Hypertension and low HDL cholesterol were associated with reduced kidney function across the age spectrum: a collaborative study

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A B S T R A C T

Purpose: To determine if the associations among established risk factors and reduced kidney function vary by age.

Methods: We pooled cross-sectional data from 14,788 nondiabetics aged 40 to 100 years in 4 studies: Cardiovascular Health Study, Health, Aging, and Body Composition Study, Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis, and Prevention of Renal and Vascular End-Stage Disease cohort.

Results: Hypertension and low high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol were associated with reduced cystatin C-based estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) across the age spectrum. In adjusted analyses, hypertension was associated with a 2.3 (95% confidence interval [CI], 0.1, 4.4), 5.1 (95% CI, 4.1, 6.1), and 6.9 (95% CI, 3.0, 10.4) mL/min/1.73 m² lower eGFR in participants 40 to 59, 60 to 79, and at least 80 years, respectively (P for interaction < .001). The association of low HDL cholesterol with reduced kidney function was also greater in the older age groups: 4.9 (95% CI, 3.5, 6.3), 7.1 (95% CI, 6.0, 8.3), 8.9 (95% CI, 5.4, 11.9) mL/min/1.73 m² (P for interaction < .001). Smoking and obesity were associated with reduced kidney function in participants under 80 years. All estimates of the potential population impact of the risk factors were modest.

Conclusions: Hypertension, obesity, smoking, and low HDL cholesterol are modestly associated with reduced kidney function in nondiabetics. The associations of hypertension and HDL cholesterol with reduced kidney function seem to be stronger in older adults.

Introduction

There is emerging evidence that the risk factor profile for cardiovascular events is different in older compared with younger adults. Some traditional cardiovascular risk factors, such as total cholesterol, hypertension, and obesity, seem to have weaker associations with cardiovascular events in older persons [1–5]. Although prior research has demonstrated associations between high blood pressure, smoking, obesity, and dyslipidemia with reduced kidney function [6–10], there are fewer data on the associations across the age spectrum [11]. The risk factor profile for reduced kidney function is similar to that of cardiovascular events; therefore, one might postulate that these associations may also vary with age. A thorough understanding of the risk factors for reduced

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kidney function across the age spectrum is essential to determine the optimal targets to prevent kidney disease over the life course. A limitation of some studies of kidney disease in older adults is the use of creatinine-based measures of kidney function. Creatinine is a byproduct of muscle mass, and is less accurate for assessing kidney function in older adults, who often have reduced muscle mass. Cystatin C is an alternative measure of kidney function that is a more accurate estimate of glomerular filtration rate compared with serum creatinine in the elderly, because it is not influenced by muscle mass [12–14].

The present study had two main objectives: (1) To compare the association of major clinical risk factors and reduced kidney function that was evaluated by cystatin C levels and assessed across the age spectrum and (2) to estimate the population-level impact of the risk factors, based on population intervention models [15]. Because the effect of risk factors across the age spectrum is especially unclear in the development of nondiabetic kidney disease, we limited the present study to nondiabetics. By the combination of data from four studies on nearly 15,000 nondiabetics aged 40 to 100 years, we have the opportunity to examine these relationships in a large sample of middle-aged and older adults.

Subjects and methods

Study population

We combined cross-sectional data from 14,788 nondiabetics in the Cardiovascular Health Study (CHS), the Health, Aging, and Body Composition Study (Health ABC), the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA), and the Prevention of Renal and Vascular End-Stage Disease cohort (PREVEND).

The CHS aimed to evaluate risk factors for the development and progression of cardiovascular disease in the elderly [16]. The study recruited persons from Medicare eligibility lists in Forsyth County, North Carolina; Sacramento County, California; Washington County, Maryland; and Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania in 1989 through 1990 for the original cohort and 1992 through 1993 for a supplementary enrollment period designed to increase the number of African-American participants. To be considered eligible for the study, persons had to meet the following criteria: (1) age 65 years or older, (2) not institutionalized, (3) expected to remain in the current community for 3 years or longer, (4) not under active treatment for cancer, and (5) able to give informed consent without requiring a proxy respondent.

