Western Craduate&PostdoctoralStudies

Western University [Scholarship@Western](https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/)

[Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository](https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd)

12-12-2019 1:00 PM

Sodium-Glucose Cotransporter-2 Inhibitor Use and the Risk of Acute Kidney Injury in Older Adults in Routine Clinical Practice: A Population-Based Cohort Study

Carina Iskander The University of Western Ontario

Supervisor Garg, Amit X. The University of Western Ontario

Graduate Program in Epidemiology and Biostatistics A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree in Master of Science © Carina Iskander 2019

Follow this and additional works at: [https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd](https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd?utm_source=ir.lib.uwo.ca%2Fetd%2F6697&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

C Part of the Medicine and Health Sciences Commons

Recommended Citation

Iskander, Carina, "Sodium-Glucose Cotransporter-2 Inhibitor Use and the Risk of Acute Kidney Injury in Older Adults in Routine Clinical Practice: A Population-Based Cohort Study" (2019). Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository. 6697. [https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/6697](https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/6697?utm_source=ir.lib.uwo.ca%2Fetd%2F6697&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

This Dissertation/Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by Scholarship@Western. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository by an authorized administrator of Scholarship@Western. For more information, please contact [wlswadmin@uwo.ca.](mailto:wlswadmin@uwo.ca)

Abstract

Regulatory agencies warn about acute kidney injury (AKI) risk following sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT2) inhibitor use. This population-based retrospective cohort study in Ontario, Canada quantified the 90-day AKI risk in older adults who were newly dispensed either SGLT2 inhibitors or dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP4) inhibitors in an outpatient setting between 2015 and 2017. Risk ratios (RR) were obtained using modified Poisson regression and risk differences using binomial regression. Relative to new use of a DPP4 inhibitor, initiation of an SGLT2 inhibitor was associated with a lower 90-day risk of a hospital encounter with AKI: 216 events in 19,611 patients (1.10%) versus 388 events in 19,483 patients (1.99%); weighted RR 0.79 (95% confidence interval 0.64 to 0.98). In routine care of older adults, new SGLT2 inhibitor use was associated with lower risk of AKI. Together with previous evidence, these findings suggest that regulatory warnings about AKI risk with SGLT2 inhibitors may be unwarranted.

Keywords

Administrative data, retrospective cohort study, SGLT2 inhibitors, type 2 diabetes, acute kidney injury

Summary for Lay Audience

The number of drugs used to treat patients with diabetes has grown significantly. Sodium-glucose costransporter-2 (SGLT2) inhibitors are an example of a new class of diabetes medications that help lower blood sugar by promoting its loss in the urine. Despite the ability of SGLT2 inhibitors to lower blood sugar, the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and Health Canada have issued safety warnings of the link between SGLT2 inhibitors and kidney injury. These warnings were made based on individual case reports and case series. We used health administrative databases to examine elderly patients with diabetes who were prescribed SGLT2 inhibitors and we examined kidney injury. We found that, in the first 90 days after being prescribed an SGLT2 inhibitor, patients had lower risk of developing kidney injury, compared to a similar group of people taking different diabetes medications. We suggest that the safety warnings and concerns about SGLT2 inhibitors and the risk of kidney injury might be revisited.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Amit Garg, for his mentorship throughout the duration of my Master's degree. He fostered professional growth and provided me with many additional training opportunities, which allowed me to collaborate and learn from many other investigators in my field of drug safety research. I would also like to thank my two committee members: Dr. Stephanie Dixon and Dr. Kristin Clemens for their helpful feedback and expertise.

My sincere appreciation goes to Mr. Eric McArthur, Dr. Danielle Nash, Ms. Nivethika Jeyakumar and Mr. Flory Tsobo Muanda at ICES Western for their assistance throughout this project. Drs. Garg and Mr. McArthur had full access to the data used in this study.

ICES is funded by an annual grant from the Ontario Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care. Core funding for ICES Western is provided by the Academic Medical Organization of Southwestern Ontario, the Schulich School of Medicine and Dentistry, Western University, and the Lawson Health Research Institute. The research was conducted by members of the ICES Kidney, Dialysis and Transplantation team, at the ICES Western facility, who are supported by a grant from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research. My training is supported by the CIHR Drug Safety and Effectiveness Cross-Disciplinary Training Program Scholarship. Dr. Amit Garg was supported by the Dr. Adam Linton Chair in Kidney Health Analytics and a CIHR Clinician Investigator Award. The opinions, results and conclusions are those of the authors and are independent from the funding sources.

Finally, I would like to thank all my friends and family for their unwavering support and encouragement throughout my Master's degree.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

[Table 1. Literature review of 7 published studies describing adverse renal events](#page-18-0) [associated with SGLT2 inhibitor use compared with other classes of hypoglycemic](#page-18-0) [medications or hypoglycemic medication non-use for the treatment of hyperglycemia](#page-18-0) 6

[Table 2. Baseline characteristics of older adults with type 2 diabetes newly dispensed](#page-40-0) [SGLT2 inhibitors \(canagliflozin, dapagliflozin or empagliflozin\) and DPP4 inhibitors](#page-40-0) [\(saxagliptin, sitagliptin or linagliptin\) in Ontario, Canada \(2015-2017\)](#page-40-0) 28

List of Figures

List of Appendices

List of Abbreviations

- $ACE = angiotensin-converting–enzyme$
- ACEi = angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor
- ACR = albumin-to-creatinine ratio
- $AKI = acute$ kidney injury
- ARB = angiotensin-receptor blocker
- ATT = average treatment effect in the treated
- $CI = confidence$ interval
- CIHI = Canadian Institute for Health Information
- CKD-EPI = Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration
- DAD = Discharge Abstract Database
- DPP4 = dipeptidyl peptidase-4
- $DPP4i = dipeptidy$ peptidase-4 inhibitor
- $DVT/PE = deep$ vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism
- $ED =$ emergency department
- eGFR = estimated glomerular filtration rate
- $ESRD = end-stage$ renal disease
- $GLP1 =$ glucagon-like peptide-1
- FDA = Food and Drug Administration
- $GP/FP = general\ practice/family\ practice$

 $HbA1c =$ glycated hemoglobin

 $HR = hazard ratio$

ICD-10 = International Classification of Diseases, Tenth Revision

IPDB = ICES Physician Database

 $IPTW =$ inverse probability of treatment weighting

 $IQR =$ interquartile range

KDIGO = Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes

 $KFRE = kidney failure risk equation$

LHIN = Local Health Integration Network

NACRS = National Ambulatory Care Reporting System

NSAID = nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug

ODB = Ontario Drug Benefit

OHIP = Ontario Health Insurance Plan

OLIS = Ontario Laboratories Information System

 $OR = odds ratio$

 $RCT = randomized controlled trial$

 RD = risk difference

RECORD = REporting of studies Conducted using Observational Routinely-collected health Data

RECORD-PE = REporting of studies Conducted using Observational Routinely-collected health Data for Pharmacoepidemiology

RPDB = Registered Persons Database of Ontario

 $RR = risk$ ratio

 $SCr =$ serum creatinine

 $SD = standard deviation$

SGLT2 = sodium-glucose cotransporter-2

SGLT2i = sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 inhibitor

Chapter 1

1 Introduction

Sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT2) inhibitors (e.g. canagliflozin, empagliflozin and dapagliflozin) are a class of diabetes medications used to treat type 2 disease. Although only newly available in Ontario since 2015 (1,2), their popularity is growing: in 2016, an estimated 2 million prescriptions for SGLT2 inhibitors were filled in Canada alone (3). In addition to effectively lowering blood glucose levels, SGLT2 inhibitors are only one of two new diabetes therapy drug classes with evidence of cardiovascular risk reduction in patients with diabetes (4–7).

SGLT2 inhibitors have however been linked with adverse outcomes. In October 2015 and June 2016 Health Canada and the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) issued safety warnings about the risk of acute kidney injury (AKI) after initiation of canagliflozin and dapagliflozin, based on case reports and case series (summarized in Appendix A) (8,9). These safety warnings led to changes in the drug product monographs to include information about the risk of AKI shortly after initiation.

There is a plausible mechanism for SGLT2 inhibitor-induced AKI. By interfering with the co-uptake of glucose and sodium in the proximal nephron, SGLT2 inhibitors can increase sodium delivery to the distal nephron, which can result in afferent arteriole vasoconstriction and an associated reduction in estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) (10–14). Even so, recent clinical trials and population-based studies suggest either no increase or a decrease in AKI risk after SGLT2 inhibitor initiation (4–7,10,15– 17).

We conducted a population-based cohort study of older adults with diabetes newly dispensed an SGLT2 inhibitor or a dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP4) inhibitor (a comparator drug also used to manage diabetes) in an outpatient setting. We conducted this study to better understand the association between SGLT2 inhibitor use and the 90-day risk of a hospital encounter (emergency department (ED) visit or hospital admission) for AKI in routine clinical practice.

Chapter 2

2 Literature Review

2.1 Diabetes burden and SGLT2 inhibitor prescribing

According to the Canadian Chronic Disease Surveillance System, approximately 3 million Canadians were living with diagnosed diabetes in 2014 (18). Patients with diabetes are at risk of a number of complications including cardiovascular disease, endstage renal disease (ESRD) and lower-limb amputations (19), and they face increased mortality (20,21). Patients with diabetes also incur high health care costs. (Rosella et al. showed that patients with diabetes cost the Canadian healthcare system about \$16,000, compared with people without diabetes costing the healthcare system \$6,000, over an eight-year period (22)).

Over the last several years, there have been a number of drugs developed to reduce blood sugars and diabetes related complications. SGLT2 inhibitors including canagliflozin, empagliflozin and dapagliflozin have been available on the Ontario Drug Benefits Formulary since 2015 and 2016 (2). Standard daily drug doses for each of these drugs are listed in Appendix B. These drugs are also available as combination pills with other oral hypoglycemic medications (2). In 2016, an estimated 2 million prescriptions for SGLT2 inhibitors were filled in Canada alone, as well as 4.4 million prescriptions in the United States (3,23).

2.2 Mechanism of SGLT2 inhibitor glucose lowering

SGLT2 inhibitors inhibit sodium-glucose cotransporters, located in the proximal convoluted tubule of the kidney nephron, from reabsorbing glucose into the bloodstream (24). Inhibition of sodium-glucose cotransporters causes higher urinary concentrations of glucose, and can lower the concentration of serum glucose (25).

