# **Editorial**

# Metabolic syndrome leading to chronic kidney disease: An emerging threat

Tushar R. Bandgar, Sanjay Kalra<sup>1</sup>, Manisha Sahay<sup>2</sup>

Department of Endocrinology, Seth GS Medical College and KEM Hospital, Mumbai, Maharashtra, <sup>1</sup>Bharti Hospital and BRIDE, Karnal, Haryana, <sup>2</sup>Department of Nephrology, Osmania General Hospital, Osmania Medical College, Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh, India

Kidney has always exerted an important role in the field of endocrinology, and "renal endocrinology" still proves to be an area of active research with new dimensions coming forth. Cardio-renal metabolic syndrome (MS), a relatively new entity, has been recognized often, which constitutes the presence of a group of interactive maladaptive factors including MS leading to kidney and heart disease, and is on a rise.

The MS is defined as a syndrome of truncal obesity, insulin resistance, elevated BP, hypertriglyceridemia, and hyperglycemia. [1] which is strongly associated with the potential development of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (CVD) and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). The prevalence of MS depends on age, ethnic background, and gender, and increases linearly from the age of 20 until age 50, when it plateaus. The recent data show that one-fourth to one-third of the urban population of India has MS<sup>[2-4]</sup> and has increased to 45.3%. [5,6] MS is highly prevalent among urban Indians compared to their rural counterparts (35.2% vs. 20.6%) and is 1.5–2 times higher in women than in men. [2,7] Interestingly, certain communities in India (e.g. the Punjabi Bhatia community in northern India) tend to have a high incidence of obesity, T2DM, and MS. [8]

Developing countries such as India are major reservoirs for chronic diseases (CDs), especially CVD and chronic kidney disease (CKD), with their incidence rising rapidly.<sup>[9,10]</sup> India,

| Access this article online |                                 |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Quick Response Code:       | Mala a ida a                    |
| 国政教者(国<br>公司基础经验》          | Website:<br>www.ijem.in         |
|                            | DOI:<br>10.4103/2230-8210.93728 |

with the highest incidences of diabetes and hypertension (HT) in the world, is likely to face a catastrophic CKD/end-stage renal disease (ESRD) burden, with 25–40% of its population being at risk. [11] A survey across 10 Asian countries showed that the most common cause of ESRD in 9 out of 10 countries was diabetic nephropathy and develops in 1 out of 3 diabetics worldwide. The remaining 66% of patients die from CVD prior to reaching ESRD, which contributes heavily to the burden of CVD (>30% of the global CD burden). [12] Estimated burdens of CKD in India are often conservative representations of the overall national health burdens due to lack of national renal disease registries. [13]

The association between MS and CKD in different populations varies with odds ratios (OR) ranging from 0.93 to 2.60. [14] Various definitions of MS and adjusted ORs of associated microalbuminuria<sup>[14]</sup> are as follows. Patients diagnosed to have MS by World Health Organization (WHO) 1998;<sup>[15]</sup> European Group for the Study of Insulin Resistance (EGIR) 1999;<sup>[16]</sup> National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel III (NCEP-ATP III) 2001;<sup>[17]</sup> International Diabetes Federation (IDF), 2005;<sup>[18]</sup> and American Heart Association (AHA) 2005[19] had adjusted ORs (95% CI) of microalbuminuria for men: 4.44 (2.85–6.91), women: 4.16 (2.57–6.73); men: 2.62 (1.49–4.60), women: 1.80 (0.99–3.29); men: 1.99 (1.31–3.03), women: 2.21 (1.47–3.32); men: 1.51 (0.97–2.35), women: 2.29 (1.51– 3.48); and men: 1.64 (1.08–2.50), women: 2.26 (1.52–3.38), respectively. High blood pressure and hyperglycemia came out to be the most powerful predictors of CKD in subjects with MS. Several population-based studies supported the effect of MS on CKD even after adjusting for the influences of diabetes, HT, age, and gender. Latest metaanalysis involving 11 studies (n = 30,146)<sup>[20]</sup> showed that MS was significantly associated with the development of estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) <60 ml/min

Corresponding Author: Dr. Tushar R. Bandgar, Department of Endocrinology, Seth GS Medical College and KEM Hospital, Mumbai, India. E-mail: drtusharb@gmail.com

per 1.73 m<sup>2</sup> (OR 1.55; 95% CI 1.34, 1.80). The strength of this association seemed to increase as the number of components of MS increased (trend *P* value <0.02). In patients with MS, the ORs (95% CI) for development of eGFR <60 ml/min per 1.73 m<sup>2</sup> for individual components of MS were: elevated blood pressure 1.61 (1.29, 2.01); elevated triglycerides 1.27 (1.11, 1.46); low high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol 1.23 (1.12, 1.36); abdominal obesity 1.19 (1.05, 1.34); and impaired fasting glucose 1.14 (1.03, 1.26).

