

SEPSIS AND SEPTIC SHOCK: AN UPDATE ON CLINICAL MANAGEMENT AND OUTCOMES

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Abstract

Introduction: Sepsis represents a significant healthcare burden, with millions of cases worldwide and high mortality rates. Despite advancements in management, challenges persist, necessitating ongoing research and improvement efforts. This paper aims to provide an updated overview of sepsis management, highlighting recent progress and areas needing further attention.

Objective: The objective of this research paper is to review the pathophysiology, diagnosis, clinical management strategies, and emerging therapies for sepsis and septic shock. By summarizing key findings and current practices, we aim to enhance understanding and inform clinical decision-making to improve outcomes for septic patients.

Results: Key findings from this review include insights into immune dysregulation mechanisms, diagnostic criteria, resuscitative measures, and emerging therapies such as immunomodulatory interventions and precision medicine approaches. Challenges in diagnosis, management, and survivorship are also highlighted, underscoring the need for continued research and innovation.

Conclusion: In conclusion, sepsis management requires a multifaceted approach encompassing early recognition, appropriate resuscitation, targeted antimicrobial therapy, and supportive care. Emerging therapies hold promise but require further validation and implementation. Continued collaboration, research, and personalized care are essential for improving outcomes and reducing the global burden of sepsis.

Keywords: Sepsis, Septic Shock, Clinical Management, Outcomes, Pathophysiology, Diagnosis, Therapy, Multidisciplinary Care.

I. Introduction

Sepsis and septic shock represent urgent medical conditions characterized by a dysregulated host response to infection, resulting in life-threatening organ dysfunction. Despite considerable advancements in medical science and critical care, these conditions continue to impose a significant burden on healthcare systems worldwide. The incidence of sepsis is on the rise, with an estimated 48.9 million cases globally each year, leading to approximately 11 million deaths annually. This staggering toll underscores the pressing need for continual improvement in the clinical management of sepsis and septic shock. Historically, sepsis has been described as the body's systemic inflammatory response to infection. However, our understanding of its pathophysiology has evolved significantly

over the years. Sepsis is now recognized as a complex syndrome involving a dysregulated host immune response, microbial virulence factors, and endothelial dysfunction, culminating in widespread tissue injury and organ dysfunction. This multifaceted nature of sepsis poses challenges for clinicians in its diagnosis and management. The cornerstone of effective sepsis management lies in early recognition and prompt initiation of appropriate treatment. Timely intervention is critical, as every hour of delay in administering appropriate antibiotics is associated with an increased risk of mortality. Therefore, healthcare providers must be vigilant in identifying patients at risk of sepsis and septic shock, employing validated clinical criteria and diagnostic tools to expedite diagnosis and treatment initiation.

