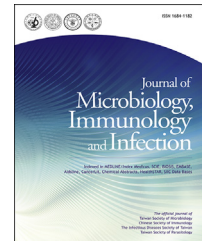




Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

ScienceDirect

journal homepage: www.e-jmii.com



ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Clinical outcomes of septic patients with diabetic ketoacidosis between 2004 and 2013 in a tertiary hospital in Taiwan



Yu-Chen Cheng^a, Chung-Hao Huang^a, Wei-Ru Lin^a,
Po-Liang Lu^{a,b,c,d}, Ko Chang^e, Jih-Jin Tsai^{a,c}, Kebba S. Bojang^f,
Chun-Yu Lin^{a,b,c,*}, Yen-Hsu Chen^{a,b,c}

^a Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, Kaohsiung Medical University Hospital, Kaohsiung Medical University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan

^b Graduate Institute of Medicine, College of Medicine, Kaohsiung Medical University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan

^c School of Medicine, College of Medicine, Kaohsiung Medical University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan

^d Division of Clinical Microbiology, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Kaohsiung Medical University Hospital, Kaohsiung Medical University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan

^e Department of Internal Medicine, Kaohsiung Municipal Hsiao-Kang Hospital, Kaohsiung, Taiwan

^f Department of Emergency Medicine, Royal Victoria Teaching Hospital, Banjul, Gambia

Received 11 June 2014; received in revised form 17 August 2014; accepted 26 August 2014

Available online 4 November 2014

KEYWORDS

Acute kidney injury;
Diabetic ketoacidosis;
End-stage kidney
disease (RIFLE)
classification;
Failure;
Injury;
Loss;
Risk;
Sepsis

Background: Infection is the most common predisposing factor for diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA); however, studies are rare that have investigated the clinical outcomes of septic patients with infection-precipitated DKA.

Methods: A retrospective cohort study was conducted at a tertiary hospital from 2004 to 2013. Patients with DKA in whom the presence of a predisposing infection was confirmed were enrolled. Characteristics at initial presentation, primary infection sources, and causative microorganisms were compared between the nonacute kidney injury (non-AKI) group and acute kidney injury (AKI) group at each stage. Risk factors for the development of failure-stage AKI and its outcomes were also analyzed.

Results: One hundred and sixty DKA episodes were assessed. The most common infection sites were the urinary and respiratory tracts. The leading causative microorganism was *Escherichia coli*, followed by *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. A complicated/severe infection state [odds ratio (OR), 15.27; $p < 0.001$] and a high level of C-reactive protein (OR, 1.012; $p < 0.001$) were independently associated with bacteremia. Corrected sodium (Na; OR, 1.062; $p = 0.039$), initial

* Corresponding author. Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, Kaohsiung Medical University Hospital, Kaohsiung Medical University, Number 100, Tzyou First Road, Kaohsiung City, Taiwan.

E-mail address: infectionman@gmail.com (C.-Y. Lin).

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jmii.2014.08.018>

1684-1182/Copyright © 2014, Taiwan Society of Microbiology. Published by Elsevier Taiwan LLC. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

plasma glucose (OR, 1.003; $p = 0.041$), severe grade of DKA (OR, 13.41; $p = 0.045$), and the Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) II score (OR, 1.08; $p = 0.033$) were identified as independent risk factors for the development of failure-stage AKI among septic patients with infection-precipitated DKA. Patients with failure-stage AKI had a higher frequency of incomplete recovery of renal function (20.4% of patients in failure vs. 5.9% of patients in risk and injury, $p = 0.009$). Bacteremia independently predicted the absence of complete recovery of renal function (OR, 5.86; $p = 0.038$).

Conclusion: For patients with infection-precipitated DKA, the clinician should aggressively monitor renal function if a patient presents with risk factors associated with failure-stage AKI. Furthermore, bacteremia predicts a poor renal prognosis.

Copyright © 2014, Taiwan Society of Microbiology. Published by Elsevier Taiwan LLC. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

Introduction

Infection is the most common predisposing factor for the development of hyperglycemic crises, diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) and hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state; it has an estimated range of 32–60%.¹ Among the predisposing factors for hyperglycemic crises, infection is the most common cause of death. However, previous studies are lacking that address in detail the infection source and microbiological characteristics of septic patients with infection-precipitated DKA. Potential complications of diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) include electrolyte imbalance, dehydration, cerebral and peripheral venous thrombosis, rhabdomyolysis, and acute renal failure.² Diabetic ketoacidosis can result in severe fluid depletion that is accompanied by marked metabolic disturbance, although a low incidence of acute renal failure in patients with DKA was reported in a previous study.³ However, acute kidney injury (AKI) is an independent risk factor for mortality in critically ill patients.^{4–7} Furthermore, a more severe stage of AKI—as classified by Risk, Injury, Failure, Loss, End-stage Kidney Disease (RIFLE) criteria or by the Acute Kidney Injury Network (AKIN) criteria—is associated with increased hospital mortality.^{4,6,8}

To further our understanding of the relationship between the infection site or the causative microorganism in septic patients with DKA and renal involvement, especially with regard to the severity stage of AKI in which renal replacement therapy may be necessary or a higher mortality is expected, we conducted a retrospective cohort study to investigate the risk factors and clinical outcomes of patients with infection-precipitated DKA that develops into failure-stage AKI.

