

Cardiovascular And Neurologic Applications Of Biomarkers

¹Akash Limba Kawale , ²Nirmal Joshi , ³Kaushal B. Navadiya , ⁴Ayesha Nisar Shaikh* , ⁵Utkarsh Trivedi , ⁶Ayushmann Roy

¹Dept. of Pharmacy, Godavari Institute of Pharmacy, Kolpa, Latur.

²Asst. Professor, (PhD Scholar), Amrapali Institute of Pharmacy and Sciences, Shiksha Nagar, Lamachaur, Haldwani, Nainital, Uttarakhand.

³Dept. of Pharmacy, C.K. Pithwalla Institute of Pharmaceutical Science and Research, Surat, Gujarat

⁴Department of Pharmaceutics, JMCT Institute of Pharmacy, Wadala road, Nashik, Maharashtra

⁵Department of Pharmacy, Uttaranchal Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Dehradun, Uttarakhand

⁶Rungta College of Pharmaceutical Sciences & Research, Kohka Kurud Bhilai.

Abstract

Biomarkers are inexpensive, repeatable, and accessible diagnostic tools. Recent research has focused on their well-known benefits. Cardiovascular and neurological illnesses share risk factors and pathogenic pathways, affecting biomarker use and interpretation. Neurological illnesses affect hs-TroponinT, CK-MB, and NTproBNP. Galectin-3, lysophosphatidylcholine, copeptin, sST2, S100B, myeloperoxidase, and GDF-15 have been studied as cardiovascular and neurology alternatives. Due to their limited specificity, values require clinical judgement and additional tests.

Keywords: Biomarkers, Natriuretic Peptides, apoptosis, Creatine Kinase

Introduction

Biomarkers indicate organ and system health. Proteins, enzymes, and hormones have fluctuating concentrations in normal and pathological circumstances. They're useful in a range of heart disease cases, and more research is underway. Biomarker research began in 1954 when enzymes were used to diagnose myocardial infarction [1]. Since then, they've been employed to treat heart failure and ischemia. Cardiovascular disease and neurological pathology share numerous risk variables, which can alter biomarker values and interpretations, leading to medical judgement errors. Considering this, we compared and assessed all recent biomarkers.

History of Cardiac Biomarker

First AMI biomarker: AST [6]. AST was common in the 1960s [7]. AST isn't unique to cardiac muscle, hence its identification isn't specific for injury. 1970s saw the introduction of LDH and CK (CK). CK is

more specific than LDH in AMI patients with muscle or liver dysfunction [8]. Myoglobin distributes heart oxygen to striated muscle. First myoglobin test: 1978. Myoglobin rises after myocardial injury and can detect AMI [10]. Myoglobin testing no longer indicates myocardial necrosis in the era of hs-cTn [11, 12]. Electrophoresis identified CK-MB and LDH 1+2 [13]. Cardiac muscle has 25–30% CK-MB vs. 1% CK-MM. WHO employed these tests in 1979 [14] to rule out AMI. Inaccuracy and false-positives invalidated these tests. Finding a cardiac biomarker.

