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Prevention, diagnostic evaluation, management, therapeutic and prognostic implications of liver disease in COVID-19 critically ill patients

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Prevention, diagnostic evaluation, management, and therapeutic and prognostic implications of liver disease in COVID-19 critically ill patients with COVID-19

Valsamaki A et al. Liver disease in COVID-19 critically ill patients

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†This paper is dedicated to the memory of an exceptional doctor, Tilemachos

Zafeiridis (1974-2021), one year after his premature death, to remind us of how

much we miss him

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Abstract

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), caused by Severe severe Acute acute

Respiratory respiratory Syndrome Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-

CoV-2), broke out in December 2019 in the city of Wuhan city in of China, and

spread rapidly spread rapidly around the worldwide., so Therefore, by March 2020,

the World Health Organization (WHO) declared the disease a global pandemic.

Apart from the respiratory system, a number of various other organs of the human

2

body are also seriously affected by the virus. Liver injury in patients with a severe form of COVID-19 is estimated at the level of to be 14.8%—53%. Elevated levels of total bilirubin, aspartate aminotransferase—(AST), and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and low levels of serum albumin are the main laboratory findings. Patients with pre-preexisting chronic liver disease and cirrhosis are much more prone to develop a severe liver injury.

This literature review will present presented the recent scientific findings regarding the pathophysiological mechanisms which are responsible for the induction of causing liver injury in critically ill patients with COVID-19, the various interactions between drugs used to treat the disease and the function of the liver, and the specific tests which give the providing the possibility of early diagnosis of severe liver injury in this category of these patients. Moreover, It it will also highlight highlighted the burden that COVID-19 induced put to on health systems around the worldwide and its impact effect on transplant programs and on the care provided to critically ill patients in general and especially particularly to those with chronic liver disease.

Key wordKeywords: COVID-19; SARS-CoV-2; Liver Disease; Intensive Care Unit; Liver Unit

Core Tip: Liver-The liver follows the respiratory system with-in being affected by SARS-CoV-2, wherein the effect is lower but considerable frequency of affection from SARS CoV-2. COVID-19 causes acute and acute-on-chronic liver injury. The pathophysiological mechanisms are complex and multiple. Certain biomarkers like such as Fibrosisfibrosis-4 (FIB-4) score and non-non-invasive point-of-care methods like such as ultrasonography or transient elastography can be very extremely useful helpful for in the early diagnosis of liver injury and the assessment of its progression. Health systems, Intensive intensive Care care Unitsunits, Liver-liver Units units, and transplant programs were seriously affected by the pandemic. The clinician should be able to early recognize the symptoms and signs of liver dysfunction early and not focus exclusively on those of the respiratory system.

INTRODUCTION

In December 2019, an epidemic of pneumonia of unknown origin broke out in the city of Wuhan city, in the Hubei province of China, causing global concern because of its ease of easy transmission and the significant rates of morbidity and mortality that accompanied it. In order to To diagnose and control this highly infectious disease, patients were immediately isolated, and their clinical and epidemiological data were studied thoroughly. The immediate mobilization of the global scientific community resulted in the rapid identification of identified the cause rapidly ([sSevere Acute acute Respiratory respiratory Syndrome syndrome Coronovirus coronovirus -2 [(SARS-CoV-2)]) of this disease [Coronavirus coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19)] [1].

In the immediate aftermath, the spread of the disease to spread very rapidly to all the regions of the world was very rapid, forcing the World Health Organization (WHO) to declare the COVID-19 outbreak as a "global pandemic" on the 11th of March 11, 2020. It is characteristic that In just in a period of two weeks before that specific date March 11, 2020, the number of the cases outside China increased by 13 times, and, while the number of countries in which the disease was identified increased by more than three times [2]. –Over the next years years, the pandemic greatly affected the health systems of all the countries of the world, causing, until the 16th of September 16, 2022, more than 611-,550-,000 cases and more than 67,5257,000 deaths [3].

