



● Review

QUANTITATIVE MEASUREMENT OF ERYTHROCYTE AGGREGATION AS A SYSTEMIC INFLAMMATORY MARKER BY ULTRASOUND IMAGING: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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Abstract—This systematic review is aimed at answering two questions: (i) Is erythrocyte aggregation a useful biomarker in assessing systemic inflammation? (ii) Does quantitative ultrasound imaging provide the non-invasive option to measure erythrocyte aggregation in real time? The search was executed through bibliographic electronic databases CINAHL, EMB Review, EMBASE, MEDLINE, PubMed and the grey literature. The majority of studies correlated elevated erythrocyte aggregation with inflammatory blood markers for several pathologic states. Some studies used “erythrocyte aggregation” as an established marker of systemic inflammation. There were limited but promising articles regarding the use of quantitative ultrasound spectroscopy to monitor erythrocyte aggregation. Similarly, there were limited studies that used other ultrasound techniques to measure systemic inflammation. The quantitative measurement of erythrocyte aggregation has the potential to be a routine clinical marker of inflammation as it can reflect the cumulative inflammatory dynamics *in vivo*, is relatively simple to measure, is cost-effective and has a rapid turnaround time. Technologies like quantitative ultrasound spectroscopy that can measure erythrocyte aggregation non-invasively and in real time may offer the advantage of continuous monitoring of the inflammation state and, thus, may help in rapid decision making in a critical care setup. (E-mail: guy.cloutier@umontreal.ca) © 2018 World Federation for Ultrasound in Medicine & Biology. All rights reserved.

Key Words: Quantitative ultrasound imaging, Ultrasound spectroscopy, Critical care medicine, Point-of-care monitoring system, Erythrocyte aggregation, Inflammation, Backscatter coefficient, Structure factor.

INTRODUCTION

Systemic inflammation is a condition associated with several metabolic disorders (Hotamisligil 2006), such as obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, pre-eclampsia (Schießl 2007), rheumatoid arthritis (Choy and Panayi 2001), Alzheimer disease (Akiyama et al. 2000), Parkinson disease (McGeer and McGeer 2004), cancers (Mantovani 2005), chronic obstructive pulmonary dis-

eases (Yamamoto et al. 1997) and other critical states, for example, traumatic brain injury (Ramlackhansingh et al. 2011), multiple organ failure (Goris et al. 1985) and cardiac surgery (Asimakopoulos 2001). The systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS), with or without infection, is common in critically ill patients (Gustot 2011). The inflammatory cascade generated after a trauma has been considered a pathophysiologic basis of SIRS. Systemic inflammation is associated with physiologic deterioration and organ dysfunction in such patients (Muckart and Bhagwanjee 1997). It may affect multiple organs (in 10%–15% of cases) leading to poor patient outcomes and increased mortality, particularly in cases of intense vasoplegia (Maharaj and Laffey 2004). A mortality rate

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of 41% was reported in the 10% to 15% of patients experiencing SIRS and multiple organ dysfunction (Warltier et al. 2002). However, the contribution of the inflammatory response to adverse patient outcomes is potentially reversible. Thus, the continuous quantitative measurement of inflammatory markers may offer an advantage for the management of critically ill patients (Urbach et al. 2004).

The continuous monitoring of inflammatory markers in the critical care setup, nonetheless, comes with its own challenges. More than 80 blood markers of inflammation (cytokines and chemokines, immune-related effectors, reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, acute phase proteins, prostaglandins and cyclooxygenase-related factors, mediators such as transcription factors and growth factors and procalcitonin) have been identified in the scientific literature (Brenner et al. 2014; Zakynthinos and Pappa 2009). The information provided by these biomarkers does not necessarily overlap (Ikonomidis et al. 2008), and thus, a single measurement of an inflammatory marker does not reflect the overall dynamics of the inflammation process *in vivo* (Leng et al. 2008; Libby et al. 2002). Moreover, comparisons of cytokine levels are often problematic for the clinician owing to the use of several different techniques to derive them (Leng et al. 2008). Levels of cytokines measured also depend on a number of pre-analytical factors such as the blood sample processing and storage, feeding cycle of the patient, anticoagulants used and circadian patterns (Thavasu et al. 1992; Zhou et al. 2010), further complicating the interpretation process.

Undoubtedly, the measurement of several markers over a period through state-of-the-art technologies would provide a better picture of the inflammatory process. Intracellular staining of cytokines utilising fluorescence-activated flow cytometry (Freer and Rindi 2013), multiplex arrays based on flow cytometry, chemiluminescence or electrochemiluminescence have all been used as advanced methods, but these approaches require costly initial setup and highly trained staff (Leng et al. 2008). Rather than the cost and availability of the technology, the main concern, however, in the context of critical care, would be the turnaround time, which ranges from hours to days even with advanced techniques (Leng et al. 2008). These biochemical markers are then of no value when frequent monitoring and rapid medical decisions are required in the intensive care unit. Therefore, despite the valuable clinical information that can be obtained from many inflammatory markers, they have not been used effectively in critical care because of the unavailability of rapid and reliable tests that can be serially determined and could report the overall status of systemic inflammation generated *in vivo*.

We are thus in dire need of such a biomarker that has the potential to report the cumulative quantification of these

inflammatory molecules reliably, is relatively simple to measure, is cost effective and has a rapid turnaround time. The quantitative measurement of erythrocyte aggregation could be the one valuable test to monitor the generalized inflammatory process detectable in the blood. In this context, the present systematic review aimed to find out if erythrocyte aggregation can be used as a marker to measure systemic inflammation. Moreover, our review also aimed to determine if non-invasive techniques such as ultrasound can be used to quantitatively measure erythrocyte aggregation *in vivo* in real time, so that it could be used in a critical care setup to serially assess systemic inflammation.

