

## Prevalence of chronic kidney disease

1 **Prevalence of chronic kidney disease in adults in England: comparison of nationally**  
2 **representative cross-sectional surveys from 2003 to 2016**

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25 **Prevalence of chronic kidney disease in adults in England: comparison of nationally**  
26 **representative cross-sectional surveys from 2003 to 2016**

27 **Abstract**

28 *Objectives:* To identify recent trends in chronic kidney disease (CKD) prevalence in England and  
29 explore their association with changes in sociodemographic, behavioural and clinical factors.

30 *Design:* Pooled cross-sectional analysis.

31 *Setting:* Health Survey for England 2003, 2009/2010 combined, and 2016.

32 *Participants:* 17,663 individuals (aged 16+) living in private households.

33 *Primary and secondary outcome measures:* Prevalence of estimated glomerular filtration rate  
34 (eGFR) <60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> and albuminuria (measured by albumin-creatinine ratio) during  
35 2009/2010 and 2016 and trends in eGFR between 2003 to 2016. eGFR was estimated using  
36 serum creatinine Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration (CKDEPI) and Modification  
37 of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD) equations.

38 *Results:* GFR<60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> prevalence was 7.7% (95% CI: 7.1-8.4%), 7.0% (6.4- 7.7%), and  
39 7.3% (6.5-8.2%) in 2003, 2009/2010, and 2016, respectively. Albuminuria prevalence was 8.7%  
40 (8.1-9.5%) in 2009/10 and 9.8% (8.7-10.9%) in 2016. Prevalence of CKD G1-5  
41 (eGFR<60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> or albuminuria) was 12.6% (11.8-13.4%) in 2009/2010 and 13.9%  
42 (12.8-15.2%) in 2016. Prevalence of diabetes and obesity increased during 2003-2016 whilst  
43 prevalence of hypertension and smoking fell. The age- and gender-adjusted odds ratio (OR) of  
44 eGFR<60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> for 2016 vs 2009/10 was 0.99 (0.82-1.18) and fully-adjusted OR was  
45 1.13 (0.93-1.37). There was no significant period effect on the prevalence of albuminuria or CKD  
46 G1-5 from 2009/10 to 2016 in age and gender or fully-adjusted models.

47 *Conclusion:* The fall in eGFR<60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> seen from 2003 to 2009/10 did not continue to  
48 2016. However absolute CKD burden is likely to rise with population growth and ageing,  
49 particularly if diabetes prevalence continues to increase. This highlights the need for greater  
50 CKD prevention efforts and continued surveillance.

51

52 Word count (main text): 3555

53

54 **Article Summary**

55 *Strengths and limitations of this study*

56 The study is based on robust survey methodology using standardised protocols over time and  
57 taking into account complex survey design to reduce response bias.

58 Prevalence may be underestimated as residential care and hospitalised patients were excluded.

59 Single measures of serum creatinine and albumin to creatinine ratio so no chronicity established

60

## 61 Introduction

62 Chronic kidney disease (CKD), defined and staged using estimated glomerular filtration rate  
63 (eGFR) and indicators of kidney damage such as albuminuria (1), is a global public health  
64 problem with high economic cost, morbidity and mortality (2-4). The Global Burden of Disease  
65 study has shown rising global impact, largely due to population growth and ageing (4).

66 It is important to assess trends in CKD to inform prevention and health care planning. There are  
67 variable data on CKD time trends. In the United Kingdom (UK), CKD G3-5 prevalence fell in  
68 England between 2003 and 2009/2010 whilst remaining stable in Scotland between 2004 and  
69 2009/2010 (5,6). United States (US) studies using the National Health and Nutrition Examination  
70 (NHANES) found an increase in CKD prevalence from 1988 to 2004, followed by stabilisation  
71 between 2003/2004 and 2011/2012 (7,8). Other studies found CKD prevalence increased in  
72 Japan from 1974 to 2002 and in Finland between 2002 and 2007; remained stable in Norway  
73 from 1995 to 2008; and decreased in Korea from 2005 to 2007 (9-12). These differences in time  
74 patterns may reflect true changes, random variation, or be a result of methodological and  
75 analytical differences across studies. Some projection studies have suggested an increase in CKD  
76 burden in the coming decade and beyond, which may be expected given the continued rise in  
77 obesity and diabetes prevalence, and ageing population (13-15).

78 There is a lack of studies assessing CKD prevalence in recent years. It is important to examine if  
79 the earlier fall in CKD prevalence in the UK has continued and to investigate changes in  
80 albuminuria prevalence, given its prognostic importance (16). This study extends previous  
81 analyses between 2003 and 2009/2010 to examine time trends in CKD prevalence in England  
82 using the nationally representative Health Survey for England (HSE) in 2016, and to what extent  
83 any changes were explained by demographic and risk factor changes.

84

## 85 Materials and methods

### 86 Study population

87 The HSE is an annual survey of a nationally representative sample of individuals living in private  
88 households in England. The survey, conducted by trained interviewers, collects detailed  
89 information on sociodemographic characteristics, physical health, lifestyle behaviours, mental  
90 health and wellbeing, and anthropometric measurements, in order to explore changes in the  
91 health and lifestyles of people in England. This is supplemented with clinical assessment by  
92 trained nurses (e.g. for blood pressure, medication) and with blood and urine sampling. Kidney  
93 function tests were measured in adults (aged 16+) in 2003 (serum creatinine from stored  
94 samples, 2009/2010 and 2016 (serum creatinine, cystatin C and urinary albumin/creatinine  
95 ratio).

96 Survey participants were selected each year using a multi-stage stratified probability sampling  
97 design. Full details of the methodology including sample design, response rates, and weighting  
98 can be found in the 2003, 2009, 2010 and 2016 Health Survey Reports (17-20). There were  
99 household response rates of 73%, 68%, 66%, and 55% for the 2003, 2009, 2010, and 2016 HSE,  
100 respectively. A total of 14,836 adults were interviewed in the 2003 HSE, 4645 adults in 2009,  
101 8420 in 2010, and 8011 in 2016.

