A Comparative Study of Biochemical Markers in the Early Diagnosis of Acute Myocardial Infarction (AMI)

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Abstract

**Background:** One of the most effective instances of readily detected biomarkers diagnosing a very big health concern is the measuring of proteins in blood to represent heart damage. The idea of utilizing a blood test to reflect organ or cell harm necessitates a chemical that is plentiful in the target cell, can reach blood, has a suitable half-life in blood, and is preferably in a particular form that only reflects the target cell in tissue. Because contraction is the primary function of the myocyte, proteins involved in contraction or the energy required to sustain it should be suitable potential indicators. The work on diagnostic tests for myofibrillar proteins begins in 1978. Different key pieces of evidence fueled in the research. In Ist-year outcomes were identical in chest pain patients whose acute myocardial infarction (AMI) was ruled out by electrocardiography and cardiac enzymes, demonstrating that the existing diagnostic tools were not beneficial for risk prediction and treatment recommendations. Second, CK and lactate dehydrogenase isoenzymes were brought into clinical practice and demonstrated to have higher specificity and sensitivity than traditional tests. All of the biomarkers used to diagnose cardiac injury are involved in contraction or energy metabolism, but the markers evolved via trial and error, beginning with transaminases in the 1950s and ending with troponins in the 1990s. This background is discussed, along with observations on my experiences establishing CK-MB and Troponin I assays. **Methods:** 140 individuals with AMI are included who are diagnosed using WHO criteria. A cross-sectional study with purposive sampling technique is conducted in wazirabad institute of Cardiology. This research is last around 6 months. Before the examinations, blood samples are obtained from patients by vein puncture using syringes and preserved in clot tubes. The research includes patients experiencing chest pressure, tightness, or discomfort, shortness of breath, and irregular cardiac rhythms on ECG. Patients having a normal ECG are not included in the study. Different equipments are utilized to assess appropriate heart function and to obtain serum for the identification of various cardiac biomarkers. **Result:** The sensitivities of all biochemical markers change depending on the time of infarction, as previously demonstrated and expected from a patho-physiologic standpoint, the blood sample of all the patients was collected and used for further investigation in the Lab. In the current study, 140 patients are enrolled, and all of the patients who had a single episode of AMI had their ECGs taken. All of the patients' ECGs are abnormal. In compared to other Bio-Cardiac Markers, the Troponin –I has a higher ratio of patients, according to the present findings. When a person undergoes AMI, the first protein that is released is troponin-I. When these tests are conducted over a period of time, they provide us with a quick assessment of the severity of AMI. As a result of the current findings, patients have a higher level of Trop-I in their blood when they experience their first episode of AMI. In this situation, the patient should go to the nearest health care center's emergency room as quickly as feasible. **Conclusion:** The traditional enzymatic assays of creatine kinase (CK), CK-MB (activity), and lactate dehydrogenase are rapidly being replaced by mass measurements of myoglobin, CKMB, and troponin T and troponin I (Tnl) I “ to achieve high diagnostic sensitivity and specificity within a few hours from the onset of tissue necrosis; the ultimate goal is the early and appropriate management of patients' conditions. We compared the diagnostic sensitivity and specificity obtained by measuring various biochemical markers, some of which are widely used, and concluded that Troponin I is the first cardiac marker that releases simultaneously after the first episode of AMI when performed as single tests and in parallel and serial modes.

**Keywords:** biomarkers diagnosing, heart damage, blood test, patho-physiologic standpoint, biochemical markers, AMI.

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**INTRODUCTION**

An unstable ischemia syndrome causes an acute myocardial infarction, which is characterized by myocardial necrosis. Clinical examination, electrocardiogram (ECG), biochemical tests, invasive and noninvasive imaging, and pathological evaluation are used to diagnose and assess the disease in practice [1]. Over the last three to four decades, the epidemiologic features of acute myocardial infarction have evolved considerably. In the United States, the adjusted incidence rate of hospitalization for acute myocardial infarction or fatal coronary artery disease has decreased by 4 to 5% each year since 1987 [2].
Despite this, there are around 550,000 new occurrences and 200,000 recurring bouts of acute myocardial infarction per year. Ischemic heart disease has overtaken cancer as the largest cause of disease burden as measured in disability-adjusted life years throughout the world [3].

