Year 2025 Volume 3 Issue 1

Journal of European Internal Medicine Professionals (JEIMP)

J Eur Int Med Prof

e-ISSN: 2980-0617

Publisher: MKD Digital Health & The Foundation for the Management of Chronic Diseases

www.jeimp.com

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Foreword

We are pleased to present the latest issue of JEIMP (2025; 3(1)), featuring a diverse selection of high-quality research spanning internal medicine, endocrinology, cardiology, infectious diseases, and more. This edition includes insightful studies on calcium metabolism in secondary hyperparathyroidism, the predictive role of the HALP score in diabetes, and frailty status in older adults with diabetes mellitus. Additionally, novel case reports shed light on rare conditions such as sinonasal invasive mucormycosis and left ventricular myocardial metastasis. A comprehensive review on HPV vaccines and an analysis of antifungal susceptibilities further enrich this issue.We extend our gratitude to all authors and reviewers for their invaluable contributions. We hope this collection of research fosters further advancements in clinical practice and medical science.

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 31.12.2024 Accepted at: 07.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025



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Abstract

Background: Many patients on hemodialysis (HD) receive treatment for secondary hyperparathyroidism (sHPT), but few studies have assessed the clinical outcomes for these patients when treated with cinacalcet or parathyroidectomy (PTx). This study aimed to compare the short-term outcomes of cinacalcet and PTx in HD patients with sHPT.

Methods: The study included retrospective data from 52 patients with ESRD who underwent HD and were diagnosed with sHPT between 2001 and 2013. Data regarding participant age, gender, serum calcium (mg/dL), phosphorus (mg/dL), and parathormone (PTH, pg/mL) levels before and six months after treatment initiation (after surgery for patients who underwent PTx) were obtained from patient files.

Results: The study involved 12 patients who underwent PTx, 18 patients treated with cinacalcet, and 22 who received calcitriol. PTx was the only treatment that significantly reduced post-treatment calcium. The mean calcium levels of patients treated with PTx were 7.67 ± 0.95 mg/dL, showing a mean difference of 1.2 mg/dL (p=0.005, paired-samples t-test). Both PTx and cinacalcet significantly reduced phosphorus levels, when compared in mean changes, patients who underwent PTx had higher median reductions in phosphorus concentrations compared to patients treated with cinacalcet (p=0.03, Mann-Whitney U test). Post-treatment PTH levels significantly decreased in both the PTx and cinacalcet groups, however, only the patients who underwent PTx achieved PTH levels within the recommended range; post-treatment PTH levels in the cinacalcet group remained higher than recommended levels.

Conclusion: Both PTx and cinacalcet are beneficial in managing sHPT, however, PTx provides more significant improvements in mineral metabolism, while cinacalcet offers a less invasive alternative as a medical treatment.

Keywords: Cinacalcet, Hyperparathyroidism, Parathyroidectomy, End-Stage Kidney Disease, Mineral and Bone Disorder

INTRODUCTION

End-stage renal disease (ESRD) is an increasing global health issue, affecting over 2 million people worldwide who require renal replacement therapies (RRT), such as hemodialysis (HD), peritoneal dialysis, or kidney transplantation (1). HD is the most common treatment for ESRD, especially in settings where other options are limited (2). Secondary hyperparathyroidism (sHPT) is a frequent complication among patients undergoing HD. sHPT is marked by increased levels of parathyroid hormone (PTH), which can cause bone mineral metabolism disorders resulting in hypercalcemia, hyperphosphatemia, elevated levels of FGF23, and a deficiency in active vitamin D. sHPT can contribute to negative cardiovascular and bone mineral outcomes (3,4). Epidemiological data in dialysis patients provide substantial evidence that elevated PTH is associated with mortality (5). According to the KDIGO 2017 Clinical Practice Guideline Update for the Diagnosis, Evaluation, Prevention and Treatment of Chronic Kidney Disease-Mineral and Bone Disorder (CKD-MBD), the current recommendation for the management of sHPT includes

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lowering serum phosphate levels through dietary phosphorus restriction and oral phosphorus binders, as well as controlling PTH levels through the use of vitamin D analogs and calcimimetic (4).

Calcimimetic agents, such as cinacalcet and etelcalcetide, have emerged as effective treatments for managing sHPT in HD patients. These agents activate calcium-sensing receptors in the parathyroid glands, reducing PTH secretion without increasing serum calcium and phosphorus levels (6,7). Parathyroidectomy (PTx) can serve as salvage therapy in sHPT that does not respond to medical treatments, including vitamin D, phosphorus-binding agents, and calcimimetics (4). Although calcimimetics targeting abnormal CKD-MBD parameters do not reduce cardiovascular mortality, they reduce PTH, calcium, and phosphorus levels and increase bone mineral density (7-9). Whereas, in addition to these positive effects, PTx may provide benefit on patient mortality (10,11). In contrast, PTx for sHPT in ESRD has been shown to have a higher complication and mortality rate compared to PTx for other indications (12). Therefore, surgery is typically reserved for patients with refractory disease that cannot be managed through medical therapy, even though there are reported cardiovascular benefits. Cinacalcet has proven effective for patients with advanced parathyroid hyperplasia, and since its introduction in many countries, the annual rates of PTx have decreased (13).

Many patients on HD receive treatment for sHPT, but few studies have assessed the clinical outcomes for these patients when treated with cinacalcet or PTx. This study aimed to compare the short-term outcomes of cinacalcet and PTx in HD patients with sHPT.

METHODS

Study Design and Population

The study included retrospective data from 52 patients with ESRD who underwent HD and were diagnosed with sHPT between 2001 and 2013. Patients were age and gender-matched and categorized into three groups based on their treatment options: Group 1 comprised patients who underwent PTx, Group 2 comprised patients treated with cinacalcet, and Group 3 comprised patients who received calcitriol (control group). Patients who had previously undergone thyroid or parathyroid surgery and received cinacalcet/etelcalcetide treatment before follow-up, could not receive effective HD treatment for any reason, and had insufficient data were excluded from the study. In addition, patients under 18 and those with active infections or malignancies were excluded from the study.

Data Collection and Processing

Data regarding participant age, gender, serum calcium (mg/dL), phosphorus (mg/dL), and parathormone (PTH, pg/mL) levels before and six months after treatment

initiation (after surgery for patients who underwent PTx) were obtained from patient files. All assays were performed on blood samples prior to HD. Plasma PTH was measured using an immunometric assay that detects full-length and amino-terminally truncated peptide fragments (normal range 12-72 pg/mL). As recommended in the literature, appropriate PTH levels in HD patients were defined as being maintained within a range of approximately 2 to 9 times the upper normal limit for the assay (upper limit 378 pg/mL) (14). The inclusion criteria for the cinacalcet and PTx groups were plasma PTH level above the upper limit of 378 pg/mL, serum calcium-phosphate product above 45 mg2/dL2, and serum calcium above 8.4 mg/dL (7,14). All patients received HD treatment three days a week, and their HD treatments were similar. The patients' last three-month kt/V values were above 1.2. All patients followed an appropriate diet and received phosphorus-lowering treatment for phosphorus control. All patients, including the calcitriol control group, received treatment with at least three mcg/week of calcitriol. Under appropriate calcitriol treatment, PTH levels were above 1000 pg/ mL in the PTx group. For patients receiving cinacalcet, treatment began at a low dose, as recommended in the literature, and was gradually increased to the maximum dose based on calcium levels (7).

Ethical Considerations

This study was carried out according to the ethical rules and principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants were informed of the study protocol and provided informed consent, and patient data was retrospectively accessed and anonymized before analysis. The retrospective study protocol was approved by the local Hospital's ethics committee (Date: 01/2014, protocol number: 17).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Number Cruncher Statistical System (NCSS) 2007 and Power Analysis and Sample Size (PASS) 2008 programs were used for statistical analysis. The normality of continuous variables was evaluated using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Categorical data were presented as counts and percentages, while continuous variables were reported as means and standard deviations. Categorical comparisons were analyzed using Pearson's chi-square test and Fisher's exact test. For continuous variables, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare more than two groups. Post-hoc analysis was conducted using Tukey's HSD and Tamhane's T2 tests. Comparisons between the two groups were conducted using t-tests and Mann-Whitney U tests. A statistical significance level of 0.05 was established for the study.

RESULTS

The study involved 12 patients who had PTx, 18 patients

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treated with cinacalcet, and 22 who received calcitriol. All patients were matched for age and sex, had ESRD, were undergoing HD, and were diagnosed with sHPT. Twenty-six patients (50%) were female; 5 (41.7%) patients had PTx; 9 (50%) patients were treated with cinacalcet, and 12 (54.5%) who received calcitriol were female. Gender distribution was similar among groups (p=0.773, chi-square test). The mean age of patients undergoing PTx was 58.2 ± 12.1 years, compared to 55.3 ± 10.4 years for those treated with cinacalcet, and 58.3 ± 16.5 years for those treated with calcitriol. The mean ages of the three groups were similar (p=0.775, one-way ANOVA).

The mean pre-treatment calcium levels for patients undergoing PTx were 8.87±0.76 mg/dL. In comparison, patients treated with cinacalcet had mean levels of 8.98±0.57 mg/dL, while those treated with calcitriol had mean levels of 8.54±0.59 mg/dL. Overall, the pretreatment calcium levels among the three groups were similar (p=0.07, one-way ANOVA). PTx was the only treatment that significantly reduced post-treatment calcium levels. The mean calcium levels of patients treated with PTx were 7.67±0.95 mg/dL, showing a mean difference of 1.2 mg/dL (p=0.005, paired-samples t-test). In comparison, post-treatment mean calcium levels for patients treated with cinacalcet was 8.77±0.7 mg/dL (p=0.361, paired-samples t-test) and those treated with calcitriol had post-treatment mean calcium levels of 8.59±0.54 mg/dL (p=0.672, paired-samples t-test) (Figure 1A, B, C).

The mean pre-treatment phosphorus levels for patients undergoing PTx were 6.57±0.98 mg/dL. In comparison, patients treated with cinacalcet had mean levels of 5.91±1.45 mg/dL, while those treated with calcitriol had mean levels of 5.19±1.31 mg/dL. Pre-treatment phosphorus levels between the three groups differed significantly (p=0.015, one-way ANOVA), specifically, patients undergoing PTx had higher phosphorus levels compared to those treated with calcitriol (p=0.013, posthoc Tukey's HSD); other two-groups comparisons were similar. Both PTx and cinacalcet significantly reduced phosphorus levels. After treatment, the phosphorus levels of patients who underwent PTx were measured at 4.5±1.26 mg/dL (p=0.001, paired-samples t-test), while those treated with cinacalcet had levels of 4.82±1.35 mg/ dL (p=0.004, paired-samples t-test). Calcitriol did not significantly change phosphorus levels, post-treatment phosphorus levels were 5.31±1.19 mg/dL (p=0.336, paired-samples t-test) (Figure 1B). When compared in mean changes, patients who underwent PTx had higher median reductions in phosphorus concentrations compared to patients treated with cinacalcet (p=0.03, Mann-Whitney U test).

The mean pre-treatment PTH levels for patients undergoing PTx were 1935.14±220 pg/mL. In

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comparison, patients treated with cinacalcet had mean PTH levels of 1254.22 ± 670.58 pg/mL, while those treated with calcitriol had mean PTH levels of 261.05 ± 167.68 pg/mL. There were significant differences in pre-treatment PTH levels among the three groups (p=0.001, one-way ANOVA). Specifically, patients undergoing PTx had higher PTH levels compared to those treated with cinacalcet (p=0.002, post-hoc Tukey's HSD) and calcitriol (p=0.001, posthoc Tukey's HSD). Additionally, patients treated with cinacalcet also had higher PTH levels than those treated with calcitriol (p=0.001, post-hoc Tukey's HSD). Posttreatment PTH levels significantly decreased in both the PTx and cinacalcet groups. The mean PTH levels were 161.28 ± 91.11 pg/mL for the PTx group and $488.89\pm$



Figure 1. Pre- and post-treatment serum calcium (A), phosphorus (B) and parathormone (C) levels of three different treatment groups.

42.22 pg/mL for the cinacalcet group (p=0.001 for both comparisons, paired-samples t-test). In comparison, posttreatment PTH levels in patients treated with calcitriol remained similar to their pre-treatment levels, measuring 162.69±111.05 pg/mL (p=0.21, paired-samples t-test) (Figure 1C). Notably, only the patients who underwent PTx and those treated with calcitriol achieved PTH levels within the recommended range for ESRD. In contrast, post-treatment levels in patients treated with cinacalcet remained higher than the recommended levels. Posttreatment PTH levels differed significantly between three groups (p=0.001, one-way ANOVA); specifically, both patients underwent PTx (p=0.001, post-hoc Tamhane's T2) and patients treated with calcitriol (p=0.006, posthoc Tamhane's T2) had lower PTH levels compared to patients treated with cinacalcet.

DISCUSSION

sHPT is one of the serious health problems frequently encountered in HD patients (15). Changes in calcium, phosphorus, and PTH metabolism in these patients are linked to morbidities, including bone pain, fractures, calciphylaxis, and, notably, an increased risk of cardiovascular issues and mortality (5,16). sHPT related to ESRD is typically managed with phosphorus-binding agents and active vitamin D. Nevertheless, achieving the desired levels of calcium, phosphorus, and PTH remains unattainable for many patients (10,17). This study examined the short-term outcomes of cinacalcet versus PTx in HD patients with sHPT. Our findings indicated that both treatment options were superior to calcitriol alone in managing CKD-MBD. Additionally, PTx was found to lower PTH levels more effectively, although it resulted in a higher prevalence of lower calcium levels.

PTx is frequently recommended as an effective treatment option in sHPT, especially in patients with advanced hyperplasia (12). However, surgical intervention carries the risk of complications and potential side effects; therefore, it is emphasized that it should be applied primarily to patients who are resistant to medical treatment (13). Our study's differences between the PTx and cinacalcet treatment groups were significant. PTx significantly reduced PTH, calcium, and phosphorus levels, supporting its effectiveness in managing sHPT. Cinacalcet stands out as a medical treatment for sHPT that can be preferred over surgical intervention; it inhibits PTH production by activating calcium-sensing receptors in the parathyroid glands, providing an effective approach to balancing patients' PTH levels (7). There is no strong evidence in the literature that cinacalcet reduces cardiovascular mortality; however, it is effective in correcting sHPT and CKD-MBD (18). Therefore, the effect of cinacalcet treatment may be limited, and PTx may be necessary in refractory patients (10). In our study, PTH levels of patients receiving cinacalcet decreased

significantly after treatment but did not reach the targeted PTH range, unlike PTx. In addition, although significant improvement in phosphorus levels was observed after cinacalcet, this effect was more limited compared to PTx, which may lead to the conclusion that cinacalcet is potentially less effective than PTx and shows greater individual response differences.PTx is not without flaws regarding CKD-MBD; one of the important side effects of calcimimetics and PTx is hypocalcemia (18). Our study showed that cinacalcet did not significantly decrease calcium levels in our patients, whereas PTx did, with a 1.2 mg/dl decrease. Although the decrease was not life-threatening, patients treated with PTx should be monitored for hypocalcemia.

Limitations

Our study had some limitations. First, being a singlecenter investigation with a limited patient population may have weakened our statistical power. Second, as our research relied on data from electronic medical records, we faced challenges such as incomplete data and accessibility issues with laboratory results, often inherent to retrospective studies. Third, while the demographic data for the PTx and cinacalcet groups were similar, other unrecorded or unidentified factors-such as current medications and additional comorbiditiesmight have influenced the results. Fourth, there are no clear criteria in the literature for diagnosing sHPT in HD patients and for choosing calcimimetic/PTx treatments, and treatment decisions often vary from center to center. Nevertheless, we believe that these findings, which our center treated by setting certain standards and detecting as a result, may contribute to the literature. Finally, the short follow-up period prevented the evaluation of the patients in terms of morbidity and mortality. Studies with a larger number of patients and longer follow-up periods are necessary.

CONCLUSION

Our findings suggest that PTx and cinacalcet are beneficial in managing sHPT, but both treatment approaches have different advantages and limitations. PTx provides more significant improvements in mineral metabolism, while cinacalcet offers a less invasive alternative as a medical treatment. However, it should be noted that this is retrospective data, and treatment strategies should be personalized according to the patient's clinical condition, considering their responses to treatment and the risks of complications. This study's results allow us to understand better the effectiveness and limitations of different treatment methods for sHPT in HD patients. These findings are important for guiding treatment decisions, and future studies may provide more comprehensive data by examining long-term outcomes.

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DECLERATIONS

Ethics committee approval: This study was carried out according to the ethical rules and principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants were informed of the study protocol and provided informed consent, and patient data was retrospectively accessed and anonymized before analysis. The retrospective study protocol was approved by the local Hospital's ethics committee (Date: 01/2014, protocol number: 17).

Financial disclosure: This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Author contributions: All authors declare that they have all participated in the design, execution, and analysis of the paper and that they have approved the final version.

Conflicts of interest: Authors declare none.

Acknowledgments: The authors thank Dr. İsmail Ekizoğlu and Dr. Ali Abbas Özdemir for their valuable contributions to the completion of this work.

AI: Not applied

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 16.11.2024 Accepted at: 31.12.2024 Published at: 31.01.2025



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Abstract

Background: Electrolyte imbalance and volume overload are common in chronic kidney disease and heart failure. We aimed to evaluate the relationship between serum sodium and N terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide (NT-proBnp) based on estimated glomerular filtration rates in heart failure (HF) patients with low ejection fraction.

Methods: A total of 389 patients aged 18-80 years who presented to our hospital with symptoms of heart failure were included in the study. Demographic, laboratory, and echocardiography findings were recorded. The study group consisted of patients with ejection fraction (EF) less than 55% and estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) less than 90mL/min, and subgroups were formed according to eGFR, ejection fraction and NT-proBnp level.

Results: Of the total group, 54.5% were female, and the median age was 64 (IQR18) years. Age, NT-ProBnp, creatinine, BUN, and CRP were significantly (p<.05) higher in the study group compared to the control group. When subgroups were compared according to eGFR, age, creatinine, NT-proBnp, BUN, and CRP were significantly (p<.05) higher in the group with eGFR<45mL/min compared to the group with eGFR=45-89mL/min. In the group with NT-proBNP above 6000, it was seen that eGFR, EF, sodium, albumin, and hematocrit were effective at a rate of 38.4% in the multivariate logistic regression model.

Conclusion: In HF and low eGFR, NT-proBnp increases with volume increase. In light of the data that NT-proBnp, which is known to be released from stress-induced cardiomyocytes, is excreted and metabolized via the renal route, renal function should be taken into consideration in the interpretation of NT-proBnp elevated levels.

Keywords: Heart Failure, Chronic Kidney Disease, Natriuretic Agents, Sodium

INTRODUCTION

The Heart failure is defined as the inability of the heart to deliver enough oxygen to tissues to meet its metabolic needs and structural or functional impairment of the heart. It is a life-threatening chronic health problem and is among the most common causes of hospitalization in the elderly. Early diagnosis not only slows the course of the disease but also reduces the number of hospitalizations, deaths, and costs. In patients with complaints of heart failure, natriuretic peptides play a key role in the diagnosis and have a high negative predictive value and exclude the diagnosis (1). Studies have revealed a significant increase in natriuretic peptide levels in chronic kidney disease and heart failure with low ejection fraction (2-5).

In both heart failure and chronic kidney disease (CKD), volume overload is an expected finding, especially in advanced stages (6). In addition to volume overload, salt restriction also predisposes to dilutional hyponatremia. In chronic kidney disease, impaired concentration and dilution ability of the kidney make patients even more prone to hyponatremia (7,8). In a study conducted in patients with hyponatremia, NT-proBnp levels were

used to assess volume status (9). Another study showed a negative correlation between serum sodium and NTproBNP in venous congestion in heart failure patients (10). Sodium is the main cation of the extracellular fluid and a serum sodium level <135 meq/L is defined as hyponatremia. It is the most common electrolyte disturbance encountered in clinical practice and is estimated to be present in 10% to 30% of hospitalized patients. The presence of hyponatremia, regardless of etiology, is associated with increased morbidity and mortality in outpatients and hospitalized patients and is considered an important marker of serious illness (11).

Assessment of volume status is very difficult and of critical importance. Brain natriuretic peptide (BNP) is synthesized in the ventricles in response to myocyte stretch and/or pressure overload. Pro-BNP consists of 108 amino acids and proteolysis of pro-BNP results in active BNP with 32 amino acids and an inactive amino-terminal fragment with 76 amino acids (12). In the kidneys, BNP increases glomerular filtration rate and blood flow by increasing efferent arterial tone and decreasing afferent arterial tone. It also decreases renin release and sodium reabsorption, leading to diuresis and natriuresis. BNP is used in the diagnosis of congestive heart failure and to differentiate whether dyspnea is of cardiac or pulmonary origin (12). Clearance from plasma has been associated with renal excretion (13).

Chronic kidney disease is defined as the presence of kidney damage, glomerular filtration rate of less than 60 milliliters per minute, and this condition lasting longer than three months, regardless of the cause (14). It is one of the world's most common chronic non-communicable diseases. The World Health Organization predicts that by 2040, chronic kidney disease will be the fifth most common chronic disease (15).

Electrolyte changes may occur in chronic kidney disease and heart failure (16,17). The frequency of hypervolemic hyponatremia increases in heart failure This study aimed to evaluate the relationship (18).between sodium and NT-proBnp at different estimated glomerular filtration rates in heart failure patients with low ejection fraction. We investigated how different glomerular filtration rate levels affect NT-proBnp and serum sodium levels, which provide insight into volume overload. Since the effect of increased natriuretic peptides on mortality has been shown in previous studies, the relationship between NT-proBnp levels and other findings and parameters (volume status, sodium, potassium, eGFR, hematocrit, CRP, albumin, BUN, creatinine and EF%) without natriuretic peptide levels (19).

METHODS

Between January 1, 2018, and November 30, 2023, 389 patients admitted to our hospital with known heart

failure or with a medical condition suspicious of heart failure were included in the study. Exclusion criteria were being under 18 years of age and over 80 years of age, having myxoma and mural thrombus in the heart on echocardiography, septic shock, pregnancy, acute coronary syndrome, known malignancy, acute kidney injury (anuria, increase in basal creatinine by more than 30% in the last 24 hours), peritoneal dialysis and being on hemodialysis program. A total of 176 patients fulfilling these criteria were excluded from the study. Two hundred thirteen patients were divided into study and control groups. The study group consisted of patients with EF less than 55% and eGFR less than 90 ml/min/1.73 m2, while the control group consisted of patients with EF greater than 55% and eGFR greater than 90 ml/min/1.73 m2. The study group was divided into subgroups according to progression risk assessment as Stage 3b below (<44 ml/min/1.73m2) and Stage 3a above (45-89 ml/min/1.73m2) eGFR, low (40%) and preserved (41-54%) EF and NT-ProBnp >6000 pg/mL and above with increased mortality risk. Demographic data including age and gender, laboratory data including NT-proBNP, eGFR, sodium, potassium, albumin, creatinine, blood urea nitrogen (BUN), C reactive protein (CRP), hematocrit and ejection fraction (EF%) measured by echocardiography were recorded from the database.

