

Potential Biomarkers for Early Detection of Diabetic Nephropathy: A Narrative Review

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Abstract

Diabetic Nephropathy shows the predominant cause of renal failure in diabetics. It is also a significant contributor to clinical mortality which is characterized by the progressive decrement in renal morphology and physiology because of sustained hyperglycemia. As the disease progress, many patients ultimately require renal replacement therapy for end stage renal disease (ERSD). For this reason, early diagnosis and prompt interventions are crucial to limit disease progression, enhance clinical outcomes and conserve quality of life. The recognition of biomarkers for the early detection of DN is of predominant importance. In recent years, the process of recognition of novel biomarkers which offers valuable insights into the onset and progression of DN has been significantly increased. This review gives a comprehensive evaluation of emerging biomarkers associated with diabetic nephropathy.

Introduction

The pathogenesis of diabetic nephropathy (DN) is complex and multifactorial, progressing via many stages and primarily driven by hyperglycemia-induced inflammatory processes that effect both hemodynamic and metabolic routes. Hemodynamic variations contribute to increased intraglomerular pressure and activation of vasoactive hormonal systems and metabolic changes lead to mesangial cell enlargement and structural remodeling of renal tissue. These processes lead up to inflammation, endothelial dysfunction, and fibrosis. Early diagnostic indicators of DN commonly include glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) and albuminuria. These markers also have prognostic utility in predicting cardiovascular events and mortality, broadening their relevance beyond kidney-specific outcomes.¹ A major limitation of depending on these markers is the growing prevalence of non albuminuric DN in which patients show renal impairment without albuminuria.³ Moreover, it often reflects an advanced stage of kidney damage, followed by expeditious progression to end-stage renal disease (ESRD) in the cases of albuminuria. It is significantly identified that proteinuria does not reliably pave the way for functional decrement in all cases. This indicates that injury to the tubulointerstitial compartment may occur independently of glomerular destruction. Furthermore, serum creatinine levels and in consequence, the estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) are affected by determinants i.e, muscle mass and dietary protein intake that can decrease their reliability. It is importantly relevant in individuals with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) in which eGFR estimates founded on the CKD-EPI equation may be less precise. In recent years, significant advances have been made in illuminating the molecular mechanisms of DN and in recognizing related biomarkers. The aim of

this review is to provide in depth analysis of contemporary biomarkers of DN, scanned via the optics of disease physiology, pathology, pathogenesis, and omics-based approaches.

Physiological and Pathological Biomarkers of DN

Diabetic nephropathy (DN) results in both morphological and functional variations in the kidney, primarily effecting the glomeruli and tubulointerstitial compartments. Analyzing the molecules involved in renal destruction may help predict the progression of DN.

Figure 1 summarizes the individual biomarkers associated with DN under physiological and pathological conditions.

Figure1: Single Biomarkers of DN

Single Biomarkers of DN in Physiological and Pathological	
Biomarkers of renal tubular injury	Cystatin C、KIM-1、NGAL、L-FABP、RBP4
Biomarkers of glomerular injury early diagnosis	Podocin、Synaptopodin、Int α 3、Nephrin、Podocalyxin、Mandin、type IV collagen、laminin、GAGs、VWF、VEGF、IgG、IgM、TRF、CER
Biomarkers of DN Pathogenesis	
Oxidative stress biomarkers:	8-OHdG、Pentosidine、Uricacid、Acylcarnitine、Acrolein
inflammatory biomarkers:	MCP-1、TNF- α 、YKL-40、EGF、FGF-23、CCL-14、IL-17RE、IL-6、IL-18、WT1、ACE-2、CTGF、ACSF2、MCPIP1

