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OPINION REVIEW

Renal cell carcinoma and viral infections: A dangerous relationship?

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Abstract

Virus-related cancers in humans are widely recognized, but in the case of renal cancer, the link with the world of viruses is not clearly established in humans, despite being known in animal biology. In the present review, we aimed to explore the literature on renal cell carcinoma (RCC) for a possible role of viruses in human RCC tumorigenesis and immune homeostasis, hypothesizing the contribution of viruses to the immunogenicity of this tumor. A scientific literature search was conducted using the PubMed, Web of Science, and Google Scholar databases with the keywords "virus" or "viruses" or "viral infection" matched with ("AND") "renal cell carcinoma" or "kidney cancer" or "renal cancer" or "renal carcinoma" or "renal tumor" or "RCC". The retrieved findings evidenced two main aspects testifying to the relationship between RCC and viruses: The presence of viruses within the tumor, especially in non-clear cell RCC cases, and RCC occurrence in cases with pre-existing chronic viral infections. Some retrieved translational and clinical data suggest the possible contribution of viruses, particularly Epstein-Barr virus, to the marked immunogenicity of sarcomatoid RCC. In addition, it was revealed the possible role of endogenous retrovirus reactivation in RCC oncogenesis, introducing new fascinating hypotheses about this tumor's immunogenicity and likeliness of response to immune checkpoint inhibitors.

Key Words: Renal cell carcinoma; Renal cancer; Kidney cancer; Viruses; Viral infections; Retrotransposons

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Core Tip: An overview of the complex interplay between viral agents and renal carcinogenesis, possibly influencing the course of the disease, the tumor immune microenvironment, the production of new antigens, the host's and the tumor's immunogenicity, and, even more, the response to immune checkpoint blockade.

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INTRODUCTION

Virus-related cancers in humans are widely recognized and listed by the American Cancer Society[1]. The growing knowledge about the role of viruses as a cause of tumors has led to vaccines' development to prevent specific types of human cancers, which effectiveness is often prevented by prior exposure to the wild virus. Viruses known to be directly related to cancer are the human papillomaviruses (HPVs), leading mainly to cervix cancer and other genital or oral cancers; the Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), related to nasopharyngeal and gastric cancers, but also Burkitt and Hodgkin lymphomas; the human herpesvirus 8 (HHV8), associated with Kaposi sarcoma; the hepatitis B and C virus (HBV and HCV), provoking hepatocellular carcinoma, and even the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and HHV8, sometimes directly and often indirectly (through immunosuppression) related to a higher risk of developing Kaposi sarcoma, cervical cancer, tumors of the central nervous system and Hodgkin lymphoma[1].

In the case of renal cancer, the link with the world of viruses is established in animal biology, given the cause-effect relationship between the renal carcinoma of leopard frogs (Rana pipiens) and the Lucké tumor herpesvirus (LTHV). In 1974, the Koch-Henle postulates between LTHV and frogs' renal cancer were fulfilled, demonstrating that (1) The agent was associated with the disease; (2) The agent induced the same disease in a susceptible host; (3) The agent was isolated from the induced disease; and (4) The isolated agent was the same agent originally associated with the disease[2]. Then, in 1982, LTHV was found in the primary tumor and metastatic tumor cells in the liver, fat body, and bladder, revealing both by histopathology and electron microscopy that the virus was retained from the primary tumor to its metastatic cells[3].

Given this ancestral link, we aimed to explore the literature on human renal cancer, namely renal cell carcinoma (RCC), to verify the possible role of viruses in human RCC tumorigenesis and immune homeostasis with the host.

In addition, considering the recent advances in the field of systemic immunotherapies, with the evidence of the efficacy of anti-programmed death 1 (PD-1)/programmed cell death ligand 1 (PD-L1) and anti-CTLA-4 immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) in the treatment of metastatic RCC (mRCC)[4-7], we postulated the possible contribution of viruses to the immunogenicity of this tumor. While an "inflamed" phenotype characterizes other immunogenic tumors, RCC has been defined as a tumor with a prominent dysfunctional immune cell infiltrate[8]. Its immunogenicity is not entirely attributable to an inflamed status or a high tumor mutational burden, another recently identified element responsible for immune responsiveness[9]. Indeed, enigmatic genomic clusters of RCC have been identified as good responders to ICI-based treatment regimens despite very low mutational burden and apparently non-immunogenic features. This is the case of the so-called "Cluster 7", characterized by increased expression of small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNAs), guiding chemical RNA modifications, especially SNORDs[10,11].

The possibility that the presence of viruses in cancer cells could contribute to tumor immunogenicity is already suggested by the outstanding efficacy of immune checkpoint blockade in a tumor well-known to be highly resistant to standard anticancer therapies, namely Merkel cell carcinoma (MCC)[12]. MCC is a rare and aggressive skin cancer belonging to the family of neuroendocrine tumors, characterized by small cell features non-dissimilar to that of small cell lung cancer (SCLC). Despite the well-known unresponsiveness of neuroendocrine tumors to ICIs, recently non-effortlessly introduced in SCLC's treatment algorithm, MCC is counted among the solid tumors which the new immunotherapy has changed history. Unlike other neuroendocrine tumors, MCC is associated, in 80% of cases, with the Merkel cell polyomavirus (MCPyV). The MCPyV small T oncoprotein can inactivate p53 and contributes to metastatic progression.

Interestingly, similarly to Cluster 7 described for RCC, MCPyV-positive cases bear a much lower mutational load, notwithstanding their immunogenicity[13]. Other than an increased neoantigens' production, this immune responsiveness might be due to the viral agent's contribution to shaping a peculiar tumor immune microenvironment (TIME), likely crucial to defining tumor immunogenicity. Recent findings support this hypothesis, showing that MCPyV presence, found in 101/176 analyzed cases of MCC, was related to changes in the tumor morphology, the density of the inflammatory infiltrate, the phenotype of the neoplastic cells, and the cell composition of the tumor stroma[14]. This evidence suggests that the presence of a virus can enhance inflammation within a tumor.

Given the emerging link between inflammation and ICI responsiveness, we hypothesized that a viral agent could contribute to rendering a tumor inflamed, on the one hand shaping the TIME, and on the other hand providing a more considerable amount of non-self-antigens, finally triggering a more potent immune response. In this view, the possible involvement of viruses in RCC oncogenesis and progression becomes an issue of interest, animating our aim to collect and describe evidence supporting this hypothesis.

LITERATURE SEARCH

A scientific literature search was conducted using the PubMed, Web of Science, and Google Scholar databases with the keywords "virus" or "viruses" or "viral infection" matched with ("AND") "renal cell carcinoma" or "kidney cancer" or "renal cancer" or "renal cancer" or "renal carcinoma" or "RCC". The topics included in the literature selection were viruses in RCC, and RCC in patients with chronic viral infections. The use of oncolytic viruses for therapeutic purposes in RCC was an excluded topic. Other relevant issues close to the topics of interest that emerged from the literature screening were furtherly retrieved, and relevant publications were discussed.

ISSUES EMERGED: A THREE-FACED JANUS

Our search for possible links between viruses and RCC brought out two main aspects of their relationship: The presence of viruses within the tumor, and RCC occurrence in cases with pre-existing viral infections, both events documenting a potential causality effect. In addition, our multidirectional review unrevealed the possible role of endogenous retrovirus (ERV) reactivation in RCC oncogenesis, introducing new fascinating hypotheses about this tumor's immunogenicity.

ROLE OF VIRUSES IN RCC: HISTOPATHOLOGICAL FINDINGS

The research of histopathological findings testifying the presence of viruses in RCC allowed the retrieval of five retrospective publications[15-19]. These studies identified the virus within the tumor tissue through heterogeneous assays, demonstrating the viral presence at a rate of tumor specimens ranging from 7% to 30% of the case series analyzed. Contrariwise, the same viruses were present in the respective control specimens (healthy kidney or peritumoral tissue) at a rate ranging from 0% to 4%. Table 1 summarizes the relevant data, showing HPV, EBV, and BKV polyomavirus among the viruses identified.

The role of BKV polyomavirus was already known in the field of renal transplants. About 75%-90% of healthy adults are BKV seropositive, but the virus is likely to remain non-pathogen in most cases. Immunosuppressive therapies trigger the reactivation of BKV and graft nephropathy (BKVN) in organ transplant recipients. The treatment of biopsy-proven BKVN consists of the reduction of immunosuppressive drugs. Of note, Neirynck *et al*[17] reported a case of complete remission of metastatic sites from RCC after the allograft surgical removal and immunosuppressive treatment discontinuation, suggesting the key role of BKV in a case of RCC occurred five years after renal transplant[16].

Table 1 Studies about viruses in renal cell carcinoma							
		Analyzed specimens		VC		Positive specimens	
Ref.	Study type	No. of cases and tumor type	No. of controls and tissue type	Virus investigated	Analysis method	No. of positive cases and tumor type	No. of positive controls and tissue type
Kim <i>et al</i> [18], 2005	Retrospective	73 RCC (22 clear cell; 18 papillary; 20 chromophobe; 10 sarcomatoid; 3 oncocytoma)	18 non-neoplastic kidneys	EBV	EBER-ISH and PCRs (for EBNA-1 and EBNA-3C)	5/73 (all sarcomatoid histology) (EBER-ISH) ² ; 4/73 (all sarcomatoid histology) showed amplification of EBNA-1	0/18
Neirynck <i>et al</i> [17], 2012	Case report	1 RCC ¹	1 peritumoral tissue	BKV	IHC (for SV40 T antigen)	65%-70% neoplastic cells	< 1% non-neoplastic cells
Salehipoor et al[19], 2012	Retrospective	49 RCC	16 non-neoplastic kidneys	HPV; EBV; BKV; JCV	Nested PCR (virus DNA)	$7/49\mathrm{HPV}$ (5 clear cell; 1 chromophobe 1 mixed type) 0 EBV, BKV JCV	0/16
Bulut <i>et al</i> [16], 2013	Retrospective	50 RCC	45 non-neoplastic kidneys	BKV	Nested PCR (BKV DNA) and RT-PCR (BKV mRNA)	10/50 (Nested PCR) 8/50 (RT-PCR)	2/45 non neoplastic kidneys (nested PCR, RT-PCR)
Farhadi <i>et al</i> [20], 2014	Retrospective	122 RCC (77 conventional; 26 papillary; 14 chromophobe; 1 collecting duct; 4 unclassified)	96 peritumoral tissues, 19 non- neoplastic kidneys	HR-HPV	Nested PCR (HR-HPV DNA). IHC (for p16INK4a and L1 Capsid Protein); CSAC-ISH	37/122 (17 clear-cell; 13 papillary; 4 chromophobe; 3 unclassified) (PCR). 24/118 (IHC for p16INK4a³) 0/118 (IHC for L1 capsid protein); 18/122 (CSAC-ISH)	4/96 peritumoral tissues; 0/19 non-neoplastic kidneys (PCR); 16/94 peritumoral tissue (IHC for p16INK4a); 0/94 peritumoral tissue (IHC for L1 capsid protein); NA (CSAC-ISH)

¹Allograft kidney.

RCC: Renal cell carcinoma; BKV: BK virus; EBV: Epstein-Barr virus; HPV: Human papillomavirus; JCV: JC virus; HR-HPV: High-risk human papillomavirus; Nested PCR: Nested polymerase chain reaction; RT-PCR: Real-time polymerase chain reaction; IHC: Immunohistochemistry; EBER-ISH: EBV-encoded RNAs in situ hybridization; EBNA-1 and EBNA-3C: EBV-encoded nuclear antigen 1 and EBV-encoded nuclear antigen 3C; CSAC-ISH: Catalyzed signalamplified colorimetric in situ hybridization; NA: Not available.