These findings suggest that MS *per se* is an important causative factor for CKD. It is known that CKD is associated with decreased cardiac function, ventricular hypertrophy, and diastolic dysfunction, and increased risk of adverse cardiovascular events.<sup>[21]</sup> A recent study reported the association between MS, CKD, and left ventricular hypertrophy (LVH), and suspected that the combination of MS and CKD is a strong risk for LVH as well as a strong and independent predictor of subsequent CVD.<sup>[22]</sup>

The mechanism(s) by which MS might accelerate renal disease remains speculative. [23] One possibility relates to the presence of obesity itself. Obesity has been found to be an independent risk factor for CKD and treating obesity might stabilize renal function<sup>[24]</sup> or reverse early hemodynamic abnormalities and glomerular dysfunction.<sup>[25]</sup> Obesity has been associated with a type of focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS) called "obesityrelated glomerulopathy."[26] Hall et al.[27] proposed that lipid deposition in the inner medulla increases intrarenal pressure, leading to decreased tubular flow, which results in increased sodium reabsorption in Henle's loop, volume expansion, and the development of systemic HT. Obesity is a risk factor for diabetes and HT, and has been shown to lead to glomerular HT and hyperfiltration.<sup>[27]</sup> MS is also associated with the release of inflammatory cytokines causing endothelial dysfunction and oxidative stress, [28] resulting in glomerulosclerosis. Insulin resistance also contributes to renal damage by virtue of stimulating the sympathetic nervous system and the rennin-angiotensinaldosterone system.<sup>[29]</sup> Dyslipidemia may induce toxic and inflammatory tubulointerstitial injury. [30] With caloric excess, there is fatty acid excess and insulin resistance, leading to hepatic steatosis and steatohepatitis, and ultimately cirrhosis. There is a speculative role of higher fetuin-A levels leading to suppression of adiponectin transcription in adipocytes, which in turn reduces 5' adenosine monophosphateactivated protein kinase (AMPK) in podocytes to promote podocyte foot process effacement and albuminuria. [31]

The rise in MS indirectly may be a major contributor to the general rise in renal disease that has been observed in the past few decades. The public health relevance of the above findings is underscored by the fact that the prevalence of MS and its components is increasing over time, and findings suggest that the CKD burden might rise commensurately. These findings emphasize the need to identify individuals with the constellation of these metabolic risk factors earlier and consider multidisciplinary interventions, particularly lifestyle modifications, to retard the development of CKD.

Studies from developed countries show that mortality risk for CDs can be reduced by 75% through health interventions and the incidence can be reduced by up to 58% through lifestyle interventions. [32] Cost-effective population-based health intervention has shown to give maximum results by modifying three major risk factors – poor diet, lack of physical activity, and tobacco use – and hence should be targeted.

Multiple interventions are required in all the sections of the society to fight this emerging threat of cardio-renal MS. The preventive and primary health care systems come at the forefront, and hence must be strengthened and unified. There is also a desperate need for community awareness and advocacy for lifestyle changes and disease management, increased availability of medical practitioners, and costeffective practical screening systems for CDs.

## REFERENCES

- Gupta A, Gupta V. Metabolic syndrome: What are the risks for humans? Bio Sci Trends 2010;4:204-12.
- Misra A, Misra R, Wijesuriya M. The metabolic syndrome in South Asians. In: Mohan V, Rao HR, Gundu HR, editors. Type 2 diabetes in South Asians: Epidemiology, risk factors and prevention. New Delhi, India: Jaypee Brothers; 2006. p.76-96.
- Mahadik SR, Deo SS, Mehtalia SD. Increased prevalence of metabolic syndrome in non-obese Asian Indian-an urban-rural comparison. Metab Syndr. Relat Disord 2007;5:142-52.
- Mohan V, Deepa M, Farooq S, Prabhakaran D, Reddy KS. Surveillance for risk factors of cardiovascular disease among an industrial population in southern India. Natl Med J India 2008:21:8-13.
- Bhardwaj S, Misra A, Misra R, Goel K, Bhatt SP, Rastogi K, et al. High prevalence of abdominal, intra-abdominal and subcutaneous adiposity and clustering of risk factors among urban Asian Indians in North India. PLoS One 2011;6: e24362.
- Ravikiran M, Bhansali A, Ravikumar P, Bhansali S, Dutta P, Thakur JS, et al. Prevalence and risk factors of metabolic syndrome among Asian Indians: A community survey. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 2010;89:181-8.
- Reddy KS, Prabhakaran D, Chaturvedi V, Jeemon P, Thankappan KR, Ramakrishnan L, et al. Methods for establishing a surveillance system for cardiovascular diseases in Indian industrial populations. Bull World Health Organ 2006;84:461-9.
- Gupta R, Sarna M, Thanvi J, Rastogi P, Kaul V, Gupta VP. High prevalence of multiple coronary risk factors in Punjabi Bhatia community: Jaipur Heart Watch-3. Indian Heart J 2004;56:646-52.
- 9. Nugent RA, Fathima SF, Feigl AB, Chyung D. The burden of chronic

