

Addressing profiles of systemic inflammation across the different clinical phenotypes of acutely decompensated cirrhosis

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Abstract

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Background: Patients with acutely decompensated cirrhosis (AD) may or may not develop acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF). ACLF is characterized by high-grade systemic inflammation, organ failures (OF) and high short-term mortality. Although patients with AD cirrhosis exhibit distinct clinical phenotypes at baseline, they have low short-term mortality, unless ACLF develops during follow-up. Because little is known about the association of profile of systemic inflammation with clinical phenotypes of patients with AD cirrhosis, we aimed to investigate a battery of markers of systemic inflammation in these patients.

Methods: Upon hospital admission baseline plasma levels of 15 markers (cytokines, chemokines, and oxidized albumin) were measured in 40 healthy controls, 39 compensated cirrhosis, 342 AD cirrhosis, and 161 ACLF. According to EASL-CLIF criteria, AD cirrhosis was divided into three distinct clinical phenotypes (AD-1: Creatinine<1.5, no HE, no OF; AD-2: creatinine 1.5-2, and or HE grade I/II, no OF; AD-3: Creatinine<1.5, no HE, non-renal OF).

Results: Most markers were slightly abnormal in compensated cirrhosis, but markedly increased in AD. Patients with ACLF exhibited the largest number of abnormal markers, indicating "full-blown" systemic inflammation. AD-patients exhibited distinct systemic inflammation profiles across three different clinical phenotypes. In each phenotype, activation of systemic inflammation was only partial. Mortality related to each clinical AD-phenotype was significantly lower than mortality associated with ACLF. Among AD-patients baseline systemic inflammation was more intense in those who had poor 28-day outcomes (ACLF, death) than those who did not experience these outcomes.

Conclusions: Although AD-patients exhibit distinct profiles of systemic inflammation depending on their clinical phenotypes, all these patients have only partial activation of systemic inflammation. However, those with the most extended baseline systemic inflammation had the highest the risk of ACLF development and death.

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Ethics statements

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Does the study presented in the manuscript involve human or animal subjects: Yes

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This study analyzed a total of 582 individuals, of whom 542 were patients with cirrhosis. Three hundred and forty-two of these had been enrolled in the CANONIC study and were selected because they had AD cirrhosis but no ACLF at enrollment (1). These 342 patients were compared to 39 patients with compensated cirrhosis who had never presented an episode of decompensation, and 40 healthy volunteers as negative controls. Moreover, 161 patients with ACLF (95 ACLF grade 1, 66 patients with ACLF grade 2) enrolled in the CANONIC study were selected to serve as positive controls. The selection of the CANONIC study patients was based on the availability of blood samples within the first two days after enrollment from patients under intensive surveillance during hospitalization (5). All patients gave their written informed consent.

Data availability statement

Generated Statement: The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

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1 Abstract

2 **Background:** Patients with acutely decompensated cirrhosis (AD) may or may not
3 develop acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF). ACLF is characterized by high-grade systemic
4 inflammation, organ failures (OF) and high short-term mortality. Although patients with AD
5 cirrhosis exhibit distinct clinical phenotypes at baseline, they have low short-term mortality,
6 unless ACLF develops during follow-up. Because little is known about the association of
7 profile of systemic inflammation with clinical phenotypes of patients with AD cirrhosis, we
8 aimed to investigate a battery of markers of systemic inflammation in these patients.

9 **Methods:** Upon hospital admission baseline plasma levels of 15 markers (cytokines,
10 chemokines, and oxidized albumin) were measured in 40 healthy controls, 39 compensated
11 cirrhosis, 342 AD cirrhosis, and 161 ACLF. According to EASL-CLIF criteria, AD cirrhosis
12 was divided into three distinct clinical phenotypes (AD-1: Creatinine<1.5, no HE, no OF;
13 AD-2: creatinine 1.5-2, and or HE grade I/II, no OF; AD-3: Creatinine<1.5, no HE, non-renal
14 OF).

15 **Results:** Most markers were slightly abnormal in compensated cirrhosis, but markedly
16 increased in AD. Patients with ACLF exhibited the largest number of abnormal markers,
17 indicating “full-blown” systemic inflammation. AD-patients exhibited distinct systemic
18 inflammation profiles across three different clinical phenotypes. In each phenotype, activation
19 of systemic inflammation was only partial. Mortality related to each clinical AD-phenotype
20 was significantly lower than mortality associated with ACLF. Among AD-patients baseline
21 systemic inflammation was more intense in those who had poor 28-day outcomes (ACLF,
22 death) than those who did not experience these outcomes.

23 **Conclusions:** Although AD-patients exhibit distinct profiles of systemic inflammation
24 depending on their clinical phenotypes, all these patients have only partial activation of
25 systemic inflammation. However, those with the most extended baseline systemic
26 inflammation had the highest the risk of ACLF development and death.
27

1 Introduction

2 Natural history of patients with acutely decompensated (AD) cirrhosis may be
3 complicated by acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF) (1). ACLF, which has been intensively
4 investigated during the recent years, is characterized by the presence of organ failure(s) (OFs)
5 and high short-term mortality (1–4). The diagnosis of OFs is based on the CLIF-C OF scoring
6 system which assesses the deterioration in the function of the six major organ systems,
7 including liver, kidney, coagulation, brain, circulation, and respiration (1). ACLF is
8 recognized when patients have either a single renal failure; moderate renal dysfunction
9 (creatinine between 1.5 and 1.9mg/dl) and/or cerebral dysfunction (grade I and II hepatic
10 encephalopathy) in combination with any isolated non-renal OF; or two OFs or more (1).
11 ACLF is also characterized by the presence of high-grade systemic inflammation. Many
12 biomarkers of systemic inflammation are elevated in ACLF, and associated with outcome (5–
13 12).

