

Davide Bolignano

---

## Introduction

The pulmonary circulation is an exquisite and unique low-resistance, low-impedance, high-capacitance and high-flow circuit. Under normal conditions, the average resistance of pulmonary circulation is about 1 mmHg/min/L in young adults, increasing to 2.5 mmHg/min/L over four to six decades of life [1]. Pressure levels in the pulmonary arteries are roughly one-fifth to one-sixth of those usually found in the systemic circulation. This is partly related to the fact that, physiologically, medial thickening of major pulmonary arteries is notably lower than that of systemic arteries. As a result, the normal pulmonary circulation consists of highly compliant pulmonary arteries and a vast capillary network with large recruitment capability which is able to accommodate large increases in blood flow without significant increases in pulmonary pressure (e.g., in case of increased request during exercise or when left-to-right congenital intra-cardiac shunts are present). When this delicate pressures balance is altered, e.g. by the presence of left heart abnormalities or systemic vascular diseases, pulmonary hypertension may arise.

---

## Diagnosis of Pulmonary Hypertension

According to the most recent definition, Pulmonary Hypertension (PH) is a pathological condition characterized by the presence of a mean pulmonary artery pressure  $\geq 25$  mmHg at rest, as measured at right heart catheterization [2]. Although this invasive procedure currently represent the gold-standard for the diagnosis of PH, non-invasive estimates of pulmonary artery pressure can also be performed by echo-Doppler examination (Fig. 14.1). In this case, the

evaluation of pulmonary artery systolic pressure (PASP) is reflected by the tricuspid regurgitation jet, a phenomenon that can be observed in certain physiological and pathological conditions. If a pulmonary stenosis is not present, right ventricular systolic pressure (RVSP) PASP is estimated by the calculation of RVSP by the modified Bernoulli equation as the product of the square of maximum tricuspid regurgitation jet velocity ( $V_{max}$ ) multiplied by 4 ( $4 \times V_{max}^2$ ) plus the right atrial pressure (RAP). It is possible to estimate RAP from the vena cava diameter and the degree of its collapse under inspiration [3]. When inferior vena cava is not or cannot be evaluated during echocardiography (echo-CG), a fixed estimate of 10 mmHg is usually added if signs of central venous congestion (e.g. jugular venous distention) are not detectable. The presence of PH by Eco-Doppler is considered very probable with PASP values  $>50$  mmHg and/or  $V_{max}$  values  $>3.4$  m/s. PASP values between 35 and 49 and  $V_{max}$  values between 2.8 and 3.4 m/s can be considered suggestive, although not diagnostic, of PH. Although superior to clinical history and physical examination [4, 5], Doppler estimation of pulmonary artery pressure may become problematic when the tricuspid regurgitation jet is difficult to be assessed [6]. Furthermore, even if technically possible, the estimates of pulmonary artery pressure by Doppler echocardiography may be frequently inaccurate [6]. Other echo-CG parameters, such as right and left atrial volumes, systolic and diastolic function of the left ventricle (LV), right ventricular size, valve anatomy and functioning and the presence/absence of pericardial effusion, give useful complementary information for the diagnosis and the prognostic evaluation of PH [7].

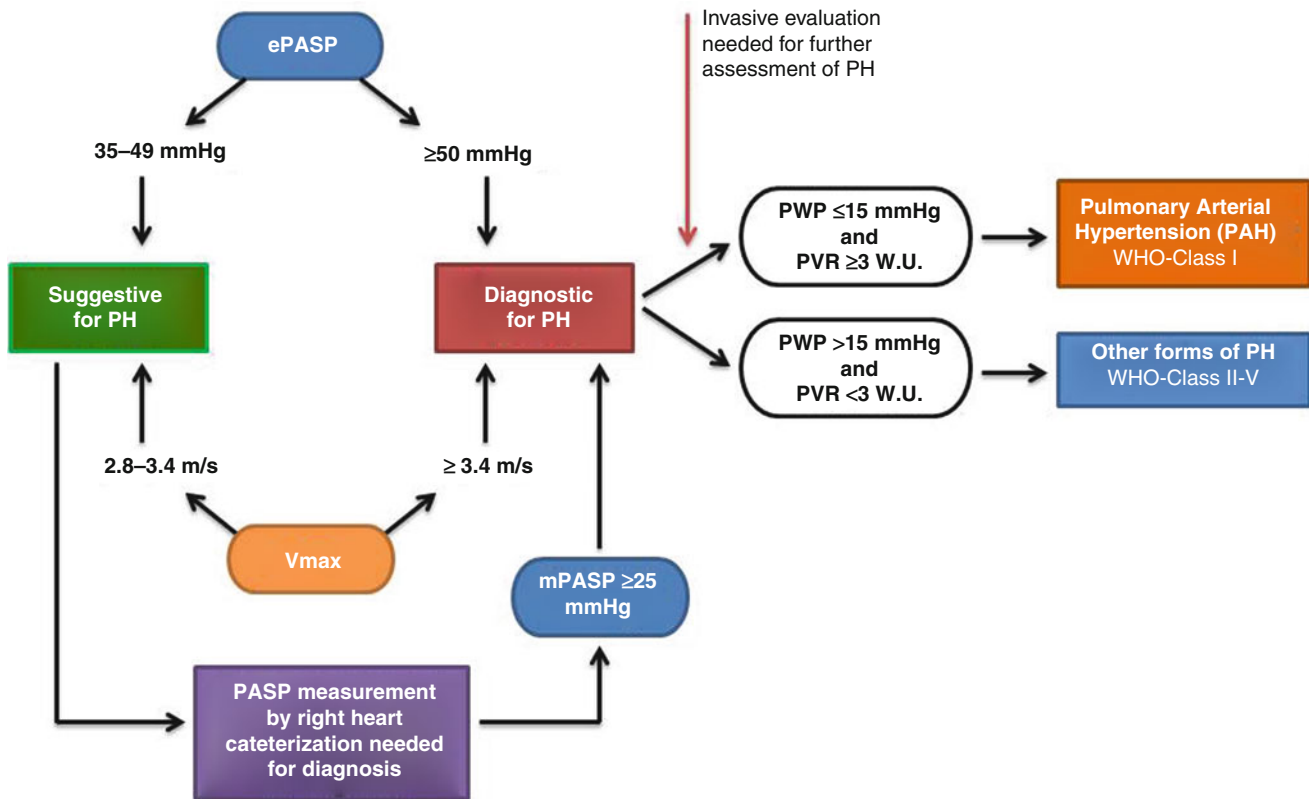
---

## Classification of Pulmonary Hypertension

The World Health Organization (WHO) has condensed all forms of PH into five main groups [8] (Table 14.1). Group I in the WHO classification includes all forms of pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH), (Idiopathic (IPAH),

