

Symposium 8.3

Clinical aspects of AKI prevention and treatment

Eric Hoste

AKI is like a **CONTINUUM**

no full recovery → several **HITS**

3 HITS

RRT is also hurting kidneys

RRT Modality → **NO IMPACT** on recovery

SECOND HIT & AKI → what should we look for? → **BUNDLES** are the magic

PREVENTIVE MEASURES → ONLY 50% of patients

Michael Joannidis

FLUIDS in the ICU

frequently GIVEN

WHICH FLUIDS? HOW MUCH? (too much can be harmful!)

Artificial COLLOIDS

SEVERAL OPTIONS with specific PROS and CONS

ALBUMIN anti-inflammatory properties

RESUSCITATION → Hypotension → Oliguria

▷ sodium ▷ chloride

▷ BALANCED CRYSTALLOIDS VS. SALINE

THE GOOD THE BAD THE UGLY

Catalina Martin

Why predict AKI? → 50% of in-hospital AKIs are **PREVENTABLE**

SPECIFIC SETTINGS: ICU, HOSPITAL, OUTSIDE THE NEPHROLOGY WARD

A GOOD RISK SCORE → specific in the definition of event → defining baseline sCr

MAKIPS www.bioestadistica.net/makips.aspx

Management of AKI → Management of RISK of AKI

ACT AS IF EVERYONE were at risk of AKI

VerViewas Graphic Recording

Clinical aspects of AKI prevention and treatment

The second hit hypothesis – What should we look for?

Eric Hoste, Belgium

The KDIGO guidelines define acute kidney injury (AKI) based on the RIFLE criteria as an abrupt decrease in kidney function occurring over seven days or less and manifesting with an increase in serum creatinine accompanied by a decrease in urine output. The presence of AKI stage 1 or greater ≥ 7 days after the initiating event indicates a condition named acute kidney disease (AKD). The trajectory of AKD can take many forms depending on the severity of the initial AKI episode. One of the possibilities is the so-called “second hit” episode of AKI, when the initial deterioration lasting for at least 48 hours is followed by a period of sustained reversal, before the second episode of AKI ensues, leading to AKD. In some circumstances, as in COVID-19, in patients with acute myocardial infarction and cardiogenic shock, or those with multiple infectious complications, the primary injury can even be followed by more than one exacerbation. The common issue in all these cases is that a higher degree of kidney injury in single hits is associated with worse overall outcomes. Furthermore, renal replacement therapy (RRT), even adds to the risk of developing a decline in urine output, especially when more intensive protocols and

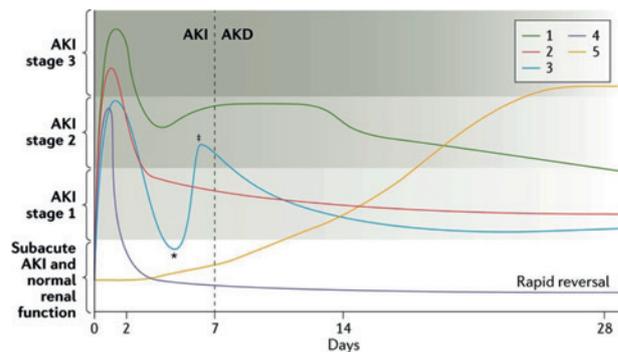


Figure 1.

Evolution of AKI into AKD – represented with a blue line is an episode of persistent AKI followed by a period of sustained reversal and then a second AKI episode (from ref. 1)

early initiation are implemented. A recently published analysis of randomized clinical trials involving critically ill patients with AKI treated with continuous, intermittent, or hybrid RRT hypothesized that RRT-related hypotensive episodes might also affect renal outcomes. However, the studies included presented such high heterogeneity in terms of outcome definitions and measurement that the conduction of the projected meta-analysis ended up being impossible. Nevertheless, a very interesting observation was made that there was no significant difference in the achieved hemodynamic stability and kidney survival related to different RRT modalities.