Concurrently, the global burden of cardiovascular disease and acute myocardial infarction has migrated to low in middle-income nations, which now account for more than 80% of all cardiovascular disease fatalities globally. Myocardial infarction is almost always caused by atherosclerosis. Hyperlipidemia, diabetes, smoking, hypertension, gender, and age are all key risk factors for atherosclerosis [4]. Inflammation and endothelial dysfunction play a crucial role in the formation of atherosclerotic plaques. The creation of an atherosclerotic plaque, which consists of a central lipid core surrounded by foamy macrophages and smooth muscle cells and capped by a fibrous cap, is characterized by lipid buildup in the artery walls [5].

The lipid content of the plaque communicates with the blood flowing through the artery lumen when the fibrous cap ruptures. The platelets are activated by the tissue factor produced by macrophages, resulting in the development of an intraluminal thrombus [6]. Finally, the thrombus blockage lowers the blood supply to the myocardial tissues, resulting in ischemia and necrosis, finally leading to myocardial infarction [7].

Troponins are a compound of three protein subunits found on the thin filaments of skeletal and cardiac muscle fibers, especially troponin C, troponin T, and troponin I. The calcium-binding component is troponin C, the tropomyosin-binding component is troponin T, and the inhibitory component is troponin I [8]. Troponin C is not very selective for myocardial damage since its isoforms are same in skeletal and cardiac muscle. Troponin T and troponin I isoforms vary in skeletal and cardiac muscle, making them highly selective for cardiac tissue necrosis. Troponin T is mostly found linked to the contractile components of cardiac cells, although it can also be found loose in the cytoplasm [9]. Coronary artery disease (CAD) was linked to myocardial infarction (MI) and heart failure, which were responsible for the majority of deaths worldwide. Acute myocardial infarction (AMI) is linked to coronary artery occlusion, myocardial ischemia, myocardial necrosis, and the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) [10].

The presence or absence of ST-segment elevation on the ECG is used to classify acute myocardial infarction, which is further divided into six types: infarction caused by coronary Atherothrombosis (type 1), infarction caused by a supply-demand mismatch that is not the product of acute Atherothrombosis (type 2), infarction resulting in abrupt mortality with no time for biomarker or ECG confirmation (type 3), infarction following percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) (type 4a), infarction following coronary stent thrombosis (type 4b), and infarction following coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) (type 4c) (type 5). In the Western world, coronary artery disease (CAD) and its final result, myocardial infarction (MI), continue to be a major cause of death and morbidity [11]. Over the last 50 years, it has been known that the thrombotic events that occur after an atherosclerotic plaque rupture induce blockage of the coronary artery, cutting off blood and oxygen flow to the myocardial and resulting in infarction. Following an infarction, myocardial necrosis is followed by cardiac failure, myocardial rupture, or arrhythmias [3].

| Marker  | Time of release after MI | Mean peak time | Time of return to normal |
|---------|--------------------------|----------------|--------------------------|
| CK-MB   | 3–12 h                   | 18–24 h        | 48–72 h                  |
| Myoglobin| 2–3 h                    | 9–12 h         | 24 h                     |
| CTnI    | 3–12 h                   | 24 h           | 5–10 days                |
| CTnT    | 3–12 h                   | 12–48 h        | 5–14 days                |
| LMA     | 0–30 min                 | 6 h            | 12–24 h                  |
| LDH     | 12–24 h                  | 24–48 h        | 10–14 days               |
| AST     | 12–24 h                  | 24–48 h        | 10–14 days               |
| HFABP   | 1–5 h                    | 5–10 h         | 24 h                     |

Figure 1: Various cardiac markers used for early diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction.