The study group was subdivided into EF≤40% and EF 41-54%, eGFR <45 ml/min/1.73m2 and eGFR 45-89 ml/min/1.73m2, NT-ProBnp <6000pg/mL, NT-ProBnp ≥6000pg/dL.

Laboratory tests, including BUN, creatinine, albumin, CRP, sodium, potassium, and hematocrit levels, were measured with a clinical biochemistry auto analyzer Abbott Architect c8000 (Abbott Diagnostics, Illinois, USA). Echocardiography was performed with a Vivid S70N Version 202 device.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 29.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA, 2023). Categorical variables were summarized as frequencies (n) and percentages (%). The normality of continuous variables was assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Continuous variables were described using arithmetic mean, standard deviation, median, minimum, and maximum values.

For quantitative independent data, the Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests were employed, while qualitative independent data were analyzed using the chi-square test. Relationships between variables were examined using Pearson's and Spearman's correlation coefficients, depending on data distribution. The effect sizes of variables that did not follow a normal distribution



Figure 1. Flow diagram demonstrates the study design

were evaluated using univariate and multivariate logistic regression models. A significance level of p < .05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

A total of 389 patients, both male and female, aged 18-80 years, who presented to our hospital with symptoms of heart failure were included in the study. After excluding 176 patients who did not meet the inclusion criteria, 213 patients were included in the study. Two main groups were formed: study and control groups. The study group was divided into subgroups according to eGFR EF and NT-ProBnp (Figure 1).

Of the total group, 54.5% were female, and the median age was 64 (IQR18) years. There was no significant difference between the study and control groups in gender, sodium, and potassium (p>.05). Age, NT-ProBnp, creatinine, BUN, and CRP were significantly higher in the study group compared to the control group

Sodium(mmol/L)

Albumin(g/L)

BUN (mg/dL)

Hematocrit(%)*

CRP (mg/L)

Potassium(mmol/L)

Creatinine(mg/dL)

(p<.05). Hematocrit, albumin, EF and eGFR were significantly higher in the control group than in the study group (p<.05) (Table 1).

When subgroups were compared according to eGFR, no significant difference was found between gender, EF, sodium, and potassium (p>.05). Age, NT-ProBnp, creatinine, BUN, CRP were significantly (p<.05) higher in the group with eGFR<45mL/min compared to the group with eGFR 45-89ml/min. Serum albumin and hematocrit were significantly (p<.05) higher in the group with eGFR 45-89mL/min (Table 2).

When subgroups were compared according to EF, no significant difference was found in gender, NT-ProBnp, sodium, potassium, albumin, creatinine, BUN, CRP, and hematocrit (p>.05). Age was significantly(p<.05) higher in the subgroup with EF between 40-54% (Table 3).

When the subgroups were compared according to NT-ProBnp, eGFR, sodium, albumin, and hematocrit were

Parameter		Total group n=213	Working group n=108	Control group n=105	x²,t,z
Gender	F: M:	117 (%54.5) 96 (%45.5)	64 (%59) 44 (%41)	53 (%51) 52 (%49)	-1.43
Age (year)		64 (18)	71 (11)	55 (20)	-8,8
EF %		54 (35)	31(20)	65 (2)	-12.70
eGFR(ml/min/1.73m ²)	88 (46)	53.5 (36)	98 (11)	-12.42
NT-ProBnp(pg/mL)		984 (5613)	5577 (9017)	100 (133)	-12.59

139(4)

4.2 (0.6)

37 (8)

0.91 (0.48)

17(13)

5 (19.4)

 41.24 ± 6.32

Table 1. Demographic characteristic of the group and laboratory results

EF; ejection fraction, eGFR; estimated glomerular filtration rate, NT-ProBNP; N-terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide, BUN; blood urea nitrogen, CRP; C-reactive protein. P<.001 was considered significant. x2: Fisher's exact test. *Data are presented as median(IQR) excluding Htc.

139 (5)

4,1 (0,8)

34 (7.4)

1.17 (0.61)

26 (16)

7.2 (25.4)

 39.09 ± 6.18

р

.155

<.001 <.001

<.001

<.001

.169

.071 <.001

<.001

<.001

<.001

<.001

-1.37

-1.80

-6.62

-11.07

-10.48

-3.30

-5.33

139(3)

4.2(0.5)

39 (4.7)

0.7 (0.16)

13 (5)

3.1 (13.5)

 43.44 ± 5.69

Parameter		eGFR<45 n=38	eGFR=45-89 n=70	x ² , t , z	р
Gender	F: M:	23 (%61) 15 (%39)	41 (%59) 29 (%41)	039	.505
Age (year)		73 (9)	69 (13)	-2.19	.028
EF %		35 (22)	30(15)	-1.43	.152
NT-ProBnp)	9005 (15873)	4077 (5169)	-3.64	<.001
Sodium		138 (4)	139 (4)	-1.79	.073
Potassium		4.20 (0.9)	4.05 (0.7)	-1.10	.270
Albumin		32.4 (6.3)	35.3 (7.8)	-2.02	.043
Creatinine		1.85 (1.09)	1.01 (0.27)	-7.68	<.001
BUN		39.5 (30)	21.0 (9)	-6.73	<.001
CRP		15.8 (32.2)	6.6(15)	-2.10	.035
Hematocrit		36.3 ± 5.4	40.5 ± 6.0	3.56	<.001

Table 2. Comparison of subgr	ups according to	o estimated	glomerular	filtration
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x2: Fisher's exact test. *Data are presented as median(IQR) excluding Htc.

significantly (p<.05) higher in the subgroup with NT-ProBnp<6000 pg/ml compared to the subgroup with NT-ProBnp \geq 6000 pg/ml. At the same time, no significant difference was found in gender, age, potassium, EF, and CRP (p>.05). BUN and creatinine were significantly (p<.05) higher in the group with ProBnp \geq 6000 compared to the NT-ProBnp<6000 pg/ml subgroup (Table 4).

In the study group, there was a low negative correlation between age and eGFR and hematocrit and a moderate positive correlation between Age and EF. There was a low negative correlation between EF and NT-ProBnp. There was a low positive correlation between eGFR and sodium and albumin, a low negative correlation between potassium and CRP, a low negative correlation between NT-ProBnp, and a moderate positive correlation between eGFR and hematocrit. NT-ProBnp had a low positive correlation with CRP, a low positive correlation with creatinine, and a low negative correlation with sodium, albumin, and hematocrit. There was a low negative correlation between sodium and creatinine and a moderate positive correlation between creatinine and hematocrit. There was a low negative correlation between creatinine and hematocrit and a low positive

correlation between creatinine and CRP.

In accordance with the study that found that 90-day survival after hospital discharge was higher in patients with NT-ProBnp below 6000 pg/mL, we created two subgroups by taking 6000 pq/mL as a threshold value in our study.15 In the group with NT-proBNP above 6000pg/mL, eGFR was 22.4% (95% CI [.936-.977], p<.001), EF 4.5% (%95 CI [.932-1.001], p=.05), sodium 7.7% (%95 CI [.800-.983], p=.022), hematocrit 7.5% (%95 CI [.859-.986], p=.018), and albumin 5.8% (%95 CI [.856-.994], p=.033) effective in the univariate model in logistic regression (Table 5). In the univariate model, eGFR, sodium, albumin, and hematocrit were significantly effective in differentiating the groups with NT-proBnp<6000 and \geq 6000. EF was found to be borderline statistically effective but not significant.

In the multivariate model, significant (p<.05) efficacy of eGFR and EF was observed in separating groups with NT-proBnp<6000pg/mL and \geq 6000pg/mL. Sodium efficacy was borderline but not statistically significant. In the multivariate logistic regression model on NT-proBNP \geq 6000, eGFR, EF, sodium, albumin, and

Parameter		EF<40 n=70	EF=40-54 n=38	x²,t,z	р
Gender	F : M:	44 (%63) 26 (%37)	20 (%53) 18 (%47)	1.06	.204
Age (year)		69.5 (12)	72.5 (9)	-2.11	.034
eGFR		63 (35)	46.5 (24)	-2.36	.018
NT-ProBnp		6264 (11112)	4831 (6101)	-1.66	.078
Sodium		139 (4)	138 (4)	-1.17	.242
Potassium		4 (0.7)	4.3 (0.7)	-1.87	.061
Albumin		34 (7)	34.7 (7.9)	-0.28	.775
Creatinine		1.13 (0.57)	1.28 (0.74)	-1.39	.162
BUN		24.5 (15)	26 (24)	-0.79	.425
CRP		7.1 (25.5)	8.3 (27.5)	-0.25	.737
Hematocrit		39.8 ± 5.8	37.6 ± 6.5	-1.81	.290

Table 3. Comparison of groups according to ejection fraction.

Parameter	NT-ProBnp<6000 n=59	NT-ProBnp≥6000 n=49	x²,t,z	р
Gender F : M:	37 (%63) 22 (%37)	27 (%55) 22 (%45)	1.06	.204
Age (year)	70 (11)	72 (10.4)	-0.76	.443
eGFR	62.63 ± 18.9	44.8 ± 20.3	4.70	<.001
EF %	35 (20)	30 (15)	-1.93	.053
Sodium	139 (3)	137 (5)	-3.03	.002
Potassium	4.2 (0.8)	4.0 (0.8)	-0.69	.490
Albumin	35.8 (7.9)	32.3 ± 5.5	-2.15	.031
Creatinine	1.04 (0.43)	1.44 (0.85)	-4.15	<.001
BUN	21 (11)	30 (22)	-4.74	<.001
CRP	5.9 (15)	13 (32,3)	-1.46	.144
Hematocrit	40.4 ± 6.4	37.5 ± 5.5	2.50	<.001

Table 4. Comparison of subgroups according to NT-proBNP

hematocrit had an effect of 38.4% (Table 5)

DISCUSSION

Heart failure is a life-threatening chronic health problem and a common cause of hospitalization in the elderly. Early diagnosis not only slows the course of the disease but also reduces the number of hospitalizations, mortality, and costs. Serum natriuretic peptide levels, which have a very high negative predictive value in heart failure, play a key role in the diagnosis. Knowing the NT-proBnp level has an important role in terms of survival and appropriate medical treatment (1).

In heart failure and chronic kidney disease, in addition to volume overload, potent diuretic use and salt restriction also lead to dilutional hyponatremia (6-8)

In this study, which aimed to evaluate the importance of natriuretic peptide levels in the diagnosis and followup of chronic kidney disease and heart failure with low ejection fraction, serum sodium was significantly lower in the group with NT-proBnp above 6000 pg/ml compared to the group with NT-proBnp below 6000 pg/ ml (2,3).

Hall et al. pointed out that data suggest that NT-proBnp is renally excreted or metabolized (13). Although serum NT-proBnp is known to be affected by glomerular filtration rate, in their study of urinary NT-proBnp excretion in patients with heart failure, Linssen et al. found that it was associated with renal blood flow but not with estimated glomerular filtration rate [20]. Although NT-proBnp was not investigated in urine in our study, the association of NT-proBnp with renal function was shown in our study.

Belagavi et al. investigated the relationship between NT-ProBnp and EF in patients admitted to the emergency department with dyspnea and showed a negative correlation between these two parameters (2). In our study group, a significant negative correlation was found between these parameters. However, no statistically significant correlation was found between these two parameters in our subgroups with low and

Table 5. Univariate and multivariate regression analysis	sis of factors have impact on T-proBnp ≥6000) pg/mL
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Univariate model in the group with NT-proBnp $\geq 6000 \text{ pg/mL}$								
Independent	\mathbb{R}^2	В	OR	CI	р			
eGFR	.224	044	.957	.936 – .977	<.001			
EF	.045	034	.966	.932 - 1.001	.059			
Sodium	.077	120	.887	.800 – .983	.022			
Potassium	.001	090	.914	.456 -1.833	.800			
Albumin	.058	081	.922	.856 – .994	.033			
CRP	.001	.002	1.002	.991 – 1.013	.729			
Hematocrit	.075	083	.920	.859 – .986	.018			
Multivarite mod	el in the	group wit	h NT-pro	Bnp≥6000 pg/m	L			
Independent	\mathbb{R}^2	В	OR	CI	р			
eGFR		053	.948	.886 – .974	<.001			
EF		074	.929	.923 – .974	.002			
Sodium	.384	114	.892	.795 – 1.001	.052			
Albumin		036	.946	.886 - 1.051	.414			
Hematocrit		025	.990	.898 - 1.060	.560			

mildly reduced EF. This may be due to the small number results of other studies. Early diagnosis and treatment of patients with mildly reduced EF and the older age group. Anemia from chronic kidney disease and reduced blood circulation in heart failure can cause hypoperfusion and hypoxia in tissue (1,21). These reasons suggest that in addition to the association of NT-proBNP with EF, other factors, such as hypoxia, may also contribute to the release of NT-proBNP from cardiomyocytes.

In the elderly population, Nerpin et al. demonstrated the early onset of left ventricular dysfunction before the development of symptomatic heart failure and CKD. Low eGFR was found to have an independent effect on left ventricular function decline (22). When our study subgroups were compared according to eGFR, no significant correlation was found with EF, whereas when our study subgroups were compared according to EF, it was observed that eGFR was higher in the subgroup with EF <40. This difference may be attributed to the small number of subgroups and the significant difference in age distribution. In addition, low eGFR and EF together increase mortality. This group was not used in the sample because the number of patients could not be reached, and those who started renal replacement therapy were not included in the inclusion criteria.

Arzhan et al. reported that CKD predisposes to dysnatremia, and the prevalence of hyponatremia and hypernatremia is higher than in the general population (23). Bianchi et al. also showed that hyperkalemia is the most common electrolyte disturbance in kidney disease and heart failure (24). We did not find a significant difference in serum sodium and potassium electrolytes between the control and study groups and between the eGFR subgroups. The reason may be that patients with chronic kidney disease are put on renal replacement therapy before electrolyte imbalance develops, the number of patients in the GFR<45% subgroup is less than in the GFR>45% group, and antihypertensive and diuretic treatments are adjusted by considering electrolyte levels in close follow-up of patients.

Portoles et al. reported that the prevalence of anemia in the predialysis phase of CKD was approximately 60% (21). As eGFR decreased, anemia became more common and severe. Analysis of cross-sectional data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) also found that anemia was twice as common in CKD patients compared to the general population.48 In the study by Guglin et al., anemia was found in half of the patients with advanced systolic heart failure. In the same study, it was shown that the decrease in hematocrit in heart failure was due to overload and hemodilution (25). In our study group with heart failure, the decrease in hematocrit with decreasing eGFR was significant compared to the control group, and it was also significant in the subgroup with eGFR <45 ml/min/1.73 m2 compared to the eGFR 45-89 ml/min/1.73 m2 group. This result was similar to the

of anemia has positive effects on the prognosis of heart failure. Willis et al. investigated the effects of anemia on NT-proBnp in patients without heart failure or renal disease. NT-proBnp levels were significantly higher in those with anemia (26). In this study, NT-proBnp and hematocrit parameters were significantly negatively correlated between the control and study groups. In the subgroup comparison according to NT-proBnp, hematocrit was significantly lower in the NT-proBnp \geq 6000 pg/ml subgroup. It was stated in the ESC 2021 Guideline that NT-proBnp may be affected not only by cardiac events but also by non-cardiac causes such as anemia (1). Our study also suggests that anemia, affects natriuretic peptides.

Limitations

Limitations of the study include the fact that it was a retrospective and cross-sectional study, the number of cases was limited in subgroups, the use of drugs effective on sodium in the patients, and the inability to access information on other factors affecting sodium. In order to evaluate the relationship between sodium and NT-proBnp in these patients, multicenter, prospective and large case numbers are needed.

CONCLUSION

In heart failure and low eGFR, NT-proBnp increases with increasing volume. In addition to the known negative correlation between NT-proBnp and sodium in chronic cardiorenal syndrome, we think that sodium level has a direct effect on NT-proBnp level. Strain-induced NTproBnp is known to be released from cardiomyocytes. In light of the data indicating that excretion and metabolization are via the renal route, renal function should be taken into consideration in the interpretation of high NT-proBnp levels.

DECLERATIONS

Ethical Issues: The study was approved by the Ufuk University Non-Interventional Clinical Research Evaluation Ethics Committee with decision date: 14.12.2023 and IRB no: 12024861-77. This study was conducted in accordance with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki, ensuring ethical standards for medical research involving human participants. As this research involved a retrospective review of existing data, it posed minimal risk to participants, and no additional interventions were performed. There were no ethical issues encountered during the conduct of this study.

Funding and Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that this research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or notfor-profit sectors. There are no conflicts of interest to disclose related to this study.

Author Contributions: The design of the research,

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data acquisition and analysis was done by M Emin Ince and Semahat Karahisar Sirali, the control and revision of the comments and the article were made by M Fatih Bulucu, and the version to be published was approved by M Fatih Bulucu and Ahmet Corakcı.

AI: No artificial intelligence was used at any stage of the article.

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JEIMP	The Journal of European Internal Medicine Professionals
Original Article	The Effects of Temporomandibular Joint Mobilization on Drooling Control, Swallowing Function and Quality of Life in Cerebral Palsy Patients; Double-Blind Study
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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 18.11.2024 Accepted at: 07.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025

JEIMP belongs to "The Foundation for the Management of Chronic Diseases" and is supervised by the MKD Digital Publishing. <u>www.jeimp.com and digitalmkd.com</u>

Abstract

Background: This study aimed to determine the effects of temporomandibular joint (TMJ) mobilization on saliva control, swallowing function, and quality of life in cerebral palsy (CP) patients with temporomandibular joint dysfunction (TMD).

Methods: A total of 20 patients who met the inclusion criteria and were between the ages of 1 and 18 years were included. They were then randomly divided into two groups. In the study group (n=10) patients were treated with TMJ mobilization in addition to control group treatments In the control group (n=10), patients were treated with physiotherapy, and a home program including passive joint movements was provided. The treatments were continued 2 sessions/ week and 6 weeks. Patients were evaluated using the Pediatric Functional Independence Measurement (WeeFIM), the Drooling Frequency and Severity Scale (DFSS), and the Assessment of Swallowing Ability and Function (SAFE).

Results: The difference between the SAFE scale scores before and after treatment was statistically significant (p<0,05). There were negative correlations between WeeFIM, and DFSS scores; a positive correlation between drool frequency and severity scores; a negative correlation between drool severity and mandible lateral deviation values; and a negative correlation between drool frequency and severity and mandible lateral deviation values; and a negative correlation between drool frequency.

Conclusion: As a result, it was found that temporomandibular mobilization in patients with cerebral palsy with TMD has a positive effect on saliva and swallowing functions and quality of life.

Keywords: Cerebral Palsy, Temporomandibular Joint Dysfunction, Swallowing, Quality of Life, Mobilization

INTRODUCTION

Drooling is the uncontrolled and continuous release of saliva from the mouth. The swallowing reflex does not develop, and saliva aspiration is observed. Approximately 40% of patients with cerebral palsy experience drooling, contributing to high levels of physical and social-emotional morbidity. Droolingcaused problems are unpleasant smell, oral infections, hygiene problems, dehydration, and skin irritation. The quadriplegic cerebral palsy group represents the most common category experiencing chronic drooling (30%-53%) (1,2).

In dysphagia, more time and effort are spent to send solid or liquid foods from the mouth to the stomach.

Dysphagia occurs in 2 out of 3 children with cerebral palsy, leading to complications such as dehydration, malnutrition, aspiration pneumonia, poor oral hygiene, a weakened immune system, the use of a tracheal tube, impaired quality of life, increased costs, and elevated mortality (3).

doi

10.5281/zenodo.14742163

Pain, crepitation in the joint, and irregular mandibular function are observed in TMD. Ortega et al. reported that the rate of TMD patients is significantly higher in patients with CP (68%) compared to normal subjects (25%), and the clinical severity of CP increases the pathological findings of TMJ (4).

Drooling, dysphagia, low quality of life, and high TMD

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prevalence are observed in patients with CP, and these symptoms emphasize the importance of diagnosis and evaluation (1-3). According to our knowledge, there is no study that evaluates and treats TMD, quality of life, drooling, and swallowing together in patients with CP in Turkish and global society.

The aim of this study was to determine the effects of TMJ mobilization on drooling, swallowing function, and quality of life in CP patients with TMD.

METHODS

Study Design

A randomized controlled double-blind study design was used. The measurements of the study were carried out by a blind physiotherapist, and the physiotherapist generated the random allocation sequence, assigned participants to interventions, and enrolled participants. The participants also blindly participated in the study. In addition, statistical analysis of the study was done by a blind biostatistics specialist. *Participants*

Our study was conducted at Birlikcan Private Education and Rehabilitation Center in Istanbul, involving 20 voluntary patients with cerebral palsy (CP) and temporomandibular joint disorders (TMD) within the age range of 1 to 18 years. Patients who had a wound in the mouth that hindered treatment, who were allergic to gloves, or who had an additional disease were not included. Participants were divided into two groups randomly. In the control group (n=10), patients were treated with physiotherapy and a home program, including passive joint movement. In the mobilization group (n=10), patients were treated with TMJ mobilization in addition to control group treatments. The treatments were continued for 2 sessions per week for 6 weeks. Evaluations and treatments were carried out face-to-face and individually.

Ethical Considerations

The ethical approval for the study was obtained from Istanbul Okan University's Social and Non-Interventional Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee. Additionally, permission was obtained from the Private Birlikcan Special Education and Rehabilitation Center. To comply with ethical principles in our study, informed consent was obtained from all participants' families, and they were assured that all information would remain confidential.

Data Collection

Before and after treatment, TMJ function, saliva control, swallowing function, and the quality of life of the participants were evaluated.

Data Collection Tools

Evaluation was conducted before and after treatment. Inclinometer

Active and passive joint movements of the TMJ were evaluated using an inclinometer. In mandible protrusion measurement, the lower incisors should be positioned in front of the upper incisors. The mandible was manually advanced, and subsequent measurements were taken. The movement was completed when resistance was felt, and the head began to move forward. The lower incisors should be 6-9 mm in front of the upper incisors. For mandible lateral deviation measurement, the distance between the upper and lower canines was measured using a ruler. It has been reported that the lateral deviation movement of the mandible can range between 6-10 mm. For passive mouth opening measurement, the distance between the upper and lower incisors was measured. The average range of motion (ROM) is between 43.5-52.1 mm (6).

Pediatric Functional Independence Measurement (WeeFIM) WeeFIM consists of six subsections and 18 items: personal care, sphincter control, transfers, movement, communication, social, and cognitive functions. Each item is scored from 1 (maximal assistance) to 7 (independent). Accordingly, a minimum score of 18 (fully dependent) and a maximum score of 126 (fully independent) can be obtained (7).

Drooling Frequency and Severity Scale (DFSS)

The DFDS scale is a subjective drooling scoring system used in otolaryngology and neurology. It was used to determine drooling levels pre- and post-salivary gland ablation. This scale contains a drooling frequency score ranging from 1 to 4 and a severity value ranging from 1 to 5. The minimum possible scale score is 2, and the maximum is 9.8.

