# **AKI: Clinical Pearls to Accompany Concept Map**

#### How Do We Define AKI?

- Rapid increase in serum creatinine, decrease in urine output, or both
- Change in serum creatinine is generally easier to quantify in patients who do not have a foley catheter (i.e., most pediatric patients not in the ICU)
- An increase in creatinine of 50% above baseline or an absolute increase of 0.3 mg/dl are the
  most commonly used cutoffs for defining pediatric AKI
  - there are multiple classifications schemes which are overall more similar than they differ, and the minute details are more important for research purposes than from clinical care
  - the take-home point is that the percentage change from baseline matters the most -an increase in creatinine from 0.2 mg/dL to 0.3 mg/dL represents the same loss of renal function as an increase from 1.0 mg/dL to 1.5 mg/dL
- General staging of acute kidney injury (slight differences in definition from each classification scheme)
  - Stage 1: Serum creatinine between 1.5 and 2 times baseline
  - Stage 2: Serum creatinine between 2 and 3 times baseline
  - Stage 3: Serum creatinine greater than 3 times baseline

## How Can We Estimate Renal Function Based on Serum Creatinine?

- Use the **Bedside Schwartz Formula**: GFR = 0.413 \* ht (in cm) / (SCr)
- Caution:
  - This is an estimation assuming steady state conditions, and renal function is dynamic in the setting of AKI (i.e., a doubling of serum creatinine in the acute setting represents transient total loss of renal function)
  - Healthy individuals can lose up to 50% of renal functional capacity without any associated change in GFR or creatinine (due to compensatory glomerular hyperfiltration)
  - Prerenal azotemia, if transient, may not result in true kidney *injury* (i.e., an irreversible and damaging process), but this is impossible to tell without (1) predicting the future or (2) performing a kidney biopsy

### Why Do We Care About AKI?

- The conservative cutoff of an increase in creatinine by **50% above baseline** is used because even an increase this small has been a/w adverse outcomes, via multiple possible mechanisms:
  - Acidosis
  - Dyselectrolytemias (hyperkalemia, hyperphosphatemia, hypocalcemia) --> cardiac arrhythmias, impaired cellular functioning
  - o Fluid overload / third spacing
  - Toxin accumulation --> neutrophil dysfunction
  - Sequelae of uremia (platelet dysfunction, encephalopathy, pericarditis)
- Short-term complications
  - Patients with Stage 2 AKI (Cr 2.0x baseline or greater) that does not resolve within 7 days have 47% hospital mortality and 1-year survival of only 77%
- Long-term complications
  - Single episode of kidney injury --> "recovery" due to hyperfiltration of remaining functional nephrons --> serum creatinine "normalizes" but pt is at elevated risk of developing CKD

- Pre-renal: any cause of decreased blood flow to the kidney
  - **Systemic hypoperfusion** (i.e., decreased effective arterial blood volume): hypovolemia (GI losses), hemorrhage, sepsis, anaphylaxis, decompensated heart failure, cirrhosis
  - Localized decrease in renal blood flow: renal artery stenosis or thrombosis, ACE inhibitor / ARB use on top of second cause of hypoperfusion, medium-to-large vessel vasculitis, intra-abdominal hypertension
- Intrinsic renal: disease of renal parenchyma
  - Acute tubular necrosis results from prolonged ischemia or nephrotoxin exposure (drugs: vancomycin, zosyn, aminoglycosides, NSAIDs, iodinated contrast, antivirals [acyclovir, ganciclovir, cidofovir, etc], calcineurin inhibitors, cytotoxic chemotherapy vs other toxins: myoglobin, uric acid)
    - Classically w/ muddy brown casts on UA (but not necessarily)
  - Acute interstitial nephritis immune reaction to certain drugs (NSAIDs, penicillins) and infections in those with a genetic predisposition
    - classically with fever, rash, and eosinophiluria
  - Microvascular damage think small-vessel vasculitis (e.g., microscopic polyangiitis, granulomatosis with polyangiitis, Henoch-schonlein purpura, IgA nephritis) vs thrombotic microangiopathy (hemolytic-uremic syndrome, thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura, disseminated intravascular coagulation, transplant-associated thrombotic microangiopathy)
  - Glomerular disease typically glomerulonephritis more so than nephrosis membanoproliferative GN, SLE nephritis, anti-GBM disease, IgAN
- Post-renal: any obstruction preventing urine outflow resulting in intra-glomerular HTN
  - Tubular obstruction cast nephropathy as in myeloma, crystalline nephropathy (indinavir, acyclovir)
  - Mechanical blockade posterior urethral valves, vesico-ureteral reflux, bilateral obstructing calculi (e.g., struvite staghorn calculi), cancer in urinary system or metastatic to abdomen with ureteral blockade

