

Received: 2016.02.05
Accepted: 2016.03.11
Published: 2016.04.21

Hyperamylasemia as an Early Predictor of Mortality in Patients with Acute Paraquat Poisoning

Authors' Contribution:
Study Design A
Data Collection B
Statistical Analysis C
Data Interpretation D
Manuscript Preparation E
Literature Search F
Funds Collection G

ABCDEF 1 **Shuai Liu***
ABCDEF 1 **Qiang Wang***
ABCD 2 **Rong Zhou**
BCD 1 **Changbin Li**
BCD 1 **Dayong Hu**
BCD 1 **Wen Xue**
E 2 **Tianfu Wu**
E 1,3 **Chandra Mohan**
ACDEFG 1 **Ai Peng**

1 Department of Nephrology & Rheumatology, Shanghai Tenth People's Hospital, Tongji University School of Medicine, Shanghai, P.R. China
2 Department of Nephrology, Shanghai Yangpu Hospital, Tongji University School of Medicine, Shanghai, P.R. China
3 Department of Biomedical Engineering and Pharmacy, University of Houston, Houston, TX, U.S.A.

* These authors contributed equally to this work

Corresponding Author:
Source of support:

Ai Peng, e-mail: pengai@tongji.edu.cn
This work was supported by grants from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (81171792, 81270136) and the "Thousand Foreign Talents Program of China" (WQ20133100165)

Background: Paraquat (PQ) is a non-selective and fast-acting contact herbicide which has been widely used in developing countries. Hyperamylasemia was reported in patients with PQ poisoning. This study investigated the predictive value and clinical characteristics of hyperamylasemia in patients with PQ poisoning.





Material/Methods: This study included 87 patients with acute PQ poisoning admitted from July 2012 to May 2015. Data were collected from medical records. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis was conducted to analyze the discriminatory potential of serum amylase with respect to 90-day mortality.

Results: Of 87 patients, 29 patients had elevated serum amylase. We found that serum amylase was significantly higher among patients with AKI than those with non-AKI ($p < 0.001$), and was an independent predictor of mortality (hazard ratio [HR]=3.644; 95% [CI], 1.684–7.881; $p = 0.001$). The area under the ROC curve for the serum amylase (area under curve [AUC]=0.796; 95% [CI], 0.690–0.903) had a better discriminatory potential than plasma PQ concentration (0.698;0.570–0.825) or urinary PQ concentration (0.647;0.514–0.781) in predicting 90-day mortality.

Conclusions: Hyperamylasemia is a valuable early predictor of 90-day mortality in PQ poisoning.

MeSH Keywords: **Hyperamylasemia • Mortality • Paraquat**

Full-text PDF: <http://www.medscimonit.com/abstract/index/idArt/897930>

 2330  2  5  46



Background

Paraquat (PQ) is a non-selective and fast-acting contact herbicide which has been widely used in developing countries [1,2]. However, PQ is highly toxic to humans and animals. PQ poisoning has become a clinical challenge due to the lack of specific antidote or effective treatment [3]. In recent decades, there have been numerous fatalities caused by accidental or voluntary ingestion of PQ [4,5].

A variety of parameters has been suggested to predict clinical outcome after ingestion of PQ, including plasma and urine PQ concentrations, urinary PQ qualitative test, liver enzymes, serum creatinine, arterial blood bicarbonate, leukocytosis, angiotensin, and acidosis [6–14]. In addition, severity scoring systems such as sequential organ failure assessment (SOFA), acute physiology and chronic health evaluation II (APACHE II), simplified acute physiology score II (SAPS II), and severity index for paraquat poisoning (SIPP) have been proposed as disease progression predictors [15–19]. The extent of lung injury in CT and pulmonary emphysema have also been claimed to correlate with the prognosis of PQ poisoning [20,21]. Although much effort has been expended in exploring effective predictors, most of those potential predictors have not been independently validated, and some of the indicators have proven to be too complex or unfavorable for early prediction [10,12]. Therefore, further efforts are warranted to develop reliable predictors for prognosis in PQ poisoning and to guide future clinical interventions.

The main sources of amylase are the pancreas and salivary glands. Serum amylase is typically used as confirm or exclude the diagnosis of pancreatitis and salivary glands disease. However, increase in serum level of amylase frequently occurs in other conditions, such as in patients with shock, trauma, hypoxemia, kidney damage, and acute liver failure [22–24]. Hyperamylasemia was also reported to occur in patients with PQ poisoning [10,25,26]. Here, we report the predictive value and clinical characteristics of hyperamylasemia in patients with PQ poisoning.

