Review of Contemporary Philosophy ISSN: 1841-5261, e-ISSN: 2471-089X

Vol 22 (1), 2023 Pp 5529 - 5547



# The Interrelationship Between Work and Life Stress and Cardiac Biomarkers: An Overview for Social Workers

<sup>1-</sup>Ayidh Farhan Samih Alenezi,<sup>2</sup>-Bunder Fahad Fhaid Almathal,<sup>3</sup>-Mokbel Qassim H Alshammari,<sup>4</sup>-Saad Abdulaziz Rashid Alsalamh,<sup>5</sup>-Tariq Katab Mnawer Alshammari,<sup>6</sup>-Majed Eid Wared Alshamary,<sup>7</sup>-Faraj Theab M Alshammari

- <sup>1.</sup> Ksa, Ministry Of Health, King Khalid Hospital Hail
- <sup>2.</sup> Ksa, Ministry Of Health, King Khalid Hospital Hail
- 3. Ksa, Ministry Of Health, King Khalid Hospital Hail
- <sup>4.</sup> Ksa, Ministry Of Health, King Khalid Hospital Services
  - 5. Ksa, Ministry Of Health, King Khalid Hospital Hail
  - <sup>6.</sup> Ksa, Ministry Of Health, King Khaled Hospital Hail
    - 7. Ksa, Ministry Of Health, Khalid Hail Hospital

#### **Abstract:**

**Background:** Cardiac biomarkers are vital for diagnosing and assessing risk in patients with acute coronary syndrome (ACS), especially following myocardial damage. These biomarkers include troponins, which have superseded older markers such as creatine kinase (CK) due to their higher sensitivity and specificity. Work and life stress are both significant contributors to cardiovascular diseases (CVD), including hypertension, coronary artery disease, and sudden cardiac events. While work-related stress arises from professional demands, life stress typically stems from personal events. The interaction between these stressors may exacerbate cardiovascular health risks.

**Aim:** This article explores the interrelationship between work and life stress and their combined effects on cardiac biomarkers, providing insight into their roles in cardiovascular health. The article aims to investigate the role of social workers in this condition.

**Methods:** The study reviews existing literature and research studies on the effects of work and life stress on cardiovascular health, particularly how these stressors contribute to elevated cardiac biomarkers. Key findings from studies exploring work stress, life stress, and their cumulative effects on heart health are discussed.

**Results:** Both work and life stress have been linked to an increased risk of heart disease, hypertension, and myocardial infarction. Work stress, particularly in high-demand jobs with low control, elevates the risk of cardiovascular issues. Life stress, especially financial and relational stress, has similar effects. The interaction between work and life stress significantly heightens the risk for heart attacks and stroke.

**Conclusion:** Chronic stress, whether work-related or personal, plays a significant role in the development of cardiovascular diseases. The combined effect of both types of stress can amplify cardiovascular risks, affecting biomarkers that are essential for diagnosing conditions like myocardial

infarction. Addressing both work and life stress through stress management strategies and mental health initiatives can mitigate these risks.

**Keywords:** cardiac biomarkers, work stress, life stress, cardiovascular disease, myocardial infarction, troponins, stress management, heart health.

Received: 07 october 2023 Revised: 22 November 2023 Accepted: 06 December 2023

## **Introduction:**

Cardiac biomarkers are endogenous compounds released into the bloodstream following myocardial damage or stress [1]. Their measurement aids in the diagnosis, risk assessment, and management of acute coronary syndrome (ACS), a potentially fatal condition that manifests symptoms such as persistent chest pain, discomfort in one or both arms, shoulders, stomach, or jaw, shortness of breath, nausea, sweating, and dizziness [2]. The use of cardiac enzymes for evaluating suspected acute myocardial infarction (MI) dates back to the mid-20th century. The biomarkers utilized in that period are no longer clinically relevant, as they have been superseded by more sensitive and specific markers [3]. Troponins are now the primary cardiac biomarkers in modern clinical practice for diagnosing acute myocardial ischemia [4]. Unlike creatine kinase (CK), which typically rises 6 to 12 hours postadmission to the emergency department, troponins are detectable within 2 to 3 hours in most acute myocardial infarction (AMI) cases [5].

## Work Stress, Life Stress and Cardiac Issues:

Stress is a significant contributor to various physical and mental health issues, with its effects on cardiovascular health being particularly prominent. Both work stress and life stress have been shown to have detrimental impacts on the heart, increasing the risk for heart disease, hypertension, and other cardiovascular complications. These two types of stress, while distinct in their origins, often interact and compound one another, leading to serious health concerns.

## Work Stress and Cardiovascular Health:

Work stress refers to the psychological pressure and demands individuals experience in their professional environments. This includes long hours, high job demands, lack of control over one's work, and poor work-life balance. Work stress has been consistently associated with an increased risk of developing cardiovascular diseases (CVD). In particular, the Job Demand-Control Model proposed by Karasek in 1979 emphasizes the role of high job demands combined with low control as significant contributors to stress-related heart problems (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Workers in high-demand jobs who also have little control over their tasks are at greater risk for heart disease due to increased physiological stress responses, including elevated blood pressure and heart rate. The American Heart Association has outlined that chronic work-related stress is a major risk factor for CVD, and

studies have shown that individuals working in high-stress occupations, such as those in healthcare, emergency services, and executive management, often exhibit higher rates of hypertension, heart attacks, and stroke (Tennant, 2001). A large study conducted by Kivimaki et al. (2012) found that individuals experiencing high work stress had a significantly higher risk of coronary heart disease (CHD), particularly when work stress was combined with other risk factors such as smoking or obesity. Furthermore, job strain—a condition resulting from high demand and low control—can lead to behavioral health risks such as smoking, poor diet, and lack of physical activity, all of which exacerbate cardiovascular problems. Moreover, work stress can cause chronic inflammation, which has been linked to atherosclerosis and plaque buildup in the arteries, increasing the likelihood of a heart attack or stroke (Steptoe & Kivimaki, 2013) [6-9].

### Life Stress and Cardiovascular Health:

Life stress, on the other hand, arises from personal life events such as family issues, financial concerns, relationship problems, and major life transitions. These sources of stress are often unpredictable and can lead to prolonged periods of emotional strain. Like work stress, life stress is closely linked to cardiovascular problems, including hypertension, coronary artery disease, and sudden cardiac events. The Social Readjustment Rating Scale (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) measures life stress through a list of life events that may require individuals to adjust, such as divorce, the death of a loved one, or financial loss. Higher scores on this scale correlate with a higher risk of cardiovascular disease. Life stress can trigger acute physiological responses such as increased heart rate, elevated blood pressure, and the release of stress hormones like cortisol and adrenaline. These physiological reactions can contribute to long-term cardiovascular damage if the stress is chronic. For example, a study by Williams et al. (2009) found that chronic life stress, particularly financial and relational stress, can lead to the development of atherosclerosis, a condition where fatty deposits build up in the arteries, leading to heart disease. Moreover, long-term life stress has been shown to increase the risk of metabolic syndrome—a cluster of conditions including high blood pressure, high blood sugar, and abnormal cholesterol levels—all of which contribute to the development of cardiovascular disease (Rosengren et al., 2004) [10-12].