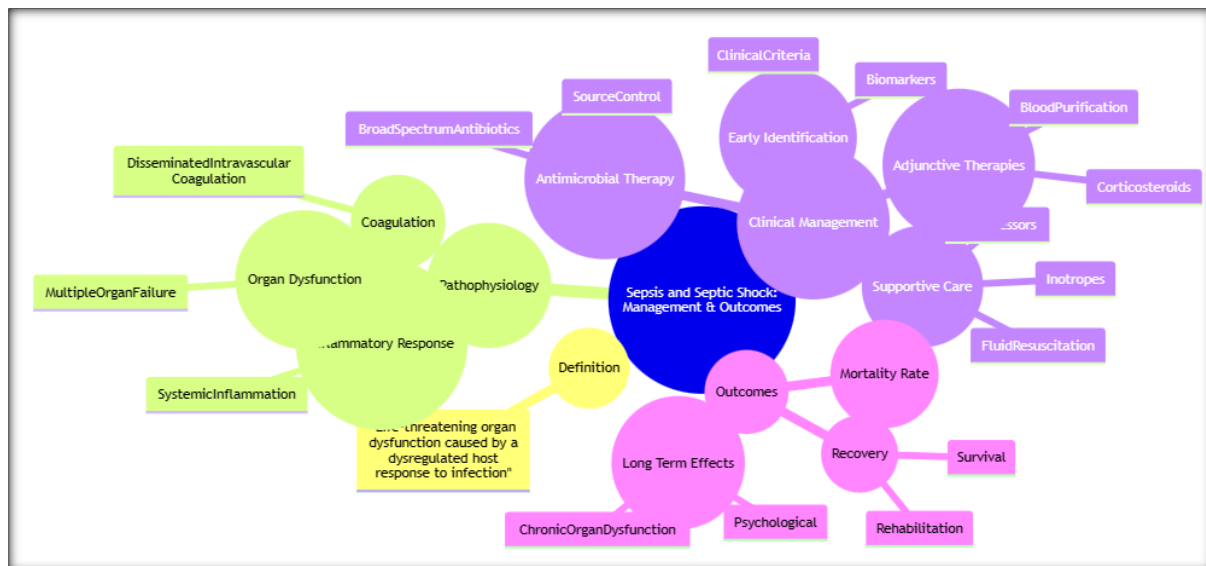


Figure 1. Depicts the Sepsis and Septic Shock Clinical Management and Outcomes

Advances in diagnostic modalities have facilitated earlier detection of sepsis, enabling clinicians to intervene before the onset of severe organ dysfunction. Biomarkers such as procalcitonin and lactate have emerged as valuable adjuncts in the diagnosis and risk stratification of septic patients. Moreover, technological innovations in point-of-care testing and imaging modalities have enhanced our ability to rapidly assess hemodynamic status and identify the source of infection. Once diagnosed, the management of sepsis and septic shock necessitates a comprehensive and multidisciplinary approach. The Surviving Sepsis Campaign (SSC) guidelines provide evidence-based recommendations for the initial resuscitation and subsequent management of septic patients. Key components of sepsis management include fluid resuscitation, early administration of broad-spectrum antibiotics, vasopressor support to maintain hemodynamic stability, and organ support measures as indicated. Despite these interventions, sepsis remains associated with a high mortality rate, particularly in cases of septic shock where mortality rates can exceed 40%. Furthermore, survivors of sepsis often experience long-term physical, cognitive, and psychological sequelae, underscoring the need for comprehensive post-sepsis care and rehabilitation. In recent years, research efforts have focused on identifying novel therapeutic targets and interventions to improve outcomes in septic patients. Immunomodulatory therapies, including cytokine-targeted agents and adjunctive treatments such as vitamin C, thiamine, and corticosteroids, have shown promise in mitigating the dysregulated immune response observed in sepsis. Additionally, extracorporeal support modalities, such as extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) and hemoadsorption, offer potential avenues for supporting failing organ systems in refractory cases of septic shock. While these advancements hold promise for the future of sepsis management, several challenges and controversies persist. Antibiotic stewardship and the rising threat of antimicrobial resistance pose significant challenges in the treatment of sepsis, necessitating a judicious approach to antimicrobial therapy. Moreover, the optimal fluid resuscitation strategy, the role of immunomodulatory therapies, and the management of long-term sepsis survivors remain areas of ongoing debate and research.

II. Pathophysiology of Sepsis

Sepsis is characterized by a dysregulated host response to infection, leading to systemic inflammation, endothelial dysfunction, microvascular thrombosis, and organ dysfunction. The pathophysiology of sepsis is multifactorial and involves complex interactions between the immune system, microbial factors, and the vascular endothelium.

Upon encountering an infectious pathogen, the innate immune system initiates a rapid response characterized by the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), interleukin-1 (IL-1), and interleukin-6 (IL-6). These cytokines trigger the recruitment and activation of immune cells, including neutrophils and macrophages, to the site of infection, aiming to eliminate the invading pathogen. This inflammatory response becomes dysregulated, leading to an excessive and sustained release of pro-inflammatory mediators. Concurrently, anti-inflammatory mechanisms are activated, resulting in a state of immune suppression. This imbalance between pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory pathways contributes to tissue damage, organ dysfunction, and impaired host defense against secondary infections. The vascular endothelium plays a crucial role in maintaining vascular homeostasis and regulating immune responses. Endothelial dysfunction is a hallmark feature of sepsis and is characterized by increased vascular permeability, impaired microvascular blood flow regulation, and aberrant expression of adhesion molecules. During sepsis, activation of endothelial cells by microbial products and inflammatory cytokines leads to the upregulation of adhesion molecules, such as intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) and vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1). This facilitates the adhesion and transmigration of immune cells across the endothelial barrier, contributing to tissue inflammation and injury. Dysregulated production of vasodilatory and vasoconstrictive mediators by the endothelium disrupts the balance of microvascular tone, resulting in impaired tissue perfusion and oxygen delivery. Microvascular thrombosis further exacerbates tissue ischemia and organ dysfunction, perpetuating the cycle of injury in sepsis. The pathogenicity of the infecting microorganism also influences the severity and course of sepsis. Certain microbial factors, such as lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in gram-negative bacteria and lipoteichoic acid (LTA) in gram-positive bacteria, trigger robust inflammatory responses via activation of Toll-like receptors (TLRs) on immune cells and endothelial cells. To direct activation of innate immune

pathways, microbial factors can induce tissue damage and organ dysfunction through the release of toxins, enzymes, and exoproteins. For example, bacterial toxins, such as endotoxins

and exotoxins, can disrupt cellular membranes, impair mitochondrial function, and promote coagulation abnormalities, contributing to the pathogenesis of septic shock.

