RESEARCH ARTICLE

Effect of mild hyperbaric oxygen therapy on children diagnosed with autism

Alex Rizzato ¹, Natalie D'Alessandro ², Elisabetta Berenci ², Alice Rinchi ², Garrett Enten ⁴, Giuliano Vezzani ³, Maurizio Proietti ², Alberto Fiorito ¹, Enrico Camporesi ⁴, Gerardo Bosco ¹

¹ Environmental physiology & medicine Lab, Department of Biomedical Sciences, University of Padova, Italy

² Domus Medica, Casa di Cura privata, Repubblica di San Marino, Italy

³ Associazione Pazienti Trattati in iperbarismo (ASPATI), Fidenza, Italy

4 TEAMHEalth Research Institute, Tampa, Florida U.S.

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Gerardo Bosco – gerardo.bosco@unipd.it

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Hyperbaric oxygen (HBO₂) therapy is emerging internationally as the primary treatment modality for inflammatory pathways related to neurological disorders. Currently, literature concerning its effectiveness in autistic children is limited. Using neurocognitive tests and clinicaldiagnostic evaluations, this study evaluates the clinical, cognitive and behavioral effects of HBO₂ on children diagnosed with autism.

Methods: An experimental HBO₂ group (EXP: F = 1; M = 7; mean age: 7 ± 2.33; years) and a control non-HBO₂ group of autistic children (CTRL: F = 2; M= 5; mean age: 6.6 ± 2.7 years) correctly completed the Aberrant Behavior Checklist-Community (ABC) before HBO₂ (T₀), after 40 sessions of HBO₂ (T₁), and one month after the end of treatments (T₂). Additionally, the experimental HBO₂ group was evaluated with the Childhood Autism Rating Scale at T₀ and T₂.

Results: Total ABC score was lower at T_2 (mean \pm SD: 50.38 \pm 18.55; p < 0.001) compared to scores obtained at T_0 (mean \pm SD: 57.5 \pm 19.01). Similarly, in the control group the total ABC score differed statistically (p < 0.05) between T_0 (103.6 \pm 20.38) and (T_2 : 59 \pm 25.25).

Conclusions: Despite the improvements reported in both groups, our results do not support the utility of HBO₂ in children diagnosed with autism.

INTRODUCTION

Autism (AD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by impaired social interaction and communication that presents with narrow and stereotyped patterns of behaviors. Although the estimated rate of AD in the United States is one per 100 people [1], previous epidemiologic studies have implied that the prevalence of the pathology is increasing [2,3]. Annual treatment costs of AD within the United States exceed several billion dollars [4]. With autism rates increasing and costs on the rise, better and cheaper treatments are continually being developed.

Hyperbaric oxygen (HBO₂) therapy is an emerging treatment modality for inflammatory pathways related to AD [15,16]. According to the Undersea and Hyperbaric Medical Society (UHMS), HBO₂ is defined as an intervention that utilizes 100% patient-inspired oxygen inside a chamber pressurized to greater than 1.4 atmospheres absolute (ATA). These environmental conditions increase the partial pressure of oxygen (PPO₂) and dissolved oxygen in plasma, increasing the oxygenation of body tissues [17].

To date the UHMS has determined the beneficial effect of HBO₂ for 14 different diseases [18]. An increasing number of studies are reporting that HBO₂ improves neurological function. In particular, Jacobs, et al. demonstrated significant and persistent gains of cognitive function and memory in a group of people with cognitive deficit receiving HBO₂ at 100% and 2.5 ATA after 30 intermittent sessions [19]. Additionally, a double-blind randomized controlled trial showed that even young healthy adults treated for seven weeks

KEYWORDS: autism; children; hyperbaric oxygen therapy; psychology

with oxygen improved their cognitive performances, attention, and both immediate and delayed word recall when compared to a group breathing air [20]. This study investigates the efficacy of low-pressure HBO_2 at 1.5 ATA for autistic children breathing 100% oxygen. The aim of the study was to evaluate clinical, cognitive and behavioral changes through neurocognitive tests and clinical diagnostic evaluation before and after HBO_2 therapy.

METHODS

This observational study was conducted in accordance with the ethical standards of the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants' parents gave their informed consent, and every precaution was taken to protect their privacy. All costs of treatment and testing were covered by Domus Medica, ASPATI and private donations.

