



People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Higher Education Ministry And Scientific Research
University of Echahid Hamma Lakhdar El-Oued
Faculty of Natural Sciences and Life
Department of Cellular and Molecular Biology



Master Memory

In order to obtain a diploma of an Academic Master in biological sciences

Specialty : Applied Biochemistry

Theme

Study of risk factors and predictive markers of Chronic kidney disease (CKD) in Djamaa Hemodialysis Patients, and assessment of water quality effect (major risk factor) on kidney function in rats Wistar.

Presented by : CHERADID Taissir

GUESSOUM Messaouda

Thesis Approved : 23th June 2019

Examining Committee:

- | | | |
|---|-------|---------------------------|
| ✱ President : Dr. TOUMI Ikram | (MCB) | El-Oued University |
| ✱ Examiner : Dr. LAICHE AmmarTouhami | (MCB) | El-Oued University |
| ❖ Supervisor: Dr. DEROUCHE Samir | (MCA) | El-Oued University |

2018-2019

إهداء

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم: "قل اعملوا فسيرى الله عملكم ورسوله والمؤمنون" (التوبة-105) صدق الله العظيم
الحمد لله الذي وفقنا لهذا ولم نكن لنصل إليه لولا فضل الله علينا،

إلى من بلغ الرسالة وادى الأمانة ونصح الأمة إلى نبي الرحمة حبيبنا محمد صل الله عليه وسلم.
إلى من كان دعائها سرنجاحي وحنانها بلسم جراحي إلى من جنتي تحت قدميها، إلى من أنقذت
الجفون سهرا واجاهدت الأيام صبرا، إلى من غمرتني برعايتها وعطفها "أمي الحبيبة" أطال الله في عمرها .
إلى نور عيني وعزة نفسي وشرفي ورمز كرامتي، إلى من أحمل اسمه بكل اقتدار، إلى من علمني العطاء
بدون انتظار، إلى أعظم الرجال صبرا من كان للحب رمزا، إلى أبي أطال الله في عمره وأدام عليه الصحة .

إلى أبي ثاني، إلى من تسلفت سلام الحياة على يده، إلى من رأى نجاحه في تحقيق أحلامي،
إلى من رسم لسقوطي صورة نجاح إلى سندي ومثلي الأعلى إلى قرّة عيني أخي "بوصيري"
إلى منبها أكبر وعليهما أعمد إلى منبوجودهما كسبوة لأحد ودلها، إلى منيعيش في ظل وجودهما مليا خوتي وأخواتي: كاميلية
، سهيلة، عبد المنعم، يسرى

إلى من تعبت لراحتنا، لمن بكت لضحكنا، جفت دموعها لساعتنا، سهرت لنجاحنا، إلى من علمتني الكفاح
وأورثتني الشجاعة أمي ثانية جدتي "رقية"
إلى من دعموني بدعائهم وحبهم الكبير جدي "حسين"، جدتي "زكية" أطال الله في عمره وجدي "أحمد"
يغمده الله برحمته الواسعة .

إلى أعمامي طارق، محمد الأزهر وزوجته وأولادها، عبد الحكيم وزوجته وابنته . إلى شمعة مضيئة، إلى وردة مزهرة عمي
"فاطمة الزهراء"

إلى أخوالي، زوجاتهم وأولادهم، إلى خالتي وأولادهم، إلى عزيزة على القلب خالتي "نصيرة"
إلى قدوتي ومثالي الأعلى، إلى من أحبه الله إلى عزيز تحت تراب خالي "بو بكر" يغمده الله برحمته الواسعة ويجعل
مشواه الجنة

رفيقات عمري وسندي في الحياة، بنات خالي حبيبات قلبي عير، سمية، شمس الهدى وابنتها، كنزة وأولادها ..
إلى من جمعهم معي صلة الرحم، الى كل عائلة "قسوم"
إلى من تحلوا بالإخاء وتميزوا بالوفاء والعطاء وسعدت برفقتهم في دروب الحياة الجامعية مجلوها ومرها صديقاتي الغاليات: كوثر،
مدينة، بريزة، صفية، نسرين، حياة، صابرين، مباركة، وفاء
إلى من علمني حرفا فصرت له عبدا، إلى من أنار لي شمعاً وأهداني كلمة علم معلمي وأستاذي "الدكتور
سمير درويش"

إلى كل من سعتهم ذاكرتي ولم تسعهم مذكرتي
إلى من ذكرهم قلبي ونسيهم قلبي

مسعودة



المحبة

بأنامل تحيط بقلم أعياء التعب و الأرق و لا يقوى على الحراك يتكأ على قطرات حبر مملوءة بالحزن و الفرح
في آن واحد.

حزن يشوبه الفراق بعد التجمع.....و فرح لبزوغ فجر جديد من حياتي (يوم تخرجني).

إلي كل من في الوجود بعد الله .

إلي سندي و قوتي و ملاذي بعد الله.

إلي من أثروني على أنفسهم و علموني معنى الحياة .إلى من أعطاني دون حساب و علماني كل الآداب و
دعواتهما كانت و لا تزال تفتح لي الأبواب.

إليكم يا من علمتني وجوب إضاءة الشمعة أجدر من لعن الظلام..... سلطان قلبي ' قدوتي ' معلمي وسندي.
أبي الغالي.

إليكم من كنتي عوناً و دفناً بين أضلعي. و من لملم أحزاني بين فترة و أخرى.....زهرة قلبي ' روعي الحنون ونور
عيني

..أمي الحبيبة.

إلى من أضاء بعلمه عقل غيره.....و أهدى بالجواب الصحيح حيرة سائليه.

واظهر بسماحته تواضع العلماء.....و برحابته سماحة العارفين.

إلي من علمني معنى التفاؤل و المضي إلى الأمام.....إلى من عمق في توسيع مداركي العلمية و العقلية.

إليكم انتم... سراجي المنير ' منهجي ' أستاذي و أبي الثاني دكتورنا الفاضل

. درويش سمير .

إليكم انتم من كنتم ملاذي و ملجئي يا من تفرحون لفرحي تحزنون لحزني , إلي الذين مهدوا لنا طريق العلم

و.المعرفة إخوتي (وسيم .وليم .زنيب .ولي الدين . عبد الرقيب .تسليم) أحبابي (أعمامي و زوجاتهم ، عماتي '

أبنائهم) .عائليتي الكريمة (أخوالي وزوجاتهم ' خالاتي ' أبنائهم) و أقاربي.....

إليكم منبع الحكمة و رمز الأصالةإلى من لم يشعروني بأنني وحيدة في مجتمع مختلف...أختي الودودة و

أبنائها

جبالي زينب , قتادة , إباد و تسنيم

إليكم من جعلكم الله أختاي بالصدفة و من يجمع بين سعادتي و حزني زميلتي الغاليتين

عتوسي نوال ، كواشي عائشة.

إلى كل من يسعهم قلبي و أتمنى ذكرهم حيث ذكروني...

إلى كل قارئ مذكرتي و لم اعرفهم و لم يعرفوني



ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all, we thank “**Allah**”, who has given us the strength and patience to accomplish this Modest Work.

We would like to take this opportunity and extend our deep and sincere thanks and deep appreciation to:

- ✧ first, our supervisor **Dr: DEROUCHE Samir** for orientation, confidence, patience, his precious advice and help throughout the work period., has always been attentive and very available throughout the realization of this memory, so for the inspiration, the help and the time he has been kind enough to devote to us.
- ✧ Secondly, Our heartfelt thanks also go to the members of the jury **Dr. LAICHE AMMAR Touhami** and **Dr. TOUMI Ikram** for their interest in our research by agreeing to examine our work and to enrich it with their proposals.
- ✧ To the managers and staffs and patients of SaadDahleb Hospital and Hemodialysis Service Djamaa, Algerian Water Station and Laboratory (ADE), Bachir Ben Naser Hospital-El-Oued and the Laboratory of Natural Sciences and life faculty of Echahid Hamma Lakhdar University where we were able to carry out our research work by their understanding and their assisting for us.
- ✧ our dear parents for their contribution, their support and their patience.
- ✧ our families and our friends who by their prayers , their encouragements and their volunteering and helping us.
- ✧ we would like to specifically mention and thank our faithful colleagues **ATOUSSE Naouel** and **KAOUACHI Aicha** and my dear uncle **BENCHAOUI Hassan** who thanks to their interventions we have overcome all obstacles and accomplished our research work.
- ✧ We would like to thank anyone who participated in this modest work from near or far.



Abstract

Chronic kidney Disease(CKD) is recognized as a major health problem, Faced with these problems, this study aims to identify some predictive and risk factors of CKD and to evaluate some biological and oxidative stress markers in HD patients of Djamaa (El-Oued) region, on the other hand in this work we are evaluated the water quality of the Djamaa region and study its effect on some markers of renal function in rats .

Our socioeconomic and clinic risk factors study was conducted on 77 voluntary individual divided into 41 persons reserved as a control and 36 HD patients are recruited from HD service of Hospital Saad Dahleb Djamaa .They are represented by the mean age 46,32 years and their origin cover all Djamaa region. For biological markers study of HD patients , We are selected 21 control with mean age 39.00 ± 3.41 years and 20 patients with mean 51.40 ± 3.64 years on which some biochemical, Hematological and oxidative stress markers were estimated. To test the effect of Tap water on renal function we used 3 groups of rats.

Also We are relied the analysis of Odds ratio, student analysis, correlation ratio analysis, and Rook analysis for the statistical study of this work.

Our results of Socioeconomic and clinical factors study illustrate the high relationship of CKD and Diabetes, urinary problem and arterial hyper pressure as a frequently risk factors also renal herbal medicine, drugs nephrotoxic and Disease before CKD are the very important risk factors OR(62.00 - 25.45) while that additive soft drink, spices and amount of water are significant ($P < 0.05$) protective factors against CKD when OR (0.232 - 0.352).

Our biological study demonstrate a significant variations ($P < 0.05$) in biochemical parameters , Hematological markers , electrolytes levels and oxidative stress markers which represented an important significant($P < 0.05$) specificity of GSH(32%,AUC=31%), ORAC and FRAP activities(87%,AUC=77% and 73%,AUC=85%) respectively. also we notice a significant correlation between oxidative stress markers and some biochemical parameters of kidney function.

In addition, we found a significant deference in some minerals and electrolytes levels between some spring ,tap and filtered water of deferent areas of Djamaa region which represented a significant effects on renal function shown in a remarkable changes of biological markers of rats drink water during 60 days of the experiment where the TW represented a high risk for kidney dysfunction while it contributes to significant variation on oxidant stress markers as MDA level and antioxidant enzymes as GSH, CAT, GST and SOD

also biochemical and hematological markers illustrate an significant modifications which indicate to the renal disorder and anemia consequents while that the FW is represented a significant effect on renal function and biological markers studied but did not very deferent with TW results.

Finally, we conclude that there are a most socioeconomic and clinical risk factors for CKD also tap water and filtered water are an important risk factor for renal function while there may contribute to renal dysfunction and CKD in Djamaa population. In addition, GSH, ORAC and FRAP activities represent very important predictive factors for the disease studied where its can suggested in prognostic parameters of CKD.

Key words: Chronic kidney disease , Hemodialysis , oxidative stress , Tap Water. .

الملخص

يعتبر مرض القصور الكلوي مشكل يهدد الصحة العمومية ،و من اجل ذلك أجريت هذه الدراسة و التي تهدف إلى تحديد بعض عوامل الخطر وعوامل التنبؤ لمرض القصور الكلوي وتقييم بعض المعايير البيولوجية ومعايير الإجهاد التأكسدي للمرضى الخاضعين لتصفية الدم في منطقة جامعة (الوادي) , من ناحية أخرى قمنا في هذا العمل بتقييم جودة المياه في منطقة جامعة ودراسة تأثيرها على بعض المعايير البيولوجية لوظيفة الكلى لدى الفئران.

تم إجراء دراسة عوامل الخطر الاجتماعية و السريرية على 77 متطوعاً موزعين على قسمين 41 شخصاً سليم و 36 من مرضى غسيل الكلى تم اختيارهم من مصلحة تصفية الدم لمستشفى سعد دحلب جامعة حيث متوسط عمرهم $32,46 \pm 2.90$ سنة و يمثلون جميع مناطق جامعة, و من اجل الدراسة البيولوجية لمرض القصور الكلوي تم اختيار 21 شخص سليم متوسط عمرهم 39.00 ± 3.41 سنة و 20 شخص مريض بالقصور الكلوي المزمّن متوسط عمرهم 51.40 ± 3.64 حيث تم تقدير بعض المعايير البيوكيميائية مثل (اليوريا ، الكرياتينين) و مستوى بعض الشوارد (الصوديوم ، البوتاسيوم و الكلوريد) وعناصر مكونات الدم و كذا معايير الإجهاد التأكسدي لدى جميع الفئات المدروسة في هذا العمل. كما اعتمدنا على تحليل نسبة الترسب و تحليل الطالب و تحليل نسبة الارتباط و تحليل روك من اجل الدراسة الإحصائية لهذا العمل.

النتائج المتحصل عليها في هذه الدراسة توضح أن مرض السكري المزمن، والمشاكل البولية وارتفاع ضغط الدم الشرياني هي عوامل خطر كبيرة لمرض القصور الكلوي كما توضح أيضاً أن استعمال الأعشاب الطبية والأدوية الخاصة بأمراض الكلى والإصابة بالأمراض المزمنة هي عوامل خطر أيضاً للإصابة بمرض الفشل الكلوي المزمن بقيم $OR(62.00 - 25.45) (P<0.05)$ كما أوضحت الدراسة أن المشروبات الغازية و استعمال التوابل و شرب كميات كبيرة من المياه تعتبر عوامل حماية و وقاية ضد المرض بقيم $OR < 1 (0.232 - 0.352)$.

بالنسبة للدراسة البيولوجية أظهرت النتائج تباينات كبيرة في مستوى المعايير البيوكيميائية و في مكونات الدم ومستوى الشوارد في المصل قبل و بعد عملية غسيل الكلى و كذلك ف معايير الإجهاد التأكسدي مما يظهر تأثير المرض على الحالة الفيزيولوجية للكلى. كما بينت النتائج ظهور معايير خاصة لتنبؤ المرض $(P<0.05)$ $GSH (32\%, AUC = 31 \%)$ $ORAC(73 \%, AUC = 85\%)$ و $FRAP$ على التوالي وأكد ذلك العلاقة المعنوية بين هذه العلامات وبعض المعايير البيوكيميائية الخاصة بوظيفة الكلى التي ظهرت في نتائج تحليل نسبة الارتباط الإحصائي.

أما فيما يخص الدراسة التحليلية للماء أظهرت النتائج اختلالاً كبيراً في مستويات المعادن و الشوارد في مياه الصنابير لمختلف أنحاء منطقة جامعة و المياه المصفاة لنفس المنطقة مقارنة بالمياه المعدنية الطبيعية. هذا الاختلال ظهر جلياً في نتائج دراسة تأثير تلك المياه على وظيفة الكلى لدى الفئران حيث أظهرت اختلالاً وظيفياً للكلى أكدته تغيرات المعايير البيوكيميائية و مكونات الدم و معايير الإجهاد التأكسدي مما يوضح التأثير السلبي لاستعمال مياه الصنابير و المياه المصفاة على وظيفة الكلى لدى استعمالها للشرب .

في الأخير نستنتج من هذا العمل أن بعض السلوكيات الاجتماعية و السريرية هي عوامل مهمة للإصابة أو الوقاية من الفشل الكلوي و أن مياه الشرب هي عامل رئيسي للإصابة بالمرض في منطقة جامعة بالإضافة إلى ذلك تمثل معايير GSH $ORAC$, $FRAP$ عوامل بيولوجية جديدة تسهم في التنبؤ بالإصابة بمرض القصور الكلوي المزمن حيث يمكن اقتراحها ضمن معايير تشخيص هذا المرض.

كلمات مفتاحية: القصور الكلوي المزمن , غسيل الكلى , الإجهاد التأكسدي , مياه الصنابير .

Abbreviation list

ACR: Albumin-Creatinine Rate.

ADE: Algerie d'eau (Algeria water).

AER: Albumin-Excretion Rate.

AGE_s: Advanced Glycation End-products

Ang II: Angeotensine II.

APC: Antigen presentin cells.

AV: Arteriovenouse.

BHT: Butylate dhydroxytoluene.

CAT: Catalase

Cd: Cadmium.

CDNB:1-chloro-2-4-dinitrobenzene.

CKD: Chronic Kidney Disease.

CKDu: Chronic Kidney Disease unkonow.

Cl: Chlorine.

Co: Cobalt

Cr: Chromium

CRF: Chronic Renal Failure.

CRP: C-reactive protein

CTI: chronic tubule-interstitial injury.

CVD: Cardiovascular Disease.

CVM: cardiovascular morbidity.

DNA: Deoxyribonucleic acid.

DTNB:5,5' Dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic acid)

EPO: Erythropoietin.

EDTA: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid.

ESA: erythropoiesis-stimulating agent.

ESRD: End Stage Renal Disease.

F: Fluoride.

Fe: iron.

FRAP: Ferric Reducing Antioxidant Power

GFR: Glomerular Filtration Rate.

GSHas: Reduced Glutathion oxidase.

GST: Glutathion S Transferase.

HB: Hemoglobine.

HCT: Hematocrit.

HD: Hemodialysis.

Hg: Mercury

HLA.DR: Human Leukocyte Antigen – antigen D Related

HPS 700-11: Hyperspers 700-11.

HTA: Hypertension.

IL1: interleukin-1.

IL6: interleukin-6

ILa: interleukin a

K: potassium.

KDOQI: kidney Disease Outcome Quality Initiative

LDL: Low Density Lipoprotein.

MDA: Malondialdehyde.

Na: sodium..

NADPH: Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleoide Phosphate.

NBT: Nitro-Blue Tetrazolium.

NF-KB: Nuclear Factor-Kappa B.

Ni: Nickel

O₂: Oxygen.

OD: Optical Density.

OR: Odds ratio.

ORAC: Oxygen Radical Absorbance Capacity.

OS: Oxidative stress.

PAD: Patients After Dialysis.

Pb: Lead.

PBD: Patients Before Dialysis.

PIH: Pregnancy Induced Hypertension.

Pmp: Per million population.

RA: Rheumatoid Arthritis.

RBC: Red Blood Cells.

ROS: Reactive Oxygen species.

SOD: Superoxide Dismutase.

TBS: Tris Buffer Saline.

TCA: Trichloroacetic acid.

TNF-a: tumor necrosis factor-a

WBC: White Blood Cells.

WHO: World Health Organization.

UTI: Urinary tract infection.

UV: Ultraviolet.

Zn: Zinc.

Tables list

Table	Title	Page
Table 01	Albuminuria categories in CKD	08
Table 02	Description of study population.	28
Table 03	Socioeconomic factors of Chronic Kidney Disease.	29
Table 04	Clinic-pathological factors of Chronic Kidney Disease.	31
Table 05	Biochemical markers in control and patients groups.	32
Table 06	Serum electrolytes and calcium levels in control and patients groups.	33
Table 07	Hematological parameters in control and patients groups.	33
Table 08	Reduce glutathione (GSH) concentration ,Malondialdehyde (MDA) level and catalase activity in leukocyte and Erythrocyte of control and patients groups.	34
Table 09	Serum ORAC and FRAP activities in control and patients groups.	35
Table10	Area Under Curve	35
Table 11	Correlation between oxidative stress markers and biochemical parameters.	36

Figures list

Number	Title	Page
Figure 01	Kidney structure	05
Figure 02	Nephron anatomy	07
Figure 03	kidney transplant anatomy	10
Figure 04	Peritoneal dialysis options	10
Figure 05	Hemodialysis operation	11
Figure 06	Arteriovenous fistula	11
Figure 07	Arteriovenous graft	12
Figure 08	Vascular access catheter option	12
Figure 09	Maps of Oued Righ and Djamaa region	17
Figure 10	ROC Curve of serum ORAC, serum FRAP, RBC MDA (A), RBC GSH level and leucocyte CAT activity (B) in HD patients .	36
Figure11	Sodium and calcium levels in spring water	38
Figure12	Chloride level in spring water	38
Figure13	potassium level in spring water	38
Figure14	Conductivity values of spring water	38
Figure15	Iron level in spring water	39
Figure16	Electrical conductivity of Tap water and Filtered water.	39
Figure17	Chloride level of Tap water and Filtered water.	39
Figure18	Potassium level in Tap water and Filtered water.	40
Figure19	Sodium and calcium levels in Tap water and Filtered water.	40
Figure20	Iron concentration in Tap water and Filtered water.	40
Figure21	Urea and creatinine concentration in serum rats of control and experimental groups.	41
Figure22	Electrolytes levels in serum rats of control and experimental groups	41
Figure23	Hematological markers Numbers in rats of control and experimental groups.	42
Figure24	MDA and GSH concentration in kidney of control and experimental rats groups.	43
Figure25	GST activity in kidney in kidney of control and experimental rats groups.	43
Figure26	Catalase and SOD activities in kidney of control and experiment rats groups. .	43

SUMMARY

Dedications

Acknowledgements

Abstract

Abbreviation list

Figures List

Tables List

Introduction

Bibliographic part

I. Generality.....	04
I.1. Anatomy of kidney.....	04
I.1.1 Nephron	05
I.1.1.1. Definition of nephron.....	05
I.1.1.2. Nephron structure and function.....	05
I.1.2. vessels blood.....	06
II. Chronic kidney disease.....	07
II.1. Definition.....	07
II.2. Classification of CKD.....	08
II.3. Risk factors and progression.....	08
II.4. Symptoms of chronic kidney disease.....	09
II.5. Diagnosis of chronic kidney disease.....	09
II.6. Management modality of chronic kidney disease.....	10
II.6.1. Medical treatment.....	10
II.6.2. Supplementing treatment.....	12
II.7. Prevention of chronic kidney disease.....	12
III. kidney disease and Oxidative stress.....	13

IV. Inflammation in Hemodialysis patients and oxidative stress.....	13
--	-----------

Experimental part

I. Materials and Methods.....	17
Part 1: Patients study.....	17
I.1.1. Risk factors study.....	17
I.1.1.1.The study duration.....	17
I.1.1.2.. Region of the study.....	17
I.1.1.3. Epidemiological study and questionnaire.....	18
I.1.2. Biological study.....	18
I.1.2.1. Reagents.....	18
I.1.2.2. Methods.....	18
I.1.2.2.1. Data collection.....	18
I.1.2.2.2. Sample collection.....	19
Part 2: Qualitative study of water in different area of Djamaa region.....	19
I.2.1. Samples collection.....	19
I.2.2. Methods of testing.....	19
I.2.2.1. Conductivity measurement.....	19
I.2.2.2. Sodium (Na) And Potassium (K) assay.....	19
I.2.2.3. Chloride (Cl) and Calcium (Ca) assay.....	20
I.2.2.4. Iron (Fe) assay.....	20
Part.3: effect of water on renal function in rats.....	20
I.3.1. Animals and treatment.....	20
I.3.2. Experimental Design.....	20

I.3.3. Blood collection and tissue preparation.....	21
I.3.4.Measurement of biological Markers	21
I.3.4.1. Biochemical parameter assay.....	21
I.3.4.2. Method of Hematological analysis.....	21
I.3.4.3. Method of electrolytes analysis.....	21
I.3.4.4. Method of estimating oxidative stress parameter.....	22
I.3.4.4.1. Preparation of erythrocyte homogenate.....	22
I.3.4.4.2. Leukocyte separation.....	22
I.3.4.4.3. Determination of protein concentration.....	22
I.3.4.4.4. Malondialdehyde level determination.....	22
I.3.4.4.5. Reduced glutathione (GSH) level assay.....	23
I.3.4.4.6. Glutathione-S-transferase (GST) activity assay.....	23
I.3.4.4.7. Determination of superoxide dismutase(SOD) activity assay.....	24
I.3.4.4.8. Determination of enzymatic activity of catalase.....	24
I.3.4.4.9. Determination of antioxidant power ORAC.....	25
I.3.4.4.10. Determination of ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) method.....	26
II. Results.....	28
II.1. Patients study.....	28
II.1.1. Description of study population.....	28
II.1.2. Study of socioeconomic and clinic factors.....	29
II.1.3. Biological Study	32
II.1.3.1. Biochemical markers.....	32
II.1.3.2. electrolytes levels.....	32
II.1.3.3. Hematological markers.....	33

II.1.3.4. Oxidative Stress markers	34
II.1.3.5. predictive factors of oxidative stress	35
II.1.3.6. correlation between oxidative stress markers and biochemical parameters.....	36
II.2. Qualitative study of water in different area of Djamaa region.....	37
II.2.1. Spring water analysis.....	38
II.2.2. Tap and Filterd water analysis.....	39
II.3. Effect of water on renal function in rats.....	41
II.3.1. Biochemical markers.....	41
II.3.2. Hematological markers.....	42
II.3.3. Oxidative stress markers	43
III. Discussion.....	45
III.1. Patients study.....	45
III.2. Qualitative study of water in different area of Djamaa region.....	54
III.3. Effect of water on renal function in rats.....	56
Conclusion.....	61
Bibliographical references.....	64
Annex.....	86

Introduction

Introduction

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is increasingly recognized as a global public health problem (Levey *et al*, 2007). During the past three decades, the incidence and prevalence of end stage renal disease (ESRD) have risen progressively. For example, annual new cases of ESRD increased from approximately 14,500 in 1978 to 100,359 in 2002; during the same period, the number of individuals on dialysis and with kidney transplants increased from 42,000 to 431,000 (Anton *et al*, 2006). There is a wide spectrum of kidney disease, which can be rapid onset (acute) or longer term (chronic) (Public Health England, 2014).

The global CKD prevalence was reported to be 13.4%, in USA the prevalence was 13.6%, in Europe is lower than USA and more homogeneous and in some Asian countries higher than USA but in Africa, the lowest prevalence was 4% in northern Africa macro area, the highest 16.5% in west and central west Africa and the average prevalence in the entire Africa continent was 10.1% (Abdelhafeez *et al*, 2018), also the burden of CKD prevalence in North Africa shown 650 pmp in Egypt, 323 pmp in Libya, 734 pmp in Tunisia, 300 in Morocco and 475 in Algeria (Rashad, 2013). In addition, the total number of ESRD patients receiving renal replacement therapy in Algeria with population of 37 100 000 in 2001 reached 17000 in 2011 the prevalence and incidence of ESRD is 100 pmp and 109 pmp respectively (Lydia, 2014).

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) has emerged as a global public health burden for its increasing number of patients, high risk of progression to end-stage renal disease (ESRD), and poor prognosis of morbidity and mortality (Shang-Jyh *et al*, 2010).

It attracts worldwide attention to its epidemiology, risk factors, treatment plans and preventive.

In order to identify the risk factors of renal disease, An individual's genetic and phenotypic make up puts him/her at risk for kidney disease. Factors such as smoking, exposure to heavy metals, excessive alcohol consumption and the use of analgesic medication (Rumeyza, 2013). Moreover, CVD, hypertension, diabetes and obesity are traditional risk factors (Ibrahim *et al*, 2014). In addition, environmental pollution including air and water contamination causes or aggravates many acute and chronic human diseases (Sunil *et al*, 2016). Indeed Drinking water pollution is a relatively new problem and increases the stress arising as a result of unprecedented population growth, urbanization, and industrialization since 1990s (Chen, 2002; Velea *et al*, 2009).

Many of recent landmarks in scientific research have shown that in human beings, oxidative stress has been implicated in the progression of major health problems by inactivating the metabolic enzymes and damaging important cellular components (Rahman *et al*, 2012), it is as a consequence of increase a reactive oxygen species and decrease in antioxidant defenses in prevalent in many health problems like CKD (Atieh *et al*, 2015).

So the oxidative stress to have a central role in the pathophysiological process of uremia and its complications. However ,there is little evidence to suggest how early oxidative stress in a starts developing during the progression of CKD (Evangelia *et al*, 2006).

