



## Perspective of Inflammation and Inflammation Markers

Nnodim Johnkennedy<sup>1</sup>, Okafor Chibuzor Mercy<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Medical Laboratory Science, Faculty of Health Science, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria.

<sup>2</sup>Department of Medical Laboratory Science Faculty of Health Science, Madonna University Elele Rivers State, Nigeria

\*Corresponding Author: Nnodim Johnkennedy



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### Abstract

*Progression and occurrence of coronary heart disease can be attributed in part to the presence of inflammation. As a result of our understanding of inflammation's molecular underpinnings, we have identified markers that may also serve as new treatment targets for atherosclerosis. Individuals with and without a history of cardiovascular disease can benefit from monitoring their C-reactive protein (CRP) levels (CVD). The anti-inflammatory characteristics of statins have lately been explored, and they have been shown to significantly lower cardiovascular morbidity and death. C-reactive protein, adiponectin, CD40 ligand, and lipoprotein-associated phospholipase A were the focus of this review, which also looked at statins' effect on these biomarkers and their potential link to cardiovascular events, all of which are thought to be involved in the inflammatory process that leads to atherothrombosis and other cardiovascular diseases.*

## Introduction

Immune cells and blood vessels are involved in the process of inflammation as a defensive reaction to dangerous stimuli such as infections, damaged cells, or irritating substances. For the purpose of inflammation, the primary goal is to eradicate the initial cause of cell harm, remove necrotic cells, and begin tissue restoration. Heat, discomfort, redness, swelling, and loss of function are the five cardinal indications (Ferrero-Miliani et al., 2007).

In contrast to adaptive immunity, which is particular to each pathogen, inflammation is seen as a mechanism of innate immunity because it is a generic response. A lack of inflammation can endanger the organism's survival by allowing hazardous stimuli (such as bacteria) to destroy tissue over time. However, persistent inflammation can lead to conditions like hay fever and periodontal disease as well as heart disease and osteoarthritis if it persists for a long time (Abbas & Lichtman, 2009).

When the body's white blood cells and the substances they produce inflame in order to protect you from infection by foreign invaders like bacteria and viruses, this is called inflammation. However, in disorders such as arthritis, the immune system causes inflammation even when there are no foreign intruders to contend with. The immune system mistakenly believes that normal tissues are infected or abnormal in many autoimmune illnesses, resulting in harm (Chiba et al., 2012)

Short-term (acute) versus chronic inflammation (chronic). Within a few hours or days, acute inflammation subsides. When the primary trigger is removed, chronic inflammation can

continue for months or even years. Cancer, heart disease, diabetes, asthma, and Alzheimer's disease are just a few of the illnesses that have been related to chronic inflammation. As part of an autoimmune illness, inflammation can affect the organs. Each organ has its own unique set of symptoms. When the tiny tubes that carry air to the lungs become inflamed, it can lead to shortness of breath or fluid buildup. When the kidneys become inflamed (nephritis), it can lead to high blood pressure or kidney failure. Because many organs lack a large number of pain-sensitive nerves, an inflammatory condition may not induce pain (Rather, 2017).

Surgery to repair joint damage is one option for treating inflammatory illnesses. Medication, rest, and exercise are also options. The patient's overall health, disease kind, age, medication regimen, and severity of symptoms all factor into the treatment approach. Correct, control, or slow down the illness process are the objectives of treatment. Painful activities should be avoided at all costs. Ease discomfort using pain medicines and anti-inflammatory meds, Physical therapy can help maintain joint mobility and muscular strength, as well as reduce joint stress by employing braces, splints, or canes as necessary (Nasi et al., 2014).

A wide variety of medications are available to reduce discomfort, edema, and inflammation. Inflammatory disease may potentially be slowed or prevented by taking them. Among the medicines are: Prednisone, ibuprofen, and antimalarial medicines (such as hydroxychloroquine), Other DMARDs include azathioprine, cyclophosphamide, leflunomide, methotrexate, and sulfasalazine, all of which are used to treat rheumatoid arthritis. Drugs derived from living organisms such as abatacept, certolizumab, etanercept, infliximab, rituximab, and tocilizumab, as well as biologics like these: (Piira et al., 2013).

Other uses include cancer treatment, preventing organ rejection following a transplant, and reducing inflammation in the digestive tract. Even though methotrexate and cyclophosphamide are commonly used to treat cancer, when they are used to treat inflammatory illnesses, they tend to have lower doses and reduced risk of adverse effects (Coussens and Werb, 2002).

