

# Serum Procalcitonin and C-Reactive Protein Levels as Markers of Bacterial Infection: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis

Liliana Simon,<sup>1</sup> France Gauvin,<sup>2</sup> Devendra K. Amre,<sup>2</sup> Patrick Saint-Louis,<sup>3</sup> and Jacques Lacroix<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Pediatrics, Yale University School of Medicine, New Haven, Connecticut; and Departments of <sup>2</sup>Pediatrics and <sup>3</sup>Clinical Biochemistry, University of Montreal, Quebec

A meta-analysis was performed to evaluate the accuracy of determination of procalcitonin (PCT) and C-reactive protein (CRP) levels for the diagnosis of bacterial infection. The analysis included published studies that evaluated these markers for the diagnosis of bacterial infections in hospitalized patients. PCT level was more sensitive (88% [95% confidence interval {CI}, 80%–93%] vs. 75% [95% CI, 62%–84%]) and more specific (81% [95% CI, 67%–90%] vs. 67% [95% CI, 56%–77%]) than CRP level for differentiating bacterial from noninfective causes of inflammation. The Q value for PCT markers was higher (0.82 vs. 0.73). The sensitivity for differentiating bacterial from viral infections was also higher for PCT markers (92% [95% CI, 86%–95%] vs. 86% [95% CI, 65%–95%]); the specificities were comparable (73% [95% CI, 42%–91%] vs. 70% [95% CI, 19%–96%]). The Q value was higher for PCT markers (0.89 vs. 0.83). PCT markers also had a higher positive likelihood ratio and lower negative likelihood ratio than did CRP markers in both groups. On the basis of this analysis, the diagnostic accuracy of PCT markers was higher than that of CRP markers among patients hospitalized for suspected bacterial infections.

Bacterial infections are a major cause of morbidity and mortality [1–3]. Diagnosis of bacterial infections is sometimes challenging, because clinical presentation of infections from different causative agents can be similar; for example, it may be difficult to differentiate viral from bacterial infections in certain instances [1, 3]. Inflammatory states, such as trauma, pancreatitis, transplant rejection, and vasculitis, might also have a clinical presentation similar to that for an infection. Although untreated bacterial infections may cause serious complications, treating viral illnesses or noninfective causes of inflammation with antibiotics is not only ineffective, but also contributes to the development of resistance [4], increases costs, and adds the

risks of toxicity and allergic reactions. Studies undertaken by the World Health Organization indicate that, for every 100 respiratory infections, only 20 require antibiotic treatment [4]. It is estimated that physicians in Canada and the United States overprescribe antibiotics by 50% [4]. The most precise way to diagnose bacterial infections is by culture; tests to confirm viral infections include determination of acute- and convalescent-phase antibody titers and tests for viral antigens. However, there is often a delay until results are known, and rapid immunological or genomic tests require prior knowledge of the infectious agent. The identification of markers for the early recognition of bacterial infections could guide treatments, reduce misuse of antibiotics, and possibly improve long-term outcomes [5].

Among several markers of inflammation and sepsis, procalcitonin (PCT) and C-reactive protein (CRP) markers are being studied to investigate their accuracy for the diagnosis of bacterial infections. PCT is the prehormone of calcitonin, which is normally secreted by the C cells of the thyroid in response to hyper-

Received 6 November 2003; accepted 12 March 2004; electronically published 2 July 2004.

Reprints or correspondence: Dr. Liliana Simon, Dept. of Pediatrics, Yale University School of Medicine, 333 Cedar St., New Haven, CT 06520-8064 (liliana.simon@yale.edu).

**Clinical Infectious Diseases** 2004;39:206–17

© 2004 by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved.  
1058-4838/2004/3902-0010\$15.00

**Table 1. Summarized quality assessment of the 12 included studies.**

| Criterion <sup>a</sup>  | Maximum score for each category | Study               |                     |                        |                     |                     |                    |                           |                      |                      |                     |                     |                      |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
|                         |                                 | Aouifi et al. [117] | Enguix et al. [118] | Hatherill et al. [119] | Lorrot et al. [120] | Muller et al. [121] | Penel et al. [122] | Rothenburger et al. [123] | Schwarz et al. [124] | Selberg et al. [125] | Suprin et al. [126] | Ugarte et al. [127] | Viallon et al. [128] |
| Study protocol          | 45                              | 32.3                | 27.3                | 34.5                   | 36                  | 34                  | 37.3               | 25                        | 33.5                 | 28.8                 | 33.5                | 35.2                | 38.5                 |
| Statistical analysis    | 48                              | 21.3                | 25.3                | 31                     | 24.4                | 20                  | 15.7               | 19                        | 17.6                 | 26                   | 20.3                | 27                  | 28.5                 |
| Presentation of results | 8                               | 7.3                 | 4                   | 1                      | 6                   | 7                   | 6.7                | 5.7                       | 7.3                  | 5.3                  | 7.3                 | 6.7                 | 8                    |
| Total                   | 101                             | 60.9                | 56.6                | 66.5                   | 66.4                | 61                  | 59.7               | 49.7                      | 58.4                 | 60.1                 | 61.1                | 68.9                | 75                   |

**NOTE.** Studies were assessed using the criteria of Chalmers et al. [12].

<sup>a</sup> For each category, results are expressed as the average of scores from 3 reviewers.

calcemia; under these normal conditions, negligible serum PCT concentrations are detected [6]. The mechanism proposed for PCT production after inflammation and its role are still not completely known. It is believed that PCT is produced by the liver [7] and peripheral blood mononuclear cells [8], modulated by lipopolysaccharides and sepsis-related cytokines. CRP is an acute-phase reactant, and CRP level measurements are frequently used to aid in the diagnosis of bacterial infections. CRP is synthesized by the liver, mainly in response to IL-6, which is produced not only during infection but also in many types of inflammation [9]. It binds to polysaccharides in pathogens, activating the classical complement pathway. The reported diagnostic accuracy of PCT and CRP for the diagnosis of bacterial infections has varied across studies. To adequately evaluate their accuracy, we systematically reviewed and performed a meta-analysis of studies that simultaneously investigated PCT and CRP levels as markers for bacterial infection.

## METHODS

A protocol was written before this study was undertaken, as recommended by the Quality of Reporting of Meta-analyses (QUORUM) statement [10].

**Retrieving the literature.** All studies published in the MEDLINE database from 1 January 1970 through 30 May 2002 that evaluated serum PCT and/or CRP markers for the diagnosis of bacterial infections were identified. With use of a Bool-

ean strategy, cross-searching of the following 5 categories was done: (1) type of study (“descriptive study” OR “diagnosis” OR “epidemiological study” OR “meta-analysis” OR “multi-center study” OR “prospective” OR “review-literature” OR “reproducibility” OR “test” OR “validation”); (2) site (“critical care” OR “hospital” OR “intensive care”); (3) subjects (“human”); (4) test (“C-reactive protein” OR “interferon” OR “interleukin” OR “procalcitonin” OR “white blood cell count” OR “sedimentation”) and (5) disease (“infection” OR “cross infection” OR “hospital acquired infection” OR “meningitis” OR “multiple organ dysfunction syndrome” OR “MODS” OR “pneumonia” OR “sepsis” OR “septicemia” OR “septic shock” OR “systemic inflammatory response syndrome” OR “SIRS”). The bibliographies of relevant articles were further cross-checked to search for articles not referenced in the MEDLINE database.

**Selection of studies and data extraction.** Studies of patients from all age groups that prospectively and simultaneously evaluated PCT and CRP levels as diagnostic markers for bacterial infection in hospitalized patients were evaluated. Retrospective studies, reviews, animal studies, and studies for which complete data was unavailable were excluded. No limitation was placed on the language of the article. The selection and data extraction was performed by 3 independent reviewers (L.S., F.G., and J.L.), and disagreements, if any, were resolved by consensus. Raw data from the articles were used to construct

**Table 2. Summarized quality assessment using the Standards for Reporting of Diagnostic Accuracy checklist of the 12 included studies.**

| Section <sup>a</sup>   | Maximum score for each category | Study               |                     |                        |                     |                     |                    |                           |                      |                      |                     |                     |                      |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
|                        |                                 | Aouifi et al. [117] | Enguix et al. [118] | Hatherill et al. [119] | Lorrot et al. [120] | Muller et al. [121] | Penel et al. [122] | Rothenburger et al. [123] | Schwarz et al. [124] | Selberg et al. [125] | Suprin et al. [126] | Ugarte et al. [127] | Viallon et al. [128] |
| Title and introduction | 2                               | 2                   | 2                   | 2                      | 2                   | 2                   | 2                  | 2                         | 2                    | 2                    | 2                   | 2                   | 2                    |
| Methods                | 11                              | 9                   | 5                   | 7                      | 7                   | 7                   | 7                  | 6                         | 8                    | 7                    | 7                   | 8                   | 8                    |
| Results                | 11                              | 5                   | 4                   | 5                      | 5                   | 7                   | 6                  | 6                         | 7                    | 6                    | 5                   | 7                   | 5                    |
| Discussion             | 1                               | 1                   | 1                   | 1                      | 1                   | 1                   | 1                  | 1                         | 1                    | 1                    | 1                   | 1                   | 1                    |
| Total                  | 25                              | 17                  | 12                  | 15                     | 15                  | 17                  | 16                 | 15                        | 18                   | 16                   | 15                  | 18                  | 16                   |

**NOTE.** The Standards for Reporting of Diagnostic Accuracy criteria are from [13, 14].

<sup>a</sup> For each section, results are derived from consensus between 3 reviewers as the number of items from the checklist present in the original article.