Faced with these problems, this study aims to identify some predictive and risk factors of CKD and to evaluate some biological and oxidative stress markers in HD patients of Djamaa (El-Oued) region, on the other hand in this work we are evaluated the water quality of the Djamaa region and study its effect on some markers of renal function in rats.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC

PART

Kidney anatomy and CKD

I. Generality

I.1. Kidney anatomy:

The kidney is a pair of bean shaped , reddish brown organs about the size of your fist . It measures 10 – 12 cm the length(Studymode,2011) .5,5 cm the width and 3 cm thickness. Each kidney in an adult weighs about 150 g(Course Hero,2018).If the kidney is sectioned , tow regions are seen (figure 01):

I.1.1. Renal cortex: an outer part of the kidneys where most enthrones is located.(Ebnesahidi , 2006)

I.1.2. Renal medulla: an inner part of the kidneys where some anthrones is located, also where urine is collected to be excreted outward.(Ebnesahidi , 2006)

I.1.2.1. Renal pyramids: The medulla has many basically triangular regions with a striped appearance, the renal, or medullary pyramids; the broader base of each pyramid faces toward the cortex while its tip, the apex, points toward the inner region of the kidney. (Marianne , 2017)

I.1.2.2. Renal columns: The pyramids are separated by extensions of cortex-like tissue, the renal columns.(Marianne, 2017)

I.1.2.3. Renal pelvis: Medial to the hilum is a flat, basinlike cavity, the renal pelvis, which is continuous with the ureter leaving the hilum. .(Marianne, 2017)

I.1.2.4. Renal artery: which branches off the descending aorta.(Marieb et *al.*,1994)

I.1.2.5. Renal vein: drains blood from each kidney, entering into the inferior vena cava. These vessels enter / exit the kidney in the indented medial region of the kidney called the **renal hilum** .(Marieb et *al.*,1994)

Kidney anatomy and CKD

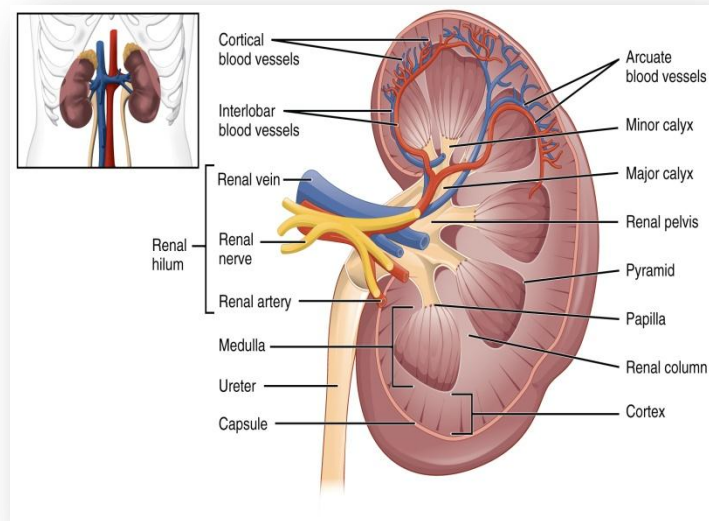


Figure 01: Kidney structure. (Kim et al, 2011)

I.1.1. Nephron

I.1.1.1. Definition of nephron:

The kidney's basic work units are the nephron, approximately 1.2 million nephrons are contained in each kidney and form the urine (Miriam, 1998). It represents two types of nephron which are distinguished by the location of their glomeruli: (Sands and Verlander, 2010)

- **The cortical nephron;** has a short loop of henle descending partially into the medulla and the majority type. (Lawrence et al, 2018).
- **The juxtamedullary nephron 15%;** has a very long loop of henle and has a higher glomerular filtration rate, as its associated glomerulus is proportionally larger than that of the cortical nephron. (Lawrence et al, 2018).

I.1.1.2. Nephron structure and function

This functional unit of kidney consists of two parts: renal corpuscle and renal tubules (figure 02). (Lawrence et al, 2018).

Kidney anatomy and CKD

I.1.1.2.1. Renal corpuscle:

I.1.1.2.1.1. Glomerulus; connected to a complicated and twisted tubule that finally drains into a collecting duct. (Kriz and Elger, 2010).

I.1.1.2.1.2. Bowman's capsule; Double membrane cup-shaped structure that surrounds the glomerulus.(Lockwood et al, 2018)

I.1.1.2.2. Renal tubular :Consists of

I.1.1.2.2.1. proximales convoluted tubules; The proximal tubule reabsorbs 50– 60% of the total filtered load of inorganic solutes and water, whereas organic solutes.(Pablo et al, 2002)

I.1.1.2.2.2. Distal Convoluted Tubule; The tight junctions of the cells lining the distal tubule are “tight,” so water and electrolytes cannot diffuse across the tubule and the filtrate remains hypotonic. In the early portion of the distal tubule, an apical Na^+/Cl^- transporter causes further reabsorption of ions. Thiazide diuretics block this reabsorption.(Seely and Blankenship, 2018)

I.1.1.2.2.3. Loop of Henle; It is U shaped middle portion of renal tubules. It is composed of ascending and descending loop. Ascending loop is thick walled and impermeable to water while descending loop is thin walled and permeable to water.(karki, 2017)

I.1.1.2.2.4. Collecting Duct; Determines final concentration of urine also Normally impermeable to water reabsorption (Hackenmueller , 2013)

I.1.2. vessels blood

I.1.2.1. Afferent Arteriole; The afferent arteriole receives blood rich in oxygen from the renal artery. This blood is transported to the glomerulus of the nephron where it is pressure filtered .(Tapan , 2017)

I.1.2.2. Efferent arteriole; is smaller in diameter than the afferent arteriole.(Tapan , 2017) so pressure difference occurs between the two ends of the glomerulus. This causes the filtration of blood plasma into the space of the Bowman's capsule. Since the blood plasma filtration occurs under high pressure, it is called ultra-filtration or the high pressure-filtration.(Lakna, 2017)

Kidney anatomy and CKD

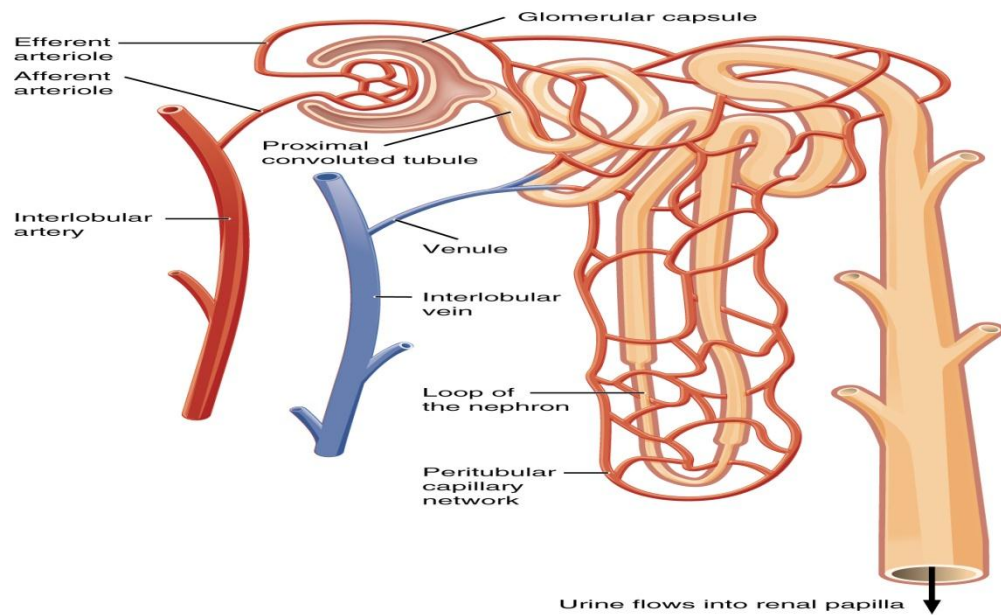


Figure 02: Nephron anatomy (Kim et al, 2011).

II. Chronic kidney disease

II.1. Definition

CKD is defined as the presence of kidney damage manifested by abnormal albumin excretion (Robert et al, 2008) or decreased kidney function (Angela et al, 2016) (shown by glomerular filtration rate $GFR < 60 \text{ ml/min/1.73m}^2$ for 3 months or more (Robert et al, 2005) which is less than half of normal value in young adult men and women of approximately $125 \text{ ml/min/1.73m}^2$ (Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes KDIGO, 2013) and the $ACR > 30 \text{ mg/g}$ (Ki-Chul et al, 2019).

The glomerular filtration rate (GFR) is the best overall index of kidney filtration in healthy and disease (Claudio and Lakhmir, 2019) when the volume of plasma that is filtered by the glomeruli per unit of time, it is measured by the clearance of inulin or creatinine (Kent et al., 2015) also the age and gender are used to estimate the GFR. It becomes normal when its number is more 90 ml/min (National kidney foundation [NKF], 2013) but in kidney damage it is divided depending on the CKD stage whereas it becomes less than 15 ml/min in ESRD. (Douglass, 2008) consequently the acute renal failure or acute kidney injury (AKI) is associated with acute decline of GFR (Matthieu and Didier, 2011).

Kidney anatomy and CKD

II.2. Classification of CKD

Nearly ten years ago nephrologists began using a system of classification for CKD which was established in 2002 by the kidney Disease Outcome Quality Initiative (KDOQI) (Syed and Gerard ,2012) where the determination of CKD stages should be based on the combination between the kidney function indices (estimated GFR) and kidney damage (albuminuria-proteinuria) whatever the underlying diagnosis. (David ,2012)

We can identify any stage of CKD by their estimated GFR as (David et al ,2017) study which shown :

- **Stage 1;** is a kidney damage with normal or increased GFR $>90 \text{ ml/min/1.73m}^2$.
- **Stage 2;** is a kidney damage with mildly decreased GFR 60 to 89 ml/min/1.73m^2
- **Stage 3;** is divided into 3a and 3b which are distinguished by the mildly to moderately decreased GFR 45 to 59 ml/min/1.73m^2 and moderately to severely decreased GFR 30 to 44 ml/min/1.73m^2 respectively, and the severely stages as study of (Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes [KDIGO], 2005)
- **Stage 4;** there is a severe decreased GFR 15 to 29 ml/min/1.73m^2
- **Stage 5;** a kidney failure so GFR $<15 \text{ ml/min/1.73m}^2$ or dialysis .

Each stage be to linked to a specific action plans and have a related terms us (albuminuria stage, early or late or end stage renal disease) also this classification based on a specific treatment as dialysis and transplantation.

There is the albuminuria categories in CKD represented in table 01 according the (Allan et al, 2016) study the nephrotoxic syndrome AER $>2200 \text{ mg/24h}$ and ACR $>220 \text{ mg/mmol}$.

Table 01: Albuminuria categories in CKD .(Allan et al, 2016)

Category	AER(mg/24h) or (mg/g)	terms
A1	<30	Normal to mildly increased
A2	30-300	Moderately increased
A3	>300	Severely increased

II.3. Risk factors and progression

The determination of factors predisposing an individual to CKD is essential in terms of personal and community health as some risk factors which can be non modifiable including; age ,gender ,ethnicity and family history.(Rumeyza,2013) In addition, a number of independent risk factors have been identified that may be modified by pharmacotherapy or

Kidney anatomy and CKD

lifestyle changes to reduce the rate of CKD progression such as Diabetes ,hypertension , inflammation ,anemia (Rainer,2006) and smoking ,obesity , physical activity.(Sadia et al,2012), also metabolic syndromes , dislipidemia, agricultural occupation and contact with agrochemicals can lead to kidney disease.(Carlos et al, 2011).

Feurthmore, The contamination of water resources has important repercussions for the environment and human health (Emmanuel et al, 2009; Muhammad et al, 2011). While that Drinking water contamination with different chemicals and heavy metals, released from different anthropogenic sources has become a global concern. (Rapant and Krcmova, 2007) Generally, drinking water containing different anions and heavy metals including Cd, Cr, Co, Hg, Ni, Pb, Zn etc, has significant adverse effects on human health either through deficiency or toxicity due to excessive intake .also the water which is showed in study of(Helmut, 2007) who's only confirmed that of the potential adverse effects of chronic low fluoride supplementation of drinking water on normal or decreased kidneys is insufficiency. while. the kidneys are the target organs for fluoride toxicity.(Djouadi and Derouiche, 2017) .

II.4. Symptoms of chronic kidney disease

The symptoms that one can experience during kidney failure change according to several factors. Any person with kidney failure will display a few symptoms as Reduction in the amount of urine passage(Pramod et al, 2018), fatigue, dry skin, frequent urination, loss of appetite, nausea, swelling of the hands or feet, numbness in the hands or feet, trouble concentration and darkening of the skin or muscle cramps.(Kidney Function Guide, 2018).

II.5. Diagnosis of chronic kidney disease

Kidney damage is usually identified by abnormality in the blood , urine, imaging tests and if needed by kidney biopsy (Amy and Craig, 2011) so the following diagnosis evaluation tests for CKD are always indicated repeating serum, urea, creatinine electrolytes, eGFR and albumin within 1 week and fasting lipids and glucose , urine microscopy and culture and renal ultrasound scan(David, 2013), also we selected diagnostic testing including hematology , body condition score and blood pressure.(Andrew et al, 2016).

Kidney anatomy and CKD

II.6. Management Modality of chronic kidney disease

II.6.1. Medical treatment;

The modalities of renal replacement therapy available for the treatment of end stage renal disease (ESRD) include peritoneal dialysis, hemodialysis and renal transplantation. (United States Renal Data System[USRDS], 1999).

- ❖ **Kidney transplantation;** has become the preferred treatment for qualified patients with ESRD while kidney transplantation is more cost-effective than maintenance dialysis and more importantly (figure 03), it provides better quality of life and prolongs. (Rubin, 2014).

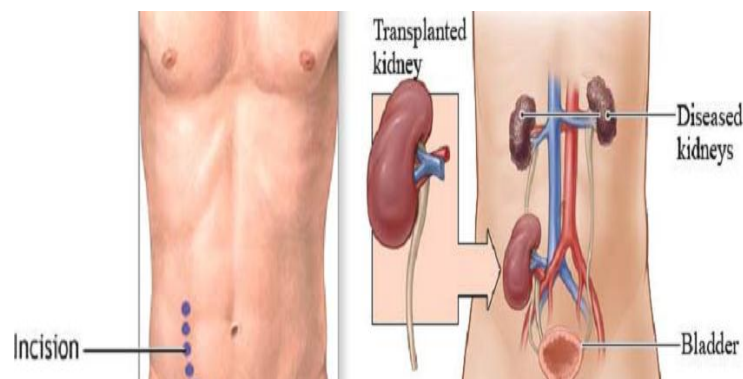


Figure 03: kidney transplant anatomy (Mark, 2013)

- ❖ **peritoneal dialysis;** works using the body's peritoneal membrane as a filter, this form of dialysis is very gentle on the body and it can protect the remaining kidney function also it's able to be successfully incorporated into most lifestyles. (Kidney Health Australia, 2016) (figure 04).

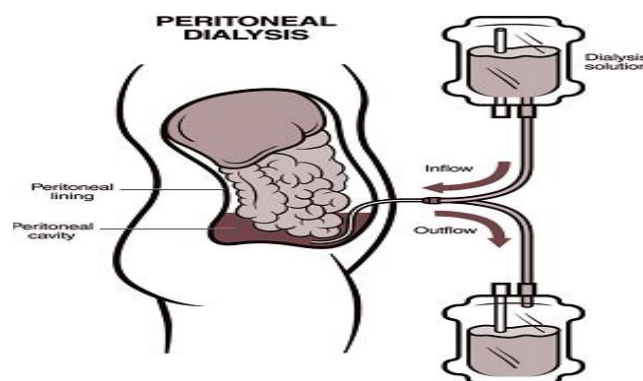


Figure 04: peritoneal dialysis options (National Kidney Foundation[NKF], 2006).

- ❖ **Hemodialysis modality;** is a complex process requiring a skilled health care team and an appropriate educational process that can be individualized for patients and their supports

Kidney anatomy and CKD

(figure05). (Brendan et al, 2018), it has been used since the 1940 to treat people with kidney disease when the kidney can't performed their function as a excretion water and regulation the level chemical elements in blood, dialysis can help keep the body. (Carissa Stephens.,2018)

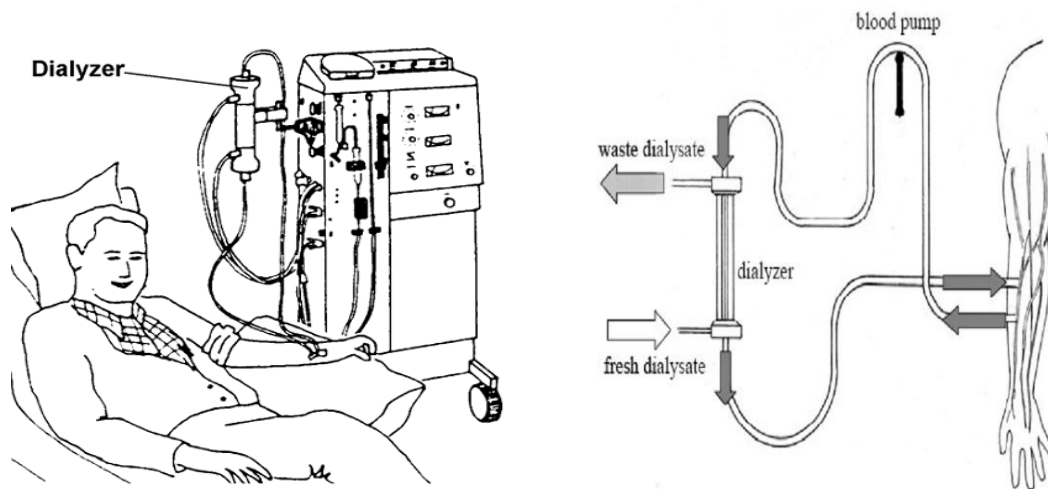


Figure05: hemodialysis operation (Hasan , 2008; Health Information Translations, 2008).

To get the blood to flow the artificial kidney, it must to create an entrance point (vascular access) in to blood vessels, there is three types of entrance point: (Carissa Stephens.,2018)

Arteriovenous(AVF) fistula; is created by making a surgical connection between one of your arteries and one of your veins. Most of the time, a fistula is created in your non-dominant arm, but it can also be placed in your leg if the arteries and veins in your arm are not large enough or healthy.(Azura vascular car,2017)

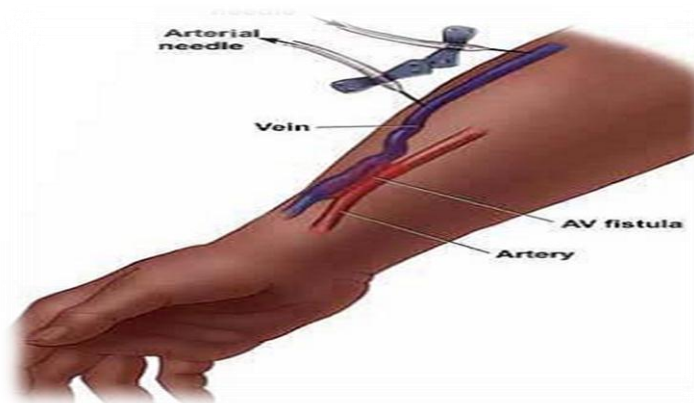


Figure 06:Arteriovenous fistula(Larry, 2013).

- ✓ **Arteriovenous graft;** is the second most common vascular access of choice in hemodialysis patients ,This type is a surgically created anastomosis between an artery and vein via prosthetic conduit(figure07).(Nagadarshini et al, 2016).

Kidney anatomy and CKD

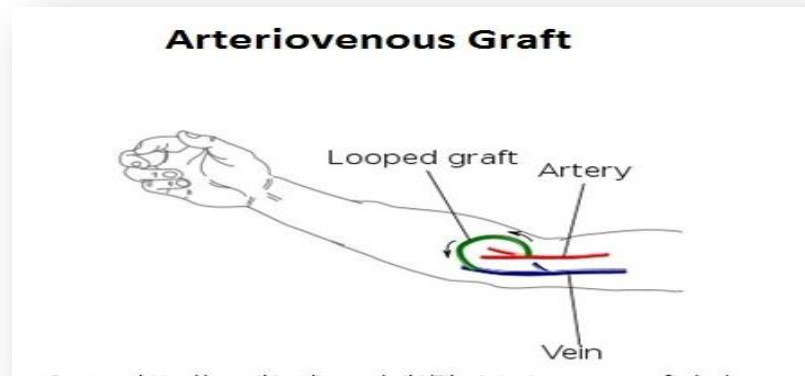


Figure 07: Arteriovenous graft (Lynn et al, 2015)

- ✓ **Vascular access catheter;** is placed in a branch vein in the arm, neck, or just beneath the collarbone (figure 08). (Vascular Access Procedure, 2005).

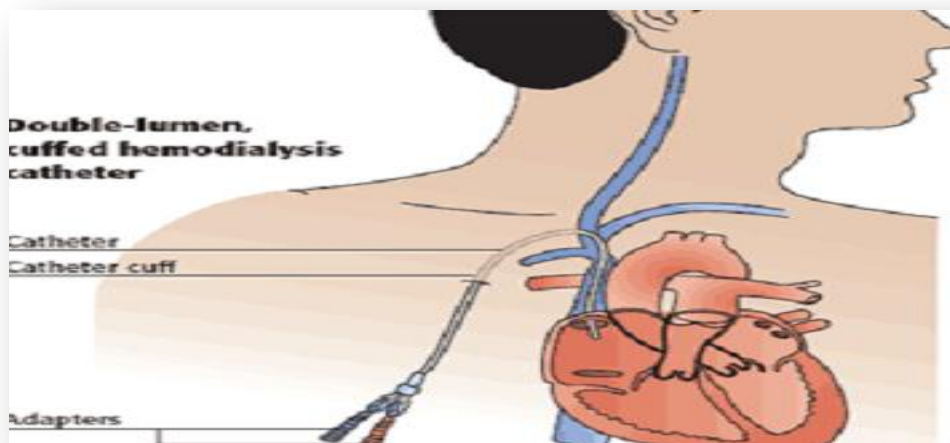


Figure 08: Vascular access catheter option (Eileen et al, 2007).

II.6.2. Supplementing treatment:

The supplementing treatment of CKD consists of treatment of the underlying cause if possible, aggressive treatment of high blood pressure, cessation of smoking, use of pharmacological drugs and other symptoms. (Gohil et al, 2013).

II.7. Prevention of chronic kidney disease

The CKD can be declined by lifestyle modification such as diet control, weight reduction, and exercises (Aminu et al, 2005), also try to reduce the number of people with prediabetes,

Kidney anatomy and CKD

diabetes and hypertension ,the most common precursors of CKD and begin to address some of social, economic and other factors that negatively impact health.(Ann et *al*, 2016).

III. kidney disease and Oxidative stress

The kidney is a highly energetic organ. This makes it more vulnerable to damage caused by OS . In turn, OS is associated with kidney disease progression. Furthermore, several complications of chronic kidney disease (CKD) such as inflammation , the major cause of death in patients with CKD, are also linked to increased levels of OS.(Kristien et *al*, 2018).

The kidneys maintain persistently high levels of mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation and arterial blood flow, making them an environment in which ROS formation is expected (Agarwal, 2003).

In ERSD patients the antioxidant-pro-oxidant balance is shifted toward an increased oxidative stress. Several antioxidant systems have been shown to be deficient in patients with chronic renal insufficiency. Reduced levels of vitamin C are present, in part due to a dietary restriction of fresh fruits and vegetables to avoid hyperkalemia, and vitamin E intracellular levels are low, selenium levels are reduced, and there is a deficiency in the glutathione system (Davis et *al*, 2005).

The imbalance in pro- and anti-oxidant capacities in these patients results in excess production of ROS in the blood (Nguyen et *al*, 1985) , and neutrophils in uremic patients produce more ROS when stimulated (Davis et *al*, 2005).

The oxidant stress in dialysis patients causes increases in malondialdehyde, oxidized LDL, and increases in antibodies against oxidized LDL (Locatelli et *al*, 2003).

V. Inflammation in Hemodialysis patients and oxidative stress

Oxidative stress in renal failure has been associated with hypertension endothelial dysfunction , decreased erythrocyte lifespan , and atherosclerosis and inflammation (Davis et *al*, 2005).

The inflammatory cells are then a source of free radicals in the forms of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, although reactive oxygen species (ROS) are considered the most common. The highly reactive ROS are capable of damaging various structures and functional pathways in cells (Small et *al*, 2013). Moreover the inflammation is a redox-sensitive mechanism, as oxidative stress is able to activate transcriptor factors such as NF-kB, which regulates inflammatory mediator gene expression. NF-kB is a dimer factor maintained inactivated in the cytoplasm by binding to inhibitory proteins (members of I-kB family).(Victoria et *al*, 2008).

Kidney anatomy and CKD

The causes of inflammation in dialysis patients include both factors arising from dialysis itself (efficiency and biocompatibility issues) as well as others that are non-dialysis related, such as advanced age and diabetes, renal disease and uremia *per se* (Vassilis *et al*, 2009).

ESRD patients have increased levels of inflammation-related proteins, such as interleukin-6 (IL-6), tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) and C-reactive protein (CRP) and are subjected to enhanced oxidative stress as a result of both insufficient anti-oxidant defence mechanisms and excessive generation of oxidant compounds (Spittle *et al*, 2001).

Components of the inflammatory response associated with hemodialysis (HD) method include neutrophil activation due to interaction between blood and dialysis membranes with consequent increased synthesis and release of pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-1, IL-6, TNF- α), poor quality of dialysis water, back filtration of contaminated dialysate to the blood compartment, intravenous iron therapy and presence of foreign bodies (access graft, central venous hemodialysis catheter) (Francesco *et al*, 2003).

In addition, there is a strong relationship between inflammation and oxidative stress in this patient population, as both are related to endothelial dysfunction, and reactive oxygen species (ROS), lipid and protein oxidation products as well as advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) are generated in response to inflammatory stimuli (Mezzano *et al*, 2001).

EXPERIMENTAL

PART

Materials and Methods

Materials and Methods

I. Materials and Methods

Part 1: Patients study

I.1.1. Risk factors study

I.1.1.1.The study duration

The duration of this study was taken 8 month which was started from September 2018 to april 2019 at hemodialysis service of Saad Dahleb hospital (Djamaa) and medical analysis laboratory of the hospital of Saad Dahleb in Djamaa , Bachir Ben Naser –El-Oued and biological laboratory of science of nature and life faculty at university of Echahid Hamma Lakhdar El-Oued.

I.1.1.2.Region of the study

Theregion of Oued Righ is a valley situated in the North east of the Algeria sahara. It covers a South North axis whose latitude is $32^{\circ},54'$ to $39^{\circ},9'$ North and longitude $05^{\circ},50$ to $05^{\circ},75$ east.this region is divided naturally into bloks called trios: upper Oued Righ (**Touggort**), in the middle(**Djamaa**) and in lower of this region (**M'gheir region**) (Abdelkader and Hamid, 2012).

Our study was conducted in the Middle of Oued Righ(**the Djamaa region**). which is limited to the North by El M'gheir, East by Oued Souf to the west by Ouled Djellal and in the south by Touggourt region(Abdelfatah , 2008)(figure09).

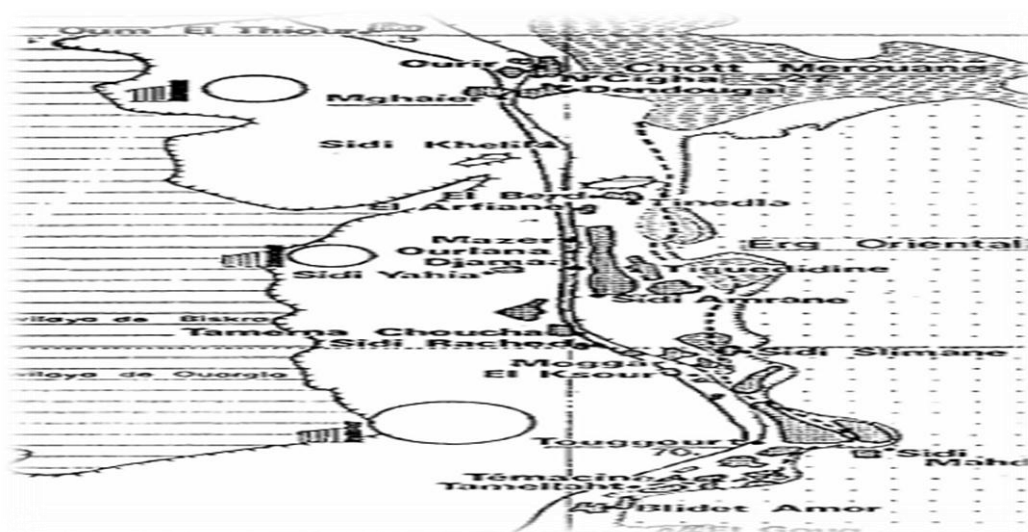


Figure09 :Maps of OuedRigh and Djamaa region(Abdelfatah , 2008).

Materials and Methods

I.1.1.3. Epidemiological study and questionnaire

Concerning a questionnaire (annex01) and statistical study, our work was conducted on 77 voluntary individual divided into 2 groups, group 1 (41 persons reserved as a control recruited from our entourage) and group 2 (36 hemodialysis patients) represented mean the age 46.32 years their origin cover all Djamaa region. This population are recruited by Hemodialysis service, they are represented CKD confirmed by the diagnosis kidney echography (Annex 38) and nephrologists doctor of Hospital SAAD SAHLEB Djamaa.

I.1.2. Biological study

Our biological study is carried out on 41 volunteers person of mean age 45.05 ± 2.65 years, were divided into 21 healthy control with mean age 39.00 ± 3.41 years, the other group of 20 hemodialysis patients of hospital Saad Dahleb –Djamaa with mean age 51.40 ± 3.64 years.

Inclusion criteria

- ✓ Voluntary persons live in the Djamaa region.
- ✓ The control voluntary does not have any kidney pathology.
- ✓ Hemodialysis patients diagnosis by nephrography.

Exclusion criteria

- ☒ Voluntary live in other region.
- ☒ Control less than 18 years.
- ☒ Control has a previous renal or other diseases.

I.1.2.1. Reagents

Sodium chloride (NaCl), Hydrochloric acid (HCl), Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), Thiobarbituric acid (TBA), Methanol, Coomassie Blue, Butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT), Trichloroacetic acid (TCA), Phosphate-buffered (KH_2PO_4 , K_2HPO_4), Ascorbic acid, Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), Copper sulphate ($CuSO_4$), $FeCl_3$ and potassium ferrioxalate.

I.1.2.2. Methods

I.1.2.2.1. Data collection

For epidemiological study, we have distributed for all volunteers our questionnaire which contains some social and clinical data that can show us different factors associated with CKD.

Materials and Methods

I.1.2.2.2. Sample collection

For biological study, blood sampling is done in the morning for both groups, whether for control or hemodialysis, but for the last group their sampling is done before and after dialysis, after this operation we collected the samples blood in two types of tubes:

- ❖ In anticoagulant (EDTA) tubes for hematological (FNS) and oxidative stress (MDA , GSH, Catalase) markers assay.
- ❖ In dry tubes, samples are centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes to obtain the serum and utilized for urea, creatinine, calcium, ionogram analysis and ORAC activity assay.