There are several possible approaches to preventing the second-hit AKI. The post-surgery “care bundles” recommended by the KDIGO include avoidance of nephrotoxic and radiocontrast agents, discontinuation of ACE inhibitors and ARBs for the first 48h after surgery, close hemodynamic monitoring, and optimization of volume status. These measures proved efficient in reducing AKI frequency and severity in high-risk patients after cardiac surgery. Further analysis of the treatment effects of individual bundle components identified hemodynamic optimization as the most powerful preventive measure. Regrettably, despite their simplicity, it appears that in clinical practice these preventive measures are seldom thoroughly followed. It is therefore essential to actively institute measures to hamper the second-hit AKI episodes, specifically focusing on the modifiable factors such as hemodynamic status, increased intra-abdominal pressure, and RRT.

Fluids in ICU – Which is the right one?

Michael Joannidis, Austria

Intravenous fluid therapy is among the most common interventions in critically ill patients. Fluids are administered for resuscitation, replacement, maintenance, and/or organ protection. The most frequent indications for resuscitation are hypotension and oliguria. The main considerations when planning intravenous fluid therapy should be the type and amount of solutions.

Normal saline is the most often used crystalloid solution. Even though it is commonly called a „physiological solution“, NaCl 0.9% has higher sodium and chloride levels than plasma, contains neither bicarbonates nor lactates, and can even induce metabolic acidosis and renal hypoperfusion. Nevertheless, in clinical practice, there has been no report of any marked long-term harm in critically ill patients receiving normal saline. Various balanced crystalloid solutions have been developed to overcome the disadvantages of normal saline, such as Ringer’s lactate, Plasma-Lyte, and ELO-MEL Isoton. Nevertheless, even though they all have sodium and chloride levels closer to those of the plasma, the results of their application are conflicting. Some studies report only a moderate advantage of balanced solutions compared to normal saline in restoring hydration status and electrolyte balance. The Saline Against Lactated Ringer’s or Plasma-Lyte in the Emergency Department (SALT-ED) study concluded that the amount of fluid, rather than composition, was associated with favorable outcomes. Another study, however, stated a lower rate of the composite outcome of death from any cause, new RRT, or persistent renal dysfunction with the use of balanced solutions compared to normal saline. One of the largest trials comparing the effects of a balanced multielectrolyte solution and saline, which included over five thousand ICU patients, found no evidence that the risk of death or AKI was lower with the balanced solution, and serum creatinine levels over time exhibited a virtually identical pattern in both groups. Also, in this cohort, the rate of fluid administration seemingly made no difference.

Colloid solutions are another therapeutic option in critically ill patients. It is commonly believed that their administration would reduce the overall need for fluid as compared with the administration of crystalloids. In fact, this impact is only moderate, whereas their use is associated with potential adverse effects. Nevertheless, albumin administration in patients with cirrhosis and ascites may help prevent AKI and it does improve fluid removal by preventing intradialytic hypotension during RRT.

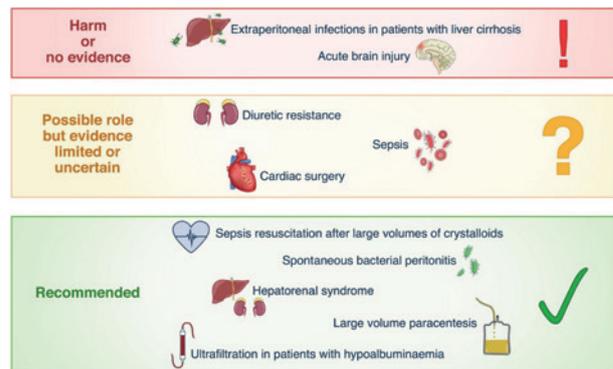


Figure 2.
Albumin therapy in critical care (from ref. 15)

Identifying patients at high risk of in-hospital AKI

Catalina Martin, Spain

AKI is an important risk factor for new-onset CKD and is strongly associated with an increased risk of death in hospitalized patients. Therefore, early recognition of this common, but highly preventable condition, is of fundamental importance to improve the outcomes.

