

Sickle cell disease effects on the kidney

Said peyrovi Nephrologist In 1910, Herrick JB first described sickle cell nephropathy in a black student. He described anemia with elongated sickle-shaped red blood cells, increased urine volume, and decreased urine density. Sickle cell disease (SCD) is a genetically inherited disease that affects many systems and is a clinical condition that occurs when red blood cells contain modified HbS.

HbS is formed by the replacement of glutamine at position 6 at the amino (-NH₂) end of the beta-globin chain with the amino acid valine. It is formed when GTG (Guanine-Tymine-Guanine) replaces GAG (Guanine-Adenine-Guanine) at the base level. Rumeysa Duyuran and Hülya Çiçek : Investigation of Sickle Cell Nephropathy . Published: 24 January 2024



SCD is characterized by the presence of multiple alterations in kidney function, including abnormalities in the proximal and distal tubules (for example, increased reabsorption of phosphate and β2-microglobulin, and increased secretion of uric acid and creatinine), as well as changes in renal haemodynamics that promote hyperfiltration and glomerular damage.

Box 1 | Renal manifestations of sickle cell disease Alterations in renal haemodynamics Increased renal blood flow rate Increased renal plasma flow rate Increased glomerular filtration rate Decreased renal vascular resistance Decreased filtration fraction Decreased medullary perfusion Renal and glomerular enlargement Hyperfunction of the proximal tubule Increased reabsorption of phosphate and \u00b32-microglobulin Increased secretion of creatinine and uric acid Increased transport maximum of para-aminohippurate Glomerulopathies Focal segmental glomerulosclerosis Membranoproliferative glomerulonephritis Thrombotic microangiopathy Tubular deposits of iron Chronic tubulointerstitial disease Impaired function of the distal nephron Decreased urinary concentrating ability Partial distal renal tubular acidosis Impaired renal potassium excretion Increased susceptibility to acute kidney injury Chronic kidney disease and its progression to end-stage renal disease Haematuria Renal papillary necrosis Increased susceptibility to urinary tract infections Renal medullary carcinoma

Impaired urinary concentration

- relative hypoxia, acidosis and hyperosmolarity of the inner renal medulla
- ischaemic injury and microinfarction and loss of juxtamedullary nephrons
- urinary endothelin 1 (ET1) levels in patients with SCD 1
- Nocturnal enuresis is common in children and young adults with SCD

Urinary acidification and Potassium excretion

Defective urinary acidification in SCD manifests similarly to incomplete distal renal tubular acidosis

Impaired distal tubule secretion may result in defective potassium excretion in SCD. These defects occur despite intact aldosterone and renin responses

hyporeninemic hypoaldosteronism

- Supranormal renal haemodynamics
- elevated effective renal plasma flow (ERPF) and GFR decreased filtration fraction
- glomerular hyperfiltration in SCD is commonly defined as estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) >130 ml/min/1.73 m2 in women and >140 ml/min/1.73 m2 in men

Impaired glomerular filtration

- Albuminuria, is common in SCD
- 27% of children and young adults, and 68% of older patients with SCD
- Albuminuria is more prevalent in patients with HbSS or HbS β 0
- urinary albumin-to-creatinine ratio (UACR) increased at a linear rate of 3.5 mg/g per year FSGS

Haematuria

Haematuria is common in SCD but it is typically mild, painless and self-limited

vascular occlusion in the renal medulla

microinfarction-induced papillary necrosis

Mechanisms underlying sickle cell nephropathy

- Haemolysis and oxidative stress HMOX1
- A1M-to-haemopexin ratio
- ROS

Mechanisms underlying sickle cell nephropathy

Endothelial dysfunction

Soluble vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 1 (sVEGFR1)

Plasma and urinary levels of ET1 correlate positively with albuminuria in SCD and Binding of ET1 to ETA

leads to vasoconstriction, inflammation, mitogenesis, and nociception



oop of Henle

- Hypoxia from vaso-occlusion and anemia
- Cell-free hemoglobin/heme-mediated oxidative stress with ROS

Biomarkers: KIM1, NAG, CCL2



Genetic modifiers of kidney disease risk

Several genetic modifiers that affect the severity of haemolysis

Replicated gene variants implicated in sickle cell nephropathy

Gene	Gene product	Variants	Effects associated with variant in patients with SCD
HBA1	Haemoglobin subunit a l	α-3.7K deletion α-4.2K deletion	Reduction in albuminuria, higher eGFR and lower risk of CKD progression
APOL1	Apolipoprotein L1, which is a major component of the trypanosome lytic factor complex	G1 (S342G or S342G and I384M substitution) G2 (N388 and Y389 deletion)	Homozygous or compound heterozygous inheritance of <i>APOL1</i> G1 & G2 variants: associated with increased risk of urine dipstick-defined proteinuria, higher albuminuria, lower eGFR, higher CKD stage, faster CKD progression and increased risk of kidney failure
HMOX1	Haem oxygenase 1, which is a rate-limiting inducible enzyme that metabolizes haem to biliverdin, carbon monoxide and iron	GT-repeat in promoter region or rs743811	Long GT-tandem repeats (> 25): lower baseline eGFR and higher AKI risk rs743811: lower eGFR, greater albuminuria, higher CKD stage and increased risk of kidney failure
ACKR1	Atypical chemokine receptor 1 (also known as the Duffy antigen receptor 1, which is a receptor for Plasmodium vivax and serves as a chemokine-scavenging receptor	rs2814778	Higher risk of urine dipstick-defined proteinuria and more severe albuminuria

Detection of kidney disease in SCD

Albuminuria

Measuring and estimating GFR

the CKD-EPI equation using cystatin C alone seems to be the optimal choice for estimating GFR in adults

The CKiD Schwartz formula might therefore be the best current option for estimating GFR in children.

kidney biopsy

Biomarkers of kidney disease

endothelial dysfunction (ET1 and sVEGFR1)

glomerular (nephrin)

tubular injury (KIM1 and NAG) and inflammation (CC-chemokine ligand 2 (CCL2)



Treatment of sickle cell nephropathy

SCD-specific therapy

Kidney-specific therapy

Novel therapeutic options

Management of advanced CKD in SCD

Anti-hypertensive therapy

Diuretic use

Erythropoiesis-stimulating agents

Iron chelation therapy

Thank you for your attention

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