

Predictors of mortality in severe community acquired pneumonia in an intensive care unit of Sri Lanka

Nadarajah T¹, Dharmalingam L², Galhena HT², Rangana RLP², Perera N², Priyankara WDD¹

Journal of the Ceylon College of Physicians, 2024, **55**, 99-106

Abstract

Background: Severe community-acquired pneumonia (SCAP) carries high mortality. This study describes the predictors of mortality in SCAP.

Method: A prospective cross-sectional study was conducted in the Medical Intensive Care Unit (MICU) of National Hospital of Sri Lanka (NHSL) recruiting patients with SCAP admitted from July to December 2023. Disease outcome, complications and organ support received were documented.

Results: Among 56 participants, 36 (64.3%) were males and 33 (58.9%) were ≥ 50 years of age. Septic shock requiring vasopressors was seen in 36 (69.6%), acute kidney injury (AKI) in 24 (42.9%) and 40 (71.4%) required mechanical ventilation (MV). There were 20 (35.7%) deaths.

A higher number of non-survivors had respiratory failure (100% vs 55.6%, $p < 0.0001$), $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$ ratio < 250 (100% vs 77.8%, $p = 0.02$) and required MV (100% vs 55.6%, $p < 0.0001$) compared to survivors. Length of MV was higher in non-survivors than survivors (8 vs 2.5 days $p < 0.001$).

History of chronic renal failure (OR 6.214, 95% CI 1.84 - 20.99, $p = 0.003$), presence of AKI (OR 9.0, 95% CI 2.54 - 31.80, $p = 0.001$) and need for renal replacement therapy (OR 13.44, 95% CI 3.07 - 58.71, $p = 0.001$) were associated with mortality. Patients who had septic shock and required vasopressors (OR 15.2, 95% CI 1.833 - 126.07, $p = 0.01$) had a higher risk of death. In a multivariable logistic regression model, AKI

independently predicted mortality (adjusted OR 5.3, 95% CI 1.26 - 28.28, $p < 0.02$).

Conclusion: Presence of respiratory failure, AKI and septic shock predicts mortality in patients with SCAP.

Key words: severe pneumonia, community acquired pneumonia, mortality, intensive care unit, predictors

Introduction

Community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) is a pervasive and serious health concern, frequently ranking among the leading causes of morbidity and mortality throughout the world.¹ It significantly affects vulnerable groups, such as the elderly, those with chronic illnesses, and compromised immune systems.² CAP is an acute infection of the lung tissue that occurs in individuals who have not been recently hospitalized or regularly exposed to healthcare facilities, setting it apart from healthcare-associated or hospital-acquired pneumonia. Despite progress in medical care, CAP continues to place a considerable burden on healthcare systems due to its broad spectrum of clinical manifestations, which can vary from mild, self-limiting illness to severe, life-threatening conditions that necessitate hospitalization and intensive care treatment.

The management of CAP is further complicated by the wide range of pathogens responsible for the infection, the increasing prevalence of antibiotic resistance, and the differences in patient responses

¹Medical Intensive Care Unit, National Hospital of Sri Lanka, ²Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medical Sciences, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka.

Correspondence: WDDP, e-mail: dilsh123@gmail.com

 <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6739-0950>

Received 07 September 2024, accepted 15 October 2024.



This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

to treatment. The diversity in CAP cases, influenced by differences in pathogen virulence, host immune response, and preexisting health conditions, makes it difficult to predict outcomes accurately and tailor treatment strategies effectively. This has resulted in a heightened emphasis on understanding the clinical, microbiological, and demographic factors that impact the severity and prognosis of CAP.

