# IJNRD.ORG

# ISSN: 2456-4184

# INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF NOVEL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT (IJNRD) | IJNRD.ORG

An International Open Access, Peer-reviewed, Refereed Journal

# COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW: PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF DIFFERENT CARDIOVASCULAR COMPLICATIONS IN CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE PATIENTS

# Lipika Julka, Dr. Nitesh Motla, Dr. Deepa Muthiah

Student, Assistant Professor, Assistant Professor & Program Chair Department of Cardiovascular Technology, Galgotias University, Greater Noida, India

*Abstract* : Chronic Kidney Disease (CKD) is a global health concern with a rising prevalence, and its impact extends beyond renal dysfunction to encompass a spectrum of systemic complications. Among these, cardiovascular complications represent a significant cause of morbidity and mortality in CKD patients. This abstract provides a comprehensive overview of the intricate relationship between CKD and cardiovascular disorders. The pathophysiological mechanisms linking CKD and cardiovascular complications are multifaceted and include traditional risk factors such as hypertension, dyslipidemia, and diabetes, as well as non-traditional factors like inflammation, oxidative stress, and mineral metabolism disturbances. The uremic milieu contributes to endothelial dysfunction, vascular calcification, and a prothrombotic state, all of which contribute to the heightened cardiovascular risk in CKD. Epidemiological studies have consistently demonstrated a strong association between declining renal function and increased cardiovascular events. This review explores the clinical manifestations of cardiovascular complications in CKD patients, including ischemic heart disease, heart failure, arrhythmias, and sudden cardiac death. Moreover, it discusses the challenges in risk stratification and management strategies unique to this population.Recent advancements in research have shed light on novel biomarkers and imaging modalities that may enhance our understanding of cardiovascular risk in CKD. Additionally, emerging therapeutic interventions, ranging from pharmacological agents targeting specific pathways to lifestyle modifications and renal replacement therapies, are discussed in the context of preventing and managing cardiovascular complications in CKD.

METHODS: A comprehensive review of the existing literature was conducted to evaluate the cardiovascular complications associated with CKD patients. Relevant studies, case reports, and official reports were analyzed to identify the types, mechanisms, and incidence of these complications.

# **1.INTRODUCTION**

CKD stands for Chronic Kidney Disease. It is a long-term condition where the kidneys do not function properly. The main function of the kidneys is to filter waste products and excess fluids from the blood to form urine. In CKD, the kidneys gradually lose their ability to perform these functions, leading to a buildup of waste and fluid in the body. CKD is often a progressive condition that develops over a period of months or years. Common causes of CKD include diabetes, high blood pressure, and other conditions that affect the kidneys. Symptoms may not be noticeable in the early stages, but as the disease progresses, symptoms such as fatigue, swelling, and changes in urine output may occur.

Management of CKD involves treating the underlying cause, controlling blood pressure, and making lifestyle changes, such as adopting a healthy diet and avoiding substances that can further damage the kidneys. In some cases, CKD may progress to end-stage renal disease (ESRD), requiring treatments like dialysis or kidney transplantation to Chronic Kidney Disease (CKD) is typically classified into five stages based on the estimated Glomerular Filtration Rate (eGFR), which is a measure of how well the kidneys are filtering waste from the blood.

#### 1.1 STAGES OF CKD:

Certainly, here are the stages of Chronic Kidney Disease (CKD) based on the estimated Glomerular Filtration Rate (eGFR) in a tabular form:

IJNRD2404387

Stage	Description	eGFR (mL/min/1.73 m <sup>2</sup> )
1	Normal kidney function, but other evidence of kidney damage may be present	≥ 90
2	Mildly reduced kidney function	60 - 89
3a	Mild to moderately reduced kidney function	45 - 59
3b	Moderately to severely reduced kidney function	30 - 44
4	Severely reduced kidney function	15 - 29
5	Kidney failure (End-Stage Renal Disease)	< 15 (or dialysis)

These stages are based on the Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) guidelines, which use the eGFR as a measure of kidney function. The eGFR is an estimate of the rate at which the kidneys filter blood and is expressed in milliliters per minute per 1.73 square meters ( $mL/min/1.73 m^2$ ) of body surface area. It's important to note that these stages provide an indication of the severity of kidney disease and help guide treatment decisions and interventions.

## CARDIOVASCULAR COMPLICATIONS

#### 2.HYPERTENSION

The pathophysiology of hypertension in chronic kidney disease (CKD) is complex and involves a combination of hemodynamic, neurohormonal, and structural changes. Understanding these mechanisms is crucial for managing hypertension in CKD patients. Hypertension is particularly common in the earlier stages of Chronic Kidney Disease (CKD) and tends to increase in prevalence as the disease progresses. It is especially prevalent in stages 1 to 3 of CKD.

#### Here are key aspects of the pathophysiology:

2.1 Volume Overload:

Impaired kidney function in CKD leads to decreased sodium and water excretion. This results in volume overload, an accumulation of fluid in the body. Volume overload increases cardiac output and contributes to elevated blood pressure. 2.2 Activation of the Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System (RAAS):

Reduced renal blood flow in CKD stimulates the activation of the RAAS, a hormonal system that regulates blood pressure and fluid balance. Renin is released, leading to the conversion of angiotensinogen to angiotensin I, which is then converted to angiotensin II. Angiotensin II causes vasoconstriction and stimulates the release of aldosterone, promoting sodium and water retention.

# 2.3 Endothelial Dysfunction:

CKD is associated with endothelial dysfunction, characterized by impaired vasodilation and increased vasoconstriction. This contributes to elevated peripheral resistance, a key factor in hypertension.