2.3 SGLT2 inhibitors and the kidneys

Acute kidney injury (AKI) is a serious condition characterized by a sudden increase in the concentration of serum creatinine (SCr) and a decrease in urine output (26). AKI ranges in severity. According to the 2012 Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) Clinical Practice Guideline, AKI can be diagnosed if any of the following criteria is met: (i) an increase in $SCr \ge 0.3$ mg/dl (≥ 26.5 µmol/l within 48 hours; or (ii) an increase in SCr to ≥ 1.5 times a baseline measurement within 7 days; or (iii) a reduction in urine output < 0.5 ml/kg/h for 6 hours (27).

According to the International Society of Nephrology, there are more than 13 million cases of AKI ever year (28). The presence of type 2 diabetes increases the risk of AKI (29,30). In addition, elderly patients are more likely to present with AKI (31,32), AKI is associated with a higher risk of all-cause mortality and ESRD, and higher healthcare costs (31,33,34). Therefore efforts to lower the risk of AKI in type 2 diabetes is vital.

The mechanism of AKI following the use of an SGLT2 inhibitor is not entirely understood with a number of mechanisms proposed (35–37). Heerspink *et al.* suggest that by interfering with the co-uptake of glucose and sodium in the proximal nephron, SGLT2 inhibitors can increase sodium delivery to the distal nephron, which can result in afferent arteriole vasoconstriction and an associated reduction in eGFR (10–14).

There are several proposed mechanisms to explain a potential protective effect of SGLT2 inhibitors and the risk of acute and chronic renal adverse events. Through their mechanism of action of decreasing glucose reabsorption at the kidneys, SGLT2 inhibitors may suppress renal swelling (38,39), inflammation (40) and may also affect energy metabolism in renal cells to improve efficiency (41). Since SGLT2 inhibitors also facilitate lower sodium reabsorption at the kidneys, these drugs can have beneficial effects that potentially may involve restoring tubuloglomerular feedback, oxygen consumption changes and improving renal anemia (42). Lastly, the beneficial systemic effects of SGLT2 inhibitors, such as reductions in body weight, blood pressure and insulin levels, can lead to renal protection. A reduction in body weight can lower

albuminuria and reduced insulin levels can lower the risk of hyperinsulinemia which can damage the kidneys (42,43).

2.4 Search strategy and quality assessment of prior studies

We conducted a literature review to identify prior studies that examined the association between SGLT2 inhibitor use and AKI. Both MEDLINE (1946 to July 2019) and EMBASE (1947 to July 2019) were searched, along with the first 5 pages of Google, in order to review the grey literature. For both databases, the final search strategy consisted of keywords such as acute kidney injury, acute kidney failure and sodium glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitor. Full information about the literature search strategies can be found in Appendix C.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria were developed *a priori*. Studies were included if they met the following criteria: (i) full-text English article, (ii) randomized controlled trial (RCT) or cohort study, (iii) more than 1,000 patients, (iv) reported AKI as an outcome (AKI could be assessed in any manner such as diagnostic codes for an adverse event or actual SCr laboratory values). Studies were not included if they (i) were cross-sectional, commentaries, editorials, letters, methodology papers, or narrative review articles, (ii) had a sample size that was less than 1,000 patients, and (iii) did not report the outcome of AKI.

2.5 Summary of previous literature

Seven studies were identified as meeting our inclusion criteria. Four of these studies were RCTs and three were cohort studies. Overall, studies showed no risk or a reduction in both the acute and chronic renal adverse events amongst SGLT2 inhibitor users (summarized in Table 1). Our assessment of study quality using the Modified Downs and Black quality checklist (44) determined that three were of fair quality (16,16,18), one was of good quality (25), and three were of excellent quality (27,28,28).

2.6 SGLT2 inhibitors and acute kidney injury

Two RCTs included in this literature review specifically intended to primarily assess efficacy in terms of renal outcomes associated with SGLT2 inhibitor use: CANVAS-R and the CREDENCE trial (5,7). The CREDENCE trial, published earlier this year, had a primary renal outcome and found that a safety endpoint of AKI was non-significantly lower in the arm randomized to canagliflozin compared with placebo (hazard ratio (HR) 0.85 (95% CI 0.64-1.13)). The primary composite renal outcome of doubling of SCr, ESRD, renal death, and cardiovascular death occurred less frequently among patients randomized to canagliflozin versus placebo (HR 0.70 (95% CI 0.59-0.82)).

Every study included in the literature review consistently showed that there was no increased risk of AKI amongst SGLT2 inhibitor users. However, all four of the major RCTs included in our review showed an initial drop in eGFR within 3 months of the initiation of an SGLT2 inhibitor (4–7,10). This drop in eGFR suggests a hemodynamic effect similar to the one observed following the initiation of angiotensin-converting– enzyme (ACE) inhibitors or angiotensin-receptor blockers (ARBs) (45,46). This initial drop was reported to be reversible.

Additionally, case reports identified through the FDA adverse event reporting system database identified a signal of AKI following SGLT2 inhibitor use (47).

Table 1. Literature review of 7 published studies describing adverse renal events associated with SGLT2 inhibitor use compared with other classes of hypoglycemic medications or hypoglycemic medication non-use for the treatment of hyperglycemia

Abbreviations: ACE= angiotensin-converting–enzyme, ACR= albumin-to-creatinine ratio, AKI= acute kidney injury, ARB= angiotensin-receptor blocker, CI= confidence interval, DPP4= dipeptidyl peptidase-4, eGFR = estimated glomerular filtration rate, ESRD= end-stage renal disease, GLP1= glucagon-like peptide-1, HbA1c= glycated hemoglobin, HR= hazard ratio, KDIGO= kidney disease improving global outcomes, OR= odds ratio, SCr= serum creatinine, SGLT2= sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 ^aWanner et al. presented the results of a prespecified secondary objective of the EMPAREG-OUTCOME trial, which was to examine the effects of empagliflozin on microvascular outcomes.

bWe evaluated the quality of studies using the Modified Downs and Black checklist for the assessment of the methodological quality of both randomized and non-randomized studies. We gave all studies a score from 0 to 27, grouped into the following four quality levels: excellent (26 to 28), good (20-25), fair (15-19) and poor (14 or less).

Chapter 3

3 Rationale and Research Questions

3.1 The need for research

Many previous studies exploring the link between SGLT2 inhibitors and AKI have been RCTs and may not represent routine clinical practice. In the real-world, for example, patients in routine clinical practice are generally monitored less often and have more comorbidity than patients in clinical trials (48). There may also be low rates of AKI among patients well-managed in a trial setting who receive regimented safety monitoring that is not attainable in real-world clinical practice. This may result in a potential underestimate of relative and absolute safety, as has been observed with limb amputation in some studies (17,49). In addition, in the real-world, clinicians are increasingly educated on appropriate SGLT2 inhibitor use in routine clinical practice which includes counseling patients not to take the drug during an acute illness (50). We conducted this study to better understand the association between SGLT2 inhibitor use and the 90-day risk of a hospital encounter (ED visit or hospital admission) for AKI in routine clinical practice.

3.2 Research questions and hypothesis

3.2.1 Primary Research Question

Does a group of older adults with diabetes newly dispensed SGLT2 inhibitors compared with a group of patients newly dispensed DPP4 inhibitors, who have similar indicators of baseline health, have an altered 90-day risk of a hospital encounter with AKI?

3.2.2 Secondary Research Questions

- 1) Does a group of older adults with diabetes newly dispensed SGLT2 inhibitors compared with a group of patients newly dispensed DPP4 inhibitors, who have similar indicators of baseline health, have an altered 90-day risk of hospitalization with AKI?
- 2) Does a group of older adults with diabetes newly dispensedSGLT2 inhibitors compared with a group of patients newly dispensed DPP4 inhibitors, who have similar indicators of baseline health, have an altered 90-day risk of a hospital encounter with moderate to severe AKI?
- 3) Does a group of older adults with diabetes newly dispensed SGLT2 inhibitors compared with a group of patients newly dispensed DPP4 inhibitors, who have similar indicators of baseline health, have an altered 90-day risk of AKI restricted to the outpatient setting?
- 4) Does a group of older adults with diabetes newly dispensed SGLT2 inhibitors compared with a group of patients dispensed DPP4 inhibitors, who have similar indicators of baseline health, have an altered 90-day risk of AKI in all settings (outpatient, emergency room, in-patient hospitalization)?

Regulatory warnings and recent literature are conflicting, as the warnings describe a higher risk of AKI after SGLT2 inhibitor initiation, but recent literature showed no difference in risk or lower risk of AKI after SGLT2 inhibitor initiation. Therefore, we are uncertain of the direction of association between SGLT2 inhibitor initiation and the risk of AKI.

Chapter 4

4 Methods

4.1 Study design and setting

We conducted a population-based retrospective cohort study of older adults aged ≥ 66 years in Ontario between July 1, 2015 and September 30, 2017 using linked healthcare databases in Ontario, Canada. Ontario has >14 million residents, 17% of whom are aged 65 years or older (51). Ontario residents are covered by publicly-funded, universal health insurance. The Ontario Health Insurance Plan (OHIP) covers physician and hospital services for all Ontario residents. Those aged 65 years and older receive prescription drug coverage through the Ontario Drug Benefit (ODB) program. Dispensation records for individuals not covered by the ODB program are not available.

Health administrative databases are increasingly being used for population-based studies (52). Administrative database studies allow investigators to study large samples of patients for long follow-up periods and examine outcomes in a routine-care setting. In addition, loss to follow-up is of little concern since emigration from Ontario is less than 0.1% annually (53). We have successfully used these data sources to study associations between a number of drugs and risk of AKI (54–57).

We conducted this study at ICES, a not-for-profit research institute within Ontario. The use of data in this project was authorized under section 45 of Ontario's Personal Health Information Protection Act, which does not require review by a Research Ethics Board. We followed reporting guidelines for observational pharmacoepidemiology studies (Appendix D) (58).

4.2 Databases

We used nine health administrative databases to ascertain patient information, drug exposure status, covariate and outcome information. Databases were linked using unique encoded identifiers and analyzed at ICES. We have used a number of these databases in previous pharmacoepidemiologic studies (55–57,59–62).

Ontario Drug Benefit (ODB) Database: The ODB database contains prescription claims data for individuals aged 65 years or older covered through the ODB Program. This database was used to ascertain SGLT2 inhibitor or DPP4 inhibitor exposure status as well as baseline drug use prior to the cohort entry date. We also acquired patient residential status to remove long-term care residents from our cohort.

Registered Persons Database of Ontario (RPDB): We used this database to acquire information on patient demographics (age and sex), as well as income quintiles (based on neighborhood average incomes), and residence location (urban or rural).

ICES Physician Database (IPDB): The IPDB contains information about all physicians in Ontario, including demographics, specialty, and measures of physician activity (billings and workload data). We used this database to acquire information about the prescribing physician's specialty. We also determined the specialty of the physician for the baseline number of general physician visits, cardiologist, ophthalmologist, endocrinologist and nephrologist consults.

Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI) Discharge Abstract Database (DAD), National Ambulatory Care Reporting System (NACRS) and Same Day Surgery (SDS) Database: CIHI-DAD contains patient-level information on hospitalizations in Ontario. The NACRS database captures information on patient visits to hospital emergency departments or other community-based ambulatory care clinics. The SDS dataset contains patient-level data for day surgery institutions in Ontario. Diagnostic codes are entered into these databases including the International Classification of Diseases, Tenth Revision (ICD-10) codes. We used these databases to ascertain baseline comorbidities in the 5 years prior to the cohort entry date, as well as the number of hospitalizations and

ED visits. We used ICD-10 codes to ascertain our primary outcome of a hospital encounter with AKI.

Ontario Health Insurance Plan (OHIP) Claims Database: The OHIP Claims Database contains information on health care providers' billing claims for inpatient and outpatient services in Ontario, as well as associated diagnoses. We used this data source to ascertain whether patients received dialysis in the one year prior to the cohort entry date (exclusion criteria). We also gathered additional information on baseline comorbidities and healthcare utilization. Further, we used OHIP billing codes in outcome ascertainment to collect information about acute dialysis.

Ontario Laboratories Information System (OLIS): OLIS is an electronic repository that houses laboratory test results beginning in 2007 in hospitals and community laboratories across the province. Since not all laboratories began submitting their data to OLIS simultaneously, we identified geographical areas across Ontario where residents would likely visit a hospital with linked laboratory data (referred to as the laboratory catchment area). We included only Ontarians that resided within these laboratory catchment areas. We used information from OLIS to determine baseline SCr measurements, other baseline laboratory measurements as well as inpatient and outpatient laboratory data for our outcomes.

Ontario Diabetes Dataset (ODD): The ODD contains all individuals within Ontario with any type of non-gestational diabetes. We used this data source to determine duration of diabetes for all individuals in our cohort.

4.3 Patients

We created a cohort of older adults aged ≥ 66 years in Ontario who were newly dispensed an SGLT2 inhibitor (canagliflozin, empagliflozin or dapagliflozin) or a DPP4 inhibitor (saxagliptin, sitagliptin or linagliptin) between July 1, 2015 (the earliest date of SGLT2 inhibitor coverage by ODB) (2) and September 30, 2017. We chose DPP4 inhibitors as our comparator as they are also a second to third line medication for diabetes (reduces

concerns of confounding by indication) and unlike SGLT2 inhibitors, have no known risk of AKI (63,64). The dispensing date of their first eligible prescription during the accrual period was considered the cohort entry or index date. We limited our cohort to those aged ≥66 years to establish complete medication history and ensure they were not in their first eligibility year for prescription drug coverage (age 65 years), and to those who fell in OLIS catchment areas, using previously published methods (65). We included only Ontarians who resided within these catchment areas to ensure accurate outcome ascertainment, as not all hospital-based laboratories started contributing to OLIS at the same time, and to date, not all contribute. In order to accurately ascertain outcomes for individuals in our cohort, we ensured individuals resided within areas serviced by OLIS, so that they would be receiving SCr tests in hospitals captured in our data sources. We assessed eGFR using the Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration (CKD-EPI) equation (66). Patients were included if their corresponding baseline eGFR value was above 45 mL/min per 1.73 m^2 , as SGLT2 inhibitors were contraindicated in Ontario for patients with a lower eGFR during the study period (67). Lastly, to define new use, we required that patients be free of the study drugs for at least 180 days prior to the index date and studied the first such exposure during accrual period.

We excluded: (i) those with a prescription for more than one type of DPP4 inhibitor or SGLT2 inhibitor on the index date to compare mutually exclusive groups; (ii) those residing in long-term care since these individuals are inherently different than the general population in terms of disease and medication management (68); (iii) those discharged from a hospital in the two days prior to the index date, to ensure new outpatient prescriptions since patients who initiate treatment in hospital typically fill ongoing prescriptions on the discharge date or the day after; and (iv) individuals with nonstandard daily drug doses for diabetes treatment to ensure applicability to usual prescribing (5mg/day to 300mg/day depending on the drug) (Appendix B) (69). Finally, for patients with multiple eligible prescriptions we restricted to the first eligible one.

4.4 Baseline characteristics

We assessed baseline comorbidities in the five years prior to the cohort entry date (except the Charlson comorbidity index which had a 2-year look back period) and medication use in the 120 days prior to the cohort entry date. Dispensing of other hypoglycemic medications was examined in the 120 days prior to the cohort entry date, on the cohort entry date and in the one year to 120 days prior to the cohort entry date. Health care utilization was assessed in the year prior to the cohort entry date, except for bone mineral density tests, hearing tests, sputum tests, which were all assessed in the 5 years prior to the cohort entry date. Additionally, wound swabs were measured in the 7 days prior to the cohort entry date, and electroencephalography in the 90 days prior to the cohort entry date. We assessed baseline kidney function using the Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration (CKD-EPI) equation (66) and baseline SCr measurements for the entire cohort, in the one year prior to the cohort entry date. We had no information about race and assumed all patients to be nonblack for the CKD-EPI equation (<5% of the Ontario population is of black race) (70). For individuals with laboratory data available, we also captured serum potassium values, albumin-to-creatinine (ACR) ratio measurements and glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) in the one year prior to the cohort entry date (see Appendix E for all coding definitions).

4.5 Inverse probability of treatment weighting

We used inverse probability of treatment weighting (IPTW) based on propensity scores to minimize the systematic differences in the measured baseline characteristics of our SGLT2 and DPP4 groups. By using weights based on propensity scores, we created a synthetic population where the distribution of baseline characteristics was independent of their drug exposure status, while retaining data from all included individuals (71).

To do this, we estimated the propensity scores using a multivariable logistic regression model with 97 baseline characteristics (selected because of their association with both the outcome of AKI and type of oral hypoglycemic agent dispensed (see Appendix F for

variables included in the propensity score). We then used weights to estimate the average treatment effect in the treated (ATT), where SGLT2 inhibitors were considered the treated population (72). Patients in the reference group were weighted as [propensity score/(1 - propensity score)], while patients in the exposed group received a weight of 1. This allowed us to create a weighted pseudo-sample of patients in the reference group with the same distribution of measured covariates as the exposure group (71,73,74).

The 97 variables used to estimate propensity scores were complete, except for prescriber specialty $\left\langle \langle 10\% \rangle \right\rangle$ missing), rural residence $\left\langle \langle 0.5\% \rangle \right\rangle$ missing) and neighbourhood income quintile (<0.5% missing). Prior to weighting, we classified missing prescriber specialty as a 'missing' category, missing rural status as non-rural, and imputed the third income quintile for missing income status. Emigration from Ontario is less than 0.1% per year and was the only reason for lost follow-up (53).

4.6 Outcomes

4.6.1 Primary outcome

Our primary outcome was a hospital encounter (hospitalization or ED presentation) with AKI, defined by 2012 KDIGO thresholds: ≥50% increase in SCr concentration over baseline, or an absolute increase of at least 27 μ mol/L (0.3 mg/dL) or receipt of dialysis for AKI (27). The baseline value was the most recent outpatient SCr value within the past year. We compared this baseline value to the highest hospital-based SCr value in the 90 days following cohort entry. We chose a 90-day follow-up period based on prior evidence showing that SGLT2 inhibitors lead to an eGFR decline soon after drug initiation (7,10).

4.6.2 Secondary outcomes

As secondary outcomes, we assessed hospital admission with AKI, and hospital encounter with moderate to severe AKI (SCr increase meeting KDIGO threshold of stage 2 or more AKI; defined in Appendix G) (27). We also examined evidence of AKI in the outpatient setting, and AKI in any setting (outpatient, in-hospital or ED).

4.7 Additional analyses

We conducted six additional analyses to assess the robustness of our results.

To assess the possibility of surveillance bias, we examined the proportion of patients in both groups who had at least one outpatient SCr measurement during the follow-up period.

To complement analyses examining increases in SCr as a binary outcome, we assessed absolute and relative changes in SCr measurements after drug initiation.

We completed sub-group analyses to understand potential SGLT2 inhibitor-associated risks in vulnerable segments of the population who are at higher risk of AKI (75–81). We examined the association between SGLT2 inhibitor use (versus DPP4 inhibitor use) and the primary outcome, stratified by presence or absence of four characteristics: (1) baseline eGFR <60 mL/min per 1.73 m^2 , (2) concurrent ACE inhibitor or ARB use, (3) concurrent diuretic use, and (4) age >80 years (Appendix H).

We performed a survival analysis of the primary outcome within 365 days of follow-up, censoring on death.

We evaluated the 90-day risk of a hospital encounter with bowel obstruction, as a negative control outcome which was not expected to be associated with SGLT2 inhibitor or DPP4 inhibitor use.

We performed an E-value analysis in order to assess how robust our association was to potential unmeasured confounding (82).

4.8 Statistical analyses

We conducted all analyses using SAS version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). DPP4 inhibitors were the referent group for all analyses. Two-tailed *P* values less than 0.05

were considered statistically significant for all outcomes. We present the 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for all primary outcome estimates, which correspond to a level of significance of 0.05. In addition to statistical significance, clinical significance was also considered by including input from practicing physicians.

We compared baseline characteristics between those newly dispensed SGLT2 inhibitors and DPP4 inhibitors using standardized differences, for which a threshold of \geq 10% was considered meaningful (83). The standardized difference was chosen because it is less sensitive to sample size, in comparison to hypothesis testing (84), and has been previously used to compare the distribution of baseline characteristics between treatment groups (85–87).

To estimate weighted risk ratios (RRs) and 95% CIs, we used a modified Poisson regression by specifying a generalized linear model assuming a Poisson distribution and log link function with a repeated statement to obtain robust error variances (88). The modified Poisson regression provides estimates of RR for dichotomous outcomes. The clinical interpretation of the RR has more value, when compared with the odds ratio (OR) (88–90). The modified Poisson regression was selected over other models that estimate the RR directly in order to avoid the common convergence issues encountered when using a log-binomial regression model and the conservative results produced from Poisson regression (91–97). To estimate weighted risk differences (RDs) between the groups and 95% CIs, we used binomial regression with an identity link function (92).

To evaluate the effect of SGLT2 inhibitor use on AKI for specific subgroups, we first included an interaction term between our exposure and subgroup indicator in our modified Poisson model. This resulted in an interaction *P* value, which allowed us to assess departure from risk-ratio multiplicativity (98).