### What Tests Are Helpful? Which Are Less Helpful, and in What Cases?

- Chem 10 gives BUN:Cr ratio (>15 suggestive of pre-renal), acid/base status, electrolytes
- CBC screen for infections, may give clues to etiology (e.g., lymphopenia --> SLE, anemia and thrombocytopenia --> HUS/TMA)
- UA with microscopy
  - Muddy brown casts think ATN
  - Eosinophils think AIN
  - Hematuria with RBC casts think GN
  - o Heavy proteinuria (urine protein:Cr ratio >2) think nephrotic syndrome
- C3/C4 if concerned regarding GN (e.g., SLE causes classically hypocomplementemic GN)
- CK to rule out rhabdomyolysis
- Renal ultrasound to rule out hydronephrosis (post-renal cause) or scarring (is AKI occurring in the background of occult CKD?)
- What about FeNa?
  - So-called "fraction of excreted sodium"
  - o (UNa x PCr) / (PNa x UCr)
  - Normalizes % of sodium excreted by relative ratio of urine to plasma creatinine
  - Can be helpful in distinguishing between pre-renal and intrinsic renal injury, but only if measured prior to fluid administration

- In the setting of pre-renal azotemia, kidneys will be maximally sodium-avid --> FeNa < 1%
- In the setting of intrinsic renal damage, kidneys will not be able to conserve Na properly --> FeNa > 2%

# How do we Manage AKI?

- Unfortunately there is no specific therapy to reverse or treat renal injury
- Therapy focuses on identifying and reversing any active precipitants of renal damage:
  - Correct hypovolemia if present and aim for goal net even to slightly positive (assuming patient's overall fluid status can tolerate). This may include blood transfusions to restore Hgb > 7.0.
  - Correct causes of third spacing (i.e., reverse causes of effective arterial blood volume depletion -- manage sepsis, give albumin for profound hypoalbuminemia, decrease afterload and/or increase inotropy for acute decompensated heart failure)
  - Minimize dose and duration of nephrotoxic medications when possible (common culprits: NSAIDs, vancomycin, zosyn, iodinated contrast, aminoglycosides, antivirals [acyclovir, ganciclovir, cidofovir, etc], calcineurin inhibitors, cytotoxic chemotherapy)
  - Identify possible urinary obstruction and relieve obstruction as indicated (e.g., urologic surgery, stent placement)
- At the same time, be aware of complications:
  - Acidosis consider NaHCO<sub>3</sub> bolus; if refractory, dialyze
  - Hyperkalemia if K >6.5 and EKG changes, give calcium gluconate. Temporize with albuterol and/or insulin/glucose. Get rid of total body K burden via diuresis (loop diuretics preferred), Kayexalate (via decanting feeds and/or orally), and/or dialysis if severe and refractory.
  - Fluid overload provide respiratory support as necessary and diurese as tolerated;
     again, if refractory, dialyze
  - Uremia give DDAVP for uremic bleeding, dialyze for complications (encephalopathy, bleeding, pericarditis)

# **References for Additional Reading**

Ronco C, Bellomo R, Kellum JA. Acute Kidney Injury. Lancet 2019; 394: 1949-64.