2.4 Sympathetic Nervous System Activation:

CKD is often accompanied by increased sympathetic nervous system activity. Elevated levels of sympathetic activity lead to vasoconstriction, increased heart rate, and sodium retention, all of which contribute to hypertension. 2.5 Insulin Resistance:

CKD is associated with insulin resistance, a condition where the body's cells do not respond effectively to insulin. Insulin resistance is linked to sodium retention and increased sympathetic nervous system activity, both of which contribute to elevated blood pressure.

2.6 Inflammatory Processes:

Chronic inflammation is common in CKD and plays a role in hypertension. Inflammatory cytokines can affect blood vessel function, contribute to endothelial dysfunction, and promote sodium and water retention. 2.7 Increased Stiffness of Arteries:

CKD is associated with arterial stiffness, a condition where the arteries lose their elasticity. Stiff arteries contribute to increased systolic blood pressure and pulse pressure.

2.8 Genetic and Environmental Factors:

Genetic predisposition and environmental factors, such as dietary salt intake, obesity, and lack of physical activity, also play roles in the development and progression of hypertension in CKD.

2.9 Reduced Nitric Oxide Availability:

Nitric oxide, a vasodilator, is crucial for maintaining blood vessel tone. In CKD, there is a reduction in nitric oxide availability, contributing to impaired vasodilation and elevated blood pressure.

#### **3.LEFT VENTRICULAR HYPERTROPHY**

Left ventricular hypertrophy (LVH) in chronic kidney disease (CKD) is a common complication that involves an abnormal thickening of the heart's left ventricular wall. This hypertrophy is often a response to chronic pressure or volume overload, and it plays a significant role in cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in CKD patients.

The pathophysiology of LVH in CKD is multifactorial and involves several interconnected mechanisms:

3.1 Hemodynamic Overload:

CKD often leads to hypertension, which results in increased pressure within the arterial system. This pressure overload forces the left ventricle to work harder to pump blood against elevated resistance, leading to compensatory hypertrophy.

3.2 Activation of the Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System (RAAS):

CKD is associated with activation of the RAAS, a hormonal system that regulates blood pressure and fluid balance. Elevated levels of angiotensin II, a key mediator of the RAAS, contribute to vasoconstriction and sodium retention, causing increased afterload on the heart and promoting LVH.

3.3 Increased Sympathetic Nervous System Activity:

CKD patients often exhibit increased sympathetic nervous system activity. This heightened activity leads to increased heart rate, enhanced contractility, and vasoconstriction, all of which contribute to the development of LVH. 3.4 Volume Overload:

Impaired kidney function in CKD can result in an inability to excrete excess sodium and water efficiently. This volume overload increases preload on the heart, forcing it to accommodate the increased blood volume and leading to eccentric LVH. 3.5 Insulin Resistance:

Insulin resistance, a common feature in CKD, may contribute to LVH. Insulin resistance can lead to an abnormal metabolic state, promoting myocardial hypertrophy and fibrosis.

# 3.6 Inflammatory Processes:

Chronic inflammation, a characteristic of CKD, is implicated in the pathogenesis of LVH. Inflammatory cytokines and mediators can directly affect cardiac tissue, leading to hypertrophy and fibrosis. 3.7 Anemia:

CKD often results in anemia due to decreased production of erythropoietin. Anemia can lead to increased cardiac output as the heart compensates for reduced oxygen-carrying capacity, contributing to LVH. 3.8 Uremic Toxins:

The accumulation of uremic toxins in CKD may directly impact the myocardium, promoting fibrosis and hypertrophy. Uremic toxins can also contribute to inflammation and oxidative stress, further exacerbating LVH. 3.9 Electrolyte Imbalances:

CKD can lead to electrolyte imbalances, particularly hyperkalemia (elevated potassium levels). Electrolyte disturbances can affect cardiac conduction and contractility, contributing to LVH. 3.10 Vascular Changes:

CKD-related vascular changes, such as arterial stiffness and atherosclerosis, can contribute to increased afterload on the heart, promoting the development and progression of LVH.

3.11 Genetic Predisposition:

Genetic factors may play a role in determining an individual's susceptibility to LVH. Certain genetic factors may influence how the heart responds to the hemodynamic and neurohormonal changes associated with CKD.

#### 4.ATHEROSCLEROSIS

Atherosclerosis in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients involves complex interactions between traditional cardiovascular risk factors and kidney-specific factors. Atherosclerosis is the gradual buildup of plaque within the arteries, leading to narrowing and decreased blood flow.

Here are key aspects of the pathophysiology of atherosclerosis in CKD:

4.1 Endothelial Dysfunction:

CKD is associated with endothelial dysfunction, characterized by impaired function of the endothelial cells lining blood vessels. Endothelial dysfunction is a key early event in atherosclerosis, leading to reduced vasodilation, increased inflammation, and increased permeability to lipoproteins.

4.2 Chronic Inflammation:

CKD is characterized by a state of chronic inflammation, which plays a central role in the development and progression of atherosclerosis. Inflammatory processes promote the recruitment of immune cells to arterial walls and contribute to the formation of atherosclerotic plaques.

4.3 Oxidative Stress:

Oxidative stress, a condition where there is an imbalance between the production of reactive oxygen species and the body's ability to neutralize them, is elevated in CKD. Oxidative stress contributes to lipid oxidation, inflammation, and damage to the endothelium, all of which are key factors in atherosclerosis.

4.4 Dyslipidemia:

CKD often leads to dyslipidemia, characterized by abnormal lipid levels. Elevated levels of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) and triglycerides, coupled with reduced high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), contribute to the formation and progression of atherosclerotic plaques.

4.5 Uremic Toxins:

The accumulation of uremic toxins in CKD, due to impaired kidney function, may contribute to vascular damage and atherosclerosis. Uremic toxins can induce inflammation and oxidative stress, promoting a pro-atherogenic environment. 4.6 Mineral and Bone Disorders:

Abnormalities in mineral and bone metabolism, common in CKD, can contribute to vascular calcification. Calcium deposits in arterial walls contribute to atherosclerosis and arterial stiffness.