METHODS

The search was executed by an academic librarian (D.Z.) through bibliographic electronic databases CINAHL (from 1937 onwards), EMB Review (from 1991 onwards), EMBASE (from 1974 onwards), MEDLINE (from 1946 onwards), PubMed and the grey literature (CADTH, Clinical Trials, National Guideline Clearing House, National Institute for Health and Care Excellence [NICE], MedNar, Google Scholar and Open Grey). The search combined words and expressions for two conceptual groups: *erythrocyte aggregation* and *inflammation*. To obtain the ultrasonography aspect, we added terms and expressions combined with OR in the second conceptual group (inflammation). We used words and expressions from controlled vocabulary (MeSH, EMTREE and others) and free-text searching. Exact key words used for search in each database are given in [Appendix 1](#). Retained articles had received institutional animal or human ethical committee approvals.

RESULTS

Results of literature search

The initial search through CINAHL, EMB Review, EMBASE, MEDLINE, PubMed and the grey literature identified 1996 references after removing duplicates. Of 1996, 298 were not considered because they were not written in English. One thousand four hundred three articles were not specific to our objectives and thus were excluded after reading the abstract. Further, 98 papers were not retained after careful reading of the full text because of the following reasons: (i) they described erythrocyte aggregation in the context of technical issues in measurements, nitric oxide metabolism, redox balance, anemia, use of biomedical devices and hemostatic agents, presence in several pathologic states, and storage and blood banking, without taking into account inflammation or inflammatory markers directly; (2) they described ultrasound in the context of blood coagulation and blood echogenicity without considering erythrocyte aggregation; and (3) they studied

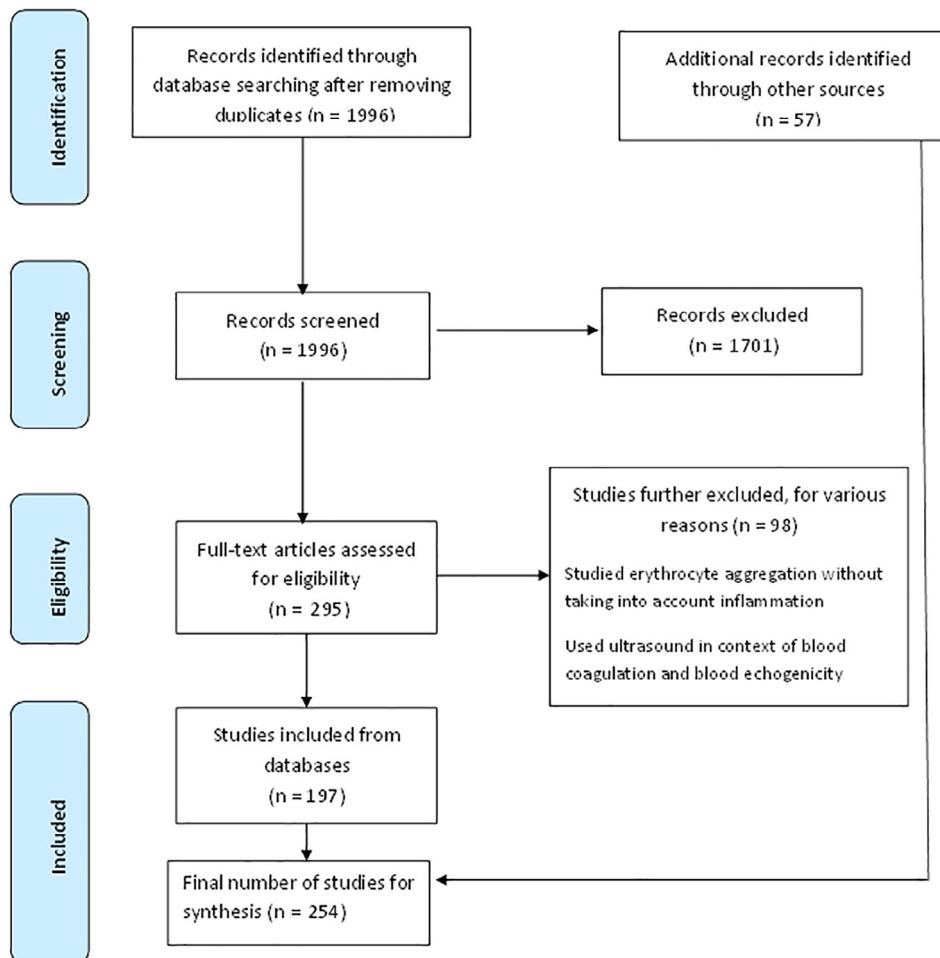


Fig. 1. Flow diagram indicating results of search and reasons for exclusion of studies.

effects of drugs on microcirculation and hemorheology by taking into account inflammation but not specifically erythrocyte aggregation. Thus, 197 articles were included for the final synthesis. Further, 57 articles were included from other sources mostly to set the study background (Fig. 1).

Description of studies

Erythrocyte aggregation and inflammation. The majority of retrieved studies correlated/associated inflammatory markers with elevated erythrocyte aggregation in several pathologic states (Almog *et al.* 2005; Ami *et al.* 2001; Baskurt *et al.* 1997; Berliner *et al.* 2000; Berliner *et al.* 2001; Brath *et al.* 2010; Czepiel *et al.* 2014; Duan *et al.* 2016; Elishkevitz *et al.* 2002; Fisher and Meiselman 1991; Gyawali and Richards 2014; Gyawali *et al.* 2014a; Justo *et al.* 2003; Kim *et al.* 2013; Krieger *et al.* 2004; Lakshmi *et al.* 2011; Lee *et al.* 2008; Maharshak *et al.* 2009; Novacek *et al.* 1996; Peled *et al.* 2008; Rogowski *et al.* 2000, 2005;

