



ISSN: 0975-833X

REVIEWARTICLE

HEPATIC MARKERS IN BURNS

***Dr. UshaSachidanandaAdiga**

Department of Biochemistry, Indira Gandhi Medical College and Research Institute, Puducherry

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received 15th January, 2013
Received in revised form
11th February, 2014
Accepted 03rd March, 2014
Published online 23rd April, 2014

ABSTRACT

Burn injuries are of major concern with respect to morbidity and mortality. It is the leading cause of death among children worldwide. Burn damages cell membrane, causes loss of cell integrity and membrane permeability which brings major changes in serum electrolytes. Liver, kidney and pancreas are among the most vulnerable organs in burn trauma, markers of which help to assess the pattern and severity of injury. Hepatic changes are constantly reported in burns. This includes plasma proteins, acute phase reactants, various enzymes and coagulation factors. These parameters suggest the degree of severity, risk involved and prognosis. This is an effort to put all these hepatic markers together.

Key words:

Burns, Proteins, Enzymes

Copyright ©2014 Dr. UshaSachidanandaAdiga. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

INTRODUCTION

The liver has been shown to play a pivotal role after a thermal injury (1, 2). After burn, the liver interacts with the site of injury and modulates the immune functions, the inflammatory processes, and the acute-phase response (1). Burns decrease protein and DNA concentration of liver (1,3,4). Liver damage may be associated with increased hepatic edema formations which in turn lead to cell damage with the release of hepatic enzymes (2). In addition, fatty changes significantly increase during the first week after burn, peaked at 2 weeks after burn, and remain increased at 6, 9, and 12 months after burn (5,6).

Proteins and Burns

After a severe burn, hepatic protein synthesis shifts from constitutive proteins such as albumin, prealbumin, transferrin, and retinol-binding protein to acute phase proteins within 6 months (7-10). Total proteins and albumin were diminished also due to evaporation of water, hepatic dysfunction due to low perfusion (11). The hypoalbuminaemia, is largely due to exudation of albumin through the burn area but possibly also because of changes in the rates of synthesis and degradation. Levels of transferrin also fall following burns (12) and due to the shorter half life of this protein (5 days compared with 20 days for albumin), this effect is seen earlier than with albumin. Recovery of circulating values also is more rapid. Retinol binding protein and thyroxine binding prealbumin, have even shorter half lives of about fifteen hours and 2.5 days respectively, blood levels fall even more rapidly, but tend to rise sooner in the healing phase (13). The finding that the rates

of fall in circulating levels parallels the half lives of these four proteins supports the concept of greatly diminished protein synthesis soon after burn injury. In severe burn injury the saturation of transferrin is often low and thus transferrin levels cannot be taken as a guide to iron deficiency states. The assessment of iron status is more difficult by the large rises in ferritin levels in response to injury, with levels up to twenty times normal being found at the end of the first week following burn injury (12). Studies have shown that two mechanisms are responsible for the decrease of constitutive hepatic proteins: one is that the liver reprioritizes its protein synthesis from constitutive hepatic proteins to acute phase proteins. So the mRNA synthesis for constitutive hepatic proteins is decreased. The other reason is capillary leakage and the loss of proteins into the massive extravascular space and burn wound. Albumin and transferrin, however, have important physiologic functions as they serve as transporter proteins and contribute to osmotic pressure and plasma pH (14-17). Their down regulation after trauma has been described as potentially harmful and the synthesis of these proteins has been used as a predictor of mortality and indicators of recovery (17-22).

Hepatic Enzymes and Burns

Liver enzymes, such as aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) are the most sensitive indicators of hepatocyte injury. Both the enzymes are normally present in low concentrations. Due to cellular injury or changes in cell membrane permeability, enzymes leak into circulation. Of the two, the ALT is the more sensitive and specific test for hepatocyte injury as AST also can be elevated in the state of myocardial infarction or muscle injury. The liver enzymes were significantly elevated during the first 3 weeks after burn, normalizing over time. These findings are in agreement with

*Corresponding author: Dr. UshaSachidanandaAdiga

Department of Biochemistry, Indira Gandhi Medical College and Research Institute, Puducherry

those of another study in which the extent and the duration of the hepatic acute-phase response during the acute-phase post burn (23). An increase in edema formation may lead to cell damage with the release of the hepatic enzymes (2). Liver enzymes, AST, ALT, ALP AND gamma GT are elevated because of impaired hepatic functions (11). Another study suggests that AST and ALT are increased and released into the serum for a period of 4 to 6 weeks, indicating that liver damage is present immediately after burn (23). Variations were reported in the pattern of alterations in hepatic enzymes. Serial measurements on admission showed a raise in AST, ALT by day 5. But the enzymes showed a fall in their levels by day 10. A constant elevation was seen in ALP and amylase through day 0 –day 10 (24). Severity of burn was assessed by percentage of total body surface area (TBSA) involved in the injury. A significant correlation was established between enzyme levels and burn size.