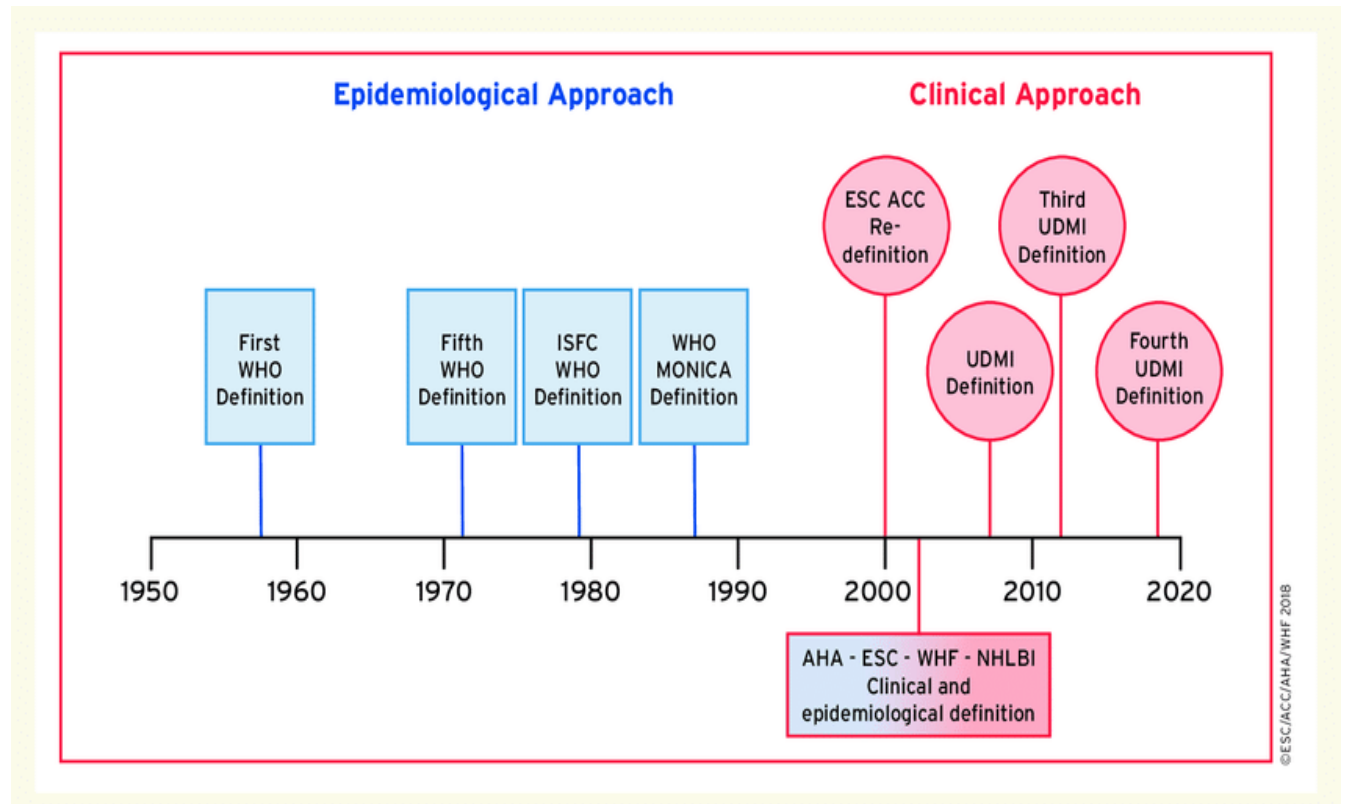


Fig: 1 A timeline of the development of cardiac biomarkers for the diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction

Biomarkers

Natriuretic Peptides

NPS regulates blood pressure and extracellular fluid volume. Atrial and b-type natriuretic peptides (ANP and BNP) are hormones generated by cardiomyocytes in response to mechanical stimuli. They cause diuresis, natriuresis, and vasodilation. Urodilatin is a kidney-produced ANP isoform with four N-terminal residues. C-type natriuretic peptide (CNP) is largely generated by the endothelium and released in response to numerous stimuli (e.g., increased shear stress and cytokine signalling) to exert vasodilatory and anti-proliferative effects in the vasculature. CNP is only mildly raised in HF and not a direct therapeutic target.

