THE ORIGIN OF CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE IN PATIENTS WITH DIABETES

Xasanova Nargis Qodirovna

Department of Fundamental Medical Sciences of the Asian International University, Bukhara,

Uzbekistan.

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14895154

Abstract. Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is increasingly recognized as a global health issue and it affects 10% to 15% of the world population. Diabetes mellitus is the leading cause of endstage <u>renal disease</u>. More than 422 million adults in the world populations are living with diabetes mellitus, 40% of whom will develop CKD. Chronic kidney disease is a common complication and concomitant condition of diabetes mellitus. The treatment of patients with diabetes and chronic kidney disease, including intensive control of blood sugar and blood pressure, has been very similar for type 1 and type 2 diabetes patients. New therapeutic targets have shown promising results and may lead to more specific treatment options for patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes.

Keywords: renal disease, diabetes mellitus, diabetic nephropathy.

ПРОИСХОЖДЕНИЕ ХРОНИЧЕСКОЙ БОЛЕЗНИ ПОЧЕК У ПАЦИЕНТОВ С ДИАБЕТОМ

Аннотация. Хроническая болезнь почек (ХБП) все чаще признается глобальной проблемой здравоохранения и затрагивает от 10% до 15% населения мира. Сахарный диабет является основной причиной терминальной стадии почечной недостаточности. Более 422 миллионов взрослых в мире живут с сахарным диабетом, у 40% из которых разовьется ХБП. Хроническая болезнь почек является распространенным осложнением и сопутствующим состоянием сахарного диабета. Лечение пациентов с диабетом и хронической болезнью почек, включая интенсивный контроль уровня сахара в крови и артериального давления, было очень похожим для пациентов с диабетом 1-го и 2-го типов. Новые терапевтические цели показали многообещающие результаты и могут привести к более специфическим вариантам лечения для пациентов с диабетом 1-го и 2-го типов.

Ключевые слова: болезнь почек, сахарный диабет, диабетическая нефропатия.

Worldwide, diabetes mellitus (DM) is a growing healthcare challenge and imposes a heavy burden on public health. DM type 2 accounts for more than 90% of diabetes cases, and there is a rising number of people diagnosed with diabetes type 2 with more rapid increase in low- and middle-income countries than in high-income countries.

The World Health Organization estimates that, globally, 422 million adults older than age 18 years (8.5% of the world adult population) were living with diabetes in 2014.

More than 40% of people with diabetes will develop CKD and a significant number will develop ESRD, requiring renal replacement therapies. It estimated that by the year 2030, more than 70% of patients with ESRD will be residents of developing countries. Patients with both diabetes and CKD are at higher risk of cardiovascular morbidities and mortality, kidney failure, and death when compared with those without CKD. Diabetic kidney disease (DKD) is a major long-term complication of DM type 2 and is the leading cause of chronic kidney disease (CKD) and end-stage kidney disease (ESKD) worldwide. Although renal biopsy is the gold standard to diagnose diabetic nephropathy, the majority of diabetic patients do not undergo kidney biopsy, as they are presumed to have diabetic kidney disease based upon clinical history and laboratory evaluation and because of invasive nature of kidney biopsy. Furthermore, an increasing number of DM type 2 patients present with DKD. The incidence and rate of DKD are less clear in DM type 2 than in type 1, mainly due to the highly variable age of onset and difficulty in defining the exact time of onset and associated comorbidities.

Type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus can both cause longterm microvascular and macrovascular complications, contributing to the increased morbidity and mortality among these patients. Kidney disease in patients with diabetes can be a result of microvascular complications from diabetes, a concomitant kidney disease of other origin or a combination of the two. In type 1 diabetes patients, microvascular disease secondary to diabetes is the most common etiology to chronic kidney disease, while a spectrum of etiologies can cause kidney disease in type 2 diabetes patients.

Chronic kidney disease and type 1 diabetes mellitus

Type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1D) is a chronic autoimmune condition in which the body's immune system mistakenly attacks and destroys the insulin-producing cells in the pancreas, known as beta cells. Type 1 diabetes usually affects young and middle-aged patients and among these patients, chronic kidney disease is most often caused by diabetes-related microvascular disease (3), a condition which has been referred to as diabetic nephropathy or 'diabetic kidney disease' in the literature.