**Table 3. Description of individual studies included in the meta-analysis.**

| Study                               | Year | Population/study setting                          | Control group (no. of control patients vs. no. of patients with bacterial infection) | Type of bacterial infection   | Means of diagnosis of infection   | Timing of inclusion/ tests  | PCT level, ng/mL   |                   | CRP level, mg/L  |                   |
|-------------------------------------|------|---|--|---|---|---|--|-------------------|--|-------------------|
|                                     |      |   |  |   |   |   | Median (range)   | Best cutoff value | Median (range) <sup>a</sup>  | Best cutoff value |
| Aouifi et al. [117]                 | 2000 | Adults who underwent cardiac surgery/ICU          | Patients with SIRS (43 vs. 54)   | Pneumonia, bacteremia, mediastinitis, septic shock                          | Clinical examination; CXR; WBC, blood, ETT, and/or intra-operative mediastinal culture  | <48 h after operation or when there is suspicion of infection                 | No infection, 0.41 (0.08–1.67); all infections, 24.3 (0.25–356)  | 1                 | No infection, 111 ± 83; <sup>b</sup> infection, 180  | 15                |
| Enguix et al. [118] <sup>c</sup>    | 2001 | Neonates/NICU                                     | Patients with SIRS (46 vs. 20)   | Sepsis  | For SIRS and evidence bacterial infection: blood culture, characteristic meningococcal rash, and/or clinical recovery with antibiotic therapy   | ICU admission or when infection was suspected                                 | No infection, 0.81 (0.2–5.3); sepsis, 50.3 (5–834)   | 6.1               | No infection, 5.0 (5.0–42.1); sepsis, 77 (32.4–144)  | 23.1              |
| Hatherill et al. [119] <sup>c</sup> | 1999 | Children/PICU                                     | 2 groups: noninfected patients (43) and patients with viral infection (14 vs. 112)   | Septic shock, pneumonia, tracheitis, UTI, bacterial meningitis/encephalitis | For documented infection: bacterial isolation; characteristic meningococcal or staphylococcal rash; CSF, bronchoalveolar, or peritoneal fluid profile consistent with bacterial infection | Admission to the PICU   | No infection, 0 (0–4.9); viral infection, 0.8 (0–4.4); localized infection, 2.9 (0–24.3); septic shock, 94.6 (3.3–759.8) | 5                 | No infection, 8 (2–47); viral infection, 12 (7–76); localized infection, 20 (7–213); septic shock, 101 (3–335) | 20                |
| Lorrot et al. [120]                 | 2000 | Children/hospitalized from ER                     | Patients with viral infection (274 vs. 162)  | Sepsis, meningitis, pneumonia, UTI, otitis, diarrhea                        | Blood culture, CXR, bacterial culture of sputum, serological test revealing mycoplasma, viral immunofluorescence or culture, PCR for enterovirus, serum antibody titers                   | Hospitalization for suspected bacterial or viral infection as cause for fever | Viral infection, 0.4 (0–5.2); localized infection, 3.9 (0.1–44); sepsis, 41.3 (0.15–432.6)                               | 1                 | Viral infection, 18 (4–220); localized infection, 94 (0–400); sepsis, 139 (9–400)                              | 40                |
| Muller et al. [121] <sup>c</sup>    | 2000 | Adults/ICU  | Patients with SIRS (46 vs. 55)   | Pneumonia, UTI, gastrointestinal infection                                  | Clinical examination, CXR; ETT, bronchoalveolar, blood, CSF, stool, and/or urine culture, serum antibody titers   | ICU admission with an anticipated stay of >24 h                               | No infection, 6.6; bacterial infection, 36.9   | 1                 | No infection, 140; bacterial infection, 252  | 100               |
| Penel et al. [122] <sup>c</sup>     | 2001 | Adults with cervicofacial cancer/oncology service | Patients with paraneoplastic fever (19 vs. 43)                                       | Pneumonia, sepsis, abscess, peritonitis, catheter-related infection         | Clinical examination; CXR; blood, catheter, and/or urine culture  | Hospital admission  | No infection, 0.26 (0.05–1.17); bacterial infection, 0.44 (0.09–57.4)  | 1                 | No infection, 154 (26–267); bacterial infection, 131 (20–596)  | 6                 |

|  |      |   |  |   |   |  |   |      |   |     |
|--|------|---|--|---|---|--|---|------|---|-----|
| Rothenburger et al. [123] <sup>c</sup> | 1999 | Patients who had undergone cardiac surgery with CPB/ICU | Patients without signs of infection (15 vs. 43)                  | Systemic infection, wound infection                                       | Clinical examination, CXR, ETT, bronchoalveolar, blood, and/or urine culture  | Suspected onset of infection                             | No infection, 0.46 (0.26–0.77); localized infection, 0.58 (0.24–2.07); systemic infection, 10.86 (3.28–15.13) | 4    | No infection, 97.5 (74.5–120); localized infection, 165.9 (96.6–181.6); systemic infection, 164.5 (137–223) | 18  |
| Schwarz et al. [124] <sup>c</sup>      | 2000 | Adults with meningitis/neurology service                | Patients with viral meningitis (14 vs. 16)                       | Meningitis  | Clinical examination, CSF or blood culture, identification of bacteria with Gram staining, antigen test, CSF pleocytosis  | Hospital admission                                       | Viral meningitis, 0.24 (0.12–0.29); bacterial meningitis, 1.75 (0.16–59.92)                                   | 0.5  | Viral meningitis, 7 (2–65); bacterial meningitis, 174 (7–400)   | 8   |
| Selberg et al. [125]                   | 2000 | Adults/ICU  | Patients with SIRS (11 vs. 22)                                   | Sepsis  | Clinical examination; CXR; ETT, catheter, blood, and/or peritoneum fluid culture  | <8 h after clinical onset of SIRS or sepsis              | No infection, 3.0 (0.7–29.5); severe sepsis, 19.1 (2.8–351.2); septic shock: 16.8 (0.9–351.2)                 | 3.3  | No significant difference (data not shown)  | 60  |
| Suprin et al. [126] <sup>c</sup>       | 2000 | Adults/ICU  | Patients with SIRS (24 vs. 77)                                   | Sepsis, pneumonia, catheter-related infection, pyelonephritis, cellulitis | Clinical examination; CXR; ETT, bronchoalveolar, blood, catheter, CSF, stool, and/or urine culture  | Within 48 h of hospital admission                        | No infection, 4.8; infection, 25.2  | 2    | No infection, 71; infection, 159  | 100 |
| Ugarte et al. [127] <sup>c</sup>       | 1999 | Adults/ICU  | Patients with SIRS (79 vs. 111)                                  | Sepsis  | Clinical examination; CXR; ETT, bronchoalveolar, blood, catheter, CSF, stool, skin, and/or urine culture  | At hospital admission and on day infection was suspected | No infection, 0.5 (0.8–8.1); bacterial infection, 2.5 (0.8–32)  | 0.6  | No infection, 56 (24–210); bacterial infection, 12.1 (2.7–26.4)   | 79  |
| Viallon et al. [128] <sup>c</sup>      | 2000 | Adults with cirrhosis/admitted to ER                    | Patients with non-inflammatory sterile ascitic fluid (40 vs. 21) | Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis   | Infection of the ascitic fluid in the absence of any intra-abdominal source of infection, with an ascitic fluid neutrophil count of >250 cells/mm <sup>3</sup> , and/or positive culture result | At baseline, before initiation of antibiotic therapy     | No infection, 0.09 (0.0–0.23); infection, 10.10 (2.6–24)  | 0.75 | No infection, 26 (11.5–57); infection, 92 (43–171)  | 80  |

**NOTE.** CPB, cardiopulmonary bypass; CXR, chest radiograph; ER, emergency department; ETT, endotracheal tube; ICU, intensive care unit; NICU, newborn intensive care unit; PICU, pediatric intensive care unit; SIRS, systemic inflammatory response syndrome; UTI, urinary tract infection.

<sup>a</sup> Unless otherwise indicated.

<sup>b</sup> Mean ± SD.

<sup>c</sup> Data confirmed by original author.

**Table 4. Results derived from the 2 × 2 tables of individual studies involving procalcitonin and C-reactive protein levels as markers for bacterial infections versus noninfective causes of inflammation.**

| Study                                  | Procalcitonin markers |       |                            |                            | C-reactive protein markers |       |                            |                            |
|--|-----------------------|-------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
|  | No. of results        |       | Sensitivity,<br>% (95% CI) | Specificity,<br>% (95% CI) | No. of results             |       | Sensitivity,<br>% (95% CI) | Specificity,<br>% (95% CI) |
|  | TP/FN                 | FP/TN |                            |                            | TP/ FN                     | FP/TN |                            |                            |
| Aouifi et al. [117]                    | 46/2                  | 8/41  | 96 (85–99)                 | 84 (70–92)                 | 50/33                      | 4/10  | 60 (49–71)                 | 71 (42–90)                 |
| Enguix et al. [118] <sup>a</sup>       | 19/3                  | 1/23  | 86 (64–96)                 | 96 (77–100)                | 19/4                       | 1/22  | 83 (61–94)                 | 96 (76–100)                |
| Hatherill et al. [119] <sup>a</sup>    | 103/3                 | 9/40  | 97 (91–99)                 | 82 (68–91)                 | 73/0                       | 37/43 | 100 (95–100)               | 54 (42–65)                 |
| Muller [121] <sup>a</sup>              | 52/3                  | 6/40  | 95 (84–99)                 | 87 (73–95)                 | 41/9                       | 17/34 | 82 (68–91)                 | 67 (52–79)                 |
| Penel et al. [122] <sup>a</sup>        | 43/14                 | 0/5   | 75 (62–85)                 | 100 (48–100)               | 43/24                      | 0/1   | 64 (52–75)                 | 100 (3–100)                |
| Rothenburger et al. [123] <sup>a</sup> | 12/2                  | 3/42  | 86 (56–97)                 | 93 (81–98)                 | 14/30                      | 1/14  | 32 (19–48)                 | 93 (66–100)                |
| Selberg et al. [125]                   | 19/5                  | 3/6   | 79 (57–92)                 | 67 (31–91)                 | 19/9                       | 3/2   | 68 (48–83)                 | 40 (7–83)                  |
| Suprin et al. [126] <sup>a</sup>       | 49/6                  | 26/14 | 89 (77–95)                 | 35 (21–52)                 | 55/5                       | 19/14 | 92 (81–97)                 | 42 (26–61)                 |
| Ugarte et al. [127] <sup>a</sup>       | 75/31                 | 36/48 | 71 (61–79)                 | 57 (46–68)                 | 80/26                      | 3/53  | 75 (66–83)                 | 63 (52–73)                 |
| Viallon et al. [128] <sup>a</sup>      | 19/2                  | 2/38  | 90 (68–98)                 | 95 (82–99)                 | 13/3                       | 8/37  | 81 (54–95)                 | 82 (67–91)                 |
| Total <sup>b</sup>                     | ...                   | ...   | 88 (80–93)                 | 81 (67–90)                 | ...                        | ...   | 75 (62–84)                 | 67 (56–77)                 |

**NOTE.** FN, false negative; FP, false positive; TN, true negative, TP, true positive.

<sup>a</sup> Data confirmed by original author.