Material and Methods

The protocol of this study was approved by the Shanghai Tenth People's Hospital of Tongji University Institutional Review Board (IRB: 2012RES045).

Patients

We reviewed the medical records of patients admitted to Shanghai Tenth People's Hospital with acute PQ poisoning from July 2012 to May 2015. During this period, 102 patients with

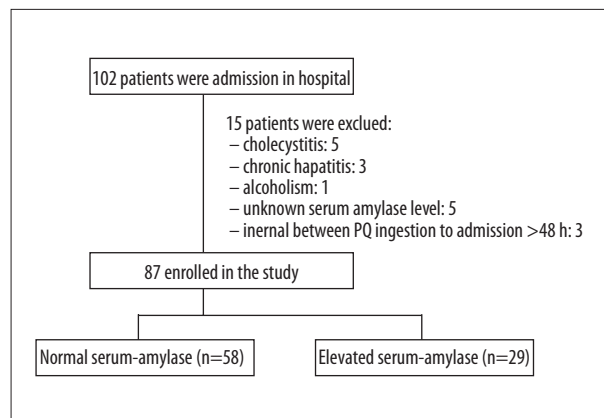


Figure 1. Flow chart showing enrollment of patients.

PQ poisoning were admitted to this hospital; 87 patients were included in our research eventually according to the inclusion criteria and exclusion criteria (Figure 1). Inclusion criteria were: (1) the patient's age between 15 to 65 years old, and (2) plasma or urine PQ concentration exceeding 0.1 mg/L. Exclusion criteria were: (1) previous diagnosis of the following diseases: patients with history of pancreatic disease, renal function impairment, symptomatic biliary stones, or chronic hepatitis; (2) patients with a history of alcoholism; (3) patients without serum amylase measurement; and (4) interval between PQ ingestion and hospital admission >48 h.

Data collection

Demographic data, medical histories, nausea and vomiting, stomach ache, quantity of PQ ingested, time from PQ poisoning to treatment, and APACHE II and SOFA scores were collected. APACHE II and SOFA scores were based on the worst condition within the first 24 h of admission. Clinical laboratory tests completed during 24 h of hospitalization were collected, including measurements of serum amylase, plasma and urine PQ concentrations, CRP, glucose, Ca²⁺, routine blood test, blood gas analysis, serum creatinine (SCr), blood urea nitrogen (BUN), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), and alanine aminotransferase (ALT). Abdominal CT scan reports were recorded when available. The primary outcome measure was the occurrence of death within 90 days after PQ ingestion.

Treatment protocol

All patients received standard of care treatment, as described in our previous study [20,21]. In brief, all subjects admitted to the Emergency Department were treated with gastric lavage and activated charcoal. After that, charcoal hemoperfusion or continuous renal replacement therapy (CRRT) was performed if needed. Other treatment modalities such as methylprednisolone pulse treatment, prevention and treatment of infection, and protection of vital organs were implemented as clinically warranted.

Definition

Toxic hepatitis was defined as having either AST or ALT >80 IU/L (twice the upper normal limits) or a total bilirubin level >36.6 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ [27]. Hypoxemia was defined as $\text{PaO}_2 < 70 \text{ mmHg}$ [27]. Acute kidney injury (AKI) was diagnosed based on the KDIGO criteria (increase in serum creatinine by $\geq 0.3 \text{ mg/dl}$ ($\geq 26.5 \mu\text{mol/l}$) within 48 h or an increase in serum creatinine to ≥ 1.5 times baseline within the preceding 7 days) [28]. Hyperamylasemia was defined as having serum amylase levels greater than the normal levels ($>220 \text{ U/L}$). Diagnosis of acute pancreatitis requires 2 of the following 3 features: (1) upper abdominal pain of acute onset often radiating through to the back, (2) serum amylase or lipase activity greater than 3 times normal, and (3) positive abdominal CT results [29,30].

