

Balkan endemic nephropathy: a still unsolved puzzle

Adalbert Schiller¹, Paul Gusbeth-Tatomir²,
Nikola Pavlovic³, Dusan Ferluga⁴, Goce Spasovski⁵,
Adrian Covic²

¹ Nephrology Clinic, County Hospital and “Victor Babes”
University of Medicine and Pharmacy, Timisoara - Romania
² Nephrology Clinic, Parhon University Hospital, Iasi - Romania
³ Institute of Nephrology and Hemodialysis, Faculty of
Medicine, Nis - Serbia
⁴ Institute of Pathology, Faculty of Medicine, University of
Ljubljana, Ljubljana - Slovenia
⁵ Department of Nephrology, University Clinical Center Skopje,
Skopje - Macedonia

ABSTRACT

Balkan endemic nephropathy (BEN) is a chronic tubulointerstitial renal disease, occurring in certain regions in 5 countries of the Balkan peninsula. Its etiology is largely unknown, though several hypotheses have been formulated and are discussed in this review. In several cases, etiological hypotheses (e.g., viral, ochratoxin or trace element involvement) are verified only in local endemic areas and can not be confirmed when tested elsewhere. Only certain families in the endemic areas are affected. An exposure of at least 20 years to the unknown factors in the endemic areas seems to be mandatory for the development of the disease, but a genetic predisposition to this disease also seems to be mandatory. Prominent clinical features are severely shrunken kidneys, a more severe anemia relative to the level of renal function, and a slow progression to end-stage renal failure. An international approach to solving the etiological and pathogenetic enigma of BEN is needed in the coming years. It is also time to reevaluate other chronic, slowly progressive tubulointerstitial nephropathies diagnosed elsewhere in the world and to search for possible etiological similarities with BEN.

Key words: *Balkan endemic nephropathy, Chronic tubulointerstitial nephropathy, End-stage renal disease, Etiology, Pathogenesis*

INTRODUCTION

Balkan endemic nephropathy (BEN) is a slowly progressive chronic tubulointerstitial kidney disease, generating invariably end-stage renal disease (ESRD). It was first described in the late 1950s by Danilović et al in Serbia (1), Tanchev and Dorossiev in Bulgaria (2), and in the early 1960s by Foarta and Negoescu in Romania (3). Though many research programs have been carried out in the last 50 years in the affected countries with or without international involvement, BEN still remains a very controversial disease.

EPIDEMIOLOGY DATA

BEN is spread over a surface of approximately 500 km² comprising the area around the Danube Iron Gate, in settlements along the Danube River and its tributaries (Fig. 1). Currently, BEN has been reported in more than 40 villages in southwestern Romania, in more than 41 villages from the Vratsa and Mikhaylovgrad districts in Bulgaria and in numerous settlements from countries in the former Yugoslavia: Serbia with 73 villages affected, Bosnia with 54 and Croatia with 14 (4). The prevalence of the disease is slightly higher in women than in men. Characteristic and unique to BEN epidemiology is that there are some villages in the endemic regions that are not affected, being separated from the affected areas by only a few kilometers. Moreover, not all households inside the same village are involved: there are BEN-affected families living close to families without any renal disease. Most of the BEN

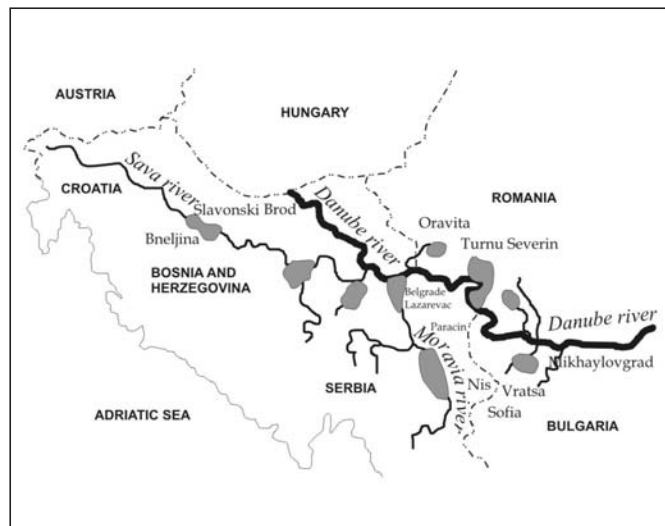


Fig. 1 - Areas of prevalent Balkan endemic nephropathy.