In this context, severe community-acquired pneumonia (SCAP) constitutes a crucial subset of CAP cases, associated with elevated mortality rates and increased utilization of healthcare resources.³ SCAP often demands intensive treatment and poses notable challenges in terms of timely diagnosis, effective antimicrobial therapy, and supportive care. Identifying the predictors of severity in SCAP, such as age, underlying health conditions, microbial etiology, and complications such as sepsis or acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), is vital for enhancing patient outcomes and guiding clinical decision-making. There are limited data regarding predictors of mortality in SCAP in Sri Lanka. The unique healthcare challenges in Sri Lanka, including variable access to advanced medical care, different patient demographics, and pathogen profiles, necessitate region-specific studies. Furthermore, while SCAP is a globally recognized concern, factors influencing mortality and treatment outcomes may differ significantly based on local healthcare infrastructure, patient characteristics, and microbial patterns. Thus, this study was conducted to provide localized data that can help guide ICU management strategies for SCAP in Sri Lanka, potentially improving patient outcomes.

This study explores the complex interplay of factors that influence the severity and outcomes of SCAP. By conducting a prospective cross-sectional study in the Medical Intensive Care Unit (MICU) of the National Hospital of Sri Lanka, we identified the clinical characteristics, microbial patterns, treatment methods, and outcomes of patients with SCAP. In addition, determinants of mortality in this high-risk patient group were identified to provide practical guidance for clinicians to enhance management strategies.

Methodology

This was a single-center, prospective cross-sectional study conducted in the Medical Intensive Care Unit (MICU) at the National Hospital of Sri Lanka (NHSL) from July to September 2023. The study enrolled 56 participants above 18 years who were admitted to MICU, NHSL with SCAP. Diagnosis of CAP was made in the presence of signs and symptoms

related to lower respiratory tract infection (temperature $>38^{\circ}\text{C}$, cough, sputum production, dyspnea, tachypnea, pleuritic pain), signs of invasion of alveolar space AND new or changed lung infiltrate on chest imaging.

Study participants were recruited following informed written consent. Consent was obtained directly from patients who were conscious and capable of rational decision-making at the time of admission to the MICU. For patients who were unconscious or intubated and therefore unable to provide direct consent, proxy consent was obtained from the bystander or next of kin. To ensure that the vulnerable population, such as unconscious or critically ill patients, was protected ethically, proxy consent was obtained from their closest relatives or bystander.

Clinical information including demographics, comorbidities, lifestyle factors, and microbiological data were obtained from the records and participants were followed up to identify complications and the outcome. SCAP was defined based on Infectious Diseases Society of America/American Thoracic Society (IDSA/ATS) criteria.⁴ Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics Review Committee of the NHSL.

The data collected was analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 25.0. Variables were described using frequencies and appropriate 'Z' test, chi-square test and multi-variable logistic regression was used to identify associations of mortality.

Results

There were 56 participants recruited to the study, with a male predominance ($n=36$, 64.3%). Majority were less than 50 years of age ($n=23$, 41.07%), while 22 participants (39.29%) belonged to the age group of 50-65 years, with the remainder being more than 65 years ($n=11$, 19.64%) and comorbidities were seen in 45 participants (80.4%). Diabetes mellitus ($n=25$, 44.6%), chronic kidney disease ($n=19$, 33.9%), COPD ($n=12$, 21.4%), cardiovascular disease ($n=18$, 32.1%), stroke ($n=2$, 3.6%) and neoplastic disease ($n=2$, 3.6%) were seen among the study group. There were 15 (26.8%) smokers and 7 (12.5%) alcohol consumers.

Characteristics of SCAP in the study population

All study participants ($n=56$) had SCAP according to IDSA/ATS criteria. Factors determining severity (Table 1) revealed that a significant proportion required vasopressors to maintain their blood pressure ($n=39$, 69.6%) and required mechanical ventilation for respiratory failure ($n=40$, 71.4%).