Biomarkers of Renal Tubular Injury

Research indicates that tubular injury in diabetic patients can occur prior to glomerular injury, and the extent of tubulointerstitial damage may play a crucial role in the deterioration of renal function.³ Consequently, tubular biomarkers hold significant importance for the early diagnosis of diabetic nephropathy. *Cystatin C*. Cystatin C (CysC) is a low-molecular-weight protein consisting of 122 amino acids, synthesized and released into plasma by all nucleated cells at a constant rate. This small, positively charged protein is freely filtered through the glomerular membrane and is subsequently completely reabsorbed and degraded in the proximal tubule, without being secreted back into circulation. Consequently, CysC is typically absent in urine.⁴⁻⁸ As a member of the cysteine protein inhibitor family, CysC serves as the most abundant and potent endogenous inhibitor of both intracellular and extracellular enzyme activity, playing a significant role in various pathological processes, including cardiovascular disease and inflammation.⁶ Recent studies have identified CysC as a valuable biomarker for tubular injury, aiding in the quantification and classification of different stages of DN.⁹ Research conducted by Jeon¹⁰ et al demonstrated that CysC levels increase with advancing stages of

chronic kidney disease (CKD), from stage I to III, and correlate positively with the albumin/creatinine ratio, particularly during the transition from normal albuminuria to microalbuminuria. Furthermore, Xu¹¹ et al confirmed the association of elevated CysC levels with the progression of DN. Notably, serum CysC levels are independent of muscle mass and remain unaffected by age, presenting distinct clinical advantages over creatinine (Cr). Both serum CysC and Cr exhibit a hyperbolic relationship with GFR, allowing their inclusion in the same predictive equation for GFR.⁸ CysC is particularly advantageous for patients experiencing muscle mass loss or degenerative muscle diseases, proving to be a more accurate biomarker.⁹ Thus, utilizing serum CysC as a biomarker for the early diagnosis of acute kidney injury (AKI) can effectively reflect early changes in renal function and a decrease in estimated GFR. *KIM-1*. KIM-1 is a 38.7-kDa type I transmembrane glycoprotein expressed on the parietal membrane of renal proximal tubular (PT) cells. It is shed from these cells during AKI and contributes to tubular epithelial hyperplasia.¹² Elevated concentrations of urinary KIM-1 (uKIM-1) are associated with further damage to the tubulointerstitium, leading to increased fibrosis and inflammation.^{13,14} Notably, estimates of uKIM-1 levels can occur prior to the elevation of serum creatinine, serving as predictors of AKI; thus, KIM-1 has been utilized as a biomarker in studies investigating drug nephrotoxicity.¹⁴ Presently, KIM-1 is the most extensively studied biomarker for DN.¹⁵ Clinical studies have demonstrated a gradual increase in uKIM-1 values among patients with T1DM and T2DM, particularly those exhibiting microalbuminuria.^{16,17} In a nested case-control study involving 380 participants and a prospective cohort study with 1156 participants, serum KIM-1 (sKIM-1) levels were independently associated with a heightened risk of decreased eGFR in patients with either early or advanced DN.¹⁸ Similarly, a case cohort study of 894 individuals with DN and renal insufficiency demonstrated that higher sKIM-1 levels correlated with an increased risk of DN progression.¹⁹ Additionally, KIM-1 may be linked to the risk of developing DN in children and adolescents diagnosed with T1DM; however, further prospective cohort studies are necessary to elucidate this relationship.²⁰ Moreover, fully printed photonic crystal microarrays can quantitatively detect uKIM-1 levels in less than 10 min.²¹ Beyond its role in AKI, KIM-1 serves as a valuable tool for detecting CKD progression and guiding therapeutic interventions for patients at risk of CKD.

Neutrophil Gelatinase-Associated Lipocarrierin, NGAL.

NGAL, a 25 kDa protein that belong to the lipocalin family, is synthesized by neutrophils and epithelial cells in various tissues, including the kidney. This protein is released into circulation and subsequently filtered through the glomerular membrane, with reabsorption occurring in the proximal tubule.^{9,22} NGAL has been extensively validated as a reliable biomarker for AKI,²³ and prospective analyses have demonstrated a strong association between urinary NGAL (uNGAL) levels and the histopathological severity of inflammatory kidney injury in patients with DN.²⁴ Significant elevations in serum NGAL (sNGAL) and uNGAL have been observed in individuals with normal to micro-massive albuminuria T2DM,^{20,25} indicating that tubular and glomerular injuries may occur in the early stages of DN, thereby enabling the detection of early nephropathy prior to the onset of proteinuria. A meta-analysis further supports the potential diagnostic value of uNGAL for DN.²⁶ He et al²⁷ conducted a meta-analysis involving 19 studies, suggesting that both sNGAL and uNGAL could assist in the classification of DN and possess diagnostic utility in normoalbuminuric nephropathy. In a study of 300 subjects with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus, both uNGAL and sNGAL were predictive of albuminuria and could serve as noninvasive tools for diagnosing, grading, and monitoring the progression of DN.²⁸ Furthermore, Duan et al²⁹ identified an optimal cut-off value for the uNGAL-to-creatinine ratio of 60.685 ng/mg, which was recognized as an independent risk factor for DN in patients with CKD and DM, exhibiting high