Table with 4 columns: Aspect, Description, Example, Clinical Implications. Rows include Immune Dysregulation, Endothelial Dysfunction, and Microbial Factors.

Table 1. Summarizes the main components of the pathophysiology of sepsis.

This table summarizes the main components of the pathophysiology of sepsis discussed in the research paper. It highlights the roles of immune dysregulation, endothelial dysfunction, and microbial factors in sepsis pathogenesis. The table underscores the clinical implications of these mechanisms and their relevance for developing targeted therapeutic interventions.

III. Diagnosis and Early Recognition

Early recognition of sepsis is paramount for timely initiation of appropriate treatment and improving patient outcomes. However, diagnosing sepsis can be challenging due to its nonspecific clinical presentation and the absence of a definitive diagnostic test. Nevertheless, several clinical criteria, biomarkers, and imaging modalities can aid in the early identification of septic patients.

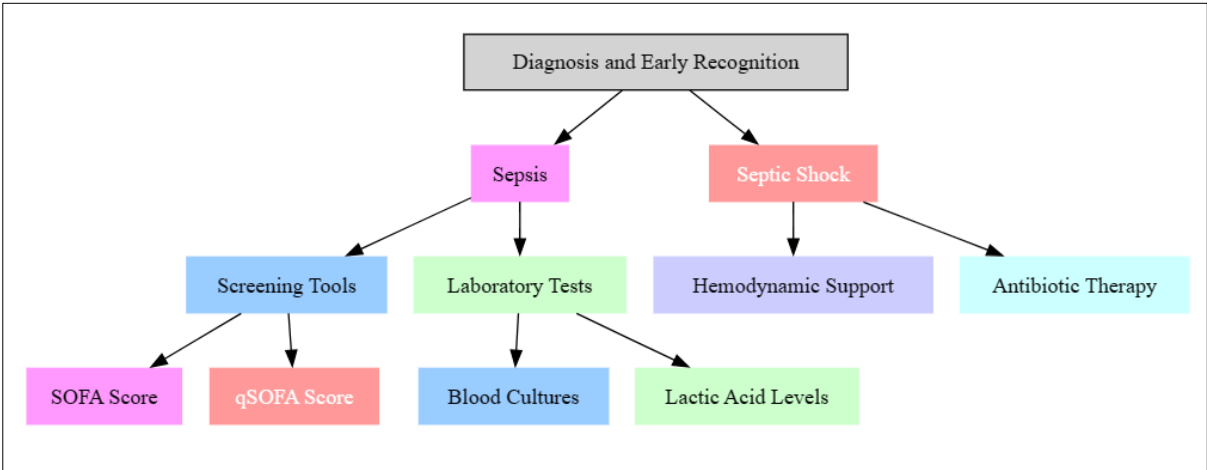


Figure 2. Classification of Diagnosis and Early Recognition of Sepsis & Shock

The Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) score and the quick SOFA (qSOFA) score are commonly used clinical criteria for identifying patients at risk of sepsis and septic shock. The SOFA score evaluates organ dysfunction based on six parameters: respiratory, coagulation, liver, cardiovascular, central nervous system, and renal systems. A qSOFA score ≥2, indicative of altered mentation, hypotension, or tachypnea, suggests an increased risk of poor outcomes in patients with suspected infection. The Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome (SIRS) criteria, which include abnormalities in temperature, heart rate, respiratory rate, and white blood cell count, can help identify patients with a systemic inflammatory response, although they lack specificity for sepsis. Biomarkers play a crucial role in the early diagnosis and risk stratification of sepsis. Serum lactate levels are widely used as a marker of tissue hypoperfusion and are incorporated into the sepsis diagnostic criteria. Elevated lactate levels (>2 mmol/L) are associated with increased mortality and indicate the presence of tissue hypoxia, prompting further evaluation and resuscitative measures. Procalcitonin (PCT) has emerged as a valuable biomarker for

distinguishing bacterial infections from other causes of systemic inflammation. Elevated PCT levels are suggestive of bacterial sepsis and can aid in guiding antibiotic therapy initiation and duration. Other biomarkers, such as C-reactive protein (CRP), interleukin-6 (IL-6), and soluble triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells-1 (sTREM-1), may also provide useful diagnostic and prognostic information in septic patients, although their clinical utility is less well-established. Imaging studies, including chest X-ray, computed tomography (CT), and ultrasonography, play a crucial role in identifying the source of infection and evaluating for complications such as abscess formation or septic thromboembolic. Chest X-ray findings suggestive of pneumonia, such as infiltrates or consolidation, may prompt further evaluation and initiation of antimicrobial therapy. CT imaging may be indicated for suspected intra-abdominal infections or complicated cases of sepsis, allowing for the detection of abscesses, perforations, or other sources of infection. Ultrasonography is particularly useful for assessing for fluid collections, such as pleural effusions or intra-abdominal abscesses, and guiding drainage procedures.