The Health ABC study was designed to examine the relation between age-related changes of health and body composition and incident functional limitations in initially well-functioning black and white adults aged 70 to 79 years. Each of the two study sites—Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and Memphis, Tennessee—recruited participants from a list of Medicare beneficiaries between April 1997 and June 1998. Inclusion criteria were (1) reported ability to walk one-quarter mile, climb 10 steps, and perform basic activities of daily living without difficulty, (2) absence of life-threatening illness, and (3) plan to remain in the geographic area for at least 3 years.

MESA is a cohort of men and women, aged 45 to 84 years, and free of clinical cardiovascular disease at baseline, designed to examine progression from subclinical to clinical cardiovascular disease in adults [17]. The cohort is approximately 38% white, 28% African-American, 23% Hispanic, and 11% Asian (of Chinese descent). Participants were recruited from six field centers (New York, NY; Baltimore, MD; Chicago, IL; Los Angeles, CA; Minneapolis/St. Paul, MN, and Winston Salem, NC) with a variety of population-based approaches from 2000 to 2002.

The PREVEND study is a prospective cohort that includes inhabitants aged 28 to 75 of the city of Groningen, The Netherlands, in 1997 and 1998. The study was designed to investigate the natural course of urinary albumin excretion and its impact on renal and cardiovascular disease. The present study includes the subsample of the original cohort that is representative of the general population of Groningen [18,19].

We have previously published results from this Collaborative Study group, and carefully examined study populations and variable definition to ensure comparability across the studies [20]. We restricted the study population to nondiabetic participants aged 40 years and older with measured cystatin C; this included 4276 participants in the CHS (aged 65–100), 2471 participants in the Health ABC study (aged 69–80), 5748 participants in MESA (aged 45–84), and 2293 participants in PREVEND (aged 40–75).

This study has been approved by all relevant institutional review boards.

Kidney function

Three of the four studies (CHS, Heath ABC, and MESA) measured cystatin C by the same protocol and laboratory at the University of Vermont, and the PREVEND study used the same method at the University of Groningen laboratory. Cystatin C was measured in all studies by a BNII nephelometer (Dade Behring Inc., Deerfield, IL) that utilizes a particle enhanced immunonephelometric assay (N Latex Cystatin-C) [21]. The assay range is 0.195 to 7.330 mg/L. Intra-assay coefficients of variation range from 2.0% to 2.8% and interassay coefficients of variation range from 2.3% to 3.1%. Samples were measured from frozen plasma (CHS and Health ABC) or serum (MESA and PREVEND) that had been stored at –70 °C (CHS, Health ABC, MESA) or –20 °C (PREVEND). Cystatin C was measured in 2001 (PREVEND), 2003 (CHS), 2004 (Health ABC), and 2006 (MESA). Studies have shown that cystatin C is stable when frozen, and can withstand several freeze/thaw cycles. To ensure the comparability of the University of Vermont and PREVEND laboratories, we ran a comparison study of 101 samples. The correlation between the sets was 0.97, the coefficient of variation was 6%, and the mean difference was 0.055 mg/L, which was not associated with the mean concentration.

Creatinine concentration was used as a comparative measure of kidney function and was assayed by means of a colorimetric technique based on the enzymatic method (CHS and PREVEND; Ektachem 700, Eastman Kodak, Rochester, NY; Health ABC and MESA: Johnson & Johnson [New Brunswick, NJ] VITROS 950 Chemistry Analyzer).

We calculated cystatin C-based estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) based on the cystatin C equation (eGFR = cystatin C \( \times 70.7 \)) developed by the Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration group [22].