Among the organs affected by COVID-19 is the liver, with many several early scientific reports describing various degrees of liver dysfunction and injury [4]. This literature review will present presented the recent scientific findings regarding the pathophysiological mechanisms which are responsible for the induction of causing liver injury in critically ill patients with COVID-19;7 the various interactions between drugs used to treat the disease and the function of the liverliver;7 the tests which give the providing the possibility of early diagnosis of severe liver injury in these patients; and the impact effect of the pandemic on health systems,

transplant programs programs, and critically ill patients with or without pre-existing preexisting chronic liver disease.

An advanced search strategy was carried out made to identify papers studies published till until August 2022, combining using the key wordkeywords "COVID-19,", and "Liver," and "Intensive Care Unit" in the Pubmed PubMed electronic bibliographic database. Initially, 560 articles studies were identified. Those These articles studies were reviewed on the basis of their title and abstractabstract, thus, excluding 301 articlesstudies. The full texts of the rest remaining 259 articles' studies full texts were assessed for eligibility on the basis of their relevance to the subject of our review, especially particularly focusing on critical illness and liver disease. Most of these studies were excluded because they referred to COVID-19 patients with mild or moderate COVID-19 disease severity.

A total of 87 manuscripts studies were finally included and analyzed for this systematic review.

Overall, limited evidence exists regarding the liver disease, critical illness, and COVID-19.

IMPACT EFFECT OF COVID-19 ON LIVER

SARS-CoV-2, just like its predecessors SARS-CoV (responsible for the severe acute respiratory syndrome-SARS epidemic in 2003) and MERS-CoV (responsible for the Middle East respiratory syndrome epidemic in 2012), is a coronavirus and shares sequence homology and genome similarities with them [4]. The main symptoms caused by SARS-CoV-2, which affects affecting more severely in men more severely than women, include fever, upper and lower respiratory symptomatology (cough, rhinorrhea, sore throat, flu-like symptoms, and dyspnoeadyspnea), general muscle aches, anosmia—anosmia, and ageusia and increased likelihood of occurrence of vascular thrombosis.

Several reports regarding SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV referred that both of them caused liver injury in a significant number of patients. For example, Chau et al. [5] reported three cases of hepatitis directly associated with SARS disease, while and mentioning revealed that various degrees of impairment of the liver function have

had been reported to-in up to 60% of the patients suffering from SARS. Fourteen years later, Alsaad et al. [6], after 14 years, reported findings of portal and lobular hepatitis at post-mortem postmortem histopathological findings in a 33-year-old male patient who died from MERS-CoV infection.

In May 2020, the results of a multicenter observational cohort study from 208 hospitals in the United Kingdom (in total 20-,133 patients) were published, in order to investigate the outcome of patients with severe diseases which who were admitted to these hospitals [7]. Their median age was 73 years (rangerange, 0—104 years), and 60% of them were men. The mortality rate in the cohort was 26%, whereas 41% of the patients were discharged alive, and the rest, 34% of them, continued to be hospitalized at the end of the study. Liver disease was among the pathological conditions associated with increased in-hospital mortality, along with sex (male gender), age, obesity, chronic pulmonary and chronic kidney disease diseases, and chronic cardiac disease.

Regarding particularly liver injury caused in patients severely affected by COVID-19, there are published reports estimating the relevant rates at the level of 14.8%—53% [8].

The imaging findings in these patients include hepatomegaly, gall bladder thickness thickness, and prominence of the common bile duct in the ultrasoundultrasonography, along with pericholecystic fat stranding and hypodensity of the liver in the computed tomography (CT) images ^[9].

