

Climate Change and the Emergent Epidemic of CKD from Heat Stress in Rural Communities: The Case for Heat Stress Nephropathy

Jason Glaser, Jay Lemery, Balaji Rajagopalan, Henry F. Díaz, Ramón García-Trabanino, Gangadhar Taduri, Magdalena Madero, Mala Amarasinghe, Georgi Abraham, Sirirat Anutrakulchai, Vivekanand Jha, Peter Stenvinkel, Carlos Roncal-Jimenez, Miguel A. Lanaspa, Ricardo Correa-Rotter, David Sheikh-Hamad, Emmanuel A. Burdmann, Ana Andres-Hernando, Tamara Milagres, Ilana Weiss, Mehmet Kanbay, Catharina Wesseling, Laura Gabriela Sánchez-Lozada, and Richard J. Johnson

Abstract

Climate change has led to significant rise of 0.8°C–0.9°C in global mean temperature over the last century and has been linked with significant increases in the frequency and severity of heat waves (extreme heat events). Climate change has also been increasingly connected to detrimental human health. One of the consequences of climate-related extreme heat exposure is dehydration and volume loss, leading to acute mortality from exacerbations of pre-existing chronic disease, as well as from outright heat exhaustion and heat stroke. Recent studies have also shown that recurrent heat exposure with physical exertion and inadequate hydration can lead to CKD that is distinct from that caused by diabetes, hypertension, or GN. Epidemics of CKD consistent with heat stress nephropathy are now occurring across the world. Here, we describe this disease, discuss the locations where it appears to be manifesting, link it with increasing temperatures, and discuss ongoing attempts to prevent the disease. Heat stress nephropathy may represent one of the first epidemics due to global warming. Government, industry, and health policy makers in the impacted regions should place greater emphasis on occupational and community interventions.

Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 11: 1472–1483, 2016. doi: 10.2215/CJN.13841215

One of the pressing challenges facing the world is the increasing impact of climate change and water shortage (driven by both climate change and population expansion) on human health and productivity. Global warming has resulted in an overall increase of about 0.8°C during the last century, and is estimated to be responsible for 75% of the extreme heat events (1–4). Heat waves typically refer to sustained temperatures of >40°C, or temperature increases of >5–6°C over the normal maximum temperature of the region, or any time temperatures reach >45°C (5–7). One of the most intuitive effects of heat waves on human health is heat stroke and death. During the summer of 2015, for example, the heat index—which takes into account both air temperature and humidity—toppled world records at 74°C (165°F) in Iran. A heat wave in Pakistan resulted in 40,000 cases of heat stroke, and another heat wave in Andhra Pradesh took 1400 lives in 1 month (8–10). Conditions will worsen, with predictions of a rise of 3–4°C in mean temperature by the end of the century (11), which could result in intermittent temperatures incompatible with outside living in some of the hottest areas of the world, such as the Middle East (12). The rise in temperature is paralleled by an increasing shortage of water, with the percentage of the world population suffering from moderate water shortage (defined as 1.0–1.7 m³ water/person per year)

skyrocketing from 5% in 1800 to 50% in 2005, and with 10% of the world population currently suffering from extreme (<0.5 m³ water/person per year) water shortage (13).

While increased risk for heat stroke is an obvious manifestation of global warming, climate change affects health in many other direct and indirect ways (14,15). Dehydration secondary to heat stress (relative water loss with development of hyperosmolarity) is associated with cognitive dysfunction, hypotension, and AKI (16). Drought can reduce crop yields, which can lead to starvation, malnutrition, and act as a threat multiplier to poverty and violence, especially in regions of the world with poor governance; likewise, extreme heat waves kill heat-sensitive cereals such as wheat and rice (17–19). Alterations in water supply, with variations in precipitation, can lead to emergence of water-borne and vector-borne infectious diseases (20,21). Drying up of wells can lead to increased concentration of heavy metals and/or toxins. Furthermore, subjects who are chronically dehydrated may not excrete toxins as effectively as those who are well hydrated, leading to higher concentrations of toxins in the serum and kidney. In addition, chronic dehydration and hyperosmolarity have also been linked with increased risk for obesity, diabetes, and metabolic syndrome (22,23). Thus, a wide variety of health issues are

Due to the number of contributing authors, the affiliations are provided in the Supplemental Material.

Correspondence: Dr. Richard J. Johnson, Division of Renal Diseases and Hypertension, 12700 East 19th Ave, Room 7015 Mail Stop C281, University of Colorado, Anschutz Medical Campus, Aurora, CO 80045. Email: Richard.Johnson@ucdenver.edu

likely to result from climate change over the next century, emphasizing the importance for educating physicians, industry, policy makers, and the public.

Recently, an epidemic of CKD of unknown etiology has been recognized in Central America (Mesoamerican nephropathy), which has been linked with recurrent dehydration and heat stress (24–26). We and others have previously suggested, based on both experimental and epidemiologic studies, that this disease may be a type of heat stress nephropathy (HSN) and could be an example of a disease that is accelerated by global warming (27,28). If true, one might hypothesize that similar epidemics should be occurring among those working manually in other hot environments. Unfortunately, the subjects at risk are often from impoverished and neglected populations where medical care is poor, renal biopsies are rarely performed, and diagnosis is rarely confirmed. Nevertheless, there are reports of CKD of unknown etiology emerging in other regions of the world where individuals are performing strenuous manual labor under very hot conditions (29–31).

Here, we provide a brief summary of these epidemics, and evaluate the relationship to heat stress, local environmental changes (global warming and progressive water shortages), and dietary changes (increased sugar intake). Although surveillance data are limited, the populations identified as most at risk are heavy laborers with a high workload, limited access to potable water, and otherwise extreme working conditions (32–34). We propose that HSN may be a major cause of CKD, representing an overlooked disease in neglected populations in hot communities. We suggest it may also emerge as a cause of CKD in any population where subjects are exposed to heat stress.

Mesoamerican Nephropathy

Mesoamerican nephropathy was first reported in 2002 in El Salvador by one of the authors (R.G.T.) during his medical residency, when excessive numbers of individuals were presenting at Hospital Rosales in San Salvador with ESRD (35). The disease typically presents in male sugarcane workers from the Pacific coast of Central America, but has since been reported with less frequency in other occupations, including in construction workers, corn and rice farmers, cotton plantation workers, and miners (32,36–38). In the affected areas women also have an increased prevalence of CKD, although to a much lesser extent, and there is some preliminary evidence that children from these regions may also be at risk (36,39,40). Clinically, the subjects are usually discovered with an asymptomatic rise in serum creatinine, in association with low grade or absent proteinuria, occasionally with microhematuria (36,37). Mild anemia, hypokalemia, and hyperuricemia are common (41–43). Renal biopsies show interstitial fibrosis, low grade inflammation, tubular atrophy, and extensive glomerulosclerosis with signs of glomerular ischemia but only mild vascular lesions (42,44). Progression to ESRD occurs over several years and is higher in those who work more harvests (32). Since chronic renal replacement programs are rarely available in the affected regions, many thousands have died (25).

Initial concerns were that Mesoamerican nephropathy might be due to a toxin, for example, from exposure to

agrochemicals (such as glyphosate), heavy metals (such as from lead, cadmium, or arsenic), or infectious agents (such as leptospirosis) (24,45,46). The theory that this was a result of direct exposure to pesticides in the fields, however, is weakened by the presence of the disease in occupations not involving farming, by reports that there is a greater risk for renal injury in the sugarcane fields among the cane cutters as opposed to the pesticide applicators, and because the frequency of the disease is lower in sugarcane cutters working at higher altitudes where it is significantly cooler than at lower altitudes, despite similar agrochemical exposure (32,36,47). Nevertheless, it remains possible that toxins, for example, could be concentrating in well water that could affect the populations as a whole. There is also minimal evidence for heavy metal poisoning, such as from lead or cadmium (29). Nonsteroidal agent use is also common among the sugarcane workers and could be an additive factor, but several studies could not identify nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs as an independent risk factor for CKD in this population (32,36,48). Infections, such as leptospirosis, remain a possible cause (49) but there is minimal evidence for this disease as a primary driver of this epidemic, and certainly some manifestations of leptospirosis, such as liver involvement, are not observed.

HSN: The Cause of Mesoamerican Nephropathy?

The Pacific coast is one of the hottest regions in Central America and aligns closely with the location of the epidemic (Figure 1). As the effects of heat are compounded by humidity and other factors, heat exposure is commonly measured by the wet bulb globe temperature (WBGT), a composite index that includes air temperature, solar radiation (globe temperature), wind speed, and humidity (50). For outside workers the Occupational Safety Health Administration recommends frequent work breaks (15 minutes per hour) for a WBGT of 26°C and breaks of 45 minutes per hour for a WBGT of $\geq 30^\circ\text{C}$, whereas at temperatures $>35^\circ\text{C}$ humans cannot maintain their body temperature by usual mechanisms (sweating) for >6 hours (12,50,51).