#### The Interaction Between Work and Life Stress:

The effects of work and life stress on heart health are not isolated; they often interact and compound one another. For instance, individuals facing high work stress may experience increased life stress, such as difficulty balancing work with family responsibilities, leading to a vicious cycle of stress that further exacerbates cardiovascular risk. Additionally, individuals who face life stressors, such as caregiving for a loved one or experiencing financial strain, may find it difficult to cope with work stress, leading to a cascade of physiological and psychological effects that affect heart health. Studies have shown that the combination of work and life stress significantly elevates the risk of cardiovascular diseases. A longitudinal

study by Tsuji et al. (2014) found that individuals experiencing both high levels of work and life stress had a substantially higher risk of experiencing heart attacks, compared to those who experienced only one type of stress. This suggests that the cumulative impact of multiple stressors plays a significant role in cardiovascular health [13].

## **Mechanisms Connecting Stress to Cardiovascular Disease:**

The mechanisms through which both work, and life stress contribute to cardiovascular problems are multifactorial. One of the primary mechanisms is the activation of the sympathetic nervous system (SNS), which increases heart rate and blood pressure in response to stress. This prolonged activation can contribute to the development of hypertension, a leading risk factor for heart disease. Additionally, stress leads to the dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, which controls the release of cortisol, a stress hormone. Chronic elevation of cortisol can lead to inflammation, insulin resistance, and endothelial dysfunction which contribute to cardiovascular disease (Black & Garbutt, 2002). The presence of stress-induced inflammation is particularly concerning because it plays a significant role in the development of atherosclerosis, where plaque builds up in the arteries, increasing the risk of heart attack and stroke. Furthermore, both work and life stress often result in unhealthy coping behaviors, such as smoking, overeating, and lack of physical activity. These behaviors further increase the risk of cardiovascular disease, leading to a compounding effect where stress not only directly damages the heart but also promotes behaviors that exacerbate cardiovascular risk factors. Both work stress and life stress are significant contributors to cardiovascular disease, with their effects being compounded when experienced together. These types of stress activate physiological responses that increase the risk of hypertension, atherosclerosis, and heart attacks. Chronic stress, particularly when coupled with unhealthy coping mechanisms, plays a key role in the development of cardiovascular problems. As stress is an inevitable part of modern life, it is crucial for individuals to adopt strategies for managing stress, including physical activity, mindfulness, and seeking professional support when needed. Additionally, workplaces should prioritize mental health initiatives to reduce work-related stress and promote heart health [14].

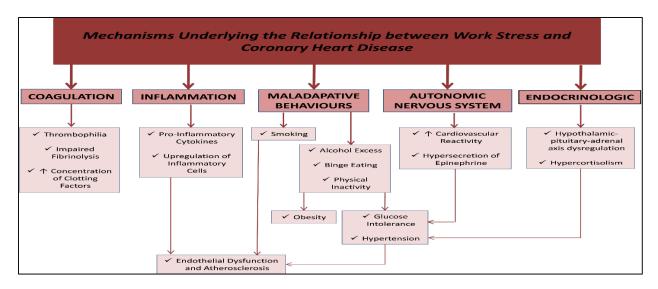


Figure 1: Work, Life Stress and Cardiac Issues.

# **Specimen Requirements and Procedure:**

Serum and heparinized plasma are the commonly utilized specimen types for most commercially available troponin assays, with some point-of-care (POC) methods utilizing whole blood [15]. However, several studies highlight significant discrepancies in cardiac troponin I (cTnI) measurements between serum and plasma. Notably, plasma results have been shown to be approximately 30% lower compared to serum readings [16]. Special attention is required when preparing specimens from patients receiving anticoagulant therapy, as such samples take longer to clot, which could result in lower plasma levels, potentially leading to a failure to detect early or small AMI [17]. For myoglobin assays, the ideal specimen is a non-hemolyzed, non-lipemic serum [18]. One study indicated no significant difference between results from heparinized plasma and serum, although results from EDTA plasma samples were significantly lower than those from serum. Additionally, another study emphasized that various anticoagulants can substantially interfere with myoglobin assays [19]. For CK analysis, serum and heparinized plasma specimens are utilized. Anticoagulants, other than heparin, should be avoided in collection tubes due to their inhibitory effects on CK activity [20]. The use of gel separator tubes does not impact CK activity relative to non-gel tubes [21]. However, CK activity in serum is relatively unstable, with rapid loss during storage. The average stability periods are less than 8 hours at room temperature, 48 hours at 4°C, and 1 month at -20°C [22]. Therefore, if analysis is delayed for more than 30 days, the serum specimen should be stored at -80°C. Fresh hemolysis-free serum remains the preferred specimen for analyzing the CK isoenzyme pattern [21].

Serum or plasma may be used to measure aspartate aminotransferase (AST). Heparin, oxalate, EDTA, and citrate do not cause enzyme inhibition, but anticoagulants containing ammonium should be avoided to prevent errors. Due to the high AST activity in red blood cells, hemolyzed samples are unacceptable [23-24]. For lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) activity

analysis, serum is the preferred specimen. Plasma samples may be contaminated with platelets, which contain high concentrations of LDH. The serum should be separated from the clot as soon as possible after collection. Hemolyzed serum is not suitable because erythrocytes contain substantially higher LDH activity than serum [25]. The sensitivity of different LDH isoenzymes to cold varies, with LDH4 and LDH5 being particularly labile. These isoenzymes lose activity if samples are stored at –20°C. Therefore, serum specimens should be stored at room temperature to prevent activity loss for up to 3 days [26].

## **Diagnostic Tests:**

AST was the first biomarker employed in the diagnosis of AMI. In 1954, Ladue et al. proposed that AST released from cardiomyocytes undergoing necrosis could serve as a diagnostic marker for AMI [27]. AST increases in the blood 3 to 4 hours post-AMI, peaks at 15 to 28 hours, and returns to baseline within 5 days. In contemporary clinical practice, AST is no longer favored for diagnosing acute MI due to its lack of specificity for cardiac myocytes [28]. Elevated AST levels are associated with hepatic diseases such as hepatitis and hepatic congestion, pericarditis, pulmonary embolism, and shock; therefore, AST is no longer utilized for AMI diagnosis [29]. Following the discovery that AST is released from ischemic cardiac myocytes, LDH emerged as a potential biomarker for myocardial ischemia detection. LDH increases in the blood 6 to 12 hours after AMI, peaks between 24 to 72 hours, and normalizes within 8 to 14 days. In the past, a ratio of LDH1 (an isoform found in the heart) to LDH2 greater than 1 was considered specific for AMI [30]. However, since LDH is not a specific marker for cardiac myocytes and its levels can rise in various other conditions, it is no longer utilized for diagnosing myocardial infarction. LDH is now employed primarily to differentiate acute from subacute myocardial infarction in patients exhibiting elevated troponin levels and normal CK and creatine kinase MB (CK-MB) levels [31]. Blood LDH levels remain valuable for detecting erythrocyte hemolysis and monitoring the management and prognosis of certain tumors, including testicular germ cell tumors [32]. Myoglobin, a heme protein found in cardiac and skeletal muscle tissues, is characterized by its low molecular weight. This property allows myoglobin to be detected in the bloodstream as early as 1 hour after myocardial injury, peaking within 4 to 12 hours, and promptly returning to baseline levels [33]. As a result, myoglobin holds diagnostic value alongside CK-MB for early AMI detection. Although troponins have largely supplanted myoglobin in AMI detection, myoglobin remains useful in assessing skeletal muscle injury due to rhabdomyolysis [34].