<sup>b</sup> Pooled data from a random effects model.

2 × 2 tables; when unavailable, the tables were constructed using given measures of sensitivity and specificity. Some studies reported the sensitivity and specificity at many cutoff points; we then chose the cutoff point with the best efficiency value [11], which was estimated by dividing the sum of true-positive and true-negative cases by the total number of cases. Authors of individual articles were contacted to verify data extracted from the original article and to provide supplementary information pertaining to the criteria used for diagnosing infection. They were also asked to review the list of references collected from the MEDLINE database and the manual search and to report known studies that were not on the list.

**Quality assessment.** We evaluated the methodological quality of the included studies by applying the criteria for assessing design-related bias in randomized clinical trials described by Chalmers et al. [12] (table 1). Four aspects of each study were evaluated: (1) the basic descriptive material, (2) the study protocol, (3) the statistical analysis, and (4) the presentation of results. The latter 3 aspects were graded for 27 items in total, with a score awarded to each item under each aspect. Subsequently, an overall quality index for each study was obtained by adding the item scores and normalizing by the total possible score. The 25-item criteria developed by the Standards for Reporting of Diagnostic Accuracy (STARD) committee [13, 14] was also applied. A consensus was obtained among the reviewers for both criteria (tables 1 and 2), and the rate of agreement was calculated.

**Meta-analysis.** The meta-analysis approach of Moses and Shapiro [15], using linear regression to combine data from independent studies evaluating similar test/criteria, was used. To create the summary receiver operating characteristic (SROC)

curve, we first calculated the true-positive rate (TPR) and false-positive rate (FPR) from each individual study from the reconstructed 2 × 2 tables. These rates were then converted to their logarithmic transform:  $\log [TPR/1 - TPR]$  and  $\log [FPR/1 - FPR]$ .

The sum and the difference of these logarithmic transforms were calculated for each study, as well as a regression line fitted to these points, with difference as the dependent variable and sum as the independent variable (difference = a + b.sum). The values of sensitivity and specificity required to construct the SROC curve were calculated as  $\text{sensitivity} = 1/[1 + 1/e^{a/(1-b)}](1 - \text{specificity}/\text{specificity})^{(1+b)/(1-b)}$ .

The resulting values were plotted in the SROC space to obtain the SROC curve. The difference in sample size among the studies was taken into account by weighing each observation by the reciprocal of the variance of difference and performing weighted regression. To further compare the accuracy between PCT and CRP markers, the Q values from the SROC curves were calculated; this value represents the intersection point of the SROC curve with a diagonal line of the ROC space at which sensitivity equals specificity. A higher Q value indicates higher accuracy. All analyses were performed using Stata software, version 7 (StataCorp) [16], and the Meta-test programs [17].

Positive and negative likelihood ratios (LRs) were calculated for both tests in each group:  $\text{PositiveLR} = \text{sensitivity}/(1 - \text{specificity})$  and  $\text{NegativeLR} = (1 - \text{sensitivity})/\text{specificity}$ . The LRs are a semiquantitative measure of the performance of diagnostic tests, expressing the magnitude by which the probability of a diagnosis in a given patient is modified by the result of a test [18]. A test with a higher positive LR and lower negative LR is considered a better test.

**Table 5. Results derived from the 2 × 2 tables of individual studies involving procalcitonin and C-reactive protein levels as markers for bacterial infections versus viral infections.**

| Study                               | Procalcitonin markers |        |                            |                            | C-reactive protein markers |        |                            |                            |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
|                                     | No. of results        |        | Sensitivity,<br>% (95% CI) | Specificity,<br>% (95% CI) | No. of results             |        | Sensitivity,<br>% (95% CI) | Specificity,<br>% (95% CI) |
|                                     | TP/FN                 | FP/TN  |                            |                            | TP/FN                      | FP/TN  |                            |                            |
| Hatherill et al. [119] <sup>a</sup> | 103/6                 | 9/8    | 94 (88–98)                 | 47 (24–71)                 | 73/2                       | 36/12  | 97 (90–100)                | 25 (14–40)                 |
| Lorrot et al. [120]                 | 126/16                | 36/258 | 89 (82–93)                 | 88 (83–91)                 | 122/30                     | 40/244 | 80 (73–86)                 | 86 (81–90)                 |
| Schwarz et al. [124] <sup>a</sup>   | 11/0                  | 5/14   | 100 (72–100)               | 74 (49–90)                 | 14/6                       | 1/8    | 70 (46–87)                 | 89 (51–99)                 |
| Total <sup>b</sup>                  | ...                   | ...    | 92 (86–95)                 | 73 (42–91)                 | ...                        | ...    | 86 (65–95)                 | 70 (19–96)                 |

**NOTE.** FN, false negative; FP, false positive; TN, true negative; TP, true positive.

<sup>a</sup> Data confirmed by original author.

<sup>b</sup> Pooled data from a random effects model.

## RESULTS

From the search of the MEDLINE database, 351 publications were retrieved. Of these, 110 studies that suggested that PCT and/or CRP levels were determined in hospitalized patients with bacterial infection were retained [19–128]. Twenty-one articles [108–128] that prospectively and simultaneously evaluated PCT and CRP values were identified. Another article [129] was found while searching the bibliographies. Detailed review of these 22 articles indicated that 12 were deemed appropriate for the meta-analysis [117–128]. Four [111, 113–115] of the 22 studies were excluded because study design was not geared towards the evaluation of PCT and CRP levels as markers of infection; other outcomes (prognosis, mortality, or kinetics) were evaluated. Six studies were excluded because data extraction was unclear [116, 129], the study population was an extension of another published study [108, 109, 112], or no control group was evaluated [110].

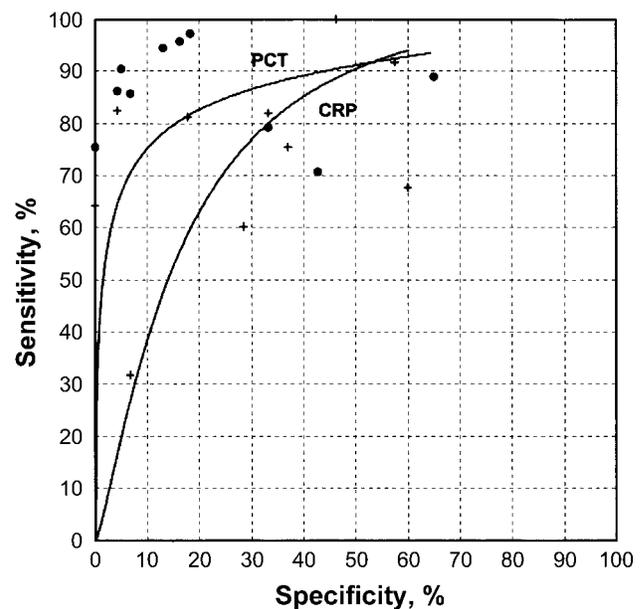
A description of studies included in the meta-analysis is shown in table 3, and results derived from their 2 × 2 tables are presented in tables 4 and 5. Sixty-seven percent of original authors responded to the request. Studies included 46 neonates, 638 children, and 702 adults in different areas of the hospital; approximately one-half of the subjects were in intensive care units.

The methodological evaluation of study quality using the criteria of Chalmers et al. [12] is presented in table 1. The average quality index for all studies was 62 of a possible score of 101. Of the 324 items rated, complete agreement between reviewers' scores was observed for 280 (86.4%) of the 324 items rated, and complete disagreement was observed for 3 (<1%). Approximately one-half of the studies included consecutive patients. Test definition, description, and value were adequately described in most of the studies. The accuracy of the tests was calculated in all studies, largely by constructing a ROC curve.

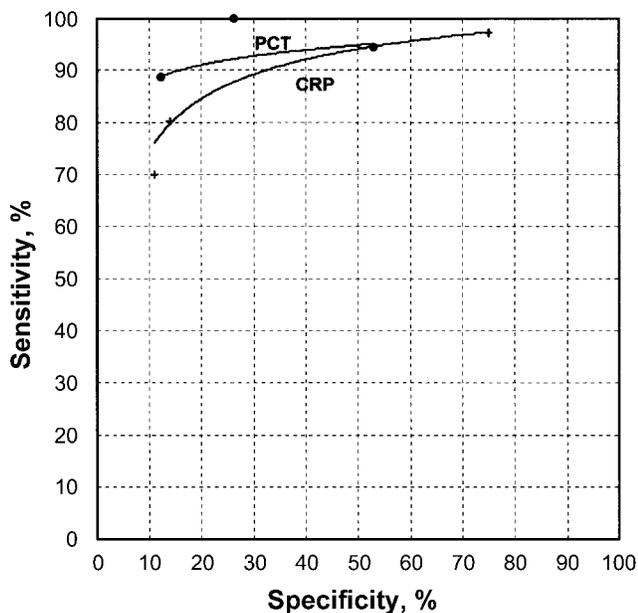
The quality evaluation using the STARD checklist is presented in table 2 as the number of items present from the checklist. A total of 300 items were tabulated (25 items for each

of 12 studies); complete agreement between reviewers was observed for 189 (63%) of the 300 items. All articles were identified as studies of diagnostic accuracy, stated the research question in the introduction, and included some specification of materials and methods involved, definition and cutoffs of the index tests, and the reference standards. Most, but not all, characterized well the study population, participant recruitment, dates, and the reference standard used. No study reported the expertise of the person reading the tests, the measures of statistical uncertainty, and the estimates of test reproducibility. One study reported participants that satisfied inclusion criteria and were later excluded.