To assess absolute and relative changes in SCr measurements after drug initiation, weighted mean differences and 95% CIs were obtained using an ordinary least squares linear regression model with an identity link function. This model was used because we were interested in comparing SCr measurements as a continuous variable (99).

To examine the primary outcome within 365 days of follow-up, we used Cause specific weighted Cox proportional hazards regression, censoring on the competing risk of death to estimate weighted HRs(99). The corresponding 95% CI was obtained using a bootstrap estimator (100). In addition, the proportional hazards assumption was tested by including time dependent covariates in the model and the assumption was not violated. To further explore the competing risk of death, we estimated the subdistributions hazards using a Fine and Gray model treating death as a competing risk (101). However, the applicability of this model when using IPTW has not yet been fully explored in the literature (102). As such, we included this analysis only to explore the potential impact of death in the estimation of AKI within 365 daysin SGLT2 users compared to DPP4 users.

In order to assess how robust our association was to potential unmeasured confounding, we performed an E-value analysis to obtain the minimum strength of association that a combination of unmeasured confounders would need to have with both the exposure and outcome to negate the observed results (82,103). The E-value is a measure of a given association's robustness to potential unmeasured confounders (82). We produced a plotted curve using an online E-value calculator that provides the e-value for the point estimate of our primary outcome and for the CI of the primary outcome (104). However, in general with the E-value analysis, caution is warranted when interpreting the E-values as these values are a simplification of the context around the study (i.e. the exposureoutcome association in question, how well all currently measured confounders were accounted for, etc.) (105).

Chapter 5

5 Results

5.1 Cohort characteristics

5.1.1 Unweighted cohort

After exclusions, we identified 19,611 patients newly dispensed an SGLT2 inhibitor and 19,483 patients newly dispensed a DPP4 inhibitor between July 1, 2015 and September 30, 2017 (see Figure 1 for cohort assembly). Baseline characteristics pre- and postweighting are presented in Table 2. The mean age of the unweighted cohort was 71 years for SGLT2 inhibitor users and 74 years for DPP4 inhibitor users. 48% of DPP4 inhibitor users and 40% of SGLT2 inhibitor users were women. A total of 48% of SGLT2 inhibitor users were dispensed canagliflozin, 37% empagliflozin and 15% dapagliflozin. The median ($25th$, $75th$ percentile) doses were 100 (100-300) mg/day for canagliflozin, 10 (10-10) mg/day for empagliflozin, and 10 (5-10) mg/day for dapagliflozin.

Prior to weighting, SGLT2 inhibitor users were more likely to be younger (71 vs. 74 years), more likely to receive their prescription from an endocrinologist (19.3% vs. 7.6%), were less likely to have a prior AKI diagnosis (1.8% vs. 3.6%), were more likely to be taking ACE inhibitors (36.5% vs. 31.5%) and were more likely to have HbA1c levels checked (96.9% vs. 94.4%) than DPP4 users (Table 2). Socioeconomic status was missing for 33 (0.2%) of SGLT2 inhibitor users and 18 (0.1%) of DPP4 inhibitor users. Residential information was not available for 33 (0.2%) SGLT2 inhibitor users and 18 (0.1%) DPP4 inhibitor users. In addition, prescriber information was unavailable for 1,261 (6.5%) of DPP4 inhibitor users and 1,091 (5.6%) of SGLT2 inhibitor users.

5.1.2 Weighted cohort

The mean age was 71 years and 40% were women for both SGLT2 inhibitor users and DPP4 inhibitor users. Baseline SCr was measured a median of 28 days (IQR 9-89) prior for SGLT2 inhibitor users and 23 (8-81) days for DPP4 inhibitor users. After weighting,
groups remained imbalanced on eGFR categories, but where considered as a continuous variable, there was no statistical or clinically meaningful difference between groups. Overall 17% of the cohort had a weighted baseline eGFR between 45 and 60 mL/min per 1.73 m^2 .

Over 120 measured baseline characteristics were similar between SGLT2 inhibitor users and DPP4 inhibitor users, including diabetes parameters, diabetes medications and healthcare utilization measures. Prescriber information was missing for 1,131 (5.7%) DPP4 inhibitor users and 1,091 (5.6%) of SGLT2 inhibitor users. General practitioners were the most frequent prescribers (65%) for both SGLT2 inhibitors and DPP4 inhibitors (Table 2).

5.2 Main analysis

5.2.1 Primary outcome

Relative to new DPP4 inhibitor use, new SGLT2 inhibitor use was associated with a lower 90-day risk of a hospital encounter with AKI: 216 events in 19,611 patients (1.10%) versus 388 events in 19,483 patients (1.99%); weighted RR 0.79 (95% CI 0.64 to 0.98), p-value 0.04; weighted RD -0.29% (95% CI -0.57% to -0.01%) (Table 3).

5.2.1 Secondary outcomes

SGLT2 inhibitor use was associated with a lower 90-day risk of hospitalization with AKI: 149 events in 19,611 patients (0.76%) versus 291 events in 19,483 patients (1.49%); weighted RR 0.73 (95% CI 0.56 to 0.95), p-value 0.02; weighted RD -0.28% (95% CI -0.53% to -0.03%) (Table 2). The point estimate for the risk of hospital encounter with moderate to severe AKI following SGLT2 inhibitor use compared with DPP4 inhibitor use was similar to the primary outcome analysis. However with fewer events, there was less precision in the estimate and the between-group difference was not significantly different: 44 events in 19,611 patients (0.22%) versus 74 events in 19,483 patients $(0.38%)$ events; weighted RR 0.81 (95% CI 0.49 to 1.33), p-value 0.40. There was no significant difference in the risk of AKI in an outpatient setting: 573 events in

19,611 patients (2.92%) versus 609 events in 19,483 patients (3.13%); weighted RR 1.13 (95% CI 0.95 to 1.33), p-value 0.16 and AKI in all settings: 716 in 19,611 patients (3.65%) versus 837 events in 19,483 patients (4.30%) events; weighted RR 1.06 (95% CI 0.92 to 1.22), p-value 0.42 (Table 3).

5.3 Additional analyses

Over a 90-day follow-up, SGLT2 inhibitor users were more likely to have at least one SCr measurement in the outpatient setting compared with DPP4 inhibitor users [10,619 $(54.2%)$ of SGLT2 inhibitor users and 9,602 (49.3%) of DPP4 inhibitor users, p-value \lt 0.01 (Appendix I)].

The change in SCr concentration in follow-up compared to the baseline value for SGLT2 inhibitor users and DPP4 inhibitor users is presented in Appendices J and K. SGLT2 inhibitor users, compared with DPP4 inhibitor users, had a slightly greater change in SCr concentration from baseline during follow-up, however the change was not clinically significant [weighted mean between-group difference in absolute terms was 1 µmol/L (95% CI 0.3 to 1.7), p-value < 0.01; and as a percentage was 1.3% (95% CI 0.4 to 2.1), pvalue < 0.01].

Baseline eGFR, ACE inhibitor or ARB use, diuretic use, and older age did not significantly modify the association between SGLT2 inhibitor (versus DPP4 inhibitor) use and the risk of AKI (*P* values for interaction ranged from 0.28-0.83) (Figure 2).

Over a 365-day follow-up period, SGLT2 inhibitor use was associated with a lower risk of hospital encounter with AKI: 2,666 events in 19,611 patients (13.6%) versus 3,712 events in 19,483 patients (19.1%), 172 versus 208 weighted events per 1,000 personyears, respectively; HR 0.83 (95% CI 0.78 to 0.89) (Appendix L). A similar result was observed when death was treated as a competing risk.

A significant difference in hospital encounters with bowel obstruction between SGLT2 inhibitor users and DPP4 inhibitor users was neither expected nor observed: 20 events in

19,611 patients (0.10%) versus 36 events in 19,483 patients (0.18%); weighted RR 1.00 (95% CI 0.49 to 2.06), p-value 1.00 (Appendix M).

The E-values for the relative risk and lower confidence bound for the primary outcome were 1.83 and 1.14, respectively, indicating the amount of unmeasured confounding that would be needed to bias the observed association to the null (Appendix N).

Ontario residents newly dispensed an SGLT2 inhibitor or a DPP4 inhibitor between July 1, 2015 and September 30, 2017, with the following criteria:

- Standard data cleaning steps met
- Aged 66 years or older
- Residing within an area with laboratory data
- A baseline serum creatinine value
- Baseline eGFR > 45 mL/min per 1.73 m² and no evidence of $ESRD^a$
- Not dispensed either study drug in the past 180 days

Figure 1. Cohort assembly for patients in the SGLT2 inhibitor user group and the comparator DPP4 inhibitor user group

^aESRD defined as evidence of previous dialysis or renal transplant; ^bTo ensure two mutually exclusive groups; ^cIndividuals are inherently different than the general population in terms of medication management; ^dTo ensure new outpatient prescriptions; ^eTo ensure applicability to usual prescribing

l,

Abbreviations: ACE= angiotensin-converting–enzyme, ACR= albumin-to-creatinine ratio, ARB= angiotensin-receptor blocker, DPP4= dipeptidyl peptidase-4, DVT/PE= deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism, ED= emergency department, eGFR = estimated glomerular filtration, GP/FP= general practice/family practice, HbA1c= glycated hemoglobin, IQR= interquartile range, KFRE= kidney failure risk equation, NSAID= nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug, SCr= serum creatinine, SD= standard deviation, SGLT2= sodium-glucose cotransporter-2

^aUnless otherwise specified, baseline characteristics were assessed on the date the patient filled their prescription: the cohort entry date.

^bWeighted using inverse probability of treatment weighting based on propensity scores, using weights to estimate the average treatment effect in the treated. Patients in the reference group were weighted as [propensity score/(1 - propensity score)]. This method produces a weighted pseudo-sample of patients in the reference group with the same distribution of measured covariates as the exposure group (71,73,74)**.**

^cThe difference between the groups divided by the pooled SD; a value greater than 10% is interpreted as a meaningful difference (83). ^dRural residence was defined as a population < 10,000 people. Residential information was not available for 33 (0.2%) SGLT2 inhibitor users and 18 (0.1%) DPP4 inhibitor users in the unweighted cohort. Missing values in the unweighted cohort were reclassified into the "Not rural" category during weighting.

e Income was categorized into fifths of average neighborhood income on the cohort entry date. Socioeconomic status was missing for 33 (0.2%) of SGLT2 inhibitor users and 18 (0.1%) of DPP4 inhibitor users.

^fCharlson comorbidity index (106,107) was calculated using five years of hospitalization data. "No hospitalizations" received a score of 0. A higher score indicates a higher risk of one-year mortality associated with comorbidities.

