

The role of endothelium and endogenous vasoactive substances in sepsis

Kotsovolis G¹, Kallaras K^{1,2}

¹ Postgraduate Education in Medical Research Methodology, School of Medicine, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

² Department of Experimental Physiology, School of Medicine, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

Abstract

Sepsis and septic shock are great challenges for the doctors who treat critically ill patients. A big part of the scientific community is performing researches about the pathophysiology and treatment of this clinical problem. The endothelium has a very significant role in the alterations that sepsis causes especially to the circulatory system. The disorders of the normal function of the endothelium include derangement of the vascular tone, increase of endothelium permeability, activation of the endothelial cells, production of various regulators and disorders of coagulation. Nitric oxide is the modulator that mediates the action of most vasodilators. The overproduction of nitric oxide during sepsis is possibly the most important cause of the vasopressor-resistant hypotension which characterizes septic shock. The levels of natriuretic peptides are also increased. These peptides act through several ways on the circulatory system both peripherally and directly on the myocardium. Endothelin, vasopressin, adrenomedullin and prostacyclin are vasoactive substances that have their own role in the regulation of the circulatory system during sepsis. Hippokratia 2010; 14 (2): 88-93

Key words: Sepsis, endothelium, nitric oxide, endothelin, natriuretic peptides, vasoactive substances

Corresponding author: Kotsovolis Georgios, 15 Dagli Street, 55 535 Pylaia, Thessaloniki, Greece, tel.: 6948182743 – 2310326823, e-mail: gskotsos@yahoo.gr

Inflammation, sepsis and septic shock are the greatest challenges for the intensivist. Despite the important advances in intensive medicine, the morbidity of sepsis remains very high. According to Angus et al¹ the morbidity of sepsis in the Intensive Care Unit is about 28.6% and the cost for the treatment of every patient is 22,100\$.

Definition of sepsis

Sepsis is the systemic inflammatory response to bacterial inflammation². Sepsis is one type of the Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome (SIRS) which can be triggered by other causes besides inflammation like trauma, serious burn, major surgery etc³. When the inflammatory response is expressed as dysfunction of one vital organ (heart, liver, lung, kidney), sepsis is characterised as serious, and when two or more organs are involved the situation is called Multiple Organ Dysfunction Syndrome (MODS). When a patient with sepsis develops acute circulatory failure (systolic blood pressure <90mmHg, mean arterial pressure <70mmHg or 40mmHg below the normal values despite adequate intravenous fluid therapy) the clinical condition is defined as septic shock². The diagnostic criteria of sepsis⁴ are summarised in Table 1.

The pathophysiology of sepsis is under constant research. Over the last years there has been great progress in understanding the complicated mechanisms which are involved in the beginning, the course and the final outcome of sepsis. Despite the progress, there are questions that have not been answered yet. Lipopolysaccharides of the bacterial cellular wall have an important role in the beginning of the inflammatory cascade because they activate the inflammatory cells and the cells that participate in the coagulation

Table 1: Diagnostic criteria of sepsis

| |
|---|
| <p>Inflammation documented or suspected and some of the above</p> <p>General parameters</p> <p>Fever (Temperature >38.3° C)</p> <p>Hypothermia (Temperature <36° C)</p> <p>Heart rate >90/min or >2 standard deviations from normal for the age</p> <p>Tachypnea</p> <p>Disorders of conscience</p> <p>Edema or positive fluid balance (>20 ml/kg/24h)</p> <p>Hyperglycemia (plasma glucose > 120mg/dl) with no history of diabetes mellitus</p> <p>Inflammatory parameters</p> <p>Leucocytosis (White blood cells >12000/μL)</p> <p>Leucopenia (White blood cells <4000/μL)</p> <p>Normal blood cells with >10% immature cells</p> <p>CRP >2 standard deviations</p> <p>Procalcitonin >2 standard deviations</p> <p>Hemodynamic parameters</p> <p>Hypotension (Systolic blood pressure <90mmHg, Mean arterial pressure <70mmHg, fall of blood pressure >40mmHg or >2 standard deviations from normal for the age)</p> <p>SvO₂ > 70%</p> <p>Cardiac index >3.5L/min/m²</p> <p>Organ dysfunction parameters</p> <p>Hypoxemia (PaO₂/FiO₂>300)</p> <p>Oliguria (urine <0.5ml/kg/h)</p> <p>Blood Creatinine >0.5mg/dl</p> <p>Coagulation disorders (INR>1.5 or aPTT>60s)</p> <p>Ileum</p> <p>Thrombocytopenia (platelets <100000/μl)</p> <p>Bilirubin >4mg/dl)</p> <p>Tissue perfusion parameters</p> <p>Lactate >1mmol/L)</p> <p>Reduced capillary refill</p> |
|---|

mechanism². The response of the host, which follows, is the main factor that determines the outcome of sepsis and is expressed through the action of the monocytes and endothelial cells⁵. The production of various cytokines and inflammatory mediators and the activation of the coagulation cascade are caused by these cells and are the main causes of multiple organ dysfunction. Recently, the role of high mobility group box 1 (HMGB-1) nuclear protein in sepsis has been studied. This protein is released into the circulation after the death of cells or it is produced and secreted by macrophages and endothelial cells due to stimulation by inflammation. It is considered to be a major regulator of inflammation and to affect the outcome of sepsis⁶.