A good risk score should be simple, accurate, easily interpreted, and inexpensive. A good AKI risk score should be highly specific, externally validated, well-calibrated, digitizable, and able to discriminate between community- and hospital-acquired AKI, and between CKD and AKI. Despite a myriad of available risk scores for AKI associated with conditions requiring intensive care, there are very few such scores for non-critical patients and only one for community-acquired AKI.

Currently, there are four available models to predict hospital-acquired AKI in non-critically ill patients: by Bedford et al, by Martin-Cleary et al, by Segarra et al., and the Acute Kidney Injury Prediction Score (APS). All are based on historical serum creatinine, but they also incorporate 7 to 22 other variables to predict the development of AKI. For example, the Madrid Acute Kidney Injury Prediction Score (MAKIPS) by Martin-Cleary et al. contains 23 variables, obtainable automatically from electronic clinical records at admission, such as age, comorbidities, surgical interventions, and laboratory parameters (white blood cells, serum sodium, potassium, calcium, glucose, urea, and uric acid). The tool is freely available at <http://www.bioestadistica.net/MAKIPS.aspx>.

Until now there is no data on the impact of clinical implementation of the available AKI prediction scores. AKI management still relies on supportive therapy to optimize renal perfusion, preventive measures to minimize nephrotoxicity, and causal treatment when applicable. In the majority of cases, appropriate follow-up is still lacking. Therefore, future work should focus on timely AKI prediction based on baseline serum creatinine and age as the crucial parameters, as well as on the evaluation of AKI risk scores' significance in clinical practice.

MAKIPS ACUTE KIDNEY INJURY RISK CALCULATOR

ACUTE KIDNEY INJURY RISK Risk = 2.3 %

Age [year] 68

Admission Scheduled

Surgical procedure NO

Anemia NO

Diabetes NO

Congestive Heart Failure NO

Hemiplegia/Paraplegia NO

Renal disease NO

Cardiovascular disease NO

Liver disease NO

Any malignancy, including lymphoma and leukemia, except malignant neoplasm of skin NO

* Gastroenterology procedure NO

** Cardiovascular procedure NO

*** Renal/Urinary procedure NO

Calcium [mg/dL] N.A.

Uric acid [mg/dL] N.A.

Leucocytes [leucocytes/ μ l] N.A.

Glucose [mg/dL] N.A.

Urea [mg/dL] N.A.

Sodium [mmol/L] N.A.

Potassium [mmol/L] N.A.

Clear data

* Surgery involving one of the following organs: esophagus, stomach, small intestine and colon, rectum, liver, pancreas.
 ** One of the following procedures: coronary angioplasty, myocardial revascularization surgery, involving heart valves or heart septum, vascular resection with graft insertion, other types of vascular bypass, endovascular prosthesis and vessel embolization.
 *** One of the following procedures: nephrectomy, renal stone surgery and removal procedures, insertion of double-J stents, bladder surgery.