Materials and methods

Study design and setting

This retrospective cohort study was conducted at a tertiary hospital in southern Taiwan—Kaohsiung Medical University Hospital (Kaohsiung, Taiwan)—in which medical records were reviewed of patients who developed DKA from January 2004 to December 2013. The protocol for this study was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review

Board of Kaohsiung Medical University Hospital (approval number KMH-IRB-980057). Diabetic ketoacidosis was diagnosed in accordance with the diagnostic criteria of the American Diabetes Association: hyperglycemia (i.e., plasma glucose > 250 mg/dL) and high anion gap metabolic acidosis (i.e., arterial pH < 7.30 , serum bicarbonate < 18 mEq/L, and an anion gap > 10) with positive serum or urine ketones.¹ In the event that a patient developed multiple DKA episodes during the study period, each episode was evaluated. Patients under the age of 18 years were excluded. Precipitating factors of DKA were extracted. Two infectious disease specialists confirmed the infection state and the primary infection source with the recovered causative microorganism, based on specific symptoms and signs, imaging study results, and microbiologic results from the appropriate specimen. In the event of a disagreement, a third specialist participated in the adjudication. To further identify a complicated or severe infection state, we defined complicated urinary tract infection in accordance with the guidelines of the Association of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases Canada.⁹ We also defined pneumonia with parapneumonic effusion or empyema, severe skin and soft tissue infection with systemic inflammatory response syndrome or deeper infection, and complicated intra-abdominal infection, based on the clinical practice guidelines of the Infectious Diseases Society of America.^{10–13} Patients who were confirmed as having infection-precipitated DKA were enrolled and then evaluated for whether AKI developed in the first 48 hours after admission. Patients in the AKI group were further divided into three stages (i.e., “risk”, “injury”, and “failure”) on the basis of the RIFLE classification. Demographic characteristics and physiologic and laboratory data at the initial presentation were compared between the non-AKI and AKI groups at each stage. For investigation of the risk factors associated with the development of severe AKI, for which renal replacement therapy may be necessary or which may have a higher than expected mortality, we compared AKI in the failure stage and other infection-precipitated DKA episodes (non-AKI group and AKI in the risk and injury stages). Also investigated were the clinical outcomes of patients in failure-stage AKI, which included the length of hospital stay, recovery of renal function at discharge, and hospital mortality.

Definition and classification of AKI and renal outcome

The RIFLE criteria were designed by the Acute Dialysis Quality Initiative (ADQI) Working Group to obtain a general definition of AKI.¹⁴ The definition and classification of AKI were determined by the worst serum creatinine (SCr) level in the first 48 hours after admission. Patients were determined to have developed AKI when they had a decrease in the glomerular filtration rate (GFR) of $\geq 25\%$ or an increase in the SCr level of $\geq 50\%$ (1.5 times) from the baseline. The baseline renal function was based on the lowest known SCr level during the preceding 3 months.

Patients who had AKI were divided into three stages ("risk", "injury", and "failure"), based on the RIFLE classification. A patient who had a decrease in the GFR of $\geq 25\%$ or an increase in the SCr level of $\geq 50\%$ (1.5 times) from the baseline level was classified as being in the risk stage. A patient who had a decrease in the GFR of $\geq 50\%$ or an increase in the SCr level of $\geq 100\%$ (2 times) from baseline level was classified as being in the injury stage. A patient in the failure stage had a decrease in the GFR of $\geq 75\%$, an increase in the SCr level of $\geq 200\%$ (3 times) from the baseline, or an absolute SCr level of ≥ 4.0 mg/dL or with an acute increase of ≥ 0.5 mg/dL.

For patients who developed AKI, the renal outcome at hospital discharge was defined as follows (as previously applied): "complete recovery" if the discharge SCr level was within 120% of the baseline level, "partial recovery" if the discharge SCr level was 121–150% of the baseline level, or "nonrecovery" if the discharge SCr level was $> 150\%$ of the baseline level or if the patient was still receiving renal replacement therapy.¹⁵

Data extraction

Demographic information and baseline laboratory data were extracted and included age, sex, body mass index (BMI), type of diabetes, hypertension, glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) level, baseline SCr level, and uric acid level. Physiologic and laboratory data at the initial presentation were recorded and included body temperature, pulse rate, respiratory rate, mean arterial pressure, white blood cell count, the levels of C-reactive protein, lactate, blood urea nitrogen (BUN), SCr, serum sodium, potassium, chloride, bicarbonate, pH value, and initial plasma glucose level. Detected serum sodium and initial plasma glucose were used to calculate the corrected sodium level:

$$\text{corrected sodium} = \text{detected sodium} + (\text{plasma glucose} - 100) \times 0.024$$

and to calculate the effective blood osmolarity:

$$\text{calculated blood osmolarity} = (\text{detected sodium} \times 2) + (\text{plasma glucose} \div 18).$$

The anion gap was calculated by the following formula:

$$\text{anion gap} = \text{detected serum sodium} - (\text{serum chloride} + \text{serum bicarbonate}).$$

Severity of illness was further evaluated by the Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) II score, DKA severity, shock with vasopressor use, complicated or severe infection state, and bacteremia. The DKA severity (i.e., mild, moderate, severe) was stratified by the pH value and the serum bicarbonate level in accordance with the American Diabetes Association.¹ A mild grade of DKA is defined as an arterial pH value of 7.25–7.30 or serum bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) level of 15–18 mEq/L; the moderate grade is defined as a pH of value 7.00–7.24 or HCO_3^- level of 10–14 mEq/L; and the severe grade is defined as a pH < 7.00 or $\text{HCO}_3^- < 10$ mEq/L. Data on the initial antimicrobial therapy were also extracted. Therapy was considered inappropriate if a patient did not receive within 24 hours from the diagnosis of sepsis at least one antimicrobial agent that was active *in vitro* to the causative microorganism, based on the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines.¹⁶ Primary infection sources and recovered causative microorganisms, as confirmed by the infectious disease specialists, were also recorded.