> From a different perspective, a critical role could be attributed to immunosuppression. Renal cancer occurs more frequently in renal transplanted patients than in the general population[20]. Considering the non-negligible rate of primary RCC in the allograft and the native kidney of renal transplant recipients, a possible synergy of immunosuppressive treatments and oncogenic viruses could be hypothesized as the basis of renal cancerogenesis in these patients[21]. According to a recent meta-analysis, renal transplant recipients were found to display a higher risk of all cancers, but their standard incidence ratio (SIR) was 10.77 (95%CI: 6.40-18.12; P < 0.001) concerning RCC, compared to an all-cancers SIR of 2.89 (95%CI: 2.13-3.91)[22].

> Besides BKV evidence in the allograft, the role of this virus might be more extensive in renal cancer, given the significant association (P = 0.03) found between BKV DNA positivity of specimens and histological diagnosis of RCC (but not with that of urothelial carcinoma) in a cohort including 50 RCC, 40 urothelial cancers, and 65 noncancer controls[15]. The levels of BKV mRNA were significantly higher in the RCC samples than in the control samples (P < 0.05), and the presence of BKV DNA resulted

²EBER-positive signals were located only in the tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes.

³Human papillomavirus capsid protein.

in a 5-fold increased risk of RCC[15].

The limitations of the studies analyzed, beyond the limited sample size, are represented by the scarce homogeneity of investigational techniques, in the complete lack of validated assays to assess the viral presence within the tumor tissue. In most cases, the viral nucleic acid was detected by real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR), but immunohistochemical techniques were also explored, with non-consistent results compared to the respective PCR in the same series[19].

Interestingly, a meaningful number of virus-positive cases were found in non-clear cell RCC (nccRCC) specimens, possibly subtending a different contribution in the etiopathogenesis between clear cell RCC (ccRCC) and non-conventional histologies. In the analyzed studies, Farhadi *et al*[20] found HPV in 13 of 26 (50%) papillary RCC specimens, compared to 17/77 ccRCC (22%) in the same series; similarly, Kim *et al*[18] found 50% of RCC with sarcomatoid histology positive for EBV. While the *VHL*-driven oncogenesis is widely recognized in ccRCC[23], less is known about the chain of oncogenic events in the case of nccRCC, a heterogeneous group of tumors with different histopathological, molecular, and clinical features, which are maybe promoted by shared stimuli.

EBV in sarcomatoid RCC: Is there a virus behind immunogenicity?

Sarcomatoid RCC (sRCC) is not considered a distinct histotype: Sarcomatoid dedifferentiation is a histological feature found in any RCC subtype, conferring aggressive behavior and a lower likelihood of response to antiangiogenic therapies when compared to ccRCC[24]. sRCC is characterized by the presence of spindle-shaped cells in a varying proportion of the tumor area, accounting for a sarcoma-like aspect, engaged in epithelial-mesenchymal transition and expressing mesenchymal markers. The differential diagnosis from retroperitoneal leiomyosarcoma or liposarcoma can be challenging in locally advanced cases. Nevertheless, opposite to these latter tumors, sRCC has been recently recognized as a highly immunogenic tumor, characterized by enriched immune signatures and high levels of tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes, likely to respond to ICI more than to antiangiogenic therapy [25]. From the molecular standpoint, sRCC exhibits a lower prevalence of PBRM1 mutations and angiogenesis markers, frequent CDKN2A/B alterations, and increased PD-L1 expression[26]. These findings have been applied to molecularly stratify patients, justifying improved outcomes of sarcomatoid tumors to checkpoint blockade vs antiangiogenics alone in first-line trials with ICI-based combinations, recently pooled in a meta-analysis[27].

In one of the previously cited histopathological research works, among 73 RCC specimens, EBV RNA was present in only 5 samples (6.8%)[17]. Curiously, all 5 EBV-positive tumors were sRCC. Considering the sRCC subgroup of samples, EBV-positive sRCC were 5 cases out of 10 (50%). Interestingly, EBV was located exclusively in the tumor-infiltrating B lymphocytes sRCC, clearly characterizing the TIME more than the tumor cells. These findings might suggest a possible contribution of viruses, in particular EBV, to the marked immunogenicity of sRCC, furtherly reiterated by recent subgroup analyses of new ICI-based combinations[28,29].

ERV REACTIVATION FROM PROMOTING RENAL CARCINOGENESIS TO PREDICTING IMMUNE RESPONSE

Approximately 40% of the mammalian genome is constituted by retrotransposons, archaic genic sequences introduced into the eukaryotic genome during the evolution, which can copy and paste themselves into different genomic locations through reverse transcription. Retrotransposons are epigenetically silenced in most somatic tissues and usually reactivated in early embryos. Their silencing is epigenetically provided through DNA methylation, histone methylation/acetylation, and posttranscriptional regulation. Mammalian retrotransposons include non-long term repeats (non-LTR) retrotransposons and LTR retrotransposons, the latter also known as ERVs[30]. Human ERVs (hERVs) are remnants of exogenous retroviruses integrated into the primate genome over evolutionary time. Besides LTRs, hERVs share other genomic similarities to other retroviruses, like gag, pro, pol, and env genes[31]. Their sequences are not transcribed in mRNA, but they can interfere with gene expression by antisense transcription or premature transcription termination, provide new transcription start sites changing gene regulation, contain regulatory elements on target genes, mediate genomic rearrangement through nonallelic homologous recombination[30].

Recent evidence reveals hERV reactivation in RCC, with LTRs exhibiting *HIF* binding and transcriptional activity in the RCC genome[32]. Some of these *HIF*-bound LTRs may function as distal enhancers inducing the expression of genes representing potential therapeutic targets in RCC.

ERV expression was shown to correlate with histone methylation and chromatin regulation genes in multiple cancer types, including ccRCC[33]. Eventually, ERVs provide an epigenomic mechanism for recurrent transcriptional signatures observed in RCC, suggesting that this tumor's epigenomic landscape might at least partially come from viruses.

Exaptation of promoters embedded within LTRs is emerging as a recurrent element of genomic dysregulation of oncogenesis, previously demonstrated in other cancers such as Hodgkin lymphoma, melanoma, and large B cell lymphoma. Recent research reported the first description of retroviral LTR exaptation in RCC, with distinct mechanisms from previous reports about this phenomenon[32]. Further evidence was provided on pan-cancer datasets by the Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA): Using a previously compilated database of 3173 intact, full-length ERV sequences, Smith and co-investigators designed a computational workflow for identifying the expression of specific ERVs from RNA-sequencing and quantified ERVs expression in different tumors[31]. They evidenced that ccRCC contained the most significant number of prognostic ERVs among all cancer types encompassed, with shorter survival in patients with greater mean ERV expression (testifying a negative prognostic value).

As a further crucial step in this field, ERVs in RCC have recently been demonstrated predicting immunotherapy response in ccRCC, as contemporarily reported in 2018 by two independent research groups[31,33].

Smith *et al*[32] identified a signature marking anti-PD-1 responsiveness associated with hERV expression, while a signature for non-responder tumors was negatively associated with hERV expression[31]. They explored the mechanisms by which hERV expression in tumor cells influenced the TIME in RCC, discovering immune stimulation evidence through RIG-I-like signaling of the hERV-induced adaptive immune response through B cell activation. Also, they showed that hERVs mediated the tumor-specific presentation of targetable viral epitopes, possibly adding a trigger to the antitumor response. On the other hand, ERV proteins were already known to be expressed and immunogenic in ccRCC[34-36].

Similarly, Panda *et al*[34] identified 20 potentially immunogenic ERV (π ERVs) in ccRCC in TCGA dataset, demonstrating that π ERV-high ccRCC tumors had an increased immune infiltration checkpoint pathway upregulation and higher CD8+ T cell fraction in infiltrating immune cells compared to π ERV-low ccRCC tumors[33]. Moreover, π ERV-high ccRCC tumors were enriched in *BAP1* mutations. As a further step, they demonstrated that the RNA level of specific ERVs (*ERV3-2*) was an excellent predictor of response to immune checkpoint blockade, as statistically significantly higher in tumors from responders compared with tumors from non-responders patients with metastatic ccRCC treated with single-agent PD-1/PD-L1 antibody[33]. This evidence is significant in light of the confirmed poor prognostic significance of π ERV-high and π ERV-intermediate expression, as verified by the same authors. The validation sample was represented by π ERV-high and π ERV-intermediate ccRCC patients treated with standard therapy, showing significantly shorter overall survival (OS) than patients with π ERV-low tumors [OS, hazard ration (HR) 1.44 (95%CI: 1.06-1.97), P = 0.02][33].

These findings suggested ERVs' striking relevance on the immune checkpoint activation in ccRCC, potentially configuring a new biomarker of inflamed tumors, more likely to respond to ICI immunotherapy.

RCC IN PATIENTS WITH CHRONIC VIRAL INFECTIONS: IS THERE ANY CAUSE-OUTCOME RELATIONSHIP?

Chronic viral infections are often subtended by a dysfunctional immune response, possibly conferring a persistently inflamed status to the host, likely dominated by T-cells exhaustion. Several authors have reported the increased incidence of malignancies in patients with chronic viral infections, and some consistent literature also emerged in the field of renal cancer (Table 2)[37-43].

Chronic HCV infection seems to confer a risk for the development of RCC, according to a cohort study of 67063 HCV-tested patients, among whom RCC was diagnosed in 0.6% of HCV-positive vs 0.3% of HCV-negative patients. The univariate HR for RCC among HCV patients was 2.20 (95%CI: 1.32-3.67; P = 0.0025). In a

Table 2 Studies reporting the relationship between chronic viral infections and the occurrence of renal cell carcinoma