Table 1. Presence of variables of disease severity in the study population

<i>IDSA/ATS criteria</i>	<i>Frequency (%) N=56</i>
Major criteria	
Septic shock with the need of vasopressors	39 (69.6)
Respiratory failure requiring mechanical ventilation	40 (71.4)
Minor criteria	
Respiratory rate $\geq 30/\text{min}$	53 (94.6)
$\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 \leq 250$	48 (85.7)
Multi-lobar infiltrates	42 (75)
Confusion/disorientation	13 (23.2)
Uraemia ($\text{BUN} \geq 20 \text{ mg/dl}$)	19 (33.9)
Leukopenia ($\text{WBC} < 4000/\mu\text{l}$)	12 (21.4)
Thrombocytopenia ($\text{Platelet} < 100,000/\mu\text{l}$)	6 (10.7)
Hypothermia	0 (0)
Hypotension requiring aggressive fluid resuscitation	11 (19.6)

Causative organism was identified only in 36 (64.2%) of the study participants, with a bacterial organism isolated in 28 (50%), viral in 1 (1.8%) and polymicrobial organisms in 7 (12.5%) participants. Majority (75%) of chest x-ray findings showed multilobar involvement.

There were 20 (35.7%) deaths among the SCAP patients admitted to the MICU. Age, gender and most comorbidities were not associated with mortality (Table 2). Presence of chronic renal failure was the only comorbidity associated with a higher risk of death in SCAP ($p=0.002$). Chest X-ray findings and the causative organism were also not associated with the outcome of SCAP.

Majority of patients who died in the ICU had either septic shock or respiratory failure. The presence of AKI, need for hemodialysis, mechanical ventilation and vasopressor support increased the risk of death among the participants. Also, AKI was identified to be an independent risk factor for mortality in a multivariable logistic regression model (adjusted OR 5.3, 95% CI 1.26-28.28, $p<0.02$). In contrast, High-Flow Nasal Oxygen (HFNO) ($P=0.094$) and Non-Invasive Ventilation (NIV) ($P=0.140$) did not show significant associations with ICU mortality, suggesting these supports are not strongly linked to patient outcomes in the ICU.

Table 2. Factors associated with mortality in SCAP

Factors	Outcome		P Value
	Death (N=20)	Survived (N=36)	
Age			
<50 years	8 (40.0)	15 (41.7)	0.069
50-65 years	11 (55.0)	11 (30.6)	
>65 years	1 (5%)	10 (27.8%)	
Gender			
Male	16 (80.0)	20 (55.6)	0.086
Lifestyle factors			
Smoking	6 (30.0)	9 (25.0)	0.686
Alcohol	1 (5.0)	6 (16.7)	0.402
Comorbidities			
Chronic respiratory disease/COPD	3 (15.0)	9 (25.0)	0.506
Congestive heart failure/cardiovascular disease	5 (25.0)	13 (36.1)	0.394
Neoplastic disease	0 (0.0)	2 (5.6)	0.532
Stroke/Neurological illness	2 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	0.123
Chronic renal disease	12 (60.0)	7 (19.4)	0.002
Diabetes mellitus	11 (55.0)	14 (38.9)	0.245
Clinical features and laboratory findings			
Respiratory rate $\geq 30/\text{min}$	20 (100.0)	33 (91.7)	0.545
$\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 \leq 250$	20 (100.0)	28 (77.8)	0.041
Confusion/disorientation	4 (20.0)	9 (25.0)	0.752
Uraemia (BUN $\leq 20 \text{ mg/dl}$)	9 (45.0)	10 (27.8)	0.192
Leukopenia (WBC $<4000/\mu\text{l}$)	6 (30.0)	6 (16.7)	0.313
Thrombocytopenia (Platelet $<100,000/\mu\text{l}$)	1 (5.0)	5 (13.9)	0.405
Chest x-ray findings			
Single lobar consolidation	5 (25.0)	5 (13.9)	0.375
Multilobar infiltrates	15 (75.0)	27 (75.0)	
Interstitial infiltrates	0 (0.00)	2 (5.6)	
None	0 (0.00)	2 (5.6)	

(Continued)