Samocha-Bonet *et al.* 2003, 2004; Santos *et al.* 2011; Sargent et al. 2003; Schechner *et al.* 2003; Spengler *et al.* 2011; Toker *et al.* 2005; Vayá *et al.* 2011a, 2011b, 2013c; Wang *et al.* 2013; Woodward *et al.* 2003; Zeltser *et al.* 2004a, 2004b; Zilberman *et al.* 2005; Zimran *et al.* 2004). Although most studies measured acute-phase reactants as an inflammatory marker, few reports ($n = 4$) assayed pro-inflammatory cytokines as an inflammatory marker and correlated them with erythrocyte aggregation (Bornstein 2009; Hovhannisyan and Hovhanessyan 2009; Shenhar-Tsarfaty *et al.* 2008; Wang *et al.* 2013). In only 2 studies were histologic examinations of the tissue performed to find evidence of inflammation (Brath *et al.* 2010; Nemeth *et al.* 2014). The influence of acute-phase proteins on erythrocyte aggregation was also evaluated *in vitro* (Brust *et al.* 2014; Weng *et al.* 1996). Some studies noted significant reductions in erythrocyte aggregation and improved hemorheological profiles (Allegra *et al.* 1995; Nicolaides 2003) after lowering the inflammatory state through lifestyle modifications (Raz *et al.* 2007; Sandor

et al. 2014) or by the use of anti-inflammatory therapeutic agents (Ge et al. 2016; Jiang and Lian 2015; Kelly and Dominguez 2010; Li et al. 2015; Szentkereszty et al. 2014). Lastly, some studies ($n = 15$) underscored erythrocyte aggregation as a superior or independent marker of inflammation (Anuk et al. 2002; Assayag et al. 2005, 2008; Berliner et al. 2002, 2005; Gyawali et al. 2016; Levin et al. 2006; Maharshak et al. 2002; Rotstein et al. 2002a; Sharshun et al. 2003; Urbach et al. 2002, 2003, 2005; Vayá et al. 2013b) or sepsis (Yeom et al. 2017). Only 1 study reported increased erythrocyte aggregation with aging and associated it with increase in inflammation (Vayá et al. 2013a). Among all articles retrieved, 4 reported controversial findings (Adar et al. 2008; Nemeth et al. 2015; Sargent et al. 2005; Vayá et al. 2008). Table 1 summarizes publications that we considered related to erythrocyte aggregation and inflammation.

Erythrocyte aggregation and ultrasound imaging techniques. Several studies that have used ultrasound imaging techniques to characterize erythrocyte aggregation *in vitro* (Aggelopoulos et al. 1997; Alanen and Kormano 1985; Allard and Cloutier 1999; Allard et al. 1996; Boynard and Lelievre 1990; Cloutier and Qin 2000; Cloutier and Shung 1992; Cloutier et al. 1996, 2008; Franceschini et al. 2011; Garcia-Duitama et al. 2015; Haider et al. 2000, 2004; Huang 2009, 2010; Huang and Chang 2011; Huang et al. 2013, 2015; Kallio et al. 1989; Karabetsos et al. 1998; Khodabandehlou et al. 2002; Kim et al. 1989; Kitamura et al. 1995; Lupotti et al. 2004; Nam et al. 2008, 2009, 2012; Nguyen et al. 2008; Razavian et al. 1991, 1995; Rouffiac et al. 2002, 2003; Shehada et al. 1994; Shung and Paeng 2003; Sigel et al. 1982, 1983, 1984; Wang et al. 1992; Xu et al. 2010; Yu et al. 2009) and *in vivo* (Bok et al. 2015b; Cloutier et al. 1997; de Kroon et al. 1991; Fukushima et al. 2011; Kitamura and Kawasaki 1997; Li et al. 2011; Rouffiac et al. 2004; Sugata and Ito 2012; Wang and Shung 2001) were retrieved from the search. Erythrocyte aggregation determined by ultrasound means *in vitro* has been found to be the main cause of blood echogenicity seen in spontaneous echocardiographic contrast (Fatkin et al. 1997). It is also at the origin of flow phenomena known as the “black hole” and “collapsing ring” (Cao et al. 2001; Paeng et al. 2004; Qin et al. 1998; Shehada et al. 1994; Yuan and Shung 1989). To quantify the ultrasound measure and to provide interpretable physical indices of erythrocyte aggregation, Recchia and Wickline (1993) have used the integrated backscatter assessed with a clinical scanner; the measurement was expressed in decibels relative to a reference reflector. The absolute backscatter coefficient measured with an experimental ultrasound device was also used for this application (Yuan and Shung 1988a, 1988b). The modeling of received echoes from blood with descriptive statistical models

has also been proposed (Cloutier et al. 2004; Destrempe et al. 2016; Huang 2011; Huang and Wang 2007). In the same way, the blood echogenicity, which was found to be higher among patients with claudication and venous thrombosis compared with normal controls, was reported to be decreased *in vitro* after the use of additive naftidrofuryl (a vasoactive substance with anti-aggregatory action) in blood (Alanen et al. 1990), validating the use of ultrasound signals to measure erythrocyte aggregation. All abovementioned approaches, although quantitative, do not describe erythrocyte aggregation in term of biophysical parameters and do not consider the spectral content of detected echoes for a better description of the phenomenon.

With the objective of providing such biophysical measures, Fontaine et al. (1999, 2002) considered constructive and destructive wave interference to describe the backscatter coefficient by modeling a structure factor $S(f)$, where f indicates frequency, and later, the same research group came up with an algorithm known as the structure factor size and attenuation estimator (SFSAE) (Franceschini et al. 2008, 2010; Yu and Cloutier 2007). Only 3 studies, so far, have used quantitative ultrasound to measure erythrocyte aggregation in relation to systemic inflammation, and all 3 came from the same laboratory (using SFSAE modeling) (Tripette et al. 2013, 2015; Yu et al. 2011). Studies using the SFSAE algorithm to measure erythrocyte aggregation in relation to inflammation are summarized in Table 2. Typical examples of SFSAE parametric images of erythrocyte aggregation with and without inflammation is presented in Figure 2.

Ultrasound imaging of systemic inflammation. We also selected studies that had used ultrasound techniques to study inflammation. Apart from references described above (Tripette et al. 2013; Yu et al. 2011), ultrasound methods to assess inflammation mostly used information from the structural damage or from the pathologic change of studied tissues and/or organs (Kristoffersen et al. 2006), which is not a direct measure of inflammation. Another ultrasound technique relies on injecting microbubbles with specific biological composition that bind with targeted receptors, cells or tissues, and then the signals generated from the complex are measured (Volz et al. 2016). However, the method requires venous access and does not seem to be suitable for serial assessment of inflammation because of the washout time for repetitive measures.