Heart-type fatty acid-binding protein (H-FABP), involved in fatty acid metabolism in cardiac myocytes, has been investigated as a biomarker for AMI. In a study by Kabekkodu et al., H-FABP showed 60% sensitivity in detecting AMI within 4 hours of symptom onset, which was significantly higher than troponin (18.8%) and CK-MB (12.5%). Between 4 to 12 hours after symptom onset, H-FABP sensitivity was 86.96%, comparable to troponin (90.9%) and superior to CK-MB (77.3%) [35]. However, the specificity of H-FABP in detecting AMI was

lower than that of troponin and CK-MB [36]. Despite its high sensitivity for myocardial ischemia detection, H-FABP is not used clinically in the United States and has not undergone extensive testing against high-sensitivity troponin (hs-TnT) assays. Consequently, H-FABP is unsuitable as a standalone AMI diagnostic test but may serve as an adjunctive test in specific patient populations [37]. CK-MB retains diagnostic relevance in both cardiac and non-cardiac conditions. CK-MB is detectable in the serum 4 hours after myocardial injury, peaks by 24 hours, and normalizes within 48 to 72 hours [38]. It is a useful biomarker for AMI due to its relative specificity for cardiac tissue, although it may also elevate in non-cardiac conditions such as skeletal muscle injury, hypothyroidism, chronic renal failure, and intense physical activity [39]. The CK-MB2 to CK-MB1 ratio  $\geq$  1.5 and a CK-MB relative index (CK-MB/total CK x 100)  $\geq$  2.5 improve cardiac tissue specificity and indicate acute MI [40]. Since CK-MB levels typically normalize within 48 to 72 hours after myocardial ischemia (in contrast to troponins, which can remain elevated for days), monitoring CK-MB levels can be beneficial for identifying reinfarction after an initial decline [38].

A cardiac troponin test is considered the first-line diagnostic test for patients with suspected AMI. Troponins, proteins present in both cardiac and skeletal muscles, play a crucial role in muscle contraction. The three subunits of troponin—troponin C, troponin I, and troponin T—are structurally distinct in cardiac muscle compared to skeletal muscle, making troponin I and troponin T specific and sensitive biomarkers for cardiac myocyte injury. Consequently, the European Society of Cardiology and the American College of Cardiology, in their September 2000 guidelines, defined AMI as a troponin elevation exceeding the 99th percentile of healthy reference populations, coupled with signs and symptoms of cardiac ischemia [41]. This definition was supported by the 2007 World Task Force definition of myocardial infarction, which emphasized that AMI is accurately diagnosed based on at least one troponin value above the 99th percentile, in conjunction with clinical signs, electrocardiogram changes, and/or imaging findings suggestive of wall motion abnormalities or loss of viable myocardium [42]. Troponin T and troponin I levels begin to rise as early as 4 hours after symptom onset in AMI, peak within 24 to 48 hours, and remain elevated for several days, making them useful for detecting the initial ischemic event, although not ideal for identifying reinfarction [43]. The hs-TnT assay was developed to detect troponin at significantly lower concentrations than traditional troponin tests, facilitating rapid diagnosis in patients admitted to the hospital with suspected AMI. A Japanese multicenter study demonstrated that hs-TnT had superior diagnostic value in diagnosing AMI within the first 3 hours of hospital admission, especially in patients with initially negative troponin T levels. Researchers found that the hs-TnT test exhibited 100% sensitivity and negative predictive value for diagnosing AMI, although its specificity was limited [44].

## **Testing Procedures:**

Various assays for troponin are commercially accessible, and a range of quantitative and semiquantitative point-of-care (POC) methodologies have been developed. The current assays for cardiac troponin T (cTnT) and cardiac troponin I (cTnI) employ 2- or 3-site immunoassays. These assays, known as capture assays, involve the binding of a specific immobilized antibody to the troponin present in the serum or plasma sample. Following this, the troponin is exposed to a secondary antibody and, in certain cases, a third antibody linked to an indicator molecule. The differences in these assays are related to the types of antibodies used, the epitopes they target, and the types of indicator molecules utilized [45][46]. For the diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction (AMI) and other muscle disorders, the determination of serum myoglobin is almost exclusively performed using immunoassay techniques, which offer high analytical sensitivity, specificity, precision, and rapid turnaround times [47]. Radioimmunoassay (RIA) procedures have also been described for quantitative myoglobin measurement, though in clinical laboratories, RIA has largely been replaced by automated 2-site non-isotopic immunoassays [48]. Both qualitative and quantitative methods for serum myoglobin have been developed for POC applications [49]. Currently, the Karmen coupled enzymatic method is widely used for detecting aspartate aminotransferase (AST), with traceability to the International Federation of Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine (IFCC) reference method. The American Association for Clinical Chemistry has proposed a method for small clinical chemistry laboratories that differs from the IFCC approach. This method uses a single reagent, avoids a two-step addition procedure, reads the reaction after 150 seconds, and does not include pyridoxal phosphate [50]. The lactate-to-pyruvate  $(L\rightarrow P)$  reaction is commonly employed in lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) determination procedures due to its reduced reliance on NAD+ concentrations and lactate levels, thus minimizing the risk of NAD+ contamination with inhibitory byproducts [51]. Electrophoretic separation on agarose gels or cellulose acetate membranes remains the standard method for demonstrating LDH isoenzymes [52].

