ACUTE KIDNEY INJURY IN NEONATES

Thesis
Submitted for the partial fulfillment of
M.Sc. Degree on Pediatrics

By
Dalia Salah Al-Din Ahmed Abd-Al-Aziz
M.B.B.Ch.
Faculty of Medicine - Cairo University

Supervisors

Prof. Dr. Ayman Abd El-Rahman El-Badawy
Professor of Pediatrics
Faculty of Medicine - Cairo University

Assis. Prof. Dr. Samuel Helmy Makar Assistant Professor of Pediatrics Faculty of Medicine - Cairo University

Dr. Abd El-Rahman Ahmed Abdel-Razek Lecturer of Pediatrics Faculty of Medicine - Cairo University

Pediatric Department
Faculty of Medicine
Cairo University
2010

ABSTRACT

Acute kidney injury (AKI) is not just an innocent by-stander in the

critically ill patient. Research on incidence and outcomes of AKI in the

critically ill neonatal population is scarce. To date, observational studies

suggest high rates of AKI and poor outcomes in critically ill neonates.

Neonates with AKI are at risk of developing chronic kidney disease and

hypertension.

Methods: 150 neonates were included in our study. They were

classified into three groups. Group A: 50 neonates with risk factors and

developed renal injury. Group B: 50 neonates with the same risk factors

with normal kidney function. Group C: 50 neonates without risk factors

and normal kidney function.

Objective: to know the association between AKI and the risk

factors (sepsis, shock, perinatal asphyxia, congestive heart failure,

mechanical ventilation, nephrotoxic drugs).

Results: Our study shows that shock was the main risk factor.

Nephrotoxic drugs weren't associated with increased risk of developing

AKI. CPAP has a protective effect on kidney function versus no

ventilation or SIMV mode. Mortality rate was high in group A than group

B. Neonates <36 wks gestation age showed a mortality rate higher than

neonates \geq 36 wk gestation age.

Key words: acute kidney injury, neonates

CONTENTS

	Page
Introduction	1
Aim of work	2
Review of Literature	3
Embryology	3
Anatomy	5
Renal circulation	14
Glomerular filtration rate	18
Tubular function	25
Acute kidney iunjury	30
Patients & Methods	50
Results	53
Discussion	69
Conclusion	77
Recommendations	78
Summary	79
References	
Arabic Summary	

LIST OF TABLES

Table No.		Page
1	Normal serum creatinine values of term and preterm infants	25
2	Normal serum creatinine clearance values of term and preterm infants	25
3	Proposed working definitions for the classification of AKI in adults and children. In all three classifications either creatinine or urine output criteria suffice in staging	33
4	Etiology of Acute Renal Failure in Newborns	36
5	Renal failure indices in the oliguric neonate	41
6	Normal blood pressure in full-term infants (mmHg)	42
7	Mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) in infants of 500-1.500 grams birth weight.	42
8	Comparison of the sex distribution of the studied	
	cases among the studied groups (A, B and C)	53
9	Comparison of the demographics of the studied cases among the studied groups (A, B and C)	53
10	Mean Age and Weight of the studied cases among Group A at the Onset of AKI	54
11	Comparison of the risk factors between group A and B	55
12	Comparison of the Frequencies of Administration of Nephrotoxic drugs between group A and B	56
13	Comparison of the Different Modes of Ventilation between group A and group B	56

Table No.		Page
14	The differences between group A, B and C in blood pressure.	57
15	Differences in mean urine output among group A, B and C	57
16	Comparison of the CBC among the studied groups A, B and C at the Initial stage/	58
17	Comparison of the Biochemistry Profile among the Studied groups A, B and C at the Initial stage.	59
18	Comparison of the Last CBC among the studied groups A, B and C	60
19	Comparison of the Last Biochemistry Profile among the studied groups A, B and C	61
20	Comparison of the Last Biochemistry Profile among the studied groups A, B and C	67
21	Comparison of The outcome among group A patients according to their gestational age	67

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACE : Angiotensin converting enzyme

