



Emerging Therapeutic Approaches in Chronic Kidney Disease: From Pharmacological Interventions to Gene Therapy

Ananth. P¹, Mariyappan. G²

UG Student, Department of Pharmacology, Pallavan Pharmacy College.

ABSTRACT:

Chronic kidney disease (CKD), a global health concern, is a progressive condition characterized by a long-term decline in kidney function, leading to renal failure. This article explores the epidemiology, pathophysiology, comorbidities, diagnosis, and treatment options for CKD, with an emphasis on chronic renal failure (CRF) and acute renal failure (ARF). It examines the growing prevalence of CKD, particularly in populations with diabetes, hypertension, and other risk factors, and underscores the increased morbidity and mortality associated with kidney disease. The pathophysiological mechanisms leading to kidney dysfunction are reviewed, including the role of glomerular filtration, hypertension, and renal inflammation. Furthermore, the article highlights the significant comorbidities, such as cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, anemia, and electrolyte imbalances, which complicate the management and prognosis of CKD patients. Current diagnostic approaches, including blood and urine tests and imaging, are discussed alongside pharmacological treatments such as antihypertensive drugs, diuretics, and erythropoiesis-stimulating agents. Non-pharmacological treatments, such as dialysis and kidney transplantation, are also explored, along with emerging therapies, including wearable artificial kidneys and stem cell treatments. The article concludes by emphasizing the need for improved global health policies and more research into innovative therapies to mitigate the burden of CKD worldwide.

Keywords: Renal failure, CKD, Dialysis, gene therapy.

Introduction:

People are familiar with chronic kidney disease (CKD), often known as renal failure, as an incurable illness. According to the definition of Chronic Kidney Disease (CKD), which is a decline in kidney function marked by a Glomerular Filtration Rate (LFG) of less than 60 ml/min/1.73 m² that lasts longer than three months or the presence of indicators of kidney damage such as albuminuria, abnormalities in urinary sediments, abnormalities in electrolytes, the detection of renal abnormalities through histological and imaging (imaging) methods, and the presence of a history of renal transplantation, chronic kidney failure is a global health issue that is increasingly prevalent and morbid. Chronic kidney failure is influenced by risk factors include smoking, diabetes, high blood pressure, energy drink consumption, and the use of analgesic medications. An epidemiological evaluation of chronic kidney disease is necessary for health system planning, but in many nations, statistics on the disease's morbidity and death are still scarce or nonexistent. In addition to being a leading cause of pain and mortality worldwide, kidney disease is a significant risk factor for heart and blood vessel cardiovascular illnesses. Since chronic kidney disease may be substantially prevented and treated, it should receive more consideration when global health policy is being made, particularly in areas with low and intermediate sociodemographic indices. Renal failure comes in two varieties: Acute and chronic renal failure ⁽¹⁾.

1. Acute Renal Failure (ARF): This form of failure is reversible and occurs when the blood supply is abruptly interrupted or when the kidneys are overloaded with toxins, which can result in an unanticipated loss of kidney function. It can be identified by lowering the urine volume to less than 0.5 mL/kg per hour for six hours and raising the creatinine level within 48 hours to 0.3 mg/dL or 1.5 times the limit within the previous seven days. Because it is more inclusive, the term acute kidney injury (AKI) is used instead of acute renal failure. Anemia, hypertension, viral diseases (like malaria), chemotherapy, and sepsis are some of the risk factors that contribute to the development of acute renal failure. According to gender, this ailment is more common in men than in women, and it is more common in older adults. It is considered a fatal condition.

2. Chronic Renal Failure (CRF), also known as end-stage renal disease (ESRD), is a condition that results in the use of dialysis or transplantation when the analyzed glomerular filtration rate (GFR) falls below 60 ml per minute / 1.73 m² or when creatinine levels rise for at least three months. The goal of this study is to epidemiologically examine the factors that contribute to chronic kidney failure disease, as well as the distribution and management of the condition in CKD patients, based on the different theoretical notions that have been presented.

Epidemiology:

In general, men are more likely than women to experience renal failure worldwide, particularly in the advanced phases of the disease, where 100,000 Americans are afflicted each year. The latter stages of renal illness are three to four times more common among ethnic groups than in white people. Acute renal insufficiency affected 209 people per million per year, and 36% of them needed renal replacement treatment. As the population grows, kidney illness is becoming more prevalent. Dialysis patients number over a million worldwide, and in the US, it reaches a quarter of a million per year. Between 1994 and 2004, the prevalence of chronic renal disease increased from 12% to 14%. In older adults, chronic renal illness is more common. Diabetes and excessive blood pressure are the primary causes of renal damage. showed a steady increase in the number of diabetics over time, with 44% of these patients progressing to the end stage of renal failure (ESRF). End-stage renal disease is also frequently caused by glomerulonephritis and cystic nephritis. Kidney disease, which is in its advanced stages worldwide and in both industrialized and developing nations, is primarily caused by diabetes. Chronic kidney disease still seems to be a global chronic illness ⁽²⁾.

