

Microalbumin and Diabetes Mellitus Type 2(T2DM): A Mendelian Randomization Study

Hao Lu¹, Pengqian Duan¹ and Yanhui Wu^{1,2,3*}

¹School of Medicine, Xiamen University, Xiamen, 361005, China

²National Metabolic Management Center of Xiang'an Hospital of Xiamen University, China

³Department of Endocrinology, Xiang'an Hospital, China

*Corresponding author:

Yanhui Wu,
Department of Endocrinology, National Metabolic
Management Center, School of Medicine,
XIANG'AN Hospital of Xiamen University,
Xiamen, 361005, China,
E-mail: mabelwyh@163.com

Received: 10 Apr 2023

Accepted: 08 May 2023

Published: 15 May 2023

J Short Name: ACMCR

Copyright:

©2023 Wu Y. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and build upon your work non-commercially

Citation:

Wu Y, Microalbumin and Diabetes Mellitus Type 2(T2DM): A Mendelian Randomization Study .
Ann Clin Med Case Rep. 2023; V10(20): 1-6

Keywords:

Microalbumin; Diabetes mellitus type 2; Mendelian Randomization

Abbreviations:

T2DM: Diabetes mellitus type 2; MR: Mendelian randomization; SNPs: single nucleotide polymorphisms; IVW: inverse variance weighted; WHO: World Health Organization; IR: insulin resistance; CKD: chronic renal disease; GWAS: genome-wide association studies; MAF: minor allele frequency; LD: linkage disequilibrium

1. Abstract

1.1. Background: The observational link between microalbumin and type 2 diabetes (T2DM) is well established. However, it is uncertain if the link is causative.

1.2. Methods: The current study performed Mendelian randomization (MR) on publicly accessible genome-wide association study (GWAS) summary data in order to investigate the causal linkages between microalbumin and T2DM. A single set of MR analyses was performed. As instrumental variables, a dataset of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) with significance value smaller than the genome-wide criteria (5×10^{-8}) was employed.

1.3. Results: The results suggested that microalbumin had a causal influence on T2DM risk based on the 0.05 threshold. Microalbumin was shown to be positively linked with the risk of T2DM using the inverse variance weighted (IVW) technique (OR = 1.346, 95% CI, 1.062-1.706, P = 0.014). The weighted median MR estimations revealed that microalbumin was positively associated with the incidence of T2DM (OR = 1.356, 95% CI, 1.038-1.771, P = 0.0254).

1.4. Conclusions: The data showed that microalbumin may increase the incidence of T2DM dependent on the genome-wide statistical significance level. This study supports the notion that microalbumin has a negative causal influence on T2DM risk.

<http://www.acmcasereport.com/>

2. Background

The World Health Organization (WHO) describes diabetes mellitus as a long-term metabolic illness marked by high blood glucose levels that. As time goes by, it will also affect the heart, blood vessels, eyes, kidneys, and nerves. Over 90% of patients of diabetes are T2DM, which is defined by tissue insulin resistance (IR) and inadequate compensatory insulin secretory response [1, 2]. The key causes of the T2DM pandemic, which has increased the frequency and prevalence of T2DM, include the global rise in obesity, unhealthy lifestyles, high-calorie meals, and population aging [3, 4]. To deal with T2DM, early identification and diagnosis are essential.

Microalbuminuria, identified as the excretion of 20–200 mg/L of albumin in the urine [5], is a precursor to chronic renal disease (CKD). What's more, it has been associated with a higher risk of cardiovascular disease, overall mortality, and metabolic diseases, such as type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) [6-9]. Urinary microalbumin concentrations have been linked to metabolic diseases; epidemiologic research shows that the prevalence of microalbuminuria is considerably greater in those with T2DM [10, 11]. To some extent, there were conflicting correlations among microalbuminuria and several T2DM components [12-15]. However, it is unclear if there is a causal connection between microalbumin and T2DM.

