Renal failure

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kidneys

- The kidneys play a central role in excretion of many metabolic breakdown products, including ammonia and urea from protein, creatinine from muscle, uric acid from nucleic acids, drugs and toxins.
- They achieve this by making large volumes of an ultrafltrate of plasma (125mL/min, 180L/24 hrs) at the glomerulus, and selectively reabsorbing components of this ultrafltrate at points along the nephron
- Each kidney contains approximately 1 million individual functional units, called nephrons.
- Under normal circumstances, approximately 99% of the 180L of glomerular filtrate that is produced each day is reabsorbed in the tubules

Glomerular filtration rate

- The glomerular filtration rate (GFR) is the sum of the ultrafiltration rates from plasma into the Bowman's space in each nephron and is a measure of renal excretory function
- The normal range of GFR, is 100–130 average of 125 mL/min in men
- and 90–120 ml/min in women younger than the age of 40.

1.Acute kidney injury (AKI)

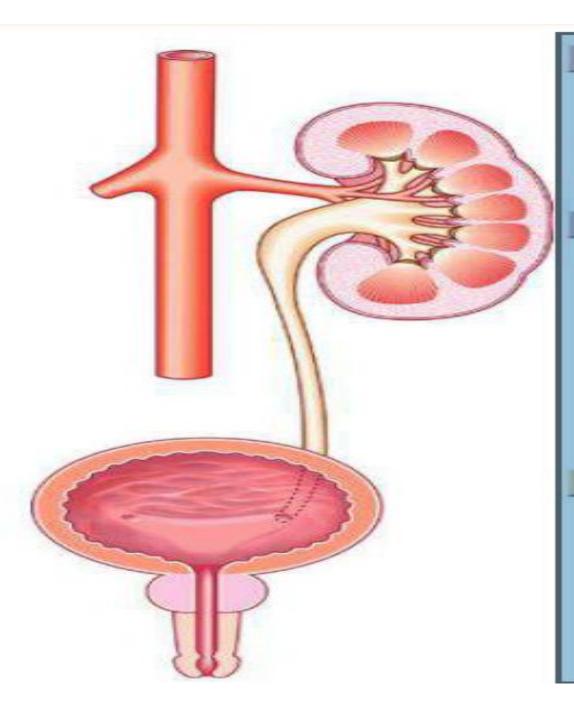
(AKI) is a sudden and often reversible loss of renal function, which develops over days or weeks and is often accompanied by a reduction in urine volume.

Approximately 7% of all hospitalized patients and 20% of acutely ill patients develop AKI

In uncomplicated AKI mortality is low, however when it is associated with sepsis and multiple organ failure mortality is 50%–70% and the outcome is usually determined by the severity of the underlying disorder and other complications, rather than by kidney injury itself

Pathophysiology

- 'Pre-renal, when perfusion to the kidney is reduced
- 'Renal', when the primary insult affects the kidney itself
- 'post-renal', when there is an obstruction to urine flow at any point from the tubule to the urethra.



PRE-RENAL

Impaired perfusion:

- Cardiac failure
- Sepsis
- Blood loss
- Dehydration
- Vascular occlusion

RENAL

Glomerulonephritis Small-vessel vasculitis Acute tubular necrosis

- Drugs
- Toxins
- Prolonged hypotension Interstitial nephritis
- Drugs
- Toxins
- Inflammatory disease
- Infection, including COVID-19

POST-RENAL

Urinary calculi (bilateral)
Retroperitoneal fibrosis
Benign prostatic
hypertrophy
Bladder cancer
Prostate cancer
Cervical cancer
Urethral stricture/valves
Meatal stenosis/phimosis

Clinical features

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- Early recognition of AKI, is required to prevent rapid progression of renal injury and to facilitate recovery as the damage may be potentially reversible if detected at an early stage. **Pre renal**
- Low BP relative to normal for the patient (including postural drop)
- Tachycardia
- Weight decrease
- Dry mucous membranes
- Decreased skin turgor
- JVP not visible even when lying down.

- nausea or vomiting
- shortness of breath
- confusion tiredness reduction in urine output
- water retention

Renal AKI

- Vital signs, Fluid assessment, Oedema
- Purpuric rash, uveitis, arthritis
- Fever
- Rash

Post renal

- Rectal examination (prostate and anal tone)
- Distended bladder
- Pelvic mass

Diagnosis

- Pre-renal
- Fractional excretion Na < 1%
- High serum urea: creatinine ratio
- Urinalysis

- Renal
- Proteinuria, haematuria
- Red cell casts, dysmorphic red cells
- Leucocyturia
- White cell casts
- Minimal proteinuria
- Post-renal
- Urinalysis frequently normal (may reveal haematuria depending on cause)
- Renal ultrasound (hydronephrosis

Management of acute kidney injury

- Assess fluid status as this will determine fluid prescription:
- If hypovolaemic: optimize systemic hemodynamic status with fluid
- Once euvolaemic, match fluid intake to urine output plus an additional 500mL/24 hrs to cover insensible losses
- If fluid-overloaded, prescribe diuretics (loop diuretics at high dose will often be required); if the response is unsatisfactory, dialysis may be required

Cont.