### **Interfering Factors:**

While the cardiac troponin test serves as the primary and most reliable blood test for diagnosing AMI, elevated cardiac troponin levels can occur in conditions unrelated to cardiac ischemia. Such elevations may be observed following open-heart surgery, post-percutaneous coronary intervention, acute pulmonary embolism, end-stage renal disease, pericarditis, myocarditis, Stanford A aortic dissection, acute or chronic heart failure, strenuous exercise, cardiotoxic chemotherapy, radiofrequency catheter ablation of arrhythmias, cardioversion for atrial fibrillation or flutter, defibrillation for ventricular fibrillation or tachycardia, amyloidosis, cardiac contusion due to blunt chest trauma, sepsis, and rhabdomyolysis [53][54]. A study has shown that conditions such as aortic valve disease, apical balloon syndrome, bradyarrhythmia, endomyocardial biopsy, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy,

tachyarrhythmias, and noncardiac causes including acute pulmonary edema, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, pulmonary hypertension, stroke, and subarachnoid hemorrhage can also lead to elevated cardiac troponin levels in the blood. These conditions can cause an elevation in cardiac troponins due to a mismatch between cardiac oxygen supply and demand, even in the absence of coronary artery disease [45][54]. The use of collection tubes containing separator gels has been reported to both enhance and diminish myoglobin results. Moderate hemolysis (up to 0.32 g/dL of hemoglobin) does not significantly affect the measured creatine kinase (CK) activity because erythrocytes contain no CK activity. However, severely hemolyzed specimens are unsatisfactory due to the release of enzymes and intermediates (such as adenosine kinase, ATP, and glucose-6-phosphate) from erythrocytes, which may interfere with the lag phase and side reactions in the assay system. Turbid and icteric samples can be analyzed, provided that the starting absorbance is not excessively high [55][56].

# **Results, Reporting, and Critical Findings**

Current guidelines recommend that troponin testing be available 24/7 in all hospitals, with a turnaround time of 30 to 60 minutes [57]. In addition to its role as a diagnostic marker for myocardial infarction, elevated troponin levels also carry prognostic significance. High levels are indicative of an increased risk of adverse cardiac events. Furthermore, evidence suggests that rising levels of troponin, along with creatinine, are strong predictors of worsening congestive heart failure [58].

## **Clinical Significance**

Cardiac troponins are regarded as specific and sensitive biomarkers for cardiac ischemia and are the preferred biomarkers for evaluating patients suspected of having AMI [59]. Highly sensitive assays for cardiac troponin have been developed and were approved in the USA in 2017. While creatine kinase-MB (CK-MB) also has high sensitivity for cardiac myocytes, it should not be used as a first-line diagnostic tool when cardiac troponin assays are available [60]. In the absence of troponin assays, CK-MB can still be valuable in diagnosing AMI, but it is far less sensitive and specific than cardiac troponins. Since cardiac troponin levels remain elevated for several days after an AMI, they are not useful in diagnosing reinfarction. CK-MB levels normalize within 48 to 72 hours post-infarction, so a subsequent rise in CK-MB levels after normalization can confirm a recurrent myocardial infarction [61]. In cases where patients present with acute chest pain similar to angina and display STsegment elevation on an electrocardiogram (ECG), immediate intervention for primary coronary angioplasty or thrombolytic therapy is essential. It is important for clinicians to recognize that cardiac markers may lack sufficient sensitivity during the early hours following an infarction. Delaying treatment while awaiting results from these markers may not be beneficial in such critical scenarios [62].

## **Quality Control and Lab Safety**

Quality control (QC) in analytical testing is essential for ensuring that measurement procedures meet performance specifications suitable for patient care, or that any errors are detected and corrected. For non-waived tests, laboratory regulations stipulate that quality control materials should be analyzed at least twice daily. Laboratories may increase the frequency of QC testing to ensure accurate results. QC samples should be tested following calibration or maintenance of an analyzer to verify that the correct method is being used [63][64]. To minimize QC testing when manufacturer recommendations fall short of regulatory requirements, laboratories can develop an individualized quality control plan (IQCP) that involves a risk assessment for potential errors in all testing phases and establishes a QC plan to mitigate these risks [65]. The QC plan design must consider the analytical performance capacity of a measurement procedure and the potential patient harm that might arise from erroneous laboratory results. An incorrect result can be hazardous depending on the clinical response to the erroneous information [66]. Acceptable ranges and rules for interpreting QC results are determined based on the probability of detecting significant analytical errors with a low false alert rate. The desired control characteristics must be established before selecting appropriate QC rules. Westgard multi-rules are commonly used to evaluate QC runs, and any out-of-control runs must prompt an investigation into system errors, with analysis halted until the issue is resolved [67].

Changes in reagent lots can unexpectedly affect OC results. It is critical to evaluate the crossover between QC target values from different reagent lots, as the matrix-related interaction between QC materials and reagents may vary. Using clinical patient samples to verify the consistency of results between old and new reagent lots is necessary, as matrixrelated biases may be present even if QC results appear consistent [68][69]. Laboratories must also participate in external quality control or proficiency testing (PT) programs as required by the Clinical Laboratory Improvement Amendments (CLIA) regulations. Participation ensures the accuracy and reliability of laboratory results compared to other laboratories performing the same assays. Scored results are monitored by the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS) and voluntary accreditation bodies. The PT plan should be incorporated into the laboratory's overall quality program [70][71]. All specimens, control materials, and calibrator materials should be treated as potentially infectious. Standard safety precautions must be followed when handling all laboratory reagents. Waste disposal should comply with local guidelines, and laboratory staff should use personal protective equipment such as gloves, lab coats, and safety glasses when handling blood specimens. All plastic tips, sample cups, and gloves that come into contact with blood should be disposed of in biohazard waste containers [72][73]. Disposable glassware should be discarded in sharps containers, and all work surfaces should be cleaned weekly or whenever blood contamination occurs [74].

#### **Outcomes:**

The accurate diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction (AMI) relies on collaboration among various healthcare professionals, including laboratory technologists, nurses, advanced care practitioners, and physicians. A key step in diagnosing AMI is the measurement of cardiac troponin levels in the blood. Timely diagnosis is essential because early reperfusion therapy, administered soon after symptom onset, significantly improves long-term heart function outcomes. The diagnostic process begins when a physician orders a cardiac troponin blood test. Nurses are responsible for collecting the blood sample and sending it to the laboratory for analysis. Laboratory technologists then accurately measure the troponin levels and record the results in the patient's electronic medical records. This seamless coordination among the healthcare team is critical in ensuring that AMI is diagnosed quickly and accurately, enabling prompt intervention and improving patient outcomes [74].

### **Role of Social Workers:**

Social workers play a critical role in addressing the complex interrelationship between work and life stress and its impact on cardiovascular health, particularly in individuals facing challenges such as chronic stress, mental health concerns, or difficult socio-economic conditions. Their involvement is essential not only for providing direct support to individuals but also for advocating for systemic changes that can help mitigate the effects of stress on cardiovascular health. One of the primary roles of social workers is to conduct psychosocial assessments to identify stressors in the lives of individuals that may contribute to heart disease or exacerbate pre-existing cardiovascular conditions. These stressors can include work-related pressures, family dynamics, financial strain, and significant life events such as divorce or bereavement. By understanding the socioenvironmental factors that contribute to an individual's stress levels, social workers can help develop tailored intervention plans that address both immediate concerns and long-term well-being. These assessments allow social workers to offer interventions such as counseling, emotional support, and resources for coping mechanisms, which are vital for individuals experiencing high levels of stress that may adversely affect their health. Furthermore, social workers are crucial in educating individuals about the physiological and psychological effects of stress on cardiovascular health. They can help individuals understand the connection between stress and cardiovascular risk, emphasizing the importance of stress management strategies such as relaxation techniques, exercise, and seeking professional help. Through psychoeducation, social workers can assist individuals in developing better coping mechanisms, which can reduce the harmful impact of chronic stress on the heart and overall health.