---

D. Bolignano, MD  
CNR, Institute of Clinical Physiology, c/o Ospedali Riuniti,  
Via Vallone Petrarà SNC, 89100 Reggio Calabria, Italy  
e-mail: [davide.bolignano@gmail.com](mailto:davide.bolignano@gmail.com)



**Fig. 14.1** Diagnostic algorithm of PH

**Table 14.1** WHO classification of pulmonary hypertension (PH)

| Group | Definition   | Conditions   |
|-------|--|--|
| I     | Pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH)<br>Idiopathic (IPAH)<br>Familial (FPAH)<br>Associated (APAH) | Congenital heart disease, connective tissue diseases, drugs and toxins, HIV infection, portal hypertension, pulmonary veno-occlusive disease |
| II    | PH associated to left heart disorders  | Left heart systolic dysfunction, left heart diastolic dysfunction, left-sided valve disease (mitral and/or aortic)                           |
| III   | PH associated to lung diseases and/or hypoxia  | Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), interstitial lung disease (ILD), sleep apnea   |
| IV    | PH associated to chronic thromboembolism   | Obstruction of pulmonary arterial vessels (proximal or distal) by thromboemboli, tumors, or foreign bodies                                   |
| V     | PH of unclear or multifactorial etiology   | Renal, hematologic, systemic and metabolic disorders   |

Familial (FPAH) and Associated (APAH)). These forms of PH were formerly recognized as pre-capillary PH because the increase in PAP is mainly attributable to a sustained increase in the arteriolar tone. For diagnosing PAH, in addition to the above-cited criteria, pulmonary wedge pressure (PWP- that is the pressure measured by wedging a pulmonary catheter with an inflated balloon into a small pulmonary arterial branch) should be  $\leq 15$  mmHg and the pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR)  $\geq 3$  Woods Units [2].

Group II includes the vast majority of cases of PH, namely those associated with the presence left heart disorders. In these patients PWP is  $> 15$  mmHg. As the arteriolar tone is usually normal or just slightly increased, PH forms in this group were formerly defined as post-capillary. Group III and IV comprises any form of PH consequent to lung diseases and/or hypoxia and chronic thromboembolism, respectively. All forms of PH with unclear or multifactorial etiologies are eventually labeled as Group V PH.

## Epidemiology of PH

### Prevalence of PH in the General Population

In last years, evidence has been accumulated showing that mild to moderate forms of PH are much more common than usually supposed [7]. PH often remain undetected because of the long, preclinical asymptomatic phase and mostly suspected only when the clinical signs and symptoms of right ventricular dysfunction (dyspnea, fatigue, non-productive cough, angina pectoris, syncope, peripheral edema and, rarely, hemoptysis) appear [2]. In the Olmsted county study [9], a general population study conducted in a random sample of the same county, the prevalence of PH defined by a Doppler-derived PASP >35 mmHg in individuals older than 45 years was about 5 %. Most cases of PH detected in this population study were secondary to concomitant heart disorders, particularly those associated with LV function impairment. The presence of PASP was predicted by diastolic dysfunction (as measured by the E/e' ratio (early trans-mitral flow velocity [E] to early mitral annular tissue velocity [e']) and by the presence of systemic hypertension and high pulse pressure.

Pre-capillary PH (PAH, WHO Group I) is much more rare with an estimated prevalence of about 15 cases per million and an annual incidence of about 2–3 per million [7]. Adult females are almost three times as likely to present with PAH than adult males. In children, the presentation of PAH is more evenly split along gender lines. As mentioned, WHO group 1 includes a miscellany of forms spanning from PH associated with connective tissue diseases, drugs and various toxic agents sporadic and idiopathic forms. Conversely, the highest prevalence of PH (30 %) is associated with congenital heart disease [10] and sleep breathing disturbances (15–20 %) [11] while a lower prevalence has been reported in systemic sclerosis (7–12 %) [12, 13] and in portal hypertension (2–6 %) [14, 15].

### Prevalence of PH in Chronic Kidney Disease

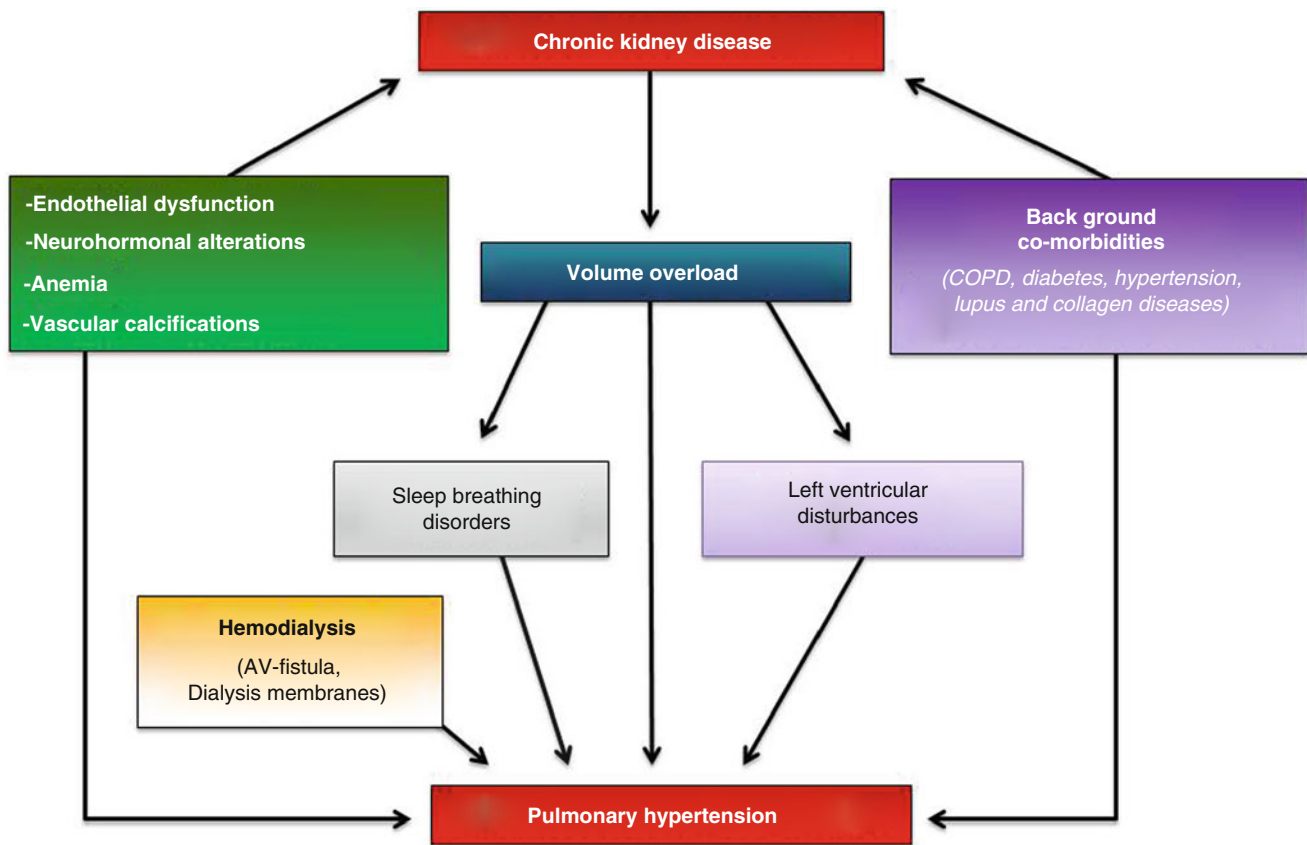
In chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients, it is now widely accepted that PH is a problematic condition not only confined to connective tissue and systemic diseases and that the impairment in kidney function may elicit *per se* the development and/or worsening of this condition. Epidemiological data on PH in CKD patients are scarce and sparse and mainly based on retrospective data. This hampers the possibility to provide precise estimations on the overall prevalence of PH in the CKD population. Furthermore, in only one study [16] PASP has been measured by right atrial catheterization, the gold-standard method indicated by current guidelines, while