Statistical analysis

Categorical variables, expressed by proportions, were compared using Pearson's Chi-square test or Fisher's exact test. Continuous variables were expressed as the mean \pm the standard deviation. The means were compared between the two groups using the Student *t* test. An analysis of variance was used for the means of more than three groups. Multivariable logistic regression analysis was used to assess the associated risk factors of developing failure-stage AKI and assess the independent predictors for the poor clinical outcome of AKI. Variables were included in the regression analysis if they demonstrated a statistically significant association with the outcomes of interest in the univariable analyses or if previous studies suggested that the variables were potential confounders or effect modifiers. Data analyses were performed using SPSS software version 19.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). All tests were two-tailed. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

We evaluated 403 DKA episodes that presented to our hospital during the study period. Fifty-two episodes occurred in patients under the age of 18 years; these patients were excluded. One hundred and sixty (39.7%) DKA episodes, which involved 144 patients, were precipitated by infectious diseases and were entered in the study. The leading cause of noninfection-precipitated DKA was noncompliance with treatment. Newly diagnosed diabetes was also a common associated factor. Acute kidney injury developed in 139 (86.9%) episodes of infection-precipitated DKA, which included 27 (19.4%) episodes in the risk stage, 58 (41.7%) episodes in the injury stage, and 54 (38.8%) episodes in the failure stage (Fig. 1).

Baseline demographic characteristics and physiologic and laboratory data at initial presentation are shown in Table 1. Patients who had infection-precipitated DKA had a mean age of 45.1 years, and only 11.9% patients were elderly (i.e., older than 65 years). Furthermore, 73.8% of

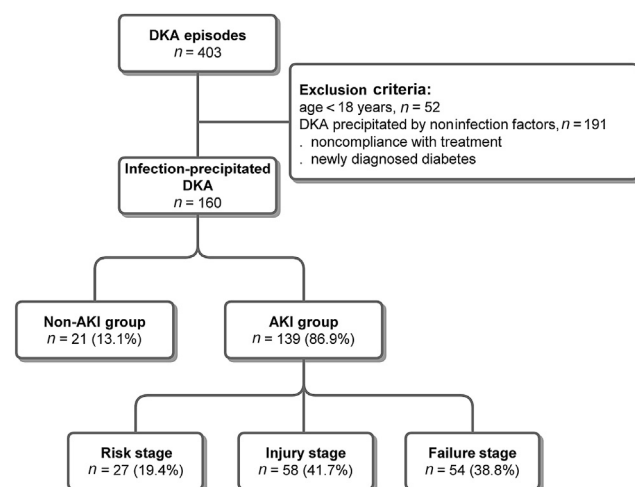


Figure 1. Study design. AKI = acute kidney injury; DKA = diabetic ketoacidosis.

episodes occurred in patients with type 2 diabetes, and a mean HbA1c level of $12.4\% \pm 2.8\%$ was evidence of poor recent glucose control. In the analysis of variance in each stage between the non-AKI (NA) group and AKI group at the initial presentation, patients with failure-stage AKI (F) had a significantly lower BMI [$F < \text{NA}$, $p = 0.042$; $F < \text{risk (R)}$, $p = 0.009$; $F < \text{injury (I)}$, $p = 0.387$], higher corrected sodium ($F > \text{NA}$, $p < 0.001$; $F > \text{R}$, $p = 0.002$; $F > \text{I}$, $p < 0.001$), higher serum potassium ($F > \text{R}$, $p = 0.005$; $F > \text{I}$, $p = 0.007$), higher initial plasma glucose ($F > \text{NA}$, $p < 0.001$; $F > \text{R}$, $p < 0.001$; $F > \text{I}$, $p < 0.001$), and higher calculated blood osmolarity ($F > \text{NA}$, $p < 0.001$; $F > \text{R}$, $p = 0.002$; $F > \text{I}$, $p < 0.001$). In addition, the APACHE II score had a positive relevance with severity of AKI at each stage ($F > \text{I}$, $p = 0.002$; $F > \text{R}$, $p < 0.001$; $I > \text{R}$, $p = 0.01$).

Table 2 and Table 3 show the primary infection sources and recovered causative microorganisms, respectively. The most common primary infection site for infection-precipitated DKA was a urinary tract infection ($n = 42$, 26.2%), followed by a respiratory tract infection ($n = 41$, 25.7%) and skin and soft tissue infection ($n = 22$, 13.8%); an uncertain infection source represented 4.4%. The overall

Table 1 Demographic and clinical characteristics for infection-precipitated diabetic ketoacidosis