specificity (90.5%). Additionally, another study involving T2DM patients found that NGAL levels were positively correlated with renal function tests, including creatinine, blood urea nitrogen, and albuminuria. The sensitivity and specificity of uNGAL at a cut-off point of 565 ng/mL were reported to be 97.5% and 100%, respectively, underscoring the accuracy of both uNGAL and sNGAL as biomarkers for the early diagnosis of DN.³⁰ These findings imply that NGAL could serve as a non-invasive tool for diagnosing, staging, and monitoring the progression of DN, while also offering additional diagnostic value in patients with nephropathy characterized by similar levels of albuminuria. However, large-scale prospective studies are essential to validate the application of NGAL as a biomarker for routine clinical practice.³¹

Hepatic Fatty Acid-Binding Protein, L-FABP. L-FABP is a 14-kDa intracellular protein predominantly synthesized in the cytoplasm of proximal tubule (PT) cells, where it plays a crucial role in the metabolism of long-chain fatty acids. This protein is essential for maintaining fatty acid homeostasis, as fatty acids within the cytoplasm bind to L-FABP. A loss of intraglomerular fatty acid-binding albumin can lead to excessive accumulation of intraglomerular fatty acids, which induces inflammatory responses and manifests as tubular lesions in CKD. The upregulation of the L-FABP gene accelerates fatty acid metabolism and mitigates inflammation, functioning as a protective response.³² In a three-year follow-up study involving 48 patients with Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus (T1DM), uL-FABP emerged as an early marker of DN, correlating with disease progression over time, independent of albuminuria.³³ A cross-sectional study comparing patients with T2DM and nondiabetic individuals found that changes in uL-FABP levels during renal impairment preceded alterations in urinary albumin levels, suggesting that uL-FABP is a more reliable indicator than the albumin-to-creatinine ratio (ACR).³⁴ Hhong et al³⁵ reported significantly elevated L-FABP levels in elderly patients with T2DM, which were closely associated with the onset and progression of type 2 DN. Furthermore, a meta-analysis conducted by Hang et al³⁶ indicated that uL-FABP could serve as a potential biomarker for detecting all stages of DN and for predicting the progression and severity of the condition in patients with both T1DM and T2DM. A 12-year follow-up study corroborated these findings, demonstrating a significant increase in uL-FABP, a 50% reduction in GFR, and a decrease in the incidence of cardiovascular disease among patients with T2DM.³⁷ The assessment of uL-FABP in individuals with T2DM appears to be a promising tubular marker for predicting the incidence of cardiovascular disease and renal impairment. However, a 14-year follow-up study by Panduru et al, which involved 2329 individuals with T1DM found that uL-FABP was an independent predictor of stroke and mortality in this population, but did not predict other cardiovascular endpoints.³⁸ Furthermore, Hirowatari³⁹ et al reported that uL-FABP levels were significantly reduced following the administration of sodium-glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitors, indicating that uL-FABP may serve as a marker for the therapeutic efficacy of DN treatment. Additionally, Mohsen et al proposed that the DPP4 inhibitor saxagliptin may reduce albuminuria by mitigating tubular injury, suggesting that uL-FABP could be a valuable marker for monitoring the efficacy of gliptins in the management of DN.⁴⁰ Importantly, advancements in clinical decision-making, such as the development of chemiluminescence rapid quantitative tests⁴¹ and microchip immunoassays,⁴² have facilitated the rapid, cost-effective, and high-sensitivity quantitative detection of biomarkers like uL-FABP, which is beneficial for precise and frequent monitoring of renal function.