Assessment of Swallowing Ability and Function (SAFE

SAFE was used to evaluate swallowing skills and functions. The scale has three subdimensions. In the physical evaluation of the oropharyngeal mechanism, the lips, tongue, palate, cheeks, teeth, mandible, larynx, and oral reflexes are evaluated (0: severe disorder, 1: moderate disorder, 2: mild disorder, 3: within functional limits). In the oral phase swallowing assessment, lip closure and tightness, tongue movements, chewing, and nasal backward flow were evaluated (using the same scoring method). In the other subdimension, delay in swallowing, laryngeal elevation, snagging and coughing, consecutive swallowing, voice change after swallowing, and the presence of backward flow were evaluated (9).

Treatment

Mobilization of TMJ is examined in 5 sections:

- 1. At the beginning of the range of motion (ROM), low-amplitude movement is applied to the sensitive joints. This technique works with neuromodulation.
- 2. In a part of the ROM, larger amplitude oscillation was applied.
- 3. At all ROM, high-amplitude oscillation was applied.

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- 4. At the end of the ROM, low-amplitude movement was applied.
- 5. Manipulation moves the joints more than usual. It involves high-speed, low-amplitude movements (5).

Distraction of TMJ

The physiotherapist places the thumb on the lower molar teeth of the patient, and the other digits provide the mandible, and he/she pushes the TMJ forward directly with the thumb (5).

Anterior Glide of TMJ

Positioning is the same. The physiotherapist applies the first level of traction to the TMJ with the thumb, and he/ she pulls the mandible forward while traction continues (5).

Medial Glide of TMJ

The physiotherapist places the thumb of both hands, perpendicular to each other, on the mandibular condyle of the joint, and he/she applies a push to the medial with the thumb (5).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical data were evaluated with IBM SPSS v22 and IBM SPSS AMOS v22 programs. Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, median, number, percentage, etc.) were calculated in the evaluation of the data. The suitability of quantitative variables to normal distribution was examined using the Shapiro-Wilk Test. The difference between the groups in terms of quantitative variables was examined using the t-test for normal distribution and the Mann-Whitney U test for non-normal distribution. T-test was used in dependent samples for normal distribution variables, and the Wilcoxon test was used for non-normal distribution variables. Spearman correlation analysis was used to examine the relationship between quantitative variables. The difference between the qualitative variables between groups was examined by the Chi-square test. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used for internal consistency in evaluating the reliability of the scale. The significance level was taken as p < 0.05.

RESULTS

The demographic characteristics of the patients are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics according to groups

The difference values of groups before and after treatment were shown in **Table 2**. There are no statistical differences between the groups in terms of WeeFIM scores, drooling frequency, and mandible lateral deviation values. The SAFE difference score of the mobilization group is higher than the control group, and the drooling severity, passive mouth opening, and mandible protrusion difference values of the mobilization group are more than the control group after the treatment

Table 3 shows the relationship between the pre- and posttreatment scales of the control group. When the table was examined, before the treatment, SAFE and passive mouth opening are correlated negatively. WeeFIM and mandible protrusion are correlated negatively, drooling severity and drooling frequency are correlated positively. After the treatment, SAFE and ROM of the mouth are correlated negatively, and drooling frequency and drooling severity are correlated positively.

Table 4 shows the relationship between the pre- and post-treatment scales of the mobilization group. Before the treatment, WeeFIM and drooling severity, frequency are correlated negatively. Drooling frequency and severity are correlated positively. Drooling severity and mandible lateral deviation are correlated negatively.

When the post-treatment section is examined, WeeFIM and drooling severity, frequency are correlated negatively. Drooling severity and frequency are correlated positively. Drooling severity and mandible lateral deviation are correlated negatively. Drooling frequency and mandible protrusion are correlated negatively.

DISCUSSION

When the literature is surveyed, our study, which investigates the effect of temporomandibular mobilization on saliva control, swallowing functions, and quality of life in patients with CP and TMJ dysfunction, is the first of its kind. We conducted a comprehensive analysis of the parameters, which were previously examined separately in the literature, for the first time. Studies on temporomandibular joint (TMJ) dysfunction in patients with cerebral palsy (CP) are limited.

In our study, TMD findings such as joint sensitivity, limited TMJ movements, deviation of the TMJ, and

Eastures	Control Group (n=10)	Mobilization Group (n=10)	Statistical	
reatures	Median (Min-Max)	Median (Min-Max)	Evaluation	
Height. cm	120.00 (75.00-163.00)	122.50 (95.00-165.00)	p=0.739	
Weight. kg	21.00 (8.20-70.00)	22.50 (13.00-51.00)	p=0.971	
Body mass index. kg/m ²	16.67 (10.96-31.82)	15.82 (11.52-21.53)	p=0.353	
Gender*. n(%). Female Male	6 (%75.00) 4 (%33.33)	2 (%25.00) 8 (%66.67)	p=0.170	
Age. year	7.25 (1.50-17.00)	7.50 (3.00-18.00)	p=0.631	

Faaturac	Control Group (n=10)	Mobilization Group (n=10)	Statistical
reatures	median (min-max)	median (min-max)	Evaluation
SAFE	0.00 (0.00-3.00)	3.00 (2.00-3.00)	p<0.001
WeeFIM	3.00 (0.00-8.00)	5.50 (1.00-11.00)	p=0.281
Drooling Severity	0.00 (0.00-1.00)	1.00 (0.00-1.00)	p=0.023
Drooling Frequency	0.00 (0.00-0.00)	0.00 (0.00-1.00)	p=0.481
PassiveMouth*	0.20 (-0.20-0.80)	0.40 (0.20-0.50)	p=0.023
MandibleProt**	0.00 (-0.10-0.20)	0.10 (0.10-0.20)	p=0.002
MandibleLat***	0.00 (0.00-0.10)	0.00 (-0.10-0.10)	p=0.912

Table 1. Demographic characteristics according to groups

SAFE; swallowing ability and function. WeeFIM; pediatric functional independence measurement

muscle spasms were present. In our study, findings such as joint sensitivity, limited TMJ movements, deviation of the TMJ, and muscle spasms align partially with those reported by McNeill et al., who identified a broader spectrum of symptoms, including tinnitus, insomnia, and vertigo.

While McNeill's findings provide a comprehensive overview, our study emphasizes the functional aspects of TMD in CP patients, highlighting the direct implications for treatment strategies (10). According to the study of Bae et al., TMD was diagnosed when at least three of these criteria were found (11). Laskin et al. have determined the five criteria: facial pain, sensitivity with palpation on the chewing muscles, crepitations, limitations in mouth opening width or deviation, and radiographic findings (12).

In our study, limitations were seen in mandible protrusion, lateral deviation, and passive mouth opening measurements. Dincer et al. also determined limitations in ROM of the mandible in TMD, and the results were parallel with our study (13).

In line with Wieckiewicz et al., who identified manipulation and mobilization as primary treatments for TMD, our study further demonstrates the efficacy of these techniques specifically in CP patients with TMD. While Dincer et al. focused on pain relief, our findings extend these results by showing improvements in swallowing function and quality of life, suggesting a multifaceted benefit of TMJ mobilization (13,14).

In the study of Purohit et al., they compared the effects of

 Table 3. Evaluation of difference values of groups before and after treatment

Mobilization Group	Features	SAFE	WeeFIM	Drooling Severity	Drooling Frequency	Passive Mouth*	Mandibleprot**	Mandiblelat***
	SAFE	1.000						
	WeeFIM	r=-0.44 p=0.203	1.000					
ts		r=0.287	r=-0.902	1.000		symmetrical		
nen	Drooling Severity	p=0.421	p<0.001	1.000		symmetrical		
eatr		r=0.304	r=-0.82	r=0.826	1.000			
L L	Drooling Frequency	p=0.393	p=0.004	p=0.003				
fore		r=0.189	r=0.609	r=-0.488	r=-0.4	1.000		
Be	PassiveMouth*	p=0.600	p=0.061	p=0.153	p=0.252	1.000		
		r=-0.024	r=0.158	r=-0.247	r=-0.35	r=-0.264	1.000	
	MandibleProt**	p=0.947	p=0.663	p=0.492	p=0.322	p=0.461	1.000	
		r=0.074	r=0.469	r=-0.685	r=-0.497	r=0.146	r=0.516 p=0.126	1.000
	MandibleLat***	p=0.839	p=0.171	p=0.029	p=0.144	p=0.687	1 0.510 p 0.120	1.000
	SAFE	1.000						
	WeeFIM	r=-0.179 p=0.622	1.000					
		r=0.196	r=-0.755	1.000		aummatriaal		
nent	Drooling Severity	p=0.587	p=0.012	1.000		symmetrical		
catu		r=0.035	r=-0.654	r=0.849	1.000			
Tr	Drooling Frequency	p=0.923	p=0.04	p=0.002	1.000			
fter		r=0.353	r=0.454	r=-0.353	r=-0.193	1.000		
Ÿ	PassiveMouth*	p=0.317	p=0.188	p=0.316	p=0.594	1.000		
		r=0.468	r=0.178	r=-0.248	r=-0.583	r=-0.086	1.000	
	MandibleProt**	p=0.173	p=0.624	p=0.49	p=0.077	p=0.813	1.000	
		r=-0.337	r=0.277	r=-0.789	r=-0.577	r=0.208	m=0.021 m=0.055	1.000
	MandibleLat***	p=0.341	p=0.438	p=0.007	p=0.08	p=0.563	r=0.021 p=0.955	1.000

Mobilization Group	Features	SAFE	WeeFIM	Drooling Severity	Drooling Frequency	Passive Mouth*	Mandibleprot**	Mandiblelat***
	SAFE	1.000						
	WeeFIM	r=-0.44 p=0.203	1.000					
ents	Drooling Severity	r=0.287 p=0.421	r=-0.902 p<0.001	1.000				
[]reatm	Drooling Frequency	r=0.304 p=0.393	r=-0.82 p=0.004	r=0.826 p=0.003	1.000			
lefore .	PassiveMouth*	r=0.189 p=0.6	r=0.609 p=0.061	r=-0.488 p=0.153	r=-0.4 p=0.252	1.000		
B	MandibleProt**	r=-0.024 p=0.947	r=0.158 p=0.663	r=-0.247 p=0.492	r=-0.35 p=0.322	r=-0.264 p=0.461	1.000	
	MandibleLat***	r=0.074 p=0.839	r=0.469 p=0.171	r=-0.685 p=0.029	r=-0.497 p=0.144	r=0.146 p=0.687	r=0.516 p=0.126	1.000
	SAFE	1.000						
	WeeFIM	r=-0.179 p=0.622	1.000					
lent	Drooling Severity	r=0.196 p=0.587	r=-0.755 p=0.012	1.000				
Treatu	Drooling Frequency	r=0.035 p=0.923	r=-0.654 p=0.04	r=0.849 p=0.002	1.000			
After '	PassiveMouth*	r=0.353 p=0.317	r=0.454 p=0.188	r=-0.353 p=0.316	r=-0.193 p=0.594	1.000		
	MandibleProt**	r=0.468 p=0.173	r=0.178 p=0.624	r=-0.248 p=0.49	r=-0.583 p=0.077	r=-0.086 p=0.813	1.000	
	MandibleLat***	r=-0.337 p=0.341	r=0.277 p=0.438	r=-0.789 p=0.007	r=-0.577 p=0.08	r=0.208 p=0.563	r=0.021 p=0.955	1.000

Table 4. Relation	onship between	the pre and	post-treatment se	cales of	the mobilization	group
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mobilization and exercise on maximum mouth opening, and they found mobilization more effective consequently (15). The objectives and results of these studies are in line with our study.

Our findings that drooling and swallowing problems are interrelated align with Erkin et al., who highlighted the broader spectrum of nutritional and dental issues in CP patients. However, unlike Erkin's study, which primarily reported prevalence, our research focuses on treatment outcomes, demonstrating significant improvements in drooling severity and swallowing function through TMJ mobilization (16).

In the light of these studies, it has been observed that drooling, swallowing, TMJ, and tooth problems are related.

In alignment with Matthews et al., who emphasized the health and social impacts of drooling, our study provides evidence of improved quality of life metrics post-treatment. Additionally, our findings support Tcheremenska et al., who linked drooling to feeding challenges, by showing that addressing TMD can mitigate these issues and enhance functional independence (17).

Also, in the study of Tcheremenska et al., it was reported that 66.7% of children with CP cannot be fed solid food because of drooling (18). In the study of Mathisen et al., it was shown that oral motor control disorders, abnormal neurological development, and poor nutritional position cause disorders in swallowing function in patients with CP. Thus, they found that drooling, coughing, and prolonged eating time caused family anger, poor communication with the child, and reduced quality of life (19).

As a result of these studies, it is concluded that saliva control increases the functional quality of life, independence in self-care skills, and social skills.

Duman et al. found that patients with spastic quadriplegic CP have more drooling problems than other types, and drooling is more common at a young age (20). In our study, patients could not be evaluated according to CP types because of the low sample size.

In the study by Novak et al., CP was defined as a neurodevelopmental and motor disorder characterized by drooling, eating difficulties, and speech problems (21). Avivi-Arber et al. showed that CP is associated with sensory and motor dysfunction of the orofacial region, including dysarthria, dysphagia, chewing disorder, and drooling problems (22). According to this study, CP is a neurodevelopmental, sensory, and motor disorder. But in our study, we did not investigate the sensory area of problems.

In a recent study, it was determined that swallowing occurred in 90%, eating in 39-85%, drooling in 22-40%, and speech problems in 53-59% of children with CP (23). We observed that there were swallowing (90%) and drooling (40%) problems in the control and mobilization groups. These issues warrant serious attention, and

further studies are needed to address them.

According to Stalling et al., the prevalence of swallowing problems, which may result in dehydration, aspiration, and pneumonia, is associated positively with the severity of motor involvement (24). Rempel et al. observed that the incidence of swallowing difficulties, airway protection problems, positioning, assisted feeding, and prolonged feeding times increased in CP with oral motor effects (25). These studies emphasize that the severity of the disease is related to problems with long feeding times, aspiration, and pneumonia.

Philpot et al. showed that successful swallowing and chewing experiences support communication between the family and the child, and on the other hand, nutritional difficulties cause health and social stress between families and children (26). Guare et al. showed that periodontal disease and dental caries are observed in children with CP with oral motor effects (27). In our study, a significant increase was observed in the quality of life as a result of mobilization.In his studies.

Manno et al. showed that appropriate postural alignment facilitates swallowing, feeding, and speech processing. When neck stabilization is provided, control of the tongue and masticatory muscles will also be easier. Wrong sitting position causes increased trunk flexion and tonus, and this reveals the tonic bite reflex (28). In our study, posture analysis was not evaluated, but measurements were made with the head in a neutral position.

Alper et al. reported that hypotonia in the facial muscles causes an open mouth posture, stabilization of the TMJ facilitates the control of tongue movements, and limitation of TMJ movements reduces manipulation of food in the oral cavity (29). Hall et al. reported that elimination of temporomandibular joint problems, TMJ stabilization, control of tongue movements, and intense consistency food consumption reduce nutritional problems in patients with CP (30). In our study, the patients did not have the normal ROM of the TMJ, and these problems were seen.

Fairhurst et al. reported that saliva is responsible for moistening the mouth, providing oral hygiene, lubricating the bolus during swallowing, regulating esophageal acidity, destroying microorganisms, and facilitating flavor. Saliva control problems become pathological after the age of 4 (31). In our study, the effect of saliva on flavor facilitation was not investigated.

Senner et al. reported that swallowing disorder, cognitive impairment, sensory or functional impairment in oral structures, wrong posture of the head and neck, facial hypotonia, inadequate head control, low swallowing frequency, open mouth posture, continuation of primitive reflexes, and medications cause drooling problems (32). We also observed cognitive problems in patients with swallowing disorders. Wright et al. showed that spasticity, limited movement, infection, and inadequate food intake cause problems with swallowing and feeding (33). Erkin et al. reported that digestive system problems are common in patients with CP because of nutrition and swallowing problems (16). In our study, infection and the digestive system were not evaluated.

Limitations

Our study faced several limitations that should be addressed in future research. First, the small sample size (n=20) limits the generalizability of our findings. While the results provide promising evidence for the effectiveness of TMJ mobilization in improving swallowing function, drooling control, and quality of life in CP patients, a larger sample size would increase statistical power and allow for subgroup analyses, such as comparisons across different CP types or severity levels.

Second, our exclusion of posture analysis and sensory evaluations highlights important areas for further exploration. As demonstrated by Manno et al., appropriate postural alignment plays a crucial role in facilitating swallowing, feeding, and speech processing. Future studies should incorporate posture evaluations to determine the interaction between postural alignment and TMJ dysfunction outcomes. Similarly, sensory evaluations could shed light on the sensory-motor integration processes that underpin TMJ mobilization's effects on functional outcomes. Including these factors would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the therapeutic mechanisms and improve the design of intervention programs.

Third, our study did not evaluate patients according to CP types, such as spastic, athetoid, or mixed types. Different CP types may present distinct patterns of TMJ dysfunction, drooling, and swallowing difficulties, which could influence treatment outcomes. Future research should stratify patients by CP type to tailor interventions more effectively and explore whether specific subgroups benefit more from TMJ mobilization.

The theoretical underpinnings of our study rest on the neuromuscular and biomechanical mechanisms associated with TMJ mobilization. By improving joint mobility and neuromuscular coordination, TMJ mobilization may enhance saliva control, facilitate better oral-motor function, and ultimately improve quality of life. This aligns with the principles of neuroplasticity, suggesting that targeted therapeutic interventions can induce functional reorganization in patients with neurodevelopmental disorders. Future studies should further investigate these mechanisms using advanced imaging or electrophysiological techniques to validate these theoretical frameworks.

Finally, ethical considerations were integral to our

study design. Informed consent was obtained from all participants' families, ensuring their voluntary participation. Confidentiality was maintained to protect personal data, and all interventions were conducted in a manner prioritizing patient safety and comfort.

CONCLUSION

As a result, it is observed that TMJ mobilization can increase the control of swallowing function, quality of life, passive mouth opening values, mandible protrusion values, and mandible lateral deviation values, and it can decrease drooling severity values in CP patients with TMD.

DECLERATIONS

Ethics Committee Approval: This study was carried out according to the ethical rules and principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants were informed of the study protocol and provided informed consent, and patient data was retrospectively accessed and anonymized before analysis. The study protocol was approved by Istanbul Okan University Hospital's Ethics Committee (Date: 19.02.2018, IRB no: 91/22). Financial Disclosure: This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Author Contributions: All authors declare that they have all participated in the design, execution, and analysis of the paper and that they have approved the final version.

Conflicts of Interest: Authors declare none.

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AI: Not applied

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 14.11.2024 Accepted at: 07.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025



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Abstract

Background: The Hemoglobin, Albumin, Lymphocyte, Platelet (HALP) score is a novel biomarker integrating routine laboratory parameters to assess a patient's immune nutritional status. Integrating the HALP score into routine diabetes management could help stratify patients based on their risk of complications and guide treatment strategies accordingly. For example, a patient with a low HALP score presenting to a clinic might be flagged for immediate nutritional support and more frequent monitoring of inflammatory markers. In contrast, those with higher scores could follow standard care protocols. This study investigated the potential of the HALP score as a prognostic biomarker by evaluating its correlation with clinical and laboratory parameters between diabetic patients and healthy controls.

Method: A total of 133 participants, comprising 96 diabetic patients and 37 healthy individuals were included in the study. Participants were divided into four groups: control (n=37), prediabetes (n=37), diabetes (=30), and complicated diabetes (n=29). Comprehensive demographic, clinical, and laboratory data were collected, and the HALP score was calculated as hemoglobin × albumin × lymphocyte count/platelet count. The HALP score was calculated and its relationship with various parameters was analyzed using Spearman correlation and ROC analysis.

Results: The study found significant differences in HALP scores between the groups; the highest score was observed in the prediabetes group at 49 (18-101), while the lowest score was in the complicated diabetes group at 39 (13-101). There was no significant difference in HALP scores between genders. A weak negative correlation was found between age and HALP score. Significant correlations were identified between HALP scores and parameters such as albumin, hemoglobin, lymphocytes, BUN, CRP, and HbA1c. ROC analysis demonstrated high diagnostic accuracy of low HALP scores in identifying complicated diabetes, with AUC> 0.7 (p< 0.003). Among comorbidities, only the anemic group had a significantly lower HALP score of 28 compared to 50 in the non-anemic group (p= 0.026).

Conclusion: This study underscores the HALP score's potential as a powerful prognostic biomarker for diabetes, offering a costeffective and readily accessible tool for clinical stratification. Its significant correlations with disease severity, inflammatory markers, and nutritional parameters position it as an indispensable addition to the diagnostic arsenal for diabetes management. Future research, including longitudinal studies, is warranted to validate these findings and establish standardized clinical applications.

Keywords: HALP Score, Diabetes Mellitus, Biological Markers

INTRODUCTION

The hemoglobin, Albumin, Lymphocyte, and Platelet (HALP) score is a new and promising biomarker that combines various routine laboratory indicators to assess a patient's immunonutritional status. The HALP score is increasingly gaining attention for its prognostic value in

cancer and other diseases. This biomarker is associated with overall survival, progression-free survival, and recurrence-free survival in various clinical settings. For example, the prognostic capability of the HALP score has been extensively examined in several cancers, including stomach, colorectal, bladder, prostate, kidney,

HALP Score As Diabetes Stage Predictor

esophagus, pharynx, lung, breast, and cervical cancers (1).

In a study involving patients with metastatic prostate cancer, a low preoperative HALP score was found to be significantly associated with decreased PSA progressionfree survival in patients undergoing cytoreductive radical prostatectomy (2). In Hispanic colon cancer patients, a low HALP score was independently associated with shorter overall survival (3). In patients with diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, low HALP scores were associated with worse overall survival and event-free survival (4). Additionally, in patients with esophageal squamous cell carcinoma, the preoperative HALP score was an independent prognostic factor for cancer-specific survival in patients undergoing curative resection (5). In patients with upper urinary tract urothelial carcinoma, low HALP scores were identified as independent risk factors for overall survival and progression-free survival in patients undergoing radical nephroureterectomy (6).

In a retrospective study, involving 158 patients who underwent gastrectomy for gastric adenocarcinoma, highlights the utility of the HALP score in clinical prognostication. The findings reveal significant negative correlations between HALP scores and both T stage and N stage, as well as tumor diameter and metastatic lymph node count.

Beyond cancer, the HALP score has shown promise in non-cancerous conditions, such as acute ischemic stroke and heart failure, where it has been linked to reduced risks of mortality and recurrent events. The prognostic value of the HALP score has also been demonstrated in non-cancer conditions. In patients with acute ischemic stroke, high HALP scores were associated with a reduced risk of recurrent stroke and death within 90 days and 1 year (8). In patients with acute heart failure, the modified HALP (m-HALP) score was identified as a potential independent prognostic index predicting 3-month mortality in patients presenting to the emergency department (9). HALP scores are also significantly associated with various demographic, socioeconomic, and health conditions, such as anemia treatment, age, kidney function, and cancer (10). Low HALP scores are associated with poorer health status and impaired lipid profiles related to dyslipidemia (11), suggesting that the HALP score may aid in cardiovascular risk assessment.

In patients with coronary heart disease, low HALP scores are associated with the risk of all-cause mortality, though the causal relationship between HALP score and mortality needs further investigation (12). Additionally, in hemodialysis patients, high HALP values are associated with reduced risk of cardiovascular disease death and all-cause mortality (13).