The dysfunction of the circulatory system due to sepsis greatly affects morbidity which can be up to 90% in cases of septic shock⁷. The reaction of the circulatory system to sepsis is characterised by an initial hyperdynamic phase, where a very big reduction of the systemic vascular resistance is observed due to peripheral vasodilation unresponsive to vasoconstrictive drugs and the myocardial dysfunction is not obvious because of the increase of cardiac output and stroke volume⁸. Later the myocardial dysfunction caused by the inflammatory mediators⁹ leads to the hypodynamic phase where cardiac output falls and both the systolic and the diastolic function of the heart are greatly impaired¹⁰. The endothelium and the various vasoactive substances like nitric oxide (NO), natriuretic peptides, endothelins, vasopressin, adrenomedullin, and prostacyclin have a very important role in the mechanisms that affect the circulatory system during sepsis.

The role of endothelium in sepsis

The endothelium, although it is not anatomically described as an individual organ, is one of the most important human organs. It is consisted of about 10^{11} cells, its weight is 1kg and the area which covers is 4000 – 7000 m²⁵. The endothelium performs some very important actions like regulation of the vascular tone, control of the circulation of nutrients between intravascular and extravascular space and preservation of the blood flow by regulation of coagulation¹². Moreover it participates in the physiology of atheromatosis, autoimmune disorders, inflammation and angiogenesis¹³. The reaction of endothelium to various stimuli is dynamic and differs according to the kind of the stimuli, the place of the vascular tree where the stimuli act and the time (moment and duration) of the stimuli¹¹.

Concerning inflammation, its effect on the endothelium is characterised by damage of the endothelial cells, disorder of their normal function, activation and death via apoptosis¹⁴. The damage at cellular level can vary in type (swelling and destruction of the cytoplasm, nuclear disorders etc) but the final result is detachment of the endothelial cells from the vascular wall, due to subendothelial edema in the place of the damage, and disorder of the permeability of endothelium¹⁵. Derangement of the normal function includes disorder of the vascular tone¹⁶ while activation of the endothelial cells includes changes in the expression of various proteins of the membrane¹⁴. Finally apoptosis is the procedure through which certain

intracellular or extracellular signals activate mechanisms that damage the DNA of the nucleus and is believed to be triggered by sepsis¹⁷. The inflammatory mediators (TNF- α , IL-1, free oxygen radicals etc) and the activated monocytes induce programmed cell death⁵ by activating caspases which cause the lysis of the endothelial cell¹⁸. The apoptotic endothelial cells induce the inflammatory reaction by producing cytokines and free oxygen radicals and activating the complement system⁵.

Regarding coagulation, cytokines, like TNF and IL-1, which are secreted by the inflammatory cells, act on the endothelial cells causing inhibition of the production of thrombomodulin, antithrombin-III, tissue plasminogen activator and heparan sulphate⁵. The result of these alterations is the blockade of plasmin formation and fibrinolysis. On the other hand the activated endothelial cells overexpress the tissue factor and the plasminogen activator inhibitor triggering the exogenous coagulation cascade¹⁹. The activated endothelial cells affect the coagulation mechanism by another way too. They secrete the von Willebrand factor²⁰, which is very important for the adhesion and activation of platelets, and they overexpress on the cellular membrane agglutination proteins like E and P selectins²¹ which stimulate the adhesion of platelets and monocytes on the endothelium. The consequence of these disorders is the formation of microthrombi which are able to alter the microcirculation of the capillaries and the perfusion of the vital organs. This disorder is responsible for various complications of sepsis like ARDS (Adult Respiratory Distress Syndrome), myocardial and intestine dysfunction, hepatic and renal failure and DIC (Diffuse Intravascular Coagulation)¹⁴.

The results of sepsis on the endothelium regulated vascular permeability are critical. Various inflammatory mediators like TNF, IL-1 and INF γ cause remodeling of the cytoskeleton of the endothelial cells²². Moreover, the response of the endothelial cells to cytokines frequently is combined with an increase of intracellular Ca²⁺ which is related to contraction and separation of the cells²³. Also, some cells of the endothelium, activated by oxidative stress, produce reactive oxygen species (ROS) which destroy other endothelial cells²⁴. The result of all the above alterations at cellular level is the disruption of the endothelial barrier and the extravasation of liquid and proteins in the interstitial space, known as capillary leak. The increased production of antithrombin, which is mentioned above, aggravates the capillary leak²⁵. The leakage of intravascular fluid causes the intravascular volume to gradually shrinking, which is very resistant to intravenous fluid administration, and peripheral edema which is characteristic of sepsis²⁶. Finally the role of capillary leak in ARDS and SIRS, which can follow sepsis, is crucial²⁷.