DISCUSSION

The present systematic review is the first of its kind that has endeavored to describe the importance of measuring erythrocyte aggregation as a marker of systemic inflammation. Precisely, the review emphasizes measurement of erythrocyte aggregation *in vivo* in real time continuously using quantitative imaging techniques. Among

Table 1. Studies associating inflammation with erythrocyte aggregation

Study type	Comments
Correlations with inflammatory markers in various pathologies	<p><i>Cross-sectional studies</i></p> <p>Almog <i>et al.</i> 2005 Ami <i>et al.</i> 2001 Assayag <i>et al.</i> 2005 Berliner <i>et al.</i> 2000 Czepiel <i>et al.</i> 2014 Elishkevitz <i>et al.</i> 2002 Gyawali and Richards 2014 Gyawali <i>et al.</i> 2014a, 2014b Justo <i>et al.</i> 2003 Krieger <i>et al.</i> 2004 Lakshmi <i>et al.</i> 2011 Maharshak <i>et al.</i> 2009 Novacek <i>et al.</i> 1996 Peled <i>et al.</i> 2008 Rogowski <i>et al.</i> 2000, 2005 Samocha-Bonet <i>et al.</i> 2003, 2004 Santos <i>et al.</i> 2011 Schechner <i>et al.</i> 2003 Shenhar-Tsarfaty <i>et al.</i> 2008 Spengler <i>et al.</i> 2011 Toker <i>et al.</i> 2005 Urbach <i>et al.</i> 2002 Vayá <i>et al.</i> 2011a, 2011b, 2013c Wang <i>et al.</i> 2013 Zeltser <i>et al.</i> 2004a, 2004b Zilberman <i>et al.</i> 2005 Zimran <i>et al.</i> 2004</p> <p><i>Prospective studies</i></p> <p>Fisher and Meiselman 1991 Sargent <i>et al.</i> 2003</p> <p><i>Animal models</i></p> <p>Baskurt <i>et al.</i> 1997 Brath <i>et al.</i> 2010 Duan <i>et al.</i> 2016</p> <p><i>In vitro studies</i></p> <p>Brust <i>et al.</i> 2014 Weng <i>et al.</i> 1996</p> <p><i>Prospective studies</i></p> <p>Raz <i>et al.</i> 2007 Sandor <i>et al.</i> 2014</p> <p><i>Case-control prospective studies</i></p> <p>Jiang and Lian 2015 Li <i>et al.</i> 2015</p> <p><i>Animal models</i></p> <p>Ge <i>et al.</i> 2016 Kelly and Dominguez 2010 Szentkereszty <i>et al.</i> 2014</p> <p><i>Cross-sectional studies</i></p> <p>Assayag <i>et al.</i> 2005, 2008 Berliner <i>et al.</i> 2001, 2002 Gyawali <i>et al.</i> 2016 Maharshak <i>et al.</i> 2002 Rotstein <i>et al.</i> 2002a Urbach <i>et al.</i> 2003, 2005</p> <p><i>Prospective studies</i></p> <p>Anuk <i>et al.</i> 2002 Levin <i>et al.</i> 2006 Sharshun <i>et al.</i> 2003</p> <p><i>Retrospective study</i></p> <p>Vayá <i>et al.</i> 2013b</p> <p><i>Animal model</i></p> <p>Yeom <i>et al.</i> 2017</p> <p><i>Cross-sectional study</i></p> <p>Vayá <i>et al.</i> 2008</p> <p><i>Prospective studies</i></p> <p>Adar <i>et al.</i> 2008 Sargent <i>et al.</i> 2005</p> <p><i>Animal model</i></p> <p>Nemeth <i>et al.</i> 2015</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Obesity (Samocha-Bonet <i>et al.</i> 2003, 2004; Vayá <i>et al.</i> 2011a) • Metabolic syndrome (Gyawali and Richards 2014; Gyawali <i>et al.</i> 2014b; Justo <i>et al.</i> 2003; Toker <i>et al.</i> 2005; Vayá <i>et al.</i> 2011b) • Inflammatory bowel disease (Maharshak <i>et al.</i> 2009; Novacek <i>et al.</i> 1996; Zilberman <i>et al.</i> 2005) • Atherothrombosis (Assayag <i>et al.</i> 2005; Berliner <i>et al.</i> 2001, 2005; Rogowski <i>et al.</i> 2005; Zeltser <i>et al.</i> 2004a) • Systemic lupus erythematosus (Santos <i>et al.</i> 2011; Spengler <i>et al.</i> 2011) • Myocardial infarction, ischemic stroke, coronary syndrome (Ami <i>et al.</i> 2001; Kim <i>et al.</i> 2013; Lakshmi <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lee <i>et al.</i> 2008; Sargent <i>et al.</i> 2003; Shenhar-Tsarfaty <i>et al.</i> 2008) • Obstructive sleep apnea (Peled <i>et al.</i> 2008) • Pelvic inflammatory disease (Almog <i>et al.</i> 2005) • Exposure to silica and benzopyrine (Duan <i>et al.</i> 2016) • Psoriasis (Vayá <i>et al.</i> 2013c) • Infection/sepsis (Ami <i>et al.</i> 2001; Baskurt <i>et al.</i> 1997; Berliner <i>et al.</i> 2000; Czepiel <i>et al.</i> 2014; Rogowski <i>et al.</i> 2000; Urbach <i>et al.</i> 2002) • Dyslipidemia (Schechner <i>et al.</i> 2003) • Gaucher's disease (Zimran <i>et al.</i> 2004) • Anemia with heart failure (Wang <i>et al.</i> 2013) • Aging (Vayá <i>et al.</i> 2013a) • Ischemia reperfusion (Brath <i>et al.</i> 2010) • Deep vein thrombosis (Krieger <i>et al.</i> 2004) • Population with and without cardiovascular diseases (Woodward <i>et al.</i> 2003) • Diabetes (Elishkevitz <i>et al.</i> 2002) • Cerebral ischemia (Fisher and Meiselman 1991)
Direct demonstration of the effect of acute-phase proteins on erythrocyte aggregation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effect of commercially available acute-phase proteins such as haptoglobin, C-reactive protein, ceruloplasmin, α_1-acid glycoprotein and α_1-antitrypsin were examined on aggregation kinetics determined by a laser aggregometer (Weng <i>et al.</i> 1996). • Weight loss after physical exercises/training and lifestyle modifications improved erythrocyte aggregation and decreased acute-phase proteins (Raz <i>et al.</i> 2007; Sandor <i>et al.</i> 2014).
Decrease in erythrocyte aggregation due to associated decrease in inflammation through exercise and life style modifications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Danhong injection among patients with acute cerebral infarction improved hemorheological profile, which was attributed to the overall improvement in systemic inflammation (Jiang and Lian 2015). • Reducing inflammation with mycophenolate mofetil improved microvascular dysfunction and decreased erythrocyte aggregation (Kelly and Dominguez 2010).
Decrease in erythrocyte aggregation due to associated decrease in inflammation caused by use of therapeutic agents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Among acute-phase proteins compared, fibrinogen was shown to have the highest influence on erythrocyte aggregation, n = 234 (Assayag <i>et al.</i> 2005). • Among patients with ischemic stroke, n = 30 (Sharshun <i>et al.</i> 2003). • Among pediatric patients with infection and/or inflammation, n = 125 (Urbach <i>et al.</i> 2005). • Among patients with acute ischemic neurologic events, n = 60 (Anuk <i>et al.</i> 2002). • This study attempted to provide the cutoff for the erythrocyte aggregation value to discriminate low-grade inflammation in an apparently healthy population; however, the sample size was too low, n = 121 (Berliner <i>et al.</i> 2002). • Through use of the receiving operating characteristic curve, the study found that erythrocyte aggregation is a better marker than the inflammatory marker hsCRP (high-sensitivity C-reactive protein) and oxidative stress markers to classify patients with metabolic syndrome (Gyawali <i>et al.</i> 2016).
Erythrocyte aggregation as an alternative or superior marker for assessing inflammation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inflammatory markers were not correlated with erythrocyte aggregation. Authors argued that the low deformability of erythrocytes could be the probable reason as excessive rigidity would not allow the cells to aggregate properly (Vayá <i>et al.</i> 2008). • Hematocrit was not adjusted in this laboratory study, and this could be the reason for this unexpected finding (Sargent <i>et al.</i> 2005). • Inflammatory markers in Gaucher disease were not found to be correlated with erythrocyte aggregation indices, and the reason for increased erythrocyte aggregation was attributed to increased glucocerebroside levels in the red blood cells (Adar <i>et al.</i> 2008). • Erythrocyte aggregation was found to decrease unexpectedly in fulminant sepsis induced in an animal model (Nemeth <i>et al.</i> 2015) contrary to the established relationship between sepsis and erythrocyte aggregation. The use of <i>Escherichia coli</i> strain to induce sepsis (which can cause hemolysis) and/or methodological variations were put forward as possible reasons for these unexpected findings by the authors (Nemeth <i>et al.</i> 2015)
Erythrocyte aggregation not positively associated with inflammation	

