

Sarcopenia is an independent predictor of hospitalization in chronic kidney disease outpatients.

Short Title: Sarcopenia predicts hospitalization in chronic kidney disease outpatients

Hye Yun Jeong<sup>1</sup>, Wooyeol Ahn<sup>2</sup>, Jun Chul Kim<sup>3</sup>, Yu Bum Choi<sup>1</sup>, Jinkwon Kim<sup>4</sup>, Hak Hoon Jun<sup>5</sup>, Soonchul Lee<sup>6</sup>, Dong Ho Yang<sup>1</sup>, Jisu Oh<sup>1</sup>, Jinkun Bae<sup>7\*</sup>, So-Young Lee<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Internal Medicine, CHA Bundang Medical Center, CHA University School of Medicine, Seongnam

<sup>2</sup>CHA University School of Medicine, Pocheon

<sup>3</sup>Department of Internal Medicine, CHA Gumi Medical Center, CHA University School of Medicine, Gumi

<sup>4</sup>Department of Neurology, CHA Bundang Medical Center, CHA University School of Medicine, Seongnam

<sup>5</sup>Department of Surgery, CHA Bundang Medical Center, CHA University School of Medicine, Seongnam

<sup>6</sup>Department of Orthopedic Surgery, CHA Bundang Medical Center, CHA University School of Medicine, Seongnam

<sup>7</sup>Department of Emergency Medicine, CHA Bundang Medical Center, CHA University School of Medicine, Seongnam, South Korea.

## Abstract

**Background:** Patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD) experience much more marked and earlier muscle wasting than subjects who do not have chronic illnesses. However, a few studies that have examined sarcopenia have been reported in CKD patients. We investigated the prevalence of sarcopenia in predialysis and dialysis outpatients with CKD and explored its relationship with the clinical outcomes.

**Measurements:** Sarcopenia was defined as reduced muscle strength accompanied by decreased adjusted appendicular skeletal muscle (ASM), while those patients who exhibited only one of these characteristics were categorized as presarcopenic patients. ASM was measured by bioimpedance analysis, and muscle strength was evaluated by handgrips. ASM was adjusted by weight (ASM/wt). Patients were prospectively followed for up to 2 years.

**Results:** One hundred seventy-nine patients were recruited (114 male and 65 female patients who were classified into 103 predialysis patients and 76 dialysis patients, with 44.7% having diabetes). Their mean age was  $60.6 \pm 13.5$  years old. The prevalence of sarcopenia was 9.5%, while 55.9% of the patients were categorized as presarcopenic. The ASM/wt index showed significant correlations with age, handgrip strength, HOMA-IR and frailty scores. Multivariate Cox proportional hazards models demonstrated that the risk of hospitalization was significantly higher for patients with presarcopenia [hazard ratio (HR), 2.48; 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.180–5.230], and the risk of hospitalization was much higher for patients with sarcopenia than for patients in the nonsarcopenic group (HR, 9.11; 95% CI, 2.295–25.182)

**Conclusions:** Sarcopenia and presarcopenia, which were defined using the ASM/wt

index and handgrip strength, predicted a poorer, hospitalization-free survival in CKD patients

**Keywords:** Chronic kidney disease; hemodialysis; hospitalization; presarcopenia; sarcopenia

## Introduction

Sarcopenia is defined as the degenerative loss of skeletal muscle mass and strength associated with aging (1). However, patients with chronic disease experience much more marked and earlier muscle wasting than that of subjects who do not have chronic illnesses (2). Furthermore, sarcopenia not only has been associated with bone loss and a frail phenotype (3, 4) but also has been found to be a major contributor to poor clinical outcomes, including mortality, hospitalization, institutionalization, and disability (5-7).

Although often recognized as a comorbidity of hypertension or diabetes, chronic kidney disease (CKD) by itself contributes to global morbidity and mortality by increasing the risks related to cardiovascular diseases and infection (8, 9). In a report by the World Health Organization, CKD is represented as a single disease with a tremendous economic burden, of which more than 2-3% of the annual healthcare budget is required for the treatment of this disease in high-income countries (10). In this context, it is noteworthy that recent reports have observed close relations between either physical inactivity or low muscle mass and CKD (11-13). Moreover, exercise for muscle training has reportedly resulted in positive effects in this population of patients

(14, 15), which suggests that the detection of muscle failure, along with the resulting appropriate intervention, could improve clinical prognoses in patients with CKD.

Although sarcopenia has been recognized as a disease (via the classification of muscle failure with an ICD-10 code that was established in 2016 (16)), the operational definitions for sarcopenia have long been undetermined, and studies examining the incidence of sarcopenia in patients with CKD are still limited.

In this study, we investigated the prevalence of sarcopenia in predialysis and dialysis outpatients with chronic kidney disease (CKD) according to the Asian Working Group for Sarcopenia (AWGS) recommendation and explored its relationship with clinical outcomes.

## **Methods**

### **Patients**

One hundred three patients with CKD and 76 patients with ESRD on maintenance hemodialysis were recruited and prospectively followed for up to 2 years. The criteria for inclusion in this study included patients who were older than 20 years old with a confirmed diagnosis of CKD [defined as patients who were on dialysis or who had 2 previously estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) values  $< 60$  mL/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup>, which was calculated according to the equation of the Modification of Diet in Renal Disease Study Group and was obtained at an interval of 3-6 months]. Patients were categorized according to CKD stages and Kidney Disease Outcomes Quality Initiative guidelines (17). Patients who were categorized as CKD Stage 5D were on hemodialysis 3 times/wk ( $> 12$  h/wk) for at least 3 months without renal transplantations. All of the participants provided prior written consents. No patients

had a history of cancer, coagulation disorders, or active infection. Any patients who were unable to ambulate, either with or without assistive devices, or had insufficient cognitive function to communicate with the interviewer were excluded. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of our Medical Center.

### **Grip Strength and Physical Performance**

The patients performed three tests of maximum handgrip strength with a Jamar hand dynamometer (Sammons Preston Inc., Bolingbrook, IL). Low handgrip strength was defined as < 26 kg for men and < 18 kg for women, according to the AWGS recommendation (18). Slow walking speed was measured based on the time to walk 4 m, and the cutoff value for low gait speed was  $\leq 0.8$  m/s, as suggested by the AWGS (18).

### **Skeletal muscle mass measurement**

Height was measured by using a stadiometer. The postdialysis weights were recorded from the last three dialysis sessions, and the average of these weights was calculated in the patients undergoing hemodialysis. To assess body composition, we used a bioimpedance analysis machine (Inbody 620, In-body, Seoul, Korea) with measuring frequencies of 5, 50, and 500 kHz. Weight-adjusted, squared height-adjusted, and body mass index (BMI)-adjusted appendicular skeletal muscle (ASM) was assessed in all of the subjects. Decreased ASM was defined as a weight-adjusted ASM (ASM/kg\*100) less than 32.2% for men and less than 25.6% for women (19), a squared height-adjusted ASM (ASM/ht<sup>2</sup>) less than 7.0 (kg/m<sup>2</sup>) for men and less than 5.7 (kg/m<sup>2</sup>) for women (20), or a BMI-adjusted ASM (ASM/BMI) less than 0.789 (m<sup>2</sup>)

for men and less than 0.512 (m<sup>2</sup>) for women (21).