in the remainder PASP was estimated by Echo-Doppler with poor or no uniformity in the methodology implemented. Different PASP cut-offs (ranging from 25 to  $\geq 45$  mmHg) were considered as indicative of the presence of PH [17–36] and in one study a  $V_{\max} \geq 2.5$  m/s was assumed as the major diagnostic criterion [37]. Such a variability in the diagnostic criteria adopted by these studies explains the reported wide range of PH prevalence in CKD patients and limits the possibility to perform crude comparisons between studies.

No data on the prevalence of PH in early CKD stages [1–3] are currently available. Among pre-dialysis patients with CKD stage 5 (CKD-5 ND), the prevalence of PH is about two to eight times higher than in the general population, ranging from 9 to 39 % [17, 19–22]. PH prevalence is higher in the dialysis population (CKD-5D) than in CKD-5 ND patients. In the only study measuring PAP by invasive methods [16], PH was present in 81 % of HD and 71 % of CKD stage 4–5 patients. In this selected population, the prevalence of (pre-capillary) pulmonary artery hypertension (WHO Group I) was 6 % in CKD stage 4–5 patients and 13 % in HD patients and the prevalence of WHO Group-II PH was 71 and 65 % respectively. With regard to dialysis modality, the prevalence of PH is lower in patients on peritoneal dialysis (from 0 to 42 %) than in hemodialysis patients (from 18.8 to 68.8 %) [23, 28–31, 33–36]. The presence of artero-venous fistula (AVF) in HD patients has been hypothesized as one of the possible explanations underlying this difference (see below). In studies directly comparing HD and PD patients of the same center, PH was notably less prevalent in PD patients [21, 23, 28, 31]. Restricted evidence on PH in CKD has been accrued in western countries [19, 30–34, 37] while the majority of investigations were performed in the Middle East [17, 18, 20–29, 35]. In five studies performed in the US [19, 32–34, 37] the prevalence of PH ranged from 25 to 47 %. This prevalence resulted more homogenous (32–42 %) in the four studies that referred to the same diagnostic PASP cut-off ( $\geq 35$  mmHg) [19, 32–34].

### Risk Factors for PH in CKD Patients

As for PH in the general population, the vast majority of factors responsible for PH in CKD patients still remains poorly defined. Because most cases of PH in CKD patients are post-capillary in nature (WHO group II) [16], these forms are likely to depend mostly on the presence of associated LV disorders, which are quite prevalent in CKD and, particularly in HD patients. Even though the impairment of left heart plays a key role in the genesis of PH, yet most CKD patients often present with further conditions able to induce and/or exacerbate PH with mechanism(s) acting at the pre-capillary level (Fig. 14.2).



**Fig. 14.2** Complex interplay mechanism among CKD and other risk factors in determining PH

### Artero-venous Fistula

The presence of artero-venous fistulas (AVF) may in part explain the higher prevalence of PH among HD patients undergoing chronic replacement therapy than in PD or in CKD patients not on dialysis [18, 28, 31]. Evidences in HD patients indicate a rise in pulmonary pressures in strict parallelism with AVF creation [38]. Furthermore, PH tends to worsen overtime in the HD population [22, 31] and AVF-flow and AVF-duration are independently correlated with the severity of PH [20]. Temporary AVF compression by a sphygmomanometer [18, 21, 24] or surgical AVF closure [39] are both able to induce a rapid decrease in the mean cardiac output followed by a stable decline in pulmonary pressures. Many hypotheses have been proposed to explain the role of AVF in the pathogenesis and worsening of PH. AVF, be them traumatic or intentionally created, is known to exert profound hemodynamic effects such as decreased systemic vascular resistances, enhanced venous return and increased cardiac output to maintain proper blood flow to all organs and tissues. These adaptations might increase pulmonary blood flow and prepare the ground for pulmonary hypertension. Because pressure is the product of flow and resistance, at any level

of pulmonary vascular resistance, increased pulmonary flow necessarily leads to increased pressure. Although important, the presence of AVF alone fails to explain the highest prevalence of PH observed in the dialysis population. The demonstration that kidney transplantation may revert to normal pulmonary artery pressure in patients who still have a functioning AVF [18] suggests that other factors than AVF might play an equally significant role.

### Endothelial Dysfunction

Endothelial dysfunction – that is a systemic pathological state characterized by an imbalance between vasodilating and vasoconstricting substances produced by (or acting on) the endothelium- is a major determinant of PH [40] and is highly pervasive in CKD patients, especially in dialysis patients [41]. The hypothesis that endothelial dysfunction might play a central role in the genesis of PH in HD patients is supported by cross-sectional findings showing that plasma levels of nitric oxide (NO, a powerful vasodilator) are reduced in HD patients with PH as compared to those without PH and by the observation that in patients without PH,

HD treatment increases NO levels to a greater extent than in those with abnormal pulmonary resistances [24]. Asymmetric dimethyl-arginine (ADMA), an endogenous inhibitor of NO synthase which is copiously synthesized at lung level [42], has been strongly involved in experimental [43] and in primary forms [44] of PH. Since ADMA attains very high concentrations in subjects with renal function impairment [45], this uremic toxin might be considered as an additional factor potentially involved in PH in this population.

