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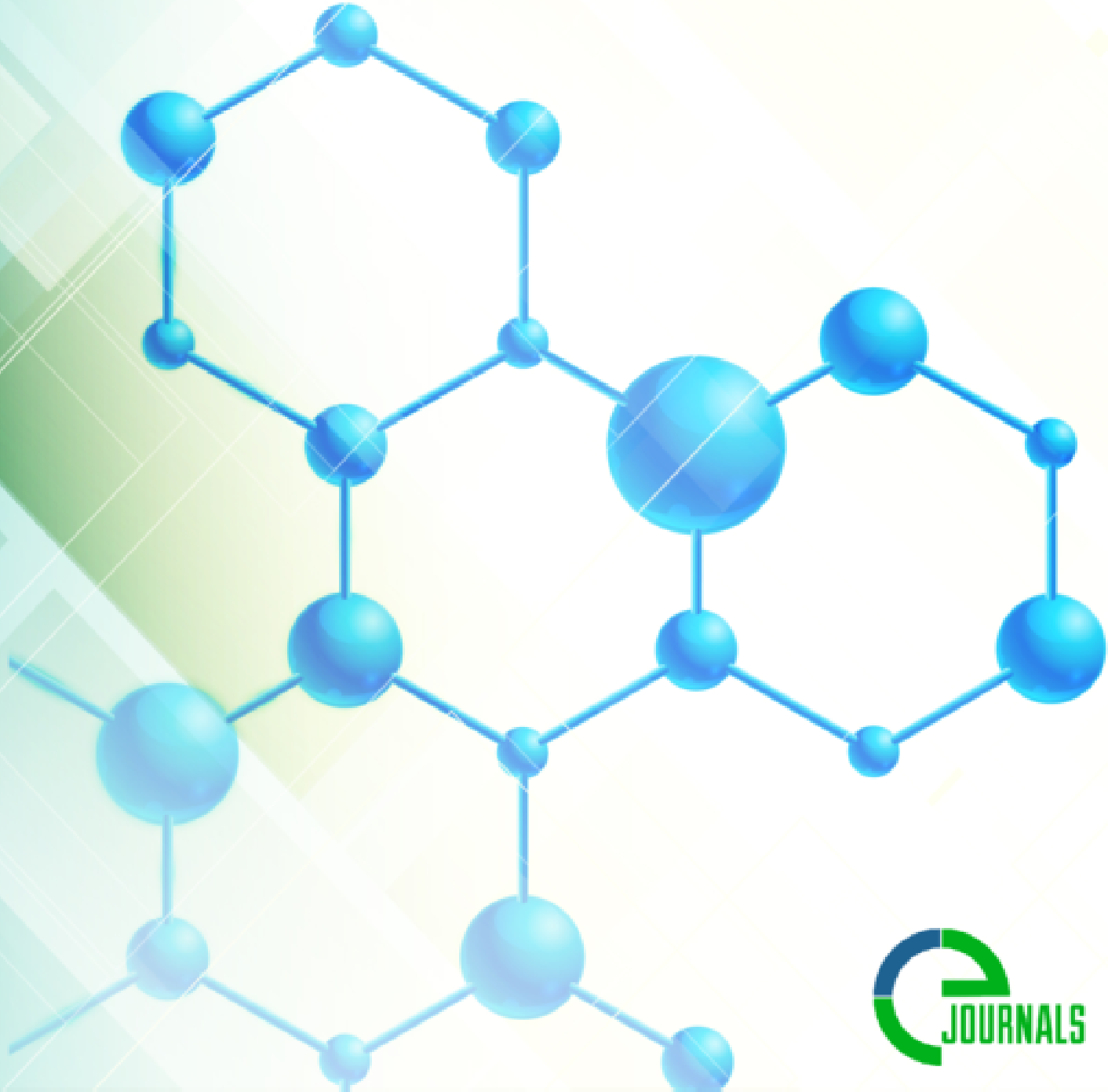

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ANALYSIS OF THE PATHOLOGICAL CONDITIONS THAT RESULT FROM THE IMPACT OF LIVER ENZYMES ON CARDIAC ACTIVITY.