Statistical analysis

Univariate analysis was performed with nonparametric test to evaluate differences in continuous variables and the chi-square test was used for comparing distributions among groups. To estimate hazard ratios and the resulting 95% confidence intervals (CIs) of predictors of in-hospital mortality, a forward stepwise Cox proportional hazards model was used. Survival curves were estimated using the Kaplan-Meier method and were compared using the log-rank test. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis was used to study the discriminatory power of serum amylase with respect to 90-day mortality. All tests were 2-tailed; p values < 0.05 were considered to indicate statistical significance. Data were analyzed using SPSS version 20.0 for Microsoft Windows (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

Results

Patient characteristics

A total of 87 patients with PQ poisoning (36 men and 51 women) were included in this study. Overall 90-day mortality was 41.4% (36 of 87). We divided patients into 2 groups in accordance with serum amylase levels ("non-elevation group" and "elevation group"); 29 Patients had elevated serum amylase in this study (Figure 1). Univariate analysis identified that time to hospital after ingestion time ($p=0.020$), estimated PQ amount ($p<0.001$), APACHE II ($p<0.001$) and SOFA ($p<0.001$) scores, and mortality rate ($p=0.001$) were significantly higher in patients with hyperamylasemia (in the elevation group in Table 1). In contrast, there were no significant differences in age and sex between the non-elevation group and elevation group. Stomach ache was also found to be similar in the 2 groups.

Association between serum amylase and laboratory parameters of PQ poisoning

Next, we compared the laboratory parameters between the serum amylase elevation group and serum amylase non-elevation group. Plasma PQ concentration ($p=0.001$), urine PQ concentration ($p=0.001$), CRP ($p<0.001$), WBC ($p<0.001$), SCr ($p<0.001$), AST ($p<0.001$), ALT ($p<0.001$), and PaCO_2 ($p=0.001$) were significantly increased in patients with hyperamylasemia. In addition to the above variables, other laboratory parameters such as glucose and Ca^{2+} did not show any significant difference (Table 1).

Risk factor analysis for 90-day mortality

In the univariate Cox proportional hazard regression model, we used age, sex, time to hospital, estimated PQ amount, serum amylase, SOFA scores, APACHE II scores, and plasma and urine PQ concentrations as independent variable. This analysis confirmed that the estimated PQ amount ($p<0.001$), serum amylase ($p<0.001$), SOFA scores ($p<0.001$), APACHE II scores ($p<0.001$), and plasma ($p<0.001$) and urine ($p<0.001$) PQ concentrations were all significantly associated with 90-day mortality. Next, a forward stepwise multiple Cox proportional hazards model indicated that the probability of mortality increased with serum amylase (hazard ratio [HR]=3.644; 95% [CI], 1.684–7.881; $p=0.001$), APACHE II scores (3.518; 1.310–9.446; 0.013) and plasma PQ concentration (4.296; 2.164–8.528; 0.004) (Table 2). Table 2 indicates that serum amylase was independently associated with an increased risk of death. A log-rank test further confirmed that hyperamylasemia was associated with higher 90-day mortality (95% [CI], 14.100–43.495; $p<0.001$) (Figure 2).

ROC analysis

We calculated the areas under ROC curve of plasma PQ concentration, urinary PQ concentration, serum amylase, serum creatinine, and APACHE II and SOFA scores to compare the discriminatory capacities of these parameters in predicting 90-day mortality. The area under the ROC curve for serum amylase (area under curve [AUC]=0.837; 95% [CI], 0.750–0.923) exhibited better discriminatory potential than plasma PQ concentration (0.679; 0.562–0.796) or urinary PQ concentration (0.647; 0.528–0.766), although it had predictive potential similar to APACHE II (0.845; 0.765–0.925) and SOFA (0.867; 0.790–0.943) scores (Figure 3).

Association between serum amylase and organ damage in PQ poisoning

Among the patients with hyperamylasemia, 25 of 29 (86.2%) patients developed AKI ($p<0.001$), while 20 of 29 (69.0%) patients exhibited hepatotoxicity ($p=0.000$) (Table 1). Indeed, the

Table 1. General characteristics and laboratory data within 24h following admission.

