

BIOMARKERS IN ACUTE STROKE DIAGNOSIS: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW PER
BIOMARKER GROUP.

Jasper Joye

Student number: 01300301

Supervisor(s): Prof. Dr. Said Hachimi Idrissi, Dr. Joline Goossens

A dissertation submitted to Ghent University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Medicine in Medicine

Academic year: 2018 – 2020

Deze pagina is niet beschikbaar omdat ze persoonsgegevens bevat.
Universiteitsbibliotheek Gent, 2021.

This page is not available because it contains personal information.
Ghent University, Library, 2021.

Table of Contents

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	i
Abstract.....	3
Nederlandse samenvatting	4
1. Introduction	6
1.1. Definition.....	6
1.2. Prevalence and incidence	7
1.3. Risk factors.....	7
1.3.1. Non-modifiable risk factors.....	7
1.3.2. Modifiable risk factors	8
1.4. Acute stroke diagnosis and treatment.....	8
1.4.1. Initial assessment and differential diagnosis	8
1.4.2. Overview on ideal patient flow.....	9
1.4.3. Initial management	9
1.4.4. Limitations of the current stroke management	11
1.5. Biomarkers	11
1.5.1. Genes	12
1.5.2. MiRNA.....	12
1.5.3. Proteins.....	13
1.5.4. Metabolites	13
1.5.5. Biomarker panel	13
1.6. Essential steps in IS pathophysiology and potential sources of biomarkers.....	14
1.6.1. Markers of neuronal cell damage	14
1.6.2. Markers of excitotoxicity.....	14
1.6.3. Markers of oxidative stress	15
1.6.4. Markers of inflammation.....	15
1.6.5. Markers of BBB dysfunction.....	16
1.7. Goal of this master dissertation	16
2. Methodology.....	18
2.1. Search strategy.....	18
2.2. Inclusion criteria.....	18
2.3. Data extraction.....	20
2.4. Quality assessment.....	20
2.5. Statistical analysis.....	20
3. Results.....	22
3.1. Genes.....	22
3.1.1 Study characteristics of studies with main focus on gene expression.....	22
3.1.2. Gene expression levels.....	23
3.2. MicroRNA	25
3.2.1. Study characteristics of studies with main focus on miRNA expression levels.....	25

3.2.2. MiRNA expression levels	26
3.3. Proteins.....	30
3.3.1. Study characteristics of studies with main focus on protein expression levels	30
3.3.2. Meta-analysis on protein biomarkers.....	32
3.4. Metabolites	40
3.4.1. Study characteristics of studies with main focus on metabolite expression levels.....	40
3.4.2. Metabolite expression levels	40
4. Discussion.....	43
4.1. Genes.....	43
4.2. MicroRNA	43
4.3. Proteins	44
4.4. Metabolites	45
4.5. Limitations	46
5. Conclusion	47
6. References.....	48
7. Supplementary data	51

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACTB	Actin beta
ASA	American stroke association
AUC	Area under curve
B2M	Beta-2 microglobulin
BBB	blood-brain barrier
BNP	Brain natriuretic peptid
CBF	cerebral blood flow
CI	Confidence interval
CRP	C-reactive protein
COX	cyclooxygenase
CNV	Copy number variants
DAMPs	damage-associated molecular patterns
DD	D-Dimers
DWI-MRI	Diffuse weighted imaging MRI
ED	Emergency department
ELISA	enzyme linked immune sorbent assays
ESR	Erythrocyte sedimentation rate
GFAP	Glial fibrillary acidic protein
GC-MS	Gas chromatography – MS
GC-RMA	Genechip robust multi array averaging
HCY	Homocysteine
HS	Haemorrhagic stroke
IAT	intra-arterial thrombolysis
ICAM-1	Intercellular adhesion molecule-1
ICH	intracerebral haemorrhage
IL-1 β	Interleukin-1 β
IL-6	Interleukin-1 β
IMA	Ischemia modified albumin
IS	Ischemic stroke
IV	Intravenous
IV-RTPA	intravenous recombinant tissue plasminogen activator
MBP	Myelin basic protein
MEKC	Micellar electrokinetic chromatography
MFI	Mean fluorescence intensity
MRA	Magnetic resonance angiography
MRI	magnetic resonance imaging
MS	mass spectrometry
MSU	Mobile stroke unit
NCCT	noncontrast computed tomography
NMDA	N-methyl-d-aspartate
NOS	Newcastle-Ottawa scale
NSE	Neuron specific enolase
PAMPs	pathogen-associated molecular patterns

PBMC	Peripheral blood mononuclear cells
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PLA ₂	Phospholipase A ₂
PPIB	Peptidylprolyl isomerase B
PRR	pattern-recognition receptors
qPCR	Quantitative polymerase chain reaction
qRT-PCR	Quantitative reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain reaction
RNA	ribonucleic acid
ROC	Receiver operating characteristics
ROS	reactive oxygen species
rRNA	Ribosomal RNA
RT-PCR	Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction
SAA	Serum amyloid A
SAH	subarachnoid haemorrhage
SD	Standard deviation
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism
TIA	transient ischemic attack
TIMP-1	Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 1
TLDA	Taqman low density Array
TNF- α	tumor necrosis factor alpha
UCH-L1	Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase L1
UPLC-MS/MS	Ultra performance liquid chromatography – tandem MS
WBCC	White blood cell count
WHO	world health organization

Abstract

Introduction: To date, ischemic stroke (IS) remains to be one of the leading causes of death and long-term disability worldwide. Approximately 15 million stroke events occur on yearly basis which are associated with nearly 5 million deaths and 5 million cases of permanent disability worldwide. Rapid diagnosis and adequate management are crucial due to the narrow therapeutic time window. At this time, due to generally available diagnostic neuroimaging, diagnosing IS is most of the time straightforward. In cases where imaging resources and/or medical expertise is limited, a blood-based biomarker diagnostic panel would be valuable. The goal of this master dissertation is to analyse which biomarker(s) per group, could differentiate ischemic stroke patients from healthy controls.

Methodology: A systematic literature research was conducted, searching all publications on blood biomarkers for IS diagnosis. In total 71 studies met the inclusion criteria for this review: 7 studies on gene expression levels, 25 on miRNA expression levels, 33 on protein expression levels and 6 on metabolite expression levels. A meta-analysis was conducted on the protein subgroup using Review Manager 5.3. software. When studies did not report mean and standard deviation (SD) of protein biomarkers concentration the formulas of Wan et al and Hozo et al were used to make an estimate of the mean and SD. All data is reported as forest plots. The data yielded on other biomarker groups did not allow for meta-analysis.

Results: In the gene subgroup matrix-metalloproteinase-9 and S100A12 seem to have the most potential for differentiating IS from healthy controls. These were the only genes reported to be consistently upregulated between IS patients and healthy controls in 3 separate studies. In the miRNA subgroup miRNA-16, miRNA-30, miRNA-126 and miRNA-221 seemed to a suitable potential biomarker. In the protein subgroup TNF- α , fibrinogen and folic acid were all reported in more than one study and had I^2 values of $< 40\%$, indicating these have the most potential. In the metabolite subgroup glycine and proline were the only biomarkers altered significantly, indicating these could be a potential candidate in this category.

Conclusion: A simple blood test that could diagnose patients with IS would have the potential to significantly shorten the time-to-needle, especially in cases of remaining diagnostic uncertainty. However, considering the many limitations of this systematic review, we still are far away from a biomarker/biomarker panel for IS diagnosis would be available. More studies are needed with larger subject groups and lifelike control groups. Furthermore, a consensus needs to be established for a standardized detecting method for gene, miRNA and metabolite levels before introduction into clinical practice can occur.

Nederlandse samenvatting

Introductie: Tot op heden blijft een ischemische beroerte (IB) één van de belangrijkste doodsoorzaken en oorzaak van langdurige invaliditeit. Ongeveer 15 miljoen beroertes doen zich voor per jaar die geassocieerd zijn met 5 miljoen doden en 5 miljoen gevallen van langdurige invaliditeit. Snelle diagnose en behandeling zijn van cruciaal belang door het nauwe therapeutische venster. Tegenwoordig is IB diagnose, met dank aan de wijdverspreide neurologische beeldvorming, meestal eenvoudig. In gevallen waar neurologische beeldvorming zijn gelimiteerd, of medische expertise beperkt is, kan een in bloed afgenomen biomarker diagnostisch panel een meerwaarde zijn. Het doel van deze master thesis is om te analyseren welke biomarker, per categorie, het best IB patiënten van gezonde controles kan onderscheiden.

Methodologie: Een systematische literatuurstudie werd verricht om alle publicaties over bloed biomarkers voor IB diagnose te vinden. In totaal voldeden 71 studies aan de inclusie criteria voor deze review: 7 studies over gen expressie levels, 25 over miRNA expressie levels, 33 over proteïne expressie levels en 6 over metaboliet expressie levels. Een meta-analyse werd uitgevoerd op de proteïne subgroep met gebruik van Review Manager 5.3 software. Wanneer studies hun concentraties niet uitdrukten als gemiddelde en standaard deviatie (SD) van de proteïne biomarker werden de formules van Wan et al en Hozo et al toegepast om een schatting te maken van het gemiddelde en de SD. Alle resultaten zijn weergegeven in forest plots. De data uit de andere groepen was niet voldoende om een meta-analyse op uit te voeren.

Resultaten: In de gen subgroep lijken metalloproteïnase-9 en S100A12 het meeste potentiaal te hebben om IB van gezonde controles te differentiëren. In de miRNA subgroep lijken miRNA-16 en miRNA-30, miRNA-126 en miRNA-221 het meeste potentieel te tonen. In de proteïne subgroep waren TNF- α , fibrinogeen en foliumzuur allemaal gerapporteerd in meer dan 1 studie en hadden I² waarden van < 40%, dit indiceert dat deze potentiële biomarkers zijn. In de metaboliet subgroep waren glycine en proline de enige biomarkers die significant afwijkend waren en zouden potentiële kandidaten zijn in deze categorie.

Conclusie: Een simpele bloed test dat patiënten met een IB kan diagnosticeren heeft het potentieel om de “*time-to-needle*” significant te verkorten, vooral in gevallen waar er diagnostische onzekerheid is of wanneer minder ervaren medisch personeel de diagnose moeten stellen. Echter, rekening houdend met de vele beperkingen van deze systematische review, is er nog steeds een lange weg te gaan totdat een biomarker panel voor IB diagnose wijdverspreid beschikbaar zal zijn. Meer studies moeten uitgevoerd worden met grotere patiëntengroepen en levensechte controle groepen. Verder moet een consensus worden bereikt over een gestandaardiseerde detectiemethode voor gen-, miRNA- en metabolietniveaus vooraleer een introductie in de klinische praktijk kan plaatsvinden.

1. Introduction

1.1. Definition

Stroke is defined as a *“neurological deficit attributed to an acute focal injury of the central nervous system by a vascular cause”*(2). Several types of stroke exist, depending on their etiology. Stroke can be divided into two large subgroups, ischemic and haemorrhagic strokes (2, 3). Ischemic stroke (IS) accounts for approximately 87% of all stroke incidents, while haemorrhagic stroke accounts for the remaining 13% (4). Ischemic stroke occurs when flow in a vessel is compromised by atherosclerotic plaques on which thrombi form. Thrombi may also be produced elsewhere (for example, in the atria in patients with atrial fibrillation) and pass to the brain as emboli where they then lodge and interrupt the blood flow. Haemorrhagic stroke occurs when a cerebral artery or arteriole ruptures, sometimes but not always at the site of a small aneurysm (3). Based on where the blood vessel erupts, two kinds of haemorrhagic stroke can be differentiated: intracerebral haemorrhage (ICH) and subarachnoid haemorrhage (SAH). Haemorrhagic stroke can be further divided into different subtypes, based on the place where the bleeding occurs: intracerebral haemorrhage (ICH) and subarachnoid haemorrhage (SAH). The definitions given to the different kinds of stroke are as following:

Definition of ischemic stroke: *“An episode of neurological dysfunction caused by focal cerebral, spinal, or retinal infarction”* (2).

Definition of haemorrhagic stroke caused by intracerebral haemorrhage: *“Rapidly developing clinical signs of neurological dysfunction attributable to a focal collection of blood within the brain parenchyma or ventricular system that is not caused by trauma”* (2).

Definition of haemorrhagic stroke caused by subarachnoid haemorrhage: *“Rapidly developing signs of neurological dysfunction and/or headache because of bleeding into the subarachnoid space (the space between the arachnoid membrane and the pia mater of the brain or spinal cord), which is not caused by trauma”* (2).

These definitions are widely accepted and approved by the American Heart Association Science Advisory and Coordinating Committee and are being used by clinicians globally (2).

Furthermore, in a clinical setting a stroke must be differentiated from a transient ischemic attack (TIA) and stroke mimics such as seizures, syncopes, brain tumours and intoxication (5). TIA's are brief episodes of neurological dysfunction resulting from focal cerebral ischemia without permanent cerebral infarction. Historically, symptoms could last up to 24 hours after symptom onset and it would still be qualified as a TIA. Recent studies however have demonstrated that this threshold was too long. 30%-50% percent of classically defined TIA's

show brain injury on diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) (6). Therefore, alternative definitions have been suggested that did not include the 24 hours time limit (7).

1.2. Prevalence and incidence

To this date, IS remains to be one of the leading causes of death and long-term disability worldwide. Approximately 15 million stroke events occur, per year which are associated with nearly 5 million deaths and 5 million cases of permanent disability worldwide (8). Case fatality rates after all stroke are about 15% at 1 month, 25% at 1 year and 50% at 5 years (9, 10). Based on recently published studies, the age-standardized (to European standard population) incidence of stroke in Europe at the beginning of the 21st century ranged from 95 to 290 / 100.000 per year. A comparison of several studies indicated an East-West and North-South gradient, with higher incidence rates in eastern countries and lower rates in southern countries. These geographical variations could be related to environmental or genetic factors. Furthermore, incidence rates were 1,2 to 2 times higher in men than in women in all European countries. This can probably be attributed to the discrepancy in cardiovascular risk profile between men and women (9).

According to projection studies conducted by the world health organisation (WHO), the future doesn't look very brightly. Due to the current demographic shift in population (life expectancy keeps on increasing) the incidence of stroke will keep on rising, as the incidence of stroke is closely related to age. The absolute number of patients who will suffer a stroke each year will inevitably continue to rise over the next decades (9). Currently, the proportion of the population aged 65+ accounts for 20% of the total population. By 2050 the elderly will account for 35% of the population (10).

1.3. Risk factors

Risk factors for ischemic stroke can be divided into two groups. Risk factors are either modifiable, something can be done about the risk for stroke occurrence, or non-modifiable, the patient can't change anything about it.

1.3.1. Non-modifiable risk factors

Non-modifiable risk factors for ischemic stroke are relatively well known, they include age, family history, personal history, sex and ethnicity. After the age of 55, the risk of suffering from a stroke more than doubles every decade (11, 12). Stroke risk also increases if a relative has been diagnosed with stroke at an early age and of course, if the patient already has suffered from an earlier stroke, acute myocardial infarction or a TIA, a recurrent stroke becomes more likely. Africans are twice as likely to die from a stroke as Caucasian people. This can be

explained by the higher incidence of modifiable risk factors in the African American population (11).

1.3.2. Modifiable risk factors

Modifiable risk factors can be further divided into lifestyle risk factors and medical risk factors. Lifestyle risk factors include: an unhealthy diet, sedentary lifestyle, tobacco and alcohol abuse.

While medical risk factors include: High blood pressure, atrial fibrillation, high cholesterol, diabetes, carotid stenosis and circulation problems. Medical risk factors are directly affected by lifestyle risk factors. For instance, if a person chooses to eat healthier, and stop smoking, this will have a positive effect on his high cholesterol and blood pressure (11).

1.4. Acute stroke diagnosis and treatment

This chapter of the master dissertation will discuss how to handle a patient with stroke like symptoms in the emergency department (ED). Diagnosing an ischemic stroke is a timely matter due to the narrow therapeutic window of 4,5 hours after symptom onset. However, misdiagnosing a patient could have tremendous consequences as well (13). First, we will discuss the initial assessment and differential diagnosis that needs to be considered when a patient with stroke like symptoms presents in the emergency department. Secondly, we will discuss an ideal patient flow. And lastly, we'll discuss the management and therapy of the patient.

1.4.1. Initial assessment and differential diagnosis

Initial assessment of acute stroke patients should have two major objectives: first, other causes of stroke like symptoms must be ruled out, so called stroke mimics. Secondly, an estimate of the initial stroke onset time needs to be made. This is particularly important as the therapeutic window for ischemic stroke therapy is 4,5 hours (13, 14). To be sure both of these objectives are met, stroke evaluation has 3 important components: anamnesis, clinical assessment and thirdly, laboratory and imaging studies. Laboratory and imaging studies remain the most important diagnostic tool in stroke diagnosis. When an ischemic stroke is suspected, several laboratory and imaging studies are conducted routinely in the ED (13). These laboratory tests can be found in appendix 1. To this date, noncontrast computed tomography (NCCT) remains the cornerstone for suspected stroke patients in the acute setting. NCCT will rule out haemorrhagic stroke and lesions that might mimic acute ischemic stroke such as tumours. The availability and speed make it very useful in the initial evaluation of suspected stroke patients.

Nowadays newer generation multi-slice CT scanners are becoming more readily available, even in peripherally located hospitals. With the use of a rapid injection of intravenous contrast and thin-section helical CT images in the arterial phase, clear images of the cerebral blood vessels can be obtained. With this technique, areas of stenosis or occlusion can be visualised, and aneurysms or other vascular abnormalities can be diagnosed. Conventional brain MRI is impractical in the acute phase of stroke. The test can take up to one hour to complete, which is far too long if you take into consideration that intravenous recombinant tissue plasminogen activator (IV-RTPA) is only considered an effective treatment in the first 4,5 hours after stroke onset. MR diffusion testing however can be conducted within a 10-minute time span and has a better stroke detection rate than standard MRI. It can detect ischemic changes within minutes of stroke onset. A skilled neuroradiologist is often able to predict the progression rate and resolution of strokes with the help of MRI diffusion (15).

1.4.2. Overview on ideal patient flow

The American stroke association (ASA) has released guidelines on the ideal patient timeline in the different stages of diagnosing acute stroke patients (13, 14):

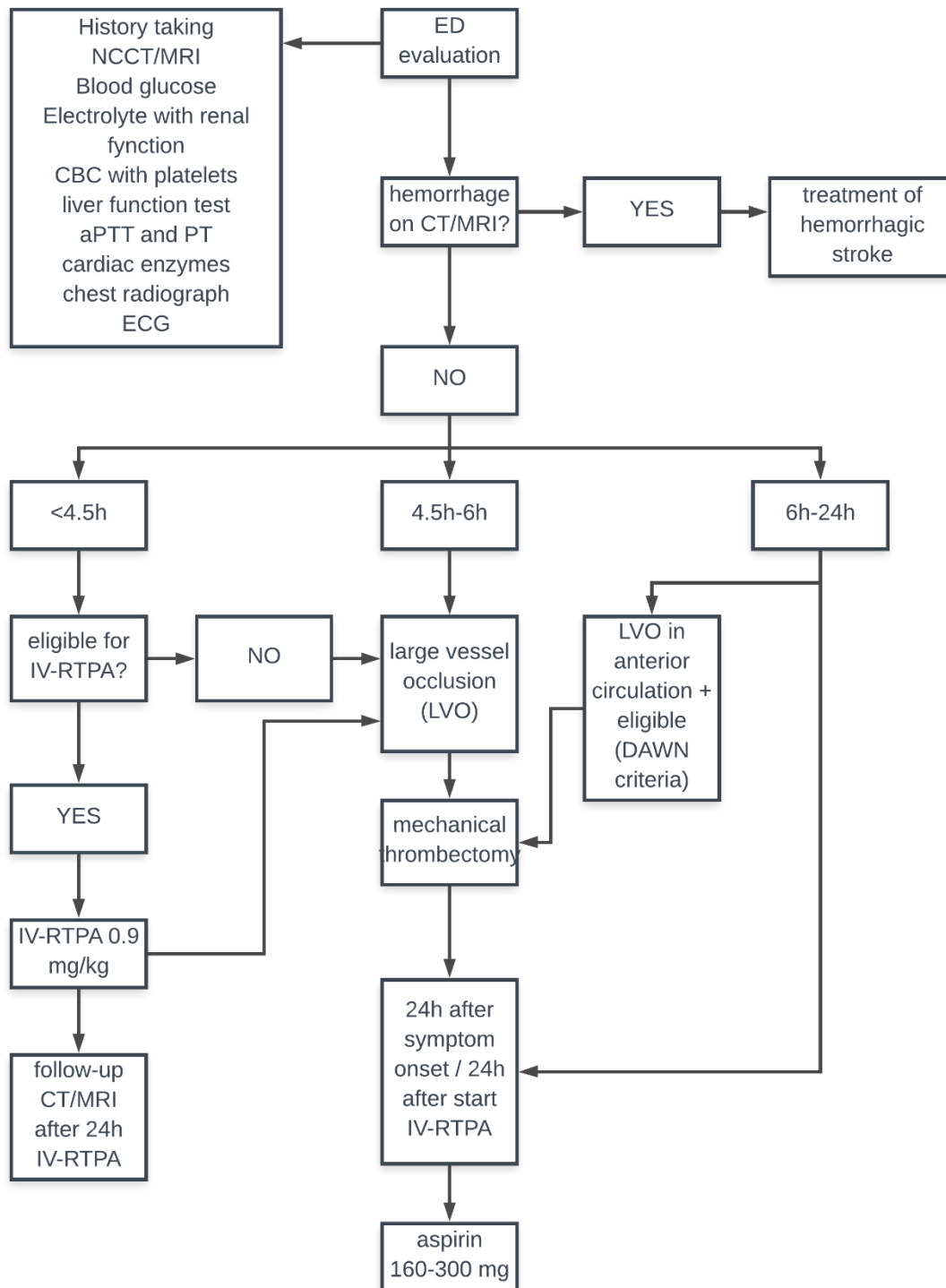
Assessment by the emergency department doctor	Within 10 minutes after arrival
Assessment by the stroke team	Within 15 minutes
Performance of CT scan/ MRI	Within 25 min
Interpretation of CT brain scan within 45 min	Within 45 min
Start of thrombolytic therapy	Within 60 min
Admission to stroke unit	Within 3 hours

1.4.3. Initial management

The first few hours after stroke symptom onset are of extreme importance. The goal at this time is to reduce infarct volume and to prevent disability or death (13). The focus of the therapy should be administering IV-RTPA in the narrow therapeutic time window, as neurological outcome may be improved by early recanalization therapy. This is why neurologists and other emergency physicians came up with the catchphrase “*Time is brain*”, to inform the general population about the importance of acting fast (13, 16, 17). Unfortunately, only a small part of IS patients receive IV-RTPA therapy. Most patients with an AIS present later than 4,5 hours after symptom onset in the ED, or some patients have absolute contraindications for IV-RTPA. All these problems led to the development of multimodal intra-arterial thrombolysis (IAT)

therapies. These IAT therapies include: chemical IAT, combined IV/IAT therapy and endovascular mechanical IAT (mechanical clot retrievers, thromboaspiration, stenting or balloon angioplasty) (13, 18-20). Figure 1 shows a complete algorithm for handling ischemic strokes in the ED.

Figure 1: Algorithm for initial diagnosis and therapy for AIS (1)



1.4.4. Limitations of the current stroke management

There are still several shortcomings in the current stroke care. For instance, patient transfer to the nearest hospital with adequate neuroimaging facilities can be rather time consuming. Two solutions have been suggested for this problem: Using mobile stroke units (MSU) to transport the patient (21) or initiating treatment without having a certain diagnosis (22). Administering IV-RTPA to a patient with an uncertain diagnosis is unethical. An ICH is an absolute contraindication for IV-RTPA, as this will only worsen the outcome.