Rasulova Mokhidil Tursunaliyevna
Fergana Medical Institute of Public Health

Abstract: Heart failure (HF) is defined as the lack of systemic perfusion to fulfil the body's metabolic demands. It is often caused by ventricular pump malfunction but may rarely appear with signs of a noncardiac illness, such as hepatic dysfunction. The fundamental pathophysiology implicated in HF-related hepatic dysfunction is either passive congestion due to elevated filling pressures or decreased cardiac output and the implications of poor perfusion. Passive hepatic congestion caused by increased central venous pressure can result in elevated liver enzymes as well as direct and indirect blood bilirubin. Impaired perfusion due to reduced cardiac output may be accompanied with abrupt hepatocellular necrosis and significant increases in serum aminotransferases. Cardiogenic ischaemic hepatitis ("shock liver") can develop after an episode of severe hypotension in individuals with acute HF.

Keywords: Heart failure, liver dysfunction, cardiovascular disease, pulsatile liver, hepatic congestion, shock liver, cardiac output.

Heart failure (HF) is a clinical illness characterised by a lack of systemic perfusion to fulfil the body's metabolic demands, which is often caused by cardiac pump malfunction. HF is classified into two types: systolic and diastolic. Systolic failure has decreased cardiac contractility, whereas diastolic failure has impaired cardiac relaxation and aberrant ventricular filling. Heart failure can be caused by a variety of structural or functional congenital and acquired heart diseases that limit the ventricle's capacity to fill with or expel blood. Clinically, HF may appear with a condition of lower exercise tolerance due to dyspnoea and/or exhaustion caused by diminished cardiac output, or a syndrome of fluid retention caused by high filling pressure. A variety of hepatic derangements can arise in HF, particularly in the presence of right heart failure (RHF). Any cause of right ventricular failure can be linked to severe hepatic congestion; individuals with hepatic congestion are frequently asymptomatic, and abnormal liver function tests (LFTs) during regular laboratory examination may be the only indication. The underlying aetiology of hepatic dysfunction is either passive congestion caused by higher filling pressures or decreased cardiac output and the resulting poor perfusion. Passive hepatic congestion caused by increased central venous pressure (CVP) can result in elevated liver enzymes as well as direct and indirect blood bilirubin. Impaired perfusion due to reduced cardiac output may be accompanied with abrupt hepatocellular necrosis and significant increases in serum aminotransferases. Cardiogenic ischaemic hepatitis ("shock liver") can develop after an episode of severe hypotension in individuals with acute HF. Bridging fibrosis or cardiac cirrhosis can be caused by persistent haemodynamic problems, resulting in poor hepatic function, impaired coagulation, decreased albumin production, and changes in the metabolism of various cardiovascular medications, all of which can cause undesirable toxicity. Some of these medications require dosage modifications, but accurate dose guidelines are difficult to establish because, unlike in renal impairment, changes in hepatic drug disposition do not usually correspond well with conventional laboratory indicators of liver failure. This article discusses the pathogenesis and diagnosis of liver abnormalities reported in HF patients. More study on the intricate interplay between cardiac and hepatic function in HF may

help us better understand the disease's pathogenesis and enhance therapeutic management for HF patients. Pathophysiology and Histopathology Passive congestion causes hepatic impairment in individuals with right-sided heart failure and high right ventricular (RV) pressure. Hepatic congestion can be caused by any cause of right-sided heart failure, including constrictive pericarditis, severe pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH), mitral stenosis, tricuspid regurgitation (TR), cor pulmonale, cardiomyopathy, and as a postoperative complication of the Fontan procedure for pulmonary atresia and hypoplastic left heart syndrome. TR is especially likely to develop passive congestion because pressure from the RV is conveyed directly to the hepatic veins and sinusoids. The increased venous pressure generated by RV failure promotes hepatocyte atrophy and perisinusoidal oedema, which can limit oxygen and nutrient transport to the hepatocytes. As a result of this hepatic congestion, moderate jaundice, abnormalities in liver enzymes, and changes in hepatic drug metabolism develop. On physical inspection, the congestive liver appears swollen, purple or crimson, and with prominent hepatic veins. The sliced surface has the distinctive nutmeg look, showing an alternating pattern of haemorrhage and necrosis in zone 3 and normal or slightly steatotic portions in zones 1 and 2. Microscopically, hepatic venous hypertension is distinguished by prominent central veins, central vein haemorrhage, and sinusoidal engorgement. Untreated, chronic congestion can progress to heart fibrosis and, eventually, cardiac cirrhosis. In contrast, reduced cardiac output (forward failure) is linked with some degree of perfusion abnormalities that is not always visible. sudden hypoxic hepatitis is most usually associated with substantial systemic hypotension caused by sudden cardiopulmonary collapse following myocardial infarction, heart failure aggravation, or pulmonary embolism. In the absence of established hypotension, ischaemic hepatitis has been seen in cases of severe hypoxaemia, such as obstructive sleep apnoea, respiratory failure, and circumstances of elevated metabolic demand, such as toxic/septic shock. The word hepatitis is a misnomer because there is no histology evidence of inflammation. Instead, ischaemic liver damage is defined by centrolobular necrosis of zone 3 hepatocytes. When hepatic blood flow is reduced, oxygen demand increases rapidly. The liver defends itself from harm in hypoxia by boosting oxygen extraction by hepatocytes to 95% when blood flows through it. When end-organ perfusion is insufficient and tissue hypoxia persists, or when severe shock occurs, this protective mechanism against hypoxic liver injury is overcome. Hepatocellular damage occurs, followed by a significant increase in blood alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), lactic dehydrogenase (LDH), prothrombin time lengthening, and, in some cases, functional renal impairment.These abnormalities reach their peak 1 to 3 days after the onset of cardiogenic ischemic hepatitis and return to normal within 5 to 10 days from onset of the disorder.

