

Original article

## Antioxidant status of children with steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome

Janusz Fydryk<sup>1</sup>, Ewa Jacobson<sup>1</sup>, Olga Kurzawska<sup>1</sup>, Grażyna Małecka<sup>1</sup>, Bolesław Gonet<sup>2</sup>, Tomasz Urański<sup>1</sup>, Andrzej Brodkiewicz<sup>1</sup>, and Hanna Bukowska<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> I Department of Pediatrics, Pomeranian Academy of Medicine, Szczecin, Poland

<sup>2</sup> Department of Medical Biophysics, Pomeranian Academy of Medicine, Szczecin, Poland

<sup>3</sup> Department of Biochemistry and Chemistry, Pomeranian Academy of Medicine, Szczecin, Poland

Received October 13, 1997; received in revised form April 13, 1998; accepted April 14, 1998

**Abstract.** Eighteen children with steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome (SSNS) were studied. The control group comprised 20 healthy children. The following indirect parameters of reactive oxygen species activity were determined in nephrotic patients during four stages of the disease (full relapse before prednisone administration, disappearance of proteinuria, prednisone cessation, unmaintained remission): plasma malondialdehyde (MDA) levels, copper/zinc superoxide dismutase (CuZn SOD) activity and glutathione peroxidase (GPX) activity in erythrocytes, reduced glutathione (GSH) and vitamin C levels in whole blood, and vitamin E level in serum. Increased MDA levels, reduced vitamin C levels, and enhanced CuZn SOD activity were found in relapse. GSH concentration was high during all four stages. Vitamin E level was also increased, parallel to the pattern of serum lipids. GPX activity remained low during the proteinuria stage and in remission. We conclude that the majority of abnormal findings can be attributed to the hyperlipidemia of NS. Low GPX activity may be a factor limiting the antioxidant capacity in NS. The present study is inconclusive regarding the role of free radicals in the proteinuria of NS.

**Key words:** Nephrotic syndrome – Antioxidants – Reactive oxygen species

### Introduction

A change of glomerular filtration barrier integrity resulting in proteinuria may affect the structure of the glomerular capillary wall, its function, or both [1]. Several pieces of experimental evidence suggest alteration within proteoglycans and glycosaminoglycans of the glomerular filtration barrier concurrent with proteinuria in the absence of major glomerular pathology [2–4]. Many fac-

tors induce proteinuria under experimental conditions [1]. Reactive oxygen species (ROS), which are strong oxidants, can also produce proteinuria by inducing injury to glomerular epithelial cells and subsequent alterations in glomerular filtration barrier components synthesized by these cells, by reducing of the electronegative charge of the glomerular filtration barrier or by other unknown mechanisms [5–11]. ROS that affect barrier to macromolecular filtration can be generated in the circulation [12–15] or locally by glomerular cells [16–18]. The triggering mechanism leading to free radical production remains speculative. It may be related to infection, allergy, or some other immune stimulus. In clinical practice both infection and exposure to allergens frequently precede relapse of the nephrotic syndrome.

In the clinical setting direct investigation of the role of ROS in inducing proteinuria is not feasible. However, the natural antioxidants present in the blood may provide indirect information about the extent of free radical reactions in the body. The object of the present study was to examine indirect evidence of ROS activity in various stages of steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome (SSNS).

### Patients and methods

**Patients.** Eighteen children aged 4–13 years with SSNS were investigated during four stages of SSNS: full relapse before prednisone administration (I), disappearance of proteinuria (II), prednisone cessation (III), and remission at least 4 weeks after prednisone withdrawal (IV). All patients were infrequent relapsers [19], had normal blood pressure and serum creatinine levels, and ingested a diet appropriate for age without additional vitamin supplementation. Relapse, defined as daily urinary protein excretion  $\geq 40$  mg/h per  $m^2$  [20], was treated with daily prednisone (60 mg/ $m^2$  per day in 3 divided doses) until the urine was protein free for 3 days, with subsequent alternate-day prednisone (40 mg/ $m^2$  per day) in a single morning dose for 4 weeks. Kidney biopsy was not performed. Clinical data of nephrotic patients are shown in Table 1. The control group comprised 20 healthy children of comparable age, on a normal diet without vitamin supplementation.