Synthesis and Secretion of Natriuretic Peptides

Cardiac distension
 Sympathetic stimulation
 Angiotensin II

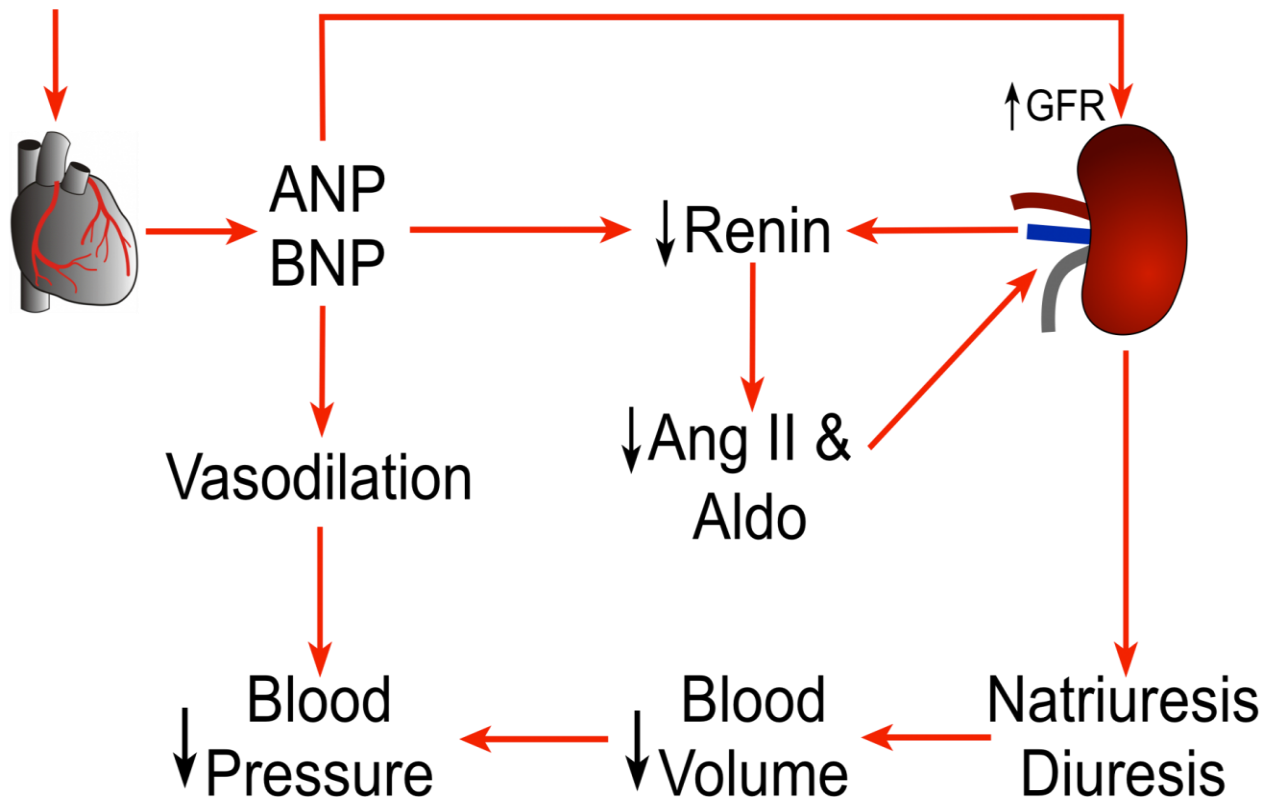


Fig: 2 Synthesis and Secretion of Natriuretic Peptides

NPPA and NPPB on 1p36.22 encode atrial and b-type natriuretic peptides. During development and sickness, epigenetic regulators and transcription factors coordinate locus control. Atrial cardiomyocytes express NPPA but cardiac NPPB is low. Mechanical and neurohormonal stimulation modify the locus' chromatin environment, activating both atrial and ventricular genes. Numerous HF traits, including hemodynamic stress and increased wall stretch, activate the NPPA/NPPB locus in atrial and ventricular tissue. Mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), specifically ERK-signaling, drive HF-related NPPA/NPPB gene expression. GATA4, NFAT, and Myocardin are key transcription factors.

NPPA and NPPB mRNA translation yields 151- and 134-amino acid preprohormones that are enzymatically transformed into proANP and proBNP. Furin makes intracellular BNP, while Corin cleaves proANP to make ANP. In healthy settings, ProANP and processed BNP are released concurrently from atrial granules. Pressure overload and wall stress generate ANP and BNP elevations in HF patients.

Globally, troponins COPD kills. COPD is a lung multimorbidity, with CVD being the most frequent [1]. Cardiovascular diseases worsen COPD patients' quality of life, healthcare costs, and death [2, 3]. The Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) recommends utilising a CVD risk calculator for COPD [4]. Pathophysiological connections between COPD and CVD remain unclear [5]. Smoking, inactivity, and metabolic syndrome cause COPD [6]. COPD variables can exacerbate CVD and COPD coexistence. Both illnesses cause systemic inflammation, hypoxemia, sleep disturbances, exacerbations, and lung hyperinflation.

Muscle and heart contain troponins. Troponins T and I are MI biomarkers. cTn screens patients for cardiac risk. Troponin thresholds are lower than for MI [7, 8].

Cardiac Troponins Metabolism

During apoptosis, caspase enzymes and intracellular proteinases increase in activity, cleaving DNA and protein structures while preserving cell membrane integrity [46]. Modern apoptosis detection methods include electron microscopy, immunohistochemistry, flow cytometry, and TUNEL (Terminal deoxynucleotidyl Transferase—mediated dUTP—biotin Nick—End Labeling) [47,48,49]. TUNEL study verifies apoptosis' major cause, caspase-induced DNA degradation. The approach works by specifically attaching terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase to damaged DNA strands [49].