Treat underlying cause

- If K+ > 6.5 mmol/L and ECG changes of hyperkalaemia are present administer calcium gluconate to stabilise myocardium, lower potassium by oral potassium exchange resin to prevent potassium absorption, or administering intravenous glucose/insulin or sodium bicarbonate to move potassium intracellularly.
- These are holding measures until a definitive method of removing potassium is achieved (restoration of renal function or dialysis)

Cont.

 Discontinue potentially nephrotoxic drugs and reduce doses of therapeutic drugs according to level of renal function

Ensure adequate nutritional support

 Consider proton pump inhibitors to reduce the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding

Screen for intercurrent infections and treat promptly if present

Recovery from AKI

- Most cases of AKI will recover after the insult resolves but recovery may be impaired in those with pre-existing CKD or following a prolonged, severe or irreversible insult.
- Recovery is heralded by a gradual return of urine output and a steady reduction in serum creatinine.
- There is often a diuretic phase in which urine output increases rapidly and remains excessive for several days before returning to normal

2. Chronic kidney disease

- Chronic kidney disease (CKD) refers to an irreversible deterioration in renal function that usually develops over a period of years.
- Initially, it manifests only as a biochemical abnormality but, eventually, loss of the excretory, metabolic, and endocrine functions of the kidney leads to the clinical symptoms and signs of renal failure, collectively referred to as uremia.
- When death is likely without RRT (CKD stage 5), it is called end-stage renal disease (ESRD)

Epidemiology

- The social and economic consequences of CKD are considerable.
- In many countries, estimates of the prevalence of CKD stages 3–5 (eGFR <60 mL/min) are around 5%–7%, mostly affecting people aged 65 years and above.

 clinical features markers of CKD such as anemia, elevated PTH, and small kidneys observed on imaging

Common causes of chronic kidney disease

- Diabetes mellitus 20%–45% Large racial and geographical differences
- Interstitial diseases 20%–30% Drug-induced, reflux nephropathy

• Glomerular diseases 10%–20% IgA nephropathy is most common

• Hypertension 5%–20% Causality controversial, much may be secondary to another primary renal disease

Cont.

- Systemic infammatory diseases 5%–10% Systemic lupus erythematosus, vasculitis
- Renovascular disease 5% Mostly atheromatous, may be more common

Congenital and inherited 10% Polycystic kidney disease,

• Unknown 5%–10

investigations in chronic kidney disease

Initial tests	
Creatinine, eGFR	
Urinalysis and quantif	fication of proteinuria
Electrolytes	
Calcium, phosphate, p	parathyroid hormone and 25(OH)D
Albumin	
Full blood count (± Fe	, ferritin, folate, B ₁₂)
Lipids, glucose ± HbA	1c
Renal ultrasound	
Hepatitis and HIV sero	ology
Other tests	

Management

- The aims of management in CKD are to:
- monitor renal function
- Renal function should therefore be monitored every 6 months in patients with stage 3 CKD, but more frequently in patients who are deteriorating rapidly or have stage 4 or 5 CKD
- prevent or slow further renal damage
- Therapies directed towards the primary cause of CKD should be employed where possible; tight blood pressure control is applicable to CKD regardless of cause, however, and reducing proteinuria is a key target in those with glomerular disease.

Maintenance of fluid and electrolyte balance

- Urea is a key product of protein degradation and accumulates with progressive CKD.
- All patients with stages 4 and 5 CKD should be given dietetic advice aimed at preventing excessive consumption of protein.
- Potassium often accumulates in patients with advanced CKD, who
- should be provided with dietary advice to reduce daily potassium intake to below 70 mmol
- Consideration should be given to stopping or reducing drugs that elevate potassium, such as potassium-sparing diuretics and ACE inhibitors/ARBs

Cont.

limit complications of renal failure

- Anaemia is common in patients with CKD and contributes to many of the non-specific symptoms, including fatigue and shortness of breath.
- Once iron deficiency and other causes of anaemia have been excluded or corrected, recombinant human erythropoietin is very effective in correcting the anaemia of CKD and improving symptoms
- treat risk factors for cardiovascular disease
- prepare for RRT, if appropriate

Renal replacement therapy

- Renal replacement therapy (RRT) may be required on a temporary basis in patients with AKI or on a permanent basis for those with advanced CKD.
- Since the advent of long-term RRT in the 1960s, the number ofpatients with ESRD who are kept alive by dialysis and transplantation has increased considerably

1.Hemodialysis

- Haemodialysis is the most common form of dialysis employed in ESRD and is also used in AKI.
- Haemodialysis involves gaining access to the circulation, either through a central venous catheter or an arteriovenous

fistula or graft.

2. Peritoneal dialysis

- Peritoneal dialysis is principally used in the treatment of CKD, though it may occasionally be employed in AKI.
- It requires the insertion of a permanent Silastic catheter into the peritoneal cavity.

3. Renal transplantation

- Renal transplantation offers the best chance of long-term survival in ESRD and is the most cost-effective treatment.
- All patients with ESRD should be considered for transplantation but many are not suitable due to a combination of comorbidity and advanced age (although no absolute age limit applies).
- Active malignancy, vasculitis and cardiovascular comorbidity are common contraindications to transplantation, with risk of recurrence of the original renal disease.

Activity

•How do you deal with uraemic patients during anesthesia?

Thank you