Assessment of Risk Factors for Chronic Kidney Disease in Saudi Arabia

Ibrahim Abdelmajeed Ginawi¹, Hussain Gadelkarim Ahmed², Awdah M. Al-hazimi³

College of Medicine, University of Hail, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia^{1, 2,} College of Medicine, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, KSA³

Abstract: <u>Background</u>: A number of risk factors are associated with increasing prevalence of chronic kidney disease (CKD) with disease progression in many patients. Therefore, this study aimed at providing epidemiological data on the prevalence of risk factors for CKD in Hail, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). <u>Methodology</u>: Data were collected during cross sectional survey included 5000 Saudi selected from 30 primary health care centers (PHCs) in Hail Region. <u>Results</u>: The overall prevalence of risk factors for CKD in Hail was 75%. The prevalence rates of cardiovascular diseases (CVD), continuous use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), herbal preparations and cigarette smoking were 5.3%, 10.7% and 13.5%, and31%, respectively. The correlation of high creatinine levels (>1.4mg/dl) have shown statistically significant differences with hypertension (p=0.0000, diabetes (p=0.000), obesity (P=0.013), CVD (P<0.05) and smoking (P=0.02). <u>Conclusion</u>: There are many risk factors significantly contributing to the development of CKD in Hail Region. Application of future prevention and control measures are highly recommended to reduce the burden of CKD.

Keywords: CKD, Risk factors, Hail, Saudi Arabia

1. Introduction

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is continuously growing to be to be a global health problem [1]. Cardiovascular disease (CVD)[2], hypertension [3], diabetes[4], and obesity[5], are increasing in frequency throughout the world and are commonly associated with an increase in the prevalence of CKD. CKD is correlated with an increased risk of CVD proceedings. Recently, high neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin (NGAL) levels have been detected in patients with heart failure, coronary heart disease, or stroke [6,7]. Evidence for the relationship between renal function impairment and many CVD events was first detected in the dialysis patients in whom the incidence of CVD death is very high. Approximately 50% of individuals with end stage renal disease (ESRD) die from a CVD cause [8, 9].

Diabetes is the leading cause of CKD, demonstrated for 33% of the adult cases with CKD [10]. Nevertheless, 20% to 40% of diabetics will develop diabetic nephropathy during the end stage of their disease [11]; therefore, with the increase of cases of diabetic patients, the incidence of CKD is expected to rise. The initial presentation of diabetic kidney disease is microalbuminuria followed by increasing severity of proteinuria as the glomerular filtration membrane is damaged [12].

Hypertension represents a powerful risk factor for CKD and is almost fixedly found in patients with renal failure. Sodium retention and activation of the renin-angiotensin system have been regarded as the most effective mechanisms implicated in the rising of blood pressure in patients with CKD [13].

Obesity has been realized as a risk factor for the development of CKD, independently of hypertension, diabetes, and pre-existing renal disease [14]. Obesity often coexists with hypertension, which may cause nephropathy [15]. Obesity is associated with the early onset of glomerulomegaly, hemodynamic changes of a hyperfiltering

kidney, and increased albuminuria, which are reversible with weight loss [16].

NSAIDs have been associated both with acute kidney injury in the general population and with disease progression in those with CKD [17]. Smoking is risk factor for several diseases including renal diseases. Cigarette smoking is proven as a major risk factor for the development and progression of CKD in community [18, 19].

The development of CKD and later proportion of decline in renal function are diversely variable among individuals with the same implied cause of renal disease. This Individual variability reflects the multi factorial nature of the biologic mechanisms that are involved in the underlying disease process. Therefore, the aim of this study was to assess the association between CKD and the common risk factors for the development of CKD in Hail area, KSA.