patients are working as farmers. BEN may also develop in emigrants from an endemic area, if they are descendants from BEN-affected families, even if they have left the region during early childhood and settled down hundreds of kilometers away (5). Furthermore, BEN may appear in immigrants moving into BEN-affected regions. Nevertheless, the development of BEN seems related to the total time (≥ 20 years) lived in the endemic area (6). The prevalence, incidence and mortality of BEN differ from one endemic area to another; in Bulgaria the prevalence in the endemic areas varies between 6/1,000 to 12.3/1,000 inhabitants, and the incidence between 0.3/1,000 and 0.7/1,000 person-years (7). In Serbia (Kolubara region) the prevalence varies between 6.4% and 8.9% (8), with BEN representing 11% of all reported causes of ESRD (9). The incidence of deaths was stable over the last few decades, exceeding 3/1,000 person-years in the most heavily affected endemic villages (10). In Romania, the prevalence of BEN in affected villages varies widely between 0.5% and 10% of the population in the endemic areas (3). In recent years, some reports have suggested a decreasing trend for occurrence of BEN (11). However, when evaluating BEN epidemiology in the last 15 years, one must take into account (besides differences in reporting modalities) that war and profound economic and political changes have swept over the Balkans. These facts led to a significant disruption to, and changes in, the medical system and massive demographic changes (emigration); therefore, recent epidemiological data must be interpreted with caution.

CLINICAL FINDINGS AND DIAGNOSIS IN BEN

There are no pathognomonic clinical findings, and there is no specific biological marker for BEN. The disease is a slowly progressive tubulointerstitial nephropathy with first clinical manifestations occurring between 30 to 50 years of age. BEN has not been described in patients aged below 18 years. Most of the cases are diagnosed very late, when signs and symptoms of advanced chronic kidney disease (CKD) or CKD-associated complications have ensued. Early diagnosis in BEN is possible only when affected families from endemic regions are actively investigated or during a planned survey of an endemic area. Severe normocytic, normochromic and nonregenerative anemia is often one of the first clinical features of BEN. The severity of anemia increases further with the impairment of renal function. The serum erythropoietin level is inappropriately low as for the degree of anemia. Mild hypertension may occasionally be detected during an early stage, as well as in the advanced stages of BEN. Urinary sediment has no specific features. Minor and intermittent proteinuria (< 1 g/24 hours) has been detected in BEN patients mainly in the later stages. Low-molecular-weight (tubular) proteinuria (β_2 -microglobulin, lysozyme), as a marker for early tubular damage, is present in BEN patients, as well as in some of the healthy relatives, and is thus a valuable tool in the epidemiological surveys (6, 12, 13). Other signs of proximal tubular damage such as acidification defects, altered ammonia and uric acid excretion and salt loss were also reported (4), in addition to the other nonspecific findings such as polyuria, nocturia, decreased concentrating capacity and high urinary sodium excretion. However, all these abnormalities may occur in any renal disease characterized by tubular dysfunction (12).

In BEN patients, all imaging investigations (ultrasound, intravenous urography, computed tomography and magnetic resonance imaging) reveal common findings: markedly reduced kidney size with a smooth outline (14). It seems that the reduction in kidney size precedes a significant decline in glomerular filtration rate, in contrast to other chronic nephropathies (15). Under these circumstances, the clinical diagnosis of BEN is difficult and is still based on the criteria proposed by Danilović in 1981 (16) (Tab. I). Recently reported multiple kidney function disorders (increased α_1 -microglobulinuria, glucosuria and decreased tubular phosphate reabsorption) not included in the existing criteria, confirmed that Danilović's criteria are rather appropriate for diagnosis in patients with advanced renal failure (17). Indeed, these criteria supple-