Other variables

Participants were excluded if they had diabetes, defined as self-reported history, fasting glucose of 126 mg/dL or higher, or oral glucose tolerance test of 200 mg/dL or higher. Plasma glucose values in PREVEND were transformed to whole blood values using an internally validated correction factor [23,24]. We categorized risk factors as present or absent based on clinically recognized definitions. Risk factors for kidney disease in this analysis included hypertension (self-reported history, medication use, or systolic blood pressure >140 mmHg or diastolic blood pressure >90 mmHg), obesity (body mass index >30 kg/m²), smoking (former or current), high low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol (>130 mg/dL).
or medication use), or low HDL cholesterol (<40 mg/dL in men, <50 mg/dL in women).

Age, gender, and race were determined by self-report. Income was classified into four levels: <$12,000 ($10,000 in Health ABC), $12,000 to 25,000, $25,000 to 50,000, and $50,000 and over; and a similar 4-level categorical variable in PREVEND participants (in The Netherlands). Alcohol use was classified as none in the past year, less than 1 drink per week (2 drinks in PREVEND), one to seven drinks per week, and more than 1 drink per day. History of cardiovascular disease was defined as a history of coronary artery disease, peripheral vascular disease, or cerebrovascular disease.

Statistical analysis

We summarized baseline characteristics of participants and risk factors across age groups (40–59, 60–79, and ≥80 years). We next calculated the mean difference in cystatin C in participants with and without the risk factors for kidney disease, within each of the age strata. To account for potential confounders we modeled cystatin C as the outcome variable in a linear model that included hypertension, obesity, smoking, high LDL cholesterol, low HDL cholesterol, study, age, gender, race, income, alcohol use, and history of cardiovascular disease and heart failure. For the linear models, we used targeted maximum likelihood estimation to estimate the marginal difference in kidney function in participants with and without the risk factors of interest. This estimator is similar to traditional likelihood methods, except it incorporates information from both the outcome model and a model of the risk factor of interest, and produces consistent estimates if either model is correctly specified [25–27]. These models were conducted within each of the age strata to allow the risk factor and confounder associations to vary across the age. The $P$ for the age category and risk factor interactions were calculated from traditional linear regression models, adjusted for all potential confounders. We transformed the marginal differences in cystatin C concentrations into eGFR.

To calculate the population impact of preventing a risk factor, we used population intervention models [15]. This method is similar to a population-attributable fraction in that the measure takes into account both the prevalence of the risk factor and the magnitude of the association. For these analyses, we again used linear models with targeted maximum likelihood estimation to estimate the mean difference in level of kidney function between the observed population and a theoretical population in which participants did not have the risk factor, but all other measured characteristics were the same.

To identify the best fit for all models, we used a computer learning algorithm to identify the form of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, based on a combination of forward and backward model fitting and cross-validation [28].

We calculated standard errors based on bootstrap sampling with 2000 replicates. All analyses were conducted in R (The R Foundation, Vienna, Austria).

Results

Kidney function was lower in the older age groups; median cystatin C-based eGFR was 103 in 40- to 59-year-olds, 83 in 60- to 79-year-olds, and 66 mL/min/1.73 m$^2$ in participants 80 and older ($P < .001$). On average, participants 80 years and older, who were predominantly from the CHS, were more likely to be Black or White/other race, and less likely to be Asian or Latino (Table 1). Older participants also reported lower annual income, and less alcohol use and current smoking. Older participants had slightly lower average body mass index, diastolic blood pressure and LDL cholesterol, higher systolic blood pressure, fasting glucose, and HDL cholesterol were more likely to use antihypertensive medications, and were more likely to report a history of cardiovascular disease or heart failure.

The prevalence of hypertension in participants 80 years and older was over double that of participants 40 to 59 years old (Table 1). In contrast, the prevalence of smoking, obesity, high LDL cholesterol, and low HDL cholesterol were lower in older age groups compared with younger age groups.