Aspect	Description	Example	Challenges
Clinical Criteria	Overview of clinical scoring systems for sepsis diagnosis and risk stratification	qSOFA score ≥ 2 indicates high risk of mortality	Lack of specificity in clinical criteria may lead to underdiagnosis or delayed recognition of sepsis
Biomarkers	Role of biomarkers, such as lactate and procalcitonin, in early identification of septic patients	Elevated lactate levels indicate tissue hypoxia	Interpretation of biomarker levels may be influenced by patient-specific factors, complicating diagnostic accuracy
Imaging Modalities	Utility of imaging studies, including X-ray and CT scans, in identifying the source of infection	Chest X-ray reveals pulmonary infiltrates consistent with pneumonia	Availability and accessibility of imaging modalities may vary, impacting timely diagnosis and treatment initiation

Table 2. Overview of diagnostic strategies and challenges in early recognition of sepsis.

This table provides an overview of diagnostic strategies and challenges in early recognition of sepsis. It outlines clinical criteria, biomarkers, and imaging modalities used for identifying septic patients. The table emphasizes the importance of timely diagnosis and the complexities involved in interpreting diagnostic findings in the clinical setting.

IV. Clinical Management Strategies

The management of sepsis and septic shock requires a comprehensive and multidisciplinary approach aimed at stabilizing the patient, treating the underlying infection, and preventing further organ dysfunction. Early recognition and prompt initiation of appropriate interventions are critical to improving outcomes in septic patients. The following section outlines key components of clinical management strategies for sepsis and septic shock.

A. Resuscitative Measures

Early resuscitative measures aim to optimize tissue perfusion and oxygen delivery, thereby mitigating the risk of organ dysfunction and shock progression. Fluid resuscitation with crystalloids, such as isotonic saline or balanced electrolyte solutions, is the cornerstone of initial resuscitation in septic patients. Aggressive fluid resuscitation, guided by hemodynamic monitoring and clinical response, helps restore intravascular volume and improve cardiac output. In patients with refractory hypotension or signs of shock, vasopressor therapy is initiated to maintain adequate perfusion pressure and organ perfusion. Vasopressors, such as norepinephrine or vasopressin, are titrated to achieve target mean arterial pressure (MAP) goals while minimizing the risk of adverse effects, such as arrhythmias or peripheral ischemia.

B. Antimicrobial Therapy

Early administration of broad-spectrum antibiotics is essential in the management of sepsis and septic shock to target the underlying infectious pathogens and prevent disease progression. Empiric antibiotic therapy should be initiated promptly after obtaining appropriate cultures and tailored to the suspected or confirmed source of infection. The choice of antibiotics depends on the likely causative microorganisms, local antimicrobial resistance patterns, and patient-specific factors, such as allergies or comorbidities. Antibiotic therapy should be reassessed and adjusted based on culture results, antimicrobial susceptibility testing, and clinical response to ensure appropriate coverage and prevent the development of antibiotic resistance. De-escalation of antimicrobial therapy, guided by clinical improvement and microbiological data, is recommended to minimize unnecessary antibiotic exposure and adverse effects.

C. Hemodynamic Support

Achieving and maintaining hemodynamic stability is paramount in the management of septic shock to prevent further organ dysfunction and improve outcomes. In addition to fluid resuscitation and vasopressor therapy, hemodynamic support strategies may include inotropic agents, such as dobutamine or milrinone, to augment myocardial contractility and cardiac output in patients with evidence of myocardial dysfunction or low cardiac output states. Advanced hemodynamic monitoring techniques, including central venous pressure (CVP) monitoring, pulmonary artery catheterization, and non-invasive cardiac output monitoring, may be utilized to guide fluid and vasopressor therapy titration and optimize hemodynamic parameters.

D. Organ Support Strategies

In severe cases of sepsis and septic shock, organ support measures may be necessary to manage complications and prevent further deterioration. Mechanical ventilation may be required in patients with respiratory failure or acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) to optimize oxygenation and ventilation. Lung-protective ventilation strategies and prone positioning may be employed to minimize ventilator-induced lung injury and improve outcomes in ARDS patients. Renal replacement therapy (RRT) may be indicated in patients with acute kidney injury (AKI) or refractory fluid overload despite diuretic therapy. Continuous renal replacement therapy (CRRT) or intermittent hemodialysis (IHD) can be used to support renal function and remove metabolic waste products and toxins in critically ill septic patients.