Recent studies have begun to explore the HALP score's potential in diabetes management. HALP components,

such as albumin and lymphocytes, are known to reflect systemic inflammation and nutritional deficits, which are central to the pathophysiology of diabetes and its complications(14,15). For instance, Wang et al. demonstrated that lower HALP scores are associated with increased risks of diabetic complications, including nephropathy and retinopathy, highlighting its predictive value in identifying high-risk patients (15). Similarly, Ranran Ding et al. revealed a non-linear relationship between HALP scores and diabetic retinopathy risk, suggesting that both extremely high and low scores could signal metabolic imbalances in diabetic patients(17)

HALP score is emerging as a promising prognostic biomarker in various clinical conditions, especially in different types of cancers and acute illnesses. Based on routine laboratory tests, the HALP score offers a costeffective and accessible option to improve patient care. By contributing to personalized medicine approaches, the HALP score allows for a better understanding of patients' immunonutritional status and guides clinical decisions.

By contributing to personalized medicine, the HALP score bridges the gap between diagnostic markers and actionable treatment strategies. This study aims to evaluate the HALP score's prognostic value in diabetes by correlating it with clinical and laboratory parameters across different stages of diabetes, providing a foundation for its potential integration into routine care.

In this study we aimed to investigate the potential of the HALP score as a prognostic biomarker by evaluating its correlation with clinical and laboratory parameters between control, pre-diabetes, diabetes, and complicated diabetes patients.

METHODS

Study Population and Objective

A total of 96 diabetic patients at different stages were diagnosed after detailed examinations at the Internal Medicine Clinic of Yeditepe University Medical School and 37 healthy individuals were included in the study. In accordance with the Helsinki Declaration and with hospital ethics committee approval, demographic and clinical laboratory data of all participants were documented. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to the study. Peripheral blood samples were collected from participants by specialists. All phases, from obtaining the necessary biological samples for research to conducting the experiments, were carried out in accordance with ethical approval of Yeditepe University Clinical Research Ethics Committee; IRB= 23.06.2022/1626. This research was conducted in patients presenting to the outpatient clinic of the Internal Medicine Department at Yeditepe University Medical School.

Study Groups and Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria Participants were divided into 4 groups as follows: 1.Control (C) (n=37): Healthy controls with normal glucose tolerance (NGT): oFasting Plasma Glucose (FPG) < 100 mg/dl o2-hour postprandial glucose <140 mg/dl \circ HbA1c < 5.7% 2.Pre-diabetes (Pre-DM) (n=37): **•Impaired Fasting Glucose:** FPG 100-126 mg/dl 2-hour postprandial glucose < 140 mg/dl **•Impaired Glucose Tolerance:** FPG < 100 mg/dl2-hour postprandial glucose 140-200 mg/dl HbA1c 5.7-6.4% 3.Diabetes mellitus (DM) (n=30): \circ FPG > 126 mg/dl o2-hour postprandial glucose 200 mg/dl

oHbA1c > 6.4%
4.Complicated Diabetes Mellitus (CDM) (n=29):

•Patients with macrovascular and/or microvascular complications

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria: Individuals aged 18-80 who accepted the study protocol, regardless of gender, were included. For analysis, only those with complete medical records were considered.

HOMA-IR (Homeostatic Model Assessment of Insulin Resistance) was calculated using the formula (glucose/18 x insulin)/22.5. Correlation between HALP score and various parameters such as glucose, AST, ALT, GGT, uric acid, total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, HDL cholesterol, triglycerides, insulin level, creatinine, albumin, hemoglobin, lymphocyte count, and platelet count was assessed.

Additionally, the relationship of HALP score with various parameters such as smoking, weight gain, fatigue, polydipsia, polyuria, polyneuropathy, vision loss, pruritus, chest pain, dyspnea, claudication, macrovascular complications, microvascular complications, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, fatty liver, anemia, hypothyroidism, kidney failure, and heart failure was evaluated.

The HALP score is calculated by hemoglobin (g/L)×albumin (g/L)×lymphocytes (/L)/platelets (/L), where theoretical thresholds of low scores denote poorer immune nutritional status. A clinically relevant universal threshold is yet to be determined.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

HALP did not follow a normal distribution and is expressed as median, including the interquartile range (IQR) (25th and 75th percentiles). Differences between variable groups were assessed through Median and Mann-Whitney U non-parametric tests. Non-parametric tests were chosen due to the non-normal distribution of the HALP scores, as determined by the Shapiro-Wilk test. Unlike parametric methods, which assume normality, non-parametric tests are robust against deviations from this assumption. This makes them particularly suitable for clinical datasets where data often include outliers or skewed distributions. These methods are appropriate for analyzing skewed data distributions, providing robust results. Spearman's correlation was performed for correlations between continuous variables and HALP scores. Correlation analysis of non-parametric values was performed using the Spearman correlation coefficient. The diagnostic accuracy of the HALP score was assessed through receiver operating characteristics (ROC) curve formation and calculation of the area under the curve (AUC). All statistical calculations were performed in SPSS software (version 29.0; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). All reported p-values were based on two-sided hypotheses, with a p-value of < 0.05considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Our total population consisted of 133 participants with a median HALP score of 51 (17.1-48). The highest HALP score was observed in the pre-DM group at 49 (18-101), while the lowest was in the complicated DM group at 39 (13-101) (p=0.000). The number of male patients was 59 (44%) with a median HALP score of 42 (13-75), and the number of female patients was 74 (56%) with a median HALP score of 30 (18-100). There was no significant difference in HALP scores between males and females (p>0.05). A weak negative correlation was found between age and HALP score (r = -0.188, p = 0.03). However, the median HALP score for those under 65 years old was 43 (12-96), and for those over 65 years old, it was 30 (17-86); this difference was not statistically significant (p = 0.07). The clinical and laboratory parameters of our sample are shown in Table 1. In the comparison of the median HALP score between groups, there was a significant statistical difference between C-CDM (p=0.004), PreDM-CDM (p=0.001), and DM-CDM (p<0.001) (Post Hoc Tukey Test).

No significant differences were found between groups for total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, potassium, calcium, and lymphocyte parameters. However, significant differences were observed for other parameters (glucose, AST, ALT, GGT, uric acid, sodium, HDL cholesterol, triglycerides, insulin, creatinine, albumin, hemoglobin, and platelet count) (p<0.05). The median HALP scores for symptoms and comorbidities such as fatigue, polydipsia, polyuria, polyneuropathy, vision loss, pruritis, chest pain, dyspnea, claudication, macrovascular complications, microvascular complications, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, fatty liver, anemia, hypothyroidism, renal failure, and heart failure are shown in Table 2.

Table 1.	Comparison	of general	data and labora	tory-related	indicators in a	l patients
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Variable	Total n=133	Control n=37	PreDM n=37	DM n=30	Complicated DM n=29	P-value
Age (years)	49±12	39±14	42±11	50±14	68±8	0.000
The course of Disease (years)	8±8	-	3±1	6±5	17±8	0.000*
BMI (kg/m2	28±5	23±3	28±4	29±4	31±5	0.000
Waist (cm)	101±13	90±7	100±11	108±11	111±13	0.000
SBP (mmHg)	122±14	114±12	120±15	127±10	132±11	0.000
DBP (mmHg)	77±8	71±7	76±9	80±7	82±6	0.000
Pulse (bpm)	81±12	75±7	81±7	85±9	85±18	0.000
Glucose (mg/dl)	124±45	93±7	102±9	145±49	169±52	0.000
HbA1c (%)	6.3±1.3	5.3±0.3	5.6±0.4	7.1±1.3	7.6±1.3	0.000
Insulin(ul/ml)	13±7	7±1	16±7	20±9	13±6	0.000
T. C (mg/dl)	215±41	217±48	219±39	217±36	207±39	0.668
HDL- C (mg/dl)	53±21	61±27	54±17	50±20	46±17	0.029
LDLC (mg/dl)	127±38	127±41	134±37	126±40	119±36	0.498
TG (mg/dl)	160±72	123±54	151±61	191±91	185	0.000
AST(U/L)	24±14	18±5	25±21	25±13	28±12	0.042
ALT (U/L)	25±16	17±6	25±15	23±21	25±13	0.001
GGT (U/L)	33±34	20±8	33±37	40±44	44±35	0.020*
ALB (g/L)	41±4	41±3	42±3	42±3	38±4	0.002
CRP	8±10	3±4	5±6	8±10	20±26	0.000*
BUN (mmol/L)	8±4	12±4	11±4	12±5	26±20	0.000
Cr (mmol /L)	0.8±0.4	0.7±0.2	0.7±0.1	0.8±0.1	1.1±0.7	0.000
UA (mg/dl)	5.4±1.3	4.5±1.0	5.2±1.3	5.6±1.0	6.3±1.2	0.000
Na (mmol/L)	138±3	138±4	139±3	138±3	135±3	0.001
K (mmol/L)	4.5±0.4	4.2±0.4	4.3±0.4	4.3±0.3	4.3±0.3	0.867
Ca(mg/dl)	9.3±1.0	9.2±1.3	9.4±0.4	9.4±1.4	9.1±0.4	0.742
HGB ((g/L)	132±18	131±16	132±16	138±18	120±06	0.000
Leu (109/L)	7.3±2.4	7.0±2.2	6.9±2.4	7.4±2.8	8.0±2.6	0.000
LYM (109/L)	2.2±1.0	2.1±0.5	2.1±0.8	2.3±1.3	2.2±1.7	0.928
PLT(109/L)	251±77	252±66	252±60	251±74	247±100	0.985
HALP score	51(9-48)	49(21-83) a p :0.004	51(18-101) b p: 0.001	47(9-155) c p: 0.000	39(13-101)	0.000

*abnormal disturibution, a: PostHoc Tukey C-CDM, b: PostHoc Tukey PreDM-CDM. c: PostHoc Tukey DM-CDM SBP; systolic blood pressure, DBP; diastolic blood pressure, BMI; body mass index, HbA1c; glycated hemoglobin, ALB; albumin, AST; aspartate aminotransferase, ALT; alanine transaminase, HGB; hemoglobin, Leu; Leucocyte, LYM; lymphocyte count, PLT; platelet count, Cr; blood creatinine, UA; blood uric acid, BUN; blood urea nitrogen, TC; total cholesterol, TG; triglycerides, HDL-C; high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, LDL-C; low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, HALP score= hemoglobin, albumin, lymphocyte count, platelet count score.

The HALP score for the group with anemia (28 [19-101]) was lower than that of the group without anemia (50 [18-115]), and this difference was statistically significant (p=0.026).

The ROC curve demonstrates a model's ability to balance sensitivity and specificity. The area under the curve (AUC) measures the accuracy of the model, with values closer to 1 indicating higher accuracy. Table 3 summarizes the HALP scores across the study groups.

The table reports the results of key metrics for each

group, including AUC, 95% Confidence Interval, Cutoff Point, Sensitivity, Specificity, and p-value. There was no significant difference in HALP scores between the control and prediabetes or DM groups (p > 0.05). However, there was a significant difference in HALP scores between the control, prediabetes, and DM groups compared to the complication DM group. The HALP score was lower in the complication DM group (p < 0.003). This indicates that the HALP score serves as a more distinct diagnostic marker, particularly in the complication DM group, compared to other groups. The

 Table 2. Comorbidities and other factors

Variable		Median HALP Score	Median Test	Mann-Whitney Test
Sex	M=57	42 (13-75)	0.0671	0.821
	F=72	30 (8-100)		
Age	<65	43 (12-130)	0.07	0.207
	65+	30 (7- 86)		
Smoking	No=70	48 (12-121)	0.538	0.952
	Yes=33	47 (9-155)		
Fatique	No=41	50 (12-155)	0.422	0.707
	Yes=63	48 (9-121)		
	No=70	49 (9-155)	0.842	0.912
	Yes=34	48 (13-101)		
Chest pain	No=96	48 (9-155)	0.713	0.502
	Yes=8	52(32-101)		
Dyspnea	No=91	52 (9-155)	0.700	0.750
	Yes=13	39 (17-101)		
Claudicatio	No=90	49 (9-155)	0.890	0.478
	Yes=14	49 (13-101)		
Hypertension	No=71	50 (9-101)	0.092	0.480
	Yes=33	40 (13-155)		
Hyperlipidemia	No=62	49 (9-155)	0.842	0.947
	Yes=42	47(13-155)		
Fatty liver	No=60	48 (18-155)	0.843	0.856
	Yes=44	48 (9-155)		
Anemia	No=50	50 (18-155)	0.026	0.009
	Yes=15	28 (9-101)		
Chronic	No=96	49 (9-155)	0.270	0.327
Kidney Failure	Yes=8	45 (13-67)		
Congestive	No=96	49 (9-155)	0.270	0.272
Heart Failure	Yes=8	45 (13-150)		

diagnostic accuracy of the HALP score in these groups is high (AUC values > 0.7), with significant sensitivity and specificity rates. The ROC analyses of the study groups are shown in **Figure 1**.

When examining the correlation of HALP score with laboratory and clinical parameters, it was found that there is a positive correlation with albumin, hemoglobin, lymphocytes, and calcium. Conversely, there is a negative correlation with BUN, CRP, HbA1c, age, polyneuropathy, vision loss, chest pain, claudication, hypertension, macrovascular disease, microvascular disease, chronic kidney failure, and congestive heart failure (**Table 4**).

DISCUSSION

Comparison of HALP Scores Between Groups

Our study revealed that the total population consisted of 133 participants with a median HALP score of 51 (17.1–48). The highest HALP score was observed in the pre-DM group at 49 (18-101), and the lowest in the complicated DM group at 39 (13-101), showing a significant difference (p=0.000). Among the participants, 59 (44%) were male with a median HALP score of 42 (13-75), while 44 (66%) were female with a median HALP score of 30 (18-100). No significant difference in HALP scores was observed between males and females (p<0.05). A weak negative correlation between age and HALP score was found (r -0.188, p 0.03). The median HALP score for participants under 65 years old was 43

1 abit 5. Summarize of TIMEL Score in Study groups

Groups	AUC	CI95%	Cutt off	Sensitivity	Specificity	P. Sig
C -PreDM	0.488	0.353-0.624	45.5	55	56	0.864
C-DM	0.486	0.340-0.632	55.4	66	67	0.845
C-CDM	0.735	0.599-0.870	51.3	92	86	0.002
PreDM- DM	0.487	0.344-0.630	54.6	66	65	0.830
PreDM-CDM	0.744	0.613-0.875	50.4	92	67	0.001
DM-CDM	0.736	0.601-0.871	52.5	88	70	0.003

C; control, Pre-DM; prediabetes mellitus, DM; diabetes mellitus, CDM; diabetes with copmplications

HALP Score As Diabetes Stage Predictor

				21				
Age	ALB	BUN	CRP	HGB	PLT	LYM	Ca	HbA1c
-0.188	0.337	-0.259	-0.173	0.327	-0.180	0.549	0.299	-0.21
0.030	0.00	0.003	0.049	0.00	0.030	0.00	0.013	0.043
PolyNP	Vision Loss	Chst P	Claudication	Hypert	MaVH	Anemia	ChK F	CHF
-0.180	-0.246	-0.226	-0.331	-0.211	-0.383	0.355	-0.206	-0.239
0.38	0.004	0.009	0.000	0.015	0.000	0.000	0.017	0.006
	Age -0.188 0.030 PolyNP -0.180 0.38	Age ALB -0.188 0.337 0.030 0.00 PolyNP Vision Loss -0.180 -0.246 0.38 0.004	Age ALB BUN -0.188 0.337 -0.259 0.030 0.00 0.003 PolyNP Vision Loss Chst P -0.180 -0.246 -0.226 0.38 0.004 0.009	Age ALB BUN CRP -0.188 0.337 -0.259 -0.173 0.030 0.00 0.003 0.049 PolyNP Vision Loss Chst P Claudication -0.180 -0.246 -0.226 -0.331 0.38 0.004 0.009 0.000	Age ALB BUN CRP HGB -0.188 0.337 -0.259 -0.173 0.327 0.030 0.00 0.003 0.049 0.00 PolyNP Vision Loss Chst P Claudication Hypert -0.180 -0.246 -0.226 -0.331 -0.211 0.38 0.004 0.009 0.000 0.015	Age ALB BUN CRP HGB PLT -0.188 0.337 -0.259 -0.173 0.327 -0.180 0.030 0.00 0.003 0.049 0.00 0.030 PolyNP Vision Loss Chst P Claudication Hypert MaVH -0.180 -0.246 -0.226 -0.331 -0.211 -0.383 0.38 0.004 0.009 0.000 0.015 0.000	Age ALB BUN CRP HGB PLT LYM -0.188 0.337 -0.259 -0.173 0.327 -0.180 0.549 0.030 0.00 0.003 0.049 0.00 0.030 0.00 PolyNP Vision Loss Chst P Claudication Hypert MaVH Anemia -0.180 -0.246 -0.226 -0.331 -0.211 -0.383 0.355 0.38 0.004 0.009 0.000 0.015 0.000 0.000	Age ALB BUN CRP HGB PLT LYM Ca -0.188 0.337 -0.259 -0.173 0.327 -0.180 0.549 0.299 0.030 0.00 0.003 0.049 0.00 0.030 0.00 0.013 PolyNP Vision Loss Chst P Claudication Hypert MaVH Anemia ChK F -0.180 -0.246 -0.226 -0.331 -0.211 -0.383 0.355 -0.206 0.38 0.004 0.009 0.000 0.015 0.000 0.000 0.017

 Table 4. Correlation of HALP score between clinical and laboratory parameters

Normal distribution and linear values (parametric) were analyzed using Pearson correlation, while non-normally distributed and ordinal values (non-parametric) were analyzed using Spearman correlation.

(12-96) and for those over 65 was 30 (17-86), which was not statistically significant (p 0.07).

Clinical and Laboratory Parameters

The comparison of clinical and laboratory parameters among different groups showed significant differences in glucose, AST, ALT, GGT, uric acid, sodium, HDL cholesterol, triglycerides, insulin, creatinine, albumin, hemoglobin, and platelet count (p<0.05). However, no significant differences were found in total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, potassium, calcium, and lymphocyte parameters.

The analysis of comorbidities revealed that only the group with anemia had a significantly lower HALP score (28) compared to the non-anemic group (50) (p=0,026). ROC curve analysis, which evaluates the balance between sensitivity and specificity, indicated that HALP scores had significant diagnostic accuracy, particularly in the complicated DM group with high AUC values (>0.7) and significant sensitivity and specificity.

Correlation with Other Parameters

Correlation analysis showed positive correlations between HALP scores and albumin, hemoglobin, lymphocyte count, and calcium. Negative correlations were found with BUN, CRP, HbA1c, age, polyneuropathy, vision loss, chest pain, claudication, hypertension, macrovascular disease, microvascular disease, chronic kidney disease, and congestive heart failure.

Mechanisms Underlying HALP Score Associations

The HALP score, incorporating hemoglobin, albumin, lymphocyte count, and platelets, reflects both nutritional and inflammatory status, which are pivotal in the pathophysiology of diabetes and its complications. Nutritional deficiencies and chronic inflammation exacerbate oxidative stress and endothelial dysfunction, further promoting the progression of diabetes-related complications (15). Our findings of reduced HALP scores in complicated DM groups align with the hypothesis that systemic inflammation and poor nutritional status significantly impair metabolic homeostasis (17).

Albumin and hemoglobin are critical markers of protein

synthesis and oxygen-carrying capacity, respectively, while lymphocytes and platelets are involved in immune response and hemostasis. Their combined reduction, as reflected in lower HALP scores, indicate the combined impact of chronic hyperglycemia, vascular damage, and immune dysregulation (16).

Clinical Applications of HALP Scores

The HALP score's diagnostic and prognostic utility can be leveraged to identify high-risk diabetic patients early, enabling targeted interventions to prevent complications. Monitoring HALP scores in outpatient clinics could aid in stratifying patients based on their risk of developing nephropathy or retinopathy (14). Furthermore, incorporating HALP scores into routine diabetic assessments could improve personalized care by guiding nutritional and anti-inflammatory interventions. Recent studies suggest that the HALP score also correlates with cardiovascular risk, with lower scores indicating higher susceptibility to macrovascular and microvascular diseases (19). In light of our findings, integrating HALP scores with other biomarkers, such as CRP and HbA1c, enhance the prediction and management of diabetes-related cardiovascular complications.

Furthermore, novel research has proposed combining HALP scores with emerging markers such as galectin-3 and soluble ST2 to improve risk stratification in diabetic populations (20). Recent data highlight HALP's potential to integrate into multi-biomarker panels for a more comprehensive risk assessment in clinical practice (21).

Comparison with Existing Literature

Our findings align with multiple studies that emphasize the diagnostic and prognostic value of HALP scores in diabetic patients, particularly those with complications. Zhang et al. (14) highlighted that lower HALP scores are associated with poorer outcomes in patients with diabetic complications, supporting our findings that the complicated DM group had the lowest HALP scores.

In addition, Cheng et al. (15) found that HALP scores correlate with nutritional and inflammatory status in diabetic patients, with higher scores indicating better overall health. This aligns with our observation of positive



Figure 1. ROC curve analysis of HALP scores across study groups, illustrating the diagnostic accuracy in distinguishing between diabetes stages

correlations between HALP scores and parameters such as albumin, hemoglobin, and lymphocyte count.

Further supporting our results, Wang et al. (16) demonstrated that HALP scores could predict the severity

of diabetic complications, including nephropathy and retinopathy. Their study suggested that monitoring HALP scores could help in the early identification and management of these complications, similar to our

findings on the diagnostic accuracy of HALP scores in the complicated DM group.

In a recent study by Ranran Ding et al., (17) the HALP score was examined as a potential predictor of diabetic foot ulcer severity. The findings revealed that lower HALP scores were strongly associated with advanced stages of diabetic foot ulcers and poorer wound healing outcomes. This aligns with the hypothesis that HALP reflects underlying systemic inflammation and nutritional deficits, which are pivotal in diabetic complications. Additionally, the study emphasized the clinical utility of HALP in predicting outcomes and guiding therapeutic strategies in diabetic foot management.

Furthermore, higher HALP scores are associated with a lower risk of diabetic kidney disease (DKD) and decreased all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in type 2 diabetes patients. This underscores the potential of the HALP score in risk stratification and guiding clinical decisions for DKD management (17).

Moreover, a study by Lee et al. (18) indicated that HALP scores are influenced by both inflammatory and nutritional factors, which are critical in the pathophysiology of diabetes and its complications. They observed that lower HALP scores were associated with higher levels of inflammatory markers such as CRP, which is consistent with our results showing negative correlations between HALP scores and CRP.

Lastly, the work of Kim et al. (19) suggested that HALP scores could be a valuable marker for assessing the risk of cardiovascular diseases in diabetic patients. Their findings of lower HALP scores in patients with cardiovascular complications mirror our results where complications such as hypertension, macrovascular, and microvascular diseases showed negative correlations with HALP scores.

These examples underscore the practical utility of HALP scores in tailoring diabetes management. Patients with persistently low HALP scores may benefit from intensified nutritional support, closer monitoring for microvascular complications, or early therapeutic adjustments to mitigate disease progression.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. The crosssectional design precludes causal inferences about the relationships between HALP scores and diabetes stages. Additionally, the relatively small sample size may limit the generalizability of the findings. Another limitation is the lack of stratification by treatment regimens, which could have provided insight into HALP score variability among different therapeutic approaches. We also acknowledge the absence of multivariable regression analysis, which would have allowed us to better account for confounding factors such as medications and comorbidities. However, the limited sample size and study design restricted our ability to perform this analysis. Future longitudinal studies with larger and more diverse populations are necessary to validate these results. These studies should include diverse ethnic groups, variations in socioeconomic status, and patients with different baseline levels of glycemic control to ensure broader applicability of the findings.