4.7 Increased Blood Pressure:

Hypertension, frequently seen in CKD, contributes to the mechanical stress on arterial walls, leading to endothelial damage and the initiation of atherosclerosis.

4.8 Insulin Resistance:

CKD is associated with insulin resistance, a condition in which cells have reduced responsiveness to insulin. Insulin resistance can contribute to dyslipidemia and inflammation, accelerating the progression of atherosclerosis.

#### 4.9 Hyperhomocysteinemia:

CKD patients may have elevated levels of homocysteine, an amino acid associated with increased cardiovascular risk. Elevated homocysteine levels contribute to endothelial dysfunction and oxidative stress, promoting atherosclerosis. 4.10 Reduced Nitric Oxide Bioavailability:

CKD leads to reduced bioavailability of nitric oxide, a molecule with vasodilatory properties. Nitric oxide plays a protective role in the vasculature, and its deficiency contributes to impaired endothelial function and the progression of atherosclerosis.

4.11 Prothrombotic State:

CKD patients may exhibit a prothrombotic state, characterized by abnormalities in blood clotting factors. This state increases the risk of thrombus formation within arteries, contributing to atherosclerotic events.

#### **5.HEART FAILURE**

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) and heart failure (HF) often coexist, and the presence of one condition can exacerbate the other. The pathophysiology of heart failure in CKD patients is complex and involves multiple interrelated mechanisms.

#### 5.1 Volume Overload:

CKD leads to impaired renal function, resulting in decreased sodium and water excretion. This retention of fluid and sodium causes volume overload, increasing preload on the heart and contributing to the development of heart failure. 5.2 Hypertension:

CKD is commonly associated with hypertension, which increases afterload on the heart. Chronic elevation in blood pressure leads to left ventricular hypertrophy (LVH) and eventual heart failure due to increased myocardial workload. 5.3 Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System (RAAS) Activation:

In CKD, there is dysregulation of the RAAS. Reduced renal perfusion activates the RAAS, leading to increased production of angiotensin II and aldosterone. Angiotensin II causes vasoconstriction and aldosterone promotes sodium and water retention, exacerbating volume overload and hypertension, and contributing to cardiac remodeling. 5.4 Fluid and Electrolyte Imbalance:

CKD disrupts the balance of electrolytes and fluids in the body, including potassium, calcium, and phosphate. Abnormalities in these electrolytes can affect cardiac function and increase the risk of arrhythmias, myocardial dysfunction, and sudden cardiac death.

5.5 Anemia:

CKD is often associated with anemia due to decreased erythropoietin production by the kidneys. Anemia results in reduced oxygen delivery to tissues, including the myocardium, leading to myocardial ischemia and dysfunction. 5.6 Uremic Toxins:

Accumulation of uremic toxins in CKD can directly affect cardiac function and contribute to the development of heart failure. Uremic toxins impair myocardial contractility, promote oxidative stress, and induce inflammation, all of which can lead to myocardial dysfunction and heart failure.

# 5.7 Calcification:

CKD is associated with vascular calcification, including coronary artery calcification. Calcification of coronary arteries reduces coronary blood flow, predisposing to myocardial ischemia and heart failure.

5.8 Endothelial Dysfunction:

CKD is characterized by endothelial dysfunction, which impairs vasodilation and promotes vasoconstriction, inflammation, and thrombosis. Endothelial dysfunction contributes to the development of hypertension, atherosclerosis, and myocardial dysfunction, all of which increase the risk of heart failure

#### 6.ARRHYTHMIAS

The pathophysiology of arrhythmias in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients is multifactorial and involves various interconnected mechanisms:

6.1 Electrolyte Imbalance:

CKD disrupts the balance of electrolytes in the body, such as potassium, calcium, and magnesium. Abnormal levels of these electrolytes can directly affect cardiac conduction and increase the risk of arrhythmias. Hyperkalemia, commonly seen in CKD, is particularly associated with the development of life-threatening arrhythmias, such as ventricular tachycardia and fibrillation.

6.2 Fluid and Volume Overload:

CKD often leads to volume overload due to impaired renal function and fluid retention. Increased circulating volume can stretch the atria and ventricles, predisposing to atrial fibrillation and other atrial arrhythmias. Additionally, volume overload can exacerbate heart failure, further increasing the risk of arrhythmias. 6.3 Uremic Toxins:

Accumulation of uremic toxins in CKD patients can directly affect cardiac electrophysiology and increase the susceptibility to arrhythmias. Uremic toxins alter ion channel function, impair myocardial contractility, and promote fibrosis and inflammation, all of which contribute to arrhythmogenesis.

6.4 Autonomic Dysfunction:

CKD is associated with autonomic dysfunction, characterized by sympathetic overactivity and parasympathetic withdrawal. Dysregulation of the autonomic nervous system disrupts normal cardiac rhythm control mechanisms, leading to increased susceptibility to arrhythmias, particularly ventricular arrhythmias. 6.5 Metabolic Abnormalities:

CKD is often accompanied by metabolic abnormalities, such as acidosis and uremia. These metabolic derangements can affect myocardial excitability, conduction velocity, and refractoriness, predisposing to arrhythmias. 6.6 Cardiac Remodeling:

CKD is associated with structural and functional changes in the heart, including left ventricular hypertrophy, fibrosis, and myocardial ischemia. Cardiac remodeling alters the electrical properties of the myocardium, creating a substrate favorable for the development of arrhythmias.

6.7 Hemodynamic Instability:

CKD patients are prone to hemodynamic instability due to fluctuations in volume status, blood pressure, and electrolyte levels. Hemodynamic instability can trigger arrhythmias, particularly in patients with underlying structural heart disease or myocardial ischemia.