### **Classification of Inflammation**

Inflammation can be classified as either acute or chronic.

#### **Acute Inflammation**

This occurs right away after a wound is received, and it only lasts a few days. Neutrophils and macrophages are drawn to the site of inflammation by cytokines and chemokines. Acute inflammation can be caused by pathogens, allergies, poisons, burns, and frostbite. Microbial infections are recognized by Toll-like receptors (TLR). It's possible that acute inflammation serves a protective function by thwarting damage to tissues. Subacute inflammation is defined as inflammation lasting 2–6 weeks (Hannoodee & Nasuruddin, 2020).

Acute inflammation is a relatively short-lived phenomenon that occurs within a few minutes or hours of an adverse stimulus being removed. Local mobilization of numerous immunological, endocrine, and neurological mediators of acute inflammation is part of the process. A healthy reaction is one that activates, clears the pathogen, starts the repair process, and then stops. The five cardinal signs of the zodiac describe it (Kumar et al., 2004).

Traditionally, inflammation has been referred to by Latin terms; (1) Dolor (pain): The pain associated with inflammation results in part from the distortion of tissues caused by edema, and it also is induced by certain chemical mediators of inflammation, such as bradykinin, serotonin, and the prostaglandins; (2) Calor (heat): Heat results from increased blood flow through the area and is experienced only in peripheral parts of the body such as the skin; (3) Rubor (redness): Redness is caused by the dilation of small blood vessels in the area of injury; (4) Tumor (swelling): Swelling, called edema, is caused primarily by the accumulation of fluid outside the blood vessels; (5) Functio laesa (loss of function): Loss of function may result from

pain that inhibits mobility or from severe swelling that prevents movement in the area. (Werner, 2009).

### **Chronic Inflammation**

Months or years may pass before the inflammation subsides. Chronic inflammation is dominated by macrophages, lymphocytes, and plasma cells, as opposed to acute inflammation, which is dominated by neutrophils. Chronic inflammation can cause diabetes, cardiovascular disease, allergies, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Chronic inflammation can be caused by obesity, smoking, stress, inadequate nutrition, and bad diet. More than half of all Americans (42%) have more than one chronic inflammatory disease, according to a research conducted in 2014. (Pahwa et al., 2020). Based on the cytokines and helper T cells (Th1 and Th2) involved, inflammation can be characterized as Type 1 or Type 2. (Berger, 2000).

### **Causes of Inflammation**

Inflammation occurs when the body's white blood cells release chemicals into the blood or tissues in order to fight off invaders. As a result, the area that has been injured or infected receives an increase in blood flow. Redness and warmth can result from it. Swelling is the outcome of fluid leakage into your tissues caused by some of the chemicals. This defense mechanism could set off pain receptors. White blood cells and the substances they produce in the joints induce inflammation, joint lining swelling, and the eventual loss of cartilage (the cushions at the ends of bones). In 2000, (Berger, 2000).

Microorganisms are one of the reasons that might cause inflammation.

Real-world entities.

Chemicals.

Immune reactions that aren't acceptable.

The demise of tissue.

There are a number of factors that can lead to inflammation, including infectious agents like viruses and bacteria. By infiltrating and destroying cells in the body, viruses cause inflammation; bacteria create endotoxins, which can cause inflammation. Physical trauma, burns, radiation harm, and frostbite can all cause tissue damage and inflammation. Corrosive chemicals like acids, alkalis, and oxidizing agents can also cause inflammation. As previously stated, a dysfunctional immune system can lead to an inflammatory reaction that is harmful to the body. An further cause of inflammation is tissue death due to a lack of oxygen or nutrients, which is frequently brought on by a reduction in blood flow to the affected area (Pahwa et al., 2020).

### **Disorders of Inflammation**

#### ***Atherosclerosis***

A chronic inflammatory response is seen in what was previously thought to be a dull lipid storage illness. Atherosclerosis has been shown to be a major contributor to thrombotic problems because of the role of inflammation in all stages of the disease's evolution. In light of these new results, we can better understand how atherosclerosis develops. Atherosclerosis patients can benefit from this new understanding of inflammation, according to clinical trials. Patients with acute coronary syndromes who have elevated indicators of inflammation are more likely to have poor outcomes, regardless of the extent of myocardial damage. Additionally, C-reactive protein levels, a biomarker of inflammation, can help predict the likelihood of atherosclerotic problems by indicating the presence of low-grade chronic inflammation. Treatments that lower the risk of heart attack and stroke also reduce inflammation. It doesn't

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appear that the anti-inflammatory impact of statins correlates with a decrease in low-density lipoprotein levels when lowering cholesterol levels with them. These new insights into inflammation help us better understand the causes of atherosclerosis, as well as how to use them in clinical risk assessment and atherosclerosis treatment targeting (Libby, 2002).

