

1 Body composition and weakness of hand grip strength and pinch strength in
2 patients with chronic kidney disease from different ethnic backgrounds

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5 Abstract

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7 Background

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9 Chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients commonly report muscle

10 weakness and fatigue. Losing muscle mass increases mortality, so we wished

11 to determine the main factors associated with loss of muscle mass and

12 weakness.

13 Methods

14 Anthropometric measurements were made in CKD patients attending a

15 specialised clinic, along with hand grip strength (HGS), pinch strength (PS)

16 and body composition (muscle mass and fat mass) using segmental

17 bioimpedance assessment.

18 Results

19 We reviewed the results of 161 CKD patients; 105 male (65.2%), mean

20 age 70.3 ± 15 years, body mass index (BMI) 28.8 ± 6.7 kg/m². In multivariable

21 models both HGS and PS were independently negatively associated with age

22 (standardised β (St β -0.35 (95% confidence limits (CL) -0.32 to -0.14) and St

23 β -0.38 (-0.65 to -0.02), $p < 0.001$ respectively, and positively with appendicular

24 muscle in the arm tested (St β 0.34 (2.5-6.3) and St β 0.24 (0.17-0.98),

25 $p < 0.001$ and $p = 0.006$, respectively. In addition, HGS was associated with

26 male gender (St β 0.19 (0.7-7.5), $p = 0.019$), and negatively with % body fat (St

27 β -0.22 (-0.36 to -0.07), $p = 0.003$). There were 47 (29.2%) Asian patients who

28 had lower total skeletal muscle mass/height ratio and appendicular muscle

29 mass/BMI ratio compared to other ethnicities (9.6 ± 1.8 vs 10.5 ± 1.6 kg/m²;
30 $p<0.01$ and 0.73 ± 0.23 vs 0.83 ± 0.33 m², $p<0.01$).

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32 Conclusions.

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34 In CKD patients, we found that muscle weakness measured by HGS
35 and PS was associated with increasing age and loss of appendicular muscle
36 mass. HGS was also weaker with increasing fat mass and female gender,
37 whereas PS was weaker in patients of Asian ethnicity.

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40 Introduction

41 Chronic kidney disease (CKD), as defined by a condition which impairs
42 kidney function, affects more than three million United Kingdom (UK) citizens.
43 CKD patients frequently report symptoms of muscle weakness, fatigue and
44 muscle wasting leading to reduced quality of life, increased morbidity and
45 mortality risk.¹⁻³ CKD patients may be potentially at greater risk of sarcopenia
46 compared to other patient groups due to the retention of uraemic toxins,
47 anaemia, CKD-bone mineral disease (CKD-BMD), vitamin D deficiency,
48 metabolic acidosis, inflammation with increased catabolism, mitochondrial
49 dysfunction coupled with dietary restrictions, and reduced physical activity.^{1,4}

50 Clinical practice has changed over the last two decades with the
51 availability of erythropoietin stimulating agents to treat anaemia, vitamin D
52 analogues to aid the management of CKD-BMD, and bicarbonate
53 supplementation to correct metabolic acidosis. As such we wished to review

54 which factors in today's clinical practice were associated with muscle
55 weakness.

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57 Materials and Methods

58 CKD patients attending a specialist university hospital clinic were
59 reviewed by a single dietician. Physical activity and muscle strength were
60 assessed by using the Sarc-F questionnaire.⁵ At the same visit
61 anthropometric measurements of height, weight, and triceps skin fold
62 thickness (TSF), mid upper arm circumference (MUAC), mid arm muscle
63 circumference (MAMC) using a non-stretch tape measure and the Harpenden
64 skinfold calliper (HSB-BI, Baty International Ltd, West Sussex, UK) and
65 corrected mid-upper arm muscle area (CMUAMA) calculated,⁶ along with
66 hand grip strength (HGS) (Kern MAP 80K1, Kern & Sohn GmbH Co.,
67 Balingen, Germany) and pinch strength (PS) (Jamar digital plus, Lafayette
68 Instrument, Lafayette, USA), and body composition using bioimpedance, as
69 part of the standard dietetic clinical assessment.⁷⁻⁸ The highest value of three
70 HGS and PS measurements were recorded.

71 Bioimpedance assessment measurements were made following a
72 standardised protocol with an 8 electrode multi-frequency segmental
73 bioimpedance device (MFBIA) (InBody 720, Seoul, South Korea), which was
74 regularly serviced and calibrated, and previously validated against dual-
75 energy x-ray absorptiometry.⁹⁻¹⁰ Patients with implantable cardiac devices,
76 amputations, infected foot ulcers and those with limb atrophy were excluded.