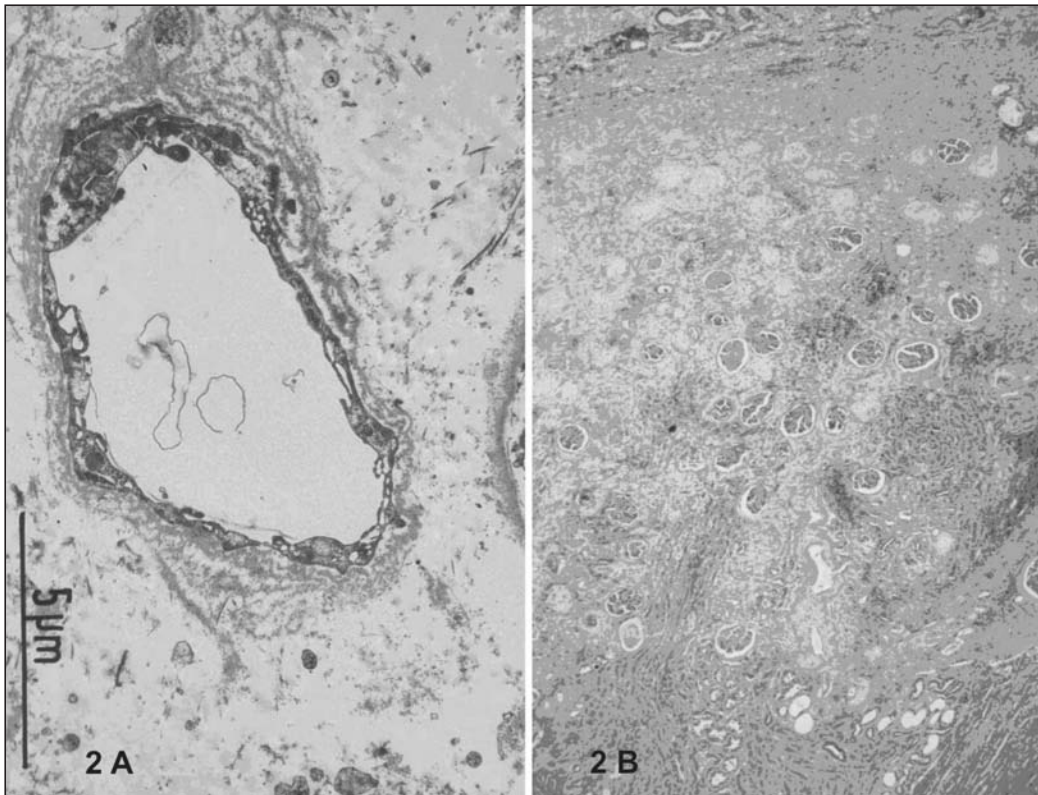


Fig. 2 - A) Electron micrograph shows peritubular capillary sclerosis expressed by basement membrane thickening and splitting in the kidney of a patient with early Balkan endemic nephropathy (magnification $\times 40$). **B)** Electron micrograph shows widespread sclerosing atrophy particularly prominent in the outer cortex of the kidney in end-stage Balkan endemic nephropathy (magnification $\times 20$; hematoxylin and eosin staining).

mented with the epidemiological data should be revisited, to allow the diagnosis of BEN before the overt (late) clinical manifestations of the disease. In addition, BEN family members with proteinuria should be considered as patients in the early phase of the disease, and this group should be defined as a population at risk for overt BEN development. Finally, a high prevalence of urothelial tumors in BEN patients appears to be a common feature in all endemic areas (3, 6, 12), with a 11.2-fold higher incidence in some of the BEN sites as compared with the nonendemic areas. It seems that urothelial tumors do not histologically differ from those encountered in nonendemic areas (18). Most of the authors suggest a common etiology for BEN and the urothelial tumors.

PATHOLOGY OF BEN

Histopathology of BEN is characterized by a progressive atrophy and sclerosis involving all structures of the nephron, particularly the interstitium. BEN shares histopathological similarities with chronic toxic tubulointerstitial kidney diseases. In early stages there is multifocal sclerosing atrophy in the cortex, more pronounced in the superficial

than in the juxtamedullary areas. Interstitial edema and sclerosis without an active inflammation is found, associated with tubular atrophy, peritubular and occasionally glomerular capillary sclerosis, as well as arteriolo-hyalinosis (Fig. 2A) (19). In the advanced stages, sclerosing atrophy is widespread, being particularly severe in the outer cortex (Fig. 2B), with consequently smooth-surfaced extremely

TABLE I

CRITERIA FOR THE DIAGNOSIS OF BALKAN ENDEMIC NEPHROPATHY

1. Persons from endemic villages
2. Positive familial history for BEN
3. Mild proteinuria
4. Low specific gravity of the urine
5. Anemia
6. Azotemia (urea >50 mg/dL, serum creatinine >1.5 mg/dL)
7. Symmetrically shrunken kidneys with smooth outline

Note: A positive diagnosis includes the presence of at least 5 criteria (the first 2 are mandatory). Data from Danilović et al, 1981 (16), adapted.

