

Elevated Serum Midkine Levels in Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) Infected Patients

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Research Article

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Abstract

The coronavirus disease-2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has caused important health, economic, social, and cultural problems worldwide. Recent findings demonstrate an excessive cytokine release during the disease development, especially in the seriously life-threatening form of COVID-19. Among other chemokines and cytokines that are released in high amounts at the infection site of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), midkine (MK), which is an important pro-inflammatory growth factor/ cytokine, can be also overexpressed and contribute to the pathophysiological process in patients infected with SARS-CoV-2. Serum was collected from 87 intensive care unit (ICU) patients that are COVID-19 positive and 50 healthy volunteers in the control group with a negative PCR test and without disease symptoms. Circulating MK concentration was measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using a commercial human MK kit. COVID-19 patients had a significantly higher serum MK concentration compared to non-COVID-19 control subjects (1892.8 ± 1615.8 pg/ml versus 680.7 ± 907.6 pg/ml, respectively; $P < 0.001$). The cut-off MK concentration was 716.7 pg/ml, with the sensitivity and specificity of 75.9 % and 76.0 %, respectively. The area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC_{ROC}) of MK was = .827. Our findings showed that circulating MK levels are significantly increased in SARS-CoV-2 infected patients. We suggest that MK is involved in the pathogenesis of COVID-19 and may be a part of hypercytokinaemia. Therefore, MK may serve as a supporting inflammatory marker in the diagnosis of COVID-19 and by blocking MK actions or its targets may attenuate the inflammatory process and the severity of the disease.

Introduction

The severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), by causing systemic inflammation, multi-organ damage, and even death, is responsible for coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), which initiate many terrible problems worldwide nearly two years [1]. As described for other SARS infections that occurred in the near past, the primary pathophysiologic infection process begins with the binding of SARS-CoV-2 to angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) that serves as a receptor for the virus, followed by the internalization of the virus-ACE2 complex into the cell and continued with the replication of SARS-CoV-2, which in turn triggers the pathological reactions related to COVID-19 [2–4]. The symptomatology of patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 varies widely, ranging from asymptomatic or mild symptom states to life-threatening conditions such as pneumonia, pulmonary edema, respiratory failure, vascular hyper-permeability, acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), septic shock, multiple organ failure and even death [5, 6]. In such seriously conditions, the production of pro-inflammatory chemokines and cytokines, including tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α), interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), interleukin-6 (IL-6) and interferon-gamma (IFN γ), are abnormally increased that result in a “cytokine storm”, which generate COVID-19 symptoms (fever, headaches, dizziness, etc.) and cause diffuse alveolar damage [5, 7–9]. Some of these mediators are also involved in the development of life-threatening pathologies such as cardiomyopathy, lung injury, and septic shock [10, 11]. Furthermore, other factors such as hypoxia, oxidative stress, and

neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) released from neutrophils also contribute to cytokine storm-related events [12–14].

Midkine (MK), a heparin-binding growth factor and cytokine, is highly expressed during embryogenesis, regresses to relatively low levels in healthy adults, and overexpressed once again in certain pathologies, including inflammatory diseases and malignancies [15–17]. It contributes to the growth and repair, survival, reproduction, and differentiation of various cells and has chemotactic activity as well as pro-inflammatory actions [18, 19]. MK promotes inflammatory processes in autoimmune and inflammatory diseases via its chemotactic action, resulting in the accumulation of inflammatory cells, which in turn aggravate the pathological inflammatory response [20]. Several studies showed a close interaction between MK and other chemokines and cytokines, which are key mediators in SARS-CoV-2 infection [5, 7–9, 21]. For example, the expression of MK is induced by TNF α , an important component of cytokine storm in COVID-19, and vice versa [22]. In addition, there is growing evidence that MK is potentially involved in the development of pulmonary fibrosis, one of the serious outcomes in SARS-CoV-2 infection, by regulating inflammatory cell migration into the lung and expression of TNF- α and other mediators [23, 24]. Considering all these data, in a recent article, we tried to explain the possible mechanisms by which MK may be involved in the pathogenesis of SARS-CoV-2 infection [25]. Therefore, to find out whether MK is involved in the inflammatory and other pathophysiological processes associated with SARS-CoV-2 infection, we analyzed circulating MK concentration in hospitalized COVID-19 patients and compared it to non-infected control subjects.