Table 2. Studies on quantitative ultrasound techniques that have used the SFSAE model for quantitative interpretation

Study	Study type	Comments
Tripette et al. (2015)	Case-control study, human participants (diabetic patients and healthy controls, n = 32)	Erythrocyte aggregation measured <i>in vivo</i> from the cephalic vein was found to be significantly higher in the diabetic population compared with normal controls. <i>Ex vivo</i> erythrocyte aggregation index measured with a laboratory erythroaggregometer was correlated with the reported SFSAE index.
Tripette et al. (2013)	Case-control interventional study; animal model (swine, n = 10)	Erythrocyte aggregation measured by ultrasound was found to be gradually increasing in the femoral vein during cardiopulmonary bypass surgery. Interleukin levels were found to be elevated only at the end of the procedure, whereas other markers of inflammation were less sensitive and did not exhibit any time evolution.
Yu et al. (2011)	Case-control interventional study; animal model (rabbit, n = 12)	Erythrocyte aggregation measured by ultrasound was found to be useful in evaluating deep-vein thrombosis risk profiling.

SFSAE = structure factor size and attenuation estimator.

the studies that have measured erythrocyte aggregation in the context of inflammation, the majority have correlated inflammatory markers with erythrocyte aggregation in several pathologies. Some studies have reported the decrease in erythrocyte aggregation after the use of anti-inflammatory therapeutic agents or lifestyle modifications. In addition, some studies have attempted to imply that erythrocyte aggregation is a superior marker of inflammation.

Abnormal erythrocyte aggregation is the tendency of an individual red blood cell to form a spherical clump, the size of which depends largely on the average size of normal rouleaux, erythrocyte surface free energy and bridging macromolecules in milieu (Bertoluzzo et al. 1999; Fabry 1987).

