THE ROLE OF BIOMARKERS IN THE DIAGNOSIS AND OUTCOME IN PATIENTS WITH SEPTIC SHOCK

An Essay Submitted For Partial Fulfillment of Master Degree in Intensive Care

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دورالدلالات البيولوجية لتشخيص وعلاج مرضى الصدمة التسممية

رسالة مقدمة من الطبيب/ أحمد عطا أحمد الصاوى بكالوريوس الطبو الجراحة

توطئة للحصول على درجة الماچستير في الرعاية المركزة

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> جامعة عين شمس كلية الطب ٢٠١٠

Summary

Sepsis is a main cause of death in critically ill patients. Despite the use of modern antibiotics and resuscitation therapies, severe sepsis mortality is 25% to 30% and mortality due to septic shock approaches 40% to 70%. Sepsis is the systemic response to infection and it involves a complex interaction between the pathogen and the host's immune system that result in the release of inflammatory mediators, vasodilation, increased vascular permeability, diffuse endothelial disruption, activation of coagulation pathways and thrombosis of end organ capillaries with subsequent organ faiure.

The diagnosis of sepsis is difficult, because clinical signs of sepsis often overlap with other non infectious causes of systemic inflammation. These signs include tachycardia, leucocytosis, tachypnea, and pyrexia which are collectively termed a systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS). Microbiological culture can be used to distinguish sepsis from non infectious conditions. However, this method lacks sensitivity and specificity and there is often a substantial time delay.

The diagnosis of sever sepsis is based clinically on suspected infection (through clinical localizing and systemic symptoms and signs of infection) and clinical evidence of organ dysfunction. The diagnosis of septic shock is established in the presence of suspected infection with sustained hypotension (without a definitive alternate explanation) despite adequate fluid resuscitation.

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List of abbreviations

AaDO ₂	Alveolar arterial O ₂ tension difference
ABG	Arterial blood gas
ACTH	Adrenocorticotropic hormone
ADH	Antidiuretic hormone
AIDS	Acquired immune deficiency syndrome
ALI	Acute lung injury
ALT	Alanine transaminase
AM	Adrenomedullin
ANP	Atrial natriuretic peptide
APACHE	Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation
аРС	Activated protein C
aPTT	Activated partial thromboplastin time
ARDS	Acute respiratory distress syndrome
ARF	Acute renal failure
AST	Aspartate transaminase
ATIII	Antithrombin III
ATN	Acute tubular necrosis
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
BBB	Blood-brain barrier
BCs	blood cultures
BNP	Brain natriuretic peptide
BUN	Blood urea nitrogen
BWF	biphasic waveform
C3a	Complement 3a
C4bBP	C4b-binding protein
CAP	Community acquired pneumonia
CD	Cluster of differentiation
CK-MB	Creatine kinase MB isoenzyme
CNS	Central nervous system
СО	Cardiac output
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
CoA	Co-enzyme A
Cr	Serum creatine
CRP	C reactive protein
СТ	Computed tomography
CVOs	Circumventricular organs
CVP	Central venous pressure

CVVH	Continuous veno-venous haemofiltration
DC	Dendritic cells
DIC	Disseminated intravascular coagulation
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
dsRNA	Double stranded ribonucleic acid
DVT	Deep venous thrombosis
ECG	Electrocardiography
ED	Emergency department
EEG	Electroencephalography
ELAM-1	Endothelial-leukocyte adhesion molecule-1
EMG	Electromyography
EPCR	Endothelial cell protein C receptor
ET-1	Endothelin-1
F/TV	Frequency/ tidal volume
FDA	Food and drug administration
FIO ₂	Fraction of inspired oxygen
GCS	Glasgow coma scale
G-CSF	Granulocyte colony stimulating factor
GFR	Glomerular filtration rate
GI	Gastrointestinal
GM-CSF	Granulocyte/macrophage colony-stimulating
GM-CSF	Granulocyte/macrophage colony-stimulating factor
GM-CSF	
	factor
Hb	factor Hemoglobin Serum bicarbonate concentration
Hb HCO3	factor Hemoglobin
Hb HCO3 ⁻ HLA-DR	factor Hemoglobin Serum bicarbonate concentration Human leucocyte antigen-DR
Hb HCO3 ⁻ HLA-DR HMGB-1	factor Hemoglobin Serum bicarbonate concentration Human leucocyte antigen-DR High mobility group box -1
Hb HCO3 ⁻ HLA-DR HMGB-1 ICAM-1	factor Hemoglobin Serum bicarbonate concentration Human leucocyte antigen-DR High mobility group box -1 Intercellular adhesion molecule-1
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Hb HCO3 HLA-DR HMGB-1 ICAM-1 ICU IFN- α IFN- β IFN- γ IL IL-1ra iNOS INR LBP LC-CRP	factor Hemoglobin Serum bicarbonate concentration Human leucocyte antigen-DR High mobility group box -1 Intercellular adhesion molecule-1 Intensive care unit Interferon- α Interferon- β Interferon- γ Interleukin Interleukin-1 receptor antagonist Inducible nitric oxide synthetase International normalized ratio Lipopolysaccharide binding protein Lipoprotein complexed C-reactive protein

