Outcomes of WHO defined severe respiratory distress without shock in adults in sub-Saharan Africa

Bickey H. Chang¹, Susan A. Adakun², Mary A. Auma³, Patrick Banura⁴, Albert Majwala⁵, Amir A. Mbonde⁶, Elizabeth Rogawski McQuade⁷, Richard Ssekitoleko⁸, Mark Conaway⁹, and Christopher C. Moore¹⁰ for the Severe Respiratory Distress in Africa (SRDA) investigators

- 1. Department of Medicine, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, USA
- 2. Mulago National Referral Hospital, Kampala, Uganda
- 3. Department of Medicine, Gulu University, Gulu, Uganda
- 4. Ministry of Health, Uganda, Kampala, Uganda
- 5. Department of Medicine, Lubaga Hospital, Kampala, Uganda
- 6. Department of Medicine, Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Mbarara, Uganda
- 7. World Health Organization, Kampala, Uganda
- 8. Department of Epidemiology, Emory University, Atlanta, USA
- 9. Department of Public Health Sciences, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, USA
- 10. Division of Infectious Diseases and International Health, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, USA

SRDA investigators:

Ben Andrews¹, Tim Baker², John A. Crump³, Martin P. Grobusch⁴, Michaela A. M. Huson⁵, Shevin T. Jacob⁶, Olamide D. Jarrett⁷, John Kellett⁸, Matthew Rubach⁹, Jamie Rylance⁶, John Schieffelin¹⁰, and India Wheeler⁶

- 1. Institute for Global Health, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, USA
- 2. Muhimbili University of Health & Allied Sciences, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania
- 3. Centre for International Health, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand
- 4. Center of Tropical Medicine and Travel Medicine, Department of Infectious Diseases, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Amsterdam Infection & Immunity, Amsterdam Public Health, University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands
- 5. Erasmus Medical Center, Department of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, Rotterdam, the Netherlands
- 6. Department of Clinical Sciences, Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, Liverpool, United Kingdom
- 7. Department of Medicine, University of Illinois at Chicago School of Medicine, Chicago, USA
- 8. Kitovu Hospital Study Group, Masaka, Uganda
- 9. Division of Infectious Diseases and International Health, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, USA
- 10. Departments of Pediatrics, Section of Infectious Disease, Tulane University, New Orleans, USA

Corresponding author: Christopher C. Moore, 345 Crispell Drive, Medical Research Building 6, Room 2523, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA 22903. ccm5u@virginia.edu

Author contributions: BHC, MC, and CCM contributed to the conception and design of the study, and drafted the manuscript. SAA, AAM, BA, MAA, TB, PB, JAC, MPG, MAMH, STJ, ODJ, JK, AM, MR, JR, JS, RS, IW contributed to data acquisition and edited the manuscript. ERM contributed to data analysis and edited the manuscript.

Funding support: None

Running head: Severe respiratory disease in Africa

Descriptor: 4.02 ALI/ARDS: Diagnosis & Clinical Issues **Word count:** 1083

This article is open access and distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial No Derivatives License 4.0 [\(http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)[nd/4.0/\)](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/). For commercial usage and reprints please contact Diane Gern [\(dgern@thoracic.org](mailto:dgern@thoracic.org)).

To the Editor:

Sepsis is the leading cause of global mortality, and is most often attributed to lower respiratory tract infections and subsequent acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) (1). The greatest burden of sepsis rests on sub-Saharan Africa where lower respiratory tract infections account for approximately 390,000 adult deaths each year (2). Yet patients from sub-Saharan Africa are underrepresented in sepsis and ARDS research (3).

ARDS is difficult to diagnose in low income countries because it requires often unavailable imaging, mechanical ventilation to set positive end-expiratory pressure and deliver a reliable fraction of inspired oxygen, and arterial blood gasses to identify hypoxemia (4). To mitigate this gap, the World Health Organization (WHO) pragmatically defined severe respiratory distress without shock (SRD) in adults as oxygen saturation <90% or respiratory rate >30 breaths per minute, and a systolic blood pressure >90 mmHg in the setting of infection and in the absence of clinical cardiac failure (5). The natural history of SRD has not been fully described; accordingly, we aimed to evaluate the prevalence, characteristics, and outcomes of SRD in hospitalized patients in sub-Saharan Africa.

Methods

We conducted a multi-cohort analysis using previously collected de-identified data pooled from 16 hospital-based studies, which were conducted in 6 countries throughout sub-Saharan Africa from 2009 through 2019 including 1 previously unpublished dataset (Kitovu Hospital, Masaka, Uganda) (Table 1) (6). Variables in the pooled dataset included: admission age, sex, temperature, heart rate, respiratory rate, systolic blood pressure, diastolic blood pressure, oxygen saturation, Glasgow coma scale (GCS) score, and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) serostatus. The pooled dataset did not include causes of infection for all participants. We defined SRD according to WHO criteria with the exception of the exclusion of heart failure. We

excluded patients <14 years of age. We imputed missing data using multiple imputation with chained equations with 10 iterations (7). We did not impute sex, HIV serostatus, or mortality. We used Stata 13.0 and SAS 9.4 for all analyses.