### **Definition of sarcopenia**

Sarcopenia was considered to be present when subjects had low handgrip strengths accompanied by a low adjusted ASM. Those subjects who showed low handgrip strengths or low muscle volumes were categorized as being presarcopenic (22).

### **Definition of frailty**

We adopted the Fried criteria as the definition of frailty (23). At enrollment, the five components of this frailty scale were measured: shrinking (a self-report of unintentional weight loss of more than 10 pounds in the past year based on dry weight, i.e., the weight of an individual undergoing hemodialysis without the excess fluid that builds up between dialysis treatments, which is more representative of the weight that subjects would have if they had normal kidney function), weakness (a grip-strength below an established cutoff value, based on sex), exhaustion (a self-report), low activity (kcal/wk values below an established cutoff value), and slow walking speed (the time taken to walk 4 m below an established cutoff value, according to sex) (23). A score of 1 was given for each of the measured components. The aggregate frailty score was calculated as the sum of the component scores (range 0–5), and subjects were categorized as frail if the patients received 3 or more points (24).

### **Clinical variables**

The patient demographic and clinical data, including age, sex, etiology of CKD (e.g., diabetes, hypertension, glomerulonephritis, polycystic kidney disease or unknown disease) and other comorbidities, were obtained via medical record reviews. Cardiac diseases were defined as patients with any medical histories of angina pectoris, a positive treadmill test, myocardial infarction, percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty, coronary artery bypass surgery, or congestive heart failure. Cerebrovascular diseases were defined as patients with medical histories of a stroke, a transient ischemic attack, or an intracranial hemorrhage. Laboratory findings were collected, including serum hemoglobin, serum calcium, blood urea nitrogen, phosphate, intact parathyroid hormone (iPTH), uric acid, total cholesterol, low-density lipid (LDL) cholesterol, c-reactive protein (CRP), 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25[OH]D), and albumin levels at the time of patient enrollment. The Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance (HOMA-IR) was calculated according to the following formula:  $[\text{fasting insulin } (\mu\text{U/L}) * \text{fasting glucose (nmol/L)}] / 22.5$  (25).

### **Clinical outcome: hospitalization-free survival**

We prospectively observed all hospitalization events, mortalities, and kidney transplantations over a 2-year follow-up period. A hospitalization was defined as any hospitalization, regardless of the reason for admission, with more than 1 overnight stay. The hospitalization causes were classified as cardiac and/or cerebrovascular, infectious, or other causes via medical record reviews or telephone contacts. The outcome for this analysis was time to hospitalization from any cause.

## Statistical analysis

The categorical variables were recorded as numbers and percentages. The continuous variables are presented as the mean  $\pm$  standard variation or median (IQR). Student's t-tests, Mann-Whitney U tests or ANOVAs were used to compare the continuous variables. The categorical variables were compared using  $\chi^2$  tests or Fisher's exact tests. Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to summarize the cross-sectional relationships among age, hand grip strength, HOMA-IR, and ASM. Kaplan-Meier curves were used to estimate event times, and the distributions were compared via log-rank tests. A Cox regression model was used to analyze the independent variables that were associated with hospitalization or mortality. A p-value  $< 0.05$  was considered to be statistically significant. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows (version 21; SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

## Results

### Study population

Table 1 shows the baseline clinical and biochemical characteristics of the study population. The mean age was  $60.6 \pm 13.5$  years old. Of the patients in this study, 63.6% were male, and 44.7% had diabetes. The mean estimated glomerular filtration rate was  $39.2 \pm 20.4$  ml/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup> among the predialysis patients. Of the predialysis patients, 28.9% were classified as Stage 3a, 30.1% were classified as Stage 3b, 24.1% were classified as Stage 4, and 16.9% were classified as Stage 5. Chronic hemodialysis patients (Stage 5D) comprised 42.5% of the patients in this study, and their mean duration of dialysis was  $52.9 \pm 47.7$  months. The mean Kt/V of the chronic



hemodialysis patients was  $1.7 \pm 0.3$ .

Table 1. Baseline characteristics

Characteristics	Men	Women	P-value
	(n =114)	(n =65)	
Age, years	60.9 $\pm$ 13.4	60.1 $\pm$ 13.8	0.705
Dialysis, n (%)	45 (39.5)	31 (47.7)	0.346
HTN, n (%)	92 (81.4)	50 (76.9)	0.474
Diabetes, n (%)	51 (44.7)	29 (44.6)	0.987
Cerebrovascular, n (%)	19 (16.7)	4 (6.2)	0.044
Cardiac, n (%)	18 (15.9)	7 (10.8)	0.341
ALM, kg	26.0 $\pm$ 5.4	17.1 $\pm$ 2.9	< 0.001
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	23.0 $\pm$ 4.7	23.3 $\pm$ 5.0	0.669
Height, m	1.69 $\pm$ 0.07	1.55 $\pm$ 0.06	< 0.001
Weight, kg	68.6 $\pm$ 15.4	55.1 $\pm$ 9.3	< 0.001
ECW/TBW,	0.38 $\pm$ 0.02	0.38 $\pm$ 0.02	0.913
Hand grip strength, kg	24.8 $\pm$ 9.3	15.4 $\pm$ 5.6	0.008
Walking speed, m/s	0.98 $\pm$ 0.40	0.97 $\pm$ 0.41	0.885
MAP, mmHg	93.6 $\pm$ 22.0	89.2 $\pm$ 24.1	0.214
HOMA-IR	2.4 (1.4 - 5.7)	2.4 (1.2 - 5.4)	0.943
25(OH)D	21.1 $\pm$ 16.7	13.3 $\pm$ 8.4	<0.001
Uric acid, mg/dL	7.4 $\pm$ 2.1	7.4 $\pm$ 1.9	0.996
Hemoglobin, g/dL	12.1 $\pm$ 3.9	11.0 $\pm$ 1.5	0.022
Creatinine, mg/dL	5.6 $\pm$ 4.4	5.7 $\pm$ 4.3	0.932
WBC, *10 <sup>3</sup> / $\mu$ L	6.3 $\pm$ 2.1	6.3 $\pm$ 1.6	0.817
Protein, g/dL	6.7 $\pm$ 0.6	6.6 $\pm$ 0.6	0.460
Albumin, mg/dL	4.1 $\pm$ 0.5	4.7 $\pm$ 0.4	0.902
Calcium, mg/dL	8.8 $\pm$ 0.7	8.9 $\pm$ 0.6	0.656
Phosphate, mg/dL	4.3 $\pm$ 1.3	4.8 $\pm$ 1.4	0.002

iPTH, mg/dL	81.9 (40.5 - 144.7)	89.3 (45.6 - 229.4)	0.087
T. cholesterol, µg/dL	153.8 ± 47.8	161.8 ± 42.8	0.266
LDL cholesterol, mg/dL	84.4 ± 36.6	79.3 ± 33.0	0.379
CRP, mg/dL	0.07 (0.03 - 0.20)	0.05 (0.03 - 0.13)	0.872
Glucose, mg/dL	132.9 ± 57.9	141.2 ± 76.4	0.417

Data are presented as number (%), mean ± standard deviation, median (interquartile range).