Elevated erythrocyte aggregation has gained considerable attention over the last two decades because of its association with adverse cardiovascular outcomes and risk factors (Baskurt and Meiselman 2013; Fornal et al. 2008, 2009; Kesmarky et al. 2006; Urdulashvili et al. 2006). Inflammatory molecules have been reported to increase the rigidity of erythrocytes, change their physiologic shape and cause them to aggregate among themselves (Gyawali et al. 2012a, 2015). These molecules are believed to cause thrombi in the circulation at low flow shear stress through hyperviscous flow stagnation that may eventually lead to local ischemia (Baskurt and Meiselman 2003; Bishop et al. 2001; Ergun-Cagli et al. 2011; Gyawali et al. 2012b; Lacerda et al. 2017; Yedgar et al. 2002). Higher resi-

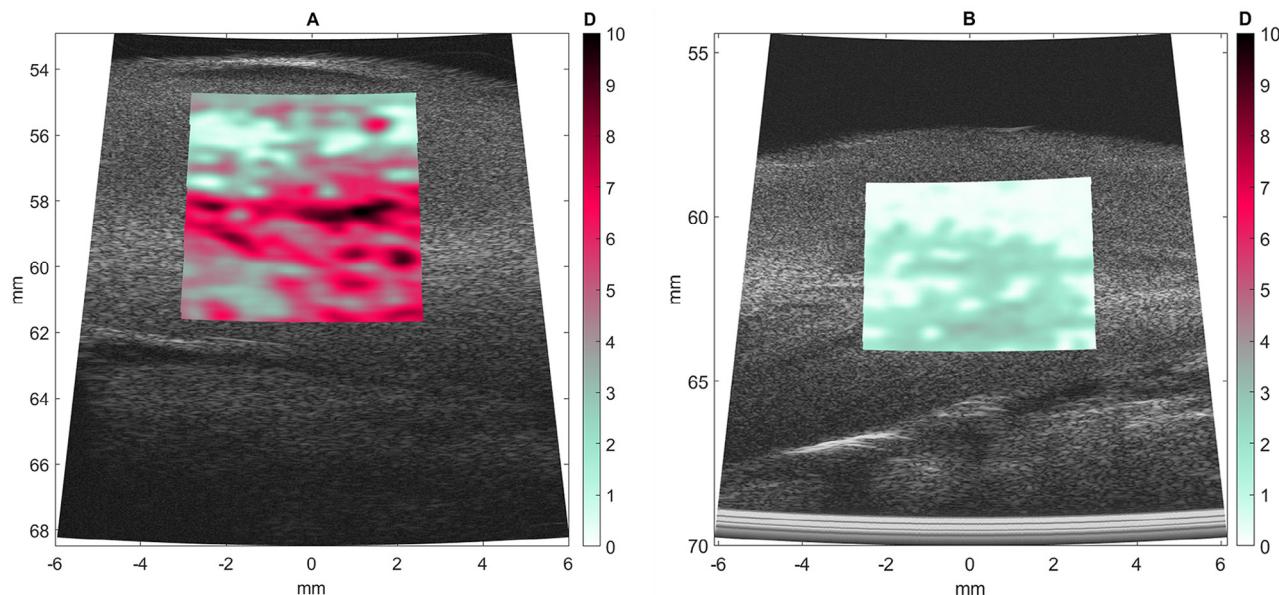


Fig. 2. Examples of structure factor size and attenuation estimator (SFSAE) parametric images of erythrocyte aggregation (D , longitudinal views) in cases of high (A) and low (B) inflammation. The ultrasound data were acquired from the femoral vein of a pig (experimental brain death model). The color maps vary from 0 (light cyan) to 10 (dark red). Parameter D has no unit (fractal dimension of spherical aggregates divided by the dimension of a single erythrocyte). The y-axis represents the depth of measurements; a surgical procedure was used to expose the vein, and degassed water was added in the cavity. The x-axis represents the lateral dimension of the image (unpublished data; the animal study received an institutional ethical committee approval from the University of Montreal Hospital Research Center).

dence time of erythrocytes in areas of viscous flow stagnation, promoted by low-shear aggregation, increases the interaction of other cellular and plasmatic elements with the endothelium (Watts *et al.* 2013). The presence of compact erythrocyte aggregates may further promote this process by increasing recruitment of platelets through erythrocyte–platelet interactions (Saniabadi *et al.* 1987; Valles *et al.* 2002). Activated platelets, through the release of prostaglandin E₂, further alter adjacent erythrocytes, reducing their filterability and mean cell volume (Li *et al.* 1996). Interaction of platelets with erythrocytes also increases the tendency of rouleaux formation (van Rooy and Pretorius 2016). Generation of endothelial dysfunction because of erythrocyte aggregates (Baskurt *et al.* 2004) may initiate cardiovascular events such as thrombosis, atherosclerosis and myocardial infarction. In fact, the odds of having myocardial infarction were reported to be 5.7 times higher among angina patients with elevated erythrocyte aggregation than in individuals with normal erythrocyte aggregation (Neumann *et al.* 1991).

Techniques for measuring erythrocyte aggregation

Several instruments have been developed to measure erythrocyte aggregation (Baskurt *et al.* 2009). These instruments rely mainly on the concept of laser light scattering and transmission (Baskurt *et al.* 2009; Pribush and Meyerstein 2007). Light transmission through a blood sample increases with increased erythrocyte aggregation; thus, changes in transmitted light are related to the size and conformation of aggregates (Gaspar-Rosas and Thurston 1988). Alterations in light reflectance or light transmittance versus time are plotted by laboratory-based aggregometers. Reflected or transmitted light is measured immediately after applying a high shear rate to disperse pre-existing aggregates; monitoring is then done after flow stoppage (Baskurt *et al.* 2009). The Myrenne aggregometer (Myrenne GmbH, Roetgen, Germany) (Baskurt *et al.* 2009), LORCA (Laser-Assisted Optical Rotational Cell Analyzer; RR Mechatronics, Hoorn, The Netherlands) (Hardeman *et al.* 2001) and RheoScan-A (Rheomeditech, Seoul, Korea) (Shin *et al.* 2009) are the three major instruments used for measuring erythrocyte aggregation for research purposes (Baskurt *et al.* 2009). Other laser-based Couette flow rheometers (Regulest formerly known as SEFAM, Nancy, France) (Stoltz *et al.* 1984), an He–Ne laser online erythrocyte aggregometer (Babu 2009; Babu and Singh 2004), digitized microscopic imaging (Chen *et al.* 1994; Foresto *et al.* 2000, 2002), computerized image analysis (Lacatusu *et al.* 2013), slide scanning of blood smear using an image analysis system (Assayag *et al.* 2005; Avitzour *et al.* 2003; Berliner *et al.* 2005; Rotstein *et al.* 2000, 2001b, 2002b; Samocha-Bonet *et al.* 2003) and a microfluidic approach (Yeom *et al.* 2017) have all been reported in the literature. An indirect measure

of erythrocyte aggregation that is affected by the confounding effects of plasma viscosity and gravity is the erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) (Potron *et al.* 1994; Rotstein *et al.* 2001a). Though the ESR has been widely associated with inflammatory diseases (Andresdotir *et al.* 2003), the information obtained from ESR assay is non-specific and several other inflammatory markers have been found to be superior to this clinical approach for monitoring the course of infections and inflammatory diseases (Pecile *et al.* 2004).

