Outcome of Acute Kidney Injury (AKI) Patients in the Intensive Care Unit of Enam Medical College & Hospital During the Period of July 2018 to May 2019

Easnem Khanam¹, Shamimur Rahman², Ashraful Islam³, Nelufa Tahera Rahman⁴ Received: 30 January 2020 Accepted: 18 September 2020 doi: https://doi.org/10.3329/jemc.v11i1.63170

Abstract

Background: Acute kidney injury (AKI) is a public health issue associated with multiple clinical conditions which may occur due to slight elevation in serum creatinine to anuric renal failure with electrolytes and acid-base imbalance, chronic kidney diseases, end-stage renal diseases, impaired innate immunity associated with higher infection rate, and increased duration of hospital stay with higher cost. Sometimes severe AKI patients may need intensive care support and renal replacement therapy. Severe sepsis is the most common cause of ICU admission. Materials and Methods: This observational study was conducted during the period of July 2018 to May 2019 in the Department of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care Unit of Enam Medical College & Hospital, Savar Dhaka. A total of 87 AKI patients were selected among which 48 were male and 39 were female. Acute kidney injury was selected with an increase in serum creatinine >0.3 mg/dL within 48 hours or ≥ 1.5 mg /dL from the base line within prior 7 days or urine volume <0.5mL/kg/hour. The last recorded lowest value or value within 24 hrs before admission was considered as baseline S. creatinine. Staging was done according to the KDIGO classification. Chronic Kidney Diseases (CKD) patients and acute on chronic kidney diseases patients aged < 18 years were excluded from our study. Results: Highest age group was between 41 to 60 years. According to KDIGO definition 27.58% fell in stage-I, 39.8% in Stage-II and 33.33% in Stage-III. Hypertension (34.48%) and diabetes (24.18%) were found common co-morbid conditions. The most common indication for admission in ICU was septicemia (21.83%). Other causes include pneumonia and other respiratory illness (18.39%), gynae and obstetrical cases (16.09%) AGE (acute gastroenteritis) 13.79%, poisoning 9.19%, polytrauma 8.0%, cardiac diseases 6.89%, cerebrovascular diseases 3.44%, malignancy 2.29%. Total 62.06% (54) patients needed ionotropic support, 55.17% (48) needed artificial ventilation. 26.4% patients needed renal replacement therapy (8.04% HD, 12.64% SLED, 5.74% CRRT). Finally, 66 (75.86%) patients survived among which 59 (67.81%) recovered completely from AKI, 7 (8.04%) turned into CKD and 21 (24.13%) expired. Conclusion: Early detection and extensive ICU management may lead to full recovery of renal function which ultimately reduces adverse outcomes, renal replacement therapy and AKI-related morbidity and mortality.

Key words: Acute kidney injury; AKI in critically ill patients; Kidney diseases

J Enam Med Col 2021; 11(1): 24–33

Correspondence Easnem Khanum, Email: easnem@gmail.com

^{1.} Associate Professor, Department of Anesthesia and ICU, Enam Medical College and Hospital, Savar, Dhaka

^{2.} Associate Professor, Department of Nephrology, Enam Medical College and Hospital, Savar, Dhaka

^{3.} Associate Professor, Department of Anesthesia and ICU, Enam Medical College and Hospital, Savar, Dhaka

^{4.} Medical Officer, Department of Anesthesia and ICU, Enam Medical College and Hospital, Savar, Dhaka

Introduction

Acute Kidney Injury (AKI) is a condition where there is a sudden and often reversible loss of kidney functions over days to weeks and is often accompanied by reduction of urine volume.¹ It has replaced the term 'Acute Renal Failure' in 1917. During the First World War, it was described as 'War Nephritis'.²

AKI is a complex disorder that comprises the entire spectrum of acute renal failure for which currently there is no accepted definition. To establish a uniform definition for AKI, in 2012 the KDIGO^{3,4} (Kidney Diseases Improving Global Outcomes) group combined elements from prior definitions such as AKIN, RIFLE. According to KDIGO AKI can be defined as any of the followings: increase in serum creatinine by $\geq 0.3 \text{ mg/dL}$ ($\geq 26.5 \mu \text{mol/L}$) within 48 hours; or increase in serum creatinine ≥ 1.5 times baseline, which is known or presumed to have occurred within the prior 7 days; or urine volume <0.5 mL/kg/hour for 6 hours and Staging is based on both urine output and serum creatinine concentrations as follows:

Staging of AKI

Nowadays AKI has become a major public health issue affecting about 21,000 per million populations.⁵ It is associated with multiple clinical conditions, leading to increased morbidity, mortality or may turn into slight elevation in serum creatinine to anuric renal failure.⁶

AKI is more common in ICU patients than other general medical or surgical wards. Usually 5%⁷ of all hospitalized patients and 30% of intensive care unit patients develop acute kidney injury⁸ and of them up to 20% require RRT.¹

AKI is anatomically classified into three categories¹: **pre-renal** - kidney hypoperfusion leads to decreased GFR, **renal causes** - intrinsic kidney diseases, primary insult affects the kidney itself, **post-renal causes** obstructive uropathy or obstruction to urine.