Part 2: Qualitative study of water in different area of Djamaa region

I.2.1. Samples collection

to obtained some comparatives informations of drinking water quality, a snapshot study was done on 3 drinking water samples of 29 samples divided between 12 the spring water, 13 tap water (TW) and 4 filtered water (FW) which obtained from deferents regions in Djamaa according to an orderly sampling method, these regions were represented in Djamaa maps.

this experimental study was conducted in the ADE laboratory in El Oued unite since 6 month (September 2018 to February 2019)

I.2.2. Methods of testing

I.2.2.1. Conductivity measurement

It is measured by electric method to the conductivity of water determination where The results are displayed directly by the conductimetre an μS with the temperature measured (Determination of electrical conductivity, NA 749).

I.2.2.2. Sodium (Na) And Potassium (K) assay

Flame atomic absorption spectrometry for the sodium and potassium dosing in drinking water, raw water, and spring water. The results are displayed directly by the spectrometer in mg/l of Na or K

Materials and Methods

I.2.2.3. Chloride (Cl) and Calcium (Ca) assay

Titrimetric method for the determination of chlorides dissolved in water with AgNO_3 and K_2CrO_4 (Mohr's method, ISO 9297 – NA 6917) and of the calcium by Sodium Hydroxide and EDTA (1984 (F) Calcium Assay - EDTA Titrimetric Method ISO 6058), the results measured by formula:

$$\text{Cl (mg/l)} = \frac{V_S - V_b}{V_a} \cdot C_f$$

$$\text{Ca (mg/l)} = \frac{C_1 \cdot V_1 \cdot A}{V_0} \cdot F_c \cdot 10^3 \cdot F$$

I.2.2.4. Iron (Fe) assay

A specific spectrometric method for phenantroline for the determination of iron in water.

The intensity of the staining is proportional to the amount of the iron and the results are displayed directly by the spectrometer in mg / l of iron. (Determination of iron, ISO 6332)

Part 3: Effect of water on renal function in rats

I.3.1. Animals and treatment

Nine female rats with weight (181.74 ± 6.96) were bought from animal service of Pasteur institute in Algeria, they are installed in faculty SNV, university of El Oued, Algeria in plastic cages divided in three groups of 3 rats of each. They kept in the animal breeding house for adaptation.

The animals were adapted to laboratory condition photoperiod (12 h of night/12h of Light), an ambient temperature of 22 ± 03 °C and humidity of (63.2 ± 14) % for two weeks. The standard diet and water are free for the animals during period of adaption.

I.3.2. Experimental Design

After the duration of adaption (2 weeks), we distributed the rats in three groups and distinguished between them by three types of drinking water which are the axis of this study during 60 days.

- ❖ **group1**; rats receive the mineral water in drinking as control.
- ❖ **group2**; rats receive the tap water (TW)
- ❖ **group3**; rats receive the filtered water (FW) contained "Hypersperse 700-11" which is a viscous solution as the interscalant product we are prepared it by dilution method 1/20 by original solution.

Materials and Methods

this product is used in the demineralisation station of the water during the filtration stages to avoid the precipitation of chlorine in the tubes of the installation.

The evaluation of body weight was controlled during the eight weeks of the experiment.

I.3.3. Blood collection and tissue preparation

At the end of 8th week of experiment the animals were fasted for 16 h, anesthetized by chloroform inhalation then sacrificed by decapitation. The blood was collected in EDTA tubes for hematological analysis and in dry tubes for urea, creatinine, calcium and electrolytes levels assay.

The serum was obtained by blood centrifuging at 3000 rpm for 10 min and frozen at 20 °C until the use.

In addition, One gram of kidney from each rat of the different experiment groups was used. The tissues were milled and homogenized in 9 ml of buffer solution of TBS (50 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4). The tissue suspension was centrifuged at 9 000 rpm for 15 min at 4 °C the supernatant obtained was stored at -20 until use for the oxidative stress marker assay.

I.3.4. Measurement of biological Markers

I.3.4.1. Biochemical parameter assay

Serum urea , creatinine, calcium parameters levels were determined by autoanalysis(BIOLIS24j) use commercial kit from spinreact , spain (ref: urea-20141 , creatinine-20151 , calcium-20051) .

I.3.4.2. Method of Hematological analysis

Hematological analysis (FNS) is performed by the hematology autoanalyzer (Sysmex) .

I.3.4.3. Method of electrolytes analysis

Determination of the ionogram parameter (Sodium , potassium and chlorine) by Automatic electrolyte analyzer (Easylute) .

Materials and Methods

I.3.4.4. Method of estimating oxidative stress parameter

I.3.4.4.1. Preparation of erythrocyte homogenate

After displacement of the blood sample, the spittoons are made up to 50 ml with SLR (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 10 mM NaCl) and incubated for 30 minutes in the freezer. then centrifuged at 3900 rpm for 20 min and obtained supernant (erythrocyte homogenate) was used for the determination of antioxidant activity .

I.3.4.4.2. Leukocyte separation

After separation of the erythrocytes, the previous operation (removal of the supernatant) is repeated almost twice. if red blood cells persist in the pellet, carry out an additional washing with a lysis buffer until the leucocyte coupling and then recover to perform the stress tests and protein concentration .

I.3.4.4.3. Determination of protein concentration

principle

protein concentration was measured according to the method of Bradford M.M., 1976 that uses comassie blue complex (the appearance of the blue color reflects the degree of ionization of the medium and the intensity corresponds to the concentration of the proteins).

Operating mode

- ✱ Take 0.04ml of leukocyte homogenate.
- ✱ Add 2ml of Coomassie Blue.
- ✱ Waiting 5 min for color stabilization.
- ✱ Read the optical density at 595nm,
- ✱ The obtained optical density is reported on a calibration curve previously drawn.

The concentration of the protein is determined by comparison with a standard range of bovine serum albumin (1mg/ml) previously carried out under the same conditions.(annex.02.)

I.3.4.4.4.Determination of malondialdehyde level

The malondialdehyde was measured according the method of (YAGI,1976), The method is based on the reaction between the carbonyl compounds of malondialdehyde with thiobarbituric acid to give absorbent pink chromophores at 532 nm. MDA level was expressed as nmol of MDA/mg prot.

Materials and Methods

I.3.4.4.5. Reduced glutathione (GSH) level assay

The level of reduced Glutathione is determined according the WEAK and CORY (1988).by measuring the optical density results from the formation of 2-nitro-5-mercaptopuric acid from the reduction of dithio-bis-2-nitrobenzoic acid, which is called Ellman reagent with SH groups exist in GSH briefly.

- 800µl of homogenate samples are add to 200µl of salicylic acid (0.25%).
- The mixture was centrifuge at 1000 rpm for 5 min.
- Take 500 ml of supernatant and mixed with 1000µl of tris buffer(tris 0.4mol,0.02mol NaCl ,Ph =8.9) and 25 µl of DTNB (0.01 mol/L).
- Read the absorbance at 412 nm after 5 min of incubation .

$$\text{GSH (nM/mg of Hb)} = \frac{(\text{OD} \times 1 \times 1.525)}{13133 \times 0.8 \times 0.5 \times \text{mg of pr}}$$

OD : Optical Density.

1.525 : total volume of blend an ml.

13133: Absorption constant of SH groups at 412 nm.

0.5 : volume of solution float an ml.

1 : volume of protein mixture .

0.8: volume of homogeneous solution without protein exists in 1 ml.

GSH : concentration of glutathione.

I.3.4.4.6. Glutathione-S-transferase (GST)Activity assay

GST activity was measured spectrophotometrically by the method of (Habig et al,1974) . based on the formation kinetics of a complex between a GST substrate: 1-chloro-2-4-dinitrobenzene (CDNB) and GSH. 50 µl of CDNB(0.02M) was mixed with 850µl and 830 µl of phosphate buffer in blank and test tube respectively, then 100 µl of GSH(0.1M) was added to mixture , 20µl of homogenate was puted test tubes. results are measured each1 min during 5 min. The complex formed can be visualized by increasing the optical density at a 340 nm. The GST activity was expressed as nmol CDNB /min/mg prot

Materials and Methods

$$\text{GSTs (nM /min/ mg of pro)} = \frac{\text{DO sample/min} - \text{DO blanc/min}}{9.6 \times \text{mg of pro}}$$

I.3.4.4.7. Determination of superoxide dismutase activity assay

The assay method of SOD activity using the NBT by the superoxide anion (O_2^-), is used as a basis for detecting of presence of SOD by measuring the spectrophotometrically absorbance at 560 nm. (Beauchamp and Fridovich, 1971)

Collect in tubes	Blank (In the dark)	Sample(Illuminated tube)	Concentration in the reaction medium
EDTA-Met	1000 μL	1000 μL	0,1mM EDTA
Phosphate buffer	892,2 μL	892,2 μL	13mM Met
Sample	0	50	/
Phosphate buffer	1000 μL	950 μl	50Mm
NBT	85,2 μL	85,2 μL	75 μM
riboflavin	22,6 μL	22,6 μL	2 μM

Expression of results :

$$\text{SOD} = \frac{\text{DO blanc} - \text{DO sample}}{\text{DO blanc}}$$

I.3.4.4.8. Determination of enzymatic activity of catalase

The catalase activity consists in measuring the catalase-induced loss of H_2O_2 contained in the sample by measuring the absorbance of H_2O_2 at 560 nm using a UV /visible spectrophotometer. Briefly In test tubes mix 1 ml of phosphate buffer (KH_2PO_4 , 0.1 M, pH 7.2), 0.975 ml of freshly prepared H_2O_2 (0.091 M) and 0.025 ml of the enzyme source (homogenate). The absorbance is read at 560nm each minute for 2 minutes.

$$\text{CAT (UI/g)} = \frac{\left(\left(\frac{2.3033}{T} \right) \times \left(\frac{\log A_1}{\log A_2} \right) \right)}{g \text{ of protein}}$$

Materials and Methods

A1: Absorbance at the first minute.

A2: Absorbance at the second minute.

T: Time interval in minutes

I.3.4.4.9. Determination of antioxidant power ORAC

a. principle

The total antioxidant power of the serum, its capacity to absorb free oxygen radicals (ORAC: Oxygen Radical Absorbance Capacity), is estimated by the ability of red blood cells to resist free radical-induced hemolysis *in vitro* in the presence of plasma according to the method of Oyaizu, M. (1986). This method is based on the time-dependent monitoring of red blood cell hemolysis induced by a free radical generator..

b. Treatment of red blood cells

- Centrifuge donor blood at 2000 rpm for 10 min and remove plasma.
- Wash gently 1 volume of the pellet with 2 volumes of physiological saline (without lysing the RBCs), then centrifuge again at 2000 rpm for 5 min.

c. Operating mode

➤ Control tube

- Add 1 ml of RC: 20 µl of CuSO₄ (2 mM), 20 µl of H₂O₂ (30%) and 2 ml of physiological saline, then stir gently.

Incubate for 5 min at room temperature, centrifuge for 5 min at 2000 rpm.

- Read the OD at 450 nm from the supernatant and put it back into the tube and stir gently.
- Repeat this operation every 10 minutes for 1 hour.

➤ Standard tube

- To 1 ml of RC are added: 20 µl of CuSO₄ (2 mM), 20 µl of H₂O₂ (30%) and 2 ml of physiological saline, and 20 µl of vitamin C (400 µM) and then stir gently.

Incubate for 5 min at room temperature, centrifuge for 5 min at 2000 rpm.

- Read the OD at 450 nm from the supernatant and put it back into the tube and stir gently.

Materials and Methods

- Repeat this operation every 10 minutes for 1 hour.

➤ Test tube

- To 1 ml of RC are added: 20 µl of CuSO₄ (2 mM), 20 µl of H₂O₂ (30%) and 2 ml of physiological saline, and 20 µl of serum (400 µM) and then stir gently.

Incubate for 5 min at room temperature, centrifuge for 5 min at 2000 rpm.

- Read the OD at 450 nm from the supernatant and put it back into the tube and stir gently.
- Repeat this operation every 10 min for 1 hour (t₀, t₁₀, t₂₀, t₃₀, t₄₀, t₅₀, t₆₀, and average the latter:
- $\Sigma DO = \Sigma (t_0, t_{10}, t_{20}, t_{30}, t_{40}, t_{50}, t_{60}) / 7$
- To calculate the total antioxidant power using two methods.

Calculate method

$$ORAC(UI) = \frac{\Sigma(OD_{control} - OD_{sample})\Delta t}{\Sigma(OD_{control} - OD_{standard})\Delta t}$$

I.3.4.4.10. Determination of ferric reducing antioxidant power(FRAP)method.

500µl of serum and 1.25 ml of buffer solution 6,6 (0.2M) add to 1.25 potassium fericianure and incubation 20 min in Bain Marie at 50 C°.also, 1.25 ml of aqueous TCA solution is added to stop the reaction and centrifugation 3000rpm/10 min .after we add:

- 1.25 ml of supernatant
- 1.25 ml of distilled water
- 1.25 ml of FeCL₃(0.1%)

And reading an UV visible at 700 nm against a blank

Blank: similarly prepared but replace the sample with distilled water to calibrate the device.

Statistical analysis

The statistical evaluation was carried out by the student's t test using Minitab 14 statistical packagen ,OR risk factored regression analysis using SPSS statistics 25 and the Excel 2007 (Microsoft). The values were given as mean±SEM .Statistical significance was defined as P<0.05

Results

Results

II. Results

II.1. patients study

II.1.1. Description of study population

In our study we are chose population are characterized by many different characters are shown in table 02 (age, weight, sex ,social case, job, education level, blood group).We are selected 36 hemodialysis patients and 41 controls , after statistical analysis we are obtained the results showed in table below.

Table (02) : Description of study population

		control	Patients
Age		46.61 ± 2.84	46.03 ± 2.95
Body weight		61.20 ± 2.09	59.96 ± 2.62
sex	Men%	16.88	23.38
	Women%	36.36	23.38
Social case	Married%	29.870	29.870
	Single%	23.376	15.584
job	Worker%	19.480	14.285
	unemployed%	33.766	32.467
Educational level	primary%	5.194	25.974
	medium%	7.792	5.194
	High school %	19.480	12.987
Blood group	High education%	20.779	2.597
	A%	18.181	7.791
	B%	10.389	10.388
	AB%	7.791	3.896
	O%	16.882	18.181

Results

II.1.2. Study of socioeconomic and clinic factors

Odds ration (OR) values for Socioeconomic factors (table 03) and Clinic-pathological factors (table 03) show that Diabetes ,urinary problems and Arterial hyper pressure are shown to be significant risk factors for chronic kidney disease(OR= 5.135; P= 0.003),(OR= 6.607;

p=0.001),(OR= 8.276 ; P= 0.000) respectively .In addition, Rheumatoid (OR= 14.375 ; P= 0.004) , History of kidney disease (OR= 20.000 ; P= 0.000), Renal herbal medicine (OR=25.455 ;P= 0.000),Drugs nephrotoxic (OR = 62.857 ; P= 0.000) and Disease before CKD (OR= 62.857; P= 0.000) are also very important risk factors of chronic kidney disease in our study population by highest OR values . While that, Additive soft drinks, spices ,Amount of water and Salty foods are protective factors for CKD in study population (OR ranging from 0.232 to 0.352 ; P \leq 0.032) .In contrast, our results indicate that Passive smoking , Tea , Coffee , Food additive and dyes , Red meat , Exposure to chemical , Work in a polluted place , Drugs , Long-term incontinence , Sport , Sweet foods , Sleep disorder, Digestion disorder, Calming, Antibiotic, Using paracetamol drug, Phytotherapy, Using drug, Drugs products, Family history of the disease and Industrial area are not considered as risk factors of CKD in our population since the OR values obtained are not significant

Table (03): Socioeconomic factors of Chronic Kidney Disease (N= 77)

	Control %	Patient %	OR	CI _{95%}	P
Amount Water			0.362	0.143- 0.913	0.025
Positive	48.051	25.974			
Negative	7.792	20.779			
Tea			0.893	0.344- 2.326	0.504
Positive	18.181	15.584			
Negative	32.467	31.168			
Coffee			0.690	0.245- 1.943	0.330
Positive	15.584	10.389			
Negative	37.662	36.363			
Spices			0.232	0.89- 0.604	0.002
Positive	36.363	15.584			
Negative	16.883	31.168			
Food additive and dys			0.620	0.200- 1.919	0.292
Positive	12.987	7.792			
Negative	40.259	38.969			
Additive soft drinks			0.350	0.132- 0.925	0.027
Positive	25.974	11.688			
Negative	27.272	35.064			
Exposure to chemical			0.545	0.179- 1.665	0.213

Results

Positive	14.285	7.792			
Negative	38.961	38.961			
Work in a polluted place			3.145	0.571- 17.325	0.165
positive	2.597	6.493			
Negative	50.649	40.259			
Industrail area			2.353	0.204- 27.093	0.451
Positive	1.298	2.597			
Negative	51.948	44.155			
Smoking			1.364	0.499-3.728	0.363
Positive	12.987	14.285			
Negative	40.259	32.467			
Drugs			1.143	0.063- 18.958	0.720
Positive	1.299	1.299			
Negative	51.948	45.454			
Long – term incontinence			0.446	0.177- 1.108	0.063
Positive	20.779	10.389			
Negative	32.376	36.363			
Sport			0.593	0.238- 1.482	0.187
Positive	25.974	16.883			
Negative	27.272	29.870			
Sweetfoods			0.442	0.177-1.108	0.063
Positive	29.870	16.883			
Negative	23.376	29.870			
Saltyfoods			0.341	0.121- 0.957	0.032
Positive	22.077	9.090			
Negative	31.168	37.662			
Daily mouvement			0.412	0.141- 1.189	0.085
Positive	44.155	31.168			
Negative	9.090	15.584			
Redmeat			0.432	0.171- 1.090	0.059
Positive	28.571	15.584			
Negative	24.675	31.168			
Agricultures Works			0.243	0.048- 1.228	0.067
Positive	10.390	2.597			
Negative	42.857	44.155			
Antecedent disease before CKD			62.857	7.741- 510.434	0.000
Positive	1.298	28.571			
Negative	51.948	18.181			
History kidney disease			20.000	2.445- 163.622	0.000
Positive	1.298	15.584			
Negative	51.948	31.168			
Family history of the disease			1.375	0.467- 4.048	0.380
Positive	10.389	11.688			
Negative	42.857	35.064			
Sleepdiorder			1.313	0.534- 3.223	0.358
Positive	25.974	25.974			

Results

Negative	27.272	20.779
----------	--------	--------

OR>1 and P<0.05 indicate a risk factor

OR<1 and P<0.05 indicate a protective factor

Table(04) : Clinic-pathological factors of Chronic Kidney Disease (N= 77)

	Control %	Patients %	OR	CI _{95%}	P
Drugs produits			0.258	0.029-2.324	0.199
Positive	1.298	6,493			
Negative	51.984	40,259			
Hypertension Arterial			8.276	2.439-28.079	0.000
Positive	5.194	22.077			
Negative	48.059	24.675			
Diabete			5.134	1.6346-16.182	0.003
Positive	6.493	10.389			
Negative	46.753	36.363			
Usingdrugs			0.668	0.270- 1.656	0.261
Positive	25.974	18.181			
Negative	27.272	28.571			
Phytotherapy			0.593	0.238- 1.482	0.187
Positive	25.974	16.883			
Negative	27.272	29.870			
Renal herbal medicine			25.455	3.135-206.705	0.000
Positive	1.298	18.181			
Negative	51.948	28.571			
Using paracétamol			0.462	0.181- 1.179	0.081
Positive	25.974	14.285			
Negative	27.272	32.467			
UsingAntibiotic			0.462	0.181- 1.179	0.283
Positive	9.090	11.688			
Negative	44.155	35.064			
Drugs			0.579	0.229- 1.461	0.177
Positive	24.675	15.584			
Negative	28.571	31.168			
Rheumatoid			14.375	1.670-123.701	0.004
Positive	19.480	25.974			
Negative	33.766	20.779			
Digestion disorder			1.789	0.724-4.423	0.150
Positive	23.376	27.272			
Negative	29.870	19.480			
Urinaryproblems			6.607	1.939-22.516	0.001
Positive	5.194	19.480			
Negative	48.051	27.272			

OR>1 and P<0.05 indicate a risk factor

OR<1 and P<0.05 indicate a protective factor

Results

II.1.3. Biological Study

II.1.3.1. Biochemical markers

Concerning the biochemical markers presented in table 05, The results revealed that a significant increase ($p < 0.01$) in urea and creatinine concentration before dialysis and a significant increase ($p < 0.001$) of GRF level in patients with CKD Before dialysis (BD) and after dialysis (AD) compared to control. But no change of urea concentration in PAD.

Table(05):Biochemical markers in serum control and serum patients groups.

Paramètre	Reference	Control N= 21	PBD N= 18	P	PAD N= 18	P
Serum Urea(g/l)	0.15 - 0.45	0.17 \pm 0.01	0.90 \pm 0.06	0.000	0.24 \pm 0.04	0.115
Serum Creatinine (mg/l)	7 - 13	7.96 \pm 0.27	87.49 \pm 5.46	0.000	26.68 \pm 3.02	0.000
GFR (ml/min/1.73m ²)	>90	92.96 \pm 3.31	6.240 \pm 0.417	0.000	29.77 \pm 4.72	0.000
$\frac{\text{urea}}{\text{creatinine}}$		21.89 \pm 1.50	10.67 \pm 0.64	0.000	8.02 \pm 0.80	0.000

The results are presented by mean \pm SEM

II.1.3.2. Electrolytes levels

Regarding the electrolytes levels the results obtained in table 06 represent a significant decrease ($p < 0.001$) in serum sodium and potassium concentration in PBD and PAD respectively and a significant increase ($p < 0.01$) in sodium and potassium in PAD and PBD respectively compared to control.

Also, our results obtained a significant increase ($p < 0.001$) in calcium level concerning the group of PAD compared to control. This significant variations are compared with control and did not go outside the reference values except the potassium level .

Results

On another side, there is no significant changes of Chlorine concentration in PBD and PAD and of calcium levels in PBD compared to control.

Table (06):serum Electrolytes and calcium levels of control and patients groups.

Parameters	Reference values	Controls N=16	PBD N=18	P	PAD N=18	P
Serum Na(mmol/l)	135-155	138.53±0.66	135.37±0.40	0.000	140.15 ±0.56	0.007
Serum K(mmol/l)	3.60-5.50	4.69 ± 0.19	5.59 ± 0.19	0.000	3.18 ± 0.20	0.000
Serum Cl (mmol/l)	95-105	10.86 ±1.26	103.05 ±1.31	0.545	104.84 ±1.03	0.351
SerumCa (mg/l)	85-105	78.59± 2.23	82.93 ± 6.00	0.479	104.66 ±2.48	0.000

The results are presented by mean± SEM

II.1.3.3. Hematological markers

The results of the hematological markers are presented in table 07, the results obtained show that the Erythrocyte line (RBC,HGB,HCT) are significantly decreased ($p<0.001$) in patients with CKD as compared to control group and reference values. Results of Leucocyte lineage (WBG,Granulocyte) show that are significant increased ($p<0.001$) in the patients group compared to the control group. Moreover our result illustrate that the lymphocytes and Platelet line no significant differences ($p>0.05$) in patients with CKD compared to the control group .

Table (07):Hematological parameters of control and patients groups.

parameters	Reference values	Controls N=20	Patients N=20	P
Red blood cell ($10^6/l$)	3.50-5.50	4.75 ± 0.18	3.48 ± 0.22	0.000
Hemoglobin	11-16	13.07 ± 0.405	9.83 ± 0.46	0.000

Results

(g/dl)				
Hematocrit (%)	34-45	37.73 ± 1.26	29.73 ± 1.51	0.000
Platelet (10³/l)	182-369	249.1 ± 23.3	238.2 ± 19.4	0.581
White blood cell (10³/l)	3.98-10.04	4.86 ± 0.48	6.34± 0.31	0.000
Lymphocytes (10³/l)	1.18-3.74	1.33 ± 0.16	1.28± 0.19	0.782
Granulocytes (10³/l)		3.28 ± 0.44	4.57 ± 0.33	0.001

The results are presented by mean± SEM

II.1.3.4. Oxidative Stress markers

According to the result of the table 08 , the analysis of the oxidative stress status reveals a significant decrease ($p<0.001$) in leukocyte catalase activity and in erythrocyte GSH level and a significant increase ($p<0.001$) in erythrocyte MDA level in patient group compared to control. However, no significant change in leukocyte GSH and MDA concentration.

Table(08): Reduce glutathione (GSH) concentration , Malondialdehyde (MDA) level and catalase activity in leukocyte and Erythrocyte of control and patients groups.

Parameter		Control N = 19	Patients N = 18	p
Leukocyte	GSH (nmol/mgpr)	0.43 ± 0.04	0.49 ± 0.04	0.211
	Catalase (UI/g pr)	11.19 ± 1.01	10.06 ± 0.24	0.000
	MDA (nmol/mgPr)	5.12 ± 0.58	5.12 ± 0.36	0.946
Erythrocyte	GSH (nmol/mg HB)	0.42± 0.06	0.24± 0.06	0.005
	MDA (nmol/mg HB)	11.00 ± 0.37	12.89 ± 0.64	0.006

The results are presented by mean± SEM

Also, our results obtained in table 09 show that a highly significant increase ($p<0.001$) of ORAC and FRAP activity in serum of PAD and PBD respectively but no significant change in other groups

Results

Table (09): Serum ORAC and FRAP activity in control and patients groups.

Paramètre	Control N= 17	PBD N= 17	P	PAD N= 17	P
ORAC(UI)	0.41 ±0.10	0.53 ± 0.09	0.223	0.94 ± 0.08	0.000
FRAP (%)	96.12 ± 0.48	98.18 ± 0.78	0.001	96.89 ± 0.70	0.119

The results are presented by mean± SEM

II.1.3.5. Predictive factors of oxidative stress factors

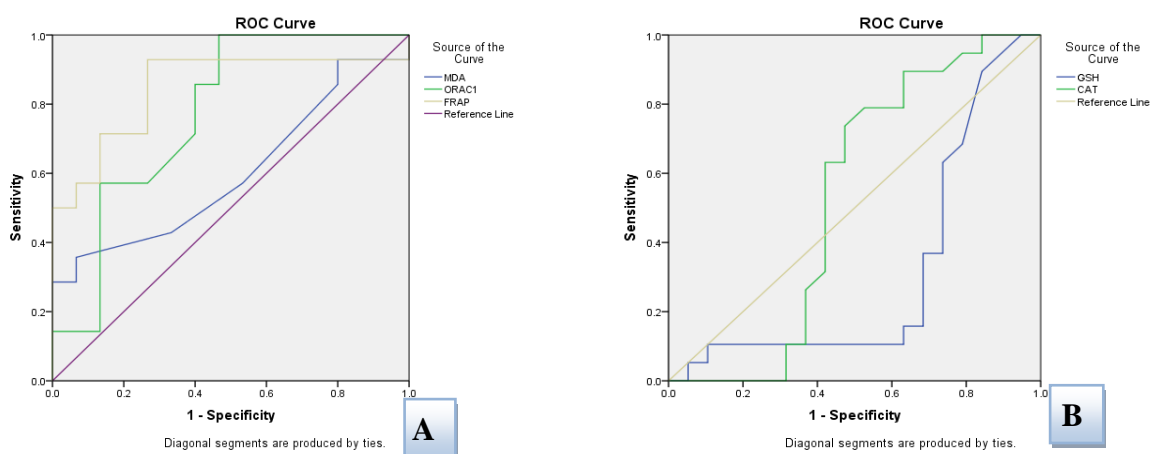
Our results obtained in table 10 demonstrate that the serum FRAP activity has the highest percentage of sensitivity and important significant of specificity (AUC=85%) with (p<0.01) also an important significant sensitivity in serum ORAC level and higher percentage specificity(AUC=77%) with (p<0.05) .Moreover, there is a low significant sensitivity and specificity in erythrocytes GSH level (AUC=31%) .

In addition, but high percentage sensitivity and low percentage specificity in erythrocytes MDA level (AUC=60%) also an important percentage of sensitivity and specificity(AUC=53%) in catalase in leucocytes but it was not significant results(p>0.05)

Table(10) :Area Under the Curve.

Test Result Variable(s)	Area	sensitivity	specificity	Std Error ^a	Asymptotic Sig. ^b	Asymptotic 95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
MDA	.600	71%	33%	.109	.359	.387	.813
ORAC1	.771	43%	87%	.090	.013	.596	.947
FRAP	.848	79%	73%	.079	.001	.692	1.000
GSH	.314	16%	32%	.094	.050	.129	.499
CAT	.528	58%	58%	.103	.770	.326	.729

Results



Figure(10):ROC curve for serum ORAC and serum FRAP,RBC MDA level (A) and GSH level in erythrocytes and leukocytes catalase activity in leucocytes(B).

II.1.3.6. correlation between oxidative stress markers and biochemical parameters

Our correlation results between oxidative stress markers and biochemical parameters represented in table 11 which clarify a significant positive correlations ($p < 0.05$) between catalase activity with creatinine level and between GSH (RBC) with Ca concentration in control group but a significant negative correlation ($p < 0.01$) between MDA(WBC) with Na level and between ORAC with Na level in the same group

Concerning patients group there are a significant positive correlations ($p < 0.05$) between catalase activity, MDA(WBC) and ORAC with Na level A and MDA(RBC) with creatinine B and GFR B, also between GSH (RBC) with GFR B and GFR A. Furthermore a significant negative correlations ($p < 0.05$) between catalase activity with creatinine A and K level B, MDA(WBC) with creatinine B and A also between MDA(RBC) with urea/creatinine and K level A, finally GSH(RBC) with Ca concentration in the same group. while that the MDA(WBC) with K level B in both groups.

Table (11):correlation results between oxidative stress markers and biochemical

Parameters.