Pathophysiology:

Acute renal failure is initially characterized by a number of events that progressively lead to chronic renal failure.



The renal tissues are exposed to a lot of toxic compounds since their blood flow is faster than that which enters the liver, brain, and heart, where it can exceed 400 milliliters per 100 grams of tissue every minute.



Glomerular filtration, which filters blood from the circulation with its downloaded compounds such toxins and salts, is the primary portion that denotes the major phases in the kidney's regular function.



hyperfiltration or hypertension of the glomerular capillaries results in chronic kidney failure



Anionic macromolecules cannot flow through the glomerular filtration membrane due to a negative charge present in the membrane; proteins can pass through the glomerular filtration if this barrier is broken. Other kidney components also play a role in delivering aberrant material to the kidney's tubular epithelial cells.



Renal Failure



pre-nephrotic azotemia: decrease in renal blood flow kidney azotemia: Autoimmune parenchymal kidney disease post-renal azotemia: Urine flow blockage

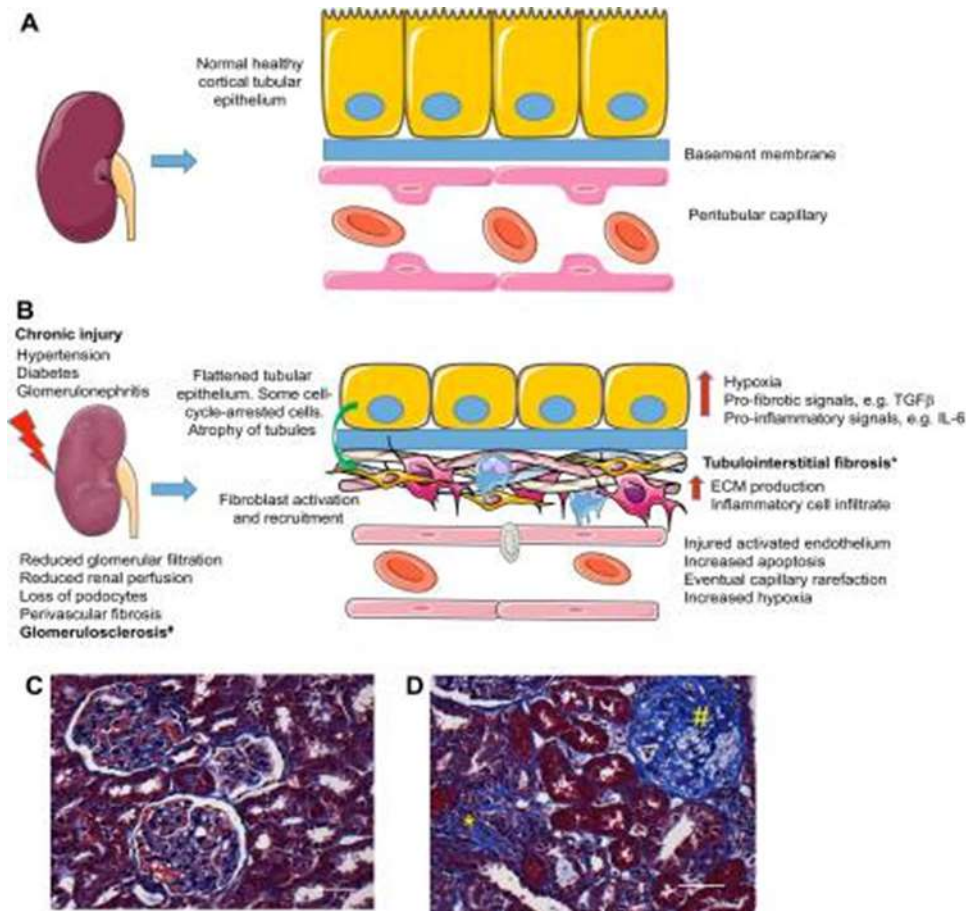


Figure 1: Renal disease's pathophysiological mechanisms. (A) A healthy, normal kidney (left) and a magnified image of a tubule and the blood vessels that surround it (right). (B) The progression of tubulointerstitial fibrosis in a chronically ill kidney. (C,D) Masson's trichrome-stained histological slices of an adult rat kidney (20× magnification; scale bars: 50 μm). (C) A normal adult rat kidney's glomerular and tubular architecture; (D) a 12-month-old hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 2 (Hsd11b2)-knockout rat with end-stage renal disease showing tubulointerstitial fibrosis (*) and glomerulosclerosis (#) (3).