small end-stage kidneys. In the outer cortex, the glomeruli are globally sclerotic, and atrophic tubules vanish, whereas in the inner cortex, they remain relatively preserved until the end-stage disease. Čukuranović et al performed a quantitative analysis of the renal changes by stereological methods (20); the initial stages of BEN are characterized by a marked increase in the cortical interstitial volume and a concomitant reduction of the glomerular volume. In the later stages, the cortical interstitial volume continues to increase and the glomerular volume further decreases; these findings are associated with a decrease in the volume density of the tubular epithelium and a reduction in the number of interstitial capillaries (20). More detailed ultrastructural analyses revealed a marked overexpression of laminin in the interstitial capillaries and a moderate overexpression in the tubules, as well as a coexpression of vimentin and cytokeratin in the tubular epithelial cells, suggesting that vascular and proximal tubular injuries are the primary events in the initiation of the disease (21).

A SHORT REVIEW OF VARIOUS ETIOLOGICAL HYPOTHESES

After 50 years from the first report and in spite of considerable research efforts made by local and international researchers, the etiology of BEN remains an enigma. Viral infections, environmental toxins and genetic predisposition are the main potential culprits subjected to investigation. The *viral* etiology hypothesis, though very attractive, is supported by scarce data. This hypothesis was raised in the 1970s by Apostolov and Spaic, and Georgescu et al (22, 23), and by Stoian et al in 1983 (24). Later, in 1999, Uzelac-Keserovic and colleagues suggested that the 28.4-nm, nonenveloped virus particles found in the kidney cells of some BEN patients could be coronaviruses (25); however, this finding was not confirmed in a subsequent study by Riquelme et al (26). Recently, it has been found that BEN patients in Bulgaria presented with elevated urinary levels of neopterin, a marker for activated Th1 immune response, virus infections (CMV, HIV, HVA and HVB) and malignancies (27). All of these results are not yet confirmed by data from the other BEN-affected regions. Many organic and inorganic toxins from food and water have been investigated in relation to BEN, with contradictory results. An excess of certain *trace elements* (cadmium, lead, silica, manganese, copper and selenium) has been related to BEN. In the first description of the disease,

Danilović et al suggested that the nephropathy might be caused by lead poisoning (1). Subsequent clinical and epidemiological data could not confirm the lead intoxication theory (28). Selenium deficiency-induced glutathione peroxidase deficiency has been also investigated in BEN patients. Though widespread selenium deficiency has been demonstrated in certain BEN-affected regions, similar to other areas in the world, no direct link between the kidney disease and selenium deficiency could be demonstrated (29). Exposure to the potential toxin seems to have a seasonal variation and is more important during autumn, not supporting an important role for the permanent exposure to trace elements (30).

Mycotoxin-induced poisoning (by ochratoxin A [OTA] and fumonisins) as a cause of BEN is another very attractive hypothesis, since it fits most of the epidemiological features of the disease. The OTA content of food is increased in many of the BEN endemic areas so that OTA intake is higher than in most EU countries, and close to the upper limits accepted by several food-safety organizations (31). OTA is a toxic product synthesized by *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* species with nephrotoxic, carcinogenic, teratogenic and immunotoxic effects. OTA develops its toxic effect by induction of apoptosis, impairment of mitochondrial respiration and/or the disruption of the cytoskeleton, or by generation of DNA adducts (31). An experimental porcine nephropathy (32) and renal parenchymal carcinoma in mice were described in conjunction with OTA (28). However, experimental toxic doses were significantly higher than those found in severely BEN-affected areas. Intestinal OTA toxicity and a chronic idiopathic interstitial nephropathy have been related to the elevated OTA levels in Tunisia (33), but immunoaffinity-HPLC investigations did not confirm these data (34). Currently, there is no direct evidence for OTA-induced nephropathy in humans (28). Fumonisins are mycotoxins produced by *Fusarium moniliforme*, inhibiting ceramide synthase, the enzyme of de novo synthesis of sphingolipids. Fumonisin toxicity has been linked to the development of BEN in Croatia (34). The data are not yet confirmed in other BEN-affected areas. The possible role of phytotoxins in the etiology of BEN was raised in the early 1970s (35). The seeds of *Aristolochia clematidis* contain a potent phytotoxin (aristolochic acid I and II [AA]) with nephrotoxic and carcinogenic effects in animal and humans. AA is a genotoxic mutagen forming DNA adducts after metabolic activation, involved in carcinogenesis and generating extensive interstitial renal fibrosis by an unknown mechanism (36). In the early 1990s, aristolochic acid nephropathy (AAN, also known as