14 Unlike patients with ACLF, patients with AD have low short-term mortality (1). AD-
15 patients without ACLF at hospital admission may present three distinct clinical phenotypes
16 which do not overlap (1). The first phenotype (hereafter called AD-1) includes patients
17 without any single OF, who have serum creatinine of less than 1.5mg/dL and do not have
18 hepatic encephalopathy (HE). The second phenotype (AD-2) includes patients with isolated
19 renal dysfunction and/or HE I or II, but without any associated single non-renal OF. Finally,
20 the third phenotype (AD-3) includes patients with a single non-renal OF without any kidney
21 dysfunction. Although it is known that some AD-patients without ACLF at hospital admission
22 can subsequently develop ACLF and die (1), the baseline profile of systemic inflammation in
23 these patients developing or not ACLF during short-term follow-up is unknown. Also the
24 profiles of systemic inflammation across the three distinct clinical phenotypes have not been
25 investigated. Expanding our knowledge about the profile of systemic inflammation associated
26 with each clinical phenotype should deliver not only insights into the pathogenesis of ACLF,
27 and also provide clinical tools for stratification of patients and therapy (e.g., anti-TNF, G-
28 CSF).

29 The aim of the present study was to investigate markers of systemic inflammation in a
30 large cohort of 582 individuals including healthy controls, patients with compensated
31 cirrhosis without prior decompensation, patients with AD who were free of ACLF, and
32 patients with ACLF.

33

34 Patients and methods

35 Patients

36 In all patients, presence of cirrhosis was diagnosed either by unequivocal signs in
37 imaging, presence of complications of portal hypertension or development of AD and/or
38 ACLF. This study analyzed a total of 582 individuals, of whom 542 were patients with
39 cirrhosis. Three hundred and forty-two of these had been enrolled in the CANONIC study and
40 were selected because they had AD cirrhosis but no ACLF at enrollment (1). These 342
41 patients were compared to 39 patients with compensated cirrhosis who had never presented an
42 episode of decompensation, and 40 healthy volunteers as negative controls. Moreover, 161
43 patients with ACLF (95 ACLF grade 1, 66 patients with ACLF grade 2) enrolled in the
44 CANONIC study were selected to serve as positive controls. The selection of the CANONIC
45 study patients was based on the availability of blood samples within the first two days after

1 enrollment from patients under intensive surveillance during hospitalization (5). All patients
2 gave their written informed consent. Each center obtained the ethics approval from the local
3 ethics committee for the CANONIC study (1, 5).

4 **Definition of AD cirrhosis, OF, and ACLF**

5 AD of cirrhosis was defined according to criteria established by the CANONIC study
6 (1). Briefly, it includes acute development of large ascites, hepatic encephalopathy,
7 gastrointestinal hemorrhage, bacterial infection, or any combination of these (1).

8 Individual OFs were diagnosed according to the CLIF-C OF score (ref). Liver failure
9 was defined by serum bilirubin of 12mg/dl or more, kidney failure by creatinine of 2mg/dl or
10 more (or renal replacement therapy), coagulation failure by INR of 2.5 or more. Circulatory
11 failure was diagnosed when vasopressors were used, and respiratory failure when the patient
12 received mechanical ventilation (not due to HE-induced coma) or PaO₂/FiO₂ was 200 or
13 lower. Finally, cerebral failure was defined as HE grade III and IV (1).

14 As mentioned earlier, three distinct phenotypes characterized of patients with AD
15 without ACLF at admission, and ACLF was defined according to criteria established by the
16 CANONIC study (1).

17 **Data collection**

18 Healthy controls were recruited among 45-65 year-old medical and non-medical staff
19 from the Hospital Clinic, while patients with compensated cirrhosis were recruited from the
20 University Hospital Bologna, University Hospital Padova and Royal Free Hospital London
21 and the data at baseline were recorded. Data from the CANONIC study patients were
22 obtained as previously described (1,5). Briefly, data from previous medical history, physical
23 examination and laboratory parameters were recorded at baseline, including etiology,
24 previous episodes of acute decompensation, potential precipitating events and reason for
25 hospitalization. Moreover, close 28-day follow-up data were collected according to the
26 CANONIC protocol (1). Finally, information on liver transplantation, mortality and causes of
27 death were obtained on day 28, and at three and six months and one year after enrollment.

28 **Sample collection and analysis of biomarkers**

29 The baseline blood samples were obtained in Vacutainer EDTA tubes at the time of
30 enrolment in the study and/or within the first two days after enrolment in the study (48 hours
31 of hospital admission). Samples at the last assessment could be obtained in 132 patients. In all
32 cases, blood was rapidly centrifuged at 4°C and the plasma frozen at -80°C until analysis.