25(OH)D, 25-hydroxyvitamin D; BMI, body mass index; CRP, c-reactive protein; ECW/TBW, extracellular water/total body water; HOMA-IR, Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance; HTN, hypertension; iPTH, intact parathyroid hormone; LDL cholesterol, low density lipid cholesterol; MAP, mean arterial blood pressure; T. cholesterol, total cholesterol; WBC, white blood cell.

### Prevalence of sarcopenia and associated factors

Based on the 3 different indices (ASM/wt, ASM/ht<sup>2</sup> and ASM/BMI; Table 2), seventeen (9.5%), eight (4.5%), and five (2.8%) patients had sarcopenia, respectively, while 100 (55.9%), 103 (57.5%), and 105 (58.7%) patients were categorized as presarcopenic, respectively. Approximately 60% of the CKD patients had either sarcopenia or presarcopenia, according to all three of the ASM indices.

The analysis via the use of Pearson's correlation coefficients revealed that the absolute value of ASM was negatively correlated with age ( $r = -0.432$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and frailty scores ( $r = -0.330$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) but positively correlated with grip strength ( $r = 0.607$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , Figure 1). The ASM/wt index had inverse correlations with age ( $r = -0.247$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ), HOMA-IR ( $r = -0.202$ ,  $p = 0.015$ ) and frailty scores ( $r = -0.291$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and had a positive correlation with handgrip strength ( $r = 0.371$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ) (Figure 1). The ASM/Ht<sup>2</sup> index was only modestly correlated with handgrip strength ( $r = 0.239$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ) and frailty scores ( $r = -0.261$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ). However, the ASM/BMI index showed no significant relationships with age, handgrip strength, HOMA-IR or

frailty scores (Figure 1).

Table 2. Prevalence rate of sarcopenia in the patients with chronic kidney disease according to three different operational methods.

<b>Sarcopenia characteristics</b>	<b>Weight based</b>	<b>Height based</b>	<b>BMI based</b>
Sarcopenia, n (%)	17 (9.5)	8 (4.5)	5 (2.8)
Presarcopenia, n (%)	100 (55.9)	103 (57.5)	105 (58.7)
Normal, n (%)	62 (34.6)	68 (38.0)	69 (42.1)

### **Characteristics based on sarcopenia status categorized by the ASM/wt index**

The ASM/wt index showed the best correlations with chronological age, muscle strength, insulin resistance and geriatric syndrome, which suggests that the ASM/wt index might be the most appropriate and practical index in our subjects. In view of this contention, we divided our subjects into normal, presarcopenia, or sarcopenia groups, based on the ASM/wt index (Table 3).

The patients with presarcopenia were older than the normal patients, and the patients with sarcopenia were much older than the patients with presarcopenia ( $p < 0.001$ ). More diabetic patients were included in the groups of presarcopenia and sarcopenia patients than were included in the normal patient group ( $p = 0.014$ ). Handgrip strength and walking speed gradually decreased in the patients with presarcopenia and sarcopenia compared with those in the patients with normal skeletal muscle mass and function ( $p < 0.001$ ). HOMA-IR was significantly and progressively increased in the presarcopenia and sarcopenia patients ( $p = 0.041$ ), which indicates that they may have metabolic problems compared to those patients in the normal group. The patients with

sarcopenia had relatively lower hemoglobin, albumin, calcium and 25(OH)D levels, but they were not statistically significantly lower. Sarcopenic patients had trends for higher phosphate, iPTH, and CRP levels, but these trends were not statistically significant.

Table 3. Comparison of clinical and laboratory characteristics according to sarcopenia status categorized by ASM/wt index.

Characteristics	Normal (n=62)	Presarcopenia (n=100)	Sarcopenia (n=17)	P-value
Age, years	55.4 ± 12.8	62.1 ± 13.2*	71.1 ± 9.5*†	<0.001
Male, n (%)	43 (69.4)	63 (63.0)	8 (47.1)	0.110
Dialysis, n (%)	27 (43.5)	39 (39.0)	10 (58.8)	0.606
HTN, n (%)	49 (79.0)	82 (82.8)	11 (64.7)	0.526
Diabetes, n (%)	19 (30.6)	52 (52.0)	9 (52.9)	0.014
Cerebrovascular, n (%)	8 (12.9)	12 (12.0)	3 (17.6)	0.777
Cardiac, n (%)	12 (19.4)	11 (11.1)	2 (11.8)	0.199
ASM, kg	25.1 ± 6.7	22.6 ± 5.5*	15.3 ± 2.8*†	<0.001
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	22.7 ± 4.6	23.1 ± 4.5	25.4 ± 6.6*	0.139
Height, m	1.66 ± 0.09	1.64 ± 0.08*	1.56 ± 0.10*†	<0.001
Weight, kg	64.6 ± 12.9	62.9 ± 12.5	59.9 ± 12.1	0.364
Hand grip strength, kg	27.9 ± 8.1	18.4 ± 7.9*	14.0 ± 6.7*†	<0.001
Walking speed, m/s	1.10 ± 0.31	0.96 ± 0.39*	0.59 ± 0.52*†	<0.001
MAP, mmHg	98.5 ± 15.1	90.0 ± 23.9*	80.4 ± 32.1*	0.006
HOMA-IR	2.1 (0.9 - 3.8)	2.7 (1.6 - 7.0)	3.1 (2.3 - 3.1)	0.041
25(OH)D	18.5 ± 11.3	19.0 ± 16.9	10.4 ± 4.7†	0.102
Uric acid, mg/dL	7.4 ± 1.8	7.2 ± 2.1	8.2 ± 1.8	0.203
Hemoglobin, g/dL	12.2 ± 4.9	11.6 ± 2.0	10.4 ± 1.3*	0.130
WBC, *10 <sup>3</sup> /μL	5.9 ± 1.6	6.4 ± 2.1	7.0 ± 2.2	0.118
Protein, g/dL	6.5 ± 0.5	6.7 ± 0.6	6.5 ± 0.5	0.109
Albumin, mg/dL	4.1 ± 0.4	4.1 ± 0.5	3.9 ± 0.3	0.433

Calcium, mg/dL	8.8 ± 0.6	8.9 ± 0.7	8.5 ± 1.0	0.174
Phosphate, mg/dL	4.3 ± 1.4	4.3 ± 1.3	4.8 ± 1.5	0.427
iPTH, mg/dL	82.9 (39.9 - 142.5)	71.6 (35.6 - 71.6)	228.3 (66.9 - 502.2)	0.073
T. cholesterol, µg/dL	158.1 ± 46.1	157.0 ± 48.3	149.8 ± 32.3	0.801
LDL cholesterol, mg/dL	81.7 ± 34.9	85.1 ± 35.9	70.3 ± 32.9	0.316
CRP, mg/dL	0.06 (0.03 - 0.10)	0.10 (0.04 - 0.26)	0.16 (0.03 - 0.75)	0.172
Glucose, mg/dL	122.4 ± 69.8	141.7 ± 61.5	151.2 ± 63.2	0.102

\*P < 0.05 versus normal patients by one-way ANOVA with LSD post hoc comparison; †P < 0.05 versus presarcopenic patients by one-way ANOVA with LSD post hoc comparison.