PCT levels were invariably measured using the commercially



**Figure 1.** Summary receiver operating characteristic (SROC) curves comparing serum procalcitonin (PCT; ●) and C-reactive protein (CRP; +) markers for detection of bacterial infections versus noninfective causes of inflammation. Each point contributing to the SROC curve represents 1 study.



**Figure 2.** Summary receiver operating characteristic (SROC) curves comparing serum procalcitonin (PCT; ●) and C-reactive protein (CRP; +) markers for bacterial infections versus viral infections. Each point contributing to the SROC curve represents 1 study.

available immuno-luminometric assay (LUMItest PCT; distributed by BRAHMS Diagnostica GmbH), which has a reported detection limit of 0.08 ng/mL [130] and interassay precision of 6%–10% [117]. CRP concentrations were determined using different techniques and assays.

The SROC curves for PCT and CRP values are plotted over the domain of TPR and FPR in figure 1 for the 10 studies (905 patients) that evaluated these tests markers for bacterial infections, compared with noninfective causes of inflammation, providing evidence of the individual contribution of each study to the regression analysis. PCT markers have significantly higher accuracy than do CRP markers for discriminating bacterial infections from noninfective causes of inflammation. Pooled sensitivity for PCT markers was 88% (95% CI, 80%–93%), compared with 75% (95% CI, 62%–84%) for CRP markers. There was a statistically significant difference between the sensitivities (13%; 95% CI, 8%–17%;  $P < .05$ ). Pooled specificity for PCT markers was also higher than for CRP markers (81% [95% CI, 67%–90%] vs. 67% [95% CI, 56%–77%]), and this difference was statistically significant (14%; 95% CI, 8%–20%;  $P < .05$ ). This was confirmed by calculation of the Q value, which was higher for PCT markers ( $Q = 0.82$ ; 95% CI, 64%–99%) than that for CRP markers ( $Q = 0.73$ ; 95% CI, 64%–82%). The likelihood ratios were better for PCT markers (positive LR, 3.58; [95% CI, 2.99–4.28]; negative LR, 0.18 [95% CI, 0.15–0.23]) than for CRP markers (positive LR, 2.43 [95% CI, 2.03–2.92]; negative LR, 0.42 [95% CI, 0.36–0.49]).

In figure 2, the SROC curves for PCT and CRP markers are plotted over the domain of TPR and FPR for the 3 studies (592 patients) that evaluated these diagnostic markers for bacterial infections versus viral infections. PCT markers were also significantly better than CRP markers at differentiating bacterial infections from viral infections. Pooled sensitivity for PCT markers was 92% (95% CI, 86%–95%), compared with 86% (95% CI, 65%–95%) for CRP markers, and the difference was statistically significant (6%; 95% CI, 5%–11%;  $P < .05$ ). However, pooled specificities were comparable (73% [95% CI, 42%–91%] vs. 70% [95% CI, 19%–96%] for PCT vs. CRP markers, respectively; difference, 3% [95% CI, –4% to 10%];  $P > .05$ ). The Q value calculated was higher for PCT markers ( $Q = 0.89$ ; 95% CI, 0.82–0.96) than for CRP markers ( $Q = 0.83$ ; 95% CI, 0.81–0.85), suggesting that, in terms of overall accuracy, PCT markers are better than CRP markers for differentiating between bacterial and viral infections. The LRs were better for PCT markers (positive LR, 6.05 [95% CI, 4.67–7.82]; negative LR, 0.10 [95% CI, 0.06–0.15]) than for CRP markers (positive LR, 3.75 [95% CI, 3.06–4.59]; negative LR, 0.20 [95% CI, 0.15–0.27]).

## DISCUSSION

Early identification of infections is still a challenge for clinicians. The general consensus is not to provide antibiotics for every suspected infection because of emerging issues with bacterial resistance. Therefore, a marker specific for bacterial infection will be most helpful. Based on this meta-analysis, we observed that PCT levels were more accurate markers for bacterial infection than were CRP levels, both when differentiating bacterial infections from noninfective causes of inflammation and when differentiating bacterial infections from viral infections.

The kinetics of a prospective marker should be considered along with its sensitivity and specificity. PCT secretion begins within 4 h after stimulation and peaks at 8 h [7, 131, 132], clearing when the insult is under control [133]. PCT is stable in samples, the assay is relatively easy to perform, with a moderate cost (~\$10), and the result is available within 2 h [118]. CRP secretion starts within 4–6 h after stimulation, peaking only after 36 h. The assay for determining CRP levels is easy to perform, often automated, and has a low cost (~\$5) [118].

As would be expected, none of the studies included in this review were completely free from all potential biases and limitations. Study population and patient selection were not fully reported; however, there was minimal withdrawal from the studies, minimizing selection bias. Few studies reported information on blinding and test reproducibility, which could potentially have altered the trustworthiness of the data. Results are susceptible to spectrum bias, because diagnostic tests may have different accuracies in distinctive phases of the disease [134, 135]. Classification bias in the original studies was pos-

sible, because even in the face of positive culture results, there is not always enough evidence to discriminate between infection and colonization.

PCT measurements were performed using the same commercially available specific antibody system. However, means of measuring CRP levels largely varied, with 8 different methods used among the 12 included studies. The implications of multiple assay methods are unknown in the final result of this meta-analysis. However, each study was included using its own best cutoff value, and the linear regression methods used in the analysis accounted for possible threshold differences between studies.

When performing a literature review, one must always consider some degree of publication bias; studies have a higher likelihood of being published when they show encouraging results [136]. Such a selective publication policy could lead to an inflation of the associations that were found; there is no method to control for this bias. The limited number of studies precluded the statistical control for differences in study populations, designs, etc., in the analysis.

After candidly mentioning possible limitations, we must underline the strengths of this study. Giving more credibility to the results is the fact that all decisions and data collections involved the consensus of 3 independent reviewers, among whom there was a high agreement rate; authors of individual papers were contacted to confirm or correct the information from the original articles, with notably high response rates.

There was no verification bias in the studies included in this meta-analysis, because PCT level determinations, CRP level determinations, and tests to diagnose infection were performed simultaneously, and patients were allocated to the infected or noninfected group without prior knowledge of PCT and CRP data.

In the meta-analysis technique, pooling of results across studies or averaging sensitivity and specificity causes underestimation of test performance, because the relationship between sensitivity and specificity is not linear. However, the underestimation is no more than 2% for each parameter [137]. The ROC curve method used in this meta-analysis, rather than a single point, is the best summary of the results when diagnostic threshold varies among the studies [138]. We selected a random effects model that assumes that the included studies belong to a random sample of a universe of studies. A large spectrum of the population was covered in the meta-analysis, allowing generalization of the results. All age groups were included in this study, because kinetics of PCT follow similar pattern in children and adults, with some evidence that PCT levels vary in a similar way during the first 48 h of life [118, 139, 140].

This meta-analysis provides a thorough comparison between PCT and CRP markers; we can conclude that the overall accuracy of PCT markers is higher than that of CRP markers

both to differentiate bacterial infections from viral infections and to differentiate bacterial infections from other noninfective causes of systemic inflammation. In trying to apply these findings to the clinical practice, we calculated LRs. PCT markers were particularly good for differentiating bacterial infections from viral infections, which is probably the most frequent dilemma encountered in clinical practice. Although the cost of performing an assay for determination of PCT levels is double that for determination of CRP levels, the differences in accuracies and LRs seem to be sufficiently great for PCT markers to be considered for widespread use in clinical practice. The application of assays for PCT could guide treatment and reduce unnecessary antibiotic use. The next step is to evaluate the true impact of use of PCT markers on outcomes with prospective studies.

## Acknowledgments

We gratefully thank Chantal Roy, for expert technical assistance, and Eugene Shapiro, for comments on the manuscript.

**Financial support.** Canadian Institutes of Health Research (grant MSP-13278).

## References

1. Martin GS, Mannino DM, Eaton S, Moss M. The epidemiology of sepsis in the United States from 1979 through 2000. *N Engl J Med* **2003**; 348:1546–54.
2. Angus DC, Linde-Zwirble WT, Lidicker J, Clermont G, Carcillo J, Pinsky MR. Epidemiology of severe sepsis in the United States: analysis of incidence, outcome, and associated costs of care. *Crit Care Med* **2001**; 29:1303–10.
3. World Health Organization (WHO). WHO report on infectious disease: removing obstacles to healthy development. Geneva: WHO, **1999**.
4. World Health Organization (WHO). WHO report on infectious disease: overcoming antimicrobial resistance. Geneva: WHO, **2000**.
5. Velicer CM, Heckbert SR, Lampe JW, Potter JD, Robertson CA, Taplin SH. Antibiotic use in relation to the risk of breast cancer. *JAMA* **2004**; 291:827–35.
6. Whicher J, Bienvenu J, Monneret G. Procalcitonin as an acute phase marker. *Ann Clin Biochem* **2001**; 38:483–93.
7. Nijsten MW, Olinga P, The TH, et al. Procalcitonin behaves as a fast responding acute phase protein in vivo and in vitro. *Crit Care Med* **2000**; 28:458–61.
8. Oberhoffer M, Stonans I, Russwurm S, et al. Procalcitonin expression in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells and its modulation by lipopolysaccharides and sepsis-related cytokines in vitro. *J Lab Clin Med* **1999**; 134:49–55.
9. Ridker PM. Clinical application of C-reactive protein for cardiovascular disease detection and prevention. *Circulation* **2003**; 107:363–9.
10. Moher D, Cook DJ, Eastwood S, Olkin I, Rennie D, Stroup DF. Improving the quality of reports of meta-analyses of randomised controlled trials: the QUOROM statement. Quality of Reporting of Meta-analyses. *Lancet* **1999**; 354:1896–900.
11. Gottfried EL, Wagar EA. Laboratory testing: a practical guide. *Dis Mon* **1983**; 29:1–41.
12. Chalmers TC, Smith H Jr, Blackburn B, et al. A method for assessing the quality of a randomized control trial. *Control Clin Trials* **1981**; 2:31–49.