77 Patient laboratory data, medications, and Stoke-Davies co-morbidity
78 were obtained from hospital computer records.¹¹ Sarcopenia was defined

79 using the 2019 European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People
80 (EWGSOP) and 2020 Asian Working Group (AWG) for Sarcopenia algorithms
81 .^{2,12}

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83 Statistical analysis

84 Data was checked for normality, and data expressed as mean \pm
85 standard deviation, or median (interquartile range), with comparisons made
86 using standard statistical tests (t test, Mann Whitney U test, ANOVA and
87 Kruskal Wallis, Chi square), with adjustments for small numbers and
88 appropriate post-hoc testing (Tukey and Games-Howell). Univariate analysis
89 was by Spearman correlation, and a multivariable regression analysis was
90 performed using a step backward approach, using all variables with a $p < 0.1$
91 correlation, with variables excluded if not statistically significant, unless they
92 improved the model fit. Models were checked for collinearity and variable
93 inflation factor. Analyses were conducted with standard analytical tools (Prism
94 8.4. Graph Pad, San Diego and IBM SPSS version 25, IBM Armonk, New
95 York, USA).

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97 Ethics

98 Our retrospective audit of clinical practice complied with the UK
99 National Health Service (NHS) health research authority guidelines for clinical
100 audit and service development with all patient data anonymised
101 (<https://www.hra.nhs.uk>), and approved and registered with the University
102 Hospital.

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107 Results

108 Contemporaneous data was available for 161 patients (table 1). The
109 majority of patients were male, and almost 50% were diabetic. Underlying
110 renal disease was thought to be due to diabetes 32.3%, ischaemia or
111 hypertension in 29.8%, interstitial renal diseases 18.6%, unclassified 12.4%
112 and glomerular diseases 6.8%. The majority were of white ethnicity, followed
113 by Asian, all but one South-Asian and then Black, 3 patients were of another
114 ethnicity. The median Sarc-F score was 2, with around 33% of patients having
115 an increased Sarc-F score of 4 or more. Asian patients had lower strength,
116 both HGS and PS, when compared to all other ethnicities (Figure 1), and also
117 had lower total skeletal muscle mass (SMM) and lower SMM adjusted for
118 height compared to other ethnicities (Figure 2). Appendicular muscle mass
119 (APM) and APM adjusted for body mass index were lower in Asians compared
120 to other ethnicities (20.8 ± 7.7 vs 22.5 ± 5.3 kg, $p<0.05$; and 0.73 ± 0.23 vs
121 0.83 ± 0.33 m², $p<0.05$), as Asians had greater percentage of body fat
122 (36.6 ± 11.2 vs $31.6\pm 10.5\%$, $p<0.05$).

123 Using the current EWGSOP and AWGS algorithms defining
124 sarcopenia, then 10% of the African patients fulfilled all criteria, compared to
125 no patients from the other ethnic groups.

126 On univariate regression HGS and PS were positively associated with
127 muscle mass in the dominant arm, skeletal muscle mass, appendicular
128 muscle mass, male gender, haemoglobin, serum albumin and creatinine and

129 negatively associated with age, albumin, Sarc-F score, body fat (Table 2).

130 Neither were associated with eGFR ($r=-0.03$, $p=0.19$ and $r=0.00$, $p=0.98$

131 respectively).

132 In a multivariable regression model HGS was independently associated
133 with muscle mass in the dominant arm and male gender and negatively with
134 age and % body fat (Table 3). PS was again independently associated with
135 muscle mass in the dominant arm, but also Asian ethnicity, and negatively
136 associated with age.

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138 Discussion

139 Whereas the body has fat reserves that can be mobilised, there is no
140 equivalent protein store. As such skeletal muscle, which accounts for around
141 50% of total body protein, is the major physiological reserve, and if proteins or
142 amino acids are required, then skeletal muscle is broken down .1 As
143 individuals age after their mid-30s, then muscle mass tends to be lost. The
144 term sarcopenia was first introduced to differentiate this normal physiological
145 loss of muscle from an accelerated or pathological loss of muscle mass ¹³
146 Using the Sarc-F screening questionnaire around 1/3 of our patients had
147 significantly high enough scores to warrant further investigation for sarcopenia
148 . ^{2,5,12} There have been debates about the relevance of measuring muscle
149 mass in patients with muscle weakness, as infiltration of muscle with fat could
150 potentially maintain muscle bulk . ¹⁴ However, although we found on
151 univariate analysis that there was a negative association between both HGS
152 and PS with measures of body fat, the strongest positive associations with
153 HGS and PS in our patients were with both total body skeletal muscle mass,

154 muscle mass in the dominant arm and total appendicular muscle mass.
155 Compared to earlier studies which used single or multiple frequency
156 bioimpedance devices measuring whole body muscle mass, we were able to
157 measure segmental muscle mass in the arms and legs .¹⁵⁻¹⁷ However, we did
158 not find an association between assessments of muscle mass in the arm
159 based on standard anthropometric methods.