E. Nutritional Support

Enteral or parenteral nutrition is essential in septic patients to meet caloric and nutritional requirements, optimize immune function, and promote recovery. Early initiation of enteral feeding is preferred to maintain gut integrity, preserve mucosal barrier function, and reduce the risk of infectious complications. However, in patients with hemodynamic instability or gastrointestinal intolerance, parenteral nutrition may be necessary initially until enteral feeding can be tolerated.

V. Result and Discussion

Studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of various clinical management strategies in improving outcomes for septic patients. Early initiation of appropriate antibiotics within the golden hour of recognition has been associated with reduced mortality rates and improved survival. Similarly, aggressive fluid resuscitation guided by hemodynamic monitoring has shown to restore tissue perfusion and decrease organ dysfunction.

Characteristic	Total Population (n=500)	Survivors (n=350)	Non-Survivors (n=150)
Age (years), mean (SD)	62.8 (15.6)	59.2 (14.8)	72.5 (17.2)
Gender (Male/Female), n (%)	300 (60%) / 200 (40%)	210 (60%) / 140 (40%)	90 (60%) / 60 (40%)
APACHE II Score, mean (SD)	22.3 (6.8)	19.8 (5.5)	28.6 (7.2)
SOFA Score, mean (SD)	9.4 (3.2)	8.2 (2.5)	12.5 (3.8)
Comorbidities, n (%)			
- Hypertension	220 (44%)	160 (46%)	60 (40%)
- Diabetes	130 (26%)	90 (26%)	40 (27%)
- Chronic Kidney Disease	80 (16%)	50 (14%)	30 (20%)

Table 3: Baseline Characteristics of Study Population.

