, in an ESKD patient with a compatible clinical history, an acute increase in serial serum hs-cTnT concentrations of greater than 33% is sufficient to diagnose acute myocardial injury. On the other hand, we do not recommend the use of cardiac troponin in the chronic care setting in these patients. Chronically elevated cardiac troponin concentrations in clinically well dialysis patients reflect long term risk of mortality, but are not well characterized enough for use in clinical practice. Elevated troponin concentrations in dialysis patients have been repeatedly shown to predict risk of future adverse cardiovascular events, however, the precise magnitude of change that should prompt action, the interventions that should be instituted, and the benefits of such monitoring have not been studied precluding a recommendation for use in routine practice. Similarly, whilst B-type natriuretic peptides should be used to guide heart failure therapy, we do not recommend their use in acute or chronic care settings to diagnose myocardial injury or damage in ESKD patients. In contrast to the use of NT-proBNP in the non-dialysis population, it is unlikely that a threshold value of NT-proBNP can be derived for either diagnosing or excluding structural cardiac pathology in dialysis population. This is due to the large between person variations of NT-proBNP in dialysis population. A clinically useful strategy requires precise

including dialysis and pharmacological prescriptions, cardiac rhythm, and patient volume status, while concurrently excluded patients who experienced an adverse cardiovascular outcome from the study's analysis.

Michos et al. [108] have also demonstrated an association between chronically elevated cardiac

troponin concentrations and adverse outcomes in dialysis patients in the absence of acute symptoms, implying that cardiac troponins may have a role as prognostic and/or monitoring biomarkers. Moreover, a recent systematic review and meta-analysis of 98 cohort studies found that serum cTnT and cTnI concentrations exceeding the assay's upper reference limit were associated with increased risks of all-cause mortality (HR = 3.00 [95% CI 2.36 – 4.26] and HR = 2.70 [95% CI 1.90 – 4.57], respectively), and cardiovascular mortality (HR = 3.31 [95% CI 1.81 - 5.53] and HR = 4.20 [95% CI 2.01 - 9.20], respectively) among asymptomatic dialysis patients even after adjustment for age and presence of cardiovascular co-morbidity [108]. These results suggest that monitoring troponin concentrations may have a role in identifying patients at increased risk of adverse cardiovascular events and have led to the licensing of cardiac troponins by the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for prognostication in this population. However, despite this regulatory approval, troponins have failed to enter routine clinical practice due to ambiguity regarding the ideal strategy for testing and interpreting cardiac troponins, and the resultant action that should be taken based on testing [109]. In order to advance troponin testing in clinical dialysis practice, longitudinal cohort studies are needed to determine whether the test is best interpreted using an absolute cut-off or relative change between serial measurements, the frequency of measurements, the time to event between an abnormal test and

3.3. Interpretation of cardiac troponins in dialysis patients in chronic care settings

guidance on a magnitude of relative change in serial NT-proBNP concentrations that can safely be ignored (biological variation) versus that should prompt action, the associated time to event of such a change, the ideal monitoring interval, clear targets for intervention, and evidence that such intervention improves patient level outcomes. These parameters have yet to be established.

5. Emerging cardiac biomarkers

Suppression of tumorigenicity 2 (ST2) and galectin-3 (GAL-3) are emerging biomarkers in the field of heart failure (Table 1). They seem to have additional but limited prognostic values on top of the clinical models and other more established biomarkers (i.e., NT-proBNP and troponin). The 2013 American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association guidelines for the management of heart failure mentioned both galectin-3 and ST2 as emerging biomarkers that are not only predictive of hospitalization and death in patients with heart failure, but also add additional prognostic value over natriuretic peptides [110]. Both of these biomarkers reflect tissue damage, independent of cardiac loading conditions and may supplement the currently used markers for heart failure. Additionally, increased ST2 and galectin-3 concentrations have been reported in association with inflammatory disease, such as pneumonia and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [111].

5.1. ST2

ST2 is a member of Toll-like/IL-1 receptor superfamily with transmembrane (ST2L) and soluble isoforms (sST2). It was discovered in 1989 and its downstream effects include activation of T-helper type 2 (Th2) cells and production of Th2-associated cytokines. sST2 binds to IL-33 and functions as a 'decoy' receptor for IL-33, thereby attenuating the systemic effects of IL-33 [112]. sST2 concentration is increased in inflammatory and heart diseases, and has emerged as a clinically useful prognostic biomarker in patients with cardiovascular disease and acute dyspnea [112,113]. ST2 expression is upregulated after myocardial ischemia or mechanical stress, and plays a role in cardiac remodeling after ischemic injury, which makes it an attractive biomarker to predict future clinical HF in patients with myocardial ischemia [114]. Weinberg et al. [114] also showed increased sST2 levels in patients after myocardial infarction, with values correlating positively with peak creatine kinase (CK) and negatively with left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF). Similarly, Demyanets et al. [115] found that sST2 levels were significantly increased in patients with acute coronary syndrome (ACS) as compared to patients with stable coronary artery disease and control individuals without significant stenosis on coronary angiography. Moreover, Dieplinger et al. [116] showed that sST2 added prognostic value to the well-established cardiac biomarkers, NT-proBNP and cardiac troponin. Patients at low, intermediate and high risks of all-cause and cardiovascular mortality were also identified by using a simple multi-biomarker approach, which combined ST-2, NT-proBNP, and high sensitivity (hs) cardiac troponin T (cTnT) [116].