### ***Allergy***

Type 1 hypersensitivity, or inflammation, vasodilation, and nerve irritation, is the outcome of an incorrect immunological response. Allergy-induced mast cell hypersensitivity has been shown to produce hay fever. Histamine and other vasoactive substances are released by mast cells that have been pre-sensitized. These substances cause an excessive inflammatory response, which includes blood vessel dilatation, creation of pro-inflammatory molecules, cytokine release, and leukocyte recruitment, as well as the release of inflammatory mediators. Anaphylaxis is a systemic reaction following a severe inflammatory response (Robbins et al., 2008).

### ***Myopathies***

Muscle inflammation is a symptom of inflammatory myopathies, which are a result of the immune system attacking muscle components in an uncontrolled manner. These include dermatomyositis, polymyositis, and inclusion body myositis, which may develop in association with other immunological illnesses, such as systemic sclerosis (Robbins et al., 2008).

### ***Leukocyte Defect***

Defects in leukocyte function typically lead to a diminished capacity for inflammatory defense with subsequent sensitivity to infection because of the central role of leukocytes in the formation and propagation of inflammation. Due to surface receptor alterations, leukocytes may not be able to adhere to blood arteries, digest germs, or make microbicides (Chédiak–Higashi syndrome) (chronic granulomatous disease). In addition, aberrant or few leukocytes may be caused by disorders of the bone marrow (Robbins et al., 2008).

### ***Pharmacological***

Inflammation can be influenced by a number of pharmaceuticals and exogenous chemicals. Anti-inflammatory medications particularly inhibit enzymes that create inflammatory eicosanoids, as is the case with vitamin A deficiency, which increases inflammatory reactions. It is also possible that some of the harmful effects of illicit drugs like cocaine and ecstasy are caused by the activation of transcription factors that are directly linked to inflammation (Hargrave et al., 2003).

### ***Cancer***

The microenvironment around tumors is orchestrated by inflammation, which contributes to tumor proliferation, survival, and migration. Selectins, chemokines, and their receptors are all used by cancer cells to invade, migrate, and spread. On the other side, many immune system cells help suppress cancer through immunology. Some of the most crucial effects of inflammatory stimuli on cancer cells may be mediated by the molecular junction of steroid hormone receptors and transcription factors, such as NF- $\kappa$ B, that have important impacts on cellular development. Inflammatory mediators can modify the effects of steroid hormones in cells, which could have a significant impact on cancer. But because many steroid hormone receptors are modular proteins, targeting a single protein domain in a certain cell type may give new strategies to interfere with cancer progression. An strategy like this may help prevent unwanted side effects unrelated to the target tumor while also preserving important physiological functions and processes such as homeostasis and development. The accumulation of random genetic changes in cancer cells may be caused by cancer-related inflammation (CRI), according to research published in 2009. (Copland et al., 2009).

## **Inflammation Markers**

There are a variety of biomarkers known as inflammatory markers that are utilized in clinical settings to determine whether or not a patient has an ongoing inflammatory disease process or the presence or absence of a previously diagnosed disease. It is now known that these markers can be elevated, often very mildly, in a wide range of disorders, from atherosclerosis to mental illness, because many illnesses are now known/suspected to have an inflammatory component, which includes infectious, malignant, and autoimmune diseases (Du-Clos, 2000) .

Traditionally, the key inflammatory markers were;

### **C-Reactive Protein (CRP)**

Inflammation, infection, and injury are all associated with an increase in C-reactive protein levels. C-Reactive Protein, a marker of inflammation, is commonly referred to as an acute marker, however research is beginning to show that C-reactive protein has key roles in inflammation. IL-6-dependent hepatic production generates C-reactive protein, which is the primary downstream mediator of the acute-phase response to an inflammatory event. As the C1q molecule in the complement pathway becomes activated, it aids in pathogen opsonization, which is one of the primary functions of C-reactive protein (CRP). It is important to note, however, that CRP can also begin cell-mediated host defense pathways by activating complement and binding to Fc receptors of IgG. Proinflammatory cytokines are released as a result of the interaction between C-reactive protein and Fc receptors. Other complement activators, such as IgG, can only recognize specific antigenic epitopes, whereas C-reactive protein is able to recognize self and foreign molecules based on pattern recognition (Du-Clos, 2000).