Risk, Injury, Failure, Loss, and End-Stage Renal Disease

	Cr/GFR criteria	Urine output (UO) criteria
Risk	Increased Cr > 50% or GFR decreases > 25%	UO < 0.5 ml/kg/h × 6 h
Injury	Increased Cr > 100% or GFR decreases > 50%	UO < 0.5 ml/kg/h × 12 h
Failure	Increased Cr > 200% or GFR decreases > 75% or Cr ≥ 4 mg/dl (with acute rise of ≥ 0.5 mg/dl)	UO < 0.3 ml/kg/h × 24 h or anuria × 12 h
Loss	Persistent Acute Kidney Injury = complete loss of renal function for > 4 weeks	
ESRD	End stage renal disease	

Acute Kidney Injury Network

	Cr criteria	Urine output (UO) criteria
Stage 1	Increased Cr > 50% or ≥ 0.3 mg/dl	UO < 0.5 ml/kg/h × 6 h
Stage 2	Increased Cr > 100%	UO < 0.5 ml/kg/h × 12 h
Stage 3	Increased Cr > 200% or Cr ≥ 4 mg/dl (with acute rise of ≥ 0.5 mg/dl)	UO < 0.3 ml/kg/h × 24 h or anuria × 12 h

Patients who receive renal replacement therapy (RRT) are considered to have met the criteria for stage 3 irrespective of the stage that they are in at the time of commencement of RRT.

Figure 2: The RIFLE and AKIN classification and staging of acute kidney injury (4).

Comorbidities:

Numerous comorbidities might make managing and prognosticating renal failure, especially acute kidney injury (AKI) or chronic kidney disease (CKD), more difficult. These comorbidities can affect how patients with renal failure are treated and raise the risk of morbidity and mortality. An outline of

frequent comorbidities linked to renal failure is provided below, along with references to back up the data.

1. Diabetes Mellitus:

- **Prevalence:** One of the main causes of chronic kidney disease is diabetes, especially type One of the most frequent complications in diabetes individuals is diabetic nephropathy.

- **Impact:** Through glomerular hyperfiltration, inflammation, and fibrosis, hyperglycemia aggravates kidney disease ⁽⁵⁾.

2. Cardiovascular Disease (CVD):

- **Prevalence:** Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is the major cause of death in persons with chronic kidney disease (CKD) and renal failure.

- **Impact:** Increased arterial stiffness, a larger burden of atherosclerosis, and altered calcium-phosphate metabolism are all consequences of renal failure that worsen cardiovascular morbidity⁽⁶⁾.

3. Hypertension:

- **Prevalence:** Renal failure can result from or be caused by hypertension. Most patients with chronic kidney disease have it.

- **Impact:** Renal impairment increases as a result of high blood pressure, which speeds up the development of kidney injury ⁽⁷⁾.

4. Anemia:

- **Prevalence:** A characteristic of renal failure, anemia is caused by the kidneys producing less erythropoietin, and it is highly prevalent in CKD.

- **Impact:** Anemia raises the risk of heart failure, worsens tiredness, and decreases exercise tolerance ⁽⁸⁾.

5. Hyperkalemia:

- **Prevalence:** In advanced stages of chronic kidney disease, hyperkalemia is prevalent and can be fatal.

- **Impact:** Careful control is necessary to prevent severe arrhythmias caused by elevated potassium levels ⁽⁹⁾.

6. Mineral Disease of the Bone:

- **Prevalence:** Bone mineral disease is linked to renal failure and abnormalities in the metabolism of calcium, phosphate, parathyroid hormone, and vitamin D.

- **Impact:** Renal osteodystrophy, a disorder marked by bone discomfort, fractures, and abnormalities, may arise from this ⁽¹⁰⁾.

7. Malnutrition:

- **Prevalence:** Poor appetite, dietary restrictions, and inflammation are some of the reasons that put patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD) at higher risk of malnutrition.

- **Impact:** Poorer outcomes, such as increased mortality rates in people with chronic kidney disease, are linked to malnutrition ⁽¹¹⁾.

8. Depression:

- **Prevalence:** Depression is prevalent in people with chronic kidney disease (CKD) and renal failure, and treatment-related side effects, lifestyle restrictions, and the burden of chronic illness can all contribute to mental health issues.

- **Impact:** Depression can worsen overall outcomes, impair adherence to treatment, and raise the risk of death ⁽¹²⁾.

9. Infections:

- **Prevalence:** Renal failure, particularly in dialysis patients, increases the risk of infections, such as bloodstream infections, urinary tract infections, and peritonitis.

- **Impact:** Infections can cause serious complications and contribute to the high mortality rate in patients with renal failure; These imbalances can cause complications like pulmonary edema, arrhythmias, and congestive heart failure ⁽¹³⁾.

