

Volume 26, No 1, 2023, 38-46

# ORIGINAL ARTICLE

# Acute kidney injury and in-hospital mortality among patients with COVID-19 in Ghana – a single-centre study

Elliot Koranteng Tannor<sup>1,2</sup>, Emmanuel Ofori<sup>2</sup>, Kojo Awotwi Hutton-Mensah<sup>2</sup>, Martin Akutek<sup>2</sup>, Felicia Akua Afriyie<sup>2</sup>, Obed Ofori Nyarko<sup>2</sup>, Yasmine Hardy<sup>2</sup>, Samuel Amoabeng Kontoh<sup>2</sup>, Priscilla Abrafi Opare-Addo<sup>2</sup>, Divine Amenuke<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Medicine, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana; <sup>2</sup>Directorate of Medicine, Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital Kumasi, Ghana.

# ABSTRACT

**Introduction:** Acute kidney injury (AKI) occurs in patients with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) and is associated with high mortality, but this has not yet been described in Ghana. We therefore record here the proportion of COVID-19 patients with AKI, and determined the corresponding mortality, in a tertiary-level hospital in Ghana.

**Methods:** We conducted a retrospective study of all patients admitted to the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital, with a diagnosis of COVID-19 proven by reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), from March 2020 to February 2021. Demographics, clinical findings and I aboratory i nvestigations were recorded and summary statistics used to describe the data. Predictors of mortality were established by multiple logistic regression.

**Results:** The study involved 250 patients, of whom 129 (52%) were males, with a mean age of 56.3  $\pm$  17.4 years. AKI occurred in 123 (49%). The most common causes of AKI were pre-renal AKI and ischaemic ATN – 65 (73%) and 37 (30%) cases, respectively. Haemodialysis was required in 6 (5%) cases.

The in-hospital mortality of all the COVID-19 patients was 71 (31%). The predictors of in-patient mortality in multivariate analysis were hyperglycaemia (OR = 18.48 [95%CI (2.0 - 165.2], P = 0.009), severe COVID-19 (OR = 31.3 [95% CI 1.53-635.5], P = 0.025), elevated white blood cell count (OR = 1.32 [95% CI 1.09-1.59], P = 0.004), lymphopenia (OR = 0.16. [95% CI 0.03-3.26], P = 0.027) and not AKI (OR = 0.79 [95% CI 0.45-1.34], P = 0.380). Stage 3 (severe) AKI, however, occurred in 39 (32%) cases and was significantly associated with mortality [OR = 2.41 (95% CI 1.05-5.49, P = 0.036)] as compared to those with mild-moderate AKI in a sub-analysis.

**Conclusion:** AKI is common in hospitalized patients with COVID-19. Stage 3 AKI was associated with increased inhospital mortality. Predictors of mortality were severe COVID-19 disease, lymphopenia and hyperglycaemia.

Keywords: SARS-CoV-2; acute kidney injury, chronic kidney disease; mortality, sub-Saharan Africa.

# INTRODUCTION

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), caused by the SARS-CoV-2 virus, affects multiple organs including the lungs, heart, digestive tract, blood, nervous system and the kidneys [1]. Fortunately, over 80% of cases are asymptomatic or have mild symptoms and will recover without medication or hospitalisation [2]. The mortality rates across Africa are generally lower than in Europe, Asia and the Americas [3]. The reasons for the relatively lower burden of COVID-19 in sub-Saharan Africa

remains unclear but has been suggested to be as a result of low testing capacity as well as genetic and environmental factors [4].

When complicated by kidney disease, COVID-19 is associated with increased mortality [5]. The risk factors associated with severe COVID-19 disease and increased mortality include older age, hypertension, diabetes and coronary heart disease. Acute kidney injury (AKI) has been described to vary from 5.1% to 15% in hospital



admissions on the general wards [2] and in 49.5% of patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) in another, multi-centre study [6]. The mechanisms by which COVID-19 causes kidney disease are many. Most are described as indirect causes, though an early study suggested the direct renal involvement by SARS CoV-2. This study recorded that the virus was isolated in urine and causes glomerulonephritis [7]. There is evidence to suggest that COVID-19 causes collapsing glomerulopathy in subsaharan Africa [8], with the name COVID-19-associated nephropathy (COVAN) being proposed [9]. A case series, however, showed acute tubular necrosis (ATN) as the predominant pathology causing AKI with no evidence of SARS-COV-2 in the biopsied kidneys [10].

AKI is associated with mortality of up to 91.7% in severe infections [11]. COVID-19 has been shown to increase the need for dialysis with the potential for the spread of infection in haemodialysis units as patients are in an enclosed space for prolonged periods of about four hours during haemodialysis sessions [12]. Guidelines have therefore been drawn up by the African Association of Nephrology (AFRAN) for the prevention and management of kidney disease patients in Africa [13]. However, the management of kidney disease associated with COVID-19 is challenging in Ghana [14] because there are gross inequities among patients with COVID-19 in low-income settings, especially when dialysis is required [15].

The proportions of AKI in patients with COVID-19 have not been described in Ghana, according to our knowledge. We therefore set out to describe patients who were victims of the pandemic, the proportion of those with AKI and also to determine the in-patient mortality as well as the predictors of mortality among COVID-19 patients at the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital (KATH).

