Volume : 4 | Issue : 6 | June 2015 • ISSN No 2277 - 8179

Aluminium Toxicity in Chronic Kidney Disease Patients on Maintenance Hemodialysis



Aims: Aluminium toxicity is encountered in chronic kidney disease patients who are on regular hemodialysis. It

KEYWORDS: aluminium toxicity, hemodialysis, dementia, bone disease, anemia, chronic kidney disease

Medical Science

Santhi Silambanan	Professor & Head, Department of Biochemistry, Sri Ramachandra Medical College & Research Institute, Porur, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India	
	Assistant Deefaran Demonterant of Discharging Ori Demonteration Modical Callerer 0	
Manikandan A	Assistant Professor, Department of Biochemistry, Sri Ramachandra Medical College & Research Institute, Porur, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India	
Subha Palaneeswari	Consultant Biochemist SRM Institute of Medical Sciences, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India	
Soundararajan P	Professor & Head, Department of Nephrology, Sri Ramachandra Medical College & Research Institute, Porur, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India	

ABSTRACT

presents as dialysis encephalopathy, bone disease, microcytic anemia etc. This study was undertaken to compare the serum aluminium levels in chronic kidney disease patients on maintenance hemodialysis with that of apparently healthy individuals. Methodology: It is a Case-Control Study consisting of 50 chronic kidney disease patients who were undergoing low-flux hemodialysis in Nephrology department of Sri Ramachandra Medical College, Chennai, for atleast 6 months and 50 apparently healthy individuals with normal kidney functions. Aluminium was estimated in Inductively Coupled Plasma – Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES) of Perkin Elmer Optima 5300DV.

Results: The mean and SD in control and case groups were $31.14 \pm 4.46 \mu g/L$ and $56.93 \pm 21.90 \mu g/L$ respectively with p value < .0001 showing that there is significant increase in serum aluminium levels in chronic kidney disease patients on maintenance hemodialysis. Conclusion: Aluminium toxicity is encountered in patients undergoing hemodialysis, which might be due to increased aluminium content in water supply, defect in water/dialysate fluid purification and distribution system within the individual dialyzers. Aluminium toxicity is one of the factors in increasing the morbidity in chronic kidney disease patients.

INTRODUCTION

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is on the increase due to rising prevalence of hypertension, diabetes mellitus, obesity, as well as to increase intake of nonstreoidal anti-inflammatory drugs and infections. CKD patients who are on maintenance hemodialysis are at increased risk for aluminium toxicity. Dietary ingestion of aluminium is 5-10mg/day; derived from food, drinking water, cooking utensils etc. Commercial preparations like antacids and albumin also have high level of aluminium (1). Normally it is completely excreted by the kidneys. In patients with CKD it is partially removed by dialysis, since 90% of aluminium is bound to plasma proteins especially transferrin. Aluminium accumulates in bone, brain, parathyroid glands and other tissues. Symptoms vary according to the rate and magnitude of aluminium accumulation. Aluminium accumulates along the mineralization surface of osteoid leading to low-turnover bone disease and interferes with the action of parathyroid hormone (PTH) and calcitriol on bones resulting in defective mineralization of bones. Aluminium gets accumulated in any parts of the body over time leading to hypochromic microcytic anemia, encephalopathy, abnormal speech, myoclonic jerks and convulsions (3)

Normal serum aluminium concentration is <6µg/L (4). In the dialysate fluid the aluminium concentration can be upto 10µg/L. Patients with no clinical features of osteomalacia or encephalopathy have aluminium and PTH levels of <20µg/L and 150-300ng/ L respectively. Patients with osteomalacia have aluminium and PTH levels >60µg/L and <65ng/L respectively; PTH is being reduced due to aluminium related bone disease. Patients with aluminium levels >20µg/L but <65µg/L are asymptomatic; likely candidates to manifest as toxicity (5). Generally blood test for diagnosing aluminium toxicity is unreliable; since most of the body stores of aluminium are found in bone and tissue which is not reflected in the serum value. Desferrioxamine infusion is used in diagnosing and treating aluminium overload disease(6). Desferrioxamine -stimulation test is done in patients with serum aluminium levels >60µg/L and who are asymptomatic. Desferrioxamine induces mobilization of aluminium deposited

in the tissues, leading to transient increase in aluminium concentration (7). The risk of aluminium-induced osteomalacia is greater in diabetic patients, compared with nondiabetic patients which may be related decreased bone turnover and decreased serum PTH levels(8,9). Aluminium accumulates in the neurofibrillary tangles leading to the degeneration of hippocampus in patients with Alzheimer's Disease(10).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study is conducted in 100 subjects in the age group 25 to 75 years which includes both males and females. The case group included end-stage renal disease patients undergoing chronic hemodialysis for more than 6 months. The normal subjects (control) included apparently normal individuals who came for regular master health check up and had normal renal functions. All measures were taken to maintain strict confidentiality about the personal details of the participants of the study. This study was in conformity with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by Sri Ramachandra University Institutional Ethics Committee. All subjects gave written consent form.