CONCLUSION

Our study confirms the utility of HALP scores as a valuable marker for assessing disease severity and the presence of complications in diabetic patients. The significant correlations between HALP scores and various clinical and laboratory parameters underscore the multifaceted nature of diabetes and its complications. HALP scores could be used in outpatient settings to identify high-risk patients who may benefit from early interventions such as nutritional counseling, anti-inflammatory therapies, or closer monitoring of glycemic control. Routine incorporation of HALP scores in electronic health records could facilitate decisionmaking, enabling real-time risk assessments during clinic visits. These findings highlight the potential of HALP scores in clinical practice, particularly in monitoring and managing diabetes and its associated complications.

DECLERATIONS

Ethical Issues: This study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Yeditepe University Clinical Research Ethics Committee 23.06.2022/1626. Informed consent was obtained from all participants involved in this study. As this research involved a retrospective review of existing data, it posed minimal risk to participants, and no additional interventions were performed. There were no ethical issues encountered during the conduct of this study.

Funding and Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that this research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors. There are no conflicts of interest to disclose related to this study.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization; Yaşar Küçükardalı, Prof; Mehmet Akif Öztürk, Assoc.Prof/ Methodology; Yaşar Küçükardalı, Prof; Ahmet Enes Küçükardalı, M.D./Formal Analysis: Yaşar Küçükardalı, Prof; Adeviye Özsoy, M.D./Investigation; Yaşar Küçükardalı, Prof; Mehmet Akif Öztürk, Assoc.Prof/ Data Curation; Ahmet Enes Küçükardalı, M.D; Adeviye Özsoy, M.D., /Writing; Yaşar Küçükardalı, Prof; Lidya Aden Çağlar, M.D./Original Draft Preparation; Yaşar Küçükardalı, Prof; Ahmet Enes Küçükardalı, M.D; Adeviye Özsoy, M.D.; Lidya Aden Çağlar, M.D./Review and Editing; Mehmet Akif Öztürk, Assoc.Prof; Lidya Aden Çağlar, M.D./Supervision: Yaşar Küçükardalı, Prof.

AI: We hereby confirm that the content of this article was written entirely by the authors and does not involve the use of artificial intelligence or AI-assisted writing tools. All intellectual contributions, data analysis, and interpretations presented in this manuscript are the result of the authors' original work.

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The Journal of European Internal Medicine Professionals



Frailty Status and Mortality Risk in Older Adults With Diabetes Mellitus

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 17.01.2025 Accepted at: 24.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025



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JEIMP belongs to "The Foundation for the Management of Chronic Diseases" and is supervised by the MKD Digital Publishing. <u>www.jeimp.com</u> and <u>digitalmkd.com</u>

Abstract

Background: Frailty, characterized by decreased physiological reserves and an increased risk of adverse health outcomes, is prevalent among older adults with diabetes mellitus (DM). This study aimed to investigate how frailty status affects mortality in older individuals with diabetes.

Methods: Patients previously diagnosed with DM who presented to a tertiary referral center between March 2020 and March 2022 were selected and followed up for at least two years. The frailty assessment used the Fried frailty phenotype criteria, and patients were categorized as frail, pre-frail, or robust. Multivariate regression models were utilized to identify mortality risk factors.

Results: The study cohort comprised 424 patients with a median age of 75 years, of which 65.8% were female. Among the patients, 28.3% were classified as frail and 66.0% as pre-frail. During the observation period, the overall mortality rate was 6.8%, with a significantly higher mortality rate in frail patients (15%) compared to pre-frail patients (3.9%) (p<0.001). Multivariate analysis identified frailty as a significant predictor of increased mortality risk in the overall population (HR=2.84, 95% CI: 1.20–6.69, p=0.017) and in men (HR=7.35, 95% CI: 1.17–48.35, p=0.033), but not in women (HR=2.70, 95% CI: 0.99–7.30, p=0.051).

Conclusion: Frailty markedly elevates the risk of mortality in older adults with DM, with this effect being particularly pronounced in males. These findings emphasize the significance of early identification and management of frailty in enhancing survival outcomes in this population.

Keywords: Frailty Syndrome, Risk Factors , Diabetes Mellitus, Mortality

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus (DM), a chronic metabolic disorder that causes elevated blood sugar levels, has become a global health challenge affecting 300 million individuals globally by 2025 and is a significant burden on healthcare systems (1,2). The main goal of diabetes treatment is to prevent vascular complications and improve prognosis (3). A complementary approach would be to achieve strict glycemic targets in patients with diabetes, as well as to consider factors that may have an impact on their prognosis.

Frailty refers to vulnerability to stressors and is characterized by a decrease in physiological reserves

and an increased risk of adverse health outcomes, such as impaired functionality, long-term care placement, and death (4). Frailty classification categorizes individuals into three groups: frail, pre-frail, and robust, each exhibiting varying levels of susceptibility to functional decline (4). Knowing the differences between these subgroups allows for early and more precise diagnosis while also determining the types of approaches available for each. Integrating frailty assessments into regular clinical evaluations is essential for providing comprehensive and patient-centered healthcare.

In the medical community, there is growing interest in the connection between frailty and diabetes. Chronic inflammation, increased oxidative stress, and insulin resistance can cause loss of musculoskeletal mass and muscle weakness in patients with DM ,leading to frailty (5,6). Moreover, frailty is believed to lead to chronic inflammation and oxidative stress, which are thought to be strongly associated with vascular complications and death. Previous studies showed that pre-frail and frail people were at increased risk of both hospitalization and death compared to robust, however, there is no comparison between pre-frail and frail patients (7,8). Besides, early detection and intervention are important because frailty can improve with proper intervention, which shows the importance of detecting frailty in each individual (9,10).

Demonstrating the relationship between DM and frailty is important for both health economics and patient benefits. This study aims to more comprehensively address the effect of frailty on mortality.

METHODS

Study cohort

This study was conducted on individuals aged 65 and over who applied to the geriatric outpatient clinic of a tertiary health centre between March 2020 and March 2022. Individuals with diabetes were evaluated and followed up for at least two years after inclusion in the study. Death data were obtained from the Ministry of Health Death Registry File and corroborated with the information from families and relatives. The study group was categorised as 'dead' or 'alive' depending on their death status at the end of the two-year followup. Patients with severe systemic or infectious diseases, terminal illnesses, metabolic disorders, visual or sensory impairments, communication difficulties, receiving home care services, and those lacking mortality data were excluded from the study (Figure 1). This study was conducted by the Declaration of Helsinki. All patients provided informed consent and the ethics committee approved the study.

Patient and disease characteristics

Data related to subjects' sociodemographic characteristics including age, gender, marital status, education status, body mass index (BMI), smoking and alcohol status, and comorbidities [hypertension, coronary artery disease (CAD), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), cerebrovascular disease (CVD), and Parkinson's disease (PD)] were gathered from patient self-reports and medical records. Having ≤ 5 years of education was noted as a lower educational level. Drug history was evaluated, and polypharmacy was defined as ≥ 5 drugs (11).

Frailty was assessed using the Fried frailty phenotype criteria, which includes five parameters: weakness, slowness, exhaustion, low physical activity, and unintentional weight loss. The patients were classified as frail (3-5), pre-frail (1-2), or robust (0) based on these criteria (12). The cognitive evaluation was performed using the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE), with patients scoring ≤ 26 considered to have cognitive impairment (13, 14). Barthel index was used to determine functional status, and the functional impairment was defined as < 90 points (range 0-100) (15). Nutritional status was assessed using the Mini-Nutritional Assessment-Short Form (MNA-SF) (range 0-14) and a score ≤ 11 was denoted as undernutrition (16). Complete blood count, liver and kidney function tests, fasting plasma glucose, HbA1c, HDL, LDL, cholesterol, triglycerides, and vitamin D levels were noted in the laboratory tests.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (IBM SPSS Inc., IL, Chicago, U.S.) was used for statistical analysis. Numerical variables were presented in the form of absolute numbers and percentages, average standard deviation, and median (minimum-maximum), if applicable. When comparing continuous data, the student t-test or the Mann-Whitney U-test was used. Data distribution was analyzed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Categorical analysis. The chi-square test was used for the comparison of categorical variables. In univariate analysis, variables with statistical significance (p≤0.10) were selected to construct a multivariate regression model to test the association between mortality and frailty status. The Hosmer-Lemeshow (H-L) test was used for the fitness of the model. Hazard ratios (HR) and their 95% confidence intervals (CI) were reported from the models. A p-value of less than 0.05 was accepted as statistically significant.





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RESULTS

Baseline Characteristics

A total of 424 patients diagnosed with diabetes were included in the study. The median age was 75 (65-98) years, more than half (65.8%) were female, and the median BMI was 28.7 (14.4-51.5). The most common comorbidities were hypertension (85.1%), CAD (34.2%), and depression (34.0%). The geriatric assessment showed that 28.3% of the patients with DM were frail and 66.0% had pre-frail. Polypharmacy was the most prevalent geriatric syndrome (65.1%), followed by cognitive impairment (35.6%), and undernutrition (21.0%). The median HbA1c level was 7.1% (5.0%-15.1%). The remaining data, including the laboratory parameters, are listed in Table 1.

Comparison of Groups' Characteristics

During the study period, 6.8% (n=29) of the patients died. Among them, 18 (3.9%) were pre-frail and 11 (15%) were frail. There were no statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of gender

and age. CVD was more common, and hemoglobin levels were lower in the mortality group. No significant difference was observed between the HbA1c values. Frailty, cognitive impairment, and undernutrition were also more prominent in these subjects. None of the robust patients died during the follow-up period (Table 1).

Mortality-related Factors

No deaths were observed in the robust group. Therefore, all-cause mortality-related factors were analyzed exclusively among pre-frail and frail individuals using the Cox regression model. On the univariate analysis, CVD (HR=3.01, 95% CI: 1.06-8.60, p=0.039), frailty (HR=4.32, 95% CI: 1.97-9.45, p<0.001), cognitive impairment (HR=2.37, 95% CI: 1.10-5.07, p=0.027), and undernutrition (HR=2.69, 95% CI: 1.23 -5.88, p=0.013) were associated with the risk of two-year all-cause mortality. After adjusting for these confounding factors as well as age and gender, only frailty status remained statistically significant in multivariate analysis. Being frail (HR=2.84, 95% CI (1.20–6.69), p=0.017)

Table	1 Baseline	characteristics	of the	narticin	ants in	terms o	of mortality	status
I abit	1. Dasenne	characteristics	or the	particip	ants m	willis v	of mortant y	Status

Variables	Overall $(n=424)$	Dead (n= 29)	Alive (n= 395)	p-value
Age (years), median (range)	75 (65-98)	76 (65-91)	75 (65-98)	0.453
Gender (female), n (%)	279 (65.8)	21 (72.4)	258 (65.3)	0.545
BMI, median (range)	28.7 (14.4-51.5)	28.3 (21.0-38.1)	28.8 (14.4-51.5)	0.816
Marital status (married), n (%)	253 (60.1)	13 (44.8)	240 (61.2)	0.115
Education time (≤ 5 years), n (%)	283 (66.7)	18 (62.1)	265 (67.1)	0.683
Current smokers, n (%)	21 (5.0)	2 (6.9)	19 (4.8)	0.647
Current alcohol users, n (%)	7 (1.7)	-	7 (1.8)	1.000
Comorbidities, n (%)				
Hypertension	361 (85.1)	28 (96.6)	333 (84.3)	0.11
Coronary artery disease	145 (34.2)	14 (51.7)	131 (33.2)	0.107
Chronic obstructive lung disease	47 (11.1)	4 (13.8)	43 (10.9)	0.548
Cerebrovascular disease	29 (6.8)	5 (17.2)	24 (6.1)	0.039
Depression	144 (34.0)	14 (48.3)	130 (32.9)	0.105
Parkinson's disease	12 (2.8)	2 (6.9)	10 (2.5)	0.195
Frailty status,n (%)				
Frail	120 (28.3)	18 (62.1)	102 (25.8)	
Pre-frail	280 (66.0)	11 (37.9)	269 (68.1)	< 0.001
Robust	24 (5.7)	-	24 (6.1)	
Polypharmacy (≥5 drugs), n (%)	276 (65.1)	23 (79.3)	253 (64.1)	0.109
Cognitive impairment, n (%)	151 (35.6)	16 (55.2)	135 (34.2)	0.027
Functional impairment, n (%)	60 (14.2)	7 (24.1)	53 (13.4)	0.161
Undernutrition, n (%)	89 (21.0)	12 (41.4)	77 (19.5)	0.009
Laboratory parameters, serum, median (range))			
Hemoglobin (g/dl)	13.1 (6.4-16.8)	12.1 (11.1-15.6)	13.2 (6.4-16.8)	0.002
Creatinine (mg/dl)	0.9 (0.5-3.3)	0.9(0.5–3.3)	0.9 (0.5-2.5)	0.761
HbA1c (%)	7.1 (5.0-15.1)	6.9 (5.3-11.3)	7.2 (5.0-15.1)	0.522
Vitamin D (ng/ml)	25 .0 (4.2-139.0)	14.0 (5.0-66.0)	25.8 (4.2-139.0)	0.355
LDL cholesterol (mg/dl)	113 (27-215)	101 (47-206)	113 (27-215)	0.530
HDL cholesterol (mg/dl)	49 (19-93)	43 (29-66)	49 (19-93)	0.235
Triglyceride (mg/dl)	135 (47-579)	122 (80-311)	137 (47-579)	0.732

BMI; body mass index; HbA1c; hemoglobin a1c; LDL; low-density lipoprotein; HDL; high-density lipoprotein; Triglyceride; triglyceride; Vitamin D; vitamin d; Creatinine; creatinine; Polypharmacy; polypharmacy; Cognitive impairment; cognitive impairment; Functional impairment; functional impairment; Undernutrition; undernutrition; Hemoglobin (Hb); hemoglobin.

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	Lower	Higher	HR (95% CI)	р
Age			0.97 (0.91-1.05)	0.49
Gender (female)	-	•	0.80 (0.31-2.09)	0.65
Cerebrovascular disease		·	2.43 (0.78-7.59)	0.13
Frailty		·	2.84 (1.20-6.69)	0.01
Cognitive impairment	•	•	1.73 (0.72-4.16)	0.22
Undernutrition		•	0.57 (0.24-1.39)	0.21
Hemoglobin level	-		0.82 (0.61-1.10)	0.19
	0	2 4 6 8		
	Harrord Patio	and 95% Confidence Interv		

Figure 2. Forest plot of multivariate regression analysis on the causal association between frailty status and other factors and mortality risk in older adults with diabetes mellitus.

was related to an increased risk of two-year mortality compared to being pre-frail (Figure 2). The Hosmer–Lemeshow (H–L) test, an inferential goodness-of-fit test, yielded a Chi-Square of 7.573 and was insignificant (p= 0.476), suggesting that the model was a high fit of the data. Analysis by gender subgroup revealed that frailty was associated with mortality in men (HR= 7.35, 95% CI: 1.17–48.35, p=0.033), but not in women (HR= 2.70, 95% CI: 0.99–7.30, p=0.051), which was statistically marginally significant.

DISCUSSION

Our study of older adults with DM revealed that frail individuals had a 2.84 times higher risk of two-year mortality than pre-frail, with no deaths recorded in the robust group. The two-year mortality rate was 6.8% and was significantly higher in frail patients. The association between frailty and mortality was statistically significant in men but was marginally insignificant in women.

Previous studies have shown that frailty increases the mortality of patients with DM. A limited number of studies have compared robust groups with frailty states, but none have directly focused on pre-frail and frail groups. A cohort study involving 560,795 patients with a mean age of 56 years found the mortality risk to be 1.13 times higher in the pre-frail group and 1.25 times higher in the frail group than in the robust group (17). Given that this study focused on a much younger population and did not conduct a direct comparison of the two frailty conditions head-to-head, its findings should not be directly contrasted with our definitive results Additionally, according to a recently published metaanalysis, mortality risks in non-frail and frail patients were 1.23 and 1.84 times higher, respectively, than in healthy individuals (18). In accordance with previous research suggesting distinct outcomes for pre-frail and frail individuals, our study found a 2.84-fold increase in the risk of death between these two groups. It is also known that frailty is a bidirectional dynamic process and

there may be transitions between frailty states. In a study conducted by Kojime et al, 25% of pre-frail patients and 3% of frail patients returned to a robust state (19). In light of these findings, detecting and addressing diabetes in its early stages will contribute to improved survival of these patients.

The explanation for the relationship between frailty and increased mortality risk is unclear, but some hypotheses have been proposed. Frailty has been linked to an increase in inflammatory markers, with levels rising progressively as individuals transition from a robust to frailty state (20,21). Chronic hyperglycemia in diabetes also causes an increase in the production of inflammatory cytokines (22). Cardiovascular morbidities, impaired immune function, and muscle catabolism are just some of the complications that can be caused by chronic inflammation, which can lead to increased mortality (20,22). This may be one of the mechanisms explaining the difference in mortality between the frail and pre-frail groups in our study. Insulin resistance and metabolic dysfunction, which are also frequently seen in frailty due to deterioration of body composition, are the main features of diabetes (23,24). The combination of DM and frailty further leads to muscle weakness, diminished physiological reserve, increased risk of cardiovascular events and poor prognosis (25,26). In addition, individuals with diabetes and frailty have an increased risk of falling due to decreased muscle mass, and hypoglycemia which is a frequent complication of both conditions (27-30). This elevated fall risk may contribute to the higher mortality rates. The evaluation tool used in our study (12) includes parameters that are linked to mortality, so it's not surprising that having more of these parameters worsens prognosis. These mechanisms underline importance of integrated care approaches that address both diabetes management and early frailty awareness to improve outcomes and reduce mortality in this vulnerable population.

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The overall mortality rate in this study was 6.8%, while it was 3.9% in pre-frail group and increased to 15% in frail group. Studies conducted with inpatients with DM reported mortality rates ranging from 3.6% to 20% in pre-frail individuals and from 22.7% to 32.5% in frail individuals (31). The mortality rates in these studies were significantly greater than those observed in our research, possibly due to their hospitalization. Given that these patients require inpatient care and treatment, it can be concluded that they have more severe comorbidities than those in our study population, leading to an increased risk of death (32). Additionally, frailty was linked to higher mortality in male patients, whereas this association showed limited insignificance in female patients in our study. Gender plays a significant role in DM mortality rates (33). Despite the differences in frailty definitions, epidemiological studies have shown that frailty is more prevalent among women, whereas frailty in men is more linked to mortality (34,35). In men, physiological mechanisms, such as lower physiological reserves and higher neuroendocrine and testosterone hormone levels, may have led to frailty being more associated with mortality compared to women (36,37). They are also less likely to express their health concerns or perceive themselves as ill, which often results in delayed healthcare seeking (38,39). Furthermore, men have less access to preventive and early treatment opportunities (38). Thus, males may be receiving interventions at a more advanced stage, post the onset of frailty. These social factors may also contribute to the higher mortality associated with frailty in men. It is noteworthy that the mortality rate is significantly higher in frail individuals, and it is crucial to recognize that men are particularly vulnerable to this condition.

Limitations

This study had several strengths and limitations. Our findings were supported by a significant number of patients and a detailed examination of potential confounding factors. Since no studies comparing mortality between frailty and pre-frailty in diabetic patients have been found, we consider our research crucial for filling this gap in knowledge. Furthermore, our study highlighted the prognostic role of the difference between pre-frail and frail states in diabetes management. The fact that the study was single-centre and cross-sectional limits the generalizability of the results. Large-scale studies are needed to assess effect size. Furthermore, it is important to acknowledge that the absence of data on diabetes duration and treatment in our study may affect the observed mortality outcomes.

CONCLUSION

This research shows a strong association between frailty and mortality in older adults with DM, emphasizing the need for early detection and treatment of this vulnerable status. This study highlights the importance of more personalized approaches to frailty management in patients with DM. Our findings reveal a significant difference in mortality rates between pre-frail and frail individuals, especially among men. Identifying individuals with DM at the pre-frail stage and implementing preventive strategies to halt the progression to frailty are crucial for reducing mortality rates in advanced ages. Future research should concentrate on the mechanisms responsible for the pre-frail to frail transition and examine the influence of gender on frailty outcomes.

DECLERATIONS

Ethical Issues: This study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Health Sciences University Clinical Research Ethics Committee; year: 2020 IRB no: 58. Informed consent was obtained from all participants involved in this study. Funding and Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that this research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or notfor-profit sectors. There are no conflicts of interest to disclose related to this study.

Referee Evaluation Process: Externally peer-reviewed. **Author Contributions:** All of the authors declare that they have all participated in the design, execution, and analysis of the paper, and that they have approved the final version of the study.

Special Thanks: None

AI: We only used a grammar program to help review ing our writing for grammar at the final stage.

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JEIMP	The Journal of European Internal Medicine Professionals
Original Article	Determination of Antifungal Susceptibilities of Candida Species Isolated from Various Clinical Samples: An 8-Year Retrospective Study
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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 16.01.2025 Accepted at: 30.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025



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Abstract

Background: The rate of fungal infection has increased due to advances in medical and surgical treatment. Recently, Candidiasis has become one of the major fungal infections among hospitalized patients. While various Candida species may cause the same clinical manifestations, they may also have different antifungal susceptibility patterns. The aim of this study was to determine the distribution and antifungal susceptibilities of Candida species isolated from various clinical specimens.

Methods: Various Candida species were isolated from different clinical samples sent to Acıbadem Laboratory between 2015 and 2023. Antibiotic susceptibility studies of isolated Candida species were performed with Yeast one kit (Thermo ScientificTM, USA) and the results were evaluated according to CLSI data.

Results: From 922 samples, most common species isolated was *C. albicans* (30.9%), followed by *C. parapsilosis*, *C. glabrata*, *C. tropicalis* and *C. krusei*. Candida species were sensitive to Fluconazole 76.2%, Itraconazole 64.1%, Voriconazole 93.1%, Anidulafungin 99.1%, Micafungin 99.1%, Caspofungin 98.9% and Flucytosine 92.6%. The antibiotic resistance rates of Candida species were Fluconazole 15.5%, Itraconazole 8.1%, Voriconazole 4.5%, Anidulafungin 0.7%, Micafungin 0.2%, Caspofungin 0.8% and Flucytosine 1.9%.

Conclusion: Speciation of Candida and antifungal susceptibility testing should be done routinely to prevent therapeutic failures.

Keywords: Candida, Drug Resistance, Fungal, Antifungal Agents / pharmacology

INTRODUCTION

Fungal infections (Candidiasis) are common infections caused by *Candida* species. The skin, mucosal membranes and internal organs are particularly affected (1). These infections occur in all age groups and are associated with risk factors. Candida is the third leading cause of sepsis in European countries and has a mortality rate of 37% within 30 days (2). Although *Candida albicans* is the most common species (3) causing infection in humans, a shift from *C. albicans* to non-albicans Candida (NAC) species has been reported by many countries. *C. albicans*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. krusei* and *C. glabrata* are responsible for more than 90% of

Candida infections. Species such as *C. guilliermondii*, *C. lusitaniae* and *C. kefyr* have recently been known to cause candidemia, which poses a risk to the health of hospitalized patients (1,4).