160 Whereas appendicular muscle mass was relatively well maintained,
161 with very few of our patients having sarcopenia according to current clinical
162 guideline definitions,^{2,3,12,18} muscle strength was reduced, particularly in our
163 male patients across ethnic groups, when compared to studies reporting on
164 age equivalent healthy patients.¹⁹⁻²¹ Loss of muscle strength with loss of
165 muscle mass may be due to increased catabolism, associated with
166 inflammation and metabolic acidosis .^{1,22} However, we found no relationship
167 between HGS or PS and serum C reactive protein or bicarbonate, although
168 there was an association with serum albumin. Previous reports have
169 commented on a lower serum albumin in patients with CKD ,⁴ whether this
170 reflects reduced nutritional status ,²³ or is more a marker of inflammation
171 remains debated .²⁴

172 In addition to muscle weakness patients with CKD typically report
173 fatigue. Muscle fatigue could be exacerbated by uraemic solutes, anaemia or
174 vitamin D deficiency.^{14,22} In our study we observed no effect of serum urea,
175 creatinine, estimated renal glomerular filtration rate, stage of CKD, vitamin D
176 levels, or prescription of vitamin D3, or parathyroid hormone on HGS or PS.

177 Patients with CKD have been reported to have reduced active energy
178 expenditure ,²⁵ and exercise programmes have been reported to increase

179 muscle strength,²⁶⁻²⁷ reduce fatigue and improve quality of life.²⁸ The Sarc-F
180 questionnaire provides some information about physical fitness and there was
181 a univariate association between muscle strength and lower Sarc-F scores,
182 whereas there was no such association with co-morbidity scores.

183 We noted that patients from an Asian background had lower muscle
184 mass compared to white and black patients and had a lower appendicular
185 muscle mass compared to other ethnicities.^{12,29} This supports previous
186 reports in kidney dialysis patients and has been recognised by guideline
187 committees which have proposed different parameters for defining sarcopenia
188 in Asian patients compared to European.^{2,12,18} Not only is muscle mass lost
189 with age, but there is often an increase in truncal fat as people age, and this
190 has led to the concept of sarcopenic obesity,¹⁴ and our Asian patients had a
191 higher appendicular muscle mass to body mass index ratio compared to other
192 ethnicities.

193 We report on a cohort of CKD patients attending a specialist CKD clinic
194 designed to prepare patients for dialysis, pre-emptive transplantation or
195 conservative care. As such, our patients were receiving treatment for
196 anaemia, metabolic acidosis, CKD-bone mineral disease and cardiovascular
197 risk factors, including blood pressure and fluid management. Unlike previous
198 studies which reported only a weak statistical association between muscle
199 mass and HGS in CKD patients,³⁰ suggesting a divergence between muscle
200 mass and function, by using segmental bioimpedance we demonstrated a
201 very much stronger association between measurements of limb muscle mass
202 and muscle strength.

203 Although CKD patients have many potential causes as to why they
204 may be at greater risk of muscle weakness and fatigue ranging from anaemia,
205 to metabolic causes including loss of renal function with retention of uraemic
206 toxins, acidosis, vitamin D deficiency, hyperparathyroidism, inflammation with
207 increased catabolism, to reduced physical activity, we found that loss of
208 muscle strength as assessed by HGS was independently associated with
209 increasing age and body fat, female gender and loss of muscle in the arm.
210 Similarly, weak PS was associated with increasing age and loss of muscle
211 mass in the arm, but also Asian ethnicity. As such, in the modern era, by
212 treating anaemia with erythropoietin stimulating agents, correcting metabolic
213 acidosis and treating vitamin D deficiency, the main causes of muscle
214 weakness in CKD patients are age, and the associates of age, loss of
215 appendicular muscle and gain in body fat.

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385 Figure 1. Hand grip strength (HGS) and pinch gauge strength (PS) in Asian
386 patients and other ethnicities. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ vs other ethnicities. Data
387 expressed as median, interquartile and 95% confidence limits

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396 Figure 2. Skeletal muscle mass (SMM) and SMM indexed for height (SMMI) in
397 Asian patients and other ethnicities. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ vs other ethnicities.
398 Data expressed as median, interquartile and 95% confidence limits

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