According to Nardo et al. [10], the most likely pathophysiological mechanisms involved in the production of causing liver injury after severe infection from with SARS-CoV-2 are as follows:

1) Moderate hepatic steatosis: there is growing evidence that SARS-CoV-2 modifies the function and the activity of the mitochondria, downregulating nuclear-encoded mitochondrial (NEM) genes which are related to associated with the cellular respiration [11]. Another cause of the steatosis seems to be the induction by SARS-CoV-2 of endoplasmaticendoplasmic reticulum stress by SARS-CoV-2, which in turn has been shown to cause lipogenesis in the hepatic cells [12]. Finally, another proposed possible mechanism is directly

related to associated with the characteristic "cytokine storm"/Cytokine cytokine Release Syndrome syndrome (CRS) observed in the severe forms of COVID-19.÷ Interleukin (IL)-6 produced by the cytokine storm most probably causes hypeactivationhyperactivation of the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), which has the ability to can induce lipogenesis inside the hepatic cell [13]. In conclusion, it seems that the above-mentioned process of excessive lipogenesis is seems to been the one hand detrimental to the function of the hepatic cell and the liver as a whole; and on the other hand however, it enhances the potential of the virus, providing it with the necessary nutrient material in order to achieve its replication and exocytosis [10,14].

- 2) Cholestasis and bile duct alterations: Apart from IL-6, during the cytokine storm, a large number of other inflammatory cytokines are released, including IL-1 and Tumourtumor Necrosis-necrosis Factor-factor(TNF)-alpha. These cytokines cause hepatocellular cholestasis, which closely resembles resembling elosely—cholestasis observed in severe cases of sepsis [15]. An additional pathophysiological lesion that has been observed in these patients comes from the so-called "triple hit" to the bile ducts, consisting of: (a) Hypoxia—hypoxia due to respiratory failure, (b) Systemic—systemic Inflammatory—inflammatory Response—response Syndrome-syndrome(SIRS) resulting in inflammation and fibrosis of the bile ducts, and (c) Direct direct infection of the cholangiocytes from the virus [16].
- 3) Hypoxic hepatitis (HH): Pathophysiologically, the causes of HH during the course of severe COVID-19 are multifactorial, including: (a) Acute—acute respiratory failure, (b) Severe severe sepsis, (c) Heart heart failure, including right-sided heart failure, (d) Acute—acute Respiratory respiratory Distress distress Syndrome syndrome(ARDS), (e) A—a hyper-coagulablete state, deteriorating the congestion of the liver, and (f) The—the haemodynamichemodynamic effects of positive-pressure ventilation [17].
- 4) The gut——liver axis: Symptomatology from the gastrointestinal tract is common in patients with severe COVID-19, with relevant rates ranging from

from 4.9% 74%. to The most common vomiting, are nausea, diarrhoeadiarrhea, loss of appetite appetite, and abdominal pain [18]. It is speculated that the damage caused by SARS-CoV-2 to the epithelial barrier of the small intestine may lead to the transmission of the virus into the hepatocytes through the portal vein, aggravating thereby the lesions of the liver parenchyma. In addition, Alterations alterations in gut microbiota caused either by drugs for COVID-19 or by the virus itself may also-play a significant role through the gut—liver axis.

5) Injury induced by the treating medications: Since As SARS-CoV-2 is novel to the scientific community and no specific therapy for COVID-19 has been found, a number of numerous different drugs have been used in many several cases outside their officially approved indications. Typical examples are the antimalarial drug drugs hydroxychloroquine; antibiotics (mainly from the family of macrolidsmacrolides); antiviral agents such as lopinavir, ritonavir ritonavir, and remdesivir; immonumodulating immunomodulating medications such as tocilizumab and dexamethazonedexamethasone; and even anti-inflammatory and antipyretics in high doses [19]. Many of them presented already known hepatotoxic side effects. For example, corticosteroids have been implicated as a cause of glycogenosis or steatosis [20], whereas tocilizumab is reported to cause drug-induced liver injury (DILI) in critically ill patients with COVID-19 [21].

In conclusion, the mechanism of liver injury during COVID-19 is twofold [22]: either SARS-CoV-2 attacks directly the hepatic cells and the cholangiocytescholangiocytes, or it causes damage to the liver parenchyma by activating (and in fact dysregulating) the patient's immune system, probably in a similar way to the severe lung injury caused by the cytokine storm process. In many several cases, the damage is caused by a combination of the above two mechanisms.

