

## POTENTIAL RELATION CONCERNING METABOLIC SYNDROME AND CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE IN THE EXPANSION OF CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE

\*Moza Anca Cristina, Popa Loredana Mădălina, Popa Amarin Remus

\*Spitalul Clinic Județean de Urgență Oradea, Str. Republicii nr.37, Oradea 410167, România, e-mail: anca.moza@yahoo.com

### **Abstract**

*Metabolic syndrome (MetS) is a medical syndrome that entails of visceral abdominal obesity, dyslipidemia, blood pressure, and reduced insulin susceptibility. Though distinct mechanisms of MetS have been associated in the growth of chronic kidney disease (CKD), limited revisions have studied the result of mixtures of the mechanisms of MetS on the progress of CKD and cardiovascular disease (CVD).*

**Key Words:** metabolic syndrome, kidney disease, CVD, fibrates

### **INTRODUCTION**

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) has a key influence on the value of lifecycle of patients, healthiness facilities, and humanity. CKD is currently likewise extensively recognized as a danger feature for cardiovascular disease (CVD) and death (Anavekar. N. S. et al, 2004; Brown W. W. et al, 2003; Chagnac A. et al, 2000), and current informations, counting those of remarks in Japan, sustenance this belief (Chen. H.-M. et al, 2008; Chen J. et al, 2004, Dandona P. et al, 2005). The Kidney Early Evaluation Program (KEEP) divided 6071 suitable individuals for CKD and stated that 16% had a concentrated estimated glomerular purification level (eGFR) and that 44% were overweight (Flegal K. M. et al, 2002). A methodical evaluation of 39 revisions that comprised an entire of more than a million individuals exposed an amplified comparative risk of all-basis death in non-dialysis-reliant on CKD subjects, and the utter risk of decease seemed to escalate exponentially as renal function weakened (Fried. L. F. et al, 2005).

In together the Western part (Gelber R. P. et al, 2005) and Japan (Go A. S. et al, 2004), there has been an upturn in the occurrence of CKD that has collateral the rise in incidence of abdominal obesity in the latest years. The World Health Organization (WHO) describes standard body heaviness on the center of body mass index (BMI) this being BMI of 18.5–24.9, overheavy as a BMI fluctuating from 25 to 29.9, and abdominal obesity for a BMI of 30 or extra (Hall J. E, 2003). Abdominal obesity was confirmed to be a forecaster of the expansion of CKD in two great revisions of 5897

individuals and 11,104 individuals, correspondingly (Henegar J. R. et al, 2001; Heo N. J. et al, 2010).

Investigation of statistics received from the Second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES II) located in the United States acknowledged an enlarged possibility of CKD in patients who were obese, in a morbid way (Hotamisligil G. S. et al, 1993).

BMI was established to be linked with an enlarged risk of evolving end-stage renal disease (ESRD) in men in a Japanese group (Hsu C.-Y. et al, 2006), and an alike optimistic connotation amid CKD and abdominal obesity was confirmed amongst men in inhabitants-based research in Singapore (Irie F. et al, 2006). Abdominal obesity was not only been proposed to cause renal sickness, but it seems to quicken its development. A retroactive group study of 320,252 healthcare-assured applicants in northern California who were afterwards followed for 15–35 years exposed that the amount of ESRD enlarged in a latter way as BMI upped (Iseki K. et al, 1997). The following chart (Fig.1) will help us better understand BMI standards:

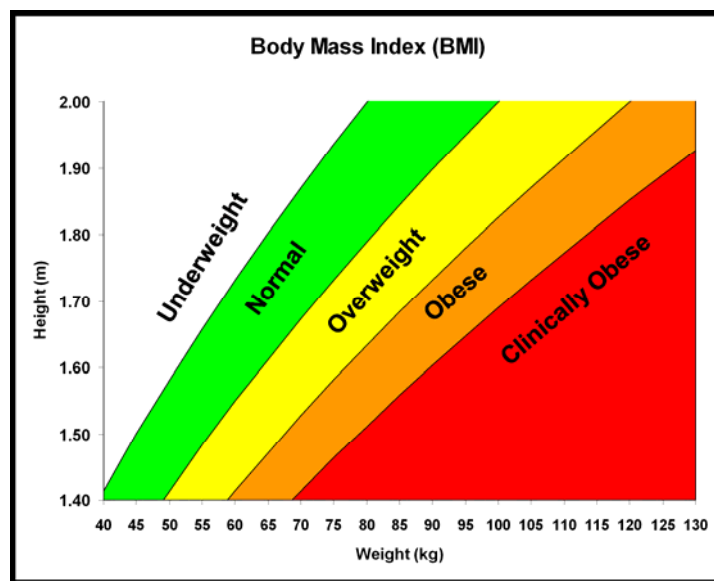


Fig.1. Body Mass Index

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

In this article, we review the prospective studies that investigate the association between MetS and CKD. Data was provided from a series of studies distributed by The Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES III), diagnosed using ATOIII criteria. Interest in

exploring the link between MetS and CKD was sparked by a cross-sectional analysis of the NHANES III cohort

#### **THE EPIDEMIOLOGY OF CKD AND METS**

The relationship among MetS and CKD has recently been examined. Ninomiya et al. did a rating analysis of the implication regarding the GFR drop and MetS by using a few twist kind of design (Iseki K. et al, 2004). Chen et al. calculated the risk of developing CKD, well-stated by a Alteration of Nutrition in Renal Illness revision (MDRD)-eGFR of minus than  $60 \text{ mL/min per } 1.73 \text{ m}^2$ , in a cohort of the NHANES III investigation that included  $>7800$  individuals who had normal renal activity and were observed for more than 21 years (Kramer H. et al, 2005).

The results brought the conclusion that the multivariate-familiarized probabilities part (OR) for CKD of the participants with MetS was 2.6 in the compare to candidates that did not suffer of MetS, and the OR enlarged from 1.89 to 5.85 as the quantity of elements of MetS that were discovered intensified. Meaningfully, the association persisted after removal of diabetes. They also found a 2-fold development in the threat for microalbuminuria that interconnected with the quantity of elements of MetS. Palaniappan et al. demonstrated a bigger amount of microalbuminuria in together males and females with MetS than in healthy supervision (Kurella M. et al, 2005). The deadline fact of the urinary albumin-to-creatinine proportion diversified in patients with several CVD risk structures, and quite low-ranking albuminuria under the predictable cutoff grade for microalbuminuria was linked with augmented frequency of CKD (Lane J. T., 2004). Kurella et al. accomplished an extensive cohort research and discovered a developed percentage of CKD in MetS even afterward modification for succeeding progress of diabetes and blood tension, proposing that MetS is autonomously related with an enlarged risk for CKD event in nondiabetic adults (Lucove J. et al, 2008).

#### **POSSIBLE ROLE OF METS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF CKD**

In a population of nondiabetic American Indians with a great occurrence of MetS (38%), MetS was discovered to be linked with an increased risk of incident CKD, but no modification for blood pressure status was done in that research (Ninomiya T. et al; 2005). The connection among MetS and incidents regarding CKD was stronger than among members of the population who established diabetes throughout the follow up time, proposing that the expansion of diabetes was a probable instrument of the amplified risk of CKD related with MetS. It was also stated that a 2.6-fold amplified occurrence of CKD amid adults with MetS in NHANES III (Kramer H. et al, 2005).

Microalbuminuria was defined as the first indicator of MetS-associated kidney damage and diabetic nephropathy, and it is linked with insulin resistance free of diabetes (Ninomiya T. et al; 2006). MetS is frequently followed by amplified plasma renin activity, angiotensinogen, angiotensin-converting enzyme activity, and angiotensin II, renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system and with renal sympathetic motion. Hyperinsulinemia, insulin resistance, and amplified plasma angiotensin II ranks are effective enablers of converting the development element- $\beta$ 1, a fibrogenic cytokine that helps to glomerular wound (Palaniappan L. et al; 2003).