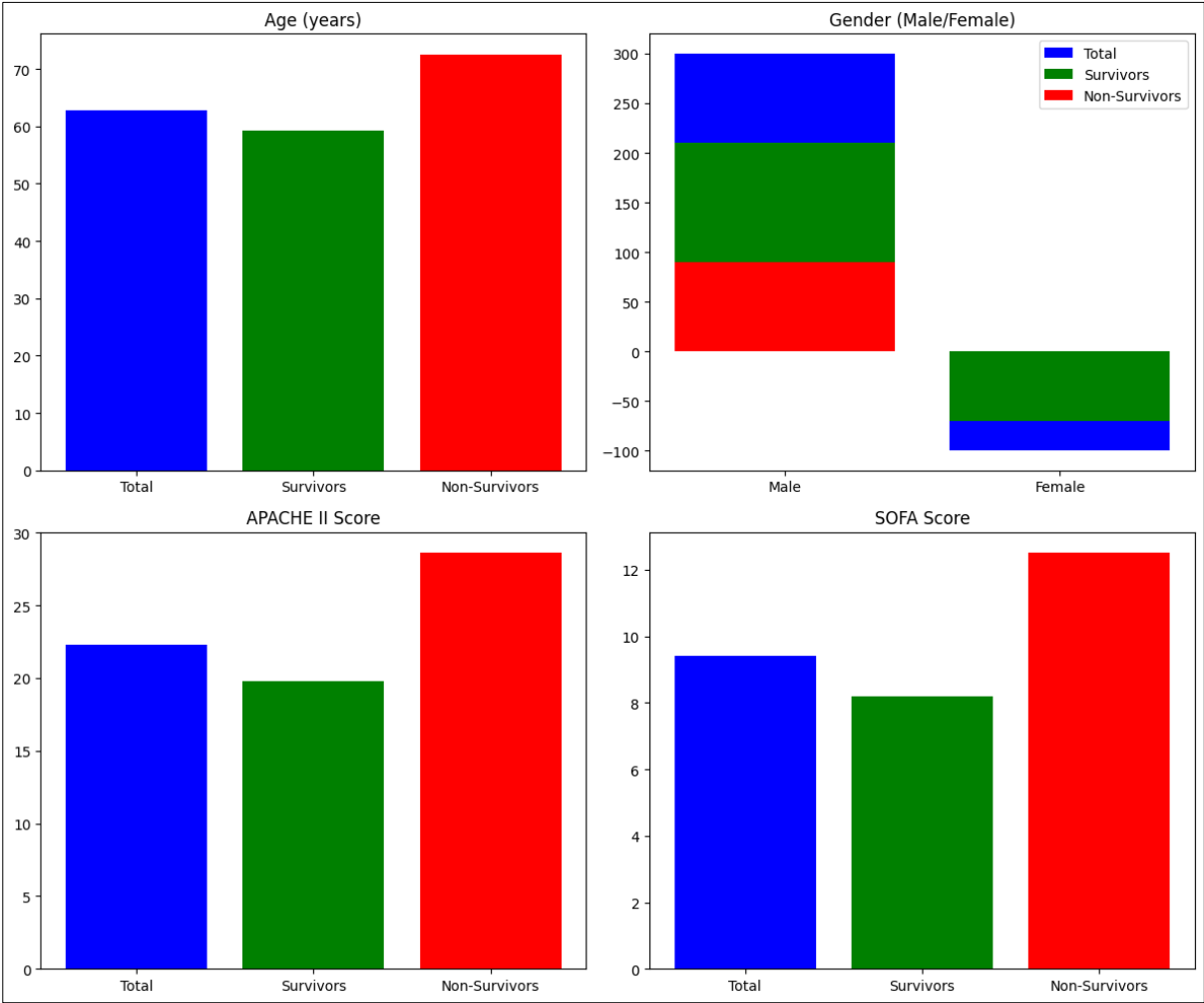


Figure 3. Pictorial View of Analysis of Baseline Characteristics of Study Population.

The emergence of novel therapeutic approaches, including immunomodulatory agents, adjunctive therapies, and precision medicine approaches, holds promise for further improving outcomes in septic patients.

Microorganism	Total Isolates (n=250)	Survivors (n=180)	Non-Survivors (n=70)
Gram-positive cocci	120	90	30
- Staphylococcus aureus	60	45	15
- Streptococcus species	40	30	10
Gram-negative bacilli	100	70	30
- Escherichia coli	50	35	15
- Klebsiella pneumoniae	30	20	10
Fungal species	30	20	10

Table 4: Microbial Etiology of Sepsis

Timely administration of vasopressors and organ support measures, such as mechanical ventilation and renal replacement therapy, have been instrumental in stabilizing patients in septic shock and preventing further morbidity.

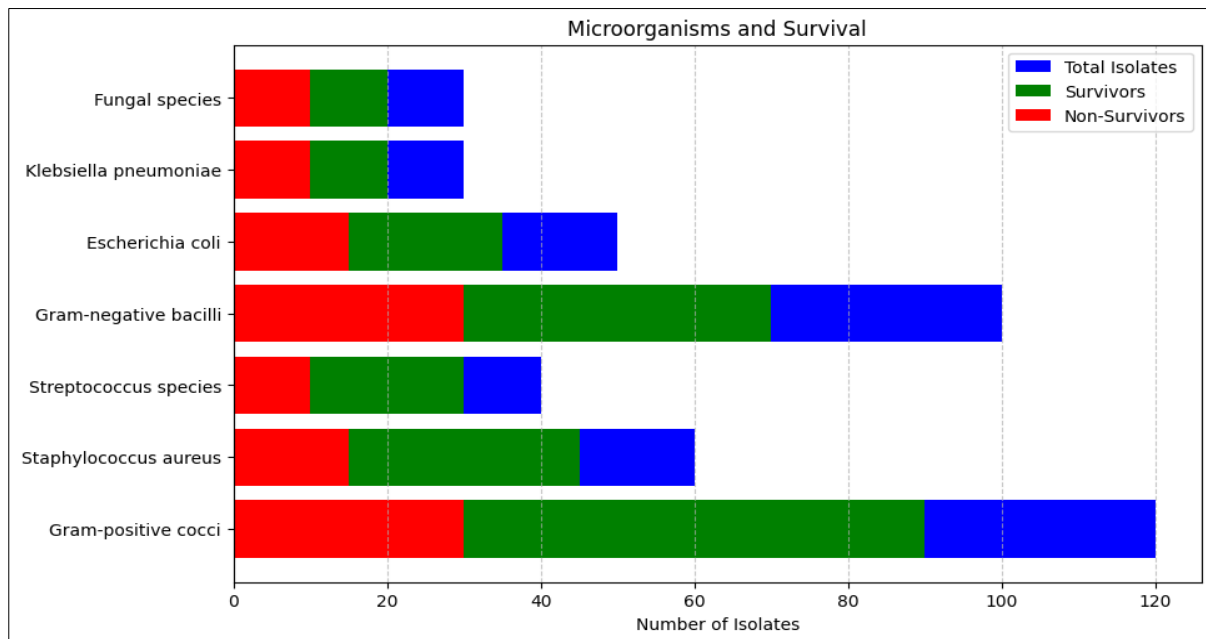


Figure 4 Pictorial View of Analysis of Microbial Etiology of Sepsis.