Ref.	Study type	Type of chronic viral infection	Study population	RCC histology	Mean age (yr)	Aim	Main results/conclusions
Gaughan <i>et al</i> [43], 2008	Case series	HIV infection	9 HIV-associated RCC ¹	2 papillary, 1 collecting duct, 6 clear cell	48	To describe the risk factors, clinical findings, pathology, and response to therapy in RCC patients infected with HIV	The clinical presentation and behavior of RCC in patients with HIV infection appeared similar to that of the HIV-negative population and that chronic immunosuppression plays a lesser role than age and exposure to risk factors
Gordon <i>et al</i> [38], 2010	Retrospective study	HCV infection	67063 HCV-tested patients: 3057 HCV+ and 64006 HCV-	17 RCC HCV+: 8 clear cell, 6 papillary, 2 mixed clear cell/papillary, 1 undifferentiated/other; 117 HCV-: 92 clear cell, 43 papillary, 9 mixed clear cell/papillary, 26 undifferentiated/other	54 in HCV+, 63 in HCV-	To determine whether HCV infection confers an increased risk for developing RCC	RCC was diagnosed in 0.6% (17/3057) of HCV+ and 0.3% (117/64006) of HCV- patients. HCV infection confers a risk for the development of RCC: Overall HR for RCC among HCV patients 1.77 (95% confidence interval, 1.05-2.98; $P=0.0313$)
Wiwanitkit [42], 2011	Bioinformatics analysis	HCV infection	NA	NA	NA	To assess the cause-outcome relationship between HCV infection and RCC using the bioinformatics network analysis technique	There might be a cause-outcome relationship between HCV infection and RCC <i>via</i> NY-REN-54 (the only one common protein)
Gonzalez <i>et al</i> [39], 2015	Prospective study	HCV infection	140 RCC and 100 colon cancer patients (control)	NA	56.7 in RCC patients with viremia, 61.8 in aviremic patients	To determine whether chronic HCV is associated with an increased risk of RCC	11/140 RCC and 1/100 colon cancer patients were HCAB+. Of the HCAB+ patients, 9/11 RCC and 0/1 controls had detectable HCV RNA. In the multivariable logistic regression analysis, being HCV RNA positive was a significant risk factor for RCC ($P = 0.043$)
Wijarnpreecha et al[40], 2016	Systematic review and meta-analysis	HCV infection	196826 patients from 7 observational studies (4 cohort and 3 case-control studies). Individuals without HCV infection were used as comparators in cohort studies, individuals without RCC as comparators in the cross-sectional and case-control studies	NA	NA ²	To assess the risk of RCC in patients with HCV infection	Significantly increased risk of RCC in HCC+ with the pooled risk ratio of 1.86 (95%CI: 1.11-3.11)
Ong <i>et al</i> [44], 2016	Case series	HIV infection	7 HIV-associated RCC ¹	5 clear cell, 1 papillary, 1 unknown	56	To report presentation, management and outcomes of RCC patients with HIV infection	RCC patients with HIV infection should be offered all treatment options in the same manner as the general population
Tsimafeyeu <i>et al</i> [41], 2020	Retrospective study	HCV infection	44 mRCC patients: 22 HCV+, 22 HCV-	Clear cell	62 in mRCC HCV+, 63 in mRCC HCV-		HCV-infected patients had significantly longer OS (27.5 vs 21.7, P = 0.005) and PFS (7.5 vs 4.9, P = 0.013), no difference in ORR. Grade 3–4 adverse events were observed in 5 (23%) HCV+ patients and in 3 (14%) HCV- patients

HCV: Hepatitis C virus; RCC: Renal cell carcinoma; mRCC: Metastatic renal cell carcinoma; HR: Hazard ratio; NA: Not available; HCAB: Hepatitis C antibody; RNA: Ribonucleic acid; OS: Overall survival; PFS: Progression-free survival; ORR: Objective response rate; HIV: Human immunodeficiency virus.

multivariate model that included the risk factors age, race, gender, and chronic kidney disease, the overall HR for RCC among HCV patients was 1.77 (95%CI: 1.05-2.98; P = 0.0313)[37].

In another report, RCC patients were shown to have a higher rate of hepatitis C antibody positivity (11/140, 8%) than colon cancer patients (1/100, 1%, P = 0.01), viremic RCC patients were significantly younger than RCC patients who were HCV RNA negative (P = 0.013)[38].

A meta-analysis of seven observational studies including 196826 patients, the risk of RCC in HCV patients was found to increase with a pooled risk ratio (RR) of 1.86 (95%CI: 1.11-3.11). Nevertheless, the association between RCC and HCV was marginally insignificant after a sensitivity analysis limited only to studies with adjusted analysis, with a pooled RR of 1.50 (95%CI: 0.93-2.42)[39].

In HIV infection, AIDS-related immunosuppression could play the leading role in promoting oncogenic events instead of the viral infection itself. The literature simply included RCC in the expanding array of non-AIDS-defining malignancies that develop during HIV infection[42,43].

On the other hand, subtending viral infections could represent the epiphenomenon of a dysfunctional immune status, maybe more likely to benefit from immune checkpoint blockade [44]. In a matched cohort study, data were collected from 174 patients with metastatic ccRCC, chronic HCV infection (case study group), no evidence of other malignancy or cirrhosis, and had received nivolumab as systemic anticancer treatment [39]. HCV-infected patients had significantly longer OS and progression-free survival (PFS). Median OS was 27.5 (95%CI: 25.3–29.7) and 21.7 (20.3–23.1) in study and control groups, respectively (P = 0.005). Median PFS was 7.5 (5.7–9.3) and 4.9 (4–5.8) (P = 0.013). Despite no differences in objective response rate between groups, patients with HCV had significantly more durable responses (P = 0.01). Such findings are undoubtedly suggestive but still largely insufficient to draw a causality relationship between chronic viral infections and immunogenicity.

The report of acute viral infections triggering an anticancer immune response in patients with solid and hematological malignancies is rather than new. From the first observation by William Coley that non-self-agents can trigger antitumor immune reactivity to the recent findings by our research group about influenza infection in advanced cancer patients treated with ICI immunotherapy, the literature emphasizes the role of extrinsic immune stimulation in modulating the immune reactivity and also the efficacy of inhibitory molecules targeting immune checkpoints[45,46]. Even SARS-CoV-2 was reported as able to exert an abscopal antitumor effect in solid tumors: Cases of partial or complete remission during COVID-19 have been reported in

¹Human immunodeficiency virus infection before renal cell carcinoma (RCC) diagnosis.

²Mean age not specified, but hepatitis C virus (HCV)+ RCC patients were significantly younger than HCV-RCC patients.

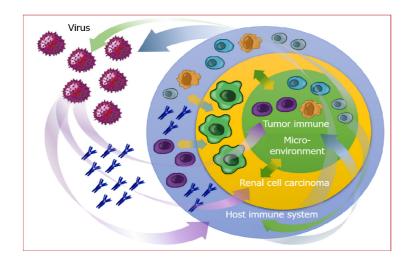


Figure 1 The crosstalk between the virus, the host, and the tumor is likely to influence the mutual interplay between the tumor itself, its immune microenvironment, and the host with renal cell carcinoma.

patients with melanoma and lymphomas without any anticancer treatment, in the latter cases likely due to a direct oncolytic effect on tumor cells[47-49].

Compared to cancer diagnosis in chronically infected individuals, likely driven by immunosuppression and immune exhaustion[50], the occurrence of viral infections in patients with cancer represents an opposite setting. In this case, the encounter with viral antigens could contribute, as a potent exogenous immunological stimulus, to shift the balance between tolerance and activation, likely favorably influencing the TIME and the complex relationships between the tumor and the host (Figure 1).

The possible contribution of viruses in kidney cancers with variant histology

For completeness, state-of-the-art about viruses and kidney cancer also included evidence about collecting duct carcinoma (CDC), rare variant histology with poor prognosis, and challenging therapy[51]. Notably, BKV polyomavirus was reported in the literature as linked to CDC in transplant recipients, again highlighting the role of immunosuppression as the playing field for virus-associated carcinogenesis[52,53].

CONCLUSION

The evidence presented above is a tickling proof-of-concept subtending the possibility to add a dowel for the prediction of cancer patients' outcome to immune checkpoint therapy and even more suggests exploiting the immunogenic potential of viruses for therapeutic purposes in the context of anticancer immunotherapy for RCC. Although manipulating viruses could sound like a dangerous game just in the context of the pandemic currently ongoing, teased by striking findings from this preliminary translational research, the authors of the present opinion review still consider the possibility that dangerous relationships may be the most immunogenic, at least in the context of RCC.

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REVIEW

Literature review of the mechanisms of acute kidney injury secondary to acute liver injury

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Abstract

People exposed to liver ischaemia reperfusion (IR) injury often develop acute kidney injury and the combination is associated with significant morbidity and mortality. Molecular mediators released by the liver in response to IR injury are the likely cause of acute kidney injury (AKI) in this setting, but the mediators have not yet been identified. Identifying the mechanism of injury will allow the identification of therapeutic targets which may modulate both liver IR injury and AKI following liver IR injury.

Key Words: Liver failure; Liver transplantation; Ischaemia-reperfusion injury; Acute kidney injury; Liver

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Core Tip: Acute kidney injury (AKI) following liver injury is likely to be mediated by circulating molecules. Further investigation is required to identify therapeutic targets to modify liver injury and AKI and reduce the morbidity and mortality associated with this condition.

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INTRODUCTION

Ischaemia reperfusion (IR) injury is typified by initial hypoperfusion and inadequate oxygen supply to end organs. This is followed by a secondary inflammatory reperfusion injury which impacts organ function and may affect distant organs[1]. IR injury can occur as part of a global hypoperfusion phenomenon such as that seen in trauma, sepsis and haemorrhage[1-4]. IR injury may also represent a local issue of poor perfusion that primarily affects a single organ or body region.

In the clinical setting, liver IR injury is commonly seen following liver resection and liver transplantation (LT)[5]. Liver IR injury following transplant is associated with major complications related to the liver injury, including early allograft dysfunction, primary nonfunction and ischaemic-type biliary complications[6,7]. In addition to liver specific outcomes, secondary organ injury may occur, which also increases the morbidity and mortality of liver transplantation and resection. Acute kidney injury (AKI) in particular, is very strongly linked to liver IR injury following liver transplantation[8,9]. 40% of liver transplant patients develop AKI, and 7% require renal replacement therapy (RRT)[10]. These patients have an increased mortality with a mortality odds ratio of 2.96, increasing to 8.15 in severe AKI with RRT requirement [10]. AKI post LT is also associated with graft failure, prolonged intensive care unit stay, delay to hospital discharge and subsequent development of chronic kidney disease (CKD)[10-14]. Post-transplant CKD is independently associated with an increase in late mortality and cardiovascular events[11].

Supportive treatment of AKI with renal replacement therapy does not resolve the excess mortality and poor outcomes associated with this condition[15,16]. This may be because AKI needing RRT is a marker of a more global injury affecting the function and viability of multiple organs[15].

There are no specific drug therapies that reverse AKI or block its development. This may in part be related to the overall lack of understanding of the mechanisms underlying the development of AKI following liver IR injury. An improved understanding of the underlying mechanisms of injury is likely to facilitate development of new strategies to avoid and downregulate injury, provide targets for new therapies and improve clinical outcomes post liver transplantation and resection. In the context of liver transplantation, effective therapeutic interventions for both liver IR injury and AKI would also allow expansion of the donor organ pool by inclusion of more marginal grafts, which are more susceptible to IR injury.

In recent years, the indications for liver transplantation have been expanded to include the treatment of primary hepatocellular carcinoma and carefully selected patient groups with some forms of metastatic disease[17,18]. Meeting this potential enormous expansion in transplant demand would necessitate the routine use of marginal grafts. Marginal grafts include those with background hepatic steatosis, grafts from donors following cardiac death and prolonged graft ischaemia times[19, 20]. They are especially susceptible to IR injury and are associated with an increased incidence of AKI and higher mortality[19]. The lack of therapeutic interventions which either provide recipient renal protection from significant liver IR injury or downregulate liver IR injury continues to limit the use of marginal grafts in liver transplantation[21]. Addressing these issues has the potential to revolutionise the use of marginal grafts and meet the current deficit between graft supply and demand.

The clinical importance of both liver IR injury and resultant AKI is clear. Several recent reviews have addressed either mechanisms of liver IR injury or clinical aspects of liver IR injury and AKI. However, no prior review has explored the experimental and clinical evidence for the link between liver IR injury and AKI and the mechanisms mediating AKI after liver transplantation. With a recent expansion in the primary literature on this topic, we believe a review is now warranted to crystalise current understanding, identify unanswered questions and to prioritise future research. In this review we will pull together current evidence for the molecular and physiological mechanisms of kidney injury following liver IR injury.

Figure 1 provides a schematic summary of the evidence for pathways mediating liver IR injury leading to kidney injury that will be discussed throughout this review.

