



Pathogen enrichment from human whole blood for the diagnosis of bloodstream infection: Prospects and limitations



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 26 September 2018

Received in revised form 20 November 2018

Accepted 20 November 2018

Available online 26 November 2018

Keywords:

Molecular diagnostics

Bloodstream infection

Pathogen enrichment

Selective lysis; Sepsis

ABSTRACT

Blood culture represents the current reference method for the detection of bacteria or fungi in the circulation. To accelerate pathogen identification, molecular diagnostic methods, mainly based on polymerase chain reaction (PCR), have been introduced to ensure early and targeted antibiotic treatment of patients suffering from bloodstream infection. Still, these approaches suffer from a lack of sensitivity and from inhibition of PCR in a number of clinical samples, leading to false negative results. To overcome these limitations, various approaches aiming at the enrichment of pathogens from larger blood volumes prior to the extraction of pathogen DNA, thereby also depleting factors interfering with PCR, have been developed. Here, we provide an overview of current systems for diagnosing bloodstream infection, with a focus on approaches for pre-analytical pathogen enrichment, and highlight emerging applications of pathogen depletion for therapeutic purposes as a potential adjunctive treatment of sepsis patients.

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1. Introduction

Sepsis, a life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to infection, afflicts 18 million people worldwide each year, with mortality rates of 30 to 50% even in state-of-the-art

intensive care, and its incidence continues to increase (Fleischmann et al., 2016; Martin, 2012; Mayr et al., 2014; Mellhammar et al., 2016; Singer et al., 2016).

Over 600 pathogen species have been associated with sepsis (Vincent et al., 2009). Gram-positive bacteria account for more than half of all sepsis cases, followed by gram-negative bacteria and fungi (Martin, 2012; Vincent et al., 2006). The spread of antibiotic-resistant pathogens, evidenced by the global emergence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* or by increasing resistances among gram-negative bacilli and common respiratory pathogens, poses particular challenges to the treatment of bloodstream infections.

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Current Guidelines for the Management of Severe Sepsis and Septic Shock (Rhodes et al., 2017) recommend immediate antibiotic therapy, which can significantly improve the survival of septic patients (Ferrer et al., 2014; Gaieski et al., 2010; Garnacho-Montero et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2015). To ensure rapid onset of therapy, antibiotic treatment is initiated based on clinical and epidemiological information, and adjusted or de-escalated following identification of the etiologic agents. Culture-based diagnosis (blood culture) remains the reference standard to identify the causative pathogens in bloodstream infection (Lamy et al., 2016; Opota et al., 2015). Blood culture methods have been optimized to increase their sensitivity and specificity, but still, up to 50% of suspected bloodstream infections occur with negative blood culture, which can delay adequate antibiotic therapy. This can be due to the presence of slow-growing or intracellular pathogens, such as *Rickettsia spp.*, *Bartonella spp.*, *Coxiella spp.*, *Mycoplasma spp.*, or *Chlamydia spp.* (Fenollar and Raoult, 2007; Lamas and Eykyn, 2003; Lamy et al., 2016), or to antibiotic treatment initiated before blood sampling.

Molecular diagnostic methods, in particular polymerase chain reaction (PCR), are less sensitive to previously initiated antibiotic treatment than blood culture, and circumvent time-consuming and potentially pre-selecting culture steps (Dark et al., 2015; Stevenson et al., 2016), but PCR-based pathogen detection may be inhibited (Mancini et al., 2010) by sample matrix components, such as non-target DNA (Doring et al., 2008), heparin (Djordjevic et al., 2006; Garcia et al., 2002), immunoglobulins (Al-Soud and Radstrom, 2001), or iron associated with hemoglobin and lactoferrin. Efficient protocols for pre-analytical sample processing and pathogen enrichment are therefore required, as summarized in Fig. 1.

In this review, we provide an overview of current systems for the diagnosis of bloodstream infection. The most common approaches relying on pathogen identification after blood culture are summarized in Table 1 and have been reviewed extensively elsewhere (Dubourg and Raoult, 2016). Here, we focus on pathogen identification without previous blood culture, as compiled in Table 2. We particularly address

methods relying on pre-analytical pathogen enrichment and compare their workflow to blood culture based approaches (Fig. 2).