Sugarcane workers are particularly at risk for heat stress and dehydration due to the heavy exertion, lack of shade, infrequent breaks, long work hours (in some regions), and lack of access to sufficient potable water during the workday (50,52). Sugarcane is often burned to facilitate cutting and, depending on the local policy, some sugarcane workers enter the fields the morning after the burning, where they may be exposed to additional heat from the recently burned cane. While work begins in the early morning when the temperature is relatively cooler, the WBGT often surpasses 28°C by midmorning (53). As such, many subjects show symptoms of heat stress and dehydration when in the fields (headaches, lightheadedness, and fainting), and during the work shift their systolic and diastolic BP falls, pulse rises, and urine becomes progressively concentrated and acidic due to the activation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, with a loss of hydrogen and potassium in the urine (50,54).

Evidence that heat stress and recurrent dehydration may be the cause of Mesoamerican nephropathy is emerging. Acute dehydration is generally considered to be a reversible type of kidney failure (termed 'prerenal') that responds to

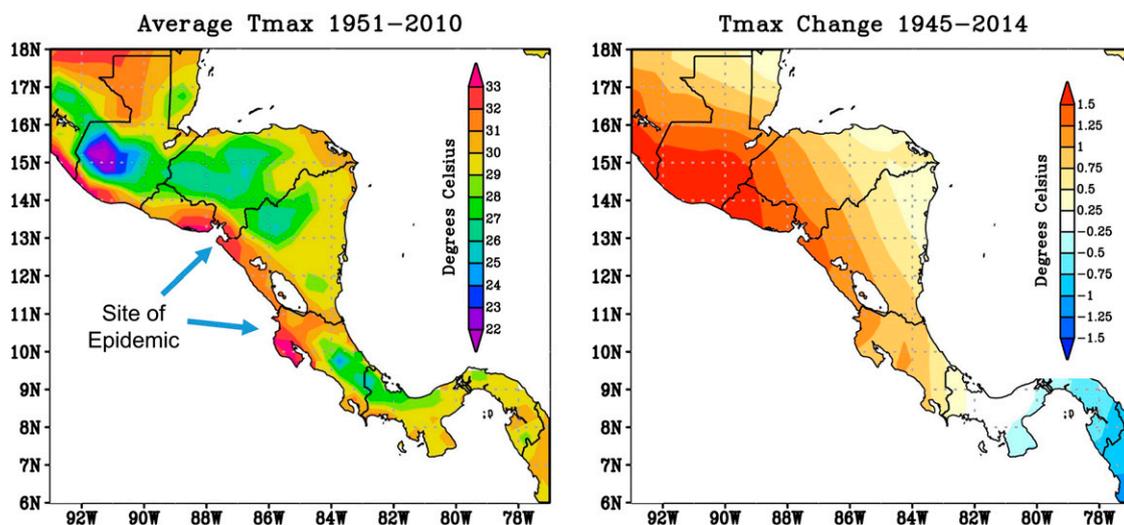


Figure 1. | Temperature trends in Central America. The average maximum temperatures (Tmax) in Central America over the last 60 years (left panel) correspond closely with sites of the CKD epidemic, such as Chichigalpa and Quezalguaque in Nicaragua, San Alejo and the Bajo Lempa region in El Salvador, or Guanacaste in Costa Rica. Those areas are also generally collocated with the climatologically warmest zones (left panel). Maximum temperatures are also increasing, especially in Guatemala and El Salvador (right panel). Data from the US National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Earth System Research Laboratory, Boulder, Colorado (public domain). Average daily Tmax at observing sites are averaged into monthly, and then into annual mean values. Data are then objectively interpolated to a half-degree grid. The left panel shows the 60-year (1951–2010) annual average, and the right panel shows the total linear trend change over the period 1945–2014.

rehydration. However, there is an interesting report of four Bantu gold miners who developed heat stroke with AKI that recovered only to later present with CKD due to chronic interstitial fibrosis (55). Experimental studies in mice have also demonstrated that recurrent daily heat exposure and dehydration can cause chronic tubulointerstitial disease with fibrosis and inflammation, similar to what is observed in renal biopsies of subjects with Mesoamerican nephropathy (56). Interestingly, renal injury is largely prevented if rehydration is given between exposure to heat/dehydration, as opposed to at the end of the day, despite equivalent amounts of water provided. This mirrors conditions in the fields where workers often only rehydrate at lunch and at the end of the workday. The mechanism has been linked with development of hyperosmolarity with activation of the vasopressin and aldose reductase/fructokinase pathway (56,57). Recurrent dehydration, for example, activates aldose reductase in the proximal tubule, converting glucose to fructose that is metabolized by fructokinase in the proximal tubule, leading to the release of oxidants that cause local tubular injury (56). Vasopressin has also been shown to accelerate experimental CKD (58,59). In turn, repeated AKI may lead to CKD (60).

Dehydration and recurrent volume depletion may also cause CKD *via* other mechanisms (Figure 2). For example, volume depletion can lead to hypokalemia, which causes intrarenal vasoconstriction and hypoxia, resulting in chronic tubulointerstitial injury (61). Hypokalemia is common among sugarcane workers presenting with CKD (41–43). Nevertheless, the tubular vacuolation common in hypokalemic nephropathy (61) has not been reported. Heat stress-associated labor can also result in subclinical or clinical rhabdomyolysis from low grade muscle trauma and heat, and has been shown to occur during the work shift in sugarcane workers (34). Rhabdomyolysis is a well known cause

of AKI (62), and repeated exposures may lead to CKD. Finally, hyperuricemia and uricosuria associated with heat stress may lead to excessive levels of uric acid in the urine, which may also crystallize in the urine, and this has also been documented in the affected sugarcane workers (28). Indeed, many subjects complain of intermittent dysuria from the passage of sand-like material (termed *chistata* in Nicaragua and *mal de orín* in El Salvador) due to urate crystalluria, and this is frequent in sugarcane workers and is associated with signs of dehydration (50,63,64).

Studies in Costa Rica have shown that Mesoamerican nephropathy was probably present in the 1970s in the Guanacaste province on the Pacific coast, yet the prevalence had increased almost ten-fold in men and four-fold in women by 2010 (39). During this same time, the maximum temperatures in Central America had risen by 0.8°C–1.0°C (Figures 1 and 3). While the mean rise in temperature may seem small, temperature extremes (the number of extremely hot days) increased by 30%–75% (1). During the sugarcane harvest, maximum WBGT often surpasses the 30°C limit by 10:30 a.m., especially during the late harvest of April and May, with levels >35°C being occasionally recorded (41,50). Thus, the risk for recurrent dehydration is likely greater on these hot days. Consistent with this possibility, in a study in which uric acid was measured before and after work on four different dates during a sugarcane harvest, we noted one day in which all seven worker samples available showed extremely high uric acid levels (>100 mg/dl) compared with the other dates, and this was one of the hotter days of the year (May of 2013) (65).

We propose that Mesoamerican nephropathy is more frequent in sugarcane workers as they are working in the most extreme conditions, as noted by heat exposure and work intensity (66). Indeed, one study found that the greatest risk for Mesoamerican nephropathy in El Salvador

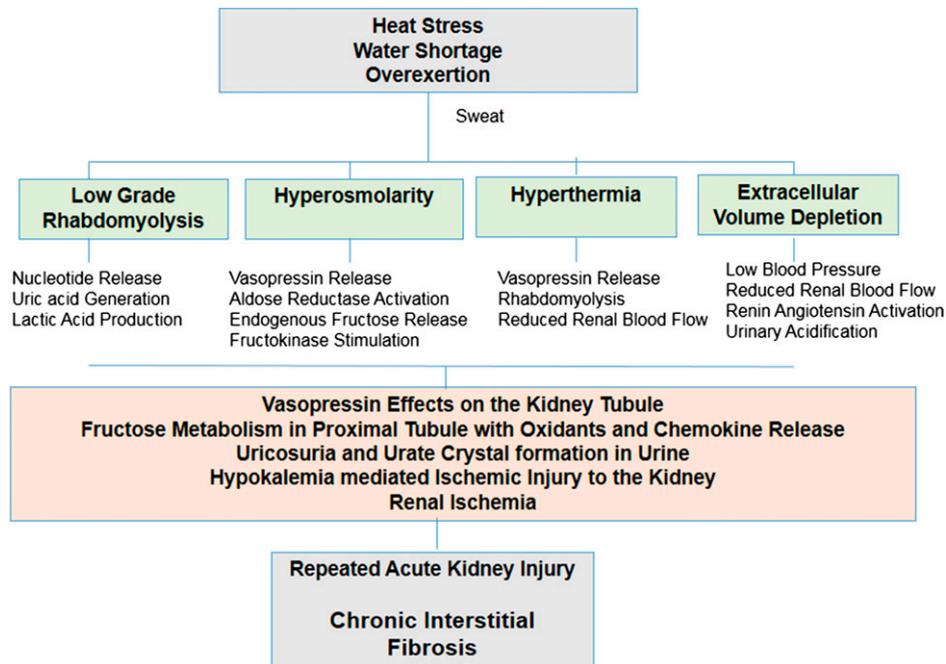


Figure 2. | Mechanism for heat stress nephropathy. Repeated heat stress and water shortage, especially when coupled with overexertion, can lead to several pathophysiologic processes, including low grade or overt rhabdomyolysis, hyperosmolarity, hyperthermia, and extracellular volume depletion. These processes can result in several mechanisms that can lead to AKI, including the acute effects of vasopressin on renal tubules, endogenous fructose metabolism in the proximal tubule *via* the fructokinase system, the development of uricosuria and urate crystal formation, hypokalemia-induced renal vasoconstriction and injury, and a generalized reduction in renal blood flow that may also cause ischemic damage. Repeated AKI, in turn, may lead to chronic tubulointerstitial disease.