2. Materials and Methods

Data regarding risk factors for CKD were collected as a part of a comprehensive survey included 5000 Saudi civilians living in Hail region Northern Saudi Arabia. The purpose of the survey was to estimate the prevalence of for chronic kidney disease and its associated risk factors in the area. During the survey participants were interviewed at PHC or home and invited to a mobile examination center to undergo various examinations and laboratory measurements. Data were collected by the doctors of the team utilizing a standard questionnaire, which included demographic information including; family history of CKD, renal stone, recurrent urinary tract infection, stroke, heart attack, congestive heart failure, lower limb deep vein incompetence, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs abuse, herbal abuse, smoking, and others.

Venous blood sample was collected from each participant for the measurement of creatinine level.

3. Results

The mean age and of the study population was 43.5 ± 18.7 years with 44.6 ± 20.2 for male and 42.3 ± 16.9 for female. Male female ratio was 1.00: 1.01. The overall prevalence of exposure to CKD risk factors other than diabetes and hypertension was 75%. The prevalence rates of family history of CKD, recurrent urinary tract infection and renal stones were 1.6%, 13% and 3.6% respectively. The prevalence rates of CVD including; stroke, heart attack (HA), congestive heart failure (CHF), and lower limb deep venous incompetence (LDVI), was 5.3%. The prevalence rates of continuous use of NSAIDs and herbal preparations and cigarette smoking were 10.7% and 13.5%, and in this order, 31% as indicated in fig 1.

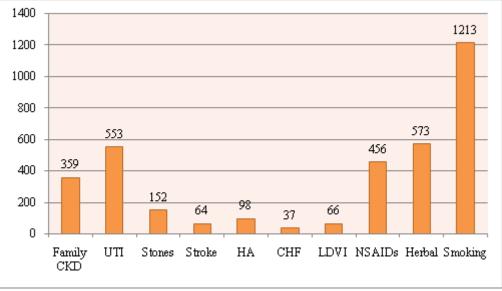


Figure 1: Description of the study population by CKD risk factors

In regard to the relation between risk factors for CKD and gender, smoking, HA and stroke were found to be statistically associated with male (P < 0.00001), since, LDVI, NSAIDs, UTI, and herbal preparations use were strongly linked to female, and these was found to be statistically significant (P < 0.0001, 0.001, 0.001, 0.001 for LDVI, NSAIDs, UTI and herbal, in this order), as indicated in Fig.2.

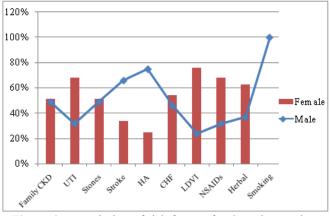


Figure 2: Description of risk factors for CKD by gender

Table 1: Distribution of risk factors by creatinine levels

1. Distribution of fisk fuctors by creatinine									
Risk factors	Creatin	ine mg/dl	Total	P value					
	< 1.4	>1.4							
Hypertension	573	136	709	0.000					
Diabetes	673	127	800	0.000					
Obese	1456	145	1601	0.013					
Stroke	29	10	39	0.001					
HA	30	16	46	0.000					
CHF	17	8	25	0.001					
LDVI	50	5	55	0.5					
Stone	197	11	108	0.5					
NSAIDs	329	38	367	0.08					
Herbal	366	35	401	0.4					
Smoking	1100	113	1213	0.02					

Table 1, summarizes the correlation between risk factors and creatinine level. The correlation of high creatinine levels have shown statistically significant differences with hypertension (p=0.0000), diabetes (p=0.000), obesity (P = 0.013), stroke (P = 0.001), HA (P=0.000), CHF (P= 0.001) and smoking (P=0.02). However, NSAIDs have relatively elevated insignificant value (P=0.08).