^gMedication use was examined in the 120-day period before the cohort entry date (the Ontario Drug Benefit program dispenses a maximum 100-day supply.

hOnly included dispensed acetylsalicyclic acid use and does not account for over-the-counter acetylsalicyclic acid use.

ⁱExcludes acetylsalicylic acid and does not account for over-the-counter NSAID use.

^jMost recent laboratory test values in the 1-to-365–day period before the cohort entry date.

keGFR was calculated using the Chronic Kidney Disease (CKD)–Epidemiology (EPI) equation: $141 \times min($ [serum creatinine concentration in μ mol/L/88.4]/k, 1) $\alpha \times$ max([serum creatinine concentration in μ mol/L/88.4]/k, 1)-1.209 \times 0.993Age \times 1.018 [if female] \times 1.159 [if African-American]; κ =0.7 if female and 0.9 if male; α =-0.329 if female and -0.411 if male; min=the minimum of serum creatinine concentration/k or 1; max=the maximum of serum creatinine concentration/k or 1. Information on race was not available in our data sources and all patients were assumed not to be of African-Canadian race; African-Canadians represented less than 5% of the population of Ontario in 2006.

^lAlthough the groups were still imbalanced on eGFR categories after weighting, there was no statistical or clinically meaningful difference when baseline eGFR was assessed as a continuous variable.

^mKFRE is based on a prediction model for progression to kidney failure (108). The equation includes age, sex, eGFR and albuminuria. A higher percentage indicates a greater 2- and 5-year chance of developing treated end-stage kidney disease.

Table 3. 90-day primary and secondary outcomes of prescription SGLT2 inhibitor new users compared with DPP4 inhibitor new users

Abbreviations: CI= confidence interval, DPP4= dipeptidyl peptidase-4, SGLT2= sodium-glucose cotransporter-2

^aReference group: DPP4 inhibitor users.

^bWeighted using inverse probability of treatment weighting based on propensity scores, using weights to estimate the average treatment effect in the treated.

^cBased on hospital presentation (emergency department or hospitalization) assessed using the Ontario Laboratories Information System serum creatinine values. This was defined by the 2012 KDIGO thresholds: compared with baseline, a serum creatinine increase \geq 50% or an absolute increase of at least 27 µmol/L (0.3 mg/dL) (27).

dDefined according to KDIGO staging thresholds of stages 2 and 3 combined (27).

Figure 2. Association between SGLT2 inhibitor new use (canagliflozin, dapagliflozin or empagliflozin) and the 90-day risk of hospital encounter with AKI examined in subgroups defined by baseline eGFR, ACEi or ARB use, diuretic use and age

Abbreviations: ACEi= angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor, ARB= angiotensin receptor blocker, CI= confidence interval, DPP4i= dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibitor, eGFR= estimated glomerular filtration rate, N/A= not applicable, SGLT2i= sodiumglucose cotransporter-2 inhibitor

aDiuretic types included loop diuretics, potassium sparring diuretics and thiazide diuretics

Chapter 6

6 Discussion

6.1 Summary and interpretation of study results

In this large population-based cohort study of older adults, we did not observe a higher risk of AKI in new users of SGLT2 inhibitors compared with DPP4 inhibitors in any analysis. Rather, we observed that new use of an SGLT2 inhibitor was associated with a lower 90-day risk of a hospital encounter with AKI. Results remained robust when the follow-up was extended to one year. When four subgroups of higher risk patients were examined, none showed evidence of a higher 90-day risk of AKI following new SGLT2 inhibitor use compared to DPP4 inhibitor use.

These findings are reassuring for the safety of SGLT2 inhibitors as currently prescribed in routine care. A likely explanation to this observed protective effect is the, now better understood, mechanism by which SGLT2 inhibitors have demonstrated several nephroprotective features akin to ACE inhibitors and ARB initiation (45,46,109), including a reduction in albuminuria and risk of progressive chronic kidney disease (110,111). The cardiovascular benefits of SGLT2 inhibitors may also result in renal benefits, given how dependent the kidney is on cardiac function.

Our demonstration of a 21% lower relative risk of AKI is consistent with three published observational cohort studies (15–17). Two of these studies also used laboratory data to define AKI (albeit in relatively smaller sample sizes) and both found a >50% lower AKI risk following SGLT2 inhibitor use (15,16). The most recent observational study with the most comparable sample size to this current study found SGLT2 inhibitor use versus GLP1 receptor agonist use resulted in a 31% reduction in AKI risk, but was not statistically significant (17).

Some might suggest cohort studies suffer from residual confounding leading to spurious associations. For example, before weighting patients in this study, newly dispensed SGLT2 inhibitor users demonstrated less comorbidity and better maintained kidney

function than DPP4 inhibitor users, which might explain the observed lower risk of AKI with SGLT2 inhibitors even after weighting. However, our results were very similar to the findings of large recent RCTs and meta-analyses of RCTs. In the CREDENCE study, patients with type 2 diabetes and chronic kidney disease, who were randomized to receive canagliflozin, had a lower non-significant risk of AKI compared with placebo (7). A recent systematic review and meta-analysis by Neuen *et al.* of over 38,723 participants from RCTs demonstrated a similar significant 25% reduction in AKI risk with SGLT2 inhibitor use versus placebo (111). A systematic review and meta-analysis by Toyama *et al*, of over 7,000 patients from RCTs demonstrated a 31% reduction in AKI risk with SGLT2 inhibitor use versus placebo, but was not statistically significant (112). Another meta-analysis of the three major RCTs demonstrated a 34% statistically significant relative risk reduction in the likelihood of AKI amongst those randomized to receive SGLT2 inhibitors versus placebo (113).

The totality of randomized and routine care evidence suggests regulatory warnings and prescribing references about a higher AKI risk with SGLT2 inhibitors may be unwarranted and might be reconsidered (1,114).

6.2 Strengths and limitations

Our study has several strengths. It is the largest population-based study to date to assess the risk of a clinically important complication of SGLT2 inhibitor use among older adults. It is the first Canadian study to evaluate AKI risk in association with an important medication that is likely to be used more often in response to recent trials demonstrating its benefits (4,6,7). We used laboratory values, as opposed to diagnostic codes, to more specifically capture AKI events associated with SGLT2 inhibitor initiation (115,116). We selected patients who filled a prescription for a different class of oral hypoglycemic medications as our comparator group to avoid confounding by indication bias that would arise if we simply examined SGLT2 inhibitor non-users.

There are several limitations to our study. Given the observational study design, causality cannot be inferred. Although we chose an active comparator drug that is also $2nd$ or $3rd$ line medication for diabetes and we balanced on 97 measured baseline characteristics, confounding by indication cannot be ruled out. When estimating eGFRs using the CKD-EPI equation, we had no information about race and assumed all patients to be non-black for the CKD-EPI equation (<5% of the Ontario population is of black race) (70). Thus, eGFR values for black patients may not be estimated accurately. In addition, we cannot account for whether strategies such as sick day management of diabetes medications (i.e. stopping SGLT2 inhibitors during acute illness) altered the risk of AKI. Although residual confounding cannot be eliminated, we attempted to reduce it using IPTW and balanced patients on over 95 characteristics. We also conducted several additional sensitivity analyses which supported the main findings. In particular, the magnitude of the E-value, along with the entire context of this study, suggest the observed association is unlikely to be explained by unmeasured confounding. Some confoundersthat could not be captured in our datasets may be smoking status, body mass index, and oral water intake which when poor may predispose to volume depletion (30,117–120). However, we have no reason to believe that these factors would be differentially more prevalent amongst SGLT2i users compared to DPP4i users.

Additional limitations were that we could only identify prescriptions dispensed by a pharmacy but had no information about medication use or adherence. We only included patients aged over 66 years, but our study findings are consistent with studies that included adults of all ages (16,17). The 2012 KDIGO definition of AKI includes timing elements for when SCr measurements needed to be taken within (increase in SCr within 48 hours and a baseline measurement presumed to have occurred within the prior 7 days), which were not considered in the current study outcome definitions (27). The SCr measurements were done as per routine care and about half of the patients did not have a SCr measurement during the 90-day follow-up period. While we observed a significant between-group difference in the likelihood of SCr measurement in follow-up, the absolute difference was not large and we believe it unlikely to affect the overall results. Following SGLT2 inhibitor initiation clinicians may be more likely to check SCr, especially in higher risk patients, compared to our comparator group, which could lead to

a greater (not lower) risk of SGLT2 inhibitor-associated AKI. Lastly, it is important to note that the population studied was of lower risk of AKI, largely based on wellpreserved kidney function and minimal or no albuminuria. Extrapolation of the findings to higher risk patients should be done with caution.

6.3 Implications

In older adults in routine clinical practice, new initiation of an SGLT2 inhibitor compared with DPP4 inhibitors was associated with a lower 90-day AKI risk. This is reassuring for prescribers, as SCr expectedly increased following SGLT2 inhibitor initiation, but did not appear to lead to AKI. Taken together with consistent information from other studies, regulatory warnings about a higher risk of AKI with SGLT2 inhibitors may be unwarranted and should be revisited.

Consideration can be given to future trials of SGLT2 inhibitor use in patient settings where the timing and risk of AKI is both predictable and high, such as in the perioperative setting. As the uptake of SGLT2 inhibitors expands, we will likely see the drug used by more patients with advanced chronic kidney disease, where the risk-benefit balance requires attention. Also, better information on the effects of withholding these drugs in the context of acute illness or infection warrants attention.