10. Electrolyte and fluid imbalances:

- **Prevalence:** Edema, hyponatremia, and hyperphosphatemia are among the problems caused by renal failure, which impairs the kidneys' capacity to control fluid balance and electrolyte levels.

- **Impact:** Arrhythmias, pulmonary edema, and congestive heart failure are among the consequences that may result from these imbalances ⁽¹⁴⁾.

Renal failure has many comorbidities that can have a big impact on patient outcomes. In addition to the main kidney failure, several comorbidities must be addressed for effective therapy. To improve patient outcomes and quality of life, a multidisciplinary approach to care involving nephrologists, cardiologists, endocrinologists, and other experts is essential.

Diagnosis: To assess your kidneys and identify renal failure, a medical professional may employ a number of kidney function tests. Common tests confirms you may be at risk for renal failure include:

Blood examinations: Your kidneys' ability to filter waste from your blood is demonstrated by blood tests. A tiny amount of blood will be drawn from a vein in your arm by a healthcare professional using a fine needle. Your blood sample will then be examined by technicians in a lab. **Urine examinations:** Urine tests quantify particular elements in your urine, like blood or protein. At a hospital or a provider's office, you will urinate into a designated container. Your urine sample will then be examined by technicians in a lab. **Imaging examinations:** Through imaging studies, a healthcare professional can examine your kidneys and the surrounding tissues to find any anomalies or obstructions. MRI, CT urograms, and renal ultrasounds are examples of common imaging studies.

Treatment:

Pharmacological therapies:

Medical therapy has changed the prognosis of patients with CKD. Drugs for the Treatment of Hypertension One of the most frequent causes and consequences of renal failure is high blood pressure. Blood pressure management is crucial for kidney failure patients in order to prevent (ACE) Inhibitors such as lisinopril, enalapril, and ramipril, help lower blood pressure, relax blood vessels, and lessen proteinuria, a major sign of kidney impairment. They safeguard renal function, especially in cases of chronic kidney disease, including diabetic nephropathy. Calcium Channels blockers such as Nifedipine, Amlodipine, and Diltiazem These drugs lower blood pressure by relaxing the blood arteries. When ACE inhibitors and ARBs are insufficient or have negative side effects, they are utilized used in conjunction with ACE inhibitors and ARBs to help individuals with renal disease manage their hypertension.

Drugs to Treat Electrolyte and Fluid Imbalances Fluid retention and electrolyte abnormalities, including those in potassium, calcium, and phosphorus, are caused by kidney failure. It is essential to use medications to treat these abnormalities. Diuretics such as Torsemide, Bumetanide, and Furosemide (Lasix) Diuretics reduce swelling and avoid heart failure or pulmonary edema by increasing the output of urine, which aids in the body's removal of excess fluid. These are frequently used to control fluid retention and avoid problems in the early stages of renal failure. Phosphate binders include calcium acetate, lanthanum carbonate (Fosrenol), and sevelamer (Renvela). Phosphate binders help manage hyperphosphatemia, or increased phosphorus levels, a prevalent problem in kidney failure, by reducing the absorption of phosphorus from diet. They aid in the prevention of blood vessel calcification and bone disease (renalosteodystrophy).

Medications for Anemia in Renal Failure Anemia is a common complication of kidney failure due to decreased erythropoietin (EPO) production, which is necessary for red blood cell production. Erythropoiesis-Stimulating Agents (ESAs) Epoetin alfa (Epogen, Procrit), Darbepoetin alfa (Aranesp) ESAs stimulate the production of red blood cells in the bone marrow by mimicking the action of erythropoietin. These are used to treat anemia in kidney failure, especially in dialysis patients. Iron Supplements Ferrous sulfate, Ferric gluconate, Iron sucrose (Venofer) Iron supplements are used to treat iron deficiency anemia, which is common in renal failure due to reduced iron absorption and blood loss during dialysis. They are often used in combination with ESAs to help improve red blood cell production. Vitamin B12 and Folate Supplements Folic acid, Vitamin B12 injections These vitamins are essential for red blood cell production, and deficiencies can worsen anemia in patients with kidney failure. Supplementation may help correct deficiencies and improve hematologic status.

Medications for Managing Metabolic Acidosis Metabolic acidosis is a common complication in patients with kidney failure, where the kidneys lose their ability to excrete acid, leading to a build-up of acid in the blood. Bicarbonate Supplements Sodium bicarbonate, Potassium bicarbonate These medications help neutralize excess acid in the blood, maintaining the pH balance and preventing complications like bone disease and muscle wasting. Used to treat metabolic acidosis, which is often present in chronic kidney disease and renal failure.