was working in sugarcane fields, with the second greatest risk factor being working in areas of high mean maximum temperature (67). However, all individuals spending time in the hot external environment, or indoors without sufficient ventilation, might be at risk, potentially explaining why there is some evidence for the presence of renal injury in other occupations, in women, and possibly in children. While the rise in disease prevalence may be due, in part, to improved diagnosis and surveillance, there is likely a true rise in incidence that correlates with climate change. Inadequate hydration is also a key factor, as some subjects are afraid of drinking well water as it may contain toxins, and others drink fructose-containing sugary beverages (juices and soft drinks) that may exacerbate the renal injury (56). Laboratory rats with heat-associated dehydration show worse renal damage if they are rehydrated with sugary beverages as opposed to water (68). Finally, there may be higher risk in sugarcane workers than in the past, as the practice of burning cane prior to harvesting was enacted only in the last few decades and this has also led to an increase in the average number of tons cut by workers in a given day. These environmental and land use factors are exacerbated by greater demands placed on sugarcane cutters, as they are paid by piece. While definitive data for Central America is lacking, a study in Brazil reported that sugarcane workers are required to cut three to four times as much as they did 20 years ago (69).

Sri Lanka Nephropathy

A similar epidemic of CKD of unknown etiology is ongoing in the northern provinces of Sri Lanka (70–73). The epidemic

has been increasing since the 1980s, and currently affects more than 100,000 individuals (74). The primary population affected are young to middle-aged male rice farmers, although women working in the fields are also at risk (73,74). The CKD is clinically similar to that observed in Central America, with most subjects presenting with asymptomatic elevations in serum creatinine with normal BP and minimal proteinuria, or with the individuals discovered to already be in ESRD. Biopsies show chronic tubulointerstitial disease (75).

The etiology of Sri Lanka nephropathy remains unknown. The association of the disease with drinking well water (76) has led to concerns of toxin exposure, such as from heavy metals (cadmium and arsenic) or agrochemicals (71). While an early study linked cadmium exposure with the CKD (72), more recent studies have found minimal evidence for cadmium or other heavy metal exposure, with levels in both deep and surface wells within acceptable limits (77,78). Exposure to agrochemicals, such as glyphosphate, remain possible and some studies suggest that the disease may represent an aggregate of nephrotoxins as opposed to a single entity (71). Nevertheless, concerns that the wells are contaminated may encourage farmers not to drink local water and could predispose them to increased risk for dehydration. The Northern Province is the hottest region in Sri Lanka (Figure 4). Indeed, in one study in which 100 subjects with CKD were compared with control subjects, the risk for CKD was higher in those exposed to the sun, those working for >6 hours, and those drinking <3 L of water per day (risk increased between fourfold and eightfold), and this was also

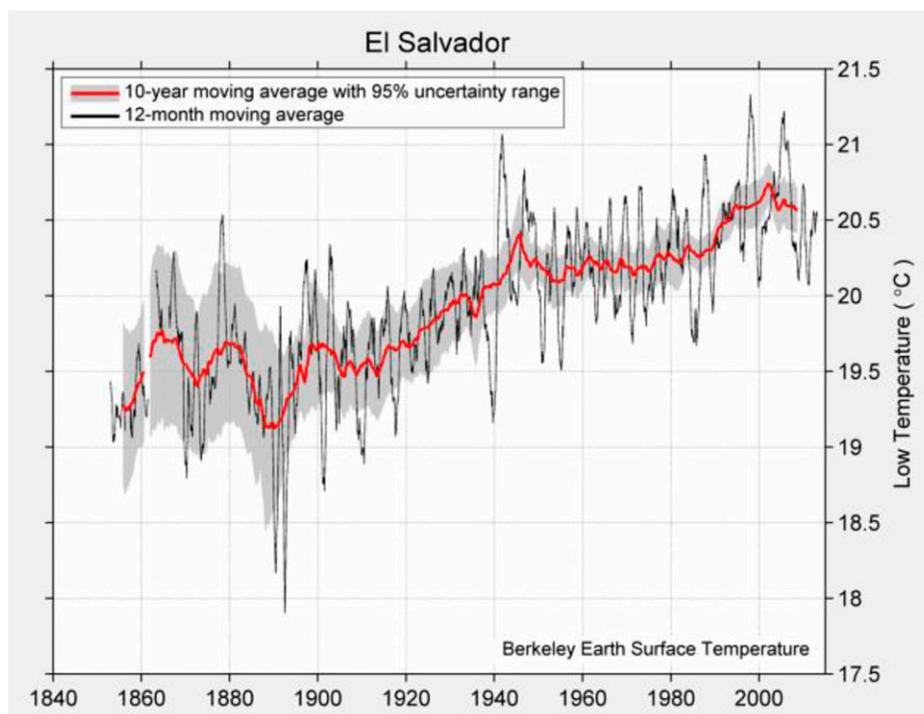


Figure 3. | Changing temperatures in El Salvador. Mean temperatures have increased by about 0.8°C during this period in El Salvador, which results in a significant (30%–75%) increase in the frequency of extremely hot days (>99th percentile) (image from Berkeley Earth [<http://berkeleyearth.lbl.gov/regions/el-salvador>], public domain).

associated with the presence of dysuria at the end of the work day that cannot be ascribed to urinary tract infection (76). Similar to the situation in Central America, many

subjects with CKD also have hyperuricemia (mean levels of 7.2 mg/dl versus 5.2 mg/dl in controls) and hypokalemia (Channa Jayasumana, personal communication).

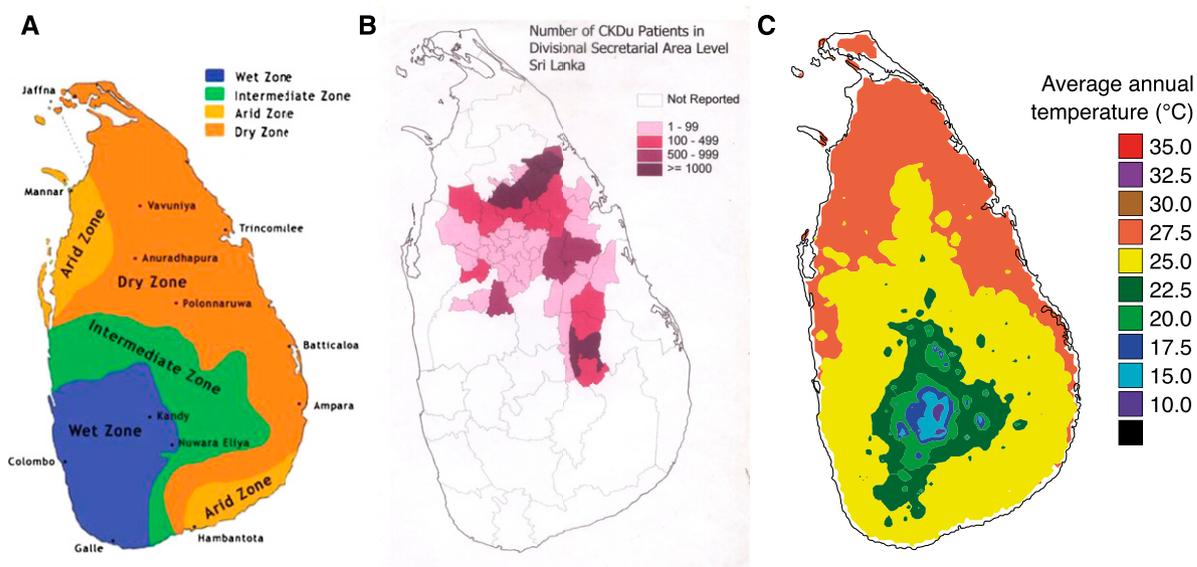


Figure 4. | Sri Lankan nephropathy. (A) and (B) An epidemic of CKD is occurring in the dry zone of the north central region of Sri Lanka. (C) The region is exceptionally hot, with average temperatures of approximately 30°C. While the relationship of CKD with higher average annual temperatures is evident, it is interesting that the most northern part of Sri Lanka is also hot but does not appear to be a site of the CKD epidemic. However, this is an area where little investigation has been done, and it remains possible to be a site of under-reporting. (A) and (B) courtesy of Channa Jayasumana (106). (C) is from the Centre for Climate Change Studies, Department of Meteorology, Colombo, Sri Lanka (http://www.meteo.gov.lk/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=13&Itemid=132&lang=en). CKDu, CKD of unknown etiology.