Group A: consists of 50 end-stage renal disease (ESRD) subjects on MHD(maintenance hemodialysis) from the Department of Nephrology in Sri Ramachandra Medical College and Research Institute. All patients were on low-flux bicarbonate hemodialysis for more than 6 months using polysulfone membrane dialyzer; 4 hours per session for three times per week, with a dialysis fluid calcium concentration of 3.0 mEq/L, and there was no difference in dialysis frequency and efficiency among patients (Urea Reduction Ratio- >65%). 1- α -(OH) D3 in a dose of 0.25 µg – 0.75 µg daily and erythropoietin weekly were given to all patients.

Inclusion criteria:

ESRD patients on MHD

Exclusion Criteria:

- 1. Patients on hemodialysis for < 6 months and for causes other than ESRD.
- 2. Any kind of acute illness/ Active infection
- 3. Those with malignancies
- Use of any nephrotoxic drugs, hormone replacement therapy, aluminium hydroxide, steroids.

Group B: 50 subjects who are apparently healthy attending master attended routine health check-up were selected randomly.

Inclusion criteria:

- 1. Normal renal function (Blood urea: 15-45mg/dl & serum Creatinine:0.6-1.2mg/dl).
- 2. Clinically healthy individuals with no associated medical problems/illnesses.
- Exclusion criteria:
- 1. Individuals with Liver and Cardiac diseases
- 2. Persons with Acute illnesses/Active infections
- 3. Use of any nephrotoxic drugs, hormone replacement therapy, aluminium hydroxide, steroids.

Study Protocol & Methodology adopted:

Blood samples were drawn from the individuals of both the groups for estimation of serum urea, creatinine and aluminium. For serum aluminium the samples were collected in royal blue topped BD vacutainer for element analysis. The serum was separated and stored at -20 °C until analysis.

Analysis of aluminium:

The samples were analyzed using inductively coupled plasmaoptical emission spectrophotometer (ICP-OES) of Perkin Elmer Optima 5300 DV. Calibration curve was plotted before running each batch.

Table No.1 : Test Conditions

Sample aspiration volume per analysis	500 µL
Analysis time per sample	3 minutes
Test temperature	6000 K
Plasma used	Argon
Wavelength used	396.153nm
Lower limit of detection	28µg/L
Linearity	2mg/L

Mechanism of operation: An ICP requires the elements to be analyzed in solution. The nebulizer transforms the aqueous solution into an aerosol. The light emitted by the atoms of an element in the ICP is converted into electrical signals by the photomultiplier in the spectrometer.

Results:

The SPSS version 15 statistical software tool was used for data processing. The difference in the mean values between the group A and group B was analyzed using Student's t-test. A p-value of < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Table 2: Clinical characteristics of study groups

	GROUP A (cases)	GROUP B (control)		
Age (years) (mean ± SD)	52.18 ± 9.85	52.44 ± 8.79		
n(male/female)	50(31/19)	50 (29/21))		
MHD duration (months)	6 to 24	0		
Diabetes (yes/no)	50/0	0		
Hypertension (yes/ no)	45/5	0		
Ingestion of				
Erythropoietin	50	0		
Lipid	10	0		
lowering agents				

Table3: showing the values of biochemical parameters groups A and B

Parameters	Case group -A (n=50)	Control group – B (n=50)	<i>p</i> value
Serum urea (mg/ dl)	78.62 ± 5.12	17.00 ± 2.01	.0001
Serum creatinine (mg/dl)	8.13 ± 1.69	0.70 ± 0.15	.0001
Serum Aluminium(µg/L)	56.93 ± 21.90	31.14 ± 4.46	.0001

All values in Mean \pm SD

Discussion:

Aluminium toxicity is found to be a potential hazard in all patients, more so in patients with ESRD; even though the magnitude of increase in aluminium may not be very high. Aluminium has a cumulative effect (11); elimination half-life from brain being 7 years. In patients with normal renal function increased ingestion of aluminium is implicated in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and dementia as occurring in patients with parkinsonism(12). Aluminium is found to be low in ground water but high in surface water(13). Domestic tap water can derive aluminium directly from the water source or from aluminium sulfate added as a flocculant during the process of purification. In patients with chronic renal failure, serum aluminium concentration increases due to the ingestion of aluminium containing phosphate binders (14) as well as due to the presence of aluminium in the dialysate(15) and parenterally from immunizations(16) and total parenteral nutrition(17) and from antiperspirants. Lactate, phosphate and citrate facilitate absorption. The transfer of aluminium during dialysis depends on the pH and concentration of aluminium in the dialysate as well as on the serum aluminium concentration. In this study there is significant increase (p .0001) in serum urea, Creatinine and aluminium in chronic renal patients who are on maintenance hemodialysis were compared with that of normal individuals.

Aluminium toxicity depends on the species of aluminium (halides, oxides, hydroxide, carbide, nitride, acetylide and phosphide) in the dialysate which may affect the dialyzability of aluminium. Aluminium in blood is tightly bound to serum proteins as well as to some lower molecular weight species(18). It gets deposited in gray-matter of brain, muscle, liver, spleen, heart and bone. Aluminium is believed to act as a neurotoxin by inhibiting dihydropteridine reductase (19), causing alteration in cholinergic neurotransmission (20). It inhibits protein synthesis, alters nucleic acid function and cell membrane permeability. It causes alterations in cognitive function and dementia(21, 22, 23). It disrupts neurofilament axonal transport and neurofilament assesmbly(24). Aluminum brain concentrations should be lower than 2µg/g. Aluminium is a competitive inhibitor of calcium, magnesium and iron. It causes anemia through decreased heme and globulin synthesis and increased hemolysis. Patients have increased reticulocyte count, decreased mean corpuscular volume, and mean corpuscular hemoglobin. Aluminium inhibits hexokinase leading to decreased glucose utilization(25). Aluminium by forming aluminium citrate complexes interferes with bone mineralization(26-28). There is alteration in the activities of acid and alkaline phosphatases, as well as in the response of parathyroid hormone and calcitriol on bone(29, 30). Aluminium interferes with both bone formation and resorption leading to osteomalacia, bone pain, multiple nonhealing fractures and premature osteoporosis. Deposition of aluminium in the parathyroid gland prevents the release of the hormone(31-34). Removal of aluminium from water can be done by use of water softener (removes only 50%) and incorporation of reverse osmosis which bring down the concentration to 10µg/L (35).

Low flux or high flux membranes can be applied for hemodialysis. High-flux dialysis is defined as a 2- microglobulin clearance of over 20 mL/min (36, 37). Compared with low-flux dialysis, high-flux dialysis more efficiently removes middle molecules ranging in size from 1000 to >15,000 D. These molecules include β_2 -microglobulin (β_2 M) (11,800D), which was the marker, used for the flux evaluations in the HEMO Study. Substances with lower molecular masses might behave kinetically as middle molecules because of properties such as steric configuration, electric charge, hydrophobicity, or binding to plasma proteins. High flux membranes have large pores and allow diffusion of greater amount of uremic toxins and middle molecules such as β2-microglobuline and may, therefore, decrease the risk of dialysis-related amyloidosis (38), reduced morbidity and mortality (39-42). Also they cause few activations of coagulation, complement and inflammatory systems (43), lower leukocytosis, improve neutrophil function, decrease cytokine secretion, remove endotoxins, improve lipid profile (44), reduce infection risk, aluminum toxicity and better preservation of renal function.

Potential disadvantages of high-flux dialyzers include loss of albumin into the dialysate when bleach is used for reprocessing (45) and back-transfer of dialysate contaminants into the blood, although some high-flux membranes also adsorb and thus inhibit the back-transfer of endotoxins(46). Many previous studies, however, exclusively compared a synthetic high-flux membrane with an unsubstituted cellulosic low-flux membrane, thus confounding the effects of middle-molecule clearance with those of membrane biocompatibility. Furthermore, there have been no randomized trials examining the effects of membrane flux on long-term clinical outcomes.