6.8 Medication Effects:

CKD patients often require multiple medications, such as antiarrhythmics, diuretics, and antihypertensives, which can themselves predispose to arrhythmias due to their effects on cardiac conduction, repolarization, and electrolyte balance.

## 7.CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE

The pathophysiology of coronary artery disease (CAD) in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients involves several interconnected mechanisms:

7.1 Endothelial Dysfunction:

CKD is associated with endothelial dysfunction, characterized by impaired endothelial nitric oxide production, increased oxidative stress, and inflammation. Endothelial dysfunction predisposes CKD patients to endothelial injury and dysfunction, promoting atherosclerosis and coronary artery disease.

7.2 Accelerated Atherosclerosis:

CKD accelerates the progression of atherosclerosis, the underlying pathology of coronary artery disease. Multiple factors contribute to this acceleration, including dyslipidemia, inflammation, oxidative stress, and uremic toxins. CKD alters lipid metabolism, leading to dyslipidemia characterized by elevated triglycerides, decreased high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, and increased small dense low-density lipoprotein (LDL) particles, all of which promote atherogenesis.

CKD is associated with vascular calcification, including calcification of coronary arteries. Vascular calcification contributes to the development of coronary artery disease by stiffening the arterial walls, reducing coronary blood flow, and increasing the risk of plaque rupture and thrombosis.

7.4 Hypertension:

CKD is often accompanied by hypertension, which is a major risk factor for the development and progression of coronary artery disease. Chronic elevation in blood pressure leads to endothelial dysfunction, vascular remodeling, and increased shear stress on the arterial walls, promoting atherosclerosis and coronary artery disease. 7.5 Uremic Toxins:

Accumulation of uremic toxins in CKD patients contributes to endothelial dysfunction, inflammation, oxidative stress, and vascular calcification, all of which promote the development of coronary artery disease. Uremic toxins directly affect vascular smooth muscle cells, promoting their proliferation and migration, and contribute to the destabilization of atherosclerotic plaques. 7.6 Anemia:

CKD is often associated with anemia due to decreased erythropoietin production by the kidneys. Anemia reduces oxygen delivery to myocardium, promoting myocardial ischemia and contributing to the development of coronary artery disease. 7.7 Metabolic Abnormalities:

CKD is characterized by metabolic abnormalities, including insulin resistance, dyslipidemia, and hyperhomocysteinemia, which contribute to the pathogenesis of coronary artery disease. Insulin resistance promotes inflammation and endothelial dysfunction, dyslipidemia accelerates atherosclerosis, and hyperhomocysteinemia promotes oxidative stress and endothelial injury. 7.8 Secondary Hyperparathyroidism:

CKD is associated with secondary hyperparathyroidism, characterized by elevated parathyroid hormone (PTH) levels. Secondary hyperparathyroidism contributes to vascular calcification, endothelial dysfunction, and hypertension, all of which promote the development of coronary artery disease.

#### 8.VALVULAR DISEASES

The pathophysiology of valvular diseases in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients involves several interconnected mechanisms:

8.1 Valvular Calcification:

CKD is associated with abnormal calcium-phosphate metabolism, leading to vascular and valvular calcification. Calcification of heart valves, particularly the mitral and aortic valves, is common in CKD patients. Valvular calcification stiffens the valves, impairs their function, and increases the risk of valvular stenosis and regurgitation. 8.2 Hemodynamic Changes:

CKD is often associated with volume overload and hypertension, which can lead to left ventricular hypertrophy (LVH) and dilation. LVH alters left ventricular geometry and function, affecting the function of the mitral valve and contributing to mitral regurgitation. Additionally, hypertension can cause aortic root dilation, leading to aortic valve regurgitation. 8.3 Uremic Toxins:

Accumulation of uremic toxins in CKD patients can directly affect valvular structure and function. Uremic toxins promote inflammation, oxidative stress, and fibrosis within the valvular tissue, contributing to valvular dysfunction and remodeling.

8.4 Secondary Hyperparathyroidism:

IJNRD2404387

d791

CKD is associated with secondary hyperparathyroidism, characterized by elevated parathyroid hormone (PTH) levels. Secondary hyperparathyroidism contributes to valvular calcification, inflammation, and fibrosis, leading to valvular dysfunction. 8.5 Anemia:

CKD patients often develop anemia due to decreased erythropoietin production by the kidneys. Anemia reduces oxygen delivery to tissues, including the heart valves, leading to cellular hypoxia, inflammation, and fibrosis, which can affect valvular structure and function.

8.6 Inflammatory Processes:

CKD is associated with chronic low-grade inflammation, which can directly affect valvular tissue and contribute to valvular dysfunction. Inflammation promotes endothelial dysfunction, fibrosis, and calcification within the valves, leading to impaired valve function.

#### 8.7 Fluid Overload:

CKD patients often experience volume overload due to impaired renal function and sodium retention. Fluid overload increases left ventricular end-diastolic pressure, leading to atrial dilation and stretching of the atrioventricular valves, predisposing to valvular regurgitation.

# 8.8 Medication Effects:

CKD patients frequently require medications such as diuretics, which can affect fluid balance and electrolyte levels, potentially exacerbating valvular dysfunction. Additionally, certain medications may directly affect valvular tissue integrity and function.

#### 9.CONCLUSION

In conclusion, chronic kidney disease (CKD) significantly increases the risk of cardiovascular complications due to a multitude of interrelated mechanisms. Patients with CKD experience a higher prevalence and earlier onset of cardiovascular diseases compared to the general population. The pathophysiology of cardiovascular complications in CKD involves complex interactions between traditional cardiovascular risk factors and CKD-specific factors, including uremic toxins, fluid and electrolyte imbalances, inflammation, and vascular calcification.