We determined the associations of respiratory rate and oxygen saturation with mortality in separate univariate analyses. We constructed multivariable baseline risk models of in-hospital mortality in all participants, and in a subset with infection, using logisitc regression models that included: 1) age, sex; 2) age, sex, HIV; 3) age, sex, GCS; and 4) age, sex, HIV, GCS (1). We created separate models for each study with the same variables but with study-specific coefficients and then aggregated the models. We included study specific models with missing baseline variables, e.g. HIV serostatus, in the aggregate models with the missing variable deleted. We determined the area under the curve (AUC) and absolute risks for mortality for each baseline model with and without the inclusion of admission SRD as an independent variable.

Results

Of the 7385 participants, the median age (interquartile range [IQR]) was 37 (27-53) years, 3584 (49%) were female, and 2282 (46%) of the 4917 with a known HIV serostatus were living with HIV. The median (IQR) respiratory rate was 24 (20-30) breaths per minute. Among the 5121 participants with oxygen saturation recorded, the median (IQR) value was 96% (94-98%).

There were 949 (13%) participants with SRD. Among the 3575 participants admitted to the hospital with an infection, 578 (16%) had SRD compared to 371 (10%) of 3810 participants with undifferentiated causes of hospital admission (odds ratio [OR] 1.78, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.55-2.06). Among participants with SRD, the median (IQR) oxygen saturation and respiratory rate were 91% (85-97%) and 35 (31-40) breaths per minute, respectively; 235 (25%) met the

criterion of oxygen saturation <90% only, 610 (64%) met the criterion of respiratory rate >30 breaths per minute only, and 104 (11%) met both criteria.

In-hospital death occurred in 1096 (15%) participants. Among participants with SRD, 209 (22%) died in hospital compared to 887 (14%) of 6436 participants without SRD (OR 1.77, 95% CI 1.49-2.10). The in-hospital case fatality ratio for participants meeting SRD criteria of respiratory rate only, oxygen saturation only, or both was 111 (18%) of 610, 55 (23%) of 235, and 43 (41%) of 104, respectively (p<0.001 across groups). In all participants, for every increase of 10 breaths per minute, there was a 75% increase in the odds of death (OR 1.75, CI 1.64-1.87), and for every 1% increase in oxygen saturation there was an 8% reduction in the odds of in-hospital mortality (OR 0.92, CI 0.91-0.93). In participants with SRD, there was a non-statistically significant increase in odds of death associated with increased respiratory rate (OR 1.13, CI 0.96-1.33), and for every 1% increase in oxygen saturation there was a 6% reduction in the odds of in-hospital mortality (OR 0.94, CI 0.92-0.96). Using the imputed data, across baseline multivariable models, AUCs ranged from 0.58 to 0.69, which increased with the addition of SRD to 0.60 to 0.73. The presence of SRD in the models increased the absolute risk of mortality by 5.4-7.5% over the baseline risk (p<0.001 for all models) (Figure 1). In participants with infection, the presence of SRD in the models increased the absolute risk for mortality by 2.5-3.7%.

Discussion

In the first comprehensive evaluation of the prevalence, characteristics, and outcomes of WHOdefined SRD in hospitalized patients in sub-Saharan Africa, we found that SRD was common with a prevalence that ranged from 10% to 16% depending on whether the participant was admitted with infection or not. SRD was associated with a high in-hospital case fatality ratio of 22%. Increases in respiratory rate were associated with increased risk of in-hospital death, while increases in oxygen saturation were associated with decreased risk of in-hospital death. The

presence of SRD in each baseline model increased the AUC and the associated absolute risk of mortality. We were limited by missing data but accounted for this using a robust imputation strategy. We were also unable to rule-out heart failure; however, our findings were similar in a sensitivity analysis of participants with infection. We were not able to directly compare SRD to ARDS diagnoses, nor is this likely to be done on a large scale due to the resource constraints that limit the ability to diagnose ARDS in low income settings even when using the less resource intensive Kigali modification of the Berlin ARDS criteria (8). Nonetheless, our data suggest that SRD identifies patients with acute respiratory disease who are at high risk of death making SRD a reasonable proxy for ARDS in clinical settings where the components needed for a diagnosis of ARDS are unavailable. Prospective multi-site studies could provide further data about the case incidence, etiologies, and outcomes of SRD in Africa.

References

1. Rudd KE, Johnson SC, Agesa KM, Shackelford KA, Tsoi D, Kievlan DR, *et al.* Global, regional, and national sepsis incidence and mortality, 1990–2017: analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study. *The Lancet* 2020;395:200–211.