AKI usually presents with a wide range of signs and symptoms⁹ which may include abnormal laboratory findings without clinical symptoms, fluid overload, hyperkalemia, hyponatremia, hypocalcemia, hypercalcemia, hyperphosphatemia, hypomagnesemia, hyperuricemia, metabolic acidosis, anemia, bleeding diatheses, increased risk of infection, multi-organ dysfunction including cardiovascular dysfunction, respiratory failure, gastrointestinal complications, and neurological disorder.

Sudden decrease in glomerular filtration rate (GFR) represents with an increase in serum urea and creatinine (usually 1–2 mg/dL/day), Urine output less than 400–500 mL/day or less than 20 mL/hour in a high-risk patient in the absence of volume depletion indicates the presence of AKI.⁹

The common causes of AKI are ischemia, hypoxia and nephrotoxicity which cause vasoconstriction, endothelial damage, activation of inflammatory process, low renal blood flow and decreased GFR. However, a prolonged decrease in renal perfusion causes irreversible ischemic damage leading to ischemic AKI.¹⁰ Sepsis is the most common causes of AKI usually found in the intensive care unit.¹¹ In developing countries, some community-acquired AKI¹² are also found in ICU in patients admitted for other reasons such as diarrheal diseases, leptospirosis, dengue, animal venoms, surgical complications, obstetric complications, trauma etc.

Stage	Serum creatinine	Urine output
1	1.5–1.9 times baseline or ${\geq}0.3$ mg/dL (${\geq}26.5$ mmol/L) increase	<0.5 mL/kg/h for 6–12 hours
2	2.0–2.9 times baseline	<0.5 mL/kg/h for \ge 12 hours
2	3.0 times baseline or increase in serum creatinine to \geq 4.0 mg/dL (\geq 353.6 mmol/L) or	$<0.3 \text{ mL/kg/h for } \ge 24 \text{ hours}$
3	Initiation of renal replacement therapy or, in patients <18 years, decrease in eGFR to <35 mL/min per 1.73 m ²	

The risk factors of AKI includes pre-existing kidney diseases, sepsis, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, trauma, hypovolemia, multiple myeloma, age more than 55 years, exposure to nephrotoxic agents, antibiotics, methotrexate, cisplatin, intravenous immunoglobulin, use of intravenous contrast, acute coronary syndromes, liver or heart failure etc.^{13,14}

Survivors of AKI patients may develop CKD, and dialysis dependent end-stage renal diseases (ESRD).¹⁵ Nephrologists can play a vital role along with ICU specialist in the intensive care unit during managing AKI cases for better outcome as well as to minimize the progression of CKD¹⁶ and other complications.

Management should be started from the maintenance of volume homeostasis, correction of biochemical and hematological abnormalities (anemia, uremic platelet dysfunction), correction of the underlying causes of AKI, avoidance of nephrotoxic agents (radio- or chemotherapeutic agents, antibiotics, heavy metals, NSAIDs, ACE or Angiotensin-receptor blocker etc.) and supportive treatment such as correction of fluid overload by frusemide, severe acidosis with bicarbonate¹⁷, hypoalbuminemia with albumin. Intravascular volume deficit can be corrected with isotonic fluid in accordance with measuring central venous pressure along with the optimization of cardiac function. In case of severe hypotension vessopressor can be used with a goal to maintain mean arterial pressure ≥ 65 mm Hg.^{18,19}Acute tubular necrosis should be treated with discontinuation of the initiating medications.²⁰ Post-renal (obstructive) AKI should be treated by mechanical relief of the obstruction. Perioperative acute kidney injury²¹ is the most common among different types of perioperative organ injury which can be prevented by optimization of normal hemodynamic status, discontinuation of nephrotoxic drugs, expert hand surgery and early **RRT**.²²

Severe AKI should be managed by renal replacement therapy (RRT)²³⁻²⁵ which include intermittent hemodialysis (IHD), continuous renal replacement therapy (CRRT), prolonged intermittent RRT (PIRRT), peritoneal dialysis (PD), extended duration dialysis (EDD) or sustained low-efficiency dialysis (SLED), continuous veno-venous hemofiltration (CVVH). The aim of our study was to identify the incidence, severity and outcome of AKI patients in the Intensive Care Unit who were admitted for other reasons.