Infection-precipitated DKA	Total episodes (n = 160)	Non-AKI (n = 21)	AKI (n = 139)			p
			Risk (n = 27)	Injury (n = 58)	Failure (n = 54)	
Demographic characteristics						
Age (y)	45.1 ± 16.1	47.2 ± 16.4	38.3 ± 13.3	45.2 ± 15.7	47.5 ± 17.3	0.092
Elderly > 65 y	19 (11.9)	4 (19.0)	1 (3.7)	4 (6.9)	10 (18.5)	0.093
Sex, male	73 (45.6)	11 (52.4)	13 (48.1)	30 (51.7)	33 (61.1)	0.658
BMI	22.2 ± 4.6	23.6 ± 3.7	24.0 ± 5.4	21.8 ± 4.8	21.1 ± 3.8	0.03*
Type 2 diabetes	118 (73.8)	17 (81.0)	19 (70.4)	42 (72.4)	40 (74.1)	0.855
Hypertension	20 (12.5)	4 (19.0)	2 (7.4)	7 (12.1)	7 (13.0)	0.686
Baseline laboratory data						
HbA1C (%)	12.4 ± 2.8	11.3 ± 3.4	13.0 ± 2.6	12.5 ± 2.4	12.3 ± 3.0	0.208
Baseline serum Cr (mg/dL)	0.88 ± 1.03	1.77 ± 1.95	0.77 ± 0.24	0.67 ± 0.25	0.81 ± 1.14	< 0.001*
Uric acid (mg/dL)	6.4 ± 3.1	8.6 ± 5.0	6.4 ± 2.0	5.4 ± 2.8	6.8 ± 2.8	0.063
Presenting physiologic and laboratory data						
Body temperature >38.3°C or <36.0°C	45 (28.1)	6 (28.6)	7 (25.9)	14 (24.1)	18 (34.0)	0.704
Pulse rate >90/min	133 (83.1)	18 (85.7)	22 (81.5)	46 (79.3)	47 (88.7)	0.586
Respiratory rate >20/min	82 (51.2)	14 (66.7)	12 (44.4)	27 (46.6)	29 (54.7)	0.353
Mean arterial pressure (mmHg)	95.5 ± 20.4	106.3 ± 17.2	95.6 ± 18.7	94.0 ± 22.8	96.5 ± 20.6	0.947
WBC count (× 10 ³ /μL)	16.7 ± 6.7	14.3 ± 6.6	16.4 ± 6.7	17.2 ± 7.0	17.1 ± 6.5	0.344
C-reactive protein (mg/L)	103.2 ± 128.0	76.7 ± 109.4	74.0 ± 110.0	125.5 ± 143.7	103.6 ± 123.3	0.261
BUN (mg/dL)	33.0 ± 32.0	27.1 ± 26.0	19.3 ± 18.2	25.7 ± 15.2	49.9 ± 43.9	< 0.001*
Serum Cr (mg/dL)	1.96 ± 1.62	1.86 ± 1.82	1.36 ± 0.40	1.61 ± 0.60	2.66 ± 2.32	0.001*
Corrected Na (mmol/L)	142.9 ± 8.8	138.9 ± 7.6	140.9 ± 6.5	141.1 ± 6.1	147.2 ± 11.0	< 0.001*
K (mmol/L)	4.8 ± 1.0	4.7 ± 0.8	4.5 ± 0.8	4.7 ± 0.9	5.2 ± 1.2	0.012*
Cl (mmol/L)	100.0 ± 8.5	98.3 ± 8.8	100.5 ± 7.5	100.2 ± 7.9	100.0 ± 9.6	0.834
Initial plasma glucose (mg/dL)	569.5 ± 227.1	435.2 ± 145.6	509.7 ± 171.8	509.7 ± 167.7	712.9 ± 259.9	< 0.001*
Serum pH	7.127 ± 0.140	7.136 ± 0.122	7.143 ± 0.129	7.143 ± 0.152	7.100 ± 0.137	0.375
Serum bicarbonate (mEq/L)	8.6 ± 4.4	9.4 ± 5.0	9.9 ± 5.0	8.6 ± 4.6	7.5 ± 3.4	0.094
Anion gap	23.2 ± 6.7	23.7 ± 7.9	20.8 ± 6.0	22.7 ± 6.6	25.0 ± 6.5	0.076
Blood osmolarity (mOsm/kg)	300.8 ± 23.8	286.4 ± 15.7	296.9 ± 17.5	295.9 ± 18.2	313.4 ± 28.5	< 0.001*
Lactate (mmol/L)	3.8 ± 4.9	7.8 ± 9.5	2.0 ± 1.3	2.2 ± 1.4	4.2 ± 4.5	0.002*

* $p < 0.05$ among the four subgroups: non-AKI, AKI in risk stage, injury stage, failure stage.

AKI = acute kidney injury; BMI = body-mass index; BUN = blood urea nitrogen; Cl = chlorine; Cr = creatinine; DKA = diabetic ketoacidosis; HbA1c = glycated hemoglobin; K = potassium; Na = sodium; WBC = white blood cell.

Table 2 Primary infection sources in infection-precipitated diabetic ketoacidosis

Primary infection sources	Total episodes <i>n</i> = 160
Urinary tract infection	33 (20.6)
Complicated urinary tract infection	9 (5.6)
Respiratory tract infection	35 (21.9)
Pneumonia with parapneumonic effusion	6 (3.8)
Skin and soft tissue infection	12 (7.5)
Severe SSTI with SIRS	10 (6.3)
Intra-abdominal infection	13 (8.1)
Complicated intra-abdominal infection	8 (5.0)
Bone and joint infection	2 (1.3)
Severe BJI with SIRS	1 (0.6)
Catheter-related bloodstream infection	2 (1.3)
CNS infection	1 (0.6)
Multifocal	11 (6.9)
Uncertained	7 (4.4)

All data are presented as *n* (%).

