

*Review Articles***Functional and Morphological Renal Manifestations in Diabetes Mellitus**

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Diabetic nephropathy presents the most serious complication to the patient with young onset insulin-dependent (Type 1) diabetes mellitus. It develops in approximately 30–35% of such patients [1] and signifies a grave prognosis [2].

Early Functional Changes in the Diabetic Kidney

Abnormal renal function, including elevated glomerular filtration rate (GFR) [3–5] and increased renal plasma flow (RPF) [6, 7] can be demonstrated in diabetic man very early in the disease, even at the time of diagnosis. Increased GFR is invariably found and usually remains at an elevated level in the diabetic until the development of proteinuria [8, 9], while the enhancement of RPF does not always reach statistical significance [7, 9]. The elevated GFR in diabetes mellitus [10, 11] may reflect changes in any of several determinants of GFR: 1) RPF, 2) the colloid osmotic pressure within the glomerular capillaries, 3) the transglomerular hydraulic pressure and 4) the effective hydraulic ultrafiltration coefficient (kf) which is determined by the hydraulic conductance and glomerular surface area [12].

Haemodynamic factors, such as increased RPF [6, 7, 13, 14] and increased hydraulic pressure [13, 14], most likely contribute to the elevated GFR. Micropuncture studies in moderately diabetic Munich Wistar rats have revealed increased GFR, RPF, increased single nephron GFR and increased intraglomerular capillary pressure [13]. These findings have been confirmed in another rat strain [14]. However, in that study the increased hydraulic pressure gradient resulted from decreased proximal tubular pressure.

There are no data on hydraulic conductance of the glomerular membrane in diabetes, but changes in glomerular capillary surface area are very likely to

contribute to alterations in renal function in diabetic patients [10].

The morphological alterations which are seen in diabetic kidneys early in the disease include a substantial increase in kidney volume [7, 15] for the most part representing an increase in renal tubular volume [16]. In addition the glomeruli increase in volume [17] resulting in an increased peripheral capillary surface area of the glomeruli [18]. The latter might produce an elevation of kf and thus contribute significantly to the elevated GFR in diabetes.

To what extent each of the observed morphological and functional alterations contributes to the increased GFR remains to be clarified. Rapid reversal of elevated GFR, induced by improved metabolic control [4, 19, 20] without concomitant changes in glomerular volume [18], points towards haemodynamic changes being the major determinants of the increased GFR. However, other observations implicate morphological changes. These include the finding that short periods (one week) of strict metabolic control fail to normalize completely GFR [20]. Also GFR correlates closely with the glomerular capillary surface area [21].

The biochemical or hormonal perturbations leading to increased GFR represent complex interactions. Glucose and/or its metabolites seem to be important factors in the elevation of GFR and RPF [22–24], but the actual causative mechanisms have yet to be elucidated. Possibly an increased tubular reabsorption of glucose combined with altered reabsorption of electrolytes, phosphate and water may influence glomerular function [25]. Glucagon [26] and growth hormone [27, and Christiansen et al., unpublished data] have been shown to induce small but significant increments of RPF and GFR. Other hormones, such as prostaglandins and ACTH, and changes in vascular reactivity to hormonal stimuli must also be considered [28].

The moderate increases of urinary albumin excretion [29, 30] demonstrated during periods of poor control in recent-onset diabetics most likely differ fundamentally from the very substantial excretion of protein associated with clinical diabetic nephropathy. Since tubular dysfunction does not seem to increase microalbuminuria in periods of poor diabetic control [11], enhanced glomerular filtration of albumin must be the main cause. Microalbuminuria rises during and immediately after physical exercise in insulin-dependent patients and follows an increase of transglomerular passage of albumin [31, 32]. These observations might be explained by altered structure or reactivity of diabetic glomeruli to haemodynamic changes induced by physical exercise [33, 34].

All the functional changes are reversible and can be normalized during periods of excellent control [4, 19, 20, 35]. Nevertheless since most insulin-dependent diabetics are in only fair or sometimes even poor metabolic control, cross-sectional studies of patients without obvious complications have revealed elevated GFR and sometimes increased microalbuminuria [4, 35].

Structural Changes in the Diabetic Kidney

The development of pathological changes in diabetic kidneys has been extensively studied [36, 37]. In man an increase in glomerular basement membrane thickness occurs within the first 2–3 years of diabetes [36], preceding increases in mesangial volume and mesangial basement membrane-like material [36, 38, 39]. These changes follow at a much later time the increases in kidney volume and in glomerular volume seen within the first weeks of diabetes [15, 40].

Most likely these morphological changes represent a response to the metabolic and haemodynamic changes seen in diabetes. Diabetic glomerulopathy can be avoided by strict metabolic control in streptozotocin-diabetic animals [41]. It may be partially reversed following islet transplantation. Increased glomerular volume, increased mesangial volume and mesangial deposition of immunoglobulins all reflecting diabetic renal lesions [42], are ameliorated within two months after islet transplantation in diabetic rats [43]. However, another study also using islet transplantation suggested that some mesangial lesions do not regress after one month of normoglycaemia [44]. In addition increased glomerular basement membrane thickness remained unchanged following improved diabetic control for as long as six months following islet transplantation [45]. Taken together these observations imply a poor correlation between glomerular basement membrane thickness (resisting

reversal with restoration of the normal metabolic state) and other lesions of glomerular pathology in the diabetic rat which do respond to therapy.

Exposure of the diabetic glomeruli to increased flow and to increased capillary pressure putatively accelerates the development of diabetic glomerulopathy [46–49]. Observations in man and animals with unilateral renal artery stenosis suggest the role of increased glomerular capillary pressure in accelerating diabetic glomerulopathy [46, 48]. On the other hand, kidneys which are protected against increased flow and pressures (in fact exposed to very low flows and pressures), will still demonstrate diabetic renal disease, emphasizing that the metabolic consequences of diabetes are themselves fundamental factors in the pathogenesis of diabetic kidney disease.