Correlation		Control		Patients	
		R	P	R	P
Catalase	Creatinine A	0.398	0.001	-0.300	0.027

Results

	Na A	-0.018	0.940	0.485	0.000
	K B	-0.149	0.543	-0.272	0.047
MDA (WBC)	Creatinine B	-0.160	0.489	-0.404	0.002
	Creatinine A			-0.350	0.009
	Na A	-0.901	0.000	0.351	0.009
	K B	-0.404	0.002	-0.273	0.045
MDA (RBC)	Creatinine B	-0.125	0.589	0.280	0.041
	Urea/creat B	0.216	0.089	-0.293	0.032
	GFR B	-0.023	0.885	0.269	0.022
	K A	-0.189	0.438	-0.392	0.003
GSH (RBC)	GFR B	-0.305	0.050	0.485	0.003
	GFR A			0.338	0.044
	Ca A	0.357	0.006	-0.329	0.015
ORAC	Na A	-0.718	0.000	0.331	0.014

II.2. Qualitative study of water in different area of Djamaa region

For the assessment of the role of water as a risk factor for CKD, In our experimental analysis of water we notice a significant elevated in the chloride and sodium levels in spring water of Rano and Sidi Omran compared to others studied spring water and control where a low level , We found that the extreme calcium and potassium concentrations have been recorded in Zaouia spring water compared to control and different study areas while all areas study represented a low iron and conductivity levels than control.

On the other hand , there is a significant increase in the chloride level in the Djamaa, Zawaliya and Sidi Omran area and the electrical conductivity in Djamaa and Tendla region compared to control ,other studied areas .

Results

In addition , high concentration of calcium ,sodium and potassium was recorded in Zawaliya, Zaouia, Tendla, Djamaa ,Tmerna and Marara areas than controls and FW but at close levels between regions there is no significant difference unlike SidiOmran have a highest calcium level compared to there. Also There was a few presence of iron in Marara area compared other region , but its concentration does not exceed the control.

Generally filtered water contains a very lower levels of electrolytes compared to control and all study areas .

II.2.1. Spring water analysis

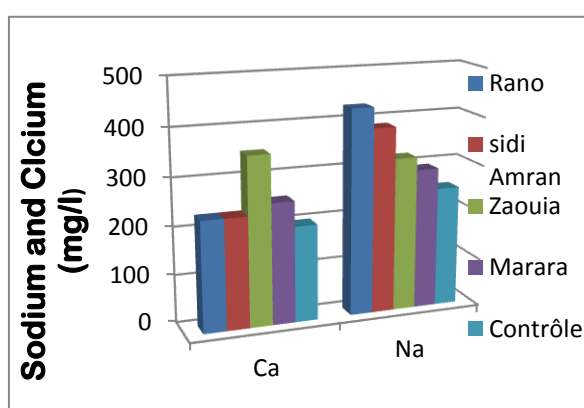


Figure11:sodium and calcium levels in Spring water

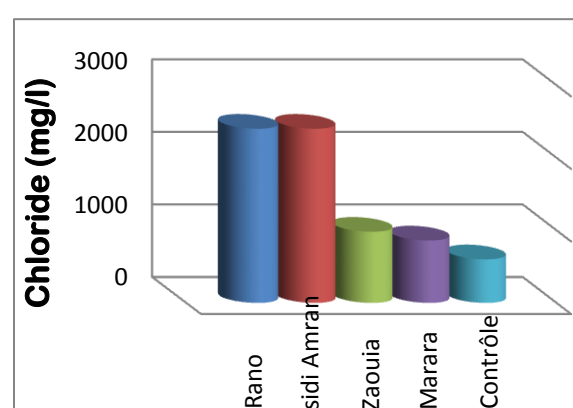


Figure12: Chloride level in spring water

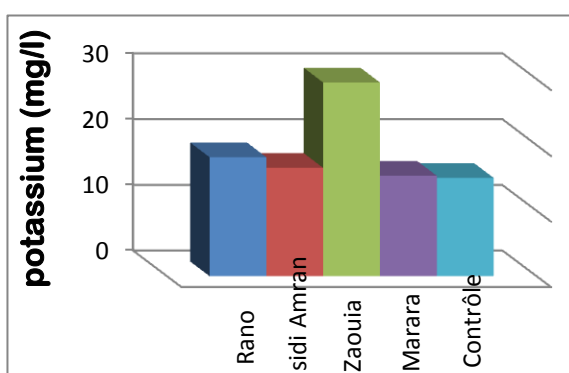


Figure 13: potassium level in spring water

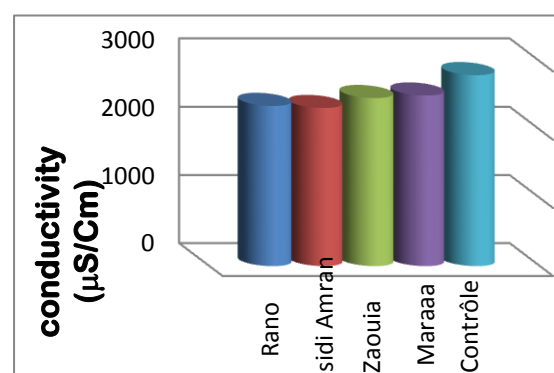


Figure14: conductivity values of spring water

Results

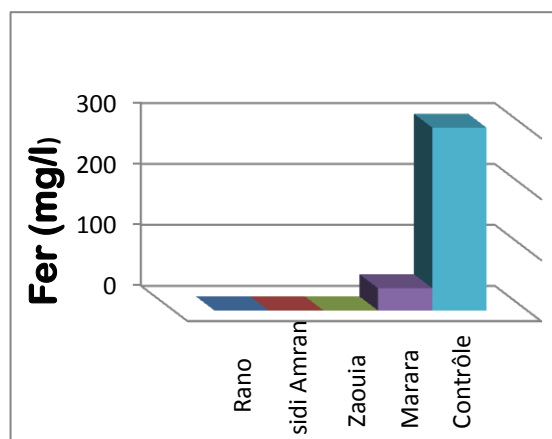


Figure15: Iron level in spring water

II.2.2. Tap and Filtered water

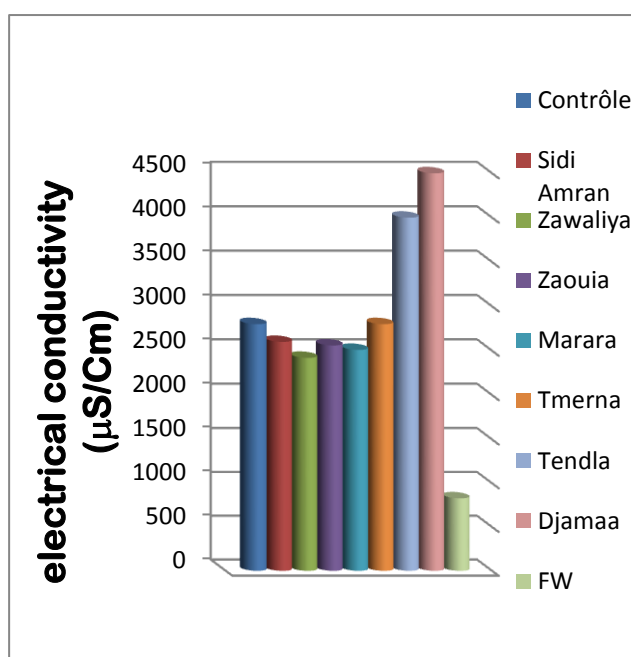


Figure16: electrical conductivity of

TW and FW

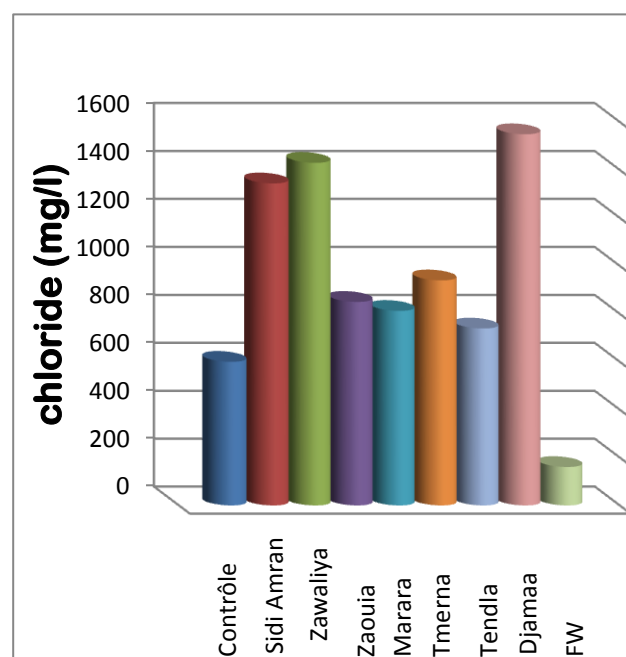


Figure17: chloride level of

TW and FW

Results

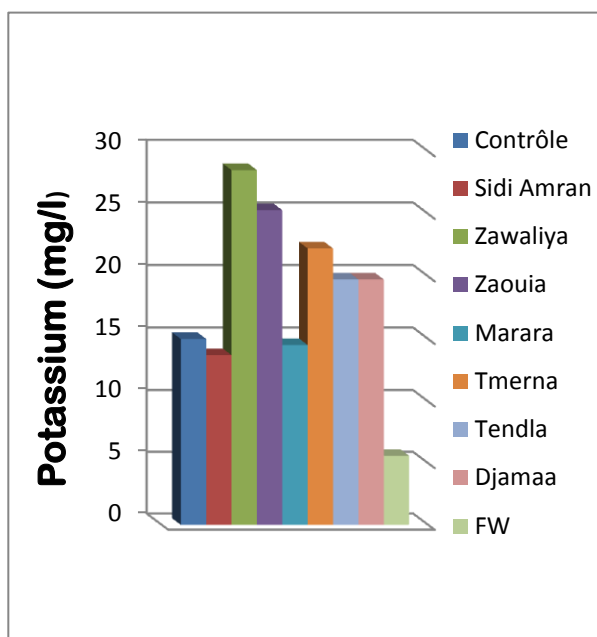


Figure18: potassium level in TW and FW

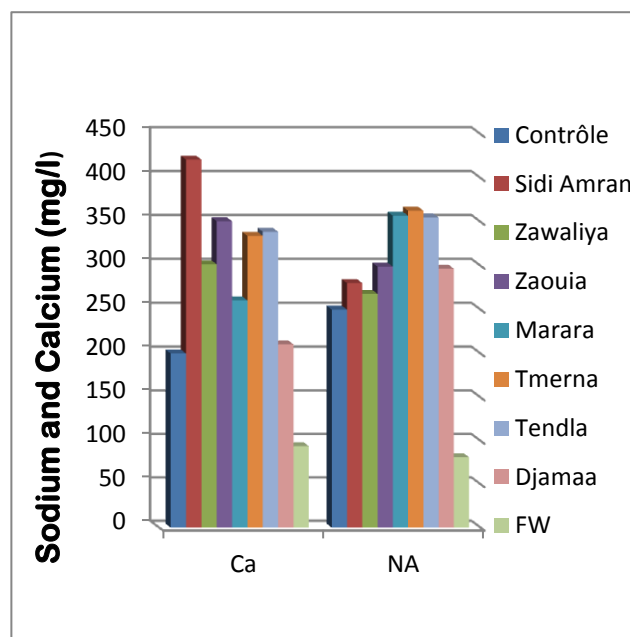


Figure 19:sodium and calcium levels in
TW and FW

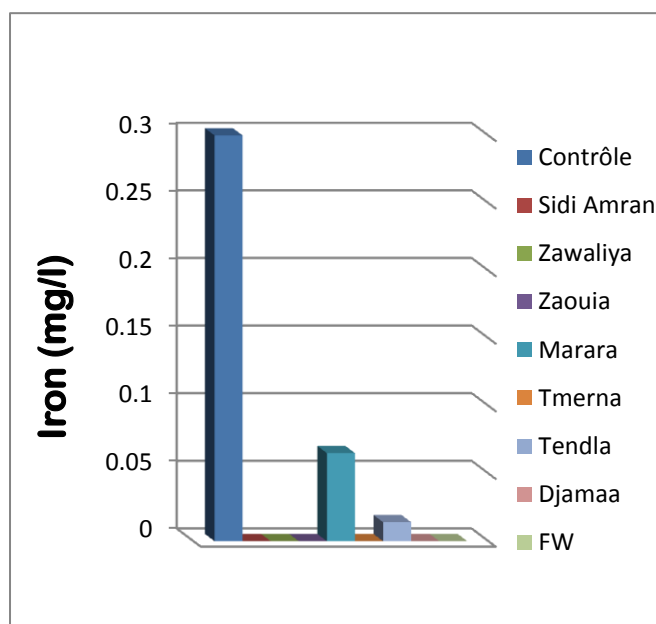


Figure20: Iron concentration in TW and FW

Results

II.3. Effect of water on renal function in rats

II.3.1. Biochemical markers

Concerning the biochemical markers results obtained show that a significant increase ($p < 0.05$) of urea and creatinine levels and a decrease of urea/creatinine report in experimental groups compared to control except FW group there is no significant change in urea concentration compared to control. (Figure 21).

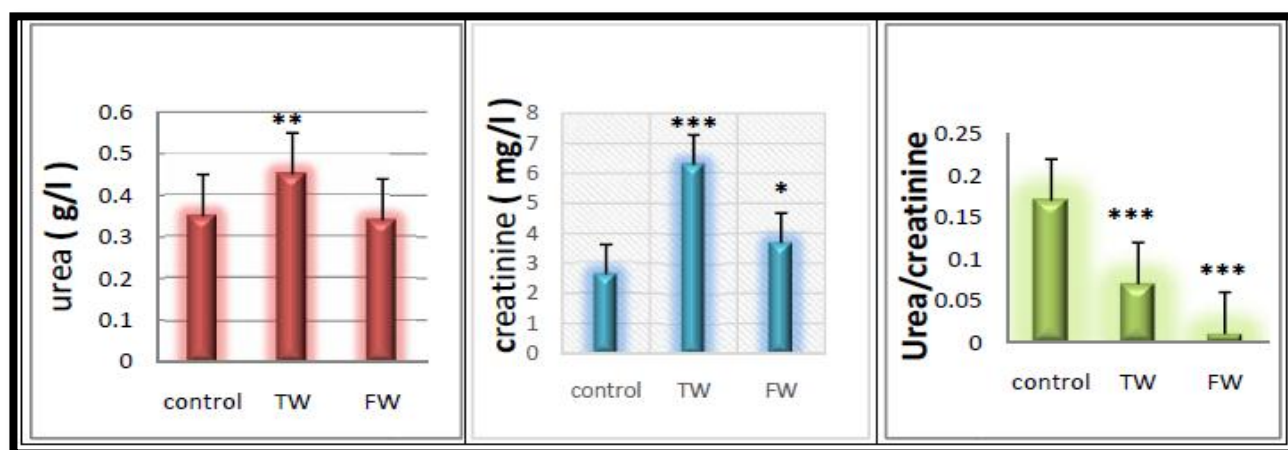


Figure 21: urea and creatinine concentration in serum rats of control and experimental groups. Comparison from control ($P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$).

Regarding the electrolytes level, our results showed a significant elevation ($p < 0.05$) in serum sodium level in TW group against control and a significant decrease ($p < 0.05$) in serum potassium and chlorine levels in TW and FW groups against controls. But there is no significant changes ($p > 0.05$) in serum sodium level in FW group than the controls (Figure 22).

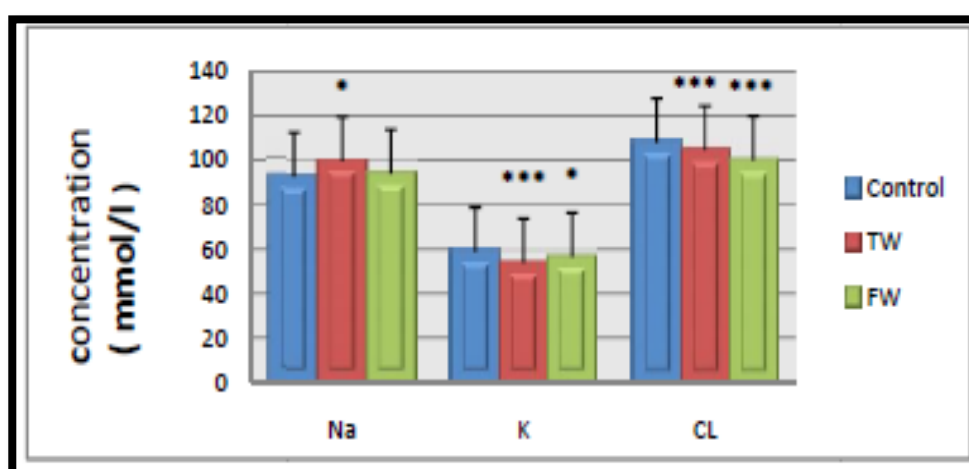


Figure 22: Electrolytes levels in serum rats of control and experimental groups. Comparison from control ($P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$).

Results

II.3.2. Hematological markers

On the basis of results obtained in Figures (23) shows a significant decrease ($p < 0.05$) of RBC, Hemoglobin, WBC and platelet level in TW group compared to control. However, in FW group the WBC and platelet levels are decreased compared to control but no significant variation concerning erythrocytes line.

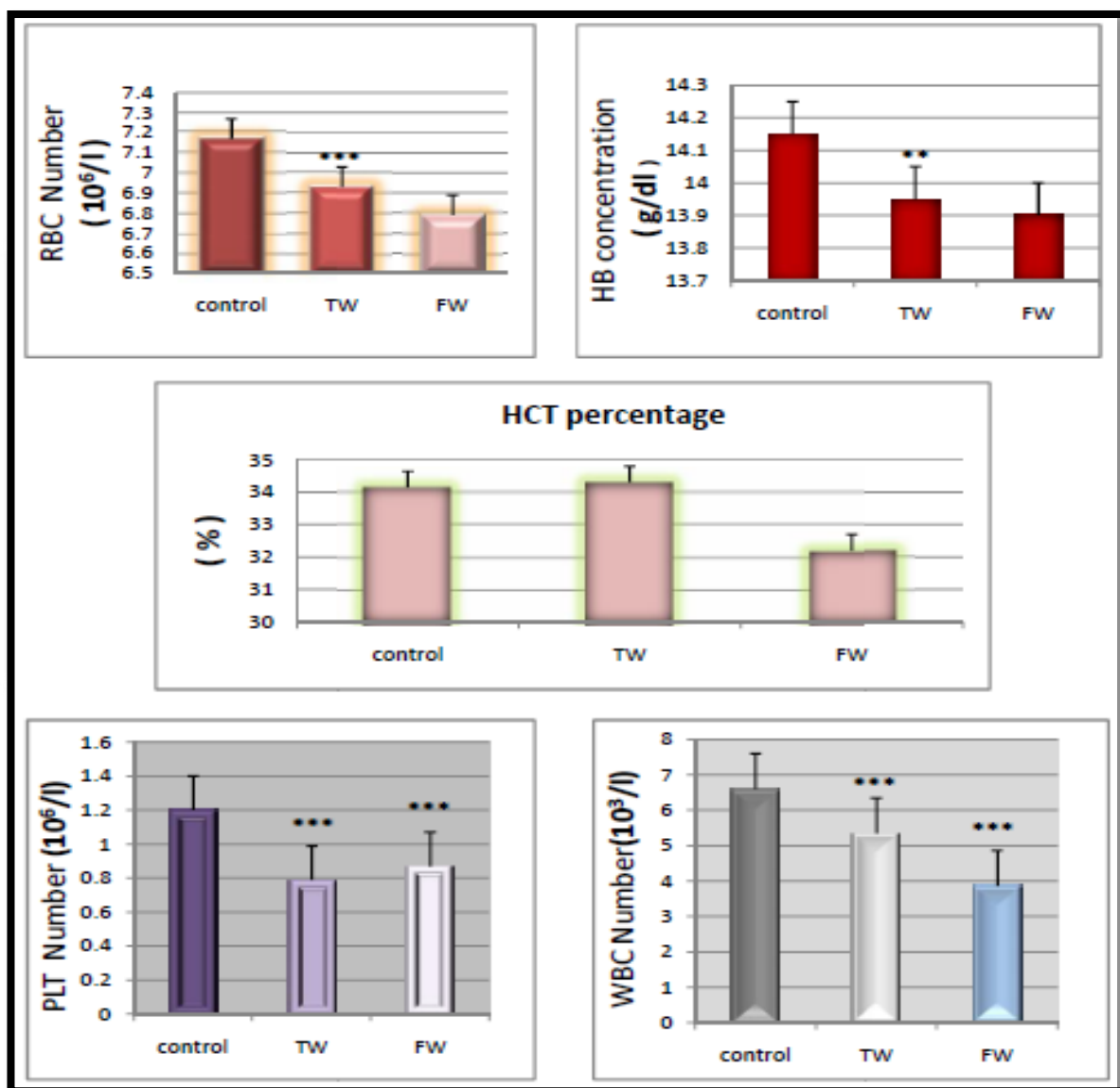


Figure23:Hematological markers Numbers in rats of control and experimental groups. Comparison from control ($P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$)

Results

II.3.3. Oxidative stress markers

Our results (figures 24,25,26) show that a significant increase ($p < 0.001$) of MDA level and decrease ($p < 0.05$) of GST and SOD activities in TW and FW groups and a significant decreased ($p < 0.05$) of GSH concentration and catalase activity in TW and increase for catalase activity only in FW group compared to control.

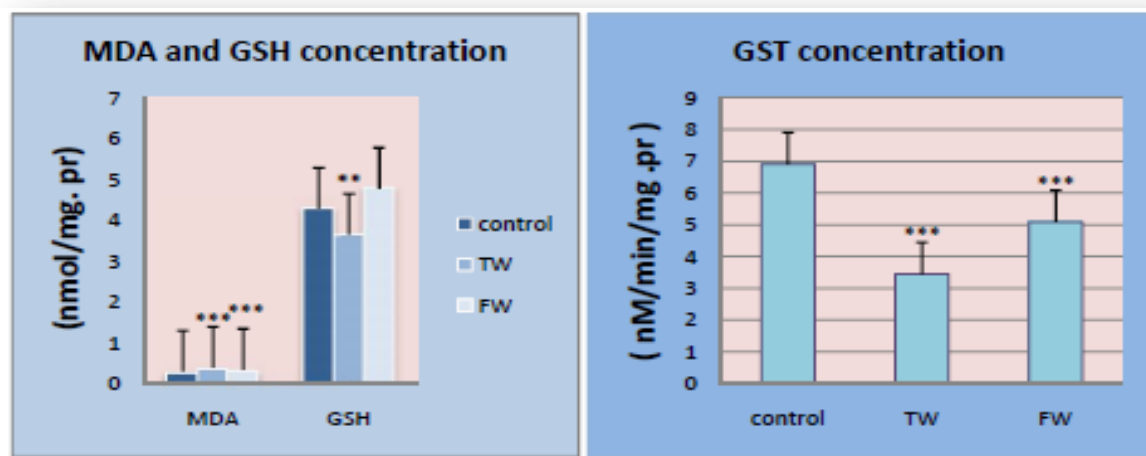


Figure24:MDA and GSH concentration in

Figure25: GST activity in kidney

kidney of control and experimental rats groups. of control and experimental rats groups.

Comparison from control ($P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$).

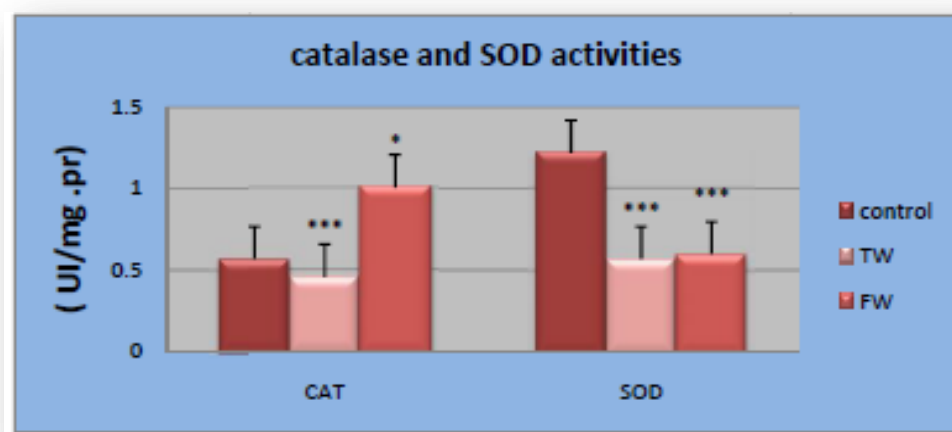


Figure26: catalase and SOD activities in kidney of control and experiment rats groups.

Comparison from control($P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$).

Discussion

Discussion

III. Discussion

III.1. Patients study

III.1.1. study of protective and risk factors of chronic kidney disease

Our study obtained some risk factors are associated with chronic kidney disease. Where show that the diabetes and hypertension are a principals causes for the chronic kidney disease , as study of Hwang *et al* (2010) which based on National Health Insurance(NHI)databased showed diabetes, hypertension were associated with a higher risk of developing CKD .

Diabetes mellitus (43.2%) and hypertension (8.3%) are major underling renal disease of ESRD in 2007,according to the registry of Turkish society of nephrology diabetic patient constitute 37.3% of hemodialysis population in turkey and depend on the USRDS data, half of the new ESRD patient in the united states have diabetic nephropathy (Kazanciog,2013). So, Diabetes mellitus has become the first leading cause of ESRD by outnumbering CGN since 2000 (Hwang *et al*,2010), Approximately 30% of patients with diabetic nephropathy eventually progress to end-stage renal failure, and the rest usually die from cardiovascular disease before reaching end stage (Atkins ,2005).

The relation sheep between hypertension and renal disease is showed in a direct consequence of altered renal development (Valerie *et al*,2010) and progression loss of kidney function If hypertension is superimposed on intrinsic kidney disease, (Janice *et al*, 2002) or a cumulative process resulting from other effects programming such as diabetes which superimposed to reduced nephron number (Valerie *et al*,2010) . It is possible that diffuse arteriosclerosis which is associated with hypertension can have a direct influence on the kidney to decrease filtration and indirect influence on the kidney by way of decreased defusion which can result in elevated creatinine level and increased risk (Shulman *et al*,1989)

Concerning rheumatoid arthritis we obtained that rheumatoid arthritis is higher risk factor for chronic kidney disease ,such as in study of Kariet *et al* (2008) who said the chronic kidney disease was highly prevalent in there population of RA patients, nearly half of RA patients are presenting a kidney disease according NKF classification . in addition, Hsien-Yi Chiu *et al* (2015) study is investigated for the cause of renal disease in RA patients, it is demonstrate that the risk of development the CKD , GN and ESRD are attributable to nephrotoxic pharmacotherapy and chronic inflammatory state as demonstrated by elevation of various growth factors, inflammatory mediators, and/or inflammatory markers, such as C-reactive

Discussion

protein (CRP), interleukin-6, tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) and renal amyloidosis (Hyun Woo *et al*,2014).

The study of Latony a *et al* (2014) is combined between RA disease characteristics and CVD associated factors which appear to play a role in reduced kidney function

Our study showed that the urinary problems and History of kidney disease is a health risk factor for chronic kidney disease .Holmgren *et al* (1987) concluded that with staghorn calculi , urinary infection and impairment of renal function are at risk of development of terminal renal failure. Concerning study of Eleftheria *et al*(2014) said the CKD is results by other causes as glomerulonephritis , interstitial nephritis , polycystic KD .

Urinary tract infection (UTI) is a bacterial infection of the urine ($> 10^5$ colony-forming units/ml of urine) .Which may Involve the kidney (pyelonephritis) . Whose patients have an increased risk of associated kidney damage scarring which can result in renal failure (David *et al*,2011) . Pyelonephritis is still one the major causes of end-stage renal disease (ESRD) although bacterial infection has become of lesser importance in this respect in the last 10-15 years (Holmgren *et al*, 1987).Suma *et al* (2003) resulted that kidney stone may play a role in the development of chronic kidney disease .According to Kidney Foundation of Canada [KFC] (2015) that a kidney stone can develop when certain chemicals in the urine form crystals that stick together , larger stones may block the flow of urine or irritate the lining of the urinary tract . It's factors risk of CKD characterized by multiple cysts in both kidney (Edgr *et al*,2015) .

Glomerulonephritis stands out as the major cause of renal failure (Kincaid-Smith,1980).These disorders which cause inflammation and damage the kidney are the third in line of ailments that cause CKD (Edgr *et al*, 2015) . However the alternative in progressive forms of glomerulonephritis is death from renal failure (Kincaid-Smith,1980) .

Tubulo-interstitial nephritis describes a range of pathological processes that are at least partly responsible for progression of renal disease of nearly all etiologies(Colin *et al*, 1992). According to Choi *et al* (2000) chronic tubule-interstitial injury (CTI) including tubular atrophy and interstitial fibrosis represents one major determinant for the progression renal chronic disease regardless of cause .

Nephrosclerosis is an umbrella term defining changes in all compartments of the kidney these lesions are accompanied by tubule-interstitial inflammation and fibrosis that predict the decline of renal function (Alain,2014) .

Discussion

With regard to Disease before CKD are higher risk factor for CKD as study of Eleftheria *et al* (2014) showed the major causes of ESRD was diabetic nephropathy (19.5%), hypertensive nephropathy (13.8%), chronic interstitial nephritis (11.4%).