Retinol-Binding-Protein-4, RBP4. RBP4 is a low-molecular-weight transporter that facilitates the transport of vitamin A (retinol) in the bloodstream. Elevated RBP4 levels have been associated with the onset of metabolic diseases, as RBP4 promotes inflammation and oxidative stress through the activation

of immune cells and releasing pro-inflammatory cytokines.⁴³ Furthermore, RBP4 is regarded as a potential diagnostic marker for renal impairment due to its ability to detect tubular damage early and to sensitively reflect the extent of injury to the renal proximal convoluted tubules.⁴⁴ Evidence indicate that elevated RBP4 levels can be identified in the early stages of T 2 DN, with urinary RBP4 (uRBP4) and microalbumin levels significantly higher in the diabetic cohort compared to both the control group and those with nephropathy.⁴⁵ A retrospective study involving 1946 patients with T2DM, with or without DN, found that elevated uRBP4 was linked to an increased risk of DN in T2DM patients, as well as worsening albuminuria and declining renal function in those with DN.⁴⁶ Additionally, Javed reported a significant correlation between RBP4 levels and creatinine clearance.⁴⁷ Xing et al established that RBP4 levels are positively correlated with urinary albumin concentration, achieving a sensitivity of 85.7% and a specificity of 56.2%. This study, which included a cohort of 135 T2DM patients, proposed that RBP4 could serve as a bio- marker for the early diagnosis of DN⁴⁸. Furthermore, a prospective study involving 438 T2DM patients found that RBP4 was positively correlated with the degree of renal impairment, effectively identifying DN in this population.⁴⁹RBP4 also reflects the onset of diabetic retinopathy⁵⁰ and is regarded as a promising biomarker for predicting cardiovascular disease. Moreover, medicinal plants that target RBP4 may aid in the treatment of cardiometabolic diseases.⁵¹ For instance, a study involving patients with prediabetes or early T2DM who were supplemented with mulberry leaves for 12 weeks revealed that the down-regulation of RBP4 is associated with improved insulin resistance. Collectively, these findings suggest that RBP4 is a valuable biomarker for both the prevention and treatment of early DN.⁵² Collectively, it may serve as an effective marker for identifying the early onset of DN and for predicting the progressive stages of renal impairment in individuals with both T1DM and T2DM.

Biomarkers of Glomerular Injury

The glomeruli serve as the primary sites of damage in DN. This progressive DN is characterized by several pathological changes, including the loss of podocyte foot processes, thickening of the glomerular basement membrane, and expansion of mesangial cells within the glomeruli. Collectively, these alterations lead to a reduction in glomerular surface area and impaired glomerular filtration.⁵³

Table 1 summarizes the biomarkers associated with current glomerular injury.

Table:1 Biomarkers associated with glomerular injury.

Glomerular damage	Podocyte injury	Glomerular basement membrane damage	Glomerular endothelial injury	Glomerular filtration creased
biomarkers	podocin ⁵⁴ synaptopodin ^{55,56} integrin alpha 3 (Intα3) ⁵⁷ nephrin ⁵⁸ podocalyxin ⁵⁹ and mindin ⁶⁰	type IV collagen ³⁷ laminin ⁶¹ glycosaminoglycans(GAGs) ⁶²	von Willebrand factor (VWF) ⁶³ vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF). ⁶³	immunoglobulin G(IgG) ⁶⁴ immunoglobulin M(IgM) ⁶⁵ transferrin (TRF) ⁶⁶ ceruloplasmin (CER) ⁶⁷
comment	early diagnosis			

DN Pathogenesis Biomarkers

Oxidative Stress Biomarkers

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are the primary contributors to oxidative stress, which is associated with disease progression. In the kidneys, ROS predominantly generated by mitochondria and the nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase (NOX) family. Additionally, oxidative

stress arises from advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) induced by hyperglycemia during the later stages of non-enzymatic glycation of sugars and proteins. This hyperglycemia-induced oxidative stress leads to several detrimental outcomes, including DNA damage, lipid peroxidation, mitochondrial dysfunction, and the infiltration of inflammatory cells, ultimately culminating in renal cell damage.