Data are presented as number (%), mean ± standard deviation, median (interquartile range).

25(OH)D, 25-hydroxyvitamin D; ALM, appendicular skeletal muscle; BMI, body mass index; CRP, c-reactive protein; HOMA-IR, Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance; HTN, hypertension; iPTH, intact parathyroid hormone; LDL cholesterol, low density lipid cholesterol; MAP, mean arterial blood pressure; T. cholesterol, total cholesterol; WBC, white blood cell.

## Sarcopenia and Clinical Outcomes

Fifty-one patients (25 predialysis and 26 dialysis patients) were hospitalized, 6 patients died (1 predialysis and 5 dialysis patients), and 2 patients underwent kidney transplantations during the 2-year observational period. The mean observational period was 552.0 ± 252.8 days. The causes of hospitalization events included cardiac and/or cerebrovascular disease (33.3%), infection-related disease (25.5%), and initiations of dialysis (23.5%). The most common causes of death were pneumonia (50%) and cardiac arrest (20%).

The hospitalization-free survival, according to the sarcopenia status in patients with CKD, is shown in Figure 2. The Kaplan-Meier analysis revealed that the risk of hospitalization was gradually increased in presarcopenic and sarcopenic patients, compared to that in the normal group (log-rank test: p < 0.001). In the univariate Cox

proportional analysis, age, the administration or lack of dialysis, the presence of cardiac disease, serum albumin levels, serum creatinine levels and sarcopenia were significant predictors of all-cause hospitalizations in CKD patients (Table 4). After adjustments for all of the possibly related covariables (age, sex, dialysis or no dialysis, the presence of comorbidities, BMI and serum levels of albumin, creatinine and 25(OH)D; model 3), the multivariate Cox proportional hazards models demonstrated that the risk of hospitalization was significantly higher for patients with presarcopenia (hazard ratio, 2.48; 95% confidence interval, 1.180–5.230) and much higher for patients with sarcopenia compared to that in the normal group (hazard ratio, 9.11; 95% confidence interval, 2.295–25.182, Table 5).

Table 4. Univariate Cox proportional models for hospitalization. in patients with chronic kidney disease.

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>HR (95%CI)</b>	<b>P-value</b>
Age (year)	1.03 (1.005 – 1.047)	0.016
Sex (female/male)	0.69 (0.408 – 1.171)	0.170
Dialysis (no/yes)	1.86 (1.084 – 3.188)	0.024
Diabetes (absent/present)	1.41 (0.833 – 2.384)	0.200
Hypertension (absent/present)	0.87 (0.447 – 1.677)	0.668
Cerebrovascular (absent/present)	0.98 (0.442 – 2.158)	0.954
Cardiac (absent/present)	3.22 (1.800 – 5.756)	<0.001
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	0.95 (0.895 – 1.006)	0.076
Albumin (g/dL)	0.40 (0.237 – 0.675)	0.001
Creatinine (mg/dL)	1.08 (1.019 – 1.144)	0.009
25(OH)D (ng/mL)	0.98 (0.957 – 1.008)	0.181
Presarcopenia (vs normal)	1.83 (0.955 – 3.498)	0.069
Sarcopenia (vs normal)	5.38 (2.438 – 11.857)	<0.001

25(OH)D, 25-hydroxyvitamin D; BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval.

Table 5. Multivariate Cox proportional models for hospitalization in patients with chronic kidney disease.

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>HR (95%CI)</b>	<b>P-value</b>
<b><i>Model 1</i></b>		
Age (year)	1.02 (0.995 – 1.039)	0.142
Sex (female/male)	0.77 (0.449 – 1.327)	0.349
Presarcopenia (vs normal)	1.67 (0.864 – 3.240)	0.127
Sarcopenia (vs normal)	4.15 (1.778 – 9.679)	0.001
<b><i>Model 2</i></b>		
Age (year)	1.01 (0.986 – 1.032)	0.449
Sex (female/male)	0.80 (0.450 – 1.408)	0.433
Dialysis (no/yes)	1.32 (0.740 – 2.345)	0.349
Diabetes (absent/present)	1.03 (1.027 – 0.569)	0.930
Albumin (g/dL)	0.39 (0.190 – 0.794)	0.010
Presarcopenia (vs normal)	1.82 (0.917 – 3.627)	0.087
Sarcopenia (vs normal)	4.18 (1.702 – 10.253)	0.002
<b><i>Model 3</i></b>		
Age (year)	1.01 (0.982 – 1.039)	0.500
Sex (female/male)	0.76 (0.396 – 1.449)	0.401
Dialysis (no/yes)	0.20 (0.058 – 0.702)	0.012
Diabetes (absent/present)	1.27 (0.629 – 2.510)	0.518
Hypertension (absent/present)	1.22 (0.506 – 2.950)	0.656
Cerebrovascular (absent/present)	1.26 (0.465 – 3.419)	0.649
Cardiac (absent/present)	3.15 (1.527 – 6.514)	0.002
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	0.97 (0.903 – 1.037)	1.037
Albumin (g/dL)	0.39 (0.166 – 0.906)	0.029
Creatinine (mg/dL)	1.23 (1.072 – 1.417)	0.003
25(OH)D (ng/mL)	0.99 (0.959 – 1.019)	0.452

Presarcopenia (vs normal)	2.48 (1.180 – 5.230)	0.017
Sarcopenia (vs normal)	9.11 (2.295 – 25.182)	<0.001

---

25(OH)D, 25-hydroxyvitamin D; BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval.

## Discussion

In our study, skeletal muscle mass was measured via a bioimpedance analysis, and the handgrip test was used in all of the participants. In terms of the adjusted ASM, the ASM/wt index showed the most favorable correlations with chronological age, muscle strength, insulin resistance, and frailty scores compared to those of other indices in these populations. When patients were categorized into normal, presarcopenia, or sarcopenia groups, the patients with presarcopenia and sarcopenia showed poor hospitalization-free survivals.