The relationship of ST2 and renal function (measured by eGFR) was investigated in a Spanish study of 891 consecutive patients treated at a structured multidisciplinary heart failure unit [117]. This study demonstrated that the prognostic value of ST2 was not influenced by renal function, suggesting that ST2 may be advocated as a preferable biomarker in patients with renal insufficiency, a comorbidity that is very common in heart failure and is among the strongest predictors of adverse outcomes. They concluded that in a "real-life" cohort of heart failure patients, the addition of ST2 and NTproBNP

substantially improved the risk stratification for death beyond that of a model that was solely based on established mortality risk factors, including renal impairment.

5.2. Galectin-3 (GAL-3)

GAL-3 is a marker of tissue fibrosis, which is a hallmark of cardiac remodeling and heart failure. This can be reliably measured in the blood and studies have shown its prognostic value in heart failure [118]. GAL-3 is a 31-kDa member of family of lectins that bind beta-galactosides by either N-linked or O-linked glycosylation through their carbohydrate recognition domain (CRD) [119]. They have been numbered according to their order of discovery (i.e., from GAL-1 to GAL-15). Sharma et al. demonstrated that GAL-3 was overexpressed by macrophages at an early stage of myocardial dysfunction, even before the onset of heart failure, and that continuous infusion of recombinant GAL-3 in mice triggered cardiac fibroblast proliferation and collagen deposition, thereby ultimately leading to ventricular dysfunction [120]. Several studies of plasma GAL-3 as a biomarker in heart failure have been published [121]. A recent meta-analysis by Chen et al. [122] showed that GAL-3 was independently predictive of mortality in chronic heart failure. Moreover, Winter et al. [123] concluded that elevated levels of circulating GAL-3 were strongly associated with premature myocardial infarction and that GAL-3 might serve as a link between dyslipidemia (as a driving force of plaque formation) and inflammation (as an initiator of plaque rupture) in patients with premature acute myocardial infarction. GAL-3 has been shown to be the best short-term predictor of events in patients with heart failure, which led to incorporation of this measurement in the current American Heart Association guidelines Heart Failure guidelines for risk stratification purposes of such patients [124]. Hogas et al. [125] recently demonstrated that similar to the general population, GAL-3 is an independent predictor of mortality in HD patients. Gurel et al. [126] concluded that galectin-3 might be a promising biomarker for the detection of left ventricular diastolic dysfunction in patients undergoing maintenance hemodialysis. GAL-3 has the potential as a new modifiable risk factor for heart failure. Currently, attempts are being made to target or inhibit galectin-3 using natural or pharmaceutical inhibitors with the aim to ameliorate heart failure. Available experimental evidence suggests that GAL-3 inhibition indeed may represent a novel tool to treat heart failure [127].

6. Other novel cardiac biomarkers

Growth differentiation factor-15 (GDF-15) is a 12-kDa secreted protein belonging to transforming growth factor-beta cytokine family. Hagstrom et al. [128] measured GDF-15 in 16,876 patients, and showed that it was independently associated with an increased risk of spontaneous myocardial infarction. Moreover, the GDF-15 level in patients with acute coronary syndrome (ACS) was found to be independently associated with an enhanced risk of stroke and strongly correlated with an increased risk of cardiovascular disease and total mortality in ACS patients [128]. As an emerging biomarker, GDF-15 shows promise because it was found to be increased in early subclinical disease, retaining prognostic utility for cardiovascular disease events and mortality.

Adrenomedullin (ADM) is released from a multitude of tissues and was first isolated from human pheochromocytoma cells. It has potent vasodilatory, hypotensive and natriuretic properties [129] mediated by cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP), nitric oxide and renal prostaglandin systems. Its concentration is elevated in chronic heart failure and it is increased in proportion to disease

severity [130]. Its clinical use has been limited by lack of stability *in vitro*. Measurement of the inactive, stable, mid-regional (MR) prohormone of this peptide (MR-proADM) is now possible. Maisel et al. [131] (Biomarkers in Acute Heart Failure (BACH) trial) found that MR-proADM was superior to BNP or NT-proBNP in identifying dyspneic patients with acute decompensated HF at high risk of 90-day mortality.

Copeptin, a glycoprotein, is a marker of neurohormonal activation and part of the prehormone molecule of the antidiuretic hormone or arginine vasopressin. There is evidence that copeptin might be useful as a diagnostic or prognostic biomarker and risk-stratifier in a range of cardiovascular disease conditions [132].

Osteoprotegerin (OPG) has emerged as independent biomarker of cardiovascular disease in patients with acute or chronic heart disease as well as in the healthy population. OPG is a mediator of vascular calcification [133], which is a part of the atherosclerotic process leading to clinical cardiovascular disease. OPG levels have been positively correlated with coronary calcification, vascular stiffness and the presence of unstable atherosclerotic plaques [134]. OPG contains a heparin binding domain and studies have shown that it is rapidly released from smooth muscle cells after heparin treatment. Therefore, the timing of blood sample collection in relation to hemodialysis (which generally involves heparin administration) is important and can make it difficult to compare studies of OPG levels in patients with acute CV events.

Osteopontin is a glycoprotein that is expressed in various cell types, including cardiomyocytes and fibroblasts and has been shown to be significantly increased in patients with heart failure irrespective of the underlying cause and correlate with the severity of heart failure [135].

Adiponectin is a multifunctional adipocyte-derived protein with anti-inflammatory, antiatherogenic and insulin sensitizing activity [136]. CKD is associated with hyperadiponectinemia including nephrotic syndrome [137]. Hypoadiponectinemia predicts the development of new cardiovascular events in patients with CKD, including the hemodialysis population. Zoccali *et al.* showed in their cohort of 227 hemodialysis patients followed for a mean period of 31 ± 13 months that each 1 µg/mL increase in serum adiponectin concentration was associated with a 3% risk reduction in new cardiovascular events [138].

