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THE NEGATIVE IMPACT OF DISEASES ACCOMPANIED BY PURULENT INFLAMMATION OF THE RESPIRATORY TRACT ON ORGAN SYSTEMS AND THE SPECIFICS OF THEIR DIAGNOSIS

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Abstract. Because of their extensive distribution and the high rates of morbidity and mortality that have been documented globally, respiratory tract infections (RTIs) are the subject of public health advancements. The clinical spectrum spans from a mild or asymptomatic infection to a serious or lethal illness. In order to offer patients with appropriate and timely care, diagnostics must be completed quickly. The current algorithm for the laboratory diagnosis of RTIs uses a variety of techniques, including cutting-edge ones like molecular methods, which are mostly used to detect viruses and atypical bacteria, and gold-standard conventional methods, of which traditional culture is the most popular. As a major global cause of morbidity and mortality, viral respiratory infections (VRIs) are a serious public health issue. Influenza virus, SARS-CoV-2, and respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) are among the respiratory viruses that cause illness. These viruses cause an antiviral immune response, which in turn increases the inflammatory response that is essential to their pathogenesis. Since the inflammatory response brought on by respiratory viruses might initially be both antiviral and protective or reparative of virus-induced damage, it can be a double-edged sword. However, it may also be harmful to the tissues and cells of the host. Nevertheless, little is known about the mechanisms that distinguish the intricate interactions between beneficial host inflammatory responses and detrimental inflammatory responses. The intricate relationship between viral pathogens and the host immune response is examined in this review, with a primary emphasis on the part inflammation plays in the pathophysiology of VRIs. We go over how inflammation can both slow down and speed up the spread of viral infections, pointing out new medications and possible therapeutic targets for reducing the abnormal inflammatory reactions that occur during VRIs.

Keywords. Respiratory syncytial virus, influenza virus, SARS-CoV-2, viral respiratory illness, diagnostic algorithm, inflammation.

Introduction. Acute viral respiratory infections (VRIs), either by themselves or in conjunction with subsequent bacterial infections, are a major cause of death globally. The majority of viral respiratory infections are self-limiting, uneventful, and moderate. Because of their extensive distribution and the high rates of morbidity and mortality that have been documented globally, respiratory tract infections (RTIs) are the subject of public health advancements. RTIs are classified as respiratory system disorders with an infectious origin. The severity is determined by the interplay of three factors: the host, the environmental conditions, and the causative agent. The clinical spectrum spans from asymptomatic or moderate infection to severe or fatal disease. These infections usually manifest as acute illnesses with a quick clinical onset that lasts for hours to days and includes a range of symptoms like fever, cough, sore throat, coryza, wheezing, shortness of breath, and/or breathing difficulties [1-5]. However, respiratory failure, morbidity, mortality, and neurological or cardiovascular sequelae can result from severe lower viral respiratory infections, such as croup, pneumonia, bronchiolitis, asthma flare-ups, or chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). The type of virus involved and the host's capacity to produce defense mechanisms determine how severe the infection is. The most