A technique called Mendelian randomization (MR)[16] incorporates summary information from genome-wide association studies (GWAS), minimizing the impact of confounding variables. MR is a popular technique for determining if exposure and complex outcomes have any causal connections. To infer causation, the selection of instrumental factors includes genetic variants that are closely related to exposure [17]. If the exposure is causal, the findings will be impacted in line with the instrumental parameters that influence the exposure. The current investigation used MR to determine whether there is a link between microalbumin and the risk of T2DM.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Sources of Data

SNPs associated to microalbumin were chosen as instrumental factors in a GWAS (<https://gwas.mrcieu.ac.uk/>) with 108706 sample size (GWAS ID: ukb-d-30500 irnt). We also use summary data from 122 GWAS for 80,154 people with T2DM and 853,816 controls (effective sample size, 492,191) from five ancestry groups. Data is from a previous study [18].

The above quality check procedures were utilized to select appropriate indicator variables, ensuring the accuracy and validity of the findings on the causal link between microalbumin and T2DM risk. As instrumental factors, a collection of SNPs fewer than the genome-wide statistical significance criterion (5×10^{-8}) was used. Second, for variations of interest, the minor allele frequency (MAF) criterion was 0.01. Third, the absence of linkage disequilibrium (LD) among the selected explanatory variable is a crucial MR approach's guiding principles, because significant LD might lead to biased conclusions. The clumping technique ($R^2 < 0.001$ and clumping distance = 10,000kb) was used in the current investigation to analyze the degree of LD between the added SNPs. Fourth, confirming that the impacts of SNPs in exposure match to the similar genotype as the impacts on outcome is an essential part in MR. The explanatory variables wouldn't contain palindromic SNPs, according to the concept. Fifth, where SNPs linked with exposure were missing from GWAS results, the surrogate SNPs with $r^2 > 0.8$ substantially related with the variants of interest were chosen.

3.2. The MR Presumptions

The MR technique needs to conform to three crucial presumptions in order to lessen the impact of bias on the outcomes. To begin with, explanatory variables that change exposure and outcome have no effect on explanatory factors. Second, the variations of interest should be strongly related with exposure in the study. The F value is frequently used to assess how strongly explanatory variables and exposure relate to one another. $F = R^2(n-k-1)/k(1-R^2)$ is the formula for the F statistic. N is the sample size, k is the amount of explanatory variable, and R^2 is the treatment variance represented by the chosen SNPs. The relationship between explan-

atory variable and exposure is poor when F value is lower than 10. Third, there is no vertical pleiotropy impact among explanatory variables and outcomes because instrumental factors only affect outcomes through exposure.

3.3. MR Predictions

For the research at hand, elevated methods such as inverse variance weighted (IVW), MR-Egger, weighted median, and weighted mode were utilized to determine if microalbumin had a causal influence on T2DM risk. To create an overall estimate of the influence of microalbumin on T2DM risk, IVW simply converts the outcome impacts of explanatory variable on exposure effects to a weighted regression, with the intercept set to zero [19]. In the absence of vertical pleiotropy, IVW could produce estimates that are free from confounding factors. 666 Outlying genetic factors may have a considerable impact on MR-Egger, resulting in incorrect estimations. The MR-Egger method can still produce accurate estimates even if all of the selected explanatory factors are wrong. The weighted median could produce precise predictions of the causality relationship even if up to 50% of the study's data came from false explanatory factors. Because it enhances the accuracy of the findings, compared to the MR-Egger technique, the weighted median approach has a number of important benefits. When the majority of explanatory variables have identical causal estimates, Despite the fact that other explanatory variables don't really match the MR method's conditions for interpretation, the weighted mode approach remains viable [20].

To determine if the contained SNPs had any vertical pleiotropic impacts, the MR-Egger regression was performed. A technique called MR-Egger regression uses pleiotropy detection and correction to evaluate the causal influence of MR analysis [21] and to establish if directed vertical pleiotropy is the cause of the results [22]. Due to the reduced reliability and confidence interval of MR-Egger regression, Mendelian randomization pleiotropy residual sum was used to identify any outliers that would reflect potential pleiotropic bias and rectify vertical pleiotropy. In addition, in order to assess the degree of heterogeneity from among selected SNPs, Cochran's Q statistic was used. R program was used for statistical analysis (R version 4.0.2, TwoSampleMR package).