Material And Methods

Study population

Fifty-seven participants were recruited. A total of 87 patients diagnosed with COVID-19 who were hospitalized in the intensive care unit (ICU) of Istanbul Atlas University Medicine Hospital and 50 healthy volunteers with negative COVID-19 PCR test and no symptoms of disease were included into the study. COVID-19 patients with liver dysfunction, rheumatoid arthritis, and other inflammatory diseases were evaluated in terms of concomitant disease. Informed consent was obtained from all patients and healthy volunteers. All participants underwent a standard clinical evaluation that included medical history and physical examination. Routine biochemical tests were performed in all ICU patients. Healthy volunteers were followed for 14 days to rule out the possibility of later contracting COVID-19 disease. None of them had a positive PCR test and no signs of COVID-19 after this period.

Analytical methods

Serum was obtained from 5 ml venous blood samples of COVID-19 patients and healthy controls, Serum samples were taken and stored at -80°C until measuring MK levels using the ELISA assay. To determine the serum concentration of MK in the study population, we used a commercially available human MK ELISA kit (Boster CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly described, microtiter wells precoated with anti-human MK antibodies were incubated with the patient serum. After washing, a biotin-

labeled anti-human MK antibody was added and the plates were incubated for 1 hour with captured MK. After thorough washing, streptavidin horseradish peroxidase conjugate was added to convert the substrate H₂O₂-tetramethylbenzidine. The absorption of the solution can be analyzed photometrically at 450 nm (OD₄₅₀) wavelengths in the microplate reader (Dynatech MR 500). To measure the exact concentration of the analysts in the liquid phase, a calibration curve was plotted based on samples with known concentrations. MK concentration is given in pg/mL.

Statistical analysis

All data were analyzed by IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows 10, version 25.0. The non-normality of the data distribution was determined by the Sahpiro-Wilk test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and histograms. Parametric values of the patients were expressed as numbers and percentages and categorical values were analyzed with a Chi-square test. MK concentration values of patients and controls were presented as mean and standard deviation (SD) or median values and an interquartile range of 25-75%. Mann-Whitney U test was used to test non-parametric values. In COVID-19 patients, to observe the effect of MK concentration values - to determine the distinction between severe and mild COVID-19 groups, to see the effect of comorbidity on the MK levels of patients, the increase in the MK level in patients with varying thresholds was calculated. For this calculation, the receiver-operating characteristic curve (ROC) were generated and the area under the curve (AUC) was calculated. Where appropriate, 95% CI were also calculated. The 95% CI were calculated anytime convenient, and two-tailed p-value $p < 0,05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

From the 87 COVID-19 patients and 50 non-COVID-19 subjects, 37 (42.5%) and 37 (74%) were female and 50 (57.5%) and 13 (26%) were male, respectively. While 16 of 50 males and 12 of 37 female patients hospitalized in the ICU died, 34 male and 25 female patients were discharged. The mean age of deceased and discharged COVID-19 patients was 71.3 ± 12.1 and 57.15 ± 11.2 , respectively, which the difference was as expected statistically significant ($P < 0.001$). The mean duration of hospital stay in the ICU was 9.1 ± 6.3 days who were died and 10.2 ± 6.6 days who were discharged ($P > 0.05$). Twenty-six of the deceased (93%) and 9 (15%) of the discharged patient had at least 2 comorbidities (Table 2).

Table 2
Demographic and biologic characteristic of the COVID-19 patients

	Total (n=87)	Survivor (n=59)	Non-survivor (n= 28)	P
Age, years*	64.2 ± 11.5	57.15 ± 11	71.3 ± 12	< 0.01
Sex, female/male	37/50	25/34	12/16	0.002
Stay in the ICU, days*	9.1 ± 6.3	9 ± 6.2	9.2 ± 6.6	0.018
More than one co-morbidity	35	9	26	0.001
Glucose (mg/dl)	70 (80%)	48 (81%)	26 (92%)	< 0.01
>126	17 (20%)	11 (19%)	2 (8%)	
<126				
CRP (mg/L)	84 (96%)	56 (94%)	28 (100%)	< 0.01
>5	3 (4%)	3 (6%)	0	
<5				
NLR (cells/ μ l)	62 (71%)	50 (84%)	25 (89%)	< 0.01
>4.75	15 (29%)	9 (16%)	3 (11%)	
<4.75				
D-dimer (mg/L)	77 (88%)	50(84%)	27 (96%)	< 0.01
>0.55	10 (12%)	9 (16%)	1 (4%)	
<0.55				
PCT (ng/ml)	74 (85%)	49 (83%)	22 (78%)	< 0.01
>0.5	13 (15%)	10 (17%)	6 (22%)	
<0.5				
* Data are presented as mean \pm SD				

