Evaluation Of GALECTIN-3 As An Inflammatory Marker In HCV Positive Patients With And Without Chronic Kidney Disease

Thesis

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BY

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List of Abbreviations

• Aa Aminoacids

• AGE Advancedglycationendproduct;

AKI Acute kidney injury

• ALE Advanced lipoxidationendproduct.

AUC Area under curveAVG Arteriovenous grafts

bvdv Bovine viral diarrhea virusC.pneumoniae Chlamydia pneumoniae

C1 Complement 1
C3 Complement 3
C4 Complement 4
CHC Chronic hepatitis c

CKD Chronic kidney disease
 CML Ne-carboxymethyllysine

CRD Carbohydrate recognition domain
 CRH Corticotropin releasing hormone

• CRP C -reactive protein

CSFV Classic swine fever virus
 CTL Cytotoxic T lymphocytes
 CVD Cardiovascular diseases

DcR3 Decoy receptor 3
Denv-1 Dengue virus 1
Denv-2 Dengue virus 2

EMT Epithelial to mesenchymal transition

EPO Erythropoietin

• ERK Extracellular signal-regulated kinase

ESRD End stage renal disease
 FCR Fractional catabolic rate
 GFR Glomerular filteration rate

• GM-CT-01 Galactomannan

• GR-MD-02 Galactoarabino-rhamnogalaturonan

HCC Hepatocellular carcinoma

	пол	II. and the second
•	HCV	Hepatitis c virus
•	HD	Hemodialysis
•	HDL	High density lipoprotein
•	HFD	High fat diet
•	HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
•	HLA	Human leuckocyte antigen
•	ho-1	Heme-oxygenase-1
•	HSC	Hepatic satellatecellss
•	Hs-CRP	High Senstive CRP
•	IBD	Inflammatory Bowel Disease
•	Icam-1	Intercellular Adhesion molecule 1
•	IFN-γ	Interferon-γ
•	IgA	Immunoglobulin A
•	igf-1	Insuline like growth factor 1
•	IgG	Immunoglobulin G
•	IL .	Interleukin
•	IL-1	Interleukin-1
•	IL-10	Interleukin-10
•	IL-1β	Interleukin-1 β
•	IL-6Rα	Interleukin-6 receptor alpha
•	IL-8	Interleukin-8
•	IRS-1	Insulin receptor substrate-1
•	JEV	Japanese encephalitis virus
	KDW	Kidney disease wasting
•	KCs	Kupffer cells
•	KDIGO	Kidney disease improving global outcomes
•	LDL	Low densietylipoprotien
•	LPS	Lipopolysaccaride
•	LSECs	Liver sinusoidal endothelial cells;
•	M1	Activated macrophage
	Mcp-1	monocyte chemotactic protein-1
•	MIP	Macrophage inflammatory protein
•	NASH	Non –alcoholic steatohepatitis
•	NK	Natural Killer Cells

Pecam-1 Platelet endothelial cell adhesion molecule-1

- PGE2 Prostaglandin E2
- PTX3 Pentraxin 3
- RAGE Receptor for AGEs
- ROS Reactive oxygen species.
- SAA Serum amyloid A
- SAP Serum amyloid protein
 - SLE Systemic lupus erythematosis
- Tgf-ß Transforming growth factor beta
- TH-1 T-helper 1
- TNF- α Tumor necrosis factor alpha
- TSAT Serum ferritin and transferrin saturation
 - UUO Unilateral uritic obstruction
- VAT Visceral Adipose Tissue
- Vcam-1 Vascular Cell Adhesion Molecule-1
- VWF Von Willebrand Factor
- WHO World Health Organization
- WNVWest Nile Virus
- YFV Yellow fever virus

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INTRODUCTION

It is estimated that 3-4 million people are infected with HCV each year. 130-170 million people are chronically infected with HCV and at risk of developing liver cirrhosis and/or liver cancer. More than 350,000 people die from HCV-related liver diseases each year (*WHO*, 2012).

HCV infection is found worldwide. Countries with high rates of chronic infection are Egypt (14.7 %) (*Egypt Demographic and Health Survey*, 2008), Pakistan (4.8%) and China (3.2%) (*WHO*, 2012).