4. Results

When T2DM was used as the result, microalbumin was found to be causally related to T2DM, as demonstrated in Table 1 and Figures 1 and 2. Microalbumin (odds ratio (OR) = 1.346, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.062-1.706, $P = 0.014$) was shown to be positively linked with the risk of T2DM in IVW analysis (Table 1). The weighted median MR estimations revealed that microalbumin (OR = 1.356, 95% CI, 1.038-1.771, $P = 0.0254$) was a risk factor for T2DM (Table 1). The comprehensive statistical findings of the microalbumin were reported in Supplementary Table 1. To test for vertical pleiotropy between explanatory variable and result, MR-Egger regression was utilized. and the findings revealed that no

indication of vertical pleiotropy was found ($P = 0.736$). Furthermore, Statistics from Cochran Q showed no discernible heterogeneity ($P = 0.703$), and there was no mild explanatory variable bias, according to the F values of the SNPs, which were all more

than 10 (Table 2). Table 2 contains extensive information on the instrumental factors. Thus, the MR estimations discovered that microalbumin was positively associated to the probability of T2DM.

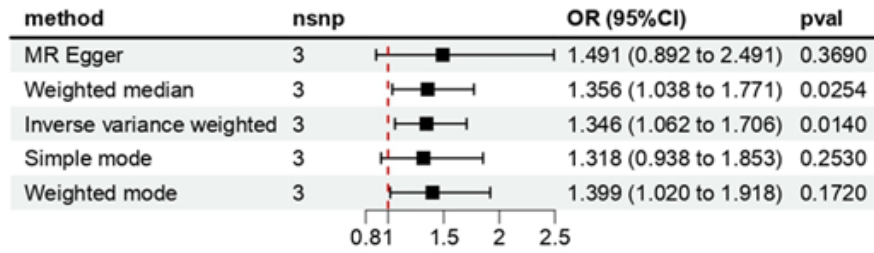


Figure 1: MR results of causal links between microalbumin and T2DM.

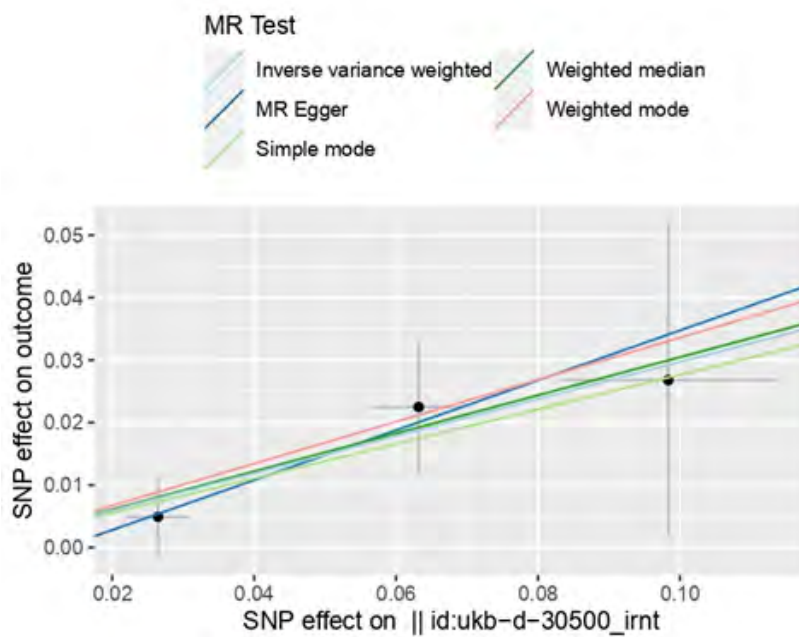


Figure 2: MR results of causal links between microalbumin and T2DM.