The mean serum MK concentration was 1892.8 \pm 1615.8 pg/ml versus 680.7 \pm 907.6 pg/ml in COVID-19 patients and non-COVID-19 controls, respectively (Table 1, Figure 1). Serum MK concentration was approximately 2.8 times higher in COVID-19 patients than non-COVID controls ($P < 0.001$). The area under the ROC curve (AUCROC) of MK was 0.827 with the 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.751-0.904 ($P < 0.001$). The cut-off concentration of MK was 716.7 pg/ml. The sensitivity and specificity of serum MK concentration in predicting COVID-19 were 75.9% and 76.0%. respectively (Figure 2). 77% of all patients with COVID-19 and 13% of the control group are above the cut-off point and vice versa. No statistically

significant difference was detected between deceased patients and discharged patients in regard of serum MK concentration (1913.9 ± 1588.1 versus 2014.9 ± 1629.8).

Table 1
Comparison of serum MK concentration between COVID-19 patients and non-COVID-19 controls.

	Cases (n=87)	Controls (n=50)	P value
Mean serum MK concentration (pg/mL \pm SD)	1892.8 ± 1615.8 (392.6-5595.4)	680.7 ± 907.6 (12.2-3414.1)	< 0.001
Median (pg/mL)	1231.4	336.6	< 0.001

The values of the main prognostic biomarkers that we have analyzed were elevated in all of COVID-19 patients. Furthermore, the mean levels of glucose, CRP, NLR, d-dimer, procalcitonin, ferritin and IL-6 were significantly higher in deceased patients compared to discharged patients (Table 2).

Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first investigation that analyzed the relationship between MK and COVID-19. Our findings showed that serum MK concentration is approximately 2,8 times higher in SARS-CoV-2 infected patients than non-infected volunteers. Several pathophysiological changes may be responsible for this elevation of circulating MK levels in SARS-CoV-2 infected COVID-19 patients which will be discussed below.

The binding of SARS-CoV-2 to pulmonary angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) has two major consequences. Firstly, monocytes recruited into the alveolar space secrete pro-inflammatory cytokines, recruited macrophages release also cytokines and chemokines that augmented capillary permeability, pulmonary edema and followed by neutrophil recruitment. Secondly, the expression of ACE2 is downregulated by SARS-CoV-2, causing over-activation of renin-angiotensin-system (RAS) that results in increased pulmonary vasoconstriction, edema, hypoxia, and lung damage in COVID-19 patients [3, 4]. In addition to releasing pro-inflammatory mediators, increased neutrophil invasion leads to the release of neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) that are intracellular contents such as DNA, histones, and proteins. Several studies showed that this process, called NETosis, is closely associated with COVID-19 [14, 26]. The excessive neutrophil degranulation precipitate lung injury and damage the alveolar-capillary barrier. Furthermore, NETosis is associated with increased levels of intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) of neutrophils. Excessive ROS production can lead to alveolar damage and red blood dysfunction that contribute to hypoxic respiratory failure in COVID-19 [27, 28].

Although, some studies proposed a protective effect of MK, such as promoting repair of the nervous system after injury and protective action against ischemia/reperfusion injury in the heart, some others are known as harmful including, carcinogenesis, chemo-resistance, and promoting inflammation [18, 20, 30,