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common agents linked to the etiology of RVIs are respiratory viruses, which include influenza viruses (IVs), human parainfluenza viruses (hPIVs), respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), human metapneumovirus (hMPV), human rhinovirus (HRV), and human coronaviruses (hCoVs—SARS-CoV-2). There are few antiviral therapies available and little knowledge of the mechanisms underlying the pathophysiology of RVIs, despite the high morbidity and fatality rates linked to these infections. The abnormal host inflammatory response to virus infection, which in certain situations can take the form of a cytokine storm, is one increasingly acknowledged element that may contribute to the pathophysiology of viral respiratory infections that result in severe lower RVIs [6-12]. Increased inflammation during RVIs has been linked to deteriorating residual lung function following each episode, according to epidemiological data. Over the years, significant technological advancements have produced new instruments for the detection of respiratory illnesses caused by bacteria and viruses, leading to the creation of precise, quick, and user-friendly diagnostic techniques. Specifically, molecular techniques are now extensively accessible in diagnostic labs. Without requiring the lengthy incubation time required for bacterial or viral isolation, these molecular-based approaches enable the sensitive and highly specific identification of both bacterial and viral nucleic acids directly in clinical specimens and in cell culture supernatants. Furthermore, molecular techniques require less technical know-how than culture and are helpful in identifying viruses and bacteria that are "difficult to grow" in conventional cell cultures. Since syndromic panels offer a highly effective tool that can identify a wide range of pathogens that together may cause a single clinical syndrome, their introduction in this context marked a breakthrough in the field of diagnostic microbiology [13-22]. This was accomplished by satisfying the requirements of accuracy and time-to-result. With an emphasis on laboratory diagnosis and the potential of syndromic panels, this review provides a narrative summary of the primary etiological, clinical, and epidemiological characteristics of RTIs. In the host's defense mechanism against viral infections, inflammation is a complicated reaction that affects tissue homeostasis and healing. Inflammatory responses that are poorly managed or uncontrolled can cause serious lung disease and tissue damage. Therefore, it is essential to comprehend how inflammation balances its beneficial and harmful effects in order to establish effective treatment plans. We emphasize the part inflammation plays in the pathophysiology of RVIs in this review. We go over the many kinds of primary inflammatory reactions and how they affect preventative or therapeutic approaches [23-31].

The main purpose of the presented manuscript is to provide a brief interpretation of the results of reputable scientific papers on the negative impact of respiratory tract diseases accompanied by purulent inflammation on organ systems and the specifics of their diagnosis.

In viral infections, inflammation is a double-edged sword. Type I interferons (IFNs) are essential for viral clearance and the initiation of both innate and adaptive immune responses, making inflammation a critical early response in viral respiratory infections. Excessive inflammation can have negative effects even though it is helpful in limiting virus multiplication. Exacerbations of diseases including severe pneumonia and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) have been connected to overproduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines, especially IFN-γ. For instance, patients who died from infections had higher levels of IFN-γ in their lungs than those who survived. This implies that although inflammation is required to combat infections, an unchecked inflammatory response can result in significant tissue damage from reactive oxygen species (ROS) and proteolytic enzymes, which may lead to pneumonia and acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) [6-12]. ***Inflammation's protective function.*** After viral infections, inflammation is necessary to return equilibrium. Destroying damaged

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host cells and eliminating inflammatory mediators—which are essential for curing infections—are the first steps in this process. Defensins and lysozyme are examples of soluble antimicrobials that are secreted during inflammation and improve host defense. Furthermore, by identifying pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), the complement system—a cascade of serum protein interactions—mediates opsonization and attacks infections directly. Antibodies from adaptive immunity can also activate the complement system, allowing for sufficient pathogen removal. By attaching to antigen-presenting cells and improving antigen absorption and presentation, surfactant proteins A and D further connect innate and adaptive immunity. In addition to mobilizing neutrophils and macrophages to the infection site and enlisting dendritic cells to initiate the adaptive immune response, inflammation also produces cytokines and chemokines that promote immune cell infiltration. This type 1 inflammatory response, for example, helps immunocompetent people clear respiratory virus infections adequately while also reducing inflammation after clearance. The next section discusses the specific mechanisms involved in reducing inflammation following an infection [21-30].

Consequences of excessive inflammation that are pathological. During viral respiratory infections, severe inflammatory responses can cause serious airway pathology, even if inflammation promotes healing. Severe inflammation increases the likelihood of consequences such bacterial pneumonia, ARDS, and diffuse alveolar injury by causing immune-mediated damage to the lung and vascular endothelium. To get around immune responses, influenza A virus (IAV) and RSV, for instance, have developed strategies to prevent the generation of IFN. Prolonged IFN production can hinder epithelial cell regeneration and impair macrophage antibacterial capabilities, even though a strong response is necessary early in infection to restrict viral reproduction. Additionally, IAV infection can cause macrophage polarization to shift in favor of inflammation, which intensifies the production of cytokines [5-11]. Chronic inflammation and persistent viral replication can result from dysregulated inflammatory responses in people with respiratory conditions, such as asthmatics. Asthma and COPD are two chronic respiratory disorders that are exacerbated by this ongoing inflammation during RVIs. In extreme situations, a cytokine storm brought on by abnormal inflammasome activation may cause significant harm to the pulmonary tissues. For example, severe lung inflammation and tissue damage have been associated with the dysregulated activation of NLRP3 in SARS-CoV-2 infection. This demonstrates how a precisely controlled inflammatory response is required to promote virus removal without causing tissue damage. Developing efficient treatments to control viral infections and lessen their harmful effects requires an understanding of these processes [34-41].