The major pathophysiologic characteristic of sepsis and mainly septic shock is the loss of control of the vascular tone. The balance between vasoconstrictors and vasodilators is greatly disrupted²⁸. Although the endothelium produces both substances, the action of vasodilators finally dominates and the peripheral systemic resistance decreases dramatically. Also endotoxemia directly de-

presses the postsynaptic sympathetic nerve fibers which innervate vascular smooth muscle fibers and downregulates the baroreflex function²⁹. The vasodilation is very resistant to exogenous vasopressors like epinephrine and norepinephrine³⁰. The cardiac output initially rises, as a response to vasodilation, but finally the circulatory system collapses and the cardiac output seriously drops. The circulatory failure is accompanied by microcirculation disorder of the organs and the result is inadequate oxygen delivery and finally failure of the vital organs³¹. The role of various vasoactive substances, whose production, secretion and action are seriously impaired during sepsis is very important in vascular tone modulation.

The role of endogenous vasoactive substances in sepsis

Nitric oxide

Nitric oxide (NO) is a substance produced by endothelial cells after their stimulation by acetylcholine and causes vasodilation³². Apart from endothelial cells, NO is secreted by other cells (like macrophages) and acts as a neurotransmitter too³³. NO is produced from the amino acid L-arginine by the action of the enzyme nitric oxide synthase (NOS) which comprises three isoenzymes. The two of the isoenzymes are expressed in the endothelium (endothelial NOS or eNOS) and the nervous cells (neuronic NOS or nNOS) while the function of the third isoenzyme (induced NOS or iNOS) is induced by various cells (macrophages, hepatocytes, smooth muscle cells, myocardial cells etc.) and products of Gram positive and negative bacteria³⁴. The first two isoenzymes are commonly referred as constitutive NOS or cNOS. The main difference between cNOS and iNOS is that activation of cNOS is depended on the calcium-calmodulin system, lasts shortly and causes the production of small amounts of NO while iNOS activation lasts longer and causes the production of significantly larger amounts of NO³⁵.

The action of NO is performed by modulation of cGMP production which via a series of complicated biochemical procedures reduces intracellular Ca^{2+} and causes the relaxation of the vascular smooth muscle fibers and vasodilation^{34,35}. As a result the role of NO in the regulation of blood pressure and organ blood flow is very important³⁶. The production of NO is stimulated by other substances apart from acetylcholine like bradykinin, histamine, serotonin, and free fatty acids while the endothelial cells themselves act as mechanoreceptors and in cases of peripheral alterations of blood flow and viscosity they generate signals for the production of NO³⁷. Apart from the regulation of vascular tone, NO inhibits the adhesion of platelets and white blood cells on the endothelium and the production of superoxide anions by them³⁸⁻⁴⁰. Although NO neutralises the free toxic radicals (like O_2^-), in some cases, like sepsis, it participates in the reactions that produce toxic products³⁴. The inhibition of NO production is done either by feedback regulation of NOS or by L-arginine analogs.

During sepsis the role of NO in vasodilation, vascular permeability disorder and aggregation and activation of

white blood cells and platelets is critical. The most important factor that causes the cardiac output independent vasodilation, which is very resistant to exogenous catecholamines (vasoplegia), is the overproduction of NO. The cause of NO overproduction is the induction of iNOS enzyme. The endotoxins and the inflammatory mediators like IL-1, IL-2, IL-6, TNF, INF- γ and others, have been proved to induce this enzyme *in vitro*⁴¹. The induction of iNOS can last for several days after the initial stimulation. The fact that the overproduction of NO is attributed to iNOS and not eNOS induction partly explains the lack of response to administration of noradrenaline. This was studied by Flemming et al⁴² when they observed that sepsis vasodilation occurs even at vessels without endothelium while noradrenaline resistance stops when the production pathway of NO from arginine is inhibited. Other mechanisms responsible for NO overproduction are the increase of available arginine and the induction of cNOS enzyme whose contribution is minimal⁴³. Besides vasodilation NO participates in cell destruction by reacting with ROS and producing toxic substances (like ONOO)²¹. Finally NO appears to directly depress the function of myocardial cells during sepsis, contributing to general myocardial dysfunction⁴⁴. The possible explanation for this fact is that the high levels of cGMP that follow NO overproduction decrease the flow of calcium ions in the sarcoplasm of myocardial cells and the response of myocardial muscle fibres to calcium³⁴.

The inhibition of NOS and the reduction of NO levels appear to have significant clinical results. A 72-hour treatment with the NOS inhibitor 546C88 reduced the plasma levels of NO in patients with diagnosed septic shock. The result was the upregulation of the vascular tone, the decrease of cardiac index and oxygen delivery and the maintenance of mean arterial pressure over 70mm Hg with less doses of inotrope drugs compared to the septic patients who were taking placebo⁴⁵. Finally inhibition of NOS promoted the resolution of shock in patients with severe sepsis⁴⁶.