| Characteristic | Non-elevation group (n=58) | | Elevation group (n=29) | | P value |
|--|----------------------------|---------------|------------------------|----------------|---------|
| Age, year | 34.4±2.6 | | 37.8±4.6 | | 0.643 |
| Male/Female, n | 28/30 | | 8/21 | | 0.065 |
| Time to hospital after ingestion, hour | 24 | (1–267) | 13 | (6–108) | 0.020 |
| Estimated PQ amount, ml | 15 | (2–120) | 60 | (10–200) | 0.000 |
| Hemoperfusion, n | 39 | (67) | 23 | (79) | 0.241 |
| Nausea and vomiting, n (%) | 13 | (22) | 15 | (52) | 0.006 |
| Stomachache, n (%) | 11 | (19) | 6 | (21) | 0.848 |
| SOFA | 2 | (0–9) | 6 | (1–12) | 0.000 |
| APACHE II | 2 | (0–14) | 9 | (1–24) | 0.000 |
| Nonsurvivors, n (%) | 12 | (21) | 24 | (83) | 0.000 |
| Plasma PQ concentration, mg/L | 0.01 | (0.01–22.28) | 0.49 | (0.01–408.10) | 0.001 |
| Urine PQ concentration, mg/L | 2.08 | (0.01–248.72) | 35.58 | (0.01–2762.10) | 0.001 |
| CRP | 3.5 | (0.4–68.0) | 19.7 | (0.5–126.0) | 0.000 |
| Glucose | 6.1 | (2.1–21.6) | 7.6 | (2.9–17.4) | 0.054 |
| Ca ²⁺ | 2.3 | (1.8–3.0) | 2.3 | (1.4–3.0) | 0.939 |
| Routine blood test | | | | | |
| WBC | 10.2 | (4.2–29.3) | 22.5 | (10.6–46.4) | 0.000 |
| Hb | 128.0 | (87.0–177.0) | 4.0 | (1.0–17.2) | 0.811 |
| PLT | 145.5 | (40.0–363.0) | 156.0 | (33.0–306.0) | 0.322 |
| Renal function | | | | | |
| AKI, n (%) | 27 | (46.6) | 25 | (86.2) | 0.000 |
| BUN, mmol/L | 5.4 | (0.5–55.9) | 7.0 | (1.9–40.3) | 0.089 |
| SCr, umol/L | 93.8 | (29.6–999.8) | 172.0 | (37.1–821.9) | 0.000 |
| Liver function | | | | | |
| Toxic hepatitis, n (%) | 5 | (8.6) | 20 | (69.0) | 0.000 |
| Serum AST, IU/L | 25.8 | (7.9–328.5) | 190.8 | (12.0–705.1) | 0.000 |
| Serum ALT, IU/L | 18.6 | (4.9–562.1) | 162.5 | (6.0–1327.6) | 0.000 |
| Arterial blood gases | | | | | |
| Hypoxemia, n (%) | 8 | (13.8) | 8 | (27.6) | 0.146 |
| Acidosis, n (%) | 4 | (6.9) | 6 | (20.7) | 0.077 |
| PH | 7.42 | (7.20–7.50) | 7.40 | (7.21–7.54) | 0.380 |
| PaO ₂ , mmHg | 90.0 | (37.0–131.0) | 88.2 | (30.0–187.0) | 0.989 |
| PaCO ₂ , mmHg | 37.7 | (21.0–51.0) | 31.0 | (0.0–45.0) | 0.001 |

PQ – paraquat; APACHE – Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation; SOFA – Sequential Organ Failure Assessment; CRP – C-reactive protein; WBC – white blood cell; Hb – hemoglobin; PLT – platelet; AKI – acute kidney injury; BUN – blood urea nitrogen; SCr – serum creatinine; AST – aspartate aminotransferase; ALT – alanine aminotransferase. Data are presented as means ±SD or median (interquartile range) and categorical variable is presented as no (%).

Table 2. Cox proportional hazards models for mortality prediction in PQ poisoning.

| | Univariate COX Model | | Multivariate COX Model | |
|-------------------------|----------------------|---------|------------------------|---------|
| | HR (95%CI) | P value | HR (95%CI) | P value |
| Age | 1.000 (0.985–1.015) | 0.959 | N/A | N/A |
| Gender | 0.974 (0.502–1.891) | 0.849 | N/A | N/A |
| Time to hospital | 0.999 (0.992–1.006) | 0.849 | N/A | N/A |
| Estimated PQ amount | 7.685 (3.343–17.667) | 0.000 | N/A | 0.171 |
| Serum amylase | 8.823 (4.336–17.954) | 0.000 | 3.644 (1.684–7.881) | 0.001 |
| SOFA | 3.480 (1.754–6.904) | 0.000 | 3.465 (0.962–12.474) | 0.057 |
| APACHE II | 3.639 (1.876–7.059) | 0.000 | 3.518 (1.310–9.446) | 0.013 |
| Plasma PQ concentration | 4.296 (2.164–8.528) | 0.000 | 2.714 (1.373–5.364) | 0.004 |
| Urine PQ concentration | 2.566 (1.278–5.153) | 0.000 | N/A | 0.546 |

HR – hazard ratio; N/A – not applicable; SOFA – Sequential Organ Failure Assessment; APACHE II – Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation.