Factors	Outcome		P Value
	Death (N=20)	Survived (N=36)	
Causative Organism			
Bacterial	8 (40.0)	20 (55.6)	0.281
Viral	1 (5.0)	0 (0.00)	
Poly-microbial	4 (20.0)	3 (8.3)	
Unidentified	7 (35.0)	13 (36.1)	
Complications			
Septic shock	19 (95.0)	20 (55.6)	0.002
Respiratory failure	20 (100.0)	20 (55.6)	<0.0001
Acute kidney injury	15 (75.0)	9 (25.0)	0.001
Parapneumonic effusion	0 (0.00)	4 (11.1)	0.285
Lung cavitation and abscess	3 (15.0)	2 (5.6)	0.336
Other	1 (5.0)	9 (25.0)	0.078
Organ support received			
HFNO	7 (35.0)	21 (58.3)	0.094
NIV	7 (35.0)	20 (55.6)	0.140
MV	20 (100.0)	20 (55.6)	<0.0001
Vasopressor support	18 (90.0)	20 (55.6)	0.008
HD/SLED/CRRT	11 (55.0)	3 (8.3)	

COPD; chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, BUN; blood urea nitrogen, WBC; white blood cells, HFNO; high flow nasal oxygen, NIV; non-invasive ventilation, MV; mechanical ventilation, HD; hemodialysis, SLED; sustained low-efficiency dialysis, CRRT; continuous renal replacement therapy.

Table 3. Logistic regression analysis of factors associated with mortality

Parameter	OR (univariate analysis)	95% CI	P value	Adjusted OR (multivariate analysis)	95% CI	P value
History of chronic renal failure	6.214	1.84-20.99	0.003	2.7	0.45-16.6	NS
Presence of AKI	9.0	2.54-31.80	0.001	5.3	1.26-28.28	<0.02
Need for renal replacement therapy	13.44	3.07-58.71	0.001	4.3	0.638-29.35	NS
Septic shock required vasopressors	15.2	1.833-126.07	0.01	6.8	0.69-67.28	NS

*NS – Not significant ($p \geq 0.05$)

Discussion

SCAP is a progressive disease evolving from a local to a systemic infection with the spectrum of sepsis-related complications requiring ICU admission.⁵ Various tools are available to define SCAP, of which the 2007 IDSA/ATS was adopted in our study. CURB-65 score evaluates confusion, urea levels, respiratory rate, blood pressure, and age. It has shown high predictive accuracy for in-hospital mortality. Higher CURB-65 scores correlate with increased mortality rates.⁶

Pneumonia Severity Index (PSI) stratifies patients based on clinical and demographic factors. It is widely used but may be less effective in specific populations, such as kidney transplant recipients.⁷

The Quick Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (qSOFA) score is useful for identifying patients at risk of severe pneumonia. A modified version incorporating procalcitonin has been shown to enhance predictive accuracy.⁸

The requirement for mechanical ventilation or vasopressor support because of septic shock were universally accepted as indications for ICU admission and are the major criteria recommended by the IDSA/ATS along with nine minor criteria with a recommendation that patients with three or more criteria be considered for ICU admission⁴. As there is limited data regarding SCAP in relation to the outcome and factors affecting the outcome, our study focused on assessing them.

When considering the outcomes of SCAP, our study revealed that 20 (35.7%) patients died in ICU and 36 (64.3%) patients survived to be discharged to the ward. Mortality is 24% in a study done in Cairo, which studied 54 patients⁹. Mortality rates in studies including fewer than 90 patients ranged between 21% and 54%.¹⁰ These results show comparable mortality rates to our study.

Our study revealed a significant association between the outcome and respiratory failure requiring mechanical ventilation (p value < 0.001) and septic shock requiring vasopressors (p value 0.002), as well as $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 \leq 250$. Walden et al., found that the isolation of *Staphylococcus aureus* in blood, presence of septic shock, need for mechanical ventilation and renal replacement therapy all showed a strong association with outcome in patients with pneumonia.¹¹ Shock was identified to increase the risk of death by

four fold in a Chinese study.¹² Septic shock and requirement of mechanical ventilation were strongly associated with mortality of patients with pneumonia in many other studies.¹³⁻¹⁵ Septic shock is characterized by a cytokine storm with elevated serum inflammatory markers and interleukins. This excessive systemic inflammatory response leads to host tissue damage and multi-organ failure contributing to the mortality. In addition, during sepsis, neutrophils have many abnormalities including impaired migration, bacterial clearance, cytokine secretion and there is increased release of immature neutrophils, which are all associated with increased mortality risk in sepsis. The anti-inflammatory response during septic shock causes leukocyte reprogramming and changes to the immune status. Lymphocyte depletion and dysfunction in septic shock result in immunosuppression, thus affecting the patient outcome.¹⁶⁻¹⁹ The increased mortality associated in septic shock could be explained by the above processes.