102 The current study uses data from participants aged  $\geq 16$  years who had valid serum creatinine or  
103 valid urine creatinine and albumin test results. The population for the current study was 17633  
104 individuals which included 7844/14,836 (53%), 6053/13,065 (46%), and 3766/8011 (47%)  
105 individuals from the 2003, 2009/2010, and 2016 HSE respectively for analyses using creatinine.  
106 Analyses for albuminuria used all available data at each time point and comprised 7633 and  
107 4361 individuals from the 2009/2010 and 2016 HSE, respectively. Since HSE 2009 and 2010 were  
108 conducted at close time points, data from these surveys were combined to increase sample  
109 study sample size, allowing sufficient power to conduct the analyses, as was done in a previous  
110 study (5). Each survey year consisted of a new sample of participants and there was no double  
111 counting in our sample.

## 112 **Kidney function measures**

113 Serum creatinine was assayed using an isotope dilution mass spectrometry (IDMS) traceable  
114 enzymatic assay on a Roche Modular analyser in 2009/2010 and on a Roche Cobas analyser in  
115 2016 in a single laboratory: the Clinical Biochemistry Department at the Royal Victoria Infirmary  
116 (RVI), Newcastle upon Tyne. Details of laboratory analysis, internal quality control and external  
117 quality assurance are provided in the 2009/2010 and 2016 documentation (18-20). The same  
118 methods were applied to the 2003 HSE samples. The 2003 HSE samples had been stored, frozen  
119 at  $-40$  degree Celsius, and then thawed for measurement in 2010. A correction factor was  
120 applied to 2003 samples to account for the effect of freezing on creatinine levels (5). A  
121 conversion equation derived by scientists at the RVI was then applied to the corrected 2003  
122 creatinine values, as well as 2009 and 2010 samples, to account for differences in analysers  
123 between earlier years and 2016 and allow direct comparisons. Serum creatinine concentration  
124 was used to estimate GFR using the CKD EPI equations (21). eGFR is categorised as  
125  $<60\text{ml/min}/1.73\text{m}^2$  (CKD G3-5) and  $<45\text{ml/min}/1.73\text{m}^2$  (G3b-5). The CKD EPI equation was used  
126 as this is more accurate than the MDRD equation and is recommended for use in the UK (22).

127 Albuminuria was measured on a single random urine sample at the RVI. Urine albumin was  
128 measured by immunoassay (on a Siemens Nephelometer analyser in 2009, on a Roche Modular  
129 analyser in 2010 and on a Roche Cobas analyser in 2016). Urine creatinine was measured by  
130 colorimetric assay (Jaffe method on an Olympus analyser, Jaffe method on a Roche Modular  
131 analyser, and enzymatic method on a Roche Cobas analyser in 2009, 2010, and 2016,  
132 respectively). Conversion equations (derived at the RVI) were applied to 2009 and 2010 urinary  
133 albumin and creatinine values to account for changes in analysers between 2009/2010 and  
134 2016. Albuminuria was defined as urinary albumin to creatinine ratio (uACR)  $>3\text{mg}/\text{mmol}$  (23).

135 CKD G1-5 was defined as  $\text{eGFR} < 60$  and/or albuminuria and categorized as moderate, high, or  
136 very high risk based on combinations of eGFR and uACR in the KDIGO classification system (23).

## 137 **Sociodemographic characteristics**

138 Age was grouped into five categories: 16-34, 35-54, 55-64, 65-74, and 75+ years. Ethnicity was  
139 grouped into four categories: White, South Asian, Black, and other. Socioeconomic factors  
140 included occupation, car ownership, and housing tenure. Occupation was classified using  
141 National Statistics Socioeconomic Classification (NS-SEC) and grouped into three categories: high  
142 (managerial and professional occupations), middle (intermediate occupations), and low (routine  
143 and manual occupations). Housing tenure was divided into two groups: owner and rented.

144 Education was grouped as degree level (NVQ4/NVQ5/Degree or equivalent), below degree, and  
145 no qualification.

#### 146 **Clinical and behavioural variables**

147 Clinical and behavioural factors included smoking (never, ex- smoker, current smoker) and body  
148 mass index (BMI; normal/underweight [ $<25\text{kg/m}^2$ ], overweight [ $25\text{-}29.9\text{kg/m}^2$ ], obese  
149 [ $\geq 30\text{kg/m}^2$ ], waist circumference (low:  $<94$  cm for males,  $<80$  cm for females; high:  $94\text{-}102\text{cm}$   
150 for males,  $80\text{-}88\text{cm}$  females; very high:  $>102\text{cm}$  for males,  $>88\text{cm}$  for females). For South Asian  
151 men, the waist circumference was classified as: low:  $<90$ ; high:  $90\text{-}102$ ; and very high:  $>102$  cm  
152 (24).

153 Clinical variables included cholesterol level (high density lipoprotein [HDL] and total cholesterol)  
154 from non-fasting blood samples; self-reported doctor-diagnosed diabetes, survey-diagnosed  
155 diabetes (glycated haemoglobin [HBA1c]  $\geq 6.5\%$  at nurse survey examination in those not  
156 reporting a diagnosis), total diabetes (doctor + survey-diagnosed); self-reported doctor-  
157 diagnosed hypertension, survey-diagnosed hypertension (systolic blood pressure  $\geq 140\text{mmHg}$   
158 and/or diastolic  $\geq 90\text{mmHg}$  in those not reporting a doctor diagnosis or on medication for  
159 hypertension at the survey examination) (19), and total (doctor + survey-diagnosed)  
160 hypertension. Self-reported prescribed medication was any anti-hypertensive medication or  
161 lipid lowering agents.

162 Where blood pressure was not raised but anti-hypertensive medication data were missing, we  
163 assumed such participants did not have hypertension.

164

#### 165 **Statistics**

166 Descriptive statistics were used to compare sociodemographic, clinical and behavioural  
167 characteristics, and kidney function measures over time, both between 2009/10 and 2016 and a  
168 trend for 2003-2016. Chi-squared tests were used to test differences for categorical variables  
169 and Somers' D rank tests were used to test for non-normally distributed continuous variables.  
170 Normally distributed variables, including total and HDL cholesterol levels, were compared using  
171 t-tests.

172 Multivariable logistic regression models (including age and gender) were used to examine  
173 associations between CKD G3-5 (eGFR $<60\text{ml/min}/1.73\text{m}^2$ ) and time period (fitted as 2003,  
174 2009/2010 and 2016), sociodemographic, clinical and behavioural variables. Similar models  
175 were applied to CKD G1-5 and albuminuria. We used complete case analysis for the primary  
176 modelling as the extent of missing data was below 10% for any variable (25). We repeated the  
177 analysis using all available data in each regression model, rather than complete case analysis.