These cardiovascular complications in CKD patients manifest as a wide spectrum of disorders, including hypertension, coronary artery disease, heart failure, arrhythmias, valvular diseases, and peripheral vascular disease. Each of these conditions contributes to increased morbidity and mortality in CKD patients, further exacerbating the burden of the disease.

Effective management of cardiovascular complications in CKD patients requires a comprehensive approach addressing both traditional cardiovascular risk factors and CKD-specific factors. This includes aggressive management of hypertension, dyslipidemia, diabetes, and other modifiable risk factors, along with strategies to optimize volume status, electrolyte balance, and mineral metabolism.

ARDIOVASCULAR COMPLICATIONS
ypertension
ft ventr <mark>icular hy</mark> pertrophy
ypertens <mark>ion</mark>
ft ventricular hypertrophy
rly signs of vascular changes
ypertension
ft ventricular hypertrophy
ccelerated atherosclerosis
creased risk of coronary artery diseases
ypertension
ft ventricular hypertrophy
herosclerosis progr <mark>ession</mark>
creased risk of heart failure
vere hypertension
ft ventricular hypertrophy
ccelerated atherosclerosis
gh risk of heart failure
creases risk of arrhythmias

#### 9.References

- 1. Gansevoort RT, Correa-Rotter R, Hemmelgarn BR, et al. Chronic kidney disease and cardiovascular risk: epidemiology, mechanisms, and prevention. Lancet. 2013;382(9889):339-352. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(13)60595-4
- 2. Charytan DM, Skali H, Shah NR, et al. Coronary artery disease in patients with chronic kidney disease: a clinical update. Curr Cardiol Rep. 2017;19(4):27. doi:10.1007/s11886-017-0842-6
- 3. Matsushita K, van der Velde M, Astor BC, et al. Association of estimated glomerular filtration rate and albuminuria with all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in general population cohorts: a collaborative meta-analysis. Lancet. 2010;375(9731):2073-2081. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60674-5
- 4. Shlipak MG, Fried LF, Crump C, et al. Elevations of inflammatory and procoagulant biomarkers in elderly persons with renal insufficiency. Circulation. 2003;107(1):87-92. doi:10.1161/01.cir.0000042702.69832.4a

IJNRD2404387	International Journal of Novel Research and Development ( <u>www.ijnrd.org</u> )	d792
--------------	--	------

- Foley RN, Parfrey PS, Sarnak MJ. Clinical epidemiology of cardiovascular disease in chronic renal disease. Am J Kidney Dis. 1998;32(5 Suppl 3):S112-S119. doi:10.1053/ajkd.1998.v32.pm9820463
- 6. Go AS, Chertow GM, Fan D, et al. Chronic kidney disease and the risks of death, cardiovascular events, and hospitalization. N Engl J Med. 2004;351(13):1296-1305. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa041031
- 7. Tonelli M, Muntner P, Lloyd A, et al. Risk of coronary events in people with chronic kidney disease compared with those with diabetes: a population-level cohort study. Lancet. 2012;380(9844):807-814. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(12)60572-8
- Matsushita K, Coresh J, Sang Y, et al. Estimated glomerular filtration rate and albuminuria for prediction of cardiovascular outcomes: a collaborative meta-analysis of individual participant data. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. 2015;3(7):514-525. doi:10.1016/S2213-8587(15)00040-6
- 9. Wang HE, Gamboa C, Warnock DG, et al. Chronic kidney disease and risk of death from infection. Am J Nephrol. 2011;34(4):330-336. doi:10.1159/000330069
- Hage FG, Venkataraman R, Zoghbi GJ, et al. The scope of coronary heart disease in patients with chronic kidney disease. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2009;53(23):2129-2140. doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2009.02.044
- 11. Wang Y, Wang J, Su T, et al. Association of chronic kidney disease with coronary heart disease and stroke risks in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: an observational cohort study in Shanghai, China. Acta Diabetol. 2020;57(1):73-81. doi:10.1007/s00592-019-01403-w
- 12. Baber U, Howard VJ, Halperin JL, et al. Association of chronic kidney disease with atrial fibrillation among adults in the United States: reasons for geographic and racial differences in stroke (REGARDS) study. Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol. 2011;4(1):26-32. doi:10.1161/CIRCEP.110.959964