Light microscopy can demonstrate glomerular sclerosis in nearly all Type 1 (insulin dependent) diabetic patients after several years of diabetes [50]. Why only some patients experience progressive glomerular sclerosis with the development of end-stage renal failure remains an important question. The sclerotic alterations of the mesangium seem to fill the glomeruli to such an extent that they can no longer function. The correlation between sclerotic, occluded glomeruli and the demise of renal function strongly implies that the continued destruction and consequent dysfunction of glomeruli lead to end-stage diabetic glomerulopathy [51]. There are some patients however, who may have substantial glomerular pathology and yet seem able to maintain normal renal function [50]. Understanding why this subset of patients resists end-stage renal disease may provide important insights into preventing the renal complications of diabetes mellitus.

Toward Understanding Clinical Diabetic Nephropathy

Diabetic nephropathy may be defined clinically as an increase in urinary protein excretion to levels persistently above 0.5 g/24 h in diabetics without cardiac insufficiency or renal tract infection [1]. Those patients who develop clinical diabetic nephropathy have a poor prognosis [52, 53]. Approximately 50% will die within 7 years after onset of proteinuria, and in the remainder impaired renal function will proceed inexorably [52, 54]. The causes of death in insulin dependent patients suffering from diabetic nephropathy include uraemia (80%), myocardial infarction (10%), and 10% due to other causes [1].

About 30% of young onset insulin dependent diabetics will develop persistent proteinuria [1]. The remainder may never develop this complication

despite very long duration of disease [1]. The risk of developing diabetic nephropathy in insulin dependent diabetics has been shown to be significantly higher in males than in females, and significantly higher in diabetics with onset between 0–10 years of age, than in diabetics with onset of diabetes between 11 and 30 years of age [52]. Genetic factors may in part explain these differences. In insulin independent diabetics the genetic trait of chlorpropamide-induced alcohol flushing seems to protect against the development of diabetic nephropathy [55].

It is not known why some insulin dependent diabetics gradually increase the urinary albumin excretion from normal or microalbuminuric levels to gross proteinuria, or why persisting glomerular hyperfunction in such cases changes to a rapid decline in GFR. The increase in albuminuria does not seem to be preceded by a decrease of GFR [8, 56] nor by an increase in blood pressure [57]. Newly diagnosed insulin-dependent diabetics may demonstrate a slightly increased blood pressure [58], but this increase is difficult to demonstrate later in the disease. Not until the development of clinical diabetic nephropathy does blood pressure begin to increase significantly and seem to serve as an accelerating factor in the progression of diabetic nephropathy. Thus blood pressure per se does not seem to be responsible for the development of diabetic nephropathy, but might well contribute to the progression of the kidney disease [56]. Furthermore, effective antihypertensive treatment may help to ameliorate the progression of diabetic nephropathy [59].

It has been suggested that insulin dependent diabetes may cause a severely increased rigidity of the walls of the intralobular renal arterioles, impairing their ability to change calibre, e. g. during vigorous exercise [60]. These defects could lead to increased vessel wall stress increasing protein entry into the walls of small arterioles and enhancing connective tissue synthesis. The response may be similar to that seen in hypertension or to changes occurring following mechanical endothelial damage. Increased intralobular arteriosclerosis has been found in diabetics with renal insufficiency compared with diabetics with glomerulosclerosis but without renal failure [60]. The loss of tone in renal arteries may impair their ability to protect the glomeruli from elevated pressures. If so, the consequent exposure of diabetic glomeruli to increased intracapillary pressure may accelerate their destruction. This hypothesis underlines the importance of haemodynamic factors in the pathogenesis of diabetic nephropathy [46, 48].

Another explanation for the rather sudden increase of microalbuminuria to the level of gross proteinuria in some insulin-dependent diabetics might

include a specific change of the glomerular barrier-function in these patients [61]. An increased size of gap junctions or pores in glomerular capillary walls, however, has not been found. On the other hand, loss of perm-selectivity properties of the glomerular capillary wall, and impaired shape-discrimination for large molecules in diabetics with nephrotic syndrome and severely reduced GFR have been described [61]. Foot process degeneration with detachment of epithelial cells and denudation of the underlying glomerular basement membrane, recently described in advanced diabetic nephropathy, may provide the structural basis for this phenomenon [62]. More extensive physiological and morphological studies are desirable in order to clarify further if the functional and morphological changes found early in Type 1 (insulin dependent) diabetes have a causal relationship to the late development of clinical diabetic nephropathy.

Prevention and Reversal of Diabetic Renal Alterations

As alluded to above, the early alterations in GFR, RPF, renal size, mesangial mass and urinary loss of albumin remain amenable to normalization with improved control of the diabetic state. The point at which these alterations become unresponsive to treatment has not been determined in man. The evidence from experiments in rats emphasizes the resilience of the diabetic kidney in that substantial amelioration of diabetic renal lesions can be achieved with improved diabetic control [43]. However, reversal of the renal pathology of diabetes mellitus in man has not been demonstrated. Similar studies in man which demonstrate that good control can prevent the renal lesions are still lacking. Until now, excellent regulation of blood glucose by subcutaneous insulin infusion has not significantly reduced the protein excretion in patients with diabetic nephropathy [34], and therefore the question whether good metabolic control will prevent diabetic nephropathy in insulin dependent diabetes has yet to be solved. Epidemiological studies [63] lend support to the concept that metabolic control does correlate with the development of proteinuria. However, additional efforts must be directed towards the expansion of such studies in man.

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