178 All analyses were conducted using STATA 14 SE and took account of the complex sampling  
179 method (including stratification and clustering due to the two-stage sampling design) and  
180 sampling weights (blood or urine as appropriate, which incorporate non-response at all stages  
181 including interview and nurse assessment to address differences in subpopulations and maintain  
182 national representativeness) through the use of the survey data commands.

#### 183 **Patient and Public Involvement (PPI):**

184 We did not directly include PPI in this study.

185

## 186 Results

187 The study population consisted of 17663 adults with serum creatinine test results and 11994  
188 adults with valid urinary creatinine and albumin test results.

### 189 Survey characteristics

190 Gender and car ownership distribution were similar, while the proportion of people with older  
191 age, highest level of education, higher NS-SEC, and diabetes (both doctor- and survey-  
192 diagnosed) increased from 2003 to 2016 (**Table 1**). There was a decrease in the proportion of  
193 people of white ethnicity, home owners, current smokers, doctor-diagnosed and total  
194 hypertension. There were increases in median levels of glycated haemoglobin, HDL cholesterol,  
195 BMI and waist circumference and decreases in systolic and diastolic blood pressure and total  
196 cholesterol over the time period, and the changes were present from 2009/10 to-2016 (except  
197 for diastolic BP and BMI). There was an increase in the proportion of people with doctor-  
198 diagnosed CKD between 2009/2010 and 2016, though it remained low (**Table 1**).

### 199 Kidney function measures

200 **Table 2** shows that there were small increases in median serum creatinine levels and  
201 concomitant decreases in eGFR levels between 2003-16, largely reflected in changes in the  
202 balance of eGFR <60-89ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> and >90 ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup>. eGFR <60 ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup>  
203 prevalence was 7.7% (95% CI: 7.1-8.4%), 7.0% (6.4- 7.7%), and 7.3% (6.5-8.2%) in  
204 2003,2009/2010 and 2016, respectively. Differences were not statistically significant. There was  
205 little change in eGFR<45ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup>.

206 **Figure 1** shows the pattern of eGFR<60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> by age and gender from 2009/10 to  
207 2016. Women had a higher prevalence and consistent pattern of no change in any age group.  
208 The age pattern was more variable for men.

209 Albuminuria prevalence was 8.7% (8.1-9.5%) in 2009/10 and 9.8% (8.7-10.9%) in 2016. This was  
210 not statistically significant and median urinary albumin levels fell (**Table 2**). Albuminuria  
211 prevalence increased with age with a slight J shape (**Figure 2**). In those with both urine and  
212 blood results across surveys, 88% of albuminuria was observed in people with eGFR>60 (85% in  
213 those aged 35 and over) and 16% had doctor diagnosed diabetes (21% in those over 35).

214 Prevalence of CKD G1-5 was 12.6% (11.8-13.4%) in 2009/2010 and 13.9% (12.8-15.2%) in 2016  
215 (**Table 2**). There was no significant increase in CKD 1-5 prevalence overall or by any risk  
216 category, or by age group, diabetes status, or obesity.

217

### 218 Multivariable analyses

219 Regression models showed no significant differences in risk of eGFR<60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> for 2016  
220 compared with 2009/2010 (**Table 3**). The odds ratio (OR) of having eGFR<60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> in  
221 2016 compared with 2009/10 was 0.99 (0.82-1.18) in age- and gender-adjusted models and 1.13  
222 (0.93-1.37) in fully-adjusted models. There was no significant change in albuminuria prevalence

223 in age- and gender- [OR: 1.05 (0.86-1.29)] or fully-adjusted models [1.09 (0.88-1.36)] (**Table 4**).  
224 The OR for having CKD 1-5 were 1.03 (0.87-1.21) in age- and gender-adjusted models and 1.10  
225 (0.92-1.31) in fully-adjusted models (**Table 5**).

226 Sensitivity analyses using all available data for each model and outcome according to missing  
227 data found very similar results (see appendices 1-3). The period effect estimates in these models  
228 were consistent with the complete case models for all outcomes, though with narrower  
229 confidence intervals due to the larger sample size and statistical power.

## 230 **Discussion**

231 These nationally representative population-based studies in England have shown that the  
232 previous findings of a significant fall in CKD Stage 3-5 prevalence from 2003 to 2009/2010 has  
233 not continued to 2016. There were no significant changes in prevalence of albuminuria and CKD  
234 G1-5 between 2009/10 and 2016.

235 Population risk factors for CKD changed in different directions in 2009/10 to 2016, notably with  
236 increases in prevalence of diabetes, proportion at older age and decreases in hypertension and  
237 smoking. There were also changes in socioeconomic status and prevalence of ethnic minorities  
238 which could influence CKD prevalence (26, 27). The pattern of CKD prevalence is likely to reflect  
239 the balance of such countervailing CKD risk factors. Adjustment has been made for all these  
240 factors in assessing period changes in CKD prevalence.

241 A key finding for CKD prevention were the changes in population blood pressure levels and  
242 hypertension prevalence which may partly be due to the decline in population salt consumption  
243 (28, 29). Changes in blood pressure management in patients with known hypertension may also  
244 be an important factor, which we did not directly address due to limited numbers in the surveys  
245 and incomplete antihypertensive medication details. The study period coincided with the  
246 introduction in 2006 of the Quality Outcomes Framework (QoF) in England (an incentivised  
247 system for performance management of patients with diabetes, hypertension, and CKD), and  
248 the NHS Health Check for 40-74 year olds (a national population programme with cardiovascular  
249 disease (CVD) risk factor assessment including blood pressure measurement (30, 31). A  
250 systematic review of the impact of QoF on long-term conditions found some limited evidence  
251 for improved care (32). The NHS Health Check led to small reductions in blood pressure in non-  
252 randomised comparisons of NHS Health Check attendees and non-attendees and to increased  
253 prescription of antihypertensive agents (33, 34).

254 The increase in HDL cholesterol and decrease in total cholesterol over time may reflect the  
255 wider use of statins for the primary and secondary prevention of CVD. HDL was associated with  
256 reduced CKD prevalence in adjusted analyses, though the effect of statins in preventing CKD  
257 progression is uncertain (35,36,37).