Materials and Methods

This longitudinal type of observational study was conducted in the Department of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care Unit of Enam Medical College & Hospital, Savar, Dhaka. The study was conducted during the period of July 2018 to May 2019. Total 1506 patients were admitted in the ICU during the study period. Among them 87 (5.77%) AKI patients were selected with 48 (55.17%) male and 39 (44.8%) female.

Acute kidney injury cases were selected with an increase in serum creatinine >0.3 mg/dL within 48 hours or ≥ 1.5 from the base line within prior 7 days or urine volume <0.5 mL/kg/hour. The lowest value or level within 24 hours before admission was considered as baseline serum creatinine. Staging was done according to the KDIGO classification. Development of AKI (before or during ICU admission) was recorded. Data were recorded in a 'Preformed Record Sheet'. After admission into the ICU at first primary resuscitation was done, then detailed history was taken including co-morbidities, past history, drug history especially about nephrotoxic drugs. Initial vitals, oxygen saturation, heart and lungs findings, anemia, edema, Glasgow coma scale etc were observed and recorded. Central venous cannulation was done where necessary. All patients were monitored as per our ICU protocol. Necessary laboratory investigations such as arterial blood gas analysis, CBC, urine RME, serum creatinine, serum urea, serum electrolytes, SGPT, HBsAg, anti-HCV, X-ray chest, ECG etc. were done. The treatment protocol was taken as per consultation with specialist, nephrology, ICU respiratory medicine, and internal medicine specialist. In special circumstances, opinion was taken from cardiologist, gastroenterologist, neurologist, oncologist, obstetricians and gynecologists.

Initial management was started with maintenance of volume homeostasis, correction of biochemical and hematological abnormalities, fluid overload, hypoalbuminemia, acid-base abnormalities and avoidance of nephrotoxic agents with strict monitoring of the vitals with special emphasis on intake output chart of the patients.

Afterward, RRT was advised according to the severity of the patients. Femoral or jugular venous catheterization was done in those patients who needed dialysis. After improving the patients' condition when ICU support was no longer required all patients were shifted to the respective wards. After discharge from ICU patients were followed-up for 90 days.

CKD patients, acute on chronic kidney diseases and patients aged <18 years were excluded from the study. In our study, patients were divided into three socio-economic classes based on their monthly income. Patients' whose monthly income was more than 10,000 taka, were included in middle class, from 5,000 taka to 10,000 taka were included in low income class and less than 5,000 taka were included in least income class. Statistical analysis was done using SPSS 20.0 version. All data are presented as mean \pm SD. Student's t-test was applied to compare normally distributed means. A p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Table I shows distribution of study population according to age group. Mean age was found 49.88 years with standard deviation 17.22. p value was found 0.000. All the patients found with AKI during the study period were categorized according to KDIGO definition as Stage-I, Stage-II, and Stage-III (Table II).

Table I: Distribution of patients according to age group

Age group in years	Frequency	Percentage
18–40	27	31.03
41–60	34	39.08
61–80	23	26.43
>81	03	3.44
Total	87	100

Table II: Staging of AKI according to KDIGO definition

Stage	Frequency	Percentage
Stage-I	24	27.58
Stage-II	34	39.08
Stage-III	29	33.33
Total	87	100

During the study, common co-morbidities found were hypertension 30 (34.48%), diabetes mellitus 21 (24.13%), COPD 16 (18.39%), others 20 (23.0%) with hypertension being the most common (Fig 1).

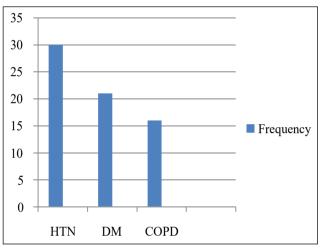


Fig 1. Frequency of co-morbidities

Socioeconomic status plays a vital role in progress of any diseases. In our study 54 (62.06%) patients came from middle class, 21 (24.13%) from low-income class and 12 (13.79%) patients from least income class.

The common primary diseases for which the study people were admitted as pneumonia and other respiratory causes (16/18.39%), septicemia (19/21.83%),polytrauma following accidental injury (7/8.04%), poisoning including OPC, alcohol, snakebite, drug etc. (8/9.19%), cerebrovascular diseases including meningitis, ischemic and hemorrhagic stroke (3/3.44%), cardiovascular diseases including MI, IHD, LVF (6/6.89%), gynecological and obstetrical cases including hemorrhagic shock, DIC, eclampsia, IUD etc. (14/16.09%), acute gastroenteritis (12/13.79%) and malignancy (2/2.29%) are shown in Fig 2.

Percentage of diseases with AKI

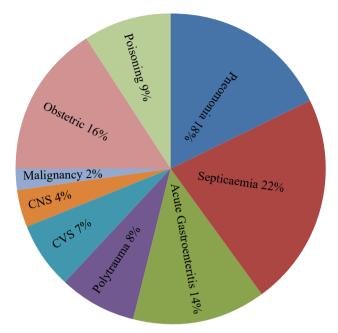


Fig 2. Primary diagnosis of diseases with AKI

In our study ionotropic support was needed for 54 (62.06%) patients. The need for artificial ventilation was observed in 48 (55.17%) patients among which 56.25% (27/48) were successfully weaned off from ventilation.