Ultrasound imaging is the other promising approach for measuring erythrocyte aggregation. Though research on ultrasound for measuring erythrocyte aggregation has a long history (Boynard *et al.* 1987, 1988; Yuan and Shung 1988a, 1988b), these methods have not been widely accepted by hemorheologists and the clinical community in general, probably because of the complexity of acoustic modelling, quantitative approaches, data analyses, and the subjective nature of the image interpretation (*i.e.*, the lack of physical interpretability of reported data). Several attempts have been made to provide interpretable physical indices of erythrocyte aggregation to the scientific community and clinicians (Fontaine *et al.* 1999, 2002; Franceschini *et al.* 2008, 2010; Recchia and Wickline 1993; Sennaoui *et al.* 1997; Yu and Cloutier 2007). Mathematical models of ultrasound backscatter used to measure erythrocyte aggregation were developed for this purpose (Franceschini *et al.* 2013b; Mo and Cobbold 1986, 1992); a contemporary review of which has been done by Franceschini and Cloutier (2013a). Besides contributions from our team, a given number of research groups have published on the use of ultrasound methods to measure erythrocyte aggregation within the last 5 y (Bok *et al.* 2013, 2014, 2015b, 2016, 2017; Kong *et al.* 2013a, 2013b; Kurokawa *et al.* 2016; Ma *et al.* 2016; Nam *et al.* 2013; Sato and Watanabe 2013; Yeom and Lee 2015a, 2015b; Yeom *et al.* 2014, 2015), and some researchers have also provided a concept of photoacoustic imaging of erythrocyte aggregation (Bok *et al.* 2015a, 2017; Hysi *et al.* 2012a, 2012b; Saha and Kolios 2011). *In vivo* photoacoustic and photothermal cytometry have been reported to measure erythrocyte aggregation (Galanzha and Zharov 2011). These are promising alternatives to quantitative ultrasound that, however, have not been experimentally validated or applied in the context of inflammation monitoring.

Because quantitative ultrasound using the SFSAE model is the only method used *in vivo* to measure erythrocyte aggregation in the context of inflammation (Tripette *et al.* 2013, 2015; Yu *et al.* 2011), it seems a promising approach deserving additional validation. In the SFSAE model, backscattered echoes from erythrocytes are transformed to obtain a spectroscopic representation of the phenomenon from which biophysical parameters are extracted to determine properties of clustered erythrocytes.

This algorithm is based on the proven hypothesis that the spatial organization of erythrocytes is the main determinant of the ultrasound backscattered power when the backscatter cross section (*i.e.*, power backscattered by a single erythrocyte) and the hematocrit are known. Because erythrocyte aggregation modulates the spatial organization of individual red blood cells, $S(f)$ integrated into the SFSAE inverse problem algorithm can provide mean descriptors of the erythrocyte aggregation state by averaging, over time and space, echo properties of flowing blood (Franceschini et al. 2008, 2010; Yu and Cloutier 2007).

The general procedure of the SFSAE technique for measuring erythrocyte aggregation is briefly summarized here (Franceschini et al. 2008; Tripette et al. 2013, 2015; Yu et al. 2011). Ultrasound acquisitions are typically performed in frequent time intervals for continuous monitoring. The cephalic vein in the proximal portion of the forearm or the great saphenous vein in the distal portion of the leg is typically used. The ultrasound transducer is apposed on the skin to produce a longitudinal view of the vein. Venous monitoring is preferred because low shear rates offer favorable conditions for the formation and maintenance of aggregates. A hydraulic tourniquet can be placed downstream of the transducer to control the flow velocity (Garcia-Duitama et al. 2017). The targeted vein is typically scanned with a high-frequency ultrasound transducer (*e.g.*, with a 35-MHz central frequency probe) to acquire radiofrequency echoes. A spectral analysis of radiofrequency data is then used to compute the backscatter coefficient (BSC) of blood, and the SFSAE spectral model is fitted to the BSC. After minimization of the error between the experimental BSC and SFSAE spectral content, two descriptors of erythrocyte aggregation are obtained: W , known as the mean packing factor, is a dimensionless measure increasing proportionally with erythrocyte aggregation, and D is the mean aggregate diameter expressed in number of erythrocytes. It is the ratio of the diameter of a fractal isotropic aggregate to the diameter of one erythrocyte. D is typically smaller than 1 in the case of disaggregated erythrocytes. The SFSAE model compensates for skin and tissue ultrasound attenuations, allowing W and D to be independent of subject adiposity (as long as the radiofrequency signal-to-noise ratio is high enough to provide good estimates of the BSC).

Because the SFSAE providing a measure of the mean aggregate size is based on the modeling of the BSC, it comes with its own limitations. First, quantitative backscatter measurements require calibration on test phantoms (Oelze and Mamou 2016). However, a single measure may be necessary to calibrate the method for a given ultrasound instrumentation. Second, as the number of scatterers (*i.e.*, erythrocytes) increases, the backscattered echo magnitude is no longer linearly determined by their number because of constructive and destructive wave interfer-

ence, as noticed for a long time from experiments on blood backscatter (Shung et al. 1976), and confirmed later with phantoms embedding different number densities of acoustic scatterers (Chen and Zagzebski 1996). Advantageously, the non-linear impact of the number density of scatterers on the backscatter coefficient is considered by the structure factor $S(f)$ of the SFSAE model (Yu and Cloutier 2007).