BJI = bone and joint infection; CNS = central nervous system; DKA = diabetic ketoacidosis; SIRS = systemic inflammatory response syndrome; SSTI = skin and soft tissue infection.

complicated or severe infection states accounted for 21.3% of cases. Ninety-three causative microorganisms were obtained from 29 blood specimens, 26 urine specimens, 18 pus specimens, 13 sputum specimens, and four other specimens. The leading causative microorganism was *Escherichia coli* (*n* = 26, 30.0%), followed by *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (*n* = 25, 26.9%) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (*n* = 14, 15.1%). No significant relationship between either primary infection sources or causative microorganisms and the development

Table 3 Causative microorganism in infection-precipitated diabetic ketoacidosis

Causative microorganisms	Total (<i>n</i> = 93)	
Bacteria	Fungus	
Gram-negative cocci	64 (68.8)	<i>Candida albicans</i> 2 (2.2)
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	26 (30.0)	
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	25 (26.9)	
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	5 (5.4)	
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	4 (4.3)	
<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	1 (1.1)	
<i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	1 (1.1)	
<i>Acinetobacter spp.</i>	1 (1.1)	
<i>Burkholderia pseudomallei</i>	1 (1.1)	
Gram-positive cocci	24 (25.8)	
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	14 (15.1)	
Group B <i>Streptococcus</i>	5 (5.4)	
Coagulase-negative <i>Staphylococcus</i>	3 (3.2)	
<i>Enterococcus spp.</i>	2 (2.2)	
Others		
<i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex</i>	3 (3.2)	

All data are presented as *n* (%).

of failure-stage AKI or mortality was noted in this study. However, a complicated or severe infection state (adjusted OR, 15.27; *p* < 0.001) and a higher C-reactive protein level (adjusted OR, 1.012; *p* < 0.001) were independently associated with bacteremia.

At initial presentation, patients with infection-precipitated DKA who developed failure-stage AKI—compared to the non-AKI group and patients with AKI at the risk and injury stages—had a significantly higher corrected sodium (Na) level (147.2 ± 11 mmol/L vs. 140.6 ± 6.5 mmol/L; *p* < 0.001), higher initial plasma glucose level (712.9 ± 259.9 mg/dL vs. 495.1 ± 165.8 mg/dL, *p* < 0.001), greater severity of DKA (*p* = 0.003), and higher APACHE II score (21.3 ± 7.2 vs. 16.7 ± 5.3, *p* < 0.001) (Table 4). In multivariable analysis, corrected Na level (adjusted OR, 1.062; *p* = 0.039), initial plasma glucose level (adjusted OR, 1.003; *p* = 0.041), severe grade of DKA (adjusted OR, 13.41; *p* = 0.045), and APACHE II score (adjusted OR, 1.08; *p* = 0.033) were independent risk factors for developing failure-stage AKI among the septic patients with DKA.

Clinical outcomes

Nine patients died in hospital, thereby contributing to a hospital mortality rate of 5.6% in septic patients with DKA (Table 5). No significant difference was evident in hospital mortality between the non-AKI group and AKI group at each stage. In addition, no significant difference was observed in the length of hospital stay and hospital mortality in septic patients with infection-precipitated DKA who developed failure-stage AKI (Table 6). For renal outcome at discharge, 123 (88.5%) of 139 AKI episodes showed complete recovery of renal function, 6 (4.3%) episodes showed partial renal recovery, whereas 10 (8.1%) episodes did not show recovery of renal function (Table 5). Patients who developed failure-stage AKI had incomplete recovery of renal function at discharge more frequently than patients with AKI who were in the risk or injury stages (20.4% vs. 5.9%, respectively; *p* = 0.009; Table 6). Bacteremia (adjusted OR, 5.86; 95% CI, 1.10–31.1; multivariable *p* = 0.038) was identified as an independent predictor for incomplete recovery of renal function at discharge, after adjusting for the covariates of lactate (*p* = 0.026), shock with vasopressor use (*p* < 0.001), failure-stage AKI (*p* = 0.009), bacteremia (*p* = 0.031), and for the suspected confounder of an age older than 65 years (Table 7).

Discussion

Diabetic ketoacidosis can result in severe fluid depletion, accompanied by marked metabolic disturbance; it is surprisingly rare for it to be complicated by acute renal failure.³ To our knowledge, only a few case reports have demonstrated complicated DKA with rhabdomyolysis or thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura contributing to acute renal failure.^{2,17,18} The present study was conducted retrospectively to increase our comprehension of the relationship between DKA (specifically DKA that is precipitated by an infectious disease) and AKI. The pathophysiology of DKA illustrates that stress, infection, or insufficient insulin

Table 4 Multivariate analysis of factors associated with the development of failure-stage acute kidney injury in infection-precipitated diabetic ketoacidosis

	Non-AKI, risk, injury, (n = 106)	AKI in failure stage, (n = 54)	Univariate p value	Adjusted odds ratio	95% CI	Multivariate p value
Corrected Na (mmol/L)	140.6 ± 6.5	147.2 ± 11.0	< 0.001	1.062	1.003–1.124	0.039*
Initial plasma glucose (mg/dL)	495.1 ± 165.8	712.9 ± 259.9	< 0.001	1.003	1.000–1.005	0.041*
DKA severity			0.003			
Mild grade	13 (12.3)	1 (1.9)		1 (reference)		
Moderate grade	35 (33.0)	9 (16.7)		4.91	0.37–65.78	0.23
Severe grade	54 (54.7)	44 (81.5)		13.41	1.07–168.83	0.045*
APACHE II score	16.7 ± 5.3	21.3 ± 7.2	< 0.001	1.08	1.006–1.160	0.033*

*Multivariate $p < 0.05$.The data are presented as n (%) or as the mean + the standard deviation.AKI = acute kidney injury; APACHE = Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation; CI = confidence interval; DKA = diabetic ketoacidosis; HCO_3^- = bicarbonate; Na = sodium.

therapy reduces effective insulin and increases the concentrations of counter-regulatory hormones (e.g., catecholamines, cortisol, glucagon, and growth hormone), which further contributes to hyperglycemia and ketoacidosis.¹ Hyperglycemia will facilitate osmotic diuresis, loss of water and electrolytes, dehydration, and impaired renal function. Furthermore, increasing evidence indicates that hyperglycemic crises are associated with a severe inflammatory state that is characterized by an elevated level of proinflammatory cytokines (e.g., tumor necrosis factor- α ,

interleukin- β , -6, and -8) even in the absence of obvious infection.¹⁹ All of these parameters return to near-normal values with insulin therapy and hydration within 24 hours. In addition, patients with DKA presented with an elevated body temperature, tachycardia, tachypnea, or leukocytosis for which a predisposing infection state was documented. This indicated that these patients met the criteria of sepsis.