In 1974, Floyd et al. documented uremic myopathy in CKD patients (26), and Clyne suggested that the prevalence of uremic myopathy was as high as 50% in dialysis patients (27). In cross-sectional studies comparing muscle biopsy samples between age-matched controls and ESRD patients, fiber atrophy and reduced capillary density were observed (28), and a significant decrease in the mean diameters of both type I and II fiber types (29) was reported. Additionally, decreased muscle function has been suggested in chronic dialysis and predialysis patients with CKD by recording electrically stimulated muscle contractions (27, 30). Foley et al. reported that there was a significant association between the increased prevalence of sarcopenia and the decline in glomerular filtration rate (31). Similarly, in a more recent study in Korea with 11,625 subjects aged 40 years or older, the prevalence of low adjusted ASM (ASM/wt)



was associated with CKD stage in men (32). In a study that utilized a recent definition of sarcopenia, which was represented by the simultaneous incidence of low muscle mass and decreased power, the prevalence of sarcopenia was 5.9-9.8%, depending on the muscle mass assessment method used in the predialysis CKD patients (33). Lamarca et al. investigated sarcopenia in elderly maintenance hemodialysis patients and found that the prevalence of muscle weakness that was measured by handgrips was 85%, but the prevalence of decreased muscle mass varied from 4-73.5%, depending on the method that was used and the cutoff value that was applied (34).

One of the challenges in studies of sarcopenia is to determine how best to measure the amount of muscle. However, the European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People, as well as the AWGS, recently established a clear criterion for the diagnosis of sarcopenia (35, 36). The guideline recommends the use of a bioimpedance analysis, dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry, computed tomography, and magnetic resonance imaging to measure the skeletal muscle mass. Bioimpedance analysis, which was used in our study, is a popular method for estimating body composition and has the merits of being low-cost, easy-to-use and portable. Furthermore, the bioimpedance analysis results, under standard conditions, have been found to correlate well with MRI predictions, and the prediction equations have been validated for various populations (37). In our data, the combined prevalence of sarcopenia and presarcopenia, through the use of adjusted ASM that was measured by bioimpedance analysis, was approximately 60% (Table 2). Finally, approximately 40% of the subjects had normal muscle mass and strength. Our data showed that muscle failure is common in CKD patients, which is consistent with other epidemiologic studies of sarcopenia or low muscle mass in that population (11-13). In comparison with the

results from healthy Korean women who were older than 65 years old, 21% of them were classified into either presarcopenia or sarcopenia groups (38).

Sarcopenia does not involve only muscle mass or strength but also involves basal metabolic rates (39). Muscles are the largest repository of protein, the most important site for the storage of glucose and the major critical consumer of energy. Thus, sarcopenia contributes to decreased energy demands of the human body (39). Of course, sarcopenia, including reduced muscle mass, has negative consequences for human health. Muscle weakness, which is one component of sarcopenia, has been reported to be associated with poor health outcomes, such as mortality, hospitalization, and disabilities in predialysis and dialysis patients (40). Pereira et al. suggested that predialysis patients with sarcopenia had higher mortality rates (33). In our study, both sarcopenia and presarcopenia were predictive of hospitalization-free survival among CKD outpatients, including patients in the predialysis and dialysis stages (Figure 2).

Exercise interventions could be the primary treatment options for sarcopenia. Indeed, most exercise trials have shown improved muscle strength, physical performance and muscle mass in community-dwelling, elderly individuals, although these individuals were not recruited based on their sarcopenic status (41-44). Additionally, essential amino acid and  $\beta$ -hydroxy  $\beta$ -methylbutyric acid (HMB, which is a bioactive metabolite of leucine) supplements seem to have some effects on muscle mass and muscle function; however, these effects need to be confirmed in larger trials (45-48). Vitamin D, testosterone, or myostatin inhibitors have also been proposed as potential drugs for the treatment of muscle failure (49-51). Remarkably, there are several studies that support the idea that exercise may enhance muscle strength in CKD patients (52). Howden et al. reported that 12-month exercise and lifestyle interventions improved 6-

minute walk distances in patients with CKD stages ranging from 3 to 4 (53). Greenwood et al. showed that the completion of a 12-week exercise rehabilitation regimen enhanced physical performance and reduced cardiovascular morbidity (54). However, the effects of exercise training on sarcopenia are unclear in patients with CKD. To confirm these effects, it is necessary to identify the prevalence of sarcopenia, according to the recently suggested definition and to examine its relationship with clinical outcomes among the CKD patient population.

There were several limitations of our study. First, this was a small, single-center study that had a relatively short observation period. However, this study had several strengths. We used a definition of sarcopenia that included the two components of low muscle mass and muscle strength. Furthermore, we used a direct physical function test to estimate muscle strength. We compared the prevalence of sarcopenia by using three different muscle indices and explored the most appropriate muscle indices in CKD patients, which may reflect their chronological age, muscle power, metabolic derangement, and frailty. Lastly, we examined whether the selected muscle index was a good predictor for clinical prognoses in our subjects.

In conclusion, our findings showed that sarcopenia and presarcopenia can be useful for predicting hospitalization in CKD outpatients. Future studies on sarcopenia may provide new methods for gaining insights into the disease and for improving their prognoses. Therefore, we should recognize the sarcopenic and presarcopenic statuses of patients as risk factors for poor clinical outcomes and proceed with further

research on the relationship between these risk factors and disease status.

### **Ethic statement**

This study was approved by an independent Ethics Committee at the CHA Bundang Medical Center, and written informed consent was obtained from each of the patients.

### **Disclosure Statement**

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

### **Funding Sources Statement**

This work was supported by a National Research Foundation grant of Korea (NRF-2017R1D1A1B03034837), which was funded by the Korean government.

### **Author Contribution Statement**

H. Y. Jeong and W. Ahn wrote the first manuscript text; J. C. Kim and Y. B. Choi prepared Figures 1-2; J Kim, H. H. Jun and S. Lee prepared Table 1-5; D. H. Yang and J. Oh analyzed and interpreted the data; J. Bae and S-Y Lee designed the study and approved the final vision of the manuscript and figures to be submitted and published.

Figure 1. Scatterplots and correlations of appendicular skeletal muscle (ASM) or

adjusted ASM indices versus age, handgrip strength, HOMA-IR or frailty scores for the patients with chronic kidney disease. ASM/BMI, body mass index adjusted ASM; ASM/ht<sup>2</sup>, height square adjusted ASM; ASM/wt, weight adjusted ASM; HOMA-IR, Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance; *r*, Pearson's correlation coefficients; *p*, P-value.

Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier estimates of hospitalization-free survival probabilities of the patients with chronic kidney disease in relation to sarcopenia status and categorized by the ASM/wt index. *P*, P-value.

## References

1. Phillips SM. Nutritional supplements in support of resistance exercise to counter age-related sarcopenia. *Advances in nutrition* (Bethesda, Md). 2015;6(4):452-60.
2. Li CI, Li TC, Lin WY, Liu CS, Hsu CC, Hsiung CA, et al. Combined association of chronic disease and low skeletal muscle mass with physical performance in older adults in the Sarcopenia and Translational Aging Research in Taiwan (START) study. *BMC geriatrics*. 2015;15:11.
3. Dodds R, Sayer AA. Sarcopenia and frailty: new challenges for clinical practice. *Clinical medicine* (London, England). 2015;15 Suppl 6:s88-91.
4. Go SW, Cha YH, Lee JA, Park HS. Association between Sarcopenia, Bone Density, and Health-Related Quality of Life in Korean Men. *Korean journal of family medicine*. 2013;34(4):281-8.
5. Furushima T, Miyachi M, Iemitsu M, Murakami H, Kawano H, Gando Y, et al.