33 We measured TNF- α , IL-6, IL-8, MCP-1, IP-10, MIP-1 β , G-CSF, GM-CSF, IL-10,
34 IL-1ra, INF γ , IL-17A, IL-7 and eotaxin in 25 μ l of plasma using a multiplexed bead-based
35 immunoassay (Milliplex MAP Human Cytokine/Chemokine Magnetic Bead Panel (Merck
36 Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) on a Luminex 100 Bioanalyzer (Luminex Corp., Austin,
37 TX). The readouts were analyzed with the standard version of the Milliplex Analyst software
38 (Merck Millipore). A five-parameter logistic regression model was used to create standard
39 curves (pg/mL) and to calculate the concentration of each sample. Finally, the levels of
40 irreversibly oxidized albumin (HNA2) were assessed by high performance liquid
41 chromatography (5) as marker of systemic oxidative stress. The levels of systemic
42 inflammation markers in patients with ACLF have been published previously (5).

43 **Statistical analysis**

44 Plasma levels were above detection limits in most patients. In healthy subjects and
45 patients with values of cytokines or any other measurement below the detection limit, the
46 threshold of detection was assigned as the determined value. Results are presented as
47 frequencies and percentages for categorical variables, means and SDs for normally distributed
48 continuous variables and medians with interquartile range for not normally distributed

1 continuous variables. Hierarchical clustering analysis was performed using the GP plot
2 package from R software. Intensity of inflammation was evaluated according to the
3 relationship between the set of cytokines in different combinations stratifying for different
4 groups of patients. In univariate statistical comparisons, Chi-square test was used for
5 categorical variables, Student's t-test or ANOVA for normal continuous variables and Mann-
6 Whitney *U* test or Kruskal-Wallis test for non-normal continuous variables. To assess the
7 strength of the association between each marker and ACLF, logistic regression models were
8 performed. Factors showing a clinically and statistically significant association to the outcome
9 in univariate analyses were selected for the initial model. The final models were fitted using a
10 stepwise forward method based on likelihood ratios with the same significance level ($p < 0.05$)
11 for entering and dropping variables. The proportional hazards model for competing risks
12 proposed by Fine and Gray was used to identify independent predictors of mortality as
13 previously described (1). This model was chosen to account for liver transplantation as an
14 event 'competing' with mortality. Variables with a skewed distribution were log-transformed
15 for statistical analyses and graphical comparisons. A p -value ≤ 0.05 was considered
16 statistically significant. Analyses were done with SPSS V. 23.0, SAS V.9.4 and R V.3.4.2
17 statistical packages.

18

19 **Results**

20 **General characteristics of the patients**

21 This study investigated 15 markers of systemic inflammation and oxidative stress in
22 342 AD-patients but without ACLF at admission. These were compared to the levels
23 measured in 161 patients admitted to the hospital with ACLF grade 1 or 2, 39 patients with
24 compensated cirrhosis and no prior decompensation episode, and 40 healthy controls
25 (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2). The reason for selecting only patients with ACLF grade 1 or
26 2 was to exclude severely diseased patients who had three OFs or more, since the enormous
27 elevation of inflammatory markers in these patients may make difficult the comparison of
28 their profile of systemic inflammation with that of patients with AD and without ACLF.

29 Importantly, our patients with compensated cirrhosis had never experienced any
30 decompensation, despite the fact that these patients were at risk of developing it. Briefly,
31 these patients had a mean value of 37.8kPa (21.4-49.7kPa) measured by Fibroscan®
32 (Echosense, France) and median platelet count of $108 \times 10^9/L$ ($72-159 \times 10^9/L$), surrogates
33 suggesting the presence of clinical significant portal hypertension (13). Moreover, in 18
34 (46%) patients, esophageal varices were already diagnosed. Of note, levels of systemic
35 inflammation markers were only moderately altered in patients with compensated cirrhosis
36 compared to healthy controls (Supplementary Table 1), indicating the absence of significant
37 systemic inflammation in most of these patients. Of note, patients with compensated cirrhosis
38 were analyzed only in a cross-sectional manner, precluding any assessment of the
39 development of AD disease in these patients (Supplementary Table 1).

40 While the demography was similar, there were important, but expected between-group
41 differences, with the most abnormal values being observed in the ACLF group
42 (Supplementary Table 2).

43

44 **Markers of systemic inflammation according to the three clinical phenotypes in AD** 45 **patients**

46 The profile of systemic inflammation markers significantly differed across the three
47 phenotypes of AD without ACLF (AD-1, AD-2, and AD-3; Figure 1, Supplementary Table 3

1 depicting median values). Interestingly, lower levels of TNF- α (OR, 0.52; 95%-CI, 0.34-
2 0.79), eotaxin (OR, 0.57; 95% CI, 0.38-0.86) and HNA2 (OR, 0.64; 95% CI, 0.45-0.91) were
3 independently associated with AD-1, while higher levels of TNF- α (OR, 3.25; 95% CI, 2.00-
4 5.28) and HNA2 (OR, 1.75; 95% CI, 1.20-2.55) but lower levels of IL-8 (OR, 0.67; 95% CI,
5 0.53-0.85) were independently associated with AD-2. By contrast, higher levels of IL-8 (OR,
6 2.30; 95% CI, 1.72-3.06) and lower levels of G-CSF (OR, 0.78; 95% CI, 0.64-0.94) were
7 independently associated with isolated nonrenal OF (AD-3). Importantly, all these results
8 were independent of presence of infection (data not shown).