### Sleep Breathing Disorders

Episodes of nocturnal hypoxia are frequent in both predialysis [46] and dialysis CKD patients [47]. Chronic nocturnal hypoxia is the key pathophysiological effect of a wide spectrum of sleep breathing disorders, including sleep apnea. Nocturnal hypoxemia by sleep apnea, in turn, is a strong trigger of PH in experimental models [48] and a close link between oxygen saturation and pulmonary artery pressure has been established in experimental studies in healthy humans and in patients with chronic lung diseases [49]. In CKD patients, volume overload is the major trigger of sleep apnea. Experimental studies suggest that hypoxemia increases pulmonary pressure by enhancing sympathetic activation [50]. Interestingly, ADMA is increased in patients with sleep breathing disorders [51]. Furthermore, circulating levels of ADMA in CKD patients go along with sympathetic nerve activity measured in the peroneal nerve [52] and with norepinephrine levels in dialysis patients [53]. Given the strong vasoconstriction potential of ADMA in the lung vasculature and the observation that sympathetic system activity and ADMA share a common pathogenic pathway leading to left ventricular hypertrophy and to cardiovascular events in CKD patients [54], it might be possible that this pathway is also somewhat implicated in the genesis of PH in the CKD population.

### Exposure to Dialysis Membranes

During HD sessions, blood membrane contact and reversible neutrophil sequestration in the lung causes neutrophils activation [55]. This may contribute to cause and/or worsen microvascular lung disease in HD patients. Neutrophil activation is much marked with cellulosic membranes and it is much attenuated, although not abolished, with modified cellulosic and synthetic membranes. In a crossover trial in a series of 74 patients the use of high flux polysulphone filters was associated with a more pronounced fall in post dialysis pulmonary pressure than the use of cellulose acetate filters [35].

### Systemic Diseases Associated with CKD and Other Risk Factors

In CKD patients the control of microvascular tone in the lung might also be affected by several pre-existing connective tissue diseases and superimposed liver, infectious and hematologic diseases. Even though all these conditions may contribute to PH in CKD patients however, collectively, these factors fail to explain the high prevalence of PH associated with CKD because most patients display PH even in the absence of these diseases [56]. Severe anemia is an established cardiovascular risk factor in CKD and its impact on the cardiovascular system includes direct effects to the pulmonary circulation. Low hemoglobin levels could contribute to PH by aggravating hypoxia triggered by concomitant conditions [57]. As a part of a systemic deregulation in mineral metabolism, arterial rigidity is increased in CKD and calcium deposits can be demonstrated in the pulmonary artery in kidney disease, thus implicating arterial stiffness in PH in this population [58]. Indeed, in the Olmsted study PASP was directly related to pulse and systolic pressure as well as to age, suggesting that stiffening of the pulmonary artery may play a role in PH at community level [9]. Experimental studies in the dog show that PTH may per se increase pulmonary resistances [59]. Nevertheless, two different studies in CKD patients [24, 25] failed to demonstrate an association between PTH levels and the severity of pulmonary calcifications and PTH levels were not different between patients with or without PH [24].

### PH Is a Risk Factor for Worse Outcomes in CKD

PH is a risk factor for cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in the general population and a large US survey, recording data on all forms of PH over a 22 year-period (1980–2002), documented a stable death rate in patients with PH, ranging from 5.2 to 5.4 per 100,000 [60]. Findings in a cohort of 500 patients with PH WHO-Group 1 [61] indicate that the presence of an impaired renal function conveys a higher risk for PH. Furthermore, in the same cohort pathological serum creatinine levels were associated with higher right atrial pressure, lower cardiac index and an increased risk of death. Data about clinical outcomes in CKD-5 patients with PH are scarce. In one study on pre-dialysis CKD patients, the presence of PH (defined as having a Doppler-estimated PASP  $\geq 45$  mmHg) was associated with a higher risk (HR 3.6) of death [17]. In dialysis patients undergoing kidney transplantation the improvement in left ventricular geometry and function is usually associated with a parallel improvement in PH [18, 30]. Information on the impact of PH on cardiovascular outcomes in chronic hemodialysis patients is available



in five studies [17, 21, 24, 36, 37]. In two reports [17, 21] the same cohort has been studied with a different patients accrual and different diagnostic criteria of PH. In the first analysis performed on 58 patients [21], the presence of a Doppler-estimated PASP  $\geq 35$  mmHg was associated with a higher mortality rate (30.8 %) as compared to PASP values  $\leq 35$  mmHg (3.5 %). In the second analysis conducted on 127 HD patients PH (ePASP  $\geq 45$  mmHg) was an independent risk factor for death (HR 2.4) [17]. In 90 chronic HD patients with AVF [37], mortality was four-fold higher in patients with PH, defined by the presence of TRV  $\geq 2.5$  m/s (26 %/year), in comparison to those without (6 %). Furthermore PH was related with impaired left systolic ventricular function and elevated pulmonary capillary wedge pressure. Similarly, in another recent study [34] PH had a 38 % prevalence among 228 chronic hemodialysis patients and carried a high death risk (HR 2.17; 95 % CI 1.31–3.61,  $P < 0.01$ ) after adjustment for other risk factors. In a Chinese cohort of 278 HD patients [36] the prevalence of PH was reported to be even higher (64.7 %) and PH was an independent predictor of all-cause mortality [HR 1.85; 95 % CI 1.03–3.34] CV mortality [HR 2.36; 95 % CI 1.05–5.31] and CV events [HR 2.27; 95 % CI 1.44–3.58] after multiple adjustment. Interestingly, the presence of PH in 215 HD patients waitlisted for kidney transplant predicted the risk of death after kidney transplantation [19]; this suggests that this procedure may not reverse the excess risk associated with established PH. Whether PH in CKD represents a consequence of concomitant LV disorders with scarce direct impact upon clinical outcomes or whether it represents a truly independent risk factor for death and adverse cardiovascular outcomes still remains an unanswered question. Large prospective studies adopting well standardized criteria including right heart catheterization are eagerly awaited to establish the risk conveyed by the presence of PH in CKD stage-5 ND and in dialysis patients. In particular, epidemiological studies specifically focusing on the CKD population on conservative treatment (therefore, without AVF) are needed to assess the possible influence of PH on clinical outcomes independently of other concomitant cardiovascular or pulmonary diseases. No less important, well designed intervention studies in both pre-dialysis and dialysis cohorts are required to definitively assess if PH in CKD represents a modifiable risk factor.