Association of risk factors with reduced kidney function, across age groups

The presence of hypertension was associated with reduced cystatin C-based kidney function across all age groups (Table 2), and this association was stronger in the older age groups. In adjusted analyses, hypertension was associated with a 2.3 (95% CI, 0.1, 4.4), 5.1 (95% CI, 4.1, 6.1), and 6.9 mL/min/1.73 m$^2$ (95% CI, 3.0, 10.4) lower eGFR in participants 40 to 59, 60 to 79, and at least 80 years, respectively ($P$ for interaction < .001). The estimates for the association of smoking and reduced kidney function appeared similar across the age spectrum. The estimates of association of smoking and obesity and reduced kidney function reached statistical significance only in adults younger than 80 years in both unadjusted and adjusted models. Elevated LDL cholesterol was only statistically significantly associated with reduced cystatin C-based kidney

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>40–59 years (n = 4151)</th>
<th>60–79 years (n = 9887)</th>
<th>≥80 years (n = 750)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age (yrs)</td>
<td>51 ± 5</td>
<td>71 ± 5</td>
<td>83 ± 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2228 (54%)</td>
<td>5642 (57%)</td>
<td>412 (55%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>683 (17%)</td>
<td>2247 (23%)</td>
<td>150 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>337 (8%)</td>
<td>355 (4%)</td>
<td>29 (4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latino</td>
<td>580 (14%)</td>
<td>550 (6%)</td>
<td>47 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White/other</td>
<td>2517 (61%)</td>
<td>6732 (68%)</td>
<td>524 (70%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>$&lt;25,000</td>
<td>$25,000 to 50,000</td>
<td>$50,000 to over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>1274 (31%)</td>
<td>4684 (51%)</td>
<td>432 (64%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>2804 (69%)</td>
<td>4524 (49%)</td>
<td>245 (36%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoking</td>
<td>2851 (69%)</td>
<td>5352 (54%)</td>
<td>354 (48%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol use (in past year)</td>
<td>1797 (42%)</td>
<td>4422 (45%)</td>
<td>457 (61%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fasting glucose (mg/dL)</td>
<td>89 ± 12</td>
<td>96 ± 11</td>
<td>99 ± 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDL cholesterol (mg/dL)</td>
<td>51 ± 15</td>
<td>55 ± 16</td>
<td>55 ± 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High BP</td>
<td>128 ± 36</td>
<td>127 ± 35</td>
<td>122 ± 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardiovascular disease</td>
<td>85 (23%)</td>
<td>2010 (17%)</td>
<td>227 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of heart failure</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>181 (23%)</td>
<td>34 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHS</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>3781 (38%)</td>
<td>495 (66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health ABC</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2454 (25%)</td>
<td>17 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MESA</td>
<td>2570 (62%)</td>
<td>2940 (30%)</td>
<td>238 (32%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREVEND</td>
<td>1581 (38%)</td>
<td>712 (7%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk factor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>1192 (29%)</td>
<td>6172 (62%)</td>
<td>578 (77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoking (current or former)</td>
<td>2379 (58%)</td>
<td>5440 (55%)</td>
<td>293 (39%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obesity</td>
<td>1061 (26%)</td>
<td>2145 (22%)</td>
<td>97 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High LDL cholesterol</td>
<td>1939 (47%)</td>
<td>4990 (51%)</td>
<td>321 (43%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low HDL cholesterol</td>
<td>1478 (36%)</td>
<td>2748 (30%)</td>
<td>238 (32%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BMI = body mass index; CHS = Cardiovascular Health Study; HDL = high-density lipoprotein; Health ABC = Health, Aging, and Body Composition Study; LDL = low-density lipoprotein; MESA = Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis; PREVEND = Prevention of Renal and Vascular End-Stage Disease cohort; SD = standard deviation. Values are presented as means ± standard deviation or n (%).
The estimates of the population level impact of smoking and participants 40 to 59, 60 to 79, and at least 80 years, respectively. (95% CI, 1.9, 2.7), and 3.1 mL/min/1.73 m² (95% CI, 1.8, 4.3) lower to be only slightly greater at older ages: 2.0 (95% CI, 1.4, 2.6), 2.3 (95% CI, 1.9, 2.7), and 3.1 mL/min/1.73 m² (95% CI, 1.8, 4.3) lower.

Fig. 1. Projected potential population impact of the risk factors on cystatin C-based eGFR in nondiabetics; estimates were adjusted for all risk factors, study, age, gender, race, income, alcohol use, and history of cardiovascular disease and heart failure.