Table 1: MR results of causal links between microalbumin and T2DM.

method	nsnp	b	se	pval	lo_ci	up_ci	or	or_lci95	or_uci95
MR Egger	3	0.39932	0.261846	0.369489	-0.1139	0.912538	1.490811	0.89235	2.490635
Weighted median	3	0.304668	0.1363	0.025399	0.03752	0.571815	1.356174	1.038233	1.77148
Inverse variance weighted	3	0.297119	0.120968	0.014042	0.060022	0.534216	1.345975	1.06186	1.70611
Simple mode	3	0.276472	0.173746	0.252538	-0.06407	0.617013	1.31847	0.93794	1.853384
Weighted mode	3	0.335793	0.161095	0.172482	0.020047	0.651538	1.399049	1.02025	1.91849

Table 2: SNPs used as instrumental variables from microalbumin and T2DM GWASs.

SNP	chr	pos	effect_allele	other_allele	beta_exposure	beta_outcome	se_exposure	se_outcome	pval_exposure	pval_outcome	eaf_exposure	R2	Fvalue
rs116867125	10	17033504	A	G	0.098354	0.0268	0.015188	0.0251	9.48E-11	0.2862	0.020059	0.00038	41.32461
rs6665323	1	47953054	C	T	0.026458	0.0049	0.00441	0.0066	1.98E-09	0.4576	0.622863	0.000329	35.73879
rs74942409	10	16928301	C	T	0.063186	0.0225	0.006658	0.0104	2.34E-21	0.02996	0.114877	0.000812	88.1885

5. Discussion

The MR method was used in this study to investigate the causal relationship between T2DM and microalbumin using GWAS summary-level data. The primary analyses discovered evidence that genetically predicted T2DM was linked to microalbumin levels. It also suggested that microalbumin was related to the risk of T2DM.

Because of the increased proportion of microvascular complications associated with diabetes, such as diabetic nephropathy, the amount of diabetics with end-stage renal disease (ESRD) will rise sharply [23]. As a result, diabetes, particularly type 2 diabetes, is increasingly becoming the primary cause for patients to begin renal replacement treatment [24, 25]. On average, 20-40% of diabetic people will have renal impairment [26]. Microalbuminuria is frequently the initial symptom of renal dysfunction, indicating the presence of overt nephropathy [27]. As a result, urine albumin measurement is frequently employed as a sensitive diagnostic and predictor of ESRD in diabetic patients [28]. Microalbuminuria and other risk factors linked with this illness must be monitored in order to avoid or postpone overt nephropathy [29]. The gold standard is microalbuminuria measurement in a 24-hour urine collection [30]. Furthermore, even within the normal range, the urinary microalbumin-to-urine creatinine ratio (UACR) is a significant predictor of diabetic nephropathy and an important risk factor for cardiovascular disease, and it shows endothelial dysfunction in DM [31, 32].

A recent study discovered that people with excessive urine microalbumin concentrations had a considerably greater risk of developing T2DM [33]. Furthermore, there were favorable relationships between microalbumin concentrations and various metabolic syndrome components, such as hypertension and hyperglycemia. Urinary microalbumin concentration increases of 10 mg/L were linked to a 10% increase in the incidence of T2DM [33]. Microalbumin levels below the threshold for microalbuminuria might substantially predict the risk of cardiometabolic problems [34]. The NHANES study discovered a connection among microalbuminuria and the possibility of hypertension and hyperglycemia [35]. The risk of developing T2DM was shown to be 1.90 (95% CI = 0.88-4.06) in an 11-year follow-up of 882 people aged 20 to 74, for those with microalbuminuria and 2.51 (95% CI = 1.08-5.87) for those with macroalbuminuria, respectively [36]. Microalbuminuria affects roughly 20-40% of diabetes individuals in various populations [37-39], This might be a precursor to diabetic nephropathy and other diabetes problems. To prevent future difficulties, adequate screening programs and tight control of modifiable risk factors are required. These outcomes matched the findings of the current investigation.