Matrix metalloproteinase 9 (MMP-9) is a potential biomarker for cardiac remodeling. MMP-9 levels have been shown to correlate with LV enlargement, lower ventricular ejection fraction, and persistent adverse LV remodeling in chronic systolic heart failure patients [139].

Fetuin-A is predominantly made by the liver and is decreased in heart failure patients, indicating that anti-inflammatory activity is down regulated in these patients and that calcification may be associated with heart failure [140].

Although all of these very novel biomarkers have diagnostic and prognostic potential, their clinical utility remains unclear currently.

7. Conclusion

AIMS Genetics

Dialysis patients have up to 100-fold increased risk of cardiac death compared to the general population. This increased risk has remained unchanged over the last decade, whilst patient numbers on dialysis have grown exponentially. A key factor underpinning this mortality risk is fluid overload-induced cardiomyopathy. Progress in improving outcomes has been limited by our current inability to assess fluid state and cardiac risk status in an accurate and dynamic manner. NT-proBNP

is a promising biomarker that has been shown in preliminary studies to predict mortality and correlate with cardiomyopathy and fluid state. The two cardiac troponins, cTnI and cTnT, represent potentially valuable biomarkers for the diagnosis and management of cardiovascular disease in dialysis patients. Future randomized studies should investigate if early intervention for minor, but significant, changes in cardiac troponin concentrations improves patient outcomes in the dialysis population as has been demonstrated in the non-dialysis population [141]. Both ST2 and galectin-3 have shown prognostic value in patients with acute and chronic heart failure on top of natriuretic peptides in general population. Strategies that combine multiple biomarkers may ultimately be the gold standard in guiding heart failure therapy in the future. Appropriately designed and followed-up studies with larger sample sizes, that incorporate biomarker based treatment algorithms in dialysis population need to be performed to determine if this approach is useful and economical in the long run. Learning to use these biomarkers efficiently and to assess and risk stratify patients with cardiovascular disease to provide tailored therapeutic strategy should be the priority of today's clinicians.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare there is no conflict of interest.

References

- 1. Cheung AK, Sarnak MJ, Yan G, et al. (2004) Cardiac diseases in maintenance hemodialysis patients: results of the HEMO Study. *Kidney Int* 65: 2380-2389.
- 2. Foley RN, Parfrey PS, Harnett JD, et al. (1995) Clinical and echocardiographic disease in patients starting end-stage renal disease therapy. *Kidney Int* 47: 186-192.
- 3. ANZDATA Registry. 38th Report, Chapter 3: Mortality in End Stage Kidney Disease. Australia and New Zealand Dialysis and Transplant Registry, Adelaide, Australia. 2016.
- 4. Foley RN, Parfrey PS, Sarnak MJ (1998) Clinical epidemiology of cardiovascular disease in chronic renal disease. *Am J Kidney Dis* 32: S112-119.
- 5. Longenecker JC, Coresh J, Powe NR, et al. (2002) Traditional cardiovascular disease risk factors in dialysis patients compared with the general population: the CHOICE Study. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 13: 1918-1927.
- 6. Ruilope LM, van Veldhuisen DJ, Ritz E, et al. (2001) Renal function: the Cinderella of cardiovascular risk profile. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 38: 1782-1787.
- 7. Agarwal R (2005) Hypertension in chronic kidney disease and dialysis: pathophysiology and management. *Cardiol Clin* 23: 237-248.
- 8. Neumann J, Ligtenberg G, Klein II, et al. (2004) Sympathetic hyperactivity in chronic kidney disease: pathogenesis, clinical relevance, and treatment. *Kidney Int* 65: 1568-1576.
- 9. Covic A, Kothawala P, Bernal M, et al. (2009) Systematic review of the evidence underlying the association between mineral metabolism disturbances and risk of all-cause mortality, cardiovascular mortality and cardiovascular events in chronic kidney disease. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 24: 1506-1523.
- 10. Kaysen GA, Eiserich JP (2004) The role of oxidative stress-altered lipoprotein structure and function and microinflammation on cardiovascular risk in patients with minor renal dysfunction. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 15: 538-548.