Principal Inflammatory Mediators in Viral Respiratory Infections. The function of inflammation in patients' lungs with RVIs has been documented in a number of studies. The pathophysiology of RVIs and lung inflammation has been shown to be significantly influenced by pro- and anti-inflammatory mediators, including cytokines, chemokines, bioactive lipids, and antiproteases. In particular, the main mediators that guide immune cell activity and movement towards the infection site and help with immune cell proliferation, maturation, and activation are cytokines and chemokines, which are mostly produced by tissue-resident alveolar macrophages and airway epithelial cells. These mediators are essential for the host's inflammatory response [25-31]. ***Cytokines.*** Small signaling glycoproteins called cytokines function in the intricate interaction between viral infections and infected airway cells to control inflammatory immune responses during RVIs. Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), like toll-like receptors (TLRs), recognize viral pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and cause the production of different cytokines. Target cells express particular genes in response to

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cytokines' binding to cell surface receptors. The four structural families of cytokines are the cysteine-knot cytokines (TGF-β superfamily), the IL-1 family, the IL-17 family, and the four alpha-helix bundle family (which includes the IL-2, IFN, and IL-10 subfamilies). They are further divided into different types, such as interleukins, transforming growth factors (TGF), tumor necrosis factor (TNF), interferons, and colony-stimulating factors (CSF). These are secreted through paracrine, autocrine, and endocrine pathways. These molecules are associated with both pro- and anti-inflammatory reactions in immunological diseases and infections. Through the effects of type I and type III IFNs as well as other pro-inflammatory cytokines, cytokines are essential to the immune response to RVIs. When a virus is detected, type I IFNs (IFN-α and IFN-β) are generated [32-41]. Through their receptor, IFNAR, they activate the JAK/STAT and NF-κB signaling pathways. Numerous interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs) are triggered by this reaction, which inhibits viral replication and dissemination while boosting immune cell activities like phagocytosis and DC activation. By encouraging DC maturation and antigen presentation, activating T cells, and boosting antibody formation, type I IFNs support the adaptive immune response. Although they are mostly produced by airway epithelial cells, type III IFNs (IFN-λ) have a comparable antiviral nature and are therefore especially useful in treating respiratory infections. By encouraging inflammation and affecting immune cell activity, other cytokines such as IL-1, IL-18, IL-6, and TNF-α modify immunological responses. TNF-α increases cytotoxic activity and hinders viral replication, while IL-6 facilitates the shift from innate to adaptive immunity. By encouraging myeloid cell development and activation, which is necessary for sufficient viral clearance, granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) and granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) further enhance immune responses. To fight viral infections, these cytokines coordinate a complex immune response that strikes a balance between inflammation and antiviral activity [15-20].