### **Erythrocyte Sedimentation Rate (ESR)**

This is a blood test that can reveal inflammatory activity in the human body. It can be used to diagnose or monitor the progress of an inflammatory disease, determine the severity of the inflammatory response and monitor the effect of treatment. When one's blood is placed in a tall, thin tube, red blood cells (erythrocytes) gradually settle to the bottom. Inflammation can cause the cells to clump. Because these clumps are denser than individual cells, they settle to the bottom more quickly. The ESR measures the distance red blood cells fall in a test tube in one hour. The farther the red blood cells have descended, the greater the inflammatory response of the immune system. Often plasma viscosity is used instead. Because ESR can't pinpoint the problem that's causing inflammation in your body, it's usually accompanied by other blood tests, such as the C-reactive protein (CRP) test (Hinkle, 2014).

However, other markers are also used, including:

Inflammation causes the blood plasma concentrations of acute-phase proteins (e.g. FIBRINOGEN, FERRITIN) to either rise or fall (positive or negative acute-phase proteins). The acute-phase reaction refers to this type of reaction (also called acute-phase response). Fever, accelerated peripheral leukocytes, circulating neutrophils, and their precursors are all common features of an acute-phase reaction. [1] It is common to refer to APRs as "acute-phase proteins," however technically, some APRs are more accurately described as "acute-phase polypeptides," rather than "acute-phase proteins" (Ananian et al., 2005).

Interleukin-1, interleukin-6, and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-) are all released by neutrophil granulocytes and macrophages in response to damage. Many acute-phase reactants are produced in the liver as a response. In addition, the production of a number of additional proteins, known as "negative acute-phase reactants," is decreased. The liver's production of acute-phase proteins may also have a role in the development of sepsis (De-Boer et al., 2013).

Both medical and veterinary clinical pathology can benefit from the measurement of acute-phase proteins, particularly C-reactive protein. The erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) has a correlation with it, but not necessarily directly. It's because fibrinogen, an acute phase reactant with a half-life of about a week, is largely responsible for the ESR's dependence on its elevation. The level of this protein will consequently continue to rise even after the inflammatory stimuli have been removed. To put this in contrast to the fast rise in the C-reactive protein (which has a half-life of 6–8 hours), therapy can immediately bring it back down into the normal range. If you have active Lupus erythematosus, your ESR may be elevated, but your CRP may be normal. Also, they could be a sign of liver failure (Vecchi et al., 2009).

Acute phase responses, hematopoiesis, and immunological responses are stimulated by IL-6, an interleukin that is rapidly and transiently generated in response to infections and tissue damage. Chronic inflammation and autoimmunity are exacerbated by IL-6 production that is out of whack, despite the fact that its expression is tightly regulated by transcription and post-transcriptional processes. A wide range of acute phase proteins, including as C-reactive protein (CRP), serum amyloid A (SAA), fibrinogen, haptoglobin, and 1-antichymotrypsin, are rapidly induced once IL-6 is generated in a local lesion during the early stages of inflammation. While IL-6 decreases the production of fibronectin, albumin, and transferrin, it increases the production of IL-6 (Hirano et al., 2010).

This has emerged as a key immunoregulator during infection with viruses, bacteria, fungal, protozoa and parasites (such as *Toxoplasma gondii*), which ameliorates the excessive Th1 and CD8+ T cell responses (typically characterized by overproduction of IFN- and TNF-) that are responsible for much of the immunopathology associated with infections including *Toxoplasma gondii*, *Trypanosoma* spp., *Plasmodium* spp., *Mycobacterium* spp., and HSV. *Toxoplasmosis*, *malaria*, and *Trypanosoma cruzi* are all made worse by inhibiting IL-10 signaling in the body. For example, in the case of *Schistosoma mansoni*, HCV, or mycobacterial infections, excessive production of cytokines such as IFN-gamma and IL-4 can lead to severe fibrosis and necrosis of the intestines. The induction of IL-10 also plays a role in the amelioration of allergic Th2 responses that might accompany helminth infections. The inflammatory response to *Plasmodium*, *Leishmania*, *T. cruzi*, *Mycobacteria*, and LCMV can be inhibited by excessive or mistimed IL-10 production, which can lead to either fulminant and rapidly deadly infections or chronic nonhealing infections. As an illustration, the inability of BALB/c mice to control infection in *Mycobacterium avium* is associated with early IL-10 production in BALB/c mice, but not in C57BL/6 mice; ablation of IL-10 signaling improved pathogen control in BALB/c mice, but not in C57BL/6 mice, demonstrating a causal relationship between IL-10 and the inability to control infection. To confirm the link between excessive levels of IL-10 production and the severity of infection in different illnesses, researchers have used experimental ablation or inhibition of IL-10 signaling to restore pathogen control and lessen the disease's severity. While reducing pathogen control at the expense of more severe immunopathology, blocking IL-10 signaling during otherwise benign illnesses may increase proinflammatory responses (Anderson et al., 2005).