Patient selection

All children prescreened for this study were diagnosed with AD by an independent pediatrician and were referred by their primary care physician for the experimental treatment. AD diagnoses were based on DSM IV diagnostic criteria (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition) and confirmed by a separate pediatric neuropsychiatrist prior to study enrollment; children with other pervasive developmental disorders and/or Asperger syndrome were excluded from this study. Patient screening to determine eligibility for HBO2 included an electrocardiogram, chest X-ray, and full examination by an otorhinolaryngologist to check the integrity of the tympanic membranes of each ear; patients with active infections and/or a previous surgery were excluded from the study.

A total of 40 autistic children were prescreened for study eligibility. A total of 28 patients were removed from the study, 16 of whom failed to meet the study inclusion criteria, 10 of whom were deemed too noncompliant for HBO₂, and two of whom had parental consent withdrawn prior to treatment. The remaining 12 subjects received 40-hour long sessions of HBO₂. During the active portion of the study, four subjects were unable to complete the clinical, cognitive and behavioral tests. The final experimental cohort consisted of eight children, (EXP: F = 1; M = 7; mean age: 7 ± 2.33 ; years). Of the 10 patients deemed too noncompliant to receive HBO₂, seven agreed to continue on to the active phase of the study as part of a control group (CTRL: F = 2; M = 5; mean age: 6.6 ± 2.7 years). Members of the control group did not receive hyperbaric oxygen therapy. All patients involved in this study were kept on a strict diet and restricted from beginning any new therapy for the duration of the study.

Nutritional considerations

Nutrition was standardized for all study subjects with the intent of minimizing proinflammatory sources of nutrition. All patients followed the same nutritional regimen suggested by their own pediatrician before beginning the study; no subjects changed their nutritional habits before or during the study. As gluten has been demonstrated to stimulate inflammatory processes at a local level and to have direct involvement in intestinal permeability[21], foods that contained gluten were eliminated from the diet when possible or replaced with gluten-free products where the gluten was substituted by a different protein. In particular, bread and its derivatives as well as pasta made with wheat flour were excluded.

Meat-based foods, both white and red meat and including cold cuts, were minimized. The objective of this choice was the reduction of proinflammatory factors – in particular insulinlike growth factor 1 (IGF-1) and interleukin 1 (IL-1), which are related to meat consumption [21]. A pediatric nutritionist was consulted to ensure all subjects would maintain proper nutrition in terms of calories, vitamins and minerals for the duration of the study.

HBO₂ protocol

Patients were exposed to HBO2 inside a multiplace hyperbaric chamber with compressed air at 1.5 ATA for 80 minutes. Each patient was provided with a wellsealed breathing mask that provided 100% oxygen. Oxygen concentration in the mask was measured every five minutes by sampling outside the chamber in order to ensure adequacy of the gas supply and the ability of providing a tight seal around the face. Children were accompanied by a parent and health care assistant to ensure patient health, safety and treatment compliance for the duration of the HBO₂ sessions. Subjects, parents, and assistants present in the hyperbaric chamber were additionally monitored by staff outside the chamber. Each patient received eight weeks of HBO2 treatments once a day, from Monday to Friday for a total 40 HBO₂ sessions.

Table 1. Scores from aberrant behaviorchecklist-community				
EXP (n=8)	ABC T _o	ABC T ₁	ABC T ₂	
mean	57.50	55.25##	50.38***	
SD	19.01	18.96	18.55	
CTRL (n=7)	ABC T _o	ABC T ₁	ABC T ₂	
mean	103.6	94.86	59.00§	
SD	20.38	17.22	25.25	

For both control and experimental HBO₂ groups, the mean values \pm SD obtained before (T₀), at the end of 40 sessions of HBO₂ (T₁), and one month after the end of HBO₂ (T₂) are shown. Statistics of their differences is also reported. ## ABC T₁ vs ABC T₂ (p < 0.01); ***ABC T₀ vs ABC T₂ (p < 0.001); § ABC T₀ vs ABC T₂ (p < 0.05)

Clinical and behavioral assessments

Each patient underwent the Aberrant Behavior Checklist-Community (ABC is an evaluation based on observations. ABC consists of a 58-item questionnaire that measures communication, social interaction, play and stereotyped behaviors. It is regularly used to evaluate the efficacy of therapeutic interventions; scores range from 0 ("not a problem at all") to 3 ("severe degree of problem"). The final outcome is calculated by adding the scores from five distinct categories assessing:

- sensory responses (ABC-1);
- affective responses (ABC-2);
- stereotypies and use of objects (ABC-3);
- language development (ABC-4); and
- individual and social autonomies (ABC-5).