13. Bossuyt PM, Reitsma JB, Bruns DE, et al. Towards complete and accurate reporting of studies of diagnostic accuracy: the STARD initiative. *BMJ* **2003**;326:41–4.
14. Bossuyt PM, Reitsma JB, Bruns DE, et al. The STARD statement for reporting studies of diagnostic accuracy: explanation and elaboration. *Clin Chem* **2003**;49:7–18.
15. Moses LE, Shapiro D, Littenberg B. Combining independent studies of a diagnostic test into a summary ROC curve: data-analytic approaches and some additional considerations. *Stat Med* **1993**;12:1293–316.
16. StataCorp. Stata statistical software. Release 7.0. College Station, TX: StataCorp, **2001**.
17. Lau J. Meta-test. Version 0.6. Boston: New England Medical Center, **1997**.
18. Halkin A, Reichman J, Schwaber M, Paltiel O, Brezis M. Likelihood ratios: getting diagnostic testing into perspective. *QJM* **1998**;91:247–58.
19. Benitz WE, Han MY, Madan A, Ramachandra P. Serial serum C-reactive protein levels in the diagnosis of neonatal infection. *Pediatrics* **1998**;102:E41.
20. Berland M, Mein-Bottini M, Charvet PY, Revol A, Draï J, Pic JC. The significance of the level of C-reactive protein in gynecologic infections. *Rev Fr Gynecol Obstet* **1990**;85:539–44.
21. Borschsenius F, Bruun JN, Michaelsen TE, Tonjun T. Serum C-reactive protein in systemic infections due to *Neisseria meningitidis*. *NIPH Ann* **1986**;9:15–21.
22. Cadwgan AM, Watson WA, Laing RB, MacKenzie AR, Smith CC, Douglas JG. Presenting clinical features and C-reactive protein in the prediction of a positive stool culture in patients with diarrhoea. *J Infect* **2000**;41:159–61.
23. Chiu CH, Lin TY, Bullard MJ. Identification of febrile neonates unlikely to have bacterial infections. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **1997**;16:59–63.
24. Cobben JM, Cornelissen PJ, Haverkorn M, Waelkens JJ. CRP versus BSE in pediatrics: how good is a diagnostic test? *Tijdschr Kindergeneesk* **1990**;58:169–74.
25. Cox ML, Rudd AG, Gallimore R, Hodgkinson HM, Pepys MB. Real-time measurement of serum C-reactive protein in the management of infection in the elderly. *Age Ageing* **1986**;15:257–66.
26. Dev D, Wallace E, Sankaran R, et al. Value of C-reactive protein measurements in exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Respir Med* **1998**;92:664–7.
27. Diculencu D, Miftode E, Turcu T, Buiuc D. The value of C-reactive protein for the differentiation of bacterial meningitis from viral meningitis. *Rev Med Chir Soc Med Nat Iasi* **1995**;99:144–50.
28. Dofferhoff AS, Bom VJ, de Vries-Hospers HG, et al. Patterns of cytokines, plasma endotoxin, plasminogen activator inhibitor, and acute-phase proteins during the treatment of severe sepsis in humans. *Crit Care Med* **1992**;20:185–92.
29. Fassbender K, Pargger H, Muller W, Zimmerli W. Interleukin-6 and acute-phase protein concentrations in surgical intensive care unit patients: diagnostic signs in nosocomial infection. *Crit Care Med* **1993**;21:1175–80.
30. Flores JM, Jimenez PI, Rincon D, et al. C reactive protein as marker of infection among patients with severe closed trauma. *Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin* **2001**;19:61–5.
31. Gustafsson R, Johnsson P, Algotsson L, Blomquist S, Ingemansson R. Vacuum-assisted closure therapy guided by C-reactive protein level in patients with deep sternal wound infection. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* **2002**;123:895–900.
32. Hogarth MB, Gallimore R, Savage P, et al. Acute phase proteins, C-reactive protein and serum amyloid A protein, as prognostic markers in the elderly inpatient. *Age Ageing* **1997**;26:153–8.
33. Hogevik H, Olaison L, Andersson R, Alestig K. C-reactive protein is more sensitive than erythrocyte sedimentation rate for diagnosis of infective endocarditis. *Infection* **1997**;25:82–5.
34. Icard P, Fleury JP, Regnard JE, et al. Utility of C-reactive protein measurements for empyema diagnosis after pneumonectomy. *Ann Thorac Surg* **1994**;57:933–6.
35. Katz JA, Mustafa MM, Bash RO, Cash JV, Buchanan GR. Value of C-reactive protein determination in the initial diagnostic evaluation of the febrile, neutropenic child with cancer. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **1992**;11:708–12.
36. Korppi M, Kroger L. C-reactive protein in viral and bacterial respiratory infection in children. *Scand J Infect Dis* **1993**;25:207–13.
37. Korppi M, Heiskanen-Kosma T, Leinonen M. White blood cells, C-reactive protein and erythrocyte sedimentation rate in pneumococcal pneumonia in children. *Eur Respir J* **1997**;10:1125–9.
38. Krediet T, Gerards L, Fler A, van Stekelenburg G. The predictive value of CRP and I/T-ratio in neonatal infection. *J Perinat Med* **1992**;20:479–85.
39. Kessler A, Grunert C, Wood WG. The limitations and usefulness of C-reactive protein and elastase-alpha 1-proteinase inhibitor complexes as analytes in the diagnosis and follow-up of sepsis in newborns and adults. *Eur J Clin Chem Clin Biochem* **1994**;32:365–8.
40. Kunzig HJ, Schmidt-Rohde P, Kramer M, Prinz H. Acute phase proteins (C-reactive protein, orosomucoid, haptoglobin)—specific markers in the diagnosis of inflammatory adnexal diseases. *Geburtshilfe Frauenheilkd* **1985**;45:881–6.
41. Marchand A, Van Lente F, Galen RS. The assessment of laboratory tests in the diagnosis of acute appendicitis. *Am J Clin Pathol* **1983**;80:369–74.
42. Matson A, Soni N, Sheldon J. C-reactive protein as a diagnostic test of sepsis in the critically ill. *Anaesth Intensive Care* **1991**;19:182–6.
43. Miller PR, Munn DD, Meredith JW, Chang MC. Systemic inflammatory response syndrome in the trauma intensive care unit: who is infected? *J Trauma* **1999**;47:1004–8.
44. Mustard RA Jr, Bohnen JM, Haseeb S, Kasina R. C-reactive protein levels predict postoperative septic complications. *Arch Surg* **1987**;122:69–73.
45. Orqvist A, Hedlund J, Wretling B, Carlstrom A, Kalin M. Diagnostic and prognostic value of interleukin-6 and C-reactive protein in community-acquired pneumonia. *Scand J Infect Dis* **1995**;27:457–62.
46. Parnaby RM, Eaton SE, Shafi MS, Bell D. The value of serum C-reactive protein levels as a marker of sepsis in intensive care unit patients. *Clin Intensive Care* **1994**;5:106–13.
47. Peltola HO. C-reactive protein for rapid monitoring of infections of the central nervous system. *Lancet* **1982**;1:980–2.
48. Povoja P. C-reactive protein: a valuable marker of sepsis. *Intensive Care Med* **2002**;28:235–43.
49. Pulliam PN, Attia MW, Cronan KM. C-reactive protein in febrile children 1 to 36 months of age with clinically undetectable serious bacterial infection. *Pediatrics* **2001**;108:1275–9.
50. Ruiz-Laiglesia FJ, Torrubia-Perez C, Amiguet-Garcia JA, Fiteni-Mera I. Value of C-reactive protein for detecting bacteremia in febrile patients. *Presse Med* **1996**;25:1105–8.
51. Sheldon J, Riches P, Gooding R, Soni N, Hobbs JR. C-reactive protein and its cytokine mediators in intensive-care patients. *Clin Chem* **1993**;39:147–50.
52. Shortland DB, MacFadyen U, Elston A, Harrison G. Evaluation of C-reactive protein values in neonatal sepsis. *J Perinat Med* **1990**;18:157–63.
53. van den Broek PJ, Radder AM, Hermans J. The significance of body temperature, sedimentation, C-reactive protein, leukocyte count and differential for the diagnosis of infections in an internal medicine emergency department. *Ned Tijdschr Geneesk* **1990**;134:2536–40.
54. Vanlieferinghen P, Peigue-Lafeuille H, Gaulme J, Amram S, Gentou C, Raynaud EJ. C-reactive protein and orosomucoid determinations in a neonatal pathology unit. *Pediatric* **1986**;41:121–5.
55. Virkki R, Juven T, Rikalainen H, Svedstrom E, Mertsola J, Ruuskanen O. Differentiation of bacterial and viral pneumonia in children. *Thorax* **2002**;57:438–41.
56. Adamik B, Kubler-Kielb J, Golebiowska B, Gamian A, Kubler A. Effect of sepsis and cardiac surgery with cardiopulmonary bypass on plasma

