Impact of gut microbiota in immunoglobulin A nephropathy; a letter to the editor to the recent findings

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Implication for health policy/practice/research/medical education:
Gut microbiome dysbiosis affects the gut-kidney axis and could be associated with the aggravation of IgA nephropathy and the development of chronic kidney disease.


Keywords: Immunoglobulin A nephropathy, IgA nephropathy, Gut microbiota, Chronic kidney disease, End-stage renal disease

To Editor,

Immunoglobulin Nephropathy is a prevalent type of primary glomerulonephritis and an idiopathic disease (1). Following the first description of IgA nephropathy (IgAN) by Berger and Hinglais in 1968, it has become a major cause of end-stage renal disease (ESRD). Half of IgAN patients progress to ESRD, necessitating dialysis and kidney transplantation. Many individuals worldwide suffer from chronic kidney disease each year, thus IgAN requires further attention (2).

Immunoglobulin A nephropathy represents a significant health burden due to an aging population, the disease itself, and growth in dialysis patients (3). There are estimates of a 5% prevalence of IgAN in the Middle East (4), 10%–35% prevalence in Europe (5), and 50% prevalence in East Asia (mainly Japan (6) and China (7)). Despite several treatments, it can lead to ESRD within 10 years, especially in East Asia. About 20% of all adult patients (8). Previous studies showed that most of the IgA1 antigens found in healthy individuals (into two subclasses of human IgA molecules) are detected in circulating immune complexes and in mesangial areas of cases with IgAN (9). Following IgA1 accumulation in the glomerular mesangium, this disease begins to develop (10). In addition to the role of IgA1 at the beginning of IgAN pathogenesis, there is also a correlation between IgA excess production and renal disease progression (11). The molecular basis of the disease showed, when abnormal IgA binds to anti-glycan immunoglobulin G, the immune complexes will form (12). These complexes deposit in the glomerular mesangium as a result of antigen stimulation in susceptible hosts, resulting in inflammation and tissue damage. Then, the glomerular mesangial inflammation, mesangial proliferation, and glomerular sclerosis lead to kidney dysfunction (11). In addition to T-cell-dependent mechanisms, IgA production can also be modulated by mechanisms independent of the T-cells (8). Following the infection with some commensal bacteria or overgrowing of harmful bacteria, we will face a cascade of activated T-cell-dependent production of IgA, which in turn stimulates the production of excess IgA without any exogenous invasion. Pathogenic bacteria exposure also triggers the production of galactose-deficient IgA1 in the mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue. Thereby, recurrent or chronic bacterial infections, stimulation of mucosal immune response, and also the production of IgA, cause the extension of IgAN (13).

Health and disease are influenced by the gut microbiome (14). In addition to the digestion of complex polysaccharides (15), regulation of the immune system (16), synthesis of certain endogenic vitamins and amino acids (17), and also the metabolism of bile acids (18), the microbiota plays a significant role in metabolic activities of the host (15). Furthermore, epigenetic modification by

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short-chain fatty acids from beneficial bacteria modulates inflammation (19). There has been increasing evidence that changes in the gut microbiota (primarily, changes in the relative proportions of various bacteria) are related to obesity, diabetes, bipolar disorder, and depression (20). Gut microbiota has been shown to affect kidney disease outcomes in recent years. Gut microbiome dysbiosis in the gut-kidney axis is associated with chronic kidney disease (21). In chronic kidney disease, chronic inflammation is believed to originate from the gut. The microbiota has a protective effect against renal damage by modulating the immune response. Microbiota also has a preventable effect on ischemia-reperfusion-induced acute kidney injury. Gut bacteria-derived uremic toxins such as p-cresol sulfate and indoxyl sulfate, indole, and trimethylamine N-oxide, can stimulate the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines, resulting in renal injury. Among them, gut microbiota-derived trimethylamine N-oxide is related to chronic kidney disease progression (8). A variety of pathologies, including endothelial dysfunction, are caused by elevated uremic toxins, which are retained in the blood when the kidneys are not functioning properly (22). On the other hand, the genes associated with susceptibility to IgAN are involved in maintaining the intestinal epithelial barrier, inflaming the gut, and detecting mucosal pathogens, suggesting a kidney-gut link (8). In IgAN, there is dysregulation of the immune system and gut dysbiosis. In this disease, the interaction between the gut-kidney axis and alterations in the gut microbiota may be key factors in the development of IgAN (23). Subsequent to gut dysbiosis, intestinal membrane disruption will proceed, along with bacteria translocation into the blood, which increases intestinal permeability (24). This condition is associated with the activation of innate immune response, and enhancing the systematic inflammatory response, which can lead to aggravation of IgAN, CKD, and finally ESRD (25). The gut microbiota especially specific microbes may serve as the potential IgAN biomarkers and therapeutic targets (23). In the gut microbiota, six bacterial phyla dominate. These include Fusobacteria, Firmicutes, Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria, and Verrucomicrobia. In fact, over 90% of all bacteria belong to Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes families (8). The increase in the families of Polyangiaceae, Moraxellaceae, Nesterenkonia, Thiobrix, Pseudomonadaceae, Megaphera, Bilophila, and Bifidobacterium were detected in IgAN too (23). Likewise, recent studies also showed the abundance of the gut microbiota genus and species of Streptococcaceae, Ruminococcaceae, Lachnospiraceae families in the IgAN (26). Conversely, immunoglobulin A nephropathy may be facilitated by declines in the abundance of the Prevotella genus, as a protective species in the salivary and gut ecosystems (27). Similarly, IgAN patients showed lower Synergistetes, Megamonas, Streptococcus, Fusobacteria, Haemophilus, Veillonella, and Enterococcus abundance (23). Intestinal epithelial barrier penetration may be exacerbated by the increase in the Escherichia-Shigella population because of decreased butyrate biosynthesis and increased oxidative stress (28). More recent investigations showed, the stool of IgAN patients, had more Escherichia-Shigella, Legionella, Enterobacter, and Parabacteroides genera (29). Patients with IgAN had depleted levels of Roseburia and Faecalibacterium, which produce butyrate (30). Interestingly, the activation of NF-kB (nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells), which is implicated in the pathogenesis of IgAN, was inhibited in vitro by the culture supernatant of Faecalibacterium (31).

Besides providing energy to the intestinal mucosa, butyrate exerts anti-inflammatory effects, then affects regulatory T (Treg) cells, which contribute to IgAN pathogenesis (32).

Authors’ contribution

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Conflicts of interest

The author declare that she has no competing interests.

Ethical issues

Ethical issues (including plagiarism, data fabrication, double publication) have been completely observed by the author.

Funding/Support

None.

References

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