In addition to working directly with individuals, social workers also advocate for systemic changes within workplaces and communities to reduce stressors that contribute to

cardiovascular risk. For instance, in the workplace setting, social workers can collaborate with employers to promote mental health initiatives, create healthier work environments, and support employees who may be experiencing work-related stress. This may involve developing employee assistance programs (EAPs), ensuring adequate support for mental health issues, and fostering a work-life balance that minimizes stress. Social workers can also work within healthcare settings to raise awareness among medical professionals about the importance of considering psychosocial factors when diagnosing and treating cardiovascular disease. This can include ensuring that patients receive comprehensive care that addresses not only their physical symptoms but also their emotional and social well-being. Additionally, social workers have a critical role in supporting individuals who may face barriers in accessing healthcare services due to financial, cultural, or language limitations. They can connect individuals with resources such as financial assistance programs, health insurance navigation, and community-based support services that facilitate access to necessary treatments and preventive measures. This is particularly important in addressing health disparities, as individuals from lower socio-economic backgrounds or marginalized communities are often more vulnerable to both stress-related conditions and cardiovascular diseases.

Finally, social workers are involved in research and policy advocacy aimed at addressing the broader societal factors that contribute to work and life stress, particularly in relation to heart health. They can contribute to studies examining the impact of work conditions, social inequalities, and access to healthcare on cardiovascular outcomes. Moreover, social workers can advocate for policies that promote work-life balance, mental health care access, and broader social support systems, aiming to reduce the structural stressors that contribute to cardiovascular diseases. In conclusion, social workers play an essential role in mitigating the impact of work and life stress on cardiovascular health. Through direct interventions, education, advocacy, and policy reform, social workers help individuals manage stress effectively, reduce their risk of cardiovascular disease, and access critical health services. Their holistic, person-centered approach ensures that the social, emotional, and psychological aspects of health are integrated into care, making them an indispensable part of efforts to address the growing prevalence of stress-related cardiovascular conditions.

### **Conclusion:**

The interrelationship between work and life stress has profound implications for cardiovascular health. As demonstrated in the article, both forms of stress have independently been associated with an increased risk of heart disease, hypertension, and other cardiovascular complications. Work stress, which is often linked to high job demands and low control, can activate stress responses that elevate blood pressure and heart rate, contributing to long-term heart damage. Similarly, life stress, arising from personal or family

issues, can lead to emotional strain and chronic physiological responses that disrupt cardiovascular function. The combination of work and life stress creates a compounded effect that significantly elevates the risk of heart attacks, strokes, and other cardiovascular events. Studies have shown that individuals experiencing both types of stress are at a substantially higher risk of developing heart disease than those facing just one type. This cumulative stress effect underscores the need for comprehensive interventions that address both work-related and personal stressors to protect heart health. The physiological mechanisms underlying this relationship include the activation of the sympathetic nervous system and the dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, both of which contribute to elevated blood pressure, inflammation, and increased heart rate. These responses are essential in the development of hypertension and atherosclerosis, which increase the likelihood of myocardial infarction and stroke. Moreover, stress often leads to unhealthy coping mechanisms, such as smoking, poor diet, and lack of physical activity, further exacerbating the risk. In conclusion, the article highlights the importance of managing both work and life stress to reduce cardiovascular risks. Stress management techniques, including mindfulness, physical activity, and seeking professional support, should be prioritized in the workplace and in personal life. Additionally, organizations should integrate mental health support into their policies to reduce work-related stress and promote a healthy work-life balance. Addressing both types of stress can improve overall heart health and reduce the burden of cardiovascular diseases.

#### **References:**

- 1. Jacob R, Khan M. Cardiac Biomarkers: What Is and What Can Be. Indian journal of cardiovascular disease in women WINCARS. 2018 Dec:3(4):240-244. doi: 10.1055/s-0039-1679104.
- 2. Collinson P. Cardiac markers. British journal of hospital medicine (London, England : 2005). 2009 Jun:70(6):M84-7
- 3. Plebani M, Zaninotto M. Cardiac markers: present and future. International journal of clinical & laboratory research. 1999:29(2):56-63
- 4. Tiwari RP, Jain A, Khan Z, Kohli V, Bharmal RN, Kartikeyan S, Bisen PS. Cardiac troponins I and T: molecular markers for early diagnosis, prognosis, and accurate triaging of patients with acute myocardial infarction. Molecular diagnosis & therapy. 2012 Dec:16(6):371-81. doi: 10.1007/s40291-012-0011-6.
- 5. Singh V, Martinezclark P, Pascual M, Shaw ES, O'Neill WW. Cardiac biomarkers the old and the new: a review. Coronary artery disease. 2010 Jun:21(4):244-56. doi: 10.1097/MCA.0b013e328338cd1f. Epub
- 6. Black, P.H., & Garbutt, C. (2002). Stress, inflammation and cardiovascular disease. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 52(1), 1-12. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-3999(01)00262-9">https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-3999(01)00262-9</a>
- 7. Holmes, T.H., & Rahe, R.H. (1967). The Social Readjustment Rating Scale. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 11(2), 213-218.
- 8. Karasek, R., & Theorell, T. (1990). Healthy Work: Stress, Productivity, and the Reconstruction of Working Life. *Basic Books*.