258 A countervailing driver that would increase population CKD levels is the rising prevalence of  
259 diabetes, both diagnosed and undiagnosed. For those with diagnosed diabetes, the National  
260 Diabetes Audit for 2016-17 found slight improvement in HBA1c control (though it was poor  
261 overall in patients with Type 1 diabetes, mirroring the QoF review findings (38, 39). Urine ACR  
262 measurement was low in both types of diabetes and declined from 2011/12 to 2016/2017 with  
263 large variation between general practices (38). The National CKD Audit also confirmed poor  
264 recording of uACR in patients with diabetes and CKD and found it to be even poorer in those



265 with diagnosed hypertension (40). Lack of identification of albuminuria is of concern as it is a  
266 major risk factor for both CKD progression and incident cardiovascular disease and there is  
267 effective treatment available with RAS inhibition (41).

268 To our knowledge this study presents the most recent data on actual trends in CKD in a free-  
269 living general population. Murphy et al used serial US NHANES data from the late 1990s to 2012  
270 and found that prevalence of CKD G3-4 and CKD G1-4 increased to the mid-2000s but then  
271 stabilised, overall and in age, gender, ethnic, and diabetes sub- groups except for non-Hispanic  
272 Blacks (8). This was ascribed to improved management of both hypertension (42) and diabetes  
273 despite rising diabetes prevalence per se (43). Hallan et al analysed the Health Survey of Nord –  
274 Trondelag (HUNT) from 1995-7 to 2006-8 and found that the prevalence of CKD G1-5 was stable,  
275 which was ascribed to improved blood pressure control and to a lesser degree to lower total  
276 cholesterol (there was no change in HDL), and greater physical activity, offset by moderate  
277 increases in obesity and diabetes (11).

278 The survey showed that estimated CKD prevalence was substantially higher than doctor-  
279 diagnosed CKD (the latter being 1.1% to 1.8% for 2009/2010 and 2016, respectively). This may  
280 be due to lack of diagnosis (insufficient testing in the population), or patients have not been told  
281 or cannot recall being told by their doctor that they have CKD, as well as a small overestimation  
282 in the survey due to lack of confirmed chronicity.

### 283 **Study strengths and limitations**

284 Strengths of the study include the large, nationally representative population, as well as robust  
285 survey methodology using standardised protocols (including the same laboratory and use of  
286 conversion equations to account for changes in assays, analysers, and methods over time). The  
287 complex survey design was taken into account and non-response blood/urine weights used to  
288 reduce response bias and ensure national representativeness. This is important, as overall HSE  
289 survey response rates have declined with time. Time trend analysis was able to take into  
290 account a range of socio-demographic, behavioural and clinical factors that were measured in a  
291 standardised way across the surveys. We were able to assess changes in uACR, which is often  
292 not measured in studies of CKD prevalence.

293 Limitations included the relatively short time period and fewer blood and urine samples in 2016,  
294 limiting the power of the study. Some data items were incomplete, there still is no consensus on  
295 exactly how multiple imputation should be used with survey weighted data especially when the  
296 weighting is complex and multi-stage as in HSE (44). Moreover, it is recommended that  
297 imputation is performed by the survey providers rather than secondary users. Another  
298 limitation was that the survey, as do all national health surveys, excluded those in residential  
299 care or hospitalised patients, which may include some individuals with CKD and therefore  
300 underestimates prevalence - especially of more severe CKD. On the other hand, CKD prevalence  
301 may have been overestimated as a single blood sample was tested in each survey, meaning  
302 chronicity of reduced eGFR levels could not be confirmed (as required by the KDIGO definition)  
303 and previous studies have found fluctuations in creatinine can have a strong effect on CKD  
304 prevalence (45). Furthermore, an isolated low eGFR could represent an episode of acute kidney  
305 injury, though this is unlikely for participants of a health survey. A single uACR is also a poor  
306 indicator of albuminuria, as data from NHANES suggest a third of initially increased uACR results  
307 may be normal if repeat testing is performed (7). ACR was measured using a random sample  
308 rather than early morning urine which may increase prevalence (orthostatic proteinuria)

309 especially in the young, females, and those without hypertension or diabetes but this should not  
310 affect trends (46). The cross-sectional nature of the survey is a limitation as it lacks chronicity  
311 and restricts the ability to infer any causal relationships from the associations identified.  
312 Although primary care databases are a suitable source of repeated measurements, testing per  
313 se and repeat testing are selective and restricted to those accessing healthcare and therefore  
314 findings may not be representative of the general population. Age was modelled as a categorical  
315 term and not linearly as data governance policy at the time of analyses precluded the availability  
316 of individual age data to download from the UK Data Archive, so given the strong effect of age it  
317 is possible there is residual confounding. There were no data on prevalent CVD, a cause and  
318 consequence of CKD, so adjustment for trends in this was not possible. An important limitation  
319 was the lack of data on cystatin C based eGFR trends. Estimation of GFR using an equation that  
320 includes serum creatinine and cystatin C gives a more accurate result than one based on  
321 creatinine alone (47). We measured cystatin C but the analysis suggested that differences in  
322 assay standardisation (non-standardised in 2009/2010 and standardised in 2016) accounted for  
323 a large rise observed in cystatin C concentration. The assessment of quality of care of key  
324 groups, such as those with diagnosed diabetes in HSE, was limited by numbers. There were  
325 limited data to assign likely cause(s) of CKD. Additionally, the analysis pertains to the adult  
326 population of England and may not be generalisable to other populations with different socio-  
327 demographic or underlying risk factor patterns. Finally, we used the correction factor for Black  
328 ethnicity in the CKDEPI and MDRD equations to calculate eGFR. This may have introduced some  
329 bias as the correction factor was derived using US populations which may not be accurate for UK  
330 populations. However, our finding of lower prevalence of CKD in South Asian and African-  
331 Americans/Afro-Caribbean compared with Caucasians is consistent with studies that report  
332 ethnic minority groups having lower or similar CKD prevalence despite higher incidence of end  
333 stage renal disease (48-50).

334  
335 The finding of stable CKD prevalence may have important implications globally due to the  
336 ascending rank of CKD as a leading Global Burden of Disease cause of disability-adjusted life  
337 years (DALYs) and projected population growth and ageing, both of which will increase absolute  
338 CKD prevalence (51,52). Greater efforts are needed to prevent eGFR decline both in the general  
339 population and in those with CKD to reduce CKD incidence and its progression, through  
340 hypertension prevention, detection and control, obesity and diabetes prevention, and better  
341 management of existing diabetes. The under-ascertainment of albuminuria in patients with  
342 diabetes is of concern and merits further efforts and consideration of testing in patients with  
343 hypertension.