Comparison between clinical significance of height-adjusted and weight-adjusted appendicular skeletal muscle mass. *Journal of physiological anthropology*. 2017;36(1):15.

6. Janssen I, Heymsfield SB, Ross R. Low relative skeletal muscle mass (sarcopenia) in older persons is associated with functional impairment and physical disability. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*. 2002;50(5):889-96.

7. Menon V, Wang X, Greene T, Beck GJ, Kusek JW, Marcovina SM, et al. Relationship between C-reactive protein, albumin, and cardiovascular disease in patients with chronic kidney disease. *American journal of kidney diseases : the official journal of the National Kidney Foundation*. 2003;42(1):44-52.

8. Global, regional, and national disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs) for 315 diseases and injuries and healthy life expectancy (HALE), 1990-2015: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2015. *Lancet (London, England)*. 2016;388(10053):1603-58.

9. Global, regional, and national life expectancy, all-cause mortality, and cause-specific mortality for 249 causes of death, 1980-2015: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2015. *Lancet (London, England)*. 2016;388(10053):1459-544.

10. Couser WG, Remuzzi G, Mendis S, Tonelli M. The contribution of chronic kidney disease to the global burden of major noncommunicable diseases. *Kidney international*. 2011;80(12):1258-70.

11. Domanski M, Ciechanowski K. Sarcopenia: a major challenge in elderly patients with end-stage renal disease. *Journal of aging research*. 2012;2012:754739.

12. Kim JC, Kalantar-Zadeh K, Kopple JD. Frailty and protein-energy wasting in elderly patients with end stage kidney disease. *Journal of the American Society of*

Nephrology : JASN. 2013;24(3):337-51.

13. Kato A, Ishida J, Endo Y, Takita T, Furuhashi M, Maruyama Y, et al. Association of abdominal visceral adiposity and thigh sarcopenia with changes of arteriosclerosis in haemodialysis patients. Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation : official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association - European Renal Association. 2011;26(6):1967-76.

14. Castaneda C, Gordon PL, Parker RC, Uhlin KL, Roubenoff R, Levey AS. Resistance training to reduce the malnutrition-inflammation complex syndrome of chronic kidney disease. American journal of kidney diseases : the official journal of the National Kidney Foundation. 2004;43(4):607-16.

15. Castaneda C, Gordon PL, Uhlin KL, Levey AS, Kehayias JJ, Dwyer JT, et al. Resistance training to counteract the catabolism of a low-protein diet in patients with chronic renal insufficiency. A randomized, controlled trial. Annals of internal medicine. 2001;135(11):965-76.

16. Anker SD, Morley JE, von Haehling S. Welcome to the ICD-10 code for sarcopenia. Journal of cachexia, sarcopenia and muscle. 2016;7(5):512-4.

17. K/DOQI clinical practice guidelines for chronic kidney disease: evaluation, classification, and stratification. American journal of kidney diseases : the official journal of the National Kidney Foundation. 2002;39(2 Suppl 1):S1-266.

18. Chen LK, Liu LK, Woo J, Assantachai P, Auyeung TW, Bahyah KS, et al. Sarcopenia in Asia: consensus report of the Asian Working Group for Sarcopenia. Journal of the American Medical Directors Association. 2014;15(2):95-101.

19. Kim YS, Lee Y, Chung YS, Lee DJ, Joo NS, Hong D, et al. Prevalence of sarcopenia and sarcopenic obesity in the Korean population based on the Fourth Korean National Health and Nutritional Examination Surveys. The journals of

gerontology Series A, Biological sciences and medical sciences. 2012;67(10):1107-13.

20. Hai S, Wang H, Cao L, Liu P, Zhou J, Yang Y, et al. Association between sarcopenia with lifestyle and family function among community-dwelling Chinese aged 60 years and older. *BMC geriatrics*. 2017;17(1):187.

21. Studenski SA, Peters KW, Alley DE, Cawthon PM, McLean RR, Harris TB, et al. The FNIH sarcopenia project: rationale, study description, conference recommendations, and final estimates. *The journals of gerontology Series A, Biological sciences and medical sciences*. 2014;69(5):547-58.

22. Hiraoka A, Michitaka K, Ueki H, Kaneto M, Aibiki T, Okudaira T, et al. Sarcopenia and two types of presarcopenia in Japanese patients with chronic liver disease. *European journal of gastroenterology & hepatology*. 2016;28(8):940-7.

23. Fried LP, Tangen CM, Walston J, Newman AB, Hirsch C, Gottdiener J, et al. Frailty in older adults: evidence for a phenotype. *The journals of gerontology Series A, Biological sciences and medical sciences*. 2001;56(3):M146-56.

24. Lee SY, Yang DH, Hwang E, Kang SH, Park SH, Kim TW, et al. The Prevalence, Association, and Clinical Outcomes of Frailty in Maintenance Dialysis Patients. *Journal of renal nutrition : the official journal of the Council on Renal Nutrition of the National Kidney Foundation*. 2017;27(2):106-12.

25. Berkelhammer CH, Leiter LA, Jeejeebhoy KN, Detsky AS, Oreopoulos DG, Uldall PR, et al. Skeletal muscle function in chronic renal failure: an index of nutritional status. *The American journal of clinical nutrition*. 1985;42(5):845-54.

26. Sakkas GK, Ball D, Mercer TH, Sargeant AJ, Tolfrey K, Naish PF. Atrophy of non-locomotor muscle in patients with end-stage renal failure. *Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation : official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant*



Association - European Renal Association. 2003;18(10):2074-81.

27. Foley RN, Wang C, Ishani A, Collins AJ, Murray AM. Kidney function and sarcopenia in the United States general population: NHANES III. *American journal of nephrology*. 2007;27(3):279-86.

28. Fahal IH. Uraemic sarcopenia: aetiology and implications. *Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation : official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association - European Renal Association*. 2014;29(9):1655-65.

29. Fahal IH, Ahmad R, Edwards RH. Muscle weakness in continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis patients. *Peritoneal dialysis international : journal of the International Society for Peritoneal Dialysis*. 1996;16 Suppl 1:S419-23.

30. Crowe AV, McArdle A, McArdle F, Pattwell DM, Bell GM, Kemp GJ, et al. Markers of oxidative stress in the skeletal muscle of patients on haemodialysis. *Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation : official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association - European Renal Association*. 2007;22(4):1177-83.

31. Moon SJ, Kim TH, Yoon SY, Chung JH, Hwang HJ. Relationship between Stage of Chronic Kidney Disease and Sarcopenia in Korean Aged 40 Years and Older Using the Korea National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys (KNHANES IV-2, 3, and V-1, 2), 2008-2011. *PloS one*. 2015;10(6):e0130740.