31]. MK has strong pro-inflammatory characteristics, causing macrophage and neutrophil recruitment to the inflamed region and interact with other chemokines and cytokines, particularly TNF α and ILs, that are closely associated with the development of SARS-CoV-2 infection [32]. Furthermore, MK plays an important role in mediating and generating enhancement of fibrinolytic activity, which is crucial in the initial stage of inflammatory responses of various pathologies [18, 33]. Recently, Weckbach et al. showed that during myocarditis MK promotes, via the low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1, infiltration of polymorphonuclear neutrophils into the myocardium and contribute to NETosis, which is detrimental for patients with chronic inflammatory cardiomyopathy. Therefore, they suggest that inhibition of MK or NETs could have beneficial effects in treating myocarditis [34]. MK influences the RAS as well [35]. In an animal study, Hobo et al. showed that the expression of MK was induced in the lung endothelium of micro-vessels and alveolar-capillary endothelial cells by oxidative stress and upregulated by ACE, which generates Ang II from Ang I, followed by an induction of NADPH oxidase (Nox) expression by Ang II that in turn initiates ROS production, and subsequently MK and ACE expression. In the context of COVID-19, which uses the ACE2 receptor for its clinical manifestations, MK activates ACE, leading to higher concentrations of Ang II that impaired functions of the alveoli [36]. On the other hand, SARS-CoV-2 invasion itself causes fluid accumulation in the alveoli, the effectiveness of air exchange decreases dramatically, resulting in hypoxia, hypoxemia, and subsequently ARDS. Hypoxia, a powerful inflammatory stimulant, is induced in inflammatory conditions, leading to cytokine storm, inflammation, and other molecular events that are important components of SARS-CoV-2 infection [37]. One of the pathophysiological processes that is triggered by hypoxia is the induction of hypoxia-inducible factor-1 α (HIF-1 α). Under normal pressure of oxygen in bloodstream, the expression of HIF-1 α caused by phagocytic cells, such as neutrophils and macrophages, is low. However, in infection sites, including SARS-CoV-2, they increase HIF-1 α expression, which in turn stimulates the expression of several pro-inflammatory cytokines [38]. Owing to its pro-inflammatory properties, it has been suggested that inhibition of HIF-1 α activity can reduce the SARS-CoV-2 related inflammation and relieves the severity of COVID-19 [39, 40]. In a mice model, it has been shown that MK expression was markedly increased in the lungs during exposure to hypoxia via binding of HIF1- α to hypoxia-responsive elements located in the MK promoter [41]. Considering the interplay between MK, hypoxia and HIF1- α in pulmonary tissue, it seems possible that they reinforce each other's pathophysiological actions, as well as in SARS-CoV-2 infection.

An important case of SARS-CoV-2 infection is the development of ARDS, which can cause severe lung injury. Several studies demonstrated that MK is closely involved in the pathogenesis of ARDS. Zhang et al. showed that exposure to a mechanical stretch of lung epithelial cells led to an epithelial-mesenchymal transition profile associated with increased expression of ACE, which was attenuated by silencing MK in mice [42]. Furthermore, they found that the plasma concentration of MK was significantly elevated in patients with ARDS. Similarly, in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis patients, the serum MK level was found higher compared to healthy subjects, supporting the role of MK in the development of ARDS. In the same study, it has been proposed that MK may participate to the progression of pulmonary fibrosis, mainly by regulating inflammatory cell migration into the lung and augmenting transforming growth factor β (TGF-

β) expression, which may be primarily responsible for the lung fibrosis at the end stage of COVID-19 [24, 43].

Conclusions

The results of our study demonstrated an approximately 2.8-fold higher serum concentration of MK in a cohort of COVID-19 patients compared to non-infected subjects. Since MK is significantly upregulated upon exposure to various harmful stimuli such as inflammation, it is likely to accompany the cytokine attack that occurs in SARS-CoV-2 infection. Thus, among treatment strategies targeting cytokines (e.g. inhibition of TNF α , TGF- β or IL-6), drugs that suppress additionally the generation or action of MK may also contribute to COVID-19 treatment.

Declarations

Authors' contributions

AŞA was the guarantor of the submission. SK and AŞA designed the study. MUK and BD enrolled the patients

and collected the data. RD performed the statistical analysis of this study. SK and AŞA wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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Availability of data and material

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval

This study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by The Republic of Turkey Ministry of Health (Number: 2020-10-23T23_59_00) and Local Ethics Committee of Istanbul Atlas University (Number: E-22686390-050.01.04-4187). The authors obtained informed consent from all patients.

Consent to participate

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Consent for publication

Consents were obtained from all authors before submission.