Out of 87 patients, 23 (26.4%) were advised for RRT among which 07 (8.04%) received HD, 11 (12.64%) received SLEED, 05 (5.74 %) received CRRT the rest 64 patients did not require any type of renal replacement therapy and were improved by

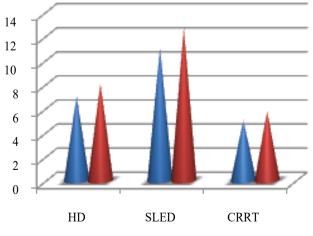


Fig 3. Showing the frequency and percentage of RRT

conservative treatment (Fig 3).

At the end of the treatment total 66 (75.86%) patients survived among which 59 (67.81%) completely recovered from AKI, 7 (8.04%) developed CKD and 21 (24.13%) expired (Table III), p value was found 0.004.

Table III: Outcome of treatment of AKI patients

Outcome	Frequency	Percentage
Survived	66	75.86
Recovered	59	67.81
Developed CKD	07	8.04
Expired	21	24.13

The stay time in the ICU played an important role. In our ICU 29 (33.33%) patients stayed only for 1 to 3 days, 38 (43.67%) patients stayed for 4 to 7 days, 14 (16.09%) patients stayed for 8 to 10 days, and 06 (6.89%) patients stayed for >10 days (Fig 4).

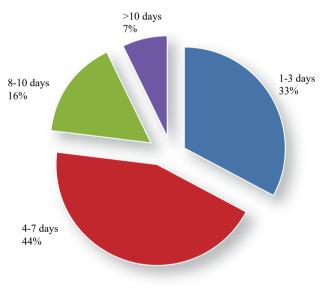


Fig 4. Duration of ICU stay

Discussion

AKI in ICU is becoming a global health problem with clinical and economic consequences both in developed and developing countries.^{26,27} It increases in hospitalized patients which ultimately leads to prolonged hospital stay, RRT, development of CKD, increased short- and long-term morbidity and mortality or ESRD.²⁸ Bagshaw et al²⁹ found that incidence of AKI in ICU increased 2.8% annually from 1996 to 2005. The International Society of Nephrology set a goal of eliminating preventable deaths from AKI by 2025 but implementation of this program is a great challenge in developing countries.³⁰

Hashemainan et al³¹ showed that 33% of all ICU admitted patients developed AKI and Koez et al³² found 20% AKI in ICU. In our study we found only 5.77% (87/1506) which is comparatively lower than the above findings studies. But Oldimeji³³ found 4.7% AKI which is lower than our study findings.

Advanced age plays a vital role in developing AKI and is often associated with significant morbidity, mortality, and health care costs.^{34,35} In addition, more frequent exposure to medications and interventions, alterations in drug metabolism and clearance lead to increased incidence of AKI.³⁶ Kader et al³⁶ showed that in a Spanish hospital the incidence of AKI was 3.5 times higher in patients older than 70 years than their younger counterparts and in an Italian hospital the elderly (\geq 65 years) had 10 times the incidence rate of AKI compared to those <65 years of age. The common age group in our study was between 41 to 60 years (39.08%). In their study Mahmood et al³⁷ also found higher incidence between 41 to 60 years (42.37%) which is almost similar to our study.

Several studies showed that incidence of AKI was more in male than female. Fatema et al³⁸ found 67.4% male, Hasmeninan et al³¹ found 57.6%, Aylward et al³⁹ found 58.9% male, Anaele et al⁴⁰ found 54.5%, Mahmud et al³⁷ found 54.23% male, and we found 55.17% were male.

Co-morbidities such as hypertension, DM, IHD, COPD, bronchial asthma and other pulmonary diseases play a vital role in developing AKI in ICU. In our study we found most common co-morbidities were HTN (34.48%), DM (24.13%) and COPD (18.39%). Anaele et al⁴⁰ found HTN 53.4%, DM 31.8%, COPD 11%. Schiffi et al⁴¹ found HTN 48%, DM 22%, COPD 14%. Hamid et al⁴² found 38.1% HTN, 28.8% DM, and 22.9% pulmonary diseases.

In our study, staging of AKI was done by KDIGO classification. We found 27.58% patients were in stage-I, 39.08% as stage-II, 33.33% were found

as stage-III. In a study, Potter et al^{43} found 50% as stage-I, 19% as Stage-II, 31% as stage-III. On the other hand, Santos et al^{12} found 33.7% stage-I, 29.4% stage-II, and 36.9% stage-III.