A second issue in the current approach to stroke diagnosis, is the fact that NCCT can only be used to rule out haemorrhagic stroke, but not diagnose IS. NCCT is unable to visualize vascular occlusion and the early signs of cerebral ischemia (23). MRI is a worthy alternative to NCCT. Unfortunately, MRI imaging isn't widely available and differentiating ischemic stroke from certain stroke mimics may not be possible: other neurological diseases such as Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease or progressive multifocal leukodystrophy may also show high-intensity lesions on diffuse weighted imaging MRI (DWI-MRI), making it impossible to diagnose an ischemic stroke (15, 24). These limitations suggest the need for a diagnostic alternative for ischemic stroke.

1.5. Biomarkers

The term biomarker can be defined as: *“A physiological characteristic or substance that is objectively measured and evaluated as an indicator of normal biological processes, pathogenic processes, or pharmacologic responses to a therapeutic intervention”* (25, 26). This master dissertation focuses specifically on biomarkers for diagnosis of IS. Biomarkers are currently already being used in the diagnosis of other diseases, for example: human choriogonadotropin can diagnose a pregnancy and cardiac troponins can detect an acute myocardial infarction (27). Many hoped the implementation of troponin would lead the way for a potential stroke biomarker (28), however the brain is a much more complex organ than the heart muscle. Troponin release is directly correlated to the death of myocytes, but the brain consists of multiple kinds of tissue and has a far more complex anatomy than the heart (29). Also, in the differential diagnosis of patients presenting with symptoms of acute myocardial infarction, the others causes are mostly noncardiac conditions (musculoskeletal cause, gastro-intestinal reflux disease, psychological (30). This makes a rise in sudden serum troponins more likely to be caused by a myocardial infarction (27).

Biomarkers aren't only blood-borne substances. Other categories of stroke biomarkers include physical markers, imaging markers, histological markers, electrophysiological markers and neuronal markers. For instance, hypertension could be a potential physical biomarker to

include in a biomarker panel for stroke diagnosis (26). However, in this master dissertation we limited our search to blood-borne markers to include in our analysis.

For a biomarker to be implemented in a clinical setting, it needs to fulfil a few criteria: it has to have an adequate sensitivity and specificity for diagnosing ischemic stroke, it needs to be cost effective, it needs to have an early and stable release, predictable clearance and measurement of the biomarker must be fast enough to be implemented in the narrow therapeutic time window (31-33).

In the past, numerous substances have been investigated as possible diagnostic biomarkers for stroke. The earliest studies focused on single specific proteins, because these proteins have a known role in stroke pathophysiology. However, when the human genome was sequenced back in 2003, new diagnostic screening tests became available. These tests allowed a large quantity of molecules to be investigated at once instead of single specific markers (31, 34). Suddenly research is not hypothesis-driven, it becomes hypothesis-generating (35). The most important tests are mass spectrometry (MS), microarray and polymerase chain reactions (PCR). MS analyses the masses within a tissue sample. By ionizing a sample, the tissue breaks down in charged fragments. These fragments are then ordered by their mass-to-charge ratio. Then, by accessing a database, these fragments can be identified by correlating them to known masses (36-38). Microarray can detect alterations in DNA sequences. The most common alterations in DNA sequence are single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). SNPs can be the cause of genetic disorders and some of these disorders can cause a stroke (39). These advancements in detecting methods made it possible to investigate other compounds than proteins, such as ribonucleic acid (RNA), miRNA and metabolites.

1.5.1. Genes

Genes studies focus on the total amount of RNA in a cell or organism. This includes protein-coding, noncoding, alternatively spliced, polymorphic, sense, antisense and edited RNA transcripts. Concentration levels of the RNA transcripts reflect the actively expressed genes at that moment (39). Meta-analysis studies on gene expression profiles being able to diagnose different forms of cancer have already been published (40, 41). RNA levels are earlier measurable in blood than proteins. Minutes after the vessel occluded RNA expression levels are already increased (42). This makes gene expression levels potentially interesting biomarkers for stroke diagnosis as IS has such a narrow therapeutic window.

1.5.2. MiRNA

MiRNA are a specific subgroup of RNA molecules. Most of them are approximately 22 nucleotides long, single-stranded strings. MiRNA strings play a silencing role in the regulation

of gene expression, they do not code for protein synthesis. Presumably, they regulate at least one-third of the human genome expression and play important roles in various physiologic processes, such as cell differentiation, development, metabolism and apoptosis. Literature suggests that 70 % of MiRNA are expressed in the brain, but only a small list of them is brain-specific (43). Several miRNA have already been identified as potential biomarkers for some forms of cancer (44-46). Numerous studies have been conducted to determine the value of miRNA as biomarkers for IS (47).

1.5.3. Proteins

Proteins are the most investigated group of molecules as potential biomarkers. As explained in section 1.4., stroke pathophysiology is well known on a protein level. The earliest studies for potential biomarkers were focused on single specific proteins, chosen because of their known role in stroke pathophysiology. The so called hypothesis-driven research method. These markers can be subdivided into brain specific markers, and non-brain specific markers. Brain specific markers include proteins involved in glial or neural cell degradation. Non-specific markers include hemostatic markers, (pro or anti)-inflammatory markers, markers of tissue destruction or indicators of oxidative stress (26).

With the advent of new diagnostic screening tests, a lot of proteins could be sequenced at once. The most important tests for protein testing include enzyme linked immune sorbent assays (ELISA), aptamer-based assays, MS, 2D gel electrophoresis (48).

1.5.4. Metabolites

Metabolites are substances that are intermediate- or end products of metabolic reactions. These substances are generally divided in hydrophilic compounds (sugars, carbohydrates, phosphorylated compounds, organic acids and amino acids) and hydrophobic compounds (fatty acids and membrane lipids). One of the attractive features of metabolite profiling in humans is the relatively small number of human metabolites. The human metabolome consists of approximately 5000 endogenous metabolites and up to 40000 exogenous (food, drugs, environmental contaminants, food additives, toxins and xenobiotics) (49). To put that into perspective, the human genome consists of 25000 genes and the proteome even consists of over 1 000 000 endogenous proteins (50).

1.5.5. Biomarker panel

At present, there is no single biomarker which clinically is useful as diagnostic test for IS. This is probably because of the heterogeneity of IS etiology and the involvement of several pathways in the pathophysiology (31). In addition, many biomarkers associated with ischemia are not stroke specific, and have been associated with other brain injuries or stroke mimics

(51). Therefore, a panel of biomarkers, that each represent a different pathophysiological pathway could be useful in stroke diagnosis (31). These biomarkers could provide information on atherosclerosis, thrombus formation, inflammation, oxidative stress, endothelial injury, blood brain barrier (BBB) disruption and cerebral ischemia (51). Earlier research on possible biomarker panels have shown improved sensitivity and specificity over single biomarkers.

1.6. Essential steps in IS pathophysiology and potential sources of biomarkers

The ischemic stroke pathophysiologic process encompasses a complex series of physiological, biochemical, molecular and genetic mechanisms (12). In this section of the master dissertation, certain essential steps in IS pathophysiology will be discussed and potential sources of biomarkers will be pointed out.

1.6.1. Markers of neuronal cell damage

The first step in ischemic stroke pathophysiology is a sudden drop in cerebral blood flow (CBF). In physiologic circumstances the brain receives 20% of the cardiac output at rest. Even a short period of ischemia can trigger a complex cascade that may result in permanent cerebral damage (33). Neurons deprived of oxygen and energy start showing signs of structural injury after only 2 minutes (52). Possible biomarkers for IS could therefore be cytoplasmatic molecules that were able to enter the bloodstream through cracks in the neuronal membranes. A well-researched example is neuron specific enolase (NSE). During physiological circumstances, NSE is a cytoplasmatic molecule involved with regulating intraneuronal chloride levels during neural activity. However, during neuronal hypoxia, NSE is released extracellular, making it detectable in the bloodstream and a possible biomarker for neuronal cell membrane damage (53). Several MiRNAs have also been linked to neuronal cell death. By stimulating key regulators of apoptosis after DNA damage, MiRNAs are able to decrease (or increase in some cases) ischemic neuronal apoptosis (54).

1.6.2. Markers of excitotoxicity

Excitotoxicity is considered to be an essential step for neuronal cell death in stroke. It can be defined as cell death due to toxic actions of excitatory amino acids, primarily glutamate. Although cytotoxic effects of glutamate are mediated through all kinds of glutamate receptors, the N-methyl-d-aspartate (NMDA) glutamate receptors are believed to be the key mediators of cell death during an ischemic insult (55, 56). Activation of these receptors causes an influx of Ca^{2+} ions into the neuronal cells, causing even more depolarization. Cell depolarization causes voltage-dependent Ca^{2+} channels to become activated and even more intracellular Ca^{2+} and glutamate are being released, closing the positive feedback loop. Through the mechanisms of

osmosis, water molecules tend to follow the ions into the neuronal cells through aquaporins, causing swelling of all the cellular elements of the brain. This phenomenon is referred to as cytotoxic edema (57). Once too much Ca^{2+} ions accumulate inside the cells, certain proteases, lipases, phosphatases and endonucleases are overstimulated. These enzymes cause extensive cellular damage: cell membrane disruption, DNA fragmentation, mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress (56, 57). MiRNA have been discovered that can influence this process. Previous rat model studies showed that MiRNA-125b targets the NR2A subunit of the NMDA receptors, and negatively regulates its expression level (58). Furthermore, metabolites of glutamate may be potential peripheral biomarkers for excitotoxicity during stroke. Glutamate itself cannot easily cross the BB and affect plasma levels. Its metabolites however, such as proline and pyroglutamate, can cross the BBB freely. Studies have already been published that found significant levels of these metabolites in serum samples (59).

1.6.3. Markers of oxidative stress

Oxidative damage has been shown to be a fundamental mechanism of brain and neuronal damage during episodes of ischemia (60).

It occurs when the critical balance between free radical production and endogenous scavenging capacity of cellular antioxidants is disrupted (33, 61). In physiological circumstances, neuronal cells are already prone to oxidative stress due to their high metabolic activity and oxygen consumption (56). In hypoxic circumstances high levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) are produced due to excitotoxicity as explained in section 1.6.2, extramitochondrial enzymes such as NADPH and metabolism of arachidonic acid (56, 62). The most important ROS in ischemic stroke pathophysiology are the superoxide anion (O_2^-) and the peroxynitrite radical (56, 57, 61). Once these compounds are produced, they promote lipid peroxidation, DNA damage, protein nitration and oxidation, depletion of antioxidant reserves and breakdown of the BBB (63). Studies have shown that genes encoding for antioxidant enzymes are upregulated at the gene level rodent brains under ischemic circumstances (64). Peroxidation of arachidonic acid, abundant in brain tissue, lead to the formation of F2-isoprostanes (F2Ips) (65).

During an ischemic event, glucose metabolism shifts into the anaerobic pathway. This should lead to an increased level hypoxanthine, pyruvate and uric acid (63).

1.6.4. Markers of inflammation

The inflammatory cascade starts almost immediately after stroke onset. A few minutes after the occlusion, the acute local damage is detected by pattern-recognition receptors (PRR). In response to these pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), these receptors send

out host-derived danger signals, so called damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs). Damp signals activate the immune system element in various neuronal cells: vasoactive mediators, proteases, tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) and proinflammatory cytokines (i.e. IL-1, IL-6) are being released (66). Microglia transform into phagocytes and again release TNF- α , interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β) and IL-6. Astrocytes also start secreting cytokines, chemokines and NO (67). These pro-inflammatory signals are key mediators in the BBB disruption. Beside matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) and oxidative stress, the BBB is also disrupted by adhesion molecules, which are regulated by the proinflammatory cytokines. 3 different kinds of adhesion molecule families play a role in BBB dysfunction: selectins, the immunoglobulin superfamily and integrins (57). Subsequently, activated neutrophils, lymphocytes or monocytes transmigrate into the brain parenchyma. (68).

At first, inflammation seems a negative thing due to neuronal death and BBB damage but at the same time, inflammation preserves brain tissue by auto limiting the pathological process and adapting the brain tissue after the insult (66).

1.6.5. Markers of BBB dysfunction

One of the hallmarks of ischemic stroke pathology is breakdown of the BBB. In physiological circumstances the BBB plays a vital role in maintaining the homeostatic environment of the brain. Under pathological conditions, the BBB can be disrupted. When the permeability of the BBB is increased, blood components can leak into the brain parenchyma (57, 69, 70). Matrix metalloproteinases, especially MMP-9, are activated by oxidative stress. These proteinases are capable of cleaving the tight junctions in the BBB (57, 68, 69).

A second way the BBB permeability is increased is by integrin breakdown. Integrins are transmembrane glycoprotein receptors that interact with the basal membrane of the BBB. During ischemic stroke integrins are rapidly degraded, causing BBB dysfunction (68). The consequence of this dysfunction is vasogenic edema. The increased permeability allows high molecular weight molecules to enter the brain parenchyma, passively followed by water due to osmosis. Vasogenic edema can cause secondary damage through increased intracranial pressure (57, 69). The BBB breakdown also seems to be biphasic. The first breakdown, described above, occurs within the first hours after stroke onset. 24 – 72 hours after the insult, a second breakdown occurs. The inflammatory response to the stroke leads to the induction of matrix metalloproteinase-3 (MMP-3) and MMP-9 in neutrophils that transmigrated through the BBB (3, 57, 69).

1.7. Goal of this master dissertation

Up to now, stroke remains to be one of the leading causes of death and long-term disability worldwide. Rapid diagnosis and management decisions are crucial due to the narrow

therapeutic time window. At this time, due to generally available diagnostic neuroimaging, diagnosing IS is most of the time straightforward. In occasions where imaging resources are limited however, blood-based biomarkers for the diagnosis of stroke may be of value. Also, in prehospital settings a reliable blood-based test could be helpful to facilitate early diagnosis and triage patients appropriately, since anamnesis and physical examination alone cannot provide a reliable diagnosis. The goal of this master dissertation is to give an answer to the following research question:

“Which biomarker(s) per group, show the most promise to differentiate IS patients from healthy controls?”

Biomarker groups being genes, miRNA, proteins and metabolites.

2. Methodology

2.1. Search strategy

A systematic literature search was conducted from 01/01/2000 up to 31/07/2020. Several search strings were prepared in advance and conducted in four well-known medical databases. All search strings consisted of a combination of medical subject headings (MeSH) terms and keywords with appropriate Boolean operators. Medline, EMBASE, google scholar and Web of science were searched. In part 7. Supplementary data, all performed searches are described with their total yield.

This first compilation of articles was purely based on title and abstract of the article, no articles were read in full at this moment. This preliminary search yielded in total 501 articles: Medline (n = 236), Embase (n = 42), Web of Science (n = 122), Google scholar (n = 101). After eliminating all doubles, 302 articles were read in full to check for eligibility for inclusion in the systematic review. The references of all papers were checked for potential studies that may have been eligible for inclusion as well, the so-called snowball method. In total 71 studies met the inclusion criteria and could be included in the systematic review.

2.2. Inclusion criteria

Studies were eligible to be included into this meta-analysis when they met following inclusion criteria:

1. They had, at least a part, case-control design. Several studies had a section case-control and a section case-mimics. These are included in this review, as long as data was extractable from the case-control section.
2. Study population consisted of adult humans and not animals.
3. Control population consisted of healthy individuals.
4. Blood samples needed to be drawn within 24 hours of symptom onset. When blood was drawn at several timepoints, the results of the blood draws closest to 24 hours after symptom onset were chosen for analysis.
5. Biomarkers needed to be used for diagnosis of ischemic stroke.

When these inclusion criteria were applied to the 302 found papers, 71 could be used in the systematic review.

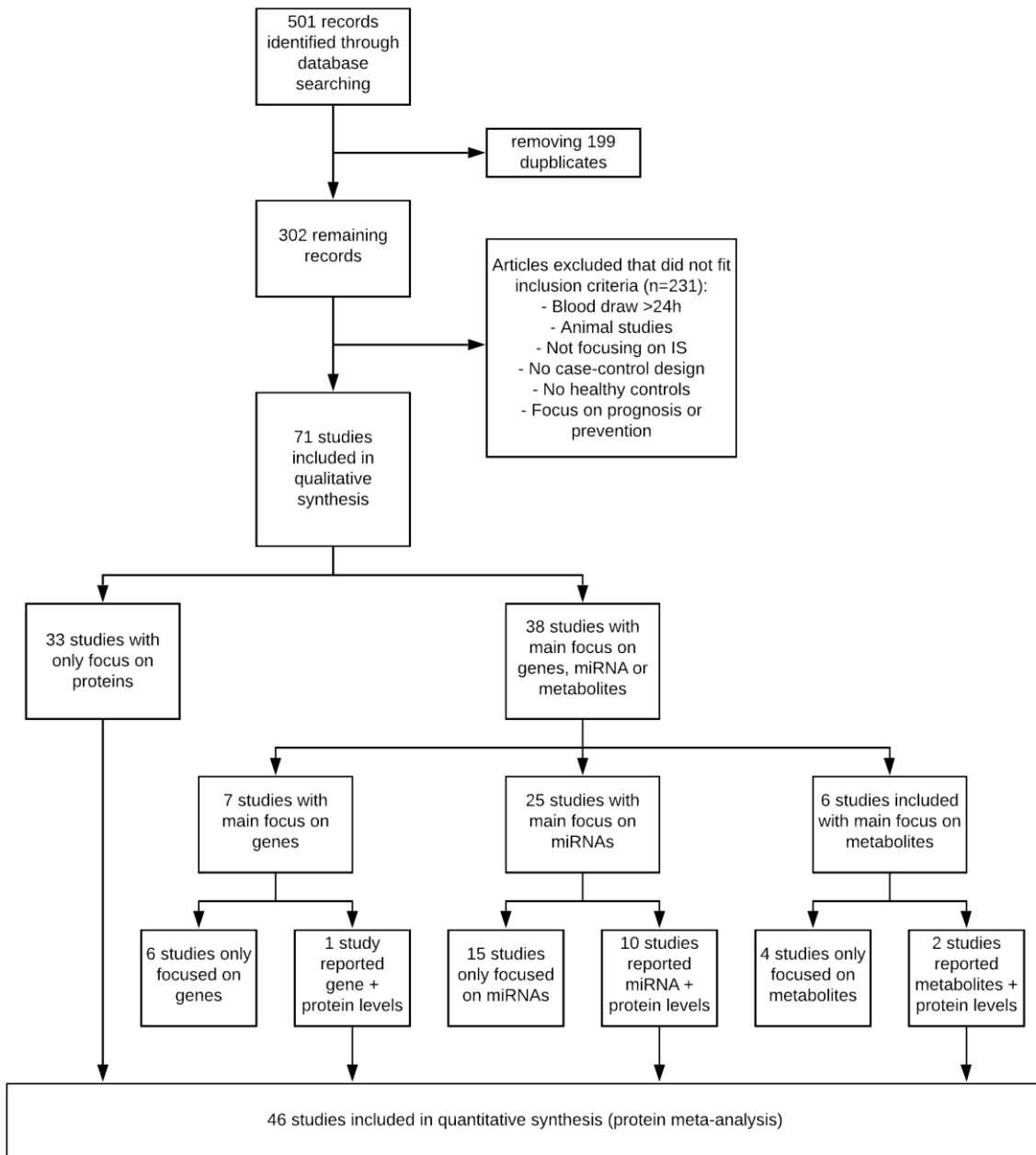


Figure 2: Prisma flowchart on article selection.

Of these 71, 33 solely reported protein biomarker levels and therefore could be directly included in the protein meta-analysis. The remaining 38 studies mainly focused on gene, MiRNA or metabolite levels. 13 of these 38 studies also reported several proteins in their study. These protein markers were not the main focus of the study, they did report concentration levels of them rather as patient characteristics instead of actual potential biomarkers. Incorporating these 13 studies in the protein meta-analysis meant that 46 studies could be included.

2.3. Data extraction

Once all studies that met the inclusion criteria had been identified, standardized forms were used to extract data. Each kind of biomarker had its specific form. Out of all studies following characteristics were extracted: Biomarker concentration levels, country of origin, sample size, method of ischemic stroke diagnosis, definition of healthy controls, exact time of blood draw, way of detecting biomarker levels and if applicable normalization/housekeeping genes. When certain data could not be extracted, or was only vaguely described, an attempt was made to contact the authors for clarification. Unfortunately, not all authors could be reached or even answered our request and therefore and certain data are missing in the database.

2.4. Quality assessment

Quality of the included studies was assessed using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) for quality assessment. The NOS is specifically designed for assessing nonrandomized case-control studies for systematic review/ meta-analysis inclusion. Its validity has been established based on a critical review of the items by several experts in the field who evaluated its clarity and completeness for the specific task of assessing the quality of studies to be used in a systematic review (71). It evaluates three quality parameters: selection, comparability of patients and controls, and exposure/outcome. These parameters are evaluated on the basis of 8 questions. Each question is scored from one point. In normal circumstances, the maximum for each study is 9 points, however we choose not to include the question “Is the non-response rate equal for both groups?” as this is not applicable for our included studies. Therefore, the maximum total points a study can acquire is 8. A study that acquires less than 5 points is qualified as a study with high risk of bias (72). The form that was used to examine each study and the individual scores can be viewed in section 7.5 of this master dissertation.

2.5. Statistical analysis

Proteins were the only category of biomarker which had sufficient data for performing a meta-analysis. All analyses were carried out by using Review Manager 5.3 (The Nordic Cochrane Centre, The Cochrane Collaboration, London, UK). All data was extracted using a predetermined form. Biomarker concentrations levels were treated as continuous outcomes. When biomarker levels were presented as medians and interquartile range, the formulas reported by Wan et al (73) were used to make an estimate of the mean and standard deviation (SD). When data was presented as median and range, the formulas reported by Hozo et al (74) were used to make an estimate of the mean and SD. Standard error of the mean was

converted to SD data with the help of the Revman calculator function. All biomarkers were converted to their SI-units through an online calculator. Because of this, the mean difference could be calculated as all studies use the same outcome measure for one biomarker, as well as a 95% confidence interval (CI). All analyses are depicted as forest plots, see figure 3 to 8. The x-axis forms the effect scale, plotted on the bottom of the plot. Each row represents a study's effect size estimate in the form of a cube and the 95% CI. When the CI line does not cross the vertical line of no effect, the results can be considered as significant (75). The 95%CI generated by the combined studies is represented as a black diamond shape. The same principle applies here as in the individual studies. If the edges of the diamond do not cross the vertical line of no effect, the result can be considered as significant. For estimating the extent of heterogeneity between studies, the I^2 value was calculated. I^2 is a measure for the proportion of observed variance that reflects real differences in effect size (76). An I^2 value less of 40% is considered as an index for low heterogeneity. 40%-60% values are considered as moderate heterogeneity between studies and values over 60% represent a substantial amount of heterogeneity, according to the "Cochrane collaboration". The protein biomarkers are further classified in different subgroups based on their function. 6 different groups could be identified: metabolic, brain specific, endocrine, inflammatory, hemostatic and other protein groups.

3. Results

3.1. Genes

3.1.1 Study characteristics of studies with main focus on gene expression

Study characteristics of gene expression are summarized in table 1 below. The publication years ranged from 2006 to 2019. 4 studies were conducted in the USA (77-80), one in Europe (81) and two in Asia (82, 83). In total, gene expression profiles were examined from 203 IS patients and 131 healthy controls. Several different sorts of detecting and normalization methods have been used to determine the gene expression level: Microarrays, quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) and reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) all have different ways of detecting gene levels. Stamova et al (79) tested the same genes discovered by Tang et al (80) in an effort to confirm their findings and improve the power of the research. They increased the cohort size of 15 AIS patients to 70 in which they determined the expression levels of the following genes: Hox 1.11, CKAP4, S100A9, MMP9, S100P, F5, FPR1, S100A12, RNASE2, ARG1, CA4, LY96, SLC16A6, HIST2HAA, ets-2, BCL6, PYGL and NPL. Stamova et al (79) and Tang et al (80) were the only studies that drew blood samples at different timepoints within 24 hours after symptom onset. Most genes that differentiated AIS from HC at 3h after symptom onset, stayed differentially expressed at 24 hours after symptom onset.