- 9. Kivimaki, M., et al. (2012). Job strain and risk of coronary heart disease: a meta-analysis of individual-participant data. *The Lancet, 380* (9852), 1491-1497. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(12)60994-5">https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(12)60994-5</a>
- 10. Rosengren, A., et al. (2004). Stress and myocardial infarction: a study based on the WHO MONICA project. *European Heart Journal*, 25(22), 1911-1917. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ehj.2004.06.010
- 11. Steptoe, A., & Kivimaki, M. (2013). Stress and cardiovascular disease: an update on current knowledge. *Annual Review of Public Health, 34*, 337-354. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031912-114518">https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031912-114518</a>
- 12. Tennant, C. (2001). Work-related stress and cardiovascular disease. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, 94(8), 393-397. https://doi.org/10.1258/jrsm.94.8.393
- 13. Tsuji, T., et al. (2014). Interaction between work-related and life stressors in predicting acute coronary events. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 56(6), 498-505. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1539/joh.14-0199-0A">https://doi.org/10.1539/joh.14-0199-0A</a>
- 14. Williams, L., et al. (2009). Financial stress and cardiovascular health: a comprehensive review. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 32*(5), 461-471. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10865-009-9221-5
- 15. Dominici R, Infusino I, Valente C, Moraschinelli I, Franzini C. Plasma or serum samples: measurements of cardiac troponin T and of other analytes compared. Clinical chemistry and laboratory medicine. 2004:42(8):945-51
- 16. Penttilä I, Penttilä K, Rantanen T. Laboratory diagnosis of patients with acute chest pain. Clinical chemistry and laboratory medicine. 2000 Mar:38(3):187-97
- 17. Hijazi Z, Wallentin L, Siegbahn A, Andersson U, Alexander JH, Atar D, Gersh BJ, Hanna M, Harjola VP, Horowitz JD, Husted S, Hylek EM, Lopes RD, McMurray JJ, Granger CB, ARISTOTLE Investigators. High-sensitivity troponin T and risk stratification in patients with atrial fibrillation during treatment with apixaban or warfarin. Journal of the American College of Cardiology. 2014 Jan 7-14:63(1):52-61. doi: 10.1016/j.jacc.2013.07.093.
- 18. Pagani F, Bonetti G, Stefini F, Cuccia C, Panteghini M. Serum and plasma samples for ACS:systems cardiac markers. Clinical chemistry. 2000 Jul:46(7):1020-2
- 19. Carraro P, Plebani M, Varagnolo MC, Zaninotto M, Rossetti M, Burlina A. A new immunoassay for the measurement of myoglobin in serum. Journal of clinical laboratory analysis. 1994:8(2):70-5
- 20. Lippi G, von Meyer A, Cadamuro J, Simundic AM. Blood sample quality. Diagnosis (Berlin, Germany). 2019 Mar 26:6(1):25-31. doi: 10.1515/dx-2018-0018.
- 21. Giavarina D, Lippi G. Blood venous sample collection: Recommendations overview and a checklist to improve quality. Clinical biochemistry. 2017 Jul:50(10-11):568-573. doi: 10.1016/j.clinbiochem.2017.02.021.
- 22. Simundic AM, Baird G, Cadamuro J, Costelloe SJ, Lippi G. Managing hemolyzed samples in clinical laboratories. Critical reviews in clinical laboratory sciences. 2020 Jan:57(1):1-21. doi: 10.1080/10408363.2019.1664391.
- 23. Panteghini M. Aspartate aminotransferase isoenzymes. Clinical biochemistry. 1990 Aug:23(4):311-9
- 24. Maekawa M. [Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)]. Nihon rinsho. Japanese journal of clinical medicine. 1995 May:53(5):1151-6
- 25. Maekawa M. [Lactate dehydrogenase (LD)]. Rinsho byori. The Japanese journal of clinical pathology. 2001 Nov:Suppl 116():81-9

- 26. LADUE JS, WROBLEWSKI F, KARMEN A. Serum glutamic oxaloacetic transaminase activity in human acute transmural myocardial infarction. Science (New York, N.Y.). 1954 Sep 24:120(3117):497-9
- 27. Gao M, Cheng Y, Zheng Y, Zhang W, Wang L, Qin L. Association of serum transaminases with short-and long-term outcomes in patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction undergoing primary percutaneous coronary intervention. BMC cardiovascular disorders. 2017 Jan 28:17(1):43. doi: 10.1186/s12872-017-0485-6.
- 28. Lofthus DM, Stevens SR, Armstrong PW, Granger CB, Mahaffey KW. Pattern of liver enzyme elevations in acute ST-elevation myocardial infarction. Coronary artery disease. 2012 Jan:23(1):22-30. doi: 10.1097/MCA.0b013e32834e4ef1.
- 29. Schmiechen NJ, Han C, Milzman DP. ED use of rapid lactate to evaluate patients with acute chest pain. Annals of emergency medicine. 1997 Nov:30(5):571
- 30. Yun DD, Alpert JS. Acute coronary syndromes. Cardiology. 1997 May-Jun:88(3):223-
- 31. Jialal I,Sokoll LJ, Clinical utility of lactate dehydrogenase: a historical perspective. American journal of clinical pathology.
- 32. Mair J, Artner-Dworzak E, Lechleitner P, Morass B, Smidt J, Wagner I, Dienstl F, Puschendorf B. Early diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction by a newly developed rapid immunoturbidimetric assay for myoglobin. British heart journal. 1992 Nov:68(5):462
- 33. Kost GJ, Kirk JD, Omand K. A strategy for the use of cardiac injury markers (troponin I and T, creatine kinase-MB mass and isoforms, and myoglobin) in the diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction. Archives of pathology & laboratory medicine. 1998 Mar:122(3):245-51
- 34. Kabekkodu SP, Mananje SR, Saya RP. A Study on the Role of Heart Type Fatty Acid Binding Protein in the Diagnosis of Acute Myocardial Infarction. Journal of clinical and diagnostic research: JCDR. 2016 Jan:10(1):0C07-10. doi: 10.7860/JCDR/2016/15713.7057.
- 35. Chen L, Guo X, Yang F. Role of heart-type fatty acid binding protein in early detection of acute myocardial infarction in comparison with cTnI, CK-MB and myoglobin. Journal of Huazhong University of Science and Technology. Medical sciences = Hua zhong ke ji da xue xue bao. Yi xue Ying De wen ban = Huazhong keji daxue xuebao. Yixue Yingdewen ban. 2004:24(5):449-51,
- 36. Vupputuri A, Sekhar S, Krishnan S, Venugopal K, Natarajan KU. Heart-type fatty acid-binding protein (H-FABP) as an early diagnostic biomarker in patients with acute chest pain. Indian heart journal. 2015 Nov-Dec:67(6):538-42. doi: 10.1016/j.ihj.2015.06.035.
- 37. Chin CT, Wang TY, Li S, Wiviott SD, deLemos JA, Kontos MC, Peterson ED, Roe MT. Comparison of the prognostic value of peak creatine kinase-MB and troponin levels among patients with acute myocardial infarction: a report from the Acute Coronary Treatment and Intervention Outcomes Network Registry-get with the guidelines. Clinical cardiology. 2012:35(7):424-9. doi: 10.1002/clc.21980.
- 38. Balk EM, Ioannidis JP, Salem D, Chew PW, Lau J. Accuracy of biomarkers to diagnose acute cardiac ischemia in the emergency department: a meta-analysis. Annals of emergency medicine. 2001 May:37(5):478-94
- 39. Aydin S, Ugur K, Aydin S, Sahin İ, Yardim M. Biomarkers in acute myocardial infarction: current perspectives. Vascular health and risk management. 2019:15():1-10. doi: 10.2147/VHRM.S166157.
- 40. Alpert JS, Thygesen K, Antman E, Bassand JP. Myocardial infarction redefined--a consensus document of The Joint European Society of Cardiology/American College of Cardiology Committee for the redefinition of myocardial infarction. Journal of the American College of Cardiology. 2000 Sep:36(3):959-69