The Epidemics of CKD in India

An epidemic of CKD in rural farmers (of rice, coconuts, and cashews) in Andhra Pradesh, India, was first observed by one of the authors (G.T.). A study of 1500 villagers in the Prakasham district documented 27% with serum creatinine levels >1.5 mg/dl, with 60% having an eGFR of <60 ml/min per 1.73 m² (30,79). Studies based on sites where hemodialysis is present suggest even higher rates in the Nellore District to the south, and represent rates that are about tenfold higher than in other regions of India. Similar to Mesoamerican nephropathy, the disease is observed primarily in hot, rural communities in which the primary occupation is farming. Most subjects present late and renal biopsies are not done; however, when performed they show chronic tubulointerstitial disease, with many of the features suggesting a similar disease as Mesoamerican nephropathy, including an asymptomatic rise in serum creatinine with minimal proteinuria, in the absence of diabetes and hypertension. Furthermore, many of these

subjects give a history of recurrent dehydration and frequent hyperuricemia (Gangadhar Taduri, personal communication). Similar to Mesoamerican nephropathy, there is also some evidence that this disease has been present for decades but has increased in recent years. Indeed, Mani reported in 1993 that chronic tubulointerstitial nephritis (diagnosed based on clinical presentation of small kidneys with no history of edema, minimal proteinuria, and an absence of diabetes and hypertension) was the most common cause of CKD in his unit in Madras, especially among the rural farmers of the area, where it constituted 40% of all cases of CKD (80).

India has experienced rising temperatures over the last century, with a mean annual rise of 0.8°C in the last 100 years (81). This has been associated with a 10.4% decrease in annual rainfall over the last century (1901–2007), with a 17.6% decrease in annual rainy days over the same period (81). Whereas traditionally, the farmers living in rural areas relied on surface water from lakes, ponds, and shallow

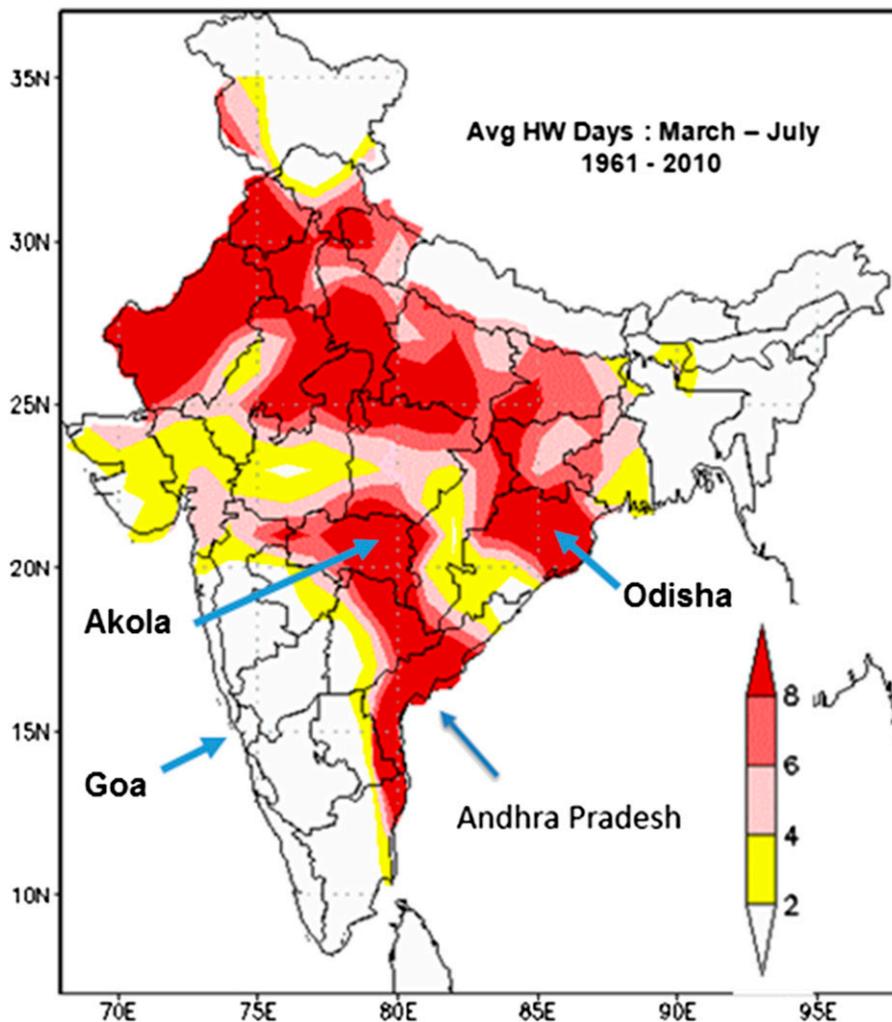


Figure 5. | Confirmed site (Andhra Pradesh) and suspected sites of CKD epidemics of unknown etiology in India. Average number of heat wave days (Avg HW days) between March and July (hottest time of the year) in India, based on the number of heat wave days over the 50-year period. Andhra Pradesh has had some of the longest heat waves, with one recorded at 35 days. Other suspected sites of CKD of unknown etiology, such as the Akola district of Maharashtra and the central Odisha region, are also sites with high number of heat waves. In contrast, Goa does not show this pattern. Courtesy: Editor Mausam—India Meteorological Department. Reprinted from reference 5, with permission.

wells as their source of drinking water, there has been a shift toward drinking ground water that in some rural areas, such as Andhra Pradesh, is becoming increasingly limited due to inferior quality and decreasing groundwater tables (82). In Andhra Pradesh, the number of heat wave days during spring has increased markedly, with one heat wave lasting 35 days (Figure 5), and this is associated with an increase in heat strokes and mortality (5). Climate projections for the 21st century also show a nationwide increase in temperature, heat waves, and heat stress-related mortality (83). The minimum temperatures have also been increasing in recent decades and are projected to increase over the Indian subcontinent (83). This reduces the nighttime cooling that is typically available, thereby increasing hydration stress, and can also reduce crop yield, especially rice.

Other Hot Spots of CKD

South Asia

Other areas with CKD of unknown etiology are slowly being recognized (Table 1). For example, there are reports of CKD epidemics in other areas of India, including Goa, some regions in central Odisha, and Akola districts in Maharashtra (Vivek Jha, personal communication). This seems consistent with increased occurrence of heat waves and decreased rainfall in these regions (5) (Figure 5). CKD of undetermined etiology is also one of the dominant causes of ESRD in Thailand, accounting for 20%–25% of causes of ESRD (84,85). CKD of unknown etiology is highest in the northeastern (Isan) region, which is one of the hottest regions in Thailand. These subjects also show signs of recurrent dehydration, with the presence of hypokalemia, hyperuricemia, acidic urine, and passage of sand-like material with dysuria similar to that observed in Central America (Amorn Premgamone, personal communication) (86,87). These observations are consistent with epidemiologic

studies in Thailand linking excessive CKD with occupational heat stress (88) and hyperuricemia (89).

North and South America

Back to the Americas, there are similar reports of excessive CKD of unknown etiology in Mexico, in the rural region of Tierra Blanca, Veracruz (90). Tierra Blanca has the hottest climate in Veracruz State and most of the agricultural activities include sugarcane, lime, cantaloupe, papaya, rice, mango, and bananas. The National Cardiology Institute in Mexico City has been a referral center for this population, and 58 kidney transplants from this area have been done in the past 5 years. These patients are typically young men (mean age, 29 years) with no traditional risk factors for CKD. A recent analysis in this area reported that the prevalence of CKD was 15%–25% in males aged 20–39 years old, and the death certificates from CKD report 32–77 per 100,000 deaths per year, with 20% of the deaths occurring in subjects <40 years old (91). AKI has also been reported in sugarcane workers in Brazil (34), and population-based studies are being planned in Brazil to better understand the clinical and epidemiologic situation on the ground.

There have also been reports that farm workers, most of whom are migrants, may be developing acute kidney disease and CKD at higher rates than expected in the Central Valley of California (92,93). One recent study linked hospitalizations for dehydration and AKI with the onset of heat waves in the Central Valley and other hot regions in California (94). Further studies are required to better characterize the prevalence and clinical characteristics of the CKD, but it is worrisome that it may be similar to what is occurring with farmers in other hot, rural environments. Clinicians in California and Texas have also reported immigrants from Mexico and Central America with work histories and clinical characteristics consistent with the profile of the disease outlined in this paper (David Sheikh-Hamad, personal communication).

Table 1. Confirmed and suspected sites of heat stress-associated nephropathy (CKD)

Country	Region	Reference
Confirmed Sites		
Central America		
<i>Costa Rica</i>	Guanacaste	Wesseling <i>et al.</i> (39)
<i>El Salvador</i>	Bajo Lempa	Orantes <i>et al.</i> (45)
<i>Guatemala</i>	Southwest Region	Laux <i>et al.</i> (105)
<i>Nicaragua</i>	León and Chinandega	Torres <i>et al.</i> (36)
South Asia		
<i>India</i>	Andhra Pradesh	Reddy and Gunasekar (79), Abraham <i>et al.</i> (30)
<i>Sri Lanka</i>	North Central Region	Jayatilake <i>et al.</i> (72) Jayasumana <i>et al.</i> (106)
Possible Sites		
South Asia		
<i>India</i>	Goa, Odisha, and Maharashtra	Rajapurkar <i>et al.</i> (107)
<i>Thailand</i>	Northeast (Isan Region)	Sirirat Anutrakulchai (personal communication)
Middle East		
<i>Saudi Arabia</i>	Tabuk region	El Minshawy <i>et al.</i> (108)
Africa		
<i>Egypt</i>	El-Minia, Upper Egypt	El Minshawy <i>et al.</i> (96)
<i>Sudan</i>	Southern Sudan	Elamin <i>et al.</i> (109)
North America		
<i>Mexico</i>	Tierra Blanco, Veracruz	Mendoza-González <i>et al.</i> (90)
<i>United States</i>	California Central Valley	Moyce <i>et al.</i> (93)

Notably, the Migrant Clinicians Network has initiated a survey to determine if HSN may be occurring among migrant workers in the United States (95).