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

We conducted a retrospective observational study of all patients with COVID-19, diagnosed with reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), in the 23bed Highly Infectious Isolation Unit (HIIU) of the KATH. Data were collected from the medical records of patients with COVID-19 admitted between March 2020 and February 2021. Subjects were excluded from the study if they did not have kidney function tests done or had no recorded evidence of the state of their kidney function.



## STUDY SITE AND STUDY POPULATION

KATH is a 1200-bed tertiary-level health facility which serves as the referral site for complicated medical and surgical cases in the northern half of Ghana. Patients with COVID-19 were confirmed by RT-PCR on naso-pharyngeal swab by the Kumasi Centre for Collaborative Research (KCCR) or the KATH laboratory, using an Applied Biosystems 7500 PCR machine.

Patients were mainly referred to the HIIU after clinical and RT-PCR diagnosis of COVID-19 was confirmed according to WHO criteria [16]. Laboratory investigations including full blood count, erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR), renal function test and liver function test were requested for most patients. Chest X-rays and electrocardiograms (ECG) were requested in some cases. Patients with severe and critical disease had serum ferritin, C-reactive protein (CRP) and D-dimer requested to aid management. Computerised tomography pulmonary angiography was requested for those with suspected pulmonary embolism.

Demographic data – including history of comorbidities such as hypertension, diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney disease, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection and malignancies – were also documented. Clinical findings such as pulse, blood pressure and respiratory rate were also recorded. The data on patients who required and those initiated on haemodialysis were all extracted from the patients' medical records. Patients whose oxygen saturation was below 94% were placed on oxygen either via nasal prongs or non-rebreather mask and the levels titrated until oxygen saturation was greater than or equal to 94%.

All patients were put on azithromycin tablets, zinc tablets, vitamin C supplements and subcutaneous low-molecularweight heparin. Initially, patients were treated with hydroxychloroquine. Those requiring oxygen were given intravenous 8 mg dexamethasone 8-hourly for 5–10 days. Patients with severe or critical disease were given 400 mg intravenous tocilizumab and/or remdesivir 200 mg stat and then continued with 100 mg daily for 4 days.

# **DISCHARGE CRITERIA**

At the beginning of the pandemic, these criteria included negative PCR results for COVID-19 from at least two consecutive tests 14 days after admission. A third laboratory test was recommended on the 21st day for subjects who remained positive for SARS CoV-2. This requirement was, however, reviewed after the WHO changed the criteria for discharge in May 2020 [17]. Asymptomatic patients were therefore discharged after 14 days of no symptoms without the requirement of a negative PCR test for COVID-19.

### DEFINITIONS

Severe COVID-19 is defined as a respiratory rate greater than 30 cycles per minute, hypoxia with oxygen saturation

of less than 92% and or greater than 50% lung involvement on X-ray examination [16]. Acute kidney injury stages 1–3 were diagnosed according to the KDIGO criteria [18]. Mild-moderate AKI was defined as stages 1 and 2 and severe disease was defined as AKI stage 3, according to the KDIGO criteria [18]. Chronic kidney disease (CKD) was defined according to the KDIGO criteria [19]. Anaemia was defined according to the WHO criteria. Lymphopenia was defined as total lymphocyte count of less than 1.0 x 109/L on admission.

## STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The data were exported to the statistical software Stata® 13 for analysis. Categorical variables were summarised as proportions and percentages. Continuous variables were summarised as means and standard deviations when parametric, and median with interquartile range when nonparametric. Student's t-test and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test were used to test for differences for continuous variables when parametric or non-parametric, respectively. The chi-squared test was used to test for differences for categorical variables and Fisher's exact test where the cell was less than 5. Missing values were not included in the analysis. For the AKI stages, ANOVA was used to test for differences when parametric and the Kruskal-Wallis test was invoked for differences when non-parametric when variables were continuous. Patients with severe (stage 3) AKI were then compared with those with mild-moderate AKI in a sub-analysis. Predictors of mortality were established in a multiple logistic regression. A P value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

# **ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital before the start, with IRB number KATH IRB/AP/132/20.

### RESULTS

There were 255 patients with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection during the study period; however, 250 patients provided adequate data on a kidney function test or a clinical diagnosis of AKI to be included in the study. There were some missing data in most laboratory variables.

The mean age of patients was  $56.3 \pm 17.4$  years with 129 (52%) males. There were 93 (38%) and 148 (60%) subjects with a history of diabetes and hypertension, respectively, and 24 (10%) patients with a history of chronic kidney disease. The mean respiratory rate for all participants was 28.9  $\pm$  9.4 cycles per minute with a median saturation of

peripheral oxygen (SPO2) of 94.0% (88.0–97.0%). There were 81 (34%) patients with hyperglycaemia and 111 (45%) recorded hypertension on examination. A total of 131 (54%) patients were diagnosed with severe COVID-19 (Table 1).

The mean haemoglobin concentration was 11.1  $\pm$  2.8 g/dL and 161 (68%) patients presented with anaemia. The median serum urea was 6.7 (4.2–13.9) mmol/L and serum creatinine was 99 (69–207) µmol/L (Table 1).

Acute kidney injury occurred in 123 (49%) patients. The most common causes of the condition were pre-renal AKI in 65 (52%) and ischaemic acute tubular necrosis in 37 (32%) patients with diagnosis of AKI. There were 41 (33%), 43 (35%) and 39 (32%) cases of AKI stages 1, 2 and 3, respectively The incidence of mortality in AKI stages 1, 2 and 3 were 8 (21%), 11 (26%) and 16 (42%) (P = 0.093), respectively (Table 1). Generally, AKI was not significantly associated with increased mortality as compared to those without AKI [35 (29%) vs. 43 (34%), P = 0.454)].