## Treatment of PH in CKD Patients

Current management and future therapeutic approaches for treating PH in the general population have extensively been reviewed elsewhere [62]. In the general population, treatment of PH varies according to the nature/etiology of this

pathological condition (arterial, venous, hypoxic, thromboembolic, miscellaneous...). In PH secondary to congestive heart failure, treatments aiming at optimizing left ventricular function and alleviating fluid overload (e.g. diuretics, beta blockers, ACE inhibitors...) may ameliorate pulmonary circulation. The use of vasoactive agents including prostanoids, phosphodiesterase inhibitors or endothelin antagonists is usually limited to patients with established pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH, WHO class I). Since LV disorders are highly prevalent in the CKD population the majority of CKD patients with PH in can be classified as WHO class II. No solid evidence on the treatment of PH in patients with CKD is available so far. Therefore, the recommendations for the treatment of PH WHO II category in the general population [63] can reasonably be extended also to CKD patients. The amelioration of underlying LV dysfunction appears of foremost importance in CKD stage-5 ND and in dialysis patients. As alluded to before, sleep apnea, which is highly prevalent among CKD stage-5 ND and dialysis patients, may elicit PH. Sleep apnea is currently ascribed in large part to rostral edema (edema in the hypopharynx). Rostral edema aggravates with supine position and with hypopharynx relaxation during nocturnal sleep [64]. Reduction or correction of volume excess by hemodialysis treatment intensification [65] or by peritoneal dialysis [66] produces a dramatic improvement in sleep apnea. Although there is still no proof that in dialysis patients this translates into a meaningful reduction in PASP, sleep breathing disorders should be systematically suspected and investigated in CKD patients with high PASP. Furthermore, on the basis of several observations in patients with other forms of sleep apnea, a beneficial effect on PH seems likely in dialysis patients. A randomized trial testing the vasodilator agent epoprostenol in 471 patients with PH and severe LV dysfunction was terminated ahead of time due to an increase in mortality in the treatment arm [67]. Therefore, vasodilator therapy, currently suggested for patients with established pre-capillary PH (WHO-I) should be avoided in CKD patients with PH secondary to LV disorders because potentially harmful while in CKD patients with WHO Group I PAH, these therapies should be considered on the basis of the individual risk benefit profile. In dialysis patients with persisting PH after correction of volume overload and adequate treatment of LV dysfunction, direct PH measurement by right heart catheterization and pulmonary wedge pressure evaluation might reveal whether the clinical assessment is accurate and can be helpful in discriminating whether further treatment for volume overload and/or LV dysfunction is needed. In few cases a direct treatment targeting PAH might even be indicated. Finally, interventions aimed at reducing artero-venous flow may be considered whenever clinically indicated in patients with PH and high AVF flow.

### Conclusions

PH is highly prevalent in CKD patients, particularly in stage 5 patients on chronic replacement therapy by hemodialysis (Tables 14.2 and 14.3). Apart from the presence of other co-morbidities or systemic diseases, several CKD-specific risk factors including the presence of artero-venous fistula, fluid overload, sleep breathing disorders and the exposure to dialysis membranes can be implicated at various level in the genesis of CKD. PH in CKD is a potentially reversible process because, along

with associated LV disorders, it may regress after kidney transplantation. However, in dialysis patients with established PH the excess risk for death may persist after kidney transplantation. PH was associated with a higher risk of death in small cohort studies conducted on stage 5 CKD pre-dialysis and dialysis patients. Large prospective studies adopting well standardized criteria of PAP measurement, such as right heart catheterization, are needed to clarify the risk of PH in CKD stage-5 ND and in dialysis patients.

**Table 14.2** Summary of main studies available on PH in pre-dialysis CKD

| Pulmonary hypertension in pre-dialysis |         |          |                        |                   |  |
|--|---------|----------|------------------------|-------------------|--|
| Study, year                            | Country | Patients | PH diagnostic criteria | PH prevalence (%) | Findings   |
| Pabst et al. [16], 2012                | Germany | 31       | mPASP $\geq 25$ mmHg   | 71                | Evidence of pre-capillary PH in 6 % of patients and post-capillary in 71 %                       |
| Yigla et al. [17], 2009                | Israel  | 127      | ePASP $\geq 45$ mmHg   | 13.4              | PH before HD initiation was associated with a higher risk of death (HR 3.6)                      |
| Issa et al. [19], 2008                 | US      | 215      | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 25                | PASP $\geq 50$ mmHg was independently associated with reduced post-transplant survival (HR:3.75) |
| Abdelwhab and Elshinnawy [20], 2008    | Egypt   | 31       | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 32.3              | Mean PASP was significantly higher in HD patients than in CKD patients                           |
| Yigla et al. [21], 2003                | Israel  | 12       | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 8.3               | After HD initiation, PH developed in 2/3 of CKD patients with an initially normal PASP           |
| Havlucu et al. [22], 2007              | Turkey  | 23       | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 39.1              | 44 % of CKD patients with PH had an AVF  |

AVF arterio-venous fistula, CKD chronic kidney disease (pre-dialysis), CI confidence interval, ePASP estimated pulmonary artery pressure (echocardiography), mPASP measured pulmonary artery pressure (right heart catheterization), HD hemodialysis, HR hazard ratio, PH pulmonary hypertension

**Table 14.3** Summary of main studies available on PH in dialysis CKD patients

| Pulmonary hypertension in dialysis  |         |                   |  |                     |  |
|-------------------------------------|---------|-------------------|--|---------------------|--|
| Study, year                         | Country | Patients          | PH criteria  | PH prevalence       | Findings   |
| Pabst et al. [16], 2012             | Germany | 31 HD             | mPASP $\geq 25$ mmHg   | 81 %                | PH was post-capillary in 77 % and pre-capillary in 13 % of HD patients. There was a significant decrease of mPAP and PWP after dialysis                |
| Yigla et al. [17], 2009             | Israel  | 127 HD            | ePASP $\geq 45$ mmHg   | 29.1 %              | PH after HD initiation was associated with a higher risk of death (HR 2.4)   |
| Nakhoul et al. [18], 2005           | Israel  | 42 HD             | ePASP $\geq 25$ mmHg (at rest)<br>ePASP $\geq 30$ mmHg (at exercise) | 48 %                | Higher cardiac output and lower circulating levels of NO metabolites in patients with PH compared to those without                                     |
| Issa et al. [19], 2008              | US      | 215 CKD/<br>HD/PD | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 32 %                | No differences in mean PH between HD and PD patients. PASP $\geq 50$ mmHg was independently associated with reduced post-transplant survival (HR:3.75) |
| Abdelwhab and Elshinnawy [20], 2008 | Egypt   | 45 HD             | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 44.4 %              | PASP correlated to AVF blood flow, proBNP and LVDD   |
| Yigla et al. [21], 2003             | Israel  | 58 HD<br>5 PD     | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 39.7 % HD<br>0 % PD | Higher mortality rate (30.8 % vs 3.5 %) in HD patients with PH compared to those without   |
| Havlucu et al. [22], 2007           | Turkey  | 25 HD             | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 56 %                | PASP was correlated directly to AVF flow and AVF duration and inversely to residual urine volume   |