Chinese herb nephropathy) has been described after accidental AA poisoning (37). The contamination of wheat grain with *A. clematidis* during harvesting has been demonstrated in Croatia; the flour used to bake bread was also contaminated with AA (38). AAN is a rapidly progressive interstitial nephropathy characterized by early, severe anemia, mild tubular proteinuria and initially normal arterial blood pressure in half of the patients. Renal histology shows many similarities to BEN, extensive cortical interstitial fibrosis associated with tubular atrophy and glomerular sclerosis, decreasing in intensity from the outer to the inner cortex. Urothelial malignancy of the upper urinary tract is highly prevalent in AAN and BEN (39). Due to these similar morphological and clinical findings, the hypothesis of a common etiology has been raised (37). However, endemic nephropathy was not described elsewhere, other than in certain areas from the mentioned countries, though *Aristolochia* is a source of contamination in many parts of the world, including nonendemic areas from BEN-affected countries.

Poisoning of the drinking water with *water-soluble hydrocarbons* from Pliocene-epoch lignites is another attractive etiological theory. The US Geological Survey and researchers from the affected countries have demonstrated that all endemic areas with exception of 1 in Serbia lie over Pliocene coal deposits (40). These lignites still contain water-soluble complex organic compounds, which are diluted into the drinking water. Certain compounds – polar polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and aromatic amines – have been identified in the drinking water from the endemic areas. These compounds are known to be carcinogenic, in particular causing urothelial cancer (41, 42). However, Pliocene lignite deposits are spread over the world (including Europe, Australia, China and the United States), and to our knowledge, no endemic nephropathy has been described in those places.

Since the precise substance(s) involved in the genesis of BEN have not yet been identified despite all the extensive research, a simple question emerges: why are some hypothetical substances toxic to certain subjects and induce BEN, while causing no harm to other people from the same area? A plausible hypothesis suggests that BEN is generated by the action of environmental factors in *genetically predisposed individuals*. This is supported by some striking aspects of the epidemiology of BEN: in the endemic area only certain families are affected; the “healthy” offspring of BEN patients have shorter kidney lengths (13); offspring from BEN patients excrete significantly more albumin and β_2 -microglobulin than subjects

from nonaffected families even when living in the same settlements (13, 28). Furthermore, Toncheva et al reported that BEN patients have a higher rate of spontaneous and radiation-induced chromosome aberrations, as compared with the controls (43). A specific chromosome arm linked to BEN (3q) has been described (44). It was hypothesized that certain chromosome aberrations may involve oncogenes, which could explain the frequent association of BEN and urothelial cancer. In the 1990s the predisposition for BEN was related to genetically determined deficiencies in enzyme activity, involving lecithin:cholesterol acyltransferase (LCAT) (45), erythrocyte δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase (ALA-D) (46) and cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYP2D6) (47). Decreased activity of these enzymes has been proposed for the assessment of the risk to develop BEN (45). The Atanasova et al and Toncheva et al investigated the role of genetic polymorphisms of several enzymes from a detoxification system, in Bulgarian BEN patients (48-50). It seems that cytochrome P450 3A5*1 (CYP3A5*1) allele carriers are at higher risk of BEN. A similar risk has been described for BEN patients with the glutathione S transferase M1 (GSTM1) wild-type allele (51). Research from Bulgaria showed also that persons with particular variants of the renal transporter proteins (P-gp) might be at lower risk to develop BEN (52). However, these findings have yet been confirmed in other endemic areas. Finally, there are some suggestions that BEN might be a disorder of renal *embryogenesis*, characterized by a deficit of nephron number, induced by environmental factors with an impact on embryogenesis. This theory is supported by the increased occurrence of renal dysplasia-hypoplasia in BEN patients (compared with other nephropathies), the high incidence of renal pelvic and renal artery anatomic abnormalities, the finding of primitive glomeruli and obstructed tubules on kidney biopsy, and the frequent occurrence of a generalized proximal tubular dysfunction similar to adult Fanconi syndrome (53).