For the critically ill patients sepsis is the major cause of AKI, usually 15-20% of patients with sepsisassociated AKI are found in the ICU, also related to morbidity and short term mortality.44,45 We found that the common indications for ICU admission were: septicemia 21.83% (19/87), pneumonia and other respiratory illnesses 18.39% (16/87), gynaecologic and obstetric cases 16.09%, hypovolumic shock following AGE 13.79%, poisoning 9.19%, polytrauma 8.0%, cardiac diseases 6.89%, cerebrovascular diseases 3.44%, malignancy 2.29%. Severe sepsis usually hampers renal perfusion which is characterized by profound inflammatory response leading to multiorgan failure. A study by ElHafeez et al⁴⁶ found 36% sepsis-induced AKI which is slightly higher than in our study. Hussain et al⁴⁷ found 20.2% septicemic patients which is almost similar to our study, pulmonary cases 23.4%, malignancy 3.2% which are also closer to our study, but their cerebrovascular diseases (16.9%) and cardiovascular diseases (21.8%) cases are higher than our study which may be due to separate neuro and cardiac ICU in our hospital. In a study Hamid et al⁴² found 5.0% trauma patients which is little lower than our study (8.04%). ElHafeez et al ⁴⁶ found 14% trauma patients which is higher than our study. Some obstetric cases such as sepsis, PPH, eclampsia, HELLP syndrome are the major etiologic factors for developing Pregnancy Related Acute Kidney Injury (PRAKI).48 In our study we found about 16.09% PRAKI. A study by Ferreira et al⁴⁹ found 27.8% PRAKI which is higher than our study. Study by Najar et al⁵⁰ found 7.2% PRAKI which is lower than our study.

In our study as a part of respiratory support mechanical ventilation was needed for 55.17% (48/87) patients. But Ponce et al⁵¹ found it 89.2%, Schiffi et al⁴¹ 75%, and Santos et al¹² 65.2%. All of these are higher than our study findings. Anaele et al⁴⁰ found it 33.0% which is lower than our study. Fatema et al³⁸ found that 58.1% patients required mechanical ventilation,

which is almost similar to our study.

In case of unstable hemodynamic status vasopressors or ionotropic support is routinely needed to maintain stable hemodynamic status and to prevent acute tubular necrosis which is a consequence of severe renal hypoperfusion. Vasopressin increases urinary secretion and dopamine increases renal plasma flow, GFR, urinary sodium excretion and urine output.⁵² Early reversal of hemodynamic instability usually leads to full recovery. In our study 62.66% patients needed vasopressor or ionotropic support. In the study of Schiffi et al⁴¹ 58% patients needed vasopressor or ionotropic support. Anaele et al⁴⁰ found it 40.8% which is lower than our study. Ponce et al⁵¹ found it 78.3%, Fatema et al³⁸ found it 69.8% which are slightly higher than our study findings.

Usually conservative management may recover AKI but sometimes severe AKI patients need RRT in order to restore kidney function and to prevent further damage particularly to those patients who are hemodynamically unstable.⁵³ In ICU intensivists generally prefer CRRT than other methods especially for hemodynamically unstable patients as large amount of "Convective Clearance"⁵⁴ is achieved through this method. It also permits gradual fluid and solute removal along with greater hemodynamic stability. Besides CRRT nowadays SLEDD is becoming more popular because of logistic burden of CRRT, including the necessity of anticoagulants and high cost.^{55,56}

In our study 26.4% patients needed RRT. Hamid et al⁴² found it 22.9% RRT which is almost similar to our study. In another study, Peerapornratana et al⁵⁷ found it 19.4% which is lower than our study. Ali et al⁵⁸ found that 7.8% required RRT which is also lower than our study findings.

Despite proper intense care sometimes death cannot be avoided. In our study we faced 24.13% mortality. A study by Bouchard et al⁵⁹ found 22.0% mortality which is almost similar to our study. Hossain et al⁴⁷ found it 18.55%, Aylward et al³⁹ found 13.4%, El-Badawy et al⁶⁰ found 14% mortality, both are lower than our study. Anaele et al⁴⁰ found 28.5%, Levy et al⁶¹ found 34%, Hafez et al⁶² found 35% mortality, all of which are higher than our study findings. Acute kidney Injury commonly found in the intensive care unit is caused by multiple risk factors. This may lead to adverse outcomes such as CKD, ESRD, increased morbidity, mortality, high cost etc. Increase in awareness of the health care workers, continuous medical education (CME) and training programs for doctors and hospital staffs, updated treatment guidelines, health education programs for all by government and NGOs, international and local nephrology societies, more studies related to AKI, early detection of incidence and quick reversal of abnormal hemodynamic condition may lead to full recovery of renal function, thereby reduce the incidence of morbidity and mortality.