(continued)

**Table 14.3** (continued)

| Pulmonary hypertension in dialysis |         |                  |                        |                        |  |
|------------------------------------|---------|------------------|------------------------|------------------------|--|
| Study, year                        | Country | Patients         | PH criteria            | PH prevalence          | Findings   |
| Bozbass et al. [23], 2009          | Turkey  | 432 HD<br>68 PD  | ePASP $\geq 30$ mmHg   | 18.8 % HD<br>5.9 % PD  | No differences in the prevalence of chronic obstructive pulmonary artery disease, asthma, smoking, hypertension and diabetes mellitus between patients with or without PH                                |
| Yigla et al. [24], 2004            | Israel  | 49 HD            | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 57.1 %                 | No correlations between severity of pulmonary calcifications and PH  |
| Amin et al. [25], 2003             | Egypt   | 51 HD            | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 29 %                   | No correlations between PH and PTH levels or pulmonary calcifications  |
| Tarrass et al. [26], 2006          | Morocco | 86 HD            | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 26.7 %                 | No correlations between PH and PTH levels  |
| Mahdavi-Mazdeh et al. [27], 2008   | Iran    | 62 HD            | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 51.6 %                 | Hemoglobin and albumin levels significantly lower in patients with PH  |
| Etemadi et al. [28], 2012          | Iran    | 278 HD<br>145 PD | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 41.1 % HD<br>18.7 % PD | Serum iron and hemoglobin significantly lower in patients with PH  |
| Unal et al. [29], 2009             | Turkey  | 135 PD           | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 12.6 %                 | PASP independently associated with ECW and LVMI  |
| Casas-Aparicio et al. [30], 2010   | Mexico  | 35 HD            | ePASP $\geq 40$ mmHg   | 48.6 %                 | After kidney transplantation, LVF and ePASP significantly improved and PH prevalence decreases to 15.3 %   |
| Fabbian et al. [31], 2011          | Italy   | 29 HD<br>27 PD   | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 58.6 % HD<br>18.5 % PD | PH independently associated with dialysis vintage and diastolic pressure   |
| Zlotnick et al. [32], 2010         | US      | 55 HD            | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 38 %                   | PH in dialysis patients was associated with an increased risk of early graft dysfunction   |
| Kumbar et al. [33], 2007           | US      | 36 PD            | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 42 %                   | PASP correlated to serum phosphorus, CaxP and PTH  |
| Agarwal [34], 2012                 | US      | 288 HD           | ePASP $\geq 35$ mmHg   | 38 %                   | In multivariate analyses, PH was an independent predictor for all-cause mortality [HR 2.17; 95 % CI 1.31–3.61, $P < 0.01$ ]  |
| Kiykim et al. [35], 2010           | Turkey  | 74 HD            | ePASP $\geq 30$ mmHg   | 68.8 %                 | Decrease in pulmonary artery pressure following HD procedure performed using high-flux polysulfone membrane  |
| Li et al. [36], 2014               | China   | 278 HD           | ePASP $\geq 30$ mmHg   | 64.7 %                 | In a multivariate Cox analysis, PH was an independent predictor of all-cause mortality [HR 1.85; 95 % CI 1.03–3.34] CV mortality [HR 2.36; 95 % CI 1.05–5.31] and CV events [HR 2.27; 95 % CI 1.44–3.58] |
| Ramasubbu et al. [37], 2010        | US      | 90 HD            | $V_{max} \geq 2.5$ m/s | 47 %                   | After 12 months, patients with PH had increased mortality (26 %) compared to those without (6 %)   |

AVF arterio-venous fistula, BNP brain natriuretic peptide, CaxP calcium phosphate product, CKD chronic kidney disease (pre-dialysis), CI confidence interval, CV cardio-vascular, ECW extra-cellular water, ePASP estimated pulmonary artery pressure (echo-cardiography), mPASP measured pulmonary artery pressure (right heart catheterization), HD hemodialysis, HR hazard ratio, LVDD left ventricular diastolic dysfunction, LVF left ventricular function, LVMI left ventricular mass index, NO nitric oxide, PAH pulmonary arterial hypertension, PH pulmonary hypertension, PWP pulmonary wedge pressure, PD peritoneal dialysis,  $V_{max}$  maximum tricuspidal jet regurgitation velocity

## References

1. Naeije R. Physiology of the pulmonary circulation and the right heart. *Curr Hypertens Rep.* 2013;15(6):623–31.
2. Badesch DB, Champion HC, Sanchez MA, Hoepfer MM, Loyd JE, Manes A, et al. Diagnosis and assessment of pulmonary arterial hypertension. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;54(1 Suppl):S55–66.
3. Rudski LG, Lai WW, Afilalo J, Hua L, Handschumacher MD, Chandrasekaran K, et al. Guidelines for the echocardiographic assessment of the right heart in adults: a report from the American Society of Echocardiography endorsed by the European Association of Echocardiography, a registered branch of the European Society of Cardiology, and the Canadian Society of Echocardiography. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr.* 2010;23(7):685–713; quiz 86–8.
4. Berger M, Haimowitz A, Van Tosh A, Berdoff RL, Goldberg E. Quantitative assessment of pulmonary hypertension in patients with tricuspid regurgitation using continuous wave Doppler ultrasound. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1985;6(2):359–65.