In the pathogenesis of septic AKI, inflammation and acute tubular apoptosis have been implicated in septic patients with hyperdynamic circulation.^{20,21} In this study,

Table 5 Severity of illness and clinical outcomes for infection-precipitated diabetic ketoacidosis

Infection-precipitated DKA	Total episodes (n = 160)	Non-AKI (n = 21)	AKI (n = 139)			p
			Risk (n = 27)	Injury (n = 58)	Failure (n = 54)	
Severity of illness						
DKA severity						
Mild grade	14 (8.8)	2 (9.5)	5 (18.5)	6 (10.3)	1 (1.9)	0.02*
Moderate grade	44 (27.5)	9 (42.9)	7 (25.9)	19 (32.8)	9 (16.7)	
Severe grade	102 (63.7)	10 (47.6)	15 (55.6)	33 (56.9)	44 (81.5)	
APACHE II score	18.2 ± 6.4	18.3 ± 4.9	13.8 ± 5.7	17.4 ± 4.8	21.3 ± 7.2	< 0.001*
Shock with vasopressor use	17 (10.6)	5 (26.3)	0	3 (5.7)	9 (18)	0.014*
Complicated or severe infection state	46 (28.7)	4 (19.0)	9 (33.3)	16 (27.6)	17 (31.5)	0.688
Bacteremia	29 (18.1)	4 (19.0)	4 (14.8)	12 (20.7)	9 (16.7)	0.909
Inappropriate initial antimicrobial therapy	37 (23.1)	3 (15.0)	6 (24.0)	14 (24.6)	14 (26.9)	0.767
Clinical outcomes						
Length of hospital stay (d)	13.5 ± 12.6	12.2 ± 9.4	13.2 ± 11.1	11.1 ± 6.9	16.6 ± 17.7	0.134
Recovery of renal function at discharge						0.073
Complete recovery	123 (88.5) ^a	—	26 (96.3)	54 (93.1)	43 (79.6)	0.055
Partial recovery	6 (4.3) ^b	—	1 (3.7)	2 (3.4)	3 (5.6)	
Non-recovery	10 (8.1) ^c	—	0	2 (3.4)	8 (14.8)	
Hospital mortality	9 (5.6)	3 (14.3)	0	1 (1.7)	5 (9.3)	

^a 123 of 139 episodes of AKI had complete recovery of renal function.^b 6 of 139 episodes of AKI had partial recovery of renal function.^c 10 of 139 episodes of AKI had non-recovery of renal function.* $p < 0.05$ among the four subgroups: non-AKI, AKI in risk stage, injury stage, failure stage.The data are presented as n (%) or as the mean ± the standard deviation.

AKI = acute kidney injury; APACHE = Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation; DKA = diabetic ketoacidosis.

Table 6 Clinical outcomes of failure-stage acute kidney injury in infection-precipitated diabetic ketoacidosis

Clinical outcomes	Non-AKI, risk, injury, (n = 106)	AKI in failure stage, (n = 54)	p
Length of hospital stay (d)	11.9 ± 8.6	16.6 ± 17.7	0.068
Incomplete recovery of renal function at discharge	5 (5.9) ^a	11 (20.4)	0.009*
Hospital mortality	4 (3.8)	5 (9.3)	0.167

^a 5 of 85 episodes with AKI in risk and injury stages had incomplete recovery of renal function at discharge.

*p < 0.05. The data are presented as n (%) or as the mean ± the standard deviation.

AKI = acute kidney injury.

however, patients with infection-precipitated DKA who developed AKI seemed to have a lower mean age (44.7 ± 16.1 years), a higher incidence of AKI (86.9%) on the basis of the RIFLE criteria, but lower hospital mortality (4.3%), compared to previous studies of AKI in critically ill patients such as patients with severe sepsis and septic shock. In two separate studies, patients in the intensive care unit (ICU) who developed AKI had a mean age of 62.5 years⁷ and 68.5 years,⁸ an AKI incidence of 67%⁷ and 10.8%⁸, and ICU mortality rate of 17.1%⁷ and 36.3%⁸. For severe sepsis-associated AKI or septic shock-associated AKI, based on the RIFLE criteria, recent retrospective studies report that patients in the septic AKI group had a mean age of 64.9–68 years, an AKI incidence of 57.7–64.4%, and a hospital mortality rate of 16.4–59.5%.^{20,22,23} The observation that younger patients developed AKI in our study may be because most (56%) patients in this specific population of DKA were 18–44 years and 24% of patients were 45–65 years.¹ In adult patients with DKA, a mortality rate of up to 22% for patients older than 65 years and 2% for younger patients has been reported.²⁴ Death in these conditions is rarely the result of the metabolic complications of hyperglycemia or ketoacidosis, but is associated with the underlying precipitating illness.