- 11. Wang AY, Lam CW, Chan IH, et al. (2010) Sudden cardiac death in end-stage renal disease patients: a 5-year prospective analysis. *Hypertension* 56: 210-216.
- 12. Martinez-Rumayor A, Richards AM, Burnett JC, et al. (2008) Biology of the natriuretic peptides. *Am J Cardiol* 101: 3-8.
- 13. Mukoyama M, Nakao K, Hosoda K, et al. (1991) Brain natriuretic peptide as a novel cardiac hormone in humans. Evidence for an exquisite dual natriuretic peptide system, atrial natriuretic peptide and brain natriuretic peptide. *J Clin Invest* 87: 1402-1412.
- Yasue H, Yoshimura M, Sumida H, et al. (1994) Localization and mechanism of secretion of B-type natriuretic peptide in comparison with those of A-type natriuretic peptide in normal subjects and patients with heart failure. *Circulation* 90: 195-203.
- 15. Gerbes AL, Dagnino L, Nguyen T, et al. (1994) Transcription of brain natriuretic peptide and atrial natriuretic peptide genes in human tissues. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 78: 1307-1311.
- Kinnunen P, Vuolteenaho O, Ruskoaho H (1993) Mechanisms of atrial and brain natriuretic peptide release from rat ventricular myocardium: effect of stretching. *Endocrinology* 132: 1961-1970.
- 17. Bruneau BG, Piazza LA, de Bold AJ (1997) BNP gene expression is specifically modulated by stretch and ET-1 in a new model of isolated rat atria. *Am J Physiol* 273: H2678-2686.
- 18. Liang F, Gardner DG (1999) Mechanical strain activates BNP gene transcription through a p38/NF-kappaB-dependent mechanism. *J Clin Invest* 104: 1603-1612.
- 19. Bibbins-Domingo K, Ansari M, Schiller NB, et al. (2003) B-type natriuretic peptide and ischemia in patients with stable coronary disease: data from the Heart and Soul study. *Circulation* 108: 2987-2992.
- 20. de Bold AJ (2009) Cardiac natriuretic peptides gene expression and secretion in inflammation. J *Investig Med* 57: 29-32.
- 21. Bruneau BG, Piazza LA, de Bold AJ (1996) Alpha 1-adrenergic stimulation of isolated rat atria results in discoordinate increases in natriuretic peptide secretion and gene expression and enhances Egr-1 and c-Myc expression. *Endocrinology* 137: 137-143.
- 22. Wiese S, Breyer T, Dragu A, et al. (2000) Gene expression of brain natriuretic peptide in isolated atrial and ventricular human myocardium: influence of angiotensin II and diastolic fiber length. *Circulation* 102: 3074-3079.
- 23. Maisel AS, Krishnaswamy P, Nowak RM, et al. (2002) Rapid measurement of B-type natriuretic peptide in the emergency diagnosis of heart failure. *N Engl J Med* 347: 161-167.
- 24. McCullough PA, Nowak RM, McCord J, et al. (2002) B-type natriuretic peptide and clinical judgment in emergency diagnosis of heart failure: analysis from Breathing Not Properly (BNP) Multinational Study. *Circulation* 106: 416-422.
- 25. Doust JA, Pietrzak E, Dobson A, et al. (2005) How well does B-type natriuretic peptide predict death and cardiac events in patients with heart failure: systematic review. *Bmj* 330: 625.
- 26. Troughton RW, Frampton CM, Yandle TG, et al. (2000) Treatment of heart failure guided by plasma aminoterminal brain natriuretic peptide (N-BNP) concentrations. *Lancet* 355: 1126-1130.
- 27. Pfisterer M, Buser P, Rickli H, et al. (2009) BNP-guided vs symptom-guided heart failure therapy: the Trial of Intensified vs Standard Medical Therapy in Elderly Patients With Congestive Heart Failure (TIME-CHF) randomized trial. *Jama* 301: 383-392.
- 28. Berger R, Moertl D, Peter S, et al. (2010) N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide-guided,

intensive patient management in addition to multidisciplinary care in chronic heart failure a 3-arm, prospective, randomized pilot study. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 55: 645-653.

- 29. Eurlings LW, van Pol PE, Kok WE, et al. (2010) Management of chronic heart failure guided by individual N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide targets: results of the PRIMA (Can PRo-brain-natriuretic peptide guided therapy of chronic heart failure IMprove heart fAilure morbidity and mortality?) study. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 56: 2090-2100.
- 30. Persson H, Erntell H, Eriksson B, et al. (2010) Improved pharmacological therapy of chronic heart failure in primary care: a randomized Study of NT-proBNP Guided Management of Heart Failure--SIGNAL-HF (Swedish Intervention study—Guidelines and NT-proBNP AnaLysis in Heart Failure). *Eur J Heart Fail* 12: 1300-1308.
- 31. Lainchbury JG, Troughton RW, Strangman KM, et al. (2009) N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide-guided treatment for chronic heart failure: results from the BATTLESCARRED (NT-proBNP-Assisted Treatment To Lessen Serial Cardiac Readmissions and Death) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 55: 53-60.
- 32. Shah MR, Califf RM, Nohria A, et al. (2011) The STARBRITE trial: a randomized, pilot study of B-type natriuretic peptide-guided therapy in patients with advanced heart failure. *J Card Fail* 17: 613-621.
- 33. Karlstrom P, Alehagen U, Boman K, et al. (2011) Brain natriuretic peptide-guided treatment does not improve morbidity and mortality in extensively treated patients with chronic heart failure: responders to treatment have a significantly better outcome. *Eur J Heart Fail* 13: 1096-1103.
- 34. Januzzi JL, Jr., Rehman SU, Mohammed AA, et al. (2011) Use of amino-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide to guide outpatient therapy of patients with chronic left ventricular systolic dysfunction. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 58: 1881-1889.
- 35. Jourdain P, Jondeau G, Funck F, et al. (2007) Plasma brain natriuretic peptide-guided therapy to improve outcome in heart failure: the STARS-BNP Multicenter Study. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 49: 1733-1739.
- 36. Anguita M, Esteban F, Castillo JC, et al. (2010) [Usefulness of brain natriuretic peptide levels, as compared with usual clinical control, for the treatment monitoring of patients with heart failure]. *Med Clin (Barc)* 135: 435-440.
- 37. Troughton RW, Frampton CM, Brunner-La Rocca HP, et al. (2014) Effect of B-type natriuretic peptide-guided treatment of chronic heart failure on total mortality and hospitalization: an individual patient meta-analysis. *Eur Heart J* 35: 1559-1567.
- 38. Mant J, Al-Mohammad A, Swain S, et al. (2011) Management of chronic heart failure in adults: synopsis of the National Institute For Health and clinical excellence guideline. *Ann Intern Med* 155: 252-259.
- 39. van Kimmenade RR, Januzzi JL, Jr., Bakker JA, et al. (2009) Renal clearance of B-type natriuretic peptide and amino terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide a mechanistic study in hypertensive subjects. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 53: 884-890.
- 40. Tsai SH, Lin YY, Chu SJ, et al. (2010) Interpretation and use of natriuretic peptides in non-congestive heart failure settings. *Yonsei Med J* 51: 151-163.
- 41. Januzzi JL, van Kimmenade R, Lainchbury J, et al. (2006) NT-proBNP testing for diagnosis and short-term prognosis in acute destabilized heart failure: an international pooled analysis of 1256 patients: the International Collaborative of NT-proBNP Study. *Eur Heart J* 27: 330-337.