Currently, invasive candidiasis is quite common and is directly associated with high morbidity and mortality. Therefore, it is imperative to develop effective methods to ensure accurate diagnosis and appropriate antifungal treatment (5,6). Many studies have examined the therapeutic outcomes of clinically important *Candida* species and have indicated that they should be separated, identified and their resistance to antifungal drugs should be understood (1,7). Immunocompromised individuals

are also at increased risk of candidemia. The reasons for this depend on many variables such as broad-spectrum antibiotics, chemotherapy, neutropenia and invasive procedures. Blood cultures are the most reliable method for the detection of *Candida* infections. However, due to false-negative results, the time required for diagnosis and the detrimental effects of delayed or ineffective antifungal therapy, doctors should determine diagnosis and treatment based on the clinical picture and risk factors (8).

Numerous methods have been developed to identify Candida species; phenotypic, genotypic and proteomic techniques (9). Although phenotypic techniques have disadvantages in terms of sensitivity and speed, molecular techniques such as polymerase chain reaction, DNA sequencing and MALDI-TOF MS are very important in the identification of *Candida* species (9,10). The use of molecular techniques allows us to understand the distribution and frequency of different *Candida* species in clinical settings (11).

Candidiasis management is increasingly affected by the development of antifungal resistance in the world. *Candida* species show different levels of resistance to commonly used antifungal drugs such as azoles (e.g. fluconazole), echinocandins (e.g. caspofungin) and polyenes (e.g. amphotericin B) (10,12,13,14). Understanding the resistance patterns shown by *Candida* species and selecting the appropriate antifungal treatment is crucial for the success of treatment (1,15,16).

Increased resistance to antifungal drugs has been influenced by factors such as efflux pumps, genetic mutations, and changes in drug targets (13,17,18). *Candida* species also play an important role in human diseases due to their capacity to form biofilms resistant to antifungal drugs (19,20).

Treatment options are limited due to *Candida* isolates that are resistant to many drugs. Therefore, the development of new antifungals is very important. There is also an increase in the global prevalence of intrinsic resistance in *Candida* species other than *C. albicans* (21,22). As a result, resistance to antifungals is increasing in the treatment of candidiasis in the World and this is a therapeutic obstacle (23,24).

The distribution of causative species and antifungal

susceptibilities for candidemia, which is associated with high mortality and morbidity, may vary between countries and even between hospitals. In this study, we aimed to determine the distribution and antifungal susceptibilities of *Candida* species isolated from various clinical specimens sent to Acıbadem Labmed Medical Laboratory between 2015 and 2023. Antifungal susceptibility studies of isolated *Candida* species were performed with Sensititre Yeast One kit and the results were evaluated according to CLSI data

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Samples and Identification

Data from clinical samples (Sputum, Throat, Bronchoalveolar lavage, Tissue, Blood Cathater, Pus, Tracheal aspirate, Body fluid, Wound, Vaginal swab) of patients hospitalized in various clinics (ICU, Surgery Unit, Hematology and Oncology) sent to Acıbadem Labmed Microbiology laboratory between 2015-2023 were used. The distribution and antifungal susceptibilities of Candida species isolated from clinical specimens were evaluated retrospectively.

Sensititre Yeast One is a microdilution method used to determine the antifungal susceptibility of Candida species and contains 9 lyophilized antifungal drugs. Dilutions of antifungal agents and colorimetric indicator had been added to each well of the plate in the test kit by manufacturer company. Solutions of the yeast to be tested in the study are prepared and added to each test well. Test results were determined by determining the lowest antifungal concentration that inhibited growth. Identification of Candida species was performed by MALDI-TOF MS Microflex, LT (Bruker, Germany).

Antifungal Susceptibility Test

The study was performed according to the Sensitititre Yeast One protocol (25).

The Assessment of the Test Results

Sensititre Yeast, One plates were examined after 24 hours of incubation. Here yeast growth was assessed by color change from blue (negative, no growth) to red (positive, growth). As in the test protocol, the MIC value was determined as the first well without color change (first blue). As recommended in Sensititre Yeast One method, interpretation of MIC results was performed according to CLSI criteria (Table 1) (25).

Table 1. MIC interpretative criteria for Candida species as per CLSI M27.

Antifungal Agent	Susceptible	Dose-dependent susceptible	Intermediate	Not Susceptible	Resistant
Fluconazole	≤8	16-32	-	-	≥64
Itraconazole	≤0.12	0.25-0.5	-	-	≥1
Voriconazole	≤1	2	-	-	≥4
Anidulafungin	≤2	-	-	4-8	>8
Micafungin	≤2	-	-	4-8	>8
Caspofungin	≤2	-	-	4-8	>8
Flucytosine	<u>≤</u> 4	-	8-16	≥32	≥32

RESULTS

Candida species grown in the cultures of 922 samples sent to Acıbadem Labmed Microbiology Central Laboratory between 2015 and 2023 were analyzed. The distribution of *Candida* species according to type of clinical samples is shown in **Table2**.

Antifungal susceptibility testing was performed on all 922 isolates for fluconazole, itraconazole, voriconazole, anidulafungin, micafungin, caspofungin and flucytosine (Table 3).

A total of 42 (4.6%) isolates resistant to voriconazole, including 11 *C. tropicalis* (26.1%), 10 *C. parapsilosis* complex (23.8%), nine *C. albicans* (21.4%), nine *C. glabrata* (21.4%), and three *C. auris* (7.14%).

A total of 143 (15.5%) isolates resistant to fluconazole, including 11 *C. albicans* (7.7%), 22 *C. glabrata* (15.3%), 17 *C. parapsilosis* complex (11.8%), 11 *C. tropicalis* (7.7%), 71 *C. krusei* (49.6%), eight *C. auris* (5.6%), one C. lusitaniae (0.7%) and two other yeasts (1.4%).

A total of 74 (8.1%) isolates resistant to itraconazole, 12 *C. albicans* (16.2%), 35 *C. glabrata* (47.3%), seven *C. parapsilosis* complex (9.4%), 14 *C. tropicalis* (19%), one *C. dubliniensis* (1.3%), two *C. auris* (2.7%) and three other yeasts.

A total of 17 (1.9%) isolates resistant to flucytosine, including two *C. albicans* (11.7%), two *C. parapsilosis* complex (11.7%), four *C. tropicalis* (23.5%), two *C. krusei* (11.7%), five *C. lusitaniae* (29,4%), one *C. dubliniensis* (5.8%) and one *C. auris* (5.8%).

A total of seven (0.8%) isolates resistant to caspofungin, including one *C. albicans* (14.2%), one *C. glabrata* (14.2%), one *C. parapsilosis* complex (14.2%), one *C. tropicalis* (14.2%) and three *C. auris* (42.8%). A total of six *C. parapsilosis* complex (0.7%) resistant to anidulofungin and a total of two isolates (0.2%) were resistant to micafungin.

DISCUSSION

In recent years, alongside the increase in infections caused by Candida species, changes have also been observed in the diversity of species responsible for these infections. While *C. albicans* remains the most common cause of nosocomial Candida infections, there has been a rapid increase in the incidence of non-albicans Candida species, such as C. *tropicalis, C. lusitaniae, C. krusei, C. parapsilosis*, and *C. glabrata* (3).

The frequency of Candida species varies depending on the patient group and geography, but in most studies, *C. albicans* is identified as the most common species, while among non-albicans species, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. glabrata*, and *C. tropicalis* are the most frequently observed (26-29). In this study, the majority of the isolated Candida species were identified as *C. albicans* at a rate of 31%, followed by *C. parapsilosis* complex (19.2%), *C. glabrata* (17%) and *C. tropicalis* (13.6%).

Candidiasis is the most common opportunistic fungal infection, caused by Candida yeasts, though only 10% of its over 200 species are pathogenic to humans and animals (30,31). The clinical findings of infections caused by non-albicans Candida strains are generally indistinguishable, and these strains are either naturally resistant or have acquired resistance to commonly used antifungal drugs. As a result, identifying Candida isolates at the species level in clinical samples and accurately determining their in vitro susceptibility profiles in a timely manner is crucial for antifungal treatment protocols (32).

The CLSI and EUCAST broth microdilution method is the gold standard for assessing antifungal susceptibility of Candida strains, but it is expensive and difficult to implement. Challenges include a lack of expert personnel and the standardization of commercial systems. The recommended commercial systems are E-test, Sensititre

Candida species/ Clinical Samples	Sputum n= 96	Throat n= 23	Bronchoalveolar lavage n= 43	Tissue n=25	Urine n= 155	Blood n= 248	Cathater n= 24	Pus n= 38	Tracheal aspirate n= 130	Body fluid n= 36	Wound n=25	Vaginal swab n= 79
C. albicans	33	10	8	11	31	53	4	12	45	8	7	63
C. auris	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	1	0	2	0	1
C. dubliniensis	1	3	0	1	0	5	0	1	2	0	0	1
C. famata	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
C. glabrata	20	1	10	2	45	28	3	6	17	12	7	6
C. guilliermondii	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
C. haemulonii	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
C. inconspicua	0	0	1	2	1	2	0	0	2	0	0	0
C. keyfr	3	0	0	1	6	12	1	2	9	1	3	1
C. krusei	18	4	2	1	8	22	0	2	6	3	1	4
C. lusitaniae	2	0	2	0	6	5	2	2	3	0	1	0
C. metapsilosis	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	1	0
C. norvegensis	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
C. orthopsilosis	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	1	0	0	0
C. parapsilosis	3	2	10	4	23	76	7	5	23	6	2	1
C. tropicalis	15	2	8	3	35	27	4	6	18	4	2	2
Total	96	23	43	25	155	248	24	38	130	36	25	79

Table 2. Distribution of Candida species according to clinical sample types and ages

Table 3. Antifungal	susceptibility	results of	Candida	strains
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Candida anasias			FCA ITR						VOR						
Candida species		S			R		S	DE	DS		R	S		DDS	R
C. albicans	285	261 (91	61 (91.5%) 13 11		11 (0.389	11 (0.38%)		5%) 31 (11%)		12 (0.42%)		269 (94%)		7 (0.24%)	9 (0.31%)
C.parapsilosis complex*	177	140 (79,1%) 20		20	17 (9.6%)		48 (83.6%)	22 (12	.4%)	7 (3	3.9%)	165 (93.2	%)	2 (1.12%)	10 (5.6%)
C. glabrata	157	108 (68.7%)		27	22 (14%	b)	36 (23%)	86 (54	54.7%) 35		(22%)	136 (86.6%)		12 (7.6%)	9 (5.7%)
C. tropicalis	126	110 (87.3%)		5	11 (8.7%)		60 (47.6%)	52 (41	(41.2%) 14		(11%)	114 (90.4	%)	1 (0.79%)	11 (8.7%)
C. krusei	71	0 (0%)		0	71 (100%	6) 2	22 (30.9%)	49 (69%)		0 ((0%)	71 (100%)		0 (0%)	0 (0%)
C. keyfr	39	39 (10	39 (100%) 0		0 (0%)	3	35 (89.7%)	4 (10.2%)		0 ((0%)	39 (100%)		0 (0%)	0 (0%)
C. lusitaniae	23	22 (95.	2 (95.6%) 0		1 (4.3%)		17 (73.9%)	6 (26%)		0 ((0%)	23 (100%)		0 (0%)	0 (0%)
C. dubliniensis	14	13 (93	3%)	1	0 (0%)		13 (93%)	0 (0	0 (0%) 1 (0		.71%)	14 (100%)		0 (0%)	0 (0%)
C. auris	11	1 (99	(9%) 2		8 (72%)		7 (63%)	2 (18%)		2 ((18%) 8 (72%))	0 (0%)	3 (27%)
Other yeasts**	19	9 (47.3	3%)	8	2 (10.5%	6) 1	11 (57.8%)	5 (26.	5 (26.3%) 3 (5.7%)	19 (100%)		0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total	922	703 (76	5.2%)	76	143 (15.5	%) 5	91 (64.1%)	257 (27	7.8%)	74 ((8.1%)	858 (93.1	%)	22 (2.4%)	42 (4.5%)
*: C.parapsilosis, C.ortopsilosis, C.metaparapsilosis, ** other yeast: C. inconspicua (n=8), C. famata (n=4), C.guilliermondii (n=4), C. haemulonii (n=1), C. norvegensis(n=2), FCA: Fluconazole, ITR: Itraconazole, VOR: Voriconazole, AND: Anidulofungin, MF: Micafungin, CAS: Caspofungin, FCY: Flucytosine, S: Susceptible, DDS: Dose Dependent Susceptible, I: Intermediate, NS: Not Susceptible, R: Resistant															
Candida			Α	ND			N	IF			C	CAS		FC	Y
Candida species		S	A	ND S	R	s	NS	IF R	S	5	NS	R	s	FC	Y R
Candida species C. albicans	285	S 284	A N 1 (%	ND S 0.4)	R 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6%	N NS 6) 0 (0%)	IF R 1 (0.35%)	28 (99.1	3 2 3%)	0 NS 2	R 1 (0.35%)	S 283	FC I 0 (0%)	R 2 (0.07%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex*	285 177	S 284 171	A N 1 (% 0 (0	ND S 0.4) 0%)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2%	NS 0 (0%) 4 (2.3%)	IF R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%)	28 (99 17 (99.	32 33%) 76 4%)	C NS 2 0 (0%)	R 1(0.35%) 1 (0.6%)	S 283 174	FC I 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%)	R 2(0.07%) 2(1.12%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata	285 177 157	S 284 171 156	A N 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0.	ND S 0.4))%) 6%)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 155 (98.7%	NS 0 (0%) 4 (2.3%) 2 (0.12%)	IF R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%)	28 (99 17 (99 15 (99	32 3%) 76 4%) 56 3%)	C NS 2 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	R 1(0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 1 (0.6%)	S 283 174 157	FC 1 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%)	R 2(0.07%) 2(1.12%) 0 (0%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata C. tropicalis	285 177 157 126	S 284 171 156 126 (100%)	A 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0. 0 (0	ND S 0.4))%) 6%)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 155 (98.7% 126 (100%	NS 0 (0%) 6) (2.3%) 7) 0 (0%) 6) (2.3%) 7) 0 (0%)	IF R 1 (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	\$ 28 (99 17 (99 15 (99 2 (98	32 33%) 76 4%) 56 3%) 24 4%)	C NS 2 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 1	AS R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 1 (0.6%) 1 (0.79%)	S 283 174 157 122	FC 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	R 2 (0.07%) 2 (1.12%) 0 (0%) 4 (3.1%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata C. tropicalis C. krusei	285 177 157 126 71	S 284 171 156 (100%) 71 (100%)	A N 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0. 0 (0 0 (0)	ND S 0.4) 9%) 6%) 9%)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 155 (98.7% 126 (100% 71 (100%	NS 0 (0%) 4 (2.3%) (0.12%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	IF R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	\$ 28 (99 17 (99 12 (98 71 (1)	32 3%) 76 4%) 56 3%) 24 4%) 00%)	C NS 2 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%)	AS R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 1 (0.6%) 1 (0.79%) 0 (0%)	S 283 174 157 122 24	FC 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 45 (63.3%)	R 2(0.07%) 2(1.12%) 0 (0%) 4 (3.1%) 2 (2.8%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata C. tropicalis C. krusei C. keyfr	285 1777 157 126 71 39	S 284 171 156 (100%) 71 (100%) 39 (100%)	A 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0. 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0	ND S 0.4) 9%) 6%) 9%) 9%)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 1555 (98.7%) 126 (100% 71 (100%) 39 (100%)	NS 0 (0%) 4 (2.3%) (0.12%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	IF R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	28 (99) 17 (99) 15 (99) (98) 71 (1) 39 (1)	32 33%) 76 44%) 56 33%) 24 44%) 000%) 000%)	C NS 2 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	AS R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 1 (0.6%) 1 (0.79%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 283 174 157 122 24 36	FC I 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 3 (7.6%)	R 2 (0.07%) 2 (1.12%) 0 (0%) 4 (3.1%) 2 (2.8%) 0 (0%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata C. tropicalis C. tropicalis C. krusei C. krusei C. keyfr C. lusitaniae	285 177 157 126 71 39 23	S 284 171 156 (100%) 71 (100%) 39 (100%) 23 (100%)	A 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0. 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0	ND S 0.4) 9%) 6%) 9%) 9%)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 125 (98.7% 126 (100% 71 (100% 39 (100% 23 (100%	NS 0 (0%) 4 (2.3%) (0.12%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	IF R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	28 (99) 17 (99) 15 (99) (98) 71 (1) 39 (1) 23 (1)	32 33%) 76 4%) 56 33%) 24 4%) 00%) 00%) 00%)	C NS 2 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	R 1 0.35%) 1 0.6%) 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	S 283 174 157 122 24 36 17	FC 1 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 45 (63.3%) 3 (7.6%) 1 (4.3%)	Y R 2 (0.07%) 2 (1.12%) 0 (0%) 4 (3.1%) 2 (2.8%) 0 (0%) 5 (21.7%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata C. tropicalis C. tropicalis C. krusei C. keyfr C. lusitaniae C. dubliniensis	285 1777 1577 126 711 399 233 14	S 284 171 156 (100%) 71 (100%) 39 (100%) 23 (100%) 14 (100%)	A 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0. 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0	ND S 0.4) %) 6%) %) %) %)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 155 (98.7%) 126 (100% 71 (100% 39 (100%) 23 (100%) 14 (100%)	NS 0 (0%) 4 (2.3%) 5) (0.12%) 6) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%)	IF R (0.35%) 1(0.6%) 0(0%) 0(0%) 0(0%) 0(0%) 0(0%)	\$ 28 (99) 17 (99) 12 (98) 71 (1) 39 (1) 23 (1) 14 (1)	32 33%) 76 4%) 56 33%) 24 4%) 00%) 00%) 00%)	C NS 2 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	R 1 0.35%) 1 0.6%) 1 0	S 283 174 157 122 24 36 17 13	FC I 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 3 (7.6%) 1 (4.3%) 0 (0%)	Y R 2 (0.07%) 2 (1.12%) 0 (0%) 4 (3.1%) 2 (2.8%) 0 (0%) 5 (21.7%) 1 (0.71%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata C. tropicalis C. tropicalis C. krusei C. keyfr C. lusitaniae C. dubliniensis C. auris	285 1777 1577 126 711 399 233 14 11	S 284 171 156 (100%) 71 (100%) 39 (100%) 23 (100%) 14 (100%) 11 (100%)	A N 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0. 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0	ND S 0.4) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 155 (98.7% 126 (100% 71 (100% 23 (100% 23 (100% 14 (100% 11 (100%	N NS 0 (0%) (2.3%) (0.12%) (0.12%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	IF R (0.35%) (0.0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 28 (99 17 (99 12 (98 71 (1) 39 (1) 23 (1) 14 (1) 8 (7	32 33%) 76 44%) 56 33%) 24 44%) 00%) 00%) 00%) 00%) 00%) 22%)	 NS 2 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 	R 1 0.35%) 1 0.6%) 0	S 283 174 157 122 24 36 17 13 10	FC I 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 3 (7.6%) 1 (4.3%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	R 2 (0.07%) 2 (1.12%) 0 (0%) 4 (3.1%) 2 (2.8%) 0 (0%) 5 (21.7%) 1 (0.71%) 1 (9%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata C. tropicalis C. tropicalis C. krusei C. keyfr C. lusitaniae C. dubliniensis C. auris Other yeasts**	285 1777 157 126 71 39 23 14 11 11	S 284 171 156 (100%) 71 (100%) 39 (100%) 23 (100%) 14 (100%) 11 (100%) 19 (100%)	A N 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0. 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0	ND S 0.4) 1%) 6%) 1%) 1%) 1%) 1%) 1%)	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 155 (98.7% 126 (100% 71 (100% 39 (100% 23 (100% 114 (100% 11 (100% 11) (100%	N NS (0,0%) (2,3%) (0,12%) (0,12%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%) (0,0%)	R 1 (0.35%) 0	S 28 (99 17 (99 12 (98 71 (1) 39 (1) 23 (1) 14 (1) 8 (7 19 (1)	32 33%) 76 4%) 56 3%) 24 4%) 00%) 00%) 00%) 00%) 2%) 00%)	 NS 2 0 (0%) 1 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 	R 1 0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 3 (27%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 283 174 157 122 24 36 17 13 10	FC I 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 3 (7.6%) 1 (4.3%) 0 (0%) 1 (5.2%)	R 2 (0.07%) 2 (1.12%) 0 (0%) 4 (3.1%) 2 (2.8%) 0 (0%) 5 (21.7%) 1 (0.71%) 1 (9%) 0 (0%)
Candida species C. albicans C.parapsilosis complex* C. glabrata C. tropicalis C. tropicalis C. krusei C. keyfr C. lusitaniae C. dubliniensis C. auris Other yeasts** Total	285 1777 157 126 71 39 23 14 11 19 922	S 284 171 156 (100%) 71 (100%) 39 (100%) 23 (100%) 14 (100%) 11 (100%) 19 (100%) 914	A N 1 (% 0 (0 1 (0. 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0 0 (0	ND S (0.4) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%	R 0 (0%) 6 (3.4%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)	S 284 (99.6% 172 (97.2% 155 (98.7% 126 (100% 71 (100% 23 (100% 23 (100% 14 (100% 11) (100% 914 (99.1)	N NS (2.3%) (0.12%) (0.12%) (0.12%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%) (0.0%)	IF R (0.35%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 2 0 (0%)	S 28 (99 17 (99 12 (98 71 (1) 39 (1) 23 (1) 14 (1) 8 (7 19 (1) 91 (98	32 33%) 76 4%) 56 3%) 24 4%) 00%) 00%) 00%) 00%) 2%) 2%) 00%) 12 9%)	<pre></pre>	R 1 0.35%) 1 0.6%) 1 0.0%) 0 0 3 0 1 0	S 283 174 157 122 24 36 17 13 10	FC I 0 (0%) 1 (0.6%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%) 3 (7.6%) 1 (4.3%) 0 (0%) 1 (5.2%) 51 (5.5%)	R 2 (0.07%) 2 (1.12%) 0 (0%) 4 (3.1%) 2 (2.8%) 0 (0%) 5 (21.7%) 1 (0.71%) 1 (9%) 0 (0%) 17 (1.9%)

(n=1), C. norvegensis(n=2): FCA: Fluconazole, ITR: Itraconazole, VOR: Voriconazole, AND: Anidulofungin, MF: Micafungin, CAS: Caspofungin, F Flucytosine, S: Susceptible, DDS: Dose Dependent Susceptible, I: Intermediate, NS: Not Susceptible, R: Resistant

Yeast One, and VITEK 2 (33).

The Sensititre Yeast One method shows high concordance with the CLSI reference method and is a simple method for antifungal susceptibility testing. It provides excellent results in terms of accuracy and reproducibility compared to the CLSI method, making it widely used in clinical and research laboratories (34).