When dichotomised into AKI stage 3 (severe AKI) and mild–moderate AKI, cases of the former were significantly associated with mortality in a univariate analysis [OR = 2.41 (95% CI 1.05–5.49), P = 0.036] whereas mild–moderate AKI was not. Those with severe AKI manifested significantly higher proportions of hyponatraemia [7(50%) vs. 3(14%), P = 0.026] as well as high serum potassium (5.4  $\pm$  1.0 vs. 4.7  $\pm$  0.7, P = 0.014) as compared to those with mild–moderate AKI (Table 2).

Renal replacement therapy in the form of intermittent haemodialysis was required in 6 (5%) patients with AKI, but 5 (4%) were able to receive dialysis and 50% of those requiring dialysis died on admission.

The in-hospital mortality of all COVID-19 patients was 71 (31%). Mortality was also associated with severe COVID-19 [57 (74%) vs. 73 (44%), P < 0.001], increased respiratory rate on admission [32.2  $\pm$  11.0 vs. 27.4  $\pm$  8.2, P = 0.0002], hyperglycaemia [33 (44%) vs. 48 (29%), P = 0.022], pulse rate [104.2  $\pm$  19.1 vs. 95.2  $\pm$  19.5, P = 0.001], lymphopenia [28 (41%) vs. 32 (21%), P = 0.002], higher white cell count [12.6 (7.2–15.0) vs. 7.9 (6.1–11.7), P = 0.004 and lower sodium concentration [136.2  $\pm$  6.5 vs. 139.6  $\pm$  6.2, P = 0.038] as compared to survivors in a univariate analysis (Table 3).

In multiple logistic regression, the predictors of in-patient mortality were hyperglycaemia (OR = 18.5 [95% CI 2.1–165.2], P = 0.009], severe COVID-19 [OR = 31.3 (95% CI 1.5–635.5], P = 0.025), elevated white blood cell count [OR = 1.32, 95% CI 1.09–1.59, P = 0.004] and decreased lymphocyte count [OR = 0.16, 95% CI 0.03–0.81, P = 0.027], all as shown in Table 4.