- level of nitric oxide metabolites, neopterin, and procalcitonin: correlation with mortality and postoperative complications. *Intensive Care Med* **2000**; 26:1259–67.
57. Assicot M, Gendrel D, Carsin H, Raymond J, Guilbaud J, Bohuon C. High serum procalcitonin concentrations in patients with sepsis and infection. *Lancet* **1993**; 341:515–8.
  58. Boeken U, Feindt P, Micek M, Petzold T, Schulte HD, Gams E. Procalcitonin (PCT) in cardiac surgery: diagnostic value in systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS), sepsis and after heart transplantation (HTX). *Cardiovasc Surg* **2000**; 8:550–4.
  59. Chiesa C, Panero A, Rossi N, et al. Reliability of procalcitonin concentrations for the diagnosis of sepsis in critically ill neonates. *Clin Infect Dis* **1998**; 26:664–72.
  60. de Werra I, Jaccard C, Corradin SB, et al. Cytokines, nitrite/nitrate, soluble tumor necrosis factor receptors, and procalcitonin concentrations: comparisons in patients with septic shock, cardiogenic shock, and bacterial pneumonia. *Crit Care Med* **1997**; 25:607–13.
  61. Harbarth S, Holeckova K, Froidevaux C, et al. Diagnostic value of procalcitonin, interleukin-6, and interleukin-8 in critically ill patients admitted with suspected sepsis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* **2001**; 164:396–402.
  62. Kuse ER, Langefeld I, Jaeger K, Kulpmann WR. Procalcitonin in fever of unknown origin after liver transplantation: a variable to differentiate acute rejection from infection. *Crit Care Med* **2000**; 28:555–9.
  63. Marc E, Menager C, Moulin F, et al. Procalcitonin and viral meningitis: reduction of unnecessary antibiotics by measurement during an outbreak. *Arch Pediatr* **2002**; 9:358–64.
  64. Ruokonen E, Ilkka L, Niskanen M, Takala J. Procalcitonin and neopterin as indicators of infection in critically ill patients. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* **2002**; 46:398–404.
  65. Whang KT, Steinwald PM, White JC, et al. Serum calcitonin precursors in sepsis and systemic inflammation. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **1998**; 83:3296–301.
  66. Arber C, Passweg JR, Fluckiger U, et al. C-reactive protein and fever in neutropenic patients. *Scand J Infect Dis* **2000**; 32:515–20.
  67. Boeken U, Feindt P, Zimmermann N, Kalweit G, Petzold T, Gams E. Increased preoperative C-reactive protein (CRP)-values without signs of an infection and complicated course after cardiopulmonary bypass (CPB)-operations. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* **1998**; 13:541–5.
  68. Bohuon C, Assicot M, Raymond J, Gendrel D. Procalcitonin, a marker of bacterial meningitis in children. *Bull Acad Natl Med* **1998**; 182: 1469–75.
  69. Chiba Y, Muraoka R, Ihaya A, et al. Postoperative inflammatory reactions of impregnated Dacron grafts. *Surg Today* **1999**; 29:1225–8.
  70. Claeys R, Vinken S, Spapen H, et al. Plasma procalcitonin and C-reactive protein in acute septic shock: clinical and biological correlates. *Crit Care Med* **2002**; 30:757–62.
  71. Del Beccaro MA, Mendelman PM, Inglis AF, Richardson MA, Duncan NO, Shugerman RP. Acute-phase reactants and acute bacterial otitis media. *Am J Dis Child* **1992**; 146:1037–9.
  72. Dinant GJ, de Kock CA, van Wersch JW. Diagnostic value of C-reactive protein measurement does not justify replacement of the erythrocyte sedimentation rate in daily general practice. *Eur J Clin Invest* **1995**; 25:353–9.
  73. Eriksson S, Olander B, Pira U, Granstrom L. White blood cell count, leucocyte elastase activity, and serum concentrations of interleukin-6 and C-reactive protein after open appendectomy. *Eur J Surg* **1997**; 163:123–7.
  74. Franssen EJ, Maessen JG, Elenbaas TW, van Aarnhem EE, van Dieijen-Visser MP. Enhanced preoperative C-reactive protein plasma levels as a risk factor for postoperative infections after cardiac surgery. *Ann Thorac Surg* **1999**; 67:134–8.
  75. Gervais A, Galetto-Lacour A, Gueron T, et al. Usefulness of procalcitonin and C-reactive protein rapid tests for the management of children with urinary tract infection. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2001**; 20: 507–11.
  76. Hatherill M, Tibby SM, Turner C, Ratnavel N, Murdoch IA. Procalcitonin and cytokine levels: relationship to organ failure and mortality in pediatric septic shock. *Crit Care Med* **2000**; 28:2591–4.
  77. Heiskanen-Kosma T, Korppi M. Serum C-reactive protein cannot differentiate bacterial and viral aetiology of community-acquired pneumonia in children in primary healthcare settings. *Scand J Infect Dis* **2000**; 32:399–402.
  78. Herrmann W, Ecker D, Quast S, Klieden M, Rose S, Marzi I. Comparison of procalcitonin, sCD14 and interleukin-6 values in septic patients. *Clin Chem Lab Med* **2000**; 38:41–6.
  79. Hjortdahl P, Landaas S, Urdal P, Steinbakk M, Fuglerud P, Nygaard B. C-reactive protein: a new rapid assay for managing infectious disease in primary health care. *Scand J Prim Health Care* **1991**; 9:3–10.
  80. Huber-Spitzy V, Arock-Mettinger E, Herkner K, et al. Diagnosis and therapy of bacterial endophthalmitis, and serum levels of inflammation markers. *Infection* **1992**; 20:122–7.
  81. Juffrie M, Meer GM, Hack CE, et al. Inflammatory mediators in dengue virus infection in children: interleukin-6 and its relation to C-reactive protein and secretory phospholipase A2. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* **2001**; 65:70–5.
  82. Kornman L, Jacobs V, Hodgson RP, et al. Chorioamnionitis: how useful is the determination of C-reactive protein? *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol* **1988**; 28:45–8.
  83. Kraggsbjerg P, Holmberg H, Vikersfors T. Serum concentrations of interleukin-6, tumour necrosis factor- $\alpha$ , and C-reactive protein in patients undergoing major operations. *Eur J Surg* **1995**; 161:17–22.
  84. Lembo RM, Marchant CD. Acute phase reactants and risk of bacterial meningitis among febrile infants and children. *Ann Emerg Med* **1991**; 20:36–40.
  85. Matsuo S, Tsumori M, Yamamoto Y, Takahashi H. Clinical and laboratory correspondence to outpatients with the extreme value of C-reactive protein. *Rinsho Byori* **1992**; 40:1307–11.
  86. Mercer LJ, Block BS, Hajj SN. Measurement of C-reactive protein to compare ceftizoxime versus cefoxitin/doxycycline therapy for septic pelvis: a preliminary report. *Clin Ther* **1987**; 10:59–65.
  87. Mercer LJ, Hajj SN, Ismail MA, Block BS. Use of C-reactive protein to predict the outcome of medical management of tuboovarian abscesses. *J Reprod Med* **1988**; 33:164–7.
  88. Mimoz O, Benoist JF, Edouard AR, Assicot M, Bohuon C, Samii K. Procalcitonin and C-reactive protein during the early posttraumatic systemic inflammatory response syndrome. *Intensive Care Med* **1998**; 24:185–8.
  89. Molnar Z, Szakmany T, Koszegi T, Tekeres M. Microalbuminuria and serum procalcitonin levels following oesophagectomy. *Eur J Anaesthesiol* **2000**; 17:464–5.
  90. Nylen ES, Snider RH Jr, Thompson KA, Rohatgi P, Becker KL. Pneumonitis-associated hyperprocalcitoninemia. *Am J Med Sci* **1996**; 312: 12–8.
  91. Oberhoffer M, Karzai W, Meier-Hellmann A, Bogel D, Fassbinder J, Reinhart K. Sensitivity and specificity of various markers of inflammation for the prediction of tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  and interleukin-6 in patients with sepsis. *Crit Care Med* **1999**; 27:1814–8.
  92. Panichi V, Migliori M, De Pietro S, et al. Plasma C-reactive protein in hemodialysis patients: a cross-sectional, longitudinal clinical survey. *Blood Purif* **2000**; 18:30–6.
  93. Pettila V, Pentti J, Pettila M, Takkunen O, Jousela I. Predictive value of antithrombin III and serum C-reactive protein concentration in critically ill patients with suspected sepsis. *Crit Care Med* **2002**; 30: 271–5.
  94. Philip AG, Mills PC. Use of C-reactive protein in minimizing antibiotic exposure: experience with infants initially admitted to a well-baby nursery. *Pediatrics* **2000**; 106:E4.
  95. Pinilla JC, Hayes P, Laverty W, Arnold C, Laxdal V. The C-reactive protein to prealbumin ratio correlates with the severity of multiple organ dysfunction. *Surgery* **1998**; 124:799–805 [discussion 805–6].
  96. Pinkola K, Darvas K. Procalcitonin rapid test in surgical patients treated in the intensive care unit. *Magy Seb* **2001**; 54:368–70.