#### 344 345 **Conclusion**

346 In this nationally representative population-based study, the previously reported trend of  
347 decreasing CKD prevalence between 2003 and 2009/2010 did not continue to 2016 despite  
348 favourable changes in hypertension prevalence. Further studies in the HSE series including using  
349 cystatin C and albuminuria are needed to monitor and better understand CKD trends and assess  
350 prevention efforts, and better understand mechanisms of change.

351  
352 **Conflict of interest statement:** JSM reports grants from NHS Digital during the conduct of the  
353 study. No other conflicts of interest.

354 **Author contributions:** PJR and SF conceived the original study concept and design. HH  
355 conducted the statistical analyses and prepared the first draft of the manuscript. SH provided  
356 guidance and advice on statistical analyses and interpretation of the data. JSM co-ordinated the  
357 Health Surveys for England. JD conducted the laboratory analyses. All authors (HH, SH, SF, JD,  
358 MT, DO, JSM, PJR) critically reviewed the paper; were involved in the drafting and approval of  
359 the final manuscript; and act as guarantors. All authors (HH, SH, SF, JD, MT, DO, JSM, PJR)  
360 take responsibility for the data and research governance.

361 **Funding:** HSE 2003 was funded by the Department of Health; HSE 2009, 2010 and 2016 were  
362 funded by the Health and Social Care Information Centre (now NHS Digital). This CKD work was  
363 funded by Kidney Research UK (KRUK), grant number: KRUK RP37/2015. This funding supported  
364 kidney function testing, data management and analyses. KRUK was not involved in any other  
365 aspect of the project, such as the design of the project's protocol and analysis plan, the  
366 collection and analyses. The funders had no input into the interpretation or publication of the  
367 study results.

368 **Ethics approval:** Approval was obtained from the London Multi-Centre Research Ethics  
369 Committee for the 2003 survey (HSE 2003 ref MREC/02/2/72), the Oxford B Research Ethics  
370 Committee for both 2009 and 2010 surveys (HSE 2009 ref 08/H0605/103, HSE 2010 ref  
371 09/H0605/73), and the East Midlands Nottingham 2 Research Ethics Committee (Reference no  
372 15/EM/0254) for the 2016 survey.

373 **Data sharing statement:** The HSE 2003, 2009, 2010 and 2016 are archived with the UK Data  
374 Service. The Technical Appendix, statistical code and dataset are available from the  
375 corresponding author. Creatinine measurements for the HSE 2003 undertaken for this study will  
376 be archived in due course.

377 **Transparency statement:** We affirm that the manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent  
378 account of the study being reported. No important aspects of the study have been omitted and  
379 any discrepancies from the study as originally planned have been explained.

380

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Table 1: Change in proportion of sociodemographic, health and lifestyle variables between 2003, 2009/2010 and 2016

Variable	Category	2003 N=7844*	2009-2010 N=6053*	2016 N=3766*	2010 vs. 2016	2003 to 2016 trend test
Age	16-34	2423 (31.0%)	1847 (30.6%)	1145 (30.4%)	0.334	0.081
	34-54	2787 (35.7%)	2129 (35.2%)	1272 (33.8%)		
	55-64	1126 (14.4%)	886 (14.7%)	542 (14.4%)		
	65-74	812 (10.4%)	639 (10.6%)	457 (12.1%)		
	75+	662 (8.5%)	539 (8.9%)	352 (9.3%)		
	Missing <sup>‡</sup>	0	0	3		
Ethnicity	White	7226 (92.5%)	5461 (90.5%)	3271 (87.0%)	<b>0.002</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	South Asian	333 (4.3%)	265 (4.4%)	299 (7.9%)		
	Black	144 (1.8%)	159 (2.6%)	100 (2.7%)		
	Other	108 (1.4%)	149 (2.5%)	92 (2.4%)		
	Missing	0	7	3		
Gender	Male	3793 (48.6%)	2961 (49.0%)	1850 (49.1%)	0.935	0.529
	Female	4017 (51.4%)	3080 (51.0%)	1917 (50.9%)		
	Missing	0	0	0		



Qualification	Degree	1375 (17.6%)	1363 (22.6%)	1133 (30.1%)	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Below degree	4551 (58.4%)	3442 (57.0%)	1928 (51.2%)		
	None	1874 (24.0%)	1230 (20.4%)	703 (18.7%)		
	Missing	8	4	3		
NS-SEC	Highest	2514 (33.7%)	1988 (35.0%)	1289 (37.0%)	<b>0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Middle	1674 (22.4%)	1263 (22.2%)	877 (25.1%)		
	Lowest	3273 (43.9%)	2424 (42.7%)	1322 (37.9%)		
	Missing	245	233	143		
Car ownership	Yes	6460 (82.7%)	4948 (81.9%)	3080 (81.8%)	0.914	0.424
	No	1348 (17.3%)	1092 (18.1%)	687 (18.2%)		
	Missing	2	1	1		
Tenure	Own	5908 (76.6%)	4184 (70.2%)	2467 (66.4%)	<b>0.039</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Rent	1805 (23.4%)	1776 (29.8%)	1249 (33.6%)		
	Missing	96	73	44		
Smoking	Never	3951 (50.7%)	3269 (54.3%)	2170 (57.6%)	<b>0.005</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Ex	1877 (24.1%)	1491 (24.8%)	937 (24.9%)		
	Current	1960 (25.2%)	1260 (20.9%)	658 (17.5%)		
	Missing	12	8	1		

Body mass index	Normal/underweight	2820 (38.5%)	1997 (36.0%)	1319 (38.1%)	0.093	<b>0.006</b>
	Overweight	2865 (39.1%)	2128 (38.4%)	1229 (35.5%)		
	Obese	1637 (22.4%)	1425 (25.7%)	917 (26.5%)		
	Missing	478	497	328		
Body mass index (mean, SD)		26.8 (4.9)	27.2 (5.2)	27.1 (5.4)	<b>0.027</b>	<b>0.006</b>
Waist circumference	Low	3020 (39.3%)	2184 (36.6%)	1343 (36.5%)	0.982	<b>0.002</b>
	High	1969 (25.6%)	1452 (24.4%)	903 (24.6%)		
	Very high	2703 (35.1%)	2325 (39.0%)	1433 (38.9%)		
	Missing	127	86	95		
Doctor-diagnosed diabetes	No	7535 (96.5%)	5747 (95.1%)	3525 (93.6%)	<b>0.003</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Yes	276 (3.5%)	294 (4.9%)	241 (6.4%)		
	Missing	0	0	0		
Survey-diagnosed diabetes	No (HBA1c <6.5%)	7401 (96.2%)	5636 (94.5%)	3399 (91.8%)	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Yes (HBA1c ≥6.5%)	296 (3.9%)	328 (5.5%)	304 (8.2%)		
	Missing	106	74	68		
Total diabetes	No	7405 (94.8%)	5599 (92.7%)	3399 (90.2%)	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Yes	406 (5.2%)	439 (7.3%)	368 (9.8%)		
	Missing	0	0	0		