A systemic review and meta-analyses of 31 observational studies, which enrolled more than 500,000 patients, demonstrated a significantly increased risk of AKI in critically ill patients with an older age, diabetes, probable hypertension, high baseline creatinine, heart failure, sepsis/systemic inflammatory response syndrome, use of nephrotoxic drugs, high severity of disease scores, use of vasopressors/inotropes, or high risk or emergency surgery.²⁵

For patients with infection-precipitated DKA in this current study, a high corrected Na level (adjusted OR,

1.062; p = 0.039), a high initial plasma glucose level (adjusted OR, 1.003; p = 0.041), severe grade of DKA (adjusted OR, 13.41; p = 0.045), and high APACHE II score (adjusted OR, 1.08; p = 0.033) were independent risk factors for the development of failure-stage AKI, but it was not associated with a complicated or severe infection state, shock with vasopressor use, bacteremia, or inappropriate initial antimicrobial therapy. The mechanisms of DKA-associated AKI are most likely associated with the osmotic effect of hyperglycemia, hypovolemia, and metabolic complications of ketoacidosis.^{3,26} The findings of our study indicate that the development of failure-stage AKI in infection-precipitated DKA may be similar to these mechanisms.

Acute kidney injury is an independent risk factor for mortality and significantly prolongs the hospital stay of critically ill patients, which multiple studies have confirmed.^{5,7,15} Furthermore, there was almost a linear increase in the odds ratio for hospital mortality from AKI in the risk to failure stage.^{6–8,15} However, our study demonstrated that failure-stage AKI in infection-precipitated DKA was not associated with a longer length of hospital stay and higher hospital mortality, whereas it was associated with a higher frequency of incomplete recovery of renal function at discharge. Adjusting for covariates, bacteremia was identified as an independent predictor of incomplete recovery of renal function at discharge. Piccinni et al¹⁵ report that septic patients have more severe AKI and are more likely to receive renal replacement therapy with less frequency of renal function recovery in all incident admissions in 10 ICUs in Italy. Furthermore, a high serum lactate level tended to be associated with poor renal outcome. Increased serum lactate concentrations imply inadequate tissue oxygenation and organ dysfunction, which respond to

Table 7 Independent risk factor for incomplete recovery of renal function at discharge in patients with infection-precipitated diabetic ketoacidosis who developed acute kidney injury

Renal outcome	Complete recovery (n = 123)	Incomplete recovery (n = 16)	Univariate p value	Adjusted odds ratio	95% CI	Multivariate p value
Elderly > 65 y	11 (8.9)	4 (25)	0.073	0.477	0.04–6.34	0.575
Lactate (mmol/L)	2.4 ± 1.8	6.6 ± 6.3	0.026*	1.26	0.99–1.60	0.056
Shock with vasopressor use	6 (5.4)	6 (46.2)	< 0.001*	3.35	0.39–28.67	0.269
AKI in failure stage	43 (35.0)	11 (68.8)	0.009*	3.06	0.60–15.71	0.18
Bacteremia	19 (15.4)	6 (37.5)	0.031*	5.86	1.10–31.1	0.038**

*Univariate p < 0.05.

**Multivariate p < 0.05.

The data are presented as n (%) or as the mean ± standard deviation.

AKI = acute kidney injury; CI = confidence interval.

glycolysis promoted by stress.²⁷ In a recent health technology assessment on the use of lactate levels in critically ill patients, the serum lactate concentration had a place in risk-stratification in the emergency department and in the ICU.²⁸ In addition, recent literature has demonstrated good results for using the serum lactate level as a prognostic measure and for therapeutic decisions and clinical classification in sepsis.²⁹

There are limitations to our study. First, the retrospective nature of this study hindered the completeness of data acquisition (e.g., no data were available on urine output, which is a determinant in the RIFLE classification). Second, the data were collected from a single hospital; therefore, the incidence, severity, and outcomes of diseases may be biased for a relatively small specific cohort. Third, the duration of follow-up of renal outcome was short and there was a diverse end point at discharge.

In conclusion, the present study provided the demographic characteristics of infection-precipitated DKA and risk factors for the development of failure-stage AKI (based on the RIFLE classification), and its relevant clinical outcomes, which seem to differ in patients with severe sepsis-associated AKI or septic shock-associated AKI. For patients with infection-precipitated DKA, the treating clinician should be alert and aggressively monitor renal function if a patient presents with risk factors associated with the development of failure-stage AKI. When it occurs, bacteremia predicts a poor renal prognosis.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest relevant to the manuscript that is being submitted to the Journal of Microbiology, Immunology and Infection.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported in part by a grant (number KMH98-8G14) from the Kaohsiung Medical University Hospital.