9 Interestingly, the pattern of elevated markers for patients in AD-2 and AD-3 were
10 opposite to each other, i.e., markers that were elevated in AD-2 were lower in AD-3 and vice-
11 versa (Figure 1). The addition of elevated markers in AD-2 with the elevated markers in AD-
12 3, recapitulated the profile of systemic inflammation seen in ACLF (Figure 1).

13 Importantly, not only the distribution of elevated biomarkers, but also the quantitative
14 changes in their levels defined their affiliation to either AD-1, AD-2 or AD-3 (Figure 1,
15 Supplementary Table 3). Another interesting finding was that patients with ACLF did not
16 show the highest levels of the single markers, but the highest number of elevated markers
17 (Figure 1), suggesting a “full-blown” systemic inflammation in this group of patients and a
18 rather attenuated systemic inflammation in the groups of patients without ACLF.

19 Another important observation was that despite the significant differences between the
20 severity and profile of systemic inflammation markers across the three clinical phenotypes of
21 “ACLF-free” AD cirrhosis, the cumulative incidence of death by 90 days, was similar
22 irrespective of the phenotype (Figure 2). In contrast, the “full-blown” systemic inflammation
23 observed in patients with ACLF was associated with increased cumulative incidence of death
24 by 90 days (Figure 2).

25 **Predicting ACLF development using baseline systemic inflammation profiles**

26 Next, we asked whether among AD-patients without ACLF at admission, the baseline
27 systemic inflammation profile differed between those who will subsequently develop ACLF
28 relative to those who will not develop this syndrome. Among the 342 patients with AD at
29 admission, 57 developed ACLF within 28 days after admission. Importantly, baseline levels
30 of systemic inflammation markers were significantly higher among patients who subsequently
31 developed ACLF than among those who remained free of ACLF during the 28-day follow-up
32 (Figure 3, Table 1). Therefore, in AD-patients without ACLF at admission, the development
33 of ACLF can be predicted using the baseline profile of systemic inflammation-related
34 markers.

35 When observing the magnitude of specific markers among patients with AD cirrhosis
36 who were free of ACLF on admission, we saw that higher baseline levels of IL-6 (OR, 1.43;
37 95% CI, 1.04-1.96; $p=0.03$), IL-1ra (OR, 1.46; 95%-CI 1.10-1.93; $p=0.009$) and HNA2 (OR,
38 2.84; 95%-CI 1.52-5.34; $p=0.001$) were independently associated with development of ACLF
39 within 28 days.

40 **Baseline profiles predicting survival in patients with “ACLF-free” AD cirrhosis**

41 Among AD-patients without ACLF at hospital admission 55 died and 28 received a
42 liver transplant. The baseline levels of several markers were significantly higher in patients
43 who subsequently died than in those patients who survived (Supplementary Table 4; Figure
44 4). In particular, TNF- α , IL-6, IL-8, IL-10, eotaxin, IL-17A, IL-7 and HNA2 were higher in
45 patients who died (Supplementary Table 4). Nevertheless, only IL-8 and HNA2 were
46 independently associated with mortality in the patients with AD at baseline (Table 2).

1 Discussion

2 This study offers a homogeneous classification way in the heterogeneous population
3 of patients with acutely decompensated cirrhosis, which is related to ACLF development and
4 death.

5 This novel point of view is demonstrated in four major findings of the present study
6 discussed in the following. The first was that inflammatory markers were only slightly altered
7 in patients with compensated cirrhosis and no prior episode of decompensation. This finding
8 is surprising and interesting considering that many of these patients had clinical significant
9 portal hypertension, as assessed either by the presence of esophageal varices and/or high liver
10 stiffness and low platelets (14). By contrast, most inflammatory mediators were markedly
11 increased in patients admitted to hospital with AD (with or without ACLF). Indeed, this
12 observation is of importance since it shows that severe systemic inflammation and acute
13 decompensation of cirrhosis are concomitant processes, as proposed in the so-called
14 “Systemic Inflammation Hypothesis” (15). This novel finding is probably a result of the
15 careful review of the medical history of the patients included in the compensated control
16 group, excluding any patients with compensated cirrhosis who had prior history of AD
17 episodes. Although it remains unclear which of these processes (acute decompensation or
18 severe systemic inflammation) occurs first, it is tempting to assume that systemic
19 inflammation is a prerequisite for the development of AD cirrhosis. In any case, our findings
20 suggest that systemic inflammation may serve to classify the stage of disease in patients with
21 cirrhosis.