Africa and the Middle East

In northern Africa and the Middle East, ESRD has been reported to be high in rural farm workers in El Minya in Upper Egypt (27% of cases) (96,97) and in the Tabuk area of Saudi Arabia (33% of cases) (96). Further studies are needed to address the role of heat stress and dehydration in these disorders and their relation to climate change and water supplies. Less is known about the etiology of ESRD in sub-Saharan Africa, in part because of the rarity of renal biopsy and poor overall reporting (98).

General Mechanism for CKD

In addition, the observation that recurrent dehydration may cause CKD also suggests that chronic dehydration or intermittent hyperosmolarity may also have a role as a general risk factor for CKD of traditional causes (57). It is interesting that both low water intake and low urinary pH

have recently been identified as risk factors for CKD progression, and some studies suggest that bicarbonate therapy may slow renal disease, which might act by alkalinizing the urine and reducing uric acid crystal formation (99–101).

Possible Low Cost Treatment Opportunities

Prevention of HSN should focus on improving hydration and worksite practices. Given that hyperuricemia and uricosuria is common, lowering uric acid may also provide a low cost treatment opportunity. There is increasing evidence that lowering uric acid in hyperuricemic subjects can slow the progression of CKD (102,103). Noticeably, allopurinol was reported to slow renal disease progression in a cohort of patients from Andhra Pradesh, of which 25%–30% had CKD from chronic tubulointerstitial disease (104). As scale and scope of this disease grows due to improved surveillance, a warming world, increased work demands, and an increasing informal labor sector that produces more precarious populations, the costs associated with treatment and loss of productivity for countries, and industry, are likely to be enormous. Prevention, early diagnosis, and cost-effective treatment are paramount.

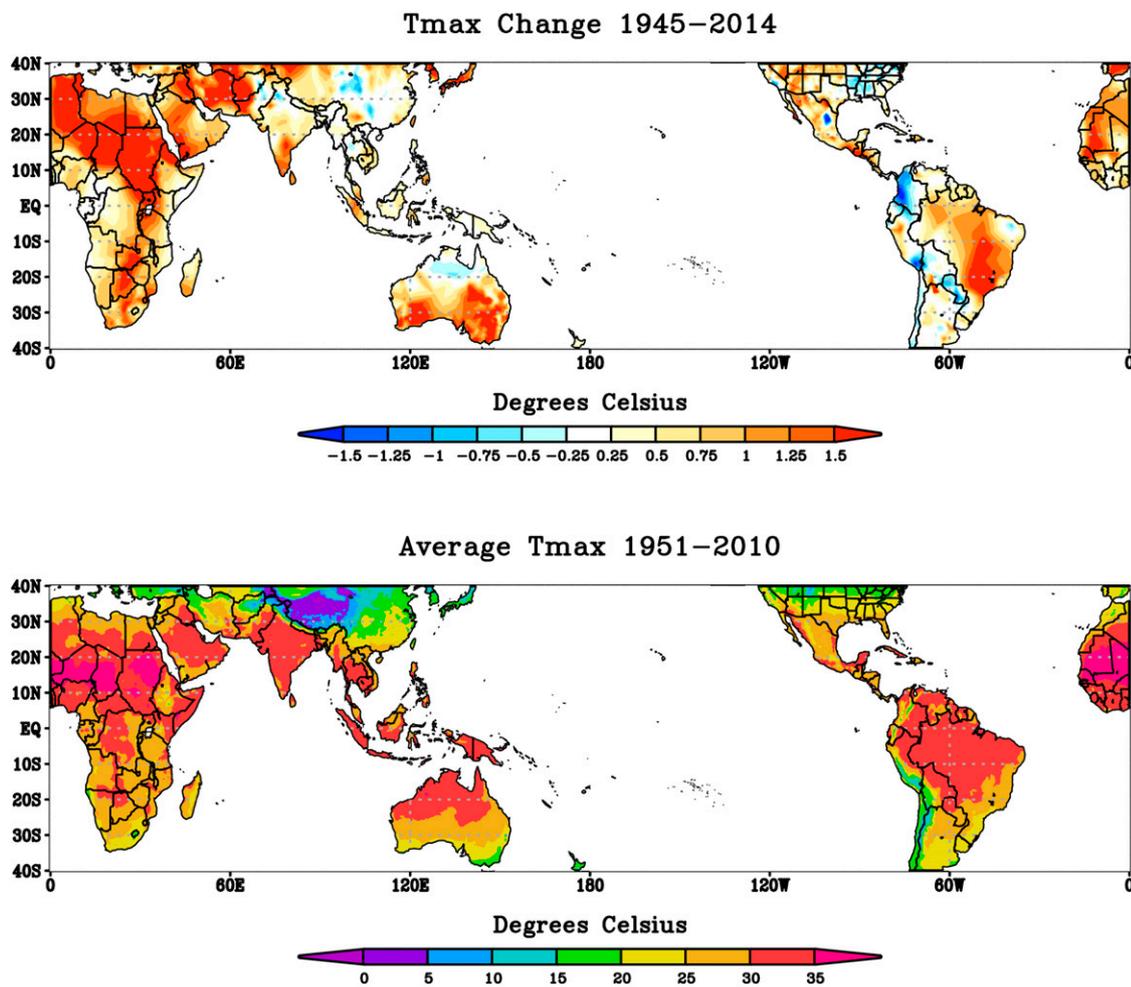


Figure 6. | Worldwide annual maximum temperature changes. Change in annual maximum temperature from 1945 to 2014 (top panel) and the average annual maximum temperature during 1945–2010 (bottom panel). From the US National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Earth System Research Laboratory, Boulder, Colorado (public domain). Data definition as shown in Figure 1. EQ, equator; Tmax, annual maximum temperature.

Limitations

While the epidemics of CKD in Central America, India, and Sri Lanka are associated with recurrent heat stress and dehydration, more studies need to be performed to address if this mechanism is causal and whether similar processes are occurring at other sites (Table 1). Based on temperature patterns, we predict that similar epidemics of CKD from HSN may be ongoing and potentially discoverable in the hotter regions of Africa and the Middle East. However, it is important to recognize that toxicity from agrochemicals, heavy metals, and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs remain potential contributing factors. It is also important to recognize that reports of CKD of unknown etiology do not in themselves support the presence of HSN, but rather require epidemiologic studies investigating the role of heat stress and recurrent dehydration as risk factors. It also remains possible that some of the “epidemics” may represent improved awareness and diagnosis rather than a new epidemic. Nevertheless, temperature maximums are increasing, especially in the equatorial zone. Figure 6 shows the change in maximum temperature between 1945 and 2014, which indicates an increase in the hot spots discussed above—South India, Sri Lanka, and Central America. The temperature increase in recent decades and in the future also leads to evaporative loss of water that will compound the reduction in water availability.

Summary

CKD that is not associated with traditional risk factors appears to be increasing in rural hot communities in association with a progressive rise in worldwide temperatures. The disease is a type of chronic tubulointerstitial disease that has only recently been recognized, and we propose that it may be due to heat stress (HSN). We believe the risk for HSN has been increased as a consequence of global warming and an increase in extreme heat waves. We further suggest this disease has a disproportionate impact on vulnerable populations, *i.e.*, agricultural workers. Warmer temperatures, coupled with decreasing precipitation, exacerbate this epidemic by reducing water supply and water quality. We recommend epidemiologic and clinical studies to document the presence of these epidemics, their magnitude, and the role of dehydration and hyperosmolarity. A coordinated effort by governments and researchers to improve surveillance must be undertaken so we may understand the scale of the epidemic. Ongoing occupational interventions, such as the Worker Health and Efficiency Program in El Salvador (<https://laislafoundation.org/the-we-program-we-can-end-ckdnt-video/>), and actions by the government to improve worksite conditions (such as adequate breaks for rest and adequate clothing) should be continued. Improved hydration, alkalization of the urine, and the lowering of uric acid may represent new approaches for the prevention and treatment of this type of CKD.

Acknowledgments

This paper is considered a contribution by the University of Colorado Climate and Health consortium.

Funding for the manuscript was provided in part by Dutch National Postcode Lottery to the Solidaridad Network and La Isla Foundation. J. L. is supported through an Intergovernmental

Personnel Act from the Climate and Health Program at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Disclosures

R.J.J. has several patents and patent applications related to lowering uric acid or blocking fructose metabolism in the treatment of metabolic diseases. R.J.J. and M.A.L. are also members of a startup company, Colorado Research Partners LLC (Aurora, CO), which is trying to develop inhibitors of fructose metabolism. All other authors declare no conflicts of interest.