In virulent infections, large quantities of IL-10 are frequently a result of high pathogen loads, however this isn't always the case. IL-10 would prevent pathogen clearance in the first scenario (and may be induced by the pathogen to promote its own survival). As a result, the overexpression of IL-10 (under the control of the MHC II promoter) in APCs results in uncontrolled pathogen proliferation in *Leishmania major*, *Listeria monocytogenes*, and *M. avium* infections. To lower inflammation and hence minimize disease, IL-10 may be produced in the latter instance, where the pathogen is capable of evading regular clearance processes. The SD strain of *L. major*, for example, causes excessive Th1 responses during virulent infection that promote the development of self-limiting adaptive IL-10-producing T cells that dampen down Th1 responses, establishing a positive feedback loop whereby T cell-derived IL-

10 further inhibits antimicrobial immune responses, permitting fulminant and unavoidably fatal infections to develop. When pathogen loads and IFN- concentrations "follow" each other, IL-10 concentrations tend to rise and fall in tandem (Belkaid et al., 2001).

Procalcitonin, or PCT, has been established in previous research to be an accurate indicator of systemic inflammation. PCT secretion occurs within four hours of the onset of sepsis, according to experimental kinetic investigations. TNF and IL-6 appear to induce the production of PCT in the neuroendocrine system, which is probably generated in the neuroendocrine system. Severe sepsis is associated with extremely high PCT levels, which have been observed in cases of acute infections (Eberhard et al., 2008).

Elevated levels, albeit at lower concentrations, have been seen in chronic inflammatory disorders such as connective tissue diseases. When an infection arises, there is a disparity between the CRP and PCT values. In CRF, there have been only a few research reported. Serum creatinine and PCT have not been shown to have a correlation. There is also a lack of information on PCT in individuals undergoing renal replacement therapy (RRT). Infection, rather than the haemodialysis method, appeared to be the cause of elevated PCT levels in 43 of the patients studied. Patients on haemodialysis who had no symptoms of systemic bacterial infection had modestly raised PCT levels, according to Ulrich, and those levels were somewhat greater with low-flux dialysers than with high-flux membranes. They discovered no correlation between PCT and other inflammatory markers like CRP or IL-6 in their study of 63 patients. During a 5- to 24-hour haemodiafiltration session, PCT clearance appears to stabilize at 2.3 to 3.4 ml/min (Zeni et al., 2004).

g) **IL-2 SOLUBLE RECEPTOR:** Sulfated interleukin-2 receptor (sIL-2/R, sTAC, sCD25) was first discovered in 1985 and has since become a helpful clinical tool for a variety of disorders. Sera with elevated levels have been found in other autoimmune illnesses like scleroderma and rheumatoid arthritis, but it's thought to serve as a disease activity marker in sarcoidosis specifically. SIL-2R is also raised in a number of cancers, including malignant melanoma and nasopharyngeal carcinoma, and it can be used to estimate survival and monitor treatment in these malignancies (Anegon et al., 2008).

T-helper lymphocytes produce interleukin-2, however many other cells also produce the interleukin 2 receptor (IL-2R, CD25). CD25 is also expressed on the surface of activated B cells, monocytic and granulocyte-derived eosinophilic lymphocytes (EGL), eosinophilic lymphocytes (EGL), natural killer (NK) cells (IL-2R, component of the IL-2 receptor), and regulatory T cells (RT). A proteolytic cleavage of IL-2R appears to yield sIL-2R, and its release into the circulation has been observed to be proportionate to its membrane-bound expression. SIL-2R is considered to be a reliable biomarker for disease activity in inflammatory disorders, particularly with respect to the sarcoidosis and other autoimmune diseases (Tsudo et al., 2014).