Non-Pharmacological options:

Lifestyle Modifications and Supportive Care:

In addition to medical treatments, lifestyle changes such as controlling blood sugar levels, lowering blood pressure, reducing salt intake, and avoiding nephrotoxic drugs can help slow the progression of kidney failure. Patients may also benefit from palliative care to manage symptoms and improve their quality of life in advanced stages of kidney disease.

Dialysis Innovations:

Dialysis remains the primary treatment for patients who cannot receive kidney transplants or are not candidates for transplantation. While dialysis itself is a life-saving treatment, recent innovations are aimed at improving its effectiveness, convenience, and quality of life for patients.

Hemodialysis:

Hemodialysis, or HD, is defined as a treatment that replaces kidney function using a dialyzer machine. Hemodialysis or hemofiltration involve passing blood through tubing and across artificial membranes⁽¹⁵⁾. It is an process where blood is extracted from the body, filtered by a dialyzer and then put back into the body. It uses a semipermeable membrane, also known as a thin membrane, which acts as an artificial kidney or dialyzer to eliminate metabolic waste, proteins, water balance issues, and electrolytes between the dialysate solution compartments. Hemodialysis therapy will result in symptoms of

discomfort, fatigue, a sense of heat or cold, restlessness, nausea, vomiting, difficulty relaxing, and even itching throughout the body. For the general public, hemodialysis better known as detoxification or dialysis—becomes a very frightening word. Some people are even unprepared and uncertain about undergoing hemodialysis until they are forced to stop midway through ⁽¹⁾. Patients must either visit a dialysis facility or have it done at home under physician supervision for this procedure, which is usually done two or three times each week. Hemodialysis is more cost effective than peritoneal dialysis.

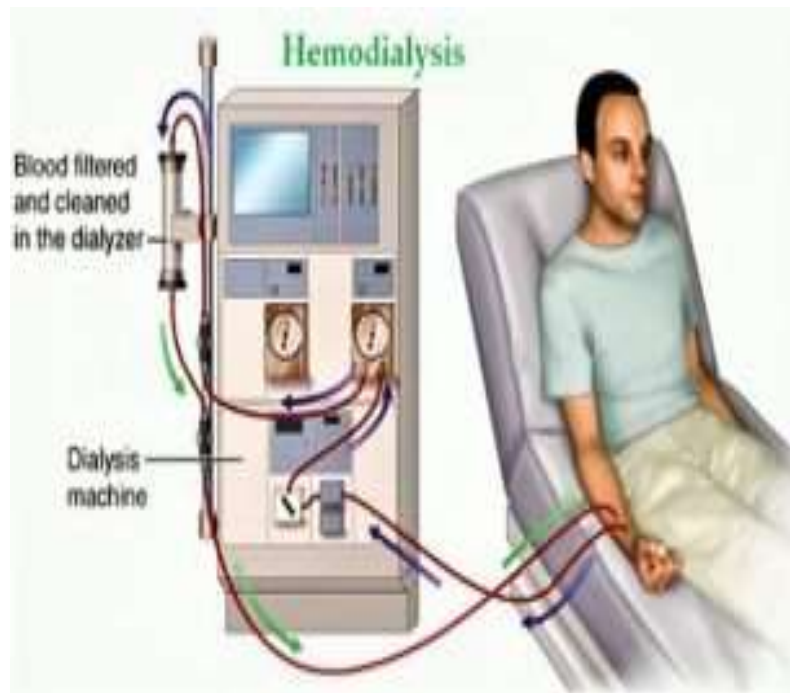


Figure 3: Hemodialysis

Peritoneal dialysis:

This type uses the lining of the abdomen (peritoneum) as a natural filter to remove waste. The procedure can be done at home, offering more flexibility than hemodialysis. Dialysate can be injected next to the peritoneal membrane peritoneal dialysis. Dialysate fluid is transported into the peritoneal cavity (belly) by the catheter. The average adult's stomach can hold two to three quarts (2 liters) of liquid. Your body size determines how much dialysate fluid you need.

While waste materials and fluids are removed from your circulation through your peritoneal membrane, the fluid remains in your abdomen. Through mechanisms known as diffusion and osmosis, waste materials move from the circulation through the peritoneal membrane and into the dialysate fluid. Waste materials and fluid eventually fill the dialysate to saturation. Fresh dialysate fluid needs to be added throughout the day. An exchange occurs each time the belly is drained and subsequently filled with new dialysate. The type of PD you select and your medication will determine how often the fluid is swapped ⁽¹⁶⁾.