Natriuretic peptides

The brain natriuretic peptide (BNP), the atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP) and C-type natriuretic peptide (CNP) have been recently identified as important factors of circulatory regulation. BNP is produced mainly by the myocardial cells of the ventricles⁴⁷ initially as prohormone (proBNP) which is cleaved to active BNP and inactive NT-proBNP. The basic stimuli for BNP production is the increased tension of the ventricular muscle fibres mainly due to volume overload⁴⁸. BNP increases glomerular filtration by dilating the afferent and contracting the efferent arteriole, increases sodium excretion in the urine, inhibits aldosterone action, decreases systemic blood pressure via peripheral vasodilation, decreases the preload and inhibits the sympathetic nervous system⁴⁹. ANP is produced by atrial cells which respond to the same stimuli that cause the production of BNP from the ventricles (increased tension and volume in the atria). It is also produced as a prohormone and causes systemic blood pressure drop by vasodilation and increase of di-

uresis and sodium and potassium loss in the urine³. CNP has been localized in the endothelial cells of various vessels and in the systemic circulation and its main role is not natriuresis like, the other natriuretic peptides, but endothelium independent vasodilation mainly of the coronary arteries⁵⁰. The action of these peptides on the periphery is performed by the stimulation of their receptors NPR-A, NPR-B and NPR-C. NPR-A is related to the action of ANP and BNP, NPR-B to the action of CNP while NPR-C is a clearance receptor related to the removal of the peptides from circulation³.

In sepsis the plasma levels of ANP and BNP are significantly increased^{51,52}. Disorder of normal cardiac function could possibly be the reason. The reduction of ejection fraction in septic patients is trying to be balanced by an increase of end-diastolic volume of the left ventricle⁵³ which is a stimulus for the production of BNP. But in a number of studies the plasma levels of BNP and NT-proBNP did not correlate to the volumes of the ventricles of septic patients nor to the pulmonary capillary wedge pressure^{52,54,55}. There are suggestions that sepsis causes a direct depression of myocardial function and ventricle dilatation (not caused by the end-diastolic volume)⁵⁶ but this fact alone cannot explain the high levels of BNP. Endotoxins, IL-6, and other proinflammatory cytokines have been proved to produce direct stimulant substances for the production of BNP and ANP, independent from cardiac function, in animal³ and human studies⁵⁷. Furthermore it seems that this mechanism is mainly responsible for the production of ANP during sepsis and not the increase of pressure in the atria⁵¹. Vasoconstrictor substances like angiotensin and endothelin, which are overproduced in sepsis, also stimulate the production of BNP⁵⁸. Recent data prove that the relation between BNP and sepsis is much more complicated. BNP seems to play an important role in the regulation of inflammatory mediators' production. Substances, like reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (ROS and RNS), leukotriene B₄ (LTB₄) and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂), are produced by inflammatory cells after induction by BNP, which also modulates various cytokines (TNF- α , IL-12 and IL-10) and affects cell mobility⁵⁹. Other mechanisms that can be implicated in the increase of the natriuretic peptides levels are the aggressive fluid administration and the reduced production of urine due to renal dysfunction which is very common in septic patients.

Finally many studies have been performed in order to discover a possible prognostic value of plasma BNP levels in septic patients. Some of these studies have concluded that high levels of BNP and NT-proBNP are connected with increased possibility of death in septic patients of the Intensive Care Unit^{54,58,60}. Some investigators believe that the levels of these peptides can be used as diagnostic criterion of cardiac dysfunction in septic patients and can substitute invasive monitoring like the pulmonary artery cannulation⁶¹⁻⁶⁴, whereas other do not agree with these conclusions^{65,66}. Lastly the level of BNP has been used as criterion for successful weaning of patients from mechanical ventilation⁶⁷.

Endothelins

Endothelin-1 is a peptide that was firstly discovered in 1988 and has a very powerful vasoconstrictive function⁶⁸. It is mainly produced by endothelial cells but other cells have also been found to produce it like vascular smooth muscle cells, mucosa epithelial cells, macrophages, mast cells, myocardial cells, tracheal epithelial cells, medullary cells of the kidney, some nervous cells and Kupffer cells⁶⁹. Endothelin is initially produced as pro-peptide which is cleaved to the final active substance by the action of various endopeptidases. The stimuli that trigger endothelin-1 production is mechanical stress of the endothelium (the main stimulus), hypoxia, endotoxins, TNF, IL-1, TGF, adrenaline, thrombin and angiotensin-2 while prostacyclin, NO, ANP and heparin inhibit the production of endothelin-1⁶⁹. Apart from endothelin-1 there are two other endothelins: endothelin-2, which is located mainly in the intestine, and endothelin-3 which is located in the lungs, central nervous system and the intestine too⁷⁰. Endothelins activate their receptors which are endothelin receptor A (ETA), with greater affinity with endothelins 1 and 2, and endothelin receptor B (ETB) which is equally bound to all three endothelins⁷¹.