However, the fundamental processes linking urine microalbumin levels to the development of metabolic diseases are not entirely understood. Microalbuminuria is most commonly associated with vascular injury and endothelial dysfunction [40], culminating in

type 2 diabetes [41]. On the other hand, the metabolic syndrome Endothelial permeability and intraglomerular capillary pressure may be increased by factors such as abdominal obesity, hypertension, or hyperglycemia, which can cause kidney failure and microalbuminuria [42]. Thus, the mechanisms through which microalbumin has a negative impact on T2DM need to be investigated further.

Diabetic nephropathy can be used to investigate the mechanism of microalbumin's negative influence on T2DM. Despite the convoluted pathophysiology of diabetic nephropathy, podocyte damage has been recognized as being critical [43]. Podocyte structural alterations or destruction are linked to kidney injury, culminating in proteinuria and severe renal insufficiency, finally leading to diabetic nephropathy [44]. Furthermore, defective podocytes result in poor selective glomerular filtration and contribute to proteinuria development [45]. Meanwhile, the continuous hyperglycemia-induced formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) would ultimately harm the antioxidant defense system, triggering oxidative stress (OS) and inflammatory reactions [46].

For many years, a role for inflammation in the development of T2DM has been hypothesized based on the reported associations between higher concentrations of inflammatory biomarkers such as CRP and interleukin-6 (IL-6) and T2DM risk [47]. A large MR research with CHD as the major outcome found that a functional variation causing defective signaling at the IL-6 receptor had a substantial influence on reduced T2DM risk [48]. However, in a comprehensive GWA meta-analysis, the same functional variation was found to be unrelated to T2DM risk [49]. Although the inflammatory theory in T2DM pathogenesis looks feasible, data from magnetic resonance imaging studies has yet to support it. However, bigger trials and investigations into additional inflammatory pathways may provide different results.

The application of the MR technique reduced inverse causality and confounding factors' influence with the findings, which may make them more credible than results from epidemiological studies. To the greatest of our knowledge, this study offers the first MR analysis of this problem. There must be some restrictions mentioned, though. First, we were incapable of identifying whether individuals who participated in the GWAS used in the MR investigations coincided. Nonetheless, the F statistic has the potential to reduce the departure from participant overlap [50]. Second, using a rigorous various testing adjustment would have been overly conservative given the biologic validity and the cross statistical technique, potentially omitting possible causal factors for T2DM. As a result, We neglected to take repeated testing into consideration. Third, the findings of the research may not be generalizable to other ethnic groups because the most of GWAS volunteers were of European heritage.

6. Conclusions

In conclusion, our MR investigation reveals that microalbumin has a causal influence on T2DM. It may hold promise for the preven-

tion and treatment of type 2 diabetes.

7. Declarations

7.1. Ethics approval and consent to participate: All included participants gave their oral and written informed consent.

7.2. Author Contributions: Yanhui Wu and Pengqian Duan conceived the presented idea. Hao Lu and Yanhui Wu performed the manuscript writing. Pengqian Duan was involved in acquisition and processing of data. Hao Lu was involved in interpretation of data. Hao Lu and Pengqian Duan have contributed equally to this work and share first authorship.

7.3. Funding: This work was partially supported by XMU Training Program of Innovation and Entrepreneurship for Undergraduates (Grant numberS202310384232), Special Fund for Introducing High-level Health Talents in Xiamen (Grant number-PM202204140001) and 2021 Xiamen Health Care Guideline Project (Grant number 3502Z20214ZD1137).

7.4. Data Availability Statement: SNPs associated to microalbumin were chosen as instrumental factors in a GWAS (<https://gwas.mrcieu.ac.uk/>) with 108706 sample size (GWAS ID: ukb-d-30500 irmt). We also use summary data from 122 GWAS for 80,154 people with T2DM and 853,816 controls (492,191) from five ancestry groups. Data is from a previous study.

7.5. Acknowledgments: The authors would like to thank all the volunteers that have accepted to participate in the study, and to all the institutions that made this work possible.