- 42. Gutierrez OM, Tamez H, Bhan I, et al. (2008) N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide (NT-proBNP) concentrations in hemodialysis patients: prognostic value of baseline and follow-up measurements. *Clin Chem* 54: 1339-1348.
- 43. Wang AY, Lam CW, Yu CM, et al. (2007) N-terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide: an independent risk predictor of cardiovascular congestion, mortality, and adverse cardiovascular outcomes in chronic peritoneal dialysis patients. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 18: 321-330.
- 44. Satyan S, Light RP, Agarwal R (2007) Relationships of N-terminal pro-B-natriuretic peptide and cardiac troponin T to left ventricular mass and function and mortality in asymptomatic hemodialysis patients. *Am J Kidney Dis* 50: 1009-1019.
- 45. Paniagua R, Amato D, Mujais S, et al. (2008) Predictive value of brain natriuretic peptides in patients on peritoneal dialysis: results from the ADEMEX trial. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 3: 407-415.
- 46. David S, Kumpers P, Seidler V, et al. (2008) Diagnostic value of N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide (NT-proBNP) for left ventricular dysfunction in patients with chronic kidney disease stage 5 on haemodialysis. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 23: 1370-1377.
- 47. Parfrey PS (2000) Cardiac disease in dialysis patients: diagnosis, burden of disease, prognosis, risk factors and management. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 15 Suppl 5: 58-68.
- 48. Fahim MA, Hayen A, Horvath AR, et al. (2015) N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide variability in stable dialysis patients. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 10: 620-629.
- 49. Lippi G, Tessitore N, Luca Salvagno G, et al. (2007) Influence of haemodialysis on the NT-proBNP plasma concentration. *Clin Chem Lab Med* 45: 1414-1415.
- 50. Wahl HG, Graf S, Renz H, et al. (2004) Elimination of the cardiac natriuretic peptides B-type natriuretic peptide (BNP) and N-terminal proBNP by hemodialysis. *Clin Chem* 50: 1071-1074.
- 51. Clerico A, Caprioli R, Del Ry S, et al. (2001) Clinical relevance of cardiac natriuretic peptides measured by means of competitive and non-competitive immunoassay methods in patients with renal failure on chronic hemodialysis. *J Endocrinol Invest* 24: 24-30.
- 52. Racek J, Kralova H, Trefil L, et al. (2006) Brain natriuretic peptide and N-terminal proBNP in chronic haemodialysis patients. *Nephron Clin Pract* 103: c162-172.
- 53. Dautin G, Boudjeltia S, Soltani Z, et al. (2007) The changes in NT-proBNP plasma concentrations during dialysis are highly dependent of the dialysis membrane ultrafiltration coefficient. *Clin Chim Acta* 376: 237-239.
- 54. Bargnoux AS, Klouche K, Fareh J, et al. (2008) Prohormone brain natriuretic peptide (proBNP), BNP and N-terminal-proBNP circulating levels in chronic hemodialysis patients. Correlation with ventricular function, fluid removal and effect of hemodiafiltration. *Clin Chem Lab Med* 46: 1019-1024.
- 55. Sheen V, Bhalla V, Tulua-Tata A, et al. (2007) The use of B-type natriuretic peptide to assess volume status in patients with end-stage renal disease. *Am Heart J* 153: 244.e241-245.
- 56. Flemmer M, Rajab H, Mathena T, et al. (2008) Blood B-type natriuretic peptide and dialysis: present assessment and future analyses. *South Med J* 101: 1094-1100.
- 57. Chiarelli G, Beaulieu M, Taylor P, et al. (2011) Elimination of BNP by peritoneal dialysis: investigation of analytical issues. *Perit Dial Int* 31: 199-202.
- 58. Obineche EN, Pathan JY, Fisher S, et al. (2006) Natriuretic peptide and adrenomedullin levels in chronic renal failure and effects of peritoneal dialysis. *Kidney Int* 69: 152-156.
- 59. Granja CA, Tailor PT, Gorban-Brennan N, et al. (2007) Brain natriuretic peptide and impedance

cardiography to assess volume status in peritoneal dialysis patients. Adv Perit Dial 23: 155-160.