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Figures

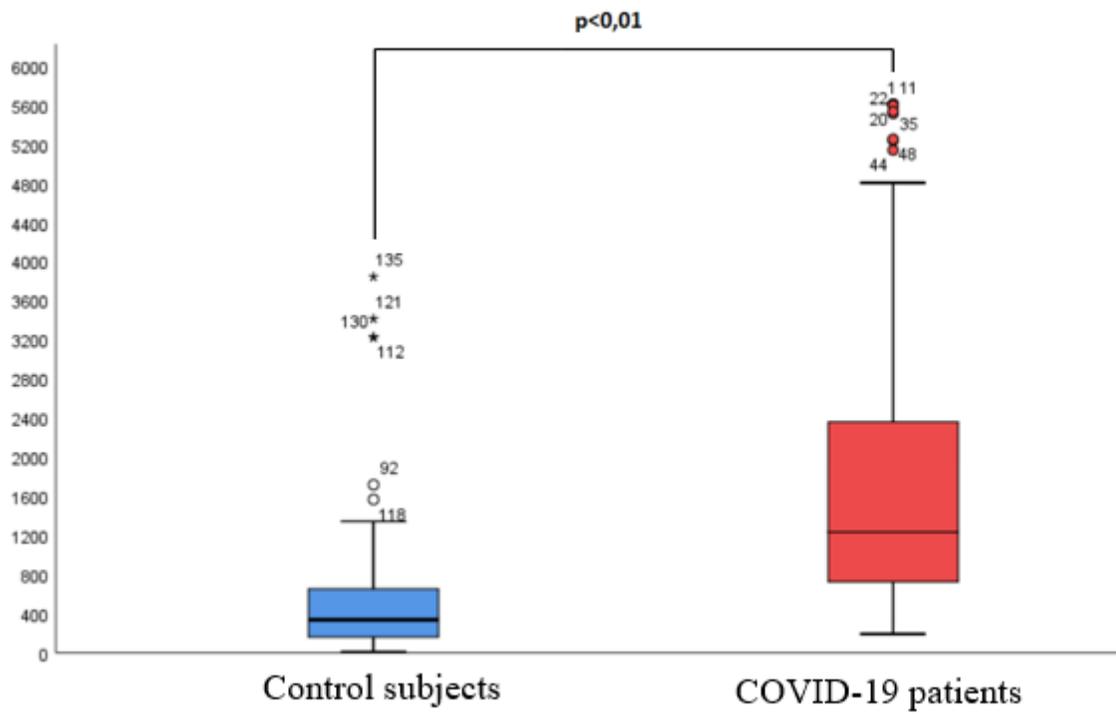


Figure 1

Distribution of MK serum concentrations in control subjects and COVID-19 patients

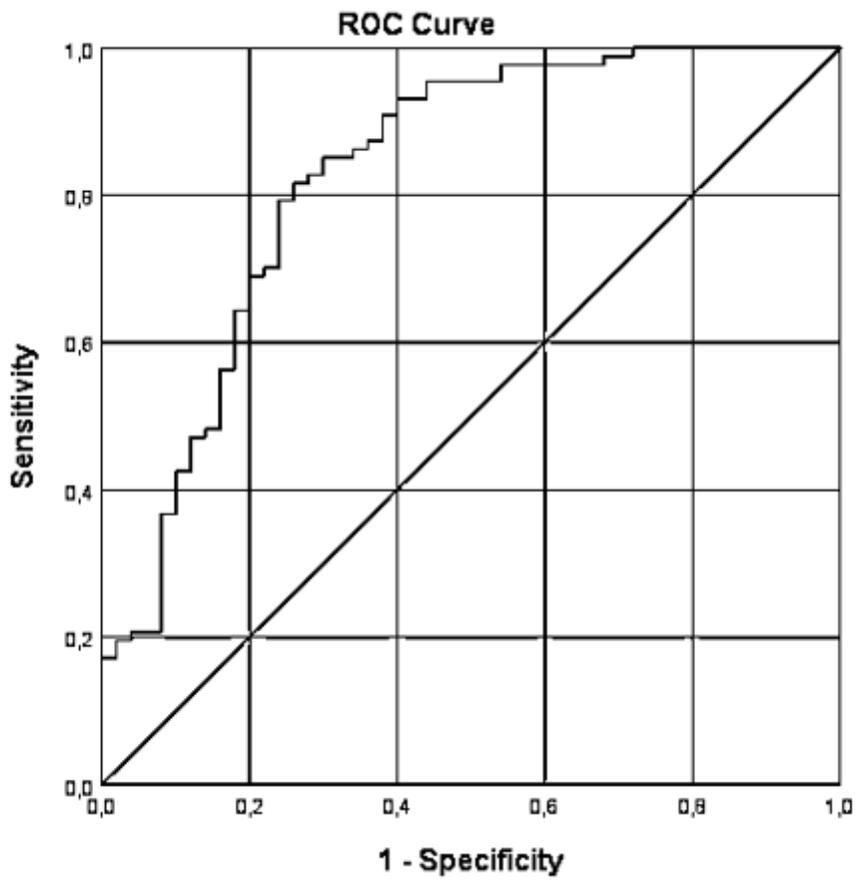


Figure 2

ROC curve demonstrating AUC (0.827; 95% CI: 0.751-0.904; P <0.001) for MK