Given that chronic inflammation is thought to be the primary driver of disease progression in chronic liver disorders (CLD), sIL-2R may be a valuable diagnostic in CLD because of its tight relationship with inflammatory processes (Robb & Kutny, 2007).

### **Tumor Necrosis Factor (TNF)**

In the body's natural healing process, TNF is a protein. Inflammation is a protective mechanism that the body uses to promote healing after an injury or an infection. TNF proteins begin to circulate in the circulation in order to cause inflammation. They arrive at the site of the inflammation in order to start the process of healing. In healthy people, excess TNF in the blood is deactivated by the body, preventing excessive inflammation. People can develop an autoimmune disorder if this process fails to function properly. Antibodies attack the body and cause inflammation, even if there is no physical damage. Rheumatoid and psoriatic arthritis are two examples of this type of arthritis (Green et al., 2012).

Infections, inflammatory disease, cancer, major depressive disorder, and myocardial infarction can all be caused by an increase in inflammatory markers.

### **Molecular Diagnosis Of Inflammation**

Inflammation and the disorders that produce it cannot be diagnosed with a single test. Some so-called indicators, on the other hand, aid in the diagnosis of inflammation in the body. Unusual amounts of these markers can indicate something is wrong, but they don't tell us what it is. One of the most reliable methods to confirm chronic inflammation is SERUM PROTEIN ELECTROPHORESIS (SPE). The liquid portion of the blood is analyzed to detect any abnormalities. Inflammation and other disease signs can be indicated by an excess or deficit of these proteins (Jenkins & Margaret, 2009).

### **C-Reactive Protein (CRP)**

In reaction to inflammation, the liver normally produces CRP. Inflammatory diseases might cause a high CRP level in your blood. Although this test is highly sensitive for inflammation, it does not distinguish between acute and chronic inflammation because CRP is raised during both. A doctor may be able to make a diagnosis based on elevated levels and specific symptoms (Thompson et al., 2009).

In this test, the rate at which red blood cells settle in a tube of blood is used as a proxy for the level of inflammation in the body. Inflammation is more likely to occur if they drop more quickly. Because the ESR test can not identify particular causes of inflammation, it is rarely used on its own. So your doctor will be able to see that inflammation is happening. They can also use it to keep tabs on your health (Eastham, 2014).

### **Plasma Viscosity**

The thickness of blood is measured using this test. Plaque thickening is a possible side effect of inflammatory or infectious conditions (Kesmarky et al., 2008).

### **Clinical Significance of Inflammation**

Progression and occurrence of coronary heart disease can be attributed in part to the presence of inflammation. As a result of our understanding of inflammation's molecular underpinnings, we have identified markers that may also serve as new treatment targets for atherosclerosis. It has been found that inflammation indicators, such as C-reactive protein (CRP), can be used to predict cardiovascular events in both patients with and without underlying cardiovascular disease (CVD). The anti-inflammatory characteristics of statins have lately been explored, and they have been shown to significantly lower cardiovascular morbidity and death. Atherothrombosis is associated with the inflammatory process, including C-Reactive P (CRP), adiponectin, MCP-1 (MCP-1), CD40 ligand, and Lp-PLA(2), and these biomarkers are discussed in this paper, as well as the effect of statins on these biomarkers, as well as their potential link to cardiovascular events (Ballantyne and Nambi 2005).

This study found that inflammation is a physiologic reaction of the immune system that is induced by a wide range of causes, including infections, damaged cells, and toxins. Chronic or acute inflammatory responses in the heart, pancreas, liver, kidney, lung, brain, intestines, and reproductive system may result from exposure to these irritants, which may cause tissue damage or disease. The NF-B, MAPK, and JAK-STAT pathways, which are activated by both viral and non-infectious agents and cell injury, are the most prevalent inflammatory signaling pathways (Chertov et al., 2000).

### **Conclusion**

Inflammation can be triggered by a variety of pathogenic reasons, such as infection, tissue damage, or myocardial infarction. Inflammation can be caused by infectious or non-infectious



factors. A chemical signaling cascade is initiated by the body in reaction to tissue injury, and this sets in motion actions targeted at mending the injured tissues. As a result of these signals, leukocyte chemotaxis is activated in response to injury. The cytokines produced by these activated leukocytes trigger inflammatory reactions (Jabbour et al., 2009).

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