Serum glutamate dehydrogenase also is a marker and is elevated in the state of severe hepatic damage. Serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP) provides an elevation of the patency of the bile channels at all levels, intrahepatic and extrahepatic. Serum levels are elevated in hepatobiliary disease. Elevation of creatine kinase (CK), hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase (HBD) and aspartate aminotransferase (AST) levels between the second and fourth days after injury are useful criteria in establishing the probability of electrical burn injury (25). In this study the enzyme levels found were many times greater than those anticipated for flame burns affecting a similar skin area, with CK levels sometimes 25 times the upper limit of normal. In patients with severe flame burns, however, lesser elevations of CK, ASAT and HBD may be found, and CK peak levels found on days 1-3 post burn in those with full-thickness burns presumably reflect local muscle damage. Serum bilirubin level was only increased for 2 weeks after burn, indicating that bilirubin level during the post burn response is not an important marker as in other pathophysiological states, such as sepsis. The intrahepatic cholestasis seems to be associated with an impairment of basolateral and canalicular hepatocyte transport of bile acids and organic anions (26). This is most likely caused by decreased transporter protein and RNA expression. It has been shown that (26,27) decreased transporter expression is associated with decreased bile acid output, leading to increased intrahepatic bile concentration.

Acute phase Response to Burns

Liver damage has been associated with increased hepatocyte cell death, which is caused by hepatocyte apoptosis and necrosis (1, 3, 6, 28, 29). Pathological studies found that 10% to 15% of thermally injured patients have liver necrosis at autopsy. It has been also shown that a cutaneous thermal injury also induces liver cell apoptosis (1, 5, 30, 31). This increase in hepatic programmed cell death is compensated by an increase in hepatic cell proliferation, suggesting that the liver attempts to maintain homeostasis (1). Severe burn is associated with increased cytokine levels in the serum and in the liver; Two possible mechanisms involved in the induction of hepatocyte apoptosis are hypoperfusion of the splanchnic system and elevation of proinflammatory cytokines (4, 32). Acute-phase protein synthesis and metabolic impairment

persists for almost 12 months, and the need for hepatic protein synthesis and metabolism leads to a massive liver enlargement. Burns produce a profound hyper metabolic stress response which is driven by the inflammatory response, which consists of cytokines, and acute phase proteins (18,19,33). Clinical studies have shown that increased hypermetabolic, inflammatory, and acute phase responses can be life threatening with the uncontrolled and prolonged action of counter regulatory stress hormones, proinflammatory cytokines (IL-1, IL-6, TNF- α), and acute phase proteins contributing to multiorgan failure, hyper metabolism, morbidity, and mortality (7,18,19). The acute phase response is a cascade of events initiated to prevent tissue damage and to activate repair processes (7,9). The acute phase response is initiated by activated phagocytic cells, fibroblasts and endothelial cells, which release proinflammatory cytokines leading to the systemic phase of the acute phase response (7,9). The liver synthesizes acute phase proteins; the bone marrow promotes further hemopoietic responses; and the immune system activates RES and the stimulation of lymphocytes (7,9). However, a crucial step in this cascade of reactions involves the interaction between the site of injury and the liver, which is the principle organ responsible for producing acute phase proteins and modulating the systemic inflammatory response.