22 The second important observation was that patients with AD but without ACLF at
23 admission had a very heterogeneous profile of circulating inflammatory mediators. There
24 were three distinct clinical phenotypes (AD-1, AD-2, and AD-3) characterizing those AD
25 patients; each phenotype being associated with distinct profile of systemic inflammation,
26 irrespective of the fact that infection was present or not. The patients hospitalized with AD
27 cirrhosis and neither OF, renal dysfunction nor cerebral dysfunction (AD-1 phenotype), had
28 very mild systemic inflammation, while the patients with an isolated non-renal OF (AD-3
29 phenotype), and those with isolated renal and/or cerebral dysfunction (AD-2 phenotype) had a
30 higher number of markedly increased markers of systemic inflammation. Moreover, our
31 results obtained in patients with “ACLF-free” AD cirrhosis, suggest a potential explanation
32 for the systemic inflammation signature of ACLF, which can be seen as a result of continuum
33 of activation of systemic inflammation. Indeed, according to the EASL-CLIF consortium
34 definition, the combination of any single nonrenal, noncerebral OF with renal and/or cerebral
35 dysfunction defines ACLF grade 1. While some markers of inflammation were elevated in
36 patients with AD-3 phenotype, other markers were elevated in patients with AD-2 phenotype.
37 As suggested by Figure 1, the profile of systemic inflammation in ACLF could be seen as
38 merging of the inflammatory profile of the AD-2 phenotype and that of the AD-3 phenotype.
39 It was also interesting that, although marked differences in systemic inflammation profiles
40 existed between the three clinical phenotypes of “ACLF-free” AD cirrhosis, there were no
41 significant differences in survival between these three phenotypes. Our data are novel and
42 very important, indicating that not a maximum level of a specific biomarker, but rather the
43 extension (number of elevated markers) of systemic inflammation, such as that observed in
44 ACLF, must be reached to determine increased mortality.

45 There were, however, some differences in the pattern of systemic inflammation across
46 the three clinical phenotypes of “ACLF-free” AD cirrhosis. For example, the presence of an
47 isolated renal and/or cerebral dysfunction was independently associated with high TNF- α
48 levels, while an isolated single nonrenal OF was associated with low TNF- α levels. The

1 reasons for these between-group differences in TNF- α expression are unclear but may explain
2 some interesting observations of prior studies. Thus, large-scale trials in severe alcoholic
3 hepatitis showed that anti-TNF approaches (e.g., pentoxifylline) might not work in patients
4 with severe disease and liver failure, but had positive effects in the presence of renal failure
5 (16,17). Pentoxifylline has also been shown to improve outcomes in patients with alcoholic
6 hepatitis and hepato-renal syndrome (18,19).

7 A third highly relevant finding was the observation that patients with AD cirrhosis
8 who were free of ACLF at enrollment but subsequently developed ACLF within 28 days, had
9 significantly higher baseline levels of inflammatory mediators. Moreover, these patients
10 showed a distinct signature of systemic inflammation, relative to those who did not develop
11 ACLF. These findings reveal that systemic inflammation precedes the development of ACLF,
12 suggesting a cause-to-effect relationship. Importantly, in our study, higher IL-6 levels
13 independently predict ACLF development, a finding which is consistent with previous results
14 showing that elevated IL-6 levels were strongly associated with ACLF and its progression (5).
15 Moreover, higher IL-1ra levels were independently associated with development of ACLF,
16 which is fully in line with previous data demonstrating that polymorphisms of IL-1ra
17 predispose to ACLF (20). Finally, HNA2, a marker for oxidative stress, was independently
18 associated with ACLF development (5,21). This latter finding calls for an important
19 discussion not only on the pathogenesis of ACLF, but also on the prophylactic treatment since
20 albumin is a potent immune modulator involved in reducing oxidative stress. In fact, there is
21 strong evidence that albumin administration during an episode of spontaneous bacterial
22 peritonitis prevents type I HRS - which represents a special form of ACLF - and improves
23 survival (22). This has also recently been confirmed in the ANSWER trial, a randomized
24 controlled trial in almost 400 patients, showing that long-term weekly albumin administration
25 reduces the incidence of organ failure and thereby improves overall survival in
26 decompensated cirrhotic patients (23).

27 Finally, in patients with “ACLF-free” AD cirrhosis, the extension of systemic
28 inflammation at baseline was associated with 90-day mortality. The independent predictors of
29 death were higher levels of IL-8 and HNA2 suggesting that decreasing the levels of these two
30 inflammation-related markers may be an objective for future therapies aiming to increase
31 survival in the group of patients with AD who are at high risk of death. Of note, among
32 patients with AD at enrollment, those who will die had lower G-CSF levels than those who
33 will survive. These patients might benefit from G-CSF therapy as recently shown in patients
34 with ACLF (24).

35 Although the present study tested a large number of patients and a large number of
36 systemic inflammation mediators, it has its limitations. The concept of this study is to observe
37 systemic inflammation associated with AD cirrhosis (with and without ACLF) without taking
38 into account specific events that could have precipitated the acute decompensation of
39 cirrhosis. Future studies are needed to further elaborate the specific events.

40 In conclusion, baseline inflammatory markers exhibit no or slight abnormalities in
41 compensated cirrhosis, while in “ACLF-free” AD cirrhosis their profile was heterogeneous,
42 being markedly elevated in those who developed ACLF during follow up. Moreover, among
43 patients with AD cirrhosis who were free of ACLF, this study showed a specific baseline
44 profile of circulating inflammatory mediators in patients who died during follow-up.