**Table 1.** Clinical data of patients

Patient no.	Age (years)	No. of relapse	Proteinuria (mg/h per m <sup>2</sup> ) Serum albumin (g/dl)			
			I	II	III	IV
1	4	1	46.0	–	–	–
			3.4	3.5	4.0	ND
2	7.5	3	134.0	–	–	–
			2.3	2.7	3.9	ND
3	4	1	172.0	–	–	–
			1.5	3.6	4.7	ND
4	4.5	7	133.0	–	–	–
			2.9	3.0	4.1	ND
5	12	12	759.0	–	–	–
			2.2	3.0	4.3	ND
6	4	1	129.0	–	–	–
			1.9	3.6	3.8	ND
7	13	9	120.0	–	–	–
			1.5	2.0	4.2	4.6
8	4	1	64.0	–	–	–
			1.2	3.4	4.5	ND
9	9	5	93.0	–	–	–
			2.4	4.0	4.5	ND
10	5	6	40.0	–	–	–
			2.2	2.3	3.4	ND
11	4	1	63.0	–	–	–
			1.6	1.8	4.2	ND
12	12	1	293.0	–	–	–
			1.8	3.8	ND	ND
13	11	6	140.0	–	–	–
			2.8	2.8	4.1	4.5
14	10	6	296.0	–	–	–
			3.4	4.0	ND	ND
15	13	12	187.0	–	–	–
			1.8	1.8	ND	3.8
16	4	3	244.0	–	–	–
			3.3	3.4	3.9	ND
17	4.5	4	160.0	–	–	–
			1.6	3.2	3.8	ND
18	10	9	407.0	–	–	–
			1.3	1.7	4.5	ND

I Relapse, before prednisone administration; II, disappearance of proteinuria; III, prednisone cessation; IV, remission at least 4 weeks after prednisone withdrawal; ND, not determined

**Methods.** Copper/zinc superoxide dismutase (CuZn SOD) activity in red blood cells was determined by the spectrophotometric method described by Misra and Fridovich [21]. CuZn SOD present in red blood cells inhibits spontaneous autooxidation of adrenaline to adrenochrome (wavelength 320 nm); 50% inhibition of adrenaline oxidation was taken as a unit of CuZn SOD activity.

**Table 2.** Parameters of indirect reactive oxygen species activity in various stages of steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome

Parameter	Normal value	I	II	III	IV
CuZn SOD <sub>E</sub> (U/mg Hb)	0.97±0.27	1.17±0.39* <sup>1</sup>	1.16±0.37* <sup>1</sup>	0.98±0.43	1.07±0.38
GPX <sub>E</sub> (nmol NADPH/mg Hb per min)	13.16±2.95	10.69±3.12* <sup>1</sup>	11.87±3.46	11.90±3.40 * <sup>1</sup>	9.78±3.80* <sup>1</sup>
Vitamin C <sub>B</sub> (μmol/l)	114.3 ±16.8	67.06±22.9* <sup>1,*3</sup>	67.81±12.9* <sup>1</sup>	88.4 ±23.6* <sup>1</sup>	96.8 ±18.3
GSH <sub>B</sub> (mg/dl)	26.06±4.99	33.60±5.98* <sup>2,*3</sup>	34.77±5.64* <sup>2</sup>	33.09±7.10* <sup>2</sup>	30.13±5.73* <sup>1</sup>
Vitamin E <sub>S</sub> (μmol/l)	23.31±3.75	43.24±12.90* <sup>2,*4</sup>	40.27±11.57* <sup>2</sup>	29.23±18.75* <sup>1</sup>	26.10±9.83
MDA <sub>P</sub> (μmol/l)	0.59±0.16	2.22±1.13* <sup>2,*4</sup>	1.79±0.56* <sup>2</sup>	1.14±0.46* <sup>2</sup>	0.95±0.42* <sup>1</sup>