Figure 3.
The MAKIPS acute kidney injury risk calculator

Further readings

1. Chawla LS, Bellomo R, Bihorac A, et al. Acute kidney disease and renal recovery: consensus report of the Acute Disease Quality Initiative (ADQI) 16 Workgroup. *Nat Rev Nephrol.* 2017;13(4):241-257. doi:10.1038/nrneph.2017.2
2. Mc Causland FR, Asafu-Adjei J, Betensky RA, Palevsky PM, Waikar SS. Comparison of Urine Output among Patients Treated with More Intensive Versus Less Intensive RRT: Results from the Acute Renal Failure Trial Network Study. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2016;11(8):1335-1342. doi:10.2215/CJN.10991015
3. Gaudry S, Hajage D, Schortgen F, et al. Timing of Renal Support and Outcome of Septic Shock and Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. A Post Hoc Analysis of the AKIKI Randomized Clinical Trial. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2018;198(1):58-66. doi:10.1164/rccm.201706-1255OC
4. Lerolle N, Nochy D, Guérot E, et al. Histopathology of septic shock induced acute kidney injury: apoptosis and leukocytic infiltration. *Intensive Care Med.* 2010;36(3):471-478. doi:10.1007/s00134-009-1723-x
5. Russo DS, Eugenio CS, Balestrin IG, et al. Comparison of hemodynamic instability among continuous, intermittent and hybrid renal replacement therapy in acute kidney injury: A systematic review of randomized clinical trials. *J Crit Care.* 2022;69:153998. doi:10.1016/j.jcrc.2022.153998
6. Meersch M, Schmidt C, Hoffmeier A, et al. Prevention of cardiac surgery-associated AKI by implementing the KDIGO guidelines in high risk patients identified by biomarkers: the PrevAKI randomized controlled trial [published correction appears in *Intensive Care Med.* 2017 Mar 7;:]. *Intensive Care Med.* 2017;43(11):1551-1561. doi:10.1007/s00134-016-4670-3
7. von Groote TC, Ostermann M, Forni LG, Meersch-Dini M, Zarbock A; PrevAKI Investigators. The AKI care bundle: all bundle components are created equal-are they? *Intensive Care Med.* 2022;48(2):242-245. doi:10.1007/s00134-021-06601-0
8. Awad S, Allison SP, Lobo DN. The history of 0.9% saline. *Clin Nutr.* 2008;27(2):179-188. doi:10.1016/j.clnu.2008.01.008
9. Joannidis M, Forni LG. Acute kidney injury: Buffered crystalloids or saline in the ICU--a SPLIT decision. *Nat Rev Nephrol.* 2016;12(1):6-8. doi:10.1038/nrneph.2015.190
10. Self WH, Semler MW, Wanderer JP, et al. Saline versus balanced crystalloids for intravenous fluid therapy in the emergency department: study protocol for a cluster-randomized, multiple-crossover trial. *Trials.* 2017;18(1):178. Published 2017 Apr 13. doi:10.1186/s13063-017-1923-6
11. Semler MW, Self WH, Wanderer JP, et al. Balanced Crystalloids versus Saline in Critically Ill Adults. *N Engl J Med.* 2018;378(9):829-839. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1711584
12. Zampieri FG, Machado FR, Biondi RS, et al. Effect of Slower vs Faster Intravenous Fluid Bolus Rates on Mortality in Critically Ill Patients: The BaSICS Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA.* 2021;326(9):830-838. doi:10.1001/jama.2021.11444
13. Finfer S, Micallef S, Hammond N, et al. Balanced Multielectrolyte Solution versus Saline in Critically Ill Adults. *N Engl J Med.* 2022;386(9):815-826. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2114464
14. Perner A, Prowle J, Joannidis M, Young P, Hjortrup PB, Pettilä V. Fluid management in acute kidney injury. *Intensive Care Med.* 2017;43(6):807-815. doi:10.1007/s00134-017-4817-x
15. Joannidis M, Wiedermann CJ, Ostermann M. Ten myths about albumin [published correction appears in *Intensive Care Med.* 2022 Mar 18;:]. *Intensive Care Med.* 2022;48(5):602-605. doi:10.1007/s00134-022-06655-8
16. Bedford M, Stevens P, Coulton S, et al. *Development of risk models for the prediction of new or worsening acute kidney injury on or during hospital admission: a cohort and nested study.* Southampton (UK): NIHR Journals Library; February 2016.
17. Hodgson LE, Dimitrov BD, Roderick PJ, Venn R, Forni LG. Predicting AKI in emergency admissions: an external validation study of the acute kidney injury prediction score (APS). *BMJ Open.* 2017;7(3):e013511. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2016-013511
18. Martin-Cleary C, Molinero-Casares LM, Ortiz A, Arce-Obieta JM. Development and internal validation of a prediction model for hospital-acquired acute kidney injury. *Clin Kidney J.* 2019;14(1):309-316. doi:10.1093/ckj/sfz139
19. Segarra A, Del Carpio J, Marco MP, et al. Integrating electronic health data records to develop and validate a predictive model of hospital-acquired acute kidney injury in non-critically ill patients. *Clin Kidney J.* 2021;14(12):2524-2533. doi:10.1093/ckj/sfab094

Written by Jasna Trbojevic-Stankovic.
All the speakers reviewed and approved the content.