References

- 1. DeSantis A. Sodium-glucose co-transporter 2 inhibitors for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus [Internet]. [cited 2019 Apr 3]. Available from: https://www.uptodate.com/contents/sodium-glucose-co-transporter-2-inhibitorsfor-the-treatment-of-type-2-diabetes-mellitus?search=sglt2 inhibitors&source=search_result&selectedTitle=1~59&usage_type=default&displ ay_rank=1
- 2. Ontario Drug Benefit Formulary. Search Results [Internet]. [cited 2019 Apr 3]. Available from: https://www.formulary.health.gov.on.ca/formulary/results.xhtml?q=flozin&type=1
- 3. Government of Canada. Summary Safety Review SGLT2 inhibitors (canagliflozin, dapagliflozin and empagliflozin) - Health Canada [Internet]. [cited 2019 Nov 4]. Available from: https://hpr-rps.hres.ca/reg-content/summary-safetyreview-detail.php?lang=en&linkID=SSR00204
- 4. Zinman B, Wanner C, Lachin JM, Fitchett D, Bluhmki E, Hantel S, et al. Empagliflozin, Cardiovascular Outcomes, and Mortality in Type 2 Diabetes. N Engl J Med. 2015;373(22):2117–28.
- 5. Neal B, Perkovic V, Mahaffey KW, de Zeeuw D, Fulcher G, Erondu N, et al. Canagliflozin and Cardiovascular and Renal Events in Type 2 Diabetes. N Engl J Med. 2017 Aug;377(7):644–57.
- 6. Wiviott SD, Raz I, Bonaca MP, Mosenzon O, Kato ET, Cahn A, et al. Dapagliflozin and Cardiovascular Outcomes in Type 2 Diabetes. N Engl J Med. 2019 Jan;380(4):347–57.
- 7. Perkovic V, Jardine MJ, Neal B, Bompoint S, Heerspink HJL, Charytan DM, et al. Canagliflozin and Renal Outcomes in Type 2 Diabetes and Nephropathy. N Engl J Med. 2019 Apr;380(24):2295–306.
- 8. Government of Canada. Summary Safety Review Sodium Glucose Cotransporter 2 (SGLT2) Inhibitors INVOKANA (canagliflozin) and FORXIGA (dapagliflozin) - Evaluation of a Potential Risk of Acute Kidney Injury [Internet]. [cited 2019 Apr 3]. Available from: https://www.canada.ca/en/health-canada/services/drugs-healthproducts/medeffect-canada/safety-reviews/summary-safety-review-sodiumglucose-cotransporter-2-sglt2-inhibitors-invokana-canagliflozin-forxigadapagliflozinl-risk.html
- 9. U.S. Food & Drug Administration. FDA Drug Safety Communication: FDA strengthens kidney warnings for diabetes medicines canagliflozin (Invokana, Invokamet) and dapagliflozin (Farxiga, Xigduo XR) [Internet]. [cited 2019 Apr 3]. Available from: https://www.fda.gov/drugs/drug-safety-and-availability/fda-drugsafety-communication-fda-strengthens-kidney-warnings-diabetes-medicinescanagliflozin
- 10. Wanner C, Inzucchi SE, Lachin JM, Fitchett D, von Eynatten M, Mattheus M, et al. Empagliflozin and Progression of Kidney Disease in Type 2 Diabetes. N Engl J Med. 2016;375(4):323–34.
- 11. Lambers Heerspink HJ, de Zeeuw D, Wie L, Leslie B, List J. Dapagliflozin a glucose-regulating drug with diuretic properties in subjects with type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Obes Metab. 2013 Sep;15(9):853–62.
- 12. Ptaszynska A, Johnsson KM, Parikh SJ, de Bruin TWA, Apanovitch AM, List JF. Safety profile of dapagliflozin for type 2 diabetes: pooled analysis of clinical studies for overall safety and rare events. Drug Saf. 2014 Oct;37(10):815–29.
- 13. Cefalu WT, Leiter LA, Yoon K-H, Arias P, Niskanen L, Xie J, et al. Efficacy and safety of canagliflozin versus glimepiride in patients with type 2 diabetes inadequately controlled with metformin (CANTATA-SU): 52 week results from a randomised, double-blind, phase 3 non-inferiority trial. Lancet (London, England). 2013 Sep;382(9896):941–50.
- 14. Heerspink HJL, Perkins BA, Fitchett DH, Husain M, Cherney DZI. Sodium

Glucose Cotransporter 2 Inhibitors in the Treatment of Diabetes Mellitus: Cardiovascular and Kidney Effects, Potential Mechanisms, and Clinical Applications. Circulation. 2016;134(10):752–72.

- 15. Nadkarni GN, Ferrandino R, Chang A, Surapaneni A, Chauhan K, Poojary P, et al. Acute Kidney Injury in Patients on SGLT2 Inhibitors: A Propensity-Matched Analysis. Diabetes Care. 2017;40(11):1479–85.
- 16. Cahn A, Melzer‐Cohen C, Pollack R, Chodick G, Shalev V. Acute renal outcomes with sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 inhibitors: Real-world data analysis. Diabetes, Obes Metab. 2019;21(2):340–8.
- 17. Ueda P, Svanstrom H, Melbye M, Eliasson B, Svensson A-M, Franzen S, et al. Sodium glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitors and risk of serious adverse events: nationwide register based cohort study. BMJ. 2018;363:k4365.
- 18. Government of Canada. Diabetes in Canada [Internet]. [cited 2019 Apr 5]. Available from: https://www.canada.ca/en/publichealth/services/publications/diseases-conditions/diabetes-canada-highlightschronic-disease-surveillance-system.html
- 19. Public Health Agency of Canada. Diabetes in Canada: Facts and figures from a public health perspective. Government of Canada. 2011.
- 20. Morrish NJ, Wang SL, Stevens LK, Fuller JH, Keen H. Mortality and causes of death in the WHO Multinational Study of Vascular Disease in Diabetes. Diabetologia. 2001 Sep;44 Suppl 2:S14-21.
- 21. Fuller JH, Elford J, Goldblatt P, Adelstein AM. Diabetes mortality: New light on an underestimated public health problem. Diabetologia. 1983;24(5):336–41.
- 22. Rosella LC, Lebenbaum M, Fitzpatrick T, O'Reilly D, Wang J, Booth GL, et al. Impact of diabetes on healthcare costs in a population-based cohort: a cost analysis. Diabet Med. 2016 Mar;33(3):395–403.
- 23. Symphony Health. Top 200 Drugs 2016 [Internet]. [cited 2019 Apr 11]. Available from: https://symphonyhealth.prahs.com/wpcontent/uploads/2017/04/Top-200-Drug-List-2016.pdf
- 24. Kalra S. Sodium Glucose Co-Transporter-2 (SGLT2) Inhibitors: A Review of Their Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. Diabetes Ther. 2014;5(2):355–66.
- 25. Poulsen SB, Fenton RA, Rieg T. Sodium-glucose cotransport. Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens. 2015 Sep;24(5):463–9.
- 26. Levey AS, James MT. Acute Kidney Injury. Ann Intern Med. 2017 Nov;167(9):ITC66–80.
- 27. Kellum JA, Lameire N, Aspelin P, Barsoum RS, Burdmann EA, Goldstein SL, et al. Kidney disease: improving global outcomes (KDIGO) acute kidney injury work group. KDIGO clinical practice guideline for acute kidney injury. Kidney Int Suppl. 2012;2(1):1–138.
- 28. International Society of Nephrology. AKI 0by25 [Internet]. [cited 2019 Apr 10]. Available from: https://www.theisn.org/focus/acute-kidney-injury
- 29. Girman CJ, Kou TD, Brodovicz K, Alexander CM, O'Neill EA, Engel S, et al. Risk of acute renal failure in patients with Type 2 diabetes mellitus. Diabet Med. 2012 May;29(5):614–21.
- 30. Mittalhenkle A, Stehman-Breen CO, Shlipak MG, Fried LF, Katz R, Young BA, et al. Cardiovascular risk factors and incident acute renal failure in older adults: the cardiovascular health study. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2008 Mar;3(2):450–6.
- 31. Xue JL, Daniels F, Star RA, Kimmel PL, Eggers PW, Molitoris BA, et al. Incidence and mortality of acute renal failure in Medicare beneficiaries, 1992 to 2001. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2006 Apr;17(4):1135–42.
- 32. Anderson S, Eldadah B, Halter JB, Hazzard WR, Himmelfarb J, Horne FM, et al. Acute Kidney Injury in Older Adults. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2011 Jan 1;22(1):28 LP

– 38.

- 33. Ishani A, Xue JL, Himmelfarb J, Eggers PW, Kimmel PL, Molitoris BA, et al. Acute kidney injury increases risk of ESRD among elderly. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2009 Jan;20(1):223–8.
- 34. Chertow GM, Burdick E, Honour M, Bonventre J V, Bates DW. Acute kidney injury, mortality, length of stay, and costs in hospitalized patients. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2005 Nov;16(11):3365–70.
- 35. Heyman SN, Khamaisi M, Rosen S, Rosenberger C, Abassi Z. Potential Hypoxic Renal Injury in Patients With Diabetes on SGLT2 Inhibitors: Caution Regarding Concomitant Use of NSAIDs and Iodinated Contrast Media. Vol. 40, Diabetes care. United States; 2017. p. e40–1.
- 36. Hahn K, Ejaz AA, Kanbay M, Lanaspa MA, Johnson RJ. Acute kidney injury from SGLT2 inhibitors: potential mechanisms. Nat Rev Nephrol. 2016 Nov;12(12):711– 2.
- 37. Szalat A, Perlman A, Muszkat M, Khamaisi M, Abassi Z, Heyman SN. Can SGLT2 Inhibitors Cause Acute Renal Failure? Plausible Role for Altered Glomerular Hemodynamics and Medullary Hypoxia. Drug Saf. 2018 Mar;41(3):239–52.
- 38. Malatiali S, Francis I, Barac-Nieto M. Phlorizin prevents glomerular hyperfiltration but not hypertrophy in diabetic rats. Exp Diabetes Res. 2008;2008:305403.
- 39. Vallon V, Gerasimova M, Rose MA, Masuda T, Satriano J, Mayoux E, et al. SGLT2 inhibitor empagliflozin reduces renal growth and albuminuria in proportion to hyperglycemia and prevents glomerular hyperfiltration in diabetic Akita mice. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol. 2014 Jan;306(2):F194-204.
- 40. Panchapakesan U, Pegg K, Gross S, Komala MG, Mudaliar H, Forbes J, et al. Effects of SGLT2 inhibition in human kidney proximal tubular cells--

renoprotection in diabetic nephropathy? PLoS One. 2013;8(2):e54442.