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46

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11 Author contributions:

12 study concept and design: JT, PG, RJ, AG, MB, PA, MP, RM, JC, VA;
13 acquisition of data: JT, AA, CP, ET, JAQ, CD, JF, SP, PC, KO, JM, ES, WL, MJC, TW, CS,
14 RG, TG, MARG, AdG;
15 analysis and interpretation of data: JT, AA, CP, JF, KO, JM, RPM, WL, AdG, MP, RM, JC,
16 VA;
17 drafting of the manuscript: JT, AA, CP, AG, RM, JC, VA;
18 statistical analysis: JT, AA, CP, JAQ, CD, SP, PC, MP, JC;
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24 TS, AG, RSt, MB, PA, RM, JA, VA;

25 Abbreviations:

26 ACLF: acute-on-chronic liver failure; AD: acute decompensation; ADH: antidiuretic
27 hormone; ALT: alanine aminotransferase; BUN: blood urea nitrogen; BT: bacterial
28 translocation; CHE: cholinesterase; G-CSF: granulocyte-colony stimulating factor; GM-CSF:
29 granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor; HE: hepatic encephalopathy; HNA2:
30 human non-mercaptalbumin-2; HRS: hepatorenal syndrome; HPLC: high performance liquid
31 chromatography; IL: interleukin; IL-1ra: IL-1 receptor antagonist; INF γ : interferon gamma;
32 INR: international normalized ratio; IP-10 (CXCL10): 10kDa interferon gamma-induced
33 protein (C-X-C-motif chemokine 10); MCP-1 (CCL2): monocyte chemotactic protein 1 (C-C-
34 motif chemokine 2); MELD: model for end-stage liver disease; MIP-1 β : macrophage
35 inflammatory protein 1-beta; NASH: non-alcoholic steatohepatitis; PBC: primary biliary
36 cirrhosis; SD: standard deviation; SEM: standard error of the mean; SI: systemic
37 inflammation; TNF α : tumor necrosis factor alpha.

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12
13

In review

1 Figure legends

2 **Figure 1.** Heat-map highlighting medians of the levels of the different biomarkers of systemic
3 inflammation in patients with acutely decompensated (AD) cirrhosis (with and without
4 ACLF). The patients with “ACLF-free” AD cirrhosis were stratified into three phenotypes.
5 The first phenotype (AD-1) included patients without any single OF, who have serum
6 creatinine of less than 1.5mg/dL and do not have hepatic encephalopathy. The second
7 phenotype (AD-2) included patients with isolated renal dysfunction and/or cerebral
8 dysfunction, i.e., without any associated single nonrenal, noncerebral OF. The third
9 phenotype (AD-3) included patients with a single nonrenal OF, without any kidney
10 dysfunction. The magnitude of the levels is color-coded and the clustering for each marker
11 with the rest of the markers is shown to the left of the heat-map.

12
13 **Figure 2.** Cumulative incidence function assessing survival in patients’ groups analyzed in
14 Figure 1. Mortality was significantly higher in patients with ACLF than in those without,
15 irrespective of their phenotype, AD-1, AD-2, or AD-3 (Gray’s test $p < 0.0001$). Mortality did
16 not significantly differ between the three phenotypes AD-1, AD-2, and AD-3. For definitions
17 of these phenotypes, see Figure 1 legend.

18
19 **Figure 3.** Heat-map showing the median levels of systemic inflammation markers at
20 enrollment of patients with acutely decompensated cirrhosis who were free of ACLF. For the
21 comparison, patients were divided into two groups according to their outcome (i.e.,
22 development of ACLF or not, during 28 days of follow-up). The magnitude of the levels is
23 color-coded and the clustering for each marker with the rest of the markers is shown to the
24 left of the heat-map.

25
26 **Figure 4.** Heat-map showing the median levels of systemic inflammation markers at
27 enrollment of patients with acutely decompensated cirrhosis who were free of ACLF. For the
28 comparison, patients were divided into two groups according to their outcome (i.e.,
29 occurrence of death or not during 90 days of follow-up). The magnitude of the levels is color-
30 coded and the clustering for each marker with the rest of the markers is shown to the left of
31 the heat-map.