The acute phase response usually encompasses positive acute phase proteins, whose expression is increased (C-reactive protein, 2-macroglobulin, haptoglobin, etc.) and negative acute phase proteins, whose expression is decreased (albumin and prealbumin, transferrin, retinol-binding protein, etc.). Immediately after burn, the damage of the liver may be associated with an increased hepatic edema formation. It has been shown that the liver weight and liver/body weight significantly increased 2 to 7 days after burn when compared with controls (34). Thermal injury causes liver damage by edema formation, hypoperfusion, proinflammatory fragmentation, membrane blebbing, and phagocytosis of the apoptotic cell fragments by neighboring cells or extrusion into the lumen of the bowel without inflammation. This is in contrast to necrosis, which involves cellular swelling, random DNA fragmentation, lysosomal activation, membrane breakdown, and extrusion of cellular contents into the interstitium. Membrane breakdown and cellular content release induced inflammation with the migration of inflammatory cells and release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and free radicals, which leads to further tissue breakdown. Pathological studies found that 10% to 15% of thermally injured patients show signs of liver necrosis at autopsy (35). The necrosis is generally focal or zonal, central or paracentral, sometime smicrofocal, and related to burn shock and sepsis. The morphological differences between apoptosis and necrosis are used to differentiate the two processes. A cutaneous thermal injury induces liver cell apoptosis associated with caspase activation (34). This increase in hepatic programmed cell death is compensated for by an increase in hepatic cell proliferation, suggesting that the liver attempts to maintain homeostasis. Despite the attempt to compensate increased apoptosis by increased hepatocyte proliferation, the liver cannot regain hepatic mass and protein concentration, as we found a significant decrease in hepatic protein concentration in burned rats. The mechanisms involved in a cutaneous burn inducing

programmed cell death in hepatocytes are not defined. Studies suggested that, in general, hypoperfusion and ischemia-reperfusion are associated to promote apoptosis (36–39). It can be surmised that the hepatic blood flow also decreases, thus causing programmed cell death. In addition, pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- have been described to be an apoptotic signal (40-44). After a thermal injury, serum and hepatic concentration of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-1, IL-6, and TNF- are increased (45–48). It is suggested that two possible mechanisms are involved in increased hepatocyte apoptosis: decreased splanchnic blood flow; and elevation of pro-inflammatory cytokines, initiating intracellular signaling mechanisms. Signals that maybe involved encompass many signals that play an important role during the acute phase response. Previously, acute phase proteins were divided into type I acute phase proteins, such as haptoglobin and 1-acid glycoprotein, mediated by IL-1-like cytokines (IL-1 and TNF) and type II acute phase proteins, such as 2-macroglobulin and fibrinogen, which are mediated by IL-6 like cytokines (IL-6, IL-11) (7). It is unclear whether this division holds true with the discovery of new cytokines and signal transcription factors. Furthermore, it appears that there is a lot of cross-communication between the two responses, indicating that this strict division is not functional, and reflecting the ongoing responses. However, the up regulation of acute phase proteins represents a redirection of the liver to fulfill immune functions, metabolic responses, coagulation, and wound healing processes (7,9,49,50).

In contrast to acute phase proteins, constitutive hepatic proteins are down regulated (14-17). After a thermal injury, albumin and transferrin decrease by 50% to 70% below normal levels (14–17). Mediators of the acute phase response are cytokines. In several studies, the biphasic time course of proinflammatory cytokines has been demonstrated. Immediately after burn, IL-1, IL-6, IL-8, and TNF increase two- to ten-fold above normal levels, decrease slightly after approximately 12 hours, increase again, and then start to decrease. The authors concluded that the absence of IL-6 is an important determinant of hepatic dysfunction and mortality in sepsis, but more interesting is the fact that hepatic damage and dysfunction was associated with a three- to four-fold increase in mortality (51). Animal and human studies demonstrated that cytokines can either approach normal levels within 2 days after trauma or can be elevated up to 2 weeks after thermal injury (33,49-50,52-54). The signal transcription cascade includes various pro- and anti-inflammatory signal transcription factors (55-60). These signals activate transcription, translation, and expression of acute phase proteins. Particularly IL-6 has been speculated to be the main mediating cytokine. IL-6 activates glycoprotein 130 and the JAK-kinases (JAK-1) leading to activation of STAT 1 and 3 translocating to the nucleus. Intranuclear, the genes for acute phase proteins are turned on. The aim of the acute phase response is to protect the body from further damage, and the aim will be achieved when all elements of the acute phase response coalesce in a balanced fashion. However, a prolonged increase in proinflammatory cytokines and acute phase proteins has been shown to be indicative of a hypercatabolic state, associated with an increased risk of sepsis, multiorgan failure, morbidity and mortality (61-62).