The potential population impact of hypertension was greater in the older age groups: 4.9 (95% CI, 3.5, 6.3), 7.1 (95% CI, 6.0, 8.3), 8.9 mL/min/1.73 m² (95% CI, 5.4, 11.9; \( P \) for interaction < .001). For comparison, we estimated the mean difference in creatinine-based eGFR associated with the risk factors; the estimates were smaller for all of the risk factors except for LDL cholesterol (Appendix).

Population intervention models of risk factors

The potential population impact of hypertension was greater in the older age groups (Fig. 1). Based on the associations presented above, the theoretical elimination of hypertension would result in a marginal increase of 0.9 (95% CI, 0.3, 1.5), 3.4 (95% CI, 2.7, 2.1), and 5.7 mL/min/1.73 m² (95% CI, 2.1, 9.0) lower cystatin C-based eGFR in participants 40 to 59, 60 to 79, and at least 80 years, respectively. The estimates of the population level impact of smoking and obesity on kidney function were modest among participants aged 40 to 59 and 60 to 79 years, and were not significant in participants 80 and older. The estimated impact of low HDL cholesterol seemed to be only slightly greater at older ages: 2.0 (95% CI, 1.4, 2.6), 2.3 (95% CI, 1.9, 2.7), and 3.1 mL/min/1.73 m² (95% CI, 1.8, 4.3) lower.

cystatin C-based eGFR in participants 40–59, 60–79, and at least 80 years, respectively.

Discussion

In a large, multistudy sample of nondiabetics, we found an association of hypertension with reduced kidney function, across the age spectrum. Owing to the increasing prevalence of hypertension with age, the potential population impact of hypertension on reduced kidney function was higher among older compared with younger adults. We also found that low HDL cholesterol had the strongest association with reduced kidney function; however, the population impact was lower than hypertension because of the relatively smaller prevalence of low HDL cholesterol. Low HDL cholesterol is an important cardiovascular risk factor across the age spectrum, and our findings demonstrate that it should be investigated further as a renal risk factor.

In a recent study from National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, investigators reported that the association of hypertension with stage 3 or 4 chronic kidney disease diminished with older age (\( P = .038 \) for trend) [11]. The authors used prevalence ratios for the main analysis, which they note are dependent on the baseline risk; they also reported that a similar trend was observed with absolute difference measures, although the data were not shown. In addition, the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey used creatinine-based measures of kidney function, which are less accurate for estimating eGFR in older adults [12,14]. In the present study, the estimates for the difference in kidney function associated with hypertension and low HDL cholesterol were attenuated when we used a creatinine-based eGFR.

We found that low HDL cholesterol was associated with reduced kidney function across the age spectrum. Our findings are consistent with prior literature that has reported HDL cholesterol is an important risk factor for kidney disease [8–10]. Some have hypothesized that a pathologic process similar to atherosclerosis mediates this relationship in the kidney [29]. Additionally, HDL cholesterol is inversely associated with inflammation, which may also affect kidney function [30]. In contrast, LDL cholesterol was associated only with reduced creatinine-based kidney function. The evidence for an association of LDL cholesterol and reduced kidney function has been less robust compared with HDL cholesterol [10], and randomized clinical trials have found mixed effects of statins in persons with chronic kidney disease [31–33].

We found that obesity was associated with reduced kidney function in adults younger than 80 years of age. Prior studies have reported that obesity is an important risk factor for kidney disease [78]. It is not surprising that this association was not observed in adults over 80 years old, because the effect of obesity on many health outcomes seems to be diminished in older adults. In
addition, the prevalence of obesity in the oldest age group was half that of the younger age group, which could indicate those who were susceptible to the adverse effects of obesity might have been lost to competing risks before study initiation. Smoking has been reported to be a risk factor for kidney disease [6,8], likely owing to its adverse effects on the microvasculature. The estimate for the association between smoking and reduced kidney function only reached statistical significance in adults under 80 years, although all estimates were consistently in the harmful direction. The smaller magnitude of the association in the oldest age group could be because of the competing risk of mortality and the high proportion of past smokers compared with current smokers in this age group.