- 41. Mudaliar S, Alloju S, Henry RR. Can a Shift in Fuel Energetics Explain the Beneficial Cardiorenal Outcomes in the EMPA-REG OUTCOME Study? A Unifying Hypothesis. Diabetes Care. 2016;39(7):1115–22.
- 42. Ito M, Tanaka T. The Anticipated Renoprotective Effects of Sodium-glucose Cotransporter 2 Inhibitors. Intern Med. 2018 Aug;57(15):2105–14.
- 43. Groop P-H, Forsblom C, Thomas MC. Mechanisms of disease: Pathway-selective insulin resistance and microvascular complications of diabetes. Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab. 2005 Dec;1(2):100–10.
- 44. Downs SH, Black N. The feasibility of creating a checklist for the assessment of the methodological quality both of randomised and non-randomised studies of health care interventions. J Epidemiol Community Health. 1998 Jun;52(6):377–84.
- 45. Lapi F, Azoulay L, Yin H, Nessim SJ, Suissa S. Concurrent use of diuretics, angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors, and angiotensin receptor blockers with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and risk of acute kidney injury: nested casecontrol study. BMJ. 2013 Jan;346:e8525.
- 46. Lim HJ, Lee HH, Kim AJ, Ro H, Kim HS, Chang JH, et al. Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System Blockade in Critically Ill Patients Is Associated with Increased Risk for Acute Kidney Injury. Tohoku J Exp Med. 2016 Jan;238(1):17– 23.
- 47. Perlman A, Heyman SN, Matok I, Stokar J, Muszkat M, Szalat A. Acute renal failure with sodium-glucose-cotransporter-2 inhibitors: Analysis of the FDA adverse event report system database. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis. 2017;27(12):1108–13.
- 48. Cohen AT, Goto S, Schreiber K, Torp-Pedersen C. Why do we need observational studies of everyday patients in the real-life setting? Eur Hear J Suppl. 2015 Jul 10;17(suppl_D):D2–8.
- 49. Udell JA, Yuan Z, Rush T, Sicignano NM, Galitz M, Rosenthal N. Cardiovascular Outcomes and Risks After Initiation of a Sodium Glucose Cotransporter 2 Inhibitor: Results From the EASEL Population-Based Cohort Study (Evidence for Cardiovascular Outcomes With Sodium Glucose Cotransporter 2 Inhibitors in the Real World). Circulation. 2018 Apr;137(14):1450–9.
- 50. Cherney DZI, Udell JA. Use of Sodium Glucose Cotransporter 2 Inhibitors in the Hands of Cardiologists: With Great Power Comes Great Responsibility. Circulation. 2016 Dec;134(24):1915–7.
- 51. Statistics Canada. Population estimates on July 1st, by age and sex [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2019 Apr 28]. Available from: https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/t1/tbl1/en/tv.action?pid=1710000501&pickMembers %5B0%5D=1.7&pickMembers%5B1%5D=2.1
- 52. Goel V, Williams J, Anderson G, Blackstien-Hirsch P, Fooks C, Naylor C. Patterns of Health Care in Ontario. The ICES Practice Atlas. 1996.
- 53. Ontario Ministry of Finance. Ontario Demographic Quarterly: Highlights of fourth quarter, 2018 [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2019 Apr 28]. Available from: https://www.fin.gov.on.ca/en/economy/demographics/quarterly/dhiq4.html
- 54. Yau K, Burneo JG, Jandoc R, McArthur E, Muanda FT, Parikh CR, et al. Population-Based Study of Risk of AKI with Levetiracetam. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2019 Jan;14(1):17–26.
- 55. Hwang YJ, Dixon SN, Reiss JP, Wald R, Parikh CR, Gandhi S, et al. Atypical antipsychotic drugs and the risk for acute kidney injury and other adverse outcomes in older adults: a population-based cohort study. Ann Intern Med. 2014 Aug;161(4):242–8.
- 56. Gandhi S, Fleet JL, Bailey DG, McArthur E, Wald R, Rehman F, et al. Calciumchannel blocker-clarithromycin drug interactions and acute kidney injury. JAMA. 2013 Dec;310(23):2544–53.
- 57. Patel AM, Shariff S, Bailey DG, Juurlink DN, Gandhi S, Mamdani M, et al. Statin toxicity from macrolide antibiotic coprescription: a population-based cohort study. Ann Intern Med. 2013 Jun;158(12):869–76.
- 58. Langan SM, Schmidt SA, Wing K, Ehrenstein V, Nicholls SG, Filion KB, et al. The reporting of studies conducted using observational routinely collected health data statement for pharmacoepidemiology (RECORD-PE). BMJ. 2018 Nov;363:k3532.
- 59. Clemens KK, McArthur E, Fleet JL, Hramiak I, Garg AX. The risk of pancreatitis with sitagliptin therapy in older adults: a population-based cohort study. C open. 2015;3(2):E172-81.
- 60. Nash DM, Markle-Reid M, Brimble KS, McArthur E, Roshanov PS, Fink JC, et al. Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug use and risk of acute kidney injury and hyperkalemia in older adults: a population-based study. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2019;
- 61. Zhao YY, Weir MA, Manno M, Cordy P, Gomes T, Hackam DG, et al. New fibrate use and acute renal outcomes in elderly adults: a population-based study. Ann Intern Med. 2012 Apr;156(8):560–9.
- 62. Trac MH, McArthur E, Jandoc R, Dixon SN, Nash DM, Hackam DG, et al. Macrolide antibiotics and the risk of ventricular arrhythmia in older adults. CMAJ. 2016 Apr;188(7):E120-9.
- 63. Pendergrass M, Fenton C, Haffner SM, Chen W. Exenatide and sitagliptin are not associated with increased risk of acute renal failure: a retrospective claims analysis. Diabetes Obes Metab. 2012 Jul;14(7):596–600.
- 64. Lo Re V, Carbonari DM, Saine ME, Newcomb CW, Roy JA, Liu Q, et al. Postauthorization safety study of the DPP-4 inhibitor saxagliptin: a large-scale multinational family of cohort studies of five outcomes. BMJ open diabetes Res care. 2017;5(1):e000400.
- 65. Iskander C, McArthur E, Nash DM, Gandhi-Banga S, Weir MA, Muanda FT, et al. Identifying Ontario geographic regions to assess adults who present to hospital with laboratory-defined conditions: a descriptive study. C Open . 2019 Oct 1;7(4):E624–9.
- 66. Levey AS, Stevens LA. Estimating GFR using the CKD Epidemiology Collaboration (CKD-EPI) creatinine equation: more accurate GFR estimates, lower CKD prevalence estimates, and better risk predictions. Vol. 55, American journal of kidney diseases : the official journal of the National Kidney Foundation. United States; 2010. p. 622–7.
- 67. Hsia DS, Grove O, Cefalu WT. An update on sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 inhibitors for the treatment of diabetes mellitus. Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes Obes. 2017 Feb;24(1):73–9.
- 68. Ontario Long Term Care Association. This is long-term care 2019 [Internet]. 2019. Available from: https://www.oltca.com/OLTCA/Documents/Reports/TILTC2019web.pdf
- 69. Government of Canada. Drug Product Database online query [Internet]. [cited 2019 Jun 5]. Available from: https://health-products.canada.ca
- 70. Statistics Canada. National Household Survey 2011 [Internet]. [cited 2019 Jun 5]. Available from: https://www12.statcan.gc.ca
- 71. Austin PC. An Introduction to Propensity Score Methods for Reducing the Effects of Confounding in Observational Studies. Multivariate Behav Res. 2011 May;46(3):399–424.
- 72. Austin PC, Stuart EA. Moving towards best practice when using inverse probability of treatment weighting (IPTW) using the propensity score to estimate causal treatment effects in observational studies. Stat Med. 2015 Dec; 34(28): 3661–79.
- 73. Sato T, Matsuyama Y. Marginal structural models as a tool for standardization.

Epidemiology. 2003 Nov;14(6):680–6.

- 74. Brookhart MA, Wyss R, Layton JB, Sturmer T. Propensity score methods for confounding control in nonexperimental research. Circ Cardiovasc Qual Outcomes. 2013 Sep;6(5):604–11.
- 75. Fournier J-P, Sommet A, Durrieu G, Poutrain J-C, Lapeyre-Mestre M, Montastruc J-L. More on the "Triple Whammy": antihypertensive drugs, non-steroidal antiinflammatory agents and acute kidney injury - a case/non-case study in the French pharmacovigilance database. Ren Fail. 2014 Aug;36(7):1166–8.
- 76. Dreischulte T, Morales DR, Bell S, Guthrie B. Combined use of nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs with diuretics and/or renin–angiotensin system inhibitors in the community increases the risk of acute kidney injury. Kidney Int. 2015;88(2):396–403.
- 77. Lombardi R, Ferreiro A. Risk factors profile for acute kidney injury after cardiac surgery is different according to the level of baseline renal function. Ren Fail. 2008;30(2):155–60.
- 78. Thakar C V, Arrigain S, Worley S, Yared J-P, Paganini EP. A clinical score to predict acute renal failure after cardiac surgery. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2005;16(1):162–8.
- 79. Chawla LS, Eggers PW, Star RA, Kimmel PL. Acute kidney injury and chronic kidney disease as interconnected syndromes. N Engl J Med. 2014 Jul;371(1):58– 66.
- 80. Chawla LS, Kimmel PL. Acute kidney injury and chronic kidney disease: an integrated clinical syndrome. Kidney Int. 2012;82(5):516–24.
- 81. Palmer BF. Renal dysfunction complicating the treatment of hypertension. N Engl J Med. 2002;347(16):1256–61.
- 82. VanderWeele TJ, Ding P. Sensitivity Analysis in Observational Research:

Introducing the E-Value. Ann Intern Med. 2017 Aug;167(4):268–74.

- 83. Austin PC. Using the standardized difference to compare the prevalence of a binary variable between two groups in observational research. Commun Stat Comput. 2009;38(6):1228–34.
- 84. Mamdani M, Sykora K, Li P, Normand S-LT, Streiner DL, Austin PC, et al. Reader's guide to critical appraisal of cohort studies: 2. Assessing potential for confounding. BMJ. 2005 Apr;330(7497):960–2.
- 85. Ho JM, Gomes T, Straus SE, Austin PC, Mamdani M, Juurlink DN. Adverse cardiac events in older patients receiving venlafaxine: a population-based study. J Clin Psychiatry. 2014 Jun;75(6):e552-8.
- 86. Richardson K, Kenny RA, Bennett K. The effect of free health care on polypharmacy: a comparison of propensity score methods and multivariable regression to account for confounding. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf. 2014 Jun;23(6):656–65.
- 87. Alvarez-Uria G, Midde M, Pakam R, Naik PK. Directly-observed intermittent therapy versus unsupervised daily regimen during the intensive phase of antituberculosis therapy in HIV infected patients. Biomed Res Int. 2014;2014:937817.
- 88. Zou G. A modified poisson regression approach to prospective studies with binary data. Am J Epidemiol. 2004 Apr;159(7):702–6.
- 89. Greenland S. Interpretation and choice of effect measures in epidemiologic analyses. Am J Epidemiol. 1987 May;125(5):761–8.
- 90. Sinclair JC, Bracken MB. Clinically useful measures of effect in binary analyses of randomized trials. J Clin Epidemiol. 1994 Aug;47(8):881–9.
- 91. McNutt L-A, Wu C, Xue X, Hafner JP. Estimating the relative risk in cohort studies and clinical trials of common outcomes. Am J Epidemiol. 2003

May;157(10):940–3.