References

- Ralston S, Penman I, Strachan M, Hobson R. Neprology and Urology. In: Davidson's Principles and Practice of Medicine. 23rd edn. China: Elsevier, 2018: 381–440.
- Case J, Khan S, Khalid R, Khan A. Epidemiology of Acute Kidney Injury in the Intensive Care Unit. Crit Care Res Practice 2013; 1–10.
- Stevens PE, Levin A. KDIGO Clinical Practice Guideline for Acute Kidney Injury. Kidney International Supplement 2012; 2: 1–38.
- Moore PK, Hsu RK, Liu KD. Management of Acute Kidney Injury: Core Curriculum 2018. Am J Kidney Dis 2018; 72(1): 136–148.
- Di Leo L, Nalesso F, Garzotto F, Xie Y, Yang B, Virzi GM, Passannante A, Bonato R, Carta M, Giavarina D, Gregori D. Predicting acute kidney injury in intensive care unit patients: the role of tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases-2 and insulin-like growth factorbinding protein-7 biomarkers. Blood Purification 2018; 45(1-3): 270–277.
- Singbart K, Kellum JA. AKI in the ICU: definition, epidemiology, risk stratification, and outcomes-Science Direct. Kidney International 2012; 81(9): 819–825.
- Kes P, Jukic NB. Acute Kidney Injury in the Intensive Care Unit. Bosnian journal of Basic Medical sciences 2010; 10(1): 8–12.

J Enam Med Col Vol 11 No 1

- Abraham G.Venkitakrishnan N. AKI in ICU-Diagnosis and Management. Chapter 123. Available at: http:// apiindia.org/uploads/pdf/medicine_update_2017/ mu_123.pdf. Accessed: 14/11/2020.
- Zaragoza JJ, Renteria FJ. Acute Kidney Injury in the Intensive Care Unit. Intensive care 2017: 101–114. Available at: http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/ intechopen.68348. Accessed: 15/11/2020.
- Seller-Pérez G, Más-Font S, Pérez-Calvo C, Villa-Díaz P, Celaya-López M, Herrera-Gutiérrez ME. Acute kidney injury: Renal disease in the ICU. Intensive medicine 2016; 40(6): 374–382.
- Vandijck DM, Reynvoet E ,Blot S I, Vandecasteele E , Hoste EA . Severe infection, Sepsis and Acute Kidney Injury. Acta Clinica Belgica 2007; 62(2): 332–336.
- Santos PR, Monteiro DLS. Acute Kidney Injury in an intensive care unit of a general hospital with emergency room specializing in trauma: an observational prospective study. Santos and Monteiro BMC Nephrology 2015; 16(1): 1–6.
- Butterworth JF, Mackey DC, Wasnic JD (eds). Renal physiology & Anesthesia: In: Morgan & Mikhail's Clinical Anesthesiology. 6th edn. USA: Mc Graw-Hill Company, 2013: 631–652.
- Davis J S, Zuber k. Acute Kidney Injury in the ICU: Increasing prevalence. Clinician reviews 2013; 23(4): 46.
- Pickkers P, Ostermann M, Joannidis M, Zarbock A, Hoste E, Bellomo R, Prowle J, Darmon M, Bonventre JV, Forni L, Bagshaw SM. The intensive care medicine agenda on acute kidney injury. Intensive Care Med 2017; 43(9): 1198–1209.
- Endre ZH. The role of Nephrologist in the Intensive Care Unit. Blood Purif 2017; 43(1-3): 78– 81.
- Workeneh BT. Acute Kidney Injury Treatment & Management. Drugs & Diseases Nephrology. Available at: https://emedicine.medscape.com/ article/243492-treatment Accessed: 15/11/2020.
- 18. Rahman M, Shad F, Smith MC. Acute Kidney Injury: A Guide to Diagnosis and Management . American

Family Physician 2012; 86(7): 631–639.