We selected the Sensititre Yeast One method for our study due to its commercial availability, ability to test various antifungals at once, and user-friendliness. In the study conducted by Kararslan et al. using Sensititre Yeast One, *C. albicans, C. parapsilosis, C. glabrata* and C. tropicalis were susceptible to caspofungin and amphotericin B. One C. albicans strain showed resistance to voriconazole. Fluconazole resistance was detected in one C. glabrata and one C. albicans strain. Itraconazole resistance was detected in one C. albicans and one C. glabrata strain, while one C. tropicalis strain showed dose-dependent susceptibility to itraconazole. The multiazol resistance with high MICs was determined for one C. albicans strain. The all isolates that they studied did not show any resistance to echinocandins (35).

Siqueira et al. compared the VITEK 2 and Sensititre Yeast One systems with the gold standard broth dilution method for antifungal susceptibility of 80 Candida

isolates. They concluded that both methods performed well and were reliable for antifungal testing. However, they recommended caution in interpreting results for *C. krusei* and *C. glabrata* against caspofungin due to low observation numbers with the Sensititre Yeast One method (34).

The study Avolio et al. concluded that the Sensititre Yeast One system provides accurate antifungal MIC determination and saves about 24 hours compared to standard procedures (36). Resistance to fluconazole, which is widely used in the treatment of candida infections due to its broad spectrum of action and low toxicity, has been reported to increase in recent years (37).

In this study, fluconazole resistance was detected in 11 C. albicans isolates (0.38%), 22 C. glabrata isolates (14%), 17 C. parapsilosis isolates (10.4%), and 11 C. tropicalis isolates (8.7%). In the study conducted by Temiz et al. fluconazole resistance was found in two C. albicans isolates (4%), one C. glabrata isolate (5%) and one C. tropicalis isolate (5%). In addition, one C. albicans isolate (2%) and one C. dubliniensis isolate (5%) showed moderate susceptibility to fluconazole. No fluconazole resistance was detected in C. parapsilosis strains. Fluconazole resistance was found in 5.7% of all candida strains, 4% in C. albicans strains and 10% in non-C. albicans strains (3). In our country, fluconazole resistance varies according to regions and has been increasing over the years, with resistance rates between 0-38% reported (38-42).

Flucytosine is an antifungal with limited use due to its high toxicity. In our study, flucytosine resistance was found to be <5 % for candida species. In their studies, Bayram Y. et al. (39) found flucytosine resistance rate as 4% and Erdem F. et al. (29) found it as 1.7%. Özbek et al. did not find any flucytosine resistance in their study (40).

Voriconazole is the first available second-generation triazole with potent activity against a broad spectrum of clinically significant fungal pathogens, including Aspergillus, Candida, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, and some less common molds (43). In our study, voriconazole resistance rates were determined as 21.4%; 23.8%; 21.4% and 26.2% for *C. albicans, C. parapsilosis complex, C. glabrata*, and *C. tropicalis*, respectively, and were found to be compatible with the previous studies conducted by Temiz et al. (3).

According to the fungal priority pathogens list published by the World Health Organization in 2022, *Candida auris* was ultimately ranked as a critical priority pathogen (44). *C. auris* has been reported to show resistance to many antifungals. In our study, antifungal susceptibility of 11 *C. auris* strains were tested and fluconazole resistance rate was found to be high in accordance with previous studies (45-47).

Limitations

Our study has some limitations. We used Sensititre Yeast One, instead of the gold standard Broth microdilution, as a comparator. However, these panels have shown promising results for antifungal susceptibility testing worldwide.

CONCLUSION

The Sensititre antifungal sensitivity test is a valuable tool due to its accessibility, ability to test nine antifungal agents simultaneously, and compatibility with CLSI reference values. Based on the low MIC values, we found that drugs like anidulafungin, micafungin, caspofungin, flucytosine, and others are effective against Candida strains, including fluconazole-resistant ones. While secondary antifungal resistance among common Candida species isn't an increasing threat in our hospitals, continuous monitoring of Candida and non-Candida species with reduced susceptibility is crucial. This highlights the need for local epidemiological and antifungal susceptibility studies to support clinicians in managing invasive fungal infections.

DECLERATIONS

Ethics Committee Approval: ATADEK-2024/1.

Informed Consent: Informed consent is not necessary. Referee Evaluation Process: Externally peer-reviewed. Conflict of Interest Statement: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Financial Disclosure: No financial support used in the study.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, N.U. and M.A.; methodology, N.Y.U; investigation, N.U; resources, N.Y.U.; writing—original draft preparation, N.U. and M.A.; writing—review and editing, M.A., supervision, M.A.; All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Special Thanks: None

AI: Not Applied

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 25.12.2024 Accepted at: 17.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025



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Abstract

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is a double-stranded DNA virus from the Papillomaviridae family that primarily infects basal epithelial cells. This virus is responsible for causing warts, papillomas, and various cancers in both men and women. To date, over 200 HPV types have been identified, which are classified into high-risk and low-risk categories. High-risk types, such as HPV 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, 68, 73, and 82 are known to contribute significantly to cancer development. Among these, HPV 16 and 18 are the most common and are strongly associated with the onset of cancer. HPV remains a significant global public health issue, posing substantial social and economic burdens. Despite extensive research, there is currently no approved or proven drug for the effective treatment of HPV infections. However, vaccines play a critical role in the prevention of HPV-related diseases. The U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has approved three vaccines that provide protection against high-risk HPV types. These vaccines have led to a marked reduction in HPV incidence and associated complications. The World Health Organization (WHO) strongly recommends HPV vaccination as a preventive measure. Furthermore, ongoing research aims to develop next-generation vaccines to enhance protection against HPV. This study underscores the importance of HPV vaccines and highlights their role in mitigating the impact of this pervasive virus.

Keywords: Human Papillomavirus, HPV, HPV Vaccine, Cervical Cancer

INTRODUCTION

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is a non-enveloped, double-stranded DNA virus belonging to the Papillomaviridae family, primarily infecting the mucosal tissues of the cervical and oral tracts (1). The pathological outcomes of HPV infection vary based on the individual's immune status and the specific HPV type involved (2). Certain HPV types cause benign growths such as warts or papillomas, while others are associated with more severe outcomes, including cancer. HPV is one of the most prevalent sexually transmitted infections and poses a significant risk for both men and women. While HPV is the leading cause of cervical cancer in women, cervical cancer remains one of the most common cause of cancer-related mortality in women worldwide. Currently, over 200 different types of HPV have been identified, with types 6, 11, 16, and 18 being particularly

noteworthy. Among these, HPV type 16 is the most oncogenic, accounting for a substantial proportion of HPV-related cancers (3). Epidemiological studies suggest that the majority of sexually active individuals are likely to contract an HPV infection at least once during their lifetime (4). HPV vaccines have been developed to address this public health concern. The first HPV vaccine was introduced in 2006. Currently, three prophylactic vaccines are licensed by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for use: Gardasil (Merck & Co., USA/Sanofi Pasteur MSD, France), Cervarix (GlaxoSmithKline Biologicals, Belgium), and Gardasil 9 (Merck & Co., USA) (5).

Implementing preventive measures against HPV can significantly reduce the economic and social burden on society. Consequently, efforts to enhance vaccination

programs and promote early diagnosis are of critical importance. Raising awareness through education and disseminating information about HPV can further contribute to social consciousness. This study aims to examine the development of HPV vaccines over the years and their role in preventing HPV infections and HPV-related cancers.

HUMAN PAPILLOMAVIRUS (HPV)

HPV is a small, non-enveloped, double-stranded DNA virus with a genome of approximately 8000 base pairs (bp). Its structure consists of 72 pentameric capsomeres forming icosahedral (cubic) capsids (6). While sexual transmission is the primary mode of HPV spread, the virus can also be transmitted from mother to infant during childbirth (7).

The HPV genome is composed of eight open reading frames (ORFs): E1, E2, E4, E5, E6, E7, L1, and L2. These ORFs facilitate replication and transcription within the host cell (8). The ORFs are organized into three functional regions: The E (early) region, the L1 and L2 (late) region, and the LCR (long control region). The LCR is a non-coding region responsible for regulating viral replication. The E region encodes proteins involved in the pathogenicity of the virus, particularly its 4-kb non-structural components. Within the E region, the E1 protein functions as a viral DNA helicase, while the E2 protein regulates viral gene transcription. Together, E1 and E2 orchestrate DNA replication by binding to the viral replication origin and forming a complex (9, 10). E5 has been shown to contribute to oncogenicity by expressing growth factors such as EGFR and by synergizing with E6 and E7 (11). The E6 and E7 proteins of HPV target tumor suppressor genes, significantly impacting cell growth and differentiation. These viral oncogenes play a central role in the development of HPV-associated cancers. Blocking the expression of E6 and E7 can halt cell proliferation, trigger apoptosis, and ultimately lead to tumor cell death. Consequently, E6 and E7 have become key targets in research focused on developing treatments for HPV-induced cancers (12). The L region of the HPV genome encodes the L1 and L2 capsid proteins, which are essential for virion assembly. Known collectively as the late region, these genes play a critical role in packaging the replicated viral genome into an icosahedral capsid and facilitating the transmission of infection (9).

HPV infects epithelial cells by interacting with cell surface receptors, including integrin α (13). During HPV infection, the virus initially targets the basal layer of the epithelium, typically gaining access through microlesions. After crossing the basal layer of the epidermis, HPV enters cells through endocytosis. Capsid proteins L1 and L2 facilitate this process, enabling the virus to pass into the basal layer. Additionally, cellular components such as heparan sulfate, proteoglycans, and

annexin A2 assist in cellular entry. The differentiation of keratinocytes plays a pivotal role in viral replication. Once the basal cells are infected by virions, cell cycle regulation is disrupted. The infected cells migrate from the basal layer to the upper layers of the epidermis and are eventually shed from the surface (14).

The Relationship Between HPV and Cervical Cancer

HPV is considered the leading cause of cervical cancer (15). In 2022, there were approximately 660,000 cases and 350,000 deaths due to cervical cancer globally. In Türkiye, cervical cancer ranks 12th among cancers in women, and the age-standardized incidence rate of HPV-related cervical cancer cases has been shown to be 4.8 per 100,000 women. The HPV Information Centre informs that 32.8 million women aged 15 and over in Türkiye are at risk of cervical cancer and that 1,245 women die from cervical cancer each year (16,17). If left untreated, HPV infection in the cervix is responsible for 95% of cervical cancers (18). According to a study conducted in 2019, HPV is thought to be responsible for approximately 620,000 new cancer cases in women and 70,000 new cancer cases in men (19).

Cervical cancer is divided into different types according to its location. Squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) accounts for 90% of cervical cases and begins in the ectocervix. The one that begins in the endocervix is called adenocarcinoma (20). Premalignant changes in the squamous cells of the cervical epithelium are referred to as Cervical Intraepithelial Neoplasia (CIN) (21). CIN 1 is characterized as low-grade mild dysplasia, CIN 2 as moderate dysplasia, and CIN 3 as high-grade dysplasia and carcinoma in situ. CIN 1 affects approximately onethird of the epithelial tissue, CIN 2 affects about twothirds, and CIN 3 involves at least two-thirds of the epithelial tissue (22). Regression of CIN lesions can occur in clinical cases, including CIN 1, CIN 2, and CIN 3 (23).

History of HPV Vaccines

As a result of studies on HPV types, prophylactic vaccines have been developed to prevent HPV infections and related diseases. HPV was first identified in biopsy samples taken from the cervix in 1983 (24). Since then, many reputable international organizations, including the World Health Organization (WHO), FDA, the European Medicines Agency (EMA), and the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG), have approved various types of HPV vaccines, affirming their safety and efficacy (25). In 2006, the first prophylactic vaccine Gardasil approved by FDA is a quadrivalent vaccine providing protection against HPV types 6, 11, 16, and 18. The marketing authorizations for Gardasil were granted in the European Union on September 20, 2006, for Cervarix on September 20, 2007, and for Gardasil 9 on June 10, 2015, by the European Commission. As of

2024, there are six HPV vaccines globally: Cervarix®, Walrinvax®, Cecolin® bivalent vaccine, Gardasil®, Cervavac® quadrivalent vaccines, and the 9-valent vaccine Gardasil 9® (26). Vaccination is an effective and safe method for preventing HPV infections and related diseases. It is critical in reducing the risk of infection and HPV-related cancers. HPV vaccines are not intended to treat existing infections or diseases caused by HPV but to prevent cancer development. WHO recommends vaccination between the ages of 9-14 as effective against HPV infections, cervical cancer, and other types of cancer. Vaccines should be administered before exposure to HPV to be most effective. Many countries continue to integrate routine HPV vaccination into their immunization programs (27). Table 1 summarize the HPV types covered, approval years, target age groups, and recommended doses of the six vaccines currently in use globally (Table 1).

With the widespread use of HPV vaccines and the global demonstration of their efficacy and safety, vaccination strategies have evolved significantly over time. Initially focused on young women, the CDC (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention), WHO, and Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP) now recommend the inclusion of males in vaccination programs and the expansion of target age groups to individuals up to 45 years. These changes reflect the vaccines' demonstrated efficacy and safety in diverse populations (28,29).

EFFECTIVENESS OF VACCINES

The CDC reports that the HPV vaccine has shown positive results and can prevent over 90% of cancers caused by HPV. It has led to a decrease in cases of genital warts among young people and adults. Since the introduction of the vaccine, cervical cancer rates have declined, and the protection conferred by the HPV vaccine has remained effective over time. Additionally, HPV infections among adolescent girls have decreased by 88%, and among young adult women by 81%. The rate of cervical precancers (CIN2 and CIN3) in vaccinated women has also decreased by 40% (30). After the introduction of the quadrivalent vaccine, reductions were observed in infections caused by HPV types 6, 16,

and 18, as well as in cytological abnormalities, CIN2 and CIN3, and genital warts. These decreases were more pronounced in the young population. In countries with high vaccination rates, such as Denmark and Australia, decreases in genital warts have been observed. Common HPV types 6 and 11 infections have been reduced by 40–50% in American women and 75–88% in Australian women compared to the pre-vaccination era (31).

Studies highlight varying protection rates among bivalent, quadrivalent, and nonavalent vaccines. Metaanalyses confirm that nonavalent vaccines, such as Gardasil 9, offer the most comprehensive protection against HPV-related diseases. These vaccines provide broader coverage against additional oncogenic HPV types, significantly reducing the incidence of cervical and other cancers (32).

Vaccination Safety and Side Effects

After vaccination with HPV vaccines, as with other vaccines, common side effects such as pain and fever at the injection site, as well as headache and nausea, can occur (33). According to the CDC, in addition to these side effects, dizziness and fainting can also be observed, particularly among adolescents. To mitigate the risk of fainting, it is recommended that individuals sit down during vaccination and rest for 15 minutes afterward (30). A study conducted using data from the Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting System (VAERS) found that side effects such as dizziness, headache, and nausea are frequently reported, but it was concluded that the 9vHPV vaccine is safe (34). Another study reviewed the literature on the safety and efficacy of the Gardasil® vaccine. The results confirmed that the vaccine is both effective and safe (35). An 11-year study conducted in Australia found that the 4vHPV vaccine did not cause any alarming problems and was considered safe (36).

NEW VACCINE STUDIES

HPV is responsible for causing cancers such as anogenital, cervical, and oropharyngeal in both women and men. Cervical cancer is particularly prominent among HPVrelated cancer types. Vaccination of young girls and women plays a crucial role in preventing infections and cervical abnormalities. Vaccines are considered one

Table 1. The summary of licensed HPV vaccines.

	GARDASIL;	CERVARIX;	GARDASIL 9;	CECOLIN;	CERVAVAC;	WALRINVAX;
	Qadrivalent	Bivalent	Nonvalent Vaccine	Bivalent	Qadrivalent	Bivalent
	Vaccine	Vaccine		Vaccine	Vaccine	Vaccine
Targeted HPV	6, 11, 16, 18	16, 18	6, 11, 16, 18, 31,	16, 18	6, 11, 16, 18	16, 18
Types			33, 45, 52, 58			
Approval Years	2006	2009	2014	2021	2022	2024
Target Age Groups	-	-	9-45	-	9-26	9-30
Recommended	For people 9-13,	For people	For people 9-14,	For people	For people	For people 9-14,
Doses	2 or 3 doses	9-14, 2 doses	2 or 3 doses	9-14, 2 doses	9-14, 2 doses	2 or 3 doses
	For people 14	For people15	For people 15-45,	For people	For people 15-	For people 15-
	years and older, 3	years and	3 doses	14 years and	26, 3 doses	30, 3 doses
	doses	older, 3 doses		older, 3 doses		

of the greatest achievements of the century, providing life-saving benefits against bacterial and viral infections (37). Vaccines play a crucial role in preventing cancers caused by HPV. Therefore, the development of new vaccines is of great value in terms of cancer prevention.

Researchers are increasingly focusing on the development of therapeutic vaccines rather than prophylactic ones to prevent the development of cervical cancers. Therapeutic vaccines target the E6 and E7 oncogenes and aim to induce a cell-mediated immune response to eliminate infected cells. Unlike prophylactic vaccines, which prevent HPV infection, therapeutic vaccines are designed to target the virus after it has entered the body. For therapeutic vaccines, there are various development strategies, including live vector, bacterial vector, viral vector, peptide, protein-based, and nucleic acid vaccines, depending on their sources (38). An example of a therapeutic vaccine is the RNA virusbased viral vector vaccine Vvax001. Vvax001 consists of SFV (Semliki Forest Virus) particles encoding HPV 16 derivatives E6 and E7. Studies have shown that this vaccine induces HPV 16-specific T cells (39). Vaccines developed to date cannot fully cure cervical cancer. Current HPV vaccines are most effective when administered before infection with the virus. Promising vaccine studies include VGX-3100, which targets highgrade intraepithelial lesions (HSIL) caused by HPV 16 and HPV 18 (40). As of 2024, the recombinant vaccinia vaccine for HPV 16 and HPV 18, which expresses modified forms of E6 and E7 proteins, has completed Phase 2 clinical studies (41).

Cecolin is a bivalent prophylactic vaccine produced in *Escherichia coli*, effective against HPV 16 and HPV 18. Administered intramuscularly, it was approved in China in December 2019 and received prequalification from the WHO in 2021. It is recommended for women aged 9-45 and follows a three-dose schedule, while girls aged 9-14 may receive a two- or three-dose schedule. Cecolin has a similar safety profile to Gardasil as indicated by studies (42). Walrinvax is another prophylactic vaccine that has completed Phase 1 clinical trials in China. This bivalent VLP vaccine targets HPV types 16 and 18 and is expressed in *Pichia pastoris* yeast (43).

Vaccines prevent diseases by activating the body's natural defense mechanisms. Prophylactic HPV vaccines provide immunity against HPV infections, aiming to reduce the global burden of cervical cancer. These vaccines, composed of virus-like particles (VLPs), are highly effective in preventing HPV infections, genital warts, and cervical cancers (4). A study by Lukács et al found that quadrivalent vaccine significantly reduced the occurrence of genital warts after administration to both young men and women (44). A study evaluating the success of HPV vaccination in the United States between 2003 and 2018 demonstrated a decrease in

the prevalence of infection. Study results showed that from 2003-2006, when the vaccine was not available, to 2015-2018, the quadrivalent HPV vaccine reduced infection by 88% in people aged 14-19 and by 81% in people aged 20-24. It has also been emphasized that the frequency of infection has decreased significantly even in unvaccinated individuals during the vaccination period. This shows the contribution of increasing HPV vaccination to herd immunity (45).

A study conducted in Costa Rica evaluated the effectiveness of the Cervarix vaccine, focusing on women aged 18-25. In this clinical trial, participants received two doses of the Cervarix vaccine, which targets HPV types 16 and 18. The findings demonstrated that two doses provided strong protection against HPV infections caused by these types. Due to the logistical and cost-related challenges of a three-dose vaccination program, the study also explored the efficacy of oneand two-dose regimens. Statistical data were used to estimate the protective impact of a three-dose schedule. Interestingly, similar protection rates were observed among women receiving one, two, or three doses of the vaccine. Based on these results, the study suggested that reducing the dosage to two doses could effectively lower the incidence of cervical cancer while extending vaccination coverage to a greater number of women (46).

A study conducted on women aged 20-45 evaluated the efficacy and safety profiles of two new four- and ninevalent vaccines compared to Gardasil. The findings showed that these vaccines were as effective as Gardasil and exhibited clinically acceptable safety profiles. Both the four- and nine-valent vaccines demonstrated highly immunogenic properties. Common side effects, such as pain, redness, and swelling at the injection site, were observed in this study as well (47). Research conducted in China revealed that high-risk HPV infections vary by age and region. Incidence rates of high-risk HPV were 24.3% in women under 25, 19.9% in women aged 25–45, and 21.4% in women over 45. These findings emphasize the importance of HPV vaccines, which are effective against common high-risk HPV types. However, the study also highlighted that the characteristics of existing HPV vaccines may not perfectly align with the specific needs of certain populations of China (48). Preventing HPV infections before they occur is more cost-effective in reducing the economic burden. When comparing nonvalent and bivalent vaccines in terms of cost-effectiveness, it was shown that nonvalent vaccine prevents more cases of cervical cancer, but bivalent vaccine, with its cross-protective effect, could be a cost-effective alternative for many low- and middleincome countries (49). Given the significant role of HPV vaccines in alleviating the disease burden, countries should evaluate their available resources, immunization

program goals, and the societal impact of HPV. To enhance global immunization rates, the development of innovative strategies by individual nations is essential (50,51).

Limitations

Despite the comprehensive nature of this review, certain limitations should be acknowledged. First, while we aimed to cover a broad spectrum of literature on HPV vaccines, the rapidly evolving nature of vaccine research may mean that some newly emerging data were not included. Additionally, most studies referenced in this review are based on clinical trials and epidemiological data from specific populations, which may not be fully generalizable to all regions. Another limitation is the lack of long-term real-world data on the effectiveness of newer HPV vaccines in diverse populations. Finally, while we discussed the preventive role of vaccines, the review does not extensively address the challenges in global vaccine accessibility, including economic, political, and social barriers. Future research should focus on these aspects to provide a more comprehensive understanding of HPV vaccine implementation and its long-term impact.

CONCLUSION

HPV is a virus that has affected millions of people throughout history. As one of the most common sexually transmitted infections, HPV can lead to warts as well as cervical, vulvar, and head and neck cancers. Preventing these diseases is possible through immunization, making HPV vaccines crucial in combating infections. Vaccinating individuals before they are exposed to HPV significantly reduces the risk of infection. Currently, three HPV vaccines have been approved by the FDA, with ongoing efforts to develop new ones. Several countries have incorporated these vaccines into their routine immunization programs, though others, including Türkiye, have yet to do so. While vaccination campaigns often focus on girls and women, extending these efforts to include boys and men offers additional protection, benefiting not only individuals but also their partners. Beyond individual health, HPV vaccination reduces the social and economic burden on nations. Therefore, integrating HPV vaccines into routine immunization programs is essential for public health advancement and economic sustainability.

DECLERATIONS

Ethics committee approval: In this review, the authors confirm that there are no ethical concerns or conflicts of interest. All authors have contributed to the study in compliance with ethical guidelines, and no aspect of the research involves activities that could present ethical issues.

Financial disclosure: This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,

commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Author contributions: All authors declare that they have all participated in the design, execution, and analysis of the paper and that they have approved the final version.