Table 1. Baseline characteristics of COVID-19 patients and comparison by stages of acute kidney injury.						
Variable	All cases	AKI I (41)	AKI 2 (43)	AKI 3 (39)	P value	
Age (years) μ (SD) (n = 246)	56.3 ± 17.4	55.5 ± 19.9	57.8 ± 16.9	54.7 ± 18.9	0.597	
Male gender n (%) (n = 246)	129 (52.4)	19 (48.7)	20 (48.8)	18 (47.4)	0.770	
Age above 60 years n (%) (n = 246)	116 (47.2)	18 (46.2)	22 (53.7)	18 (47.4)	0.990	
History of diabetes n (%) (n = 245)	93 (38.0)	18 (46.2)	15 (36.6)	14 (36.8)	0.615	
History of hypertension n (%) (n = 245)	148 (60.4)	27 (69.2)	27 (65.9)	22 (57.9)	0.567	
Chronic kidney disease n (%) (n = 245)	24 (9.8)	7 (18.0)	3 (7.3)	3 (7.9)	0.308	
Fever n (%) (n = 244)	120 (49)	19 (48.7)	22 (55.0)	21 (55.3)	0.807	
Cough n (%) (n = 244)	170 (69.7)	30 (76.9)	25 (62.5)	25 (65.8	0.355	
Breathlessness n (%) (n = 244)	162 (66.4)	27 (69.2)	23 (57.5)	26 (68.4)	0.475	
Random blood sugar (mmol/L) M (IQR)	8.2 (6.2–13.8)	9.2 (6.0–17.1)	7.6 (6.2–12.8)	8.3 (6.7–14.7)	0.803	
Hyperglycaemia >11.1 mmol/L (n = 242)	81 (33.5)	13 (33.3)	12 (30.8)	14 (36.8)	0.852	
Respiratory rate cpm $\mu$ (SD)(n = 240)	28.9 ± 9.4	27.9 (10.1)	29.2 (8.3)	30.4 (10.0)	0.446	
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)(n = 245)	135.0 ± 24.5	143.0(22.4)	137.3 (19.0)	135.4(24.4)	0.309	
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)(n = 245)	81.9 ± 15.5	83.3 (14.0)	85.4 (10.4)	82.8 (14.9)	0.081	
Pulse rate (bpm) $\mu$ (SD)(n = 243)	98.0 ± 19.8	94.9 (16.2)	96.3 (20.2	104.1(19.7)	0.357	
Hypertension n (%)(n = 245)	(45.3)	22 (56.4)	22 (53.7)	19 (50.0)	0.852	
SPO2 (%) μ (SD)(n = 245)	0.94 (0.88–0.97)	91.6 (10.1)	88.5 (14.0)	89.9 (11.8)	0.134`	
Severe COVID-19 disease n (%)(n = 245)	131 (53.5)	17 (43.6)	25 (61.0)	21 (55.3)	0.286	
Haemoglobin (g/dL) $\mu$ (SD) (n = 229)	.  ± 2.8	10.5 (2.6)	11.8 (3.0)	11.4 (2.8)	0.643	
Anaemia n (%) (n = 229)	161 (67.9)	28 (77.8)	17 (47.2)	24 (66.7)	0.024	
Mean corpuscular volume (fL) $\mu$ (SD) (n = 227)	82.3 ± 9.7	84.3 (10.4)	84.2 (6.0)	84.3 (10.4)	0.001	
White blood cells (x109/L) M (IQR)(n = 229)	8.8 (6.2–13.8)	8.8 (7.0–12.1)	8.7 (6.7–11.5)	8.1 (6.5–13.8)	0.963	
Neutrophil count (x109/L) M (IQR)(n = 229)	5.6 (3.4–8.81)	5.8 (4.9–8.9)	6.3 (4.1–8.8)	5.6 (3.4–7.7)	0.287	
Lymphocyte count (x109/L) M (IQR) (n = 225)	1.4 (0.95–1.95)	1.5 (1.1–2.5)	1.4 (1.0–2.2)	1.3(1.0–1.9)	0.724	
Lymphopenia n(%)(n = 225)	60 (26.7)	6 (16.7)	12 (34.3)	8 (22.9)	0.217	
Platelet ( $\times$ 109/L) M(IQR) (n = 228)	205 (136.5–260.5)	224(169–270)	187 (156.5–242)	192(140–244)	0.449	
ESR (mmfall/hr) M (IQR) (n = 147)	35 (10-85)	20(10-85)	25 (8-105)	32(7.5-117)	0.672	
C-Reactive protein (mg/L) M (IQR) (n = 64)	67.2 (17.0 - 137.6)	73.8(54.0-119)	92.3(42.2-258.5)	20.1(0.6-164)	0.269	
Ferritin (µg/L) M (IQR)(n = 42)	996 (531.7–1745)	220.8 (636.5–1598.5)	308.5 (376–2241)	1072(415–1951)	0.985	
Total bilirubin (mmol/L) M (1QR) (n = 177)	3.  (8.9–2 .5)	2. (8.4– 8.4)	18.2 (11.5–28.7)	12.2 (7–20)	0.032	
Direct bilirubin (mmol/L) M (IQR)(n = $145$ )	4.3 (2.9–7.0)	3.6 (2.6–5.6)	5.4 (3.1–11.9)	4.9 (2.3–7.6)	0.262	
Aspartate transaminase (g/L) M (IQR) (n = 196)	50.5 (27.6-86.1)	53.9 (32.1–65.4)	66.4 (39.1–101)	47.6 925.4–73.1)	0.191	
Alanine transaminase (g/L) $M(IQR)(n = 190)$	34 (19.7–68.3)	49.9 (29.3–96)	41.7 (22–91.2)	23.2 (14.7–36.5)	0.003	
Serum Albumin (g/L) $\mu$ (SD) (n = 188)	34.6 ± 7.8	37.4 (34–39.1)	33.4(29.9–39.1)	36.6 (27.2–41.3)	0.004	
Serum Sodium (mmol/L) $\mu$ (SD) (n = 72)	138.4 ± 6.5	4 .  (7.7)	38.  (3.0)	37.4 ( 0.2)	0.001	
Hyponatraemia n (%) (n = 72)	17 (23.6)	1 (10)	2 (16.7)	7 (50)	0.056	
Serum potassium (mmol/L) n(%) (n = 74)	4.6 ±0.8	4.4 (0.9)	4.9 (0.5)	5.4 (1.0)	0.001	
Serum urea (mmol/L) M (IQR) (n = 212)	6.7 (4.2–13.9)	8.6(5.9–14.9)	12.7 (5.6–18.8)	22.8 (11.5–35.90)	0.001	
Serum creatinine ( $\mu$ mol/L) M (IQR) (n = 212)	98 (72–-188.5)	32 (  8– 32)	198 (164–270)	510 (136–984)	0.001	
Pre-renal AKI n (%) (n = 250)	123(49.2)	25 (61.0)	29 (67.4)	11 (28.2)	0.003	
lschaemic ATN n (%) (n = 123)	65 (52.9)	10 (24.4)	11 (25.6)	16 (41.0)	0.003	
Septic ATN n (%) (n = 123)	37 (30.1)	6 (14.6)	3 (7.0)	12 (30.0)	0.003	
In-hospital mortality n (%) (n = 249)	78 (31.3)	8 (20.5)	11 (25.6)	16 (42.1)	0.093	



Abbreviations: cpm, cycles per minute; µ, mean; SD, standard deviation; bpm, beats per minute; M, median; IQR, interquartile range; SPO2, partial pressure of oxygen; AKI, acute kidney injury; ATN, acute tubular necrosis; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate.

