

Iron deficiency in cardiac surgical patients

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Abstract

Iron is an essential element and involved in a variety of metabolic processes including oxygen transport, cellular energy production, energy metabolism of heart muscles, brain function, cell growth and cell differentiation. Preoperative anaemia is an independent risk factor for poor outcome. Recently, iron deficiency was considered only in the context of anaemia. However, negative consequences of iron deficiency in the absence of anaemia have been described for patients undergoing cardiac surgery. To date, the benefit of intravenous iron supplementation in these patients has been controversially debated. In this review, we discuss the latest progress in studies of intravenous iron supplementation in iron deficient cardiac surgical patients.

Keywords: Iron deficiency, anaemia, intravenous iron supplementation, hepcidin.

Iron is an essential component of every living organism. In mammals, iron is incorporated into proteins in form of haeme complexes (haemoglobin, myoglobin, cytochrome proteins, myeloperoxidase, nitric oxide synthetase), nonhaeme complexes (flavin-iron enzymes, transferrin, ferritin), iron sulphur clusters (respiratory complexes I-III, coenzyme Q10, mitochondrial aconitase, DNA primase), or other functional groups such as hypoxia inducible factor prolyl hydroxylases^{1,2}. Overall, iron plays a vital role in cellular energy production, energy metabolism of heart muscles, brain function, cell growth and cell differentiation^{3,4}. In the human body, approximately 60-70% of iron is located in the haemoglobin molecule of the erythrocytes, equivalent to 2-2.5 g of 3-4 g of total iron⁵, 20-25% is kept in iron stores and 10-15% is bound to myoglobin and enzymes of the oxidative metabolism⁶. Iron is continuously recycled from aged or non-functional erythrocytes by reticuloendothelial macrophages. The amount of iron absorbed from the dietary intake is low and ranges between 1-2 mg per day.

Hepcidin, firstly described in 2002⁷, is a key player in iron homeostasis and has been studied extensively within the last years. Hepcidin is a

hormone secreted by hepatocytes. It is a negative regulator of iron availability and inhibits the release of iron to the plasma. Expression of hepcidin is regulated by cytokines, plasma iron and hypoxia. Overexpression of hepcidin is associated with anaemia of chronic disease and suppression of hepcidin results in hemochromatosis with iron accumulation in vital organs⁸.

The concentration of iron is tightly regulated to avoid toxicity. Systemic iron overload is often present in patients with haemochromatosis, thalassemia, congenital dyserythropoietic anaemia, sideroblastic anaemia, myelodysplastic syndromes or after high frequent intravenous iron supplementation⁹. If iron overload exceeds the binding capacity of transferrin, non-transferrin bound iron may lead to the generation of reactive oxygen species, resulting in oxidative damage and organ dysfunction. In addition, unbound iron can enter cells and thereby various tissues, in which it may accumulate and impair organ function. An association between iron overload and development of cirrhosis, cardiomyopathy, diabetes mellitus and other endocrinopathies has been reported¹⁰⁻²¹. Furthermore, iron overload as well as iron deficiency (ID) alter cardiac output.

In the heart, iron overload is associated with oxidant-mediated injury, interference with cardiac electrical function, and formation of fibrosis, whereas ID is known to be associated with an acute coronary syndrome, idiopathic pulmonary arterial hypertension, cyanotic congenital heart disease and heart failure symptoms²²⁻²⁹.

Iron deficiency is a condition in which the availability of iron is reduced and iron dependent processes are severely compromised. Causes for ID are multifactorial and include low intake of dietary iron, increased iron requirements during growth, pregnancy, menstruation, infections, excessive blood loss during surgery or intake of medication that impair enterocyte iron uptake such as phosphate binders or antacids. Iron deficiency can be absolute or functional. In patients with absolute ID the storage pool of iron is reduced. Functional ID is caused by inflammatory processes associated with increased hepcidin expression leading to reduced iron absorption from the duodenum and reduced release of iron from iron stores.

Not long ago, ID was considered only in the context of iron deficiency anaemia. Anaemia is a well-known risk factor for adverse outcome in patients undergoing major non-cardiac and cardiac surgery. However, in recent years, the deleterious consequences of ID without anaemia have been studied in patients undergoing cardiac and vascular surgery, too³⁰⁻⁴⁰. It is important to note that ID may for example delay the recovery from postoperative anaemia. Klip et al examined the clinical association of ID and postoperative outcome in 1,506 patients with chronic heart failure (HF). The authors revealed that ID, but not anaemia, was an independent predictor for mortality (hazard ratio 1.42, 95% CI 1.14-1.77, $p=0.002$). Iron deficiency was associated with higher NYHA class, higher N-terminal pro-brain-type natriuretic peptide levels, lower mean corpuscular volume levels, and female sex (all $p<0.05$). Due to the study design it was not possible to assess iron status or haemoglobin levels over time²³. Similar results were found by Jankowska et al. who investigated 546 patients with stable systolic HF. The authors showed that ID independent of anaemia was associated with poor outcome including death³⁰.

The effectiveness of intravenous iron supplementation in anaemic patients undergoing cardiac surgery have been shown^{25,31,41-43}. It is noteworthy to mention that the iron-dependent maturation from erythroid-committed precursors to differentiated erythrocytes takes up to 4 to 6 days^{44,45}. Therefore, the therapeutical effect of iron supplementation can presumably be expected after 5 to 7 days.

Yet, the clinical consequences of ID and effectiveness of intravenous iron supplementation are poorly characterized. Iron deficiency may not only lead to impaired erythropoiesis, but also to impaired oxidative metabolism, cellular energetics, and cellular immune mechanism⁴⁶⁻⁵⁰. Furthermore, ID is associated with reduced aerobic performance and physical condition.