- 41. Thygesen K, Alpert JS, White HD, Joint ESC/ACCF/AHA/WHF Task Force for the Redefinition of Myocardial Infarction, Jaffe AS, Apple FS, Galvani M, Katus HA, Newby LK, Ravkilde J, Chaitman B, Clemmensen PM, Dellborg M, Hod H, Porela P, Underwood R, Bax JJ, Beller GA, Bonow R, Van der Wall EE, Bassand JP, Wijns W, Ferguson TB, Steg PG, Uretsky BF, Williams DO, Armstrong PW, Antman EM, Fox KA, Hamm CW, Ohman EM, Simoons ML, Poole-Wilson PA, Gurfinkel EP, Lopez-Sendon JL, Pais P, Mendis S, Zhu JR, Wallentin LC, Fernández-Avilés F, Fox KM, Parkhomenko AN, Priori SG, Tendera M, Voipio-Pulkki LM, Vahanian A, Camm AJ, De Caterina R, Dean V, Dickstein K, Filippatos G, Funck-Brentano C, Hellemans I, Kristensen SD, McGregor K, Sechtem U, Silber S, Tendera M, Widimsky P, Zamorano JL, Morais J, Brener S, Harrington R, Morrow D, Lim M, Martinez-Rios MA, Steinhubl S, Levine GN, Gibler WB, Goff D, Tubaro M, Dudek D, Al-Attar N. Universal definition of myocardial infarction. Circulation. 2007 Nov 27:116(22):2634-53
- 42. Newby LK, Goldmann BU, Ohman EM. Troponin: an important prognostic marker and risk-stratification tool in non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndromes. Journal of the American College of Cardiology. 2003 Feb 19:41(4 Suppl S):31S-36S
- 43. Kitamura M, Hata N, Takayama T, Hirayama A, Ogawa M, Yamashina A, Mera H, Yoshino H, Nakamura F, Seino Y. High-sensitivity cardiac troponin T for earlier diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction in patients with initially negative troponin T test--comparison between cardiac markers. Journal of cardiology. 2013 Dec:62(6):336-42. doi: 10.1016/j.jjcc.2013.06.005.
- 44. Clerico A, Zaninotto M, Passino C, Padoan A, Migliardi M, Plebani M. High-sensitivity methods for cardiac troponins: The mission is not over yet. Advances in clinical chemistry. 2021:103():215-252. doi: 10.1016/bs.acc.2020.08.009.
- 45. Clerico A, Zaninotto M, Padoan A, Masotti S, Musetti V, Prontera C, Ndreu R, Zucchelli G, Passino C, Migliardi M, Plebani M. Evaluation of analytical performance of immunoassay methods for cTnI and cTnT: From theory to practice. Advances in clinical chemistry. 2019:93():239-262. doi: 10.1016/bs.acc.2019.07.005.
- 46. Matveeva E, Gryczynski Z, Gryczynski I, Malicka J, Lakowicz JR. Myoglobin immunoassay utilizing directional surface plasmon-coupled emission. Analytical chemistry. 2004 Nov 1:76(21):6287-92
- 47. Stone MJ, Willerson JT, Gomez-Sanchez CE, Waterman MR. Radioimmunoassay of myoglobin in human serum. Results in patients with acute myocardial infarction. The Journal of clinical investigation. 1975 Nov:56(5):1334-9
- 48. Hudson MP, Christenson RH, Newby LK, Kaplan AL, Ohman EM. Cardiac markers: point of care testing. Clinica chimica acta; international journal of clinical chemistry. 1999 Jun 30:284(2):223-37
- 49. Bergmeyer HU, Hørder M, Rej R. International Federation of Clinical Chemistry (IFCC) Scientific Committee, Analytical Section: approved recommendation (1985) on IFCC methods for the measurement of catalytic concentration of enzymes. Part 2. IFCC method for aspartate aminotransferase (L-aspartate: 2-oxoglutarate aminotransferase, EC 2.6.1.1). Journal of clinical chemistry and clinical biochemistry. Zeitschrift fur klinische Chemie und klinische Biochemie. 1986 Jul:24(7):497-510
- 50. Kumar P, Nagarajan A, Uchil PD. Analysis of Cell Viability by the Lactate Dehydrogenase Assay. Cold Spring Harbor protocols. 2018 Jun 1:2018(6):. doi: 10.1101/pdb.prot095497.
- 51. Liu F, Belding R, Usategui-Gomez M, Reynoso G. Immunochemical determination of LDH-1. American journal of clinical pathology. 1981 May:75(5):701-7
- 52. Rujic D, Pareek M, Egholm G, Thygesen K. [Clinical considerations in the interpretation of elevated troponin levels]. Ugeskrift for laeger. 2015 Feb 9:177(7):. pii: V11140589.