97. Putto A, Ruuskanen O, Meurman O, et al. C reactive protein in the evaluation of febrile illness. *Arch Dis Child* **1986**;61:24–9.
98. Racine A, Abribat D, Ensergueix G, Lucas Y, Poux JB. The value of the C-reactive protein assay for the early diagnosis of neonatal infection at the maternity ward and pediatric service of a general hospital center. *Ann Pediatr (Paris)* **1989**;36:253–7.
99. Sabat R, Hofflich C, Docke WD, et al. Massive elevation of procalcitonin plasma levels in the absence of infection in kidney transplant patients treated with pan-T-cell antibodies. *Intensive Care Med* **2001**;27:987–91.
100. Singh UK, Sinha RK, Suman S, Singh VK. C-reactive protein as an indicator of complications in bacterial meningitis. *Indian Pediatr* **1996**;33:373–6.
101. Smith RP, Lipworth BJ, Cree IA, Spiers EM, Winter JH. C-reactive protein: a clinical marker in community-acquired pneumonia. *Chest* **1995**;108:1288–91.
102. Soderquist B, Sundqvist KG, Jones I, Holmberg H, Vikerfors T. Interleukin-6, C-reactive protein, lactoferrin and white blood cell count in patients with *S. aureus* septicemia. *Scand J Infect Dis* **1995**;27:375–80.
103. Torre D, Zeroli C, Giola M, et al. Acute-phase proteins and levels of interleukin 1B, interleukin 6, tumor necrosis factor alpha, and interleukin 8 in children with pertussis. *Am J Dis Child* **1993**;147:27–9.
104. Unkila-Kallio L, Kallio MJ, Peltola H. The usefulness of C-reactive protein levels in the identification of concurrent septic arthritis in children who have acute hematogenous osteomyelitis: a comparison with the usefulness of the erythrocyte sedimentation rate and the white blood-cell count. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* **1994**;76:848–53.
105. van Langevelde P, Joop K, van Loon J, et al. Endotoxin, cytokines, and procalcitonin in febrile patients admitted to the hospital: identification of subjects at high risk of mortality. *Clin Infect Dis* **2000**;31:1343–8.
106. Wanner GA, Keel M, Steckholzer U, Beier W, Stocker R, Ertel W. Relationship between procalcitonin plasma levels and severity of injury, sepsis, organ failure, and mortality in injured patients. *Crit Care Med* **2000**;28:950–7.
107. Yentis SM, Soni N, Sheldon J. C-reactive protein as an indicator of resolution of sepsis in the intensive care unit. *Intensive Care Med* **1995**;21:602–5.
108. Gendrel D, Raymond J, Assicot M, et al. Measurement of procalcitonin levels in children with bacterial or viral meningitis. *Clin Infect Dis* **1997**;24:1240–2.
109. Gendrel D, Raymond J, Coste J, et al. Comparison of procalcitonin with C-reactive protein, interleukin 6 and interferon-alpha for differentiation of bacterial vs. viral infections. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **1999**;18:875–81.
110. Hedlund J, Hansson LO. Procalcitonin and C-reactive protein levels in community-acquired pneumonia: correlation with etiology and prognosis. *Infection* **2000**;28:68–73.
111. Meisner M, Tschaikowsky K, Hutzler A, Schick C, Schuttler J. Post-operative plasma concentrations of procalcitonin after different types of surgery. *Intensive Care Med* **1998**;24:680–4.
112. Moulin F, Raymond J, Lorrot M, et al. Procalcitonin in children admitted to hospital with community acquired pneumonia. *Arch Dis Child* **2001**;84:332–6.
113. Oberhoffer M, Vogelsang H, Russwurm S, Hartung T, Reinhart K. Outcome prediction by traditional and new markers of inflammation in patients with sepsis. *Clin Chem Lab Med* **1999**;37:363–8.
114. Somech R, Zakuth V, Assia A, Jurgenson U, Spirer Z. Procalcitonin correlates with C-reactive protein as an acute-phase reactant in pediatric patients. *Isr Med Assoc J* **2000**;2:147–50.
115. Tschaikowsky K, Hedwig-Geissing M, Schiele A, Bremer F, Schywalsky M, Schuttler J. Coincidence of pro- and anti-inflammatory responses in the early phase of severe sepsis: longitudinal study of mononuclear histocompatibility leukocyte antigen-DR expression, procalcitonin, C-reactive protein, and changes in T-cell subsets in septic and post-operative patients. *Crit Care Med* **2002**;30:1015–23.
116. von Heimburg D, Stieghorst W, Khorram-Sefat R, Pallua N. Procalcitonin—a sepsis parameter in severe burn injuries. *Burns* **1998**;24:745–50.
117. Aouifi A, Piriou V, Bastien O, et al. Usefulness of procalcitonin for diagnosis of infection in cardiac surgical patients. *Crit Care Med* **2000**;28:3171–6.
118. Enguix A, Rey C, Concha A, Medina A, Coto D, Dieguez MA. Comparison of procalcitonin with C-reactive protein and serum amyloid for the early diagnosis of bacterial sepsis in critically ill neonates and children. *Intensive Care Med* **2001**;27:211–5.
119. Hatherill M, Tibby SM, Sykes K, Turner C, Murdoch IA. Diagnostic markers of infection: comparison of procalcitonin with C reactive protein and leucocyte count. *Arch Dis Child* **1999**;81:417–21.
120. Lorrot M, Moulin F, Coste J, et al. Procalcitonin in pediatric emergencies: comparison with C-reactive protein, interleukin-6 and interferon alpha in the differentiation between bacterial and viral infections. *Presse Med* **2000**;29:128–34.
121. Muller B, Becker KL, Schachinger H, et al. Calcitonin precursors are reliable markers of sepsis in a medical intensive care unit. *Crit Care Med* **2000**;28:977–83.
122. Penel N, Fournier C, Degardin M, Kouto H, N'Guyen M. Fever and solid tumor: diagnostic value of procalcitonin and C-reactive protein. *Rev Med Interne* **2001**;22:706–14.
123. Rothenburger M, Markewitz A, Lenz T, et al. Detection of acute phase response and infection: the role of procalcitonin and C-reactive protein. *Clin Chem Lab Med* **1999**;37:275–9.
124. Schwarz S, Bertram M, Schwab S, Andrassy K, Hacke W. Serum procalcitonin levels in bacterial and abacterial meningitis. *Crit Care Med* **2000**;28:1828–32.
125. Selberg O, Hecker H, Martin M, Klos A, Bautsch W, Kohl J. Discrimination of sepsis and systemic inflammatory response syndrome by determination of circulating plasma concentrations of procalcitonin, protein complement 3a, and interleukin-6. *Crit Care Med* **2000**;28:2793–8.
126. Suprin E, Camus C, Gacouin A, et al. Procalcitonin: a valuable indicator of infection in a medical ICU? *Intensive Care Med* **2000**;26:1232–8.
127. Ugarte H, Silva E, Mercan D, De Mendonca A, Vincent JL. Procalcitonin used as a marker of infection in the intensive care unit. *Crit Care Med* **1999**;27:498–504.
128. Viallon A, Zeni F, Pouzet V, et al. Serum and ascitic procalcitonin levels in cirrhotic patients with spontaneous bacterial peritonitis: diagnostic value and relationship to pro-inflammatory cytokines. *Intensive Care Med* **2000**;26:1082–8.
129. Brunkhorst FM, Wegscheider K, Forycki ZF, Brunkhorst R. Procalcitonin for early diagnosis and differentiation of SIRS, sepsis, severe sepsis, and septic shock. *Intensive Care Med* **2000**;26:S148–52.
130. Karzai W, Oberhoffer M, Meier-Hellmann A, Reinhart K. Procalcitonin—a new indicator of the systemic response to severe infections. *Infection* **1997**;25:329–34.
131. Dandona P, Nix D, Wilson MF, et al. Procalcitonin increase after endotoxin injection in normal subjects. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **1994**;79:1605–8.
132. Brunkhorst FM, Heinz U, Forycki ZF. Kinetics of procalcitonin in iatrogenic sepsis. *Intensive Care Med* **1998**;24:888–9.
133. Meisner M, Lohs T, Huettemann E, Schmidt J, Hueller M, Reinhart K. The plasma elimination rate and urinary secretion of procalcitonin in patients with normal and impaired renal function. *Eur J Anaesthesiol* **2001**;18:79–87.
134. Ransohoff DF, Feinstein AR. Problems of spectrum and bias in evaluating the efficacy of diagnostic tests. *N Engl J Med* **1978**;299:926–30.
135. Lachs MS, Nachamkin I, Edelstein PH, Goldman J, Feinstein AR, Schwartz JS. Spectrum bias in the evaluation of diagnostic tests: lessons from the rapid dipstick test for urinary tract infection. *Ann Intern Med* **1992**;117:135–40.

136. Lijmer JG, Mol BW, Heisterkamp S, et al. Empirical evidence of design-related bias in studies of diagnostic tests. *JAMA* **1999**;282:1061–6.
137. Mitchell MD. Validation of the summary ROC for diagnostic test meta-analysis: a Monte Carlo simulation. *Acad Radiol* **2003**;10:25–31.
138. Dekks JJ. Systematic reviews of evaluation of diagnostic and screening tests. In: Egger M, Davey Smith G, Altman DG, eds. *Systematic reviews in health care: meta-analysis in context*. London: BMJ Publishing Group, **2001**:248–82.
139. Chiesa C, Pellegrini G, Panero A, et al. C-reactive protein, interleukin-6, and procalcitonin in the immediate postnatal period: influence of illness severity, risk status, antenatal and perinatal complications, and infection. *Clin Chem* **2003**;49:60–8.
140. Resch B, Gusenleitner W, Muller WD. Procalcitonin and interleukin-6 in the diagnosis of early-onset sepsis of the neonate. *Acta Paediatr* **2003**;92:243–5.

In an article in the 15 July 2004 issue of the journal (Simon L, Gauvin F, Amre DK, Saint-Louis P, Lacroix J. Serum procalcitonin and C-reactive protein levels as markers of bacterial infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Infect Dis* 2004;39:206–17), several errors were made in the data presented, requiring corrections to the text, the abstract, tables 4 and 5, and figures 1 and 2.

The data in the sixth and seventh paragraphs of the Results section require a number of corrections and adjustments. In the sixth paragraph, the estimations of sensitivity and specificity for bacterial infections compared with noninfective causes of inflammation require the following corrections. Pooled sensitivity for procalcitonin (PCT) was 85% (95% CI, 0.76–0.91), compared with 78% (95% CI, 0.70–0.85) for C-reactive protein (CRP); there was a statistically significant difference between the sensitivities: 7% (95% CI, 0.23–0.11;  $P < .05$ ). Pooled specificity for PCT was also higher than for CRP: 83% (95% CI, 0.68–0.92) versus 60% (95% CI, 0.38–0.79), respectively, and this difference was statistically significant: 23% (95% CI, 0.18–0.28;  $P < .05$ ). This was confirmed on calculation of the Q value, which was higher for PCT ( $Q = 0.82$ ; 95% CI, 0.64–0.95) than that for CRP ( $Q = 0.75$ ; 95% CI, 0.68–0.82).

In the seventh paragraph of Results, the data for evaluation of these markers for bacterial infections versus viral infections requires the following corrections. Pooled sensitivity for PCT was 82% (95% CI, 0.65–0.92), compared with 73% (95% CI, 0.62–0.82) for CRP, and the difference is statistically significant: 9% (95% CI, 0.02–0.16;  $P < .05$ ). Pooled specificities were also higher for PCT than for CRP: 88% (95% CI, 0.50–0.98) versus 81% (95% CI, 0.55–0.93), respectively, with a difference of 7% (95% CI,  $-0.01$  to 0.13;  $P > .05$ ). The Q value calculated from the curves was slightly higher for PCT ( $Q = 0.85$ ; 95% CI, 0.83–0.87) than for CRP ( $Q = 0.82$ ; 95% CI, 0.74–0.90), suggesting that, in terms of overall accuracy, PCT is somewhat better than CRP in differentiating between bacterial and viral infections.