The histopathological features that have been described in critically ill patients with COVID-19 and concurrent hepatic involvement are various and, in most cases, non-specific conspecific. Characteristic and specific for the disease is the detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in liver tissue blocksblocks, in up to 55% of patients with severe

liver injury [23]. Lagana et al. [23], in a series of 40 critically ill patients who died from complications of COVID-19, reported that the most common hepatic histopathological findings were: (a) Macrovesicular-macrovesicular steatosis (75% of the patients), (b) Lobular lobular and portal necroinflammation (50% of the patients), and (c) Vascular vascular pathology (primarily sinusoidal microthrombi), in a significantly smaller number of patients (15%). Finally, in another post mortem postmortem report, the commonest findings in 22 critically ill patients who died from the disease were liver parenchymal congestion along with sinusoidal congestion and congestion of the small hepatic veins, extravasation of the red cells into the Disse's space, necrosis of a large number of hepatic cells, and macro- and microvesicular steatosis [24]. Nevertheless, it seems that all the above-mentioned findings seemed to be are due to because of the combination of the organism's systemic response to inflammation and its co-morbidities, rather than the direct action of SARS-CoV-2 on the liver [25].

PROGNOSTIC TOOLS OF FOR LIVER INJURY IN PATIENTS WITH COVID-19

Studies on the evolution of liver injury from SARS-CoV-2 and on factors that can predict the final outcome are relatively few. Various outcome measures have been studied, including the following [26]:

• Liver Function function Tests tests (LFTs): A broad spectrum of abnormal in patients with COVID-19 patients. LFTs has been described aminotransferase Aminotransferases (faspartate [(AST]) and alanine aminotransferase [(ALT)]), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), Gammagamma-Glutamyl glutamyl Transpeptidase transpeptidase (GGT), and bilirubin have been the most extensively studied markers of liver function in patients with COVID-19. Various studies have demonstrated a correlation between liver injury and disease severity, albeit most of these data are not strictly limited to critically ill patients [27-30]. In several studies, including severe and non-severe nonsevere patients with COVID-19, a strong association was found between LFTs (especially particularly AST) abnormalities, and disease severity and mortality [31-35]. Lok et al. [36], reporting similar results, suggested that immune system dysregulation may be a plausible contribution contributing factor to the former association.

In addition to the aforementioned biomarkers, interest has been drawn to the role of prealbumin as a prognostic factor of COVID-19 outcomes. It has been shown that ILow prealbumin levels, as a marker of abnormal liver function, are correlated associated with disease severity and may be of prognostic value regarding mortality in critically ill patients [37,38].

Of note is tThe role of microRNAs is notable, that which are considered to alter immune responses. To our the best of our knowledge, only one study has found an association between the liver-liver-derived miR-122 and patient mortality in a cohort, including patients with severe COVID-19 [39]. Whereas the role of microRNAs in the inflammatory process is well documenteddocumented;77 their specific role in COVID-19 is yet to be clarified.

Focusing on critically ill patients, a wide range of abnormal LFTs has been reported, whilst whereas the vast majority of published data deliberate on aminotransferases. The prevalence of abnormal LFTs seems to be higher in ICU patients in comparison with than in ward patients with COVID-19, according to a large meta-analysis that included including 31 studies from various countries [40]. In a study, including 166 patients requiring mechanical ventilation, AST and ALT elevation served as predictive factors for the requirement of invasive mechanical ventilation [41]. Similar results were reported by Yip TC et al. [42]. An independent association was found between aminotransferases elevation and ICU admission, mechanical ventilation ventilation, and/or death. In Additionally addition, an association was found aminotransferases between elevation and lopinavit/litonavirritonavir plus interferon b and corticosteroids use, and the researchers suggested cautious use of medications in order to minimize hepatotoxicity.