Table 2. Comparison of COVID-19 patients with severe and mild-moderate AKI (n = 123).					
Variable	Severe AKI (n = 39)	Mild–moderate AKI (n = 84)	P value		
Age (years) µ (SD)	54.7 ± 18.9	56.7 ± 18.3	0.596		
Male gender n (%)	18 (47.4)	40 (50.0)	0.789		
Age above 60 years n (%)	18 (47.4)	39 (48.8)	0.888		
History of diabetes n (%)	14 (36.8)	33 (41.3)	0.648		
History of hypertension n (%)	22 (64.4)	54 (67.5)	0.309		
Chronic kidney disease n (%)	3 (7.9)	10 (12.5)	0.545		
Random blood sugar (mmol/L) M (IQR)	8.3 (6.7–14.5)	7.9 (6.2–13.8)	0.717		
Hyperglycaemia (RBS>11.1) n (%)	14 (36.8)	25 (32.1)	0.608		
Pulse rate (bpm) µ (SD)	104.1 ± 19.7	95.6 ± 18.2	0.026		
Respiratory rate (cpm) $\mu$ (SD)	30.4 ± 10.0	28.6 ± 9.2	0.346		
Systolic BP (mmHg) $\mu$ (SD)	135.4 ± 24.4	140.1 ± 20.8	0.288		
Diastolic BP (mmHg) $\mu$ (SD)	82.8 ± 14.9	84.4 ± 12.3	0.529		
Hypertension n (%)	19(50)	44 (55.0)	0.611		
Partial pressure of oxygen (%) µ (SD)	89.9 ± 11.8	90.0 ± 12.3	0.978		
Severe COVID-19 disease n (%)	21 (55.3)	42 (52.5)	0.779		
Haemoglobin (g/dL) µ (SD)	.3 ± 2.8	.  ± 2.8	0.698		
Anaemia n (%)	24 (66.7)	45 (62.5)	0.671		
Mean corpuscular volume (fL) $\mu$ (SD)	84.3 ± 10.4	81.7 ± 9.4	0.195		
Platelets (x109/L) M (IQR)	192 (140–244)	208.5 (159.5–253)	0.463		
White blood cell count ( $\times$ 109/L) M (IQR)	8.1 (6.5–13.8)	8.8 (6.9–11.6)	0.915		
Lymphocyte count (x109/L)	1.3 (1.0–1.85)	1.5 (1.0–1.85)	0.195		
Lymphopenia n (%)	8 (22.9)	18 (25)	0.779		
Neutrophil count (x109/L) M (IQR)	5.6 (3.3–7.7)	5.8 (4.1–8.9)	0.428		
ESR (mmfall/hr) M (IQR)	32 (7.5–117)	25 (9–89.5)	0.446		
C-Reactive protein (mg/L) M (IQR)	20.1 (0.6–164)	80.6 (54.0–119)	0.105		
Ferritin (µg/L) M (IQR)	1072.9 (415.2–1951)	1220.8 (625–1808)	0.914		
Total bilirubin (mmol/L) M (IQR)	12.2 (7.0–20.0)	14.2 (9.9–22.8)	0.159		
Aspatate transaminase (U/L) M (IQR)	47.6(25.4–73.1)	54.6 (34–94.6)	0.089		
Alanine transaminase (U/L) M (IQR)	23.2 (14.7–36.5)	49.6 (24.1–96.0)	0.001		
Albumin (g/L) μ (SD)	34.1 ± 9.7	34.8 ± 6.5	0.700		
Serum sodium (mmol/L) μ (SD)	137.4 ± 10.2	139.5 ± 5.7	0.431		
Potassium (mmol/L) μ (SD)	5.4 ± 1.0	4.7 ± 0.7	0.014		
Hyponatraemia n (%)	7 (50)	3 (13.6)	0.026		
Urea (mmol/L) M (IQR)	22.8 (11.5–35.8)	10.1 (5.9–18.1)	< 0.00		
Serum creatinine (µmol/L) M (IQR)	510 (136–984)	159 (125–213)	< 0.00		
In-hospital mortality	16 (42.1)	19 (23.2)	0.034		

Abbreviations: cpm, cycles per minute; µ, mean; SD, standard deviation; bpm, beats per minute; M, median; IQR, interquartile range; AKI, acute kidney injury; ATN, acute tubular necrosis; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate.



# DISCUSSION

This is the first study to describe acute kidney injury and mortality in patients with RT-PCR-proven COVID-19 in Ghana, to the best of our knowledge. AKI occurred in almost half of the admitted patients and was mostly due to pre-renal AKI and acute tubular necrosis. Mortality was significantly higher among those with severe AKI as compared to those with mild-moderate AKI. Half of the patients requiring intermittent haemodialysis died on admission. The in-hospital mortality of all patients with COVID-19 was 31% and was associated significantly with