LTA	Lipoteichoic acid
LV	Left ventricle
MAP	Mean arterial pressure
MARS	Mixed antagonists response syndrome
MCP	Monocyte chemotactic protein
MIF	Macrophage migration inhibitory factor
MIP	Macrophage inflammatory protein
MMP	Matrix-metalloproteinase
MODS	Multiple organ dysfunction syndrome
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid
MV	Mechanical ventilation
NAD	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
NFĸB	Nuclear factor kappa B
NMBs	Neuromuscular blockers
NO	Nitric oxide
N-ProCT	Amino-terminal Procalcitonin Cleavage Peptide
OSF	Organ System Failure
PaCO ₂	Partial pressure of carbon dioxide in arterial
	blood
PAI-1	Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1
PaO ₂	Partial pressure of oxygen in arterial blood
PAP	Plasmin antiplasmin complex
PCT	Procalcitonin
PCT-Q	Semi-quantitative procalcitonin test
pCysC	Plasma cystatin C
PEEP	Positive end expiratory pressure
PMNLs	Polymorphonuclear leukocytes
PrC	Protein C
pro-AM	Pro- adrenomedullin
PRRs	pattern recognition receptors
PT	Prothrombin time
RBCs	Red blood cells
rhAPC	Recombinant Human Activated Protein C
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
rT3	Reverse Triiodothyronine
SBP	Systolic blood pressure
SBT	Spontaneous breathing trial
SD	Standard deviation
SIRS	Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome

SOFA	Sequential organ failure assessment score
SSC	Surviving Sepsis Campaign
ssRNA	Single stranded ribonucleic acid
sTREM-1	Soluble triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells-1
SvO ₂	Mixed venous oxygen saturation
T ₃	Triiodothyronine
T ₄	Tetraiodothyronine (Thyroxine)
TAFI	Thrombin activatable fibrinolysis inhibitor
TAT	Thrombin antithrombin complex
TF	Tissue factor
TFPI	Tissue factor pathway inhibitor
TGF	Transforming growth factor
TIMPs	Tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinases
TLR	Toll like receptors
TM	Thrombomodulin
TNF	Tumor necrosis factor
Tnl	Troponin I
t-PA	Tissue-type plasminogen activator
TREM-1	Triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells-1
TSH	Thyroid stimulating hormone
TSST	Toxic shock syndrome toxine
UFH	Unfractionated heparin
u-PA	Urokinase-like plasminogen activator
VAP	Ventilator associated pneumonia
VCAM-1	Vascular cell adhesion molecule-1
VLDL	Very low density lipoprotein
WBC	White blood cells

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Introduction

Sepsis is the main cause of death in surgical intensive care units (ICUs), with a continuously increasing incidence and a mortality rate depending on sepsis severity and the days of hospital stay. Therefore, both an early diagnosis and a timely prognosis of sepsis are of great importance to control efficacy of antibiotic and surgical therapy, to manage further diagnostics and interventions and to optimize cost containment by adequate resource allocation (*Tschaikowsky et al.*, 2011).

Early and appropriate antibiotic therapy is critical in sepsis. Likewise, limiting exposure when infection is absent will become exceedingly important as drug resistance increases. These complexities have led to the search for a biomarker or set of biomarkers with compelling sensitivity and specificity for effectively identifying the disease, patients at risk for untoward outcomes and reliably guiding treatment (*Ventetuolo and Levy*, 2008).

The pathophysiology of sepsis and septic shock involves a complex interaction between the pathogen and the host's immune system that result in the release of inflammatory mediators, vasodilation, increased vascular permeability, diffuse endothelial disruption, activation of coagulation pathways and thrombosis of end organ capillaries. The cascade of inflammation and thrombosis can be triggered by endotoxins contained within the cell wall of gram negative bacteria or exotoxin released by gram positive bacteria (*Filbin*, 2010).