A biomarker is a trait that may be tested and assessed objectively as a sign of normal biologic activities, pathogenic processes, or pharmacologic reactions to a therapeutic intervention. The optimal biomarker for diagnosing myocardial damage is one that is expressed at relatively high levels inside cardiac tissue, has a high clinical sensitivity and specificity, and can be detected in the bloodstream soon after the beginning of chest discomfort. Figure 1 depicts many cardiac indicators utilized in the early detection of AMI. When the patient’s history and ECG are non-diagnostic or inconclusive, cardiac markers play a significant role in detecting AMI. Previous research has shown that hyperglycemia enhances ROS-induced cardiac...
problems by interacting with lipids, protein, and DNA; however, myocardial antioxidants protect against this oxidative damage [12].

Antioxidant activity is reduced in diabetic patients, according to several studies, which may exacerbate the oxidative stress-induced pathophysiology of AMI. Diabetes, dyslipidemia, hypertension, familial history, obesity, and smoking are all well-known risk factors for AMI [5]. The traditional enzymatic assays of total creatinine kinase (CK), CKMB (activity), and lactate dehydrogenase are rapidly being replaced by mass measurements of myoglobin, CKMB, and troponin T and troponin I (TnI) "* to achieve high diagnostic sensitivity and specificity within a few hours from the onset of tissue necrosis; the ultimate goal is the early and appropriate management of patient conditions [13]. However, the wide range of improved analytic procedures for measuring previously established analytes and the introduction of new markers forces us to make decisions about how to use laboratory resources more efficiently and effectively, as well as how to reduce the number of tests required in an emergency [14].

The wide range of improved analytic procedures for measuring previously established analytes and the introduction of new markers forces us to make decisions about how to use laboratory resources more efficiently and cost-effectively, as well as how to reduce the number of tests required in an emergency situation [15]. The purpose of this study is to see if biochemical markers can be used in the early detection of acute Myocardial Infarction. To find out how cardiac biochemical indicators fluctuate and how accurate they are in AMI patients. We examined the diagnostic sensitivity and specificity obtained by assessing several biochemical markers, some commonly used (total CK and its iso enzyme MB) as single tests and in parallel and serial modalities in Cardiac Patients.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

In this study, 140 individuals with AMI are included who are diagnosed using WHO criteria. A cross-sectional study with purposive sampling technique is conducted in Wazirabad institute of Cardiology. This research done in around 6 months. Before the examinations, blood samples obtained from patients by vein puncture using syringes and preserved in clot tubes. The data is collected with the patients' permission. The research includes patients experiencing chest pressure, tightness, or discomfort, shortness of breath, and irregular cardiac rhythms on ECG. Patients having a normal ECG are not included in the study. Different equipment’s are utilized to assess appropriate heart function and to obtain serum for the identification of various cardiac biomarkers.

Test-Taking Equipment Includes

Electrocardiogram (ECG) & Centrifuge Machine

To extract serum from whole blood, a centrifuge machine spins at 2000rpm for 3 minutes.

Electrocardiogram (ECG)

Patients’ cardiac rhythms are measured using an electrocardiogram (ECG). An electrocardiogram (ECG) is one of the most basic and quick procedures for assessing the heart. Electrodes (tiny, sticky plastic patches) are applied to certain areas of the chest, arms, and legs. Lead cables connect the electrodes to an ECG machine. The heart's electrical activity is then recorded, analysed, and printed. There is no electrical current transmitted into the body. Natural electrical impulses help maintain blood flowing properly by coordinating contractions in different areas of the heart. These impulses are recorded by an ECG, which shows how rapidly the heart is beating, the rhythm of the heart beats (steady or irregular), and the intensity and timing of the electrical impulses as they travel through the various sections of the heart. Many cardiac diseases can be detected by changes in an ECG.