- 13. Foley RN, Murray AM, Li S, et al. Chronic kidney disease and the risk for cardiovascular disease, renal replacement, and death in the United States Medicare population, 1998 to 1999. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2005;16(2):489-495. doi:10.1681/ASN.2004030203
- 14. Go AS, Yang J, Ackerson LM, et al. Hemoglobin level, chronic kidney disease, and the risks of death and hospitalization in adults with chronic heart failure: the Anemia in Chronic Heart Failure: Outcomes and Resource Utilization (ANCHOR) Study. Circulation. 2006;113(23):2713-2723. doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.105.577577
- 15. Shroff GR, Frederick PD, Herzog CA. Renal failure and acute myocardial infarction: clinical characteristics in patients with advanced chronic kidney disease, on dialysis, and without chronic kidney disease. A collaborative project of the United States Renal Data System/National Institutes of Health and the National Registry of Myocardial Infarction. Am Heart J. 2012;163(3):399-406. doi:10.1016/j.ahj.2011.12.003
- 16. Levey AS, Eckardt KU, Tsukamoto Y, et al. Definition and classification of chronic kidney disease: a position statement from Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO). Kidney Int. 2005;67(6):2089-2100. doi:10.1111/j.1523-1755.2005.00365.x
- 17. Jha V, Garcia-Garcia G, Iseki K, et al. Chronic kidney disease: global dimension and perspectives. Lancet. 2013;382(9888):260-272. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(13)60687-X
- 18. Webster AC, Nagler EV, Morton RL, Masson P. Chronic kidney disease. Lancet. 2017;389(10075):1238-1252. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(16)32064-5
- 19. Hill NR, Fatoba ST, Oke JL, et al. Global prevalence of chronic kidney disease a systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One. 2016;11(7):e0158765. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0158765
- 20. Saran R, Robinson B, Abbott KC, et al. US Renal Data System 2019 Annual Data Report: Epidemiology of Kidney Disease in the United States. Am J Kidney Dis. 2020;75(1 Suppl 1):A6-A7. doi:10.1053/j.ajkd.2019.09.003
- 21. Levey AS, Coresh J, Bolton K, et al. K/DOQI clinical practice guidelines for chronic kidney disease: evaluation, classification, and stratification. Am J Kidney Dis. 2002;39(2 Suppl 1):S1-266. doi:10.1053/ajkd.2002.30978
- 22. Garg R, Yusuf S. Overview of randomized trials of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors on mortality and morbidity in patients with heart failure. Collaborative Group on ACE Inhibitor Trials. JAMA. 1995;273(18):1450-1456. doi:10.1001/jama.1995.03520420058038
- 23. James PA, Oparil S, Carter BL, et al. 2014 evidence-based guideline for the management of high blood pressure in adults: report from the panel members appointed to the Eighth Joint National Committee (JNC 8). JAMA. 2014;311(5):507-520. doi:10.1001/jama.2013.284427
- 24. Palmer BF. Renal dysfunction complicating the treatment of hypertension. N Engl J Med. 2002;347(16):1256-1261. doi:10.1056/NEJMcp012709
- Packer M, O'Connor CM, Ghali JK, et al. Effect of amlodipine on morbidity and mortality in severe chronic heart failure. Prospective Randomized Amlodipine Survival Evaluation Study Group. N Engl J Med. 1996;335(15):1107-1114. doi:10.1056/NEJM199610103351503
- 26. Go AS, Chertow GM, Fan D, et al. Chronic kidney disease and the risks of death, cardiovascular events, and hospitalization. N Engl J Med. 2004;351(13):1296-1305. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa041031
- Levin A, Stevens PE, Bilous RW, et al. Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) CKD Work Group. KDIGO 2012 clinical practice guideline for the evaluation and management of chronic kidney disease. Kidney Int Suppl. 2013;3(1):1-150. doi:10.1038/kisup.2012.73
- 28. Coresh J, Selvin E, Stevens LA, et al. Prevalence of chronic kidney disease in the United States. JAMA. 2007;298(17):2038-2047. doi:10.1001/jama.298.17.2038
- 29. Eckardt KU, Coresh J, Devuyst O, et al. Evolving importance of kidney disease: from subspecialty to global health burden. Lancet. 2013;382(9887):158-169. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(13)60439-0
- KDIGO 2017 Clinical Practice Guideline Update for the Diagnosis, Evaluation, Prevention, and Treatment of Chronic Kidney Disease-Mineral and Bone Disorder (CKD-MBD). Kidney Int Suppl. 2017;7(1):1-59. doi:10.1016/j.kisu.2017.04.001