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is a common and serious complication that can develop after many years of living with Type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1D). This condition is often referred to as **diabetic nephropathy** when it occurs in people with diabetes. Diabetic nephropathy is a form of kidney damage that can result from high blood sugar levels over time, which damage the blood vessels in the kidneys. In Type 1 diabetes, prolonged high blood sugar levels can damage the small blood vessels in the kidneys, impairing their ability to filter waste from the blood. This damage can progress in stages and lead to kidney failure if not managed properly.

Chronic kidney disease in type 1 diabetes patients is initially characterized by hyperfiltration due to increased glomerular filtration pressure. Cherney et al. postulated hyperglycaemia-dependent hyperfiltration to be mediated through upregulated backtransportation of sodium and glucose from the renal tubular system. Sodium-glucose-co-transporter-2 (SGLT2) contributes to 90% of this transportation reducing distal tubular flux of glucose and sodium. Due to reduced sodium flux in the loop of Henle, macula densa signals dilatation of the afferent arteriolar tone through a tubuloglomerular feedback mechanism which increases tubular sodium flux at the expense of increase of intraglomerular pressure and hyperfiltration at the nephron level.

Hyperfiltration is in the clinic seen as an increase in glomerular filtration rate (GFR).

Albuminuria and hypertension subsequently occur as the kidney disease develops. After the initial hyperfiltration phase, nephrons are lost resulting in a steady GFR decline ranging 3–6 mL/min/year. Renal failure requiring replacement therapy may eventually occur within 20–25 years. During this process, the remaining nephrons compensate by hyperfiltration not only due to hyperglycemia but now also due to reduced total filtration surface. This represents a vicious circle with progressive loss of nephrons.

Chronic kidney disease and type 2 diabetes mellitus

Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2D) is a chronic condition that affects the way your body processes blood sugar (glucose). Unlike Type 1 diabetes, where the body doesn't produce insulin, Type 2 diabetes is characterized by insulin resistance—meaning the body's cells don't respond properly to insulin. Over time, the pancreas can't produce enough insulin to maintain normal blood sugar levels.

While chronic kidney disease in type 1 diabetes most often is secondary to diabetes microvascular disease, there is a whole spectrum of chronic kidney disease etiologies in type 2 diabetes. Type 2 diabetes patients are often older at the time of diagnosis and kidney disease due to other causes than diabetes is likely to occur. Several studies have verified that kidney disease in type 2 diabetes may be a more compounded entity than what is seen in type 1 diabetes.

Regardless of kidney disease etiology, strict blood glucose control is on a group level the single-most important intervention to prevent kidney disease to develop in patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes. Normalization of blood glucose might act renoprotective through different mechanisms: reduced hyperfiltration on the nephron level, reduced generation of toxic intermediates such as reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reduced activity in pathogenetic signalling pathways including the polyol, hexasamine, protein kinase C and advanced glycation end-product pathways.

Diagnosis of chronic kidney disease in patients with diabetes

The diagnosis of chronic kidney disease (CKD) in patients with **diabetes** involves a combination of clinical evaluation, laboratory tests, and monitoring for early signs of kidney damage. Since diabetes, particularly **Type 1** and **Type 2 diabetes**, is one of the leading causes of CKD, regular screening for kidney function is important for early detection and intervention.

Screening for Early Signs of Kidney Damage:

1.Urine albumin-to-creatinine ratio (UACR): The most common screening test to detect kidney damage is the urine albumin-to-creatinine ratio (UACR). Elevated levels of **albumin** (a type of protein) in the urine indicate kidney damage. Normal UACR is typically less than 30 mg/g, and values above 30 mg/g suggest **microalbuminuria** (early kidney damage).

-Microalbuminuria (30-300 mg/g): Early signs of kidney damage.

-Macroalbuminuria (greater than 300 mg/g): More severe damage or progression to kidney disease.

2.Urine dipstick test: This is a quick test for the presence of protein (albumin) in the urine, though it is less sensitive than UACR. Proteinuria (protein in the urine) is a sign of kidney dysfunction.