32. Pereira RA, Cordeiro AC, Avesani CM, Carrero JJ, Lindholm B, Amparo FC, et al. Sarcopenia in chronic kidney disease on conservative therapy: prevalence and association with mortality. *Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation : official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association - European Renal Association*. 2015;30(10):1718-25.

33. Lamarca F, Carrero JJ, Rodrigues JC, Bigogno FG, Fetter RL, Avesani CM. Prevalence of sarcopenia in elderly maintenance hemodialysis patients: the impact

of different diagnostic criteria. The journal of nutrition, health & aging.

2014;18(7):710-7.

34. Mijnaerends DM, Meijers JM, Halfens RJ, ter Borg S, Luiking YC, Verlaan S, et al. Validity and reliability of tools to measure muscle mass, strength, and physical performance in community-dwelling older people: a systematic review. Journal of the American Medical Directors Association. 2013;14(3):170-8.

35. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Baeyens JP, Bauer JM, Boirie Y, Cederholm T, Landi F, et al. Sarcopenia: European consensus on definition and diagnosis: Report of the European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People. Age and ageing. 2010;39(4):412-23.

36. Baumgartner RN, Koehler KM, Gallagher D, Romero L, Heymsfield SB, Ross RR, et al. Epidemiology of sarcopenia among the elderly in New Mexico. American journal of epidemiology. 1998;147(8):755-63.

37. Yuki A, Ando F, Otsuka R, Shimokata H. Sarcopenia based on the Asian Working Group for Sarcopenia criteria and all-cause mortality risk in older Japanese adults. Geriatrics & gerontology international. 2017;17(10):1642-7.

38. Lee ES, Park HM. Prevalence of Sarcopenia in Healthy Korean Elderly Women. Journal of bone metabolism. 2015;22(4):191-5.

39. Roshanravan B, Robinson-Cohen C, Patel KV, Ayers E, Littman AJ, de Boer IH, et al. Association between physical performance and all-cause mortality in CKD. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology : JASN. 2013;24(5):822-30.

40. Kutner NG, Zhang R, Huang Y, Painter P. Gait Speed and Mortality, Hospitalization, and Functional Status Change Among Hemodialysis Patients: A US Renal Data System Special Study. American journal of kidney diseases : the official journal of the National Kidney Foundation. 2015;66(2):297-304.

41. Binder EF, Yarasheski KE, Steger-May K, Sinacore DR, Brown M, Schechtman KB, et al. Effects of progressive resistance training on body composition in frail older adults: results of a randomized, controlled trial. *The journals of gerontology Series A, Biological sciences and medical sciences*. 2005;60(11):1425-31.
42. Bonnefoy M, Cornu C, Normand S, Boutitie F, Bugnard F, Rahmani A, et al. The effects of exercise and protein-energy supplements on body composition and muscle function in frail elderly individuals: a long-term controlled randomised study. *The British journal of nutrition*. 2003;89(5):731-9.
43. Goodpaster BH, Chomentowski P, Ward BK, Rossi A, Glynn NW, Delmonico MJ, et al. Effects of physical activity on strength and skeletal muscle fat infiltration in older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of applied physiology (Bethesda, Md : 1985)*. 2008;105(5):1498-503.
44. Kemmler W, von Stengel S, Engelke K, Haberle L, Mayhew JL, Kalender WA. Exercise, body composition, and functional ability: a randomized controlled trial. *American journal of preventive medicine*. 2010;38(3):279-87.
45. Dillon EL, Sheffield-Moore M, Paddon-Jones D, Gilkison C, Sanford AP, Casperson SL, et al. Amino acid supplementation increases lean body mass, basal muscle protein synthesis, and insulin-like growth factor-I expression in older women. *The Journal of clinical endocrinology and metabolism*. 2009;94(5):1630-7.
46. Kim HK, Suzuki T, Saito K, Yoshida H, Kobayashi H, Kato H, et al. Effects of exercise and amino acid supplementation on body composition and physical function in community-dwelling elderly Japanese sarcopenic women: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*. 2012;60(1):16-23.
47. Deutz NE, Pereira SL, Hays NP, Oliver JS, Edens NK, Evans CM, et al.

Effect of beta-hydroxy-beta-methylbutyrate (HMB) on lean body mass during 10 days of bed rest in older adults. *Clinical nutrition (Edinburgh, Scotland)*. 2013;32(5):704-12.

48. Flakoll P, Sharp R, Baier S, Levenhagen D, Carr C, Nissen S. Effect of beta-hydroxy-beta-methylbutyrate, arginine, and lysine supplementation on strength, functionality, body composition, and protein metabolism in elderly women. *Nutrition (Burbank, Los Angeles County, Calif)*. 2004;20(5):445-51.

49. Beudart C, Buckinx F, Rabenda V, Gillain S, Cavalier E, Slomian J, et al. The effects of vitamin D on skeletal muscle strength, muscle mass, and muscle power: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *The Journal of clinical endocrinology and metabolism*. 2014;99(11):4336-45.

50. Padhi D, Higano CS, Shore ND, Sieber P, Rasmussen E, Smith MR. Pharmacological inhibition of myostatin and changes in lean body mass and lower extremity muscle size in patients receiving androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *The Journal of clinical endocrinology and metabolism*. 2014;99(10):E1967-75.

51. Morley JE. Pharmacologic Options for the Treatment of Sarcopenia. *Calcified tissue international*. 2016;98(4):319-33.

52. Izumi A, Kitamura M, Izawa KP. Effects of Exercise Training on Delaying Disease Progression in Patients with Chronic Kidney Disease: a Review of the Literature. *Reviews on recent clinical trials*. 2016;11(4):333-41.

53. Howden EJ, Coombes JS, Strand H, Douglas B, Campbell KL, Isbel NM. Exercise training in CKD: efficacy, adherence, and safety. *American journal of kidney diseases : the official journal of the National Kidney Foundation*. 2015;65(4):583-91.

54. Greenwood SA, Castle E, Lindup H, Mayes J, Waite I, Grant D, et al.

Mortality and morbidity following exercise-based renal rehabilitation in patients with chronic kidney disease: the effect of programme completion and change in exercise capacity. *Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation* : official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association - European Renal Association. 2018.