E, Erythrocytes; B, blood; S, serum; P, plasma; CuZn SOD, copper/zinc superoxide dismutase; GPX, glutathione peroxidase; GSH, reduced glutathione; MDA, malondialdehyde; Hb, hemoglobin

\*<sup>1</sup>  $P < 0.05$  vs. normal; \*<sup>2</sup>  $P < 0.001$  vs. normal; \*<sup>3</sup>  $P < 0.05$  group IV vs. group I; \*<sup>4</sup>  $P < 0.001$  group IV vs. group I

Glutathione peroxidase (GPX) activity in red blood cells was measured by the method described by Sinet et al. [22], with an incubation temperature of 25° C instead of 37° C. The vitamin C level in blood was determined by electron spin resonance (ESR) with the use of ESR spectrometer SE/X 2544 Radiopan and resonance chamber RCX 660. Diphenyl-picryl-hydrazyl was employed as a standard to determine the  $g$  coefficient and the concentration of unpaired electrons. Lyophilized blood has a strong ESR in air, originating from the ascorbyl free radical whose precursor is L-ascorbic acid [23]; 10<sup>16</sup> spin/g dry radical is approximately equal to 76.2 μmol vitamin C/l of blood.

Reduced glutathione (GSH) was estimated in blood using a colorimetric method with dithionitrobenzoic acid [24]. Serum vitamin E was measured by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) [25, 26] on Merck Hitachi equipment with fluorometric detection (excitation 292 nm, emission 324 nm). Plasma malondialdehyde (MDA) was measured by HPLC (after reaction with thiobarbituric acid) and fluorometric detection (excitation 532 nm, emission 553 nm) [27].

Serum triglycerides (TG), total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein (LDL)-cholesterol, and high-density lipoprotein (HDL)-cholesterol levels were estimated using kits produced by Boehringer Mannheim. Results and the ratio of vitamin E to lipid fractions were compared with the normal values of Polish children.

The results are expressed as means plus or minus standard deviation and were analyzed statistically by analysis of variance and Fisher test. A  $P < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

## Results

The results in nephrotic patients obtained during selected stages of NS were compared with values found in healthy children. NS patients in relapse were also compared with those in full unmaintained remission (Table 2).

CuZn SOD activity was enhanced during the proteinuria stage ( $P < 0.05$ ) and thereafter normalized. CuZn SOD activity was normal in remission. GPX activity was decreased in relapse ( $P < 0.05$ ), was normal when proteinuria disappeared, and again decreased at termination of prednisone therapy and in remission ( $P < 0.05$ ). GPX activity was decreased both in relapse and in remission.

Serum vitamin C was low during relapse ( $P < 0.05$ ). When treatment was terminated (stage III) the vitamin C level increased, but was still lower than in remission (stage IV). The vitamin C level in remission (stage IV) was higher than in relapse ( $P < 0.05$ ). The GSH level was consistently and significantly elevated during all four stages. During remission the GSH level was still higher than in controls and during relapse ( $P < 0.05$ ).

The vitamin E level was elevated during the proteinuria stage ( $P<0.001$ ) and at termination of treatment ( $P<0.05$ ). During remission the vitamin E level was decreased compared with during relapse ( $P<0.001$ ). The MDA concentration was significantly increased during all four stages (stages I–III,  $P<0.001$ ; stage IV,  $P<0.05$ ). The highest level was observed during the proteinuria stage, declining throughout the period of observation. The MDA concentration during remission was higher than in controls ( $P<0.05$ ) and lower than during relapse ( $P<0.001$ ).

Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, and TG were elevated, the highest levels being noted during relapse and declining steadily throughout the subsequent stages of NS. The vitamin E/lipid ratio was elevated. Detailed lipid values are not shown in this paper.