Jingjing Pan et al., reported that a lower the $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$ ratio was associated with a higher risk of death in pneumonia.¹² A study done in Italy, found that impaired $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$ had a three-fold risk of mortality in patients with COVID-19 pneumonia.²⁰ These findings were consistent with our study. $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$ ratio reflects the respiratory status of the patient and low values indicate the presence of acute respiratory distress syndrome, thus a measure of mortality.¹² Patients who had SCAP requiring MV due to severe respiratory failure indicating a more severe lung involvement had higher mortality.

Our study revealed that the need for renal support (HD, SLED, CRRT) [p value < 0.001] was also significantly associated with a poor outcome from SCAP. Similarly in a retrospective record review of patients with SCAP, conducted in South Africa found that, need for mechanical ventilation, inotropes and dialysis were independent predictors of mortality.²¹ The presence of AKI was identified to have a higher mortality risk in patients with pneumonia as supported by many previous studies, especially in those with pre-existing chronic kidney disease.²²⁻²⁵ Respiratory failure following pneumonia could affect gas exchange and activation of renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system resulting in fluid retention, yet renal hypoxia and vasoconstriction contributing to AKI. Use of MV may contribute to release of systemic inflammatory mediators causing renal injury.²⁶ Septic shock per say can affect renal perfusion due to dysregulated immune responses resulting in AKI.²⁷ AKI can lead to systemic fluid

overload, retention of uremic toxins and metabolic acidosis, resulting in a higher mortality rate.²⁸ Hence, it highlights the need to monitor renal functions in patients with pneumonia and consider early ICU admission with aggressive treatment in those with deteriorating renal functions.

Our study identified chronic kidney disease to increase mortality. Similarly, previous studies showed that the infection-related mortality rates were higher in individuals with lower baseline eGFR levels. Lower eGFR levels were associated with higher hazard ratios for infection-related death after adjustment for age, race/ethnicity, sex and other confounders.^{29,30} A systematic review reported a positive association of underlying chronic kidney disease with mortality.³¹ The pooled adjusted risk for all-cause mortality in patients with respiratory tract infections almost doubled in patients with kidney disease.³¹ Increased susceptibility to bacterial infections is due to immune dysfunction, with defective phagocytosis, impaired monocyte function and T lymphocyte immaturity seen in those on chronic dialysis. Thus, sepsis associated mortality risk is high in pre-existing renal disease.³²

This study was carried out at a single center with a limited number of patients as the enrolled participants, which may reduce the generalizability of the findings. Although our study sample was small, we were able to give important inferences. The causative organisms were not specifically identified which could be considered as a limitation.

Conclusion

In conclusion, in patients with SCAP, the presence of respiratory failure requiring mechanical ventilation, previous history of chronic kidney disease, presence of AKI, need for renal replacement therapy and septic shock requiring inotrope support, predicts the mortality consistent with other studies. Identifying such complications early would necessitate escalation to intensive care, more stringent monitoring and treatment.

Author declaration

Competing interests

Authors do not have any conflicts of interest.

Criteria for authorship

WP, TN: conceptualization, methodology, data acquisition and analysis. LD, HG, PR, NP, WP: data analysis and drafting the manuscript. All authors were involved in writing and revising the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We would like to acknowledge the staff of the Medical Intensive Care unit at National Hospital of Sri Lanka.