In septic shock the plasma endothelin levels are significantly elevated⁷² and their elevation seems to correlate with sepsis morbidity⁷³. The great amounts of circulating endothelin are related to the pathophysiological disorders in various organs such as the heart, lungs, liver, intestine, kidney and others. Endothelin action on the heart involves constriction of coronary arteries, cardiac output reduction and arrhythmogenesis, as it is proved in in vivo studies⁶⁹, and these actions are probably responsible for cardiac dysfunction during sepsis. Wanecek et al⁷⁴ concluded that antagonism of the myocardial endothelin receptors greatly improves cardiac function in septic models and that stimulation of these receptors by endothelin deteriorates the normal function of the myocardium. In the lungs, endothelin causes pulmonary hypertension, which is characteristic of sepsis-induced ARDS, by contracting the pulmonary arteries⁷⁵. Other mechanisms of endothelin action on the lungs are generation of interstitial edema and leucocyte aggregation in the alveoli⁶⁴. There are suggestions that endothelin overproduction significantly impairs intestinal epithelial function because endothelin receptor antagonism improves mucosal microcirculation of the intestine in various experimental models of sepsis⁶⁹. Also it is related to hepatic dysfunction via constriction of the portal vein and the hepatic capillaries which cause hepatocellular destruction⁶⁹. Finally the action of endothelin on the kidney and its relation to acute renal failure is not definitely proved. It is suggested that endothelin impairs renal blood flow and normal renal function^{76,77} but these findings are not confirmed by all the investigators⁷⁸. Important results are being waited by the study of effectiveness of endothelin antagonists in the treatment of septic shock.

Sepsis and septic shock were and remain important research topics for many scientists. Despite the progress in understanding the mechanisms of pathophysiologic

changes that these situations cause there are still questions that have not been answered. The most important is the transition from the hyperdynamic to the hypodynamic phase of sepsis and the lack of response of the peripheral vessels to exogenous vasopressors. Experimental findings indicate the important role of the endothelium and the endogenous vasoactive substances. A lot of studies have been performed in the pathophysiology of septic shock in order to use their knowledge for therapeutic purposes but very few of them have concluded in morbidity and mortality reduction⁵. Large multicenter studies are in progress and their results are being waited with high expectations.