Egypt has a very high prevalence of HCV and a high morbidity and mortality from chronic liver disease, cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma (*Lehman and Wilson*, 2009).

Liver fibrosis is defined as an abnormal accumulation of extracellular matrix in the liver. Its endpoint is liver cirrhosis which is responsible for a significant morbidity and mortality. Cirrhosis is an advanced stage of fibrosis, characterised by formation of regenerative nodules of liver parenchyma separated by fibrotic septa, which result from cell death, aberrant extracellular matrix deposition and vascular reorganisation. Advanced liver fibrosis results in cirrhosis, liver failure, and portal hypertension and often requires liver transplantation (Saile B et.al, 2007 and Ramadori G et.al, 2004).

Removing the insult and stopping the persistent inflammatory stimuli is probably the best way to prevent progression of fibrosis; this has been shown in many patients with chronic hepatitis C and in smaller numbers of patients with autoimmune hepatitis. Clinical data confirmed that, providing appropriate, targeted treatment to patients with histologically advanced liver disease, especially those with autoimmune hepatitis, may improve their long-term outcome (*Malekzadeh R et.al*, 2004).

Nevertheless, prevention of the progression of fibrosis to cirrhosis remains the major clinical goal. The poor prognosis of cirrhosis is aggravated by the frequent occurrence of hepatocellular carcinoma (*Saile B*

et.al,2007) .Inflammation is a key factor in the initiation and maintenance of fibrotic processes within the liver (Karlmark et al., 2008).

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is also associated with a wide spectrum of clinical and biological extrahepatic manifestations, In chronically infected patients, the virus can trigger an impairment in lymphoproliferation with cryoglobulin production (*Zignego AL et.al,2007*).

Mixed cryoglobulinemia with its complications (skin, neurological, renal, and rheumatologic) is the most significant extrahepatic manifestation of HCV infection (*Stefanova-Petrova et.al*, 2007).

In addition to the risk of renal disease progression, the overall prognosis for patients with HCV-related nephritis is poor because of the high incidence of co-infections and associated cardiovascular disease. A retrospective cohort study involving more than 470,000 adult veterans showed that patients with HCV infection were more likely to develop end stage renal disease (4.3 per 1000 person-year) than HCV-seronegative patients (3.1 per 1000 person-year). A cross-sectional study showed that

HCV-infected patients had a 40% higher likelihood for developing renal insufficiency—defined as serum creatinine levels greater than or equal to 1.5 mg/dL—compared with seronegative subjects (*Chadban SJ et.al*,2005).

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) represents a significant global health problem with few therapeutic options currently known to slow its progression. The prevalence of moderate to advanced stages of CKD has increased by an alarming 42% over the past decade (*Okamura DM et.al,2011*).

Progressive renal disease is the consequence of expansion of interstitial extracellular matrix which leads to nephron loss. Two critical pathways have a significant impact in renal injury; tubular apoptosis and defective tissue remodeling characterized by the imbalance between matrix synthesis and matrix degradation (*Li Y et.al,2009*).

Renal tubular cell apoptosis and subsequent tubular atrophy are an important cause of progressive loss of kidney functional decline. Apoptosis is the end result of a complex regulatory system balancing survival factors and cell activation/injury signals (*Zhang G et.al,2003*).

Apoptosis occurs principally through two separate yet interlinked signaling mechanisms: the extrinsic pathway, activated by pro-apoptotic receptor signals at the cell surface, and the intrinsic pathway, activated by mitochondrial signals from within the cell. (*Zhang G et.al,2003 and Kang EH et.al,2009*).

During the final phases of classical repair of the tubular cell injury, extracellular matrix synthesis and degradation reach equilibrium, and normal tissue architecture is restored. By contrast, in progressive kidney disease, this final phase is altered and the normal architecture is irreversibly damaged (*Zhang G et.al,2003 and Kang EH et.al,2009*).

Lectins are carbohydrate-binding proteins that have an affinity for specific oligosaccharides (*Ostalska-Nowicka D et.al,2009*).

Galectins are low molecular weight, calcium-independent, β-galactoside-binding lectins. Galectin-3