In addition, corrections similar to those made in the text are required in the abstract. The corrected abstract should read as follows:

A meta-analysis was performed to evaluate the accuracy of determination of procalcitonin (PCT) and C-reactive protein (CRP) levels for the diagnosis of bacterial infection. The analysis included published studies that evaluated these markers for the diagnosis of bacterial infections in hospitalized patients. PCT level was more sensitive (85% [95% confidence interval {CI}, 0.76–0.91] vs. 78% [95% CI, 0.70–0.85]) and more specific than CRP level (83% [95% CI, 0.68–0.92] vs. 60% [95% CI, 0.38–0.79]) for differentiating bacterial from noninfective causes of inflammation. The Q value for PCT markers was higher (0.82 vs 0.75). The sensitivity for differentiating bacterial from viral infections was also higher for PCT markers (82% [95% CI, 0.65–0.92] vs. 73% [95% CI, 0.62–0.82]), as was the specificity (88% [95% CI, 0.50–0.98] vs. 81% [95% CI, 0.55–0.93]). The Q value was higher for PCT markers (0.85 vs. 0.82). PCT markers also had a higher positive likelihood ratio and lower negative likelihood ratio than did CRP markers in both groups. On the basis of this analysis, the diagnostic accuracy of PCT markers was higher than that of CRP markers among patients hospitalized for suspected bacterial infections.

In tables 4 and 5, the false positive (FP) and the false negative (FN) values were inadvertently interchanged. The resultant changes in the estimation of the sensitivities and specificities (along with their 95% CIs) are presented here in corrected tables (tables 4 and 5, below, on page 1387).

As a result of these changes, figures 1 and 2 need to be slightly modified, as well. The corrected figures are presented here (figures 1 and 2, below, on page 1388).

These corrections do not alter the interpretation or the conclusions of the meta-analysis. The authors sincerely apologize for these errors.

**Table 4. Results derived from the 2 × 2 tables of individual studies involving procalcitonin and C-reactive protein levels as markers for bacterial infections versus noninfective causes of inflammation.**

| Study                           | Procalcitonin markers |       |                            |                            | C-reactive protein markers |       |                            |                            |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------|-------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
|                                 | No. of results        |       | Sensitivity, %<br>(95% CI) | Specificity, %<br>(95% CI) | No. of results             |       | Sensitivity, %<br>(95% CI) | Specificity, %<br>(95% CI) |
|                                 | TP/FN                 | FP/TN |                            |                            | TP/FN                      | FP/TN |                            |                            |
| Aouifi [117]                    | 46/8                  | 2/41  | 85 (0.72–0.93)             | 95 (0.83–0.99)             | 50/4                       | 33/10 | 93 (0.81–0.98)             | 23 (0.12–0.39)             |
| Enguix [118] <sup>a</sup>       | 19/1                  | 3/23  | 95 (0.73–1.00)             | 88 (0.69–0.97)             | 19/1                       | 4/22  | 95 (0.73–1.00)             | 85 (0.64–0.95)             |
| Hatherill [119] <sup>a</sup>    | 103/9                 | 3/40  | 92 (0.85–0.96)             | 93 (0.80–0.98)             | 73/37                      | 0/43  | 66 (0.57–0.75)             | 100 (0.92–1.00)            |
| Muller [121] <sup>a</sup>       | 52/6                  | 3/40  | 90 (0.78–0.96)             | 93 (0.80–0.98)             | 41/17                      | 9/34  | 71 (0.57–0.82)             | 79 (0.64–0.89)             |
| Penel [122] <sup>a</sup>        | 43/0                  | 14/5  | 100 (0.92–1.00)            | 26 (0.10–0.51)             | 43/0                       | 24/1  | 100 (0.92–1.00)            | 4 (0.00–0.22)              |
| Rothenburger [123] <sup>a</sup> | 12/3                  | 2/42  | 80 (0.52–0.95)             | 95 (0.83–0.99)             | 14/1                       | 30/14 | 93 (0.66–1.00)             | 32 (0.19–0.48)             |
| Selberg [125]                   | 19/3                  | 5/6   | 86 (0.64–0.96)             | 55 (0.25–0.82)             | 19/3                       | 9/2   | 86 (0.64–0.96)             | 18 (0.03–0.52)             |
| Suprin [126] <sup>a</sup>       | 49/26                 | 6/14  | 65 (0.53–0.76)             | 70 (0.46–0.87)             | 55/19                      | 5/14  | 74 (0.63–0.83)             | 74 (0.49–0.90)             |
| Ugarte [127] <sup>a</sup>       | 75/36                 | 31/48 | 68 (0.58–0.76)             | 61 (0.49–0.71)             | 80/31                      | 26/53 | 72 (0.63–0.80)             | 67 (0.56–0.77)             |
| Viallon [128] <sup>a</sup>      | 19/2                  | 2/38  | 90 (0.68–0.98)             | 95 (0.82–0.99)             | 13/8                       | 3/37  | 62 (0.39–0.81)             | 93 (0.79–0.98)             |
| Total                           | ...                   | ...   | 85 (0.76–0.91)             | 83 (0.68–0.92)             | ...                        | ...   | 78 (0.70–0.85)             | 60 (0.38–0.79)             |

**NOTE.** FN, false negative; FP, false positive; TN, true negative; TP, true positive.

<sup>a</sup> Data confirmed by original author.

<sup>b</sup> Pooled data from a random effects model.

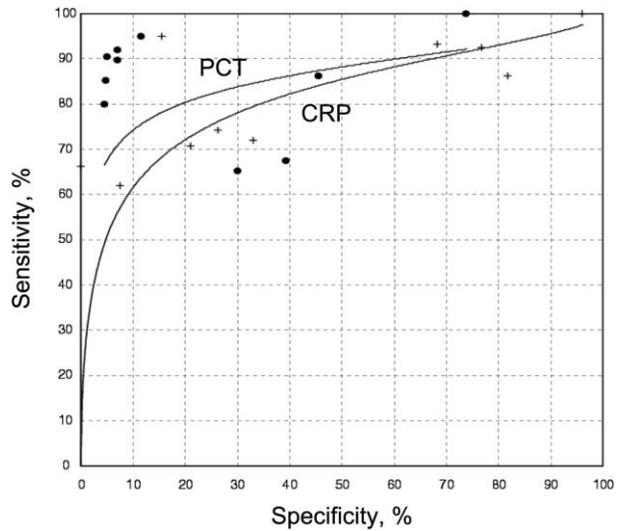
**Table 5. Results derived from the 2 × 2 tables of individual studies involving procalcitonin and C-reactive protein levels as markers for bacterial infections versus viral infections.**

| Study                        | Procalcitonin  |        |                            |                            | C-reactive protein |        |                            |                            |
|------------------------------|----------------|--------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------|--------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
|                              | No. of results |        | Sensitivity, %<br>(95% CI) | Specificity, %<br>(95% CI) | No. of results     |        | Sensitivity, %<br>(95% CI) | Specificity, %<br>(95% CI) |
|                              | TP/FN          | FP/TN  |                            |                            | TP/FN              | FP/TN  |                            |                            |
| Hatherill [119] <sup>a</sup> | 103/9          | 6/8    | 92 (0.85–0.96)             | 57 (0.30–0.81)             | 73/36              | 2/12   | 67 (0.57–0.75)             | 86 (0.56–0.97)             |
| Lorrot [120]                 | 126/36         | 16/258 | 78 (0.70–0.84)             | 94 (0.91–0.97)             | 122/40             | 30/244 | 75 (0.68–0.82)             | 89 (0.85–0.92)             |
| Schwarz [124] <sup>a</sup>   | 11/5           | 0/14   | 69 (0.42–0.88)             | 100 (0.77–1.00)            | 14/1               | 6/8    | 93 (0.66–1.00)             | 57 (0.30–0.81)             |
| Total <sup>b</sup>           | ...            | ...    | 82 (0.65–0.92)             | 88 (0.50–0.98)             | ...                | ...    | 73 (0.62–0.82)             | 81 (0.55–0.93)             |

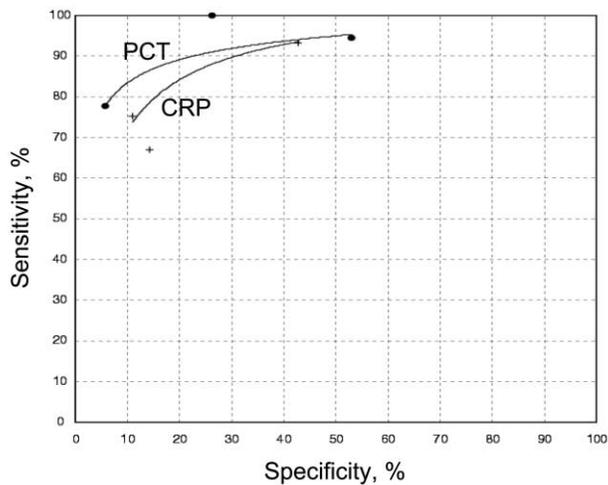
**NOTE.** FN, false negative; FP, false positive; TN, true negative; TP, true positive.

<sup>a</sup> Data confirmed by original author.

<sup>b</sup> Pooled data from a random effects model.



**Figure 1.** Summary receiver operating characteristic (SROC) curves comparing serum procalcitonin (PCT; ●) and C-reactive protein (CRP; +) markers for detection of bacterial infections versus noninfective causes of inflammation. Each point contributing to the SROC curve represents 1 study.



**Figure 2.** Summary receiver operating characteristic (SROC) curves comparing serum procalcitonin (PCT; ●) and C-reactive protein (CRP; +) markers for detection of bacterial infections versus viral infection. Each point contributing to the SROC curve represents 1 study.