References

1. Murray CJL, Lopez AD, Naghavi M, et al. Global, regional, and national age-sex specific all-cause and cause-specific mortality for 240 causes of death, 1990-2013: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *Lancet* 2015; **385**: 117-71. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61682-2
2. Brown JS. Community-acquired pneumonia. *Clinical Medicine Journal*. 2012; **12** (6) :538-543. ISSN 1470-2118. doi:10.7861/clinmedicine.12-6-538
3. Niederman MS, Torres A. Severe community-acquired pneumonia. *European Respiratory Review*. 2022; **31**: 220123. doi:10.1183/16000617.0123-2022
4. Mandell LA, Wunderink RG, Anzueto A, et al. Infectious Diseases Society of America/American Thoracic Society Consensus Guidelines on the Management of Community-Acquired Pneumonia in Adults. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2007; **44** Supplement 2: S27-S72. doi: 10.1086/511159
5. Eshwara VK, Mukhopadhyay C, Rello J. Community-acquired bacterial pneumonia in adults: An update. *Indian J of Med Res*. 2020; **151**(4): 287-302. doi:10.4103/ijmr.IJMR_1678_19
6. Elshamly M, Nour MO, Omar AMM. Clinical presentations and outcome of severe community-acquired pneumonia. *Egypt J Chest Dis and Tuberc*. 2016; **65**(4): 831-9. doi:10.1016/j.ejcdt.2016.06.002
7. Kaal AG, de Hoek L, Hochheimer DT, et al. Outcomes of community acquired pneumonia using the Pneumonia Severity Index versus the CURB-65 in routine practice of emergency departments. *ERJ Open Res*. 2023; **9**(3): 00051-2023. doi:10.1183/23120541.00051-2023
8. Plathe MM, Osmanodja B, Barthel G, et al. Validation of risk scores for prediction of severe pneumonia in kidney transplant recipients hospitalized with community-acquired pneumonia. *Infection*. 2024; **52**: 447459. doi:10.1007/s15010-023-02101-z
9. Gulec T, Yilmaz S, Rohat AK, Tatliparmak AC, Karcioglu O. Can we recognize severe community-acquired pneumonia without pneumonia severity index? Use of modified qSOFA with procalcitonin. *Heliyon*. 2023; **9** (9): e19937. doi:10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e19937
10. Ewig S, Torres A. Severe Community-Acquired Pneumonia. *Clinics in Chest Medicine*. 1999; **20** (3): 575-87. doi:10.1016/S0272-5231(05)70237-9
11. Walden AP, Clarke GM, McKechnie S. et al. Patients with community acquired pneumonia admitted to European intensive care units: an epidemiological survey of the GenOSept cohort. *Critical Care*. 2014; **18**: R58. doi:10.1186/cc13812