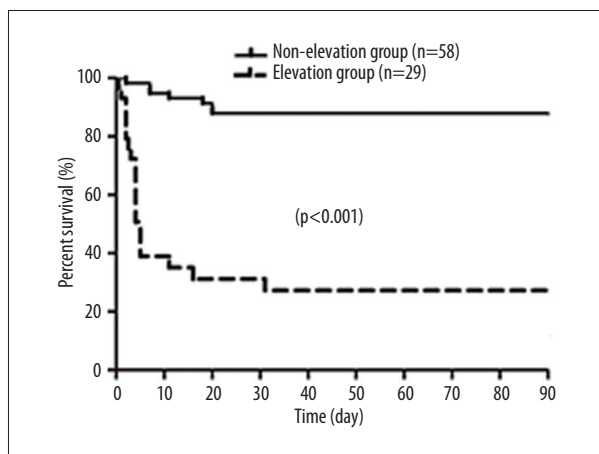


Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier survival curves of 87 paraquat poisoning cases stratified according to serum amylase. The p values were derived using a log-rank test.

serum amylase levels were significantly higher among patients with AKI compared to those without AKI (Figure 4). Hypoxemia and acidosis showed no significant difference between the 2 groups (Table 1). Only 1 patient (3.4%) was diagnosed with PQ-associated painless acute pancreatitis (data not shown).

Discussion

In the present study, univariate analysis indicated that patients with hyperamylasemia exhibited higher plasma level of PQ, urinary level of PQ, estimated PQ amount, and APACHE II and SOFA scores. Hyperamylasemia was also correlated with mortality and the severity of AKI and toxic hepatitis (Table 1).

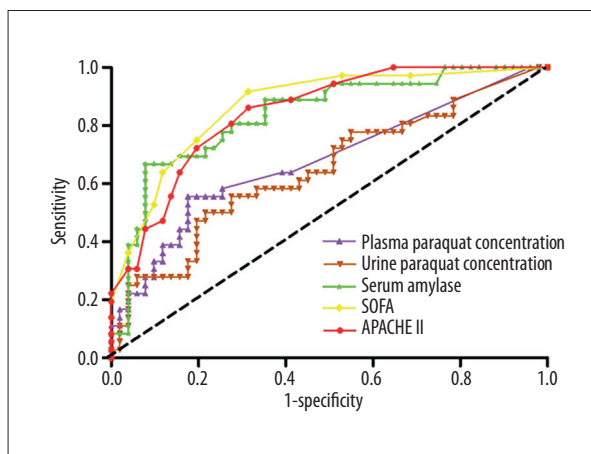


Figure 3. The receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves constructed for 90-day mortality outcome prediction using scores of Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) II and Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA), serum amylase, plasma paraquat concentration, and urine paraquat concentration in PQ poisoning.

Our study agrees well with previous studies that elevated amylase activity is a significant predictor of survival in PQ poisoning [10,25,31]. These findings suggest that hyperamylasemia could be used as a valuable and objective predictive parameter for mortality in PQ poisoning.

Li et al. found that amylase is an independent prognostic marker, and the ROC curve showed serum amylase has a good power in the prediction of the death [26]. Our study was consistent with theirs (Table 2). However, in the present study we

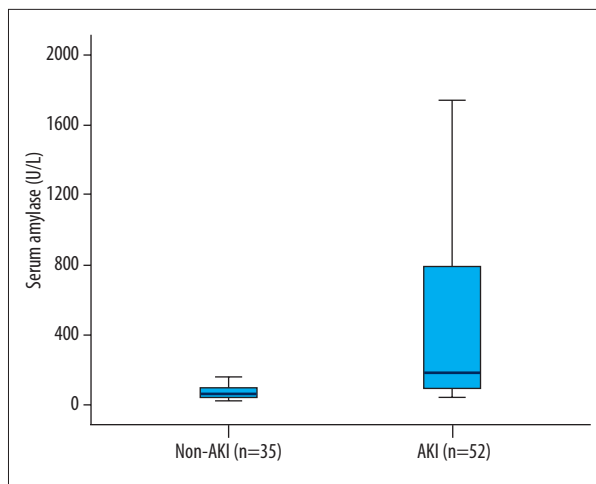


Figure 4. Boxplot showing minimum, maximum, median, and 5th and 95th percentiles of serum amylase in patients without acute kidney injury (non-AKI) and acute kidney injury (AKI).

further compared the predictive power of amylase with plasma and urine concentrations of paraquat, and found that the discriminatory power of serum amylase in our study was much better than plasma and urine PQ concentration (Figure 3).