2. GBD 2016 Lower Respiratory Infections Collaborators. Estimates of the global, regional, and national morbidity, mortality, and aetiologies of lower respiratory infections in 195 countries, 1990-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2018;18:1191–1210.

3. Bellani G, Laffey JG, Pham T, Fan E, Brochard L, Esteban A, *et al.* Epidemiology, Patterns of Care, and Mortality for Patients With Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome in Intensive Care Units in 50 Countries. *JAMA* 2016;315:788–800.

4. ARDS Definition Task Force, Ranieri VM, Rubenfeld GD, Thompson BT, Ferguson ND, Caldwell E, *et al.* Acute respiratory distress syndrome: the Berlin Definition. *JAMA* 2012;307:2526–2533.

5. Jacob ST, Lim M, Banura P, Bhagwanjee S, Bion J, Cheng AC, *et al.* IMAI District Clinician Manual: Hospital Care for Adolescents and Adults. Guidelines for the Management of Illnesses with Limited Resources. *World Health Organization* 2013;at

< http://www.who.int/influenza/patient_care/IMAI_DCM/en/index.html >.

6. Moore CC, Hazard R, Saulters KJ, Ainsworth J, Adakun SA, Amir A, *et al.* Derivation and validation of a universal vital assessment (UVA) score: a tool for predicting mortality in adult hospitalised patients in sub-Saharan Africa. *BMJ Glob Health* 2017;2:e000344.

7. White IR, Royston P, Wood AM. Multiple imputation using chained equations: Issues and guidance for practice. *Stat Med* 2011;30:377–399.

8. Riviello ED, Kiviri W, Twagirumugabe T, Mueller A, Banner-Goodspeed VM, Officer L, *et al.* Hospital Incidence and Outcomes of the Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome Using the Kigali Modification of the Berlin Definition. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2016;193:52–59.

Table 1. Hospital-based cohort studies conducted in six African countries from 2009-2019 contributing to pooled data for the analysis of the prevalence, characteristics, and outcomes of World Health Organization defined severe respiratory disease without shock.

a=Clinical data include temperature, heart rate, respiratory rate, SBP, DBP, and GCS

b=Laboratory data include WBC count, hemoglobin concentration and platelet concentration

c=CD4 counts are only reported for HIV-infected patients

d=Admitted with a clinical diagnosis of meningitis

e=Admitted with a clinical diagnosis of severe sepsis defined as systemic inflammatory response syndrome with suspected infection and organ dysfunction

f=Admitted with a clinical diagnosis of sepsis defined as systemic inflammatory response syndrome with suspected infection

g=Admitted with a temperature ≥38 or <36 °C and at least one other systemic inflammatory response syndrome criterion

h=Admitted with an acute illness to a medical ward with no other specified inclusion criteria

i=Admitted with subjective fever or or had a documented temperature ≥ 38°C within 24 hours of admission

j=Admitted with a temperature ≥ 38.0°C

k=Kitovu Hospital, Masaka, Uganda

Figure legend

Figure 1: Comparison of the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) for inhospital mortality models with and without the inclusion of admission severe respiratory disease (SRD) as defined by the World Health Organization (WHO), and the estimated mortality risk increases associated with the incorporation of SRD in each model. At left, each baseline risk model is provided followed by the AUC calculated for each model. The vertical dotted lines represent the AUC for each base model. The black dot and horizontal line represent the AUC and 95% confidence interval when SRD is included as an independent variable to each base model. The values for AUC are provided according to the scale at the bottom of the figure. At right, the black dot and horizontal line represent the estimated absolute risk increase and 95% confidence interval when SRD is present in each base model. The vertical dashed line at right represents the baseline mortality risk for each model. The values for the estimated absolute risk increase are provided according to the scale at the top of the figure. GCS = Glasgow Coma Scale score; HIV = human immunodeficiency virus.

Figure 1. Comparison of the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) for in-hospital mortality models with and without the inclusion of admission severe respiratory disease (SRD) as defined by the World Health Organization (WHO), and the estimated mortality risk increases associated with the incorporation of SRD in each model. At left, each baseline risk model is provided followed by the AUC calculated for each model. The vertical dotted lines represent the AUC for each base model. The black dot and horizontal line represent the AUC and 95% confidence interval when SRD is included as an independent variable to each base model. The values for AUC are provided according to the scale at the bottom of the figure. At right, the black dot and horizontal line represent the estimated absolute risk increase and 95% confidence interval when SRD is present in each base model. The vertical dashed line at right represents the baseline mortality risk for each model. The values for the estimated absolute risk increase are provided according to the scale at the top of the figure. $GCS = G$ as G as G as G as $HIV = human$ immunodeficiency virus.

228x152mm (96 x 96 DPI)