Host Cells Taking Part in the Inflammatory Response Caused by Respiratory Viruses. With the help of a strong, efficient immune response, the lung develops a number of defense mechanisms, such as improved mucociliary clearance, mechanical defenses, and structural defenses. Innate immune cells like monocytes/macrophages, dendritic cells, neutrophils, and natural killer (NK) cells, as well as non-immune cells like epithelial and endothelial cells, are all part of this host inflammatory response, which is defined by the mediators previously mentioned. Adaptive immune cells, such as T and B cells, come next. The release of inflammatory mediators, including cytokines, chemokines, prostaglandins, leukotrienes, and antiproteases, is a key function of these cells in the immunological response against RVIs. Responses to inflammation brought on by epithelial cells. By releasing a variety of cytokines, chemokines, antimicrobial peptides, and other substances, airway epithelial cells contribute significantly to inflammation brought on by respiratory viruses [6-14]. Viral particles enter the upper and then move across the lower airway epithelial cells during an active respiratory viral infection. There, they multiply and set off the host's innate and adaptive immune responses. Significant pyroptosis-related respiratory epithelium damage has been demonstrated to be caused by HRV, RSV, or hPIV infections. This damage is typified by an increase in the release of pro-inflammatory molecules, such as cytokines (IL-1, TNF-α, GM-CSF, IL-6, and IL-11) and chemokines (RANTES, IL-8, and MIP-1α). Similarly, there is evidence linking SARS-CoV-2 infection to inflammation of the epithelium, and an aggravation of this inflammation is thought to be a major factor in lung tissue destruction and the severity of COVID-19. RVIs like influenza and RSV cause the release of important cytokines like IL-6 and TNF-α, which encourage the recruitment of immune cells and alter the immunological response. As previously mentioned, TNF-α increases cytotoxic activity and prevents viral replication, whereas IL-6 aids

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in the shift from innate to adaptive immunity. Chemokines like IL-8 influence inflammation and immunological responses during infections like COVID-19 by attracting neutrophils, while IP-10 and CCL5 draw T cells and monocytes [17-23]. Furthermore, antimicrobial substances like lactoferrin and β-defensins are secreted by epithelial cells, highlighting their dual function in inflammation and immunity. These substances directly inhibit infections, prevent tissue damage, and promote wound healing [26-31].

Anti-inflammatory medications linked to respiratory viruses. *IL-1 inhibitors.* Blockers of interleukin-1 (IL-1) have become promising anti-inflammatory therapies for respiratory viral infections, especially in cases of severe COVID-19. IL-1α and IL-1β are important pro-inflammatory cytokines that play a major role in the cytokine storm that occurs during viral infections and is linked to unchecked immune responses. To lessen this inflammatory reaction, monoclonal antibodies and receptor antagonists that target IL-1, including anakinra and canakinumab, have been created. In observational studies, the recombinant IL-1 receptor antagonist anakinra has showed promise in improving survival and lowering the need for mechanical ventilation in patients with severe COVID-19. Likewise, canakinumab has been linked to better clinical results, including quicker oxygen level restoration and a reduction in the need for mechanical ventilation. But according to recent meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials, IL-1 blocking seems safe and may lessen the need for mechanical ventilation, even though it might not significantly lower overall mortality. Therefore, although there is ongoing discussion on the therapeutic effectiveness of IL-1 blockers in treating severe respiratory virus infections, their usually good tolerance points to the need for additional research to elucidate their function in controlling hyperinflammation during viral infections [23-34].

Discussion. Even though the test must be used appropriately in various patient populations, the application of molecular techniques with syndromic panels has the potential to be an effective decision-making tool for patient care. When compared to traditional approaches, their utilization significantly shortens the time to results and improves the detection of clinically relevant microorganisms. Syndromic panels can also optimize laboratory productivity and enhance patient outcomes and antibiotic use if used and analyzed carefully. With an emphasis on laboratory diagnosis and the potential of syndromic panels, this review provides a narrative summary of the primary etiological, clinical, and epidemiological characteristics of RTI. Bacterial and/or viral isolation in cell culture may once again be mostly used as a research tool in the future when more advanced, yet easier-to-use, broad-range molecular platforms for clinical diagnostics become accessible. Therefore, in order to maximize the differential diagnosis of viral and microbial infections and to achieve practical, economical, and labor-saving microbial and/or viral testing results, culture-based and non-culture-based procedures should be carried out in parallel [12-20]. Laboratory professionals must take into account a variety of factors when choosing the best testing algorithms for their lab, such as the patient population (i.e., age, immune status, and comorbidities), clinical manifestations, the doctor's diagnosis, the evolving epidemiology, and the time of year (i.e., many viral infections tend to be seasonal). There is no standard line for interpreting growth bacterial patterns since specimen-processing protocols range from lab to lab, and the results are reported in various ways. However, there are a number of drawbacks to the gold-standard cell culture for viral diagnosis of RTIs. These include the requirement for technical expertise to evaluate the cell culture monolayers, the length of time it takes for some viruses to produce CPE, the incapacity of certain viruses to multiply in conventional cell cultures, and the cost of buying and maintaining cell cultures. These factors should all be taken into account when assessing diagnostic