The ABC questionnaire was applied three times to both the experimental HBO_2 and control groups: before starting the study (T₀), at the end of 40 sessions of HBO_2 (T₁, at 60 days) and one month after the end of HBO_2 sessions (T₂, at 90 days). The cutoff points for diagnosis of AD were identified as:

- high probability of autism (> 67 points);
- uncertain (53-65 points);
- low probability of autism (< 53 points).
- Lower scores indicate less severe autism.

The Childhood Autism Rating Scale (CARS) was utilized in the experimental group. CARS is one of the most widely standardized and common test to diagnose AD and asses its severity [22]. It can be applied to children older than 2 years old and consists of 15 different items that describe in detail the crucial features of diagnosis. A score with a range between 1 to 4 shows the severity of the symptoms (1 = none, 4 = severe expression). Total score was the sum of all the scores obtained from each item; a score of 30 represents the lowest value to diagnose autism. These values were obtained only in the eight study subjects before HBO₂ (T_0) and at the 90-day visit (T_2).

Data analysis

All data were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) and compared with the statistical GraphPad Prism software (GraphPad Prism 6, GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, California). After a normality test (D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus normality test), ABC scores in T₀, T₁ and T₂ were analyzed with a parametric test for multiple comparisons (one-way analysis of variance/ANOVA). The Student's t-test was used to compare scores from the CARS scale in T₀ and T₂. P < 0.05 was considered significant.

RESULTS

ABC

Mean scores and standard deviations are summarized in Table 1. The ABC questionnaire was also administered before treatment (T₀), after 40 HBO2 sessions (T_1) and one month after the end of treatments (T_2) . Total ABC score, including all five categories, was lower in T_1 (mean ± SD: 55.25 ± 18.96; ns) and T_2 (mean \pm SD: 50.38 \pm 18.55; p < 0.001) compared to scores obtained in T_0 (mean ± SD: 57.5 ± 19.01). Additionally, a significant difference was found in comparing scores between T_2 and T_1 (p < 0.01). In particular, sensory responses (ABC-1) and language development (ABC-4) were categories benefiting the most from HBO2 treatment. The ABC-1 score in T_2 (mean ± SD: 4,87 ± 3,13; p < 0.05) was lower than T_0 (mean ± SD: 6,125 ± 3,18). ABC-4 score in T_2 (mean ± SD: 11.25 ± 3.65; p < 0.001) and T_1 (mean ± SD: 13.63 ± 3.62; p<0,05) were lower than T_0 (mean ± SD: 14.75 ± 3.69).

Scores obtained from ABC-2 (affective responses), ABC-3 (stereotypes and use of objects) and ABC-5 (individual and social autonomies) did not modify during therapy. The result suggests that HBO₂ may improve sensorial responses, language development and use in autistic children, as lower scores indicate less severe ABC autism. Comparisons among different time-points within the control group (T₀: 103.6 ± 20.38; T₁: 94.86 ± 17.22; T₂: 59 ± 25.25) showed improvement of the total ABC score, statistically significant between T₀ and T₂ (p < 0.05). In detail, sensory responses (ABC-1; T₀: 14.57 ± 3.645; T₁: 12.29 ± 1.49 and T₂: 7.85 ± 2.11) evidenced a significant difference between T₀ and T₂ (p < 0.001). Scores obtained as per affective responses (ABC-2; T₀: 28.71 ± 7.04; T₁: 27.14 ± 5.69 and T₂: 19.29 ± 5.52), language development (ABC-4; T₀ 23.57 ± 7.61; T₁: 22.14 ± 7.40 and T₂: 11.86 ± 9.19) and individual and social autonomies (ABC-5; T₀: 19.43 ± 6.37; T₁: 17.71 ± 5.18 and T₂: 10.86 ± 7.08) showed no significant differences between the different time-points. Moreover, as per stereotypies and use of objects (ABC-3; T₀: 17.29 ± 2.360; T₁: 15.57 ± 1.39 and T₂: 9.143 ± 3.671) a significant improvement of scores was observed between T₀ and T₂ (p < 0.001).