AKI : Acute kidney injury
BUN : Blood urea nitrogen

Ca : Calcium

CBC : Complete blood count

CHF : Congestive heart failure

CPAH : Clearance of paraaminohippuric acid

CPAP : Continuous positive airway pressure

Cr : Creatinine

ECF : Extracellular fluid

ERPE : Effective renal plasma flow

FeNa : Fractional excretion of sodium

GA : Gestational age

GFR : Glomerular filtration rate

GBM : Glomerular basement membrane

HB : Haemoglobin

HCT : Haematocrit

K : Potassium

Na : Sodium

NEC : Necrotizing enterocolites

PI : Phosphate

Plt : Platelet

PROM : Premature rupture of membrane

RBF : Renal blood flow

RPF : Renal plasma flow

RVR : Renal vascular resistance

SIMV : Synchronized intermittent mandatory ventilation

SNGFR : Single-nephron glomerular filtration rate

WBC's : White blood cells

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig No.		Page
1	Main cell lineages arising in the metanephros	5
2	Comparison of the blood supplies of cortical and juxtamedullary nephrons	7
3	Schematic depiction of the glomerulus and surrounding structures.	10
4	Gross morphology of the renal circulation	13
5	Age related comparative yearly incidence of AKI	34
6	Percentage of sex for group A	54
7	the level of hemoglobin at the three stages in group A	62
8	the level of hematocrite at the three stages in group A	62
9	The platelet count at the three stages in group A	63
10	The white blood cells count at the three stages in group A	63
11	The blood urea nitrogen level at the three stages in group A	63
12	The creatinine level at the stages in group A	64
13	The Na level at the three stages in group A	65
14	The K level at the three stages in group A	65
15	The Ca level at the three stages in group A	66
16	The PI level at the three stages in group A	66
17	The differences between group A and group B in outcome	68

INTRODUCTION

Acute kidney injury in the newborn is a common problem in the neonatal intensive care unit. The incidence of acute renal failure ranges from (6-24%) (*Andreali, 2002; Drukker, 2002*).

Acute kidney injury is commonly present among sick neonate. Asphyxia, respiratory distress syndrome, and urogenital anomalies are commonly reported causes of acute kidney injury in the west (*Mathur et al.*, 2006).

In a full term neonate, the kidney functions are not fully mature and functional maturation continues in the postnatal age. Under normal circumstances, the kidneys adapt to various endogenous and exogenous stresses. However, in sick neonates and in stressfull conditions like sepsis and shock the adaptive capacities of the kidney may be overcome leading to renal dysfunction (*Jayashree et al.*, *1991*).

Acute renal failure carries poor prognosis and may even result in permanent renal damage in upto 40% of survivors (*Gupta et al.*, 2005).

AIM OF THE WORK

To study the risk factors of acute kidney injury which include sepsis, shock, heart failure, premature rupture of membrane, necrotizing enterocolitis, nephrotoxic drugs, mechanical ventilation and prematurity and the outcome of these cases.

ANATOMY, EMBRYOLOGY AND FUNCTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE KIDNEYS

EMBRYOLOGY OF THE KIDNEYS:

Potter (1972) has provided the most complete anatomic description human kidney development. Three sets of 'kidneys' form in mammalian embryos: the pronephros, mesonephros, and metanephros.

The metanephros is the direct precursor of the adult kidney, whereas the others essentially involute before birth (*Woolf*, 2008).

These three paired renal systems develop from the nephrogenic ridge of the mesoderm (*Melanie and John*, 2008).

Pronephros and mesonephros:

The first two systems, the pronephros and mesonephros, have limited function in the human being and are transient (*Melanie and John*, 2008).

In humans, the pronephros develops from the third embryonic week and contains rudimentary tubules opening into the pronephric duct. The human mesonephros begins to develop in the fourth week of gestation and contains well-developed nephrons comprising vascularized gomeruli connected to proximal and distal-type tubules draining into the mesonephric duct, a continuation of the pronephric duct. The mesonephric duct extends to fuse with the cloaca, the urinary bladder precursor, at the end of the fourth week. The mesonephric tubules and duct form the efferent ductules of the epididymis, the vas deferens, the ejaculatory ducts and the seminal vesicles in the male. In the female they result in the vestigial, epoophoron and paroophron (*Melanie and John*, 2008).

Metanephrons:

The metanephrons represents the final development stage of the mammalian kidney. In humans, the metanephros appear 5 to 6 weeks after fertilization. It consists of two components which are the *ureteric bud epithelium*, a branch of the caudal mesonephric duct, and the *metanephric mesenchyme*. The ureteric bud and its branches form the epithelia of the collected ducts, renal pelvis, ureter and bladder trigone, whereas the metanephric mesenchyme differentiates into nephron tubules he interstitial fibroblasts (*Risdon and Woolf, 1998*).

The first metanephron glomeruli form by 9 weeks' and the final layer of nephrons forms by 36 weeks' gestation. The most mature nephrons are located; near the medulla, and the younger immature nephrons are found in the outer cortex. Maturation proceeds after birth, but new nephrons are not formed in the human kidney. Kidney growth continues until adulthood mainly due to elongation of the proximal convoluted tubule and the loop of Henle and due to the growth of the interstitium (*Tisher and Madsen*, 1991).

There is evidence that nephrons in the developing metanephros may begin functioning as early as the 11th or 12th week after conception. Fetal urine is produced by the 12th week and its production increases with age until the end of pregnancy when urine makes up more than 60% of amount of amniotic fluid (*Guignard and Drukker*, 1998).