Weil et al. (2017) used balloon occlusion to simulate short-term (10-min) ischemia in pigs. Angiography verified occlusion. After reperfusion, several animals' myocardium was taken for histological analysis. In another experiment on (live) animals, troponin I was measured after reperfusion using a reasonably sensitive method (Life Diagnostics, West Chester, Pennsylvania) in regional (anterior interventricular vein) and systemic (jugular) blood serum samples. Histological tests showed no ischemia damage or necrosis. Short-term ischemia caused a sixfold increase in TUNEL-positive cardiomyocytes compared to the control area. After 10 min, troponin I levels rose modestly. After 30 min, they reached the 99th percentile (38 ng/L) and peaked at 24 h (1021 574 ng/L). Regional and systemic troponin I levels correlated well. Short-term ischemia does not cause cardiomyonecrosis but causes cardiomyocyte death and troponin release [50]. This study is confined to 24 h, therefore it's unknown what would happen next with troponins and cardiomyocytes. In real practise, early identification of troponins by moderately sensitive techniques is difficult/impossible due to wash-out, unlike in the experiment described above.

Cardiomyocyte apoptosis can occur without myocardial ischemia. Myocardial distension increases programmed cell death, according to Cheng et al. In this situation, stretching of the myocardium can occur in physiological and pathological settings (such as heart failure and arterial hypertension), possibly contributing to an increase in troponins [52,53,54]. Singh et al. (2001) studied the effect of increased neurohumoral stimulation on apoptosis and discovered that beta1-adrenergic receptor stimulation induces apoptosis via activation of adenylyl cyclase [55], while beta2-adrenergic receptor stimulation is antiapoptotic [56,57]. With age, beta2-adrenergic receptor density decreases [58]. Thus, apoptosis may have a role in troponin increase in cardiac failure, age, and prolonged/excessive exercise. An rise in troponins in these individuals can lead to overdiagnosis of AMI, especially when employing sensitive test systems and when doctors depend solely on laboratory data. Manjunath et al. (2018) confirms this. A

young patient with chest pain was admitted to the ER with elevated troponin I (0.123 ng/mL vs. 0.055 ng/mL). Unfavorable family history and hypercholesterolemia led doctors to suspect myocardial infarction. ECG, Echo-CG, and coronary angiography showed no myocardial ischemia. The young man was active in athletics and ran many miles the day before admission to prepare for a marathon [59].

In pigs, increasing left ventricular preload causes apoptosis and troponin I release without ischemia. Animals got 300 g/min phenylephrine for 1 h to raise end-diastolic pressure. The baseline release of troponin I (16 20 ng/L) was modest, but 30 min after the increase in end-diastolic pressure, it was above the 99th percentile. After 1 h, it was 856 956 ng/L ($p = 0.01$) and remained elevated after 24 h (1462 1691 ng/L). Pathological investigation demonstrated apoptosis of cardiac cells (31.3 11.9 vs. 4.6 3.7; $p = 0.01$), which reverted to normal after 24 h (6.2 5.6 myocytes/cm²; $p = 0.46$) without necrosis [60]. Thus, apoptosis, not cardiomyocyte destruction, increased cardiac troponins.

Creatine Kinase

LCK is inactivated by proteolysis. CK clearance isn't influenced by impaired liver or renal function or urine. Hypothyroidism lowers CK clearance. Increased B subunit synthesis in damaged skeletal muscle, as during foetal development, can raise CK-MB without AMI. phylogeny [8] [9]

Rhabdomyolysis, exercise, and trauma elevate CK-MB. Skeletal muscles have less CK-MB. Autoimmune and inflammatory myopathies can raise CK-MB levels. [10] AMI should be suspected in patients with quickly rising and dropping CK-MB. CK-MB was used to identify acute MI in the 1980s and 1990s, however its specificity was limited. Better measurements increase CK-specificity MBs. Immunoenzymometric tests employing M and B subunit-specific antibodies are selective and sensitive. [15] Cross-reactive alkaline phosphatase in plasma raises monoclonal antibody testing for CK-MB. Patients with ALS or progressive spinal muscular atrophy may have elevated CK values. Astrocytes and oligodendrocytes express CK more than neurons. Neuropathies and radiculopathies elevate CK. Neuropathies are caused by damaged motor neuron axons. Axonal degeneration raised CK in 27% of CIDP patients. CK is affected by Guillain-motor Barre's paralysis. Muscle axonal loss affects membrane integrity. CMT elevates CK [58,59].