References

1. Stumvoll M, Goldstein BJ, van Haeften TW. Type 2 diabetes: principles of pathogenesis and therapy. *Lancet*. 2005; 365(9467): 1333-46.
2. Weyer C, Bogardus C, Mott DM, Pratley RE. The natural history of insulin secretory dysfunction and insulin resistance in the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *J Clin Invest*. 1999; 104(6): 787-94.
3. Chatterjee S, Khunti K, Davies MJ. Type 2 diabetes. *Lancet*. 2017. 389(10085): p. 2239-2251.
4. Worldwide trends in diabetes since 1980: a pooled analysis of 751 population-based studies with 4.4 million participants. *Lancet*. 2016; 387(10027): 1513-30.
5. Lambers Heerspink HJ, Brantsma AH, de Zeeuw D, Bakker SJL, de Jong PE, Gansevoort RT, et al. Albuminuria assessed from first-morning-void urine samples versus 24-hour urine collections as a predictor of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2008; 168(8): 897-905.
6. Gerstein HC, Mann JF, Yi Q, Zinman B, Dinneen SF, Hoogwerf B. Albuminuria and risk of cardiovascular events, death, and heart failure in diabetic and nondiabetic individuals. *Jama*. 2001; 286(4): 421-6.
7. Sheng CS, Hu BC, Fan WX, Zou J, Li Y, Wang JG. Microalbuminuria in relation to the metabolic syndrome and its components in a Chinese population. *Diabetol Metab Syndr*. 2011; 3(1): 6.
8. Li XH, Lin HY, Wang SH, Guan LY, Wang YB. Association of Microalbuminuria with Metabolic Syndrome among Aged Population. *Biomed Res Int*. 2016; 2016: 9241278.
9. Pan CY, Ho LT, Soegondo S, Prodjosudjadi W, Suwanwalaikorn S, Lim SC, et al. Prevalence of albuminuria and cardiovascular risk profile in a referred cohort of patients with type 2 diabetes: an Asian perspective. *Diabetes Technol Ther*. 2008; 10(5): 397-403.
10. Afkhami-Ardekani M, Modarresi M, Amirchaghmaghi E. Prevalence of microalbuminuria and its risk factors in type 2 diabetic patients. *Indian J Nephrol*. 2008; 18(3): 112-7.
11. Go RC, Desmond R, Roseman JM, Bell DS, Vanichanan C, Acton RT. Prevalence and risk factors of microalbuminuria in a cohort of African-American women with gestational diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2001; 24(10): 1764-9.
12. Chen B, Yang DG, Chen Y, Xu WY, Ye B, Ni ZY. The prevalence of microalbuminuria and its relationships with the components of metabolic syndrome in the general population of China. *Clin Chim Acta*. 2010; 411(9-10): 705-9.
13. Hao Z, Konta T, Takasaki S, Abiko H, Ishikawa M, Takahashi T, et al. The association between microalbuminuria and metabolic syndrome in the general population in Japan: the Takahata study. *Intern Med*. 2007; 46(7): 341-6.
14. Li Q, Jia WP, Lu JQ, Chen L, Wu YM, Jiang SY, et al. Relationship between the prevalence of microalbuminuria and components of metabolic syndrome in Shanghai. *Zhonghua Liu Xing Bing Xue Za Zhi*, 2004; 25(1): 65-8.
15. Lin CC, Liu CS, Li TC, Chen CC, Li CI, Lin WY. Microalbuminuria and the metabolic syndrome and its components in the Chinese population. *Eur J Clin Invest*. 2007; 37(10): 783-90.
16. Smith GD, Ebrahim S. Mendelian randomization: can genetic epidemiology contribute to understanding environmental determinants of disease? *Int J Epidemiol*. 2003; 32(1): 1-22.
17. Dan YL, Wang P, Cheng Z, Wu Q, Wang XR, Wang DG, et al. Circulating adiponectin levels and systemic lupus erythematosus: a two-sample Mendelian randomization study. *Rheumatology (Oxford)*. 2021; 60(2): 940-6.
18. Mahajan A, Spracklen CN, Zhang W, Ng MCY, LE, Kitajima H, et al. Multi-ancestry genetic study of type 2 diabetes highlights the power of diverse populations for discovery and translation. *Nat Genet*. 2022; 54(5): 560-572.
19. Choi KW, Chen CY, Stein MB, Klimentidis YC, Wang MJ, Koenen KC, et al. Assessment of Bidirectional Relationships Between Physical Activity and Depression Among Adults: A 2-Sample Mendelian Randomization Study. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2019; 76(4): 399-408.
20. Ooi BNS, Loh H, Ho PJ, Milne RL, Giles G, Gao C, et al. The genetic interplay between body mass index, breast size and breast cancer risk: a Mendelian randomization analysis. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2019; 48(3): 781-794.
21. Bowden J, Greco MFD, Minelli C, Smith GD, Sheehan NA, Thompson JR. Assessing the suitability of summary data for two-sample Mendelian randomization analyses using MR-Egger regression: the role of the I2 statistic. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2016; 45(6): 1961-74.