PREVENTION AND TREATMENT

Since the etiology is not yet known, there are no effective strategies for prevention of BEN. Common sense measures such as using a water supply from distant sources and migration of affected families outside the endemic area should be encouraged. The treatment of BEN is mainly the same as the treatment of any chronic kidney disease with unknown etiology. It includes general measures and dialysis for end-stage renal disease. As the risk of developing

urothelial tumors increases with longer survival of the BEN patient (including the end-stage renal patient), a surveillance program for neoplasia of the urinary tract is mandatory. Kidney transplants have been performed in several patients, and recurrence of endemic nephropathy in grafted kidneys has not been documented (12).

CONCLUSIONS AND FINAL COMMENTS

Balkan endemic nephropathy is a chronic tubulointerstitial renal disease, occurring in certain regions of the 5 countries of the Balkan peninsula. Etiological factors leading to BEN are largely unknown, though several hypotheses have been formulated. Only certain families in the endemic areas are affected. An exposure of approximately 20 years to the unknown factors in the endemic area seems to be required for development of the disease, but a genetic predisposition to this disease is plausible. Prominent clinical features are severely shrunken kidneys, a more severe anemia relative to the level of renal function (and in comparison with other renal diseases) and slow progression to ESRD. After 50 years since identification of Balkan endemic nephropathy, we are still fighting with an unsolved puzzle: its etiology. This puzzle is becoming more and more complicated along with the evolving new research hypotheses, which have not been accurately tested and

confirmed yet. In several cases, etiological hypotheses have been verified only in local endemic areas, and they can not be confirmed when tested elsewhere. It becomes even more apparent that if we want to resolve the puzzle, an international, coordinated approach is needed. Finally, it is possible that even the concept of "Balkan nephropathy" limits our way of thinking, as well as our diagnostic approach. We consider that it is also time to reevaluate, with an open mind and a fresh perspective, other chronic, slowly progressive tubulointerstitial nephropathies diagnosed elsewhere in the world and to search for possible etiological similarities with BEN.

Conflict of interest statement: None declared.

Address for correspondence:
Prof. Adrian Covic, MD, PhD
Nephrology Clinic
Parhon University Hospital
Carol 1st Blvd. No. 50
700503 Iasi, Romania
acovic@xnet.ro

REFERENCES

1. Danilović V, Djurišić M, Mokranjac M, Stojimirović B, Živojnović J, Stojaković P. [Chronic nephritis due to lead poisoning by digestive route (flour)] [In French]. *Presse Med.* 1957;65:2039-2040.
2. Tanchev Y, Dorossiev D. The first clinical description of Balkan endemic nephropathy (1956) and its validity 35 years later. *IARC Sci Publ.* 1991;115:21-28.
3. Gluhovschi GH, Stefanović V, Dimitrov T, et al. [Balkan Endemic Nephropathy] [in Romanian]. Timisoara, Romania: Ed. Helicon Banat; 1994.
4. Stefanović V. Balkan endemic nephropathy: a need for novel aetiological approaches. *QJM.* 1998;91:457-463.
5. Dinev I. Results of long term observations of patients and healthy individuals who emigrated from the village of Karash and settled in villages near Sofia. In: Strahinjić S, Stefanović V, eds. *Current Research in Endemic (Balkan) Nephropathy.* Niš, Serbia: University Press; 1983:279-281.
6. Batuman V. Fifty years of Balkan endemic nephropathy: daunting questions, elusive answers. *Kidney Int.* 2006;69:644-646.
7. Dimitrov PS, Simeonov VA, Stein AD. Balkan endemic nephropathy in Vratza, Bulgaria, 1964-1987: an epidemiologic analysis of population-based disease registers. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2001;17:847-853.
8. Bukvic D, Jankovic S, Arsenovic A, Djukanovic L. Balkan endemic nephropathy is still present in the Kolubara region, Serbia. *Ren Fail.* 2005;27:565-569.