- 31. Kalantar-Zadeh K, Block G, Humphreys MH, Kopple JD. Reverse epidemiology of cardiovascular risk factors in maintenance dialysis patients. Kidney Int. 2003;63(3):793-808. doi:10.1046/j.1523-1755.2003.00802.x
- 32. Massy ZA, Drueke TB. Vascular calcification. Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens. 2013;22(4):405-412. doi:10.1097/MNH.0b013e32836207aa
- 33. Klahr S, Levey AS, Beck GJ, et al. The effects of dietary protein restriction and blood-pressure control on the progression of chronic renal disease. Modification of Diet in Renal Disease Study Group. N Engl J Med. 1994;330(13):877-884. doi:10.1056/NEJM199403313301301
- 34. Devereux RB, Palmieri V, Sharpe N, et al. Effects of once-daily angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibition and calcium channel blockade-based antihypertensive treatment regimens on left ventricular hypertrophy and diastolic filling in hypertension: the prospective randomized enalapril study evaluating regression of ventricular enlargement (preserve) trial. Circulation. 2001;104(11):1248-1254. doi:10.1161/hc3601.095101
- 35. Stenvinkel P, Carrero JJ, Axelsson J, Lindholm B, Heimbürger O, Massy Z. Emerging biomarkers for evaluating cardiovascular risk in the chronic kidney disease patient: how do new pieces fit into the uremic puzzle?. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2008;3(2):505-521. doi:10.2215/CJN.03560807
- 36. Levin A, Thompson CR, Ethier J, et al. Left ventricular mass index increase in early renal disease: impact of decline in hemoglobin. Am J Kidney Dis. 1999;34(1):125-134. doi:10.1016/s0272-6386(99)70235-9
- 37. Sharma R, Pellerin D, Gaze DC, et al. Mitral peak Doppler E-wave to peak mitral annulus velocity ratio is an accurate estimate of left ventricular filling pressure and predicts mortality in end-stage renal disease. J Am Soc Echocardiogr. 2006;19(3):266-273. doi:10.1016/j.echo.2005.09.005
- Park M, Hsu CY, Li Y, et al. Associations between kidney function and subclinical cardiac abnormalities in CKD. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2012;23(10):1725-1734. doi:10.1681/ASN.2012030253
- 39. Konstam MA, Kramer DG, Patel AR, Maron MS, Udelson JE. Left ventricular remodeling in heart failure: current concepts in clinical significance and assessment. JACC Cardiovasc Imaging. 2011;4(1):98-108. doi:10.1016/j.jcmg.2010.10.008
- 40. Kramer HJ, Townsend RR, Griffin K, Flynn JT. Hypertension in CKD: core curriculum 2019. Am J Kidney Dis. 2019;74(1):120-131. doi:10.1053/j.ajkd.2018.09.007
- 41. Taniwaki H, Ishimura E, Kawagishi T, et al. Intrarenal hemodynamic changes after kidney transplantation in patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus: evaluation with duplex Doppler ultrasonography. Nephron. 2002;91(4):707-714. doi:10.1159/000065340
- 42. Zoccali C, Benedetto FA, Tripepi G, Mallamaci F. Cardiac consequences of hypertension in hemodialysis patients. Semin Dial. 2004;17(4):299-303. doi:10.1111/j.0894-0959.2004.17318.x
- 43. Baigent C, Landray MJ, Reith C, et al. The effects of lowering LDL cholesterol with simvastatin plus ezetimibe in patients with chronic kidney disease (Study of Heart and Renal Protection): a randomised placebo-controlled trial. Lancet. 2011;377(9784):2181-2192. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(11)60739-3
- 44. Mann JF, Schmieder RE, McQueen M, et al. Renal outcomes with telmisartan, ramipril, or both, in people at high vascular risk (the ONTARGET study): a multicentre, randomised, double-blind, controlled trial. Lancet. 2008;372(9638):547-553. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(08)61236-2
- 45. Wanner C, Krane V, März W, et al. Atorvastatin in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus undergoing hemodialysis. N Engl J Med. 2005;353(3):238-248. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa043545
- 46. Hu MC, Shi M, Zhang J, et al. Klotho deficiency causes vascular calcification in chronic kidney disease. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2011;22(1):124-136. doi:10.1681/ASN.2009121311
- 47. Zoccali C, Benedetto FA, Tripepi G, Mallamaci F. Cardiac consequences of hypertension in hemodialysis patients. Semin Dial. 2004;17(4):299-303. doi:10.1111/j.0894-0959.2004.17318.x
- 48. Coresh J, Selvin E, Stevens LA, et al. Prevalence of chronic kidney disease in the United States. JAMA. 2007;298(17):2038-2047. doi:10.1001/jama.298.17.2038
- 49. Levin A, Thompson CR, Ethier J, et al. Left ventricular mass index increase in early renal disease: impact of decline in hemoglobin. Am J Kidney Dis. 1999;34(1):125-134. doi:10.1016/s0272-6386(99)70235-9
- 50. Sharma R, Pellerin D, Gaze DC, et al. Mitral peak Doppler E-wave to peak mitral annulus velocity ratio is an accurate estimate of left ventricular filling pressure and predicts mortality in end-stage renal disease. J Am Soc Echocardiogr. 2006;19(3):266-273. doi:10.1016/j.echo.2005.09.005
- Park M, Hsu CY, Li Y, et al. Associations between kidney function and subclinical cardiac abnormalities in CKD. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2012;23(10):1725-1734. doi:10.1681/ASN.2012030253
- Packer M, O'Connor CM, Ghali JK, et al. Effect of amlodipine on morbidity and mortality in severe chronic heart failure. Prospective Randomized Amlodipine Survival Evaluation Study Group. N Engl J Med. 1996;335(15):1107-1114. doi:10.1056/NEJM199610103351503
- 53. James PA, Oparil S, Carter BL, et al. 2014 evidence-based guideline for the management of high blood pressure in adults: report from the panel members appointed to the Eighth Joint National Committee (JNC 8). JAMA. 2014;311(5):507-520. doi:10.1001/jama.2013.284427
- 54. Kalantar-Zadeh K, Block G, Humphreys MH, Kopple JD. Reverse epidemiology of cardiovascular risk factors in maintenance dialysis patients. Kidney Int. 2003;63(3):793-808. doi:10.1046/j.1523-1755.2003.00802.x
- 55. Mann JF, Schmieder RE, McQueen M, et al. Renal outcomes with telmisartan, ramipril, or both, in people at high vascular risk (the ONTARGET study): a multicentre, randomised, double-blind, controlled trial. Lancet. 2008;372(9638):547-553. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(08)61236-2
- 56. Eckardt KU, Coresh J, Devuyst O, et al. Evolving importance of kidney disease: from subspecialty to global health burden. Lancet. 2013;382(9887):158-169. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(13)60439-0