Clinical symptoms and findings Patients with retrograde HF may exhibit signs and symptoms that can be classified as left or right-sided. Left-sided HF is accompanied with symptoms that are mostly respiratory. The most prevalent symptoms are dyspnoea with exercise, orthopnea, nocturnal paroxysmal dyspnoea, wheezing, and easy fatigability. In contrast, right-sided HF is mostly associated with peripheral oedema, ascites, and hepatomegaly. Only a few people feel mild, dull discomfort in the right upper quadrant produced by a stretched liver capsule. Hepatomegaly with a hard, painful liver edge and peripheral oedemais the most common feature in individuals with chronic right-sided HF, although it can also emerge quickly in acute HF. Ascites might be present in up to 25% of these individuals, but even in the presence of ascites and lower extremity edema, splenomegaly is characteristically absent. In patients with considerable TR, a prominent systolic pulsation of the liver, attributable to an enlarged right atrial V wave,

is often noted. A presystolic pulsation of the liver, attributable to an enlarged right atrial A wave, can occur in tricuspid stenosis, constrictive pericarditis, restrictive cardiomyopathy involving the RV, and pulmonary hypertension (primary or secondary). Ischemic hepatitis is usually benign and self-limited. Clinical diagnosis of liver injury is almost always incidental when liver enzymes are found to be massively elevated 1 to 3 days after an episode of systemic hypotension. The effects of systemic hypoperfusion are not isolated to the liver, increased in creatinine level from acute tubular necrosis is nearly universal in the clinical course. Although, there are not unique clinical and physical examination findings for ischemic hepatitis, patients may present with symptoms of nausea, vomiting, anorexia, malaise, right-upper quadrant pain, jaundice, oliguria, and flapping tremor representing cerebral hypoperfusion rather hepatic encephalopathy.

These research have significant consequences for practicing doctors. First, increased liver enzymes along with negative viral serology should lead the physician to suspect HF and initiate proper clinical work-up. ECG and Doppler echocardiography should be performed routinely in all patients suspected of having fulminant hepatitis, particularly before liver biopsy. Elevated liver enzymes, particularly bilirubin, appear to indicate a bad prognosis, and there is some evidence that elevated bilirubin during HF decompensation might be a helpful marker suggesting the need for intravenous inotropic drug treatment. AST and ALT are normally modestly raised in patients with elevated filling pressure and passive congestion, but they are significantly elevated in low output situations, most likely due to hepatic hypoxia.

LDH is less specific than AST and ALT as a measure of hepatocyte damage, yet it may be significantly raised following an ischaemic liver injury. Finally, individuals with restrictive-constrictive HF may appear with hepatosplenomegaly and ascites, indicating primary liver illness, and a thorough physical examination before potentially hazardous procedures, such as liver biopsy, may reveal the proper diagnosis. We anticipate that more study and improved characterisation of hepatic dysfunction in HF will enhance our understanding of the disease's aetiology and, eventually, clinical management for HF patients. For the time being, persons with severe hepatic dysfunction in the context of HF should be considered at high risk and treated promptly.

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