RENAL INJURY IS DIRECTLY LINKED TO LIVER IR INJURY AND OCCURS EARLY FOLLOWING LIVER REPERFUSION

The link between liver IR injury and AKI in liver transplantation has been well established in multiple analyses. A retrospective study of 116 patients undergoing

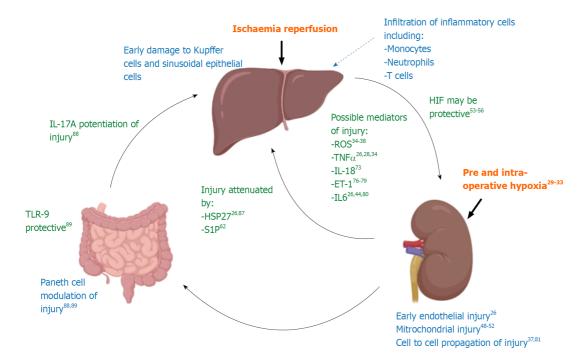


Figure 1 Schematic representation of current evidence to support the mechanistic link between liver IR injury and resultant kidney injury. The evidence for the possible mediators of injury detailed in this diagram will be discussed in more detail in the text of this review. A summary of the major studies discussed in this review can also be found in Supplementary Table 1.

deceased donor liver transplant in our unit identified post transplant serum AST/ALT as the only independent predictor of early post-operative AKI[8], a finding also demonstrated by Jochmans et al[9] in their prospective analysis of 88 patients who received livers from donation after brainstem death donors. These clinical data are supported by findings from rodent models of liver IR injury, typified by Lee et al[22], who demonstrated a direct relationship between plasma ALT and severity of AKI at 4 h and 24 h in a mouse model of partial hepatic ischaemia (right lobe of liver spared).

Renal injury is not only linked to liver ischaemia injury, but occurs promptly after reperfusion, both in the clinical setting and in animal models. In human liver transplantation, Neutrophil Gelatinase Associated Lipocalin (NGAL), a biomarker of early renal injury, is elevated in urine as early as two hours post reperfusion[23].

In rodent models of liver IR injury, histologically demonstrable renal injury is evident two to four hours post liver reperfusion[24]. Key histological features of renal injury in this context include hyperplasia and necrosis of the juxta-glomerular apparatus, endothelial apoptosis and multifocal acute tubular injury with disruption of F-actin cytoskeletal architecture, leading to S3 segment proximal tubule necrosis, focal tubular simplification (loss of brush border with cellular flattening), cytoplasmic vacuolisation, dilated tubular lumina and focal granular bile/haem casts[22,25,26], as depicted in Figure 2. A standardised grading system for severity of renal injury in rodent models of liver IR injury and AKI, including stratification of histological findings that are more associated with severe AKI, has not yet been developed. Additionally, both the sequence of injury and time frame for improvement in histological changes has not been fully defined.

The development of renal injury within a few hours of liver IR injury in both human clinical and animal experimental data hints at direct transmission of injury from liver to kidney. Liver derived molecules, washed out of the liver during organ reperfusion, may be critical mediators of AKI in this context. As the first cells to encounter haematologically transmitted mediators of injury, endothelial cells might be expected to bear the initial brunt of injury. In rodent models of liver IR injury and AKI, renal endothelial injury predominates [25], supporting this hypothesis. Human histological data is sparse and so we await verification that the rodent pattern of renal injury occurs in the human setting. An in vitro human model that permitted demonstration of haematological transmission of liver IR injury to the kidney would also be of huge experimental benefit. This has yet to be developed.

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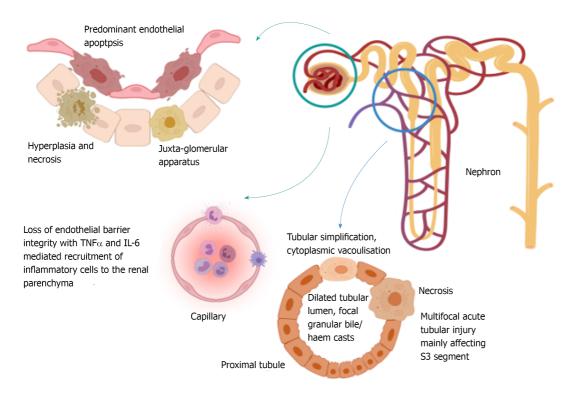


Figure 2 Diagrammatic representation of the current understanding of histological changes within the kidney that accompany acute kidney injury following liver ischaemia reperfusion injury. These data are obtained from animal studies. To date no objective grading system for histological severity of injury has been developed which means that only limited comparison of injury severity between studies is possible. Development of an objective scoring system across the first 48 h of renal injury would be of great benefit in this field of research.

SETTING THE STAGE FOR RENAL INJURY POST LIVER IR INJURY: PRE-OPERATIVE AND INTRA-OPERATIVE PROMOTERS OF INJURY

Whilst molecular mediators released by the liver following IR injury are likely to play a key role in renal injury, evidence suggests that renal injury following liver IR injury is a two-hit phenomenon. Both pre-existing renal abnormalities and intra-operative fluctuations in arterial oxygen concentrations may render the kidney relatively chronically hypoxic and prime it for further damage by circulating mediators of reperfusion injury [27,28]. This seems to be a different phenomenon from controlled ischaemic pre-conditioning which appears to reduce liver and renal injury in a mouse model of liver IR (unpublished data).

Background liver cirrhosis is associated with chronic renal injury and poor renal perfusion which may predispose the kidney to further injury

Renal biopsies performed in the context of cirrhosis demonstrate pathological changes in the kidney, mainly centred around the glomerulus, in 70% of patients. These include mesangial expansion, thickening of capillary walls, a mild increase in the number and size of endothelial and epithelial cells and IgA deposition[28]. These changes may reflect the chronic release of pro-inflammatory mediators from ongoing chronic inflammation in the liver.

Cirrhosis also reduces systemic vascular resistance[28]. When the increased cardiac output can no longer compensate for the reduction in systemic resistance there is arterial hypoperfusion. This leads to activation of vasoconstrictor systems, including the sympathetic nervous system and the renin: Angiotensin: Aldosterone axis with hypersecretion of Anti-Diuretic Hormone. The net result is Na⁺ and water retention but with hypovolaemia, renal arterial hypoperfusion and renal vasoconstriction leading to renal failure[28]. This pre-existing inflammatory and hypoxic injury may prime the kidney for further injury during liver transplantation.

There may be intra-operative fluctuations in renal perfusion during liver transplantation leading to a primary kidney insult before liver IR injury

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Liver transplantation results in huge fluctuations in mean arterial pressure (MAP) but there is conflicting evidence for an association between MAP and AKI. In a

retrospective study of patients undergoing living donor liver transplantation, severe hypotension (MAP < 40) in the recipient for even less than 10 min was independently related to development of post-operative AKI[29]. In a rat model of liver transplantation with doppler assessment of renal artery flow, Kong et al [24] noted increased renal resistive index (RI) during the anhepatic phase and reduced renal RI (compared to background) immediately post reperfusion (although this normalised within 30 min). The findings indicate maldistribution of blood flow to the kidney during the anhepatic phase with increased renal vein pressure secondary to IVC clamping serving to increase renal RI and reduce renal perfusion. Reperfusion is associated with reduced renal arteriolar tone, which the authors suggest may be due to an imbalance between vasoconstrictive and vasodilative factors, disturbing the adaptive capacity of the renal vasculature (not measured in this study). RI did not correlate with the development of AKI at 30 min and 2 h post operatively with this animal model and so RI and renal perfusion may not be the most important factors influencing AKI development.

Kandil et al[30] demonstrated similar fluctuations in MAP between the anhepatic and post reperfusion phases of human liver transplantation, although these were not statistically evaluated. In this double-blinded trial, patients were randomised to intraand post-operative terlipressin infusion or placebo. Terlipressin induces systemic arterial vasoconstriction with renal sparing. It was hypothesised that systemic vascular resistance support with terlipressin would improve renal perfusion and reduce postoperative renal injury. However, the authors demonstrated equivalent incidence of AKI in both the terlipressin and placebo groups which was subsequently supported by evidence from a meta-analysis on the subject [31]. Other causes of fluctuating MAP that may contribute to renal hypoperfusion in addition to systemic vascular resistance were not evaluated in this study.

Thus, whilst a short period of significant hypotension may promote the development of post-operative AKI, the relationship between renal perfusion and subsequent development of AKI requires further investigation and so far evidence suggests that renal perfusion may be less important than circulating factors for the development of AKI following liver IR injury.

Renal hypoxia in liver transplantation may promote development of liver IR induced AKI

In human liver transplantation, low arterial oxygen concentration at 5 min post reperfusion is independently associated with development of AKI (this study included assessment of hypotension)[32]. Arterial hypoxia may result in renal hypoxia, causing primary renal injury. However, only absolute oxygen concentrations rather than relative changes were evaluated in this study. It may be that the relative drop in arterial oxygen concentration at reperfusion reflects the degree of ischaemia and oxygen debt within the donor graft, with higher oxygen tension gradients between the recipient vasculature and more profoundly ischaemic grafts (although this has not yet been evaluated experimentally). Post reperfusion arterial hypoxiaemia may therefore be a surrogate measure of liver IR injury, rather than arterial hypoxia providing a direct contribution to renal injury.

That said, the kidney is highly susceptible to hypoxic injury. Under normal physiological conditions, 80% of the renal oxygen requirement is used to drive the Na⁺ /K⁺/ATPase pump in the proximal tubule. To meet these demands, the kidney is rich in vascular endothelium and has an excellent blood supply [27]. This in turn may make the kidney particularly vulnerable to circulating cytokines which trigger endothelial injury, especially in the situation of mass dilation of capillary beds as can occur during reperfusion secondary to the imbalance of vasodilatory and vasoconstrictive factors discussed in section 1[24].

Put together, the data suggest that the kidney is vulnerable to hypoxic injury and that post reperfusion arterial hypoxia is linked to the severity of renal injury following liver IR injury. Clinically it would be difficult to tease out the relative contributions to AKI from primary renal hypoxia and the more severe liver IR injury that is suggested by arterial hypoxia. Use of in vitro human models of injury where renal hypoxia can be controlled independently of liver IR injury would help to resolve this question. Such models have not yet been reported in the literature.

WHAT ARE THE MOLECULAR MEDIATORS OF RENAL INJURY FOLLOW-ING LIVER IR INJURY?

Many inflammatory mediators have been implicated in liver IR injury and/or resultant AKI. The discussion below will focus on the major molecules (both injurious and protective) of current investigative interest and draw together the discussion in the literature to provide an overview of current understanding.

Reactive oxygen species may be critical in the early transmission of injury to the kidney following liver IR injury

Reactive oxygen species may originate from the liver and circulate to the kidney[33] or arise primarily in the kidney, where they may be generated following endothelial injury and poor capillary perfusion with resultant relative hypoxia. Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) superoxide anion and hydroxyl radical have all been implicated in this process[34]. Oxidative stress is thought to be the main mediator of primary tissue damage during the first four hours of reperfusion. In a rat model of liver transplantation, oxidative stress in the kidney was shown to increase roughly 2.5 fold and peak at 8 h post reperfusion (measured as H₂O₂ normalised to sham laparotomy) [35,36]. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) bind to critical cellular biomolecules including proteins, DNA and membrane lipids, and cause oxidative modification, with resultant tissue injury[37].