Glycated Haemoglobin (%) (mean, SD)		5.3 (0.7)	5.6 (0.7)	5.7 (0.8)	<b>0.002</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
HDL cholesterol (mmol/L) (mean, SD)		1.5 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)	1.7 (0.5)	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Total cholesterol (mmol/L) (mean, SD)		5.6 (1.2)	5.3 (1.1)	5.2 (1.1)	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Doctor-diagnosed hypertension	No	5,983 (76.7%)	4689 (77.7%)	2,991 (79.4%)	0.068	<b>0.003</b>
	Yes	1822 (23.3%)	1349 (22.3%)	776 (20.6%)		
	Missing	6	2	1		
Survey-diagnosed hypertension	No	4883 (76.0%)	4067 (79.9%)	2713 (82.41%)	<b>0.010</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Yes	1546 (24.1%)	1025 (20.1%)	579 (17.6%)		
	Missing	1343	875	446		
Total hypertension	No	5190 (66.5%)	4171 (69.1%)	2,674 (71.0%)	0.084	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Yes	2616 (33.5%)	1868 (30.9%)	1,092 (29.0%)		
	Missing	5	1	1		
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) (mean, SD)		128.3 (18.4)	126.1 (16.9)	124.7 (16.3)	<b>0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg) (mean, SD)		73.5 (11.4)	72.8 (10.9)	72.6 (10.8)	0.723	<b>0.001</b>
	No	-	5972 (98.9%)	3700 (98.2%)	<b>0.010</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Yes	-	68 (1.1%)	67 (1.8%)		

Doctor-diagnosed chronic kidney disease	Missing	-	0	0
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\*weighted to be nationally representative in each time period. Percentages are of complete data. SD= standard deviation. †number of missing observations for each variable (not weighted).

Table 2: Change in renal function markers between 2003, 2009/2010 and 2016

Variable	Category	2003		2009-2010		2016		2010 vs. 2016	2003 to 2016 trend test
<i>Blood samples</i>		<i>N=7844</i>	<i>(95% CI)</i>	<i>N=6053</i>	<i>(95% CI)</i>	<i>N=3766</i>	<i>(95% CI)</i>		
Serum creatinine ( $\mu\text{mol/L}$ )	Median	76.9		77.2		79.0		<0.001	<0.001
	LQ to UQ	67.3 to 87.5		66.9 to 88.5		69.0 to 91.0			
CKD EPI creatinine eGFR ( $\text{mL/min}/1.73\text{m}^2$ )	Median	93.3		92.6		89.8		<0.001	<0.001
	LQ to UQ	77.8 to 108.3		78.1 to 106.8		75.9 to 103.1			
CKD EPI creatinine eGFR ( $\text{mL/min}/1.73\text{m}^2$ )	>90	4376 (56.0%)		3317 (54.9%)		1846 (49.0%)		-	-
	60-90	2833 (36.3%)	(7.1% to	2301 (38.1%)	(6.4% to	1647 (43.7%)	(6.5% to	-	-
	<60	601 (7.7%)	8.4%)	423 (7.0%)	7.7%)	275 (7.3%)	8.2%)	0.584	0.306
	<45	173 (2.2%)	(1.9% to	114 (1.9%)	(1.6% to	65 (1.7%)	(1.3% to	0.589	0.068
			2.6%)		2.3%)		2.2%)		
<i>Urine test samples</i>				<i>N=7633</i>			<i>N=4361</i>		
Urine albumin ( $\text{mg/L}$ )	Median			4.9		4.0		<0.001	0.084
	LQ to UQ			4.9 to 9.0		3.0 to 10.0			
Urine creatinine ( $\text{mmol/L}$ )	Median			9.9		9.5		0.218	0.274
	LQ to UQ			5.3 to 14.9		5.3 to 14.4			
Albuminuria - Urinary albumin to Creatinine ratio ( $\text{mg}/\text{mmol}$ )	< 3			6966 (91.3%)		3915 (90.3%)			
	$\geq 3$			667 (8.7%)	(8.1% to	423 (9.8%)	(8.7% to	0.114	0.121
					9.5%)		10.9%)		

## Prevalence of chronic kidney disease

eGFR<60	No	6675 (87.5%)		3755 (86.1%)			
mL/min/1.73m <sup>2</sup> or albuminuria	Yes	958 (12.6%)	(11.9% to 13.4%)	607 (13.9%)	(12.8% to 15.2%)	0.062	-

Table 3: Prevalence of eGFR<60ml/min/1.73m<sup>2</sup> by CKD EPI creatinine equation over time with adjustment for sociodemographic, behavioural and clinical factors (N=16118 in all models\*\*)