Only 1 study showed little risk of bias. All other studies showed significant risk of bias according to the modified NOS. The most frequent methodological shortcoming was failure to include consecutive stroke patients and community-based control group subjects. Oh et al (82). was the only study to correct for age, gender and stroke risk factors between AIS and HC.

Table 1: Main characteristics of 7 included studies on gene expression levels.

Author	Year	Country	Sample size		Time since symptom onset	Detecting method	Specimen	normalization	Quality assessment
			Cases	Controls					
Barr et al (77)	2012	Maryland, USA	39	24	<24 h	Microarray qRT-PCR	whole blood	Beta-actin	3
Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)	2008	Germany	20	15	<24 h	microarray	PBMC	GC-RMA	4
O'Connell et al (78)	2016	Maryland, USA	39	30	Median time 5.3 h	Microarray qPCR	whole blood	B2M, PPIB, ACTB	3
Oh et al (82)	2012	Korea	12	12	<24 h	Microarray RT-PCR	whole blood	quartile method 18s rRNA	6
Pan et al (83)	2019	China	8	4	4 h	qRT-PCR	Whole blood	Beta-actin	3
Stamova et al (79)	2010	California, USA	70	38	<3h, 5h and 24h	microarray	whole blood	RMA internal-gene	4

Tang et al (80) 2006 California, USA 15 8 <3h, 5h and 24h microarray whole blood RMA quantile method 3

Abbreviations: PBMC, peripheral blood mononuclear cells; GC-RMA, genechip robust multiarray averaging; B2m, beta-2 microglobulin; PPIB, Peptidylprolyl Isomerase B; ACTB, actin beta; rRNA: ribosomal RNA; RMA, robust multi array averaging

3.1.2. Gene expression levels

The results of the systematic review of gene expression profiles is presented in table 2. Genes are ordered alphabetically. Only genes that were significantly differently expressed between groups in at least one study are represented. In total 63 genes were reported to be significantly up or downregulated. Of these 63 only 12 were reported in 2 different studies and 2 (MMP-9 and S100A12) were reported significantly in 3 studies. Relative expression ratios differed a lot between studies. No diagnostic accuracy testing was performed on single genes, therefore no ROC, AUC, sensitivity or specificity data could be extracted.

Table 2: Gene expression profile of single genes.

Genes	RER*	AUC (95%CI)	Sensitivity	Specificity	Study
ACSL1	2.19				Oh et al (82)
AKT2	0.93				Pan et al (83)
ANTXR2	1.2				O'Connell et al (78)
APLP2	6.31				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
ARG1	3.5				Barr et al (77)
	3.3				Tang et al (80)
BCL6	5.01				Grond-Ginsbach et al (74)
	2.5				Tang et al (80)
BIRC1	2.51				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
C19orf59	3.83				Oh et al (82)
C21orf45	0.16				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
C5orf21	0.251				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
CA4	2.12				Barr et al (77)
	2.3				Tang et al (80)
CCR7	0.48				Barr et al (77)
CCRL2	1.03				Pan et al (83)
CCL3	1.76				Pan et al (83)
CCL3L3	2.14				Pan et al (83)
CD151	7.94				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
CD163	3.98				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
	1.9				O'Connell et al (78)
CD36	6.31				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
CKAP4	2.0				Tang et al (80)
CLC	0.25				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
COL4A4	0.22				Pan et al (83)
CSPG2	2.09				Barr et al (77)
	2.51				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
CTS2	1.3				O'Connell et al (78)
CXCL2	1.48				Pan et al (83)
CYBB	7.94				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
EGR1	2.03				Pan et al (83)
EGR2	2.98				Pan et al (83)
EOMES	0.45				Oh et al (82)
Ets-2	2.1				Tang et al (80)
F5	1.99				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
	2.0				Tang et al (80)
FCGR1A	7.94				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
FLJ22662	1.58				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
FPR1	2.1				Tang et al (80)
GNLY	0.45				Oh et al (82)
GNG12	2.05				Pan et al (83)
GRAP	0.71				O'Connell et al (78)
GUCY1B3	19.95				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
HIST2H2A	1.9				Tang et al (80)
Hox 1.11	2.4				Tang et al (80)
ID3	0.63				O'Connell et al (78)
IL18R1	2.11				Oh et al (82)
IL18RAP	3.40				Oh et al (82)
IL1R2	3.21				Oh et al (82)
IL3RA	1.68				Pan et al (83)
IQGAP1	2.03				Barr et al (77)
JUN	1.32				Pan et al (83)
KIF1B	1.6				O'Connell et al (78)
LOC642103	2.54				Oh et al (82)
LTA4H	1.99				Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
LY96	1.8				Barr et al (77)
	3.6				Tang et al (80)
MAL	0.71				O'Connell et al (78)
MGAM	2.48				Oh et al (82)
MMP9	2,64				Barr et al (77)

	3.40	Oh et al (82)
	2.00	Tang et al (80)
NKG7	2.05	Oh et al (82)
NPL	5.01	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
	2.2	Tang et al (80)
ORM1	2.27	Barr et al (77)
PDE4D	0.25	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
PDK4	1.7	O'Connell et al (78)
PPP2CA	0.72	Pan et al (83)
PRUNE	5.01	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
PYGL	2.51	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
	3.9	Tang et al (80)
RNALSE2	7.94	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
	2.8	Tang et al (80)
S100A9	1.9	Tang et al (80)
S100A12	2.35	Barr et al (77)
	2.51	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
	2.9	Tang et al (80)
SIRPA	3.98	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
SLC16A6	1.9	Tang et al (80)
STK3	1.5	O'Connell et al (78)
TJP2	7.94	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
TLR2	5.01	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
TRAPPC6	0.20	Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)
VASP	0.86	Pan et al (83)
XCL1	2.10	Pan et al (83)

Abbreviations: RER, relative expression ratio

*Relative expression ratios are calculated as AIS patients over healthy controls.

MMP-9 was consistently reported as upregulated by Barr et al (77) (Fold change = 2.7), Oh et al (82) (Fold change = 3.4) and Tang et al (80) (Fold change = 2). Tang et al drew blood at 3h, 5h and 24 hours after symptom onset. In all 3 data sets, MMP-9 stayed consistently upregulated (fold change 3h = 3.2, 5h = 3.7, 24h = 2.7). Quality assessment of these 3 studies showed that only Oh et al (82) had a low risk of bias according to the NOS (6/8). Tang et al (3/8) and Barr et al (3/8) both showed a large risk for possible bias.

S100A12 also was reported as upregulated by 3 independent studies: Barr et al (Fold change = 2.35), Grond-Ginsbach et al (81) (Fold change = 2.51) and Tang et al (80) (Fold change = 2.9). It stayed consistently upregulated with the first 24h at 3h (Fold change = 2.2), 5h (Fold change = 3.1) and 24h (Fold change = 2.9). Quality assessment of these 3 studies showed that all three had a large risk of bias. Tang et al (3/8), Barr et al (3/8) and Grond-Ginsbach et al (4/8) all had scores lower than 5/9. Several studies tested gene panels as diagnostic tool. These results are presented in table 3 below. no cutoff or AUC values were presented, only sensitivity/ specificity was extractable.

Table 3: gene expression profile of gene panels.

Gene Panel	RER*	AUC	Sensitivity	specificity	Study
10 gene panel (NTXR2, STK3, PDK4, CD163, MAL, GRAP, ID3, CTSZ, KIF1B and PLXDC2)			92.3%	100%	O'Connell et al (78)
18 gene panel (Hox 1.11, CKAP4, S100A9, MMP9, S100P, F5, FPR1, S100A12, RNASE2, ARG1, CA4, LY96, SLC16A6, HIST2HAA, ets-2, BCL6, PYGL and NPL)			88.9%	100%	Tang et al (80)
34 gene panel (OSBPL1, PHTF1, CKLF, Rragd, CLEC4E, CKLF, FGD4, CPEB2, LOC100, UBXN2B, ENTPD1, BST1, LTB4R, F5, IFRD1, KIAA031, CHMP1B, MCTP1, VNN3, AMN1, LAMP2, FCH02, ZNF608, REM2, QKI, RBM25, FAR2, ST3GAL, NRNP, GAB1, UBR5, VAPA, THBD)			87.7%	94.7%	Stamova et al (79)

Abbreviations: RER, relative expression ratio

*Relative expression ratios are calculated as AIS patients over healthy controls.

3.2. MicroRNA

3.2.1. Study characteristics of studies with main focus on miRNA expression levels

A summary of the characteristics of the cases and controls included in the 25 studies is presented in table 4. The publication years of these records ranged from 2013 to 2020. In total, miRNA expression levels were examined from 2258 AIS patients and 1526 HC. Most of the studies were conducted in China. Only two studies conducted outside Asia met the inclusion criteria (84) (85). Because of this the dominant ethnicity of patients was Asian. The expression level of miRNA was usually detected by quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) or microarray. When both microarray and qRT-PCR data were available both were reported. The specimen in which expression levels were determined varied between studies. 10 studies detected expression levels in plasma, 12 in serum, 2 in whole blood and 1 in serum exosomes. Different normalization genes were used to normalise the expression levels. The most common used gene was snRNA-U6. One study conducted by Leung et al used a different format for detecting expression levels. Instead of using a normalization gene they reported their findings in copy number variants (CNV), also known as absolute quantification (86). 5 studies had an inclusion criteria of blood draw within 6 hours after symptom onset (87-91). 15 out of the 25 studies had an NOS score of at least 5/8, indicating a small risk of bias.

Table 4: Main characteristics of 25 included studies on microRNA expression levels.

Author	Year	Country	Sample size		Time since symptom onset	Detecting method	Specimen	normalization	Quality assessment
			Cases	Controls					
Chen et al (92)	2018	China	30	30	<24h	qRT-PCR	Serum	snRNA-U6	6
Cheng et al (87)	2018	China	77	42	<6h	qRT-PCR	Serum	snRNA-U6	5
Giordano et al	2019	Italy	18	20	<24h	qRT-PCR	Plasma	syn-cel-lin-39	3
Gui et al (93)	2019	China	87	13	<24h	qRT-PCR	Serum	snRNA-U6	6
Huang et al (94)	2016	China	346	346	<12h	qRT-PCR	Serum	Beta-actin	6
Ji et al (95)	2016	China	65	66	+16,5h	qRT-PCR	Serum exosomes	cel-mir-39	3
Jia et al (96)	2015	China	146	96	<24h	qRT-PCR	Serum	snRNA-U6	5
Leung et al (86)	2014	Japan	74	23	<24h	qRT-PCR	Plasma	N/A, absolute quantification	4
Li et al (97)	2015	China	53	50	<24h	Microarray qRT-PCR	Whole blood	syn-cel-lin-39	6
Long et al (98)	2013	China	197	50	24h	qRT-PCR	Plasma	snRNA-U6	6
Ma et al (88)	2018	China	33	20	<6h	qRT-PCR	Plasma	snRNA-U6	5
Peng et al (99)	2015	China	72	51	4,5h < 24h	qRT-PCR	Serum	18S rRNA	4
Sepramiam et al (100)	2014	singapore	68	24	<24h	Microarray qPCR	Whole blood	snRNA-U6	3
Tian et al (89)	2016	China	33	23	<6h	Microarray qRT-PCR	Plasma	cel-mir-54	5
Tiedt et al (84)	2017	Germany	40	40	<24h	microarray qRT-PCR	Plasma	DESeq2 and EdgeR	5
Wang et al (101)	2014	China	76	116	<24h	Microarray qRT-PCR	Plasma	snRNA-U6	4

Wang et al (90)	2017	China	78	39	<6h	qRT-PCR	Serum	snRNA-U6	5
Wang et al (91)	2018	china	143	24	<6h	qRT-PCR	Plasma	snRNA-U6	4
Wang et al (102)	2019	China	40	40	<24h	qRT-PCR	Serum	snRNA-U6	4
Wu et al (103)	2015	China	106	120	<24h	qRT-PCR	Serum	snRNA-U6	6
Wu et al (104)	2017	China	50	50	<24h	TLDA qRT-PCR	Serum	let-7d/g/i	5
Yang et al(105)	2016	China	114	58	<24h	qRT-PCR	Plasma	snRNA-U6	6
Yang et al (106)	2020	China	76	60	<24h	qRT-PCR	Serum	snRNA-U6	3
Zhao et al (107)	2016	China	168	104	<24h	qRT-PCR	Serum	Cel-mir-39	4
Zhang et al (108)	2014	China	68	21	<24h	RT-PCR qRT-PCR	Plasma	snRNA-U6 cel-mir-39	5

3.2.2. MiRNA expression levels

The miRNAs identified as differentially expressed between controls and stroke patients differs greatly among the studies and are summarized in table 5. 59 miRNAs were reported as significantly differentially expressed of which 18 recurred in at least 2 separate studies. 11 were reported to be strictly downregulated, 41 strictly upregulated and 7 were reported as both. Mir-let-7b, mir-let-7e, mir-16, mir-17-5p, mir-30a, mir-126 and mir-221 were the only miRNA significantly different expressed in 3 separates studies.

20 of the included studies conducted receiver operator characteristic (ROC) analyses to examine the diagnostic potential of several miRNAs. ROC analyses plot sensitivity versus 1-specificity across varying cut-offs generating a curve. This curve is called the ROC curve. The area under the curve (AUC) is an effective and combined measure of sensitivity and specificity that describes the inherent validity of diagnostic tests (109). If AUC = 1, this means that the diagnostic test is perfect in differentiating between the stroke patients and healthy controls (110).

Table 5: MicroRNA expression levels of single microRNA

miRNA	RER*	AUC (95%CI)	Sensitivity	Specificity	Study
Let-7b	3.34	0.93 (0.879-0.98)	84%	92%	Long et al (98)
	0.70	0.83 (0.76-0.93)	83%	85%	Gui et al (93)
	0.46				Chen et al (92)
Let-7d	1.83				Tiedt et al (84)
Let-7i-5p	1.58				Tiedt et al (84)
Let-7e	1.36	0.92 (0.86-1)	89%	90%	Gui et al (93)
	UP	0.74 (0.70-0.78)			Huang et al (94)
	UP	0.86 (0.75-0.97)	82.8%	73.4%	Peng et al (99)
7-2-3p	2.12	0.87 (0.80-0.95)			Gui et al (93)
	2.05	0.85 (0.78-0.92)			Gui et al (93)
9-3p	4.09	0.80 (0.72-0.89)			Ji et al (95)
15a	8.3	0.70 (0.559-0.837)			Wu et al (103)
	0.57				Chen et al (92)
16	1.33				Leung et al (86)
	UP	0.78	69.7%	87%	Tian et al (89)
	4.2	0.82 (0.71-0.931)			Wu et al (103)
	1.32				Chen et al (92)
17-5p	1.77				Tiedt et al (84)
	9.9	0.78 (0.666-0.903)			Wu et al (103)
	0.93				Chen et al (92)
21	9.85			Chen et al (92)	
21-5p	1.77	0.73 (0.667-0.801)			Wu et al (104)
	0.252				Zhang et al (108)
23a	0.33				Chen et al (92)
	0.13				Jia et al (96)
23b-3p	2.45	0.851(0.802-0.899)			Wu et al (104)
24-3p	0.29				Zhang et al (108)
27a	3.75	0.89 (0.77-1.01)			Sepramaniam et al (100)
27b-3p	UP	0.67 (0.53-0.80)	50%	79%	Cheng et al (87)
29b	6.0629				Chen et al (92)
29b-3p	1.66	0.79 (0.734-0.848)			Wu et al (104)
30a	0.28	0.91 (0.869-0.979)	80%	94%	Long et al (98)
	0.60				Gui et al (93)
	5.7	0.83(0.665-0.998)			Wang et al (91)
32-3p	1.57				Li et al (97)
	0.57				Chen et al (92)
93	DOWN				Ma et al (88)
106-5p	1.74				Li et al (97)
	UP	0.96 (0.93-0.99)			Wang et al(101)
107	2.78	0.97 (0.929-0.991)	94%	92%	Yang et al (105)
124-3p	12.05	0.70(0.6506-0.7895)			Ji et al (95)
	5.09				Wang et al (102)
125a	1.36	0.87 (0.80-0.96)	87%	82%	Gui et al (93)
125a-5p	1.8				Tiedt et al (84)
125-b	1.372	0.91 (0.89-0.96)	86%	87%	Gui et al (93)
125b-5p	2.54				Tiedt et al (84)
125b-2	1.80	0.95 (0.89-1.02)			Sepramaniam et al (100)
126	0.06	0.92 (0.879-0.978)	84%	92%	Long et al (98)
	0.54				Gui et al (93)
	0.54				Chen et al (92)
126-5p	1.99				Tiedt et al (84)
128b	1.83	0.90 (0.853-0.953)	73%	92%	Yang et al (105)
130a-5p	3.73				Tiedt et al (84)
134	DNE	0.83 (0.88-0.97)			Zhou et al (111)
135b	4.2	0.78 (0.69-0.87)	79%	65%	Yang et al (106)
143-3p	1.44				Tiedt et al (84)
145	5.28				Chen et al (92)
	3.48				Jia et al (96)
146b	13.93	0.78 (0.628-0.813)			Chen et al (92)
148b-3p	DOWN	0.66 (0.49-0.84)	51%	80%	Cheng et al (87)
151b	UP	0.69 (0.54-0.83)	43%	93%	Cheng et al (87)
153	2.13	0.89 (0.837-0.950)	91%	74%	Yang et al (105)
181a-5p	1.39				Tiedt et al (84)
	1.45	0.68 (0.608-0.76)			Wu et al (104)
195-5p	4.59				Giordano et al (85)
221	0.14				Chen et al (92)
	0.07				Jia et al (96)

	DNE	0.81 (0.73-0.90)			Wang et al (90)
320d	0.07	0.99 (0.972-1)			Wang et al(101)
320e	0.13	0.98 (0.963-1)			Wang et al(101)
335	DOWN	0.90 (0.86-0.93)	97.6%	69.2%	Zhao et al (107)
	0.26				Gui et al (93)
378a-3p	1.23				Tiedt et al (84)
382-5p	DNE	0.75 (0.63-0.87)			Wang et al (101)
	0.53				Gui et al (93)
422a	0.002	0.92 (0.82-1.02)			Sepramaniam et al (100)
423-3p	2.14				Tiedt et al (84)
451	7.06				Giordano et al (85)
488	2.12	0.87 (0.75-1)			Sepramaniam et al (100)
532-5p	0.37				Li et al (97)
	1.54				Tiedt et al (84)
627	3.99	0.54 (0.7-0.98)			Sepramaniam et al (100)
920	3.48	0.81 (0.68-0.94)			Sepramaniam et al (100)
1246	1.93				Li et al (97)
1908	0.386	0.81 (0.73-0.88)			Gui et al (93)
	0.653	0.79 (0.72-0.87)			Gui et al (93)

Abbreviations: RER, relative expression ratio; AUC, area under curve

*Relative expression ratios are calculated as AIS patients over healthy controls.

Mir-let-7b expression levels were reported as significantly by three independent studies ((92, 93, 98), twice downregulated and once as upregulated. Quality assessment of these studies showed that all 3 had a low risk for potential bias: long et al 6/8, Huang et al 6/8 and Peng et al 6/8 as well.

Mir-let-7e expression levels were reported as significantly by three independent studies (93, 94, 99), three times as upregulated. All three studies also performed ROC analysis, reported AUC values of 0.92, 0.74 and 0.86. Average time of blood draw was less than <12 hours in the study conducted by Huang et al, which shows that mir-let-7e is consistently elevated in the first 24 hours. Unfortunately, no study has expression levels earlier than 12 hours after symptom onset. Quality assessment of these studies showed that 2 of these had low risk and 1 had high risk of bias: Gui et al 6/8, Huang et al 6/8 and Peng et al 4/8.

Mir-16 expression levels were reported as significantly by four independent studies (80)(84)(86)(92), four times as upregulated. Two of these studies also performed ROC analysis, reporting AUC values of 0.78 and 0.82. Average time of blood draw was less than 6 hours in the study conducted by Tian et al, which suggest mir-16 might be a potential biomarker to use in clinical practice within the therapeutic window. Quality assessment of these studies showed that 3 of these had low risk and 1 had high risk of bias: Chen et al 6/8, Leung et al 4/8, Tian et al 5/8, and Wu et al 6/8.

Mir-17-5p expression levels were reported as significantly by three independent studies (85)(86)(92). Two times as upregulated, one time as downregulated. No explanation could be found why this differed between studies. One study performed ROC analysis, reporting an AUC value of 0.78. Quality assessment of these studies showed that 2 of these had low risk and 1 had high risk of bias: Chen et al 6/8, Tiedt 5/8 and Wu et al 6/8.

Mir-30a expression levels were reported as significantly by three independent studies (98) (93) (91). Two times as downregulated, one time as upregulated. Wang et al (91) drew blood at <6

hours since symptom onset, and at 24h-72h. In these samples mir-30a was also downregulated instead of up. Possibly, upregulation of mir-30a is specific for the first few hours after stroke onset. Two studies performed ROC analysis, reporting AUC values of 0.91 and 0.83. Quality assessment of these studies showed that 2 of these had low risk and 1 had high risk of bias: Long et al 6/8, Gui et al 6/8 and Wang 4/8.

Mir-126 expression levels were reported as significantly by three independent studies (98) (92, 93), three times as downregulated. One study performed ROC analysis, reporting an AUC value of 0.92. Quality assessment of these studies showed that all 3 of these had low risk of bias: Long et al 6/8, Gui et al 6/8 and Chen 6/8.

Mir-221 expression levels were reported as significantly by three independent studies (90, 92, 96), three times as downregulated. One study performed ROC analysis, reporting an AUC value of 0.92. Average time of blood draw was less than 6 hours in the study conducted by Wang et al, which suggests mir-221 might be a potential biomarker to use in clinical practice within the therapeutic window. Quality assessment of these studies showed that all 3 of these had low risk of bias: Chen et al 6/8, Jia et al 5/8 and Wang et al 5/8.

3 of the included studies conducted ROC analyses on panels of miRNA biomarkers. These results can be found in table 6. Tiedt et al (84) reported results on 2 different panels. The first panel consisted of mir-125a-5p, mir-125b-5p and mir-143-3p. These 3 miRNAs were earlier identified as significantly different expressed in the discovery step of the study. This biomarker panel was able to distinguish patients from controls with an AUC of 0.927. The second panel consisted of the same 3 miRNA + mir-let7d-3p + mir-126-5p + mir-423-3p. The biomarker panel had an AUC value of 0.834. Wu et al tested a different 3 miRNA panel. First, they tested the miRNA individually, this yielded AUC values of 0.698, 0.82 and 0.784 for mir-15a, mir-16 and mir-17-5p respectively. When combined, a synergistic effect could be observed: the panel had an AUC value of 0.845. Wu et al (104) tested a panel that consisted of mir-23b-3p + mir-29b-3p + mir-181a-5p + mir-21-5p. They reported an AUC of 0.883. Furthermore, Chen et al tested several combinations of mir-148b, mir-27-3p and mir-151b (92).

Table 6: MicroRNA expression profile of microRNA panels.

miRNA	AUC (95%CI),	Sensitivity	specificity	Study
125a-5p +125b-5p + 143-3p	0.927			Tiedt et al (84)
125a-5p +125b-5p + 143-3p + let-7d-3p + 126-5p + 423-3p	0.834			Tiedt et al (84)
15a +16+17-5p	0.845(0.74-0.949)			Wu et al (104)
23b-3p + 29b-3p + 181 a-5p + 21-5p	0.883 (0.84-0.93)			Wu et al (104)
148b + 151b	0.73 (0.59-0.87)			Cheng et al (87)
148b+27b-3p	0.81 (0.70-0.92)			Cheng et al (87)
151b+27b-3p	0.7143 (0.58-0.85)			Cheng et al (87)
148b+151b+27b-3p	0.77 (0.65-0.89)			Cheng et al (87)

3.3. Proteins

3.3.1. Study characteristics of studies with main focus on protein expression levels

Study characteristics of studies with the main focus on proteins are summarized in table 7 below. In total 46 studies are included in the meta-analysis, however 13 of them were focusing other groups of biomarkers and therefore their study characteristics are discussed elsewhere. Using the mean and standard deviation (SD) of each reported biomarker, a meta-analysis could be performed. The publication years ranged from 2001 to 2020. 13 studies were conducted in Europe, 13 in Asia, 2 in South-America, 2 in Africa and 3 in North-America. In total, protein expression levels were examined from 4139 IS patients and 3371 healthy controls. As all proteins were detected using specific analyzers, ELISA techniques or immunoassays, there was no need for normalization genes.