The detrimental action of ROS may be potentiated by ongoing release of ROS from infiltrating inflammatory cells in the later phase of liver reperfusion injury. Activated neutrophils and macrophages release ROS, including superoxide anions and hydroxyl radicals which promote cell death[33]. However, in the longer term ROS may also be regenerative; late neutrophil release of ROS may play a key role in the development of reparative macrophages to orchestrate liver tissue repair following liver injury[38].

Albumin, which acts as a free radical scavenger and endothelium stabiliser is protective in this clinical context; low circulating levels of albumin as found in advanced liver disease are associated with an increased incidence of AKI post liver transplantation[39]. Likewise, administration of various antioxidants and free radical scavengers have been shown to reduce markers of renal oxidative stress and attenuate injury post liver IR in different animal models[40,41]. Iron free radicals may play an important role in the generation of ROS and ferroptosis[42]. Desferrioxamine (DFO), the iron chelator, blocks oxygen free radical production and lipid peroxidation. Administration of DFO was found to attenuate liver IR injury in pigs and was associated with no or subtle tubular injury. Pigs exposed to liver IR injury without DFO demonstrated extensive necrosis of tubular epithelial cells and dilatation of tubular lumina, indicating severe renal injury[43]. Notably the circulating serum iron concentration was not different between DFO-treated animals and controls, implying a specific function of DFO with reactive iron species. It is not known whether this function is separate from the iron binding capacity of DFO.

These findings have not been successfully translated to the clinical setting. Administration of N-acetylcysteine during major liver surgery, including transplantation, is associated with a modest improvement in transaminase levels without impacting either AKI, graft or patient survival [44-46]. Thus whilst ROS are likely to be critical in the early mediation of AKI following liver IR injury, further work is required to identify clinically useful targets that will downregulate injury following liver transplantation and hepatic resection.

Mitochondria are vulnerable to injury and may be the main site of ROS production following liver IR injury

Mitochondria are believed to play a key role in the pathogenesis of renal injury following a variety of insults, with reduced biogenesis (generation of new mitochondria in response to increased energy demand, mitochondrial stress or damage) resulting in attenuated capacity to meet the energy demand and ATP production necessary for injured cells. Mitochondria are also the key site of ROS generation within the cell[35] and ironically mitochondrial injury may also be mediated by ROS[47] or iron species, with DFO demonstrated to attenuate mitochondrial injury in other settings[48]. In a rat model of liver transplantation and AKI, Liu *et al*[49] demonstrated a reduction in key proteins (and mRNA) involved in or regulating mitochondrial biogenesis, fission and fusion including AS-B, ND3, PGC-1α, Tfam, Drp-1 and Fis-1. Mediators of mitophagy and autophagy (PINK-1 and LC3) were also upregulated with AKI in this model. Stimulation of mitochondrial

biogenesis has also been demonstrated to reduce renal IR injury [50,51].

Taken together, the data on ROS suggest local involvement in the pathogenesis of both liver IR injury and subsequent renal injury, with mitochondrial involvement in both the generation of ROS and mediation of ROS effects. However, demonstration of direct haematological transmission of ROS from liver to kidney producing subsequent kidney injury has not been demonstrated.

Hypoxia Inducible Factors may be protective following liver IR injury

Hypoxia inducible factor 1 (HIF-1) is an important mediator of the cellular transcriptional response to hypoxia and plays a key role in the response to liver IR injury. HIF-1 comprises an oxygen destructible alpha subunit and an oxygen-indestructible beta subunit, which dimerise under hypoxic conditions.

HIF- 1α silencing pre-injury promotes cellular damage in response to hypoxia, leading to increased serum levels of glucose, lipids, ALT and AST[52]. Conversely, pre-injury activation of HIF- 1α attenuates hepatic IR injury by attenuating liver necrosis, the inflammatory response, oxidative stress and apoptosis[53]. HIF- 1α stability is partially mediated by the oxygen sensing prolyl hydroxylase domain 1 (PHD1), which under normoxic conditions tags HIF- 1α for proteosomal degradation. Interestingly PHD1 function is repressed by miR122, a target gene of HIF- 1α , which is almost exclusively expressed in hepatocytes[54]. By this mechanism, HIF- 1α enhances HIF mediated cellular responses through PHD1 repression.

Downstream actions of HIF-1 may be key in the attenuation of liver IR injury with subsequent downregulation of AKI but the exact involvement and mechanisms remain unclear. It may be that such effects are mediated by other microRNAs involved in the transcriptional response to HIF-1[54]. The concentration of microRNAs from donor liver perfusate (but not tissue) at the end of cold ischaemia has been linked to elevated AST and graft long term survival[56]. If present in perfusate, these microRNAs may be produced by damaged liver cells that are being flushed out of the liver. The role of such microRNAs in the mediation of kidney injury requires further investigation.

CYTOKINES

Cytokines released from the liver following IR injury

A multitude of cytokines are upregulated in response to liver IR injury. Bezinover et al [57] evaluated cytokine upregulation in response to the ischaemia and reperfusion phases of human liver IR injury in 11 extended criteria donor grafts and 6 standard criteria donor grafts for liver transplantation. They obtained samples from the portal vein (prior to reperfusion, thought to represent the ischaemic phase of IR injury), the hepatic veins (at the beginning and end of post implantation liver flush with recipient circulating blood, thought to represent the reperfusion phase of IR injury) and arterial samples (from recipient prior to reperfusion and at 10 min and 20 min post reperfusion). Samples were analysed for TNF, IL-1, IL-2, IL-6 and IL-8 with comparison between levels of individual cytokines at each location. The results suggest early hepatic release of IL-6 during the ischaemic phase. This is followed by TNF α release (without observed increase in systemic circulating TNF α). IL-2 was likewise released from the liver towards the end of reperfusion. IL-1 was released from the liver during the process of reperfusion, without elevated levels seen in systemic samples. IL-8 and TNF are both known to be released by various cells including activated Kupffer cells in response to IR injury [58,59]. IL-8 is chemotactic, leading to recruitment of neutrophils to injured tissues[59], whilst TNFα is important for cell signalling leading to apoptosis or necrosis and neutrophil recruitment[60]. Interestingly, no difference was noted in IL-8 and TNF α release from standard and extended criteria groups. This is significant; given that extended criteria grafts are strongly associated with IR injury [21], higher concentrations of IL-8 and TNFα would be expected from this cohort. Thus release of IL-8 and TNF α may be associated with, but potentially not mechanistic to, IR injury and AKI development.

To summarise, in contrast to most published studies which focus on animal models, Bezinover *et al*[57] attempted to provide real-time human data on liver IR injury and hinted at possible temporal relationships between different cytokines in this context including IL-6, TNF α , IL-2 and IL-1. However, the study made significant assumptions, with no independent experimental validation of their methodology which matched sampling from different liver sites to the various phases of IR injury (for example portal vein sampling was matched to pre-reperfusion phase of injury). Such assumptions may explain the lack of expected difference in cytokine levels

between standard and extended criteria grafts. Additionally, the short period of reperfusion may explain the lack of correlation between liver flush samples and systemic samples. The "reperfusion phase" was only 20 min and therefore further changes within the liver during reperfusion injury may well have been missed in this data. Data from systemic blood samples over a longer time phase would have been interesting in this context.

A pilot study evaluating pre-conditioning in human liver transplantation performed in our unit investigated circulating cytokines at two hours post reperfusion. Levels of IL-6, IL-8, IL-10 and IL-17 α were all significantly elevated, whilst plasma levels of IL-2, IFN γ and TNF α did not change during the peri-transplant period[61]. In addition, IL-10 was particularly associated with marginal grafts in this study, although small patient numbers mean that these data are not conclusive.

In a mouse model of 90 min partial hepatic IR injury (right lobe spared), Lee et~al [62] demonstrated elevated serum IL-6, TNF α and MCP-1 at 6 h. These findings tallied with those from a previous study by the same authors that identified hepatic mRNA upregulation of TNF α , Intracellular Adhesion Molecule 1 (ICAM-1), Keratinocytederived Chemokine (KC), Monocyte Chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) and Macrophage Inflammatory Protein-2 (MIP-2) following 60 min partial liver ischaemia [22]. This pattern of upregulation and protein expression is supported by other animal studies of hepatic IR injury[26].

In summary, investigation of liver cytokine release following IR injury has identified numerous molecules that may be present in serum and are capable of transmitting injury to the kidney. However, results between studies are conflicting and there is no clear evidence that the cytokines are responsible for AKI in this context. Further clinical studies that make use of targeted cytokine inhibition or specific rodent knockout models are required to link individual cytokines with AKI. Clarifying liver origin of the cytokine would also be important in establishing the pathway of injury. Additionally, single cell analysis of key liver cells in response to injury might help to identify new mediators of injury that have not been investigated to date.

Cytokines are primarily released from non-parenchymal cells in early liver IR injury

Non parenchymal cells (*i.e.*, non-hepatocytes) seem to be key in the mediation of early liver IR injury[63]. Sinusoidal endothelial cells are damaged during ischaemia, whilst Kupffer cells appear to be activated in response to reperfusion injury, demonstrating five times the TNF α production of control animals[64] in addition to IL-1 and superoxide anions[63]. TNF α production in Kupffer cells may be primarily driven by ROS[65]. In a rat model of liver transplantation, ischaemia-reperfusion preconditioned livers demonstrated a reduction in Kupffer cell superoxide formation, reduced TNF production and reduced non-parenchymal cell death leading to improved recipient survival[66], again suggesting that Kupffer cells are key in the mediation of injury. Acute liver graft failure has been linked to loss of viability of sinusoidal cells and activation of Kupffer cells, further demonstrating the importance of these cell types in the mediation of IR injury[64].

The late phase of liver reperfusion injury is categorised by infiltration of neutrophils, T lymphocytes and monocytes[67-69]. These cells are recruited to the liver parenchyma by upregulation of ICAM-1, VCAM-1 and MCP-1 on damaged hepatocytes and SECs. The infiltrating cells secrete matrix metalloproteinases, other proteases and ROS which cause further liver damage[68,70].

In summary, activation of non-parenchymal cells in the liver is fundamental for the early stages of IR injury. Inflammatory cells are recruited to the liver parenchyma by damaged hepatocytes and SECs and drive ongoing inflammation. Single cell analysis of non-parenchymal cells following liver IR injury may identify key transmitters of renal injury and clarify existing data.

The key cytokine culprits implicated in the mediation of renal injury

Many cytokines have been proposed as mediators of kidney injury following hepatic IR injury. Pulitano *et al*[71] performed molecular profiling of liver biopsies in 65 patients undergoing full size liver graft transplantation. Wedge biopsies were taken from the liver following graft preservation and 90 min after reperfusion in addition to serum samples preoperatively, 30 min after liver reperfusion and on post-operative days 1, 2, 5 and 7. 32% of recipients developed AKI. The authors demonstrated mRNA upregulation in 23 vasoactive, inflammatory, adhesion molecule, apoptosis inducing and oxidation genes (including ET-1, TNF α , IL-6, IL-18 and ICAM-1). Upregulation of the gene was correlated with serum expression of the protein for ET-1, TNF α , IL-6, IL-18 and RANTES 30 min post liver reperfusion and on post-operative days 1, 2, 5 and 7. Of the studied cytokines, only serum levels of Endothelin-1 (ET-1) and IL-18 were

independently associated with AKI development at post-operative day 1, suggesting a key role for ET-1 and IL-18 in the mediation of injury. Interestingly serum ET-1 also correlated with use of inotropes in donors and hepatic steatosis, both risk factors for liver IR injury, and so alternatively, ET-1 may be a surrogate marker for renal injury (which is related to severity of liver IR injury). Renal biopsies to evaluate local gene expression were not performed in this study and so the relationship between gene induction in the liver and effector genes for injury in the kidney cannot be established. Additionally, this study provides a limited look at 23 known mediators of inflammatory injury. Single cell analysis in this context would provide a more precise look at gene upregulation and potentially provide new targets for investigation.