Table 2: Distribution of the study population by risk factors for CKD and age

Age	Stroke	HA	CHF	LDVI	UTI	Stones	NSAIDs	Herbal
<25	0	0	0	1	34	17	53	85
years								
26-40	3	4	6	19	227	31	111	164
41-55	16	22	14	24	164	47	131	176
56-70	30	41	7	15	95	40	110	115
71+	15	31	10	7	33	17	51	33
Total	64	98	37	66	553	152	456	573

Table 2, summarizes the relationship between risk factors and age. However, the peaks for most risk factors were at middle age 41-55 years, followed by age range 26-40 years.

4. Discussion

The development of CKD prevention and control strategies is a key factor for reducing the burden of the disease. Identifying individual's risk factors and at-risk populations are potential targets for a suitable intervention in different populations. This should include active expansion of the existing perception of health care, social, and economic risk factors at both the individual and the community level. In the present study the exposure to different risk factors of CKD is collectively very high, which requires more attention.

However, there is close relationship between CVD and smoking, as smoking is a major risk factor for occurrence of CVD. In turn this expresses why CKD is growing worldwide problem. Since the prevalence of smokers is high among those with high creatinine levels (31%) and also relatively those with CVD (5.3%) in the current study, this is increasingly showing that CKD is linked to CVD and smoking. The relevance between CKD and CVD is well known that, CKD and its epiphenomena magnify the risk for CVD [20]; moreover, CVD is the main cause for the majority of morbidity and mortality in patients with CKD [21]. The prevalence of CKD is expected to increase particularly in developing countries, where smoking and other cardiovascular risk factors are increasing substantially [22], such as in case of Saudi Arabia. According to the WHO statistics in 2008, the majority of killer diseases in the KSA are non-communicable, chronic diseases. Of these is CVD which is responsible of 35% of cases of death [23]. Another study from eastern province of Saudi Arabia has found that 2.7% has a history of CVD [24], which is much lower than our findings in this study.

The consequences of smoking for patients with CKD mostly serious, it has influence on both the progression of CKD and CVD [25]. However, Smokers had a significantly higher creatinine clearance than nonsmokers, expressing the fact that smoking-induced hyperfiltration [26]. However, some studies from KSA have shown relatively similar prevalence rates to the findings in the current study. In an article reviewed the literature on the epidemiology of tobacco smoking in KSA. The prevalence of current smoking in KSA ranges from 2.4-52.3%. Among school students, the prevalence of current smoking ranges from 12-29.8% (median = 16.5%), among university students from 2.4-37%, and among adults from 11.6-52.3%. In elderly people, the prevalence of current smoking is 25%. The prevalence of smoking in males ranges from 13-38%, while in females it ranges from 1-16% [27]. Notably, no female has confessed smoking habit in this study, since it is consider as social stigma. Another study included 1382 Saudi students from 9 colleges; the prevalence of current smoking was 28.1% [28].

Hypertension is well known to be a risk factor for CKD worldwide [29] and CKD is accepted as one of the independent risk factors for CVD, which in turn can be a risk for hypertension. In the present study, 19% of

hypertensive patients were found with high creatinine level and the correlation between high creatinine level and hypertension was found to be statistically significant (P = 0.000). In hypertension, glomerular infiltration rate (GFR) has been reported to decline faster compared to those without hypertension [30]. Furthermore, some studies have found a close relation between the rate of decline of GFR and the development of new onset CKD after a while in patients with hypertension [31].

Although, obesity represents only 9% of those with high creatinine level, but obesity is a known risk factor for CKD and its progression. Adipose tissue and have been able to produce hormone-like peptides named adipokines or adipocytokines. Among these adipocytokines, which represent a link between obesity, hypertension, and chronic nephropathy, leptins and adiponectin appear to play an important role. Leptin not only is a prohypertension element (renal progression factor) through the activation sympathetic nervous, but also is able to induce prosclerotic effects directly on the kidney [32].

There is a global increase in the prevalence of diabetesassociated CKD with an expected doubling of the number of people with diabetes in many countries within the next 20 years [33]. In the present study 16% of the diabetic patients were found with increased creatinine level (>1.4 mg/dl). Patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus have a 25–40% lifetime risk of developing CKD [34]. However, there is no available data on the prevalence rates of risk factors (including diabetes) for CKD in the general population of the KSA.