Biomarker for central neuropathology. CK diagnoses tonic-clonic seizures in EDs. Nonepileptic psychogenic seizures and vasovagal syncope had decreased CK [60]. Meningitis raises CK-BB.

Creatine protected neurons from harmful metabolites, glucose deprivation, and serum. CK regulates brain cell energy [64,65]. In Alzheimer's dementia, reactive oxygen and nitrogen species inactivate CK, reducing overall CK activity (BB-CK activity fell 86 percent and CK expression fell 14 percent [66]). Epilepsy, schizophrenia, and maniac-depressive psychosis have low CK. Huntington's and Pick diseases cause fatigue [69,70]. Huntington's disease causes neuronal dysfunction by downregulating CK-MB. Creatine may be replaced by CK-MB [71]. Children with benign paroxysmal vertigo had higher CK-MB levels, suggesting a pathophysiological link.

Lysophosphatidylcholine

LPC dominates oxidised LDL. 100M Health LPC [2]. LPC levels are disease-related. Atherosclerosis, inflammation, diabetes, adrenoleukodystrophy, and squamous cervical cancer have higher LPC levels than infectious illnesses, ovarian cancer, and colorectal cancer. LPC promotes growth, inflammation, and oxidative stress. Our research reveals how LPC causes disease. GPL are macrophospholipids. GPLs have esterified glycerol backbones. Third hydroxyl phosphorylated. Phosphoric acid results (PA). Choline or ethanolamine esters generate PC and PE. Most prevalent mammalian membrane GPL

Most in vivo PLs have a saturated fatty acyl residue in sn-1 and an unsaturated one in sn-2 (e.g., arachidonic or docosahexaenoic acid, which contain four or six double bonds, respectively). LPLs are made by phospholipases. Arachidonic acid (C20:4) is vulnerable to oxidation, and its metabolites are biologically active.

Growth differentiation factor-15

GDF-15 is a cytokine produced in cardiomyocytes, adipocytes, macrophages, endothelial cells, and smooth vascular musculature during tissue injury, inflammation, and mechanical or oxidative stress. Increased levels indicate healing of lesions. Heart failure, hypertrophy, atherosclerosis, endothelial dysfunction, and recurrent myocardial infarction are linked to GDF-15. After a myocardial infarction, GDF-15 levels rise quickly and remain high for days. AMI patients have higher scores than individuals with unstable angina or non-cardiac chest pain. GDF-15 boosts the prognostic value of the GRACE (Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events) score in patients with NSTEMI myocardial infarction, even more than NT-proBNP [166]. GDF-15 improves the HAS-BLED risk score, which is strongly correlated with bleeding risk [169]. GDF-15 levels predict all-cause death in non-ischemic individuals. This biomarker rises as heart failure progresses and could help asymptomatic patients [68].

GDF-15, released by maturing erythroblasts, regulates hepcidin and iron homeostasis. Ineffective erythropoiesis (thalassemia or sickle cell) and inflammation, acute injury, cancer, and chronic kidney disease modify blood GDF-15 concentrations [90].

This biomarker isn't well-studied in neurological pathology. It may help stroke sufferers, though. GDF-15 stimulates angiogenesis under ischemic conditions, which may explain elevated levels in ischemic stroke patients [73]. In patients who had thrombolysis or thrombectomy, higher GDF-15 levels on entry increased 3-month mortality. After a stroke, values decline within 24 h but can sometimes last 7 days. GDF-14 levels correspond to the NIHSS score, with a higher level indicating a more severe ischemia injury [74]. GDF-15 predicts a first ischemic stroke in hypertensive individuals [74].

Conclusion

Most cardiovascular biomarkers were effective in neurological disorders. This narrative literature study showed how to differentiate between the two diseases (cardiac and neurologic). As it's challenging to find a biomarker with perfect specificity and sensitivity for a particular pathology, clinical context and

additional studies are usually helpful for a good diagnosis. Biomarkers can be particularly useful in determining prognosis, especially in cardiac and neurological disorders, as they often interact. Better and more specific biomarkers require more investigation. This review and prior studies focus on LPC. This is partly due to the LPL's sensitivity. Low-resolution mass spectrometers accomplish this. LPC is a stable chemical that doesn't react with other compounds, which aids in its determination. It's unclear if and which LPL are good biomarkers of (inflammatory) disorders. Contradictory LPC effects in experimental models and patient samples may be related to saturation and/or chain length.

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