## Discussion

The term “antioxidant” is not uniformly interpreted. Some investigators restrict this term to chain-breaking inhibitors of peroxidation. We accept a broader definition of an antioxidant, as any substance that significantly delays or prevents oxidation of the substrate [28–30]. For this reason, in addition to vitamin C, vitamin E and glutathione, enzymes also active in ROS neutralization, have been included in the study.

The role of free radicals in inducing proteinuria experimentally has been well documented [5, 6, 8, 11]. However, in humans there is no direct evidence of a cause-effect relationship. Hyperlipidemia, which was observed throughout the stages of SSNS and which is known to be linked to oxidative reactions and generation of radicals, appears to be the most likely cause of the majority of findings reported in the present investigation.

Vitamin E is an important lipid-soluble antioxidant that acts synergistically with vitamin C, which regenerates vitamin E by reducing the tocopherol radical produced when vitamin E scavenges peroxy radicals [31]. Vitamin E is transported in serum with serum lipids, and vitamin E levels correlate with serum lipid concentrations [32]. As the serum lipid level increases vitamin E appears to partition out of the cellular membranes into circulating lipoproteins [33]. In accordance with this observation, we found a decreased vitamin E concentration in erythrocyte membranes during relapse of NS when serum lipids were typically elevated [34]. The high ratio of serum vitamin E to lipid fractions observed during all four NS stages demonstrated sufficient vitamin E in nephrotic patients. However, a high serum vitamin E level does not imply an equally high content of this vitamin in lipid membranes, where it acts as a principal antioxidant.

Vitamin C is one of the most-efficient water-soluble antioxidants [35, 36]. After completing its role as a reducing agent, vitamin C is oxidized and forms the ascorbyl radical. The high disproportion rate constant of the ascorbyl radical allows for its conversion to dehydro-L-ascorbic acid and vitamin C before it interacts with substances liable to oxidation [37]. The low reduction po-

tential of the ascorbyl radical/vitamin C compared with the reduction potential of several other one-electron reduction potential systems makes it a very effective antioxidant [37]. The low level of vitamin C during relapse, with increasing levels thereafter, indicates its consumption in the process of antioxidant activity.

GSH, besides being an independent antioxidant, is a key compound for regeneration of GPX and the oxidized form of vitamin C in a non-enzymatic reaction [38]. After completing its role as a reductant, GSH undergoes oxidation to GSSG, which in turn becomes reduced in the presence of glutathione reductase and NADPH. Since GSH-levels were high throughout period of observation, GSH-dependent element of antioxidant defense were sufficient in the patients examined.

In contrast to manganese SOD which is an inducible enzyme, CuZn SOD is considered a constitutive enzyme [39, 40]. Despite this, increased CuZn SOD activity was observed during NS relapse and subsidence of proteinuria ( $P<0.05$ ). Interpretation of this findings is difficult. Increased CuZn SOD activity in stage I cannot be attributed to prednisone therapy, since measurement of enzyme activity during relapse preceded treatment.

Of particular interest and requiring further investigation is the behavior of GPX, which catalyzes decomposition of hydrogen peroxide and organic peroxides. GPX activity was decreased during the proteinuria stage ( $P<0.05$  vs. controls), after cessation of prednisone therapy ( $P<0.05$  vs. controls), and during unmaintained remission ( $P<0.05$  vs. controls). The decreased GPX activity observed during relapse was also seen in remission. The possible impact of prednisone on the normal GPX activity observed at the time of disappearance of proteinuria (stage II), which coincided with the end of high-dose prednisone therapy, remains unclear. GPX is a selenium (Se)-containing enzyme, Se being localized to the active center of the enzyme. In this study neither blood Se level nor catalytic activity of GPX in terms of existing inhibitors were investigated. Se-deficient nephrotic rats had reduced activity of GPX and significantly greater proteinuria than animals with a normal Se supply [41]. Moderately but repeatedly reduced GPX activity during the course of NS – if confirmed – may be a feature of SSNS and a factor limiting antioxidant capacity in this disease.