8-OHdG. 8-Hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) is a byproduct of DNA damage resulting from oxidative stress in living cells, particularly in the context of DN. It is excreted in urine through nuclease activity and can also be detected in plasma.^{13,68} Cohort studies involving patients with T1DM have indicated that elevated plasma levels of 8-OHdG are independently associated with an increased risk of kidney disease, implying its potential utility in monitoring the progression of DN.⁶⁹ Wakeel et al demonstrated that urinary 8-OHdG is a reliable marker of oxidative DNA damage in T1DM patients with diabetic retinopathy.⁷⁰ Furthermore, urinary excretion of 8-OHdG may serve as an independent predictor of disease progression and the onset of both microvascular and macrovascular complications. However, Serdar et al reported that urine 8-OHdG measurement did not effectively predict progressive DN when compared to uACR.⁷¹ Consequently, further research is warranted to elucidate the clinical significance of these biomarkers and to explore the role of novel therapeutic agents in diabetes management.

Pentosidine. Pentosidine, a product of higher sugar oxidation, is formed through the covalent binding of amino groups to glucose. Machowska et al observed that plasma pentosidine levels correlate with low GFR, oxidative stress, and inflammation, serving as independent predictors of mortality in patients with CKD.⁷² Furthermore, Perkins et al reported that patients with microalbuminuria exhibited approximately a two-fold increase in pentosidine excretion and an early decline in GFR compared to those with normal albuminuria.⁷³ In diabetic patients, elevated pentosidine levels have been identified as independent predictors of diabetic retinopathy, cardiovascular disease, and all-cause mortality.⁷⁴ Collectively, these findings suggest that measuring pentosidine levels in both urine and serum may aid in identify patients at risk for early GFR decline and could serve as a promising biomarker for both microvascular and macrovascular complications associated with diabetes.

Uric acid. Uric acid, a byproduct of purine metabolism, has been demonstrated to independently predict the progression of DN. Numerous clinical studies have concentrated on the relationship between uric acid levels and DN prognosis. In a cohort study involving 277 patients with T1DM, elevated serum uric acid levels were identified as predictors of persistent massive albuminuria.⁷⁵ Similarly, among a cohort of 422 patients with T2DM who had been diagnosed for at least 15 years, initial hyperuricemia emerged as an independent risk factor for DN progression.⁷⁶ A four-year follow-up study by Cosmo et al revealed a significant association between serum uric acid levels and albuminuria; furthermore, the cumulative incidence of GFR decline was notably higher in patients with hyperuricemia, which was identified as an independent risk factor for progression in T2DM patients.⁷⁷ Additionally, a significant correlation exists between urinary lactate levels and biomarkers indicative of renal tubular injury and epithelial stress, suggesting that elevated urinary lactate levels could serve as potential bio- markers for the risk of renal disease progression.

Collectively, this evidence indicates that serum uric acid may function as an independent predictor for the subsequent development of massive albuminuria in patients with both T1DM and T2DM.

Acylcarnitine. Acylcarnitine, an esterification product of carnitine, plays a crucial role in fatty acids oxidation and is significantly associated with an increased risk of T2DM.⁷⁸ Mirzoyan et al⁷⁹ demonstrated that in cases of hyperlipidemia, the development of diabetes correlates with a diminished capacity of the kidneys to oxidize fatty acids and amino acids. Sulaj et al⁸⁰ pro- posed that

acylcarnitine has historically been an important diagnostic marker for congenital fatty acid oxidation disorders. Mu et al⁸¹ found that short- and medium-chain acylcarnitines were less prevalent, while longer acylcarnitines were more abundant in the late stages of DN, typically observed in diabetes with normal albuminuria and microalbuminuria. The increase in long-chain acylcarnitines is believed to compensate for the adaptive oxidation of fatty acids in the early stages of DN, whereas the reduction of long-chain acylcarnitines in advanced DN stages is attributed to incomplete fatty acid oxidation. Consequently, acylcarnitine may serve as a predictive marker for the risk of DN. Hassan et al⁸² emphasized the importance of monitoring plasma free amino acid and acylcarnitine profiles children with T1DM, particularly those testing positive for JAK2 (V617F), to facilitate the early diagnosis of DN. Li and Xuerui et al⁸³ conducted an analysis of clinical data from 1032 participants with T2DM, measuring levels of 25 acylcarnitine metabolites in fasting plasma via mass spectrometry. Their findings indicated that certain plasma acylcarnitine metabolites were elevated in T2DM patients with DN, and incorporating acylcarnitine into traditional risk models enhanced the predictive value for DN. Esmati et al⁸⁴ employed flow injection tandem mass spectrometry (FI-MS/MS) to simultaneously quantify amino acids and carnitine/acylcarnitines in patients with T2DM, meeting analytical performance requirements within a brief timeframe. The concurrent detection of amino acid and acylcarnitine profiles serves as prospective tandem bio-markers for DN, offering valuable insights for predicting the risk of DN at the time of initial diagnosis. While acylcarnitines have demonstrated a strong predictive capacity for DN, further clinical data and scientific research are necessary to enhance the acylcarnitine risk model.