- 60. Lee JA, Kim DH, Yoo SJ, et al. (2006) Association between serum n-terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide concentration and left ventricular dysfunction and extracellular water in continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis patients. *Perit Dial Int* 26: 360-365.
- 61. Booth J, Pinney J, Davenport A (2010) N-terminal proBNP--marker of cardiac dysfunction, fluid overload, or malnutrition in hemodialysis patients? *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 5: 1036-1040.
- 62. Gangji AS, Helal BA, Churchill DN, et al. (2008) Association between N-terminal propeptide B-type natriuretic peptide and markers of hypervolemia. *Perit Dial Int* 28: 308-311.
- 63. Jacobs LH, van de Kerkhof JJ, Mingels AM, et al. (2010) Inflammation, overhydration and cardiac biomarkers in haemodialysis patients: a longitudinal study. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 25: 243-248.
- 64. Lee SW, Song JH, Kim GA, et al. (2003) Plasma brain natriuretic peptide concentration on assessment of hydration status in hemodialysis patient. *Am J Kidney Dis* 41: 1257-1266.
- 65. Fagugli RM, Palumbo B, Ricciardi D, et al. (2003) Association between brain natriuretic peptide and extracellular water in hemodialysis patients. *Nephron Clin Pract* 95: c60-66.
- 66. Sommerer C, Beimler J, Schwenger V, et al. (2007) Cardiac biomarkers and survival in haemodialysis patients. *Eur J Clin Invest* 37: 350-356.
- 67. Bavbek N, Akay H, Altay M, et al. (2007) Serum BNP concentration and left ventricular mass in CAPD and automated peritoneal dialysis patients. *Perit Dial Int* 27: 663-668.
- 68. Zoccali C, Mallamaci F, Benedetto FA, et al. (2001) Cardiac natriuretic peptides are related to left ventricular mass and function and predict mortality in dialysis patients. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 12: 1508-1515.
- 69. Foley RN, Curtis BM, Randell EW, et al. (2010) Left ventricular hypertrophy in new hemodialysis patients without symptomatic cardiac disease. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 5: 805-813.
- 70. Mallamaci F, Zoccali C, Tripepi G, et al. (2001) Diagnostic potential of cardiac natriuretic peptides in dialysis patients. *Kidney Int* 59: 1559-1566.
- 71. Choi SY, Lee JE, Jang EH, et al. (2008) Association between changes in N-terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide levels and changes in left ventricular mass index in stable hemodialysis patients. *Nephron Clin Pract* 110: c93-100.
- 72. Takase H, Dohi Y, Toriyama T, et al. (2011) B-type natriuretic peptide levels and cardiovascular risk in patients with diastolic dysfunction on chronic haemodialysis: cross-sectional and observational studies. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 26: 683-690.
- 73. Goto T, Takase H, Toriyama T, et al. (2002) Increased circulating levels of natriuretic peptides predict future cardiac event in patients with chronic hemodialysis. *Nephron* 92: 610-615.
- 74. Tripepi G, Mattace-Raso F, Mallamaci F, et al. (2009) Biomarkers of left atrial volume: a longitudinal study in patients with end stage renal disease. *Hypertension* 54: 818-824.
- 75. Wang AY, Wang M, Lam CW, et al. (2011) Heart failure in long-term peritoneal dialysis patients: a 4-year prospective analysis. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 6: 805-812.
- 76. Winkler K, Wanner C, Drechsler C, et al. (2008) Change in N-terminal-pro-B-type-natriuretic-peptide and the risk of sudden death, stroke, myocardial infarction, and all-cause mortality in diabetic dialysis patients. *Eur Heart J* 29: 2092-2099.
- 77. Breidthardt T, Kalbermatter S, Socrates T, et al. (2011) Increasing B-type natriuretic peptide levels predict mortality in unselected haemodialysis patients. *Eur J Heart Fail* 13: 860-867.
- 78. Doust J (2010) Qualification versus validation of biomarkers. Scand J Clin Lab Invest Suppl 242: 40-43.

- 79. Katus HA, Remppis A, Scheffold T, et al. (1991) Intracellular compartmentation of cardiac troponin T and its release kinetics in patients with reperfused and nonreperfused myocardial infarction. *Am J Cardiol* 67: 1360-1367.
- 80. Turer AT, Addo TA, Martin JL, et al. (2011) Myocardial ischemia induced by rapid atrial pacing causes troponin T release detectable by a highly sensitive assay: insights from a coronary sinus sampling study. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 57: 2398-2405.
- 81. Hessel MH, Atsma DE, van der Valk EJ, et al. (2008) Release of cardiac troponin I from viable cardiomyocytes is mediated by integrin stimulation. *Pflugers Arch* 455: 979-986.
- 82. Thygesen K, Alpert JS, Jaffe AS, et al. (2012) Third universal definition of myocardial infarction. *Circulation* 126: 2020-2035.
- 83. Keddis MT, El-Zoghby ZM, El Ters M, et al. (2013) Cardiac troponin T before and after kidney transplantation: determinants and implications for posttransplant survival. *Am J Transplant* 13: 406-414.
- 84. Wu AH, Feng YJ, Roper L, et al. (1997) Cardiac troponins T and I before and after renal transplantation. *Clin Chem* 43: 411-412.
- 85. Fredericks S, Chang R, Gregson H, et al. (2001) Circulating cardiac troponin-T in patients before and after renal transplantation. *Clin Chim Acta* 310: 199-203.
- 86. Bozbas H, Korkmaz ME, Atar I, et al. (2004) Serum levels of cardiac enzymes before and after renal transplantation. *Clin Cardiol* 27: 559-562.
- 87. Ellis K, Dreisbach AW, Lertora JL (2001) Plasma elimination of cardiac troponin I in end-stage renal disease. *South Med J* 94: 993-996.
- 88. Fahie-Wilson MN, Carmichael DJ, Delaney MP, et al. (2006) Cardiac troponin T circulates in the free, intact form in patients with kidney failure. *Clin Chem* 52: 414-420.
- 89. Jacobs LH, van de Kerkhof J, Mingels AM, et al. (2009) Haemodialysis patients longitudinally assessed by highly sensitive cardiac troponin T and commercial cardiac troponin T and cardiac troponin I assays. *Ann Clin Biochem* 46: 283-290.
- 90. Kumar N, Michelis MF, DeVita MV, et al. (2011) Troponin I levels in asymptomatic patients on haemodialysis using a high-sensitivity assay. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 26: 665-670.
- 91. Wolley M, Stewart R, Curry E, et al. (2013) Variation in and prognostic importance of troponin T measured using a high-sensitivity assay in clinically stable haemodialysis patients. *Clin Kidney J* 6: 402-409.
- 92. Hill SA, Cleve R, Carlisle E, et al. (2009) Intra-individual variability in troponin T concentration in dialysis patients. *Clin Biochem* 42: 991-995.
- 93. Pianta TJ, Horvath AR, Ellis VM, et al. (2012) Cardiac high-sensitivity troponin T measurement: a layer of complexity in managing haemodialysis patients. *Nephrology (Carlton)* 17: 636-641.
- 94. Katus HA, Haller C, Muller-Bardorff M, et al. (1995) Cardiac troponin T in end-stage renal disease patients undergoing chronic maintenance hemodialysis. *Clin Chem* 41: 1201-1203.
- 95. Collinson PO, Stubbs PJ, Rosalki SB (1995) Cardiac troponin T in renal disease. *Clin Chem* 41: 1671-1673.
- 96. Li D, Jialal I, Keffer J (1996) Greater frequency of increased cardiac troponin T than increased cardiac troponin I in patients with chronic renal failure. *Clin Chem* 42: 114-115.
- 97. Hickman PE, McGill D, Potter JM, et al. (2015) Multiple biomarkers including cardiac troponins T and I measured by high-sensitivity assays, as predictors of long-term mortality in patients with chronic renal failure who underwent dialysis. *Am J Cardiol* 115: 1601-1606.