Several studies measured certain protein biomarkers several times within 24 hours after symptom onset to evaluate the progression within the first few hours (112-115).

19 of the 33 studies showed little risk of bias according to the modified NOS (113, 114, 116-132). The most common shortcoming was failure to include consecutive stroke patients. Alfieri et al (117), Kelly et al(114) and Ning et al(113) showed almost no risk of bias according to the NOS.

Table 7: Main characteristics of 33 included studies on protein expression levels.

Author	Year	Country	Sample size		Time since symptom onset	Detecting method	Specimen	normalization	Quality assessment
			Cases	Controls					
Ageno et al (133)	2002	Italy	26	21	<24h	D-dimer assay	Plasma		3
Alfieri et al (117)	2020	Brazil	176	176	<24h	ELISA/ auto-analyzers	Serum		7
Algin et al (116)	2019	Turkey	75	28	<4h	ELISA	Serum		5

Allard et al (118)	2004	Switzerland	26	12	+/- 3h	nanoLC-ESI-MS/MS ELISA	Plasma	5
Alvarez-Perez et al (134)	2011	Spain	200	50	<24h	immunoassay	Plasma	4
Augello et al (119)	2018	USA	24	26	<24h	ELISA	Plasma	5
Ben-assayag et al (120)	2010	Israel	264	264	<24h	ELISA	Plasma	5
Can et al (135)	2015	Turkey	50	34	<12h	ELISA	Serum	4
Cano et al (136)	2001	Venezuela	15	15	<24h	Colorimetric assay	Serum	4
Castellanos et al (137)	2002	Spain	113	43	<24h	ELISA	Plasma	3
Cha et al (138)	2002	Korea	45	24	<24h	Flow cytometry	Serum	4
Dambinova et al (139)	2003	Russia	31	230	<24h	ELISA	Serum	4
De Marchis et al (140)	2019	Switzerland	783	359	<24h	ELISA	Plasma	4
Demir et al (115)	2012	Turkey	32	30	0-6h 12-24h	ELISA	Plasma	4
Eldeeb et al (121)	2020	Egypt	60	30	<24h	ELISA	Serum	6
Fan et al (122)	2017	China	197	192	<24h	Immunoassay	Serum	5
Kelly et al (114)	2007	Ireland	52	27	<8h <24h	ELISA	Plasma	7
Kim et al (123)	2010	Korea	139	57	+/- 6h	immunoassay	Plasma	5
Kuwashiro et al (124)	2014	Japan	171	171	<24h	Multiplex immunoassays	Plasma	5
Lu et al (141)	2009	Taiwan	120	120	<24h	ELISA	Plasma	3
Ma et al (125)	2020	China	288	300	<24u	ELISA	Serum	6
Mazzotta et al (142)	2004	Italy	18	25	<24u	ELISA	Plasma	2
Menon et al (126)	2020	India	100	100	<24u	FRAP assay	Serum	5
Nadar et al (127)	2004	United Kingdom	59	51	<24h	ELISA	Plasma	5
Ning et al (113)	2006	Boston, USA	52	26	<8h <24h	ELISA	Plasma	7
Oraby et al (143)	2019	Egypt	50	50	<24h	ELISA	Serum	4
Perini et al (128)	2001	Italy	42	39	<24h	ELISA	Serum	5
Rajeshwar et al (144)	2012	India	581	575	<24h	ELISA	Serum	4
Ren et al (129)	2016	China	79	57	<24h	ELISA	Serum	5
Shenhar-Tsarfaty et al (130)	2008	Israel	196	196	<24h	Several analysers	Plasma	6
Waje-Adreassen et al (112)	2005	Norway	11	9	<4h <8h <12h <24h	ELISA	Serum	4
Walsh et al (131)	2016	Ohio, USA	14	14	<12h	Multiplex assays ELISA	Plasma	6

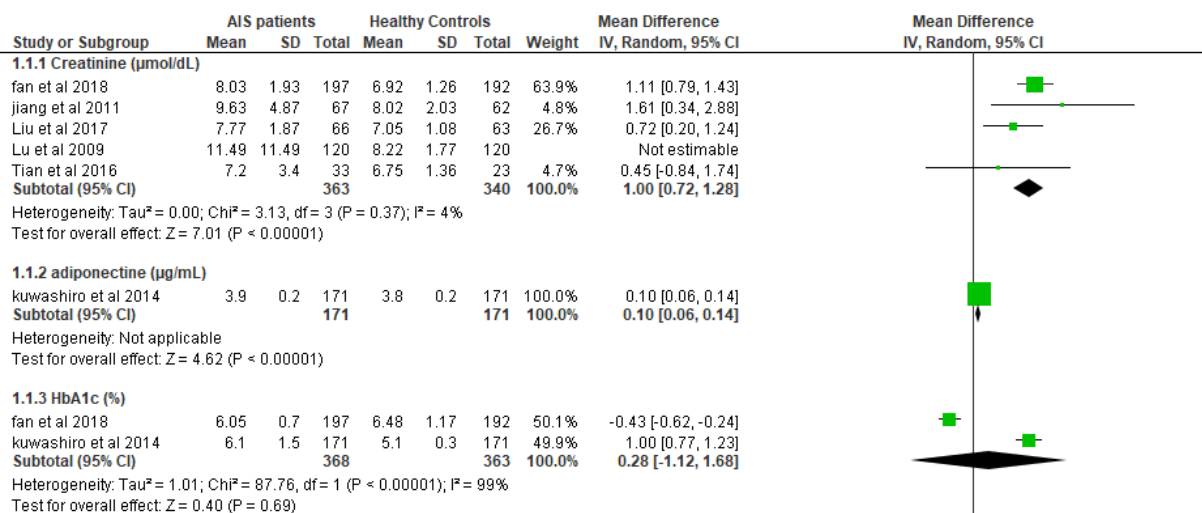
3.3.2. Meta-analysis on protein biomarkers

3.3.2.1. Metabolic protein biomarkers

In figure 3 the forest plot of metabolic biomarkers is illustrated. These are substances that play a role in the human metabolism, not to be confused with metabolites (substances that are intermediate- or end products of metabolic reactions). 11 Different biomarkers could be included in the meta-analysis: creatinine, adiponectin, HbA1c, total cholesterol levels, HDL, LDL, triglycerides, glucose, ApoA1, ApoB and LpA. ApoB and adiponectin were only reported in one study, therefore no meta-analysis could be conducted. Most lipids enlisted in this meta-analysis were not investigated as potential biomarkers, but rather reported as patient characteristics by the studies (82, 89, 90, 97, 98, 101, 103, 104, 145, 146).

Creatinine and HDL were the only metabolic protein markers reported as statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). However, only creatinine has an I^2 of below 60% representing moderate heterogeneity. While HDL has an I^2 of over 90% indicating substantial heterogeneity between studies. No combination of studies could be made to lower the heterogeneity to acceptable levels for HDL. The I^2 value of creatinine dropped to 4% when the study of Lu et al (141) was excluded. When examined closer, a human error is most likely the cause for the divergent results presented by Lu et al (141). They reported IS creatinine levels with a mean of 114.9 mmol/L and standard deviation of 114.9 as well. Of the 5 studies that reported creatinine levels, 3 had a low risk of bias (122, 146) (89) and 2 had a high risk of bias (145) (141).

Figure 3: forest plot on metabolic protein markers.



1.1.4 Total cholesterol (mmol/L)

Alfieri et al 2020	4.44	0.14	176	4.94	176	0		Not estimable
alvarez-perez et al 2011	4.87	1.23	200	5.21	1.07	50	6.2%	-0.34 [-0.68, 0.00]
Cha et al 2002	5.24	1.22	45	4.65	1.03	24	4.5%	0.59 [0.05, 1.13]
fan et al 2018	4.53	0.98	197	3.98	0.67	192	7.5%	0.55 [0.38, 0.72]
jiang et al 2011	5.11	2.25	67	4.08	0.68	62	4.4%	1.03 [0.47, 1.59]
Li et al 2015	4.98	0.16	117	4.67	0.07	82	8.0%	0.31 [0.28, 0.34]
Liu et al 2017	4.99	1.38	66	5.39	0.94	63	5.6%	-0.40 [-0.81, 0.01]
Long et al 2013	4.31	0.56	38	4.52	0.48	50	7.1%	-0.21 [-0.43, 0.01]
Lu et al 2009	5	1.1	120	5.5	1	120	6.8%	-0.50 [-0.77, -0.23]
Ma et al 2019	4.75	0.8	288	4.82	0.93	300	7.6%	-0.07 [-0.21, 0.07]
Menon et al 2020	4.35	1.21	100	4.34	0.98	99	6.5%	0.01 [-0.30, 0.32]
Tian et al 2016	5.04	1.21	33	4.72	0.99	23	4.3%	0.32 [-0.26, 0.90]
Wang et al 2014	4.37	0.37	76	4.43	0.31	116	7.8%	-0.06 [-0.16, 0.04]
Wang et al 2017	4.81	1.17	78	5.75	1.04	38	5.5%	-0.94 [-1.36, -0.52]
Wu et al 2015	4.62	1.04	106	4.61	1.15	120	6.6%	0.01 [-0.28, 0.30]
wu et al 2017	4.29	1.13	227	4.31	0.63	92	7.3%	-0.02 [-0.22, 0.18]
Youssef et al 2007	5.56	1.26	50	4.15	1.11	20	4.2%	1.41 [0.81, 2.01]
Subtotal (95% CI)			1984			1451	100.0%	0.06 [-0.12, 0.23]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.10; Chi² = 215.36, df = 15 (P < 0.00001); I² = 93%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 0.63 (P = 0.53)

1.1.5 triglycerides (mmol/L)

Alfieri et al 2020	3.62	0.3	176	3.86	0.3	176	7.2%	-0.24 [-0.30, -0.18]
alvarez-perez et al 2011	1.55	0.69	200	1.31	0.57	50	6.1%	0.24 [0.06, 0.42]
Cha et al 2002	1.48	1.35	45	1	0.44	24	3.4%	0.48 [0.05, 0.91]
fan et al 2018	1.24	0.6	197	1.54	0.73	192	6.7%	-0.30 [-0.43, -0.17]
jiang et al 2011	1.75	1.09	67	1.32	0.55	62	4.8%	0.43 [0.14, 0.72]
kuwashiro et al 2014	1.34	0.87	171	1.37	0.68	171	6.3%	-0.03 [-0.20, 0.14]
Li et al 2015	1.52	0.12	117	1.74	0.09	82	7.4%	-0.22 [-0.25, -0.19]
Liu et al 2017	1.76	1.13	66	1.45	0.77	63	4.4%	0.31 [-0.02, 0.64]
Long et al 2013	1.39	0.32	38	1.39	0.4	50	6.5%	0.00 [-0.15, 0.15]
Lu et al 2009	1.5	1.1	120	1.3	0.8	120	5.4%	0.20 [-0.04, 0.44]
Ma et al 2019	0.95	0.31	288	0.92	0.28	300	7.3%	0.03 [-0.02, 0.08]
Menon et al 2020	1.65	0.73	100	1.19	0.51	99	6.2%	0.46 [0.29, 0.63]
Tian et al 2016	1.2	0.67	33	1.58	1.14	23	2.8%	-0.38 [-0.90, 0.14]
Wang et al 2014	1.47	0.36	76	1.43	0.41	116	6.9%	0.04 [-0.07, 0.15]
Wang et al 2017	1.52	0.93	78	1.91	1.24	38	3.3%	-0.39 [-0.84, 0.06]
Wu et al 2015	1.41	0.78	106	1.31	0.76	120	5.9%	0.10 [-0.10, 0.30]
wu et al 2017	1.35	0.55	227	1.03	0.57	92	6.6%	0.32 [0.18, 0.46]
Youssef et al 2007	1.93	1.21	50	1.14	0.83	20	2.9%	0.79 [0.30, 1.28]
Subtotal (95% CI)			2155			1798	100.0%	0.08 [-0.03, 0.19]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.04; Chi² = 266.09, df = 17 (P < 0.00001); I² = 94%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 1.46 (P = 0.14)

1.1.6 HDL-cholesterol (mmol/L)

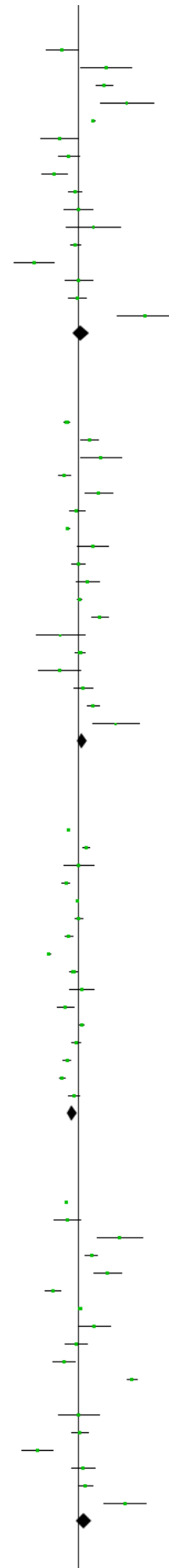
Alfieri et al 2020	1.1	0.04	176	1.3	0.05	176	6.8%	-0.20 [-0.21, -0.19]
fan et al 2018	1.24	0.37	197	1.08	0.35	192	6.6%	0.16 [0.09, 0.23]
jiang et al 2011	1.24	1.3	67	1.23	0.2	62	4.2%	0.01 [-0.31, 0.33]
kuwashiro et al 2014	1.37	0.33	171	1.63	0.44	171	6.5%	-0.26 [-0.34, -0.18]
Li et al 2015	1.29	0.03	117	1.31	0.04	82	6.8%	-0.02 [-0.03, -0.01]
Long et al 2013	1.16	0.21	38	1.15	0.14	50	6.5%	0.01 [-0.07, 0.09]
Lu et al 2009	1	0.3	120	1.2	0.4	120	6.5%	-0.20 [-0.29, -0.11]
Ma et al 2019	0.74	0.11	288	1.36	0.18	300	6.8%	-0.62 [-0.64, -0.60]
Menon et al 2020	1.07	0.3	100	1.17	0.26	99	6.5%	-0.10 [-0.18, -0.02]
Tian et al 2016	1.26	0.34	33	1.19	0.59	23	4.7%	0.07 [-0.20, 0.34]
Walsh et al 2016	1.05	0.2	14	1.32	0.26	14	5.7%	-0.27 [-0.44, -0.10]
Wang et al 2014	1.23	0.17	76	1.16	0.17	116	6.7%	0.07 [0.02, 0.12]
Wang et al 2017	1.14	0.25	78	1.19	0.27	38	6.4%	-0.05 [-0.15, 0.05]
Wu et al 2015	0.99	0.2	106	1.23	0.39	120	6.5%	-0.24 [-0.32, -0.16]
wu et al 2017	1.02	0.25	227	1.36	0.21	92	6.7%	-0.34 [-0.39, -0.29]
Youssef et al 2007	0.97	0.3	50	1.06	0.2	20	6.2%	-0.09 [-0.21, 0.03]
Subtotal (95% CI)			1858			1675	100.0%	-0.14 [-0.24, -0.03]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.04; Chi² = 2438.86, df = 15 (P < 0.00001); I² = 99%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 2.58 (P = 0.010)

1.1.7 LDL-Cholesterol (mmol/L)

Alfieri et al 2020	2.61	0.12	176	2.87	0.13	176	6.9%	-0.26 [-0.29, -0.23]
alvarez-perez et al 2011	2.91	1.08	200	3.14	0.84	50	5.8%	-0.23 [-0.51, 0.05]
Cha et al 2002	3.18	0.9	45	2.3	1	24	4.3%	0.88 [0.40, 1.36]
fan et al 2018	2.53	0.67	197	2.25	0.64	192	6.6%	0.28 [0.15, 0.41]
jiang et al 2011	3.15	0.94	67	2.53	0.73	62	5.7%	0.62 [0.33, 0.91]
kuwashiro et al 2014	3.05	0.78	171	3.59	0.72	171	6.5%	-0.54 [-0.70, -0.38]
Li et al 2015	2.43	0.06	117	2.39	0.08	82	6.9%	0.04 [0.02, 0.06]
Liu et al 2017	3.27	1.22	66	2.94	0.69	63	5.3%	0.33 [-0.01, 0.67]
Long et al 2013	2.46	0.51	38	2.5	0.62	50	6.0%	-0.04 [-0.28, 0.20]
Lu et al 2009	3.2	1	120	3.5	0.9	120	6.0%	-0.30 [-0.54, -0.06]
Ma et al 2019	3.81	0.78	288	2.68	0.51	300	6.7%	1.13 [1.02, 1.24]
Menon et al 2020	2.54	0.84	100	2.65	0.75	0		Not estimable
Tian et al 2016	2.97	0.94	33	2.96	0.72	23	4.6%	0.01 [-0.43, 0.45]
Wang et al 2014	2.43	0.63	76	2.4	0.53	116	6.4%	0.03 [-0.14, 0.20]
Wang et al 2017	2.86	0.99	78	3.73	0.76	38	5.4%	-0.87 [-1.20, -0.54]
Wu et al 2015	2.93	0.95	106	2.83	0.9	120	6.0%	0.10 [-0.14, 0.34]
wu et al 2017	2.57	1	227	2.42	0.42	92	6.5%	0.15 [-0.01, 0.31]
Youssef et al 2007	3.67	0.66	50	2.68	0.93	20	4.6%	0.99 [0.54, 1.44]
Subtotal (95% CI)			2155			1699	100.0%	0.12 [-0.05, 0.28]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.10; Chi² = 949.38, df = 16 (P < 0.00001); I² = 98%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 1.40 (P = 0.16)



1.1.8 Glucose (mmol/L)

Study	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total	Weight	Mean Difference	95% CI
Alfieri et al 2020	6.1	0.25	176	8.48	0.28	176	14.7%	-2.38	[-2.44, -2.32]
fan et al 2018	5.67	1.63	197	5.51	1.26	192	14.5%	0.16	[-0.13, 0.45]
jiang et al 2011	7.25	3.94	67	6.95	2.21	62	13.2%	0.30	[-0.79, 1.39]
Li et al 2015	4.85	0.09	117	4.73	0.06	82	14.7%	0.12	[0.10, 0.14]
Liu et al 2017	5.73	1.13	66	5.17	0.68	63	14.5%	0.56	[0.24, 0.88]
Wang et al 2017	6.07	2.49	78	6.31	1.72	38	13.9%	-0.24	[-1.02, 0.54]
wu et al 2017	6.07	1.12	227	5	0.44	92	14.6%	1.07	[0.90, 1.24]
Subtotal (95% CI)			928			705	100.0%	-0.06	[-1.31, 1.18]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 2.74; Chi² = 7071.38, df = 6 (P < 0.00001); I² = 100%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 0.10 (P = 0.92)

1.1.9 ApoA1 (g/L)

Study	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total	Weight	Mean Difference	95% CI
Eldeeb et al 2020	4.25	3.7	60	16.82	11.23	30	48.6%	-12.57	[-16.70, -8.44]
Wu et al 2015	1.18	0.3	106	1.31	0.38	120	51.4%	-0.13	[-0.22, -0.04]
Subtotal (95% CI)			166			150	100.0%	-6.17	[-18.36, 6.01]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 75.16; Chi² = 34.90, df = 1 (P < 0.00001); I² = 97%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 0.99 (P = 0.32)

1.1.10 ApoB (g/L)

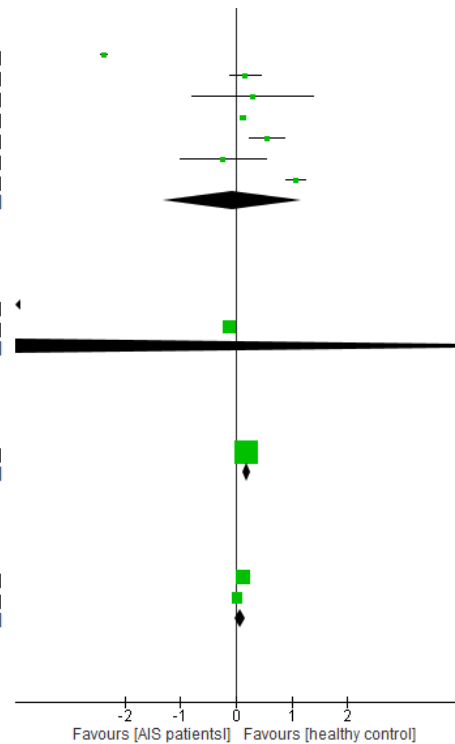
Study	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total	Weight	Mean Difference	95% CI
Wu et al 2015	0.96	0.23	106	0.78	0.29	120	100.0%	0.18	[0.11, 0.25]
Subtotal (95% CI)			106			120	100.0%	0.18	[0.11, 0.25]

Heterogeneity: Not applicable
 Test for overall effect: Z = 5.20 (P < 0.00001)

1.1.11 LpA (g/L)

Study	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total	Weight	Mean Difference	95% CI
Ma et al 2019	0.37	0.07	288	0.25	0.04	300	57.9%	0.12	[0.11, 0.13]
Wu et al 2015	0.27	0.25	106	0.25	0.35	120	42.1%	0.02	[-0.06, 0.10]
Subtotal (95% CI)			394			420	100.0%	0.08	[-0.02, 0.17]

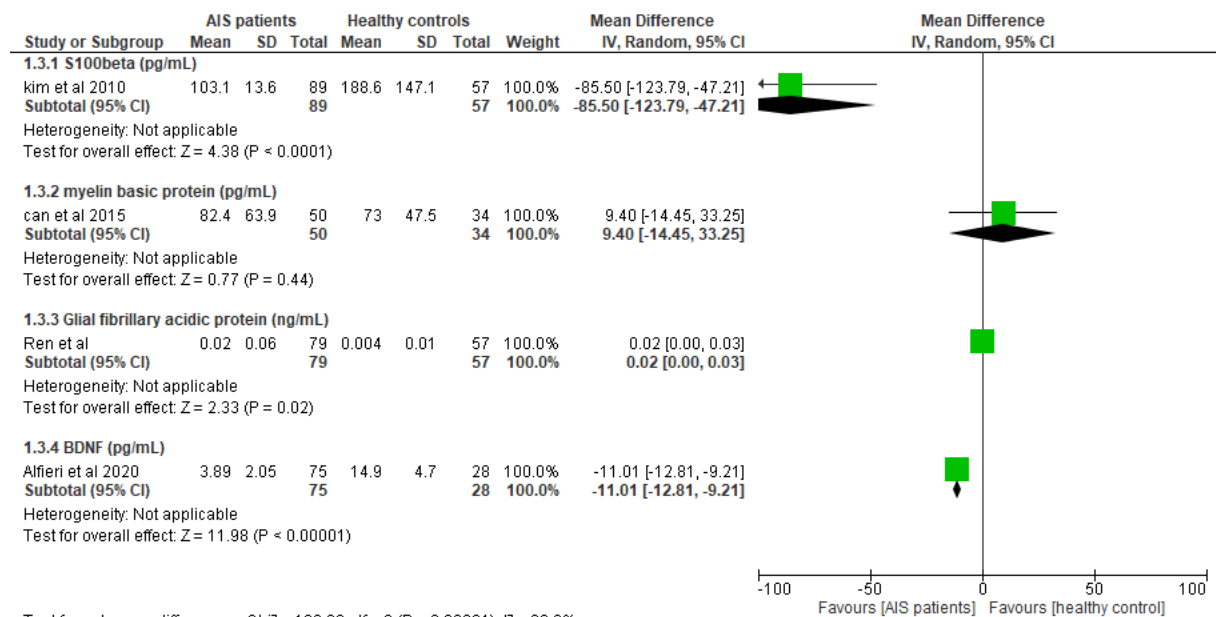
Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.00; Chi² = 6.12, df = 1 (P = 0.01); I² = 84%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 1.58 (P = 0.11)



3.3.2.2. Brain specific protein biomarkers

Figure 4 below shows the forest plot depicting brain specific protein biomarkers. S100 β , myelin basic protein (MBP), glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) and brain derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) are the only brain specific protein biomarkers that could be included in this meta-analysis. All 4 biomarkers were only reported once, each by a different study (117, 123, 129, 135). Because of this no heterogeneity analysis could be performed.