NSAIDs are commonly used and its safety is still questionable for the development of CKD. In the present study 10.4% of individuals with high creatinine levels confessed that they in continuous use of these drugs. It is well known that NSAIDs can cause analgesic nephropathy or chronic interstitial nephritis; accordingly, it might be another risk factor for the development of CKD. Several previous researches suggest that regular use of large compounds of NSAIDs may increase the risk of CKD [35]. Adverse renal effects of NSAIDs include acute renal failure; nephrotic syndrome with interstitial nephritis; and chronic renal failure with or without glomerulopathy, interstitial nephritis, and papillary necrosis [36]. Thus, the status of NSAIDs usage is important, because it is widely used medications in the elderly because of osteoarthritis [37].

Furthermore, 8.7% of the individuals with creatinine were found to use herbal preparations of a wide spectrum as medications for different diseases. The components of most herbal preparations practiced in Hail area are not scientifically known; and therefore, their risk is still obscure. Some herbal products contain undisclosed amounts of potassium, which can cause hyperkalemia. Some may contain heavy metals that are toxic to the kidneys, or ephedralike vasoconstrictive compounds that can cause hypertension [38-40].

Future Scope: This study of identified multiple risk factors associated with the development and progression of CKD. These findings underline the importance of early detection

and management of those exposed to these factors in an attempt to delay CKD progression. In this study we identified several clinical risk factors associated with renal progression in our study population, including hypertension, Diabetes, obesity and others, which require further assessment. These may represent potential targets for improved management of patients with CKD that have the effect to influence the rates of CKD progression.

In conclusion: There is an increase prevalence rate of risk factors of CKD in Hail, which requires health authorities to implement preventive strategies. Smoking emerges as a chief modifiable renal risk factor particularly among patients with diabetes, hypertension and patients with CVD. Awareness programs should be implemented at community-based to reduce the overall burden of risk factors which in turn will reduce the incidence of CKD in Hail.

5. Funding

This work was supported by grants from His Excellency Prof. Dr. Nasser Elrasheed Chair for Renal Diseases Research.

References

- [1] Kul M, Cengel Kültür E, Senses Dinç G, Bilginer Y, Uluç S, Baykan H. Quality of life in children and adolescents with chronic kidney disease: a comparative study between different disease stages and treatment modalities. Turk J Pediatr. 2013 Sep-Oct;55(5):493-9.
- [2] Currie G, Delles C. Proteinuria and its relation to cardiovascular disease. Int J Nephrol Renovasc Dis. 2013 Dec 21;7:13-24.
- [3] Meng L, Fu B, Zhang T, Han Z, Yang M. Salt sensitivity of blood pressure in non-dialysis patients with chronic kidney disease. Ren Fail. 2013 Dec 17. [Epub ahead of print]
- [4] -Gómez-Huelgas R, Martínez-Castelao A, Artola S, et al. Treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus in patients with chronic kidney disease. Med Clin (Barc). 2013 Nov 20. pii: S0025-7753(13)00749-5
- [5] Cohen E, Fraser A, Goldberg E, Milo G, Garty M, Krause I. Association between the body mass index and chronic kidney disease in men and women. A population-based study from Israel. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2013 Nov;28 Suppl 4:iv130-5.
- [6] Hasegawa M, Ishii J, Kitagawa F, et al. Urinary neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin as a predictor of cardiovascular events in patients with chronic kidney disease. Heart Vessels. 2013 Dec 31. [Epub ahead of print]
- [7] Foster MC, Rawlings AM, Marrett E, et al. Potential Effects of Reclassifying CKD as a Coronary Heart Disease Risk Equivalent in the US Population. Am J Kidney Dis. 2013 Dec 23. pii: S0272-6386(13)01475-3.
- [8] Tonelli M, Wiebe N, Culleton B, House A, Rabbat C, Fok M, McAlister F, Garg AX. Chronic kidney disease and mortality risk: a systematic review. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2006; 17: 2034–2047.
- [9] Foley RN, Parfrey PS, Sarnak M. Clincial epidemiology of cardiovascular disease in chronic renal disease. Am J Kidney Dis. 1998; 32: 112–119.