At best, Pulitano et al[71] provides evidence for associations between liver mRNA upregulation, circulating IL-18 and ET-1 and kidney injury. However, causality is not established by these data and alternative explanations exist for the findings.

IL-18 may potentiate renal injury following liver IR injury with IL-18BP providing a protective effect

The IL-18-precursor is constitutively present in nearly all cells, where its activity is balanced by the high affinity IL-18 binding protein (IL-18BP). In its active form IL-18 is mostly secreted by macrophages, including Kupffer cells, although some disease processes lead to an imbalance of IL-18/IL-18BP with the liberation of free IL18 from other cell types. IL-18 is known to be an inducer of inflammatory cytokines [72]. Gonul et al[33] investigated the role of IL18 in renal injury post liver IR injury using a rat model of hepatic IR (clamping of portal triad for 1 hour followed by 4 h reperfusion) with administration of intraperitoneal IL-18BP 30 min before commencing the laparotomy for liver IR injury. There was no difference in liver IR injury (as measured by AST/ALT/LDH and histological damage) between the groups, but an almost 50% reduction in serum creatinine with administration of IL-18BP compared to controls. This was confirmed by a significant improvement in histological renal injury with a reduction in mononuclear cell infiltration, glomerular necrosis and tubular epithelial necrosis suggesting that IL-18BP does not modify the primary liver IR injury but is involved in the pathway for secondary renal injury. Findings in this study contrasted to a previous study by the same authors which demonstrated improvement in both liver-IR and renal injury with peritoneal administration of IL-18BP[72]. The authors attribute this difference to the higher dose of IL-18BP used in the first study (100µg versus 50µg in this study). This explanation is in keeping with an overall hypothesis of high IL-18 release in response to liver injury and subsequent haematological washout impacting secondary organs. Of note, both studies used human IL-18BP, which has limited homology with rat IL-18BP. This represents a fundamental flaw, and the studies would be better repeated with rat IL-18BP.

Overall IL-18 may be critical in the mediation of renal injury following liver IR injury. However, these data require validation with rat IL-18BP in the animal model, and successful translation of findings to the human setting.

ET-1 may contribute to renal injury post liver IR injury

In addition to the evidence regarding ET-1 provided above, circulating ET-1 has been demonstrated to correlate with both early reduction in GFR and long-term renal dysfunction in patients with normal renal function who are undergoing first Orthotopic Liver Transplantation (OLT)[74]. Patients with liver disease have background high circulating ET-1, due to increased synthesis and reduced clearance [75]. ET-1 is also significantly elevated at the end of the anhepatic phase of liver transplantation in clinical studies[76], although it may be cleared within 30 min by a functioning liver graft. The significance of this is unclear. ET-1 may contribute to renal injury or be a surrogate marker for MELD score and severity of liver disease, which is independently associated with worse outcomes post liver transplantation[77].

ET-1 has been demonstrated to promote Na⁺ retention and increase renal vascular resistance without a significant change in blood pressure in healthy volunteers[78]. This function of ET-1 appears contradictory to evidence presented earlier where a reduction in renal resistive index was seen with reperfusion[24] and may reflect differences between the rat model and human situation or differences between the healthy liver and background liver disease or a compensatory mechanism in response to chronically high ET-1. Additionally, evidence suggests that the oxidative status of the renal microvasculature can significantly influence renal microcirculatory responses to ET-1 which may account for different results in different experimental settings. The vasoactive functions of ET-1 in the kidney may be mediated by its action to increase superoxide accumulation in preglomerular smooth muscle cells. Apocynin (an

NADPH oxidase inhibitor) has been demonstrated to attenuate ET-1's ability to reduce renal blood flow[79].

Cytokines recruit inflammatory cells to the kidney with potentiation of injury

In addition to the role they play in the mediation of liver IR injury, IL-6 and TNF α are upregulated in the kidney in response to liver IR injury. TNFα triggers leukocyteendothelium interactions and microcirculatory dysfunction and is known to impact renal microvascular oxygen distribution and promote organ damage[27]. It has also been demonstrated to promote migration of inflammatory cells into the renal parenchyma through upregulation of KC (rodent equivalent of IL-8), MCP-1 and MIP-2, with macrophage recruitment [25,33]. This is similar to the functions of TNF α seen in the liver following IR as in section "Cytokines released from the liver following IR injury".

Likewise, IL-6 is a major pro-inflammatory cytokine that stimulates release of neutrophils from bone marrow, prevents neutrophil apoptosis and activates neutrophils to produce toxic enzymes. Additionally, IL-6 activates endothelial cells to express adhesion molecules and produce chemokines[43] which promote the recruitment of inflammatory cells to the renal parenchyma. Activated neutrophils release oxygen free radicals, neutrophil elastase and products of arachidonic acid metabolism, further potentiating renal injury [25,80].

Thus both IL-6 and TNFα are believed to be key for the potentiation of renal injury following liver IR injury by recruitment of inflammatory cells as part of the systemic inflammatory response to injury. Further investigation is required to establish other potentiators of injury in this context.

POTENTIATION OF INJURY WITHIN THE KIDNEY: THERE IS CELL TO **CELL SIGNALLING OF DAMAGE**

There is growing evidence for transmission of injury between cells in a variety of settings. Connexins are a big family of transmembrane proteins, expressed in all human organs and tissues, which form internal gap junctions between cells and manipulate small molecule (less than 1KDa), direct-transfer signalling[36]. Luo specifically investigated the role of Connexin-32 (Cx32), because this connexin is normally richly expressed in the kidney. Cx32 expression was found to increase following reperfusion in a rat model of liver transplantation, peaking in tandem with kidney damage and functional impairment at 8 h[36]. Treatment with 2-APB, a relatively specific inhibitor of Cx32 channels, reduced renal injury. This study only evaluated renal function and would have benefited from measurement of liver injury, both in response to IR and following addition of 2-ARB, to evaluate the specificity of the renal response.

Cx32 expression has been demonstrated to positively correlate to the degree of IR injury in liver biopsies from patients undergoing liver transplantation[81], but human evidence to support the role of Cx32 in subsequent kidney cell to cell transmission of injury is lacking. Such data is worth pursuing, along with supplementary evidence to further define cell to cell signalling in the kidney.

THE INJURED KIDNEY MAY MODULATE THE PROGRESSION OF LIVER **IR INJURY**

Accumulating evidence suggests that in addition to liver IR injury mediation of renal injury, the kidney itself plays a key role in the potentiation or amelioration of liver injury.

There is demonstrable liver injury after ischaemic renal injury, with derangement of AST/ALT and evidence of hepatocyte apoptosis (via activation of NFB-receptor)[82, 83]. IL-10, IL-6 and TNF α are upregulated within the liver and multiple markers of oxidative stress have been identified following ischaemic AKI. It is not known whether this is related to systemic inflammation or targeted liver injury. Either way, the effect may be persistent; renal IR injury is associated with the development of hepatic steatosis in the longer term[80].

Human Heat Shock Protein 27 (HSP27) is a member of the chaperone protein family. These proteins are upregulated in response to a variety of cellular stresses. HSP27 is a key stabiliser of F-actin and a potent anti-apoptotic. In a genetically manipulated mouse model with demonstrated robust and widespread overexpression of HSP27, Park et al[25] demonstrated attenuation of both partial liver IR injury (left and middle liver lobe inflow clamped), and secondary renal injury. The hepatic protection was primarily mediated by the kidneys as the liver injury was abolished by unilateral and bilateral nephrectomy. The findings of this study contrast with a previous study by the same group, where HSP27 overexpression provided primary protection against liver IR injury (significantly less necrosis and apoptosis at 2 h post reperfusion)[84]. In that study the HSP27 protection was thought to be mediated by Kupffer cells; depletion of Kupffer cells obliterated protection in HSP27 overexpressing mice but did not impact IR injury in wild type mice. Such results are not in keeping with the previously discussed, known roles of Kupffer cells in liver IR injury. One would expect obliteration of Kupffer cells in wild type mice to downregulate IR injury. Further investigation of these controversies is required but these studies hint that it might be possible to "switch off" liver IR injury and AKI, given the right therapeutic targets.

The sphingosine-1-phosphate (S1P)/S1P₁-receptor interaction on endothelial cells is known to be critical in the maintenance of endothelial barrier integrity in the kidney. In a mouse model of hepatic IR injury, pre-treatment with S1P did not significantly attenuate liver injury (ALT/histology) at 6 h but provided marked attenuation at 24 h [62]. Renal injury was reduced at 6 h (TUNEL assay), with significantly improved endothelial integrity and reduced expression of CD44 $^+$ cells (indicating a reduction in endothelial injury) compared to non S1P treated mice. Pre-treatment with the S1P₁ antagonist, VPC 23019, partially reversed the protection afforded by S1P.

Together these studies support the hypothesis that renal injury is both triggered by early liver IR injury and modulates ongoing liver IR injury. The mechanisms by which this occurs remain unknown but may involve the systemic inflammatory response to renal injury. Further work is required to determine the "switches" that decide whether renal modulation is pro- or anti-inflammatory and to harness these for therapeutic intervention.

THERE MAY BE ADDITIONAL EXTRA-RENAL MODIFICATION OF LIVER IR AND RENAL INJURY

Some recent studies have focussed on the role of the intestinal immune system in primary renal injury leading to secondary liver injury. IL-17A released by Paneth cell degranulation in the small intestine in response to primary renal IR injury contributes to hepatic, renal and intestinal injury, with improvement in all three when IL-17A is depleted[85]. Contrastingly Paneth cell TLR-9 knockout mice demonstrate progression of hepatic, intestinal and renal injury in response to kidney IR injury[86]. These data are obtained from models of kidney IR injury and therefore do not directly relate to liver IR injury. However, future studies to investigate the role of Paneth cells in the mediation of renal and liver injury following IR insult to the liver may reveal similar intriguing findings and provide additional opportunities to modulate the potentiation of systemic and local response to injury.

LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT LITERATURE

The studies discussed within this review present some interesting data related to the mechanisms of renal injury secondary to liver IR injury. However, a clear understanding of the pathways mediating the transmission of injury from liver to kidney and back again is not yet within our grasp. Investigative work in this field has relied heavily upon small rodent models. Rodent models often lack applicability to the human setting and clinical interventions that show promise in rodents often fail upon translation to the human setting [44,61,87]. Rodent populations used for experimental work are inbred animals with relatively limited genetic diversity and so cannot fully represent human populations with polymorphic genetic backgrounds [88]. Liver injury often occurs in patients who do not have background "normal" liver (including transplantation, ALF and ACLF). Background altered liver function may prime the immune and/or renal systems to injury, potentiating the effects of an acute insult. This is not accounted for in rodent models and may also impact the applicability of any results to the human setting.

A second limitation with all studies in this field is the difficulty associated with defining AKI clinically. Most studies included here rely upon serum creatinine (+/-

urea), with clinical studies applying the AKIN or KDIGO criteria. Both AKIN and KDIGO rely upon changes in serum creatinine or urine output. Serum creatinine is well known to be a relatively insensitive marker of renal injury. Patients with end-stage liver disease are often deplete in skeletal muscle and so have low circulating creatinine, which may mask underlying renal injury[89,90]. Changes in serum creatinine take time to reflect renal injury, often between 12 and 24 h. During this time, renal injury may be potentiated, with worse long-term outcomes.