Hypertension also accounts for up to one fifth of end-stage renal disease in developing countries, and for chronic kidney disease affecting 7% of the world 's population, and at even greater proportions in developing countries. (Kemiet *et al*, 2014). the prevalence of hypertension is significantly higher in people with CKD (50-60%) (Couser *et al*, 2014), this disease may cause renal disease or may accelerate the loss function in kidney by several changes of morphology nephrosclerosis (Saulo, 2015). Previous studies have also show a link between insulin resistance hypertension which are represent a higher risk of developing CKD (Ophius *et al*, 2013), the insulin resistance plays a central role in a metabolic syndrome and is associated with increased risk for CKD (Leyking *et al*, 2014).

The metabolic syndrome and its components are associated with the development of CKD, microalbuminuria, and overt proteinuria (Leyking *et al*, 2014). The presence of microalbumin in urine is a now recognized as a risk marker for CKD and its complication in humans (Ophius *et al*, 2013), also the risk of mortality ,myocardial infraction and progression to kidney failure associated with a given level of eGFR are independently increased in patients with higher levels of proteinuria (Brenda *et al*, 2015).

In addition , we obtained for the Renal herbal medicine and drugs nephrotoxic are important risk factors for the chronic kidney disease .Within study to Bagnis *et al* (2004) Herbal medicine may be a risk for the kidneys, various renal syndromes were reported after the use of medicinal plants. powdered plant extracts may be intentionally adulterated by other drugs.

The active Principe of herbal drugs derived from aristolochia species is aristilichic acid (AA) which was shown to be nephrotoxic in humans and rabbits (Stefanovi, 2002). so the toxic effects of aristolochic acid have been inferred from effects see in a result of using herbal containing aristolochia species (IARC ,2002)

The study of Perazella (2009) show Renal injury and clinical renal failure can occur through a variety of mechanisms after administration of different therapeutic agents. Also, Most forms of parenchymal kidney injury can progress to CKD. Focusing on chronic tubulointerstitial nephritis, several agents are more commonly associated with CKD, including combination analgesics (phenacetin, NSAIDS, caffeine), 5-ami-nosalicylic acid (mesalamine), aristolochic acid-containing herbal remedies.(Perazella, 2003)

Discussion

Our result obtained that salty foods is protective factor from chronic kidney disease . depend on Nephron Dial Transplant ,(1998). The responses from the 2400 nephrologists were in favor of sodium for all patients ; 33% patients with excessive weight gains and 38% for only a few selected patients . Sodium profiling is a technique used by nephrologists regarding patients with side effects during dialysis.(Stiller *et al*, 2001)

In our study it was observed that the soft drinks is a protective factor. Where it can be source of clean water , carbohydrates and other nutrients in many parts of the world whose human body require about 1 to 2 liters of water a day for good health and basic survival(Shachman ,2004).In addition to that soft drinks can hydrate as well as water and other beverages , who to help your body retain water (regular tap water),The citrate contained in soda help to inhibit the formation of kidney stones. (Paramita R., 2017).

Our result showed that spice is a protective factor for chronic kidney disease . According to Fazelet *al* (2011) Curcumin treatment at the doses of 10 and 20 mg/kg (intraperitoneally) showed significant nephroprotective effects. The study results by Tirkey *et al* (2005) and Bayrak *et al* (2008) showed that curcumin through an antioxidant activity effectively salvaged Cs A nephrotoxicity . such as in study the Anurag *et al* (2007) who said curcumin treatment significantly and dose-dependently restored renal function , reduced lipid peroxidation and enhanced the levels of reduced glutathione and activities of superoxide dismutase and catalase .In general, herbals and spice have high antioxidant concentration that have the potential to inhibit the oxidation of LDL (Tapsell *et al*, 2006).

III.1.2. Biological parameters study

III.1.2.1. Biochemical markers

Urea is the waste product made in the body breaks down proteins(Kidney Health Australia ,2018) and creatinine is product of dephosphorylation of creatine during the muscle contraction and filtered by proximal tubule and secreted out by kidney in urine(Andrew *et al*, 2013),the loss of kidney filtrations declines of GFR and less excretion of wastes results an accumulation of urea and creatinine in blood (Renal Resource Centre, 2012).HD is one of the renal replacement therapy where body waste product like urea, creatinine and free water are removed from the blood, when the kidneys are impaired. by the diffusion of solutes through a semi permeable membrane(Amin *et al*, 2014).

Our results showed a significant increase of serum urea and creatinine levels and very decrease in GFR before dialysis and clear reduction of serum creatinine after dialysis but the serum urea no significant decrease.

Discussion

During dialysis urea and creatinine being small molecules flow through membrane into the sterile solution and is removed due to the counter-current flow of blood and dialysate and removed more urea and creatinine from the blood.(Mahomoodally and Nugessur, 2014), also other study showed that HD not only failed to lower blood ammonia from hydrolysis of urea ,it significantly increased its blood level post dialysis by a mechanisms currently unknown (Vaziri et al, 2016), so according to the serum urea level cannot be used to monitor the renal function in CKD patients but may be indicate non renal influence.(Annamala et al,2016)when several conditions studied which lead to protein breakdown and resultant increased urea excretion, whether it be feeding a protein-rich diet was associated with increases in all five urea cycle enzymes proportional to the increase in urea synthesis(Robert , 1963). Routinely used for diagnosis of CKD are serum creatinine and urea levels but they are considered as late indicators because a 33% decrease in Glomerular filtration rate (GFR) (Divya et al, 2015).

When elevated levels of serum creatinine usually indicates reduced GFR so serum creatinine rises in CKD patients and reduced GFR is relatively higher proportion (Supatra,2013).Moreover, the rate of decline in glomerular filtration and progression of CRF is related to underlying disorder as protein urinary excretion and hypertension (Lippincott,2007).

III.1.2.2. Electrolytes level study

Our study obtained a significant increase in serum Na and Ca levels before and after dialysis and serum K level increasing before dialysis but it decreased after dialysis in patients group compared to controls. The kidney plays an important role in regulation electrolytes, when it is impaired electrolytes imbalance appears (zhengfalei, 2013), the ability of the kidney to excrete Na decrease, salt sensitivity increase so the most end stage renal disease (ESRD) patients are hypertensive while the Na is the dominant factor of hypertension in ESRD (Seoung , 2012). So the disequilibrium syndromes were maintenance hemodialysis patients preferred and vociferous by attributed to electrolytes imbalance (Michael, 2000)when the difference of Na concentration between plasma and dialysate occurs because plasma water constitutes only 93% of total plasma whereas it is 100% of total dialysate volume (Flavio et al, 2004). Moreover, the determination of dialysate Na concentration is one of the challenges of dialysis prescription, where too low dialysate sodium is responsible for interdialytic intolerance symptoms.(Antonio et al, 1999) therefore the high sodium intake has been directly related to high water consumption and consequently to expansion of extracellular volume and high levels of interdialytic weight gain(Sibel et al.,2017). Add to the Na is impermeable solute which induced the movement of water loss across cell membrane where the net water loss and

Discussion

hypertonic sodium gain so cellular dehydration (Horacio and Nicolaose, 2000). In addition, the relatively high Na and lactate content of some dialysis solution with various tonicities and electrolytes composition predisposes to hypernatremia and alkalosis (Henry *et al*, 1971).

Moreover the prevalence of hyperkalemia in hemodialysis patients was reported to be about 8.7-10% depending on individual center (Choi *et al*, 2013), most patients with ESRD depend HD to maintain levels of serum K and other electrolytes within a normal range, (Adriana *et al*, 2015) during dialysis the cause of hypokalemia was a rapid shift of K from the extracellular to intracellular space secondary to correction of acidosis (Leopoldo and Carl, 1981), also the dialysate's K concentration is lower the blood K levels, serum K leave the blood and enter the dialysate or bath by crossing over the dialyser membrane where the serum K level to drop (Donna, 2006). A consequently hypokalemia can occur in HD patients post dialysis treatment and is a life threatening condition as it may cause ventricular dysarrhythmias (Jennifer *et al*, 2012).

Concerning the increased serum Ca level after dialysis was revealed by dialysate and dialysis solution Ca concentration and it occurs in pathogenesis of arrhythmias during dialysis (Najla and Amar, 2016) when the manipulations of dialysate Ca concentration enable alteration in Ca blood which impact on serum Ca, phosphate, PTH and most likely soft tissue calcification (Nigel *et al*, 2006). The most cases of hypercalcemia among patients with ESRD are iatrogenic as a result of treatment with Ca containing phosphate binders and vitamin D receptor activating medication (Charles, 2015). Add to hypercalcemia occurs in up to 10% to 15% in abnormal glomerular and tubule and nephrolithiasis patient, where macrophage within sarcoid granulomas can to synthesize calcitriol by activating vitamin D. (Moysés-Neto *et al*, 2006).

III.1.2.3. Hematological parameters

According to our results which showed that a significant decrease in RBC, HB and HT and a significant increase of WBC and Granulocytes number as study of Abdullah and Abbas, 2012) which demonstrated a significant lower number of RBC, HB and HT in CKD patients compared to controls. Anemia in ESRD is almost universal can be caused by erythropoietin, iron and vitamin deficiency or blood loss and shortened red cell life span (Haythem *et al*, 2014). Moreover it is a common and often early complication in CKD (Karra *et al*, 2019) when mostly due to diminished production of erythropoietin (EPO) which is a primary regulator of RBC and mostly produced by renal epithelial cells (Suresh *et al*, 2012) so the decrease of EPO production caused by destruction of EPO producing fibroblasts of kidney interstitial fibrosis

Discussion

and the overall reduction of renal mass (Zhian *et al*, 2009), also the RBC show increased membrane lipid peroxidation, reduced membrane fluidity and increased osmotic fragility which contributed to low grade hemolytic anemia (Paul *et al*, 1995) or the low iron and vitamin B12 or folate levels can caused anemia in HD patients because they are needed to make their HB and RBC by its (National Kidney Foundation [NKF], 2012).

In addition, the malnutrition, oxidative stress and inflammation when the contact the blood and dialysis membrane during HD where the release of cytokins (TNF α , IL $_6$, IL1) and hyporesponsiveness of erythropoiesis-stimulating agent (ESA) all implicate in the pathogenesis of anemia (Andreas *et al*, 2018). On another side, the activation of immune system during HD treatment with various dialyser membrane as a inflammatory statue which contributed by WBC elevation (Azar and Hamid, 2006). Furthermore, in HD patients the increased level of HLA-DR expression on APC as (macrophage, B cells and dendritic cells) often found in response to stimulation and therefore also is a marker for immune stimulation (Eli'sio *et al*, 2010).

III.1.2.4. Oxidative stress study

Our study obtained a significant variation of oxidative stress parameters when GSH level and Catalase activity have an estimated decreasing with significant specificity of GSH (32%, AUC=31%) and increasing of MDA in erythrocytes of CKD patients against to controls. Oxidative stress is contribute to development and progression of CKD and the associated complications including atherosclerosis, cardiovascular disease, erythropoietin-resistant anemia, immune deficiency (Yonova *et al*, 2018). Study of Mehryar and Omid (2015) proposed that a loss or inactivation of antioxidant factors as GSH is coupled with increased of lipid peroxidation in erythrocytes of HD patients where the MDA was increased significantly in CKD so it a good indicator for oxidative stress evaluation (Ramchandra *et al*, 2012) a especially in erythrocytes which is well know as a marker of ROS overproduction and increased lipid peroxidation (Jacek R *et al*, 2013) while that the MDA is a end product of it. also, studies have demonstrated that patients with other disease have a higher level of MDA in erythrocytes than in plasma.. (Jung Won *et al*, 2010) when the level of lipid peroxidation was significantly increased in erythrocytes membrane in nephropathy patients. (Anuradha and Selvam, 1989). The elevation of lipid peroxidation in erythrocyte membrane induce to decrease of erythropoietin (EPO) levels and their antioxidative effect (Zorica *et al*, 2012). Add to decreased of antioxidant enzymes which contributed by a significant delay in elimination of ROS could be the reason of high MDA level in erythrocytes of HD patients (Farzaneh *et al*, 2012). Moreover oxidative breakdown of biological phospholipids occurs in

Discussion

most cellular membrane RBC while the toxicity of lipoperoxidation products in kidney of mammals involves nephrotoxicity (Marisa and *al*, 2012).

Furthermore, reduced GSH is the most important intracellular scavenger of free radicals as a reductant in oxidative reactions.(Hale et *al*, 2005)and catalase is a tetrameric peroxidase enzyme which converts H_2O_2 to water and molecular oxygen.(Ram et *al*,2004).

The antioxidants agents such as (catalase ,GSH) were decreased in CKD patients as a diabetic complication(Noori et *al*, 2017), a diminished both enzymatic (catalase) and non enzymatic antioxidant (GSH) in plasma of CKD patients below the normal level may indicated the disturbance of cellular redox-status so the risk of oxidative damage.(Vinothkumar et *al*, 2017)when this oxidative status was in kidney tissus (reduction in GSH and catalase)and increase in MDA level lead to activating apoptosis so there are played important role in development and progression of CKD (Abdelaziz et *al*, 2015). part of the oxidation burden originates in inadequacy of body's key antioxidant enzymes such as (catalase) with reduced function in kidney disease which causes oxidative stress leads to inflammation ,at same time increased superoxide production occurs related to increased NADPH enzyme activity.(Richard ,2006).

On another side, several assay that can measured total antioxidant capacity of serum such as FRAP and ORAC (David , 2010), its can measured the antioxidant capacity of foods and water soluble antioxidant compounds can interact with different ROS sources (David and Seema, 2010), also FRAP assay a powerful test for determination of total serum antioxidant capacity in the body.(Mohammad et *al*, 2007).

Our results represented a significant ORAC and FRAP increasing in patients groups with high significant specificity (87% ,AUC= 77% and 73% ,AUC=85%) respectively compared to control but a significant increase in ORAC of after dialysis patients and in FRAP of before dialysis patients which demonstrated for the presence of oxidant stress status before and after dialysis , as Antolini et *al* (2004) study which showed that to total antioxidant power measured with FRAP and ORAC paradoxically increased in CKD patients. So the chronic renal failure (CRF)was characterized by a peroxidant state and deferent value of antioxidant compounds as vitamin C which increased in plasma of HD patients (Clermont et *al*,2000). Moreover, recent report demonstrated that the predialysis FRAP was higher in patients compared with healthy controls and it decreased after HD than perdialysis.(Jacek et *al*, 2009)a consequently of our results there is a oxidant stress status after dialysis because before dialysis due to relatively higher antioxidant level as (uric acid , vitamin E and GSH) where a balance of oxidants and antioxidants but after dialysis, the removal of antioxidants, an imbalance occurs which is a major cause of cellular oxidation (Kadkhodae et *al*, 2008).

Discussion

Furthermore, the water soluble metabolic antioxidants (uric acid, bilirubin) eliminated during dialysis can increased of antioxidants concentration and modified the equilibrium of oxidized and reduced states also lipid and water soluble antioxidants. (Malliaraki et al, 2003) however, it caused by semipermeable dialyser bioincompatible membrane during dialysis which associated with uremia, production inflammation ,leucocytes activating , pro-inflammatory cytokines and secretion of myeloperoxidase and NADP^+ so ROS increasing production (Adeyemi et al, 2018).

III.1.2.5. Study of correlation between biological markers

Our correlation results between oxidative stress markers and biochemical parameters represented in table10 which clarify a significant positive correlations ($p < 0.05$) between catalase activity and creatinine level and between GSH (RBC) and Ca concentration in control group but a significant negative correlation ($p < 0.01$) between MDA(WBC) with Na level and between ORAC and Na level in the same group

Concerning patients group there are a significant positive correlations ($p < 0.05$) between catalase activity, MDA(WBC) and ORAC with Na level A and MDA(RBC) with creatinine B and GFR B, also between GSH (RBC) with GFR B and GFR A. Furthermore a significant negative correlations ($p < 0.05$) between catalase activity with creatinine A and K level B, MDA(WBC) with cratinine B and A also between MDA(RBC) with urea/creatinine and K level A, finally GSH(RBC) with Ca concentration in the same group. while that the MDA(WBC) with K level B in both groups.

Regarding our correlation results between oxidative stress markers and biochemical parameters which clarify a significant correlation in control and patients groups which prove by Significant correlation between plasma hypatocyte growth factors which its elevation may have a renal origin that aims to protect kidneys from necrosis in patients and creatinine may suggest the presence of a relation between the renal function and plasma oxidative stress statue with the hypatocyte growth factors production (Maryam et al, 2010). In addition, Serum creatinine level was significantly elevated in hypertensive patients when the marker of oxidative stress was increased in the same group (Farzana et al, 2015), an example in Pregnancy Induced Hypertension (PIH) patients PIH associated with increasing in MDA level and decreasing in calcium ,creatinine ratio which associated with endothelial cell dysfunction (Babli et al, 2014).

Concerning the electrolytes imbalance is as a result of oxidative stress damaging the erythrocytes which in turn reduce the activity of Na^+ , K^+ ATPase in ESRD which is the main enzyme regulating the movement of electrolytes between serum and RBC's affected due

Discussion

to a raise in the oxidant stress damaging the erythrocytes membrane (Jaiprakash,2014). In fact, The increasing lipid peroxidation and oxidative stress as well as they reflected electrolytes imbalance hence increased MDA serves as a significant marker for the identification of disease(Mahmood et al,2018) whereas Sodium depletion increased several renal antioxidant enzymes consistent with a stress response to increased ROS production(Michael et al,1999).Moreover a positive relationship of CAT and MDA and negative relationship between CAT ,MDA and increased K^+ level where the repairing of damage due to oxidative stress was associated in the deferent antioxidant enzymes in optimum K^+ levels and MDA , CAT levels are decreased (Hosseinet al, 2010).

Furthermore, The inflammation is associated with oxidative stress when found in MDA level augmentation in progression of CKD (Meenakshiet al,2013). Reduced eGFR was associated with higher systemic CRP and IL6 concentration (Elisabet, 2012) which are a markers of systemic inflammation which leads to endothelial dysfunction and tissues damage by increased lipid peroxidation and MDA level(Rohitaet al, 2014). Also When renal GSH concentration diminished the renal parameters measured suffered deleterious modification while that the fall in GSH tissue levels was accompanied by parallel reductions of GFR (Adrianaet al,1986).

Moreover , the perturbation of Ca^{+} homeostasis is considered a very important aspect of chemically induced cell injury and it correlated with a variety of cellular characteristic including changes in cell surface and permeability ,GSH and protein thiol status and loss of activity mitochondrial dysfunction due to permeability transition(Donald,1997) as well as the hyperthyroidisme as a result of damaged mobilization of Ca^{+} which leads to reduced blood Ca^{+} rat which induced dysfunction of the respiratory chain in mitochondria when lead the generation of free radical that will lead to oxidant stress (Niko R et al.,2016).

III.2.Qualitative study of water in different area of Djamaa region

With regard to the electrical conductivity are very high level in the water of the study area and the center distribution of water , with a value superior to the WHO standard 2500 $\mu S/cm$ which about 4000 $\mu S/cm$. As study of Idir et al (2018) showed waters in the Djamaa region are in contact with a lithology rich in evaporates, reveal an excessive mineralization, expressed by very high electrical conductivity values, oscillating in most cases between 2520 and 11970 $\mu S.cm^{-1}$, Significant and variable levels of mineral elements have been observed. According to Houari and Nezli (2018) , The extreme values of electrical conductivity have been recorded in Djamaa (8300 $\mu S.cm^{-1}$) . Conductivity reflects the mineralization of water

Discussion

(Benrabah et al, 2016) and has the higher level of ionic concentration activity due to excessive dissolve solid(Yirdaw et al, 2016) .

Our results obtained have a very high calcium level which is very higher compared to the WHO standard 200 mg /l . As study of Zobeidi et al (2013) the calcium levels show high concentration exceeding potable standards (204 to 260 mg/l),it is the main urinary risk for calcium stone. Extremely hard water (hardness > 500 mg/l) is also unfit for consumption because the constituent mineral such as Ca^{+} can deposit inside the body if present in high amounts leading to kidney stone (Mahajan et al, 2006)where the Calcium stone is most common type of kidney stone which occurs in about 70% -80% of case . they are usually composed of Ca^{+} (Edgar et al, 2015).

In addition , we obtained for the Sodium is a high level in the water of the study area with ranging from 208 to 428.5 mg/l . As recording to Tifrani et al (2016) the measured sodium concentration exceed 200mg/l WHO approval , with values obtained at an average of 263 mg/l . In fact, High sodium intake may also exert direct effects on CKD progression , independent of blood pressure(Wang Yu et al, 2011). This is consistent with our experimental study on rats , there is a significant increase in serum sodium level in the group that drank the tap water (TW) compared to the control group. The study of Neri et al (1985)show the high level of sodium is a big risk factor of CVD . According to Thomas et al (2008) the several cardiovascular risk factor associated with CKD are unique to patients with this disease. High level of serum sodium could also affect endothelial function via $\text{TGF-}\beta_1$ which play an important role in the progression of CKD (Ying et al (1998).

In our study it was observed that the potassium is a high level in the major water of study area and the center distribution of water with ranging from 29.48 to 15.33. As recording to Sekkoum et al (2012) show that the potassium is not in the standards of potability of water , with values obtained at an average of 29 mg/l . However, filtered water contains a low potassium level on average 5.36 mg/l when the Potassium plays a crucial role for sufficient functioning of the heart(Palmer et al, 2016). Infants and older may be at higher risk for high potassium levels(Water Health Organization[WHO] 2009). High potassium is a risk factor of CVM , arrhythmia and heart failure(Liesa et al, 2018).

In our experiments on rats we observed that there was a slight decrease in the level of potassium when the rats group drank filtered water at an average 56.46mmol/l compared to the control group (58.91 mmol/l) , but extreme decrease recorded in the tap water group (53.87 mmol/l)while study of Checherita et al (2011) show that 70,11% present arrhythmias

Discussion

in hyperkalemia groups and 75,92% in hypo K cases and conclude that K below on above normal represent the major cause in arrhythmias appearance also The study of David Weinr (1997) show that the ventricular arrhythmias are a second cardiovascular side –effect of hypokalemia . Arrhythmias is a risk factor for cardiovascular diseases (Paul et al, 2011).Hypokalemia has been associated with an increased frequency of ventricular arrhythmia (Philip, 1990). Furthermore, Potassium deficiency changes the function of many organs and significantly affects many organs in the body as well as kidneys. Hypokalemia also impairs the kidneys ability to concentrate the urine maximally(Mujais et al, 1992)when hypokalemia is accompanied by enhanced renal cystogenesis and many lead to interstitial scarring and renal insufficiency (Torres et al, 1990).

With regard to the chloride is a very high level in the water of the study area and the center distribution of water , with a value superior to the standard norm Algerian of 500 mg/l which about 2400 mg/l. As recording to Zobeidi et al (2013), the measured chloride concentration exceed 250mg/l WHO approval , with values obtained at an average of 320 to 1264mg/l.

In addition , we obtained for the Iron is a very low level in the water of study area with ranging from 0 to 0.065 mg/l . As recording to WHO (1996) the health concentration of iron in the water should be no more than 0.3 mg/l . The iron is an essential element in the human body where it installs oxygen transport proteins such as hemoglobin or myoglobin (Do Well et al, 2003). The primary causes of iron deficiency include low intake of bioavailable (Nazanim et al, 2014).Through the results obtained by Rebrcca (2012) , we conclude that ground water can provide an inexpensive and sustainable source of bioavailable iron. Based on Dutra et al (2007) study and the results obtained , water is an essential element of iron in the body and improves as well as growth. Perutz (1982) concluded that iron is essential to hemoglobin structure and function.

III.3. Effect of water on renal function in rats.

III.3.1. Biologicals markers study

The results of animal study indicate a low level the HB in two groups TW and FW compared to control. The study of Jeffery L.M (2013) show that hemoglobin is the most iron-containing protein in the red blood cells . therefore anemia is characteristic of iron deficiency when Hemoglobin induced anemia may cause renal dysfunction caused by low oxygen delivery , which exacerbates renal dysplasia wich in turn leads to interstitial renal injury and

Discussion

fibrosis (Mehdi et al, 2009). Studies indicate that low levels of Hb in patients with anemia may increase the risk of kidney disease (New JP et al, 2008).

Our study showed a significant variations in oxidative stress markers where the quality of drinking water has a major influence on public health and prolong exposure to contaminated water has been known to increase the risk of disorders in kidney (Wasana et al, 2017). Among the common environmental toxins associated with CKD are heavy metals while The kidney is a target organ in heavy metal toxicity for its capability to reabsorb and concentrate divalent ions and metals, the acute kidney injury (AKI) by heavy metals diverge from CKD for the mechanism of toxicity (Paolo et al, 2017), so industrial environmental contamination of groundwater recognized as an important source of exposure that may result in kidney disease (Peter et al, 2010). Heavy metal and their salts are considered as very important group of environmental pollutant such as the water who it's toxicity has been attributed to oxidative stress (Iwan et al, 2015) which may be caused by excess contaminant water exposure and its toxicity such as a lead exposure which produce toxic effects on animal tissue (Derouiche et al, 2017). The environmental pro-oxidant pollutants induce free radical formation which contribute to oxidative stress which can produce major interrelated derangements of cellular metabolism, damage membrane permeability and destruction of cells by lipid peroxidation (Balahoroğlu et al, 2008).

Our results represent a significant increased in MDA level and decreased in antioxidant parameters such as GSH concentration, GST, SOD and catalase activities in TW group these results are in agreement with results of Inkielewicz. et al (2008) that found The concentration of GSH and CAT, SOD activities are decreased in kidney of experimental animals exposed to some toxic products in their drinking water. Several study showed that a mineral of fluore produce a decrease in activity of antioxidant enzymes such as (GSH, GST, SOD and catalase) when the free radical produced (Iwona and Narcyz, 2012) and oxidative stress which have been implicated in the pathogenesis of toxic elements such as fluor intoxication by increase of lipid peroxide level and decrease of SOD and catalase activities in kidney (Ranjan et al, 2009). Moreover, other toxic products of drinking water (disinfectants) may induce to oxidative stress in mammalian cells and occure intracellular imbalance more susceptible to oxidative damage (Jing et al, 2006).

Discussion

In addition, The increase in conductivity and richness in inorganic ion (K^+ , K^{+2} , Na^+ and Mg^{+2} ; in TW influences metal bioavailability and toxicity and water chemistry parameters strongly influence toxicity of metals to organisms (Oluwafikemi et al, 2017) where the ionicity in drinking water by deferent electrolytes is one of the risk factors which cause CKDu (Kumari et al, 2016). However The high calcium intake in tap water increases the urinary calcium concentration such as enhanced risk for renal stones also indicated by increased of calcium citrate index (Vincenzo et al, 1999). Furthermore, least part of hyperosmotic stress lead to proteins and DNA damages which are caused by secondary oxidative stress when the hyperosmolality increases ROS and carbonylation in renal inner medulary cells (Dietmar, 2004; Zhang et al, 2004). Also the sodium fluoride caused oxidative stress and apoptosis in soft organ which was accompanied by increasing ROS and MDA levels and decreasing mRNA expression levels and activities of SOD, CAT, GSH and GST (Azab et al, 2018). The increased of oxidative stress in water pollutant patients which demonstrated by increased levels of MDA and inhibition of antioxidant enzymes when the accumulation of ROS contributed the renal insufficiency and necrosis (Wasana et al, 2016).

Concerning FW group which contained hypersperse 700-11 (HPS) as a xenobiotic demonstrated a significant increasing of MDA levels and catalase activity and deceased in GST, and SOD levels against the control. where Mohammad et al (2004) explain that the stimulation of free radical production induced lipid peroxidation and disturbance of total antioxidant capability of human and animals body are mechanisms of toxicity in most xenobiotics which are chemical compounds foreign to the body such as drugs, food additives and environmental pollutants (Dibyajyoti, 2014). The exposition of a xenobiotic toxic, the antioxidant enzymes decreased when the ROS increased which modulates the generation of oxidative stress (Derouiche et al, 2017).

Also the study of Iwona and Narcyz (2012) demonstrated a greater risk of oxidative stress and kidney damages during exposure to xenobiotics in drinking water. Currently the water borne xenobiotics can be uptake via deferent tissues and capable to contribute to oxidative stress when overexpression of ROS and inhibition of antioxidant enzymes activity and associated with cell dysfunction (Mario et al, 2017). The defense mechanisms of antioxidant (GSH, CAT, GST and SOD) can be subverted by xenobiotics that induce the production of excessive of untimely free radicals and result in damage to macromolecules including DNA (Rana, 1997). So xenobiotics can induced oxidative stress results in decreasing the antioxidant capacity GST and SOD and increasing in lipid peroxidation and catalase activity

Discussion

by alteration the expression of antioxidant enzymes which leading to disruption of the cell function(Sapna et *al*,2015).

Conclusion and prospects

Conclusion

Chronic kidney disease is a worldwide public health problem with a high prevalence and continuity, so it is necessary to determine the main cause and find means of early diagnostic and prevention against this disease. In our study we investigated several risk factors to limit which one is most likely to cause CKD.

Our socioeconomic and clinical risk factors study demonstrated Diabetes, urinary problems, HTA, history of kidney disorder, renal herbal medicine, nephrotoxic drugs and disease before CKD are considered to be a very important risk factors for CKD. Which inspire us to prevent and maintain the health status of the individual while that additive soft drinks, spices, Amount of water and Salty foods are protective factors for CKD in study population.

The variation of creatinine and electrolytes levels after dialysis indicates for ineffectiveness of hemodialysis where it have a directly effects of dialysate solution and dialyser membrane on cellular osmolarity. Also we found a variation of hematological parameters where the decreasing of erythrocytes line and increasing of white blood cells and granulocytes while its favor the anemia and immune response appearance as CKD complication.

As consequently, creatinine and hematological parameters are a most prognostic markers and hemodialysis is not only and effective solution of treatment the CKD.