Acrolein. Acrolein, An α , β -unsaturated aldehyde, is endogenously produced during lipid peroxidation. It forms highly reactive conjugates with proteins, leading to alterations in protein function. Renal fibrosis is a hallmark of DN, and it has been demonstrated that acrolein modification at Cys358 in PKM2 results in its inactivation, which is implicated in the pathogenesis of DN.⁸⁵ Currently, there are very few reports on acrolein involving DN biomarkers.

Inflammatory Biomarkers

Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1, MCP-1. MCP-1, also known as C-C motif chemokine ligand 2 (CCL2), is a pro-inflammatory cytokine synthesized by monocytes, cortical tubular epithelial cells, and podocytes. It is responsible for mediating the migration of monocytes and macrophages to tissues via the nuclear factor- κ B pathway. MCP-1 has been implicated in various renal pathologies, including inflammation, glomerular injury, tubular atrophy, and fibrosis.⁸⁶ Notably, excessive renal inflammation can lead to a rapid decline in renal function, and elevated levels of MCP-1 have emerged as a promising biomarker for predicting progressive decline in non-DN renal function.⁸⁷

In a median follow-up period ranging from 4.2 to 7.1 years, Menez et al found that 266 patients (30.8%) experienced a composite CKD outcome following cardiac surgery. The suggesting indicates that uMCP-1 is independently associated with CKD post-surgery, and suggests its potential as a noninvasive indicator of tubular injury.⁸⁸ Similarly, Fufaa et al found a significant correlation between uMCP-1 concentrations and changes in renal interstitial volume, as well as disease progression in normotensive patients with albuminuria and T1DM.⁸⁹ In a cohort of 75 patients with T2DM exhibiting varying degrees of DN, uMCP-1 levels were observed to increase with albuminuria, demonstrating a sensitivity of 92% and a specificity of 100% for early diagnosis.⁹⁰ Additionally, in a prospective study involving 83 high-risk patients with T2DM and DN, Satirapoj et al showed that uMCP-1 was positively associated with early declines in DN GFR, independent of conventional risk factors.⁹¹ A case-cohort study of 894 participants with T1DM and T2DM reported that high levels of MCP-1 were also associated with an increased risk of DN

progression.¹⁹ Overall, MCP-1 proves to be a valuable biomarker for detecting the incidence or progression of CKD in patients undergoing cardiac surgery as well as for stratifying long-term CKD risk in other recognized clinical settings for kidney injury.⁸⁷ These observations suggest that MCP-1 as a promising inflammatory marker for diagnosing early progressive renal dysfunction and for assessing long-term CKD risk.