Testing for Cardiac Biochemical Markers

Biochemical markers testing are done by using I-Chroma and chemistry analyzer. I-Chroma is a portable fluorescence device that is used to measure analytes concentrations in whole blood and urine. Immunometry tests take 5 to 15 minutes to complete and provide a quantitative result.

Troponin- I

The Cardiac Troponin- I Test is a latex enhanced immunological turbid metric assay developed by Diazyme. Agglutination occurs when cardiac Troponin-I in the sample binds to particular anti-Troponin-I antibodies coated on latex particles. The quantity of Troponin-I in the sample is proportional to the degree of turbidity generated by agglutination, which may be quantified optically. I-Chroma is used to perform this test.

D-Dimer

The D-Dimer Test is a latex enhanced immune turbid metric assay developed by Diazyme. Agglutination occurs when D-Dimer proteins in the sample bind to a particular anti-Dimer antibody coated on latex particles. The quantity of D-Dimer in the sample determines the degree of turbidity induced by agglutination, which may be quantified optically. D-Dimer biochemical marker checked by I-Chroma.

Myoglobin

The Myoglobin Test from Diazyme is a latex enhanced immunological turbid metric assay. Agglutination occurs when myoglobin in a sample reacts with anti-myoglobin antibodies that have been
sensitised to latex particles in an antigen-antibody response. A change in absorbance (570 nm) indicates agglutination, with the size of the change corresponding to the amount of myoglobin in the sample. The actual concentration is then calculated using a calibration curve made up of known concentration calibrators. To check myoglobin biochemical marker, we use I-Chroma.

**Lactate Dehydrogenase (LDH)**

On the Chemistry Analyzer, LDH is measured. It is a lactate-pyruvate oxidoreductase that catalyzes the conversion of lactate to pyruvate. Acute myocardial infarction causes cardiac cells to release LDH into the circulation, where it is detected in higher-than-normal concentrations. As a result, LDH is frequently used to assess the existence of tissue or cell damage. The non-radioactive colorimetric LDH test is based on the reduction of the tetrazolium salt MTT to a reduced form of MTT with an absorption maximum at 565 nm in a NADH-coupled enzymatic process. The intensity of the purple hue produced is related to the activity of the enzyme.

**Aspartate Amino-Transferase (AST)**

On the Chemistry Analyzer, AST is conducted. The AST catalyzes the reversible conversion of L-aspartate and ketoglutarate to oxaloacetate and L-glutamate in this reaction. In the presence of malate dehydrogenase, the oxaloacetate is reduced to malate, while NADH is oxidized to NAD.

**Chemistry Analyzer**

An automated biochemical analyzer measures the amount of a specified component in blood by measuring the amount of color change. The colorimetric analysis technique is a method for determining the degree of color change.

**RESULT**

The sensitivities of all biochemical markers change depending on the time of infarction, as previously demonstrated and expected from a pathophysiologic standpoint, the blood sample of all the patients was collected and used for further investigation in the Lab. In the current study, 140 patients were enrolled, and all of the patients who had a single episode of AMI had their ECGs taken. All of the patients’ ECGs were abnormal, as indicated in (Table 1 and Graph1).

The level (Troponin I) in the blood was abnormal in 114 patients (81.4%) and normal in 26 patients (18.6%) out of a total of 140 patients (Table 2 and Graph2). On the other hand, (Table 3 and Graph3) shows that the level of (LDH) in the blood was abnormal in 98 patients (70%) and normal in 42 patients (30%) out of a total of 140 patients. Aside from that, the (Table 4 and Graph 4) show us the amount of (D-Dimer) in blood, which was abnormal in 99 patients (70.7%) and normal in 41 patients (29.3%) out of a total of 140 patients. Another cardiac marker, (CK-MB), was abnormal in 96 individuals (68.6%) and normal in 44 patients (31.4%) out of a total of 140 patients as Shown in (Table 5 and Graph 5). Cardiac markers are utilized to determine the severity and duration of an AMI in patients. These cardiac markers are proteins that rise in the blood following an AMI. As a result of the damage to the heart muscles caused by AMI, several proteins are released.