Figure 1.TIFF

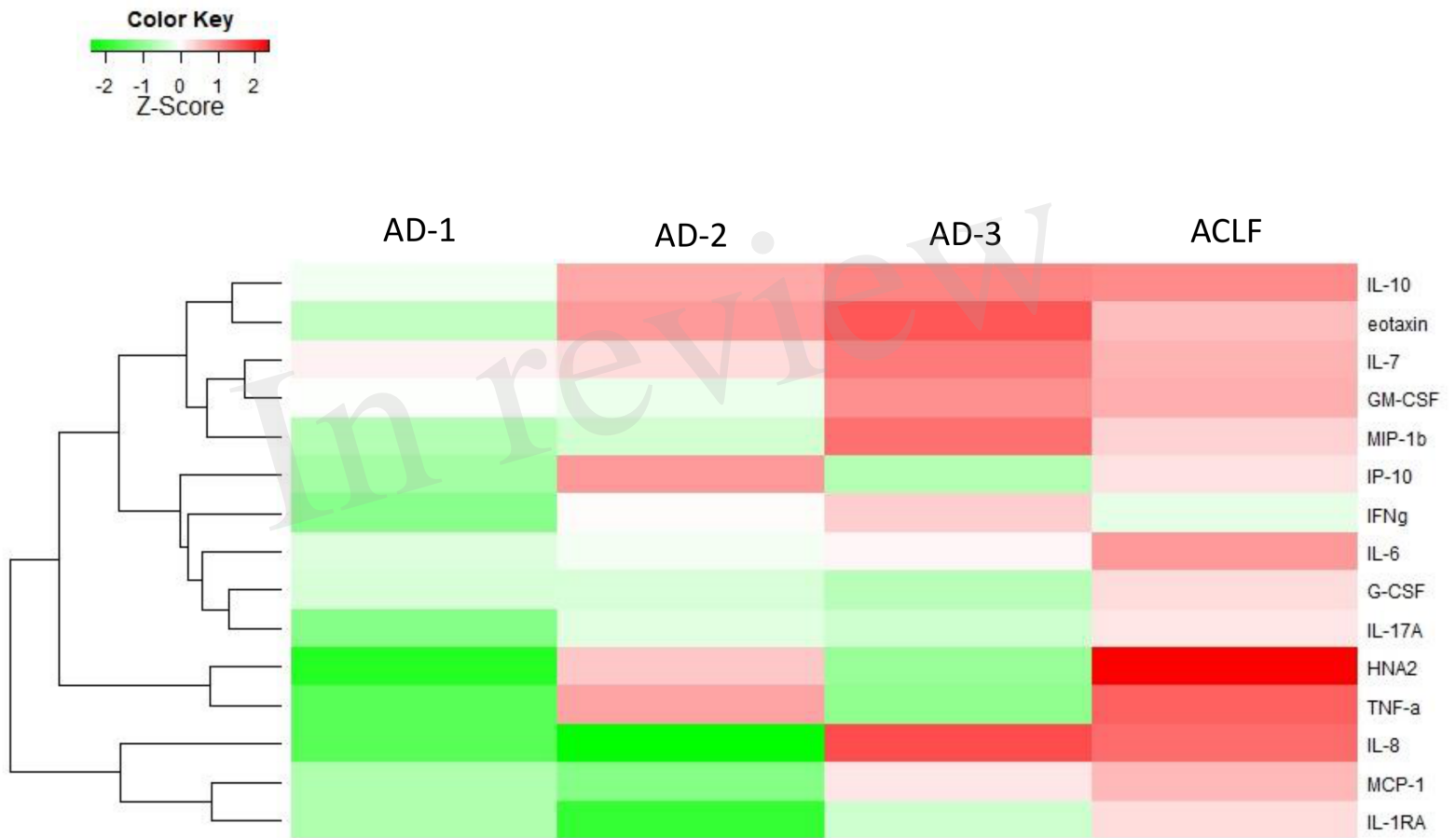


Figure 2.TIFF

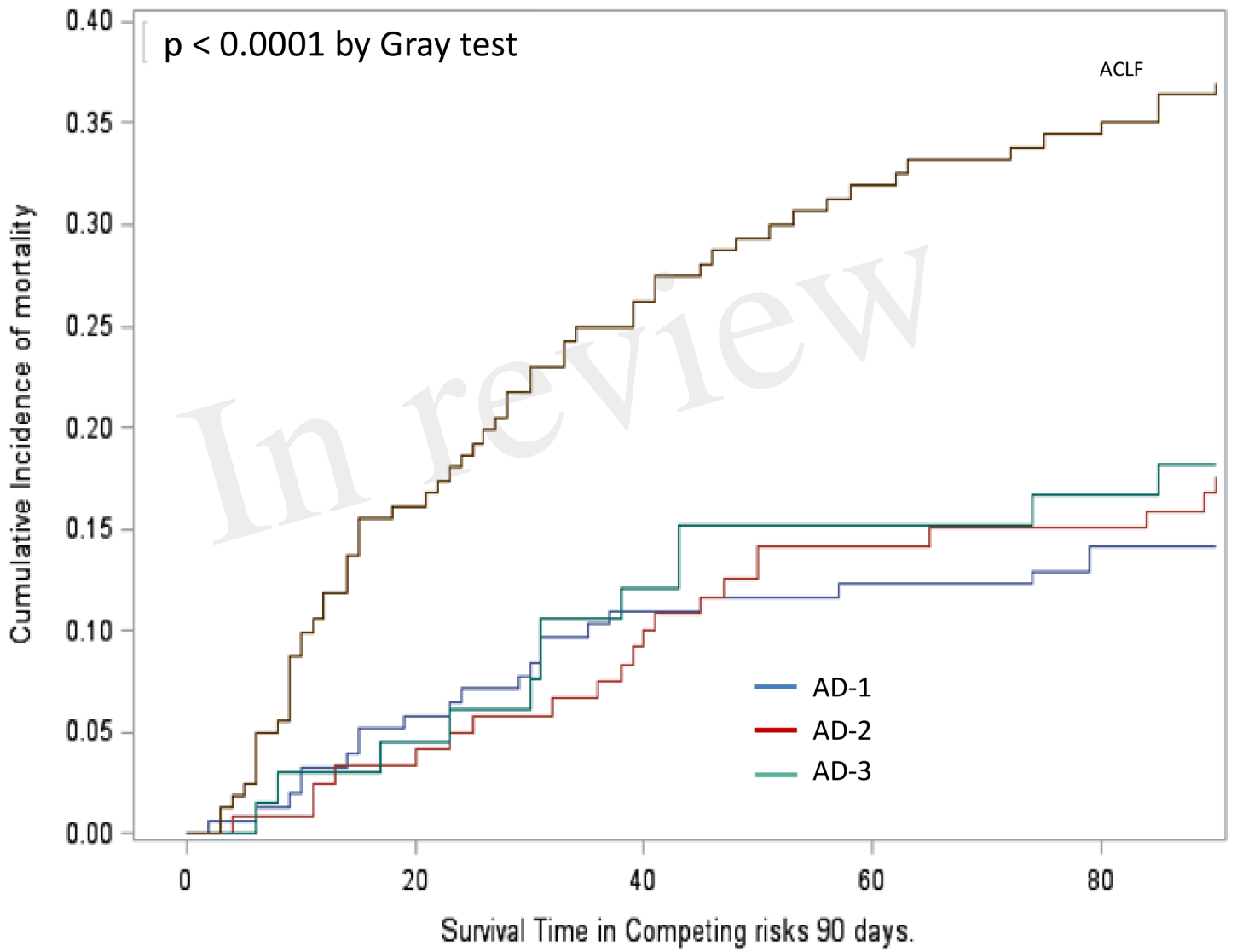