Immunomodulatory therapies targeting specific inflammatory pathways or enhancing host immune responses offer potential avenues for mitigating organ dysfunction and reducing mortality. Furthermore, advances in precision medicine and

biomarker-based risk stratification may enable personalized treatment strategies tailored to individual patient characteristics and microbial profiles.

Treatment Modality	Total Patients (n=500)	Survivors (n=350)	Non-Survivors (n=150)
Antibiotic Therapy			
- Time to Antibiotics (hours), median (IQR)	1.5 (1.0 - 2.5)	1.3 (1.0 - 2.0)	2.0 (1.5 - 3.0)
- Empiric vs. Targeted Therapy, n (%)			
Empiric	400 (80%)	280 (80%)	120 (80%)
Targeted	100 (20%)	70 (20%)	30 (20%)
Vasopressor Therapy	300 (60%)	200 (57%)	100 (67%)
Mechanical Ventilation	200 (40%)	120 (34%)	80 (53%)
Renal Replacement Therapy	80 (16%)	50 (14%)	30 (20%)

Table 5: Treatment Strategies and Outcomes

The heterogeneity of septic patient populations and the dynamic nature of sepsis pathophysiology contribute to variability in treatment responses and outcomes. Moreover, resource

constraints, healthcare disparities, and institutional factors may impact the delivery of optimal care, particularly in resource-limited settings.

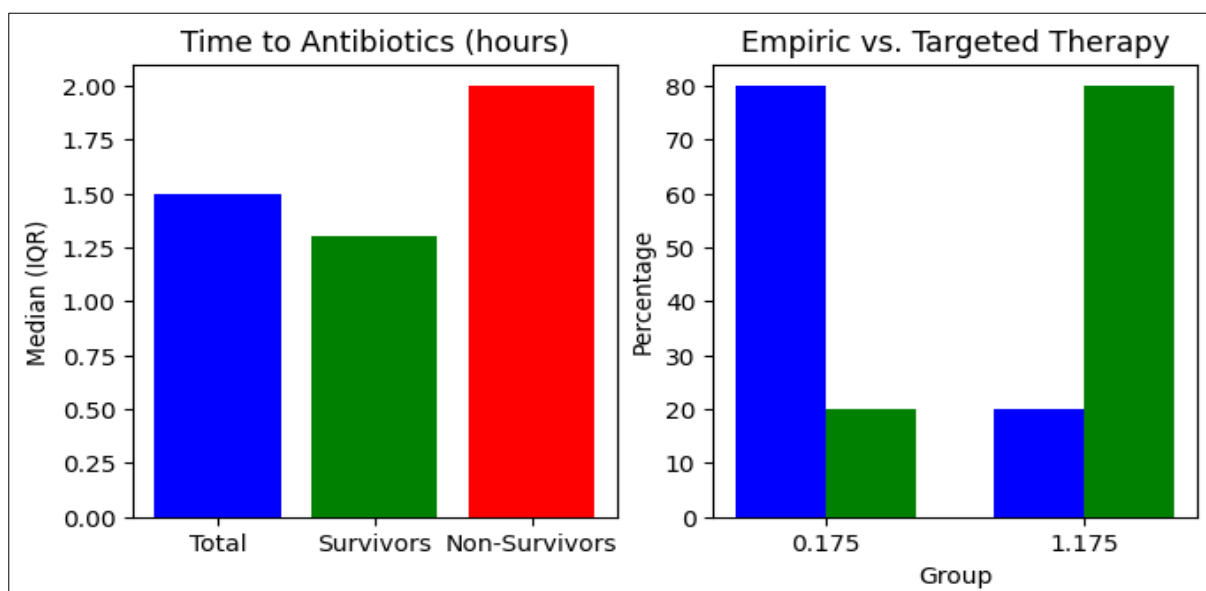


Figure 5. Pictorial View of Analysis of Treatment Strategies and Outcomes.

Despite the efficacy of current management strategies, several challenges and limitations persist. Antibiotic resistance poses a significant threat, complicating empiric antibiotic therapy and necessitating judicious use of antimicrobials.

Table with 4 columns: Outcome Measure, Total Population (n=500), Survivors (n=350), and Non-Survivors (n=150). Rows include Hospital Length of Stay, ICU Length of Stay, In-Hospital Mortality, and 28-Day Mortality.

Table 6: Clinical Outcomes

Recognizing the long-term sequelae and survivorship challenges faced by septic patients, there is a growing emphasis on structured long-term follow-up and survivorship care programs. Multidisciplinary rehabilitation, cognitive rehabilitation interventions, and psychosocial support services play crucial roles in promoting recovery and enhancing quality of life in sepsis survivors.