References

1. Fischer EM, Knutti R: Anthropogenic contribution to global occurrence of heavy precipitation and high temperature extremes. *Nat Clim Chang* 5: 560–565, 2015
2. Meehl GA, Tebaldi C: More intense, more frequent, and longer lasting heat waves in the 21st century. *Science* 305: 994–997, 2004
3. Rahmstorf S, Coumou D: Increase of extreme events in a warming world. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 108: 17905–17909, 2011
4. Morak S, Hegerl G, Christidis N: Detectable changes in the frequency of temperature extremes. *J Clim* 26: 1561–1564, 2013
5. Pai DS, Nair SA, Ramanathan AN: Long term climatology and trends of heat waves over India during the recent 50 years (1961–2010). *Mausam (New Delhi)* 64: 585–604, 2013
6. Hajat S, Armstrong BG, Gouveia N, Wilkinson P: Mortality displacement of heat-related deaths: a comparison of Delhi, São Paulo, and London. *Epidemiology* 16: 613–620, 2005
7. McMichael AJ, Wilkinson P, Kovats RS, Pattenden S, Hajat S, Armstrong B, Vajjanapoom N, Niciu EM, Mahomed H, Kingkeow C, Kosnik M, O’Neill MS, Romieu I, Ramirez-Aguilar M, Barreto ML, Gouveia N, Nikiforov B: International study of temperature, heat and urban mortality: the ‘ISOTHURM’ project. *Int J Epidemiol* 37: 1121–1131, 2008
8. Samenow J: *Iran city hits suffocating heat index of 165 degrees, near world record*: The Washington Post, 2015. Available at: <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/capital-weather-gang/wp/2015/07/30/iran-city-hits-suffocating-heat-index-of-154-degrees-near-world-record/>. Accessed July 31, 2015
9. Dearden L: *Karachi heat wave: Death toll tops 1,000 as government and electricity company trade blame*, The Independent, 2015. Available at: <http://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/asia/pakistan-heatwave-death-toll-tops-1000-as-government-and-electricity-company-trade-blame-10344719.html>. Accessed April 8, 2016
10. *India Heat Wave Kills More Than 1,400; Temperatures Soar To 118 Degrees*: Associated Press, 2015. Available at: <http://www.wsj.com/articles/indias-heat-wave-claims-more-than-1-400-lives-1432822642>. Accessed April 8, 2016
11. (IPCC) IPoCC: *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the IPCC*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2013
12. Pal JS, Eltahir EAB: Future temperature in southwest Asia is projected to exceed a threshold for human adaptability. *Nat Clim Chang* 6: 197–200, 2016
13. Kumm M, Ward PJ, de Moel H, Varis O: Is physical water scarcity a new phenomenon? Global assessment of water shortage over the last two millennia. *Environ Res Lett*, 5: 034006, 2010
14. *Global climate change and human health: From science to practice*, edited by Lubner G and Lemery J, San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass, 2015
15. Kjellstrom T, Butler AJ, Lucas RM, Bonita R: Public health impact of global heating due to climate change: potential effects on chronic non-communicable diseases. *Int J Public Health* 55: 97–103, 2010
16. Lieberman HR: Hydration and cognition: a critical review and recommendations for future research. *J Am Coll Nutr* 26[Suppl]: 555S–561S, 2007
17. Friel S: Climate change, food insecurity and chronic diseases: sustainable and healthy policy opportunities for Australia. *N S W Public Health Bull* 21: 129–133, 2010

18. Matthewqab RB, Kropff MJ, Horie T, Bacheleld D: Simulating the Impact of Climate Change on Rice Production in Asia and Evaluating Options for Adaptation. *Agric Syst* 54: 399–425, 1997
19. Farooq M, Bramley H, Palta JA, Siddique KHM: Heat Stress in Wheat during Reproductive and Grain-Filling Phases. *Crit Rev Plant Sci* 30: 1–17, 2011
20. Rogers DJ, Randolph SE: Climate change and vector-borne diseases. *Adv Parasitol* 62: 345–381, 2006
21. Warrick J: *The invisible threat: Rising temperatures mean insects can carry viruses such as West Nile to wider areas*: The Washington Post, 2015. Available at: <http://www.washingtonpost.com/sf/national/2015/11/27/disease/>. Accessed November 27, 2015
22. Stookey JD, Barclay D, Arief A, Popkin BM: The altered fluid distribution in obesity may reflect plasma hypertonicity. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 61: 190–199, 2007
23. Stookey JD, Pieper CF, Cohen HJ: Hypertonic hyperglycemia progresses to diabetes faster than normotonic hyperglycemia. *Eur J Epidemiol* 19: 935–944, 2004
24. Correa-Rotter R, Wesseling C, Johnson RJ: CKD of unknown origin in Central America: the case for a Mesoamerican nephropathy. *Am J Kidney Dis* 63: 506–520, 2014
25. Ramirez-Rubio O, McClean MD, Amador JJ, Brooks DR: An epidemic of chronic kidney disease in Central America: an overview. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 67: 1–3, 2013
26. Weiner DE, McClean MD, Kaufman JS, Brooks DR: The Central American epidemic of CKD. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 8: 504–511, 2013
27. Johnson RJ, Glaser J, Sánchez-Lozada LG: Chronic kidney disease of unknown etiology: a disease related to global warming? *MEDICC Rev* 16: 79–80, 2014
28. Roncal-Jimenez C, García-Trabanino R, Barregard L, Lanaspá MA, Wesseling C, Harra T, Aragón A, Grases F, Jarquin ER, González MA, Weiss I, Glaser J, Sánchez-Lozada LG, Johnson RJ: Heat Stress Nephropathy From Exercise-Induced Uric Acid Crystalluria: A Perspective on Mesoamerican Nephropathy. *Am J Kidney Dis* 67: 20–30, 2016
29. Weaver VM, Fadrowski JJ, Jaar BG: Global dimensions of chronic kidney disease of unknown etiology (CKDu): a modern era environmental and/or occupational nephropathy? *BMC Nephrol* 16: 145, 2015
30. Abraham G, Varughese S, Thandavan T, Iyengar A, Fernando E, Naqvi SAJ, Sheriff R, Ur-Rashid H, Gopalakrishnan N, Kafle RK: Chronic kidney disease hotspots in developing countries in South Asia. *Clin Kidney J* 9: 135–141, 2016
31. Martín-Cleary C, Ortiz A: CKD hotspots around the world: where, why and what the lessons are. A CKJ review series. *Clin Kidney J* 7: 519–523, 2014
32. Peraza S, Wesseling C, Aragon A, Leiva R, García-Trabanino RA, Torres C, Jakobsson K, Elinder CG, Hogstedt C: Decreased kidney function among agricultural workers in El Salvador. *Am J Kidney Dis* 59: 531–540, 2012
33. Laws RL, Brooks DR, Amador JJ, Weiner DE, Kaufman JS, Ramirez-Rubio O, Riefkohl A, Scammell MK, López-Pilarte D, Sánchez JM, Parikh CR, McClean MD: Changes in kidney function among Nicaraguan sugarcane workers. *Int J Occup Environ Health* 21: 241–250, 2015
34. Paula Santos U, Zanetta DM, Terra-Filho M, Burdmann EA: Burnt sugarcane harvesting is associated with acute renal dysfunction. *Kidney Int* 87: 792–799, 2015
35. García Trabiano R: Nefropatía terminal en pacientes de un hospital de referencia en El Salvador. *Rev Panam Salud Publica/Pan Am J Public Health* 12: 2002, 2002
36. Torres C, Aragón A, González M, López I, Jakobsson K, Elinder CG, Lundberg I, Wesseling C: Decreased kidney function of unknown cause in Nicaragua: a community-based survey. *Am J Kidney Dis* 55: 485–496, 2010
37. O'Donnell JK, Tobey M, Weiner DE, Stevens LA, Johnson S, Stringham P, Cohen B, Brooks DR: Prevalence of and risk factors for chronic kidney disease in rural Nicaragua. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 26: 2798–2805, 2011
38. Sanoff SL, Callejas L, Alonso CD, Hu Y, Colindres RE, Chin H, Morgan DR, Hogan SL: Positive association of renal insufficiency with agriculture employment and unregulated alcohol consumption in Nicaragua. *Ren Fail* 32: 766–777, 2010
39. Wesseling C, van Wendel de Joode B, Crowe J, Rittner R, Sanati NA, Hogstedt C, Jakobsson K: Mesoamerican nephropathy: geographical distribution and time trends of chronic kidney disease mortality between 1970 and 2012 in Costa Rica. *Occup Environ Med* 72: 714–721, 2015
40. Ramirez-Rubio O, Amador JJ, Kaufman JS, Weiner DE, Parikh CR, Khan U, McClean MD, Laws RL, Lopez-Pilarte D, Friedman DJ, Kupferman J, Brooks DR: Urine biomarkers of kidney injury among adolescents in Nicaragua, a region affected by an epidemic of chronic kidney disease of unknown aetiology. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 31: 424–432, 2016
41. García-Trabanino R, Jarquin E, Wesseling C, Johnson RJ, González-Quiroz M, Weiss I, Glaser J, José Vendell J, Stockfelt L, Roncal C, Harra T, Barregard L: Heat stress, dehydration, and kidney function in sugarcane cutters in El Salvador—A cross-shift study of workers at risk of Mesoamerican nephropathy. *Environ Res* 142: 746–755, 2015
42. Wijkström J, Leiva R, Elinder CG, Leiva S, Trujillo Z, Trujillo L, Söderberg M, Hulténby K, Wernerson A: Clinical and pathological characterization of Mesoamerican nephropathy: a new kidney disease in Central America. *Am J Kidney Dis* 62: 908–918, 2013
43. Herrera R, Orantes CM, Almaguer M, Alfonso P, Bayarre HD, Leiva IM, Smith MJ, Cubias RA, Torres CG, Almendárez WO, Cubias FR, Morales FE, Magaña S, Amaya JC, Perdomo E, Ventura MC, Villatoro JF, Vela XF, Zelaya SM, Granados DV, Vela E, Orellana P, Hevia R, Fuentes EJ, Mañalich R, Bacallao R, Ugarte M, Arias MI, Chávez J, Flores NE, Aparicio CE: Clinical characteristics of chronic kidney disease of nontraditional causes in Salvadoran farming communities. *MEDICC Rev* 16: 39–48, 2014
44. López-Marín L, Chávez Y, García XA, Flores WM, García YM, Herrera R, Almaguer M, Orantes CM, Calero D, Bayarre HD, Amaya JC, Magaña S, Espinoza PA, Serpas L: Histopathology of chronic kidney disease of unknown etiology in Salvadoran agricultural communities. *MEDICC Rev* 16: 49–54, 2014
45. Orantes CM, Herrera R, Almaguer M, Brizuela EG, Hernández CE, Bayarre H, Amaya JC, Calero DJ, Orellana P, Colindres RM, Velázquez ME, Núñez SG, Contreras VM, Castro BE: Chronic kidney disease and associated risk factors in the Bajo Lempa region of El Salvador: Nefrolempa study, 2009. *MEDICC Rev* 13: 14–22, 2011
46. Wesseling C, Crowe J, Hogstedt C, Jakobsson K, Lucas R, Wegman D: Mesoamerican Nephropathy: Report from the First International Research Workshop on MeN, 2013. Available at: <http://www.regionalnephropathy.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/Preprint-Technical-Report.pdf>. Accessed December 15, 2015
47. Laws RL, Brooks DR, Amador JJ, Weiner DE, Kaufman JS, Ramirez-Rubio O, Riefkohl A, Scammell MK, López-Pilarte D, Sánchez JM, Parikh CR, McClean MD: Biomarkers of Kidney Injury Among Nicaraguan Sugarcane Workers. *Am J Kidney Dis* 67: 209–217, 2016
48. Raines N, González M, Wyatt C, Kurzrok M, Pool C, Lemma T, Weiss I, Marín C, Prado V, Marcas E, Mayorga K, Morales JF, Aragón A, Sheffield P: Risk factors for reduced glomerular filtration rate in a Nicaraguan community affected by Mesoamerican nephropathy. *MEDICC Rev* 16: 16–22, 2014
49. Yang HY, Hung CC, Liu SH, Guo YG, Chen YC, Ko YC, Huang CT, Chou LF, Tian YC, Chang MY, Hsu HH, Lin MY, Hwang SJ, Yang CW: Overlooked Risk for Chronic Kidney Disease after Leptospirosis Infection: A Population-Based Survey and Epidemiological Cohort Evidence. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 9: e0004105, 2015
50. Crowe J, Nilsson M, Kjellstrom T, Wesseling C: Heat-related symptoms in sugarcane harvesters. *Am J Ind Med* 58: 541–548, 2015
51. Sherwood SC, Huber M: An adaptability limit to climate change due to heat stress. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 107: 9552–9555, 2010
52. Crowe J, Moya-Bonilla JM, Román-Solano B, Robles-Ramírez A: Heat exposure in sugarcane workers in Costa Rica during the non-harvest season. *Glob Health Action* 3: 3, 2010
53. Crowe J, Wesseling C, Solano BR, Umaña MP, Ramírez AR, Kjellstrom T, Morales D, Nilsson M: Heat exposure in sugarcane harvesters in Costa Rica. *Am J Ind Med* 56: 1157–1164, 2013