- [10] National Kidney Foundation. K/DOQI clinical practice guidelines for chronic kidney disease: evaluation, classification, and stratification. Am J Kidney Dis 2002; 39(2 Supple 1): S1–266.
- [11] Levin A, Singer J, Thompson CR, Ross H, Lewis M. Prevalent LVH in the predialysis population: identifying opportunities for intervention. Am J Kidney Dis. 1996; 27: 347–354.
- [12] Ernesto L. Schiffrin, Mark L. Lipman, Johannes F.E. Mann. Cardiovascular Involvement in General Medical Conditions; Chronic Kidney Disease: Effects on the Cardiovascular System. Circulation. 2007; 116: 85-97.
- [13] Guyton AC, Coleman TG, Wilcox CS. Quantitative analysis of the pathophysiology of hypertension. J Am Soc Nephrol. 1999; 10: 2248–2249.
- [14] Ejerblad E, Fored CM, Lindblad P, et al. Obesity and risk for chronic renal failure. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2006;17:1695–702.
- [15] Mariusz Stępień, Anna Stępień, Rafał Nikodem Wlazeł, et al. Obesity indices and adipokines in non-diabetic obese patients with early stages of chronic kidney disease. Med Sci Monit. 2013; 19: 1063–1072.
- [16] Eknoyan G. Obesity and chronic kidney disease. Nefrologia. 2011;31(4):397-403.
- [17] Laura Plantinga, Vanessa Grubbs, Urmimala Sarkar, et al. Nonsteroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drug Use Among Persons With Chronic Kidney Disease in the United States. Ann Fam Med. 2011 September; 9(5): 423–430.
- [18] Yamagata K, et al.: Risk factors for chronic kidney disease in a community-based population: a 10-year follow-up study. Kidney Int 2007, 71(2):159-66.
- [19] Rabi Yacoub, Habib Habib, Ayham Lahdo, et al. Association between smoking and chronic kidney disease: a case control study. BMC Public Health 2010, 10:731.
- [20] Amann K, Wanner C, Ritz E: Cross-talk between the kidney and the cardiovascular system. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2006;17 :2112–2119.
- [21]21-McCullough PA: Cardiovascular disease in chronic kidney disease from a cardiologist's perspective. Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens 2004;13:591–600.
- [22] Cass SL, A, Atkins RC, Chadban SJ: Chronic kidney disease in the general population. Adv Chronic Kidney Dis 2005;12:5–13.
- [23] World Health Organization . WHO Report On The Global Tobacco Epidemic: The MPOWER Package 2008; 2010. Available online:http://www.who.int/tobacco/mpower/en/ (accessed on January 3,2010).
- [24] 24-Nadira A. Al-Baghli, Aqeel J. AL-Ghamdi, Khalid A. Al-Turki,et al. Awareness of cardiovascular disease in eastern Saudi Arabia. J Family Community Med. 2010 Jan-Apr; 17(1): 15–21.
- [25] Stephan R. Orth, and Stein I. Hallan. Smoking: A Risk Factor for Progression of Chronic Kidney Disease and for Cardiovascular Morbidity and Mortality in Renal Patients—Absence of Evidence or Evidence of Absence? CJASN 2008;3(1): 226-236.
- [26] Orth SR: Cigarette smoking: An important risk factor— Far beyond carcinogenesis. Tob Induced Dis1 2002:137-155.
- [27] Bassiony MM. Smoking in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Med J. 2009 Jul;30(7):876-81.