Importance of measuring erythrocyte aggregation in critical care

Although enhanced abnormal erythrocyte aggregation is a non-specific marker, it can be considered as a strong marker of inflammation generated by several clinical states and, thus, can potentially be used as a substitute for monitoring inflammation. An increased erythrocyte aggregation has been linked to the degree of organ failure in critically ill patients admitted to intensive care units (Reggiori et al. 2009). Likewise, hemorheological parameters including erythrocyte aggregation have been reported to be impaired among critically ill patients with or without infection (Kirschenbaum et al. 2000). More importantly, hemorheological parameters including erythrocyte aggregation have been found to predict mortality among critical care patients (Donadello et al. 2015; Totsimon et al. 2017) and erythrocyte aggregation has also been reported to predict unfavorable outcomes among patients undergoing percutaneous coronary interventions and among heart patients with diabetes (Jax et al. 2009; Steinvil et al. 2013).

The common technologies for measuring erythrocyte aggregation have mainly been developed in the context of laboratory instruments, and the basic physics behind them cannot support sizing of erythrocyte aggregates *in vivo* under flowing conditions within blood vessels. Also, these instruments need at least half a milliliter of an anti-coagulated blood sample for measurement and, therefore, may not be suitable for continuous monitoring of inflammation in critical care units. However, the quantitative non-invasive spectroscopic ultrasound method described in the present review may offer the advantage of continuous monitoring of the inflammation state and, thus, may help in rapid decision making in a critical care setup, as suggested by Tripette et al. (2013). Therefore, the use of quantitative ultrasound erythrocyte aggregation imaging for prospective assessment of inflammatory states in clinical situations can be the one step forward in critical care medicine (Fernandes 2013).

Future perspectives

Unfavorable cardiovascular outcomes and cardiovascular risk factors are associated with enhanced erythrocyte aggregation (Gyawali et al. 2014b, 2016; Vayá et al. 1996; Wiewiora et al. 2013; Zannad et al. 1988), but it is still uncertain if the unfavorable outcomes are primarily due to the effect of erythrocyte hyperaggregation. In fact, find-

ings of several past and more contemporary studies suggest that the same underlying pathophysiological risk factors of cardiovascular diseases could be responsible for causing enhanced erythrocyte aggregation (Gyawali and Richards 2014; Gyawali *et al.* 2014a; Justo *et al.* 2003; Simmonds *et al.* 2016). Though it has not been proven that erythrocyte aggregation is a better indicator of systemic inflammation than other inflammatory mediator markers, the use of a non-invasive quantitative approach would definitely have the advantage of continuous measurement. The SFSAE approach to measuring erythrocyte aggregation seems promising, and proof-of-concept data are available (Cloutier *et al.* 2008; Tripette *et al.* 2013, 2015; Yu *et al.* 2011); nevertheless, extensive validation of the technique in the context of critical care patients remains to be performed. Larger clinical trials are required to establish the effect of measuring erythrocyte aggregation on clinical outcomes and choice of therapies.

CONCLUSIONS

Erythrocyte aggregation has been associated with systemic inflammation. Most of the techniques developed for measuring erythrocyte aggregation require at least half a milliliter of blood sample (invasive) and only work *in vitro*. However, recent improvements of the ultrasound SFSAE model may provide the capability of measuring the size, polydispersity and compactness of erythrocyte aggregates in real time, quantitatively and non-invasively (de Monchy *et al.* 2016). Thus, this technique favors repeated measurements of erythrocyte aggregation providing information on the aspect of systemic inflammation for appropriate patient management. Ultrasound assessment of erythrocyte aggregation can constitute a niche to predict uncontrolled inflammation that could lead to thrombotic complications, septic shock and multiple organ dysfunctions (Wan *et al.* 1997; Warltier *et al.* 2002). Therefore, the extent through which continuous monitoring of the inflammatory response in critical care may be useful through this approach to recognize early shocks and guide therapy requires a special attention.

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APPENDIX. DETAILS OF SEARCH STRATEGY

First conceptual group in Pubmed: (“Erythrocyte Aggregation” [Mesh] OR “Erythrocyte Deformability” [Mesh] OR erythrocyte rouleaux formation [Title/Abstract] OR erythrocyte rouleaux formation [Other Term] OR erythrocyte aggregation [Title/Abstract] OR erythrocyte aggregation [Other Term] OR erythrocytes aggregation [Title/Abstract] OR erythrocytes aggregation [Other Term]

OR

(red blood cell* [Title/Abstract] OR red blood cell* [Other Term] OR red cell* [Title/Abstract] OR red cell* [Other Term] OR RBCs [Title/Abstract] OR RBCs [Other Term] OR erythrocyte* [Title/Abstract] OR erythrocyte* [Other Term]

AND

Deformabilit* [Title/Abstract] OR deformabilit* [Other Term] OR aggregation* [Title/Abstract] OR aggregation* [Other Term])

AND

Second conceptual group in Pubmed: (“Inflammation” [Mesh] OR “Inflammation Mediators” [Mesh] OR inflamat* [Title/Abstract] OR inflamat* [Other Term])

OR

(“Ultrasonography” [Mesh] OR “Diagnostic Imaging” [Mesh] OR “Ultrasonography, Doppler, Color” [Mesh] OR “Ultrasonography, Doppler, Pulsed” [Mesh] OR “Ultrasonography, Doppler, Duplex” [Mesh] OR “Ultrasonography, Doppler” [Mesh] OR “Ultrasonics” [Mesh] OR ultrasonograph* [Title/Abstract] OR ultrasonograph* [Other Term] OR diagnostic imaging [Title/Abstract] OR diagnostic imaging [Other Term] OR ultrasound* [Other Term] OR ultrasound* [Title/Abstract] OR photoacoustic* [Title/Abstract] OR photoacoustic* [Other Term] OR “Photoacoustic Techniques” [Mesh] OR echograph* [Title/Abstract] OR echograph* [Other Term])

Both conceptual groups were translated and adapted for each database. No filter by language, date of publication or type of publication was used. Hand searching was also used to identify other references. We removed duplicates with EndNote.