Plasma and urine concentrations have been regarded as effective parameters for prediction of clinical outcome following acute PQ poisoning [2,7,8]. However, these have been questioned, as some studies found that plasma concentration was not as reliable as reported [32,33]. The mortality predictive powers of plasma and urine PQ concentrations were relatively low in our study. This may be explained by the following: (1) serum paraquat distributes to other organs quickly and decreases rapidly within the first few hours after ingestion. During this period, the plasma PQ concentration varies substantially even with slight changes in the time interval following ingestion [32]. (2) In the present study, the time interval between ingestion and serum PQ measurement was quite variable between the patients; thus, the varying or increased time-to-hospital interval after PQ ingestion may account for the observation that plasma PQ concentrations are not predictive of outcome. (3) PQ is primarily eliminated through the kidneys, and renal excretion of PQ is decreased when renal function is compromised [32]. Indeed, AKI occurred in 52 of 87 patients (59.8%), and this may have influenced the predictive capacity of urine PQ concentrations. (4) Charcoal hemoperfusion was initiated if the urine dithionite test was positive in PQ-poisoned patients. Thus, the initial management with charcoal hemoperfusion in PQ poisoning may also account for the observation that blood and urine PQ concentrations were not predictive of outcome in the present study.

In our study, 29 of 87 patients (33.3%) exhibited hyperamylasemia and more than half of them exhibited 3-fold or higher increases. Of these, 1 of 29 (3.4%) patients were diagnosed with PQ-associated painless mild acute pancreatitis and eventually died. A previous study on PQ poisoning reported that mild acute pancreatitis occurred in 1 out of 8 PQ-poisoned autopsy cases [34]. It is possible that hyperamylasemia may reflect clinical acute pancreatitis in a small number of cases. Taking into account that elevations of non-pancreatic amylase have been reported in a large number of pathologies, there may have been some other causes of elevated serum amylase in PQ-poisoned patients.

Some earlier studies suggested that the reason for increased serum levels of serum amylase may be due to a decreased rate of excretion into the urine, rather than direct pancreatic cellular damage [35], such as in cardiovascular surgery [36]. It has been reported that about 25% of serum amylase is excreted by the kidneys [37]. Kidney injury can decrease the excretion of serum amylase and this has been associated with elevation of pancreatic isoamylase [38,39]. Unfortunately, early deterioration of renal function is a critical complication in acute PQ poisoning [40,41]. There were 25 of the 29 patients (86.2%) with hyperamylasemia combined with AKI in our study. Serum amylase was significantly higher among patients with AKI than those without AKI (Figure 4). These findings raise the possibility that AKI may be an important cause of elevated serum amylase in PQ-poisoned patients.

Pancreatic damage secondary to acute hepatic failure has been described in many reports [42–44]. Toxic hepatitis occurred in 25 of 87 patients (28.7%) in our study; only 1 of them progressed to acute hepatic failure and showed no evidence of hyperamylasemia. Hence, toxic hepatitis was not a common cause for the hyperamylasemia observed in our study. Other potential causes of elevated amylase, such as hypoxemia, have been observed in other studies [24]. However, hypoxemia was not different among PQ-poisoned patients with hyperamylasemia compared to those with normal values (Table 1), indicating that hypoxemia was not causing the hyperamylasemia observed in PQ-poisoned patients.

The hyperamylasemia in PQ poisoning also may also originate from cell injury in other organs, such as salivary glands and the intestines. In addition, although only a minority of PQ-poisoned patients were diagnosed with clinically acute pancreatitis, PQ-induced subclinical pancreatic damage could not be excluded. Pancreatic amylase (P-Amy) and the salivary amylase (S-Amy) are 2 specific amylase isoenzymes [45]. P-Amy has a better sensitivity and specificity than total serum amylase for diagnosing acute pancreatitis [46], which will be monitored in this laboratory in the future.

Conclusions

Serum amylase is frequently elevated in PQ-poisoned patients, although its mechanism remains to be established. Hyperamylasemia is an early and valuable predictor for 90-day mortality in PQ poisoning, and this is a simpler and more objective test compared to the APACHE II or SOFA scores.