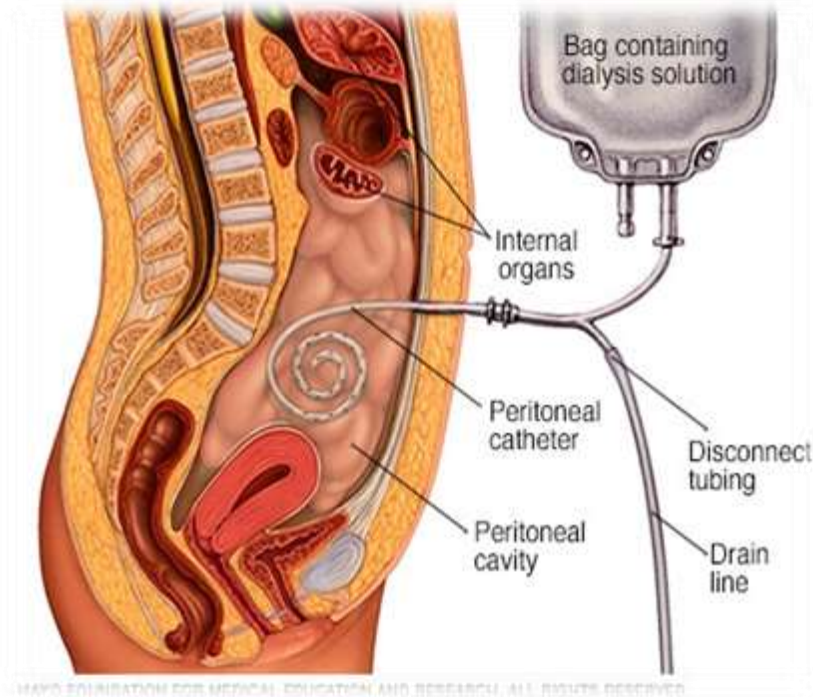


Figure 4: peritoneal dialysis

Kidney transplantation:

The only effective treatment for renal failure that may provide a long-term, functioning life without the need for continuous dialysis is kidney transplantation. During a transplant, a healthy donor kidney is used to replace the damaged kidneys. The risk of organ rejection, the length of time it takes to find a suitable donor, and the requirement for lifelong immunosuppressive medication to avoid rejection are some of the difficulties associated with transplantation, despite the fact that it greatly increases survival rates and quality of life. Compared to dialysis, kidney transplantation is linked to greater long-term survival rates, an enhanced quality of life, and a lower long-term cost burden. The possible adverse effects of immunosuppressive treatment and organ shortages, however, continue to be significant challenges.