Acute blood loss during surgery or trauma often require fluid substitution, which often leads to dilution and thus a reduced haemoglobin concentration in the blood. In patients with acute anaemia the heart rate and cardiac output increase whereas these compensatory mechanisms may be impaired in cardiovascular patients. Particularly, in patients with chronic HF even mild anaemia is associated with increased NYHA class, reduced functional capacity and survival⁵¹. In addition, several studies reported that an increased heart rate may increase the mortality rate in patients with ischemic heart disease^{52,53}. Almost all cardiac surgical patients experience anaemia in the postoperative period⁵⁴, particularly patients with a prolonged stay at the intensive care unit^{55,56}. Thus, the risk for postoperative complications increases in patients with impaired cardiac function. Iron deficiency in these patients is detrimental, because of the increased demand for erythropoiesis. However, the effectiveness of intravenous iron supplementation in cardiac surgery patients is highly debated⁵⁷⁻⁶³. Anker et al showed that supplementation of intravenous iron in patients with chronic HF and ID with or without anaemia improved symptoms, functional capacity, and the quality of life, whereas mortality rate was not decreased²⁵. Brautaset Englund and colleagues revealed that intravenous iron supplementation only improved peak oxygen consumption and replenished iron stores in heart transplant recipients with a ferritin level $< 30 \mu\text{g/l}$, but not in patients with ferritin level $< 100 \mu\text{g/l}$ ⁶⁴. In contrast, intravenous iron supplementation 3 months before transfemoral aortic valve implementation (TAVI) did not improve six-minute walk distance, handgrip strengths and NYHA class between the treated and untreated group⁶⁵. Miles et al compared outcome data of patients undergoing cardiac surgery with and without ID. The authors found no difference in days alive and at home, ICU stay, readmission to hospital, health related quality of life scores, RBC transfusion or postoperative complications⁶⁶.

Diagnosis of ID can be challenging. The selection of parameters to diagnose ID varies between hospitals worldwide. The majority of hospitals use ferritin levels and transferrin saturation to diagnose ID. However, those parameters might not

be sufficient to diagnose ID in patients undergoing surgery, particularly in the context of inflammation or other comorbidities. The soluble transferrin receptor and the reticulocyte haemoglobin equivalent are valuable additional factors to diagnose ID. The formation of reticulocytes, the precursors of erythrocytes, is iron dependent; therefore, a reduced level of reticulocyte haemoglobin equivalent provides an early indicator for iron availability before changes in mean cell volume and haemoglobin levels occur. The ferritin cut-off values used to diagnose ID varies widely from 30 ng/ml for a person without inflammation compared with higher cut-off values of up to 300 ng/ml for a person with chronic inflammatory diseases such as cardiomyopathy, rheumatoid arthritis or inflammatory bowel disease such as M. Crohns disease. Therefore, iron supplementation can yield different results and findings of studies should be interpreted with caution. Blum et al assessed the impact of iron supplementation in iron-deficient-anaemic elderly patients (≥ 65 years of age) undergoing major surgery. The authors found that intravenous iron supplementation was associated with a significant reduction in RBC transfusion rate. Interestingly, the authors found a preoperative haemoglobin decrease of more than 0.6 g/dl in 55% of the non-anaemic, 46% of the anaemic and 45% of the iron-deficient-anaemic supplemented with intravenous iron. The authors hypothesize that the decrease in haemoglobin levels might be associated with a progressive decrement in bone marrow haematopoiesis, neo-adjuvant therapy, advancing age, or continuous blood loss, for example in patients with carcinomas. It is possible that iron supplementation mitigates a decrease in haemoglobin and the benefit of iron supplementation therapy in this patient group may not be defined by an increase in the haemoglobin value, but by the absence of a haemoglobin decrease⁶⁷.

Only a few studies assessed hepcidin levels after iron supplementation in patients undergoing (cardiac) surgery^{54,68,69}. Song et al examined the impact of intravenous iron supplementation in 103 compared to 101 patients undergoing complex cardiac surgery. The authors showed that iron supplementation 3 days before surgery increased transferrin saturation and ferritin level throughout the postoperative period. However, no difference in the RBC transfusion requirement have been observed between the treated and untreated group. Interestingly, in the iron supplemented group, a 3-fold increase of hepcidin was observed and a raise in haemoglobin level was detected at postoperative

day 10. Increased expression of hepcidin reduces iron mobilization and intestinal absorption, thereby restraining erythropoiesis⁷⁰. Considering the fact that maturation of erythrocytes takes up to 6 days, an increase in haemoglobin would be visible a few days after iron supplementation at the earliest. This was also evident in the analysis by Song and colleagues. A rise in reticulocytes and haemoglobin was not noted until postoperative day 6. Therefore, a reduction in intraoperative RBC transfusion rate was very unlikely in the analysed patients⁷⁰.

Taken together, ID may be harmful in patients undergoing cardiac surgery. Corwin et al recommend that all cardiac surgery patients with ID should be supplemented with intravenous iron⁷¹. However, screening for the presence of ID is not current practice and significant knowledge gaps exist in our understanding when and how ID should be treated in patients undergoing cardiac surgery. Further research is required to study the effectiveness of preoperative intravenous iron supplementation in patients undergoing cardiac surgery. Special attention should be paid to confounding factors such as status of iron store, hepcidin level, age, comorbidities, blood transfusion thresholds, and volume of surgical blood loss.

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