At inception of the metanephros, it receives its blood supply from the all sacral branches of the aorta. By 8 weeks' gestation, the metanephros is located in the lumbar position and ultimately the definitive renal arteries arise from the aorta at the level of the second jar vertebra (*Risdon* and *Woolf*, 1998).

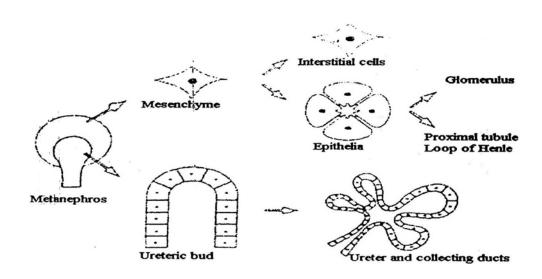


Figure 1: Main cell lineages arising in the metanephros

(Woolf, 2004).

ANATOMY OF THE KIDNEYS:

The kidney controls the composition and volume of body fluids within narrowly defined limits by excreting unwanted substances and regulating the excretion of essential metabolites. In addition, the kidney has other important roles, such as endocrine functions related particularly to blood volume, composition, and metabolic functions. It is a major site for degradation of compounds and an important source of production of essential metabolites. To fulfill these functions, the kidney has a unique structure (*Field, et al., 1995*).

The kidney lies in the retroperitoneal space slightly above the level of the umbilicus. They range in length and weight, respectively, from approximately 6 cm and 24 gm in a full-term newborn to 12 cm or more and 150 gm in an adult (*Ira and Ellis*, 2007).

Each kidney lies retroperiotoneally on the posterior abdominal wall in the para-ventral gutter from the 12th thoracic to the 3rd lumber vertebra. The right kidney is slightly lower than the left, reaching to about a finger breadth above the iliac crest. Its medial margin shows an indentation, called the renal hilum, at which are attached the renal artery, vein, lymphatics, nerves and the pelvic of the ureter (*Field, et al., 1995*)

The kidney is closely surrounded by a fibrous capsule that normally strips easily from the surface. The fibroareolar tissue surrounding the kidney and the perinephric fat is condensed to form a sheath called renal fascia. The kidney is held in position partly through the attachments of the renal fascia, but principally by the apposition at the neighbouring viscera (*Ira and Ellis*, 2007).

The cut surface of the kidney is subdivided into an outer pale layer **the cortex,** which contains the glomeruli, proximal and distal convoluted tubules, and collecting ducts, and an inner darker layer, the medulla, which contains the straight portions of the tubules, the loops of Henle, the vasa recta, and the terminal collecting ducts (*Ira and Ellis*, 2007).

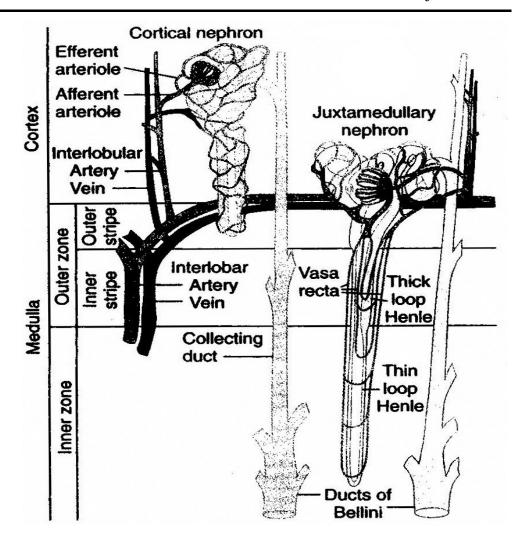


Figure 2: Comparison of the blood supplies of cortical and juxtamedullary nephrons.

(Ira and Ellis, 2007)

The nephron:

Each kidney contains approximately 1 million nephrons (glomeruli and associated tubules). In humans, formation of nephrons is complete at birth, but functional maturation with tubular growth and elongation continues during the first decade of life. Because new nephrons cannot be formed after birth, progressive loss of nephrons may lead to renal insufficiency. Decreased nephron number at birth may be associated with hypertension in adulthood, presumably related to hyperfiltration and "premature" sclerosis of overworked nephron units. This provocative hypothesis, if proven, could identify a major risk factor for hypertension and its associated cardiovascular complication in the newborn period (*Ira and Ellis*, 2007).

The first part of the nephron is the glomerulus, which is composed of a tuft of anastomosing capillaries projecting into the so called "Bowman's space". This space is enclosed by Bowman's capsule which is composed of: i) a basement membrane which is continuous with the basement membranes of the glomerular capillaries and the proximal tubules, and ii) the parietal epithelial cells which are continuous with the visceral epithelial cells (*Ira and Ellis*, 2007).

The glomerular capillaries are supplied by an afferent arteriole and drained by a slightly smaller efferent arteriole. They are lined by endothelial cells which have thin cytoplasm characterized by the presence of multiple fenestrations (50-100nm in diameter).