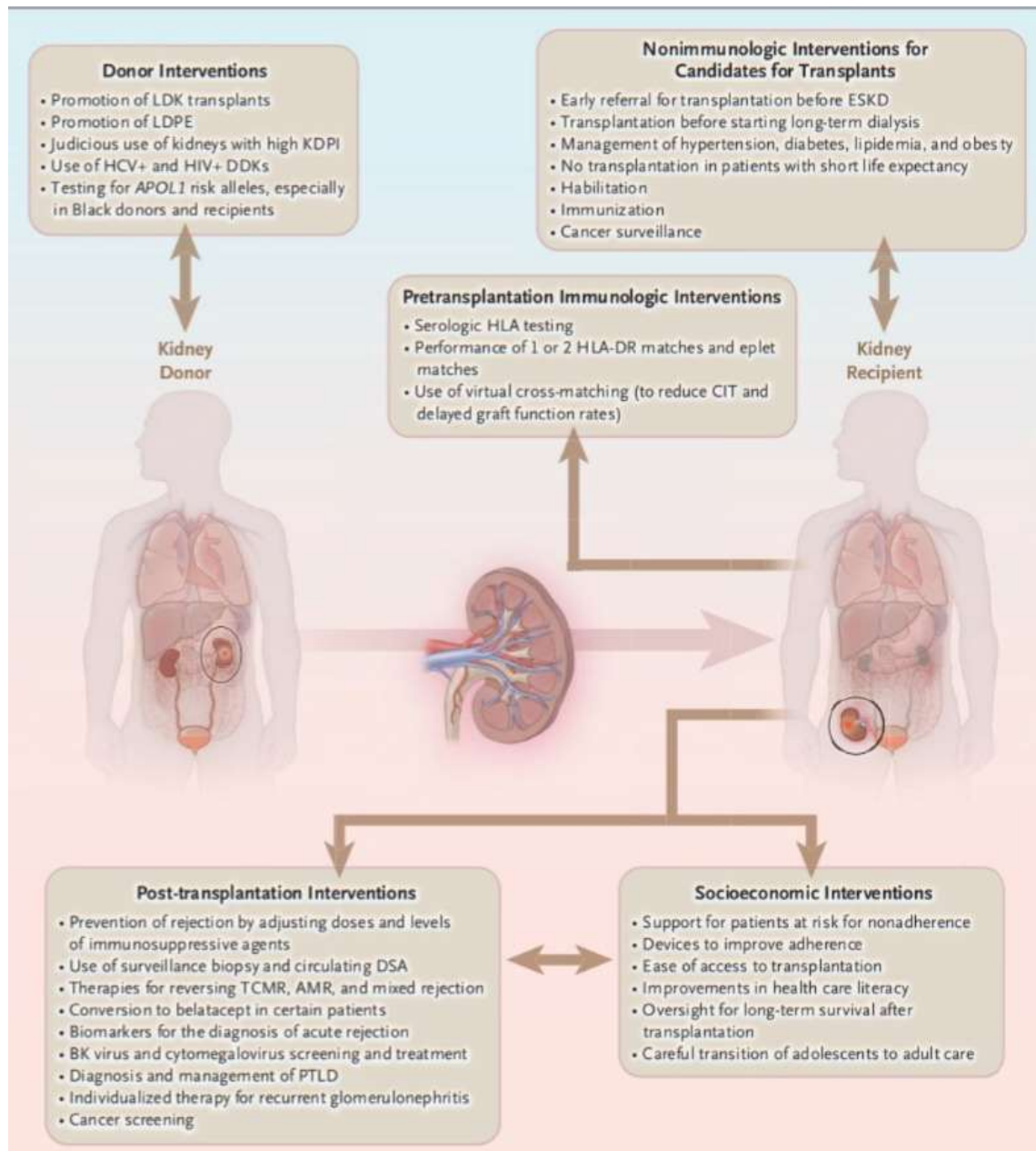


Figure 5: Interventions for kidney donors, candidates, and recipients that affect long term survival ⁽¹⁷⁾.

Emerging therapies:

Wearable artificial kidney:

The creation of portable, wearing artificial kidneys is one of the most exciting developments in dialysis. These gadgets are made to more closely resemble the kidneys' function without requiring as much invasiveness. By continually filtering blood, the wearable artificial kidney (WAK), which is usually worn around the waist, frees patients from being dependent on a dialysis machine to go about their everyday activities. This technology, which is currently at the experimental stage, has the potential to decrease hospitalizations, increase patient mobility, and improve the dialysis experience in general. Should wearable artificial kidneys prove effective, they could lower healthcare expenses, improve long-term results, and greatly improve the quality of life for dialysis patients. A commercially available, battery-operated micro pump is used to anticoagulate blood obtained from a double lumen catheter with heparin from a reservoir. The blood is then cycled through the WAK pump's blood channel and into the dialyzer. The twin lumen catheter's venous side receives the blood again. After an ambIT pump infuses a potassium, calcium, and magnesium solution from a separate reservoir, clean dialysate enters the dialyzer. The dialysate enters the WAK pump's dialysate channel after circulating in countercurrent flow to the blood. A specific volume of the spent dialysate is extracted into a collection bag by another ambIT pump. Urease, zirconium phosphate, hydrous zirconium oxide, and activated carbon are among the sorbents that the remaining dialysate passes through ⁽¹⁸⁾.

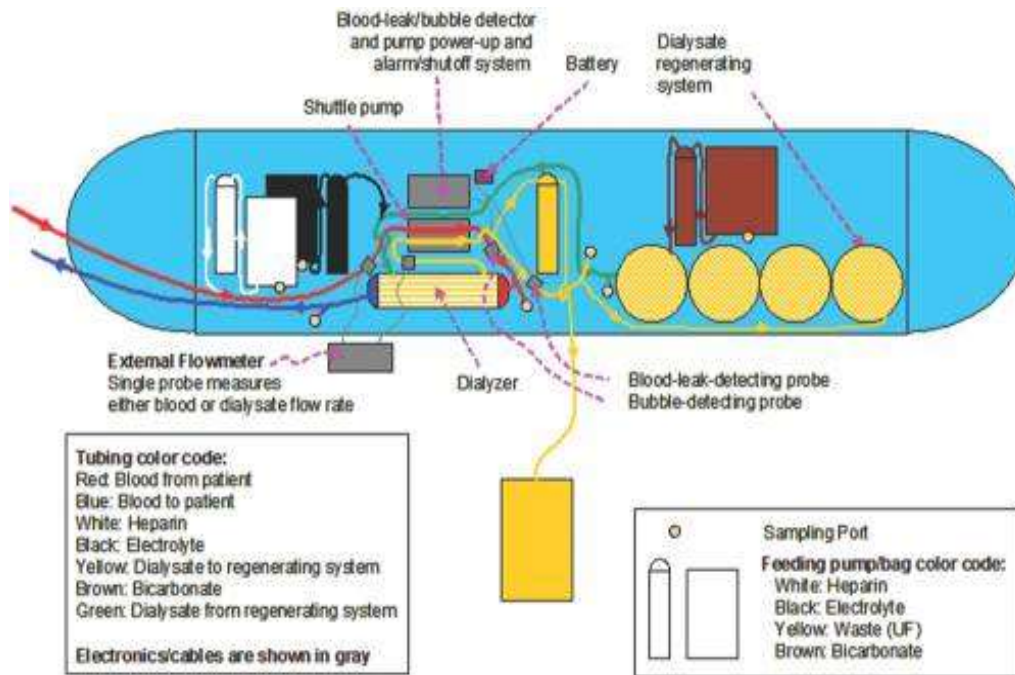


Figure 6: wearable artificial kidney.