9. Djukanovic L, Radovic M, Bakovic J, et al. Epidemiology of end-stage renal disease and current status of hemodialysis in Yugoslavia. *Int J Artif Organs*. 2002;25:852-859.
10. Radovanović Z. Epidemiological characteristics of Balkan endemic nephropathy in eastern regions of Yugoslavia. *IARC Sci Publ*. 1991;115:11-20.
11. Radovanović Z. Balkan endemic nephropathy in Serbia: current status and future research. *Facta Universitatis (Series Medicine and Biology)*. 2002;9:26-30.
12. Polenaković MH, Stefanović V. Balkan nephropathy. In: Davison AM, Cameron JS, Grunfeld JP, Kerr DN, Ritz E, Winearls CG, eds. *Oxford Textbook of Clinical Nephrology*. 2nd ed. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press; 1998.
13. Dimitrov P, Tsoleva S, Georgieva R, et al. Clinical markers in adult offspring of families with and without Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Kidney Int*. 2006;69:723-729.
14. Djukanović L, Bukvić D, Marić I, et al. Open questions on Balkan nephropathy. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2001;16:27-29.
15. Djukanovic L, Bukvic D, Maric I. Creatinine clearance and kidney size in Balkan endemic nephropathy patients. *Clin Nephrol*. 2004;61:384-386.
16. Danilović V. Endemic nephropathy in Yugoslavia. In: Strahinjic S, Stefanovic V, eds. *Endemic (Balkan) Nephropathy: Proceedings of the 4th Symposium, Nis, Serbia, 1979*. Nis, Serbia: Institute of Nephrology and Haemodialysis; 1981:1-5.
17. Maric I, Bukvic D, Bogdanovic M, et al. Cross-sectional study in the Balkan endemic nephropathy village of Vreoci (Serbia). *Bantao Journal* 2006;4:5-8.
18. Markovic N, Ignjatovic I, Cukuranovic R, Petrovic B, Kocic B, Stefanovic V. Decreasing incidence of urothelial cancer in a Balkan endemic nephropathy region in Serbia: a surgery based study from 1969 to 1998. *Pathol Biol (Paris)*. 2005;53:26-29.
19. Ferluga D, Hvala A, Vizjak A, Trnačević S, Halilbašić A. Renal function, protein excretion, and pathology of Balkan endemic nephropathy: Part III: light and electron microscopic studies. *Kidney Int*. 1991;40:S57-S67.
20. Čukuranović R, Stefanović N, Savič V, Stefanović V. Quantitative analysis of the renal changes Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Int Urol Nephrol*. 1998;30:229-236.
21. Savič V, Čukuranović R, Stefanović N, Stefanović V. Damage to the kidney in Balkan endemic nephropathy: initial lesions, target structures and pathomorphogenesis. *Facta Universitatis (Series Medicine and Biology)*. 2002;9:92-94.
22. Apostolov K, Spaic P. Evidence of a viral aetiology in endemic (Balkan) nephropathy. *Lancet*. 1975;2:1271-1273.
23. Georgescu L, Litvac B, Diosi P, Plavosin L, Herzog G. Viruses in endemic (Balkan) nephropathy [letter]. *Lancet*. 1976;15:1086.
24. Stoian M, Hozoc M, Iosipenco M, Nastac E, Melencu M. Serum antibodies to papova viruses (BK and SV40) in subjects from the area with Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Virologie*. 1983;34:113-117.
25. Uzelac-Keserovic B, Spasic P, Bojanic N, et al. Isolation of a coronavirus from kidney biopsies of endemic Balkan nephropathy patients. *Nephron*. 1999;81:141-145.
26. Riquelme C, Escors D, Ortego J, Sanchez CM, Uzelac-Keserovic B, Apostolov K. Nature of the virus associated with endemic Balkan nephropathy. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2002;8:869-870.
27. Toncheva D, Galabov AS, Laich A, et al. Urinary neopterin concentrations in patients with Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Kidney Int*. 2003;64:1817-1821.
28. Stefanovic V, Toncheva D, Atanasova S, Polenakovic M. Etiology of Balkan endemic nephropathy and associated urothelial cancer. *Am J Nephrol*. 2006;26:1-11.
29. Maksimovic ZJ. Selenium deficiency and Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Kidney Int*. 1991;40:S12-S14.
30. Stefanović V, Mitič-Zlatković M, Cukuranović R, Vlahovic P. Increased urinary protein excretion in children from families with Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Nephron Clin Pract*. 2003;95:116-120.
31. O'Brien E, Dietrich DR. Ochratoxin A: the continuing enigma. *Crit Rev Toxicol*. 2005;35:33-60.
32. Krogh P, Axelsen NH, Elling F, et al. Experimental porcine nephropathy: changes of renal function and structure induced by ochratoxin-A-contaminated food. *Acta Pathol Microbiol Scand*. 1974;246:1-24.
33. Hassen W, Abid S, Achour A, Creppy E, Bacha H. Ochratoxin A and beta2-microglobulinuria in healthy individuals and in chronic interstitial nephropathy patients in the centre of Tunisia: a hot spot of Ochratoxin A exposure. *Toxicology*. 2004;199:185-193.
34. Ribar S, Mesarič M, Bauman M. High-performance liquid chromatographic determination of sphinganine and sphingosine in serum and urine of subjects from an endemic nephropathy area in Croatia. *J Chromatogr B Biomed Sci Appl*. 2001;754:511-519.
35. Ivic M. The problem of etiology of endemic nephropathy. *Acta Fac Med Naiss*. 1970;1:29-37.
36. Arlt VM, Stiborova M, Schmeiser HH. Aristolochic acid and 'Chinese herbs nephropathy': a review of the evidence to date. *Mutagenesis*. 2002;17:265-277.
37. Cosyns JP, Jadoul M, Squifflet JP, et al. Chinese herbs nephropathy: a clue to Balkan endemic nephropathy? *Kidney Int*. 1994;45:1680-1688.
38. Hranjec T, Kovac A, Kos J, et al. Endemic nephropathy: the case for chronic poisoning by aristolochia. *Croat Med J*. 2005;46:699-701.
39. Cosyns JP. Aristolochic acid and 'Chinese herbs nephropathy': a review of the evidence to date. *Drug Saf*. 2003;26:33-48.