- 92. Wacholder S. Binomial regression in GLIM: estimating risk ratios and risk differences. Am J Epidemiol. 1986 Jan;123(1):174–84.
- 93. Wallenstein S, Bodian C. Epidemiologic programs for computers and calculators. Inferences on odds ratios, relative risks, and risk differences based on standard regression programs. Am J Epidemiol. 1987 Aug;126(2):346–55.
- 94. Skov T, Deddens J, Petersen MR, Endahl L. Prevalence proportion ratios: estimation and hypothesis testing. Int J Epidemiol. 1998 Feb;27(1):91–5.
- 95. Zocchetti C, Consonni D, Bertazzi PA. Estimation of prevalence rate ratios from cross-sectional data. Vol. 24, International journal of epidemiology. England; 1995. p. 1064–7.
- 96. Thompson ML, Myers JE, Kriebel D. Prevalence odds ratio or prevalence ratio in the analysis of cross sectional data: what is to be done? Occup Environ Med. 1998 Apr;55(4):272–7.
- 97. Spiegelman D, Hertzmark E. Easy SAS calculations for risk or prevalence ratios and differences. Am J Epidemiol. 2005;162(3):199–200.
- 98. Rothman KJ, Greenland S, Lash TL. Modern epidemiology. Vol. 3. Wolters Kluwer Health/Lippincott Williams & Wilkins Philadelphia; 2008.
- 99. Vittinghoff E, Glidden D V, Shiboski SC, McCulloch CE. Regression methods in biostatistics: linear, logistic, survival, and repeated measures models. Springer Science & Business Media; 2011.
- 100. Austin PC. Variance estimation when using inverse probability of treatment weighting (IPTW) with survival analysis. Stat Med. 2016 Dec;35(30):5642–55.
- 101. Fine JP, Gray RJ. A proportional hazards model for the subdistribution of a competing risk. J Am Stat Assoc. 1999;94(446):496–509.
- 102. Austin PC, Fine JP. Propensity‐score matching with competing risks in survival analysis. Stat Med. 2019;38(5):751–77.
- 103. Haneuse S, VanderWeele TJ, Arterburn D. Using the E-Value to Assess the Potential Effect of Unmeasured Confounding in Observational Studies. JAMA. 2019 Feb;321(6):602–3.
- 104. Mathur M, Ding P, Riddell C, VanderWeele T. E-value calculator [Internet]. [cited 2019 Nov 8]. Available from: https://www.evalue-calculator.com/
- 105. Ioannidis JPA, Tan YJ, Blum MR. Limitations and Misinterpretations of E-Values for Sensitivity Analyses of Observational Studies. Ann Intern Med. 2019 Jan;170(2):108–11.
- 106. Charlson ME, Pompei P, Ales KL, MacKenzie CR. A new method of classifying prognostic comorbidity in longitudinal studies: development and validation. J Chronic Dis. 1987;40(5):373–83.
- 107. Quan H, Sundararajan V, Halfon P, Fong A, Burnand B, Luthi JC, et al. Coding algorithms for defining comorbidities in ICD-9-CM and ICD-10 administrative data. Med Care. 2005 Nov;43(11):1130–9.
- 108. Tangri N, Stevens LA, Griffith J, Tighiouart H, Djurdjev O, Naimark D, et al. A predictive model for progression of chronic kidney disease to kidney failure. Jama. 2011;305(15):1553–9.
- 109. Heerspink HJL, Kosiborod M, Inzucchi SE, Cherney DZI. Renoprotective effects of sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 inhibitors. Kidney Int. 2018;94(1):26–39.
- 110. Kelly MS, Lewis J, Huntsberry AM, Dea L, Portillo I. Efficacy and renal outcomes of SGLT2 inhibitors in patients with type 2 diabetes and chronic kidney disease. Postgrad Med. 2019 Jan;131(1):31–42.
- 111. Neuen BL, Young T, Heerspink HJL, Neal B, Perkovic V, Billot L, et al. SGLT2 inhibitors for the prevention of kidney failure in patients with type 2 diabetes: a

systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. 2019 Sep;7(11):845–54.

- 112. Toyama T, Neuen BL, Jun M, Ohkuma T, Neal B, Jardine MJ, et al. Effect of SGLT2 inhibitors on cardiovascular, renal and safety outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus and chronic kidney disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Diabetes Obes Metab. 2019 May;21(5):1237–50.
- 113. Gilbert RE, Thorpe KE. Acute kidney injury with sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 inhibitors: A meta-analysis of cardiovascular outcome trials. Diabetes Obes Metab. 2019 Aug;21(8):1996–2000.
- 114. Diabetes Canada Clinical Practice Guidelines Expert Committee. Diabetes Canada 2018 Clinical Practice Guidelines for the Prevention and Management of Diabetes in Canada. Can J Diabetes. 2018;42(Suppl 1):S1–325.
- 115. Hwang YJ, Shariff SZ, Gandhi S, Wald R, Clark E, Fleet JL, et al. Validity of the International Classification of Diseases, Tenth Revision code for acute kidney injury in elderly patients at presentation to the emergency department and at hospital admission. BMJ Open. 2012;2(6).
- 116. Fleet JL, Shariff SZ, Gandhi S, Weir MA, Jain AK, Garg AX. Validity of the International Classification of Diseases 10th revision code for hyperkalaemia in elderly patients at presentation to an emergency department and at hospital admission. BMJ Open. 2012;2(6).
- 117. Grigorian A, Gabriel V, Nguyen NT, Smith BR, Schubl S, Borazjani B, et al. Black Race and Body Mass Index Are Risk Factors for Rhabdomyolysis and Acute Kidney Injury in Trauma. J Invest Surg. 2018 Sep;1–8.
- 118. Pedersen AB, Gammelager H, Kahlert J, Sorensen HT, Christiansen CF. Impact of body mass index on risk of acute kidney injury and mortality in elderly patients undergoing hip fracture surgery. Osteoporos Int. 2017 Mar;28(3):1087–97.
- 119. Rahman M, Shad F, Smith MC. Acute kidney injury: a guide to diagnosis and
management. Am Fam Physician. 2012;86(7):631–9.

- 120. Naicker S, Aboud O, Gharbi MB. Epidemiology of acute kidney injury in Africa. Semin Nephrol. 2008 Jul;28(4):348–53.
- 121. US Food and Drug Administration. FDA briefing document: Endocrine and Metabolic Drug Advisory Committee Meeting, June 28, 2016 [Internet]. [cited 2019 Sep 24]. Available from: https://www.fda.gov/media/98910/download

Appendices

Appendix A. Regulatory warnings on the risk of acute kidney injury with SGLT2 inhibitor use (8,9)

Appendix B. Standard daily doses of SGLT2 inhibitors and DPP4 inhibitors

Appendix C. Search strategies for literature review

Appendix D. REporting of studies Conducted using Observational Routinely-collected health Data (RECORD) statement for Pharmacoepidemiology (RECORD-PE) (58)

Appendix E. Coding definitions for demographics, comorbid conditions, healthcare utilization measures and laboratory measurements

Appendix F. Variables included in the propensity score

Appendix G. 2012 KDIGO thresholds for AKI stages (27)

Appendix H. ACE inhibitors, ARBs and all type of diuretic drugs included in the subgroup analysis

Abbreviations: CI= confidence interval, DPP4= dipeptidyl peptidase-4, SGLT2= sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 ^aReference group: DPP4 inhibitor users.

^bWeighted using inverse probability of treatment weighting based on propensity scores, using weights to estimate the average treatment effect in the treated. Patients in the reference group were weighted as [propensity score/(1 - propensity score)]. This method produces a weighted pseudo-sample of patients in the reference group with the same distribution of measured covariates as the exposure group (71,73,74)**.** Weighted relative risks and 95% CIs were obtained using modified Poisson regression (88) and weighted risk differences and 95% CIs were obtained using a binomial regression model with an identity link function.

cBased on tests done in an outpatient setting assessed using the Ontario Laboratories Information System serum creatinine values.

Appendix J. Absolute changes (μ mol/L) in serum creatinine after SGLT2 inhibitor and DPP4 inhibitor initiation

^aWeighted mean difference and 95% CIs were obtained using a normal regression model with an identity link function.

^aWeighted mean difference and 95% CIs were obtained using a normal regression model with an identity link function.

Appendix L. Risk of hospital encounter with acute kidney injury^a within 365 days among SGLT2 inhibitor new users compared with DPP4 inhibitor new users

Abbreviations: CI= confidence interval, DPP4= dipeptidyl peptidase-4, SGLT2= sodium-glucose cotransporter-2

^a365- day risk of acute kidney injury, based on hospital presentation (emergency department or hospitalization) assessed using the Ontario Laboratories Information System serum creatinine values.

^bReference group: DPP4 inhibitor users.

^cWeighted using inverse probability of treatment weighting based on propensity scores, using weights to estimate the average treatment effect in the treated. Patients in the reference group were weighted as [propensity score/(1 - propensity score)]. This method produces a weighted pseudo-sample of patients in the reference group with the same distribution of measured covariates as the exposure group (71,73,74)**.**

^dWeighted hazard ratio and 95% CI were obtained using Cox regression (with 365-day follow-up censoring on death). A similar result was observed when death was treated as a competing risk. 95% CI was obtained using a bootstrap estimator (100). In addition, the proportional hazards assumption was tested by including time dependent covariates in the model and the assumption was not violated.

Appendix M. 90-day risk of hospital encounter with bowel obstruction

Abbreviations: CI= confidence interval, DPP4= dipeptidyl peptidase-4, SGLT2= sodium-glucose cotransporter-2.

^aReference group: DPP4 inhibitor users.

^bWeighted using inverse probability of treatment weighting based on propensity scores, using weights to estimate the average treatment effect in the treated. Patients in the reference group were weighted as [propensity score/(1 - propensity score)]. This method produces a weighted pseudo-sample of patients in the reference group with the same distribution of measured covariates as the exposure group (71,73,74). Weighted risk ratios and 95% CIs were obtained using modified Poisson regression (88) and weighted risk differences and 95% CIs were obtained using a binomial regression model with an identity link function. cBased on hospital presentation (emergency department or hospitalization) assessed using diagnostic codes.

Appendix N. Post-hoc E-value analysis

E-value for point estimate: 1.83 and for confidence interval: 1.14

Each point along the curve defines a joint relationship between the two sensitivity parameters that could potentially explain away the estimated effect. If one of the two parameters is smaller than the E-value, the other must be larger, as defined by the plotted curve

Curriculum Vitae

Publications:

Iskander, Carina, et al. (2017). Attitudes and Opinions of Canadian Nephrologists Toward Continuous Quality Improvement Options. Canadian Journal of Kidney Health and Disease, 4, 1-8

Iskander, Carina, et al. (2019). Identifying Ontario geographic regions to assess adults who present to hospital with laboratory-defined conditions: a population-based study. CMAJ Open, 7(4): E624-E629