Nevertheless, Roman et al., in a study, including exclusively critically ill patients with laboratory laboratory-proven liver damage, failed to

demonstrate a correlation between liver injury severity and mortality [43]. Azad Allarakia et al. examined plausible associations between routine laboratory tests and disease severity. No difference was found regarding LFTs between ICU and ward patientspatients; however, no adjustment for confounding factors was were not performed adjusted [44]. Similarly, in a study conducted early during the pandemic era, no association was found between disease severity and LFTs [45].

Regarding mortality, in a large cohort, including 3812 COVID-19—patients with COVID-19, an association between elevated ALT, AST, GGT and GGT levels and ICU admission was reported, and AST elevation was associated with risk of death after adjusting for confounding factors such as age, obesity obesity, and previous liver disease [32]. In accordance with the aforementioned study, in the study of in Salik et al.'s study, which included exclusively critically ill patients, liver dysfunction and liver injury were associated with higher 7-day and 28-day mortality in comparison with than patients with COVID-19 without liver biochemistry abnormalities [46]. Interestingly, in the study of Kasapoglu et al.'s study, although ICU patients had higher values of AST and GGT, only GGT among LFTs was found to be predictive of mortality in ICU patients [47].

Various non - invasive non-invasive fibrosis estimators, includeding the fibrosis-4 (Fibrosis-4 (Fib-4)) score, the FORNS index for liver fibrosis, the AST to platelet ratio index (APRI) score, the Nonnon--aAlcoholic Fatty-fatty Liver-liver disease (NAFLD) fibrosis (NFS) score-score, and the AST to ALT ratio.

Of the above-mentioned biomarkers and scores, it is the FIB-4 score that attracted interest and applicability. It is a scoring system which that uses four simple parameters, readily available in all inpatients: the age, the platelet count, and the values of AST and ALT: a score of <-1.45 has a negative predictive value of over-more than 90% for advanced fibrosis of the liver, whereas a score- of >-3.25 has a positive predictive value of 65%, with 97% specificity [48].

Crisan et al. published the results of a retrospective cohort study (370 consecutive patients with COVID-19, from whom 289 presented with abnormal liver biomarkers on admission)₇ in order to evaluate the predictive value of the various liver tests and estimators [49]. They concluded that elevated FIB-4 score (values >-3.25) and elevated AST were the only two tests which that were independently associated with higher mortality in these patients. A It is evident that tThe FIB-4 score is a valuable tool which that can help the clinicians identify existing undiagnosed liver disease or the possibility of rapid deterioration of liver function during the course of COVID-19₇ so as that patients with abnormal values receive priority in their inpatient management [49].

Findings in relation to association with the value of the FIB-4 score were also verified in the systematic review and meta-analysis of Liu et al. [50], who concluded that along with the FIB-4, the APRI-score, and the NFS scores, and the FORNS index could also serve as indicators for identifying patients at high risk for of developing severe COVID-19 with the worse final outcome.

CRITICALLY ILL PATIENTS WITH ACUTE LIVER DISEASE AND COVID-19

Acute liver injury (ALI) has been reported in about approximately 19% of patients with COVID-19—; but however, the percentage rises—increases dramatically, up to 89.2%, in ICU patients [51,52]. The spectrum of ALI in critically ill patients with COVID-19 is wide, varying from simple elevations of LFTs to acute liver failure (ALF), the need for advanced support—support, and even the need for transplantation [453-55]. For patients with severe liver injury (about approximately 6.4% of all patients with distorted liver biochemistry), a severe disease course is expected [56]. The Correlation—correlation of impaired liver function with sudden death in COVID-19—patients with COVID-19 is another outstanding association [57]. Most studies reported a predominance of the hepatocellular pattern [58]. However, other distributions of liver injury patterns have been reported as well [53].