Figure 4: forest plot on brain specific protein biomarkers.

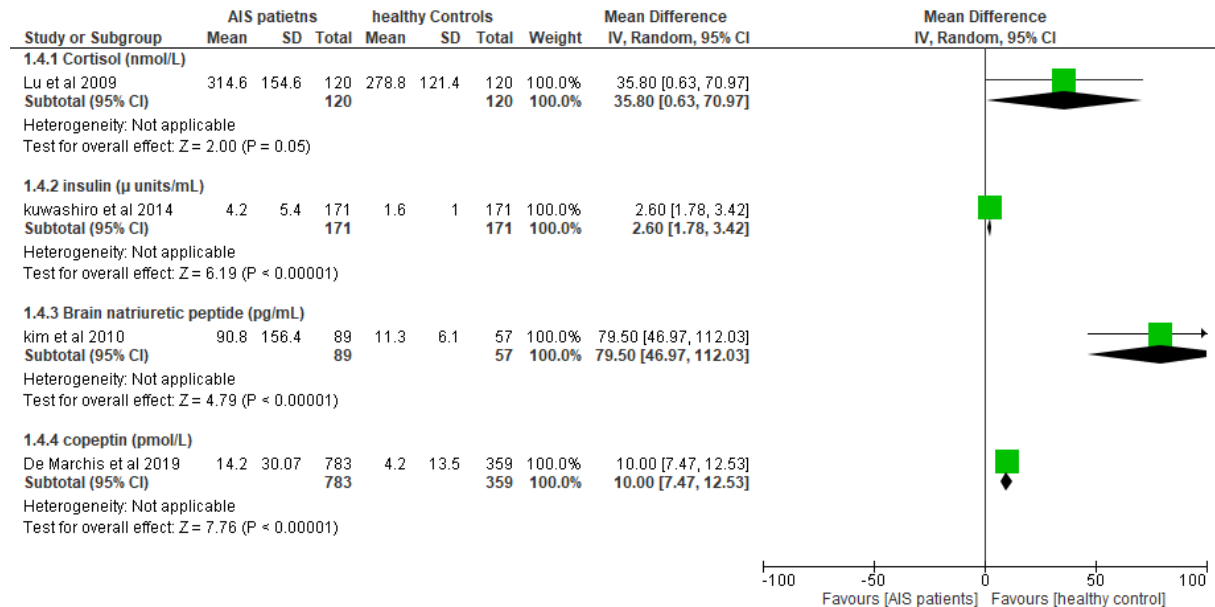


Test for subgroup differences: Chi² = 163.63, df = 3 (P < 0.00001), I² = 98.2%

3.3.2.3. Endocrine protein biomarkers

In this category cortisol, insulin, brain natriuretic peptide (BNP) and copeptin were studied as potential biomarkers. Figure 5 depicts a forest plot of the concentration levels of these biomarkers. Although all 4 had significant results, no statement can be made as all 4 were only reported once. No heterogeneity analysis could be conducted.

Figure 5: forest plot on endocrine protein biomarkers



3.3.2.4. Inflammatory protein biomarkers

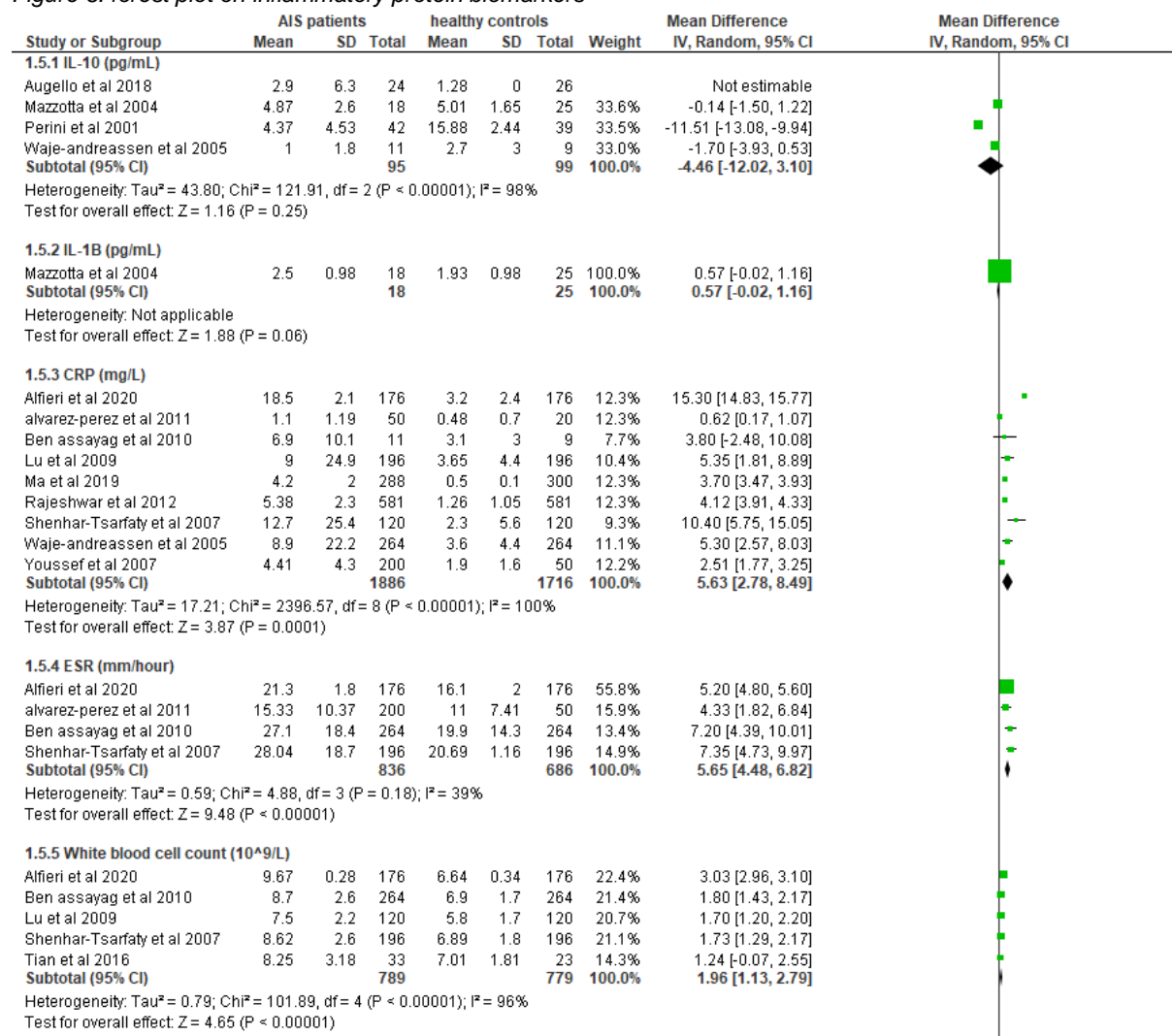
Figure 6 below depicts the forest plot of the inflammatory protein biomarkers. 12 different inflammatory biomarkers could be included in this meta-analysis: IL-10, IL-1 β , (hs)CRP, ESR, white blood cell count (WBCC), Tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α), nitric oxide, Matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9), Intercellular Adhesion Molecule-1 (ICAM-1), homocysteine (hcy) and P-selectin. Icam-1 was only reported in one study, therefore heterogeneity studies could not be conducted. 2 studies reported their findings on P-selectin expression levels but used different detecting techniques which are not compatible for comparison. Nadar et al (127) conducted an ELISA based research and reported expression levels in ng/mL, while Cha et al (138) conducted a flow cytometry based research and reported their findings in mean fluorescence intensity (MFI). Because of these differences in reporting, further analysis could not be performed.

8 inflammatory biomarkers yielded significant p-values: CRP (p < 0.0001), WBCC (p < 0.00001), ESR (p < 0.00001), TNF- α (p < 0.00001), IL-6 (p = 0.006), nitric oxide (p = 0.01) MMP-9 (p = 0.005) and Hcy (P < 0.00001). Of these 8 biomarkers, only TNF- α and ESR showed low I² value (I² = 7% and 39%). All others showed a substantial amount of heterogeneity between studies (I²> 60%).

TNF- α concentration levels were reported by 4 different studies (125, 137, 141, 142). Three of these were assessed as high risk of bias in the quality assessment study (137, 141) (142), only Ma et al (125) had an NOS score of 6/8, indicating low risk of bias.

ESR were reported by 4 different studies (117, 120) (130, 134). Only one of these were assessed as high risk of bias in the quality assessment study (134). Alfieri et al (117), Assayag et al (120) and Shenhar-Tsarfaty et al (130) had scores of 7/8, 5/8 and 6/8 respectively.

Figure 6: forest plot on inflammatory protein biomarkers



1.5.6 TNF-alpha (pg/mL)

Castellanos et al 2002	9.97	6.59	113	7.03	2	43	13.8%	2.94 [1.59, 4.29]
Lu et al 2009	8.4	20.9	120	3.1	2.2	120	1.9%	5.30 [1.54, 9.06]
Ma et al 2019	11.9	2.7	288	9.62	2.36	300	81.7%	2.28 [1.87, 2.69]
Mazzotta et al 2004	8.84	6.52	18	6.22	3.11	25	2.6%	2.62 [-0.63, 5.87]
Subtotal (95% CI)			539			488	100.0%	2.44 [1.91, 2.96]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.04; Chi² = 3.22, df = 3 (P = 0.36); I² = 7%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 9.09 (P < 0.00001)

1.5.7 IL-6 (pg/mL)

Alfieri et al 2020	18.8	4	176	6.7	4.6	176	16.9%	12.10 [11.20, 13.00]
Castellanos et al 2002	15.63	10.81	113	2.83	2.07	43	16.5%	12.80 [10.71, 14.89]
Ma et al 2019	21.4	6.6	288	11.2	2.4	300	16.9%	10.20 [9.39, 11.01]
Mazzotta et al 2004	7.27	5.6	18	4.65	1.85	25	16.2%	2.62 [-0.07, 5.31]
Perini et al 2001	3.84	1.71	42	2.99	0.49	39	16.9%	0.85 [0.31, 1.39]
Waje-andreassen et al 2005	6.4	2.6	11	2.8	1.5	9	16.6%	3.60 [1.78, 5.42]
Subtotal (95% CI)			648			592	100.0%	7.04 [2.04, 12.04]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 38.35; Chi² = 676.84, df = 5 (P < 0.00001); I² = 99%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 2.76 (P = 0.006)

1.5.8 nitric oxide (µmol/L)

Alfieri et al 2020	17.3	0.9	176	11.2	1	176	34.1%	6.10 [5.90, 6.30]
Cano et al 2003	14.5	1.4	15	41.3	3.7	16	31.7%	-26.80 [-28.75, -24.85]
Rajeshwar et al 2012	7.93	1.68	581	4.69	1.31	575	34.1%	3.24 [3.07, 3.41]
Subtotal (95% CI)			772			767	100.0%	-5.31 [-9.42, -1.21]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 12.84; Chi² = 1438.67, df = 2 (P < 0.00001); I² = 100%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 2.54 (P = 0.01)

1.5.9 MMP-9 (ng/mL)

demir et al 2012	10.06	7.85	32	5.94	3.01	30	26.2%	4.12 [1.19, 7.05]
kelly et al 2008	27.23	14.74	27	27.33	3.7	27	25.7%	-0.10 [-5.83, 5.63]
kim et al 2010	242.1	242.6	89	211.2	184.8	57	5.8%	30.90 [-38.68, 100.48]
Ning et al 2006	45.84	54.5	52	27.67	2.96	27	22.7%	18.17 [3.31, 33.03]
Oh et al 2012	160	113.85	120	56.9	35.25	82	19.6%	103.10 [81.35, 124.85]
Subtotal (95% CI)			320			223	100.0%	27.15 [8.18, 46.12]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 355.41; Chi² = 85.07, df = 4 (P < 0.00001); I² = 95%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 2.81 (P = 0.005)

1.5.10 Icam-1 (ng/mL)

Castellanos et al 2002	194	37.78	113	171.33	49.63	43	100.0%	22.67 [6.28, 39.06]
Subtotal (95% CI)			113			43	100.0%	22.67 [6.28, 39.06]

Heterogeneity: Not applicable
 Test for overall effect: Z = 2.71 (P = 0.007)

1.5.11 homocysteine (mmol/L)

Alfieri et al 2020	16.6	1.3	176	12	1.5	176	29.7%	4.60 [4.31, 4.89]
dambinova et al 2003	13	3.36	23	8.3	2.4	30	24.0%	4.70 [3.08, 6.32]
fan et al 2018	18.67	6.67	197	11.08	3.89	192	26.9%	7.59 [6.51, 8.67]
Youssef et al 2007	12.18	4.88	50	5.27	4.5	20	19.4%	6.91 [4.52, 9.30]
Subtotal (95% CI)			446			418	100.0%	5.88 [4.10, 7.65]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 2.73; Chi² = 30.30, df = 3 (P < 0.00001); I² = 90%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 6.50 (P < 0.00001)

1.5.12 soluble P-selectin (ng/mL)

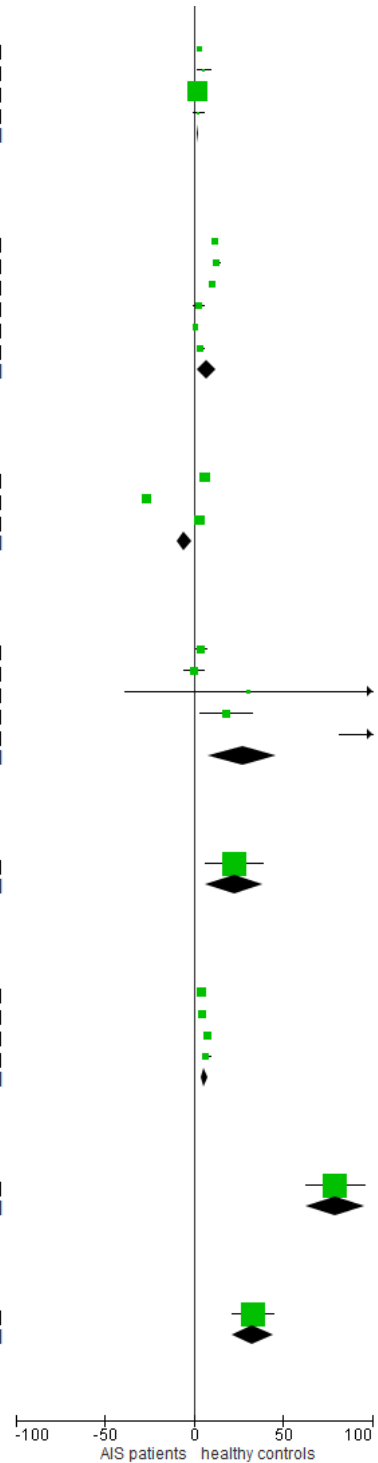
nadar et al 2004	145	48.15	59	65.67	39.26	51	100.0%	79.33 [62.99, 95.67]
Subtotal (95% CI)			59			51	100.0%	79.33 [62.99, 95.67]

Heterogeneity: Not applicable
 Test for overall effect: Z = 9.51 (P < 0.00001)

1.5.13 soluble P-selectin (MFI)

Cha et al 2002	108.2	38.3	45	75.3	9.1	24	100.0%	32.90 [21.13, 44.67]
Subtotal (95% CI)			45			24	100.0%	32.90 [21.13, 44.67]

Heterogeneity: Not applicable
 Test for overall effect: Z = 5.48 (P < 0.00001)

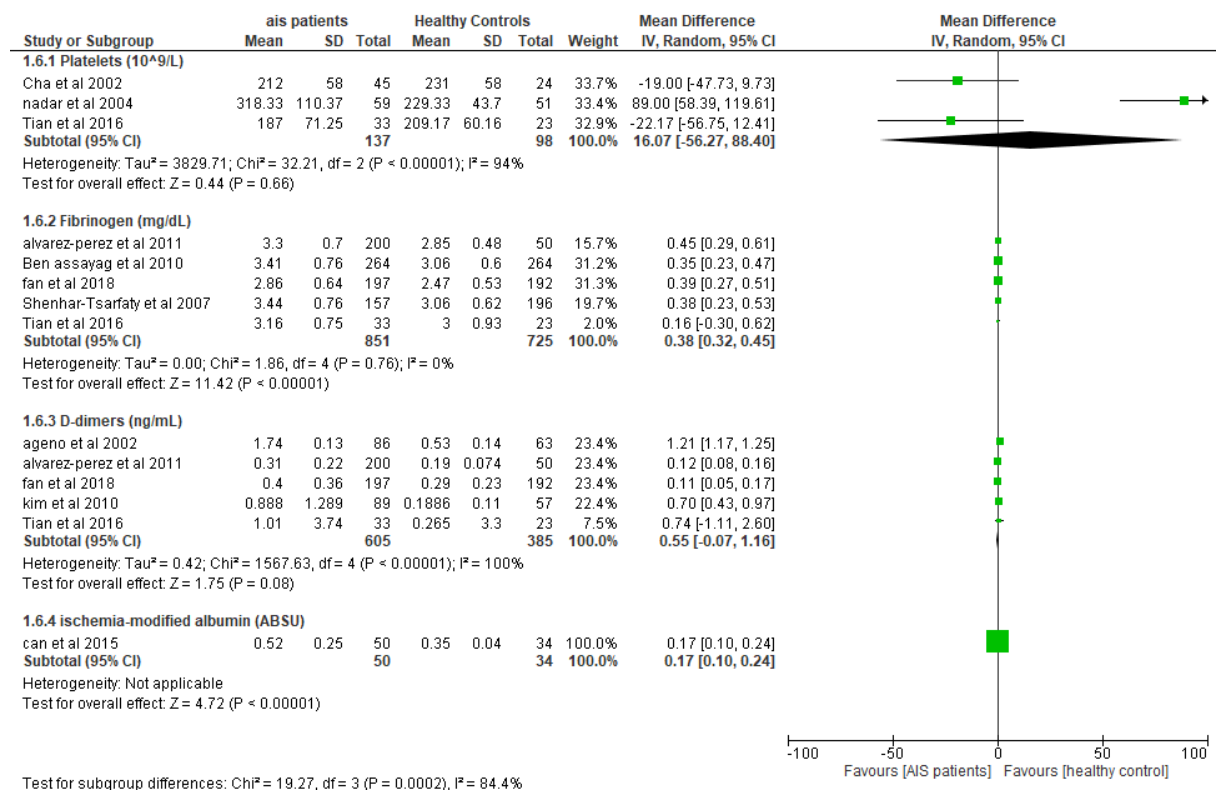


3.3.2.5. Hemostatic protein biomarkers

Figure 7 depicts hemostatic protein biomarker levels. 4 hemostatic biomarker levels were investigated. ischemia-modified albumin (IMA) levels was only reported in 1 study, therefore no further analysis could be conducted. The other markers yielded the following p-values: Platelets ($p = 0.15$), fibrinogen ($p < 0.00001$), D-dimers (DD) ($p = 0.08$). Platelet count and DD did not yield a statistically significant result. Fibrinogen was the only marker with a small level of heterogeneity between studies ($I^2 = 0\%$). DD and platelets, had I^2 -values of 100% and 98%. Fibrinogen is therefore the only hemostatic biomarker that's significantly expressed and has low heterogeneity between studies.

Fibrinogen levels were reported by 5 separate studies (89, 120, 122, 130, 134). 4 of these had a low level of bias according to the NOS: Ben Assayag et al (120) 5/8, Fan et al (122) 5/8, Shenhar-Tsarfaty et al (130) 6/8 and Tian et al (89) 5/8. Only Alvarez-Perez et al (134) had a score of 4/8.

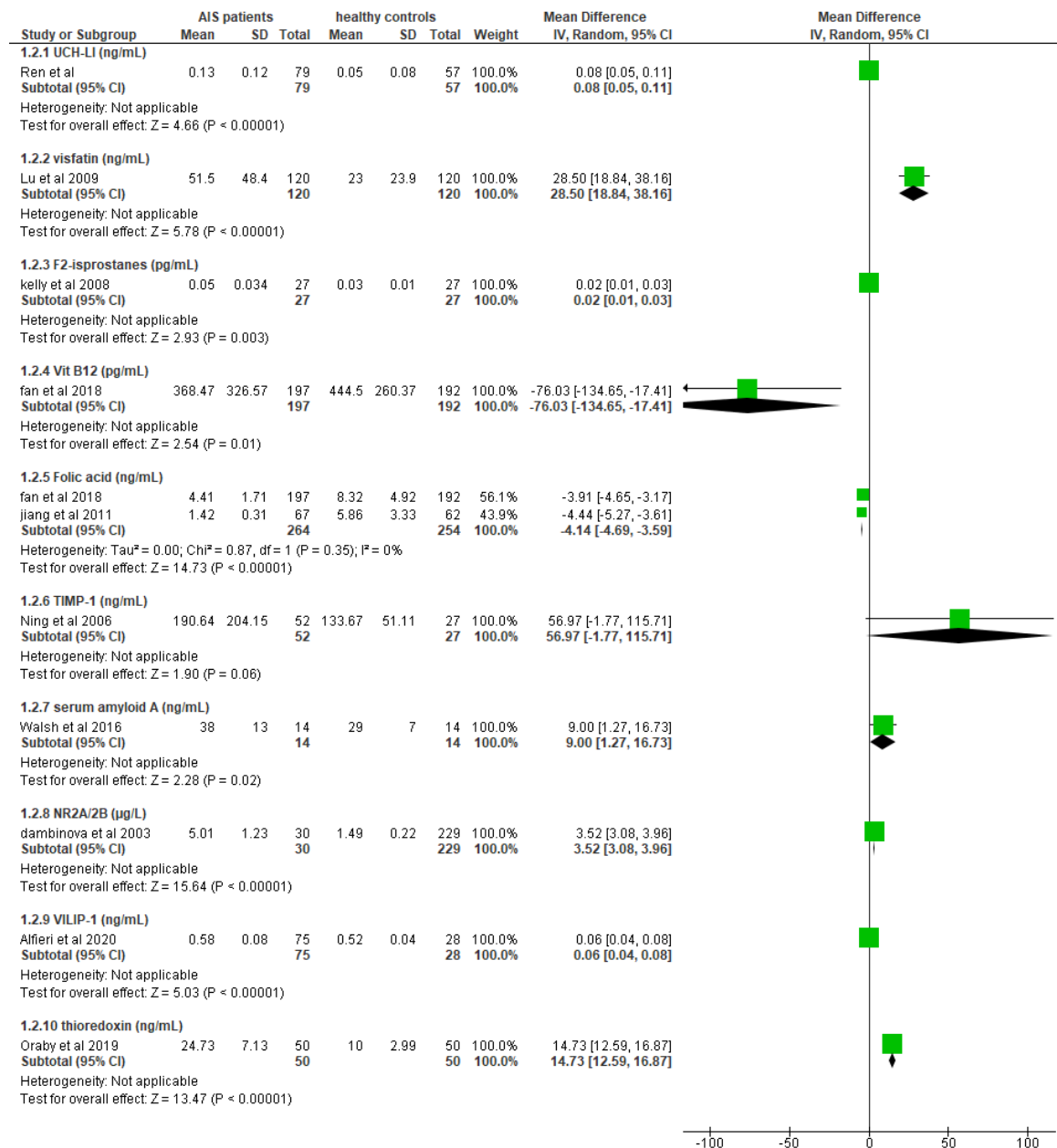
Figure 7: forest plot on hemostatic protein biomarkers



3.3.2.6. Other protein biomarkers

The forest plot below, figure 8, depicts all protein biomarkers that don't clear cut belong to a specific subgroup of biomarkers. These include: Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase L1 (UCH-LI), visfatin, F2-isoprostanes, vit B12, folic acid, tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 1 (TIMP-1), serum amyloid A (SAA), NMDA receptors 2A over NMDA receptor 2B ratio (NR2A/2B), VILIP-1 and thioredoxin. All of these biomarkers, except for folic acid, were only reported in one study. Its p-value was highly significant at $p < 0.00001$. The I^2 analysis showed no statistical heterogeneity between the two studies ($I^2 = 0\%$). Quality assessment of these studies showed one with low risk of bias (fan et al (122)) and one with high risk (Jiang et al (145)).