CARS

The CARS test, used to help in diagnosing AD and assess its severity, was administered only to the experimental HBO₂ group as an additional test. It was performed before the therapy (T₀) and one month after the end of HBO₂ treatment (T₂). Obtained scores in T₂ (mean \pm SD: 35.43 \pm 3.29) did not significantly differ from those obtained in T₀ (mean \pm SD: 36.31 \pm 3.18), as shown in Table 2.

DISCUSSION

Current literature on this subject is severely lacking. Case studies and related publications about effects of hyperbaric oxygenation on core and/or non-core symptoms of AD are insufficient, as most of them encountered multiple internal and external validity problems. This study aimed to investigate the therapeutic efficacy of HBO2 for ameliorating cognitive and behavioral functions in children diagnosed with autism. Few studies have supported hyperbaric oxygen as a therapy able to improve neurological activity in patients with neurological disorders. However, HBO₂ has shown a positive effect in pathologies such as traumatic and chronic cerebral injury [23,24] and fetal alcohol syndrome [25,26]. Interestingly, the hyperbaric pressure (1.5 ATA or lower) used in the aforementioned studies [23-26] was lower than the pressure usually applied in daily clinical practice [27]. Moreover, HBO₂ at the same pressure has shown improvement in patients with cerebral palsy (CP) [28], with considerable effect on the results in some cases [29]. Improvements have also been demonstrated in a traumatic brain injury model in rats. Harch and colleagues demonstrated an improvement of memory and spatial learning in brain-damaged rats

Table 2. Scores from childhood autism rating scale in the eight study subjects CARS				
1	34	34.5		
2	38	38		
3	33	32		
4	35.5	32		
5	37.5	36.5		
6	38	38		
7	32.5	32		
8	42	40.5		
mean \pm SD	36.31 ± 3.18	35.43 ± 3.29		
p-value	N	S		

The mean values \pm SD obtained before (T₀) and one month after the end of HBO₂ (T₂) are shown. Statistics of their differences (ns) is also reported.

treated with HBO_2 (100% O_2 at 1.5 ATA) compared with rats exposed to a normobaric environment [30].

An important point of discussion is the hypothesis that high oxidative stress levels exist in autistic individuals [31], which could be due to an impaired antioxidant potential [32,33]. The relationship between HBO₂ and oxidative stress remains controversial. Indeed, studies have shown that HBO₂ may respectively cause an increase [34] or decrease [35] in oxidative stress at pressures under 2 ATA. Prolonged and repeated use of low-pressure HBO₂ may decrease lipid peroxidation [36] as well as activity of the antioxidant enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD) [37,38], glutathione peroxidase [39], catalase [40] and paraoxonase enzyme [36]. Regardless, no worsening of autistic subjects' oxidative profile post-HBO₂ has been encountered within the literature [15-17].

In recent studies, those autistic subjects who received a low hyperbaric pressure (1.3 to 1.5 ATA) with variable oxygen concentration (between 21% and 100%) showed a significant improvement in both their clinical responses and inflammatory status [13,15,17]. Although some doubts concerning oxidative stress in association with HBO₂ were raised [41], HBO₂ is considered safe for children, even at 2 ATA for two hours a day [42]. However, the lack of clear evidence between 1.3 and 1.5 ATA with air or oxygen treatments requires caution.

LIMITATIONS

Our study showed short-term improvements in both groups, but it has several limitations. A randomized blinded protocol with a larger and more homogenous clinical sample is needed to strengthen our results. The basal ABC scores of the control group were nearly double that of the experimental group. Further, the ABC metric in of itself is flawed due to its dependence on an outside observer such as a parent or caregiver. The CARS test is by far a more objective measurement of the subjects' cognitive function and severity of their disorder. However, this test was utilized only in the experimental group.

Though a specific food model was designed and prescribed to the children, dietary compliance is often difficult to maintain especially in this specific subpopulation of patients. Additional research is needed to clarify a nutritional approach for autistic children.