Kidney Transplantation Innovations:

Xenotransplantation:

Pig-to-Human Kidney Transplantation: The practice of transferring kidneys from genetically engineered pigs to people, or xenotransplantation, has gained attention as a possible remedy for the organ shortage. Genetically engineered pig kidneys have been successfully transplanted into non-human primates by researchers, and some trials are currently concentrating on human recipients. If successful, xenotransplantation could offer a renewable source of organs and drastically cut down on the waiting period for kidney transplants.

Renal Reinvention:

Stem Cell Therapy: The potential of stem cells, specifically induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), to repair damaged kidney tissue is being studied. A patient's own cells can be used to create iPSCs, which lowers the possibility of rejection. As an alternative to total organ transplantation, these stem cells may be able to produce new kidney tissues or even heal damaged kidneys. With the potential to regenerate kidney tissues, stem cell treatment is a viable option for regaining kidney function without requiring a transplant. The way chronic kidney disease (CKD) is treated might be completely changed by this.

Gene Therapy and CRISPR Technology CRISPR-Cas9:

Gene Editing Genetic Modification of Kidney Cells: CRISPR technology has demonstrated promise in treating genetic causes of kidney disease, including polycystic kidney disease (PKD). CRISPR can be used to correct the genetic mutations that cause kidney diseases, potentially preventing kidney failure from occurring. Gene editing could be a curative treatment for inherited kidney diseases, potentially halting the progression of kidney failure before dialysis or transplantation is necessary.

Gene Therapy for Glomerulonephritis:

Targeted Gene Therapy: In conditions like glomerulonephritis, where the kidney's glomeruli become inflamed, gene therapy can be used to introduce corrective genes to modulate immune responses. This strategy could help treat or even reverse the damage caused by chronic kidney diseases. For kidney illnesses for which there are currently few effective medicines, gene therapy holds out hope for better outcomes.

Bioengineered Kidneys:

Kidney Bio printing in 3D:

In order to produce fully functional, bioengineered kidneys using human cells, researchers are investigating 3D bioprinting technology. Rejection risk could be decreased by using this technology to produce kidneys that are specifically tailored to the recipient's immune profile. 3D bioprinting of kidneys could address the organ donor shortage, create personalized organs, and offer a revolutionary solution to organ transplantation in the future.

Lab-Grown Kidneys:

Advances in regenerative medicine are allowing researchers to grow kidney tissues in the lab using stem cells. These lab-grown kidneys are being developed to mimic the structure and function of natural kidneys, providing a source of transplantable kidneys without the need for donors. By offering an almost infinite supply of organs, lab-grown kidneys have the potential to completely transform kidney transplantation, addressing organ shortages and cutting down on the waiting list.

Conclusion:

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is a global health concern, with its prevalence continuously rising due to factors like diabetes, hypertension, and lifestyle choices. The disease can lead to end-stage renal disease (ESRD), necessitating treatments such as dialysis or kidney transplantation. Despite its incurable nature, CKD is preventable and manageable with appropriate interventions, highlighting the importance of early detection, lifestyle modifications, and pharmacological treatments to slow disease progression. The pathophysiology of CKD involves complex processes, such as glomerular hyperfiltration and fibrosis, which ultimately impair kidney function. The presence of comorbidities, such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and hypertension, complicates CKD management, increasing the risk of morbidity and mortality. With advancements in diagnostic tools and therapeutic strategies, including pharmacological treatments for managing hypertension, electrolyte imbalances, and anemia, patients with CKD can experience improved outcomes and a better quality of life. Dialysis continues to be a cornerstone treatment, with innovations like wearable artificial kidneys and peritoneal dialysis offering more flexibility for patients. Kidney transplantation remains the most effective long-term solution, but organ shortages and the need for immunosuppressive medications pose significant challenges. Emerging therapies, such as stem cell therapy, gene editing, and 3D bioengineered kidneys, offer promising avenues for the future, potentially transforming the landscape of CKD treatment and offering hope for improved patient outcomes. Ultimately, addressing CKD requires a multidisciplinary approach, integrating lifestyle interventions, pharmacological treatments, and technological advancements. With ongoing research and collaboration, the burden of CKD can be alleviated, leading to better health outcomes globally.

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