Table 3. In-hospital mortality of patients with COVID-19 at the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital.					
Variable	Mortality (n = 78)	Survival (n = 171)	P value		
Age (yrs) μ (SD)	58.7 ± 17.8	55.2 ± 17.1	0.141		
Age greater than 60 n (%)	42 (55.3)	72 (43.4)	0.085		
Male gender n (%)	37(50.7)	88 (52.4)	0.809		
History of diabetes n (%)	27 (37.0)	65 (38.9)	0.777		
History of hypertension n (%)	44 (60.3)	103 (61.7)	0.837		
History of chronic kidney disease n (%)	5 (6.9)	19 (11.4)	0.282		
History of sickle cell disease n (%)	0 (0)	7 (3.7)	0.076		
Human immunodeficiency virus n (%)	7(9.6)	7 (4.4)	0.142		
Malignancy n (%)	10 (13.0)	2 (1.2)	0.001		
Respiratory rate (cpm)	32.2 ± 11.0	27.4 ± 8.2	0.0002		
Systolic BP (mmHg) $\mu$ (SD)	135.9 ± 25.6	34.5 ± 24.1	0.678		
Diastolic BP (mmHg) $\mu$ (SD)	83.6 ± 17.7	81.2 ± 14.4	0.257		
Hypertension n (%)	38 (49.4)	73 (43.7)	0.411		
Random blood sugar (mmol/L) M (IQR)	9.3 (6.4–15.5)	7.9 (6.2–12.8)	0.184		
Hyperglycaemia (RBS >11.1mmol/L) n (%)	33 (44.0)	48 (28.9)	0.022		
Pulse rate (bpm) µ (SD)	104.2 ± 19.1	95.2 ± 19.5	0.001		
Partial pressure of oxygen (%) n (%)	88.4 ± 13.2	91.7 ± 8.8	0.022		
Severe COVID-19 disease n (%)	57 (74.0)	73 (43.7)	< 0.00		
Haemoglobin (g/dL) µ (SD)	11.2 ± 2.8	10.9 ± 2.8	0.225		
Platelet (x109/L) M (IQR)	188.5 (105–245)	206 (149–272)	0.053		
White blood cell count (x109/L) M (IQR)	12.6 (7.2–15.0)	7.9 (6.1–11.7)	0.004		
Lymphopenia n (%)	28 (40.6)	32 (20.7)	0.002		
Lymphoctyte count (x109/L) M (IQR)	1.2 (0.7–1.6)	1.5 (1.1–2.1)	< 0.00		
Neutrophil count (x109/L) M (IQR)	5.4 (3.0-8.8)	5.8 (3.7–8.9)	0.573		
ESR (mmfall/hr) M (IQR)	25 (10–70)	40 (12.0–90)	0.304		
C-reactive protein (mg/L) M (IQR)	33.2 (  .6–  0. )	67 (17.1–130.6)	0.55		
Ferritin (µg/L) M (IQR)	913.5 (415.2–1421)	921 (531.7–1808)	0.201		
Total bilirubin (mmol/L) M (IQR)	13.8 (8.6–25.6)	3.  (9.319.6)	0.696		
Aspartate transaminase (U/L) M (IQR)	49.7 (34.1–106.5)	51.1 (23.9–76.4)	0.112		
Alanine Transaminase (U/L) M (IQR)	34 (17.7–95.8)	35.2 (20–63.4)	0.758		
Albumin (g/L) µ (SD)	32.6 ± 9.8	35.6 ± 6.7	0.006		
Sodium (mmol/L)	$136.2 \pm 6.8$	39.6 ± 6.1	0.038		
Potassium (mmol/)L µ (SD)	4.6 ± 0.8	4.6 ± 0.9	0.903		
Urea (mmol/L) M (IQR)	6.1 (3.7–11.5)	6.8 (4.5–15.5)	0.201		
Serum creatinine (µmol/L) M (IQR)	97 (68–178)	98 (74–191.5)	0.792		
Acute kidney injury n (%)	35 (44.9)	84 (50.0)	0.454		
Stage 3 AKI n (%)	16 (20.5)	22 (13.2)	0.139		

Abbreviations: cpm, cycles per minute; µ, mean; SD, standard deviation; bpm, beats per minute; M, median; IQR, interquartile range; AKI, acute kidney injury; ATN, acute tubular necrosis; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate.



severe COVID-19, hyperglycaemia, high white cell count, and low lymphocyte counts.

The proportion of COVID-19 patients with AKI was 49.% higher than a similar study in two tertiary-level hospitals in

South Africa, where AKI occurred in 33.9% of cases [20] and even lower than 5.1% in China in 2020 [5]. Our high prevalence of AKI could also be attributed to the fact the HIIU is a referral site for severe cases including patients

Table 4. Predictors of in-hospital mortality of patients with COVID-19 by multiple logistic regression.					
Variable	Standard error	Z value	Odds ratio	95% CI	P value
Malignancy	13.58	1.28	8.26	0.33–207.30	0.199
Respiratory rate	0.058	-1.63	0.90	0.79-1.02	0.104
Hyperglycaemia	20.65	2.61	18.48	2.07-165.2	0.009
Pulse rate	0.03	1.12	1.03	0.98-1.07	0.262
Admission SPO2	1.42	1.95	1.19	0.86–1.64	0.05 I
Severe COVID-19	48.16	2.24	31.3	1.53-638.53	0.025
White cell count	0.125	2.91	1.32	1.09-1.59	0.004
Lymphocyte count	0.132	-2.2	0.16	0.03–0.81	0.027
Serum sodium	0.073	-1.37	0.89	0.76-1.05	0.171

Abbreviations: cpm, cycles per minute; µ, mean; SD, standard deviation; bpm, beats per minute; M, median; IQR, interquartile range; AKI, acute kidney injury; ATN, acute tubular necrosis; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation rate.

who require ICU care with severe and critical COVID-19 disease and that may account for the similar prevalence of AKI in our study as compared to other studies conducted in ICU settings [21].

AKI has been attributed directly or indirectly to the SARS-COV-2 infections [1]. Pre-renal AKI was the most common cause of AKI in our cohort. This could be attributed to the low intravascular depletion due to anorexia, dehydration and hypovolaemia associated with the infection. Septic and ischaemic ATN may have resulted also from the infection, poorly managed pre-renal AKI due to late reporting of cases to the hospital as recorded in other studies [5, 11].

It is still debatable to what extent the virus directly affects the kidneys in patients with COVID-19 but it has been suggested that the AKI is mainly indirect as a result of the cytokine storm syndrome, which has been shown to be the principal contributing factor of disease severity in patients with COVID-19 [22]. A postmortem report of COVID-19 patients showed found no evidence of SARS-COV-2 in biopsied kidneys [10]. A recent study implicating collapsing glomerulopathy as a cause of kidney disease has been published in sub-Saharan Africa [8], highlighting the importance of COVID-19-associated nephropathy (COVAN) in some patients with increased risk of progression to CKD [9].