Other results illustrate a variation of catalase activity and GSH level where indicates a existence of oxidative stress status which contribute to imbalance of antioxidant defense system and overexpression of free radicals and leads to cells membrane alteration and disease progression.

Therefore, the erythrocytes GSH level, serum ORAC and FRAP activities are shown to be a predictive and a new reliable markers for CKD, while that it demonstrated in our study by the significant correlation between oxidative stress and biochemical parameters of kidney disease where we can suggested and insert this markers into the analytical diagnostic list for prediction of disease concerned. And include the antioxidant treatment in the list of treatment and prevent of CKD.

On the other hand, our results showed a variation on electrolytes levels and some minerals concentration on some types water of deferent areas in Djamaa region which indicates that this variation depending nature of area and the quality of water installation.

As conclusion the use of tap water and filtered water affects the biochemical and hematological parameters and even the renal stress parameters in rats which shows the effect of this type of water as a major risk factor for kidney failure.

Prospects

based on the results of our study, we hope to take these results into account:

- Conduct in-depth studies on other specific risk factors.
- Reduce the use of the types of water studied in our work and find an alternative.
- The inclusion of certain biological parameters studied in the diagnosis of CKD.

Bibliographical references

Bibliographical references

1. Abd ElHafeez, S., Davide, B., Graziella, D., Evangelia, D., Giovanni, T.,and Carmine, Z. (2018). Prevalence and burden of chronic kidney disease among the general population and high-risk groups in Africa: a systematic review .BMJ Open. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2016-015069
2. Abdelkader, A., and Hamid, C. (2013). Biodiversity of fruit species in the valley of Oued Righ: the case of the area of Touggourt (Algeria). *Fruits*, 68(1), 33–37.
3. Abdullah, K.A., and Abbas H.A. (2012). Hematological changes before and after hemodialysis . *Scientific Research and Essays*, 7(4), 490-497.
4. Abdelfatah, B. (2008). Problèmes d’hybridation et dégâts dus aux moineaux sur différentes variétés de dattes dans la région de Djamâa. MEMOIRE DE FIN D'ETUDES En vue de l’obtention du Diplôme d’Ingénieur d’Etat en sciences agronomiques. UNIVERSITE KASDI Merbah-OUARGLA. 1-121.
5. Adeyemi, O., Akinwumi, A.A., Oluseyi, A.A., Tosin, T.O., and Damilola A.A. (2018). Changes in antioxidant status associated with haemodialysis in chronic kidney disease. *Ghana Med J*, 52(1), 29-33.
6. Adriana M. Hung, MD, MPH, and Raymond M. Hakim, MD (2015). Dialysate and Serum Potassium in Hemodialysis. *Am J Kidney Dis*, 322(2).
7. Adriana, M.T., Joaquin, V.R., Elena, J.O., and Monica, M. E. (1986). Rat kidney function related to tissue glutathione levels. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 35(19), 3355-3358.
8. Agarwal, R. (2003). Proinflammatory effects of oxidative stress in chronic kidney disease: role of additional angiotensin II blockade. *Am J Physiol Renal Physiol*, 284, 863–869.
9. Alain, M.(2015).Nephrosclerosis: update on a centenarian ; Université Paris-Descartes, Paris, France and Département de Néphrologie, Hôpital Georges Pompidou (AP-HP), Paris, France .*Nephrol Dial Transplant*, 30, 1833–1841.
10. Allan, G. (2016). A Chronic kidney disease (CKD) Toolkit for primary care . Provincial Primary Care Lead, ORN. University of Toronto.1-62.
11. Amin, N., Raja T.M., M. Javaid, A., Mudassar, Z., and Asad, M. R.(2014).Evaluating Urea and Creatinine Levels in Chronic Renal Failure Pre and Post Dialysis: A Prospective Study. *Journal of Cardiovascular Disease*, 2(2).
12. Aminu, K.B., Emeka, N.,and A. Meguid, N. (2005). Prevention of chronic kidney disease: A global challenge. *Kidney International*, 68(98), 11–17 .

13. Amy, S., and Craig, W. (2010). Risk Factors for Progression of Chronic Kidney Disease. *Curr Opin Pediatr*, 22(2), 161–169.
14. Andreas, S., Christiane, D., Vera, K., Detlef, H.K., Hubert, S., Markus, P. S., and Christoph, W. (2012). The Effect of High-Flux Hemodialysis on Hemoglobin Concentrations in Patients with CKD: Results of the MINOXIS Study . *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*, 7, 52–59.
15. Andrew, C.S., Naing, L. H., David, A.C., and Robert, L.B. (2013). A Surviving Patient with Record High Creatinine . *Open Journal of Nephrology*, 3, 217-219.
16. Andrew, H.S., Sarah, C., Serge, C., Jonathan, E., Natalie, F., Isuru, G., Catherine, L., Hervé, P.L., Joanna, W., and Jessica, Q. (2016). ISFM Consensus Guidelines on the Diagnosis and Management of Feline Chronic Kidney Disease. *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery*, 18, 219–239.
17. Andrew, S.L., Kai-Uwe, E., Yusuke, T., Adeera, L., Josef, C., Jerome, R., Dickde, Z., Thomas, H.H., Norbert, L., and Garabed, E. (2005). Definition and classification of chronic kidney disease: A position statement from kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO). *Kidney International*, 67, 2089-2100.
18. Angela, C.W., Evi, V.N., Rachael, L.M., and Philip, M. (2016). *Chronic Kidney Disease* . Elsevier Ltd, 389(10075) .
19. Ann, A., Charlene, C., Art, F., Marcie, G., Carolyn , J., Ruth, K., Maureen, S., and Linda, S-W. (2016). The Chronic Kidney Disease Prevention Strategy in Michigan. *National Kidney Foundation of Michigan*. 1-7.
20. Annamala, P.T., Preethy, M. S., and Anusha, A.M. (2016). Relationship between Serum Creatinine, Cystatin-C and Creatinine Clearance in Chronic Kidney Disease . *IOSR Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences (IOSR-JDMS)*, 15(6), 112-114.
21. Antolini, F., Valente, F., Ricciardi, D., and Fagugli, R.M. (2004) . Normalization of oxidative stress parameters after kidney transplant is secondary to full recovery of renal function . *Clinical Nephrology*, 62.(2), 131-137.
22. Anton, C.S., Michael, M.E., Thomas, H.H., Kathy, H.R., Dolph, C., William, M.M., David, G.W., Frank, V. (2006). Chronic Kidney Disease: A Public Health Problem That Needs a Public Health Action Plan . *Public Health Research , Practice and Policy* , 3(2).
23. Antonio, B., Bernard, B., and Thierry, P. (1999). Sodium Management in Dialysis by Conductivity . *ACKD*, 6(3), 243–254.
24. Anuradha, CV., and Selvam, R. (1989). Increased lipid peroxidation in the erythrocytes of kidney stone formers. *Indian J Biochem Biophys*, 26(1), 39-42.

25. Anurang, K., Sangeeta, P., Sameer, S., Naveen, T., and Kanwaljit, C. (2007). Effect of Curcumin on Inflammation and Oxidative Stress in Cisplatin-Induced Experimental Nephrotoxicity. *India J AgricFood Chem*, 55, 10150–10155.
26. Atieh, M., Mohsen, N., and Zahra, S. (2015). Oxidative Stress in Chronic Kidney Disease . *Iranian journal of kidney diseases (IJKD)*, 9, 165-79 .
27. Atkins, R. C. (2005).The epidemiology of chronic kidney disease .Department of Nephrology, Monash Medical Centre, Clayton, Victoria, Australia . *Kidney International*, 67(94), 14–18.
28. Azab, E.A., M. Omer, A., Jbirea, J.M., and Almokhtar, A.A.(2018). Sodium Fluoride Induces Hepato-Renal Oxidative Stress and Pathophysiological Changes in Experimental Animals. *Open Journal of Apoptosis*, 7, 1-23.
29. Azar, B., and Hamid, N. (2006). Association between with blood cell count and levels of serum homocysteine in end-stage renal failure patients treating with hemodialysis . *J Ayub Med Coll Abbottabad*, 18(1), 1-5.
30. Azura Vascular Care (2017). Everything You Need to Know About an Arteriovenous Fistula. Online <https://www.azuravascularcare.com/infodialysisaccess/arteriovenous-fistula/>
31. Babli, Y., Sangita, P., and Sumitra, Y. (2014). Evaluation of Oxidative Stress and Urinary Calcium Creatinine. *Global Journal of Medical research*, 14(1), 1-3.
32. Bagnis, C.I., Gilbert Deray, Alain, B., Moglie, L.Q., and Jean, Louis V. (2004).Herbs and the Kidney .*American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, 44(1), 1-11.
33. Balahoroglu, R., Haluk, D., Hanefi, Ö., İrfan, B., and Mehmet, R. Ş.(2008). Protective effects of antioxidants on the experimental liver and kidney toxicity in mice . *Eur J Gen Med*, 5(3), 157-164.
34. Bayrak, O., Ebru, U., Reyhan, B., Faruk, T., Ali, F. A., Sahin, S., Mehmet, E. Y., Arif, K., Ersin, C., and Ali, A. (2008).Curcumin protects against ischemia/reperfusion injury in rat kidneys . *World J Urol*, 26, 285–291.
35. Beauchamp, C., and Fridovich, I. (1971). Superoxide dismutase: Improved assays and an assay applicable to acrylamide gels. *Analytical Biochemistry*, 44(1), 276-287.
36. Benrabah, S., Attoui, B., Hannouche, M. (2016). Characterization of groundwater quality destined for drinking water supply of Khenchela City (eastern Algeria). *Journal of Water and Land Development*. DOI: 10.1515/jwld-2016-0016.
37. Brenda, R.H., Braden, J.M., Anita, L., Matthew, T.J., Scott, K., Robert, R.Q., Natasha, W., and Marcello, T. (2010). Relation Between Kidney Function•Proteinuria, and Adverse Outcomes .*JAMA*, 303(5), 423-429.

38. Brendan, P.C., Lori, H., Leah, E.G., Michael, S., Shannon, L.S., and Louise, M.M. (2018). Educational Support Around Dialysis Modality Decision Making in Patients With Chronic Kidney Disease: A Qualitative Study. *Canadian Journal of Kidney Health and Disease*, 5, 1–9.
39. Carissa, S. (2018). Dialysis. 1-3. Online <https://www.healthline.com/medical-team>
40. Carlos M. O., Raúl H., Miguel A., Elsy G. B., Carlos E. H., Héctor B., Juan C. A., Denis J. C., Patricia O., Rosa M. C., María E. V., Sonia G. N., Verónica M. C., Bertha E. C. (2011). Chronic Kidney Disease and Associated Risk Factors in the Bajo Lempa Region of El Salvador: Nefrolempa Study, 2009. *MEDICC Review*, 13(4), 14-22.
41. Checheriță, I.A., Cristiana, D., Diaconu, V., Ciocâlteu, AL., Lascăr, I. (2011). Potassium level changes – arrhythmia contributing factor in chronic kidney disease patients . *Rom J Morphol Embryol*, 52(3), 1047–1050.
42. Charles, P.V. (2015). High Calcium Levels Raise Risk for Death in Dialysis Patients. *MEDSCAPE EDUCATION CLINICAL BRIEFS*. 1-2. Online <https://www.medscape.org/viewarticle/840622>
43. Chen, J. (2002). Analysis of water environment in the Xinjiang arid region. *Arid Environ. Monitor*, 16, 223-227.
44. Choi, H. Y., and Kyu, S. H. (2013). Potassium Balances in Maintenance Hemodialysis . *Electrolyte Blood Press*, 11, 9-16.
45. Choi, YJ., Chakraborty, S., Nguyen, V., et al (2013). Peritubular capillary loss is associated with chronic tubulointerstitial injury in human kidney : altered expression of vascular endothelial growth factor . *Humain Pathology*, 31, 1491-1497 .
46. Christine, D., Marijane, L., and Tim, J. (2017) . What You Need to Know About End-Stage Kidney Disease (ESRD) . *HEALTHLINE MEDIA*. 1-2. Online <https://www.healthline.com/health/end-stage-kidney-disease>
47. Claudio, R., and Lakhmir, S.C. (2019). Glomerular Filtration Rate, Renal Functional Reserve, and Kidney Stress Testing . *Critical Care Nephrology (Third Edition)*.
48. Clermont, G., Sandrine L., Jean-Jacques, L., Pascale, S., Catherine, V , D.C., Ge´rard, R., and Luc, R. (2000). Alteration in plasma antioxidant capacities in chronic renal failure and hemodialysis patients: a possible explanation for the increased cardiovascular risk in these patients. *Cardiovascular Research*, 47, 618–623 .
49. Clinical Guidelines for Kidney Transplantation (2018).
50. Colin, L.J., and Allison, A. (1992). Eddy . Tubulointerstitial nephritis . *Pediatr Nephrol*, 6, 572-586 .
51. Course Hero (2018). The superior surface of each kidney is capped by an adrenal gland the kidneys. *Lansing Community College, BOIOLOGY BIO 201*. Online

<https://www.coursehero.com/file/p6ao4maa/The-superior-surface-of-each-kidney-is-capped-by-an-adrenal-gland-The-kidneys/>

52. Courser, W.C., Giuseppe, R., Shanthi, M., and Marcello, T. (2011). The contribution of chronic kidney disease to the global burden of major noncommunicable diseases . *Kidney International*, 80, 1258–1270.
53. David, B.H., and Seema, B. (2010). Oxygen Radical Absorbance Capacity (ORAC) of Selected Foods. Nutrient Data Laboratory Home Page. 1-46.
54. David, C.(2010). On the measurement of circulating antioxidant capacity and the nightmare of uric acid . *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 2, 321–325.
55. David,J. (2012). Diagnosis, classification and staging of chronic kidney disease . *KIDNEY HEALTH AUSTRALIA*, Cari Guidelines. 1-31
56. David, I.W., and Charles, S.W. (1997).Hypokalemia-Consequences , Causes , and Correction. *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, 8(7), 1179-1188.
57. David, M.A., Allen, F.M., Leonard, G.G., John, P.S. (2011). . Urinary tract infection: definitions, incidence, and investigations: Infections and inflammatory conditions .*Oxford American Handbook of Urology*, 691, 133-154.
58. David, Y.G., David, L.C., and IAN, M.R. (2017) . Chronic Kidney Disease: Detection and Evaluation . *American Family Physician*, 96(12), 776-784.
59. David, W.J., Emelia, A., Maria, C., Richard, Ks.P., Clodagh, S., Nigel, D.T., Graeme, L.T., Tim U.W., and Kathryn, J.W. (2013). KHA-CARI Guideline: Early chronic kidney disease: Detection, prevention and management . *Nephrology*, 18, 340–350.
60. Davis, R. M., and Jr. Niu, T.S.M. (2005). Oxidative Stress and Antioxidant Treatment in Hypertension and the Associated Renal Damage. *Am J Nephrol*, 25, 311–317.
61. Derouiche, S., Zeghibe, K., Gharbi, S., and Khelef, Y.(2017). In-vivo study of stress oxidative and liver damage in rats exposed to acetate lead . *Int. Res. J. Biological Sci*, 6(9), 1-6.
62. Derouiche,S., Djermoune, M., Abbas, K.(2017). Beneficial Effect of Zinc on diabetes induced kidney damage and liver stress oxidative in rats . *Journal of Advances in Biology*, 10(1), 2050-2055.
63. Derouiche, S., Djouadi, A., Belimi, N., Louetri, K., and Hachefa, S. (2018). Blood Glucose, some Electrolytes Levels and Stress Oxidative Status of Female Hyperthyroid Patients under Treatment. *Journal of Advanced Research in BioChemistry and Pharmacology*, 1(1&2),1-6.
64. Dibyajyoti, S. (2014) . Role of Free Radicals, Oxidative Stress and Xenobiotics in Carcinogenesis by Environmental Pollutants . *Avances en Biomedicina*, 3(2), xx-xx.
65. Dietmar, K. (2004). Hyperosmolality triggers oxidative damage in kidney cells . *The National Academy of Sciences of the USA (PNAS)*, 101(25), 9177–9178.

66. Divya, D.B., Ganesh, M., Santhi, S.(2015). Assessing Proteinuria in Chronic Kidney Disease: Protein- Creatinine Ratio Vs Albumin-Creatinine Ratio . International Journal of Interdisciplinary and Multidisciplinary Studies (IJIMS), 2(9),1-4.
67. Djouadi, A., and Derouiche, S. (2017). Study of Fluoride-Induced Haematological Alterations and Liver Oxidative Stress in Rats. World Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, 6(5), 211-221.
68. Donald, J.R. (1997). Calcium. Clutathione. and therole of mitochondria in cellinjury and death. Advances in Molecular and Cell Biology, 20, 75-117 .
69. Donna, S. (2006). DaVita Clinical Education Team . Potassium Problems in the Dialysis Patient . DIALYSIS PATIENT CITIZENS. Online www.dialysispatients.org.
70. Douglass, T.D. (2008). eGFR and CKD (Estimated Glomerular Filtration Rate And Chronic Kidney Disease). 1-2.
71. Dowell, Mc. LR. (2003). Minerals in Animal And Human Nutrition. Amsterdam : Elsevier Science, 2ndEds.660.
72. Dutra-de-Oliveira, JE., Lamounier, JA., Almeida, CA., and Marchini, JS.(2007). Fortification of drinking water to control iron-deficiency anemia in preschoolchildren. Food and Nutr Bull, 28, 173-180.
73. Ebnesahidi, A. (2006). The urinary System . Pearson Education. 1-44.
74. Edgr, V.L., Sanjay, P., Elizabeth, A. L- R., and Coralie, T.C.D-D. (2015).Comprehensive Information About Prevention and Treatment of Kidney Disease . Book : Complete Guide for Kidney Patients (Save your Kidneys); 2eme Eds. 1-246. Online www.kidneyEducation.com
75. Eileen, D-W. (2007). Hemodialysis Access Update . Medical Dictionary for Health Consumers. 1-50.
76. Eleftheria, T., Vagia, B., Areti, S., Kostas, S., Michael, R., and Zacharias, Z.(2014).Causes and complications of chronic kidney disease in patients on dialysis. Health Science Journal, 8 (3).
77. Elisabet, N., Johanna, H-K., Ulf, R., Johan, S., Anders, L., Elisabeth, J., Samar, B., Erik, I., and Johan, Ä. (2012). Inflammation, oxidative stress, glomerularfiltration rate, and albuminuria in elderly men: across-sectional study. BMC Research Notes, 5(537), 1-7.
78. Eloise, A.L., Daniel, D.,and Raman, D. (2018). Function of the nephron and the formation of urine. Anaesthesia and intensive care medicine. Doi: 10.1016/j.mpaic.2018.03.001.
79. Elísio, C., Pereria, R., Gonçalves, M., Miranda, V., do Sameiro, F.M., Quintanilha, A., Belo, L., Lima, M., and Santos-Silva, A.(2010).Neutrophil and monocyte activation in chronic kidney disease patients under hemodialysis and its relationship with resistance to recombinant human

- erythropoietin and to the hemodialysis procedure: Neutrophil and monocyte activation and resistance to rhEPO therapy. *Hemodialysis International*, 14(3), 295–301.
80. Emmanuel, E., Pierre, M.G., Perrodin, Y. (2009). Groundwater contamination by microbiological and chemical substances released from hospital wastewater and health risk assessment for drinking water consumers. *Environ. Int.*, 35, 718-726.
 81. Enyu, I., and Seiichi, M. (2008) .Prevalence of CKD and Causes of ESRD in Asia . *The Lancet*, 371.
 82. Evangelia, D., Eleni, P., Areti, M., Kyriakos, I., Konstantinos, P. K., Alexandros, T., Kostas, C. S., and Dimitrios, T. (2006). Oxidative Stress Is Progressively Enhanced With Advancing Stages of CKD . *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, 48(5), 752-760.
 83. Farzana, M., Kamil, A. I., and Majid, A. (2015). Comparison of Serum Creatinine and Oxidative Stress in Normotensive and Hypertensive Obese Adults. *Journal of Islamabad Medical & Dental College (JIMDC)*, 4(2), 60-63.
 84. Farzaneh, M., Mohammad, H., Mansour, K., Houshang, S., and Madhurima, D. (2012). Evaluation of Lipid Peroxidation and Erythrocyte Glutathione Peroxidase and Superoxide Dismutase in Hemodialysis Patients . *Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl*, 23(2), 274-279.
 85. Fazel, S.N., Akbar, H. M., Shahram, E., and Seyed, M.N. (2012). Protective Effects of Curcumin against Sodium Fluoride-Induced Toxicity in Rat kidney. *Biological Trace Element Research*, 145(3), 369-374.
 86. Flavio, M.P., Aldo, J.P., Luciano, V.P., David, D., Pedro, J.M. P., and Sergio, F.F. S. (2004). Clinical consequences of an individualized dialysate sodium prescription in hemodialysis patients . *Kidney International*, 66, 1232–1238.
 87. GLOMERULAR FILTRATION RATE (2012). *Churchill's Pocketbook of Diabetes (Second Edition)*.
 88. Gohil, U.V., Mandaliya, V., Patel, MV., Gupta, SN., Patel, KB. (2013). Polyherbal treatment for chronic kidney disease – a case study . *Universal Journal of Pharmacy*, 2 (4), 44-47.
 89. Hackenmueller, S. (2013) . Laboratory Evaluation of Kidney Function . Department of Pathology, University of UTAH School of Medicine. Clinical Chemistry Fellow. Online <https://www.arup.utah.edu>.
 90. Hale, M. K., Meltem, O. D., Melih, T., Ceyla, E., and Hacı Kahya, Ö. (2005). Effects of Vitamins E, A and D on MDA, GSH, NO Levels and SOD Activities in 5/6 Nephrectomized Rats . *Am J Nephrol*, 25, 441–446.
 91. Hasan, E.A. (2008). Modeling of hemodialysis operation . The Requirements for the Degree of MASTER OF SCIENCE in Chemical Engineering. 1-91.

92. Haythem A. MJ.R., and Dr. Dhalal D. H. (2014). Assessment of hematological and biochemical parameters in hemodialysis patients and the impact of hemodialysis duration on hepcidin, ferritin and CRP . *Iraqi J. Hematology*, 3(2), 85-97.
93. Health Information Translations (2008). Hemodialysis. 1-3.
94. Helmut, S. (2007). Fluoridation of drinking water and chronic kidney disease: absence of evidence is not evidence of absence. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. doi:10.1093/ndt/gfm663
95. Henry, M. G., Ferguson, E.L., Sidhu, J.S., and Corbin, R.P. (1971). Fluid and Electrolyte Complications of Peritoneal Dialysis: Choice of Dialysis Solutions. *Ann Intern Med*, 75(2), 253-262.
96. Hewa, M.S. W., Gamage, D.R.K. P., Panduka, De S.G., Palika, S.F., and Jayasundera, B. (2017). WHO water quality standards Vs Synergic effect(s) of fluoride, heavy metals and hardness in drinking water on kidney tissues .*Scientific Reports*. Doi: 10.1038/srep42516
97. Holmgren, K., Bo, G. D., and Bengt, F.(1987). Infection-Induced urinary calculi and renal failure. The Departments of 'Urology and Internal Medicine, University Hospital, S-7.5185 Uppsala. Sweden . *Scand Journal of Urology and Nephrology*, 21, 219-223.
98. Horacio, J.A., and Nicolaos, E.M. (2000). Hyponatremia . *Massachusetts Medical Society*, 342(20) .
99. Hossein, S., Habibi, D., Ardakani, M.R., Paknejad, F., and Rejali, F. (2010). Effect of Potassium Levels on Antioxidant Enzymes and Malondialdehyde Content under Drought Stress in Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.). *American Journal of Agricultural and Biological Sciences*, 5(1), 56-61.
100. Houari, I.M., and Imed Eddine, N. (2018). Water Geochemistry for a Sand Aquifer of the Complex Terminal in the Northern Algerian Sahara (Case of the Lower Oued Rhir Valley). *AIP Conf. Proc*. Doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-70548-4_199.
101. Hsien-Yi, Ch., Hui-Ling, H., Chien-Hsun, L., Hung-An, Ch., Chia-Lun, Ye., Shih-Hsiang, Ch., Wei-Chun, L., Yu-Pin, Ch., Tsen-Fang, T., and Shinn-Ying, Ho. (2015). Increased Risk of Chronic Kidney Disease in Rheumatoid Arthritis Associated with Cardiovascular Complications – A National Population-Based Cohort Study . Emmanuel A Burdman, University of Sao Paulo Medical School, BRAZIL. *Plos One*, 10(9).
102. Hussein, A.M., Abdel Malek, H., and Mohamed, A.S. (2015). Renoprotective Effects Aliskiren on Adenine-induced Tubulointerstitial Nephropathy: Possible Underlying Mechanisms . *CANADIAN JOURNAL OF PHYSIOLOGY AND PHARMACOLOGY*. 1-31. Online <https://mc06.manuscriptcentral.com/cjpp-pubs>.

103. Hyun-Woo, K., Chang-Keun, L., Hoon-Suk, Ch., Jung-Yoon, Ch., Eun-Jung, P., and Jinseok, K. (2014). Effect of anti-tumor necrosis factor alpha treatment of rheumatoid arthritis and chronic kidney disease. *Rheumatology Int.* Doi:10.1007/s00296-014-3146-4
104. Hwang, S-J., JER-Chia, T., and Hung-Chun, C. (2010) . Epidemiology, impact and preventive care of chronic kidney disease in Taiwan . *Nephrology* ,15, 3–9.
105. IARC (2002). *Plants Containing Aristolochic Acid.*
106. Ibrahim A. G., A. Ahmed, H., and Awdah, M.A. (2014) . Assessment of Risk Factors for Chronic Kidney Disease in Saudi Arabia . *International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR)* , 3(7).
107. Idir, M.H., Imed Eddine, N., and M. Salah, B. (2018). Groundwater geochemistry of a Mio-Pliocene aquifer in the northeastern Algerian Sahara (Djamaa region). *AIP Conf. Proc.* Doi:10.1063/1.5039240.
108. Inkielewicz, I., Czarnowski, W., and Gdańsk, P. (2008). Oxidative stress parameters in rats exposed to fluoride and aspirin . *Research report Fluoride*, 41(1), 76–82.
109. Iwan, A. (2015). Effect of Heavy Metal on Malondialdehyde and Advanced Oxidation Protein Products Concentration: A Focus on Arsenic, Cadmium, and Mercury . *Journal of Medical and Bioengineering*, 4(4), 332-337.
110. Iwona, I-S., and Narcyz, K. (2012). Effect of exposure to fluoride and acetaminophen on oxidative/nitrosative status of liver and kidney in male and female rats . *Pharmacological Reports*, 64, 902-911.
111. Jacek, R., Robert, A. S., Adrianna, P., Michał, N., and Dariusz, N. (2009). Serum Antioxidant Capacity is Preserved in Peritoneal Dialysis Contrary to Its Robust Depletion After Hemodialysis and Hemodiafiltration Sessions . *Therapeutic Apheresis and Dialysis*, 14(2), 209–217.
112. Jacek, R., Piotr, B., Paweł, F., Małgorzata, M., Jan, B., Maciej, B. (2013). Effect of methoxy polyethylene glycol-epoetin beta on oxidative stress in predialysis patients with chronic kidney disease. *Med Sci Monit*, 19, 954-959.
113. Jaiprakash, M. (2014). Correlation between Oxidative Stress and Electrolytes in Diabetic End Stage Renal Disease. *Research Journal of Pharmaceutical, Biological and Chemical Sciences*, 5(3), 268-276.
114. Janice, P.L., and Susanne, B.N. (2002). Diabetes Mellitus and Hypertension: key risk factors for kidney disease . *Journal of The National Medical Association*, 94(8),

115. Jean-Louis, V. (1998). Misuse of herbal remedies : The case of an outbreak of terminal renal failure in Belgium (Chinese Herbs Nephropathy). *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 4, 9-13.
116. Jeffery, L. M. (2013). Iron Deficiency Anemia: A common and Curable Disease. *Cold Spring Herb Perspect Med*. Doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a011866.
117. Jennifer, L., Aida, V., Nasuralah, R., and David, M. (2012). A Quality Improvement Initiative: Matching Hemodialysis Patients Potassium Bath with Potassium Blood Values . *AMERICAN NEPHROLOGY NURSES ASSOCIATION* . Online www.annanurse.org
118. Jing, Y., Hui, L., Li-Hong, Z., Ya-Lin, Z., and Wen-Qing, L. (2006). Oxidative stress and DNA damage induced by a drinking-water chlorination disinfection byproduct 3-chloro-4-(dichloromethyl)-5-hydroxy-2(5*H*)-furanone (MX) in mice. *Mutation Research*, 609, 129–136.
119. Jung, W. S., Kyung, M. N., Hye, R. C., Sun, Y. H., Shin, W. K., Sang, W. Y., Chang, H. H., and Kyoung, C. P. (2010). Erythrocyte Malondialdehyde and Glutathione Levels in Vitiligo Patients . *Ann Dermatol*, 22(3), 279-283.
120. Kadkhodae, M., Mohammad, H., Maryam, Z., Rana, G., Fatemeh, M., Mitra, M-M., and Behjat, S. (2008). Assessment of Plasma Antioxidant Status in Hemodialysis Patients . *Therapeutic Apheresis and Dialysis*, 12(2), 147–151.
121. Karie, S., Gandjbakhch, F., Janus, N., Launay-Vacher, V., Rozenberg, S., Mai, S.U. B., Bourgeois, P., and Deray, G. (2008). Kidney disease in RA patients: prevalence and implication on RA-related drugs management: the MATRIX study . *Rheumatology*, 47, 350–354.
122. Karki, G. (2017). Physiology of urine formation . *Anatomy and Physiology, Excretion and Osmoregulation, Zoology* .
123. Karra, Z., Davendra, S., Kashmi, S., and Rani B. (2019). Study of hematological and coagulation parameters in renal failure patients undergoing hemodialysis. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 5(3), 47-51.
124. Kazancioğlu, R. (2013) . Risk factors for chronic kidney disease: an update . *International Society of Nephrology*, 3(4), 368–371 .
125. Kemi, B. T., and Albertino, A. D. (2014). Hypertension in Developing Countries . *Canadian Journal of Cardiology*, 30, 527-533.
126. Kent, T. L., Bagby, S. P., & Giraud, G. D. (2015). Maternal Adaptations to Pregnancy. *Knobil and Neill's Physiology of Reproduction*, 4th Eds. 1927–1955.
127. Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (2013). Chapter 1: Definition and classification of CKD . *Kidney International Supplements*, 3, 19–62.