After an AMI, cardiac markers (AST) released, and in this study, AST values were abnormal in 101 patients (72.1%) and normal in 39 patients (27.9%) out of a total of 140 patients (Table and Graph 6). Cardiac Marker (NT-PRO- BNP) was abnormal in 96 patients’ blood, with a percentage of 68.6%, and normal in 44 patients, with a percentage of 31.4 percent, out of 140 patients, as indicated in the table (Table and Graph 7). Troponin-T is another cardiac marker that is abnormal in 100 patients (71.4%) and normal in 40 patients (28.6%) out of a total of 140 patients, as indicated in the table (Table and Graph 8). As indicated in the table, the final Cardiac Marker (CPK) was abnormal in 99 patients (70.7%) and normal in 41 patients (29.5%) out of a total of 140 patients (Table and Graph 9). Cardiac Markers play a very important role for the investigation of AMI based on these tests the treatment of patients will start.

The comparison of ECG and Troponin I show that an abnormal ECG is the first sign that shows whether the patient's heart is working properly or not, but not every abnormal ECG demonstrates that the patient has AMI; it could be due to another issue such as high blood pressure, hypertension, or other factors. As shown in (Graph 10), the Troponin I Level was abnormal in 114 patients, while the Troponin I Level was normal in the remaining 24 patients but there ECG was Abnormal. On the other hand, as shown in (Graph 11), the correlation of ECG with LDH revealed that the level of LDH was abnormal in 98 patients, while the ECG of the remaining 42 patients out of 140 was normal. The ECG and D-Dimer Correlation are seen in (Graph 12). It shows that 99 patients have an aberrant LDH level, whereas 41 patients have a normal LDH level, yet 41 patients’ ECGs are abnormal in the correlation. The (Graph 13) demonstrates the correlation between ECG and CK-MB, revealing that 96 patients have an aberrant level of CK-MB in their blood and 44 patients have a normal level of CK-MB, but the ECG ratio in those 44 patients with a normal CK-MB level is abnormal. A portion of this (Graph 14) shows the relationship between ECG and AST, with 101 individuals having aberrant AST levels and the other 39 having normal AST levels but atypical ECG patterns.
In addition, (Graph 15) depicts the correlation between the ECG and NT-PRO-BNP, with 96 patients having an abnormal level of NT-PRO-BNP and 44 patients having a normal level of NT-PRO-BNP out of a total of 140. The ECG of normal NT-PRO-BNP patients is abnormal. The association between ECG and Troponin-T is seen in (Graph 16), where the Troponin-T level was aberrant in 100 patients and normal in 40, yet these normal 40 individuals had an irregular ECG pattern. Finally, (Graph 17) depicts the Correlation between ECG and CPK, which demonstrates that 99 individuals have an aberrant amount of CPK in their blood, whereas the remaining 41 have a normal level of CPK and have an irregular ECG pattern. In compared to other Bio-Cardiac Markers, the Troponin–I has a higher ratio of patients, according to the present findings. When a person undergoes AMI, the first protein that is released is troponin-I. When these tests are conducted over a period of time, they provide us with a quick assessment of the severity of AMI. As a result of the current findings, patients have a higher level of Trop-I in their blood when they experience their first episode of AMI. In this situation, the patient should go to the nearest health care center's emergency room as quickly as feasible.