A third limitation with studies in this field is the lack of an animal model that allows serial sampling to dynamically assess changes over time. Rodent models are too small to accommodate serial liver and kidney biopsies or blood samples. As demonstrated herein, renal injury and liver injury following liver IR is a dynamic and evolving process. Serial, *in vivo* sampling would be highly informative.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Whilst the limitations of rodent models may be here to stay, improved diagnostic methodology for acute kidney injury may be provided by one, or a combination of biomarkers. NGAL shows great promise in this respect [91], and is already being used as an alternative to serum creatinine for the diagnosis of renal injury in some studies. In a study of liver transplant patients, we found that urinary NGAL measured at the time of abdominal closure accurately predicted post-operative AKI[23]. This has been confirmed by other studies [92,93]. The site of release and role of NGAL in liver IR injury leading to renal injury is not currently known. NGAL has multiple functions[94] including iron transport[95]. Speculatively, NGAL could "mop up" iron free radicals which contribute to injury in the context of liver IR and resultant renal injury. An interesting recent study identified that NGAL is co-localised with Arl13b to the primary cilium of human renal tubular epithelial cells in chronic allograft nephropathy [96]. KIM-1, another potential biomarker for renal injury [97] is also expressed on primary cilia[98]. The primary cilium is a key organelle and performs a variety of functions including mechano- and chemo-sensitisation[99]. In liver IR injury, primary cilia are shed into the urine and are demonstrable as early as 1 h post injury [98]. Whether NGAL is co-incidentally shed with cilia, or promotes shedding of cilia, awaits clarification.

CONCLUSION

The mechanisms by which liver injury mediates renal injury require further clarification but it is likely that multiple circulating molecules are involved, including currently unidentified molecules. The kidney may be primed to injury by alterations in renal microcirculation with early endothelial and subsequent tubular injury. Renal injury in turn, may potentiate liver IR injury and this process may involve other organs with immune function, including the gut.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Retrospective Study

Unilateral hypoplastic kidney in adults: An experience of a tertiarylevel urology center

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Author contributions: Gadelkareem RA designed the research, searched and collected the data, and wrote the paper; Mohammed N contributed to study design and manuscript writing and revision, and supervised the work; both authors approved the paper.

Institutional review board

statement: This study was approved on November 25, 2021 by the Medical Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Medicine, Assiut University, Egypt as a topic in a research project titled "Experience of a tertiary-level urology center in the clinical urological events of rare and very rare incidence: a retrospective research project." The institutional review board number is 17300684

Informed consent statement: This article is a retrospective one with only descriptive anonymous data. Patients were not required to give informed consent to the study because the manipulated data were anonymous and were obtained after each patient agreed to treatment by consent.

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

Unilateral small-sized kidney is a radiological term referring to both the congenital and acquired causes of reduced kidney volume. However, the hypoplastic kidney may have peculiar clinical and radiological characterizations.

To evaluate the clinical presentations, complications, and management approaches of the radiologically diagnosed unilateral hypoplastic kidney.

METHODS

A retrospective review of the records of patients with a radiological diagnosis of unilateral hypoplastic kidney between July 2015 and June 2020 was done at Assiut Urology and Nephrology Hospital, Assiut University, Egypt.

RESULTS

A total of 33 cases were diagnosed to have unilateral hypoplastic kidney with a mean (range) age of 39.5 ± 11.2 (19-73) years. The main clinical presentation was loin pain (51.5%), stone passer (9.1%), anuria (12.1%), accidental discovery (15.2%), or manifestations of urinary tract infections (12.1%). Computed tomography was the most useful tool for radiological diagnosis. However, radioisotope scanning could be requested for verification of surgical interventions and nephrectomy decisions. Urolithiasis occurred in 23 (69.7%) cases and pyuria was detected in 22 (66.7%) cases where the infection was documented by culture and sensitivity test in 19 cases. While the non-complicated cases were managed by assurance only (12.1%), nephrectomy (15.2%) was performed for persistent complications. However, symptomatic (27.3%) and endoscopic (45.6%) approaches were used for the management of correctable complications.

CONCLUSION

Unilateral hypoplastic kidney in adults has various complications that range from

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urinary tract infections to death from septicemia. Diagnosis is mainly radiological and management is usually conservative or minimally invasive.

Key Words: Congenital anomalies; Hypoplastic kidney; Kidney size; Small sized kidney; Solitary kidney; Urolithiasis

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Core Tip: The study reviewed the clinical characteristics, complications, and management of the unilateral hypoplastic kidney in adults. The various clinical presentations are due to the different complications including urolithiasis, obstruction, urinary tract infections (UTIs), and life-threatening morbidities such as anuria and septicemia. Renal radioisotope scanning is indicated for cases with sizable kidneys, verification of the decision of surgical intervention, and patient preference. Conservative and endoscopic approaches should be tried first for the management of complications. However, laparoscopic nephrectomy is recommended for the treatment of persistent complications such as hypertension and recurrent UTIs or urolithiasis.

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INTRODUCTION

The term "small-sized kidney" is an imaging-based description that defines the reduction of the kidney mass or volume[1]. It could be unilateral or bilateral, where the latter form is associated with the progression of chronic kidney disease through its different stages [2,3]. However, the unilateral small-sized kidney usually presents clinically with normal total renal functions due to the normal and, in many instances, compensating contralateral kidney [4,5]. It results from many contributing pathological entities such as congenital hypoplasia, chronic pyelonephritis, renovascular ischemia, and urological interventions and surgeries[6]. The hypoplastic kidney is a main contributing factor for this entity and is predominantly unilateral with acquired contralateral compensatory hypertrophy. Although the secreted urine in these kidneys may have normal constituents, its amount is low with subsequent urinary stasis. So, the hypoplastic kidney predisposes to urinary tract infections (UTIs) and urolithiasis. Its share in the total renal function is, definitely, lower than the other kidney down to warrant surgical removal, when indicated, without significant effect on the patient's total renal function. Hypoplastic dysplastic kidney could be confused with the chronic pyelonephritic kidney which results from repeated attacks of ascending infections. However, the etiology of the hypoplastic kidney is mostly attributed to developmental arrest due to ischemia during embryogenesis[7,8]. Our aim was to study the clinical presentations, radiological differences between the congenital and acquired causes, indications and lines of surgical intervention, and patient's perception of treatment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design

A retrospective search of the manual and electronic patients' records in our hospital was done for the patients who had a diagnosis of unilateral congenital small-sized kidney or hypoplasia between July 2015 and June 2020. Demographic variables including age and gender were studied. Also, clinical variables including the clinical presentations, laboratory and imaging investigations, complications, and management were studied. Patients' perception of the diagnosis that they had low function kidneys was traced in the records of their counseling and subsequent follow-up compliance according to the decision of management.



Figure 1 A 44-year-old male patient presented with right loin pain due to right hypoplastic kidney. A coronal view of non-contrast multi-slice computed tomography of the abdomen and pelvis showing the small-sized right kidney with a smooth outline, two simple cysts at the middle and lower poles, and a very small stone in the lower calyx. This case was managed conservatively.



Figure 2 A 43-year-old male patient presented with irritative lower urinary tract symptoms due to a left hypoplastic kidney complicated by stones. A coronal view of non-contrast multi-slice computed tomography of the abdomen and pelvis showing the severely diminutive left kidney with non-obstructing stones in the renal pelvis and left intramural ureter. This case was managed by left ureteroscopy and nephrectomy.

Owing to the difficult differentiation between the hypoplastic kidney and atrophic causes of the unilateral small-sized kidney which could be accurately done only by histopathological studying, we employed the radiological features for the definition of the hypoplastic kidney as a kidney with smooth outline contour without strands in the surrounding fat (Figure 1), a length less than 9 cm or 3-vertebra height, or a glomerular filtration rate less than 40% of a total function that is not less than 60 mL/min/1.73 m². Patients who had documented acquired causes for the unilateral small-sized kidney including a previous treatment of urolithiasis by surgeries or extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy, evidence of previous normal kidney size, previous partial nephrectomy, and vesicoureteral reflux disease were excluded from the study.



Figure 3 A 39-year-old female patient presented with right loin pain due to right hypoplastic kidney. An intravenous urography film showing the right hypoplastic kidney with preservation of the normal shape of the pelvicalyceal system and fine details of the whole kidney without obstruction, despite the presence of a right lower ureteral stone. Note the difference between the sizes of both kidneys that are outlined by the arrows.

Biostatistics

The data were descriptive and were presented as numbers and percentages or mean ± standard deviation. No biostatistician revision was warranted.

RESULTS

Thirty-three patients were included in the study. The demographic and clinical characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

Ultrasonography and plain radiography were routine imaging tools. However, computed tomography (CT) was the best tool for the characterization of the morphological features and complications (Table 2) (Figures 1 and 2). Intravenous urography was performed in two patient (Figure 3). Radioisotope scanning was performed for a limited number of cases (Table 3).

Urolithiasis was the most common complication of the hypoplastic kidney (Table 4). One patient died from septicemia due to obstructive pyelonephritis of the contralateral kidney after 2 years from the original diagnosis.

Different treatment approaches were used, including nephrectomy, endoscopic treatment of stones, conservative and symptomatic treatment, and assurance only for the cases without complications. Laparoscopic nephrectomy was performed in five cases for treatment of uncontrolled hypertension or persistent UTIs (Table 5).

All patients expressed concerns about the effect on the total kidney function. They had been educated that the lesion was unilateral and should not lead to end-stage renal disease. Four patients without complications preferred to have objective confirmation of the condition by renal radioisotope scanning including two potential kidney donors who were excluded from the donation (Table 3).

Follow-up duration varied between 7-56 mo. Three cases suffered from recurrent UTIs after stone removal and were managed conservatively.

DISCUSSION

The incidence of the small-sized kidney is variable in clinical settings[9]. Common causes of the unilateral small-sized kidney include chronic pyelonephritis, reflux or obstructive renal atrophy, and renovascular ischemia followed by the uncommon causes represented as congenital renal hypoplasia, tuberculosis, and partial nephrectomy[6]. The unilateral small-sized kidney which results from chronic pyelonephritis, congenital hypoplasia, or both represents a clinical difficulty[9].

Table 1 Demographic	and clinical charac	teristics of the patients	(n = 33) n (%)
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Variable	Value
Age (yr)	
Mean ± SD	39.5 ± 11.2
Median (range)	40 (19-73)
Gender	
Male	19 (57.6)
Female	14 (42.4)
Main clinical presentations	
Ipsilateral loin pain	8 (24.2)
Contralateral loin pain	4 (12.1)
Bilateral or vague abdominal pain	5 (15.2)
UTI manifestations	4 (12.1)
Stone passer ± LUTS or colic	3 (9.1)
Anuria/oliguria	4 (12.1)
Accidental discovery F ¹	5 (15.2)
Anatomical side	
Right	23 (69.7)
Left	10 (30.3)
Laboratory investigations	
Serum creatinine mean \pm SD; median (range) (mg/dL)	1.2 ± 0.68; 0.9 (0.66-3.6)
Positive for protein in urine	5 (15.2)
Patients with WBCs $> 10/HPF$ in urine F^2	22 (66.7)
Patients with RBCs > 3/HPF in urine	15 (45.5)

¹F: Two cases of them were potential living donors and were excluded due to this anomaly and the other three cases were investigated for hypertension. ²F: In these cases, positive culture and sensitivity tests were reported in 19 cases (86.4%). HPF: High power field; LUTS: Lower urinary tract symptoms; RBCs: Red blood corpuscles; UTI: Urinary tract infection; WBCs: White blood cells.