22. Burgess S, Thompson SG. Interpreting findings from Mendelian randomization using the MR-Egger method. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2017; 32(5): 377-89.
23. Ritz E, Rychlík I, Locatelli F, Halimi S. End-stage renal failure in type 2 diabetes: A medical catastrophe of worldwide dimensions. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 1999; 34(5): 795-808.
24. Ritz E, Orth SR. Nephropathy in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *N Engl J Med.* 1999; 341(15): 1127-33.
25. Parving HH. Diabetic nephropathy: prevention and treatment. *Kidney Int.* 2001; 60(5): 2041-55.
26. Hostetter TH. Prevention of the development and progression of renal disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2003; 14(7 Suppl 2): S144-7.
27. de Jong PE, Hillege HL, Pinto-Sietsma SJ, de Zeeuw D. Screening for microalbuminuria in the general population: a tool to detect subjects at risk for progressive renal failure in an early phase? *Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2003; 18(1): 10-3.
28. Heerspink HJ, Holtkamp FA, de Zeeuw D, Ravid M. Monitoring kidney function and albuminuria in patients with diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2011; 34(Suppl 2): S325-9.
29. de Zeeuw D, Remuzzi G, Parving HH, Keane WF, Zhang Z, Shahinfar S, et al. Proteinuria, a target for renoprotection in patients with type 2 diabetic nephropathy: lessons from RENAAL. *Kidney Int.* 2004; 65(6): 2309-20.
30. Rowe DJ, Dawnay A, Watts GF. Microalbuminuria in diabetes mellitus: review and recommendations for the measurement of albumin in urine. *Ann Clin Biochem.* 1990; 27(Pt 4): 297-312.
31. Marcovecchio ML, Chiesa ST, Armitage J, Daneman D, Donaghue KC, Jones TW, et al. Renal and Cardiovascular Risk According to Tertiles of Urinary Albumin-to-Creatinine Ratio: The Adolescent Type 1 Diabetes Cardio-Renal Intervention Trial (AddIT). *Diabetes Care.* 2018; 41(9): 1963-9.
32. Scirica BM, Mosenzon O, Bhatt DL, Udell JA, Ph Steg G, McGuire DK, et al. Cardiovascular Outcomes According to Urinary Albumin and Kidney Disease in Patients With Type 2 Diabetes at High Cardiovascular Risk: Observations From the SAVOR-TIMI 53 Trial. *JAMA Cardiol.* 2018; 3(2): 155-63.
33. Gaeini Z, Bahadoran Z, Mirmiran P, Norouzirad R, Ghasemi A, Aziz F. Spot urinary microalbumin concentration, metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes: Tehran lipid and glucose study. *BMC Endocr Disord.* 2022; 22(1): 59.
34. Ibsen H, Olsen MH, Wachtell K, Borch-Johnsen K, Lindholm LH, Mogensen CE. Reduction in albuminuria translates to reduction in cardiovascular events in hypertensive patients with left ventricular hypertrophy and diabetes. *J Nephrol.* 2008; 21(4): 566-9.
35. Palaniappan L, Carnethon M, Fortmann SP. Association between microalbuminuria and the metabolic syndrome: NHANES III. *Am J Hypertens.* 2003; 16(11 Pt 1): 952-8.
36. Wang Z, Hoy WE. Albuminuria as a marker of the risk of developing type 2 diabetes in non-diabetic Aboriginal Australians. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2006; 35(5): 1331-5.