Variable	Category	Prevalence of CKD (%)	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Age- and gender-adjusted OR (95% CI)	Sociodemographic adjusted OR (95% CI)	Sociodemographic, behavioural & clinical adjusted OR (95% CI)	Fully adjusted OR (95% CI)
HSE Year	2003	6.9	<b>1.13 (0.97-1.31)</b>	<b>1.22 (1.04-1.43)</b>	<b>1.19 (1.01-1.39)</b>	<b>1.22 (1.03 -1.43)</b>	<b>1.28 (1.09-1.51)</b>
	2009-2010	6.2	1	1	1	1	1
	2016	6.7	<b>1.08 (0.90-1.29)</b>	0.99 (0.82-1.18)	1.00 (0.84-1.21)	1.00 (0.83 -1.20)	1.13 (0.93-1.36)
Age	16-34	0.0	0.02(0.00-0.05)	<b>0.02 (0.00-0.05)</b>	<b>0.02 (0.00-0.05)</b>	<b>0.02 (0.01-0.07)</b>	<b>0.02 (0.01-0.07)</b>
	35-54	1.5	<b>0.22 (0.17-0.30)</b>	<b>0.22 (0.17-0.30)</b>	<b>0.23 (0.17-0.30)</b>	<b>0.26 (0.19-0.34)</b>	<b>0.26 (0.19-0.34)</b>
	55-64	6.3	1	1	1	1	1
	65-74	17.9	<b>3.24 (2.65-3.97)</b>	<b>3.26 (2.67-3.99)</b>	<b>3.16 (2.58-3.87)</b>	<b>2.96 (2.41-3.64)</b>	<b>2.90 (2.36-3.56)</b>
	75+	42.8	<b>11.17 (9.11-13.70)</b>	<b>11.17 (9.11-13.70)</b>	<b>10.57 (8.58-13.03)</b>	<b>9.64 (7.76-11.97)</b>	<b>9.44 (7.59-11.75)</b>
Gender	Male	5.7	1	1	1	1	1
	Female	7.6	<b>1.36 (1.21-1.53)</b>	<b>1.21 (1.06-1.38)</b>	<b>1.17 (1.02-1.33)</b>	<b>1.23 (1.07-1.42)</b>	<b>1.44 (1.23-1.67)</b>
Ethnicity	White	7.1	1		1	1	1
	South Asian	2.9	<b>0.40 (0.25-0.64)</b>		1.40 (0.85-2.32)	1.25 (0.75-2.08)	1.21 (0.73-1.98)
	Black	1.7	<b>0.22 (0.09-0.52)</b>		<b>0.35 (0.14-0.89)</b>	<b>0.30 (0.11-0.78)</b>	<b>0.34 (0.13-0.89)</b>
	Other	1.7	<b>0.23 (0.10-0.56)</b>		0.91 (0.43-1.93)	0.86 (0.39-1.91)	0.86 (0.39-1.90)
Tenure	Own	7.0	1		1	1	1
	Rent	5.5	<b>0.77 (0.66-0.90)</b>		<b>1.30 (1.10-1.55)</b>	<b>1.26 (1.06-1.50)</b>	<b>1.23 (1.03-1.46)</b>
Education	Degree level	2.8	1		1	1	1
	Below degree	4.8	<b>1.74 (1.38-2.20)</b>		1.25 (0.98-1.59)	1.20 (0.94-1.53)	1.17 (0.91-1.49)
	None	15.9	<b>6.60 (5.21-8.35)</b>		<b>1.43 (1.11-1.86)</b>	<b>1.34 (1.03-1.75)</b>	1.28 (0.98-1.67)
Smoking	Never	6.1	1			1	1
	Ex-smoker	11.1	<b>1.94 (1.69-2.21)</b>			1.03 (0.88-1.20)	1.02 (0.88-1.19)

	Current smoker	3.2	<b>0.51 (0.41-0.64)</b>	0.87 (0.68-1.11)	0.82 (0.64-1.06)
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	Normal (<25)	4.1	1	1	1
	Overweight (25-30)	7.6	<b>1.90 (1.63-2.21)</b>	<b>1.24 (1.05-1.48)</b>	1.13 (0.95-1.34)
	Obese (>30)	9.0	<b>2.30 (1.94-2.72)</b>	<b>1.43 (1.18-1.74)</b>	<b>1.22 (1.00-1.50)</b>
HDL Cholesterol (mmol/L)		-	0.83 (0.71-0.98)		<b>0.61 (0.49-0.76)</b>
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)		-	<b>1.09 (1.03-1.15)</b>		1.02 (0.95-1.09)
Diabetes	No	5.7	1	1	1
	Yes	20.7	<b>4.31 (3.65-5.11)</b>	<b>1.55 (1.27-1.88)</b>	<b>1.33 (1.08-1.62)</b>
Hypertension	No	3.1	1	1	1
	Yes	14.7	<b>5.44 (4.75-6.22)</b>	<b>1.38 (1.17-1.61)</b>	<b>1.33 (1.13-1.56)</b>
Taking lipid-lowering agent	No	5.0	1		1
	Yes	22.4	<b>5.55 (4.82-6.38)</b>		<b>1.39 (1.16-1.67)</b>

\*significant associations are marked **bold**. Age- and gender-adjusted models regressed CKD on HSE year, age and gender; Sociodemographic adjusted models regressed CKD on HSE year, age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, education; Sociodemographic, behavioural & clinical adjusted models regressed CKD on HSE year, age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, education, smoking, BMI, diabetes and hypertension; Fully adjusted models regressed CKD on HSE year, age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, education, smoking, BMI, diabetes, hypertension, HDL, total cholesterol. \*\*Complete case analysis (n=16118). CKD prevalence slightly less than shown in Table 2.



Table 4: Prevalence of albuminuria over time with adjustment for sociodemographic, behavioural and clinical factors (N=8312 in all models)

Variable	Category	Prevalence of Albuminuria (%)	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Age- and gender-adjusted OR (95% CI)	Sociodemographic adjusted OR (95% CI)	Sociodemographic, behavioural & clinical adjusted OR (95% CI)	Fully adjusted OR (95% CI)
HSE Year	2003	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2009-2010	7.5	1	1	1	1	1
	2016	8.1	1.09 (0.89-1.32)	1.05 (0.86-1.29)	1.06 (0.86-1.30)	1.05 (0.85-1.29)	1.09 (0.88-1.36)
Age	16-34	6.4	0.78 (0.57-1.07)	0.80 (0.58-1.10)	<b>0.72 (0.52-0.99)</b>	1.05 (0.76-1.47)	1.11 (0.78-1.57)
	35-54	5.3	<b>0.64 (0.50-0.82)</b>	<b>0.65 (0.50-0.83)</b>	<b>0.64 (0.50-0.82)</b>	0.79 (0.60-1.02)	0.81 (0.62-1.06)
	55-64	8.1	1	1	1	1	1
	65-74	11.7	<b>1.50 (1.16-1.96)</b>	<b>1.51 (1.16-1.96)</b>	<b>1.49 (1.13-1.95)</b>	<b>1.35 (1.03-1.78)</b>	1.31 (0.99-1.73)
	75+	17.9	<b>2.47 (1.87-3.25)</b>	<b>2.42 (1.83-3.19)</b>	<b>2.34 (1.75-3.12)</b>	<b>1.86 (1.38-2.52)</b>	<b>1.79 (1.32-2.42)</b>
Gender	Male	6.1	1	1	1	1	1
	Female	9.4	<b>1.58 (1.33-1.88)</b>	<b>1.52 (1.28-1.81)</b>	<b>1.50 (1.26-1.80)</b>	<b>1.62 (1.35-1.95)</b>	<b>1.70 (1.39-2.07)</b>
Ethnic	White	7.8	1		1	1	1
	South Asian	8.3	1.07 (0.68-1.69)		1.38 (0.88-2.18)	1.35 (0.85-2.16)	1.33 (0.84-2.10)
	Black	5.0	0.62 (0.30-1.27)		0.69 (0.33-1.44)	0.64 (0.29-1.40)	0.68 (0.32-1.45)
	Other	6.2	0.78 (0.37-1.66)		1.00 (0.47-2.12)	0.90 (0.43-1.86)	0.93 (0.45-1.92)
Tenure	Own	7.3	1		1	1	1
	Rent	8.8	<b>1.24 (1.00-1.52)</b>		<b>1.43 (1.14-1.78)</b>	<b>1.31 (1.04-1.66)</b>	<b>1.30 (1.03-1.64)</b>
Education	Degree level	5.2	1		1	1	1
	Below degree	7.7	<b>1.53 (1.19-1.97)</b>		<b>1.44 (1.12-1.85)</b>	<b>1.33 (1.03-1.72)</b>	<b>1.32 (1.03-1.71)</b>
	None	11.4	<b>2.35 (1.79-3.08)</b>		<b>1.43 (1.07-1.91)</b>	1.26 (0.94-1.69)	1.24 (0.93-1.66)
Smoking	Never	7.0	1			1	1
	Ex-smoker	8.9	<b>1.30 (1.06-1.60)</b>			1.10 (0.89-1.35)	1.09 (0.88-1.34)
	Current smoker	8.2	1.19 (0.93-1.53)			1.20 (0.91-1.58)	1.17 (0.88-1.56)