HH as a clinical presentation of COVID-19 is observed in about approximately 5.88% of ICU patients with COVID-19 patients and has a significant impact effect on patients' survival [59]. The diagnosis is made when the following criteria are met: (a) A-a massive but transient elevated ALT level (fmore than 20-fold the upper limit of normal (ULN)]), (b) The the presence of respiratory, cardiac, or circulatory failure, and (c) Exclusion exclusion of other causes of liver injury [60]. The Close close monitoring of cardiac and respiratory function and early aetiologic management of haemodynamichemodynamic instability/shock is crucial for patients' survival when HH is suspected [59].

Secondary sclerosing chlolangitischolangitis—(SSC) is another not rare and devastating form of liver disease in COVID-19, which is related associated with considerable morbidity and mortality. Contributing pathophysiological mechanisms include bile duct ischaemiaischemia and toxic bile formation [61]. The underlying histopathological findings consist of ischaemicischemic damage to the perihilar bile ducts [62]. Ursodeoxycholic acid (UDCA) has been reported to give promising results results; but however, for a proportion of these patients patients, transplantation is required [63].

Rare but devastating clinical presentations include: liver abscess with necrosis [64]₇ and vascular thrombotic events in abdominal vessels like such as portal and mesenteric vein thrombosis [65].

ALF is a life-threatening condition, characterized by hepatic encephalopathy, and coagulopathy in patients without the pre-existing liver disease [66]. During the pandemic pandemic, elevated an increased incidence of hepatitis of unknown aetiologyetiology in the pediatric population was reported with subsequent liver failure and the need for liver transplantation (LT) for a proportion of these children. This raised great concern about the possible vulnerability of the children to this extremely severe complication. Although Adenovirus adenovirus is the main aetiologicaletiological agent suspected to be responsible, the association with COVID-19 and the role of other contributing factors remain to be clarified [67]. In adults adults, there are reports of on other viruses as causative agents of ALF,

such as the infection from or the reactivation of Herpes herpes Simplex Simplex Virusvirus-1 (HSV-1) following the immunosuppression that COVID-19 patients with COVID-19 receive for treating the CRS [68].

When assessing critically ill patients with COVID-19 patients with and ALI, the diagnostic approach remains basically remains the same as for any patient who has ALI and is severely ill. However, there are some differences exist that must be pointed out.

Current guidelines recommend against unnecessary imaging <code>[(e.g., ultrasound [(unless performed at the bedside]), CT-computed tomography--magnetic resonance [(MR])</code> imaging/MR cholangiopancreatography)<code>[69]</code>. The <code>Transport-transport</code> of these patients requires special knowledge, <code>equipment-equipment</code>, and experience and should be kept for <code>cases-patients</code> where the <code>result-of-the-examination results may change the patient's management.</code>

Approaches that do not require patient's transportation are preferred. Such an -An approach regarding the haemodynamichemodynamic monitoring of these patients uses invasive cardiac monitors based on the thermodilution method. These methods are invasive, expensive expensive, and present septic and other catheter-related complications. Moreover, they have limitations in critically ill patients with liver failure, such as the presence of ascites (extravascular third space fluid) or hepatic hydrothorax (extravascular lung water), which confuse the measurements and the lack the of-validation of these techniques on such patients. Remote Pointpoint-ofcare ultrasonography (POCUS) by a hepatologist or an ICU physician, with real-time interpretation by a cardiologist through telemedicine, is a trend that has been era [70]. the COVID-19 Information adopted in regarding on the of the haemodynamichemodynamic status and the cause haemodynamic hemodynamic compromise of these patients is are safely and accurately gathered collected. Basic diagnoses like such as pulmonary embolism or myocardial infraction infarction are made at the bedside. The Evaluation evaluation of intravascular volume status helps to differentiate between pre-renal prerenal acute kidney injury (AKI) and hepatorenal syndrome or between transfusionrelated associated acute lung injury (TRALI) and transfusion-associated circulatory overload (TACO). In addition, This this powerful tool also contributes to the prompt identification of liver-related pathologies, including portal vein or hepatic vein thrombosis, the presence of ascites, suspected pneumothorax pneumothorax, and hemothorax. This approach has provided many several solutions for Liver liver Units units and ICUs during the pandemic.