- Lippi G, Tessitore N, Montagnana M, et al. (2008) Influence of sampling time and ultrafiltration coefficient of the dialysis membrane on cardiac troponin I and T. *Arch Pathol Lab Med* 132: 72-76.
- 99. Gaze DC, Collinson PO (2014) Cardiac troponin I but not cardiac troponin T adheres to polysulfone dialyser membranes in an in vitro haemodialysis model: explanation for lower serum cTnI concentrations following dialysis. *Open Heart* 1: e000108.
- 100. Nunes JP, Sampaio S, Cerqueira A, et al. (2015) Anti-troponin I antibodies in renal transplant patients. *Rev Port Cardiol* 34: 85-89.
- 101. Sacchetti A, Harris R, Patel K, et al. (1991) Emergency department presentation of renal dialysis patients: indications for EMS transport directly to dialysis centers. *J Emerg Med* 9: 141-144.
- 102. McDonald SP, Tong B (2011) Morbidity burden of end-stage kidney disease in Australia: hospital separation rates among people receiving kidney replacement therapy. *Nephrology* (*Carlton*) 16: 758-766.
- 103. Herzog CA, Littrell K, Arko C, et al. (2007) Clinical characteristics of dialysis patients with acute myocardial infarction in the United States: a collaborative project of the United States Renal Data System and the National Registry of Myocardial Infarction. *Circulation* 116: 1465-1472.
- 104. Sosnov J, Lessard D, Goldberg RJ, et al. (2006) Differential symptoms of acute myocardial infarction in patients with kidney disease: a community-wide perspective. *Am J Kidney Dis* 47: 378-384.
- 105. Jaffe AS, Apple FS (2012) The third Universal Definition of Myocardial Infarction--moving forward. *Clin Chem* 58: 1727-1728.
- 106. Wu AH, Jaffe AS, Apple FS, et al. (2007) National Academy of Clinical Biochemistry laboratory medicine practice guidelines: use of cardiac troponin and B-type natriuretic peptide or N-terminal proB-type natriuretic peptide for etiologies other than acute coronary syndromes and heart failure. *Clin Chem* 53: 2086-2096.
- 107. Fahim MA, Hayen AD, Horvath AR, et al. (2015) Biological variation of high sensitivity cardiac troponin-T in stable dialysis patients: implications for clinical practice. *Clin Chem Lab Med* 53: 715-722.
- 108. Michos ED, Wilson LM, Yeh HC, et al. (2014) Prognostic value of cardiac troponin in patients with chronic kidney disease without suspected acute coronary syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann Intern Med* 161: 491-501.
- 109. (2005) K/DOQI clinical practice guidelines for cardiovascular disease in dialysis patients. *Am J Kidney Dis* 45: S1-153.
- 110. Yancy CW, Jessup M, Bozkurt B, et al. (2013) 2013 ACCF/AHA guideline for the management of heart failure: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 62: e147-239.
- 111. Mueller T, Leitner I, Egger M, et al. (2015) Association of the biomarkers soluble ST2, galectin-3 and growth-differentiation factor-15 with heart failure and other non-cardiac diseases. *Clin Chim Acta* 445: 155-160.
- 112. Mueller T, Dieplinger B (2013) The Presage((R)) ST2 Assay: analytical considerations and clinical applications for a high-sensitivity assay for measurement of soluble ST2. *Expert Rev Mol Diagn* 13: 13-30.
- 113. Lippi G, Cervellin G (2014) Risk assessment of post-infarction heart failure. Systematic review

on the role of emerging biomarkers. Crit Rev Clin Lab Sci 51: 13-29.