- Mohsenin V. Practical approach to detection and management of acute kidney injury in critically ill patient. Journal of Intensive Care 2017; 5(1): 1–8.
- Konder C, Kudrimoti A. Diagnosis and Management of Acute Interstitial Nephritis. American family physician 2003; 67(12): 2527–2534.
- Gumbert SD, Kork F, Jackson M L, Vanga N, Ghebremichael SJ, Wang CY Eltzschig HK. Perioperative Acute Kidney Injury. Anesthesiology 2020; 132(1): 180–204.
- Chhor V, Journois D .Perioperative Acute kidney injury and failure. Nephrol Therap 2014; 10(2): 121– 131.
- Igiraneza Grace, Ndayishimiye B, Nkeshimana M, Dusabejambo V, Ogbuagu O. Clinical Profile and Outcome of Patients with Acute Kidney Injury Requiring Hemodialysis: Two Years' Experience at a Tertiary Hospital in Rwand. Hindawi BioMed Research International 2018; 1–6.
- Ron W, Bagshaw SM . The Timing of Renal Replacement Therapy Initiation in Acute Kidney Injury Is Earlier Truly Better Critical Care Medicine 2014; 42(8): 1933–1934.
- Ronco C, Cruz D, Bellomo R. Continuous Renal Replacement in Critical Illness. Acute Kidney Injury 2007; 156: 309–319.
- Cruz DN, Ronco C. Acute Kidney Injury in intensive care units: current trends in incidence and outcome. Crit Care 2007; 11(4): 149–150.
- Jiang L, Zhu Y, Luo X, Wen Y, Du B, Wang M, Zhao Z, Yin Y, Zhu B, Xi X. Epidemiology of acute kidney injury in intensive care units in Beijing: the multicenter BAKIT study. BMC Nephrology 2019; 20(468): 1–10.
- Corte WD, Dhondt A, Vanholder R, Waele JD, Decruyenaere J, Sergoyne V, Vanhalst J, Claus S, Hoste EA. Long term outcome in ICU patients with acute Kidney Injury treated with renal replacement therapy: a prospective cohort study. Critical Care 2016; 20(256): 1–13.
- 29. Bagshaw SM, George C, Bellomo R . Changes in the

incidence and outcome for early acute kidney injury in a cohort of Australian intensive care units. Crit Care 2007; 11(3): 1–9.

- Ponce D, Balbi A. Acute kidney injury: risk factors and management challenges in developing countries. Int J Nephrol Renovasc Dis 2016; 9: 193–200.
- Hashemian SM, Jamaati H, Bidgoli B F, Farrokhi FR, Malekmohammad M, Roozdar S, Mohajerani SA, Bagheri A, Radmnand G, Hatami B, Chitsazan M. Outcome of Acute Kidney Injury in Critical Care Unit, Based on AKI Network. Tanaffos 2016; 15(2): 89–95.
- 32. Koeze J, Keus F, Dieperink W, Van der Horst IC, Zijlstra JG, Van Meurs M. Incidence, timing and outcome of AKI in critically ill patients varies with the definition used and the addition of urine output criteria. BMC nephrology 2017; 18(70): 1–9.
- 33. Oladimeji M, Asiyanbi G, Fadeyi A, Belle O, Olanipekun S, AdekolaO . The outcome of Acute kidney injury in the intensive care unit of a sub Saharan Tertiary Hospital. Intensive Care Medicine Experimental 2019, 7(3): 001611.
- Font S M, Martinez JR, Calvo CP, Díaz PV, Calvo SA, Clari EM. Prevention of acute kidney injury in Intensive Care Units. Med Intensiva 2017; 41(2): 116– 126.
- Coca SG. Acute Kidney Injury in Elderly Persons. Am J Kidney Dis 2010; 56(1): 122–131.
- Kader KA, Palevsky PM. Acute Kidney Injury in the Elderly. Clin Geriatr Med 2009; 25(3): 331–358.
- Mahmood N, Rahman MF, Rahman MM, Shahid SH, Siddiqui MM. Acute Kidney Injury in Patients of Intensive Care Unit. AKMMC J 2017; 8(1): 38–44.
- Fatema K, Faruq MO, Ahsan AA, Ahmed F. Brief Communication Patterns of AKI Patients Requiring Sustained Low Efficiency Dialysis (SLED) Admitted in an ICU of Bangladesh. Bangladesh Crit Care J 2014; 2(2): 68–70.
- Aylward RE, van der Merwe E, Pazi S, van Niekerk M, Ensor J, Baker D, Freercks RJ. Risk factors and outcomes of acute kidney injury in South African critically ill adults: a prospective cohort study. BMC nephrology 2019; 20(460): 1–11.