37. Ahmad T, Ulhaq I, Mawani M, Islam N. Microalbuminuria in Type-2 Diabetes Mellitus; the tip of iceberg of diabetic complications. *Pak J Med Sci.* 2017; 33(3): 519-23.
38. Thakur SK, Dhakal SP, Parajuli S, Sah AK, Nepal SP, Paudel BD. Microalbuminuria and Its Risk Factors in Type 2 Diabetic Patients. *J Nepal Health Res Coun.* 2019; 17(1): 61-65.
39. Pasko N, Toti F, Strakosha A, Thengjilli E, Shehu A, Dedej T, et al. Prevalence of microalbuminuria and risk factor analysis in type 2 diabetes patients in Albania: the need for accurate and early diagnosis of diabetic nephropathy. *Hippokratia.* 2013; 17(4): 337-41.
40. Ochodnický P, Henning RH, van Dokkum RPE, de Zeeuw D. Microalbuminuria and endothelial dysfunction: emerging targets for primary prevention of end-organ damage. *J Cardiovasc Pharmacol.* 2006; 47 Suppl 2: S151-62; discussion S172-6.
41. Levy BI, Schiffrin EL, Mourad JJ, Agostini D, Vicaut E, Safar ME, et al. Impaired tissue perfusion: a pathology common to hypertension, obesity, and diabetes mellitus. *Circulation.* 2008; 118(9): 968-76.
42. Bonnet F, Marre M, Halimi JM, Stengel B, Lange C, Laville M, et al. Waist circumference and the metabolic syndrome predict the development of elevated albuminuria in non-diabetic subjects: the DESIR Study. *J Hypertens.* 2006; 24(6): 1157-63.
43. Wang Y, Niu A, Pan Y, Cao S, Terker AS, Wang S, et al. Profile of Podocyte Transcriptome During Development of Type 2 and Type 1 Diabetic Nephropathy Using Podocyte-Specific TRAP mRNA RNA-seq. *Diabetes.* 2021; 70(10): 2377-90.
44. Yuan S, Liang X, He W, Liang M, Jin J, He Q. ATF4-dependent heme-oxygenase-1 attenuates diabetic nephropathy by inducing autophagy and inhibiting apoptosis in podocyte. *Ren Fail.* 2021; 43(1): 968-79.
45. Anil Kumar P, Welsh GI, Saleem MA, Menon RK. Molecular and cellular events mediating glomerular podocyte dysfunction and depletion in diabetes mellitus. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne).* 2014; 5: 151.
46. Quan X, Liu H, Ye D, Ding X, Su X. Forsythoside A Alleviates High Glucose-Induced Oxidative Stress and Inflammation in Podocytes by Inactivating MAPK Signaling via MMP12 Inhibition. *Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes.* 2021; 14: 1885-95.
47. Wang X, Bao W, Liu J, Ouyang YY, Wang D, Rong S, et al. Inflammatory markers and risk of type 2 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetes Care.* 2013. 36(1): p. 166-75.
48. Swerdlow DI, Holmes MV, Kuchenbaecker KB, Engmann JEL, Shah T, Sofat R, et al. The interleukin-6 receptor as a target for prevention of coronary heart disease: a mendelian randomisation analysis. *Lancet.* 2012; 379(9822): 1214-24.
49. Morris AP, Voight BF, Teslovich TM, Ferreira T, Segrè AV, Steinthorsdóttir V, et al. Large-scale association analysis provides insights into the genetic architecture and pathophysiology of type 2 diabetes. *Nat Genet.* 2012; 44(9): 981-90.
50. Pierce BL, Burgess S. Efficient design for Mendelian randomization studies: subsample and 2-sample instrumental variable estimators. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2013; 178(7): 1177-84.