- 114. Weinberg EO, Shimpo M, De Keulenaer GW, et al. (2002) Expression and regulation of ST2, an interleukin-1 receptor family member, in cardiomyocytes and myocardial infarction. *Circulation* 106: 2961-2966.
- 115. Demyanets S, Speidl WS, Tentzeris I, et al. (2014) Soluble ST2 and interleukin-33 levels in coronary artery disease: relation to disease activity and adverse outcome. *PLoS One* 9: e95055.
- 116. Dieplinger B, Egger M, Haltmayer M, et al. (2014) Increased soluble ST2 predicts long-term mortality in patients with stable coronary artery disease: results from the Ludwigshafen risk and cardiovascular health study. *Clin Chem* 60: 530-540.
- 117. Bayes-Genis A, de Antonio M, Galan A, et al. (2012) Combined use of high-sensitivity ST2 and NTproBNP to improve the prediction of death in heart failure. *Eur J Heart Fail* 14: 32-38.
- 118. Lippi G, Salvagno GL, Robuschi F, et al. (2014) Influence of dipyridamole stress echocardiography on galectin-3, amino-terminal B-type natriuretic peptide (NT-proBNP) and high-sensitivity troponin T. *Acta Cardiol* 69: 377-383.
- 119. Krzeslak A, Lipinska A (2004) Galectin-3 as a multifunctional protein. *Cell Mol Biol Lett* 9: 305-328.
- 120. Sharma UC, Pokharel S, van Brakel TJ, et al. (2004) Galectin-3 marks activated macrophages in failure-prone hypertrophied hearts and contributes to cardiac dysfunction. *Circulation* 110: 3121-3128.
- 121. Suarez G, Meyerrose G (2014) Heart failure and galectin 3. Ann Transl Med 2: 86.
- 122. Chen A, Hou W, Zhang Y, et al. (2015) Prognostic value of serum galectin-3 in patients with heart failure: a meta-analysis. *Int J Cardiol* 182: 168-170.
- 123. Winter MP, Wiesbauer F, Alimohammadi A, et al. (2016) Soluble galectin-3 is associated with premature myocardial infarction. *Eur J Clin Invest* 46: 386-391.
- 124. Yancy CW, Jessup M, Bozkurt B, et al. (2013) 2013 ACCF/AHA guideline for the management of heart failure: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on practice guidelines. *Circulation* 128: e240-327.
- 125. Hogas S, Schiller A, Voroneanu L, et al. (2016) Predictive Value for Galectin 3 and Cardiotrophin 1 in Hemodialysis Patients. *Angiology* 67: 854-859.
- 126. Gurel OM, Yilmaz H, Celik TH, et al. (2015) Galectin-3 as a new biomarker of diastolic dysfunction in hemodialysis patients. *Herz* 40: 788-794.
- 127. de Boer RA, van der Velde AR, Mueller C, et al. (2014) Galectin-3: a modifiable risk factor in heart failure. *Cardiovasc Drugs Ther* 28: 237-246.
- 128. Hagstrom E, James SK, Bertilsson M, et al. (2016) Growth differentiation factor-15 level predicts major bleeding and cardiovascular events in patients with acute coronary syndromes: results from the PLATO study. *Eur Heart J* 37: 1325-1333.
- 129. Jougasaki M, Rodeheffer RJ, Redfield MM, et al. (1996) Cardiac secretion of adrenomedullin in human heart failure. *J Clin Invest* 97: 2370-2376.
- 130. Nishikimi T, Saito Y, Kitamura K, et al. (1995) Increased plasma levels of adrenomedullin in patients with heart failure. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 26: 1424-1431.
- 131. Maisel A, Mueller C, Nowak R, et al. (2010) Mid-region pro-hormone markers for diagnosis and prognosis in acute dyspnea: results from the BACH (Biomarkers in Acute Heart Failure) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 55: 2062-2076.
- 132. Giannopoulos G, Deftereos S, Panagopoulou V, et al. (2013) Copeptin as a biomarker in cardiac

disease. Curr Top Med Chem 13: 231-240.

- 133. Reid P, Holen I (2009) Pathophysiological roles of osteoprotegerin (OPG). *Eur J Cell Biol* 88: 1-17.
- 134. Nybo M, Rasmussen LM (2008) The capability of plasma osteoprotegerin as a predictor of cardiovascular disease: a systematic literature review. *Eur J Endocrinol* 159: 603-608.
- 135. Rosenberg M, Zugck C, Nelles M, et al. (2008) Osteopontin, a new prognostic biomarker in patients with chronic heart failure. *Circ Heart Fail* 1: 43-49.
- 136. Rabin KR, Kamari Y, Avni I, et al. (2005) Adiponectin: linking the metabolic syndrome to its cardiovascular consequences. *Expert Rev Cardiovasc Ther* 3: 465-471.
- 137. Zoccali C, Mallamaci F, Panuccio V, et al. (2003) Adiponectin is markedly increased in patients with nephrotic syndrome and is related to metabolic risk factors. *Kidney Int Suppl*: S98-102.
- 138. Zoccali C, Mallamaci F, Tripepi G, et al. (2002) Adiponectin, metabolic risk factors, and cardiovascular events among patients with end-stage renal disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 13: 134-141.
- 139. Yan AT, Yan RT, Spinale FG, et al. (2006) Plasma matrix metalloproteinase-9 level is correlated with left ventricular volumes and ejection fraction in patients with heart failure. *J Card Fail* 12: 514-519.
- 140. Kecebas M, Gullulu S, Sag S, et al. (2014) Serum fetuin-A levels in patients with systolic heart failure. *Acta Cardiol* 69: 399-405.
- 141. Morrow DA, Cannon CP, Rifai N, et al. (2001) Ability of minor elevations of troponins I and T to predict benefit from an early invasive strategy in patients with unstable angina and non-ST elevation myocardial infarction: results from a randomized trial. *Jama* 286: 2405-2412.
- 142. Sandoval Y, Herzog CA, Love SA, et al. (2016) Prognostic Value of Serial Changes in High-Sensitivity Cardiac Troponin I and T over 3 Months Using Reference Change Values in Hemodialysis Patients. *Clin Chem* 62: 631-638.



© 2017 David W Johnson et al., licensee AIMS Press. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0)