2. Pathogen enrichment for diagnostic purposes

Pathogen enrichment prior to DNA extraction aims to increase the ratio of pathogens to non-target cells and to deplete factors potentially interfering with PCR (Beutler et al., 1990; Doring et al., 2008; Garcia et al., 2002; Mancini et al., 2010). Pathogen enrichment may further be required in sepsis patients, where pathogen loads of less than one CFU/mL whole blood have been reported (Arpi et al., 1989; Mermel and Maki, 1993), which is below the detection limit of current PCR methods (Ginn et al., 2017).

Pathogen enrichment may either exploit physical properties of pathogens, such as their density, size, or resistance to detergents (label-free methods), or may target pathogen-specific surface properties, such as the expression of pathogen-associated molecular patterns (label-assisted methods).

Pathogen enrichment from whole blood is frequently combined with the selective lysis of human blood cells in order to release intracellular pathogens that might otherwise remain undetected (Fraunholz and Sinha, 2012) and to deplete factors interfering with PCR (Al-Soud and Radstrom, 2001; Djordjevic et al., 2006; Doring et al., 2008; Garcia et al., 2002). Selective lysis of blood cells can be achieved by addition of hypotonic or chaotropic buffers containing apolar, zwitterionic, or polar detergents, of which only the latter also lyse the nucleus to release human DNA (Brennecke et al., 2017; Caspar et al., 2017; Katholnig et al., 2015; Trung et al., 2016). Bacteria and fungi are able to withstand the osmotic pressure during lysis due to their cell walls and can subsequently be separated from the supernatant containing the lysed blood cells. While mainly applied in combination with molecular diagnostics, selective lysis has also been used in blood culture systems, which has been reported to increase the sensitivity of blood culture for selected gram-positive bacteria and yeasts (Kiehn et al., 1983;

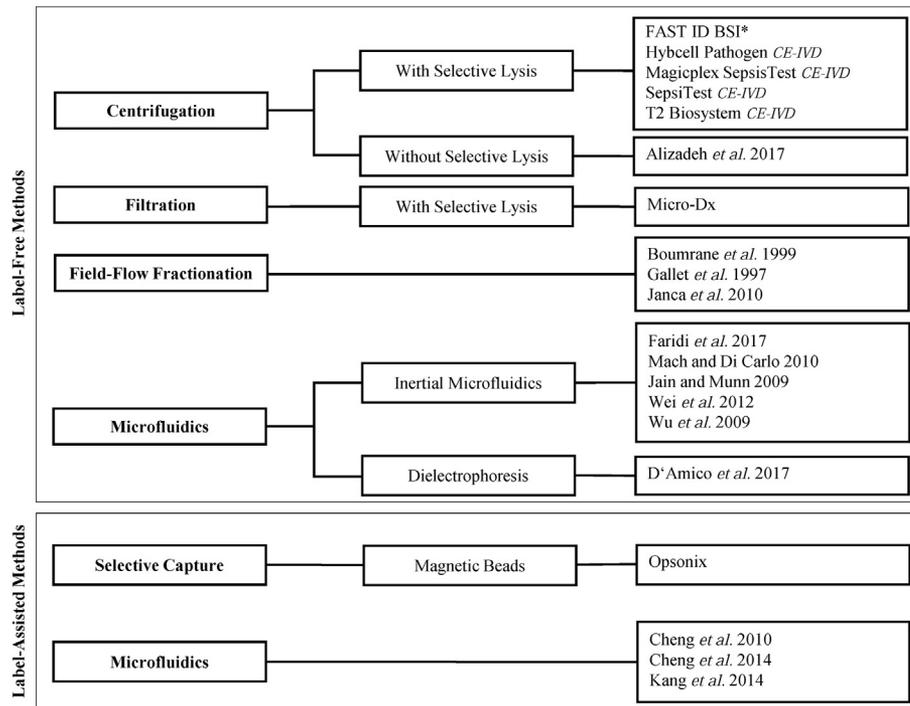


Fig. 1. Current concepts for pathogen enrichment from human whole blood. Suppliers are specified for diagnostic systems with CE-IVD certification, while references to the literature are given for approaches that are still at an experimental stage. *FAST-ID BSI is currently in clinical trials with planned CE-IVD approval in late 2019. CE, Conformité Européenne, indicating conformity with standards for products sold within the European Economic Area; IVD, *in vitro* diagnostics.

Table 1

Systems for the diagnosis of bloodstream infection relying on pathogen identification after blood culture.