Septic shock falls under the category of distributive shock, which is characterized by pathologic vasodilation and shunting of blood from vital organ to nonvital tissues such as skin, skeletal muscles and adipose tissue. Endothelial dysfunction and vascular maldistribution of distributive shock results in global tissue hypoxia or inadequate delivery of oxygen to vital tissues. In mitochondria become addition. can dysfunctional, compromising oxygen utilization at the tissue level. Furthermore, activation of the coagulation cascade and fibrin deposition cause microthombi to form in end organ capillaries. These factors lead to organ dysfunction and eventual failure (Landry and Oliver, 2001) (Trzeciak and Rivers, 2005).

The diagnosis of sepsis is difficult, because clinical signs of sepsis often overlap with other non infectious causes of systemic inflammation. These signs include tachycardia, leucocytosis, tachypnea, and pyrexia which are collectively termed a systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS). SIRS is very common in critically ill patients, being found in various conditions including trauma, surgery and hypoxic injuries. Microbiological culture can be used to distinguish sepsis from non infectious conditions. However, this method lacks sensitivity and specificity and there is often a substantial time delay (*Benjamin et al.*, 2007).

Blood cultures are based on the detection of viable microorganisms present in blood. Blood cultures are used to detect viable pathogens and have the advantage of allowing the evaluation of their antimicrobial susceptibility. This aspect is important, as several studies have shown that inadequate antimicrobial therapy is an independent risk factor for mortality for severely ill patients with life-threatening infections (Mancini et al, 2010).

In patients with sepsis, blood cultures are positive in not more than 30% to 40% and also may be found in patients without sepsis. Microbiologic proof of infection is expensive and may be difficult in patients with prior antibiotic treatment. Positive results may indicate colonization or contamination without pathophysiologic relevance. In 35%, sepsis cannot be proved microbiologically despite the presence of clinical signs and suspicion of a focus (*Reinhart et al, 2006*).

Recent data and cumulative analysis indicate that biomarkers improve diagnosis of sepsis and may help to predict the prognosis of septic patients. In the scene of sepsis biomarkers, procalcitonin (PCT), C-reactive protein (CRP) and interleukin-6 (IL-6) are the most investigated markers in clinical trials. In recent published studies, procalcitonin is of better value for diagnosis and prognosis of sepsis when compared with markers such as CRP or with proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 (Hoffmann et al., 2009).

Concentration of CRP has been used to follow septic patients but it is poor diagnostic and prognostic indicator because of the time taken to produce a reaction and the duration of the increase in serum concentration. Then attention has turned to the use of PCT assay for diagnosis and decision making (*Diane*, 2006).

PCT is a marker of the inflammatory response. In systemic inflammatory conditions and sepsis, inflammatory mediators

trigger the production of PCT. PCT level increases within 3 to 6 hours of the stimulus. Higher PCT levels are associated with poorer prognosis and are found in patients with sepsis, severe sepsis, and septic shock (Becker et al., 2008) (Schneider and Lam, 2007).

The US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has approved the use of PCT in conjunction with other laboratory findings and clinical assessments to aid in the risk assessment of critically ill patients on their first day of ICU admission for progression to severe sepsis and septic shock (*Jensen et al.*, 2006).

IL-6 is an important mediator in septic shock and has long been acknowledged to predict severity and outcome in this disease. As a marker of infection, it is relatively nonspecific, because it is elevated in a variety of inflammatory states. As one of the initial cytokines released in inflammation, IL-6 may be an early predictor of more downstream effects, such as organ dysfunction (*Chawla et al.*, 2007).

Pathophysiology of Sepsis

Introduction

Definitions developed by the American College of Chest Physicians and the Society of Critical Care Medicine in 1992 to describe various components of this complicated clinical state.

Infection

A microbial phenomenon characterized by an inflammatory response to the presence of micro-organisms or the invasion of normally sterile host tissue by these organisms.

Bacteremia

The presence of viable bacteria in the blood. Bacteremia can either be transient, sustained or intermittent.

Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome (SIRS)

The systemic inflammatory response to various severe clinical insults, including but not limited to infection. Various other clinical insults include pancreatitis, ischemia, multiple trauma and tissue injury. SIRS requires two or more of the following conditions:

- Temperature $>38 \circ C$ or $<36 \circ C$
- Heart rate >90 beats/min
- Respiratory rate >20 breaths/min or PaCO₂ <32 mm Hg
- White blood cells (WBC) >12,000/mm₃, <4000 cells/mm₃, or >10% immature (band) forms (*Bone et al., 1992*).