Coagulation and Clotting Factors in burns

Homeostasis of clotting is complex and has been studied in thermally injured patients (63). Thrombotic and fibrinolytic mechanisms are activated after burn and the extent of activation is increased with the severity of the thermal injury. Most homeostatic markers fall during the early phase of burns because of dilutional effects, loss, and degradation of plasma proteins. Clotting factors return to normal levels after the aggressive resuscitation period. Later in the post burn course, thrombogenicity has been suggested to be increased due to fall in antithrombin III, protein C, and protein S levels while fibrinolysis activation occurs via increases in tissue plasminogen activation factor, thus leading to an increased risk of thrombosis. The hypercoagulable state places many thermally injured patients at risk for disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC). Alterations in clotting factors indicate liver damage and results in poor outcomes. The liver produces multiple coagulation factors which can be altered or become defective in liver injury. In the state of jaundice, vitamin K resorption is decreased, resulting in a decreased synthesis of prothrombin, or, when the liver is severely damaged or in a state of hepatocellular dysfunction, prothrombin is not synthesized at all. The diagnosis of pathological prothrombin synthesis is made by the prothrombin time (PT). PT as well as international normalized ratio (INR) are measures of the extrinsic pathway of coagulation. Decreases in factors V, VII, IX and fibrinogen also have been noted in hepatic disease (64-65).

Conclusion

In summary, liver is one of the most important organs that is affected in thermal injury. It plays an important role in morbidity and mortality. Enzymes, plasma protein levels and acute phase reactants act as markers of prognostication in burns. Restoration of liver functions has a pivotal role in the survival of the patients.

REFERENCES

1. Jeschke MG, Low JF, Spies M, Vita R, Hawkins HK, Herndon DN, Barrow RE: Cell proliferation, apoptosis, NF-kappaB expression, enzyme, protein, and weight changes in livers of burned rats. *Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol* 2001;280:G1314-G1320.
2. Moshage H: Cytokines and the hepatic acute phase response. *J Pathol*, 1997;181:257-266.
3. Dasu MR, Cobb JP, Laramie JM, Chung TP, Spies M, Barrow RE: Gene expression profiles of livers from thermally injured rats. *Gene* 2004;327:51-60.
4. Klein D, Einspanier R, Bolder U, Jeschke MG: Differences in the hepatic signal transcription pathway and cytokine expression between thermal injury and sepsis. *Shock* 2003;20:536-543.
5. Barret JP, Jeschke MG, Herndon DN: Fatty infiltration of the liver in severely burned pediatric patients: autopsy findings and clinical implications. *J Trauma*, 2001;51:736-739.