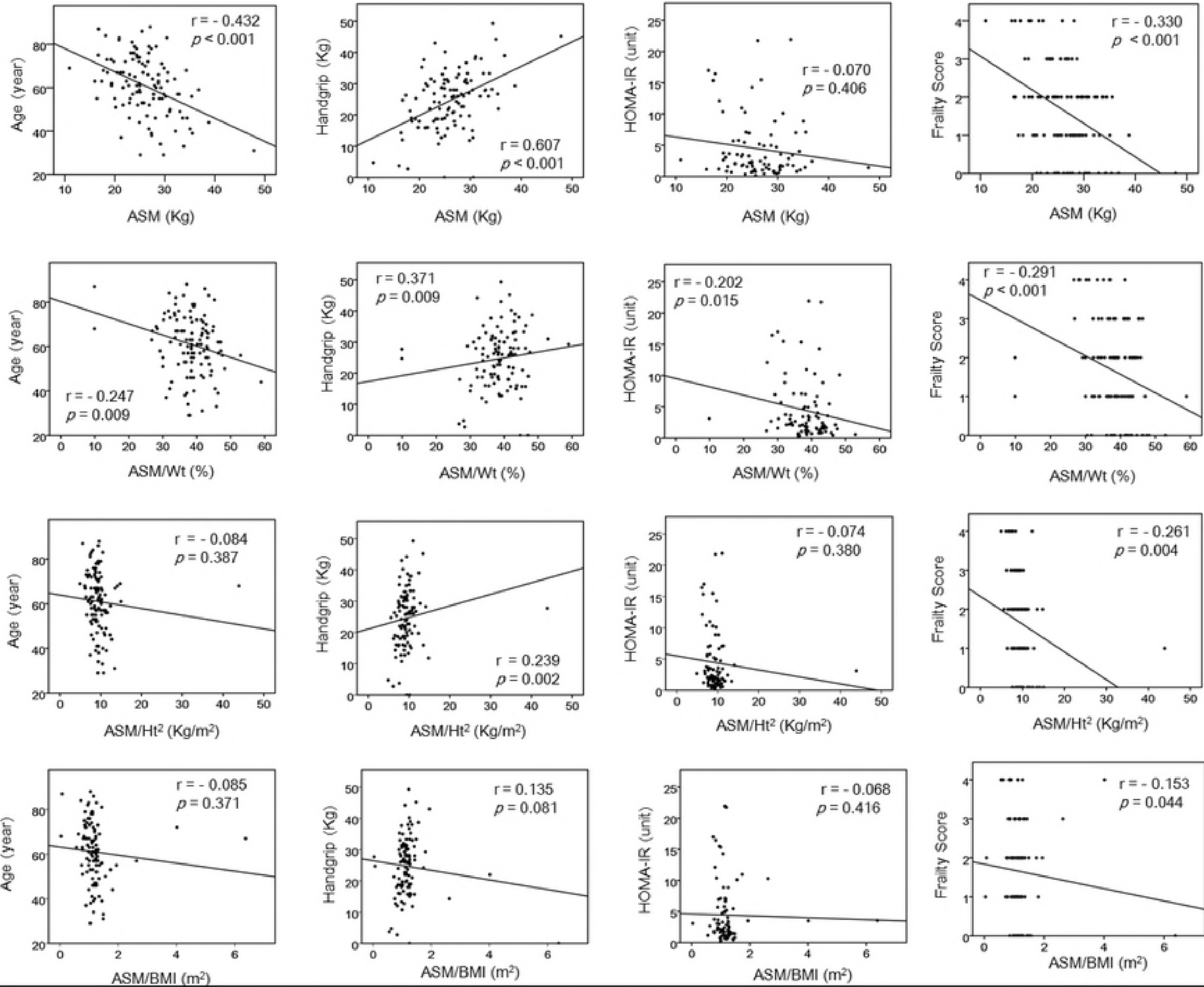


figure 1

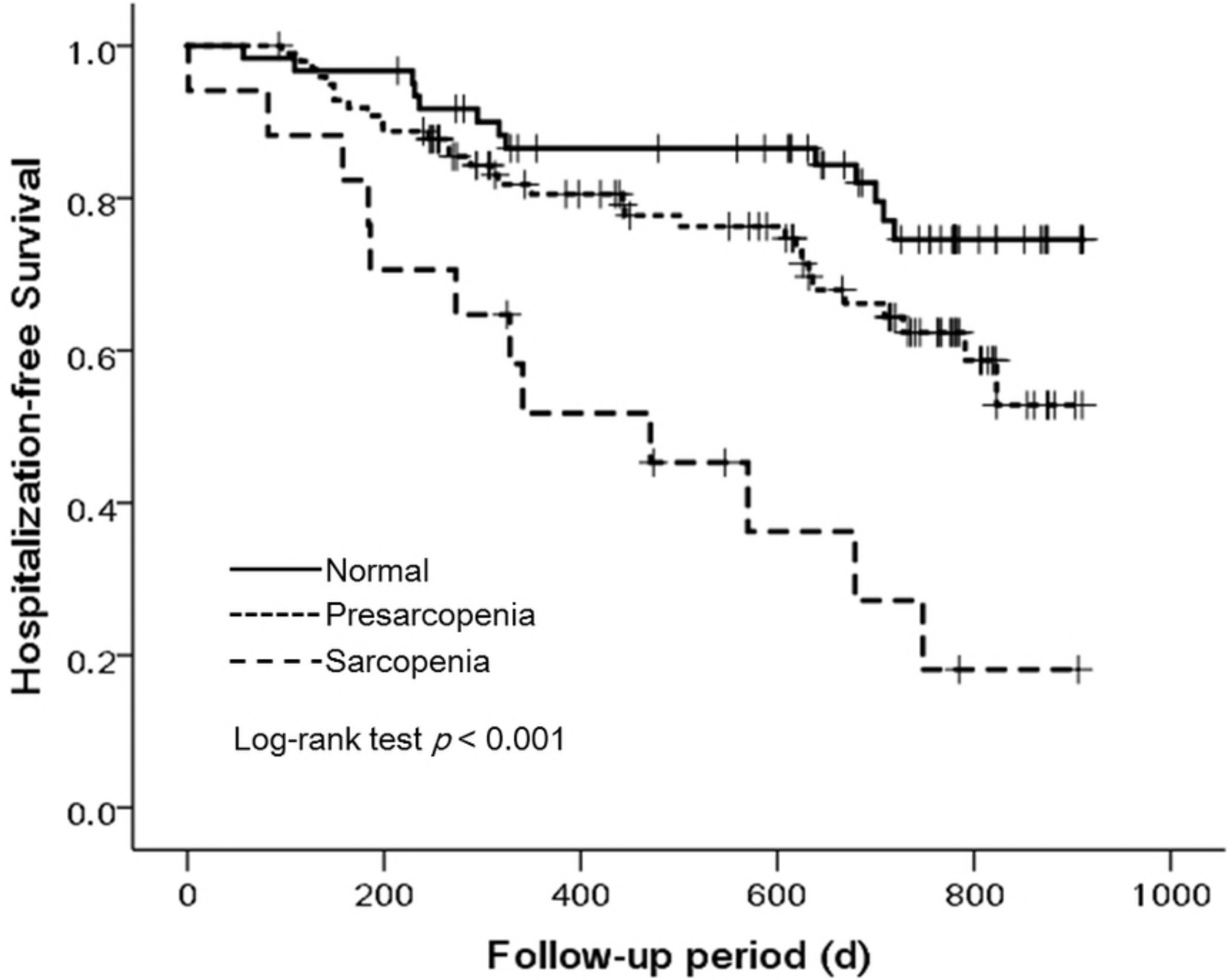


figure 2