## References

1. Savin VJ (1993) Mechanisms of proteinuria in noninflammatory glomerular diseases. *Am J Kidney Dis* 21:347–362
2. Rozenzweig LJ, Kanwar YS (1982) Removal of sulfated (heparan sulfate) or non-sulfated (hyaluronic acid) glycosaminoglycans results in increased permeability of the glomerular basement membrane to  $^{125}\text{I}$ -bovine serum albumin. *Lab Invest* 47:177–184
3. Kanwar YS, Rozenzweig LJ, Jakubowski ML (1987) Effect of beta-D-xyloside on the renal glomerular cells. II. Morphological studies. *Lab Invest* 56:160–169
4. Van den Born J, Van den Heuvel LPWJ, Bakker MAH, Veerkamp JH, Assmann KJM, Berden JHM (1992) A monoclonal antibody against GBM heparan sulfate induces an acute selective proteinuria in rats. *Kidney Int* 41:115–123

5. Diamond JR, Bonventre JV, Karnovsky MJ (1986) A role for oxygen free radicals in aminonucleoside nephrosis. *Kidney Int* 29:478–483
6. Diamond JR (1992) The role of reactive oxygen species in animal models of glomerular disease. *Am J Kidney Dis* 19:292–300
7. Kawaguchi M, Yamada M, Wada H, Okigaki T (1992) Roles of active oxygen species in glomerular epithelial cell injury in vitro caused by puromycin aminonucleoside. *Toxicology* 72:329–340
8. Johnson RJ, Couser WG, Chi EY, Adler S, Klebanoff SJ (1987) New mechanism for glomerular injury. *J Clin Invest* 79:1379–1387
9. Yoshioka T, Ichikawa I, Fogo A (1991) Reactive oxygen metabolites cause massive, reversible proteinuria and glomerular sieving defect without apparent ultrastructural abnormality. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2:902–912
10. Yoshioka T, Bills T, Moore-Jarrett T, Greene HL, Burr IM, Ichikawa I (1990) Role of intrinsic antioxidant enzymes in renal oxidant injury. *Kidney Int* 38:232–238
11. Ichikawa I, Kiyama S, Yoshioka T (1994) Renal antioxidant enzymes: their regulation and function. *Kidney Int* 45:1–9
12. Yoshioka T, Ichikawa I (1989) Glomerular dysfunction induced by polymorphonuclear leukocyte-derived reactive oxygen species. *Am J Physiol* 257:F53–F59
13. Rehan A, Wiggins RC, Kunkel RG, Till GO, Johnson KJ (1986) Glomerular injury and proteinuria in rats after intrarenal injection of cobra venom factor. Evidence for the role of neutrophil-derived oxygen free radicals. *Am J Pathol* 123:57–66
14. Kettle AJ, Winterbourn CC (1990) Superoxide enhances hypochlorous acid production by stimulated human neutrophils. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1052:379–385
15. Baud L, Perez J, Ardaillou R (1986) Dexamethasone and hydrogen peroxide production by mesangial cells during phagocytosis. *Am J Physiol* 250:F596–F604
16. Steinert BW, Anderson PJ, Oberley LW, Oberley TD (1986) Kidney glomerular explants in serum-free media: demonstration of intracellular antioxidant enzymes and active oxygen metabolites. *In Vitro Cell Dev Biol* 22:285–294
17. Baud L, Hagege J, Sraer J, Rondeau E, Perez J, Ardaillou R (1983) Reactive oxygen production by cultured rat glomerular mesangial cells during phagocytosis is associated with stimulation of lipoxygenase activity. *J Exp Med* 158:1836–1852
18. Sedor JR, Abboud HE (1985) Platelet activating factor stimulates oxygen radical release by cultured rat mesangial cells (abstract). *Kidney Int* 27:22
19. Edelmann CM Jr (1992) *Pediatric kidney disease*, 2nd edn. Little Brown, Boston, p 1279
20. Edelmann CM Jr (1992) *Pediatric kidney disease*, 2nd edn. Little Brown, Boston, p 1250