Congenital anomalies of the urinary system are usually detected during childhood. However, when the lesion is commonly unilateral such as the hypoplastic kidney, it can pass unnoticed until the accidental discovery or development of complications in adulthood[10]. The common clinical presentations are related to the underlying complications of the hypoplastic kidney such as urolithiasis, recurrent UTIs, and hypertension[6,8]. Other rare presentations include vaginal dribbling due to ectopic ureteral insertion in females[11]. In the current study, loin pain was a cardinal presentation that refers either to the high incidence of complications including urolithiasis, hydronephrosis, and UTIs or the compensatory effect of the contralateral kidney[4-6,8].

Imaging represents a fundamental role in the urological practice with prompt advances through the last decades. Kidney size is a significant predictor of its function. Also, it is a cardinal item in urinary imaging and evaluation of the total renal functions. Bilateral reduction of renal size is imperatively associated with chronic renal impairment, especially with glomerulonephritis and other systemic parenchymal medical disorders[2,3].

Kidney size or volume and length are significant indicators for its function and affecting diseases. Measurement of the size of the kidney according to the old imaging modalities was two-dimensional and expressed relative to the corresponding vertebral heights such as in the plain and excretory radiographs[12]. However, many imaging modalities have been evolved and used recently for the measurement of threedimensional kidney size. Among these modalities, ultrasonography has been the most practically used one, because it is available, simple, non-invasive, and repeatable. The

Table 2 Number of patients and abnormal findings (other than small-sized kidney) per imaging tool, n (%)					
Imaging modality	Number of patients who had this imaging	Abnormal findings	n (%)		
US	33 (100)	Stones	19 (57.6)		
		Cysts	3 (9.1)		
		Hydronephrosis	7 (21.2)		
KUB	33 (100)	Stones	18 (54.6)		
IVU	2 (6.1)	Hydronephrosis	1 (3)		
MSCT	27 (81.8)	Stones	23 (69.7)		
		Cysts	3 (9.1)		
		Hydronephrosis	8 (24.2)		

 $IVU: Intravenous\ urography;\ KUB:\ Kidney-ureter-bladder\ radiography;\ MSCT:\ Multi-slice\ computed\ tomography;\ US:\ Ultrasonography.$

Table 3 Total and split renal functions represented by the glomerular filtration rate in patients who were evaluated by renal isotope scanning (n = 8), n (%)

Case No.	A (1.111)	Gender	GFR (mL/min/1.73 m²)			Indication for instance accoming
Case No.	Age (yr)		Total	Right	Left	Indication for isotope scanning
Case 1	25	Male	92.4	61.9 (67)	30.5 (33)	Kidney donation
Case 2	42	Female	83.2	53.4 (64.2)	29.8 (35.8)	Kidney donation
Case 3	47	Female	88.5	67.8 (76.6)	20.7 (23.4)	To verify decision
Case 4	45	Female	69.7	61.2 (87.8)	8.5 (12.2)	Patient request
Case 5	21	Female	86	16.8 (19.5)	69.2 (80.5)	Patient request
Case 6	37	Male	77.6	58.2 (75)	19.4 (25)	To verify decision
Case 7	28	Male	83.4	17.5 (21)	65.9 (79)	To verify decision
Case 8	26	Male	66.8	7.5 (11.2)	59.3 (88.8)	To verify decision

Table 4 Dates of complications the	at occurred in patients with unilateral	by nonlocatio kidney $(n = 20/22)$ $n (0/1)$
Table 4 Rates of Combinations in	at occurred in Datients with unhateral	IIVDODIASIIC KIUIIEV (II – 29/33). II (%)

Commission	Number of noticeto	Involvement/localization			
Complication	Number of patients	Ipsilateral	Contralateral	Bilateral/systemic	
Urolithiasis	23 (69.7)	12 (36.4)	3 (9.1)	8 (24.2)	
Renal cysts	3 (9.1)	2 (6.1)	1 (3)	0 (0)	
Hydronephrosis	8 (24.2)	3 (9.1)	4 (12.1)	1 (3)	
Recurrent UTI	10 (30.3)	1 (3)	2 (6.1)	7 (21.2)	
Hypertension	3 (9.1)	NA	NA	3 (9.1)	
Septicemia	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (3)	1 (3)	

NA: Not applicable; UTI: Urinary tract infection.

length and size of the kidney correlate and are usually expressed relative to the whole body anthropometric measures. Size is more accurately expressed as volume by three dimensions which are length, width, and thickness with approximate mean values of 12 cm, 6 cm, and 3 cm, respectively. In spite of the absence of consensus about the definite normal values of renal dimensions among the different populations, renal length is a reproducible, accurate, and more valuable tool for studying renal diseases in adults[12-14]. Accordingly, and in parallel to these established findings, the imaging-based definition was considered in the current study. The need for

Table 5 Managemen	t approaches for n	atients with unilater	al hynonlastic kidnev	(n = 33), n (%)

Approach of management	Category/variety	n (%)
Assurance only		4 (12.1)
Conservative/symptomatic treatment F ¹	Total number of patients who received the treatment $\boldsymbol{F}^{\!1}$	9 (27.3)
	For hypertension	2 (6.1)
	For UTI	3 (9.1)
	For stones	5 (15.2)
	Hydronephrosis	1 (3)
	For cysts	1 (3)
Shock wave lithotripsy		8 (24.2)
	Ipsilateral	2 (6.1)
	Contralateral	5 (15.2)
	Bilateral	1 (3)
Endoscopic procedures		
	Ipsilateral ureteroscopy	3 (9.1)
	Contralateral ureteroscopy	3 (9.1)
	Contralateral JJ placement	5 (15.2)
Laparoscopic nephrectomy		5 (15.2)
	For recurrent UTI	2 (6.1)
	For hypertension	3 (9.1)
Open nephrectomy		1 (3)
	For stones	1 (3)

¹F: Many patients received conservative treatment for more than one element of complications, while others received it for certain complications and, at the same time, received surgical interventions for other complications. Also, some patients had failed conservative treatment before surgical interventions. JJ: Double-J ureteral stent; UTI: Urinary tract infection.

documentation of the reduction of renal function was warranted only in patients with a relatively minimal size reduction, verification of the interventional management including nephrectomy, and patient insistence on numerical documentation of function. Otherwise, the severe reduction in kidney size and signs of compensation of the contralateral kidney were enough to settle the management decision in most of the cases.

Radiographic features of the uncomplicated hypoplastic kidney include a smooth outer contour of the kidney with a reduced number of calyces without caliceal clubbing or dilatation. However, these features, especially the caliceal morphology, could be disturbed in complicated cases such as urolithiasis and UTIs. These changes may concern its morphological differentiation from the atrophied kidney due to chronic pyelonephritis with an irregular contour and clubbed or dilated calyces due to scarring of the parenchyma which exerts traction forces between the renal surface and the caliceal cavity[6,8]. Renal radioisotope scanning is a tool for accurate and numerical evaluation of renal function[15]. Also, the resistive index by Doppler ultrasound showed a favorable sensitivity in the differentiation of the atrophied and hypoplastic kidneys[16]. In the current study, the indicators of the acquired affection were used to exclude patients with those findings from the study.

In cases of uncomplicated congenital hypoplastic kidney, no symptoms or therapeutic interventions are warranted. However, the management of hypoplastic kidneys is usually directed to the complications rather than the anomaly itself[10]. Indications for nephrectomy include hypertension, recurrent infections, and urolithiasis. In our series, nephrectomy was mainly done for hypertension in relatively young patients, whatever was the degree of hypertension. In the old patients, nephrectomy was preserved for those patients who had uncontrolled hypertension or those who received multiple drugs of more than one antihypertensive drug group for

control. Stone passer and UTIs were other indications for surgical removal of the hypoplastic kidney.

Advantages of this series include its presentation in the time that the clinical studying of the clinical entity of hypoplastic kidney in adults has become scarce in the literature [10]. Also, it presented the classic clinical setting of the hypoplastic kidney with the patients' perception of the potential implications of the disease. Moreover, it provided the clinical experience of a high-volume center and a tertiary level urology hospital with wide geographical drainage of urological disorders. Retrospective studying may not allow an ideal design for studying. However, it is the most suitable form for rare conditions.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, unilateral small-sized kidney in adults is a radiological diagnosis. The hypoplastic kidney is a contributing pathology with various clinical presentations due to the development of complications. Although routine imaging by abdominal ultrasonography and radiography is available, abdominal CT is commonly indicated due to complications. In the current study, renal radioisotope scanning was indicated for relatively sizable kidneys, verification of the decision of surgical intervention, and patient request for confirmation of the lesion. The unilateral small-sized kidney is commonly being complicated by urolithiasis, obstruction, or UTIs resulting in more aggressive and life-threatening morbidities such as anuria and septicemia. Endoscopic interventions are mainly for the management of urolithiasis. While conservative management is commonly planned for this lesion, interventional management approaches including nephrectomy are mainly performed for treatment of the complications such as hypertension and recurrent UTIs or urolithiasis.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Unilateral small-sized kidney is a radiological term referring to both the congenital and acquired causes of reduced kidney volume. However, the hypoplastic kidney may have peculiar clinical and radiological characteristics. Its symptomatic clinical presentations are mostly attributed to the occurrence of underlying complications warranting early and proper management.

Research motivation

There is a noticeable lack of research on the clinical aspects of the unilateral hypoplastic kidney in the updated literature. Presentation of the current series may help enrich the literature and enhance the practice.

Research objectives

To study the clinical characteristics, complications, and management approaches of the unilateral radiologically diagnosed hypoplastic kidney in adults.

Research methods

A retrospective study was carried out on patients with a radiological diagnosis of unilateral hypoplastic kidney between July 2015 and June 2020 at a tertiary-level urology center in Egypt. The demographic, clinical, and radiological characteristics and management approaches were reviewed.

Research results

The study included 33 cases with unilateral hypoplastic kidney with a mean (range) age of 39.5 ± 11.2 (19-73) years. Loin pain (51.5%) was the main clinical presentation followed by the accidental discovery (15.2%), anuria (12.1%), manifestations of urinary tract infections (UTIs; 12.1%), and stone passer (9.1%). Radiological diagnosis was commonly done by CT showing the main features including the small volume and the preserved smooth outline and structures. Urolithiasis occurred in 23 (69.7%) cases and pyuria was detected in 22 (66.7%) cases where UTIs were documented by culture and sensitivity test in 19 cases. The non-complicated cases were managed by assurance only (12.1%), symptomatic (27.3%) and endoscopic (45.6%) approaches were used for the management of simple and correctable complications, and nephrectomy (15.2%) was performed for persistent complications.

Research conclusions

There are various presentations for the unilateral hypoplastic kidney ranging from accidental discovery to UTIs that may lead to death by septicemia. The diagnosis is mainly radiological and management is usually conservative or minimally invasive relative to the underlying findings.

Research perspectives

Presentation of the clinical characteristics and outcomes may enhance the relevant urological practice of this disease. Urologists can provide the proper management including the conservative approaches for the simple complications and laparoscopic nephrectomy for the persistent complications.

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