40. Feder GL, Radovanovic Z, Finkelman RB. Relationship between weathered coal deposits and the etiology of Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Kidney Int.* 1991;40:S9-S11.
41. Goldberg MC, Feder GL, Radovanovic Z. Correlation of Balkan endemic nephropathy with fluorescent organic compounds in shallow ground water. *Applied Hydrogeology.* 1994;2:15-23.
42. Orem WH, Tatu CA, Lerch HE, et al. Identification and environmental significance of the organic compounds in water supplies associated with Balkan endemic nephropathy region in Romania. *J Environ Health.* 2004;3:49-57.
43. Toncheva DI, Gerov TD, Tzoneva MT, Bouchakliev ZP. Spontaneous and induced chromosome aberrations in Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Kidney Int.* 1991;40:S97-S101.
44. Toncheva D, Dimitrov T. Genetic predisposition to Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Nephron* 1996;72:564-569.
45. Pavlovic NM, Varghese Z, Persaud JW, et al. Partial lecithin:cholesterol acyltransferase deficiency in Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Kidney Int.* 1991;40:S102-S105.
46. Djordjevic VB, Strahinjic S, Koracevic D, et al. δ -Aminolevulinic dehydratase measurements in Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Kidney Int.* 1991;40:S93-S96.
47. Nikolov I, Chernozemsky I, Idle J. Genetic predisposition to Balkan endemic nephropathy: ability hydroxylate debrisoquine as a host factor. In: Castegnaro M, Plestina R, Dirheimer G, Chernozemsky I, Bartasch H, eds. *Mycotoxins, Endemic Nephropathy and Urinary Tract Tumors.* Lyon, France: IARC; 1991:289-296.
48. Toncheva D, von Ahsen N, Atanasova S, et al. Identification of NQO1 and GSTs genotype frequencies in Bulgarian patients with Balkan endemic nephropathy. *J Nephrol.* 2004;17:384-389.
49. Atanasova S, von Ahsen N, Dimitrov T, et al. First study of NAT1 and NAT2 polymorphisms in Bulgarian patients with Balkan endemic nephropathy and healthy controls. *Biotechnology and Biotechnological Equipment.* 2004;18:95-103.
50. Atanasova SY, von Ahsen N, Toncheva DI, et al. Genetic polymorphisms of cytochrome P₄₅₀ among patients with Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Clin Biochem.* 2005;38:223-228.
51. Andonova R, Sarueva A, Horvath V, et al. Balkan endemic nephropathy and genetic variants of glutathione S-transferases. *J Nephrol.* 2004;17:390-398.
52. Atanasova S, von Ahsen N, Dimitrov T, et al. MDR1 haplotypes modify BEN disease risk: a study in Bulgarian patients with Balkan endemic nephropathy compared to healthy controls. *Nephron Exp Nephrol.* 2004;96:e7-e13.
53. Nenov DV, Nenov DS. Balkan nephropathy: a disorder of renal embryogenesis? *Am J Nephrol.* 2002;22:260-265.

Received: March 07, 2007

Revised: March 29, 2007

Accepted: July 04, 2007

© Società Italiana di Nefrologia