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workflow. Although the test must be used appropriately in various patient populations, the inclusion of syndromic panels in the respiratory infection diagnostic algorithm has the potential to be an effective decision-making tool for patient management, particularly in emergency departments. Their usage must be restricted to symptomatic individuals, immunocompromised patients, children under five, and the elderly; asymptomatic subjects or mild illnesses must not be treated with them. According to this review, which focuses on current technologies for the laboratory diagnosis of infectious respiratory diseases, no single method—whether it be molecular detection, antigen identification, or virus/bacteria isolation—can satisfy the requirements of all diagnostic microbiology/virology laboratories in all clinical scenarios involving all kinds of bacteria/viruses [23-32]. Clinical microbiologists and virologists are challenged to use the technology that is available in the best way for the specific situation and produces the most useful results. They also need to produce clinical reports that can help doctors interpret the results correctly for the patient's best care. In conclusion, compared to conventional techniques, the use of syndromic panels for the detection of respiratory pathogens is linked to a significantly shorter time-to-results and, concurrently, a higher detection of clinically relevant infections. By improving clinical decision-making, streamlining laboratory operations, and fostering better antimicrobial and laboratory stewardship, syndromic panels can boost antibiotic use and patient outcomes when used and interpreted carefully. Sharing experiences with regard to installation and optimization tactics will be crucial as the use of new syndromic diagnostic platforms in clinical diagnosis grows. The true clinical significance of the simultaneous detection of several pathogens and the relationship between the quantity of viruses or bacteria and their clinical relevance in various patient populations require further investigation [33-41].

Conclusion. The technologies currently employed for the laboratory diagnosis of infectious respiratory diseases are the subject of this review. It demonstrates that no single method—whether it be molecular detection, antigen identification, or virus/bacteria isolation—can satisfy the requirements of all diagnostic microbiology/virology laboratories in all clinical scenarios involving all kinds of bacteria/viruses. In addition to producing clinical reports that can help doctors interpret the results correctly for the best patient care, clinical microbiologists and virologists are challenged to use the technology that is currently available to them in the way that best suits the specific circumstance and produces the most valuable results.

In conclusion, compared to conventional approaches, the use of syndromic panels for the detection of respiratory pathogens is linked to a significantly shorter time-to-results and, concurrently, a higher detection of clinically relevant infections. Through better clinical decision-making, streamlined laboratory workflow, and improved antimicrobial and laboratory stewardship, syndromic panels can improve antibiotic use and patient outcomes if used prudently and interpreted with caution. It will be crucial to exchange implementation and optimization ideas as the use of new syndromic diagnostic platforms in clinical diagnosis keeps expanding. Therefore, more study is required to determine the true clinical significance of the simultaneous detection of several pathogens as well as the link between the number of viruses or bacteria and its clinical relevance in various patient populations.

In conclusion, the body of existing evidence clearly shows how important inflammation is to the pathophysiology of viral respiratory infections. Anti-inflammatory medications have been shown to improve survival during previous pandemics, according to epidemiological data. Since they play a crucial role in antiviral immunity, anti-inflammatory treatments might not completely stop RVIs from progressing. Corticosteroids and other anti-inflammatory drugs are authorized treatments in a number of clinical contexts. However, more research is needed to

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fully comprehend the possible advantages and disadvantages of different anti-inflammatory drugs and their combinations. Potential therapeutic options for regulating the aberrant inflammatory responses during VRIs may arise from an understanding of the intricate interactions between viral pathogens and the host immune response, as well as how inflammation can both contain and worsen the course of viral infections.

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