REFERENCE

1. PaigeNM, Nagami GT. The top 10 things Nephrologists wish every primary care physician knew. Mayo clinic Proc 2009;84:180-6 | 2. United Kingdom Renal Association. Clinical practice guidelines. http://www.renal.org/Clinical/Guidelines/ Guidelines.aspx / accessed July 14,2011. | 3. Alfrey A, Mitchell J, Burks J. Syndrome of dyspraxia and multifocal seizures associated with chronic hemodialysis. Trans Am Soc. Atif Intern Organs 1972;18:257-61. | 4. Mc Carthy JT, Milliner DS, Kurtz SB, Johnson WJ, Moyer TD. Interpretation of serum aluminium values in dialysis patients. Am J Clin Pathol 1986;86:629-36. | 5. Moe S, Drueke T, Cunningham J, Goodman W, Martin K, Olgaard K, et al. Definition, evaluation and classification of renal osteodystrophy: a position statement from kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO). Kidney Int 2006; 69:1945-53. | 6. D'Haese PC, Couttenye MM, Goodman WG, Lemoniatou E, Digenis P, Sotornik I et al. Use of the low-dose desferrioxamine test to diagnose and differentiate between patients with aluminium-related bone-disease, increased risk for aluminium toxicity, or aluminium overload. Nephrol Dial Transplant 1995;10:1874-84. [7. Janssen MJ, Van Boven WP. Efficacy of low-dose desferrioxamine for the estimation of aluminium overload in hemodialysis patients. Pharm World Sci 1996;18:197. | 8. Andress DL, Kopp JB, Maloney NA, et al. Early deposition of aluminium in bone in diabetic patients on hemodialysis. N Engl J Med 1987; 316:292. 9. Pie Y Hercz G, Greenwood C et al. Renal osteodystrophy in diabetic patients. Kidney Int 1993; 44:159 | 10. Perl DP, Brody AR. Alzhimer's Disease: X-ray spectrometric evidence of aluminium accumulation in neurofibrillary tangle-bearing neurons. Science 1980:208:297-9 | 11. Jorge B, Cannata-Andia, Jose L, Fernandez-Martin. The clinical impact of aluminium overload in renal failure. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2002; 17 Suppl 2: 9-12. | 12. Michael R Wills, John Savory. Water Content of Aluminium, Dialysis dementia and Osteomalacia. Environmental Health Perspectives 1985; 63: 141-7. | 13. Bondy SC. The neurotoxicity of environmental aluminium is still issue. Neurotoxicology:2010 Sep; 31(5):575-81. | 14. Edalat Nejad M, Ghasemikhah R, Delavar M. Aluminium overload: still as a source of concern in hemodialysis patients. Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl 2014; 25:412. | 15. Jaffe JA, Liftman C, Glickman JD. Frequency of elevated serum aluminium levels in adult dialysis patients. Am J Kidney Dis 2005; 46:316. | 16. Baylor NW, Egan W, Richman P. Aluminum salts in vaccines-US perspective. Vaccine. May 31 2002;20 Suppl 3:S18-23, 17, Brown RO, Morgan LM, Bhattacharva SK, Johnson PL, Minard G, Dickerson RN, Potential aluminum exposure from parenteral nutrition in patients with acute kidney injury. Ann Pharmacother. Oct 2008;42(10):1410-5. | 18. Trapp GA. Interactions of aluminum with cofactors, enzymes, and other proteins. Kidney Int Suppl. Feb 1986;18:S12-6. | 19. Leeming R J, Blair J A. Dialysis dementia, aluminium and tetrahydrobiopterin metabolism. Lancet 1982; 785-787. | 20. Marquis J. Aluminium neurotoxicity: an experimental perspective. Bull> Environ. Contam. Toxicol 1982; 29: 43-49. | 21. Bansal V K, Basal S. Nervous system disorders in dialysis patients. Handb Clin Neurol 2014; 119:395. | 22. Rondeau V. A review of epidemiologic studies on aluminium and silica in relation to Alzheimer's disease and associated disorders. Rev Environ Health 2002; 17:107-21. | 23. Miu AC, Benga O. Aluminium and Alzheimer's disease: a new look. J Alzhiemrs Dis 2006; 10:179-201. | 24. Shea TB, Wheeler E, Jung C. Aluminium inhibits neurofilament assembly, cytoskeletal incorporation, and axonal transport. Dynamic nature of aluminum-induced perikaryal neurofilament accumulations as revealed by subunit turnover. Mol Chem Neuropathol 1997;32(1-3):17-39 | 25. Lai JCK, Blass JP. Inhibition of brain glycolysis by aluminium. J Neurochem 1984;42: 438-446. | 26. Eknoyan G, Levin A, Levin N. Clinical practice guidelines for bone metabolism and disease in chronic kidney disease. Am J Kid Dis 2003; 42:57-201. | 27. Carl A. Burtis, Edward R, Ashwood, David E Bruns. Tietz Textbook of Clinical Chemistry and Molecular diagnosis, 5th edition. Philadelphia, WB Saunders, 2012. | 28. Thomas W C, Meyer J L. Aluminium-induced osteomalacia: an explanation. Am J Nephrol. 