The mortality of patients with COVID-19 in our study was higher than in another study showing a mortality of 16.1% [5] but lower than 68.9% in one conducted in an ICU setting [21]. A high mortality of 58.9% has been recorded in patients on dialysis in South Africa, where the predictors of mortality were found to be a requirement for renal replacement therapy, the use of inotropes and the presence of shock. The authors did not find any association with gender, hypertension and diabetes mellitus [23] as also noted in our study.

Mortality in our subjects was predicted by clinical hyperglycaemia and not a history of diabetes mellitus. Hyperglycaemia has been shown to be significantly associated with mortality in COVID-19 patients [24]. Glycaemic control is essential to improve the survival of patients with COVID-19. Hyperglycaemia results in an impaired immune response, thereby increasing susceptibility to SARS-CoV-2 infection [24]. The decreased immunity has also been shown by other researchers to predict the death of patients, as found also in our study [25]. There is also growing evidence to suggest new onset diabetes in patients with COVID-19 causes ketoacidosis requiring high doses of insulin in their management [26].

Mortality in our study was predicted by the severity of COVID-19 as also shown in other studies [2, 11]. The severity of COVID-19 may be associated with cytokine storm, which has been demonstrated to be associated with increased risk of AKI. Severe COVID-19 disease increases the risk of ICU admission, AKI, requirement for renal replacement therapy and mortality [21].

Mortality was also predicted significantly by lower lymphocyte count, which has also been documented as a poor prognostic factor in COVID-19 patients in a meta-analysis [27]. Lymphopenia impairs the adaptive antiviral response and renders the host susceptible to severe systemic inflammatory response and a cytokine storm [22]. This may have also resulted in the development of AKI and a rise in serum creatinine in our study.

Mortality was further predicted by an increased white cell count as was reported in a meta-analysis by Henry et al. [27]. This may have been due to superimposed bacterial infections, which may increase the severity of disease and contributed significantly to mortality as shown in our study.



44

Dysregulation of neutrophils has been postulated to contribute to widespread immune thrombogenesis leading to end organ damage [28].

Our study did not show an association between AKI in general and mortality as shown in other studies [I, 5] but indicated a high mortality rate in those with severe (stage 3) AKI as compared to those with mild-moderate AKI as also shown by a large study in South Africa [20] and the Democratic Republic of Congo [29]. They showed that severe AKI was associated with increased use of ICU care, prolonged hospital stays and mortality.

Our study had some limitations. First, it was retrospective and data were missing in some cases. Second, it was a single-centre study and the findings may not be generalisable. In addition, some patients were also not able to afford some laboratory investigations due to cost and the risks associated with drawing frequent blood samples while observing strict safety protocols in full personal protective equipment by staff. Furthermore, urine output was not routinely monitored in most cases and the diagnosis of the cause of AKI was based on clinical judgement of the attending physician, which may have been subjective. The causes of mortality were not stated in patients' records and hence could not be reported. We recommend a prospective study to look more into the mortality associated with AKI in poorly resourced settings such as Ghana.

# CONCLUSIONS

AKI is relatively common among patients with COVID-19. Generally, the condition was not significantly associated with increased mortality. Severe AKI was, however, associated with increased mortality as compared to mild-moderate AKI. In-hospital mortality occurred in a third of COVID-19 patients and was significantly associated with hyperglycaemia, severe COVID-19, increased white blood cell count and low lymphocyte count.

#### Acknowledgements

We wish to acknowledge all the nurses, interns, registrars, specialists and consultants at the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital, who helped in the management of the cases at the HIIU recruited for this study. We thank also the Department of Internal Medicine and the management of the hospital for the data.

#### Availability of data and material

All data supporting our conclusions are included within the article.

#### **Ethical approval**

Ethical approval was obtained by the institutional review of the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital before the start of the study (IRB number KATH IRB/AP/132/20). Informed consent was waived by the institutional review board as this was a retrospective study and did not involve direct interaction with patients but clinical notes of patients admitted to the medical ward of the hospital.

#### **Authors' contribution**

EKT initiated the study and wrote the proposal and the first version of the manuscript. EO, KHM, MA and FAA collected the data. Cleaning the data for analysis was performed by EO and EKT. EKT analysed the data and wrote the first draft. All authors were involved in critically revising the manuscript and approved the manuscript before submission. EKT and EO had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for its integrity and the accuracy.

#### Funding

The study was funded by the authors. There was no external source of funding.

#### **Conflict of interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

#### REFERENCES

- Naicker S, Yang C-W, Hwang S-J et al. The novel coronavirus 2019 epidemic and kidneys. Kidney Int. 2020; 97(5):824-828.
- Zhou F, Yu T, Du R et al. Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: a retrospective cohort study. The Lancet. 2020; 395(10229):1054-1062.
- Mehtar S, Preiser W, Lakhe NA et al. Limiting the spread of COVID-19 in Africa: one size mitigation strategies do not fit all countries. The Lancet Glob Health. 2020; 8(7):e881-e883.
- Bamgboye EL, Omiye JA, Afolaranmi OJ et al. COVID-19 pandemic: Is Africa different? J Natl Med Assoc. 2020; S0027-9684(20)30345-X.
- Cheng Y, Luo R, Wang K et al. Kidney disease is associated with in-hospital death of patients with COVID-19. Kidney Int. 2020; 97(5):829-838.
- Wang F, Ran L, Qian C, et al. Epidemiology and outcomes of acute kidney injury in COVID-19 patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome: a multicenter retrospective study. Blood purif. 2021; 50(4-5):499-505.
- Gross O, Moerer O, Weber M, Huber TB, Scheithauer S. COVID-19-associated nephritis: early warning for disease severity and complications? The Lancet. 2020; 395(10236): e87-e88.
- Nlandu YM, Makulo J-RR, Pakasa NM, et al. First case of COVID-19associated collapsing glomerulopathy in sub-Saharan Africa. Case Rep. Nephrol. 2020; 2020
- Velez JCQ, Caza T, Larsen CP: COVAN is the new HIVAN: the re-emergence of collapsing glomerulopathy with COVID-19. Nat Rev Nephrol. 2020; 16(10):565-567.
- Sharma P, Uppal NN, Wanchoo R, et al. COVID-19-associated kidney injury: a case series of kidney biopsy findings. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2020; 31 (9):1948-1958.