12. Pan J, Bu W, Guo T. et al. Development and validation of an in-hospital mortality risk prediction model for patients with severe community-acquired pneumonia in the intensive care unit. *BMC Pulmonary Medicine*. 2023; **23**: 303. doi:10.1186/s12890-023-02567-5
13. Almirall J, Mesalles E, Klamburg J, Parra O, Agudo A. Prognostic factors of pneumonia requiring admission to the intensive care unit. *Chest*. 1995; **107**(2): 511-6. doi:10.1378/chest.107.2.511. PMID: 7842786.
14. Pachon J, Prados MD, Capote F, Cuello JA, Garnacho J, Verano A. Severe community-acquired pneumonia. Etiology, prognosis, and treatment. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1990; **142**(2): 369-73. doi:10.1164/ajrccm/142.2.369. PMID: 2382902.
15. Espinoza R, Silva JRLE, Bergmann A, et al. Factors associated with mortality in severe community-acquired pneumonia: A multicenter cohort study. *Journal of Critical Care*. 2019; **50**: 82-6. doi:10.1016/j.jcrc.2018.11.024.
16. Renaud, Bertrand MD, Santin, et al. Association between timing of intensive care unit admission and outcomes for emergency department patients with community-acquired pneumonia. *Crit Care Med*. 2009; **37**(11): 2867-74. doi:10.1097/CCM.0b013e3181b02dbb
17. Huiming T, Shuang Q, Zhanfei L, Wei G, Manli T, Xijie D. Early immune system alterations in patients with septic shock. *Front Immunol*. 2023; doi:10.3389/fimmu.2023.1126874
18. Drewry, Anne M, Samra, et al. Persistent Lymphopenia After Diagnosis of Sepsis Predicts Mortality. *Shock*. 2014; **42**(5): 383-91. doi:10.1097/SHK.0000000000000234
19. Chousterman BG, Swirski FK and Weber GF. Cytokine storm and sepsis disease pathogenesis. *Seminars in Immunopathology*. 2017; **39**: 517-528. doi:10.1007/s00281-017-0639-8
20. Sinatti G, Santini SJ, Tarantino G et al. PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio forecasts COVID-19 patients' outcome regardless of age: a cross-sectional, monocentric study. *Internal and Emergency Medicine*. 2022; **17**: 665-73 doi:10.1007/s11739-021-02840-7
21. Feldman C, Viljoen E, Morar R, Richards G, Sawyer L, Mahomed AG. Prognostic factors in severe community-acquired pneumonia in patients without co-morbid illness. *Respirology*. 2001; **6**(4): 323-30. doi:10.1046/j.1440-1843.2001.00352.x
22. Chen D, Yuan H, Cao C, et al. Impact of acute kidney injury on in hospital outcomes in Chinese patients with community acquired pneumonia. *BMC Pulm Med*. 2021; **21**(1): 143. doi:10.1186/s12890-021-01511-9
23. Serov VA, Shutov AM, Kuzovenkova MY, Ivanova YV, Serova DV. Prognostic value of acute kidney injury in patients with community-acquired pneumonia. *Ter Arkh*. 2016; **88**(6): 9-13. doi:10.17116/terarkh20168869-13
24. Xu X, Nie S, Liu Z, et al. Epidemiology and clinical correlates of AKI in Chinese hospitalized adults. *Clinical Journal of American Society of Nephrology*. 2015; **10**(9): 1510-8. doi:10.2215/CJN.02140215.
25. Nlandu Y, Makulo JR, Essig M, et al. Factors associated with acute kidney injury (AKI) and mortality in COVID-19 patients in a Sub-Saharan African intensive care unit: a single-center prospective study. *Renal Failure*. **45**(2). doi:10.1080/0886022X.2023.2263583
26. Ottolina D, Zazzeron L, Trevisi L, et al. Acute kidney injury (AKI) in patients with Covid-19 infection is associated with ventilatory management with elevated positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP). *J Nephrol*. 2022; **35**: 99-111. doi:10.1007/s40620-021-01100-3
27. Wenyan X, Zongqing L, Yu L, et al. Influence of the initial neutrophils to lymphocytes and platelets ratio on the incidence and severity of Sepsis-Associated Acute Kidney Injury: A double robust estimation based on a large public database. *Frontiers in Immunology*. 2022; **13**. doi:10.3389/fimmu.2022.925494
28. Kulvichit W, Samvanichpitak K, Peerapomratana S, et al. In-hospital mortality of critically ill patients with interactions of acute kidney injury and acute respiratory failure in the resource-limited settings: Results from SEA-AKI study. *Journal of Critical Care*. 2022; **7**. doi:10.1016/j.jcrc.2022.154103
29. McDonald HI, Nitsch D, Millett ERC, Sinclair A, Thomas SL. Are pre-existing markers of chronic kidney disease associated with short-term mortality following acute community-acquired pneumonia and sepsis? A cohort study among older people with diabetes using electronic health records. *Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation*. 2015; **30** (6): 1002-9. doi:10.1093/ndt/gfu401
30. Wang HE, Gamboa C, Wamock DG, Muntner P. Chronic Kidney Disease and Risk of Death from Infection. *Am J Nephrol*. 2011; **34**(4): 330-6. doi:10.1159/000330673
31. Su G, Iwagami M, Qin X, et al. Kidney disease and mortality in patients with respiratory tract infections: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Kidney J*. 2021; **14**(2): 602-11. doi:10.1093/ckj/sfz188
32. Lim WH, Kireta S, Leedham E, Russ GR, Coates PT. Uremia impairs monocyte and monocyte-derived dendritic cell function in hemodialysis patients. *Kidney International Journal*. 2007; **72** (9): 1138-48. doi:10.1038/sj.ki.5002425