References

1. Angus DC, Pereira CA, Silva E. Epidemiology of severe sepsis around the world. *Endocr Metab Immune Disord Drug Targets*. 2006; 6: 207-212.
2. Morgan EG, Mikhail MS, Murray MJ. Critical care. In: *Clinical Anesthesiology*. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2006. p. 1049-1057.
3. Witthaut R. Science review: Natriuretic peptides in critical illness. *Crit Care*. 2004; 8: 342-349.
4. Levy MM, Fink MP, Marshall JC, Abraham E, Angus D, Cook D, et al. 2001 SCCM/ESICM/ACCP/ATS/SIS international sepsis definitions conference. *Crit Care Med*. 2003; 31: 1250-1256.
5. Aird WC. The role of the endothelium in severe sepsis and multiple organ dysfunction syndrome. *Blood*. 2003; 101: 3765-3777.
6. Sunden-Cullberg J, Norrby-Teglund A, Treutiger CJ. The role of high mobility group box-1 protein in severe sepsis. *Curr Opin Infect Dis*. 2006; 19: 231-236.
7. Parrillo JE. Pathogenetic mechanisms of septic shock. *N Engl J Med*. 1993; 328: 1471-1477.
8. Parrillo JE, Parker MM, Natanson C, Suffredini AF, Danner RL, Cunnion RE, et al. Septic shock in humans. Advances in the understanding of pathogenesis, cardiovascular dysfunction, and therapy. *Ann Intern Med*. 2006; 113: 227-242.
9. Yasuda S, Lew WY. Lipopolysaccharide depresses cardiac contractility and beta-adrenergic contractile response by decreasing myofilament response to Ca²⁺ in cardiac myocytes. *Circ Res*. 1997; 81: 1011-1020.
10. Poelaert J, Declercq C, Vogelaers D, Colardyn F, Visser CA. Left ventricular systolic and diastolic function in septic shock. *Intensive Care Med*. 1997; 23: 553-560.
11. Gerritsen ME. Functional heterogeneity of vascular endothelial cells. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 1987; 36: 2701-2711.
12. Galley HF, Webster NR. Physiology of the endothelium. *Br J Anaesth*. 2004; 93: 105-113.
13. Zardi EM, Zardi DM, Cacciapaglia F, Dobrina A, Amoroso A, Picardi A, et al. Endothelial dysfunction and activation as an expression of disease: Role of prostacyclin analogs. *Int Immunopharmacol*. 2005; 5: 437-459.
14. Zardi EM, Zardi DM, Dobrina A, Afeltra A. Prostacyclin in sepsis: A systematic review. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat*. 2007; 83: 1-24.
15. Reidy MA, Schwartz SM. Endothelial injury and regeneration. IV. endotoxin: A nonending injury to aortic endothelium. *Lab Invest*. 1983; 48: 25-34.
16. Vallet B. Bench-to-bedside review: Endothelial cell dysfunction in severe sepsis: A role in organ dysfunction? *Crit Care*. 2003; 7: 130-138.
17. Hotchkiss RS, Nicholson DW. Apoptosis and caspases regulate death and inflammation in sepsis. *Nat Rev Immunol*. 2006; 6: 813-822.
18. Reed JC. Mechanisms of apoptosis. *Am J Pathol*. 2000; 157: 1415-1430.
19. Nawroth PP, Stern DM. Modulation of endothelial cell hemostatic properties by tumor necrosis factor. *J Exp Med*. 1986; 163: 740-745.
20. Schleaf RR, Loskutoff DJ. Fibrinolytic system of vascular endothelial cells. Role of plasminogen activator inhibitors. *Haemostasis*. 1988; 18: 328-341.
21. Chandra A, Enkhbaatar P, Nakano Y, Traber LD, Traber DL. Sepsis: Emerging role of nitric oxide and selectins. *Clinics*. 2006; 61: 71-76.
22. Yi ES, Ulich TR. Endotoxin, interleukin-1, and tumor necrosis factor cause neutrophil-dependent microvascular leakage in postcapillary venules. *Am J Pathol*. 1992; 140: 659-663.
23. Cuschieri J, Gourlay D, Garcia I, Jelacic S, Maier RV. Modulation of endotoxin-induced endothelial function by calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase. *Shock*. 2003; 20: 176-182.
24. Huet O, Obata R, Aubron C, Spraul-Davit A, Charpentier J, Laplace C, et al. Plasma-induced endothelial oxidative stress is related to the severity of septic shock. *Crit Care Med*. 2007; 35: 821-826.
25. Tirupathi C, Naqvi T, Sandoval R, Mehta D, Malik AB. Synergistic effects of tumor necrosis factor-alpha and thrombin in increasing endothelial permeability. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol*. 2001; 281: 958-968.
26. Marx G. Fluid therapy in sepsis with capillary leakage. *Eur J Anaesthesiol*. 2003; 20: 429-442.
27. Groeneveld AB, Verheij J. Extravascular lung water to blood volume ratios as measures of permeability in sepsis-induced ALI/ARDS. *Intensive Care Med*. 2006; 32: 1315-1321.
28. McCuskey RS, Urbaschek R, Urbaschek B. The microcirculation during endotoxemia. *Cardiovasc Res*. 1996; 32: 752-763.
29. Sayk F, Vietheer A, Schaaf B, Wellhoener P, Weitz G, Lehnert H, et al. Endotoxemia causes central downregulation of sympathetic vasomotor tone in healthy humans. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol*. 2008; 295: 891-898.
30. Chernow B, Rainey TG, Lake CR. Endogenous and exogenous catecholamines in critical care medicine. *Crit Care Med*. 1982; 10: 409-416.
31. McGill SN, Ahmed NA, Christou NV. Endothelial cells: Role in infection and inflammation. *World J Surg*. 1998; 22: 171-178.
32. Ignarro LJ, Buga GM, Wood KS, Byrns RE, Chaudhuri G. Endothelium-derived relaxing factor produced and released from artery and vein is nitric oxide. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1987; 84: 9265-9269.
33. Ignarro LJ. Signal transduction mechanisms involving nitric oxide. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 1991; 41: 485-490.
34. Parratt JR. Nitric oxide in sepsis and endotoxaemia. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1998; 41: 31-39.
35. Kirkeboen KA, Strand OA. The role of nitric oxide in sepsis--an overview. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand*. 1999; 43: 275-288.
36. Calver A, Collier J, Vallance P. Nitric oxide and cardiovascular control. *Exp Physiol*. 1993; 78: 303-326.
37. Davies PF, Barbee KA, Volin MV, Robotewskyj A, Chen J, Joseph L, et al. Spatial relationships in early signaling events of flow-mediated endothelial mechanotransduction. *Annu Rev Physiol*. 1997; 59: 527-549.
38. Radomski MW, Palmer RM, Moncada S. The role of nitric oxide and cGMP in platelet adhesion to vascular endothelium. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 1987; 148: 1482-1489.
39. Kubes P, Suzuki M, Granger DN. Nitric oxide: An endogenous modulator of leukocyte adhesion. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1991; 88: 4651-4655.
40. Clancy RM, Leszczynska-Piziak J, Abramson SB. Nitric oxide, an endothelial cell relaxation factor, inhibits neutrophil superoxide anion production via a direct action on the NADPH oxidase. *J Clin Invest*. 1992; 90: 1116-1121.
41. Nathan C, Xie QW. Regulation of biosynthesis of nitric oxide. *J Biol Chem*. 1994; 269: 13725-13728.
42. Julou-Schaeffer G, Gray GA, Fleming I, Schott C, Parratt JR, Stoclet JC. Loss of vascular responsiveness induced by endotoxin involves L-arginine pathway. *Am J Physiol*. 1990; 259: 1038-1043.
43. Bogle RG, MacAllister RJ, Whitley GS, Vallance P. Induction