Another non-invasive non-invasive method that has been evaluated for the assessment of liver injury during COVID-19 is the Vibrationvibration-Controlled controlled Transient transient Elastography elastography (FibroScan). Its application It may serve as a tool for identifying patients with elevated liver stiffness and thus at greater risk for of developing ALI and for progressing to severe COVID-19 illness with worse clinical outcomes, even when no history of pre-existing preexisting liver disease is present [71,72].

There are nNo special recommendations or measures exist whose implementation which could prevent liver injury from COVID-19. The Prophylaxis-prophylaxis of the liver can only be achieved through measures that avert-prevent infection from SARS-CoV-2. Thus, current guidelines suggest using use of personal protective equipment (PPE) for healthcare personnel at in the liver and other departments, cancel of cancelling all elective/nonurgent procedures, and vaccination vaccinating with the approved vaccines for a vulnerable population with or without pre existing preexisting liver disease [69,73]. Another approach is the use of dietary supplements as prophylaxis from for severe disease and liver involvement. Amongst Among the supplements used for the prevention of COVID-19, several pieces of evidence exists on the possible protective role of vitamins C and D have gathered more evidence about their possible protective role in humans, whereas in animal models, xanthohumol was found to have has an anti-inflammatory action on liver injury [74].

AccordinglyHowever, there are no separate protocols exist for the treatment of liver injury from COVID-19. The Implementation—implementation of the general therapeutic protocols for the disease is applicable [75], with special care for liver protection and early detection of liver injury at—in patients with COVID-19 patients [76]. In cases of progressive ALF not responding to the standard supportive care—care, LT can be the final solution [66]. Removing hepatotoxic metabolites like

such as conjugated or unconjugated bilirubin, bile acids, phenols, fatty acids, cytokines, ammonia, or amino acids with the use of extracorporeal blood purification techniques presents an interesting alternative approach, especially particularly when LT is not a feasible option or even as a bridging therapy towardstoward transplantation [77,78]. These techniques eliminate not only hepatic metabolites but also inflammatory mediators responsible for the CRS, leading to the preservation of organ function and prevention of organ failure while advanced support is offered at in COVID-19 patients with COVID-19 [77].

CRITICALLY ILL PATIENTS WITH CHRONIC LIVER DISEASE AND COVID-19

ACases of acute-on-chronic liver failure have has been reported, in patients with pre-existing preexisting liver disease [31]. Particularly in patients with cirrhosis, the associated state of immunosuppression in conjunction with COVID-19 can lead to acute decompensation, most frequently manifested as worsening ascites with spontaneous bacterial peritonitis peritonitis, and to hepatic failure in patients with impaired and limited reserves [31,79]. Liver injury has been seen-observed in 26.7% of patients with severe pneumonia [79]. Despite the lack of coagulation factors in decompensated liver disease, a hypercoagulable state may be present in COVID-19, and hepatic impairment may be related to associated with a greater activation of the coagulation pathways [66,80].

In critically ill COVID-19 patients with COVID-19 with pre-existing preexisting liver disease and evidence of liver impairment, LFTs must be frequently monitored [76]. Usually Typically, no specific treatment is indicated indicated, and emphasis should be placed on cause-directed therapy.

UDCA may be added as a treatment in patients with liver injury, due to because of its anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory properties [79]. In the ICU setting, treatment with vasopressors should be administered with caution in patients with cirrhosis and COVID-19, in order to avoid detrimental effects on cardiac output.

Moreover, Caution caution should be also given taken in the while administering ration of immunosuppressive agents, such as tocilizumab and baricitinib, as this they may cause the reactivation of chronic hepatitis B. In such case cases, antiviral prophylaxis is indicated [79].