### Tables Statistics

|        | ECG | TropI | LDH | DDimer | CKMB |
|--------|-----|-------|-----|--------|------|
| N      | 140 | 140   | 140 | 140    | 140  |
| Missing| 0   | 0     | 0   | 0      | 0    |

**Table 1:** Demonstrates the Frequency of ECG patients included in the Research

| ECG     | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Abnormal  | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |
| Normal  |           |         |               |                    |

**Table 2:** Demonstrates the Frequency of (Trop I) in patients included in the Research

| Trop-I  | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Abnormal  | 114     | 81.4          | 81.4               |
| Normal  |           | 26      | 18.6          | 100.0              |
| Total   |           | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |

**Table 3:** Demonstrates the Frequency of (LDH) in patients included in the Research

| LDH     | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Abnormal  | 98      | 70.0          | 70.0               |
| Normal  |           | 42      | 30.0          | 100.0              |
| Total   |           | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |

**Table 4:** Demonstrates the Frequency of D-Dimer in patients included in the Research

| D-Dimer | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Abnormal  | 99      | 70.7          | 70.7               |
| Normal  |           | 41      | 29.3          | 100.0              |
| Total   |           | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |

**Table 5:** Demonstrates the Frequency of (CK-MB) in patients included in the Research

| CKMB    | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Abnormal  | 96      | 68.6          | 68.6               |
| Normal  |           | 44      | 31.4          | 100.0              |
| Total   |           | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |

**Table 6:** Demonstrates the Frequency of (AST) in patients included in the Research

| AST     | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Abnormal  | 101     | 72.1          | 72.1               |
| Normal  |           | 39      | 27.9          | 100.0              |
| Total   |           | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |
Table 7: Demonstrates the Frequency of (NT-Pro-BNP) in patients included in the Research

|        | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid  | Abnormal  | 96      | 68.6          | 68.6               |
| Normal |           | 44      | 31.4          | 100.0              |
| Total  |           | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |

Table 8: Demonstrates the Frequency of (Trop-T) in patients included in the Research

|        | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid  | Abnormal  | 100     | 71.4          | 71.4               |
| Normal |           | 40      | 28.6          | 100.0              |
| Total  |           | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |

Table 9: Demonstrates the Frequency of (CPK) in patients included in the Research

|        | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid  | Abnormal  | 99      | 70.7          | 70.7               |
| Normal |           | 41      | 29.3          | 100.0              |
| Total  |           | 140     | 100.0         | 100.0              |

Graphs

Graph 1: Shows the ratio of (ECG) patients included in the Research

Graph 2: shows the ratio of (Trop I) in patients included in the Research
Graph 3: shows the ratio of (LDH) in patients included in the Research

Graph 4: shows the ratio of (D-Dimer) in patients included in the Research

Graph 5: shows the ratio of (CK-MB) in patients included in the Research
Graph 6: shows the ratio of (AST) in patients included in the Research

Graph 7: shows the ratio of (NT-Pro-BNP) in patients included in the Research

Graph 8: shows the ratio of (Trop-T) in patients included in the Research
Graph 9: shows the ratio of (CPK) in patients included in the Research

Graph 10: shows the relationship of ECG with Troponin I cardiac marker

Graph 11: shows the relationship of ECG with (LDH) cardiac marker
Graph 13: shows the relationship of ECG with (D-Dimer) cardiac marker

Graph 13: shows the relationship of ECG with (CK-MB) cardiac marker

Graph 14: shows the relationship of ECG with (AST) cardiac marker
DISCUSSION
The current study focuses on the use of biochemical markers for the diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction (AMI), which remains a diagnostic challenge, particularly in patients admitted to the emergency department with uncertain and transient
clinical manifestations for whom it is critical to rule out AMI. Indeed, the availability of several different biochemical markers in the emergency department forces laboratorians and clinicians to rethink and compare diagnostic strategies and different "cardiac biochemical profiles," determining whether the new markers should be used in addition to or instead of other traditional laboratory tests, in order to adopt a cost-effective approach in the routine diagnostic setting.