Figure 8: forest plot on other protein biomarkers.



3.4. Metabolites

3.4.1. Study characteristics of studies with main focus on metabolite expression levels

Table 8 shows all metabolite studies that met the inclusion criteria for inclusion in the systematic review. Most of them were conducted in China, only one was conducted in Europe (147). The publication years ranged from 2011 to 2020. In total 625 AIS patients and 407 healthy controls were included. 2 Studies were conducted on dried blood (148, 149), 2 on serum (145, 146) and one in plasma (150). 4 different ways of detecting metabolite concentration levels were used in the studies. Hu et al (148) and Zhang et al (149) both used a direct injection mass spectrometry approach, while Jiang et al (145) and Schneider et al (147) used an ultra-performance liquid chromatography. Liu et al (146) used gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC-MS) for detecting metabolite biomarkers expression levels, and Peng et al (150) used Micellar electrokinetic chromatography (MEKC) as detecting method. All of these methods did not require normalization or housekeeping genes. Only 2 studies were classified as low risk of bias: Liu et al (146) and Peng et al (150).

Table 8: Study characteristics of 6 studies with main focus on metabolite expression levels.

Author	Year	Country	Sample size		Time since symptom onset	Detecting method	Specimen	normalization	Quality assessment
			Cases	Controls					
Hu et al (148)	2016	China	129	98	<12h	Direct injection MS	Dried blood		3
Jiang et al (145)	2011	China	67	62	<6h	UPLC-MS/MS	Serum		4
Liu et al (146)	2017	China	40	40	<9h	GC-MS LC-MS	Serum		5
Peng et al (150)	2012	China	64	42	<8h	MEKC	Plasma		5
Schneider et al (147)	2020	Germany	196	100	<24h	LC-MS	Plasma		4
Zhang et al (149)	2017	China	129	65	2h-12h	Direct injection MS	Dried blood		4

3.4.2. Metabolite expression levels

Table 9 shows all metabolites who were reported as significantly expressed in at least 1 study. In some studies, exact values were not extractable. Instead, “DOWN” or “UP” is listed for down or upregulated metabolite levels. 76 metabolites were reported as statistically significant in at least 1 study. Only 7 of which were statistically significant in 2 studies. Betanin, Alanine, Aspartate and Ornithine were all reported as upregulated in one study, while being reported as downregulated in the second study. Only Glycine and Proline were both twice reported as downregulated. ROC analysis was only performed on 5 metabolite biomarkers: Serine,

isoleucine, betanin, phosphatidylcholine (PC) PC (5:0/5:0) and lysophosphatidylethanolamine. PC (5:0/5:0) reported the highest AUC of these 5 with a value of 0.927.

Table 9: Metabolite expression levels of single microRNA

Metabolite (s)	RER*	AUC (95%CI)	Sensitivity	specificity	study
Acetylcarnitine	1.45				Liu et al (146)
Adenosine	0.11				Jiang et al (145)
Alanine	0.78				Liu et al (146)
	UP				Hu et al (148)
Aldosterone	0.01				Jiang et al (145)
Arginine	1.74				Zhang et al (149)
Asparagine	0.86				Zhang et al (149)
Aspartate	0.73				Liu et al (146)
	1.37				Zhang et al (149)
Betanin	1.66	0.723			Liu et al (146)
	0.32				Jiang et al (120)
C0	0.86				Zhang et al (149)
C2	0.70				Zhang et al (149)
C2/C0 ratio	0.8				Zhang et al (149)
C3	0.79				Zhang et al (149)
C3/C16 ratio	0.81				Zhang et al (149)
C3DC	0.73				Zhang et al (149)
C3DC/C10 ratio	2.13				Zhang et al (149)
C4-OH	0.80				Zhang et al (149)
C4DC	0.86				Zhang et al (149)
C4/C8	1.82				Zhang et al (149)
C5	1.38				Zhang et al (149)
C5:1	0.67				Zhang et al (149)
C5-OH	UP				Hu et al (148)
C5-OH/C0 ratio	UP				Hu et al (148)
C5-OH/C8 ratio	UP				Hu et al (148)
	1.88				Zhang et al (149)
C5/C3 ratio	2				Zhang et al (149)
C5DC	0.50				Zhang et al (149)
C5DC/C5-OH ratio	0.54				Zhang et al (149)
C5DC/C16 ratio	0.6				Zhang et al (149)
C8	0.62				Zhang et al (149)
C8/C10 ratio	1.34				Zhang et al (149)
C10	0.43				Zhang et al (149)
C10:1	0.62				Zhang et al (149)
C10:2	0.67				Zhang et al (149)
C10:2/C10 ratio	1.87				Zhang et al (149)
C14:2	0.71				Zhang et al (149)
C16-OH	2.12				Zhang et al (149)
C16-OH/C16 ratio	2.5				Zhang et al (149)
C18	0.83				Zhang et al (149)
C22	0.78				Zhang et al (149)
C24	0.67				Zhang et al (149)
Carnitine	1.67				Liu et al (146)
Cit/Arg	0.62				Zhang et al (149)
Citrulline	UP				Hu et al (148)
cysteine c	10.58				Jiang et al (145)
Deoxocathasterone	0.29				Jiang et al (145)
Galactose	1.22				Liu et al (146)
Glycine	0.69				Liu et al (146)
	0.87				Zhang et al (149)
glycine/alanine ratio	0.83				Zhang et al (149)
Hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid	1.49				Jiang et al (145)
Hydroxyoctadecadienoic acid	64.52				Jiang et al (145)
Isoleucine	0.61	0.832			Liu et al (146)
Leucine	0.90				Zhang et al (149)
L-isoleucyl-L-proline	1.44				Liu et al (146)
Lysine	0.65				Liu et al (146)
Lysophosphatidylethanolamine	1.74	0.785			Liu et al (146)
Mannose	1.27				Liu et al (146)

Ornithine	0.66		Liu et al (146)
	3.82		Zhang et al (149)
Ornithin/Cit	2.82		Zhang et al (149)
Oxidized glutathione	3.32		Jiang et al (145)
PA(18:3/0:0)	0.43		Liu et al (146)
PC(1:0/16:0)	0.78		Liu et al (146)
PC(5:0/5:0)	0.42	0.927	Liu et al (146)
Phenine/tyrosine ratio	0.73		Zhang et al (149)
PI(22:2/0:0)	0.35		Liu et al (146)
Proline	0.8		Liu et al (146)
	0.61		Zhang et al (149)
Putrescine	UP		Peng et al (123)
S-Adenosyl-homocysteine	1.48		Jiang et al (145)
Serine	0.61	0.823	Liu et al (146)
Spermine	DOWN		Peng et al (123)
Spermidine	DOWN		Peng et al (123)
Sucrose 6-phosphate	0.34		Jiang et al (145)
Tetrahydrofolate	0.18		Jiang et al (145)
Threonine	0.78		Liu et al (146)
TMAO	1.29		Schneider et al (147)
Tricarballic acid	0.68		Liu et al (146)
Trihydroxy palmitic acid	0.63		Liu et al (146)
Tryptophan	0.90		Zhang et al (149)
Valine	0.91		Zhang et al (149)

4. Discussion

4.1. Genes

Many genes have been reported to be significantly expressed, but most of them only once. As single genes, S100A12 and MMP-9 seem to have the most diagnostic potential.

MMP-9 gene was consistently highly expressed in the blood of IS patients. The protein MMP-9 is also known as gelatinase B. It's part of the matrix metalloproteinase family, which are proteases responsible for extracellular matrix degradation and activation of cytokines and chemokines to regulate tissue remodelling. It plays a vital role in the degradation of atherosclerotic plaques (151). In this meta-analysis we showed that MMP-9 is substantially upregulated in the first few hours after IS. As it is capable of degrading almost all components of the extracellular matrix and basal lamina, MMP-9 is a major attributing factor for BBB breakdown and cerebral ischemia (152). Therefore, it does not only have a possible diagnostic value, but a therapeutic value as well. Pharmaceutical MMP-9 inhibitors in the first few hours after symptom onset may perhaps cause a prolongation of the current narrow therapeutic window, as they could possibly slow down BBB breakdown (153).

S100A12 also had stable relative expression ratio's (2.35, 2.51, 2.9). It codes for S100 calcium-binding protein A12, also known as calgranulin C. It mainly has an anti-infectious and antibacterial role related to its ability to uptake ions. However, in ischemic circumstances, its expression leads to cytokine production, chemotaxis and eventually oxidative stress (154). A study conducted by Stone et al found that it's correlated with the prognosis of stroke in that a high level of calgranulin C is associated with a poor outcome of recovery after IS (155).

However, several limitations need to be addressed. First of all, the study sample size for RNA expression was small in all studies. The largest study only had 70 IS patients, causing the power of the studies to be rather small.

Secondly, quality assessment of the studies revealed that only one of the included gene expression studies had a low risk of bias. All others failed to achieve a score of 5/8 in the NOS. And thirdly, a commercially available platform capable of rapid nucleic acid quantification with high enough fidelity to detect relatively modest level of differential expression needs to be developed before a gene panel can be used in clinical practice.

4.2. MicroRNA

Recently, circulating miRNAs are found to be stable, reproducible and have already been proposed as novel non-invasive biomarkers for the diagnosis of many neurodegenerative disorders. In recent years, several studies have been conducted in search of potential stroke microRNA biomarkers.

Mir-let-7b seems to have a wide array of binding sites in humans (156) (157). The exact mechanism or explanation why it's consistently upregulated in IS patients cannot be explained at this time. Not much is known about its function. It seems to be able to differentiate large-vessel atherosclerosis from other causes of IS (98).

Mir-let-7e seems to regulate CASP3 and NLK expression levels, according to bioinformatics prediction performed by Huang et al(94). By regulating these pathways, it may have a neuroprotective effect by negatively regulating the expression of TLR4.

Mir-16 seems to target genes for cell differentiation. It belongs to cluster miR-15/16 that has a well-known function in cell apoptosis and p53 signalling pathway (89). Rainer et al investigated mir-16 as a potential biomarker for stroke prognosis. They concluded that it might be a suitable marker for long term outcome as well (158). Tian et al (89) also concluded that higher levels of mir-16 correlates with worse stroke prognosis. In this systematic review, it was significantly upregulated in 4 studies, of which 3 had a low risk of bias. It was significant in the first 6 hours after stroke onset, making it a promising microRNA for possible implementation in clinical practice.

Mir-17-5p is a key regulator of the G1/S phase cell cycle transition (159). It appears to play a critical role in post-stroke adult neurogenesis (160).

Mir-30a is involved in cancer cell growth inhibition (161). In this systematic review, it was significantly upregulated in the first 6 hours after symptom onset, then seemed to be downregulated at 6-24 hours after symptom onset. This makes it a promising microRNA for possible implementation in clinical practice.

Mir-126 is considered one of the most important miRNA's for maintaining vascular integrity (162). It seems to play more of a role in stroke prognosis as it can enhance stroke recovery after an ischemia reperfusion injury (163). Long et al reported that mir-126 stayed down regulated for as long as 24 weeks after the ischemic event (98).

Mir-221 seems to target genes involved in cerebral ischemia. The exact pathway of interference with IS is not well known yet (164).

4.3. Proteins

The protein subgroup was the only category of biomarker that yielded enough data to conduct a meta-analysis on.

In the metabolic subgroup creatinine seemed to have the most diagnostic potential. It was reported in 5 independent studies, and, when 1 study was excluded, showed low heterogeneity between the 4 remaining studies. Unfortunately, no study with blood draw earlier than <24 reported creatinine levels. High creatinine level at admission have been reported to be prognostic factor for mortality for IS patients (165). However, patients with high creatinine levels tend to have other illnesses. Higher creatinine is not a direct consequence of IS.

In the brain specific protein subgroup, no protein could be identified as potential biomarker for IS, as no biomarker was investigated in more than 1 study. S100 β has been investigated in IS versus stroke mimics or haemorrhagic stroke patients where it was able to differentiate IS patients (166) (167).

In the endocrine subgroup no protein could be identified as potential biomarker for IS, as no biomarker was investigated in more than 1 study.

In the inflammatory subgroup TNF- α and ESR seemed to have the most diagnostic potential. Both had significant p-values and low heterogeneity between studies. Studies have already been published about differences in TNF- α concentrations between IS patients and stroke mimics or haemorrhagic stroke patients. These concluded that TNF- α was not able to differentiate IS from HS (168).

In the hemostatic subgroup fibrinogen seemed to have the most diagnostic potential. It was reported in 5 independent studies and showed low heterogeneity between studies. Unfortunately, no studies drew blood earlier than <24 hours after symptom onset. Fibrinogen seems to be more of value as a prognostic biomarker rather than diagnostic marker. Several studies have reported that higher fibrinogen level at admission correlates with stroke severity and by extension mortality and functional outcome (169) (170).

In the 'other protein' subgroup folic acid seemed to have the most diagnostic potential. It was reported in 2 independent studies and showed low heterogeneity between studies. Folic acid seems to have a protective effect on stroke risk. Several studies have shown the benefit of folic acid supplements in stroke risk reduction (171).

However, these "significant results" in protein biomarker mean very little in the current clinical practice. If we take a look at the absolute numbers, the difference between an AIS and HC is on average 3.24 mg/dL fibrinogen vs 2.88 mg/dL fibrinogen. This means nothing and is at the moment not useable in the ED. However, in the future, fibrinogen can become a parameter in a panel of biomarkers, consisting of biomarkers that represent different pathways of IS.

4.4. Metabolites

Only 6 studies could be included that reported metabolite biomarkers, of which only one was classified as low risk of bias. This suggests that potential metabolites to diagnose IS remains poorly investigated. Only Glycine and Proline were reported as significantly downregulated in 2 separate studies.

Glycine is an inhibitor of proinflammatory activity. It suppresses Hif-1 α by inhibiting the upregulation of NF- κ B p65, making it a neuroprotective compound after reperfusion (172). A recent study published by Chen et al (173) found an alternate pathway how glycine might have a neuroprotective effect. According to their research, glycine is a potential miRNA-19 inhibitor. MiRNA-19 is a known proinflammatory miRNA, which could accelerate nerve damage in IS. However, in our section on miRNA, none of the included studies showed an upregulation or

downregulation of miRNA-19 in the first 24 hours after symptom onset. Glycine may be more suited as therapeutical intervention to prevent further neuronal damage, instead of diagnostic biomarker (174) (175).

Proline is a direct metabolite of glutamate. As glutamate can't cross the BBB, proline concentration is an indirect measurement of glutamate excitotoxicity in the brain (176).

Diagnostic potential of the reported metabolites is difficult to assess because only 1 of the included studies performed ROC analysis (146). The highest AUC was reported by PC (5:0/5:0), a key component in neuronal cell membrane integrity. Other studies found decreased levels of PC in patients with Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment (177) (178). Making this a possible candidate to differentiate IS and Alzheimer's disease, a well-known stroke mimic.

4.5. Limitations

Several limitations of this study must be pointed out. First of all, it was only possible to conduct a meta-analysis in the protein subgroup. The amount of data in the gene, MiRNA and metabolite subgroups was not sufficient to perform a meta-analysis. A consensus needs to be made for a standardized detecting method and data reporting on biomarker concentration levels. Meta-analysis on MiRNA data is possible, as shown by several other publication, provided that mean and SD levels are given of all individual biomarkers (69,70).

Secondly, to be able to conduct a protein meta-analysis, all data had to be converted to mean and SD. Several studies presented their results as medians with interquartile range instead. When this was the case, the formulas of Wan et al (73) were used to make an estimate of the mean and SD. When data was presented as median with minimum and maximum value the formula formed by Hozo et al (74) was used. Using these formulas made it possible to include these studies into the analysis, however doing so increased heterogeneity as these values remained an estimate of the mean and SD.

Thirdly, to be able to inquire more studies in the review, we set the limit for blood drawn at a maximum of 24 hours after symptom onset instead of the therapeutic window of 4,5 hours. Biomarkers reported as significant at 24 hours after symptom onset might not be at 3 hours. A good comparison for this problem is the biomarkers used in acute coronary events. Troponin I, creatine kinase, LDH and aspartate transferase each have their own time window in which they are relevant to be determined (179). Several studies drew blood at earlier points in time but, when able, we choose to include the results of blood drawn at 24 hours instead of earlier. This decision was made to reduce the amount of heterogeneity. In a clinical setting however, blood draw needs to happen as soon as possible after admission in the ED.

Fourthly, different definitions of healthy controls were used in the included studies. For example, Allard et al (118) enlisted patients from the orthopaedics department as healthy

controls, as they clinically had no neurologic or cardiovascular symptoms. Walsh et al (131) used hospital staff volunteers as healthy controls. We tried to combat this issue by implementing a quality assessment in the shape of the NOS.

5. Conclusion

The quest for the ideal biomarker for IS diagnosis started over 20 years ago and is still ongoing. Diagnosing and treating AIS within the therapeutic window of 4,5 hours can be a challenge in the ED. A simple blood test that could diagnose patients with IS has the potential to significantly shorten the time-to-needle, especially in cases of remaining diagnostic uncertainty or when less experienced health-care providers have to make the diagnosis.

However, considering the many limitations of this systematic review, the widespread use of a biomarker panel for IS diagnosis will not be soon available. More studies have to be conducted with larger sample sizes and lifelike control groups to obtain reliable conclusions.

The goal of this master dissertation was to provide an answer to the following research question:

“Which biomarker(s) per group, show the most promise to differentiate IS patients from healthy controls? Biomarker groups being genes, miRNA, proteins and metabolites.”

The answer to that question is as follows:

In the gene's subgroup S100A12 and MMP-9 seem to display the most promising discriminatory capacity.

In the miRNA group miRNA-16 and miRNA-30a, miRNA-126 and miRNA-221 were the most promising, especially miRNA-16, miRNA-30a and miRNA-221 in the first 6 hours after stroke onset.

In the protein group our meta-analysis revealed that creatinin, TNF- α , fibrinogen and folic acid have the most discriminatory capacity.

In the metabolite group the diagnostic potential is difficult to assess. No real metabolite biomarker was promising. Only glycine and proline displayed an altered expression in 2 independent studies.