- of NG-monomethyl-L-arginine uptake: A mechanism for differential inhibition of NO synthases? *Am J Physiol* 1995; 269: 750-756.
44. Kumar A, Brar R, Wang P, Dee L, Skorupa G, Khadour F, et al. Role of nitric oxide and cGMP in human septic serum-induced depression of cardiac myocyte contractility. *Am J Physiol*. 1999; 276: 265-276.
 45. Watson D, Grover R, Anzueto A, Lorente J, Smithies M, Belomo R, et al. Cardiovascular effects of the nitric oxide synthase inhibitor NG-methyl-L-arginine hydrochloride (546C88) in patients with septic shock: Results of a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled multicenter study (study no. 144-002). *Crit Care Med*. 2004; 32: 13-20.
 46. Bakker J, Grover R, McLuckie A, Holzapfel L, Andersson J, Lodato R, et al. Administration of the nitric oxide synthase inhibitor NG-methyl-L-arginine hydrochloride (546C88) by intravenous infusion for up to 72 hours can promote the resolution of shock in patients with severe sepsis: Results of a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled multicenter study (study no. 144-002). *Crit Care Med*. 2004; 32: 1-12.
 47. Ogawa Y, Nakao K, Mukoyama M, Hosoda K, Shirakami G, Arai H, et al. Natriuretic peptides as cardiac hormones in normotensive and spontaneously hypertensive rats. the ventricle is a major site of synthesis and secretion of brain natriuretic peptide. *Circ Res*. 1991; 69: 491-500.
 48. Wiese S, Breyer T, Dragu A, Wakili R, Burkard T, Schmidt-Schweda S, et al. Gene expression of brain natriuretic peptide in isolated atrial and ventricular human myocardium: Influence of angiotensin II and diastolic fiber length. *Circulation*. 2000; 102: 3074-3079.
 49. Phua J, Lim TK, Lee KH. B-type natriuretic peptide: Issues for the intensivist and pulmonologist. *Crit Care Med*. 2005; 33: 2094-2113.
 50. Chen HH, Burnett JC, Jr. C-type natriuretic peptide: The endothelial component of the natriuretic peptide system. *J Cardiovasc Pharmacol*. 1998; 32: 22-28.
 51. Witthaut R, Busch C, Fraunberger P, Walli A, Seidel D, Pilz G, et al. Plasma atrial natriuretic peptide and brain natriuretic peptide are increased in septic shock: Impact of interleukin-6 and sepsis-associated left ventricular dysfunction. *Intensive Care Med*. 2004; 29: 1696-1702.
 52. Rudiger A, Gasser S, Fischler M, Hornemann T, von Eckardstein A, Maggiorini M. Comparable increase of B-type natriuretic peptide and amino-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide levels in patients with severe sepsis, septic shock, and acute heart failure. *Crit Care Med*. 2006; 34: 2140-2144.
 53. Rackow EC, Kaufman BS, Falk JL, Astiz ME, Weil MH. Hemodynamic response to fluid repletion in patients with septic shock: Evidence for early depression of cardiac performance. *Circ*. 1987; 22: 11-22.
 54. Januzzi JL, Morss A, Tung R, Pino R, Fifer MA, Thompson BT, et al. Natriuretic peptide testing for the evaluation of critically ill patients with shock in the intensive care unit: A prospective cohort study. *Crit Care*. 2006; 10: 37.
 55. Forfia PR, Watkins SP, Rame JE, Stewart KJ, Shapiro EP. Relationship between B-type natriuretic peptides and pulmonary capillary wedge pressure in the intensive care unit. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2005; 45: 1667-1671.
 56. Court O, Kumar A, Parrillo JE, Kumar A. Clinical review: Myocardial depression in sepsis and septic shock. *Crit Care*. 2002; 6: 500-508.
 57. Wolff B, Haase D, Lazarus P, Machill K, Graf B, Lestin HG, et al. Severe septic inflammation as a strong stimulus of myocardial NT-pro brain natriuretic peptide release. *Int J Cardiol*. 2007; 122: 131-136.
 58. Varpula M, Pulkki K, Karlsson S, Ruokonen E, Pettila V. FINN-SEPSIS Study Group. Predictive value of N-terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide in severe sepsis and septic shock. *Crit Care Med*. 2007; 35: 1277-1283.