System	Sample	Time-to-result [h]	Pre-analytical sample processing	Analysis	Reference
Blood culture systems					
BacT/Alert <i>bioMérieux</i>	10 mL whole	24–120	Various growth media for aerobic and anaerobic organisms	Colorimetric detection of pH/CO ₂	Bourbeau and Pohlman (2001), Mirrett et al. (2003)
BacTec <i>Becton Dickinson</i>	blood / bottle	24–120	Various growth media for aerobic and anaerobic organisms; optionally with lysis of human blood cells	CO ₂ detection by fluorescence	Mirrett et al. (2003), Rohner et al. (1997)
VersaTrek <i>ThermoScientific</i>		24–120	One medium for aerobic and anaerobic organisms each	Pressure sensor detecting microbial gas production or consumption	Dreyer et al. (2011)
Pathogen identification after blood culture					
QuickFISH <i>AdvanDx</i>		0.3	Fixation and hybridization with various probes	Manual assessment by fluorescence microscopy	Abdelhamed et al. (2015), Deck et al. (2012), Deck et al. (2014), Salimnia et al. (2014)
Sepsityper <i>Bruker Daltonics</i>		0.5	Gram stain (gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria are processed differently) and MALDI-TOF preparation	Mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF) fingerprint and automated database comparison for ID	Fiori et al. (2016), Morgenthaler and Kostrzewa (2015), Oviano et al. (2017a), Oviano et al. (2017b)
FilmArray BCID <i>BioFire Diagnostics</i>		1	Mechanical lysis by beads and DNA capture by magnetic beads	PCR amplification and hybridization on a multiplex array, automated control by melting curves	Fiori et al. (2016), EvotecBiosystems (1992), McCoy et al. (2016)
ePlex <i>GenMark</i>		1.5	Magnetic solid-phase DNA extraction and amplification by PCR	Hybridization with ferrocene labeled capture probes and electrochemical detection	Babady et al. (2018), Maubon et al. (2018)
Verigene <i>Luminex</i>		2.5	Gram stain, lysis and DNA extraction using magnetic beads, hybridization to probes on a glass array	Gold labeled detection probes hybridize to captured bacterial DNA and are covered with silver once bound; Reflected light by different array positions is detected	Alby et al. (2013), Belknap et al. (2017), Scott (2013)
Unyvero Blood Culture molecular assay		4.5	Mechanical, enzymatic, chemical lysis, automated DNA isolation	PCR amplification and hybridization on a multiplex array with automated control	Burrack-Lange et al. (2018)
Automated ID and AST (e.g. VITEK, Biomerieux; BD Phoenix, Becton Dickinson; MicroScan, Siemens)		3 (ID) 6 (MIC)	Pre-culture on solid medium and subsequent inoculation of test medium	Automated standard biochemical testing and MIC determination	Bobenchik et al. (2015), Donay et al. (2004), Stefaniuk et al. (2003), Thomson et al. (2017)

Systems listed for automated ID and AST represent the most common devices. AST, Antibiotic susceptibility testing; ID, identification; MIC, minimal inhibitory concentration; MALDI-TOF, matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight; PCR, polymerase chain reaction. All systems hold CE-IVD certification.

McLaughlin et al., 1983), but to result in decreased sensitivity for gram-negative bacteria and anaerobes (Henry et al., 1983; Murray, 1991).

2.1. Label-free methods

Label-free methods for pathogen enrichment rely on physical properties of pathogens, such as their size, shape, density, or their hydrodynamic characteristics. Almost all commercial systems rely on the selective lysis of blood cells followed by centrifugation. They include FAST-ID BSI (QVella, Richmond Hill, Canada), Hybcell Pathogen Array (CubeDX, St. Valentin, Austria), T2 Bacteria (T2 Biosystems, Lexington, MA) (Pfaller et al., 2016), SepsiTtest (Molzzy, Bremen, Germany), as well as Magicplex Sepsis Test (Seegene, Seoul, Korea) (Talebpour, 2015), as specified in Table 2. The recently introduced Micro-Dx system (Molzzy) is based on a combination of selective lysis and filtration (Lustig, 2017). Additional approaches for pathogen enrichment, such as field flow fractionation and inertial microfluidics, are still at an experimental stage and have not yet reached routine application.