6. Linares HA: Autopsy findings in burned children. In: Carvajal HF, Parks DH, (eds.): *Burns in Children*. Chicago, IL: Year Book Medical Publishers, 1988: 154-164.
7. Moshage H. Cytokines and the hepatic acute phase response. *J. Pathol.*1997; 181:257-66.
8. Jeschke MG, Micak RP, Finnerty CC, Herndon DN. Changes in liver function and size after a severe thermal injury. *Shock* 2007;28:172-7.
9. Jeschke MG, Barrow RE, Herndon DN. Extended hypermetabolic response of the liver in severely burned pediatric patients. *Arch. Surg*2004;139:641-7.
10. Jeschke MG, et al. Pathophysiologic response to severe burn injury. *Ann. Surg.*2008; 248:387-401.
11. Woolliscroft JO, Prasad JK, Thomson P, Till GO, Fox IH. Metabolic alterations in burn patients: detection of adenosine triphosphate degradation products and lipid peroxides. *Burns*. 1990;16(2):92-6.
12. Batstone G F, Alberti K G M M, Hinks L et al. *Burns* 1976;2: 207.
13. Moody B J. *Clinicachimicaacta*1982;118: 87.
14. Gilpin DA, Hsieh CC, Kuninger DT, Herndon DN, Papaconstantinou J. Effect of thermal injury on the expression of transcription factors that regulate acute phase response genes: the response of C/EBP alpha, C/EBP beta, and C/EBP delta to thermal injury. *Surgery* 1996;119:674-83.
15. Gilpin DA, Hsieh CC, Kuninger DT, Herndon DN, Papaconstantinou J. Regulation of the acute phase response genes alpha 1-acid glycoprotein and alpha 1-antitrypsin correlates with sensitivity to thermal injury. *Surgery* 1996;119:664-73.
16. Hiyama DT, et al. Synthesis of albumin and acute-phase proteins in perfused liver after burn injury in rats. *J. Burn Care Rehabil.* 1991;12:1-6.
17. Livingston DH, Mosenthal AC, Deitch EA. Sepsis and multiple organ dysfunction syndrome: a clinical-mechanistic overview. *New Horiz.*1995;3:257-66.
18. Tracey KJ, et al. Anti-cachectin/TNF monoclonal antibodies prevent septic shock during lethal bacteraemia. *Nature* 1987;330:662-4.
19. Tracey KJ, et al. Cachectin/tumor necrosis factor induces lethal shock and stress hormone responses in the dog. *Surg. Gynecol. Obstet.* 1987;164:415-22.
20. De Maio A, Mooney ML, Matesic LE, Paidas CN, Reeves RH. Genetic component in the inflammatory response induced by bacterial lipopolysaccharide. *Shock* 1998 ;10:319-23.
21. De Maio A, Torres MB, Reeves RH. Genetic determinants influencing the response to injury, inflammation, and sepsis. *Shock* 2005;23:11-7.
22. Selzman CH, et al. Therapeutic implications of interleukin-10 in surgical disease. *Shock*1998;10:309-18.
23. Jeschke MG, Barrow RE, Herndon DN: Extended hypermetabolic response of the liver in severely burned pediatric patients. *Arch Surg*2004; 139:641-647.
24. V R Bhagwat, M Subrahmanyam and K N Pujari. SERUM ENZYMES IN THERMAL INJURY *Indian Journal of Clinical Biochemistry*, 2007 ; 22 (2) 154-157.
25. Coombes E J, Batstone G F, Levick P L & Shakespeare P G. *Burns* 1979a ; 6: 42.
26. Bolder U, Ton-Nu HT, Schteingart CD, Frick E, Hofmann AF: Hepatocyte transport of bile acids and organic anions in endotoxemic rats: impaired uptake and secretion. *Gastroenterology* 1997; 112:214 - 225.
27. Bolder U, Jeschke MG, Landmann L, Wolf F, de Sousa C, Schlitt HJ, Przkora R: Heat stress enhances recovery of hepatocyte bile acid and organic anion transporters in endotoxemic rats by multiple mechanisms. *Cell Stress Chaperones* 2006;11:89-100.
28. Mittendorfer B, Jeschke MG, Wolf SE, Sidossis LS: Nutritional hepatic steatosis and mortality after burn injury in rats. *Clin Nutr*, 1998;17:293-299.
29. Teplitz C: The pathology of burn and fundamentals of burn wound sepsis. In: Artz CP, Moncrief JA, Pruitt BA Jr, (eds.): *Burns: A Team Approach*. Philadelphia: WB Saunders Co.1979; 45-94.
30. Barrow RE, Micak R, Barrow LN, Hawkins HK: Increased liver weights in severely burned children: comparison of ultrasound and autopsy measurements. *Burns* 2004; 30:565-568.
31. Iliopoulou E, Markaki S, Poulidakos L: Autopsy findings in burn injuries. *Arch Anat Cytol Pathol*1993;41:5-8.
32. Jeschke MG, Einspanier R, Klein D, Jauch KW: Insulin attenuates the systemic inflammatory response to thermal trauma. *Mol Med* 2002;8:443-450.
33. Finnerty CC, et al. Cytokine expression profile over time in severely burned pediatric patients. *Shock* 2006;26:13-9.
34. Jeschke MG, et al. Cell proliferation, apoptosis, NF-kappaB expression, enzyme, protein, and weight changes in livers of burned rats. *Am. J. Physiol. Gastrointest. Liver Physiol.* 2001 ;280: G1314-20.
35. Linares H. Autopsy finding in burned children. In: *Burns in Children*. Carvajal H, Parks D (eds.) Year Book Medical, Chicago, 1991;1-25.
36. Baron P, et al. Gut failure and translocation following burn and sepsis. *J. Surg. Res.* 1994;57:197-204.
37. Baron PW, Barrow RE, Pierre EJ, Herndon DN. Prolonged use of propranolol safely decreases cardiac work in burned children. *J. Burn Care Rehabil.* 1997;18:223-7.
38. Ikeda H, et al. Apoptosis is a major mode of cell death caused by ischaemia and ischaemia/ reperfusion injury to the rat intestinal epithelium. *Gut* 1998;42:530-7.
39. Noda T, Iwakiri R, Fujimoto K, Matsuo S, Aw TY. Programmed cell death induced by ischemia reperfusion in rat intestinal mucosa. *Am. J. Physiol.*1998;274: G270-6.
40. Steller H. Mechanisms and genes of cellular suicide. *Science* 1995;267:1445-9.
41. Bellas RE, FitzGerald MJ, Fausto N, Sonenshein GE. Inhibition of NF-kappa B activity induces apoptosis in murine hepatocytes. *Am. J. Pathol.* 1997;151:891-6.
42. Boehning D, et al. Cytochrome c binds to inositol (1,4,5) trisphosphate receptors, amplifying calcium-dependent apoptosis. *Nat. Cell Biol.* 2003;5:1051-61.
43. Strasser A, O'Connor L, Dixit VM. Apoptosis signaling. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 2000;69:217-45.
44. Yoneda T, et al. Activation of caspase-12, an endoplasmic reticulum (ER) resident caspase, through tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor 2-dependent mechanism