CONCLUSIONS

 HBO_2 appears to be safe for autistic children. The probable improvement in certain autistic behaviors need to be further elucidated. HBO_2 seemed to improve neurocognitive evaluation in the experimental HBO_2 group after 40 treatments, with stabilized improvement up to 90 days. Similarly, the control group underlined a significant difference before treatment and at follow up, but not at the 60-day visit. This study was well executed to prevent any risk, and the O_2 levels were well monitored at all times. The nutrition details were suggested, but food could not be controlled objectively. This study showed that with an anti-inflammatory diet HBO₂ seems to improve sense perception, relationships and personal capacity. Currently, the sustainability of this improvement is limited to 90 days, as no other measurements were taken past T_2 . Considering the several limits of the present study and the improvement in both groups, our results do not support the utility of mild HBO₂ administration in children diagnosed with autism.

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that no conflict of interest exists with this submission.

Acknowledgments

We wish to thank Domus Medica Casa di Cura privata (San Marino Republic) for approving the experimental study and for covering the costs for the treatment. In addition, we are thankful to Associazione Pazienti Trattati in Iperbarismo (ASPATI) for providing financial support, evaluating test, and researcher reimbursement.

REFERENCES

1. Baio J. Prevalence of autism spectrum disorders – Autism and Developmental Disabilities Monitoring Network, 14 sites, United States, 2008. MMWR Surveill Summ. 2012; Mar 3061(3): 1-19.

2. Baird G, Charman T, Baron-Cohen S, et al. A screening instrument for autism at 18 months of age: a 6-year follow-up study. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2000;39(6):694-702.

3. Chakrabarti S, Fombonne E. Pervasive developmental disorders in preschool children. JAMA. 2001;285(24):3093-3099.

4. Elsabbagh M, Divan G, Koh Y-J, et al. Global prevalence of autism and other pervasive developmental disorders. Autism Res. 2012; 5(3):160-179.

5. Laurence JA, Fatemi SH. Glial fibrillary acidic protein is elevated in superior frontal, parietal and cerebellar cortices of autistic subjects. Cerebellum. 2005;4(3):206-210.

6. Vargas DL, Nascimbene C, Krishnan C, Zimmerman AW, Pardo CA. Neuroglial activation and neuroinflammation in the brain of patients with autism. Ann Neurol. 2005;57(1):67-81.

7. Furlano RI, Anthony A, Day R, et al. Colonic CD8 and gamma delta T-cell infiltration with epithelial damage in children with autism. J Pediatr. 2001;138(3):366-372.

8. Uhlmann V, Martin CM, Sheils O, et al. Potential viral pathogenic mechanism for new variant inflammatory bowel disease. Mol Pathol. 2002; 55(2):84-90.

9. Boddaert N, Zilbovicius M. Functional neuroimaging and childhood autism. Pediatr Radiol. 2002;32(1):1-7.

10. Zilbovicius M, Boddaert N, Belin P, et al. Temporal lobe dysfunction in childhood autism: a PET study. Positron emission tomography. Am J Psychiatry. 2000;157(12):1988-1993.

11. Buchman AL, Fife C, Torres C, Smith L, Aristizibal J. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy for severe ulcerative colitis. J Clin Gastroenterol. 2001;33(4):337-339.

12. Neubauer RA, James P. Cerebral oxygenation and the recoverable brain. Neurol Res. 1998;20 Suppl 1:S33-S36.

13. Sheffield PJ, Davis JC. Application of hyperbaric oxygen therapy in a case of prolonged cerebral hypoxia following rapid decompression. Aviat Space Environ Med. 1976;47(7):759-762.

14. Vlodavsky E, Palzur E, Soustiel JF. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy reduces neuroinflammation and expression of matrix metalloproteinase-9 in the rat model of traumatic brain injury. Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol. 2006;32(1):40-50.

15. Rossignol DA. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy might improve certain pathophysiological findings in autism. Med Hypotheses. 2007;68(6):1208-1227.

16. Rossignol DA, Rossignol LW. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy may improve symptoms in autistic children. Med Hypotheses. 2006;67(2):216-228.

17. Rossignol DA, Bradstreet JJ, Van Dyke K, et al. Hyperbaric oxygen treatment in autism spectrum disorders. Med Gas Res. 2012;2(1):16.

18. UHMS. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy indications. Thirteenth. Weaver L, editor. North Palm Beach: Best Publishing Company; 2014.

19. Jacobs EA, Winter PM, Alvis HJ, Small SM. Hyperoxygenation effect on cognitive functioning in the aged. N Engl J Med. 1969; 281(14):753-757.

20. Moss MC, Scholey AB, Wesnes K. Oxygen administration selectively enhances cognitive performance in healthy young adults: a placebo-controlled double-blind crossover study. Psychopharmacology (Berl). 1998;138(1):27-33.