2.1.1. Pathogen enrichment by centrifugation

Pathogen enrichment by centrifugation relies on the quantitative sedimentation of pathogens, and microbial cells that fail to be pelleted can therefore lead to false negative results. The removal of the supernatant after centrifugation is a critical step, since larger volumes of removed supernatant efficiently reduce potentially interfering factors, while they also increase the risk of losing pelleted pathogens. Each washing step further increases the risk of pathogen loss, since the detergents contained in the washing solution may weaken the adherence of the pellet to the wall of the sample tube.

As summarized in Fig. 2, FAST-ID BSI relies on fully automated sample processing with selective lysis of the blood cells by a saponin solution, pelleting of the pathogens by centrifugation, washing, disintegration by electrical pulse pattern lysis, and amplification as well as identification

of the released pathogen DNA in the sample cassette using PCR (Talebpour, 2015). Pathogen enrichment for the Hybcell Pathogen Array comprises the selective lysis of blood cells by incubation with a hypotonic detergent solution, followed by centrifugation. The resulting pellet is heated in alkaline solution, and released pathogen DNA is purified by adhesion to columns containing silica gel. Following elution, DNA is amplified by PCR for 16S or 18S rRNA for bacteria and fungi, respectively, and species are identified by array hybridization. The T2 system for candida and bacteria provides a fully automated device based on the selective hypotonic lysis of blood cells followed by centrifugation. The washed pathogen pellet is lysed mechanically using beads, the released pathogen DNA is amplified by PCR, and species are identified using sequence specific probes (Neely et al., 2013). Magicplex Sepsis Test and SepsiTtest both rely on similar protocols and provide buffers for manual extraction or for semi-automated sample processing. Selective lysis is performed manually by a chaotropic buffer, followed by incubation with DNase to digest free DNA. Centrifugation and washing of the pathogen pellet are followed by automated pathogen DNA extraction, amplification by PCR, sequencing, and sequence comparison to an online database (Loonen et al., 2014; Wellinghausen et al., 2009).

On an experimental level, there have also been attempts to enrich pathogens by centrifugation without selective lysis, using a hollow spin disk to separate pathogens and plasma from human blood cells, followed by separation of the pathogens by vacuum filtration. Analysis of whole blood from 98 donors spiked with *E.coli* (6 and 200 CFU/mL) achieved recovery rates of about 70% (Alizadeh et al., 2017; Buchanan et al., 2017), but intracellular pathogens are not recovered with this protocol.

2.1.2. Pathogen enrichment by filtration

Pathogen enrichment by filtration is based on the retention of pathogens, while other sample components pass the filter. Blood samples are subjected to selective lysis prior to filtration to avoid clogging of

Table 2
Systems for diagnosis of bloodstream infection relying on molecular diagnostics without previous blood culture.

System	Sample volume [mL whole blood]	Time-to-result [h]	Pre-analytical sample processing	Analysis	Reference
Molecular diagnostics using DNA extraction directly from whole blood					
SeptiFast Roche	1.5	6	Mechanical cell lysis by glass beads followed by automated DNA extraction	PCR amplification and identification by melting curve analyses	Stevenson et al. (2016)
IRIDICA BAC BSI Abbott discontinued	5	7	Mechanical cell lysis by ceramic beads followed by automated DNA extraction	PCR amplification and desalting; identification by ESI-MS	Metzgar et al. (2016), Stevenson et al. (2016)
Molecular diagnostics using pathogen enrichment prior to DNA extraction					
FAST-ID BSI QVella	9	1	Automated pathogen enrichment by selective lysis by hypotonic detergent buffer, centrifugation and washing, followed by electrical lysis	PCR amplification and hybridization on a multiplex array	Qvella (2015)
Hybcell Pathogen CubeDx	0.5–5	3	Manual pathogen enrichment by selective lysis by hypotonic detergent buffer and centrifugation followed by alkaline thermal lysis and DNA purification on MiniSpin columns	PCR amplification of bacterial 16S rDNA and compact sequencing	Knabl et al. (2016)
T2Bacteria T2 Biosystems	2	3–5	Automated selective lysis in hypotonic detergent buffer, followed by debris concentration and pathogen lysis by bead beating	PCR amplification and NMR detection and identification	De Angelis et al. (2018), Hamula et al. (2016), Munoz et al. (2018), Neely et al. (2015), Patch et al. (2018), Pfaller et al. (2016) Lustig (2017)
Micro-Dx Molzylm	1–5	4	Automated selective lysis, followed by filtration, chemical lysis of pathogens and extraction of DNA	PCR of hypervariable 16S/18S regions, followed by sequencing and BLAST for species identification	
Magicplex Sepsis Test Seegene	1	6	Manual selective lysis by chaotropic buffer and detergents and enrichment by centrifugation followed by automated DNA extraction using chemicals and magnetic beads	2x PCR amplification (gram-positive and fungi; gram-negative and resistance markers), Identification by additional PCR cycles with specific detection probes	Carrara et al. (2013), Loonen et al. (2014)
SepsiTest Molzylm	1–5	4–8	Manual selective lysis by chaotropic buffer and detergents and enrichment by centrifugation followed by an automated DNA extraction using chemicals and magnetic beads	PCR of hypervariable 16S/18S regions, followed by sequencing and BLAST for species identification	Loonen et al. (2014), Stevenson et al. (2016), Wellingshausen et al. (2009)