54. Cortez OD: Heat stress assessment among workers in a Nicaraguan sugarcane farm. *Glob Health Action* 2: 2, 2009
55. Kew MC, Abrahams C, Sefel HC: Chronic interstitial nephritis as a consequence of heatstroke. *Q J Med* 39: 189–199, 1970
56. Roncal Jimenez CA, Ishimoto T, Lanaspá MA, Rivard CJ, Nakagawa T, Ejaz AA, Cicerchi C, Inaba S, Le M, Miyazaki M, Glaser J, Correa-Rotter R, González MA, Aragón A, Wesseling C, Sánchez-Lozada LG, Johnson RJ: Fructokinase activity mediates dehydration-induced renal injury. *Kidney Int* 86: 294–302, 2014
57. Johnson RJ, Rodriguez-Ilturbe B, Roncal-Jimenez C, Lanaspá MA, Ishimoto T, Nakagawa T, Correa-Rotter R, Wesseling C, Bankir L, Sanchez-Lozada LG: Hyperosmolarity drives hypertension and CKD—water and salt revisited. *Nat Rev Nephrol* 10: 415–420, 2014
58. Bouby N, Bachmann S, Bichet D, Bankir L: Effect of water intake on the progression of chronic renal failure in the 5/6 nephrectomized rat. *Am J Physiol* 258: F973–F979, 1990
59. Bankir L, Bouby N, Ritz E: Vasopressin: a novel target for the prevention and retardation of kidney disease? *Nat Rev Nephrol* 9: 223–239, 2013
60. Chawla LS, Eggers PW, Star RA, Kimmel PL: Acute kidney injury and chronic kidney disease as interconnected syndromes. *N Engl J Med* 371: 58–66, 2014
61. Suga SI, Phillips MI, Ray PE, Raleigh JA, Vio CP, Kim YG, Mazzali M, Gordon KL, Hughes J, Johnson RJ: Hypokalemia induces renal injury and alterations in vasoactive mediators that favor salt sensitivity. *Am J Physiol Renal Physiol* 281: F620–F629, 2001
62. Vanholder R, Sever MS, Ereke E, Lameire N: Rhabdomyolysis. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 11: 1553–1561, 2000
63. Ramirez-Rubio O, Brooks DR, Amador JJ, Kaufman JS, Weiner DE, Scammell MK: Chronic kidney disease in Nicaragua: a qualitative analysis of semi-structured interviews with physicians and pharmacists. *BMC Public Health* 13: 350, 2013
64. McClean MA, Amador JJ, Laws R, Kaufman JS, Weiner DE, Sanchez-Rodriguez JM, Ramirez-Rubio O, Brooks DR: Biological sampling report: Investigating biomarkers of kidney injury and chronic kidney disease among workers in Western Nicaragua, 2012. Available at: http://www.cao-ombudsman.org/cases/document-links/documents/Biological_Sampling_Report_April_2012.pdf. Accessed December 15, 2015
65. Wesseling C, Aragón A, González M, Weiss I, Glaser J, Bobadilla NA, Roncal-Jiménez C, Correa-Rotter R, Johnson RJ, Barregard L: Kidney function in sugarcane cutters in Nicaragua—A longitudinal study of workers at risk of Mesoamerican nephropathy. *Environ Res* 147: 125–132, 2016
66. Lucas RA, Bodin T, Garcia-Trabanino R, Wesseling C, Glaser J, Weiss I, Jarquín E, Jakobsson K, Wegman DH: Heat stress and workload associated with sugarcane cutting - an excessively strenuous occupation! *Extrem Physiol Med* 4: A23, 2015
67. VanDervort DR, López DL, Orantes CM, Rodríguez DS: Spatial distribution of unspecified chronic kidney disease in El Salvador by crop area cultivated and ambient temperature. *MEDICC Rev* 16: 31–38, 2014
68. García-Arroyo FE, Cristobal M, Arellano-Buendia AS, Osorio H, Tapia E, Soto V, Madero M, Lanaspá M, Roncal-Jimenez CA, Bankir L, Johnson RJ, Sanchez-Lozada LG: Rehydration with Soft Drink-like Beverages Exacerbates Dehydration and Worsens Dehydration-associated Renal Injury. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol*, in press, 2015
69. Alves FJC: Why are the sugar cane harvesters dying? *Saúde Soc* 15: 90–98, 2006
70. Athuraliya NT, Abeysekera TD, Amerasinghe PH, Kumarasiri R, Bandara P, Karunaratne U, Milton AH, Jones AL: Uncertain etiologies of proteinuric-chronic kidney disease in rural Sri Lanka. *Kidney Int* 80: 1212–1221, 2011
71. Jayasumana C, Gunatilake S, Siribaddana S: Simultaneous exposure to multiple heavy metals and glyphosate may contribute to Sri Lankan agricultural nephropathy. *BMC Nephrol* 16: 103, 2015
72. Jayatilake N, Mendis S, Maheepala P, Mehta FR; CKDu National Research Project Team: Chronic kidney disease of uncertain aetiology: prevalence and causative factors in a developing country. *BMC Nephrol* 14: 180, 2013
73. Wanigasuriya K: Update on uncertain etiology of chronic kidney disease in Sri Lanka's north-central dry zone. *MEDICC Rev* 16: 61–65, 2014
74. Wimalawansa SJ: Escalating chronic kidney diseases of multi-factorial origin (CKD-mfo) in Sri Lanka: causes, solutions, and recommendations—update and responses. *Environ Health Prev Med* 20: 152–157, 2015
75. Nanayakkara S, Komiya T, Ratnatunga N, Senevirathna ST, Harada KH, Hitomi T, Gobe G, Muso E, Abeysekera T, Koizumi A: Tubulointerstitial damage as the major pathological lesion in endemic chronic kidney disease among farmers in North Central Province of Sri Lanka. *Environ Health Prev Med* 17: 213–221, 2012
76. Siriwardhana EA, Perera PA, Sivakanesan R, Abeysekera T, Nugegoda DB, Jayaweera JA: Dehydration and malaria augment the risk of developing chronic kidney disease in Sri Lanka. *Indian J Nephrol* 25: 146–151, 2015
77. Rango T, Jeuland M, Manthritilake H, McCormick P: Nephrotoxic contaminants in drinking water and urine, and chronic kidney disease in rural Sri Lanka. *Sci Total Environ* 518-519: 574–585, 2015
78. Wimalawansa SJ: Escalating chronic kidney diseases of multi-factorial origin in Sri Lanka: causes, solutions, and recommendations. *Environ Health Prev Med* 19: 375–394, 2014
79. Reddy DV, Gunasekar A: Chronic kidney disease in two coastal districts of Andhra Pradesh, India: role of drinking water. *Environ Geochem Health* 35: 439–454, 2013
80. Mani MK: Chronic renal failure in India. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 8: 684–689, discussion 683, 1993
81. Jain SK, Kumar V: Trend analysis of rainfall and temperature data for India. *Curr Sci* 102: 37–49, 2012
82. Narasimhan TN: Ground water in hard-rock areas of peninsular India: challenges of utilization. *Ground Water* 44: 130, 132–133, 2006
83. Kumar KK, Karmala K, Rajagopalan B, Hoerling MP, Eischeid JK, Patwardhan SK, Srinivasan G, Goswami BN, Nemani R: The once and future pulse of Indian monsoonal climate. *Clim Dyn* 36: 2159–2170, 2011
84. Ong-Ajyooth L, Vareesangthip K, Khonputsu P, Aekplakorn W: Prevalence of chronic kidney disease in Thai adults: a national health survey. *BMC Nephrol* 10: 35, 2009
85. Chausawan A, Praditpornsilpa K: *Thailand Renal Replacement Therapy Registry Report 2013*, Bangkok, Thailand, The Nephrology Society of Thailand, 2013
86. Premgamone A, Ditsatopornjaroen T, Jindawong B, Krusun N, Kessomboon P: The Prevalence of Hyperuricemia and Associated Factors in the Rural Community, Khon Kaen Province. *Srinagarind Med J* 26: 41–47, 2011
87. Sriboonlue P, Prasongwatana V, Suwantrai S, Bovornpadungkitti S, Tungsanga K, Tosukh Wong P: Nutritional potassium status of healthy adult males residing in the rural northeast Thailand. *J Med Assoc Thai* 81: 223–232, 1998
88. Tawatsupa B, Lim LL, Kjellstrom T, Seubsmann SA, Sleight A; Thai Cohort Study Team: Association between occupational heat stress and kidney disease among 37,816 workers in the Thai Cohort Study (TCS). *J Epidemiol* 22: 251–260, 2012
89. Domrongkitchaiporn S, Sritara P, Kitiyakara C, Stitchantrakul W, Krittaphol V, Lolekha P, Cheepudomwit S, Yipintsoi T: Risk factors for development of decreased kidney function in a southeast Asian population: a 12-year cohort study. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 16: 791–799, 2005
90. Mendoza-González MF, Montes-Villaseñor E, Muñoz-Flores P, Salado-Pérez M, Espejo-Guevara DM, Tapia-Jaime G: *Prevalencia de Enfermedad Renal Crónica en una Población de Alto Riesgo. Tierra Blanca, Veracruz, México. Memorias Convención Internacional de Salud Pública*, Havana, Cuba, Cuba Salud, 2012
91. Consultores Ambientales Asociados SC: *Insuficiencia Renal Crónica en Tierra Blanca Veracruz, 1998-2003*. Available at: <http://www.greenpeace.org/mexico/Global/mexico/Docs/2013/resumen%20ejecut%20Tierra%20Blanca%202007.pdf>. Accessed April 8, 2016
92. Horton SB: *They leave their kidneys in the fields: Injury, Illness, and Illegality among U.S. Farmworkers*, San Francisco, CA, Center for Public Anthropology, 2015