6. References

1. Powers WJ, Rabinstein AA, Ackerson T, Adeoye OM, Bambakidis NC, Becker K, et al. Guidelines for the Early Management of Patients With Acute Ischemic Stroke: 2019 Update to the 2018 Guidelines for the Early Management of Acute Ischemic Stroke: A Guideline for Healthcare Professionals From the American Heart Association/American Stroke Association. *Stroke*. 2019;50(12).
2. Sacco RL, Kasner SE, Broderick JP, Caplan LR, Connors JJ, Culebras A, et al. An updated definition of stroke for the 21st century: a statement for healthcare professionals from the American Heart Association/American Stroke Association. *Stroke*. 2013;44(7):2064-89.
3. BARRETT KE, & GANONG, W. F. Ganong's review of medical physiology. New York: New York; 2012.
4. Benjamin EJ, Virani SS, Callaway CW, Chamberlain AM, Chang AR, Cheng S, et al. Heart Disease and Stroke Statistics-2018 Update: A Report From the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2018;137(12):e67-e492.
5. Libman RB, Wirkowski E, Alvir J, Rao TH. Conditions that mimic stroke in the emergency department. Implications for acute stroke trials. *Arch Neurol*. 1995;52(11):1119-22.
6. Easton JD, Saver JL, Albers GW, Alberts MJ, Chaturvedi S, Feldmann E, et al. Definition and evaluation of transient ischemic attack: a scientific statement for healthcare professionals from the American Heart Association/American Stroke Association Stroke Council; Council on Cardiovascular Surgery and Anesthesia; Council on Cardiovascular Radiology and Intervention; Council on Cardiovascular Nursing; and the Interdisciplinary Council on Peripheral Vascular Disease. The American Academy of Neurology affirms the value of this statement as an educational tool for neurologists. *Stroke*. 2009;40(6):2276-93.
7. Albers GW, Caplan LR, Easton JD, Fayad PB, Mohr JP, Saver JL, et al. Transient ischemic attack--proposal for a new definition. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;347(21):1713-6.
8. Armao V, Popovic N, Caso V. How is stroke care organised in Europe? *Presse Med*. 2016;45(12 Pt 2):e399-e408.
9. Bejot Y, Bailly H, Durier J, Giroud M. Epidemiology of stroke in Europe and trends for the 21st century. *Presse Med*. 2016;45(12 Pt 2):e391-e8.
10. Timsit S. Stroke at the beginning of the XXIst century. *Presse Med*. 2016;45(12 Pt 2):e389-e90.
11. Understand Stroke: nsa [Available from: <https://www.stroke.org/understand-stroke/>].
12. Bhatt V PN, Mainali N, Sigdel S, Aryal M, Hamal N, Khanal S, Koirala S, Giri S. Risk factors of stroke. *Journal of Institute of Medicine*. 2008;30:37-41.
13. Seung-Hoon L. Stroke revisited: Diagnosis and treatment of ischemic stroke. *January 2017*.
14. Powers WJ, Rabinstein AA, Ackerson T, Adeoye OM, Bambakidis NC, Becker K, et al. 2018 Guidelines for the Early Management of Patients With Acute Ischemic Stroke: A Guideline for Healthcare Professionals From the American Heart Association/American Stroke Association. *Stroke*. 2018;49(3):e46-e110.
15. Kim BJ, Kang HG, Kim H-J, Ahn S-H, Kim NY, Warach S, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging in acute ischemic stroke treatment. *Journal of stroke*. 2014;16(3):131-45.
16. Gomez CR. Time Is Brain: The Stroke Theory of Relativity. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2018;27(8):2214-27.
17. Zivelonghi C, Tamburin S. Mechanical thrombectomy for acute ischemic stroke: the therapeutic window is larger but still "time is brain". *Functional neurology*. 2018;33(1):5-6.
18. Liu X. Beyond the time window of intravenous thrombolysis: standing by or by stenting? *Interv Neurol*. 2012;1(1):3-15.
19. Smith WS, Sung G, Saver J, Budzik R, Duckwiler G, Liebeskind DS, et al. Mechanical thrombectomy for acute ischemic stroke: final results of the Multi MERCI trial. *Stroke*. 2008;39(4):1205-12.
20. Smith WS, Sung G, Starkman S, Saver JL, Kidwell CS, Gobin YP, et al. Safety and efficacy of mechanical embolectomy in acute ischemic stroke: results of the MERCI trial. *Stroke*. 2005;36(7):1432-8.
21. Ebinger M, Winter B, Wendt M, Weber JE, Waldschmidt C, Rozanski M, et al. Effect of the use of ambulance-based thrombolysis on time to thrombolysis in acute ischemic stroke: a randomized clinical trial. *Jama*. 2014;311(16):1622-31.
22. Saver JL, Starkman S, Eckstein M, Stratton SJ, Pratt FD, Hamilton S, et al. Prehospital use of magnesium sulfate as neuroprotection in acute stroke. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;372(6):528-36.
23. Tan JC, Dillon WP, Liu S, Adler F, Smith WS, Wintermark M. Systematic comparison of perfusion-CT and CT-angiography in acute stroke patients. *Ann Neurol*. 2007;61(6):533-43.
24. Chalela JA, Kidwell CS, Nentwich LM, Luby M, Butman JA, Demchuk AM, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging and computed tomography in emergency assessment of patients with suspected acute stroke: a prospective comparison. *Lancet*. 2007;369(9558):293-8.
25. Atkinson A, Colbrun WA, DeGRuttola VG et al. Biomarkers and surrogate endpoints: preferred definitions and conceptual framework. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2001;69(3):89-95.
26. Maas MB, Furie KL. Molecular biomarkers in stroke diagnosis and prognosis. *Biomarkers in medicine*. 2009;3(4):363-83.
27. Whiteley W, Tian Y, Jickling GC. Blood biomarkers in stroke: research and clinical practice. *Int J Stroke*. 2012;7(5):435-9.
28. Peacock WF. Where Are the Stroke Markers? *Clinical Chemistry*. 2017;63(1):252.
29. L L. Blokboek zenuwstelsel en zintuigen 2015.
30. Frieling T, Bergdoldt G, Allescher HD, Riemann JF. [Chest pain - not always the heart! Clinical impact of gastrointestinal diseases in non-cardiac chest pain]. *Z Gastroenterol*. 2015;53(2):120-4.
31. Jickling GC, Sharp FR. Blood biomarkers of ischemic stroke. *Neurotherapeutics*. 2011;8(3):349-60.
32. Wiryadana KA, Supadmanaba IGP, Samatra DPGP. Progress and potential roles blood biomarkers of ischemic stroke in clinical setting. *Indonesia Journal of Biomedical Science*; Vol 11, No 2 (2017). 2017.
33. Y Guo PL, Q Guo, K Shang, D Yan, S Du, Y Lu. Pathophysiology and Biomarkers in Acute Ischemic Stroke – A Review. *Trop J Pharm*. 2013;Res.12:1097–105
34. Horgan RP, Kenny LC. 'Omic' technologies: genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics and metabolomics. *The Obstetrician & Gynaecologist*. 2011;13(3):189-95.
35. Biesecker LG. Hypothesis-generating research and predictive medicine. *Genome research*. 2013;23(7):1051-3.
36. Mass Spectrometry. Kirk-Othmer Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology.
37. Aebersold R, Mann M. Mass spectrometry-based proteomics. *Nature*. 2003;422(6928):198-207.
38. Domon B, Aebersold R. Mass Spectrometry and Protein Analysis. *Science*. 2006;312(5771):212.
39. Lindgren A. Stroke genetics: a review and update. *J Stroke*. 2014;16(3):114-23.
40. Armstrong SA, Staunton JE, Silverman LB, Pieters R, den Boer ML, Minden MD, et al. MLL translocations specify a distinct gene expression profile that distinguishes a unique leukemia. *Nature Genetics*. 2002;30(1):41-7.
41. Tibshirani R, Hastie T, Narasimhan B, Chu G. Diagnosis of multiple cancer types by shrunken centroids of gene expression. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2002;99(10):6567.
42. Sharp FR, Jickling GC, Stamova B, Tian Y, Zhan X, Liu D, et al. Molecular markers and mechanisms of stroke: RNA studies of blood in animals and humans. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab*. 2011;31(7):1513-31.
43. Nowak JS, Michlewski G. miRNAs in development and pathogenesis of the nervous system. *Biochem Soc Trans*. 2013;41(4):815-20.
44. Ma C, Nguyen HPT, Luwor RB, Styli SS, Gogos A, Paradiso L, et al. A comprehensive meta-analysis of circulation miRNAs in glioma as potential diagnostic biomarker. *PloS one*. 2018;13(2):e0189452.
45. Sun X, Zhou X, Zhang Y, Zhu X, Liu H. Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Diagnostic Accuracy of miRNAs in Patients with Pancreatic Cancer. *Disease Markers*. 2018;2018:13.
46. Zhou Q, Liu J, Quan J, Liu W, Tan H, Li W. MicroRNAs as potential biomarkers for the diagnosis of glioma: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Cancer Sci*. 2018;109(9):2651-9.
47. Rink C, Khanna S. MicroRNA in ischemic stroke etiology and pathology. *Physiological Genomics*. 2010;43(10):521-8.
48. WU J. Transcriptomics and Gene Regulation. *Translational Bioinformatics*. 2016;9:185.
49. Au A. Metabolomics and Lipidomics of Ischemic Stroke. *Adv Clin Chem*. 2018;85:31-69.
50. Shah SH, Kraus WE, Newgard CB. Metabolomic profiling for the identification of novel biomarkers and mechanisms related to common cardiovascular diseases: form and function. *Circulation*. 2012;126(9):1110-20.
51. Katan M, Elkind MSV. The potential role of blood biomarkers in patients with ischemic stroke: An expert opinion. *Clinical and Translational Neuroscience*. 2018;2(1):2514183X18768050.
52. Murphy TH, Li P, Betts K, Liu R. Two-photon imaging of stroke onset in vivo reveals that NMDA-receptor independent ischemic depolarization is the major cause of rapid reversible damage to dendrites and spines. *J Neurosci*. 2008;28(7):1756-72.
53. Isgro MA, Bottoni P, Scatena R. Neuron-Specific Enolase as a Biomarker. *Biochemical and Clinical Aspects*. *Adv Exp Med Biol*. 2015;867:125-43.
54. Yin KJ, Deng Z, Huang H, Hamblin M, Xie C, Zhang J, et al. miR-497 regulates neuronal death in mouse brain after transient focal cerebral ischemia. *Neurobiol Dis*. 2010;38(1):17-26.
55. Camacho A, Massieu L. Role of glutamate transporters in the clearance and release of glutamate during ischemia and its relation to neuronal death. *Arch Med Res*. 2006;37(1):11-8.
56. Rodriguez RnRbNajCsGa. Excitotoxicity and Oxidative Stress in Acute Ischemic Stroke. *Acute Ischemic Stroke*. 2012.
57. Brouns R, De Deyn PP. The complexity of neurobiological processes in acute ischemic stroke. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg*. 2009;111(6):483-95.
58. Edbauer D, Neilson JR, Foster KA, Wang CF, Seeburg DP, Batterton MN, et al. Regulation of synaptic structure and function by FMRP-associated microRNAs miR-125b and miR-132. *Neuron*. 2010;65(3):373-84.
59. Sidorov E, Sanghera DK, Vanamala JKP. Biomarker for Ischemic Stroke Using Metabolome: A Clinician Perspective. *J Stroke*. 2019;21(1):31-41.
60. Khoshnam SE, Winlow W, Farbood Y, Moghaddam HF, Farzaneh M. Emerging Roles of microRNAs in Ischemic Stroke: As Possible Therapeutic Agents. *J Stroke*. 2017;19(2):166-87.
61. Lobo V, Patil A, Phatak A, Chandra N. Free radicals, antioxidants and functional foods: Impact on human health. *Pharmacogn Rev*. 2010;4(8):118-26.
62. Gorfach A, Bertram K, Hudcovova S, Krizanova O. Calcium and ROS: A mutual interplay. *Redox Biol*. 2015;6:260-71.
63. Sidorov E, Sanghera DK, Vanamala JKP. Biomarker for Ischemic Stroke Using Metabolome: A Clinician Perspective. *J Stroke*. 2019;21(1):31-41.

64. Dang J, Brandenburg LO, Rosen C, Fragoulis A, Kipp M, Pufe T, et al. Nr2 expression by neurons, astroglia, and microglia in the cerebral cortical penumbra of ischemic rats. *J Mol Neurosci*. 2012;46(3):578-84.
65. Berdeaux O, Scruel O, Durand T, Cracowski JL. [Isoprostanates, biomarkers of lipid peroxidation in humans. Part 2: Quantification methods]. *Pathol Biol (Paris)*. 2005;53(6):356-63.
66. Vidale S, Consoli A, Amaboldi M, Consoli D. Postischemic Inflammation in Acute Stroke. *Journal of clinical neurology (Seoul, Korea)*. 2017;13(1):1-9.
67. Lakhani SE, Kirchgessner A, Hofer M. Inflammatory mechanisms in ischemic stroke: therapeutic approaches. *J Transl Med*. 2009;7:97.
68. Abdullahi W, Tripathi D, Ronaldson PT. Blood-brain barrier dysfunction in ischemic stroke: targeting tight junctions and transporters for vascular protection. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol*. 2018;315(3):C343-c56.
69. Brouns R, Wauters A, De Surgeloose D, Marien P, De Deyn PP. Biochemical markers for blood-brain barrier dysfunction in acute ischemic stroke correlate with evolution and outcome. *Eur Neurol*. 2011;65(1):23-31.
70. Serlin Y, Shelef I, Kryazer B, Friedman A. Anatomy and physiology of the blood-brain barrier. *Semin Cell Dev Biol*. 2015;38:2-6.
71. Luchini C SB, Solmi M, Veronese N. Assessing the quality of studies in meta-analyses: Advantages and limitations of the Newcastle Ottawa Scale. *World J Meta-Anal*. 2017;5(4):80-4.
72. Wells G, Shea B, O'Connell D, Peterson J, Welch V. The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) for assessing the quality of case-control studies in meta-analyses. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2011;25:603-5.
73. Wan X, Wang W, Liu J, Tong T. Estimating the sample mean and standard deviation from the sample size, median, range and/or interquartile range. *BMC Med Res Methodol*. 2014;14:135.
74. Hozo SP, Djulbegovic B, Hozo I. Estimating the mean and variance from the median, range, and the size of a sample. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*. 2005;5(1):13.
75. Zlowodzki M, Poolman RW, Kerkhoffs GM, Tometta P, 3rd, Bhandari M. How to interpret a meta-analysis and judge its value as a guide for clinical practice. *Acta Orthop*. 2007;78(5):598-609.
76. Hak T, Van Rhee H, Suurmond R. How to Interpret Results of Meta-Analysis. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. 2016.
77. Barr TL, Conley Y, Ding J, Dillman A, Warach S, Singleton A, et al. Genomic biomarkers and cellular pathways of ischemic stroke by RNA gene expression profiling. *Neurology*. 2010;75(11):1009-14.
78. O'Connell GC, Petrone AB, Treadway MB, Tennant CS, Lucke-Wold N, Chantler PD, et al. Machine-learning approach identifies a pattern of gene expression in peripheral blood that can accurately detect ischaemic stroke. *NPJ Genom Med*. 2016;1:16038.
79. Stamova B, Xu H, Jickling G, Bushnell C, Tian Y, Ander BP, et al. Gene expression profiling of blood for the prediction of ischemic stroke. *Stroke*. 2010;41(10):2171-7.
80. Tang Y, Xu H, Du X, Lit L, Walker W, Lu A, et al. Gene expression in blood changes rapidly in neutrophils and monocytes after ischemic stroke in humans: a microarray study. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab*. 2006;26(8):1089-102.
81. Grond-Ginsbach C, Hummel M, Wiest T, Horstmann S, Pflieger K, Hergenbahn M, et al. Gene expression in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells upon acute ischemic stroke. *J Neurol*. 2008;255(5):723-31.
82. Oh SH, Kim OJ, Shin DA, Song J, Yoo H, Kim YK, et al. Alteration of immunologic responses on peripheral blood in the acute phase of ischemic stroke: blood genomic profiling study. *J Neuroimmunol*. 2012;249(1-2):60-5.
83. Pan X, Hu Z, Qin L, Han Y, Zhu X, Zhou Y, et al. Applying minimal RNA-seq of peripheral blood platelet mRNA to reveal novel biomarkers in male patients with cerebral stroke. *Neuroreport*. 2020;31(2):156-61.
84. Tiedt S, Prestel M, Malik R, Schieferdecker N, Duering M, Kautzky V, et al. RNA-Seq Identifies Circulating miR-125a-5p, miR-125b-5p, and miR-143-3p as Potential Biomarkers for Acute Ischemic Stroke. *Circ Res*. 2017;121(8):970-80.
85. Giordano M CT, D'Amico M, Trotta MC, Di Sette AM, Marfella R, Malatino L, Paoletti G, Adinolfi LE. Circulating MiRNA-195-5p and -451a in Transient and Acute Ischemic Stroke Patients in an Emergency Department. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*. 2019;8(2):130.
86. Leung LY, Chan CP, Leung YK, Jiang HL, Abrigo JM, Wang de F, et al. Comparison of miR-124-3p and miR-16 for early diagnosis of hemorrhagic and ischemic stroke. *Clin Chim Acta*. 2014;433:139-44.
87. Cheng X, Kan P, Ma Z, Wang Y, Song W, Huang C, et al. Exploring the potential value of miR-148b-3p, miR-151b and miR-27b-3p as biomarkers in acute ischemic stroke. *Bioscience Reports*. 2018;38(6).
88. Ma Q, Li G, Tao Z, Wang J, Wang R, Liu P, et al. Blood microRNA-93 as an indicator for diagnosis and prediction of functional recovery of acute stroke patients. *Journal of Clinical Neuroscience*. 2019;62:121-7.
89. Tian C, Li Z, Yang Z, Huang Q, Liu J, Hong B. Plasma MicroRNA-16 Is a Biomarker for Diagnosis, Stratification, and Prognosis of Hyperacute Cerebral Infarction. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(11):e0166688.
90. Wang Y, Ma Z, Kan P, Zhang B. The Diagnostic Value of Serum miRNA-221-3p, miRNA-382-5p, and miRNA-4271 in Ischemic Stroke. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2017;26(5):1055-60.
91. Wang W, Li DB, Li RY, Zhou X, Yu DJ, Lan XY, et al. Diagnosis of Hyperacute and Acute Ischaemic Stroke: The Potential Utility of Exosomal MicroRNA-21-5p and MicroRNA-30a-5p. *Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2018;45(5-6):204-12.
92. Chen Z, Wang K, Huang J, Zheng G, Lv Y, Luo N, et al. Upregulated Serum MiR-146b Serves as a Biomarker for Acute Ischemic Stroke. *Cell Physiol Biochem*. 2018;45(1):397-405.
93. Gui Y, Xu Z, Jin T, Zhang L, Chen L, Hong B, et al. Using Extracellular Circulating microRNAs to Classify the Etiological Subtypes of Ischemic Stroke. *Translational Stroke Research*. 2019;10(4):352-61.
94. Huang S, Lv Z, Guo Y, Li L, Zhang Y, Zhou L, et al. Identification of Blood Let-7e-5p as a Biomarker for Ischemic Stroke. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(10):e0163951.
95. Ji Q, Ji Y, Peng J, Zhou X, Chen X, Zhao H, et al. Increased Brain-Specific MiR-9 and MiR-124 in the Serum Exosomes of Acute Ischemic Stroke Patients. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(9):e0163645.
96. Jia L, Hao F, Wang W, Qu Y. Circulating miR-145 is associated with plasma high-sensitivity C-reactive protein in acute ischemic stroke patients. *Cell Biochem Funct*. 2015;33(5):314-9.
97. Li P, Teng F, Gao F, Zhang M, Wu J, Zhang C. Identification of circulating microRNAs as potential biomarkers for detecting acute ischemic stroke. *Cell Mol Neurobiol*. 2015;35(3):433-47.
98. Long G, Wang F, Li H, Yin Z, Sandip C, Lou Y, et al. Circulating miR-30a, miR-126 and let-7b as biomarker for ischemic stroke in humans. *BMC Neurol*. 2013;13:178.
99. Peng G, Yuan Y, Wu S, He F, Hu Y, Luo B. MicroRNA let-7e Is a Potential Circulating Biomarker of Acute Stage Ischemic Stroke. *Translational Stroke Research*. 2015;6(6):437-45.
100. Sepramaniam S, Tan JR, Tan KS, DeSilva DA, Tavintharan S, Woon FP, et al. Circulating microRNAs as biomarkers of acute stroke. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2014;15(1):1418-32.
101. Wang W, Sun G, Zhang L, Shi L, Zeng Y. Circulating microRNAs as novel potential biomarkers for early diagnosis of acute stroke in humans. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2014;23(10):2607-13.
102. Wang J, Huang Q, Ding J, Wang X. Elevated serum levels of brain-derived neurotrophic factor and miR-124 in acute ischemic stroke patients and the molecular mechanism. *3 Biotech*. 2019;9(11):386.
103. Wu J, Du K, Lu X. Elevated expressions of serum miR-15a, miR-16, and miR-17-5p are associated with acute ischemic stroke. *Int J Clin Exp Med*. 2015;8(11):21071-9.
104. Wu J, Fan CL, Ma LJ, Liu T, Wang C, Song JX, et al. Distinctive expression signatures of serum microRNAs in ischaemic stroke and transient ischaemic attack patients. *Thromb Haemost*. 2017;117(5):992-1001.
105. Yang ZB, Li TB, Zhang Z, Ren KD, Zheng ZF, Peng J, et al. The Diagnostic Value of Circulating Brain-specific MicroRNAs for Ischemic Stroke. *Intern Med*. 2016;55(10):1279-86.
106. Yang S, Zhan X, He M, Wang J, Qiu X. miR-135b levels in the peripheral blood serve as a marker associated with acute ischemic stroke. *Exp Ther Med*. 2020;19(6):3551-8.
107. Zhao B, Zhu Z, Hao J, Wan Z, Guo X. Decreased plasma miR-335 expression in patients with acute ischemic stroke and its association with calmodulin expression. *J Int Med Res*. 2016;44(6):1331-8.
108. Zhou J, Zhang J. Identification of miRNA-21 and miRNA-24 in plasma as potential early stage markers of acute cerebral infarction. *Mol Med Rep*. 2014;10(2):971-6.
109. Kumar R, Indrayan A. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve for medical researchers. *Indian Pediatr*. 2011;48(4):277-87.
110. Hajian-Tilaki K. Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curve Analysis for Medical Diagnostic Test Evaluation. *Caspian J Intern Med*. 2013;4(2):627-35.
111. Zhou J, Chen L, Chen B, Huang S, Zeng C, Wu H, et al. Increased serum exosomal miR-134 expression in the acute ischemic stroke patients. *BMC Neurol*. 2018;18(1):198.
112. Waje-Andreassen U, Krakenes J, Ulvestad E, Thomassen L, Myhr KM, Aarseth J, et al. IL-6: an early marker for outcome in acute ischemic stroke. *Acta Neurol Scand*. 2005;111(6):360-5.
113. Ning M, Furie KL, Koroshetz WJ, Lee H, Barron M, Lederer M, et al. Association between tPA therapy and raised early matrix metalloproteinase-9 in acute stroke. *Neurology*. 2006;66(10):1550-5.
114. Kelly PJ, Morrow JD, Ning M, Koroshetz W, Lo EH, Terry E, et al. Oxidative stress and matrix metalloproteinase-9 in acute ischemic stroke: the Biomarker Evaluation for Antioxidant Therapies in Stroke (BEAT-Stroke) study. *Stroke*. 2008;39(1):100-4.
115. Demir R, Ulvi H, Ozel L, Ozdemir G, Guzelcik M, Aygul R. Relationship between plasma metalloproteinase-9 levels and volume and severity of infarct in patients with acute ischemic stroke. *Acta Neurol Belg*. 2012;112(4):351-6.
116. Algin A, Erdogan MO, Aydin I, Poyraz MK, Sirik M. Clinical usefulness of brain-derived neurotrophic factor and visinin-like protein-1 in early diagnostic tests for acute stroke. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2019;37(11):2051-4.
117. Alfieri DF, Lehmann MF, Flauzino T, de Araújo MCM, Pivoto N, Tirolla RM, et al. Immune-Inflammatory, Metabolic, Oxidative, and Nitrosative Stress Biomarkers Predict Acute Ischemic Stroke and Short-Term Outcome. *Neurotoxicity Research*. 2020;38(2):330-43.