BLAST, basic local alignment search tool; ESI-MS, electrospray-ionization mass spectrometry; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; PCR, polymerase chain reaction. All systems hold CE-IVD certification with the exception of FAST-ID BSI (certification foreseen in 2019) and Micro-DX (approved for research use only).

the filter. Micro-Dx is currently the only commercial system relying on pathogen enrichment by filtration for the analysis of whole blood samples, and it has been validated for a number of matrices, including tissue samples, joint aspirates, pleural, peritoneal and cerebrospinal fluid, wound swabs, bone marrow, and broncho-alveolar lavage. After pathogen retention on the filter membrane, chemical agents are used to release the pathogen DNA, which is subsequently eluted from the filter and amplified by PCR (Lustig, 2017).

2.1.3. Pathogen enrichment by microfluidic systems and emerging label-free approaches

In addition to centrifugation and filtration, various approaches, in particular microfluidic systems, have been exploited for label-free pathogen enrichment. A major advantage of microfluidic systems is their high surface-to-volume ratio, allowing for the controlled handling of the liquid and for an efficient transduction of external parameters, such as temperature. Microfluidic systems are easily adaptable for automation, reducing hands-on time (Henzler et al., 2018; Mou and Jiang, 2017). The microfluidic approach is well established in flow cytometry for the separation and characterization of biological particles, yet its throughput is insufficient to detect pathogens in whole blood, given the required sensitivity of approximately 1 CFU per milliliter. Still, there are efforts to develop devices based on inertial microfluidics to separate pathogens from blood cells based on their size and elasticity (Faridi et al., 2017; Mach and Di Carlo, 2010; Wei Hou et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2009). This approach relies on a phenomenon known as margination, which is observed *in vivo* in blood vessels with diameters of less than 300 μm , where red blood cells migrate to the center of the vessel under constant flow, while collisions of red blood cells and leukocytes result in a radial displacement of the larger leukocytes towards the vessel wall (Jain and Munn, 2009). Similar effects have also been found *in vitro* for platelets and spiked pathogens (Wei Hou et al., 2012). A more recent experimental approach relying on inertial microfluidics

employs a non-Newtonian liquid as sheath fluid to select for large particles, such as red blood cells, whose net elastic and inertial forces allow for their transition to the sheath fluid, while small particles remain in the sample and can be separated after passage through the microfluidic channel (Faridi et al., 2017). Set-ups without sheath fluids with potential applications in the therapeutic field have been proposed alike (Mach and Di Carlo, 2010; Wu et al., 2009), with average pathogen yields of 60–80%. The initial bacterial load in these set-ups, however, was several log stages higher than reported in septic patients, while results for lower pathogen concentrations have not been published yet. Currently, a limiting step common to all microfluidic approaches for pathogen enrichment is their low flow rate of about 15 $\mu\text{L}/\text{h}$, which greatly restricts the sample volume that can be processed, and it remains to be investigated whether this restriction can be circumvented in future set-ups by parallelization of microfluidic devices.

Finally, field-flow fractionation and dielectrophoresis have been exploited for pathogen enrichment from human whole blood at an experimental level. During field-flow fractionation, drag, sedimentation, or thermophoretic, electric, and magnetic forces are applied to induce differential migration of pathogens and blood components (Bouamrane et al., 1999; Gallet et al., 1997; Janca et al., 2010; Reschiglian et al., 2005). Dielectrophoretic separation has also been applied to separate polarized particles in fluids based on their differences in size, shape, density, and dielectric properties (Cheng et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2014; D'Amico et al., 2017), and field-flow fractionation and dielectrophoresis have been combined to separate platelets from other blood cells, a principle which may be adaptable for pathogen enrichment (Piacentini et al., 2011).