References

1. Kitabchi AE, Umpierrez GE, Miles JM, Fisher JN. Hyperglycemic crises in adult patients with diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2009;32:1335–43.
2. Al-Matrafi J, Vethamuthu J, Feber J. Severe acute renal failure in a patient with diabetic ketoacidosis. *Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl* 2009;20:831–4.
3. Woodrow G, Brownjohn AM, Turney JH. Acute renal failure in patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus. *Postgrad Med J* 1994;70:192–4.
4. Joannidis M, Metnitz B, Bauer P, Schusterschitz N, Moreno R, Druml W, et al. Acute kidney injury in critically ill patients classified by AKIN versus RIFLE using the SAPS 3 database. *Intensive Care Med* 2009;35:1692–702.
5. Barrantes F, Tian J, Vazquez R, Amoateng-Adjepong Y, Manthous CA. Acute kidney injury criteria predict outcomes of critically ill patients. *Crit Care Med* 2008;36:1397–403.
6. Uchino S, Bellomo R, Goldsmith D, Bates S, Ronco C. An assessment of the RIFLE criteria for acute renal failure in hospitalized patients. *Crit Care Med* 2006;34:1913–7.
7. Hoste EA, Clermont G, Kersten A, Venkataraman R, Angus DC, De Bacquer D, et al. RIFLE criteria for acute kidney injury are associated with hospital mortality in critically ill patients: a cohort analysis. *Critical Care* 2006;10:R73.
8. Cruz DN, Bolgan I, Perazella MA, Bonello M, de Cal M, Corradi V, et al. North East Italian Prospective Hospital Renal Outcome Survey on Acute Kidney Injury (NEiPHROS-AKI): targeting the problem with the RIFLE criteria. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 2007;2:418–25.
9. Nicolle LE, AMMI Canada Guidelines Committee. Complicated urinary tract infection in adults. *Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol* 2005;16:349–60.
10. Mandell LA, Wunderink RG, Anzueto A, Bartlett JG, Campbell GD, Dean NC, et al. Infectious Diseases Society of America/American Thoracic Society consensus guidelines on the management of community-acquired pneumonia in adults. *Clin Infect Dis* 2007;44:S27–72.
11. Stevens DL, Bisno AL, Chambers HF, Dellinger EP, Goldstein EJ, Gorbach SL, et al. Practice guidelines for the diagnosis and management of skin and soft tissue infections: 2014 update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis* 2014;59:e10.
12. Lipsky BA, Berendt AR, Cornia PB, Pile JC, Peters EJ, Armstrong DG, et al. 2012 Infectious Diseases Society of America clinical practice guideline for the diagnosis and treatment of diabetic foot infections. *Clin Infect Dis* 2012;54:132–73.
13. Solomkin JS, Mazuski JE, Bradley JS, Rodvold KA, Goldstein EJ, Baron EJ, et al. Diagnosis and management of complicated intra-abdominal infection in adults and children: guidelines by the Surgical Infection Society and the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis* 2010;50:133–64.
14. Bellomo R, Ronco C, Kellum JA, Mehta RL, Palevsky P. Acute renal failure—definition, outcome measures, animal models, fluid therapy and information technology needs: the Second International Consensus Conference of the Acute Dialysis Quality Initiative (ADQI) Group. *Critical Care* 2004;8:R204–12.
15. Piccini P, Cruz DN, Gramaticopolo S, Garzotto F, Dal Santo M, Aneloni G, et al. Prospective multicenter study on epidemiology of acute kidney injury in the ICU: a critical care nephrology Italian collaborative effort (NEFROINT). *Minerva Anestesiol* 2011;77:1072–83.
16. Harbarth S, Garbino J, Pugin J, Romand JA, Lew D, Pittet D. Inappropriate initial antimicrobial therapy and its effect on survival in a clinical trial of immunomodulating therapy for severe sepsis. *Am J Med* 2003;115:529–35.
17. Khan MR, Maheshwari PK, Haque A. Thrombotic microangiopathic syndrome: a novel complication of diabetic ketoacidosis. *Indian Pediatr* 2013;50:697–9.
18. Dandona P, Beckett AG. Diabetic ketoacidosis associated with thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura. *Diabetes Res* 1986;3:433–5.
19. Stentz FB, Umpierrez GE, Cuervo R, Kitabchi AE. Proinflammatory cytokines, markers of cardiovascular risks, oxidative stress, and lipid peroxidation in patients with hyperglycemic crises. *Diabetes* 2004;53:2079–86.
20. Platakis M, Kashani K, Cabello-Garza J, Maldonado F, Kashyap R, Kor DJ, et al. Predictors of acute kidney injury in septic shock patients: an observational cohort study. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 2011;6:1744–51.
21. Wan L, Bagshaw SM, Langenberg C, Saotome T, May C, Bellomo R. Pathophysiology of septic acute kidney injury: what do we really know? *Crit Care Med* 2008;36:S198–203.

22. Suh SH, Kim CS, Choi JS, Bae EH, Ma SK, Kim SW. Acute kidney injury in patients with sepsis and septic shock: risk factors and clinical outcomes. *Yonsei Med* 2013;**54**:965–72.
23. Bagshaw SM, Lapinsky S, Dial S, Arabi Y, Dodek P, Wood G, et al. Acute kidney injury in septic shock: clinical outcomes and impact of duration of hypotension before initiation of antimicrobial therapy. *Intensive Care Med* 2009;**35**:871–81.
24. Malone ML, Gennis V, Goodwin JS. Characteristics of diabetic ketoacidosis in older versus younger adults. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 1992;**40**:1100–4.
25. Cartin-Ceba R, Kashiouris M, Plataki M, Kor DJ, Gajic O, Casey ET. Risk factors for development of acute kidney injury in critically ill patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *Crit Care Res Pract* 2012;**2012**:691013.
26. Murdoch IA, Pryor D, Haycock GB, Cameron SJ. Acute renal failure complicating diabetic ketoacidosis. *Acta Paediatr* 1993;**82**:498–500.
27. Bakker J, Nijsten MW, Jansen TC. Clinical use of lactate monitoring in critically ill patients. *Ann Intensive Care* 2013;**3**:12.
28. Jansen TC, van Bommel J, Bakker J. Blood lactate monitoring in critically ill patients: a systematic health technology assessment. *Critical Care Med* 2009;**37**:2827–39.
29. Ranzani OT, Monteiro MB, Ferreira EM, Santos SR, Machado FR, Noritomi DT. Reclassifying the spectrum of septic patients using lactate: severe sepsis, cryptic shock, vasoplegic shock and dysoxic shock. *Rev Bras Ter Intensiva* 2013;**25**:270–8.