Assessing Kidney Function with Blood Tests:

1.Serum creatinine: This test measures the level of creatinine (a waste product) in the blood. High creatinine levels can indicate impaired kidney function because the kidneys normally filter it out. However, creatinine levels can be influenced by other factors, such as muscle mass, so it's not the most accurate measure of kidney function on its own.

2.Estimated Glomerular Filtration Rate (eGFR): The eGFR is a calculated value based on the serum creatinine level, age, sex, and race. It estimates how well the kidneys are filtering waste from the blood. A **normal eGFR** is usually 90 mL/min/1.73 m² or higher, while an eGFR below 60 mL/min/1.73 m² for at least three months suggests CKD.

Assessing the Presence of Other Kidney Damage Indicators:

-Blood pressure: High blood pressure (hypertension) is common in patients with diabetes and is both a cause and consequence of kidney damage. Hypertension can accelerate the progression of CKD.

-**Retinal examination**: Since diabetic retinopathy (damage to the eyes' blood vessels) is common in patients with diabetes, an eye exam can sometimes reveal clues about kidney involvement, as both the eyes and kidneys are affected by similar vascular damage.

Imaging Studies:

-**Ultrasound**: A kidney ultrasound can be performed to assess the size and structure of the kidneys, looking for abnormalities such as cysts, scarring, or other changes typical of kidney disease.

908

-CT scans or MRIs: These are used less frequently but may be helpful for diagnosing complications or other causes of kidney disease.

NEW RENA

SSANCF international scientific journal

ResearchBib IF - 11.01, ISSN: 3030-3753, Volume 2 Issue 2

Conclusion: Diabetic kidney disease (DKD) is a major long-term complication of diabetes mellitus (DM). Our study demonstrated that approximately one half of patients with type 2 DM had DKD. Further studies are necessary to understand this high prevalence and the underlying factors.

REFERENCES

- United States Renal Data System. 2019 USRDS Annual Data Report Epidemiology of Kidney Disease in the United States. Bethesda, MD: National Institutes of Health, National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases, 2019.
- American Diabetes Association. 2. Classification and diagnosis of diabetes: standards of medical care in Diabetes-2019. Diabetes Care 2019 42 (Supplement 1) S13–S28. (https://doi.org/10.2337/ dc19-S002)
- Tervaert TW, Mooyaart AL, Amann K, Cohen AH, Cook HT, Drachenberg CB, Ferrario F, Fogo AB, Haas M, de Heer E, et al. Pathologic classification of diabetic nephropathy. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology 2010 21 556–563. (https://doi. org/10.1681/ASN.2010010010)
- Umanath K & Lewis JB. Update on diabetic nephropathy: core curriculum 2018. American Journal of Kidney Diseases 2018 71 884–895. (<u>https://doi.org/10.1053/j.ajkd.2017.10.026</u>)
- Mogensen CE. How to protect the kidney in diabetic patients: with special reference to IDDM. Diabetes 1997 46 (Supplement 2) S104–S111. (https://doi.org/10.2337/diab.46.2.s104)
- Cherney DZ, Perkins BA, Soleymanlou N, Maione M, Lai V, Lee A, Fagan NM, Woerle HJ, Johansen OE, Broedl UC, et al. Renal hemodynamic effect of sodium-glucose cotransporter 2 inhibition in patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus. Circulation 2014 129 587–597. (https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.113.005081)
- Krolewski AS, Niewczas MA, Skupien J, Gohda T, Smiles A, Eckfeldt JH, Doria A & Warram JH. Early progressive renal decline precedes the onset of microalbuminuria and its progression to macroalbuminuria. Diabetes Care 2014 37 226–234. (https://doi. org/10.2337/dc13-0985)
- Mathisen UD, Melsom T, Ingebretsen OC, Jenssen T, Njølstad I, Solbu MD, Toft I & Eriksen BO. Estimated GFR associates with cardiovascular risk factors independently of measured GFR. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology 2011 22 927–937. (https://doi.org/10.1681/ASN.2010050479)