2.2. Label-assisted methods

Affinity capture for pathogen enrichment commonly employs biomolecules that recognize and bind pathogen-associated molecular

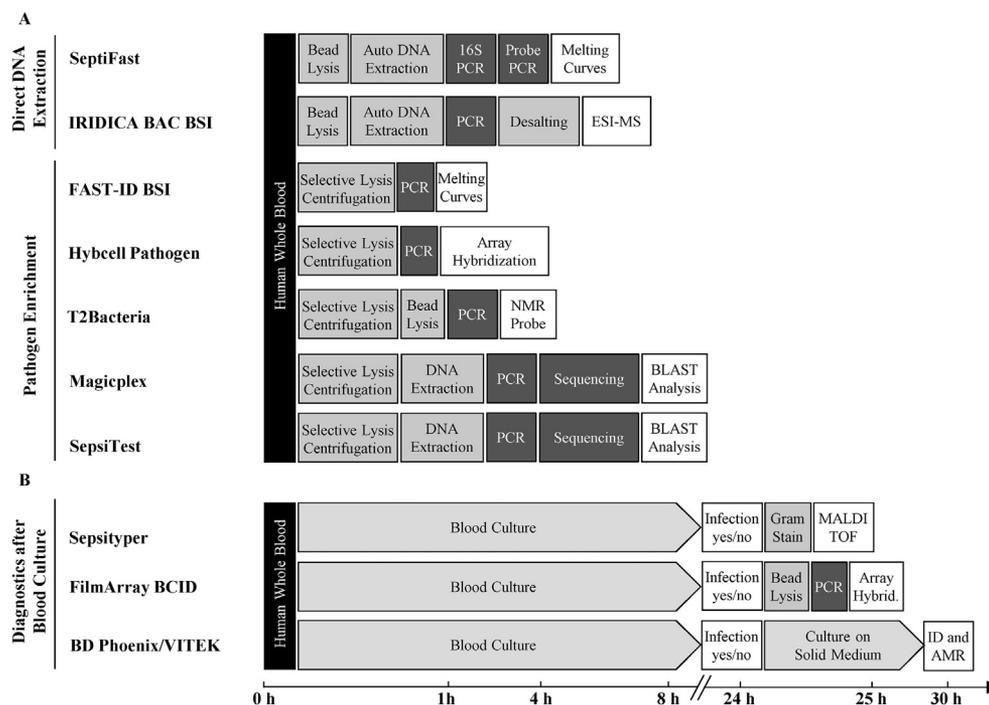


Fig. 2. Timelines for the diagnosis of bloodstream infection. (A) Systems for pathogen identification directly from whole blood (direct DNA extraction) or after pathogen enrichment. (B) The most common systems for pathogen identification following blood culture are shown for comparison. Steps depicted in light gray refer to pre-analytical sample processing, dark gray indicates DNA amplification steps, and white boxes refer to pathogen identification. Times depicted for individual steps represent approximations; note that the x-axis is not linear. AMR, antimicrobial resistance testing; BLAST, basic local alignment search tool; ESI-MS, electrospray ionization-mass spectrometry; ID, identification; MALDI-TOF, matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

patterns (PAMPs), conserved surface motifs shared by a broad range of pathogen species, which are recognized as foreign by the human innate immune system. Examples include lipopolysaccharide for gram-negative bacteria, lipoteichoic acid for gram-positive bacteria (Messner et al., 2013), or chitin for fungi (Ruiz-Herrera and Ortiz-Castellanos, 2010). Ligands such as antibodies (Kim et al., 2017; Vutukuru et al., 2016; Yung et al., 2009), aptamers (Shen et al., 2016), lipoproteins (Almand et al., 2016; Vutukuru et al., 2016), components of the extracellular matrix (Henderson et al., 2011, Singh et al., 2012b), bacteriophages (Singh et al., 2012a), zinc-coordinated bis(dipicolylamine) (Lee et al., 2014), polymyxin B (Raman et al., 2017), or cell wall active antibiotics (Wang et al., 2014) have been immobilized on biomaterial surfaces to capture pathogens and PAMPs from blood samples (Didar et al., 2015; Herrmann et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2014).