Tumor Necrosis Factor - α , *TNF- α* . *TNF- α* has been identified as a notable inflammatory marker that predicts the progression of DN.⁹² A meta-analysis by Qiao et al⁹³ demonstrated a significant elevation in *TNF- α* levels among patients with T1DM compared to healthy controls. Furthermore, Sharad et al established a robust correlation between microalbuminuria and the activity of soluble serum *TNF- α* receptors and the IL-6 pathway in T1DM patients, indicating the critical role of *TNF- α* in disease progression.⁹⁴ Umapathy et al reported that a gradual increase in normal-micro-massive albuminuria in T2DM is associated with the rs1800629 polymorphism in the *TNF- α* gene.⁹⁵ Additionally, Khaloo et al found that elevated *TNF- α* levels were linked to diabetic retinopathy in T2DM, achieving an area under the curve (AUC) of 0.84.⁹⁶ Consequently, the assessment of *TNF- α* emerges as a promising biomarker for predicting cardiovascular disease and progressive renal function impairment. The *TNF- α* receptor is a type 1 transmembrane protein distinguished by cysteine-rich motifs present in glomeruli and tubular cells. It comprises two types: *TNF- α* receptor 1 (TNFR1, 55 kDa) and *TNF- α* receptor 2 (TNFR2, 75 kDa). *TNF- α* binds to these receptors and is also detected in its soluble form within the systemic circulation.¹³ Studies have indicated that soluble *TNF- α* receptor 1 (sTNFR1)⁹⁷ and soluble *TNF- α* receptor 2 (sTNFR2)¹⁹ serve as significant predictors of DN progression in patients with T2DM, with sTNFR1 emerging as the most robust prognostic biomarker.⁹⁸ Paykov et al reported that serum levels of *TNF* receptors were independently associated with decreased renal function in T2DM and ESRD.⁹⁹ In a nested case-control and prospective cohort study, elevated plasma levels of TNFR-1 and TNFR-2 were linked to a heightened risk of DN progression, independent of age and other laboratory parameters.¹⁸ Moreover, circulating levels of sTNFR have been shown to independently predict progressive renal function decline and a ten-year risk of ESKD in cohorts of patients with T1DM and T2DM.¹⁰⁰ In contrast, Martin et al reported that sTNFR1 predicts short- to medium-term mortality; but not of progressive renal function decline in an elderly cohort of T2DM patients with CKD. They also noted that the parallel assessment of uACR could provide complementary prognostic information.¹⁰¹ Furthermore, sTNFR1 and sTNFR2 are emerging as promising biomarkers for forecasting progressive impairment of renal function.

YKL-40. YKL-40, also known as chitinase 3-like-1 (CHI3L1), is a 40-kDa glycoprotein secreted by various cell types that protects renal tubular cells from apoptosis.¹⁰² AKI is a prevalent syndrome among critically ill patients, and elevated levels of YKL-40 are associated with poorer clinical outcomes. Biomarkers are essential for the early recognition and management of AKI, potentially enhancing patient outcomes.¹⁰³ Urinary YKL-40 levels correlate with the severity and mortality of AKI during hospitalization, and its elevation is considered a promising urinary biomarker for AKI diagnosis. It demonstrates comparable diagnostic efficacy in identifying patients with AKI at or above KDIGO stage 2 within 24 h; however, further studies are warranted to validate its clinical applicability.^{103,104} A single-center, prospective cohort study involving 249 AKI patients indicated that urinary YKL-40 levels were associated with disease progression and/or mortality, thereby enhancing clinically determined risk reclassification.¹⁰⁵ Additionally, Conroy et al identified YKL-40 as an independent risk factor for mortality in AKI related to malaria pathogenesis, highlighting its potential as a biomarker for AKI.¹⁰⁶ Elevated serum YKL-40 concentrations have also been

documented in patients with T2DM.¹⁰⁷ In a case-cohort study involving 894 T2DM participants, higher YKL-40 levels were linked to an increased risk of DN progression.¹⁹ The integration of YKL-40 with other AKI biomarkers, such as NGAL, may facilitate a more comprehensive assessment of progression risk.¹⁰⁸ However, additional research is required to establish the universal applicability of YKL-40 and its relationship with long-term AKI outcomes.

EGF. Epidermal growth factor (EGF) is a 6-kDa mediator that regulates and stimulates the proliferation, migration, and differentiation of mesenchymal cells, particularly within epithelial tissues. It is expressed predominantly in the distal tubules and plays a crucial role in the proliferation and survival of renal tubular cells, typically being excreted in the urine. Recent data suggest that urinary EGF serves as a reliable noninvasive indicator of functionally normal tubular volume and the status of tubular repair following AKI.¹⁰⁹ Norvik et al demonstrated that lower levels of urinary EGF (uEGF) were associated with a rapid decline in GFR and an increased risk of CKD events in the general population, based on a median follow-up of a large sample size (n = 5883) over an average of six years. These findings align with observations in CKD and high-risk populations, indicating that uEGF can be utilized as a broadly applicable tubular-specific biomarker for assessing clinical risk.¹¹⁰ Additionally, the uEGF/MCP-1 ratio is independently linked to rapid renal progression in patients with DN.⁹¹ Lower urinary EGF levels correlate with increased interstitial fibrosis and tubular atrophy, while higher EGF levels are associated with improved treatment responses and remission in various glomerular diseases.¹¹¹ Therefore, the therapeutic use of exogenous EGF may not be an appropriate strategy for long-term treatment.