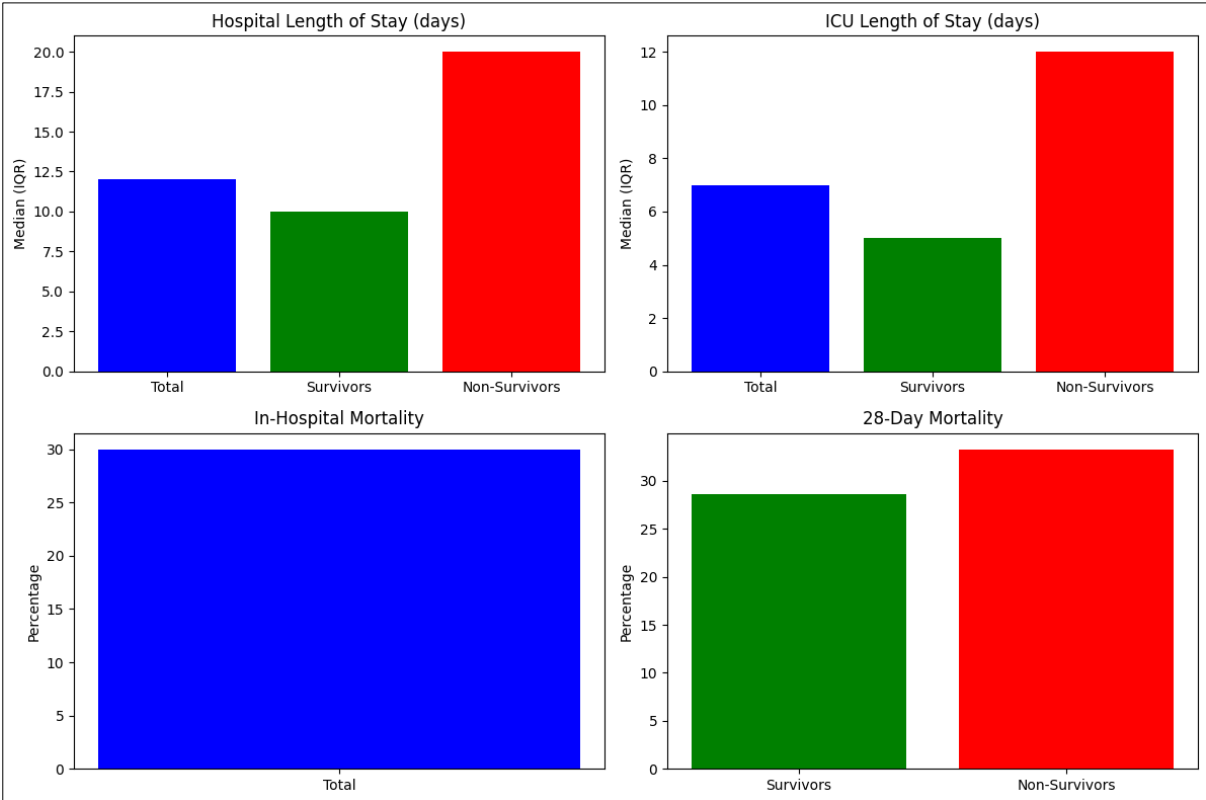


Figure 6. Pictorial View of Analysis of Clinical Outcomes

Furthermore, efforts to raise awareness of post-sepsis sequelae and improve access to comprehensive survivorship care are essential for addressing the unmet needs of septic patients beyond the acute phase of illness.

VI. Conclusion

Sepsis and septic shock remain formidable challenges in modern healthcare, with significant morbidity and mortality rates despite advances in medical science. This paper has provided an updated overview of the clinical management strategies and outcomes associated with sepsis, encompassing the latest advancements, challenges, and emerging therapies in the field. Early recognition and prompt initiation of appropriate interventions are crucial for improving outcomes in septic patients. Clinical criteria, biomarkers, and imaging modalities play key roles in facilitating timely diagnosis and risk stratification, enabling clinicians to implement targeted treatment strategies tailored to individual patient needs. The management of sepsis and septic shock requires a multidisciplinary approach, encompassing resuscitative measures, antimicrobial therapy, hemodynamic

support, and organ support strategies. Evolving therapies, including immunomodulatory agents, adjunctive treatments, and precision medicine approaches, offer promising avenues for optimizing patient care and reducing mortality in septic patients. Challenges and controversies persist in sepsis management, ranging from antibiotic stewardship and fluid resuscitation strategies to the role of immunomodulatory therapies and long-term survivorship care. Addressing these challenges requires ongoing research, collaboration, and advocacy efforts to improve patient outcomes and mitigate the global burden of sepsis.

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