References:

- Hart TB: Paraquat – a review of safety in agricultural and horticultural use. *Hum Toxicol*, 1987; 6: 13–18
- Senarathna L, Eddleston M, Wilks MF et al: Prediction of outcome after paraquat poisoning by measurement of the plasma paraquat concentration. *QJM*, 2009; 102: 251–59
- Sittipunt C: Paraquat poisoning. *Respir Care*, 2005; 50: 383–85
- Eddleston M: Patterns and problems of deliberate self-poisoning in the developing world. *QJM*, 2000; 93: 715–31
- Olson DP, Diaz JA, Jereda JD: A fatal case of paraquat ingestion: Clinical course and review of pathophysiology. *Med Sci Monit*, 2010; 16(12): CS153–56
- Hart TB, Nevitt A, Whitehead A: A new statistical approach to the prognostic significance of plasma paraquat concentrations. *Lancet*, 1984; 2: 1222–23
- Scherrmann JM, Houze P, Bismuth C, Bourdon R: Prognostic value of plasma and urine paraquat concentration. *Hum Toxicol*, 1987; 6: 91–93
- Proudfoot AT, Stewart MS, Levitt T, Widdop B: Paraquat poisoning: Significance of plasma-paraquat concentrations. *Lancet*, 1979; 2: 330–32
- Jones AL, Elton R, Flanagan R: Multiple logistic regression analysis of plasma paraquat concentrations as a predictor of outcome in 375 cases of paraquat poisoning. *QJM*, 1999; 92: 573–78
- Lee EY, Hwang KY, Yang JO, Hong SY: Predictors of survival after acute paraquat poisoning. *Toxicol Ind Health*, 2002; 18: 201–6
- Hong SY, Yang DH, Hwang KY: Associations between laboratory parameters and outcome of paraquat poisoning. *Toxicol Lett*, 2000; 118: 53–59
- Suzuki K, Takasu N, Arita S et al: A new method for predicting the outcome and survival period in paraquat poisoning. *Hum Toxicol*, 1989; 8: 33–38
- Lee Y, Lee JH, Seong AJ et al: Arterial lactate as a predictor of mortality in emergency department patients with paraquat intoxication. *Clin Toxicol*, 2012; 50: 52–56
- Choi JS, Kwak KA, Park MJ et al: Ratio of angiotensin-2 to angiotensin-1 predicts mortality in acute lung injury induced by paraquat. *Med Sci Monit*, 2013; 19: 28–33
- Huang NC, Lin SL, Hung YM et al: Severity assessment in acute paraquat poisoning by analysis of APACHE II score. *J Formos Med Assoc*, 2003; 102: 782–87
- Huang NC, Hung YM, Lin SL et al: Further evidence of the usefulness of Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II scoring system in acute paraquat poisoning. *Clin Toxicol*, 2006; 44: 99–102
- Weng CH, Hu CC, Lin JL et al: Sequential organ failure assessment score can predict mortality in patients with paraquat intoxication. *PLoS One*, 2012; 7: e51743
- Sawada Y, Yamamoto I, Hirokane T et al: Severity index of paraquat poisoning. *Lancet*, 1988; 1: 1333
- Min YG, Ahn JH, Chan YC et al: Prediction of prognosis in acute paraquat poisoning using severity scoring system in emergency department. *Clin Toxicol*, 2011; 49: 840–45
- Zhou CY, Kang X, Li CB et al: Pneumomediastinum predicts early mortality in acute paraquat poisoning. *Clin Toxicol*, 2015; 53: 551–56
- Kang X, Hu DY, Li CB et al: The volume ratio of ground glass opacity in early lung CT predicts mortality in acute paraquat poisoning. *PLoS One*, 2015; 10: e121691
- Pieper-Bigelow C, Strocchi A, Levitt MD: Where does serum amylase come from and where does it go? *Gastroenterol Clin North Am*, 1990; 19: 793–810
- Warshaw AL, Lee KH: Characteristic alterations of serum isoenzymes of amylase in diseases of liver, pancreas, salivary gland, lung, and genitalia. *J Surg Res*, 1977; 22: 362–69
- Jam I, Shoham M, Wolf RO, Mishkin S: Elevated serum amylase activity in the absence of clinical pancreatic or salivary gland disease: Possible role of acute hypoxemia. *Am J Gastroenterol*, 1978; 70: 480–88