5. Himelman RB, Struve SN, Brown JK, Namnum P, Schiller NB. Improved recognition of cor pulmonale in patients with severe chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Med.* 1988;84(5): 891–8.
6. Fisher MR, Forfia PR, Chamera E, Houston-Harris T, Champion HC, Girgis RE, et al. Accuracy of Doppler echocardiography in the hemodynamic assessment of pulmonary hypertension. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2009;179(7):615–21.
7. Simonneau G, Robbins IM, Beghetti M, Channick RN, Delcroix M, Denton CP, et al. Updated clinical classification of pulmonary hypertension. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;54(1 Suppl):S43–54.
8. McGlothlin D. Classification of pulmonary hypertension. *Heart Fail Clin.* 2012;8(3):301–17.
9. Lam CS, Borlaug BA, Kane GC, Enders FT, Rodeheffer RJ, Redfield MM. Age-associated increases in pulmonary artery systolic pressure in the general population. *Circulation.* 2009;119(20): 2663–70.
10. Friedman WF. Proceedings of National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute pediatric cardiology workshop: pulmonary hypertension. *Pediatr Res.* 1986;20(9):811–24.
11. Kessler R, Chaouat A, Weitzenblum E, Oswald M, Ehrhart M, Apprill M, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in the obstructive sleep apnoea syndrome: prevalence, causes and therapeutic consequences. *Eur Respir J.* 1996;9(4):787–94.
12. Hachulla E, Gressin V, Guillemin L, Carpentier P, Diot E, Sibilia J, et al. Early detection of pulmonary arterial hypertension in systemic sclerosis: a French nationwide prospective multicenter study. *Arthritis Rheum.* 2005;52(12):3792–800.
13. Mukerjee D, St George D, Coleiro B, Knight C, Denton CP, Davar J, et al. Prevalence and outcome in systemic sclerosis associated pulmonary arterial hypertension: application of a registry approach. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2003;62(11):1088–93.
14. Hadengue A, Benhayoun MK, Lebrec D, Benhamou JP. Pulmonary hypertension complicating portal hypertension: prevalence and relation to splanchnic hemodynamics. *Gastroenterology.* 1991;100(2):520–8.
15. Krowka MJ, Swanson KL, Frantz RP, McGoon MD, Wiesner RH. Portopulmonary hypertension: results from a 10-year screening algorithm. *Hepatology.* 2006;44(6):1502–10.
16. Pabst S, Hammerstingl C, Hundt F, Gerhardt T, Grohe C, Nickenig G, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with chronic kidney disease on dialysis and without dialysis: results of the PEPPER-study. *PLoS One.* 2012;7(4):e35310.
17. Yigla M, Fruchter O, Aharonson D, Yanay N, Reisner SA, Lewin M, et al. Pulmonary hypertension is an independent predictor of mortality in hemodialysis patients. *Kidney Int.* 2009;75(9):969–75.
18. Nakhoul F, Yigla M, Gilman R, Reisner SA, Abassi Z. The pathogenesis of pulmonary hypertension in haemodialysis patients via arterio-venous access. *Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2005;20(8):1686–92.
19. Issa N, Krowka MJ, Griffin MD, Hickson LJ, Stegall MD, Cosio FG. Pulmonary hypertension is associated with reduced patient survival after kidney transplantation. *Transplantation.* 2008;86(10): 1384–8.
20. Abdelwhab S, Elshinnawy S. Pulmonary hypertension in chronic renal failure patients. *Am J Nephrol.* 2008;28(6):990–7.
21. Yigla M, Nakhoul F, Sabag A, Tov N, Gorevich B, Abassi Z, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with end-stage renal disease. *Chest.* 2003;123(5):1577–82.
22. Havlucu Y, Kursat S, Ekmekci C, Celik P, Serter S, Bayturan O, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with chronic renal failure. *Respiration.* 2007;74(5):503–10.
23. Bozbas SS, Akcay S, Altin C, Bozbas H, Karacaglar E, Kanyilmaz S, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with end-stage renal disease undergoing renal transplantation. *Transplant Proc.* 2009;41(7): 2753–6.
24. Yigla M, Keidar Z, Safadi I, Tov N, Reisner SA, Nakhoul F. Pulmonary calcification in hemodialysis patients: correlation with pulmonary artery pressure values. *Kidney Int.* 2004;66(2): 806–10.
25. Amin M, Fawzy A, Hamid MA, Elhendy A. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with chronic renal failure: role of parathyroid hormone and pulmonary artery calcifications. *Chest.* 2003;124(6):2093–7.
26. Tarras F, Benjelloun M, Medkouri G, Hachim K, Benganem MG, Ramdani B. Doppler echocardiograph evaluation of pulmonary hypertension in patients undergoing hemodialysis. *Hemodial Int.* 2006;10(4):356–9.
27. Mahdavi-Mazdeh M, Alijavad-Mousavi S, Yahyazadeh H, Azadi M, Yoosefnejad H, Ataiipoor Y. Pulmonary hypertension in hemodialysis patients. *Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl.* 2008;19(2):189–93.
28. Etemadi J, Zolfaghari H, Firoozi R, Ardalan MR, Toufan M, Shoja MM, et al. Unexplained pulmonary hypertension in peritoneal dialysis and hemodialysis patients. *Rev Port Pneumol.* 2012;18(1):10–4.
29. Unal A, Sipahioglu M, Oguz F, Kaya M, Kucuk H, Tokgoz B, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in peritoneal dialysis patients: prevalence and risk factors. *Perit Dial Int.* 2009;29(2):191–8.
30. Casas-Aparicio G, Castillo-Martinez L, Orea-Tejeda A, Abasta-Jimenez M, Keirns-Davies C, Rebolgar-Gonzalez V. The effect of successful kidney transplantation on ventricular dysfunction and pulmonary hypertension. *Transplant Proc.* 2010;42(9):3524–8.
31. Fabbian F, Cantelli S, Molino C, Pala M, Longhini C, Portaluppi F. Pulmonary hypertension in dialysis patients: a cross-sectional Italian study. *Int J Nephrol.* 2011;2011:283475.
32. Zlotnick DM, Axelrod DA, Chobanian MC, Friedman S, Brown J, Catherwood E, et al. Non-invasive detection of pulmonary hypertension prior to renal transplantation is a predictor of increased risk for early graft dysfunction. *Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2010;25(9):3090–6.
33. Kumber L, Fein PA, Rafiq MA, Borawski C, Chattopadhyay J, Avram MM. Pulmonary hypertension in peritoneal dialysis patients. *Adv Perit Dial.* 2007;23:127–31.
34. Agarwal R. Prevalence, determinants and prognosis of pulmonary hypertension among hemodialysis patients. *Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2012;27(10):3908–14.
35. Kiykim AA, Horoz M, Ozcan T, Yildiz I, Sari S, GencToy G. Pulmonary hypertension in hemodialysis patients without arteriovenous fistula: the effect of dialyzer composition. *Ren Fail.* 2010;32(10):1148–52.
36. Li Z, Liu S, Liang X, Wang W, Fei H, Hu P, et al. Pulmonary hypertension as an independent predictor of cardiovascular mortality and events in hemodialysis patients. *Int Urol Nephrol.* 2014;46(1):141–9.
37. Ramasubbu K, Deswal A, Herdejürgen C, Aguilar D, Frost AE. A prospective echocardiographic evaluation of pulmonary hypertension in chronic hemodialysis patients in the United States: prevalence and clinical significance. *Int J Gen Med.* 2010;3:279–86.
38. Abassi Z, Nakhoul F, Khankin E, Reisner SA, Yigla M. Pulmonary hypertension in chronic dialysis patients with arteriovenous fistula: pathogenesis and therapeutic prospective. *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens.* 2006;15(4):353–60.
39. Clarkson MR, Giblin L, Brown A, Little D, Donohoe J. Reversal of pulmonary hypertension after ligation of a brachiocephalic arteriovenous fistula. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2002;40(3):E8.
40. Giaid A. Nitric oxide and endothelin-1 in pulmonary hypertension. *Chest.* 1998;114(3 Suppl):208S–12.
41. Zoccali C. The endothelium as a target in renal diseases. *J Nephrol.* 2007;20 Suppl 12:S39–44.
42. Arrigoni FI, Vallance P, Haworth SG, Leiper JM. Metabolism of asymmetric dimethylarginines is regulated in the lung developmentally and with pulmonary hypertension induced by hypobaric hypoxia. *Circulation.* 2003;107(8):1195–201.
43. Sasaki A, Doi S, Mizutani S, Azuma H. Roles of accumulated endogenous nitric oxide synthase inhibitors, enhanced arginase