93. Moyce SJ, Tancredi J, Mitchell D, Armitage T, Schenker M: Heat exposure, volume depletion and acute kidney injury in California's agricultural workers [poster presentation]. CENCAM Conference, San Jose, Costa Rica, 2015
94. Guirguis K, Gershunov A, Tardy A, Basu R: The Impact of Recent Heat Waves on Human Health in California. *J Appl Meteorology and Climatol* 54: 3–19, 2014
95. Seda CH: Chronic kidney disease of nontraditional cause: Emerging issue and call for your participation, November 19, 2015. Available at: <http://www.migrantclinician.org/blog/2015/nov/chronic-kidney-disease-nontraditional-cause-emerging-issue-and-call-your-participation>. Accessed April 8, 2016
96. El Minshawy O: End-stage renal disease in the El-Minia Governorate, upper Egypt: an epidemiological study. *Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl* 22: 1048–1054, 2011
97. Kamel EG: O E-M: Environmental Factors Incriminated in the Development of End Stage Renal Disease in El-Minia Governorate, Upper Egypt. *Int J Nephrol Urol* 2: 431–437, 2010
98. Stanifer JW, Jing B, Tolan S, Helmke N, Mukerjee R, Naicker S, Patel U: The epidemiology of chronic kidney disease in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Glob Health* 2: e174–e181, 2014
99. Goraya N, Simoni J, Jo CH, Wesson DE: A comparison of treating metabolic acidosis in CKD stage 4 hypertensive kidney disease with fruits and vegetables or sodium bicarbonate. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 8: 371–381, 2013
100. Abramowitz MK, Melamed ML, Bauer C, Raff AC, Hostetter TH: Effects of oral sodium bicarbonate in patients with CKD. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 8: 714–720, 2013
101. Nakanishi N, Fukui M, Tanaka M, Toda H, Imai S, Yamazaki M, Hasegawa G, Oda Y, Nakamura N: Low urine pH is a predictor of chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Blood Press Res* 35: 77–81, 2012
102. Goicoechea M, de Vinuesa SG, Verdalles U, Ruiz-Caro C, Ampuero J, Rincón A, Arroyo D, Luño J: Effect of allopurinol in chronic kidney disease progression and cardiovascular risk. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 5: 1388–1393, 2010
103. Siu YP, Leung KT, Tong MK, Kwan TH: Use of allopurinol in slowing the progression of renal disease through its ability to lower serum uric acid level. *Am J Kidney Dis* 47: 51–59, 2006
104. Pai BH, Swarnalatha G, Ram R, Dakshinamurthy KV: Allopurinol for prevention of progression of kidney disease with hyperuricemia. *Indian J Nephrol* 23: 280–286, 2013
105. Laux TS, Barnoya J, Guerrero DR, Rothstein M: Dialysis enrollment patterns in Guatemala: evidence of the chronic kidney disease of non-traditional causes epidemic in Mesoamerica. *BMC Nephrol* 16: 54, 2015
106. Jayasumana C, Gunatilake S, Senanayake P: Glyphosate, hard water and nephrotoxic metals: are they the culprits behind the epidemic of chronic kidney disease of unknown etiology in Sri Lanka? *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 11: 2125–2147, 2014
107. Rajapurkar MM, John GT, Kirpalani AL, Abraham G, Agarwal SK, Almeida AF, Gang S, Gupta A, Modi G, Pahari D, Pisharody R, Prakash J, Raman A, Rana DS, Sharma RK, Sahoo RN, Sakhuja V, Tatapudi RR, Jha V: What do we know about chronic kidney disease in India: first report of the Indian CKD registry. *BMC Nephrol* 13: 10, 2012
108. El Minshawy O, Ghabrah T, El Bassuoni E: End-stage renal disease in Tabuk Area, Saudi Arabia: an epidemiological study. *Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl* 25: 192–195, 2014
109. Elamin S, Obeid W, Abu-Aisha H: Renal Replacement Therapy in Sudan, 2009. *Arab J Nephrol Transplant* 3: 31–36, 2010

J.G. and J.L. contributed equally to this work.

Published online ahead of print. Publication date available at www.cjasn.org.

This article contains supplemental material online at <http://cjasn.asnjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.2215/CJN.13841215/-/DCSupplemental>.