While ligands with high specificity and affinity for their targets enable efficient binding of specific pathogens, a high degree of specificity narrows the spectrum of pathogens that can be depleted, thereby increasing the probability of false negative results and limiting the suitability of selective pathogen capture for diagnostic purposes.

The only diagnostic system using affinity capture that is close to clinical evaluation to date is an enzyme-linked lectin-sorbent assay using magnetic microbeads coated with the human opsonin mannose binding lectin (MBL) linked to an Fc domain (FcMBL; Opsonix, Wakefield, MA). The assay, which has recently been introduced to quantify PAMPs in whole blood from sepsis patients, showed a sensitivity of 85% (29/34 patients) as compared to 18% (12/67 patients) for blood culture (Cartwright et al., 2016).

3. Pathogen depletion from whole blood for therapeutic purposes

The increasing emergence of multi-drug resistant microbial pathogens and the threat of pan-resistant bacteria require a consideration of non-antibiotic approaches as adjuvant treatments or as alternative therapies. Potential non-antibiotic options to treat serious bacterial infection include

inhibitors of bacterial quorum sensing, lytic bacteriophages, liposome-based cytotoxin inhibitors, advanced immunotherapies, as well as extracorporeal therapies, such as hemoadsorption, which aims at broad-range pathogen depletion from the circulation (Opal, 2016). Two adsorption systems based on affinity capture are presently under evaluation for therapeutic application (Seraph Microbind Affinity Blood Filter, ExThera Medical, Martinez, CA, as well as FcMBL hemoadsorption, Opsonix) (Didar et al., 2015, Herrmann et al., 2015, Kang et al., 2014). The hemoadsorption device developed by Opsonix employs polysulfone or polyethersulfone hollow fiber filters covalently coated with the aforementioned ligand FcMBL. When tested *in vitro*, the filter efficiently depleted gram-negative (*E. coli*) and gram-positive (*S. aureus*) bacteria, as well as fungi (*Candida albicans*) and lipopolysaccharide from human whole blood. These findings were confirmed in rat bacteremia models, where FcMBL-hemoadsorption resulted in efficient depletion of pathogens and of PAMPs released during antibiotic treatment, in decreased engraftment of living pathogens, as well as in diminished recruitment of inflammatory cells to major organs (Didar et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2014).

The Seraph Microbind Affinity Blood Filter developed by ExThera Medical is based on cartridges containing beads with endpoint-attached heparin, which binds to a broad spectrum of pathogens. It was shown to deplete cytomegalovirus (LaRosa et al., 2014), Enterobacteriaceae (McCrea et al., 2014), *Staphylococcus aureus* (Mattsby-Baltzer et al., 2011), as well as herpes simplex virus from whole blood with an efficiency of over 90%. A reduction of cytokine levels has also been proposed (Axelsson et al., 2010; Dileo and Federspiel, 2010). The safety and clinical efficiency of this device are currently evaluated in renal replacement patients with bloodstream infection.

4. Summary

A number of molecular diagnostic systems for bloodstream infection have been developed that exploit selective lysis of blood cells and centrifugation to enrich pathogens and deplete factors inhibiting or

interfering with PCR prior to analysis. The clinical performance of these systems is currently evaluated in comparison to blood culture or to first generation molecular diagnostics, such as the SeptiFast system (Roche, Basel, Switzerland). Beyond diagnostics, the capture and depletion of pathogens and PAMPs from the bloodstream with filters or beads functionalized with broad-spectrum ligands such as FcMBL or heparin represents a promising approach to lower the pathogen load in the bloodstream in sepsis patients and to reduce the spread of pathogens to distal sites.

It remains to be seen whether improved molecular diagnostics will replace classical blood culture, or whether it will rather be established as a complementary tool to detect non-cultivable or slow-growing pathogens and to identify resistance genes. Furthermore, currently ongoing clinical trials will evaluate the concept of pathogen depletion as supportive therapy for sepsis patients.

Declaration

Availability of data and materials

All data included in this article are publicly available, as this review summarizes published data.

Authors' contributions

MP compiled the review and wrote the first draft. AS supported with writing and with the preparation of the figures. DOH reviewed the draft and provided input from a medical perspective. VW extensively reviewed and critically revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

This work was supported by the project "SmartDiagnos" [Project ID:687697] funded by the European Commission under Horizon2020.

Consent for publication

All authors agreed to submit to Diagnostic Microbiology and Infectious Diseases.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

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