21. Misra HP, Fridovich I (1972) The role of superoxide anion in the autooxidation of epinephrine and a simple assay for superoxide dismutase. *J Biol Chem* 247:3170–3175
22. Sinet PM, Michelson AM, Bazin A, Lejeune J, Jerome H (1975) Increase in glutathione peroxidase activity in erythrocytes from trisomy 21 subjects. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 67:910–915
23. Gonet B (1994) Free-radical method for L-ascorbic acid determination in tissues of experimental animals. *Curr Top Biophys* 18:202–204
24. Beutler E (1986) *Red cell metabolism*. Churchill Livingstone, Edinburgh, pp 50–56
25. Bjerneboe A, Bjerneboe GEA, Bodd E, Hagan BF, Kveseth N, Drevon CA (1986) Transport and distribution of  $\alpha$ -tocopherol in lymph, serum and liver cells in rats. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 889:310–315
26. Biesalski H, Greiff H, Brodda K, Hafner G, Bassler KH (1986) Rapid determination of vitamin A (retinal) and vitamin E ( $\alpha$ -tocopherol) in human serum by isocratic absorption HPLC. *Int J Vitamin Nutr Res* 56:319–327
27. Young IS, Trimble ER (1991) Measurement of malondialdehyde in plasma by high performance liquid chromatography with fluorimetric detection. *Ann Clin Biochem* 28:504–508
28. Halliwell B (1995) Antioxidant characterization. *Methodology and mechanism*. *Biochem Pharmacol* 49:1341–1348
29. Halliwell B (1990) How to characterize a biological antioxidant. *Free Radic Res Commun* 9:1–32
30. Halliwell B, Gutteridge JMC (1989) *Free radicals in biology and medicine*, 2nd edn. Clarendon Press, Oxford
31. Niki E (1987) Interaction of ascorbate and  $\alpha$ -tocopherol. In: Burnes J, Ribers JM, Machlin LJ (eds) *Third conference on vitamin C*. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 498:186–199
32. Girelli D, Lupo A, Trevisan MT (1992) Red blood cell susceptibility to lipid peroxidation, membrane lipid composition and antioxidant enzymes in continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis patients. *Perit Dial Int* 12:205–210
33. Bieri JG, Poukka R, Thorp S (1977) Factors affecting the exchange of tocopherol between red blood cells and plasma. *Am J Clin Nutr* 30:686–690
34. Fydryk J, Jacobson E, Kurzawski G, Kurzawska O, Nowakowska J, Zielaskowska G (1991) Reakcje wolnorodnikowe w erytrocytach w przebiegu zespołu nerczykowego. *Pediatr Pol* 66:71–76
35. Roginsky VA, Stegmann HB (1994) Ascorbyl radical as natural indicator of oxidative stress: quantitative regularities. *Free Radic Biol Med* 17:93–103
36. Buettner GR, Jurkiewicz BA (1993) Ascorbate free radical as a marker of oxidative stress: an EPR study. *Free Radic Biol Med* 14:49–55
37. Rose RC, Bode AM (1993) Biology of free radical scavengers: an evaluation of ascorbate. *FASEB J* 7:1135–1142
38. Winkler BS (1992) Unequivocal evidence in support of the nonenzymatic redox coupling between glutathione/glutathione disulfide and ascorbic acid/dehydroascorbic acid. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1117:287–290
39. Bannister JV, Bannister WH, Rotilio G (1987) Aspects of the structure, function and applications of superoxide dismutase. *Crit Rev Biochem* 22:111–180
40. Yoshioka T, Homma T, Meyrick B, Takeda M, Meer R van der, Moore-Jarrett T, Ichikawa I (1994) Oxidants induce transcriptional activation of manganese superoxide dismutase in glomerular cells. *Kidney Int* 46:405–413
41. Baliga R, Baliga M, Shah SV (1992) Effect of selenium deficient diet in experimental glomerular disease. *Am J Physiol* 263:F56–F61