In terms of prognosis, it has been hypothesized that patients with chronic liver disease may be particularly vulnerable to developing severe COVID-19 infection [81]. Higher mortality rates have been observed in COVID-19—patients with COVID-19 with pre-existing preexisting chronic liver disease and cirrhosis caused by chronic hepatitis B and C have been observed [31]. Moreover, Patients patients with NAFLD were also found to be at greater risk for progression to severe COVID-19 [82]. Cirrhotic pPatients with cirrhosis having ARDS have a worse prognosis than patients without cirrhosis—cirrhosis, and pre-existing—preexisting liver fibrosis is independently associated with a significantly higher risk of death in patients with severe COVID-19 admitted to the ICU [83].

IMPACT EFFECT OF THE PANDEMIC ON HEALTH SYSTEMS, ICUs, LIVER UNITS, AND TRANSPLANT PROGRAMS

During the pandemic pandemic, health systems and ICUs were overwhelmed overburdened by critically ill patients. Higher mortality risk was observed and was associated with intensive care unit—ICU patient load [84,85]. In line with this observation—, patients with chronic liver disease had significantly high mortality during the pandemic, leading to suggestions regarding their primary and emergency care and their access to intensive care and high-dependency units [86]. In addition, The—the effect of the pandemic was also significant on the treatment of complications of chronic liver disease like—such as Hepatocellular—hepatocellular Carcinoma carcinoma (HCC):—); surveillance for HCC and treatment of early-stage HCC were modified. Another significant change was the extensive use of telemedicine, in order to minimize patients' and healthcare workers' exposure to COVID-19 [87].

Transplant programs and care provided to LT recipients were also greatly affected. Living donor LT was suspended in some centers around the worldwide [87]. As a response to these issues, national protocols were specially prepared [88], and transplantation centers implemented special strategies to increase their successful transplantation rates [89]. Recommendations stress-point out the need for restoration of LT programsprograms; however however, prioritization of patients with poor short-term prognosis f(with acute/acute-on-chronic liver failure, high Model for End-stage-Stage Liver Disease (MELD) score, and HCC at the upper limits of the Milan criteria.) may be necessary in some cases [58].

In general, transplant recipients present higher rates of severe disease and higher mortality rates, compared to than nontransplant patients; thus, care should be taken so that their exposure to COVID-19 remains should remain minimal [69]. Immunosuppression should be reduced only under special circumstances, e.g., e.g., symptomatic COVID-19, and with caution [69,90]. COVID-19 screening should be performed to for both donors and recipients. Charts regarding LT organ offers are available, to optimize the management of the procedures related to associated with LT in the COVID-19 era [69].

CONCLUSION

Apart from the upper and the lower respiratory systemsystems, the liver is also greatly affected by COVID-19. The pathophysiological mechanisms by which liver injury is caused are complex and numerous, including cholestasis, bile duct alterations, hepatic steatosis, involvement of the gut-liver axis, HH, and hepatitis induced by the drugs which are used to treat the actual disease. The hepatocyte seems to be affected directly by both directly, by SARS-CoV-2 itself, but also by and the the immune system's disruption and dysregulation of the immune system.

Not only patients with or without pre-existing liver disease individually but also health systems and transplant programs were greatly affected by the pandemic pandemic, and great effort was been made, and which needs to be continued to minimize the consequences.

Scientific research over the last-past two years has shown that certain biomarkers can be very extremely useful in the early diagnosis of liver injury and the evaluation of its progression. Non invasive Non-invasive assessment with POCUS or transient elastography is the trend for evaluating especially particularly patients in the ICU setting where biopsy is difficult to perform due to because of coagulation abnormalities and transport for CT or MR imaging are is difficult and with dangers dangerous for the patients' health.

Although, in most cases cases, liver involvement in COVID-19 is mild, the clinician should be able to early recognize the symptoms and signs of liver dysfunction dysfunction and not focus exclusively on symptomatology from the respiratory system.

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