Microalbuminuria is the feature to increased hyperfiltration, a well-known glomerular hemodynamic transformation in individuals with MetS (Sarnak M. J. et al, 2003; Shankar A. et al, 2008; Stengel B. et al, 2008; Tonelli M. et al, 2006). The mark of MetS is known to be insulin resistance. Inflammatory elements, counting tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- $\alpha$ , have been presented to facilitate insulin resistance (WHO, 1998). Adipokines, containing TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and resistin, are cytokines kept by the adipose tissue, and their plasma absorptions are raised in individuals with MetS, while their plasma adiponectin stages are concentrated. These conclusions may subsidize to insulin resistance, and insulin resistance stimulates chronic irritation. Numerous researches have displayed that visceral adipose tissue is a main cause of adipokine secretion in MetS.

Adiponectin has been revealed to be an adipokine that has cardiorenal defensive features (Henegar J. R. et al, 2001; Tonelli M. et al, 2006). Plasma adiponectin ranks are harmfully linked with visceral fat mass, body mass, blood pressure, insulin resistance, inflammatory indicators of MetS, and high triglyceride and LDL cholesterol ranks, and they are certainly associated with HDL cholesterol ranks and mass loss (Sarnak M. J. et al, 2003). Hypoadiponectinemia is related to vascular problems and cardiovascular occurrences in MetS individuals who do not suffer of CKD (Heo N. J. et al, 2010). Triggering of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone structure is mutual in individuals with MetS in spite of sodium retaining and an obviously enlarged extracellular liquid capacity (Go A. S. et al, 2004; Hall J. E., 2003). Numerous instruments to elucidate its beginning have been assumed: (a) hemodynamic changes, counting interfering with renal blood flowing (Henegar J. R. et al, 2001); (b) sympathetic motivation, which is linked to hyperleptinemia, and perhaps to hyperinsulinemia or even insulin resistance (Hsu C.-Y. et al, 2006); (c) fusion of numerous proteins in the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone structure by some visceral fat tissue (Hsu C.-Y. et al, 2006). An evaluation of these instruments has revealed that blood pressure, amplified glomerular density, excess of proteinuria, stimulation of intrarenal inflammatory cytokines and development features,

and apoptosis are only a few of the harmful impacts of angiotensin II over the kidney (Shankar A. et al, 2008). Moreover, angiotensin II might have a role in the control of adipokine generation in adipose tissue. From the time when olmesartan, an angiotensin II type 1 receptor blocker, considerably abridged inflammatory cytokines and indicators of oxidative stress and amplified adiponectin ranks in the example of obesity (WHO, 1998), angiotensin II could unhelpfully disturb the residual renal role of individuals with CKD.

With concern to possible pharmacologic treatments, it is significant to write that aldosterone secretion inclines to be more noticeable in obese African Americans rather than American Whites (WHO, 1998). Abdominal obesity and MetS are often linked with amplified aldosterone ranks and unimpaired sodium elimination (Sarnak M. J. et al, 2003), and this dual smash of extended capacity and relative hyperaldosteronism might be predominantly significant.

#### **MANAGEMENT OF CKD RELATED WITH METS**

(PPARs)- $\alpha$  agonists (the fibrates) and PPAR- $\gamma$  agonists increase

insulin susceptibility, but they are not deprived of perils in CKD subjects. Barrier of the renin-angiotensin structure is probable to be advantageous, but management requires to be personalized giving to the gradation of renal illness and if other comorbidities related with visceral abdominal obesity are existent. The medical worth of mixture treatment of an angiotensin-adapting enzyme inhibitor and an angiotensin receptor blocker rests a problem of dispute. HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors appear to be operative in avoiding the evolution of CKD. Fried et al. discovered that active management of dyslipidemia reduced proteinuria and stooped the evolution of CKD in a meta-investigation. Outsized randomized precise trials to inspect the effects per capita of these interferences on the renal role of individuals with MetS are desired before any references can be made.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

BMI was established to be linked with an enlarged risk of evolving end-stage renal disease (ESRD) in men in a Japanese group (Hsu C.-Y. et al, 2006), and an alike optimistic connotation amid CKD and abdominal obesity was confirmed amongst men in inhabitants-based research in Singapore (Irie F. et al, 2006). Abdominal obesity was not only been proposed to cause renal sickness, but it seems to quicken its development. A

retroactive group study of 320,252 healthcare-assured applicants in northern California who were afterwards followed for 15–35 years exposed that the amount of ESRD enlarged in a latter way as BMI upped (Iseki K. et al, 1997).