The current study’s findings show that all biochemical markers studied have a sensitivity and specificity: however, for the early diagnosis of AMI, a single serum myoglobin measurement at admission provides the highest sensitivity, which is sufficient for diagnosing an AMI, despite the low specificity. Trop I, on the other hand, has the best sensitivity in the diagnosis of AMI and the highest specificity of 81.4 percent in exhibiting myocardial damage when evaluated alone. Combination testing in parallel mode revealed differences in sensitivity between the various Cardiac Markers in respect to the ECG in our experience. However, series testing has the overall effect of increasing specificity. Because of the high ratio of Troponin I to the other cardiac markers, the combined measurement in serial mode had a diagnostic accuracy that was consistent throughout disease prevalence. Sabesan and Narsimhan Malathi studied biomedical reports of diagnostic reports of acute myocardial Markers. The study concludes that the largest risk of death occurs in the first few hours after the beginning of AMI. As a result, early detection of myocardial ischemia is important for optimal therapy of AMI patients. Incorrect diagnosis of patients with chest pain frequently results in unnecessary hospitalization of individuals without AMI, and vice versa [16].

In 2010, D Chan and LL Ng published a study on bmcmedicine.biomedcentral.com. Although both the ECG and cardiac troponin are biomarkers, the focus of this review will be on serum proteins/markers, which have become increasingly important in improving our diagnosis of myocardial infarction, identifying people at risk of infarction, and predicting long-term prognosis following an actual infarction event. Despite the fact that a slew of novel biomarkers is on the horizon, our understanding of the functions and biology of these various peptides in the disease process is still limited. Because of the existing state of knowledge, it’s difficult to draw firm conclusions regarding the methods through which a biomarker might affect prognosis [17].

Disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) for 291 illnesses and injuries in 21 areas, 1990-2010: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Paper, another study by Murray, C et al., Here's just a quick rundown of what's going on. The Global burden of disease cause list contains 291 diseases and injuries that are structured in a hierarchy with up to four levels of disaggregation. Each origin has one to twenty-four consequences. The total number of outcomes in the study is 1160. The criteria used to add causes and effects to the Global Burden of Disease research in several editions, as well as the expansion of the cause list, are detailed elsewhere. Several writers contributed to the building of cause-specific models, analyzed the data, provided advice on the selection of critical variables, and proofread the text [18].

A personal history of indicators of myocyte damage [myocardial infarction] was studied by Ladenson, J.H. In 2007, Chimica Acta was published. The logic for measuring a protein in blood to identify cell damage is clear, but it does need consideration of a few significant aspects. The myocyte is the heart's main cell, and the heart's main function is to pump blood. Because myocytes are largely non-regenerative, if heart cells die, cardiac function is likely to be compromised. When a cell dies, its proteins are liberated, with proteins in the cytoplasm exiting the cell faster than proteins in membranes or permanent cell parts. All of the biomarkers used to diagnose cardiac injury are involved in contraction or energy metabolism, but the markers evolved via trial and error, beginning with transaminases in the 1950s and ending with troponins in the 1990s. This background is discussed, along with observations on my experiences establishing CK-MB and Troponin I assay [19].

Troponin I, in our experience, has the highest level of sensitivity from the outset of symptoms with abnormal ECG results. ECG results and cardiac biomarkers were assessed concurrently in the initial blood sample to optimize the diagnostic efficiency of the technique in patients admitted. Our findings, albeit drawn from a small group of carefully selected patients with AMI, add to the expanding body of evidence demonstrating that the practical technique described allows for a reliable and prompt diagnosis, as well as monitoring the progression of myocardial damage throughout treatment.

CONCLUSION
The traditional enzymatic assays of creatinine kinase (CK), CK-MB (activity), and lactate dehydrogenase are rapidly being replaced by mass measurements of myoglobin, CKMB, and troponin T and troponin I (Tnl1) " to achieve high diagnostic sensitivity and specificity within a few hours from the onset of tissue necrosis; the ultimate goal is the early and appropriate management of patients' conditions. As a result, we looked at alternative diagnostic techniques for detecting AMI early utilizing ECG data and biochemical markers. We compared the diagnostic sensitivity and specificity obtained by measuring various biochemical markers, some of which are widely used, and concluded that Troponin I is the first cardiac marker that releases simultaneously after the first
episode of AMI when performed as single tests and in parallel and serial modes.

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