- Gil HW, Yang JO, Lee EY, Hong SY: The level and clinical significance of pancreatic enzymes in survivors of acute paraquat poisoning. *Clin Toxicol*, 2009; 47: 308–11
- Li Y, Wang M, Gao Y et al: Abnormal pancreatic enzymes and their prognostic role after acute paraquat poisoning. *Sci Rep*, 2005; 5: 17299
- Lin JL, Leu ML, Liu YC, Chen GH: A prospective clinical trial of pulse therapy with glucocorticoid and cyclophosphamide in moderate to severe paraquat-poisoned patients. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*, 1999; 159: 357–60
- Khawaja A: KDIGO clinical practice guidelines for acute kidney injury. *Nephron Clin Pract*, 2012; 120: c179–84
- Sarr MG: 2012 revision of the Atlanta classification of acute pancreatitis. *Pol Arch Med Wewn*, 2013; 123: 118–24
- Banks PA, Bollen TL, Dervenis C et al: Classification of acute pancreatitis – 2012: Revision of the Atlanta classification and definitions by international consensus. *Gut*, 2013; 62: 102–11
- Yang JO, Gil HW, Kang MS et al: Serum total antioxidant statuses of survivors and nonsurvivors after acute paraquat poisoning. *Clin Toxicol*, 2009; 47: 226–29
- Seok S, Kim YH, Gil HW et al: The time between paraquat ingestion and a negative dithionite urine test in an independent risk factor for death and organ failure in acute paraquat intoxication. *J Korean Med Sci*, 2012; 27: 993–98
- Houze P, Baud FJ, Mouy R et al: Toxicokinetics of paraquat in humans. *Hum Exp Toxicol*, 1990; 9: 5–12
- Soontornniyomkij V, Bunyaratvej S: Fatal paraquat poisoning: a light microscopic study in eight autopsy cases. *J Med Assoc Thai*, 1992; 75(Suppl.1): 98–105
- Gottlieb K, Sherman S, Pezzi J et al: Early recognition of post-ERCP pancreatitis by clinical assessment and serum pancreatic enzymes. *Am J Gastroenterol*, 1996; 91: 1553–57
- Paajanen H, Nuutinen P, Harmoinen A et al: Hyperamylasemia after cardiopulmonary bypass: Pancreatic cellular injury or impaired renal excretion of amylase? *Surgery*, 1998; 123: 504–10
- Fruilloni L, Patrizi F, Bernardoni L, Cavallini G: Pancreatic hyperenzymemia: clinical significance and diagnostic approach. *JOP*, 2005; 6: 536–51
- Collen MJ, Ansher AF, Chapman AB et al: Serum amylase in patients with renal insufficiency and renal failure. *Am J Gastroenterol*, 1990; 85: 1377–80
- Junge W, Malyusz M, Ehrens HJ: The role of the kidney in the elimination of pancreatic lipase and amylase from blood. *J Clin Chem Clin Biochem*, 1985; 23: 387–92
- Vaziri ND, Ness RL, Fairshir RD et al: Nephrotoxicity of paraquat in man. *Arch Intern Med*, 1979; 139: 172–74
- Kim SJ, Gil HW, Yang JO et al: The clinical features of acute kidney injury in patients with acute paraquat intoxication. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*, 2009; 24: 1226–32
- Cote GA, Gottstein JH, Daud A, Blei AT: The role of etiology in the hyperamylasemia of acute liver failure. *Am J Gastroenterol*, 2009; 104: 592–97
- Ede RJ, Moore KP, Marshall WJ, Williams R: Frequency of pancreatitis in fulminant hepatic failure using isoenzyme markers. *Gut*, 1988; 29: 778–81
- Srinivasan A, Venkataraman S, Hansdak SG et al: Hyperglycaemia as an indicator of concurrent acute pancreatitis in fulminant hepatic failure associated with hepatitis B infection. *Singapore Med J*, 2005; 46: 236–37
- Lippi G, Valentini M, Cervellini G: Laboratory diagnosis of acute pancreatitis: In search of the Holy Grail. *Crit Rev Clin Lab Sci*, 2012; 49: 18–31
- Skřha J, Stepan J: Clinical significance of amylase isoenzyme determination. *Acta Univ Carol Med Monogr*, 1987; 120: 1–81

Acknowledgements

We thank the physicians and nurses of our institutions.

Declaration of interest

The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of the paper.