- 128.Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (2005). Position Statement On The Definition and Classification Of Chronic Kidney . Kidney International, xx, xx-xx.
- 129.Ki-Chul, S., Seungho, R., Jong-Young, L., Sung, Ho L., EunSun, Ch., Young-Youl, H., Kyu-Beck, L., Hyang, K., and Christopher, D. B. (2016) . Urine Albumin/Creatinine Ratio Below 30 mg/g is a Predictor of Incident Hypertension and Cardiovascular Mortality . Journal of the American Heart Association. Doi: 10.1161/JAHA.116.003245
- 130.Kidney Foundation of Canada (2015).Living with reduced kidney function, 5th Eds. Onlinewww.kidney.ca .
131. Kidney Function Guide (2018). Kidney Functions - Kidney Disease Basics, Signs, Symptoms, Causes & Treatments. Online www.kidneyfunction.org.
- 132.Kidney Health Australia (2016) . An Introduction to Peritoneal Dialysis. Online www.kidney.org.au .
- 133.Kidney Health Australia (2018) .Kidney Disease Tests and Procedures . Online www.kidney.org.au .
- 134.Kim, A et *al.*, (2011).ANATOMYAND PHYSIOLOGY, Urinary system, Gross Anatomy of the Kidney
- 135.Kincaid-Smith, P.(1980). The Treatment of Glomerulonephritis. The Department of Medicine, University of Melbourne and Royal Melbourne Hospital, Victoria. Aust N. Z. J. Med, 10(3),340-345 .
- 136.Kristien, D., Asmin, A., Djalila, M., Ann, V.S., François, J., and Bert, B. (2018).Oxidative stress in chronic kidney disease. Pediatric Nephrology. Doi: 10.1007/s00467-018-4005-4.
- 137.Kumari, M., Rathnayake, R., Kendaragama, K., Gunarathna,M., and Nirmanee, K. (2016). Drinking water quality in chronic kidney disease unknown Aetiology (CKDu) . Int'l Journal of Advances in Agricultural & Environmental Engg. (IJAAEE), 3(1), 57-60.
- 138.Lakna (2017) . Difference Between Afferent and Efferent Arterioles . Molecular Biology & Biochemistry . Onlinewww.pediaa.com.
- 139.Larry, A. S. (2013).Vascular Access for Hemodialysis . Professor of Clinical SurgeryDivision of Vascular SurgeryMontefiore Medical CenterAlbert Einstein College of MedicineBronx, New York. 1-101.
140. Latonya, J. H.,Cynthia, S. C.,Sherine, E. G.,James, T. M., and Eric, L. M. (2014). Development of Reduced Kidney Function in Rheumatoid Arthritis . Am J Kidney Dis, 63(2), 206-213.
- 141.Leopoldo, R., and Carl, M.K. (1981). Severe hypokalemia induced by hemodialysis . Archives of Internal Medicine, 141(2), 167-170.

142. Levey, A.S., Atkins, R., Coresh, J., Cohen, EP., Collins, EJ., Eckardt, K-U., Nahas, ME., Jaber, BL., Jadoul, M., Levin, A., Powe, NR., Rossert, J., Wheeler, DC., Lameire, N., and Eknoyan, G. (2007). Chronic kidney disease as a global public health problem: Approaches and initiatives – a position statement from Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes . *Kidney International* ,72, 247–259 .
143. Leyking, S., and Danilo, F.(2014). Insulin Resistance in CKD . Division of Nephrology and Hypertension. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*, 9, 638–640.
144. Liesa, K. H., Dana, C. M., Wolfgang, K., Prudence, R. C., Hermann, B., and Ben, S.(2018). Association of Abnormal Serum Potassium Levels with Arrhythmias and Cardiovascular Mortality: a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Observational Studies . *Cardiovascular Drugs and Therapy*. Doi: 10.1007/s10557-018-6783-0.
145. Lippincott, W., and Wilkins. (2007). Chronic renal failure (end-stage renal disease). Brunner & Suddarth's Textbook of Medical-Surgical Nursing, 11th Eds. Online <http://www.nursing2007.com>.
146. Locatelli, F., Bernard, C., Kai-Uwe, E., Peter, S., Christoph, W., and Carmine, Z.(2003). Oxidative stress in end-stage renal disease: an emerging threat to patient outcome . *Nephrol Dial Transplant*, 18, 1272–1280.
147. Lokwood, W. (2018) .RENAL FUNCTION TESTS. Online WWW.RN.ORG .
148. Lydia, B. (2014). Renal transplantation in Algeria. *J Nephrol Ther*. Doi: 10.4172/2161-0959.S1.016.
149. Lynn, K. (2015). The Coding Dilemma of Arteriovenous (AV) Fistula Versus Graft. Online <https://libmaneducation.com/the-dilemma-of-arteriovenous-av-fistula-versus-graft/>.
150. Mahajan, R.K., Walia, T. P. S., Lark, B. S., and Sumanjit. (2006). Analysis of physical and chemical parameters of bottled drinking water, *International Journal of Environmental Health Research*, 16(2), 89-98.
151. Mahmood, R., Ahmad, R., Raazia, R., Malik, A., Muhammad A., Ahmad Z., Jabbar, A., Maryam Z., Muther, M.Q., Tahira, B.Q., Asim, M., Imran, R.M., Nawal, H., Mustafa, Z., Hani, Ch., Avi, H., Agarwal, A., and Mohammad, S. J. (2018). Inter-relationship of circulating biochemical markers of oxidative stress and comorbid condition in polycystic ovary syndrome. *Biomedical Research*, 29 (21), 3779-3783.
152. Mahomoodally, M.F., and Nugessur, H.(2014). Pre- and Post-Dialysis Correlations of Serum α -Amylase, Creatinine and Urea in Chronic Renal Failure Patients . *Journal of Medical Research and Development (JMRD)*, 3(2), 151-160 .
153. Malliarak, N., Dimitris, M., Marilena, K., Kostas, P., Andrew, N. M., and Elias C. (2003) . Total and corrected antioxidant capacity in hemodialyzed patients . *BMC Nephrology*, 4(4), 1-8.

- 154.Marianne, B. (2017).Urinary System Anatomy and Physiology. Online <https://www.google.com/amp/s/nureseslabs.com/urinary-system/%3famp>.
- 155.Marieb, E.N., and Hoehn, K. (1994).Human Anatomy and Physiology : Urinary system anatomy .Western Oregon University. 9thEds. Online <https://www.amazon.com/Anatomy-Physiology-Marieb-Elaine-Hardcover/dp/B00BP0OJZ#>.
- 156.Mario, A. B-A., Amit, C., Yoav, S., and Caterina, F.(2018). MicroRNAs and their role on fish oxidative stress during xenobiotic environmental exposures. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, 148, 995–1000.
157. Marisa, R., Jimena, S., and Alberto, B. (2012). Lipid Peroxidation: Chemical Mechanism, Biological Implications and Analytical Determination. *Doi.org/10.5772/45943* .
- 158.Mark, A. P. (2003) . Drug-Induced Renal Failure: Update on New Medications and Unique Mechanisms of Nephrotoxicity .*Am J Med Sci*, 325(6), 349-62.
- 159.Mark, A. P.(2009).Renal Vulnerability to Drug Toxicity .Section of Nephrology, Department of Medicine, Yale University, New Haven. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*, 4, 1275–1283.
- 160.Mark, K.W. (2013).So You're Thinking About Kidney Transplantation: A Patient and Family's Guide.Online http://www.amazon.com/gp/aw/d/B00RWUDY4K/ref=dbs_a_w_db_b00rwudy4k.
- 161.Maryam, Z., Mehri, K., Mitra, M-M., Rana, G., Mohamad, H., Behjat, S., Fereshteh, G., Keyvan, H., Mahbob, L-P., and Behzad, E. (2010).Oxidative Stress Status in Renal Transplant Recipients. *Experimental and Clinical Transplantation*, 1, 38-44.
- 162.Matthieu, L.,and Didier, P. (2011) . Understanding urine output in critically ill patients . *Legrand and Payen Annals of Intensive Care*. DOI: 10.1186/2110-5820-1-13.
- 163.Meenakshi, S., Suryakar, AN., and Kulhalli, PM. (2013). A Study of Bio-Markers of Oxidative Stress and Inflammation in Chronic Kidney Disease. *Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences (IOSR-JDMS)*, 11(2), 06-10.
164. Mehdi, U., and Robert, D. T. (2009). Anemia , Diabetes , and Chronic kidney Disease . *Diabetes Care*, 32(7).
165. Mehryar, Z., and Omid, S. (2015). Influence of Hemodialysis on Lipid Peroxidation, Enzymatic and Non-Enzymatic Antioxidant Capacity in Chronic Renal Failure Patients . *Nephro Urol Mon*. Doi: 10.5812/numonthly.28526 .
- 166.Mezzano, D., Pais, EO., Aranda, E., et al.(2001). Inflammation, not homocysteinemia, is related to oxidative stress and hemostatic and endothelial dysfunction in uremia. *Kidney Int*, 60, 1844-1850.
- 167.Michael, J. F. (2000).Role of sodium in hemodialysis . *Kidney International*, 58(76), 72–78 .

168. Michael, K., Jennifer, T. W., Barbara, A. T., Elizabeth, A.N., Michael, L. M., and Robert, L. C. (1999). Unilateral ureteral obstruction impairs renal antioxidant enzyme activation during sodium depletion. *Kidney International*, 55, 1327–1334.
169. Miriama, W. (1998). Anatomy and Physiology of the Kidney . *AORN Journal*, 68(5).
170. Mohammad, A., Akram, R., Shahin, S., Shekoufeh, N., and Ali, R.(2004). Pesticides and oxidative stress: a review. *Med Sci Monit*, 10(6), 141-147.
171. Mohammad, S. H., Seyed, A. M-N., Masoud, H., and Abbas, S. L. (2007). Alteration in Antioxidant Capacity in Patients with Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease . *Tanaffos*, 6(4), 13-17.
172. Moysés-Neto, M., Fabiana M. G., Fátima H. A., Osvaldo M. V-N., Abrão C. C., and Márcio D. (2006). Acute Renal Failure and Hypercalcemia. *Renal Failure*, 28, 153–159.
173. Muhammad, S., Shah, M.T., Khan, S. (2011). Health risk assessment of heavy metals and their source apportionment in drinking water of Kohistan region, northern Pakistan. *Microchem. J*, 98, 334-343.
174. Mujais, SK., and Katz, AI. (1992). Potassium deficiency. In: *The Kidney*, edited by Seldin DW, Giebisch G, New York, Raven Press, Ltd. 2249-2278.
175. Nagadarshini, R-V., Hassan, T., Sandhya, N., and Medha, J. (2016). Prosthetic Arteriovenous Graft Contact Dermatitis Masquerading as an Arteriovenous Graft Infection in a Hemodialysis Patient. *J Investig Med High Impact Case Rep*, 4(3).
176. Najla, O.I., and Amar, M.I. (1893-18977). The effect of hemodialysis on calcium and magnesium level among chronic renal failure patients. *International Journal of Advanced Research*, 4(12).
177. National kidney foundation (2006). Peritoneal Dialysis: What You Need to Know. Online www.kidney.org/patients.
178. National Kidney Foundation (2012) . Educate your dialysis patients about anemia .
179. National Kidney Foundation (2013) , GFR (Glomerular Filtration Rate) . A Key to Understanding How Well Your Kidneys Are Working. Online www.kidney.org .
180. Nazanim, A., Richard, H., and Roya, K.(2014). Review on iron its importance for human health. *Journal of research in medical sciences*, 19(2), 164-174.
181. Nephrol Dial Transplant (1998). Dialysis fluid composition and quality—professional opinion vs scientific evidence . Report on the Dialysis Opinion Lunch Symposium at the ERA–EDTA Congress, Geneva. 13, 1598–1602.
182. Neri, L.C., Johansen, H.L., Hewitt, D., Marier, J., and Langner, N. (1985). Magnesium and certain other elements and cardiovascular disease. *The Science of the Total Environment*, 42, 49—75.

- 183.New, JP., Aung, T., Baker, PG., Yongsheng, G., Pylypczuk, R., Hegarty, J., Gibson, JM., O'Donoghue, DJ., and Buchan, IE. (2008). The high prevalence of unrecognized anemia in patients with diabetes and chronic kidney disease : a population-based study . *Diabet*, 25, 564-569.
- 184.Nguyen, AT., Lethias, C., Zingraff, J., Herbelin, A.,Naret, C. (1985). scamps-Latscha B: Hemodialysismembrane-induced activation of phagocyte oxidative metabolism detected in vivo and invitro within microamounts of whole blood.*Kidney Int*, 28, 158–167.
185. Nigel, T., Patrick, C., Peter, G. K. (2006). Review of dialysate calcium concentration in hemodialysis. *Hemodialysis International*, 10, 326–337.
- 186.Niko, R.R., Anahita, K., Javad, Z-R., and Mahmood, V. (2016). Estimation of Oxidative Stress and Serum Mineral (Ca, Mg, P) Status in Hashimoto's Thyroiditis Patients. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research*, 8(11), 1477-1482.
- 187.Noori, A., Hamza, A., Thia, A., & Khelod, S. (2017). Natural antioxidants in the treatment and prevention of diabetic nephropathy; a potential approach that warrants clinical trials, *Redox Report*, 22(3), 99-118.
- 188.Oluwafikemi, T.I., June, C .S., Megan, J .B., Annette, E.V., Jan, G .M., and Lyndy, J.M. (2017). Generation of reactive oxygen species in relevant cell lines as a bio-indicator of oxidative effects caused by acid mine water. *Water SA*, 43(1).
- 189.Ophius, M.,Nyasha, Ch., Aposombe., and Hilda, M. (2013). Microalbuminuria in patients with chronic kidney disease at Parirenyatwa Hospital in Zimbabwe . *Pan African Medical Journal*, 14(39).
- 190.Oyaizu, M. (1986). Studies on products of browning reaction: antioxidative activities of products of browning reaction prepared from glucosamine. *Japanese Journal of Nutrition*, 44, 307-315.
- 191.Pablo A. Ortiz ,and Jeffrey L. Garvin (2002) .Role of nitric oxide in the regulation of nephron transport .*Am J Physiol Renal Physiol*, 282, 777–784.
192. Palmer, BF., and Clegg, DJ. (2016). Physiology and pathophysiology of potassium homeostasis. *Adv Physiol Educ*, 40(4), 480–90.
- 193.Paolo, L., Luca, Z., Antonio, G., Salvatore, S. S., Pietro, C., and Roberto, D. (2017). Kidney and heavy metals - The role of environmental exposure (Review) . *Molecular Medicine Reports*, 15, 3413-3419.
- 194.Paramita, R. (2017). 13 Best Health Benefits of Soda (No.10 is Insane). Online <https://drhealthbenefits.com/food-beverages/beverages/health-benefits-soda>.
- 195.Paul, D., Mahboob, R. (2009). Chronic Kidney Disease . *Ann Intern Med*. doi: 10.7326/0003-4819-150-3-200902030-01002.

196. Paul, R.R., and Darren, G.(2011). Arrhythmias in chronic kidney disease . *Education in Heart*, 97, 766-773.
- 197.Perutz, ME.(1982). Nature of the iron-oxygen bond and control of oxygen affinity of the haem by the structure of the globin in haemoglobin . *Adv Exp Med Biol*, 148, 31-48.
- 198.Peter, S., Shachi, L.,Daniel, E. W., Daniel, R. B.,and James, S. K.(2010). Chronic Kidney Disease Associated With Environmental Toxins and Exposures. *Advances in Chronic Kidney Disease*, 17(3), 254-264.
- 199.Philip, J. P. (1990). Potassium and Ventricular Arrhythmias . *Evans Memorial Research Division, Boston University School of Medicine, Section of Cardiology, University Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts. Am J Cardioi*, 65, 33-44.
- 200.Pramod, K. (2018). Symptoms of Kidney Failure & Why Does Kidney Failure Occur?. Online <https://www.google.com/amp/s/www.epainassist.com/amp/abdominal-pain/kidney/why-does-kidney-failure-occur>.
- 201.Public Health England (2014) . Chronic kidney disease prevalence model .
- 202.Rahman, T., Ismail, H., M. M. Towhidul, I., and Hossain, U.S. (2012) . Oxidative stress and human health . *Advances in Bioscience and Biotechnology*, 3, 997-1019.
- 203.Rainer, D. (2006). Risk Factors in the Progression of Chronic Kidney Disease. *Faculty of Medicine, University of Bonn. DOI:10.17925/EE.2006.00.02.41*.
- 204.Ramchandra, K .P., Ashok, V. S., Sangita, M .P.(2012). Lipid profile, serum malondialdehyde, superoxide dismutase in chronic kidney diseases and Type 2 diabetes mellitus . *Biomedical Research*, 23 (2), 207-210.
- 205.Ram, K. S., Ashkan, E., Farbod, F., Kanwaljit, K. D., Tri, N., Chang-De, Z., Christian K. Roberts and Nosratola D. Vaziri . Expression of catalase and glutathione peroxidase in renal insufficiency . *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta. Doi:10.1016/j.bbamcr.2004.08.013*.
- 206.Rana, s.v.s. (1997) *Oxidative Stress and Liver Injury by Environmental Xenobiotics* . Narosa Publishing House. New Delhi. India. 115-134.
- 207.Ranjan, R., Swarup, D., and Patra, RC. (2009). Oxidative stress indices in erythrocytes, liver, and kidneys of fluoride-exposed rabbits . *Research report Fluoride*, 42(2), 88–93.
- 208.Rapant, S., and Krcmova, K. (2007). Health risk assessment maps for arsenic groundwatercontent, application of national geochemical databases. *Environ. Geochem. Health*, 29, 131-141.
- 209.Rashad, S. B. (2013) . Burden of chronic kidney disease: North Africa . *Kidney International Supplements* , 3, 164–166 .

- 210.Rebecca, M.(2012). Iron in Groundwater : A Source for Anemia Prevention . Department of international Nutrition , Bloomberg School of Public Health and Center for Human Nutrition ,Johns Hopkins University , USA . Vitam Trace Elem. Doi: 10.4172/2167-0390.1000e111.
- 211.RENAL RESOURCE CENTRE (2012) . Understanding Chronic Kidney Disease. Online www.renalresource.com .
- 212.Richard, P. H. (2006). Chronic Renal Disease: Orthomolecular Ramifications . Journal of Orthomolecular Medicine, 21(1), 48-54.
- 213.Robert, S. (1963). Studies on Factors Affecting the Levels of Urea Cycle Enzymes in Rat Liver . Journal of Biological Chemistry, 238(3).
- 214.Robert, T., Abbas, K., and John, R. S. (2008) . Chronic Kidney Disease and Its Complications . Prim Care Clin Office Pract, 35, 329–344 .
- 215.Rohita, B., Keerti, M., Manisha, S., Anuradha, Y., Deepak, S. (2014). The relationship between oxidative stress and high sensitive c-reactive protein in preeclampsia. International Journal of Basic & Applied Physiology, 3(1), 91-95.
- 216.Rose, K., and Matthew, S. (2017) . Kidney Failure . HEALTHLINE MEDIA . Online <https://thalasso-pascher.fr/health/kidney-failure>
- 217.Rubin, Z. (2014) . Clinical Management of Kidney Allograft Dysfunction . Open Journal of Organ Transplant Surgery, 4, 7-14.
- 218.Sadia, H., Rabia, T., Fatima, A.,and Tahir, M. (2012). Modifiable and Non-modifiable predisposing Risk Factors of Myocardial Infarction -A Review . Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research, 4(1), 1649-1653.
- 219.Sands, J.M, and Verlander, J.W. (2010). Renal Toxicology. Comprehensive Toxicology.
- 220.Sapna, S., Sunill, K., and Shruti, S. (2015). Role of Oxidative Stress in Male Reproductive Dysfunctions with Reference to Phthalate Compounds. Reviw, 12(5), 2304-2316.
- 221.Saulo, K. (2015). The kidney in Hypertension -Villain and Victim. Washington University School of Medicine St. Louis , MO 63110 . The Now England journal of Medicine, 320(11), 731-733.
- 222.Seely,J. C., and Blankenship, B. (2018). Renal Tubule : kidney. Boorman's Pathology of the Rat (Second Edition).
223. Sekkoum, K., Mohamed, F.T., Abdelkrim, C., Younes, B., Nasser, B., Nouredine, B., and Safia, T.(2012). Water in Algerian Sahara: Environmental and Health impact. Doi: 10.5772/50319.
- 224.Seoung,W.L. (2012). Sodium Balance in Maintenance Hemodialysis . Electrolyte Blood Press, 10, 1-6.

225. Shachman, M. (2004). The soft drinks companion: a technical handbook for the beverage industry. Doi: 10.1201/9780203492123.
226. Shulman, N.B., Charles, E. F., W. Dallas, H., M. Donald, B., David, S., Herbert, G. L., and Kenneth, A. (1989). Prognostic Value of Serum Creatinine and Effect of Treatment of Hypertension on Renal Function. Schneider on behalf of the Hypertension Detection and Follow-up Program Cooperative Group. Supplement I Hypertension, 13(5).
227. Sibel, E., Fatma, L., Mehmet, T., Hulya, C., Banu, Y., and Alperalp (2017). Hemodialysis patients knowledge and awareness about dietary sodium: There is still need for awareness raising interventions. Acta Medica Mediterranea. DOI: 10.19193/0393-6384_2017_2_032.
228. Small, D.M., and Glenda, C.G. (2013). Oxidative Stress and Antioxidant Therapy in Chronic Kidney and Cardiovascular Disease (Chapter 10). Books: oxidative stress and chronic Degenerative disease –A Role for Antioxidants. Doi.org/10.5772/51923.
229. Soleimanzadeh, H., Habibi, D., Ardakani, D.R., Paknejad, F., and Rejali, F. (2010). Effect of Potassium Levels on Antioxidant Enzymes and Malondialdehyde Content under Drought Stress in Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.). American Journal of Agricultural and Biological Sciences, 5(1), 56-61.
230. Spittle, M.A., Hoenich, N.A., Handelman, G.J., Adhikarla, R., Homel, P., and Levin, N.W. (2001). Oxidative stress and inflammation in hemodialysis patients. Am J Kidney Dis, 38, 1408.
231. Stefanovi, V. (2002). Analgesic nephropathy, Balkan endemic nephropathy and Chinese herbs nephropathy: Separate tubulointerstitial kidney diseases associated with urothelial malignancy. Institute of Nephrology and Hemodialysis, Faculty of Medicine, Niš, Serbia; Medicine and Biology, 9(1), 1 – 6.
232. Stiller, S., Edeltraud, B.-S., Aileen, G., Ingrid, U.-K., and Helmut, M. (2001). A Critical Review of sodium profiling for Hemodialysis. de Seminars in dialysis, 14(5), 337-347.
233. Study Mode (Essay Resource Center) (2011). The Urinary system. Online <https://www.studymode.com/essays/The-Urinary-System-662437.html>.
234. Suma, V., Michael, J.S., William, M., and Dale, P. S. (2004). History of Kidney Stones as a Possible Risk Factor for Chronic Kidney Disease. Ann Epidemiol, 14, 222–228.
235. Sunil, J.W. (2016). Effect of water hardness on Non-communicable diseases, including chronic kidney disease of multifactorial origin (CKDmfo/CKDuo). Journal of Environment and Health Sciences, 2(1), 1-11.
236. Supatra, L. (2013). Protein Diet and Estimated Glomerular Filtration Rate. Open Journal of Nephrology, 3, 97-100.

- 237.Suresh, M., Mallikarjuna, R.N., Sharan, B. S.M., Hari, K. B.,Shravya, K. G., Chandrasekhar, M. (2012). Hematological Changes in Chronic Renal Failure. International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, 2(9), 1-3.
- 238.Syed, A., and Gerard, L. (2012). Severity and Stages of Chronic Kidney Disease, Chronic Kidney Disease. 14-24. Online <http://www.intechopen.com/books/chronic-kidney-disease/severity-and-stages-of-chronic-kidney-disease>.
- 239.Tapan, Kr. D. (2017) . Structure of nephron and function of the kidney . Department Panskura Banamali . Onlinewww.panskurabanamalicollage.org.
- 240.Tapsell, L.C., Ian, H., Lynne, C., David, R. S., and Michael, F.(2006). Health benefits of herbs and spices: the past, the present, the future . The Medical Journal of Australia, 185(4).
241. Tifran, A.E., and Imed Eddine, N. (2016). Quality and management of hot water of intercalary continental, northern Sahara of Algeria. AIP Conference Proceedings. doi: 10.1063/1.4959429
242. Tirkey, N., Gaganjit, K., Garima, V., and Kanwaljit, Ch. (2005) .Pharmacology division, University Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Panjab University, Chandigarh-160014, India .BMC Pharmacology. doi:10.1186/1471-2210-5-15
- 243.Thomas, R., Abbas, K., and John, R. S. (2008) . Chronic Kidney Disease and Its Complications . Prim Care Clin Office Pract, 35, 329–344 .
- 244.Torres, VE., Young, WF., Offord, KP., and Hattery, RR. (1990). Association of hypokalemia, aldosteronism, and renal cysts. N Engl J Med, 322, 345-351.
- 245.United States Renal Data System(1999) Annual Data Report . Chapter III :Treatment Modalities for ESRD Patients .
- 246.Valerie, A. L., and Barry, M. B. (2010). The Clinical Importance of Nephron Mass ; Journal of the American Society of Nephrology. doi: 10.1681/ASN.2009121248
- 247.Vascular Access Procedure (2005). Midline catheter, peripherally inserted central catheter (PICC) – Hickman, Broviac, or Groshong catheter. University of Washington Medical Center. 1-5.
- 248.Vassilis, F., Dimitrios, H., Lambrini, T., Polixeni, M., Vasilis, S., and Dimosthenis, V. (2009). Inflammation and oxidative stress in end-stage renal disease patients treated with hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis . The International Journal of Artificial Organs, 32(12), 872-882.
- 249.Vaziri, N.D., Mahyar, K., Ane, C. F. N., Kevin, T. H., Hyder, S., Omeed, A., Wei, L. L., and Madeleine, V. P. (2016) . Effects of end-stage renal disease and dialysis modalities on blood ammonia level . Hemodialysis International, 21, 343–347.

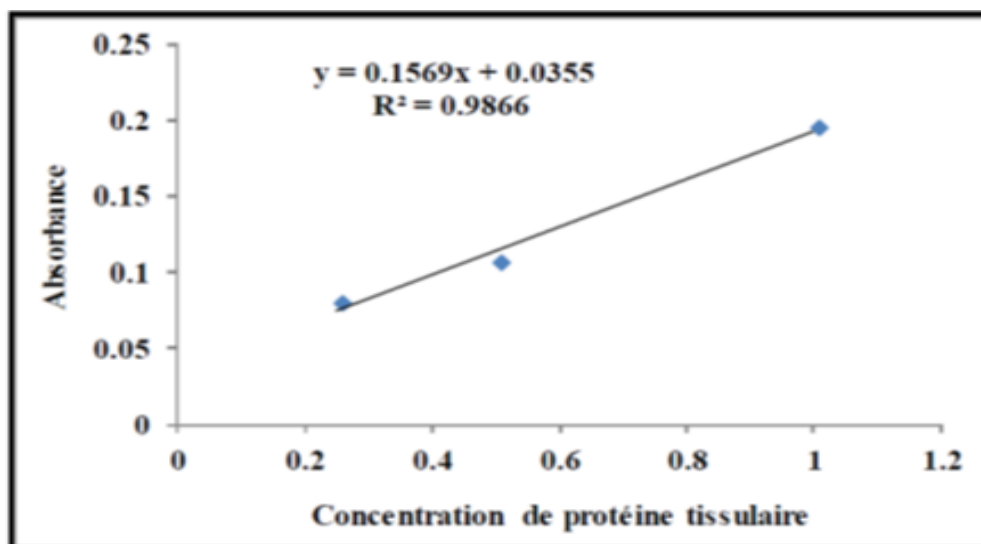
- 250.Velea, T., Gherghe, L., Predica, V., Krebs, R., (2009). Heavy metal contamination in the vicinity of an industrial area near Bucharest. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res*, 16, 27-32.
- 251.Victoria, C., Marian, G., Soledad, G-V., Pilar, O., Vicente, L., and Jose, L.(2008). Oxidative stress and inflammation, a link between chronic kidney disease and cardiovascular disease . *Kidney International*, 74(111), 4–9.
- 252.Vincenzo, B., Luca, De N., Roberto, M., Domenico, R., Bruno, C., Michele, A., Giuseppe, C., and Vittorio, E. A. (1999).Effects of Water Hardness on Urinary Risk Factors for Kidney Stones in Patients with Idiopathic Nephrolithiasis. *Nephron*, 81(1), 66–70.
- 253.Vinothkumar, G., Kedharnath, C., Krishnakumar, S., Sreedhar, S., Preethi k., Dinesh, S., Sundaram, A., Balakrishnan, D., Shivashekar, G., Suresh k., and Venkataraman, P. (2017). Abnormal Amyloid β 42 expression and increased oxidative stress in plasma of CKD patients with cognitive dysfunction: A small scale case control study comparison with Alzheimer's disease, *BBA Clinical* Doi:10.1016/j.bbacli.2017.06.001.
- 254.Wang, Y., Sun, L., Wang, H., and Li, X.(2012). Importance and benefits of dietary sodium restriction in the management of chronic kidney disease patients: experience from a single Chinese center. *Int Urol Nephrol*, 44, 549–556.
- 255.Wasana, K., Orathai, T., and Surapon, T. (2016). Association Between Elevated Arsenic Exposure with Chronic Kidney Disease and Oxidative Stress in Subjects of the Contamination Area . *International Journal of Toxicological and Pharmacological Research*, 8(3), 173-178.
- 256.Water Quality - Calcium Assay - EDTA Titrimetric Method , ISO 6058 -1984 (F)
- 257.Water quality - Determination of iron - Spectrometric method at phenanthroline-1,ISO 6332.
- 258.Water quality - Determination of chloride - Silver nitrate titration with chromate as indicator (Mohr method) , ISO 9297 – NA 6917.
- 259.Water quality - determination of electrical conductivity , NA 749.
260. Weak Beker G., and Cory J.G (1988). Ribonucleotide reductase activity and growth of glutathione-depleted mouse leukemia L1210 cells in vitro. *cancer letters*, 40, 257-264.
261. WHO (1996), Guidelines for drinking-water quality, 2nd ed. Vol. 2. World Health Organization, Geneva.
- 262.WHO (2009), Guidelines for Drinking-water Quality , Potassium in drinking-water .
- 263.Wilhelm, K.,and Marlies, E. (2010) .Renal Anatomy : Nephron . *Comprehensive Clinical Nephrology* (Fourth Edition).
- 264.William, H. H., Michael, J .P., William, B. J. (1974). Glutathione S-transferase, The first enzymatic step in mercapturic acid formation. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 249(22), 7130-9.
- 265.YAGHI, K. (1976). Simple Fluorometric Assay for lipoperoxide in blood plasma. *Biochemical.Medecine*, 15, 212-216.