- activity, and attenuated nitric oxide synthase activity in endothelial cells for pulmonary hypertension in rats. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol*. 2007;292(6):L1480. 7.
44. Kielstein JT, Bode-Boger SM, Hesse G, Martens-Lobenhoffer J, Takacs A, Fliser D, et al. Asymmetrical dimethylarginine in idiopathic pulmonary arterial hypertension. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2005;25(7):1414–8.
  45. Zoccali C, Bode-Boger S, Mallamaci F, Benedetto F, Tripepi G, Malatino L, et al. Plasma concentration of asymmetrical dimethylarginine and mortality in patients with end-stage renal disease: a prospective study. *Lancet*. 2001;358(9299):2113–7.
  46. Sakaguchi Y, Shoji T, Kawabata H, Niihata K, Suzuki A, Kaneko T, et al. High prevalence of obstructive sleep apnea and its association with renal function among nondialysis chronic kidney disease patients in Japan: a cross-sectional study. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2011;6(5):995–1000.
  47. Zoccali C, Mallamaci F, Tripepi G. Nocturnal hypoxemia predicts incident cardiovascular complications in dialysis patients. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2002;13(3):729–33.
  48. Ressler J, Urbanova D, Widimsky J, Ostadal B, Pelouch V, Prochazka J. Reversibility of pulmonary hypertension and right ventricular hypertrophy induced by intermittent high altitude hypoxia in rats. *Respiration*. 1974;31(1):38–46.
  49. Ward JP, McMurtry IF. Mechanisms of hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction and their roles in pulmonary hypertension: new findings for an old problem. *Curr Opin Pharmacol*. 2009;9(3):287–96.
  50. Sica AL, Greenberg HE, Ruggiero DA, Scharf SM. Chronic-intermittent hypoxia: a model of sympathetic activation in the rat. *Respir Physiol*. 2000;121(2–3):173–84.
  51. Barcelo A, de la Pena M, Ayllon O, Vega-Agapito MV, Pierola J, Perez G, et al. Increased plasma levels of asymmetric dimethylarginine and soluble CD40 ligand in patients with sleep apnea. *Respiration*. 2009;77(1):85–90.
  52. Grassi G, Seravalle G, Ghiadoni L, Tripepi G, Bruno RM, Mancia G, et al. Sympathetic nerve traffic and asymmetric dimethylarginine in chronic kidney disease. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2011;6(11):2620–7.
  53. Mallamaci F, Tripepi G, Maas R, Malatino L, Boger R, Zoccali C. Analysis of the relationship between norepinephrine and asymmetric dimethyl arginine levels among patients with end-stage renal disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2004;15(2):435–41.
  54. Tripepi G, Mattace Raso F, Sijbrands E, Seck MS, Maas R, Boger R, et al. Inflammation and asymmetric dimethylarginine for predicting death and cardiovascular events in ESRD patients. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2011;6(7):1714–21.
  55. Craddock PR, Fehr J, Brigham KL, Kronenberg RS, Jacob HS. Complement and leukocyte-mediated pulmonary dysfunction in hemodialysis. *N Engl J Med*. 1977;296(14):769–74.
  56. Yigla M, Abassi Z, Reisner SA, Nakhoul F. Pulmonary hypertension in hemodialysis patients: an unrecognized threat. *Semin Dial*. 2006;19(5):353–7.
  57. Buemi M, Senatore M, Gallo GC, Crasci E, Campo S, Sturiale A, et al. Pulmonary hypertension and erythropoietin. *Kidney Blood Press Res*. 2007;30(4):248–52.
  58. Nitta K, Akiba T, Uchida K, Kawashima A, Yumura W, Kabaya T, et al. The progression of vascular calcification and serum osteoprotegerin levels in patients on long-term hemodialysis. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2003;42(2):303–9.
  59. Akmal M, Barndt RR, Ansari AN, Mohler JG, Massry SG. Excess PTH in CRF induces pulmonary calcification, pulmonary hypertension and right ventricular hypertrophy. *Kidney Int*. 1995;47(1):158–63.
  60. Hyduk A, Croft JB, Ayala C, Zheng K, Zheng ZJ, Mensah GA. Pulmonary hypertension surveillance—United States, 1980–2002. *Morb Mortal Wkly Rep Surveill Summ*. 2005;54(5):1–28.
  61. Shah SJ, Thenappan T, Rich S, Tian L, Archer SL, Gombert-Maitland M. Association of serum creatinine with abnormal hemodynamics and mortality in pulmonary arterial hypertension. *Circulation*. 2008;117(19):2475–83.
  62. Fares WH, Trow TK. Targeted approaches to the treatment of pulmonary hypertension. *Ther Adv Respir Dis*. 2012;6(3):147–59.
  63. Barst RJ, Gibbs JS, Ghofrani HA, Hooper MM, McLaughlin VV, Rubin LJ, et al. Updated evidence-based treatment algorithm in pulmonary arterial hypertension. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2009;54(1 Suppl):S78–84.
  64. Redolfi S, Arnulf I, Pottier M, Bradley TD, Similowski T. Effects of venous compression of the legs on overnight rostral fluid shift and obstructive sleep apnea. *Respir Physiol Neurobiol*. 2011;175(3):390–3.
  65. Hanly PJ, Pierratos A. Improvement of sleep apnea in patients with chronic renal failure who undergo nocturnal hemodialysis. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;344(2):102–7.
  66. Tang SC, Lam B, Lai AS, Pang CB, Tso WK, Khong PL, et al. Improvement in sleep apnea during nocturnal peritoneal dialysis is associated with reduced airway congestion and better uremic clearance. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2009;4(2):410–8.
  67. Califf RM, Adams KF, McKenna WJ, Gheorghide M, Uretsky BF, McNulty SE, et al. A randomized controlled trial of epoprostenol therapy for severe congestive heart failure: the Flolan International Randomized Survival Trial (FIRST). *Am Heart J*. 1997;134(1):44–54.