#### CONCLUSION

Insulin resistance, a main mechanism of MetS, is believed to be the hallmark of MetS and is assumed to be the fundamental motive for the related universal metabolic imbalances of blood pressure and dyslipidemia, which are believed to be essential pathogenetic features in arteriosclerosis and could help in a direct way to renal damage by weakening ordinary hemodynamic developments through several instruments.

The recommendations of the American Heart Association mention lifestyle adjustments which include weight decrease, dietary modifications, and physical activity, as first-line treatment for individuals with MetS.

#### REFERENCES

1. Anavekar. N. S, J. J. V. McMurray, and J. J. V. McMurray, 2004, Relation between renal dysfunction and cardiovascular outcomes after myocardial infarction, *New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 351, no. 13, pp. 1285–1295.
2. Brown W. W, R. M. Peters, and R. M. Peters, 2003, Early detection of kidney disease in community settings: the Kidney Early Evaluation Program (KEEP), *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, vol. 42, no. 1, pp. 22–35.
3. Chagnac. A, Weinstein. T, Korzets. A, Ramadan. E, Hirsch. J. and Gafter. U., 2000, Glomerular hemodynamics in severe obesity, *American Journal of Physiology*, vol. 278, no. 5, pp. F817–F822.
4. Chen. H.-M, S.-J. Li, H.-P. Chen, Q.-W. Wang, L.-S. Li, and Z.-H. Liu, 2008, Obesity-related glomerulopathy in China: a case series of 90 patients, *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, vol. 52, no. 1, pp. 58–65.
5. Chen. J, P. Muntner, L. L. Hamm, 2004, The metabolic syndrome and the risk for chronic kidney disease among nondiabetic adults, *Annals of Internal Medicine*, vol. 140, pp. 167–174.
6. Dandona. P, A. Aljada, A. Chaudhuri, P. Mohanty, and R. Garg, 2005, Metabolic syndrome: a comprehensive perspective based on interactions between obesity, diabetes, and inflammation, *Circulation*, vol. 111, no. 11, pp. 1448–1454.
7. Flegal K. M, M. D. Carroll, C. L. Ogden, and C. L. Johnson, 2002, Prevalence and trends in obesity among US adults, 1999-2000, *Journal of the American Medical Association*, vol. 288, no. 14, pp. 1723–1727.
8. Fried L. F, R. Katz, and R. Katz, 2005, Kidney function as a predictor of noncardiovascular mortality, *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, vol. 16, no. 12, pp. 3728–3735.
9. Gelber R. P., T. Kurth, A. T. Kausz, J. E. Manson, J. E. Buring, A. S. Levey, and J. M. Gaziano, 2005, Association between body mass index and CKD in apparently healthy men, *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, vol. 46, no. 5, pp. 871–880.
10. Go A. S., G. M. Chertow, D. Fan, C. E. McCulloch, and C.-Y. Hsu, 2004, Chronic kidney disease and the risks of death, cardiovascular events, and