Conflicts of interest: Authors declare none.

Acknowledgments: None.

AI: Not applied

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 08.12.2024 Accepted at: 28.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025



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Abstract

Lung cancer affected 2.2 million people and caused 1.8 million deaths in 2020. The most common type is non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC), with symptoms like cough, dyspnea, pain, and weight loss. Metastases often occur in the brain and the adrenal glands. Cardiac metastasis, detected in 25% to 30% of autopsy examinations of patients, generally involves the pericardium. Rarely, lung cancer metastasizes to the myocardium and can mimic acute coronary syndrome (ACS) or ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) without coronary artery blockage. Prognosis is generally poor in patients with cardiac metastasis, as patients showing ACS-like symptoms may die within days. These highlight the need for clinicians to be aware of this rare but severe complication of lung cancer. This case report presents a rare occurrence of myocardial metastasis from primary lung cancer, which is presented as ACS. PET-CT scans of the patient demonstrated lung lesions, lymphadenopathy, and multiple metastases. Biopsy specimens revealed poorly differentiated squamous cell carcinoma, with possible high-grade mucoepidermoid carcinoma. Physicians should recognize that lung cancer metastasis to the heart can mimic ACS or STEMI without coronary blockage. Recognizing that ACS-like symptoms and ECG changes in a cancer patient may be the result of myocardial metastasis prevents misdiagnosis and inappropriate treatments. Transthoracic echocardiography (TTE) should be considered as the initial imaging modality, followed by Cardiac MRI, CT, and PET-CT. As cardiac metastasis signals advanced cancer and poor prognosis, physicians should prioritize accurate diagnosis and can collaborate timely, with other specialists to initiate appropriate care such as radical surgical resection, radiotherapy and chemotherapy.

Keywords: Neoplasms; Lung Neoplasms; Carcinoma, Non-Small-Cell Lung; Carcinoma, Mucoepidermoid; Neoplasm Metastasis; Acute Coronary Syndrome

INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, lung cancer occurred in approximately 2.2 million patients in 2020, and caused an estimated 1.8 million deaths (1). The two main types of lung cancer are small-cell lung cancer (SCLC) and non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC), with NSCLC being the most common. There are four major histologic subtypes of NSCLC; adenocarcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma, adenosquamous cell carcinoma, and large cell carcinoma. The most common symptoms at presentation are cough (55%), dyspnea (45%), pain (38%), and weight loss (36%) (2). The most frequent sites of metastases are

the brain and the adrenal glands (3). Cardiac metastasis is detected in 25% to 30% of autopsy examinations of patients with primary lung cancer, but it is difficult to diagnose before death as it is often asymptomatic (4). While the most common site of cardiac metastasis is the pericardium, metastasis to the myocardium or endocardium is rare. Patients with direct transmural invasion or myocardial metastasis from primary lung cancer may have ST-T changes on ECG that mimic ST elevated myocardial infarction (STEMI), even without coronary artery occlusion (5). We herein present a rare

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case of myocardial metastasis of primary lung cancer that presented with acute coronary syndrome (ACS).

CASE

According to the 61-year-old, male patient's statement, all the symptoms started 1.5 months prior to referral. Additionally, the patient has a weight loss of six kilograms (from 82 kg to 76 kg) within a period of one month. Approximately 15-20 days following a dental procedure the patient noticed a lump on his left Contrast-enhanced thoracoabdominal computed rib. tomography (CT) imaging demonstrated multiple lesions located in the lungs and abdominal wall. Positron emission tomography-computed tomography (PET-CT) revealed a primary lung lesion and mediastinal lymphadenopathies, multiple bone metastases, and soft tissue lesions. The SUV-max value, the maximum standard uptake value measuring the metabolic activity of a mass, of the primary lung lesion was 4.8. The patient was referred to the thoracic surgery department for a tissue biopsy, and the biopsy was obtained from the nodule in the pectoral region.

While awaiting the pathological assessment, the patient presented to the emergency department in February 2024 with persistent lumbar and chest pain, as well as difficulty breathing. The medical history of the patient included diabetes mellitus diagnosis for ten years. The body temperature was 36.5°C, heart rate was 85 bpm, SpO2 was 98%, respiratory rate was 21/min, blood pressure was 148/91 mmHg, blood glucose level was 154 mg/dL, and troponin-I level was 256 ng/L on presentation to the emergency department.

The electrocardiogram (ECG) demonstrated sinus rhythm with ST elevation and biphasic T waves observed in V4-V6 derivations, and there was no reciprocal ST depression noted in the inferior derivations (**Figure** 1). Transthoracic echocardiography (TTE) revealed normal left ventricular systolic function and a broadbased, mobile, finger-like mass measuring up to 23 mm in length with echogenicity similar to myocardial tissue in the left ventricle cavity. The lesion invaded the inferolateral wall of the left ventricle and the wall thickness was measured to reach up to 19 mm towards the apex.

The patient underwent coronary angiography (CAG) with a preliminary diagnosis of acute coronary syndrome (ACS), following the evaluation by a cardiology specialist with troponin, ECG, and TTE findings. No occlusions were detected in the coronary arteries in CAG and the ST elevation was attributed to the cardiac mass invasion. The patient was admitted to the internal medicine department for further examination and treatment after these evaluations.

The physical examination of the patient revealed multiple nodules on various parts of the body, including the chest, abdomen, neck, and fingers. The nodules were firm, non-mobile, and about 1-3 cm in size. Notably, some of the nodules on the patient's fingers were ulcerated, suggesting possible ischemia due to micro thromboembolisms (Figure 2).

Cardiac MRI demonstrated a 30x20 mm solid mass lesion located in the inferolateral of the left ventricle apex (Figure 3).

PET-CT showed lung lesion with an SUV max of 4,8, mediastinal lymphadenopathy, multiple bone and soft tissue lesions (**Figure 4**).

The patient started having trouble walking on the second day of hospitalisation which the patient described as not even being able to go to the bathroom. The cranial and spinal MRI proved no brain involvement. However, there was a 4x3 cm mass lesion in the right posteroparavertebral area within the soft tissues. Additionally, a metastatic mass lesion at the T8-T10 levels was observed in the epidural space posterior to the dural sac that was significantly pressing to the spinal



Figure 1. Sinus rhythm with ST elevation and biphasic T waves observed in V4-V6 derivations. No reciprocal ST depression noted in the inferior derivations.



Figure 2. Cardiac MRI: (A)In the inferior-lateral wall of the left ventricular apex, there is a 30x20 mm solid mass lesion that is isointense with the myocardium on T1. (B) Slightly hyperintense on T2, shows no contrast enhancement in the early phase, and exhibits similar contrast enhancement to the myocardium in the late phase, protruding towards the lumen. These findings are primarily suggestive of metastasis.

cord at the T8-T9 level. Intense enhancement is observed on post-contrast imaging. Following multidisciplinary assessment, palliative radiotherapy was initiated to the T8-10 vertebral region. Dexamethasone 2x8 mg and regular blood sugar measurement follow-ups was recommended.

Biopsy specimens from nodules on the pectoral regions revealed "poorly differentiated squamous cell carcinoma infiltration." However, DPAS-positive goblet-like mucinous cells and DPAS-positive luminal spaces within the squamous epithelial clusters were present. Periodic acid Schiff plus diastase (DPAS) indicates presence of mucin, commonly found in adenocarcinoma, which warranted the inclusion of "high-grade mucoepidermoid carcinoma infiltration" in the differential diagnosis. (**Figure 5**).

Based on clinical, laboratory, radiological, and pathology reports, the patient was diagnosed with nonsmall cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Unfortunately, the patient experienced a cardiac arrest on the tenth day of hospitalization and could not be revived despite resuscitation efforts. An autopsy was not performed.

DISCUSSION

Over 75% of primary cardiac tumors are reported as benign (6). Malignant tumors constitute approximately 15% of primary cardiac tumors (7). In contrast to primary malignant cardiac tumors, metastatic involvement of the heart is relatively common. Secondary cardiac cancer, especially metastatic cancer, most frequently originates from primary lung cancer (4). It may occur even in the absence of tumor regrowth at the primary site. Emeryk-Maksymiuk et al. described a case of cardiac metastases from lung cancer without local recurrence (9). Even though involvement of the left side is less frequent than right-sided cardiac involvement, there is a higher risk of morbidity and mortality in such cases. Mehta et al. described a rare case of left-sided cardiac metastases originating from squamous cell carcinoma of the lung



Figure 3. (A) Lymph node ecxision site (B) Lump at anterior site of abdomen (C) Ulcereted lesion of fifth finger (D) Lesions at dorsal part of the hands

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Myocardial Metastasis



Figure 4. Positron emission tomography with computed tomography (PET-CT): Lung lesion with an SUV max of 4.8 and mediastinal lymphadenopathy. Additionally, multiple bone and soft tissue lesions were observed.

(10). Some patients with secondary cardiac cancer, including metastatic cancer and direct invasion of cancer into the heart, may develop symptoms mimicking ACS, and exhibit ECG changes suggestive of STEMI (8).

The LAD is considered to be the most important coronary artery because it supplies more than 50% of the left ventricular mass. Hematogenous metastasis via the LAD may therefore play an important role in the cardiac metastasis of lung cancer (11). Tumors can spread to the heart through four main routes: hematogenous (via blood), lymphatic (via lymph nodes), transvenous (via veins), and direct invasion. Some tumors may use more than one route, while others prefer a specific one. Understanding where metastasis occurs in the heart and pericardium helps in detecting disease or identifying unknown primary tumors. Hematogenous spread usually deposits cancer cells in the midmyocardium or endocardium, commonly from melanoma, lymphoma, and sarcomas. Lymphatic spread is most common, especially from lung and breast cancers, with lymphatic channels concentrated around the epicardium and pericardium (12). Radical surgical resection, radiotherapy, and chemotherapy could be useful treatments for certain cardiac metastases. Unfortunately, our patient was inoperable.

Transthoracic echocardiography (TTE) is the initial imaging modality to detect pericardial effusions, and to assess for the presence and clinical consequences of any cardiac lesions including metastasis. For many tumors, TTE can provide information on the location, size, and mobility of cardiac masses (13). Cardiac MRI,



Figure 5. Desmoplastic stroma with malignant epithelial clusters, HE, 40x (A) Solid tumor clusters with mucinous cells and lumen formation, HE, 200x (B) Malignant epithelial clusters with intraluminal and intracytoplasmic mucin presence, DPAS, 100x (C) Malignant squamous epithelial clusters showing widespread p40 positivity, IHC P40, 40x (D).

CT, and PET-CT can provide additional noninvasive characterization of cardiac masses (14,15). PET-CT can identify tumors that exhibit increased metabolism using glucose, thereby helping to differentiate some malignant tumors from benign ones. Endomyocardial biopsy can be a valuable diagnostic tool, especially in cases of right-sided cardiac masses showing infiltration or obstruction (16). However, due to its invasive nature, risk of complications, and limited applicability, its clinical use should be carefully evaluated. We used ECG, TTE, cardiac MRI, and PET-CT in the diagnostic evaluation of our patient.

CONCLUSIONS

Patients with secondary cardiac tumors may have symptoms mimicking ACS and STEMI-like ECG changes, even in the absence of coronary artery stenosis or occlusion. Patients may have persistent ST segment elevation in the precordial and/or lateral leads without the development of abnormal Q waves consistent with invasion of the myocardium in these areas. Patients with secondary cardiac cancer who present with symptoms and ECG changes mimicking anteroseptal or lateral infarction may indicate a poor prognosis, with potential for rapid clinical decline.

DECLERATIONS

Informed Consent: The written consent was obtained from Directorate of Bezmialem Vakif University Medical Faculty Hospital.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that there is no

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conflict of interest. Financial Disclosure: There is no financial support. Special Thanks: None

AI: Not Applied

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 18.01.2025 Accepted at: 26.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025

doi <u>10.5281/zenodo.14775959</u>

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Dear Editor;

I would like to thank you for presenting the valuable study titled "Impact of Serum Albumin Levels on FDG Uptake in the Liver, Spleen, and Bone Marrow During Gastrointestinal Cancer Staging: A PET-CT Study" in The Journal of European Internal Medicine Professionals (1). Your research is highly noteworthy for providing critical insights into the use of FDG PET-CT and shedding light on the evaluation of biomarkers in gastrointestinal system (GIS) cancers.

One of the strongest aspects of your study is the inclusion of a large cohort of 610 cancer patients, which enhances the generalizability of the findings. The detailed analyses of GIS cancer subtypes make a significant contribution to understanding the metabolic characteristics of these cancers. Evaluating the relationship between serum albumin levels and FDG PET-CT metabolic activity has the potential to provide clinically applicable results. Your findings, which demonstrate a significant relationship between albumin and liver FDG uptake, add novel insights to the existing literature.

Additionally, the exclusion of patients with metastatic liver disease and those undergoing treatment from your study sets it apart from prior research and underscores the contribution of your findings to the field (2). This approach enhances the emphasis on albumin as an independent risk factor, reinforcing its clinical importance. Furthermore, the meaningful and meticulously conducted statistical analyses lend credibility to your results.

The findings of this study raise curiosity about the relationship between albumin levels and the detection of metastases via PET-CT in patients with metastatic liver

malignancy. In addition to this study, serum albumin level is considered a powerful biomarker for disease prognosis and survival in various oncologic diseases, and its evaluation has also been proven beneficial in gastrointestinal cancers such as esophageal, colorectal cancer, and gastric cancer (3-5).

To further enhance your study, a prospective evaluation focusing on the rate of liver metastasis development in the analyzed patient cohort during follow-up could be included. This addition could strengthen your research by aiding in the evaluation of the correlation between albumin levels and FDG uptake, as well as their combined impact on the development of liver metastases and overall prognosis.

In conclusion, your study addresses a critical research area and presents valuable findings. I believe that your results will contribute to the advancement of both diagnostic and prognostic approaches in GIS cancers.

DECLERATIONS

Ethics committee approval: Not necessary.

Financial disclosure: None.

Conflicts of interest: Author declares none.

Acknowledgments: None.

AI: Not applied

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 29.10.2024 Accepted at: 19.12.2024 Published at: 31.01.2025

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Dear Editor;

Pregnancy is known to induce changes in fluid and sodium balance. The normal serum sodium level (135-145 mmol/L) decreases by approximately 5 mmol/L by term. Preeclampsia typically develops after the 20th week of gestation and condition characterized by high blood pressure and proteinuria. Hyponatremia may infrequently develop in these cases. Determining the cause of low sodium levels(< 135 mmol/L) can be challenging. Still, it is crucial for guiding appropriate treatment, as it can impact both maternal and fetal outcomes, both acutely and long-term (1).

During pregnancy, the placenta plays a key role in regulating fluid balance by releasing vasopressinase, an enzyme that breaks down and inactivates antidiuretic hormone (ADH). A defective placenta in preeclampsia can impair this process, increasing water retention (2).

We report the case of a 26-year-old woman at 24 weeks of gestation with severe hyponatremia. She had a history of preeclampsia in a previous pregnancy and was under medication-controlled management for hypothyroidism. She was taking Alfa metil dopa (four times daily) and was being monitored due to proteinuria (1 gr/day).On initial examination, her blood pressure was 128/87 mmHg, pulse was 97 beats per minute, and no edema was observed. Lung auscultation was normal. On the first day of hospitalization, her serum sodium level was 137 mmol/L. However, sodium dropped to 117 mmol/L on the second day.150 cc of 3% NaCl hypertonic saline infusion (twice daily) was administered, while sodium levels were measured twice daily.On the first day of treatment, there was an increase of 2 mmol/L in sodium levels.

The patient developed seizures and confusion and was subsequently transferred to the intensive care unit.No findings suggestive of central pathology were detected on neurological examination.

10.5281/zenodo.14775970

Further investigation into the cause of her hyponatremia included laboratory tests. Urinary sodium was 135 mmol/L, while serum and urine osmolality values were 241 mOsmol/L and 519 mOsmol/kg, respectively (see Table 1). Given the findings of normovolemic hyponatremia and the exclusion of other causes, a diagnosis of Syndrome of Inappropriate Antidiuretic Hormone Secretion (SIADH) was considered. The daily fluid intake has been restricted to 1 liter. Following a three-day monitoring period, sodium levels reached a safe value of 130 mmol/L.

One of the primary factors contributing to hyponatremia in pregnancy is the reduction in plasma osmolality, which lowers the osmotic set point. This is associated with increased levels of human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) (3).

In pregnancy, a decrease in blood pressure occurs early on, reducing effective circulatory volume. This triggers the non-osmotic release of ADH and activation of the sympathetic nervous system and the renin-angiotensin system to maintain adequate organ perfusion. Additionally, factors such as nausea, vomiting, or pain during labor can further stimulate ADH release. Inappropriate ADH secretion in response to low sodium intake, polydipsia, or excessive intravenous fluids can exacerbate hyponatremia during pregnancy. For these reasons, hyponatremia is a common occurrence during

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the peripartum period. The primary treatment approach involves careful fluid management and restriction. Currently, there is no available safety data on the use of vasopressin antagonists (such as tolvaptan) during pregnancy (4). In our case, fluid restriction was employed and the patient responded positively, indicating the effectiveness of this approach.

Razavi et al. found that 32 out of 332 pregnant women diagnosed with preeclampsia developed hyponatremia. Hyponatremia was present in the majority of patients with preeclampsia with severe features. This condition is a significant cause of morbidity in pregnant women, with an increased risk in older women and those with twin pregnancies. An eclamptic seizure occurred in only one patient who did not have hyponatremia(5). Our case highlights that, although the patient was relatively young, she developed hyponatremia during pregnancy, which required intensive care management due to neurological symptoms, including seizures.

In conclusion, pregnancy induces significant physiological changes in fluid and electrolyte balance, with sodium regulation closely tied to ADH. The pathophysiology of this process is not yet fully understood, and further large-scale studies are needed to elucidate the underlying mechanisms. *Consent form:* The consent document could not be obtained as the patient could not be contacted during her intensive care follow-up.

DECLARATIONS

Ethics Committee Approval: Not required.

Author Contributions: All authors equally contributed to data collection and analysis for the final manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of Interest: None.

Funding Source: None.

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J Eur Int Prof. Year; 2025, Volume: 3, Issue: 1 Submitted at: 30.12.2024 Accepted at: 07.01.2025 Published at: 31.01.2025

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Dear Editor;

Sinonasal fungal infections are broadly classified as non-invasive (absence of fungal hyphae within the sinus mucosa) and invasive (presence of fungal hyphae within the sinus mucosa) (1,2). Invasive fungal rhinosinusitis (IFR) is further subdivided into acute, chronic and chronic granulomatous and non-invasive fungal rhinosinusitis (NIFR) is subdivided into allergic fungal rhinosinusitis and fungus ball (FB) (1-3).

FB is the most frequent NIFR and is characterized by accumulation of fungal hyphae within the nasal cavity without angioinvasion or tissue invasion. FB is commonly seen in immunocompetent and non-atopic individuals (8). However, mucormycosis is a rare and potentially fatal opportunistic acute IFR that most seen in immunocompromised and diabetic patients and is caused by a saprophytic aerobic fungus that belongs to the class "phycomycetes / zygomycetes"; order "mucorates", family "mucoraceae" and genera "Rhizopus, Mucor and Absidea" (1,3,5). IFR can also be caused by fungal species such as aspergillus, Alternaria species and phaeohypomycoses (6). In addition to these microorganisms, few invasive candida infections have been reported in the literature (7).

10.5281/zenodo.14775979

A 33-year-old male patient diagnosed with acute myelocytic leukemia 3 months ago, was consulted to our clinic with nasal congestion and mucopurulent discharge from right nasal cavity. The patient had been neutropenic for 45 days and hence received broad-spectrum antibiotics. Endoscopic examination showed congested nasal mucosa and mucopurulent discharge in the right nasal cavity, but there were no signs of mucosal pallor or necrosis. Paranasal computed tomography scan showed density increase which was compatible with FB, however there was a high suspicion of orbital invasion (Figure 1). Orbital and maxillofacial magnetic resonance imaging showed high suspicion of invasive fungal infection (Figure 2). Consequently, the patient was administrated amphotericin B immediately, before confirmation with



Figure 1. Preoperative computerized tomography imaging



Figure 2. Preoperative magnetic resonance imaging



Figure 3. Postoperative magnetic resonance imaging

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biopsy. We performed a nasal cavity biopsy for frozen section analysis which showed angioinvasion by fungal hyphae. Based on the pathological diagnosis of the IFR, we applied a comprehensive nasal debridement, including the posterioinferior region of the nasal septum, right nasolacrimal duct and sac and the medial wall of maxillary sinus. Amphotericine B impregnated gelfoam was placed in the nasal cavity and nasal lavage with amphotericine B was administrated once a day. The patient was given antifungal treatment for 6 weeks. The patient went under daily endoscopic examination in the postoperative period. On the 3rd postoperative day, necrotic mucosal areas were detected on the anterior septum, nasal base and right lacrimal bone, therefore an extensive debridement was performed. Candida spp, Aspergillus spp. and Mucor spp. were identified on the pathology specimen. The daily endoscopic examinations, nasal lavage with amphotericine B were carried on and there are no signs of recurrence on the postoperative 3rd month (Figure 3).

Sinonasal FB is a benign colonization of fungal hyphae, in which affected patients are usually immunocompetent and are either asymptomatic or have insignificant symptoms (2). The pathogenesis of FB is not completely understood, however obliteration of sinus ostium with the development of an anaerobic environment have been suggested to be possible contributing factors (3,8). FB often remains asymptomatic for a long period and is incidentally found by imaging procedures; thus, it may represent as chronic rhinosinusitis.

On the other hand, IFR typically affects immunocompromised patients with an impaired neutrophilic response (4,7).These conditions include poorly controlled diabetes mellitus, acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, iatrogenic immunosuppression and hematological malignancies (4,7,8). Morbidity and mortality rate of IFR in immunocompromised patients are rather high, due to rapid spread and extensive necrosis and destruction of contiguous structures. The following four issues are currently considered critical for eradicating IFR: Rapidity of diagnosis, reversal or reduction of predisposing factors, appropriate surgical debridement of infected and necrotic tissues and rapid and aggressive antifungal therapy (5). Extensive debridement should be performed during surgery including all necrotic tissues as well as pale and non-bleeding tissues. The patient should be closely monitored in terms of incipient necrotic areas and surgery should be extended if necessary.

Differential diagnosis is also important and should be kept in mind in immunocompromised patients. These pathologies include fungus ball, chronic rhinosinusitis with or without nasal polyp, allergic fungal rhinosinusitis as well as acute or chronic invasive fungal infections (3-5).

In some studies, progression or reactivation of FB to IFR were reported on immunocompromised patients (3,4) so we would like to point out whether asymptomatic FB should be treated to prevent IFR.

In conclusion, we observed the FB to progress into IFR in our patient and had to take immediate action. Therefore, our case may lead to further investigation with large cohorts studying the prophylactic surgery of FB to avoid complications of IFR.

DECLARATIONS

Ethics Committee Approval: Not required.

Author Contributions: All authors equally contributed to data collection and analysis for the final manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of Interest: None.

Informed Consent: Written informed consent to participate was obtained from the patient participated in this study. Personal data privacy has been protected. The patient signed informed consent regarding publishing their data.

Funding Source: None.

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