 59. Chiurciu V, Izzi V, D'Aquilio F, Carotenuto F, Di Nardo P, Baldini PM. Brain natriuretic peptide (BNP) regulates the production of inflammatory mediators in human THP-1 macrophages. *Regul Pept*. 2008; 148: 26-32.
 60. Almog Y, Novack V, Megralishvili R, Kobal S, Barski L, King D, et al. Plasma level of N terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide as a prognostic marker in critically ill patients. *Anesth Analg*. 2006; 102: 1809-1815.
 61. Hoffmann U, Brueckmann M, Bertsch T, Wiessner M, Liebetrau C, Lang S, et al. Increased plasma levels of NT-proANP and NT-proBNP as markers of cardiac dysfunction in septic patients. *Clin Lab*. 2005; 51: 373-379.
 62. Roch A, Allardet-Servent J, Michelet P, Oddoze C, Forel JM, Barrau K, et al. NH2 terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide plasma level as an early marker of prognosis and cardiac dysfunction in septic shock patients. *Crit Care Med*. 2005; 33: 1001-1007.
 63. Bhalla V, Bhalla MA, Maisel AS. Evolution of B-type natriuretic peptide in evaluation of intensive care unit shock. *Crit Care Med*. 2004; 32: 1787-1789.
 64. Charpentier J, Luyt CE, Fulla Y, Vinsonneau C, Cariou A, Grabar S, et al. Brain natriuretic peptide: A marker of myocardial dysfunction and prognosis during severe sepsis. *Crit Care Med*. 2004; 32: 660-665.
 65. Tang BM, Huang SJ, Seppelt I, McLean AS. Predictive value of N-terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide in sepsis. *Crit Care Med*. 2007; 35: 2464.
 66. McLean AS, Huang SJ, Hyams S, Poh G, Nalos M, Pandit R, et al. Prognostic values of B-type natriuretic peptide in severe sepsis and septic shock. *Crit Care Med*. 2007; 35: 1019-1026.
 67. Mekontso-Dessap A, de Prost N, Girou E, Braconnier F, Lemaire F, Brun-Buisson C, et al. B-type natriuretic peptide and weaning from mechanical ventilation. *Intensive Care Med*. 2006; 32: 1529-1536.
 68. Yanagisawa M, Kurihara H, Kimura S, Tomobe Y, Kobayashi M, Mitsui Y, et al. A novel potent vasoconstrictor peptide produced by vascular endothelial cells. *Nature*. 1988; 332: 411-415.
 69. Wanecek M, Weitzberg E, Rudehill A, Oldner A. The endothelin system in septic and endotoxin shock. *Eur J Pharmacol*. 2000; 407: 1-15.
 70. Rubanyi GM, Polokoff MA. Endothelins: Molecular biology, biochemistry, pharmacology, physiology, and pathophysiology. *Pharmacol Rev*. 1994; 46: 325-415.
 71. Arai H, Nakao K, Hosoda K, Ogawa Y, Nakagawa O, Komatsu Y, et al. Molecular cloning of human endothelin receptors and their expression in vascular endothelial cells and smooth muscle cells. *Jpn Circ J*. 1992; 56: 1303-1307.
 72. Voerman HJ, Stehouwer CD, van Kamp GJ, Strack van Schijndel RJ, Groeneveld AB, Thijs LG. Plasma endothelin levels are increased during septic shock. *Crit Care Med*. 1992; 20: 1097-1101.
 73. Pittet JF, Morel DR, Hemsén A, Gunning K, Lacroix JS, Suter PM, et al. Elevated plasma endothelin-1 concentrations are associated with the severity of illness in patients with sepsis. *Ann Surg*. 1991; 213: 261-264.
 74. Wanecek M, Weitzberg E, Alving K, Rudehill A, Oldner A. Effects of the endothelin receptor antagonist bosentan on cardiac performance during porcine endotoxin shock. *Acta Anaesthesiol*. 2001; 45: 1262-1270.
 75. Wanecek M, Oldner A, Rudehill A, Sollevi A, Alving K, Weitzberg E. Endothelin(A)-receptor antagonism attenuates pulmonary hypertension in porcine endotoxin shock. *Eur Respir J*. 1999; 13: 145-151.
 76. Nord EP. Role of endothelin in acute renal failure. *Blood Purif*. 1997; 15: 273-285.
 77. Schulz E, Ruschitzka F, Lueders S, Heydenbluth R, Schrader J, Muller GA. Effects of endothelin on hemodynamics, prostaglandins, blood coagulation and renal function. *Kidney Int*. 1995; 47: 795-801.
 78. Oldner A, Wanecek M, Weitzberg E, Sundin P, Sollevi A, Rubio C, et al. Differentiated effects on splanchnic homeostasis by selective and non-selective endothelin receptor antagonism in porcine endotoxaemia. *Br J Pharmacol*. 1999; 127: 1793-1804.