- hospitalization, *New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 351, no. 13, pp. 1296–1370.
11. Hall J. E, 2003, “The kidney, hypertension, and obesity,” *Hypertension Journal*, vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 625–633.
  12. Henegar J. R, S. A. Bigler, L. K. Henegar, S. C. Tyagi, and J. E. Hall, 2001, Functional and structural changes in the kidney in the early stages of obesity, *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, vol. 12, no. 6, pp. 1211–1217.
  13. Heo N. J, J. M. Ahn, T. W. Lee, H. J. Chin, K. Y. Na, D. W. Chae, and S. Kim, 2010, Very low-grade albuminuria reflects susceptibility to chronic kidney disease in combination with cardiovascular risk factors, *Hypertension Research*, vol. 33, no. 6, pp. 573–578.
  14. Hotamisligil G. S., N. S. Shargill, and B. M. Spiegelman, 1993, Adipose expression of tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$ : direct role in obesity-linked insulin resistance, *Science*, vol. 259, no. 5091, pp. 87–91.
  15. Hsu C.-Y., C. E. McCulloch, C. Iribarren, J. Darbinian, and A. S. Go, 2006, Body mass index and risk for end-stage renal disease, *Annals of Internal Medicine*, vol. 144, no. 1, pp. 21–28.
  16. Irie F., H. Iso, and H. Iso, 2006, The relationships of proteinuria, serum creatinine, glomerular filtration rate with cardiovascular disease mortality in Japanese general population, *Kidney International*, vol. 69, no. 7, pp. 1264–1271.
  17. Iseki K., Y. Ikemiya, and K. Fukiyama, 1997, Predictors of end-stage renal disease and body mass index in a screened cohort, *Kidney International*, vol. 51, no. 63, pp. S169–S170.
  18. Iseki K., Y. Ikemiya, K. Kinjo, T. Inoue, C. Iseki, and S. Takishita, 2004, Body mass index and the risk of development of end-stage renal disease in a screened cohort, *Kidney International*, vol. 65, no. 5, pp. 1870–1876.
  19. Kramer H., A. Luke, A. Bidani, G. Cao, R. Cooper, and D. McGee, 2005, “Obesity and prevalent and incident CKD: the Hypertension Detection and Follow-Up Program,” *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, vol. 46, no. 4, pp. 587–594.
  20. Kurella M., J. C. Lo, and G. M. Chertow, 2005, Metabolic syndrome and the risk for chronic kidney disease among nondiabetic adults, *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, vol. 16, no. 7, pp. 2134–2140.
  21. Lane. J. T, 2004, Microalbuminuria as a marker of cardiovascular and renal risk in type 2 diabetes mellitus: a temporal perspective, *American Journal of Physiology*, vol. 286, no. 3, pp. F442–F450.
  22. Lucove J., S. Vupputuri, G. Heiss, K. North, and M. Russell, 2008, Metabolic syndrome and the development of CKD in American Indians: the Strong Heart Study, *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, vol. 51, no. 1, pp. 21–28.
  23. Ninomiya T., Y. Kiyohara, and Y. Kiyohara, 2005, Chronic kidney disease and cardiovascular disease in a general Japanese population: the Hisayama Study, *Kidney International*, vol. 68, no. 1, pp. 228–236.
  24. Ninomiya. T, Y. Kiyohara, and Y. Kiyohara, 2006 Metabolic syndrome and CKD in a general Japanese population: the Hisayama Study, *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, vol. 48, no. 3, pp. 383–391.
  25. Palaniappan L., M. Carnethon, and S. P. Fortmann, 2003, Association between microalbuminuria and the metabolic syndrome: NHANES III, *American Journal of Hypertension*, vol. 16, no. 11, pp. 952–958.
  26. Sarnak M. J., A. S. Levey, and A. S. Levey, 2003, Kidney disease as a risk factor for development of cardiovascular disease: a statement from the American Heart

- Association Councils on Kidney in cardiovascular disease, high blood pressure research, clinical cardiology, and epidemiology and prevention, *Circulation*, vol. 108, no. 17, pp. 2154–2169.
27. Shankar A, C. Leng, and C. Leng, 2008, Association between body mass index and chronic kidney disease in men and women: population-based study of Malay adults in Singapore, *Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation*, vol. 23, no. 6, pp. 1910–1918.
  28. Stengel B., M. E. Tarver-Carr, N. R. Powe, M. S. Eberhardt, and F. L. Brancati, 2003, Lifestyle factors, obesity and the risk of chronic kidney disease, *Epidemiology*, vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 479–487.
  29. Tonelli M., N. Wiebe, and N. Wiebe, 2006, Chronic kidney disease and mortality risk: a systematic review, *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, vol. 17, no. 7, pp. 2034–2047.
  30. World Health Organization, *Obesity*, 1998, Preventing and Managing the Global Epidemic: Report of a WHO Consultation on Obesity, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.