Volume 3 Issue 7, July 2014

<u>www.ijsr.net</u> Licensed Under Creative Commons Attribution CC BY

International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR) ISSN (Online): 2319-7064 Impact Factor (2012): 3.358

- [28] Al-Mohamed HI, Amin TT. Pattern and prevalence of smoking among students at King Faisal University, Al Hassa, Saudi Arabia. East Mediterr Health J. 2010;16(1):56-64.
- [29] Barri YM: Hypertension and kidney disease: a deadly connection. Curr Cardiol Rep 2006, 8:411-417.
- [30] Hanratty R, Chonchol M, Miriam Dickinson L, Beaty BL, Estacio RO, Mackenzie TD, Hurley LP, Linas SL, Steiner JF, Havranek EP: Incident chronic kidney disease and the rate of kidney function decline in individuals with hypertension. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2010, 25(3):801-807.
- [31] Yook Chin Chia and Siew Mooi Ching. Hypertension and the development of new onset chronic kidney disease over a 10 year period: a retrospective cohort study in a primary care setting in Malaysia. *BMC Nephrology* 2012, 13:173.
- [32] Tesauro M, Mascali A, Franzese O, Cipriani S, Cardillo C, Di Daniele N. Chronic Kidney Disease, Obesity, and Hypertension:The Role of Leptin and Adiponectin. International Journal of Hypertension 2012; Volume 2012, Article ID 943605, 7 pages.
- [33] Whiting DR, Guariguata L, Weil C, et al. IDF diabetes atlas: global estimates of the prevalence of diabetes for 2011 and 2030. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 2011; 94:311– 21.
- [34] Schieppati A, Ruggenenti P. Clinical practice. Nephropathy in patients with type 2 diabetes. N Engl J Med 2002;346:1145–51.
- [35] Fored CM, Ejerblad E, Lindblad P et al. Acetaminophen, aspirin, and chronic renal failure. *N Engl J Med* 2001; 345: 1801–1808.
- [36] Bennett WM, Henrich WL, Stoff JS. The renal effects of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs: summary and recommendations. Am J Kidney Dis. 1996;281 suppl 1856–62.
- [37] Turgut F, Kanbay M, Isik B, and Akcay A. Risk factors affecting the incidence of chronic kidney disease. Kidney International 2007; 71, 1076.
- [38] Mueller BA, Scott MK, Sowinski KM, Prag KA. Noni juice (Morinda citrifolia): hidden potential for hyperkalemia? Am J Kidney Dis. 2000; 35:310–2.
- [39] Saper RB, Kales SN, Paquin J, Burns MJ, Eisenberg DM, Davis RB, et al. Heavy metal content of ayurvedic herbal medicine products. JAMA. 2004; 292:2868–73.
- [40] Isnard Bagnis C, Deray G, Baumelou A, Le Quintrec M, Vanherweghem JL. Herbs and the kidney. Am J Kidney Dis. 2004; 44:1–11.

Author Profile

Dr. Ibrahim Abdelmajeed Ginawi is Associate Professor, Department of Community Medicine, College of Medicine, University of Hail, KSA. He has both teaching and research experience of more than 10 years in the field of Family Medicine and Public Health. He has over 20 publications in considerable Scientific Journals.

Prof. Dr. Hussain Gadelkarim Ahmed is Professor, Department of Pathology, College of Medicine, University of Hail, KSA, and Department of Histopathology and Cytopathology, University of Khartoum, Sudan. He has both teaching and research experience of more than 14 years in the field of Cancer Research and Public Health. He has over 60 publications in considerable Scientific Journals.

Prof. Dr. Awdah M. Al-hazimi is Professor, Department of Physiology, College of Medicine, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, KSA, College of Medicine, University of Hail. He has both teaching and research experience of more than 20 years in the field of Physiology, Education development and public Health. He has over 30 publications in considerable Scientific Journals.