Figure 3.TIFF

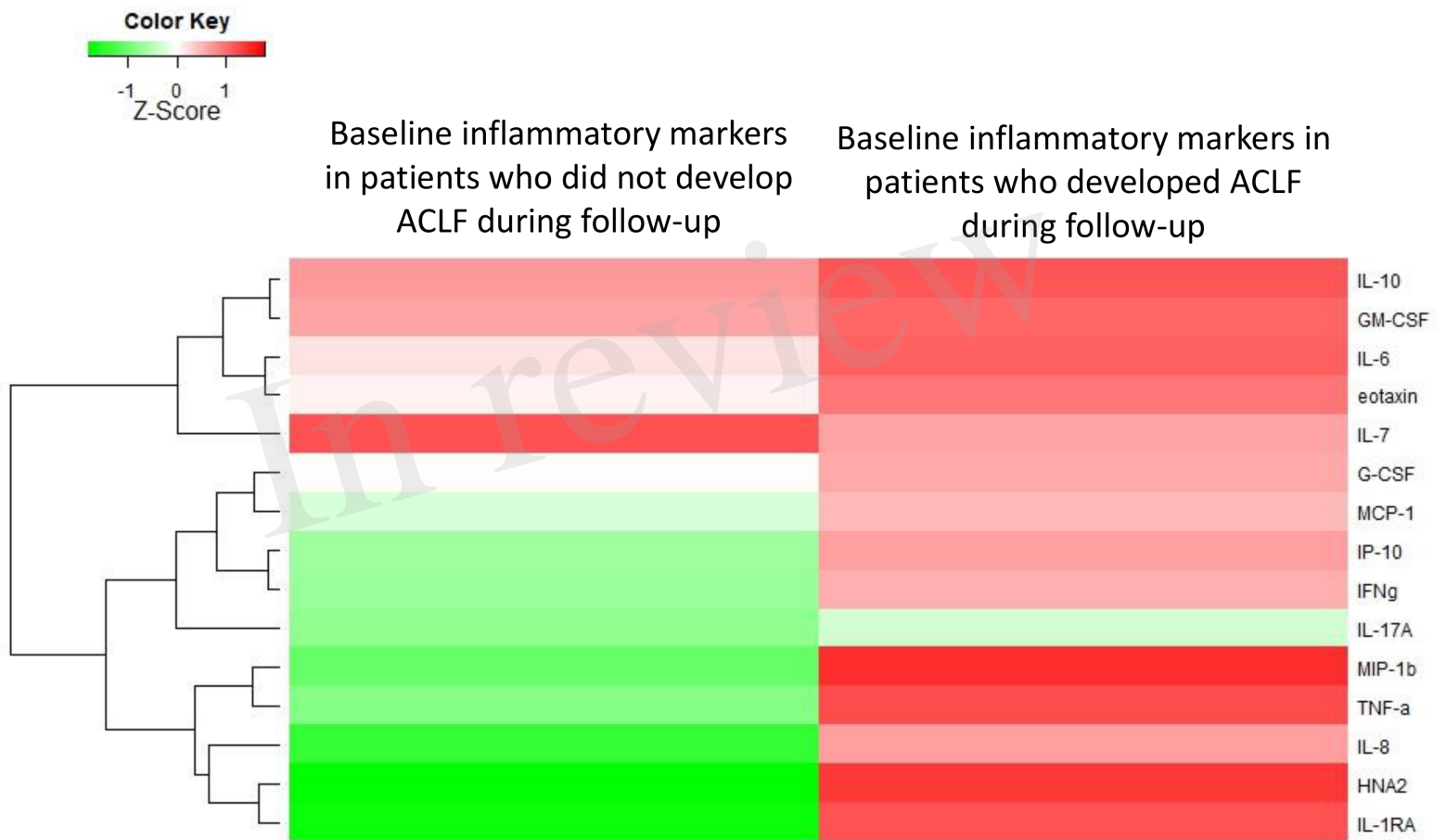


Figure 4.TIFF