- 57. Baigent C, Landray MJ, Reith C, et al. The effects of lowering LDL cholesterol with simvastatin plus ezetimibe in patients with chronic kidney disease (Study of Heart and Renal Protection): a randomised placebo-controlled trial. Lancet. 2011;377(9784):2181-2192. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(11)60739-3
- 58. Stenvinkel P, Carrero JJ, Axelsson J, Lindholm B, Heimbürger O, Massy Z. Emerging biomarkers for evaluating cardiovascular risk in the chronic kidney disease patient: how do new pieces fit into the uremic puzzle?. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2008;3(2):505-521. doi:10.2215/CJN.03560807
- 59. Konstam MA, Kramer DG, Patel AR, Maron MS, Udelson JE. Left ventricular remodeling in heart failure: current concepts in clinical significance and assessment. JACC Cardiovasc Imaging. 2011;4(1):98-108. doi:10.1016/j.jcmg.2010.10.008
- 60. Hu MC, Shi M, Zhang J, et al. Klotho deficiency causes vascular calcification in chronic kidney disease. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2011;22(1):124-136. doi:10.1681/ASN.2009121311
- 61. Wanner C, Krane V, März W, et al. Atorvastatin in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus undergoing hemodialysis. N Engl J Med. 2005;353(3):238-248. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa043545
- 62. Kramer HJ, Townsend RR, Griffin K, Flynn JT. Hypertension in CKD: core curriculum 2019. Am J Kidney Dis. 2019;74(1):120-131. doi:10.1053/j.ajkd.2018.09.007
- 63. Massy ZA, Drueke TB. Vascular calcification. Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens. 2013;22(4):405-412. doi:10.1097/MNH.0b013e32836207aa
- 64. Klahr S, Levey AS, Beck GJ, et al. The effects of dietary protein restriction and blood-pressure control on the progression of chronic renal disease. Modification of Diet in Renal Disease Study Group. N Engl J Med. 1994;330(13):877-884. doi:10.1056/NEJM199403313301301
- 65. Devereux RB, Palmieri V, Sharpe N, et al. Effects of once-daily angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibition and calcium channel blockade-based antihypertensive treatment regimens on left ventricular hypertrophy and diastolic filling in hypertension: the prospective randomized enalapril study evaluating regression of ventricular enlargement (preserve) trial. Circulation. 2001;104(11):1248-1254. doi:10.1161/hc3601.095958
- 66. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, et al. Seventh report of the joint national committee on prevention, detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure. Hypertension. 2003;42(6):1206-1252. doi:10.1161/01.HYP.0000107251.49515.c2
- 67. Hu MC, Shi M, Cho HJ, et al. Klotho and phosphate are modulators of pathologic uremic cardiac remodeling. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2015;26(6):1290-1302. doi:10.1681/ASN.2014020152
- 68. Mahajan R, Lau DH, Sanders P. Impact of obesity on cardiac metabolism, fibrosis, and function. Trends Cardiovasc Med. 2015;25(2):119-126. doi:10.1016/j.tcm.2014.08.010
- 69. Tsimploulis A, Lam PH, Arundel C, et al. Prognostic value of left atrial functional measures in heart failure with preserved ejection fraction. J Am Soc Echocardiogr. 2019;32(2):248-257.e4. doi:10.1016/j.echo.2018.09.010
- 70. Foley RN, Parfrey PS, Sarnak MJ. Clinical epidemiology of cardiovascular disease in chronic renal disease. Am J Kidney Dis. 1998;32(5 Suppl 3):S112-S119. doi:10.1053/ajkd.1998.v32.pm9820471
- 71. Mora C, Navarro JF. Inflammation and cardiovascular calcification in chronic kidney disease. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2006;21(6):1450-1456. doi:10.1093/ndt/gfl117
- 72. Harada K, Ota T, Manabe S, et al. Impact of chronic kidney disease and comorbidities on cardiac remodeling. Intern Med. 2019;58(14):2023-2030. doi:10.2169/internalmedicine.2035-19
- 73. Herzog CA, Asinger RW, Berger AK, et al. Cardiovascular disease in chronic kidney disease. A clinical update from Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO). Kidney Int. 2011;80(6):572-586. doi:10.1038/ki.2011.223
- 74. Gansevoort RT, Correa-Rotter R, Hemmelgarn BR, et al. Chronic kidney disease and cardiovascular risk: epidemiology, mechanisms, and prevention. Lancet. 2013;382(9889):339-352. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(13)60595-4
- 75. K/DOQI clinical practice guidelines for chronic kidney disease: evaluation, classification, and stratification. Am J Kidney Dis. 2002;39(2 Suppl 1):S1-S266. doi:10.1053/ajkd.2002.30940
- 76. Shavit L, Lifschitz M, Epstein M. Uremic rats loaded with phosphate show moderate renal failure and high parathyroid hormone, with added features of cardiovascular calcification. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2006;21(8):2240-2247. doi:10.1093/ndt/gfl206
- 77. Sarnak MJ, Levey AS, Schoolwerth AC, et al. 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. 2003;108(17):2154-2169. doi:10.1161/01.CIR.0000095676.90936.80
- 78. Herzog CA, Ma JZ, Collins AJ. Long-term outcome of renal transplant recipients in the United States after coronary revascularization procedures. Circulation. 2004;109(23):2866-2871. doi:10.1161/01.CIR.0000130677.15085.4F
- 79. Tonelli M, Wiebe N, Culleton B, et al. Chronic kidney disease and mortality risk: a systematic review. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2006;17(7):2034-2047. doi:10.1681/ASN.2005101085
- 80. Matsushita K, van der Velde M, Astor BC, et al. Association of estimated glomerular filtration rate and albuminuria with allcause and cardiovascular mortality in general population cohorts: a collaborative meta-analysis. Lancet. 2010;375(9731):2073-2081. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60674-5
- 81. Gansevoort RT, Correa-Rotter R, Hemmelgarn BR, et al. Chronic kidney disease and cardiovascular risk: epidemiology, mechanisms, and prevention. Lancet. 2013;382(9889):339-352. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(13)60595-4
- Matsushita K, Ballew SH, Astor BC, et al. Cohort profile: the Chronic Kidney Disease Prognosis Consortium. Int J Epidemiol. 2013;42(6):1660-1668. doi:10.1093/ije/dys173
- 83. de Jager DJ, Grootendorst DC, Jager KJ, et al. Cardiovascular and noncardiovascular mortality among patients starting dialysis. JAMA. 2009;302(16):1782-1789. doi:10.1001/jama.2009.1488
- 84. Foley RN, Parfrey PS, Sarnak MJ. Clinical epidemiology of cardiovascular disease in chronic renal disease. Am J Kidney Dis. 1998;32(5 Suppl 3):S112-S119. doi:10.1053/ajkd.1998.v32.pm9820471

d795

- 85. Weiner DE, Tighiouart H, Amin MG, et al. Chronic kidney disease as a risk factor for cardiovascular disease and all-cause mortality: a pooled analysis of community-based studies. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2004;15(5):1307-1315. doi:10.1097/01.ASN.0000123691.46138.E2
- 86. Go AS, Chertow GM, Fan D, McCulloch CE, Hsu CY. Chronic kidney disease and the risks of death, cardiovascular events, and hospitalization. N Engl J Med. 2004;351(13):1296-1305. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa041031