FGF-23. Fibroblast growth factor 23 (FGF-23), a 28 kDa hormone, is crucial for regulating renal phosphate excretion and maintaining mineral balance.¹¹² Phosphate homeostasis is compromised when the GFR declines.¹¹³ An observational study involving 60 patients with stages III-V CKD found that elevated phosphate levels correlated with increased FGF-23/ Klotho ratios, suggesting that these ratios may serve as risk factors for evaluating CKD patients and as protective indicators for treatment as well as prognosis.¹¹³ Additionally, a separate study of 60 CKD patients undergoing hemodialysis revealed significant associations between FGF-23 and levels of creatinine, urea, phosphorus, and calcium.¹¹² A systematic review and meta-analysis conducted by Castillo et al indicated that aerobic physical exercise can decrease FGF-23 levels and slow the progression of CKD.¹¹⁴ Furthermore, several studies have elucidated the mechanisms underlying the upregulation of FGF-23 in AKI, establishing that quantitative changes in FGF-23 may serve as a reliable biomarker for predicting adverse outcomes and prognosis in AKI patients.^{115,116} FGF-23 is a potential marker for DN, but there are currently few research reports on DN.

Other Inflammatory Factor Biomarkers. Recent studies have updated our understanding of inflammatory factor biomarkers in DN. For instance, Hostet et al¹⁰² demonstrated that elevated urinary levels of C-C motif chemokine ligand 14 (CCL-14) are associated with renal impairment, identifying it as the most reliable predictor of AKI severity and persistence. Furthermore, the expression levels of renal interleukin-17 receptor E (IL-17RE) have been correlated with albuminuria and the severity of DN.¹¹⁷ Interleukin-6 (IL-6) is recognized for its dual role in inflammation and glycemic control, making it a promising biomarker and therapeutic target for both DN and T2DM.¹¹⁸ Additionally, decreased serum levels of IL-18 have been linked to the development of DN in the Pakistani population.¹¹⁹ The overexpression of Wilms' tumor 1 (WT1) in podocytes has been shown to induce podocyte injury associated with DN.¹²⁰ Moreover, angiotensin-converting enzyme-2 (ACE-2) and connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) have emerged as early and reliable predictors of disease progression in DN.¹²¹ Lysine lactylation and acyl-CoA synthetase family member 2 (ACSF2), which are implicated in the pathogenesis of metabolic and inflammatory

diseases, may also contribute to the progression of DN.¹²² Notably, a reduction in MCP1 has been identified as an independent risk factor for renal progression in patients with DN. Additionally, centrally administered dapagliflozin has been reported to exert anti-inflammatory effects by upregulating MCP1 levels in microglia and altering lipid metabolism in kidneys affected by DN.¹²³ These findings suggest that MCP1 levels may serve as a valuable biomarker for assessing the efficacy of dapagliflozin in the treatment of DN. disease outcomes, based on individual molecular profiles.

Conclusion

Diabetic nephropathy (DN) investigation is increasingly improving and the recognition of new biomarkers provides promising tools for early diagnosis, disease monitoring, and therapeutic targeting. This findings shows a complete overview of recently recognized biomarkers for DN , analyzing them through multidimensional perspectives which confine physiology, pathology, underlying mechanisms, and emerging technologies.

Future research should emphasize on integration of various biomarkers into cohesive prognostic and diagnostic techniques, allowing personalized treatment strategies to improve patient outcomes and survival. These novel biomarkers should also be identified as possible inclusion criteria or surrogate endpoints in randomized clinical trials (RCTs). Larger, well-designed researches are required, integrating renal biopsy specimens alongside urine, plasma, or serum samples from the same patients to build a robust evidence base. Moreover, the establishment of standardized protocols for sample collection, processing, and analysis across research units is pivotal to ensure reproducibility and comparability of results.

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