- in response to the ER stress. *J. Biol. Chem.* 2001;276:13935–40.
45. Jeschke MG, Klein D, Herndon DN. Insulin treatment improves the systemic inflammatory reaction to severe trauma. *Ann. Surg.* 2004;239:553–60.
46. Klein D, Schubert T, Horch RE, Jauch KW, Jeschke MG. Insulin treatment improves hepatic morphology and function through modulation of hepatic signals after severe trauma. *Ann. Surg.* 2004;240:340–9.
47. Gauglitz GG, et al. Characterization of the inflammatory response during acute and post acute phases after severe burn. *Shock* 2008;30:503–507.
48. Jeschke MG, Boehning DF, Finnerty CC, Herndon DN. Effect of insulin on the inflammatory and acute phase response after burn injury. *Crit. Care Med.* 2007;35:S519–23.
49. Jeschke MG, Micak RP, Finnerty CC, Herndon DN. Changes in liver function and size after a severe thermal injury. *Shock* 2007;28:172–7.
50. Jeschke MG, et al. Pathophysiologic response to severe burn injury. *Ann. Surg.* 2008;248:387–401.
51. Deutschman CS, Cereda M, Ochroch EA, Raj NR. Sepsis-induced cholestasis, steatosis, hepatocellular injury, and impaired hepatocellular regeneration are enhanced in interleukin-6 -/- mice. *Crit. Care Med.* 2006; 34:2613–20.
52. Gauglitz GG, et al. Characterization of the inflammatory response during acute and postacute phases after severe burn. *Shock* 2008;30:503–507.
53. Jeschke MG, et al. Burn size determines the inflammatory and hypermetabolic response. *Crit. Care* 2007;11: R90.
54. Finnerty CC, Herndon DN, Chinkes DL, Jeschke MG. Serum cytokine differences in severely burned children with and without sepsis. *Shock* 2007;27:4–9.
55. Klein D, Einspanier R, Bolder U, Jeschke MG. Differences in the hepatic signal transcription pathway and cytokine expression between thermal injury and sepsis. *Shock* 2003;20:536–43.
56. Siebenlist U, Franzoso G, Brown K. Structure, regulation and function of NF-kappaB. *Annu. Rev. Cell Biol.* 1994;10:405–55.
57. Kishimoto T, Taga T, Akira S. Cytokine signal transduction. *Cell* 1994;76:253–62.
58. Niehof M, et al. Interleukin-6-induced tethering of STAT3 to the LAP/C/EBPbeta promoter suggests a new mechanism of transcriptional regulation by STAT3. *J. Biol. Chem.* 2001;276:9016–27.
59. Janes KA, et al. A systems model of signaling identifies a molecular basis set for cytokine induced apoptosis. *Science* 2005;310:1646–53.
60. Mori K, Ma W, Gething MJ, Sambrook J. A transmembrane protein with a cdc2+/CDC28- related kinase activity is required for signaling from the ER to the nucleus. *Cell* 1993;74:743–56.
61. De Maio A, Mooney ML, Matesic LE, Paidas CN, Reeves RH. Genetic component in the inflammatory response induced by bacterial lipopolysaccharide. *Shock* 1998;10:319–23.
62. De Maio A, Torres MB, Reeves RH. Genetic determinants influencing the response to injury, inflammation, and sepsis. *Shock* 2005;23:11–7.
63. Sherwood ER, Traber DL. The systemic inflammatory response syndrome. In: *Total BurnCare*. Herndon DN (ed.) WB Saunders, Philadelphia, 2007;pp. 292–309.
64. Schwartz SI. Liver. In: *Principles of Surgery*. Schwartz SI, Shires GT, Spencer FC, Daly JM, Fischer JE, Galloway AC (eds.) McGraw-Hill, New York, 1999; 1395–436.
65. Kuttler T. Biochemie. In: *Biochemie*. Kuttler T (ed.) Jungjohann Verlag, Munchen, 2004;240–65.