21. Mulak A, Bonaz B. Brain-gut-microbiota axis in Parkinson's disease. World J Gastroenterol. 2015;21(37):10609-10620.

22. Schopler E, Reichler RJ, DeVellis RF, Daly K. Toward objective classification of childhood autism: Childhood Autism Rating Scale (CARS). J Autism Dev Disord. 1980;10(1):91-103.

23. Neubauer RA, Gottlieb SF, Miale A. Identification of hypometabolic areas in the brain using brain imaging and hyperbaric oxygen. Clin Nucl Med. 1992;17(6):477-481.

24. Rockswold GL, Ford SE, Anderson DC, Bergman TA, Sherman RE. Results of a prospective randomized trial for treatment of severely brain-injured patients with hyperbaric oxygen. J Neurosurg. 1992;76(6):929-934.

25. Stoller KP. Quantification of neurocognitive changes before, during, and after hyperbaric oxygen therapy in a case of fetal alcohol syndrome. Pediatrics. 2005;116(4):e586-91.

26. Collet JP, Vanasse M, Marois P, et al. Hyperbaric oxygen for children with cerebral palsy: a randomised multicentre trial. HBO-CP Research Group. Lancet (London, England). 2001 Feb 24;357(9256):582-586.

27. Leach RM, Rees PJ, Wilmshurst P. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy. BMJ. 1998;317(7166):1140-1143.

28. Montgomery D, Goldberg J, Amar M, et al. Effects of hyperbaric oxygen therapy on children with spastic diplegic cerebral palsy: a pilot project. Undersea Hyperb Med. 1999;26(4):235-242.

29. Marois P, Vanasse M. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy and cerebral palsy. Dev Med Child Neurol. 2003;45(9):646-7; author reply 647-648.

30. Harch PG, Kriedt C, Van Meter KW, Sutherland RJ. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy improves spatial learning and memory in a rat model of chronic traumatic brain injury. Brain Res. 2007;1174:120-129.

31. Chauhan A, Chauhan V. Oxidative stress in autism. Pathophysiol Off J Int Soc Pathophysiol. 2006;13(3):171-181.

32. Yorbik O, Sayal A, Akay C, Akbiyik DI, Sohmen T. Investigation of antioxidant enzymes in children with autistic disorder. Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids. 2002 Nov;67(5):341-343.

33. Zoroglu SS, Armutcu F, Ozen S, et al. Increased oxidative stress and altered activities of erythrocyte free radical scavenging enzymes in autism. Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2004;254(3):143-147.

34. Wada K, Miyazawa T, Nomura N, Tsuzuki N, Nawashiro H, Shima K. Preferential conditions for and possible mechanisms of induction of ischemic tolerance by repeated hyperbaric oxygenation in gerbil hippocampus. Neurosurgery. 2001;49(1):160-166; discussion 166-167.

35. Yasar M, Yildiz S, Mas R, et al. The effect of hyperbaric oxygen treatment on oxidative stress in experimental acute necrotizing pancreatitis. Physiol Res. 2003;52(1):111-1116.

36. Kudchodkar BJ, Wilson J, Lacko A, Dory L. Hyperbaric oxygen reduces the progression and accelerates the regression of atherosclerosis in rabbits. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol. 2000;20(6):1637-1643.

37. Gregorevic P, Lynch GS, Williams DA. Hyperbaric oxygen modulates antioxidant enzyme activity in rat skeletal muscles. Eur J Appl Physiol. 2001;86(1):24-27.

38. Ozden TA, Uzun H, Bohloli M, et al. The effects of hyperbaric oxygen treatment on oxidant and antioxidants levels during liver regeneration in rats. Tohoku J Exp Med. 2004;203(4):253-265.

39. Gulec B, Yasar M, Yildiz S, et al. Effect of hyperbaric oxygen on experimental acute distal colitis. Physiol Res. 2004;53(5): 493-499.

40. Nie H, Xiong L, Lao N, Chen S, Xu N, Zhu Z. Hyperbaric oxygen preconditioning induces tolerance against spinal cord ischemia by upregulation of antioxidant enzymes in rabbits. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab. 2006;26(5):666-674.