- 40. Anaele CU, Suarez G, prieto Sk, Bashir M, laski M, Yang S. Acute Kidney Injury Patterns and Outcomes in low- risk versus high -risk critically ill patients admitted to the medical intensive care unit. The Southwest Respiratory and critical care Chronicles 2017; 5(17): 17–31.
- Schiffl H, Lang SM, Fischer R. Long-term outcomes of survivors of ICU acute kidney injury requiring renal replacement therapy: a 10-year prospective Cohort study. Clin Kidney J 2012; 5(4): 297–302.
- Hamid ASA, Naing NN, Adnan AS. Acute Kidney Injury in Intensive Care Unit, hospital Universiti Sains Malaysia: A descriptive Study. Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl 2018; 29(5): 1109–1114.
- 43. Potter DA, Wroe N, Redhead H, Lewington AJ. Outcomes in patients with Acute Kidney Injury reviewed by Critical Care Outreach : what is the Role of the National Early Warning score? J Intensive Care Soc 2017; 18(4): 300–309.
- 44. Prowle JR. Sepsis-Associated AKI. CJASN 2018; 13(2): 339–342.
- 45. Mehta RL, Bouchard J, Soroko SB, Ikizler TA, Paganini EP, Chertow GM, Himmelfarb J. Sepsis as a cause and consequence of acute kidney injury: Program to Improve Care in Acute Renal Disease. Intensive Care Med 2011; 37(2): 241–248.
- 46. ElHafeez SA, Tripepi G, Quinn R, Naga Y, Abdel monem S, Hady M A et al. Risk, Predictors, and outcomes of Acute Kidney Injury in Patients Admitted to Intensive care unit in Egypt. Scientific Reports 2017; 7(1): 1–8.
- 47. Hussain SW, Qadeer A, Munawar K, Qureshi MS, Khan MT, Abdullah A, Bano S, Shad ZS. Determining the Incidence of Acute Kidney Injury Using the RIFLE Criteria in the Medical Intensive Care unit in a tertiary Care Hospital Setting in Pakistan. Cureus 2019; 11(2): e4071.
- Eswarappa M, Madhyastha PR, Puri S, Varma V, Bhandari A, Chennabassappa G. Postpartum acute kidney injury: A review of 99 cases. Renal Failure 2016; 38(6): 889–893.
- 49. Ferreira DP, Amorim FF, Matsuura AJ, Sousa JL,

Santana AR, Souza JA, Imoto AM. Pregnancy-related acute kidney injury: mortality and survival of patients treated at a maternal intensive care unit. Journal of Nephrol 2020; 33(6): 1361–1367.

- Najar MS, Shah AR, Wani IA, Reshi AR, Banday KA, Ashraf Bhat M, Saldanha CL. Pregnancy related acute kidney injury: A single center experience from the Kashmir Valley. Indian J Nephrol 2008; 18(4): 159–161.
- Ponce D, Zorzenon C de PF, Santos NY, Teixeira UA, Balbi AL. Acute Kidney Injury in Intensive Care Unit patients: a prospective Study on Incidence, risk factors and mortality. Rev Bras Ter Intensiva 2011; 23(3): 321–326.
- 52 Weisbord SD, Palevsky P. Acute Renal Failure in Intensive Care Unit. Seminars in Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine 2006; 27(3): 262–273.
- Tandukar S, Palevsky PM. Continuous Renal Replacement Therapy Who, When, Why and How. Chest 2019; 155(3): 626–638. Pub Med.
- 54. Marshall MR, Ma T, Galler D, Rankin APN, Williams A B. Sustained low-efficiency daily diafiltration (SLEDD-f)for critically ill patients requiring renal replacement therapy: towards an adequate therapy. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2004; 19(4): 877–884.
- 55. Kitchlu A, Adhikari N, Burns KEA, Friedrich JO, Garg AX, Klein D, Richardson RM, Wald R. Outcomes of sustained low efficiency dialysis versus continuous renal replacement therapy in critically ill adults with acute kidney injury: a cohort study. BMC Nephrology 2015; 16(127): 1–8.

- 56. Schwenger V, Weigand MA, Hoffmann O, Dikow R, Kihm LP, Seckinger J, Miftari N, Schaier M, Hofer S, Haar C, Nawroth PP. Sustained low efficiency dialysis using a single-pass batch system in acute kidney injury-a randomized interventional trial: the REnal Replacement Therapy Study in Intensive Care Unit PatiEnts. Critical Care 2012; 16(4): 1–9.
- Peerapornratana S, Mahamitra N , Srisawat N .Outcomes of Renal Replacement Therapy in Intensive Care Units in Thailand. Kidney International Reports (KI REPORTS) 2017; 2(4): S1–S41
- Ali T, Khan I, Simpson W, Prescott G, Townend J, Smith W, MacLeod A. Incidence and outcomes in Acute Kidney Injury: A comprehensive population-Based study. JASN 2007; 18(4): 1292–1298.
- 59 Bouchard J, Acharya A, Cerda J, Maccariello E R, Madarasu R C, Tolwani AJ, Liang X, Fu P, Liu ZH, Mehta RL. A Prospective International Multicenter Study of AKI in the Intensive Care Unit. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 2015; 10(8): 1324–1331.
- El-Badawy AM, Mansour AE, Abdelmoniem RO. Acute kidney injury in intensive care unit patients in Benha University Hospitals. J Egypt Soc Nephrol Transplant 2020; 20(2): 103–110.
- Levy EM, Viscoli CM, Horwitz RI .The effect of acute renal failure on mortality. A cohort analysis. JAMA 1996; 275(19): 1489–1494.
- Hafez MZE, Kassem SA, Saleh SA. Epidemiology of acute kidney injury in Intensive Care Units in Aswan University Hospital. The Egyptian Journal of Hospital Medicine January 2020; 78(2): 265–270.