118. Allard L, Lescuyer P, Burgess J, Leung KY, Ward M, Walter N, et al. ApoC-I and ApoC-III as potential plasmatic markers to distinguish between ischemic and hemorrhagic stroke. *Proteomics*. 2004;4(8):2242-51.
119. Augello CJ, Noll JM, Distel TJ, Wainright JD, Stout CE, Ford BD. Identification of novel blood biomarker panels to detect ischemic stroke in patients and their responsiveness to therapeutic intervention. *Brain Res*. 2018;1698:161-9.
120. Ben Assayag E, Shenhar-Tsarfaty S, Ofek K, Soreq L, Bova I, Shopin L, et al. Serum cholinesterase activities distinguish between stroke patients and controls and predict 12-month mortality. *Mol Med*. 2010;16(7-8):278-86.
121. Eldeeb MA, Zaki AS, Ashour S, Abdel Nasser A, El Bassiouny A, Abdulghani KO. Serum apolipoprotein A1: a predictor and prognostic biomarker in acute ischemic stroke. *The Egyptian Journal of Neurology, Psychiatry and Neurosurgery*. 2019;56(1):3.
122. Fan H, Yang S, Li Y, Yin J, Qin W, Yang L, et al. Assessment of Homocysteine as a Diagnostic and Early Prognostic Biomarker for Patients with Acute Lacunar Infarction. *Eur Neurol*. 2018;79(1-2):54-62.
123. Kim MH, Kang SY, Kim MC, Lee WI. Plasma biomarkers in the diagnosis of acute ischemic stroke. *Ann Clin Lab Sci*. 2010;40(4):336-41.
124. Kuwashiro T, Ago T, Kamouchi M, Matsuo R, Hata J, Kuroda J, et al. Significance of plasma adiponectin for diagnosis, neurological severity and functional outcome in ischemic stroke - Research for Biomarkers in Ischemic Stroke (REBIOS). *Metabolism*. 2014;63(9):1093-103.
125. Ma Z, Yue Y, Luo Y, Wang W, Cao Y, Fang Q. Clinical Utility of the Inflammatory Factors Combined With Lipid Markers in the Diagnostic and Prognostic Assessment of Ischemic Stroke: Based on Logistic Regression Models. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2020;29(4):104653.
126. Menon B, Ramalingam K, Kumar R. Evaluating the Role of Oxidative Stress in Acute Ischemic Stroke. *J Neurosci Rural Pract*. 2020;11(1):156-9.
127. Nadar SK, Lip GY, Blann AD. Platelet morphology, soluble P selectin and platelet P-selectin in acute ischaemic stroke. The West Birmingham Stroke Project. *Thromb Haemost*. 2004;92(6):1342-8.
128. Perini F, Morra M, Alecci M, Galloni E, Marchi M, Toso V. Temporal profile of serum anti-inflammatory and pro-inflammatory interleukins in acute ischemic stroke patients. *Neurol Sci*. 2001;22(4):289-96.
129. Ren C, Kobeissy F, Alawieh A, Li N, Li N, Zibara K, et al. Assessment of Serum UCH-L1 and GFAP in Acute Stroke Patients. *Sci Rep*. 2016;6:24588.
130. Shenhar-Tsarfaty S, Ben Assayag E, Bova I, Shopin L, Cohen M, Berliner S, et al. Persistent hyperfibrinogenemia in acute ischemic stroke / transient ischemic attack (TIA). *Thromb Haemost*. 2008;99(1):169-73.
131. Walsh KB, Hart K, Roll S, Sperling M, Unruh D, Davidson WS, et al. Apolipoprotein A-I and Paraoxonase-1 Are Potential Blood Biomarkers for Ischemic Stroke Diagnosis. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2016;25(6):1360-5.
132. Youssef MY, Mojiminiyi OA, Abdella NA. Plasma concentrations of C-reactive protein and total homocysteine in relation to the severity and risk factors for cerebrovascular disease. *Transl Res*. 2007;150(3):158-63.
133. Ageno W, Finazzi S, Steidl L, Biotti MG, Mera V, Melzi D'Eril G, et al. Plasma measurement of D-dimer levels for the early diagnosis of ischemic stroke subtypes. *Arch Intern Med*. 2002;162(22):2589-93.
134. Alvarez-Perez FJ, Castelo-Branco M, Alvarez-Sabin J. Usefulness of measurement of fibrinogen, D-dimer, D-dimer/fibrinogen ratio, C reactive protein and erythrocyte sedimentation rate to assess the pathophysiology and mechanism of ischaemic stroke. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2011;82(9):986-92.
135. Can S, Akdur O, Yildirim A, Adam G, Cakir DU, Karaman HI. Myelin basic protein and ischemia modified albumin levels in acute ischemic stroke cases. *Pak J Med Sci*. 2015;31(5):1110-4.
136. Cano CP, Bermudez VP, Atencio HE, Medina MT, Anilsa A, Souki A, et al. Increased serum malondialdehyde and decreased nitric oxide within 24 hours of thrombotic stroke onset. *Am J Ther*. 2003;10(6):473-6.
137. Castellanos M, Castillo J, Garcia MM, Leira R, Serena J, Chamorro A, et al. Inflammation-mediated damage in progressing lacunar infarctions: a potential therapeutic target. *Stroke*. 2002;33(4):982-7.
138. Cha JK, Jeong MH, Kim EK, Lim YJ, Ha BR, Kim SH, et al. Surface expression of P-selectin on platelets is related with clinical worsening in acute ischemic stroke. *J Korean Med Sci*. 2002;17(6):811-6.
139. Dambinova SA, Khounteev GA, Izykenova GA, Zavolokov IG, Ilyukhina AY, Skoromets AA. Blood test detecting autoantibodies to N-methyl-D-aspartate neuroreceptors for evaluation of patients with transient ischemic attack and stroke. *Clin Chem*. 2003;49(10):1752-62.
140. De Marchis GM, Dankowski T, König IR, Fladt J, Fluri F, Gensicke H, et al. A novel biomarker-based prognostic score in acute ischemic stroke: The CoRisk score. *Neurology*. 2019;92(13):e1517-e25.
141. Lu LF, Yang SS, Wang CP, Hung WC, Yu TH, Chiu CA, et al. Elevated visfatin/pre-B-cell colony-enhancing factor plasma concentration in ischemic stroke. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2009;18(5):354-9.
142. Mazzotta G, Sarchielli P, Caso V, Paciaroni M, Floridi A, Floridi A, et al. Different cytokine levels in thrombolysis patients as predictors for clinical outcome. *Eur J Neurol*. 2004;11(6):377-81.
143. Oraby MI, Rabie RA. Blood biomarkers for stroke: the role of thioredoxin in diagnosis and prognosis of acute ischemic stroke. *The Egyptian Journal of Neurology, Psychiatry and Neurosurgery*. 2019;56(1):1.
144. Rajeshwar K, Kaul S, Al-Hazzani A, Babu MS, Balakrishna N, Sharma V, et al. C-reactive protein and nitric oxide levels in ischemic stroke and its subtypes: correlation with clinical outcome. *Inflammation*. 2012;35(3):978-84.
145. Jiang Z, Sun J, Liang Q, Cai Y, Li S, Huang Y, et al. A metabonomic approach applied to predict patients with cerebral infarction. *Talanta*. 2011;84(2):298-304.
146. Liu P, Li R, Antonov AA, Wang L, Li W, Hua Y, et al. Discovery of Metabolite Biomarkers for Acute Ischemic Stroke Progression. *J Proteome Res*. 2017;16(2):773-9.
147. Schneider C, Okun JG, Schwarz KV, Hauke J, Zorn M, Nürnberg C, et al. Trimethylamine-N-oxide is elevated in the acute phase after ischaemic stroke and decreases within the first days. *European Journal of Neurology*. 2020;27(8):1596-603.
148. Hu Z, Zhu Z, Cao Y, Wang L, Sun X, Dong J, et al. Rapid and Sensitive Differentiating Ischemic and Hemorrhagic Strokes by Dried Blood Spot Based Direct Injection Mass Spectrometry Metabolomics Analysis. *J Clin Lab Anal*. 2016;30(6):823-30.
149. Zhang X, Li Y, Liang Y, Sun P, Wu X, Song J, et al. Distinguishing Intracerebral Hemorrhage from Acute Cerebral Infarction through Metabolomics. *Rev Invest Clin*. 2017;69(6):319-28.
150. Peng L, Wang N, Si H, Wu C, Zhang X, Yang Q. Rapid and Sensitive Determination of Five Amine Biomarkers in Plasma Samples from Stroke Patients by MEKC with Precolumn Derivatization. *Chromatographia*. 2012;75(19):1217-21.
151. Jiang Y, Liu H, Wang Y, Shi X, Shao Y, Xu Z. Meta-analysis of matrix metalloproteinase (MMP)-9 C1562T polymorphism and susceptibility to ischemic stroke in the Chinese population. *Journal of International Medical Research*. 2020;48(6):0300060520926427.
152. Rosell A, Cuadrado E, Ortega-Aznar A, Hernández-Guillamon M, Lo EH, Montaner J. MMP-9-positive neutrophil infiltration is associated to blood-brain barrier breakdown and basal lamina type IV collagen degradation during hemorrhagic transformation after human ischemic stroke. *Stroke*. 2008;39(4):1121-6.
153. Chaturvedi M, Kaczmarek L. MMP-9 Inhibition: a Therapeutic Strategy in Ischemic Stroke. *Molecular Neurobiology*. 2014;49(1):563-73.
154. Wickl R, Marenholz I, Mischke D, Schäfer BW, Heizmann CW. Characterization of the human S100A12 (calgranulin C, p6, CAAF1, CGRP) gene, a new member of the S100 gene cluster on chromosome 1q21. *Cell Calcium*. 1996;20(6):459-64.
155. Stone SF, Armstrong C, van Eeden PE, Arendts G, Hankey GJ, Brown SGA, et al. Changes in differential gene expression during a fatal stroke. *Journal of Clinical Neuroscience*. 2016;23:130-4.
156. Sahin C, Mamillapalli R, Yi KW, Taylor HS. microRNA Let-7b: A Novel treatment for endometriosis. *J Cell Mol Med*. 2018;22(11):5346-53.
157. Xi X, Chu Y, Liu N, Wang Q, Yin Z, Lu Y, et al. Joint bioinformatics analysis of underlying potential functions of hsa-let-7b-5p and core genes in human glioma. *J Transl Med*. 2019;17(1):129.
158. Rainer TH, Leung LY, Chan CPY, Leung YK, Abrigo JM, Wang D, et al. Plasma miR-124-3p and miR-16 concentrations as prognostic markers in acute stroke. *Clin Biochem*. 2016;49(9):663-8.
159. Cloonan N, Brown MK, Steptoe AL, Wani S, Chan WL, Forrest AR, et al. The miR-17-5p microRNA is a key regulator of the G1/S phase cell cycle transition. *Genome Biol*. 2008;9(8):R127.
160. Liu XS, Chopp M, Wang XL, Zhang L, Hozeska-Solgot A, Tang T, et al. MicroRNA-17-92 cluster mediates the proliferation and survival of neural progenitor cells after stroke. *J Biol Chem*. 2013;288(18):12478-88.
161. Jiang L-h, Zhang H-d, Tang J-h. MiR-30a: A Novel Biomarker and Potential Therapeutic Target for Cancer. *Journal of Oncology*. 2018;2018:5167829.
162. Xiao ZH, Wang L, Gan P, He J, Yan BC, Ding LD. Dynamic Changes in miR-126 Expression in the Hippocampus and Penumbra Following Experimental Transient Global and Focal Cerebral Ischemia-Reperfusion. *Neurochemical Research*. 2020;45(5):1107-19.
163. Geng W, Tang H, Luo S, Lv Y, Liang D, Kang X, et al. Exosomes from miRNA-126-modified ADSCs promotes functional recovery after stroke in rats by improving neurogenesis and suppressing microglia activation. *Am J Transl Res*. 2019;11(2):780-92.
164. Wu J, Wang B, Zhou J, Ji F. MicroRNA target gene prediction of ischemic stroke by using variational Bayesian inference for Gauss mixture model. *Exp Ther Med*. 2019;17(4):2734-40.
165. Ibrahim B, Rayyis L, Almekhlafi M. Elevated Serum Creatinine Predicts Higher Mortality in Stroke Patients (P3.254). *Neurology*. 2017;88(16 Supplement):P3.254.
166. An SA, Kim J, Kim OJ, Kim JK, Kim NK, Song J, et al. Limited clinical value of multiple blood markers in the diagnosis of ischemic stroke. *Clin Biochem*. 2013;46(9):710-5.
167. Undén J, Strandberg K, Malm J, Campbell E, Rosengren L, Stenflo J, et al. Explorative investigation of biomarkers of brain damage and coagulation system activation in clinical stroke differentiation. *Journal of neurology*. 2009;256:72-7.
168. Monbailliu T, Hachimi Idrissi Sp. Diagnostic biomarker panel for ischemic stroke: a meta-analysis. 2015; 2015.
169. Di Napoli M, Singh P. Is Plasma Fibrinogen Useful in Evaluating Ischemic Stroke Patients? *Stroke*. 2009;40(5):1549-52.
170. Swarowska M, Janowska A, Polczak A, Klimkowicz-Mrowiec A, Pera J, Slowik A, et al. The sustained increase of plasma fibrinogen during ischemic stroke predicts worse outcome independently of baseline fibrinogen level. *Inflammation*. 2014;37(4):1142-7.
171. Hsu C-Y, Chiu S-W, Hong K-S, Saver JL, Wu Y-L, Lee J-D, et al. Folic Acid in Stroke Prevention in Countries without Mandatory Folic Acid Food Fortification: A Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Journal of stroke*. 2018;20(1):99-109.
172. Liu R, Liao X-Y, Pan M-X, Tang J-C, Chen S-F, Zhang Y, et al. Glycine Exhibits Neuroprotective Effects in Ischemic Stroke in Rats through the Inhibition of M1 Microglial Polarization via the NF- κ B/p65/Hif-1 α Signaling Pathway. *The Journal of Immunology*. 2019;ji1801166.

173. Chen Z-J, Zhao X-S, Fan T-P, Qi H-X, Li D. Glycine Improves Ischemic Stroke Through miR-19a-3p/AMPK/GSK-3 β /HO-1 Pathway. *Drug Des Devel Ther.* 2020;14:2021-31.
174. Gusev EI, Skvortsova VI, Dambinova SA, Raevskiy KS, Alekseev AA, Bashkatova VG, et al. Neuroprotective Effects of Glycine for Therapy of Acute Ischaemic Stroke. *Cerebrovascular Diseases.* 2000;10(1):49-60.
175. Cai C-c, Zhu J-h, Ye L-x, Dai Y-y, Fang M-c, Hu Y-y, et al. Glycine Protects against Hypoxic-Ischemic Brain Injury by Regulating Mitochondria-Mediated Autophagy via the AMPK Pathway. *Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity.* 2019;2019:4248529.
176. Pascual JM, Carceller F, Roda JM, Cerdán S. Glutamate, Glutamine, and GABA as Substrates for the Neuronal and Glial Compartments After Focal Cerebral Ischemia in Rats. *Stroke.* 1998;29(5):1048-57.
177. Mapstone M, Cheema AK, Fiandaca MS, Zhong X, Mhyre TR, MacArthur LH, et al. Plasma phospholipids identify antecedent memory impairment in older adults. *Nature Medicine.* 2014;20(4):415-8.
178. Frisardi V, Panza F, Seripa D, Farooqui T, Farooqui AA. Glycerophospholipids and glycerophospholipid-derived lipid mediators: A complex meshwork in Alzheimer's disease pathology. *Progress in Lipid Research.* 2011;50(4):313-30.
179. De Pauw M. problemen van hart en bloedvaten, partim cardiologie2017.

7. Supplementary data

7.1 Search string used for the Web Of Science database search.

#	Search	Number of results
1	TITLE: (stroke OR cerebral infarction OR Cerebrovascular Accident) AND TOPIC: (biomarker* OR biomarker panel) AND TOPIC: ("Gene profiling" OR "rna expression" OR "rna")	83
2	TITLE: (stroke OR cerebral infarction OR Cerebrovascular Accident) AND TOPIC: (biomarker* OR biomarker panel) AND TOPIC: (diagnos*) Indexes=SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI, CPCI-S, CPCI-SSH, ESCI Timespan=2001-2020	626
3	TITLE: (stroke OR cerebral infarction OR Cerebrovascular Accident) AND TOPIC: (metabonomics OR metabolomics) AND TOPIC: (diagnos*) Indexes=SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI, CPCI-S, CPCI-SSH, ESCI Timespan=2001-2020	33
4	TITLE: (stroke OR cerebral infarction OR Cerebrovascular Accident) AND TOPIC: (lipid* OR lipoprotein* or glycolipid* OR fatty* OR glyceride) AND TOPIC: (diagnos*) Indexes=SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI, CPCI-S, CPCI-SSH, ESCI Timespan=2001-2020	305
5	TITLE: (stroke OR cerebral infarction OR Cerebrovascular Accident) AND TOPIC: (diagnos*)	33
6	TITLE: (stroke OR cerebral infarction OR Cerebrovascular Accident) AND TOPIC: (biomarker* or biomarker panel) AND TOPIC: (diagnos*) Indexes=SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI, CPCI-S, CPCI-SSH, ESCI Timespan=2001-2020	626
7	TITLE: (stroke OR cerebral infarction OR Cerebrovascular Accident) AND TOPIC: (biomarker* OR "Gene profiling" OR "rna expression") Indexes=SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI, CPCI-S, CPCI-SSH, ESCI Timespan=2001-2020	2387
8	#7 OR # 6 OR # 5 OR #4 OR #3 OR #2 OR #1 Indexes=SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI, CPCI-S, CPCI-SSH, ESCI Timespan=2001-2020	2647

7.2. Search string used for the EMBASE database search.

#	Search	Number of results
1	('brain ischemia':ti,ab,kw OR 'brain infarction':ti,ab,kw OR 'cerebrovascular accident':ab,ti OR 'middle cerebral artery occlusion':ti,ab,kw) AND [2001-2020]/py	26839
2	'biological marker':ti,ab,kw OR 'genetic marker':ti,ab,kw	10207
3	'diagnostic procedure':ti,ab,kw OR diagnosis:ti,ab,kw OR 'diagnostic test':ti,ab,kw	2300051
4	'genetic profile':ti,ab,kw OR rna:ti,ab,kw OR 'messenger rna':ti,ab,kw	614462
5	microna:ti,ab,kw OR 'genetic transcription':ti,ab,kw OR epigenetics:ti,ab,kw	103759
6	'metabolic regulation':ti,ab,kw OR 'metabolic fingerprinting':ti,ab,kw OR metabolomics:ti,ab,kw	33877
7	'protein metabolism':ti,ab,kw OR proteins:ti,ab,kw OR 'protein fingerprinting':ti,ab,kw OR proteomics:ti,ab,kw	1393627
8	#1 AND #2 AND #3	3*
9	#1 AND #4	518*
10	#1 AND #5	254*
11	#1 AND #6	49*
12	#1 AND #6 AND ('controlled study'/de OR 'human'/de OR 'in vivo study'/de)	39*

*Only combined searches were examined in detail.

7.3. Search string used for Google Scholar database search.

#	Search	Number of results
1	("ischemic stroke" OR "cerebral infarction" OR "cerebral hypoxia" OR "apoplexy" OR "MCAO" OR "cerebrovascular accident" OR "CVA") AND ("biomarker" OR "biomarker panel" OR "clinical marker" OR "serum marker") AND ("gene expression" OR "RNA" OR "gene profil*").	15200*
2	("ischemic stroke" OR "cerebral infarction" OR "cerebral hypoxia" OR "apoplexy" OR "MCAO" OR "cerebrovascular accident" OR "CVA") AND ("biomarker" OR "biomarker panel" OR "clinical marker" OR "serum marker") AND ("microRNA" OR "epigenetics" or "M*RNA" OR MiR-*)	6870*
3	("ischemic stroke" OR "cerebral infarction" OR "cerebral hypoxia" OR "apoplexy" OR "MCAO" OR "cerebrovascular accident" OR "CVA") AND ("biomarker" OR "biomarker panel" OR "clinical marker" OR "serum marker") AND ("protein*" OR "proteomic*")	18100*
4	("ischemic stroke" OR "cerebral infarction" OR "cerebral hypoxia" OR "apoplexy" OR "MCAO" OR "cerebrovascular accident" OR "CVA") AND ("biomarker" OR "biomarker panel" OR "clinical marker" OR "serum marker") AND ("metabolomic*" OR "metabonomic*" OR "metabolite*")	1940*

* Sorted on relevance, only first 500 results were examined.

7.4. search strings used for medline (pubmed) database search.

#	Search	Number of results
1	TS=(ischemic stroke OR cerebral infarction OR Cerebrovascular Accident OR CVA OR apoplexy OR MCAO) AND TS=(biomarker* OR biomarker panel OR microRNA OR MiRNA OR serum marker OR laboratory marker OR gene profiling OR rna expression OR rna OR lipid* OR lipoprotein* or metabolomics OR metabonomics OR protein* OR metabolites)	113
2	(((((a genes[MeSH Terms])) OR ("gene expression profile")) OR ("gene expression"[Title/Abstract])) AND (((ischemic stroke[MeSH Terms]OR (ischemic stroke[Title/Abstract])) AND ((biomarkers[MeSH Terms]) OR (biomarkers, pharmacological[MeSH Terms])))	74
3	((((mirna[MeSH Terms]) OR (mir-[Title/Abstract])) OR (MicroRNA-[Title/Abstract])) AND (((ischemic stroke[MeSH Terms]OR (ischemic stroke[Title/Abstract])) AND ((biomarkers[MeSH Terms]) OR (biomarkers, pharmacological[MeSH Terms])))	106
4	((((protein*[Title/Abstract]) OR (proteomics[Title/Abstract])) OR (proteomic[MeSH Terms])) AND (((ischemic stroke[MeSH Terms]OR (ischemic stroke[Title/Abstract])) AND ((biomarkers[MeSH Terms]) OR (biomarkers, pharmacological[MeSH Terms]))) Filters: from 2001 - 2020	1025
5	(((((metabolite[Title/Abstract]) OR (metabolite[MeSH Terms])) OR (metabolomic[Title/Abstract])) OR (metabonomic[Title/Abstract])) AND (((ischemic stroke[MeSH Terms]OR (ischemic stroke[Title/Abstract])) AND ((biomarkers[MeSH Terms]) OR (biomarkers, pharmacological[MeSH Terms]))) Filters: from 2001 - 2020	47
6	(((((metabolite[Title/Abstract]) OR (metabolite[MeSH Terms])) OR (metabolomic[Title/Abstract])) OR (metabonomic[Title/Abstract])) AND (((ischemic stroke[MeSH Terms]OR (ischemic stroke[Title/Abstract])) AND (2001:2020[pdat])) AND ((diagnosis[MeSH Terms]) OR prognosis[mesh Terms]))	82
7	("Stroke/diagnosis"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/enzymology"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/etiology"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/genetics"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/pathology"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/physiopathology"[Mesh]) AND (((metabolite[Title/Abstract]) OR (metabolite[MeSH Terms])) OR (metabolomics[Title/Abstract])) OR (metabolomics[Title/Abstract]))	239
8	("Stroke/diagnosis"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/enzymology"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/etiology"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/genetics"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/pathology"[Mesh] OR "Stroke/physiopathology"[Mesh]) AND (("Biomarkers/blood"[Mesh] OR "Biomarkers/genetics"[Mesh]))	395

7.5. Modified Newcastle Ottawa scale for quality assessment:

7.5.1. Selection

1. Patient selection
 - a. Yes, CT/ MRI cases of acute ischemic stroke patients confirmed by radiologist **(one star)**
 - b. No description
2. Representativeness of the cases:
 - a. Consecutive or obviously representative series of cases stated in the full text **(one star)**
 - b. Potential for selection biases or not stated
3. Selection of healthy controls:
 - a. Community controls stated in the full text **(one star)**
 - b. Hospital controls

- c. No description
- 4. Definition of controls:
 - a. No history of stroke or relevant co-morbidities **(one star)**
 - b. No description of source

7.5.2. Comparability

- 1. Comparability of cases and controls on the basis of the design or analysis controlled for confounders:
 - a. The study controls for age and gender **(one star)**
 - b. Study matches controls with patients for other factors well-known IS risk factors (hypertension, hyperlipemia, diabetes) **(one star)**
 - c. Cohorts are not comparable on the basis of the design or analysis controlled for confounders

7.5.3. Exposure

- 1. Ascertainment of exposure
 - a. Secure record **(one star)**
- 2. Same method of ascertainment for cases and controls:
 - a. Not applicable
- 3. Non-response rate:
 - a. Not applicable

7.5.4. Interpretation

Interpretation:

- 1. 5 or more: satisfactory or low risk of bias
- 2. <5 stars: unsatisfactory or high risk of bias

7.5.5. NOS per biomarker group

Genes

Study	Selection				Comparability		Exposure		Total
	Patient selection	Representativeness of the cases	Selection of HC	Definition of controls	Controlled for age and gender	Adjusts for most important risk factors	Data in secured record?	Samples equal between groups?	
Barr et al (77)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Grond-Ginsbach et al (81)	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	4
O'Connell et al (78)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Oh et al (82)	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	6
Pan et al (83)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Stamova et al (79)	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	4
Tang et al (80)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3

MiRNA

Study	Selection				Comparability		Exposure		Total
	Patient selection	Representativeness of the cases	Selection of HC	Definition of controls	Adjust for age and gender	The study controls for most important risk factors	Data in secured record?	Samples equal between groups?	
Chen et al (92)	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	6
Cheng et al (87)	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5
Giordano et al (85)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Gui et al (93)	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	6
Huang et al (94)	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	6
Ji et al (95)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Jia et al (96)	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5
Leung et al (86)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Li et al (97)	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	6
Long et al (98)	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	6
Ma et al (88)	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	5
Peng et al (99)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Sepramamiam et al (100)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Tian et al (89)	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	5

Tiedt et al (84)	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	5
Wang et al (101)	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	4
Wang et al (90)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	5
Wang et al (91)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	5
Wang et al (102)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Wu et al (103)	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	6
Wu et al (104)	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	5
Yang et al (105)	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	6
Yang et al (106)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Zhao et al (107)	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	4
Zhang et al (108)	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	5

Proteins

Study	Selection				Comparability		Exposure		Total
	Patient selection	Representativeness of the cases	Selection of HC	Definition of controls	Age and gender matched controls	The study controls for most important risk factors	Data in secured record?	Samples equal between groups?	
Agno et al (133)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Alfieri et al (117)	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	7
Algin et al (116)	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	5
Allard et al (118)	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	5
Alvarez-Perez et al (134)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Augello et al (119)	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5
Ben-assayag et al (120)	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5
Can et al (135)	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	4
Cano et al (136)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Castellanos et al (137)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Cha et al (138)	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	4
Dambinova et al (139)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4

De Marchis et al (140)	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	4
Demir et al (115)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Eldeeb et al (121)	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	6
Fan et al (122)	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5
Kelly et al (114)	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	7
Kim et al (123)	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	5
Kuwashiro et al (124)	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5
Lu et al (141)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Ma et al (125)	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	6
Mazzotta et al (142)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Menon et al (126)	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	5
Nadar et al (127)	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5
Ning et al (113)	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	7
Oraby et al (143)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Perini et al (128)	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	5
Rajeshwar et al (144)	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	4
Ren et al (129)	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	5
Shenhar-Tsarfaty et al (130)	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	6
Waje-Adreassen et al (112)	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	4
Walsh et al (131)	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	6

Youssef et al (132)	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	6
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Metabolites

Study	Selection				Comparability		Exposure		Total
	Patient selection	Representativeness of the cases	Selection of HC	Definition of controls	Adjust for age and gender	The study controls for most important risk factors	Data in secured record?	Samples equal between groups?	
Hu et al (148)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Jiang et al (145)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Liu et al (146)	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5
Peng et al (150)	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	5
Schneider et al (147)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4
Zhang et al (149)	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	4