41. Alleva R, Nasole E, Di Donato F, Borghi B, Neuzil J, Tomasetti M. alpha-lipoic acid supplementation inhibits oxidative damage, accelerating chronic wound healing in patients undergoing hyperbaric oxygen therapy. Biochem Biophys Res Commun. 2005;333(2):404-410.

42. Ashamalla HL, Thom SR, Goldwein JW. Hyperbaric oxygen therapy for the treatment of radiation-induced sequelae in children: The University of Pennsylvania experience. Cancer. 1996; 77(11): 2407-2412.

+

RESEARCH ARTICLE

The relationship between intoxication severity and blood interleukin 6, interleukin 10 and CRP levels in carbon monoxide-poisoned patients

Gokhan Akcali, MD ^{1, 2}; Gunalp Uzun, MD ¹; Ibrahim Arziman, MD ³; Ibrahim Aydin, MD ⁴; Senol Yildiz, MD ¹

¹ Department of Undersea and Hyperbaric Medicine, Gulhane Military Medical Academy, Ankara, Turkey

- ² Department of Undersea and Hyperbaric Medicine, Golcuk Necati Celik State Hospital, Kocaeli, Turkey
- ³ Department of Emergency Medicine, Gulhane Military Medical Academy, Ankara, Turkey
- ⁴ Department of Biochemistry, Gulhane Military Medical Academy, Ankara, Turkey

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Gokhan Akcali – drgokhanakcali@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Carbon monoxide (CO) is one of the most common causes of death due to intoxications. No biochemical marker is available to evaluate the severity of CO intoxication. We measured high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hs-CRP), interleukin-6 (IL-6) and interleukin-10 (IL-10) levels in patients with different degrees of CO poisoning.

We prospectively included 40 CO-poisoned patients admitted to emergency services. Blood samples were collected from the patients at admission (0 hour) and after treatment (six hours). While all patients received normobaric oxygen (NBO₂) therapy, patients with severe CO poisoning received additional sessions of hyperbaric oxygen (HBO₂) therapy. Blood samples were also collected from a group of healthy volunteers (n=40). Serum IL-6 and IL-10 levels were measured with the ELISA method while hs-CRP was quantified by turbidimetric analysis.

At admission, IL-6 levels were significantly higher in the patient group compared to the control group (P=0.001), but IL-10 and hs-CRP levels were not significantly different between the groups. Compared to admission levels, IL-6 levels were higher at six hours (P=0.014). The patients were grouped according to treatment type (NBO₂, HBO₂) and history of syncope, but no significant differences were detected in patient subgroups regarding IL-6, IL-10 and hs-CRP levels. A weak positive correlation was found between COHb and lactate levels in patients (P=0.013; r=0.390).

This study shows that IL-6 level increases in CO-poisoned patients, but it is not correlated with the severity of the intoxication.

KEYWORDS: biomarkers; carbon monoxide; hs-CRP; hyperbaric oxygen therapy; interleukin 10; interleukin 6

INTRODUCTION

Carbon monoxide (CO) poisoning is one of the most common causes of intoxication-related deaths both in our country of Turkey and around the world [1,2]. CO poisoning incidence rises particularly in winter due to the use of heating sources without proper ventilation. The non-specific symptoms can easily mislead a diagnosis to other diseases. Hypoxia caused by poisoning affects many oxygen-consuming tissues and organs, particularly the heart and the brain.

CO poisoning affects the body in several ways. As CO affinity to hemoglobin is 240 times greater than that of oxygen, it binds to hemoglobin and hemoproteins such as cytochrome c oxidase and myoglobin, causing tissue and cellular hypoxia respectively. CO precipitates platelet-neutrophil aggregation, xanthine oxidase formation on vascular endothelium and lipid peroxidation. Moreover, it leads to neuronal apoptosis by increasing glutamate and N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor activation in the brain. All of these pathophysiological mechanisms are shown to be related to inflammation [3,4].

CO poisoning is treated with oxygen, either normobaric (NBO₂) or hyperbaric oxygen (HBO₂). NBO₂ treatment is the use of 100% oxygen at normal atmospheric pressure, whereas HBO₂ is defined as 100% oxygen breathing at pressures higher than sea level pressure (1 atmosphere absolute/ATA). Although the most recent version of Hyperbaric Oxygen Therapy Indications, 13th edition, of the UHMS recommends HBO₂ therapy for all patients with CO poisoning regardless of severity, HBO₂ therapy is typically reserved for patients with severe poisoning [5-7].