A strength of the present study is the estimation of the potential population impact of hypertension, smoking, obesity, LDL cholesterol, and HDL cholesterol, based on population intervention models [15]; this is the first time these models have been applied to examine renal risk factors. This conceptual measure estimates the impact of eliminating the risk factor in a population, under the assumption that the risk factor is causally related to kidney function. Although we cannot determine the direction of causality in the present study, the strength of this method is that it accounts for both the strength of the association of the risk factor with kidney function and the prevalence of the factor in the study population. Traditionally, the population attributable risk has been used as a measure that incorporates both the magnitude of association and prevalence of the risk factor. However, most researchers implement the method incorrectly [34] and do not properly account for confounding [15]. It is noteworthy that the estimates of potential population impact were modest in the present study.

Additional strengths of our study include the combination of data from four large, community-based studies across the age spectrum, the use of cystatin C as a marker of kidney function, the use of difference in mean models, which are not dependent on baseline risk. The primary limitation of this study is that the use of cross-sectional data prohibits us from observing the impact of risk factors over time, and do not allow for conclusions on a causal relationship. It is possible that there is an impact of reduced kidney function on some of the risk factors; for example, kidney disease also likely increases the risk of hypertension. Also, participants with hypertension were frequently using antihypertensive medications, and the cross-sectional design of our study precludes our ability to separate the effects of hypertension and antihypertensive medication use on kidney function. In addition, we simplified the classification of the risk factors into clinically relevant binary variables to compare the magnitude of the associations; however, different levels of the risk factors may have different meaning across the age groups. Another limitation is that we did not have information on the history of exposure to the risk factors; it is possible older participants had a longer history of the risk factors, which may have influenced the magnitude of the associations. Given these limitations, our findings provide a strong rationale to prospectively study age dependent effects of risk factor associated decline in kidney function. Finally, our study did not include a direct measure of the glomerular filtration rate.

In summary, hypertension, smoking, obesity, and low HDL cholesterol are associated with reduced kidney function in nondiabetics. The associations of hypertension and HDL cholesterol seem to be from moderate to strong across the age spectrum, and the population impact of these risk factors is greater at older ages. Our study provides important evidence to consider that risk factors may differ across age groups. Longitudinal studies that evaluate the association of these risk factors and reduced kidney function across the life course will allow investigators to better unravel the causal pathways underlying these associations, and to identify optimal preventive strategies to preserve kidney function at older ages.

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The results presented in this paper are our original work, and have not been published previously in whole or part. The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Appendix

Creatinine-based measure of kidney function

For comparison, we estimated the marginal difference in creatinine-based eGFR associated with the prevalence of each of the risk factors. Creatinine-based eGFR was based on an equation developed by the Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration group that includes creatinine, age, gender, and race [16]. The presence of hypertension was associated with a 0.9 (95% CI, −0.1, 2.0), 2.8 (95% CI, 1.9, 3.6), and 2.8 mL/min/1.73 m² (95% CI, −1.6, 7.2) lower creatinine-based eGFR in participants 40 to 59, 60 to 79, and at least 80 years, respectively (P for interaction < .001). None of the estimates for the associations of smoking or obesity were associated with lower creatinine-based eGFR. High LDL cholesterol was associated with a 1.1 (95% CI, 0.3, 1.9), 1.4 (95% CI, 0.9, 2.0), and 2.8 mL/min/1.73 m² (95% CI, 0.6, 5.0) lower creatinine-based eGFR in participants 40 to 59, 60 to 79, and at least 80 years, respectively (P for interaction = .40). Low HDL cholesterol was associated with a −0.5 (95% CI, −1.3, 0.4), 1.6 (95% CI, 0.5, 2.7), and 5.4 mL/min/1.73 m² (95% CI, 3.0, 7.7) lower creatinine-based eGFR in participants 40 to 59, 60 to 79, and at least 80 years, respectively (P for interaction < .001).

References