909

- Tong X, Yu Q, Ankawi G, Pang B, Yang B & Yang H. Insights into the role of renal biopsy in patients with T2DM: a literature review of global renal biopsy results. Diabetes Therapy: Research, Treatment and Education of Diabetes and Related Disorders 2020 11 1983–1999. (https://doi.org/10.1007/s13300-020-00888-w)
- Sharma SG, Bomback AS, Radhakrishnan J, Herlitz LC, Stokes MB, Markowitz GS & D'Agati VD. The modern spectrum of renal biopsy f indings in patients with diabetes. Clinical Journal of the American Society of Nephrology 2013 8 1718–1724. (https://doi.org/10.2215/ CJN.02510213)
- 11. Ahlqvist E, Storm P, Käräjämäki A, Martinell M, Dorkhan M, Carlsson A, Vikman P, Prasad RB, Aly DM, Almgren P, et al. Novel subgroups of adult-onset diabetes and their association with outcomes: a data-driven cluster analysis of six variables. Lancet: Diabetes and Endocrinology 2018 6 361–369. (https://doi.org/10.1016/ S2213-8587(18)30051-2)
- 12. Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group, Nathan DM, Genuth S, Lachin J, Cleary P, Crofford O, Davis M, https://ec.bioscientifica.com https://doi.org/10.1530/EC-21-0097 © 2021 The authors Chronic kidney disease in diabetes mellitus 10:5 R157 Rand L & Siebert C. The effect of intensive treatment of diabetes on the development and progression of long-term complications in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. New England Journal of Medicine 1993 329 977–986. (https://doi.org/10.1056/ NEJM199309303291401)
- Epidemiology of Diabetes Interventions and Complications Research Group, de Boer IH, Sun W, Cleary PA, Lachin JM, Molitch ME, Steffes MW & Zinman B. Intensive diabetes therapy and glomerular f iltration rate in type 1 diabetes. New England Journal of Medicine 2011 365 2366–2376. (https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1111732)
- King P, Peacock I & Donnelly R. The UK prospective diabetes study (UKPDS): clinical and therapeutic implications for type 2 diabetes. British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology 1999 48 643–648. (https://doi. org/10.1046/j.1365-2125.1999.00092.x)
- Hostetter TH, Olson JL, Rennke HG, Venkatachalam MA & Brenner BM. Hyperfiltration in remnant nephrons: a potentially adverse response to renal ablation. American Journal of Physiology 1981 241 F85–F93. (https://doi.org/10.1152/ajprenal.1981.241.1.F85)
- 16. Inoguchi T, Li P, Umeda F, Yu HY, Kakimoto M, Imamura M, Aoki T, Etoh T, Hashimoto T, Naruse M, et al. High glucose level and free fatty acid stimulate reactive oxygen species production through protein kinase C--dependent activation of NAD(P)H oxidase in cultured vascular cells. Diabetes 2000 49 1939–1945. (https://doi.org/10.2337/diabetes.49.11.1939)
- Brownlee M. Biochemistry and molecular cell biology of diabetic complications. Nature 2001 414 813–820. (https://doi.org/10.1038/414813a)

910

Fioretto P & Mauer M. Diabetic nephropathy: diabetic nephropathychallenges in pathologic classification. Nature Reviews: Nephrology 2010 6 508–510. (https://doi.org/10.1038/nrneph.2010.96)

NEW RENA

NCF international scientific journal

ResearchBib IF - 11.01, ISSN: 3030-3753, Volume 2 Issue 2

- 19. Fioretto P, Mauer M, Brocco E, Velussi M, Frigato F, Muollo B, Sambataro M, Abaterusso C, Baggio B, Crepaldi G, et al. Patterns of renal injury in NIDDM patients with microalbuminuria. Diabetologia 1996 39 1569–1576. (https://doi.org/10.1007/s001250050616)
- American Diabetes Association. 6. Glycemic targets: standards of medical care in Diabetes-2020. Diabetes Care 2020 43 (Supplement 1) S66–S76. (<u>https://doi.org/10.2337/dc20-S006</u>)
- KDIGO 2020 clinical practice guideline for diabetes management in chronic kidney disease. Kidney International 2020 98 p1-p115.
- Gerich JE. Role of the kidney in normal glucose homeostasis and in the hyperglycaemia of diabetes mellitus: therapeutic implications. Diabetic Medicine 2010 27 136–142. (https://doi.org/10.1111/j.14645491.2009.02894.x)