- kidney disease on developing nations: A  $21^{\rm st}$  century challenge in global health. Nephron Clin Pract 2011;118:269-77.
- Agarwal SK, Srivastava RK. Chronic kidney disease in India: Challenges and solutions. Nephron Clin Pract 2009;111:197-203.
- Srinath Reddy K, Shah B, Varghese C, Ramadoss A. Responding to the threat of chronic diseases in India. Lancet 2005;366:1744-9.
- 12. Hossain MP, Goyder EC, Rigby JE, El Nahas M. CKD and poverty: A growing global challenge. Am J Kidney Dis 2009;53:166-74.
- Arogundade FA, Barsoum RS. CKD prevention in Sub-Saharan Africa: A call for governmental, nongovernmental, and community support. Am J Kidney Dis 2008;51:515-23.
- Sheen YJ, Sheu WH. Metabolic syndrome and renal injury. Cardiol Res Pract 2011:2011:567389.
- Alberti KG, Zimmet PZ. Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Part 1: Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. Provisional report of a WHO consultation. Diabet Med 1998;15:539-53.
- Balkau B, Charles MA. Comment on the provisional report from the WHO consultation. European Group for the Study of Insulin Resistance (EGIR). Diabet Med 1999;16:442-3.
- Cleeman JI. Executive summary of the third report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) expert panel on detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood cholesterol in adults (adult treatment panel III). JAMA 2001;285:2486-97.
- Alberti KG, Zimmet P, Shaw J. The metabolic syndrome: A new worldwide definition. Lancet 2005;366:1059-62.
- Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Daniels SR, Donato KA, Eckel RH, Franklin BA, et al. Diagnosis and management of the metabolic syndrome: An American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute scientific statement: Executive Summary. Crit Pathw Cardiol 2005;4:198-203.
- Thomas G, Sehgal AR, Kashyap SR, Srinivas TR, Kirwan JP, Navaneethan SD. Metabolic Syndrome and Kidney Disease: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 2011:6:2364-73.
- 21. Ronco C, Haapio M, House AA, Anavekar N, Bellomo R. Cardiorenal

- syndrome. J Am Coll Cardiol 2008;52:1527-39.
- Iwashima Y, Horio T, Kamide K, Tokudome T, Yoshihara F, Nakamura S, et al. Additive interaction of metabolic syndrome and chronic kidney disease on cardiac hypertrophy, and risk of cardiovascular disease in hypertension. Am J Hypertens 2010:23:290-8.
- Cirillo P, Sato W, Reungjui S, Heinig M, Gersch M, Sautin Y, et al. Uric acid, the metabolic syndrome, and renal disease. J Am Soc Nephrol 2006;17:165-8.
- Agnani S, Vachharajani VT, Gupta R, Atray NK, Vachharajani TJ.
  Does treating obesity stabilize chronic kidney disease? BMC Nephrol 2005:6:7
- Chagnac A, Weinstein T, Herman M, Hirsh J, Gafter U, Ori Y. The effects of weight loss on renal function in patients with severe obesity. J Am Soc Nephrol 2003;14:1480-6.
- Kambham N, Markowitz GS, Valeri AM, Lin J, D'Agati VD. Obesity-related glomerulopathy: An emerging epidemic. Kidney Int 2001;59:1498-509.
- Hall JE, Crook ED, Jones DW, Wofford MR, Dubbert PM. Mechanisms of obesity-associated cardiovascular and renal disease. Am J Med Sci 2002;324:127-37.
- Wisse BE. The inflammatory syndrome: The role of adipose tissue cytokines in metabolic disorders linked to obesity. J Am Soc Nephrol 2004;15:2792-800.
- Sowers JR. Insulin resistance and hypertension. Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 2004;286:1597-602.
- Sun L, Halaihel N, Zhang W, Rogers T, Levi M. Role of sterol regulatory element-binding protein 1 in regulation of renal lipid metabolism and glomerulosclerosis in diabetes mellitus. J Biol Chem 2002;277: 18919-27.
- Ix JH, Sharma K. Mechanisms linking obesity, chronic kidney disease, and fatty liver disease: The roles of fetuin-A, adiponectin, and AMPK. J Am Soc Nephrol 2010;21:406-12.
- Puska P. Successful prevention of non-communicable diseases:
  year experiences with North Karelia Project in Finland. Public Health Med 2002;4:5-7.

### Announcement

#### iPhone App



A free application to browse and search the journal's content is now available for iPhone/iPad. The application provides "Table of Contents" of the latest issues, which are stored on the device for future offline browsing. Internet connection is required to access the back issues and search facility. The application is Compatible with iPhone, iPod touch, and iPad and Requires iOS 3.1 or later. The application can be downloaded from http://itunes.apple.com/us/app/medknow-journals/id458064375?ls=1&mt=8. For suggestions and comments do write back to us.