1984; 4: 201-203. 29. Delmez JA, Slatopolsky E. Hyperphosphatemia: its consequences and treatment in patients with chronic renal disease. Am J Kidney Dis 1992; 19:303. | 30. Slatopolsky E. the interaction of parathyroid hormone and aluminium in renal osteodystrophy. Kidney Int 1987; 31:842. | 31. Sandhu G, Djebali D, Bansal A, et al. Serum concentration of aluminium in hemodialvsis patients, Am J Kidney Dis 2011; 57:523, 32, Lieberherr M, Grosse B, Cournot-Witmer G, Thil CL, Balsan S, In vitro effects of aluminium on bone phosphatase: A possible interaction with bPTH and Vitamin D3 metabolites. Calcif. Tissue Int. 1982;34: 280-284. | 33. Key L, Bell N. Osteomalacia and disorders of vitamin D metabolism. In: Internal Medicine. 4th ed. 1994:1526-1527. | 34. Cannata JB, Diaz Lopez JB, Fernandez Menendez MJ, Virgos MJ. The parathyroid gland and aluminium overload: an overview. Contrib Nephrol 1988; 64: 113-119. | 35. George D Smith, Robin J Winney, Alexander McLean, James S Robson: Aluminium-related osteomalacia: response to reverse osmosis water treatment. Kidney International 1987; 32:96-101. | 36. Cheung AK, Agodoa LY, Clark W, Daugirdas JT, Depner TA, Gotch FA, Greene T, Levin NW, Leypoldt JK, Hemodialysis (HEMO) Study: Effects of hemodialyzer reuse on clearances of urea and 2-microglobulin. J Am Soc Nephrol 10: 117-127, 1999. 37. Murthy BVR, Sundaram S, Jaber BL, Perrella C, Meyer KB, Pereira BJG: Effect of formaldehyde/bleach reprocessing on in vivo performances of high-efficiency cellulose and high-flux polysulfone dialyzers. J Am Soc Nephrol 1998; 9: 464-472. | 38. van Ypersele de Strihou C, Jadoul M, Malghem J, Maldague B, Jamart J: Effect of dialysis membrane and patient's age on signs of dialysis-related amyloidosis: The Working Party on Dialysis Amyloidosis. Kidney Int 1991;39:1012-1019. | 39. Koda Y, Nishi S, Miyazaki S, Haginoshita S, Sakurabayashi T, Suzuki M, Sakai S, Yuasa Y, Hirasawa Y, Nishi T: Switch from conventional to high-flux membrane reduces the risk of carpal tunnel syndrome and mortality of hemodialysis patients. Kidney Int 1997; 52: 1096–1101. | 40. Hornberger JC, Chernew M, Petersen J, Garber AM: A multivariate analysis of mortality and hospital admissions with high-flux dialysis. J Am Soc Nephrol 1992; 3: 1227-1237. | 41. Woods HF, Nandakumar M: Improved outcome for haemodialysis patients treated with high-flux membranes. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2000; 15[Suppl]: 36-42. | 42. Port FK, Wolfe RA, Hulbert-Shearon TE, Daugirdas JT, Agodoa LY, Jones C, Orzol SM, Held PJ: Mortality risk by hemodialyzer reuse practice and dialyzer membrane characteristics: Results from the USRDS dialysis morbidity and mortality study. Am J Kidney Dis 2001; 37: 276-286. | 43. Vanholder R, Ringoir S, Dhondt A, Hakim R: Phagocytosis in uremic and hemodialysis patients: A prospective and cross sectional study. Kidney Int 1991; 39: 320-327. | 44. Seres DS, Strain GW, Hashim SA, Goldberg IJ, Levin NW: Improvement of plasma lipoprotein profiles during high-flux dialysis. J Am Soc Nephrol 1993; 3:1409-1415. | 45. Kaplan AA, Halley SE, Lapkin RA, Graeber CW: Dialysate protein losses with bleach processed polysulphone dialyzers. Kidney Int 1995; 47: 573-578. | 46. WeberV, Linsbergerz I, Rossmanith E, Weber C, Falkenhagen D. Pyrogen transfer across high- and lo-flux hemodialysis membranes. Artif Organs 2004; 28(2): 210-7.