45

- II. Chu KH, Tsang WK, Tang CS et al. Acute renal impairment in coronavirus-associated severe acute respiratory syndrome. Kidney Int. 2005; 67(2):698-705.
- Wong P-N, Mak S-K, Lo K-Y, et al. Clinical presentation and outcome of severe acute respiratory syndrome in dialysis patients. Am J Kidney Dis. 2003; 42(5):1075-1081.
- 13. Elsayed HM, Wadee S, Zaki MS, et al. Guidelines for the prevention, detection and management of the renal complications of COVID-19 in Africa. Afr J NephroL. 2020; 23(1):109-126.
- 14. Tannor EK. Challenges in Kidney Care in a Lower Middle Income Country During the COVID-19 Pandemic - the Ghanaian Perspective. Kidney Int Rep. 2021; 6(8):2014-2016.
- 15. Tannor EK, Bieber B, Aylward R, Luyckx V, et al. The COVID-19 Pandemic Identifies Significant Global Inequities in Hemodialysis Care in Low and Lower-Middle Income Countries—An ISN/DOPPS Survey. Kidney Int Rep. 2022; 7(5):971-82.
- 16. World Health Organization, 2020. Criteria for releasing COVID-19 patients from isolation: scientific brief, 17 June 2020 (No. WHO/2019 nCoV/Sci\_Brief/Discharge from isolation/2020.1). World Health Organization.
- 17. World Health Organization, 2020. Clinical management of severe acute respiratory infection (SARI) when COVID-19 disease is suspected: interim guidance, 13 March 2020 (No. WHO/2019-nCoV/ clinical/2020.4). World Health Organization.
- Kellum JA, Lameire N, Aspelin P, et al. Kidney disease: improving global outcomes (KDIGO) acute kidney injury work group. KDIGO clinical practice guideline for acute kidney injury. Kidney Int Suppl. 2012; 2(1):1-138.
- National KF: K/DOQI clinical practice guidelines for chronic kidney disease: evaluation, classification, and stratification. Am J Kidney Dis. 2002; 39 (2 Suppl 1):S1.
- Diana NE, Kalla IS, Wearne N, Kariv S, Davidson B, Rusch J, et al. Acute kidney injury during the COVID-19 pandemic—experience from two tertiary centres in South Africa. Wits J Clin Med 2020; 2(3):189-198.
- Alessandri F, Pistolesi V, Manganelli C, Ruberto F, Ceccarelli G, Morabito S, et al. Acute kidney injury and COVID-19: a picture from an intensive care unit. Blood Purif. 2021; 50(6):767-71.
- 22. Chen J, Lau Y.F, Lamirande E.W et al. Cellular immune responses to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) infection in senescent BALB/c mice: CD4+ T cells are important in control of SARS-CoV infection. J Virol. 2010; 84(3):1289-1301.
- 23. van Hougenhouck-Tulleken WG, Hussain M, do Vale C: COVID-19related acute kidney injury and dialysis: What are the outcomes in South Africa? Afr J Nephrol. 2021; 24(1):46-50.
- 24. Rastad H, Karim H, Ejtahed H-S, et al. Risk and predictors of in-hospital mortality from COVID-19 in patients with diabetes and cardiovascular disease. Diabetol Metab Syndr. 2020; 12(1):1-11.
- Gallo Marin B, Aghagoli G, Lavine K, et al. Predictors of COVID-19 severity: A literature review. Rev Med Virol. 2021; 31(1):1-10.
- Chee Y.J, Ng S.J.H, Yeoh E. Diabetic ketoacidosis precipitated by Covid-19 in a patient with newly diagnosed diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Res Clin Pract. 2020; 164:108166.
- 27. Henry BM, Cheruiyot I, Vikse J, Mutua V, Kipkorir V, Benoit J, et al. Lymphopenia and neutrophilia at admission predicts severity and mortality in patients with COVID-19: a meta-analysis. Acta Biomed. Ateneo Parmense. 2020; 91 (3):e2020008.
- Henry B.M, Vikse J, Benoit S, Favaloro E.J, Lippi G. Hyperinflammation and derangement of renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system in COVID-19: a novel hypothesis for clinically suspected hypercoagulopathy and microvascular immunothrombosis. Clinica Chimica Acta. 2020; 507:167-173.
- 29. Nlandu Y, Mafuta D, Sakaji J, Brecknell M, Engole Y, Abatha J, et al. Predictors of mortality in COVID-19 patients at Kinshasa Medical Center and a survival analysis: a retrospective cohort study. BMC infect. Dis. 2021; 21(1):1-11.



46