- 53. Korff S, Katus HA, Giannitsis E. Differential diagnosis of elevated troponins. Heart (British Cardiac Society). 2006 Jul:92(7):987-93
- 54. Zaninotto M, Pagani F, Altinier S, Amboni P, Bonora R, Dolci A, Pergolini P, Vernocchi A, Plebani M, Panteghini M. Multicenter evaluation of five assays for myoglobin determination. Clinical chemistry. 2000 Oct:46(10):1631-7
- 55. Greenson JK, Farber SJ, Dubin SB. The effect of hemolysis on creatine kinase determination. Archives of pathology & laboratory medicine. 1989 Feb:113(2):184-5
- 56. Galli C, Lippi G. High-sensitivity cardiac troponin testing in routine practice: economic and organizational advantages. Annals of translational medicine. 2016 Jul:4(13):257. doi: 10.21037/atm.2016.07.04.
- 57. Chaulin AM. The Importance of Cardiac Troponin Metabolism in the Laboratory Diagnosis of Myocardial Infarction (Comprehensive Review). BioMed research international. 2022:2022():6454467. doi: 10.1155/2022/6454467.
- 58. Chaulin AM. Cardiac Troponins Metabolism: From Biochemical Mechanisms to Clinical Practice (Literature Review). International journal of molecular sciences. 2021 Oct 10:22(20):. doi: 10.3390/ijms222010928.
- 59. Kavsak PA, Worster A, Ma J, Shortt C, Clayton N, Sherbino J, Hill SA, McQueen M, Mehta SR, Devereaux PJ. High-Sensitivity Cardiac Troponin Risk Cutoffs for Acute Cardiac Outcomes at Emergency Department Presentation. The Canadian journal of cardiology. 2017 Jul:33(7):898-903. doi: 10.1016/j.cjca.2017.04.011.
- 60. McErlean ES, Deluca SA, van Lente F, Peacock F 4th, Rao JS, Balog CA, Nissen SE. Comparison of troponin T versus creatine kinase-MB in suspected acute coronary syndromes. The American journal of cardiology. 2000 Feb 15:85(4):421-6
- 61. Chan D, Ng LL. Biomarkers in acute myocardial infarction. BMC medicine. 2010 Jun 7:8():34. doi: 10.1186/1741-7015-8-34.
- 62. Howanitz PJ, Howanitz JH. Quality control for the clinical laboratory. Clinics in laboratory medicine. 1983 Sep:3(3):541-51
- 63. Kinns H, Pitkin S, Housley D, Freedman DB. Internal quality control: best practice. Journal of clinical pathology. 2013 Dec:66(12):1027-32. doi: 10.1136/jclinpath-2013-201661. Epub 2013 Sep 26
- 64. Kearney E. Internal quality control. Methods in molecular biology (Clifton, N.J.). 2013:1065():277-89. doi: 10.1007/978-1-62703-616-0\_18.
- 65. Westgard JO. A Total Quality-Control Plan with Right-Sized Statistical Quality-Control. Clinics in laboratory medicine. 2017 Mar:37(1):137-150. doi: 10.1016/j.cll.2016.09.011. Epub 2016
- 66. Westgard JO. Internal quality control: planning and implementation strategies. Annals of clinical biochemistry. 2003 Nov:40(Pt 6):593
- 67. Bayat H. Selecting multi-rule quality control procedures based on patient risk. Clinical chemistry and laboratory medicine. 2017 Oct 26:55(11):1702-1708. doi: 10.1515/cclm-2016-1077.
- 68. Topic E, Nikolac N, Panteghini M, Theodorsson E, Salvagno GL, Miler M, Simundic AM, Infusino I, Nordin G, Westgard S. How to assess the quality of your analytical method? Clinical chemistry and laboratory medicine. 2015 Oct:53(11):1707-18. doi: 10.1515/cclm-2015-0869.
- 69. Dalenberg DA, Schryver PG, Klee GG. Analytical performance specifications: relating laboratory performance to quality required for intended clinical use. Clinics in laboratory medicine. 2013 Mar:33(1):55-73. doi: 10.1016/j.cll.2012.11.005. Epub 2012
- 70. Badrick T. Integrating quality control and external quality assurance. Clinical biochemistry. 2021 Sep:95():15-27. doi: 10.1016/j.clinbiochem.2021.05.003. Epub 202

- 71. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2) Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS), HHS. Medicare, Medicaid, and CLIA programs; laboratory requirements relating to quality systems and certain personnel qualifications. Final rule. Federal register. 2003 Jan 24:68(16):3639-714
- 72. Rojo-Molinero E, Alados JC, de la Pedrosa EG, Leiva J, Pérez JL. [Safety in the Microbiology laboratory]. Enfermedades infecciosas y microbiologia clinica. 2015 Jun-Jul:33(6):404-10. doi: 10.1016/j.eimc.2014.06.014. Epub 2014 Nov 8
- 73. Lo J. Biological safety in the medical laboratory. Hong Kong medical journal = Xianggang yi xue za zhi. 2015 Jun:21(3):200. doi: 10.12809/hkmj154581. Epub
- 74. Zughaft D, Harnek J. A review of the role of nurses and technicians in ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI). EuroIntervention: journal of EuroPCR in collaboration with the Working Group on Interventional Cardiology of the European Society of Cardiology. 2014 Aug:10 Suppl T():T83-6. doi: 10.4244/EIJV10STA13.

العلاقة المتبادلة بين ضغوط العمل والحياة وعوامل المؤشرات الحيوية القلبية: نظرة عامة للإخصائيين الاجتماعيين الملخص:

الخلفية: تعتبر المؤشرات الحيوية القلبية حيوية لتشخيص وتقييم المخاطر لدى المرضى الذين يعانون من متلازمة الشربان التاجي الحادة (ACS) ، خاصة بعد حدوث تلف في عضلة القلب. تشمل هذه المؤشرات الحيوية التروبونينات التي حلت محل العلامات القديمة مثل كرباتين كيناز (CK) بسبب حساسيتها ودقتها العالية. تُعد ضغوط العمل والحياة من العوامل المساهمة بشكل كبير في أمراض القلب والأوعية الدموية (CVD) ، بما في ذلك ارتفاع ضغط الدم، وأمراض الشرايين التاجية، والأحداث القلبية المفاجئة. في حين أن ضغط العمل ينشأ من المتطلبات المهنية، فإن ضغط الحياة غالباً ما ينبع من الأحداث الشخصية. قد تؤدى التفاعلات بين هذين النوعين من الضغوط إلى تفاقم مخاطر الصحة القلبية.

الهدف: تستعرض هذه المقالة العلاقة المتبادلة بين ضغوط العمل والحياة وآثارهما المشتركة على المؤشرات الحيوية القلبية، موفرة رؤى حول أدوارها في صحة القلب والأوعية الدموية. تهدف المقالة إلى استكشاف دور العاملين الاجتماعيين في هذه الحالة.

الطرق: تستعرض الدراسة الأدبيات والبحوث الموجودة حول تأثيرات ضغوط العمل والحياة على صحة القلب والأوعية الدموية، خاصة كيفية تأثير هذه الضغوط على زيادة المؤشرات الحيوية القلبية. تم مناقشة النتائج الرئيسية من الدراسات التي استكشفت ضغوط العمل والحياة وتأثيراتها التراكمية على صحة القلب.

النتائج: تم ربط ضغوط العمل والحياة بزيادة خطر الإصابة بأمراض القلب وارتفاع ضغط الدم والنوبات القلبية. ضغوط العمل، وخاصة في الوظائف التي تتطلب أداءً عالياً مع تحكم منخفض، تزيد من خطر المشكلات القلبية. كما أن ضغوط العمل، وخاصة في الوظائف التي تتطلب أداءً عالياً مع تحكم منخفض، تزيد من خطر العمل والحياة بشكل كبير من خطر الحياة، لا سيما الضغوط المالية والعلاقات، لها تأثيرات مشابهة. يزيد التفاعل بين ضغوط العمل والحياة بشكل كبير من خطر الإصابة بالنوبات القلبية والسكتة الدماغية.

الاستنتاج: يلعب الضغط المزمن، سواء كان متعلقًا بالعمل أو بالحياة الشخصية، دورًا كبيرًا في تطور أمراض القلب والأوعية الدموية. يمكن أن يعزز التأثير المشترك لكلا النوعين من الضغوط المخاطر القلبية، مما يؤثر على المؤشرات الحيوية التي تعد ضرورية لتشخيص الحالات مثل النوبات القلبية. يمكن من خلال استراتيجيات إدارة الضغوط والمبادرات الصحية النفسية تقليل هذه المخاطر.

الكلمات المفتاحية: المؤشرات الحيوية القلبية، ضغوط العمل، ضغوط الحياة، أمراض القلب والأوعية الدموية، النوبات القلبية، التروبونينات، إدارة الضغوط، صحة القلب، الإخصائيين الاجتماعيين.