- 266.Ying, WZ., and Sanders, PW. (1998). Dietary salt modulates renal production of transforming growth factor- β 1 in rats. *Am J Physiol*, 274, 635–641.
- 267.Yirdaw, M., and Bamlaku, A. (2016). Drinking water quality assessment and its effects on residents health in Wondo genet campus, Ethiopia . *Environmental System Research*, 5(1).
- 268.Yonova, D., Trendafilov, I., Georgieva, I., Dimitrova, V., Arabadjieva, D., and Velkova, N. (2018). Oxidative stress (OS) in chronic kidney disease (CKD): A mini review . *Nephrology and Renal Diseases*, 3(3), 1-3 .
- 269.Zhang, Z., Dmitrieva, N. I., Park, J.-H., Levine, R. L, and Burg, M. B. (2004). High urea and NaCl carbonylate proteins in renal cells in culture and in vivo, and high urea causes 8-oxoguanine lesions in their DNA. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 101(25), 9491–9496.
- 270.Zhengfalei. (2013). Treatment for Electrolyte Imbalance in Dialysis Patients . *KIDNEY-TREATMENT*. Online www.kidney-treatment.org.
- 271.Zhian, Sh. H., Jamal, M. A., and Mohamad, S. J. (2009). Effect of Dialysis on Erythropoietin and some Hematological Parameters in Patients with Chronic Renal Failure . *Zanco J. Med. Sci.*, 13(2), 1-8.
272. Zobeidi, A., and Leila, M.(2013). Physico-chemical quality of drinking water in the south of Algeria (Case of El-Oued region) study of excess minerals . *International Letters of Chemistry, Physics and Astronomy*, 11, 38-43.
- 273.Zorica, M. D., Tatjana, P. C., Vidojko, M. D., Dusica, D. P., Nikola, Z. S., Ivana, R. S., Goran, J. P., and Radmila, M. V-R. (2012). How the Duration Period of Erythropoietin Treatment Influences the Oxidative Status of Hemodialysis Patients . *International Journal of Medical Sciences*, 9(9), 808-815.

Annexes

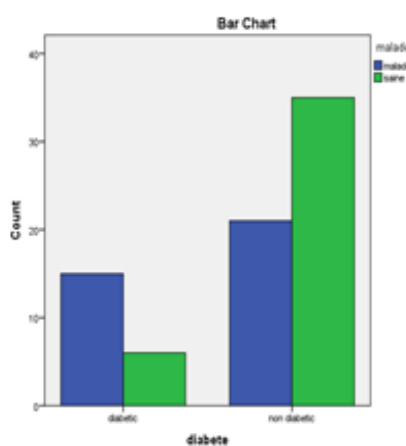
Annex 01 : Questionner for patients

الرقم	السؤال	نعم	لا	ملاحظات
	العمر: الوزن: الطول: المهنة: الجنس:			مكان السكن: الحالة المدنية: قسيمة الدم: المستوى التعليمي:
01	هل مستوى التخل ضعيف أو متوسط جيد			
02	هل تشرب ماء الحنفية أو نوع آخر أكثر			
03	هل تشرب الماء كثيرا			
04	هل تشرب الشاي بكثرة . و كم مرة في اليوم			
05	هل تشرب القهوة بكثرة . وكم مرة في اليوم			
06	هل تستعمل البهارات بكثرة			
07	هل تستعمل المضادات و الملونات الغذائية بكثرة			
08	هل أنت مدمن على المشروبات الغازية			
09	هل تتعرض للمواد الكيميائية بكميات تفوق المبيدات الحشرية			
10	هل تعمل في مكان ملوث			
11	هل تسكن بمنطقة صناعية أو قرب منطقة صناعية			
12	هل أنت شخص أو أحد من العائلة يتخن			
13	كم سيجارة تشخن في اليوم			
14	هل تعاني من اضطرابات في الهضم			
15	هل تتناول أدوية مخدرة أو مهدئة			
16	هل تتناول أدوية لعلاج الكلى أو حصى البول قبل المرض			
17	هل تعاني من أمراض مزمنة كالقلب و ضغط الدم والسكري			
18	هل تعاني من التهاب المفاصل			
19	هل تعاني من مشاكل في المسالك البولية			
20	هل تمارس الرياضة من قبل			
21	هل أنت حركي في حياتك اليومية			
22	هل أصيب أحد من أفراد العائلة بنفس المرض			
23	هل تعاني من أمراض الكلى من قبل			
24	هل تم اكتشاف مرضك بالكلى			
25	هل أصبت بمرض الكلى بسبب مرض آخر أكثر			
26	هل تم اكتشاف مرضك الآخر قبل مرضك بالكلى أو بعد			
27	هل مرضك يتطلب تصفية الدم			
28	كم مرة في الأسبوع تقوم بالتصفية وكم ساعة في اليوم			
29	هل كنت تتناول أي نوع من المخدرات			
30	هل تستعمل الأدوية بكثرة ضد أي مرض ولو بسيط			
31	هل تستعمل الأعشاب الطبية بكثرة لعلاج المشاكل الصحية			
32	هل استعملت الأعشاب الطبية لعلاج مشاكل الكلى			
33	هل تستعمل البروتينات بكثرة			
34	هل تستعمل المضادات الحيوية بكثرة			
35	هل تستعمل أدوية مسكنات الألم بكثرة			
36	هل تتناول الأظفار المألحة أو تحب زيادة الملح بكثرة			
37	هل تتناول السكريات بكثرة			
38	هل تحبس البول عادة لمدة طويلة			
39	هل تأكل اللحوم الحمراء بكثرة كم مرة في الأسبوع			
40	هل أنت مصابي في حياتك اليومية			
41	هل تعاني من اضطراب في النوم			

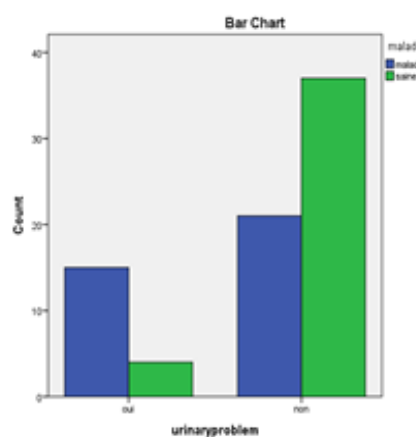


Annex 02 : Calibration curve used BSA (1 mg / ml) for the determination of tissue proteins

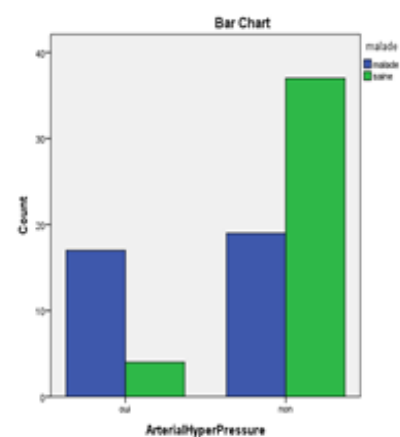
Riskfactors :



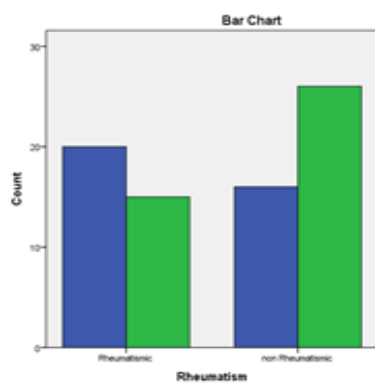
Annex 03:Diabetes



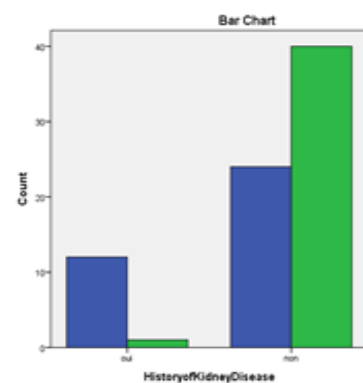
Annex 04:Urinary problem



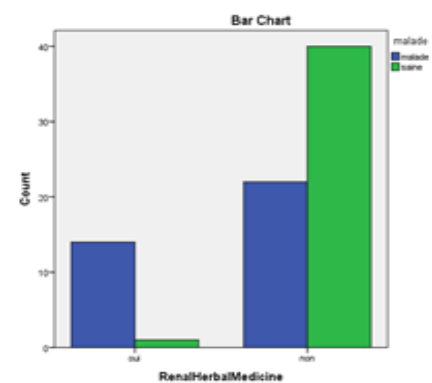
Annex 05:Arterial Hyperpressure



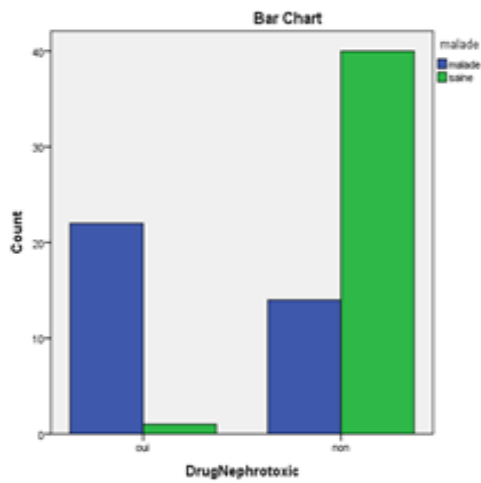
Annex 06 : Rheumatoid



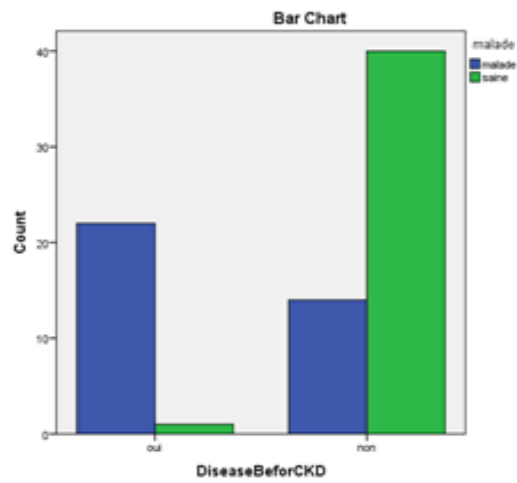
Annex 07:History of kidney disease



Annex 08:Renal herbal medicine

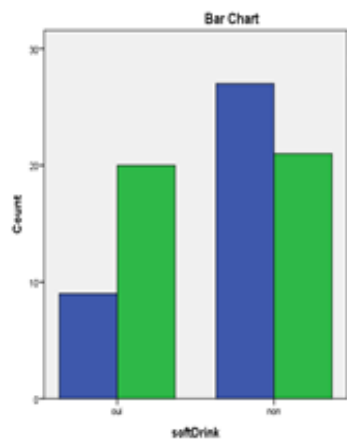


Annex 09 : Drug nephrotoxic

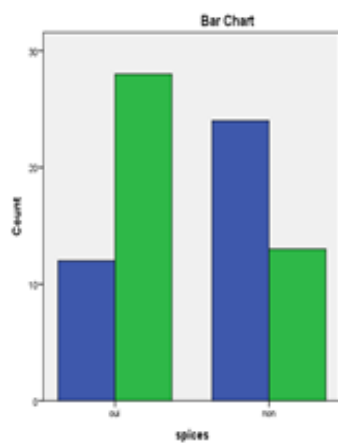


Annex 10 : Disease before CKD

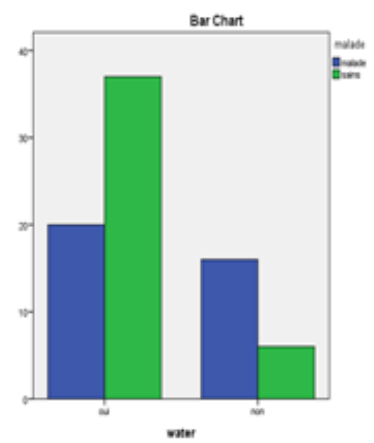
Predictor factors :



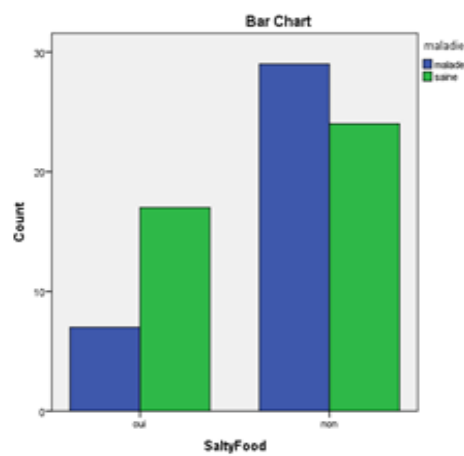
Annex 11: Additive soft drinks



Annex 12: Spices

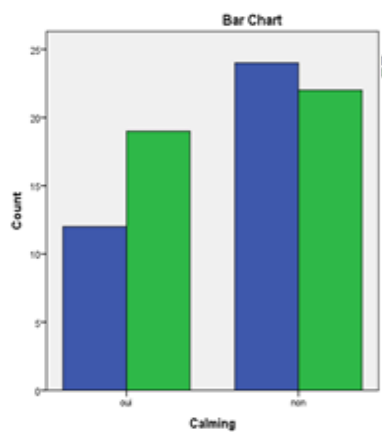


Annex 13: Amount of water

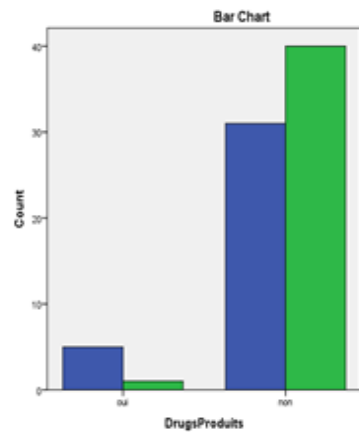


Annex 14 : Salty food

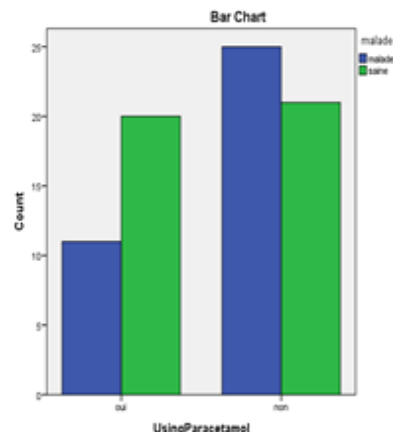
Other factors :



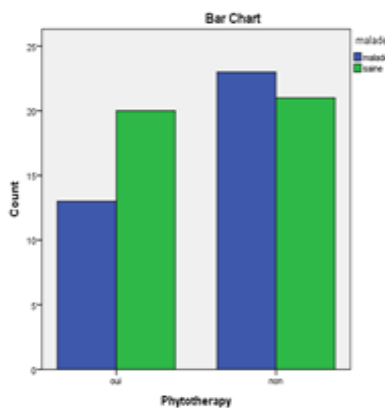
Annex 15: Calmants



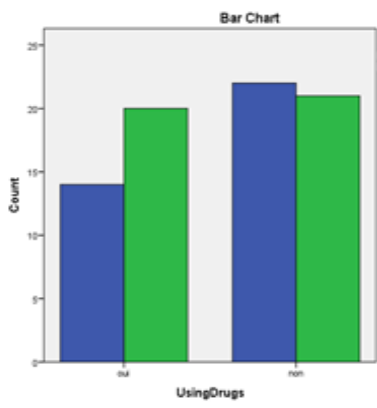
Annex 16: Drug produits



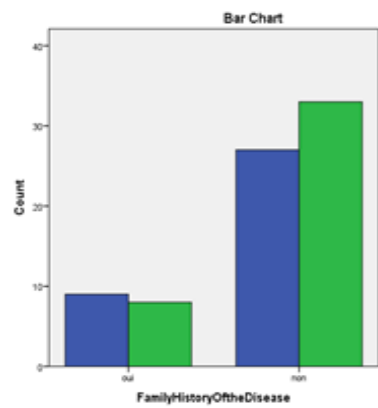
Annex17:Usingparacetamol



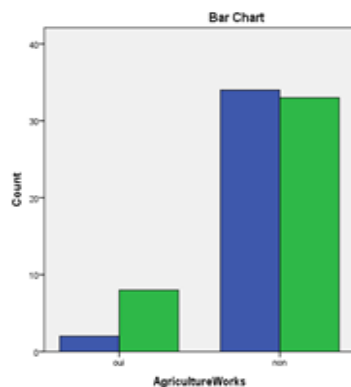
Annex 18: Phytotherapy



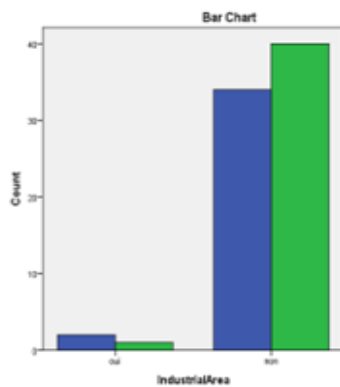
Annex 19: Using drugs



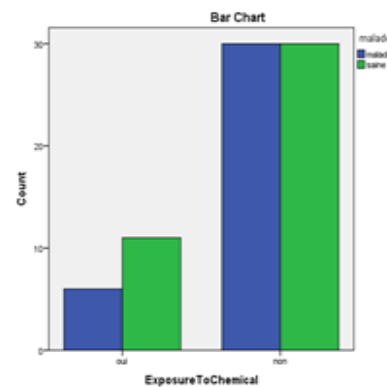
Annex 20: Family histroy of the disease



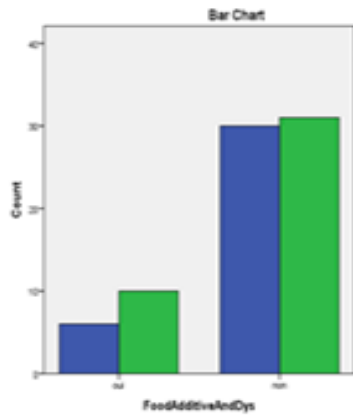
Annex 21 : Agriculture works



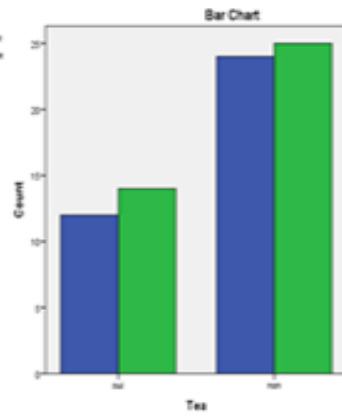
Annex 22 : industrial area



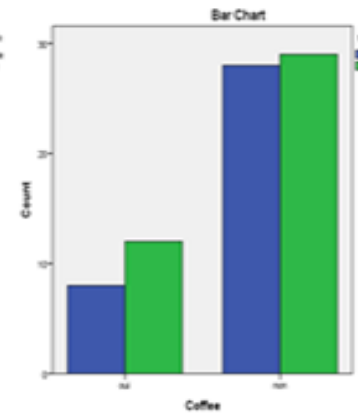
Annex 23 : Exposure to chemical



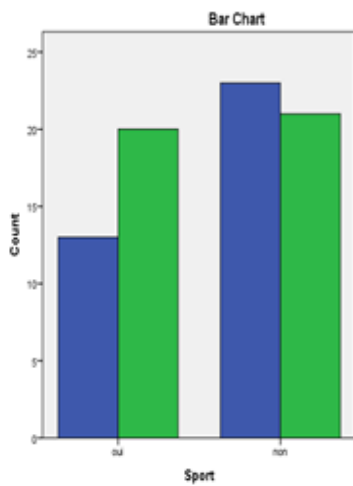
Annex 24:Food additive and dys



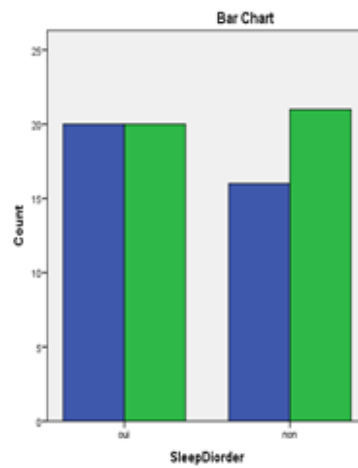
Annex 25: Tea



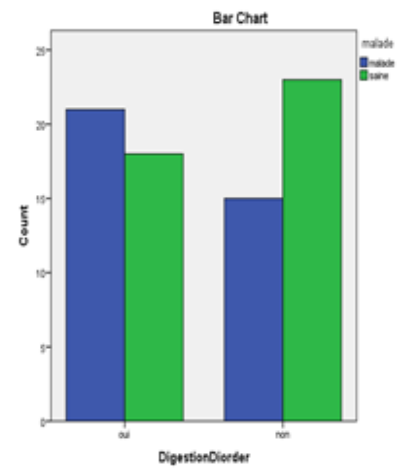
Annex 26: Coffee



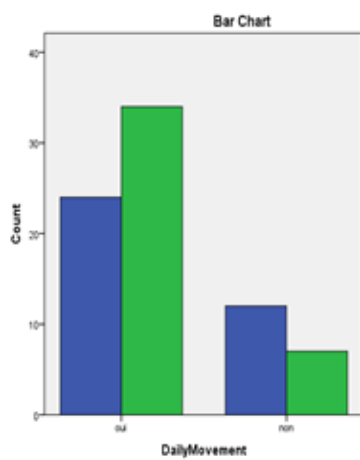
Annex 27:Sport



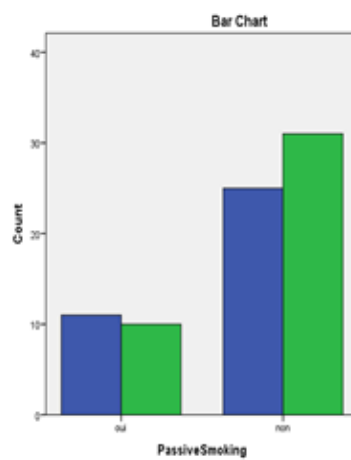
Annex 28 : Sleep disorder



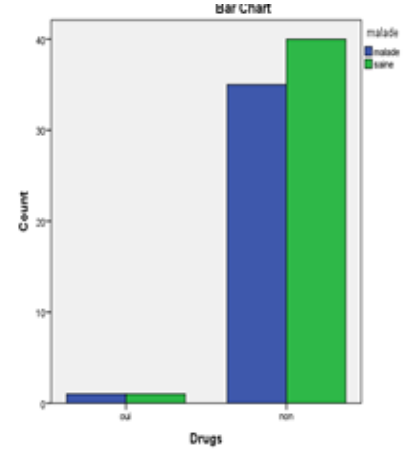
Annex29 :Digestion disorder



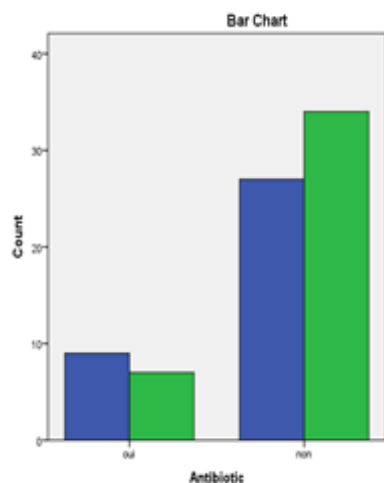
Annex 30 : Daily mouvement



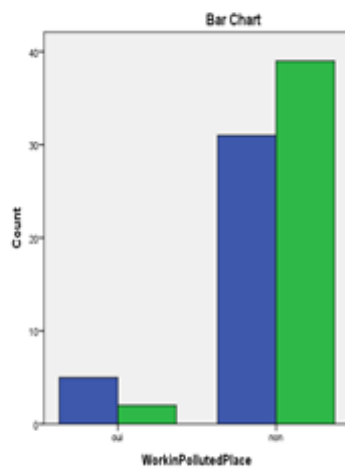
Annex 31 : Passive smoking



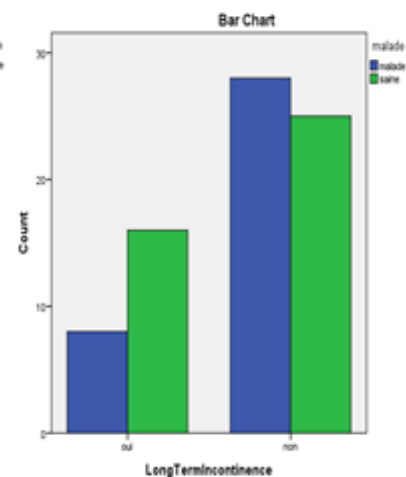
Annex 32:Drugs



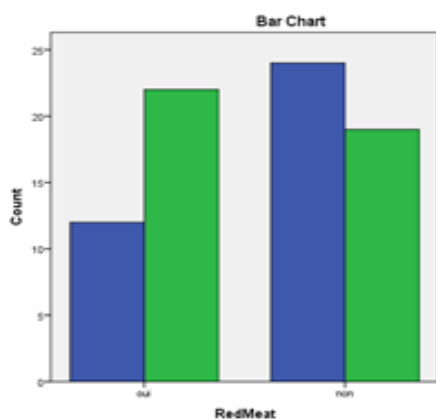
Annex 33 : Antibiotic



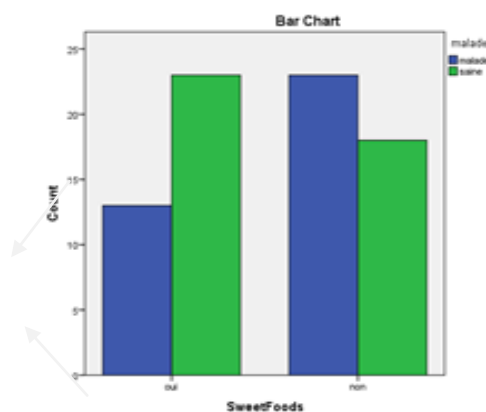
Annex 34 : Work in pollute place



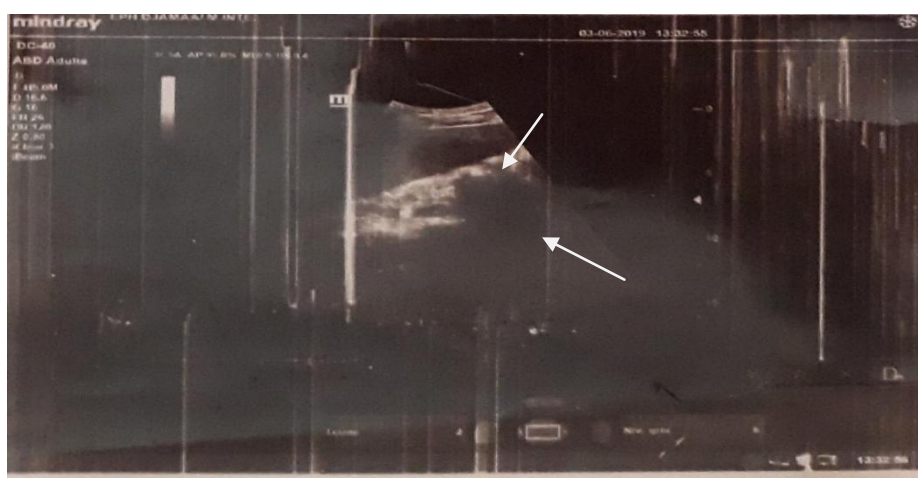
Annex 35 : Long-term incontinence



Annex 36 : Red meat



Annex 37 : Sweet foods



Annex 38: kidney atrophy of patient with CKD screening by kidney echography