	Normal (<25)	7.5	1	1	1
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	Overweight (25-30)	6.8	0.91 (0.73-1.13)	0.82 (0.65-1.02)	<b>0.78 (0.62-0.98)</b>
	Obese (>30)	9.3	<b>1.27 (1.02-1.59)</b>	0.90 (0.72-1.13)	0.84 (0.66-1.06)
<b>HDL</b>					
<b>Cholesterol (mmol/L)</b>			0.96 (0.79-1.18)		0.86 (0.67-1.10)
<b>Total cholesterol (mmol/L)</b>					
			0.94 (0.86-1.03)		1.04 (0.94-1.15)
<b>Diabetes</b>	No	6.8	1	1	1
	Yes	19.8	<b>3.39 (2.72-4.23)</b>	<b>2.31 (1.81-2.95)</b>	<b>2.06 (1.59-2.66)</b>
<b>Hypertension</b>	No	5.5	1	1	1
	Yes	12.7	<b>2.50 (2.08-3.00)</b>	<b>1.87 (1.50-2.32)</b>	<b>1.76 (1.41-2.21)</b>
<b>Taking lipid-lowering agents</b>	No	6.5	1		1
	Yes	16.1	<b>2.75 (2.26-3.35)</b>		<b>1.46 (1.10-1.93)</b>

\*significant associations are marked bold.

Table 5: Prevalence of CKD 1-5 over time with adjustment for sociodemographic, behavioural and clinical factors (N=8326 in all models)

Variable	Category	Prevalence of CKD 1-5 (%)	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Age- and gender-adjusted OR (95% CI)	Sociodemographic adjusted OR (95% CI)	Sociodemographic, behavioural & clinical adjusted OR (95% CI)	Fully adjusted OR (95% CI)
HSE Year	2009-2010	12.2	1	1	1	1	1
	2016	13.2	1.09 (0.93 -1.27)	1.03 (0.87-1.21)	1.03 (0.88-1.22)	1.03 (0.87-1.22)	1.10 (0.92-1.31)
Age	16-34	6.5	<b>0.48 (0.36-0.64)</b>	<b>0.49 (0.37-0.65)</b>	<b>0.44 (0.33-0.59)</b>	<b>0.65 (0.48-0.88)</b>	<b>0.68 (0.50-0.93)</b>
	35-54	6.5	<b>0.48 (0.39-0.59)</b>	<b>0.48 (0.39-0.60)</b>	<b>0.48 (0.39-0.59)</b>	<b>0.58 (0.46-0.72)</b>	<b>0.59 (0.47-0.74)</b>
	55-64	12.7	1	1	1	1	1
	65-74	24.2	<b>2.20 (1.79-2.70)</b>	<b>2.21 (1.80-2.72)</b>	<b>2.18 (1.76-2.70)</b>	<b>2.03 (1.63-2.53)</b>	<b>1.97 (1.58-2.45)</b>
	75+	48.6	<b>6.50 (5.25-8.05)</b>	<b>6.44 (5.20-7.99)</b>	<b>6.24 (5.00-7.79)</b>	<b>5.37 (4.25-6.77)</b>	<b>5.18 (4.09-6.56)</b>
Gender	Male	10.1	1	1	1	1	1
	Female	15.1	<b>1.59 (1.39-1.81)</b>	<b>1.49 (1.29 -1.72)</b>	<b>1.46 (1.26-1.70)</b>	<b>1.60 (1.37-1.87)</b>	<b>1.72 (1.46-2.03)</b>
Ethnic	White	13.0	1		1	1	1
	South Asian	10.7	0.80 (0.51-1.27)		1.39 (0.88-2.19)	1.33 (0.83-2.12)	1.28 (0.81-2.04)
	Black	5.3	<b>0.38 (0.19-0.75)</b>		0.49 (0.22-1.07)	0.43 (0.18-1.03)	0.47 (0.20-1.08)
	Other	7.3	0.53 (0.27-1.03)		0.94 (0.48-1.83)	0.86 (0.45-1.67)	0.90 (0.46-1.72)
Tenure	Own	12.7	1		1	1	1
	Rent	12.2	0.95 (0.80-1.13)		<b>1.42 (1.17-1.72)</b>	<b>1.32 (1.08-1.61)</b>	<b>1.30 (1.07-1.60)</b>
Education	Degree level	7.6	1		1	1	1
	Below degree	11.5	<b>1.58 (1.28-1.95)</b>		<b>1.40 (1.13-1.73)</b>	<b>1.29 (1.04-1.59)</b>	<b>1.28 (1.03-1.58)</b>
	None	23.1	<b>3.65 (2.92-4.56)</b>		<b>1.45 (1.14-1.84)</b>	1.27 (1.00-1.62)	1.25 (0.98-1.59)
Smoking	Never	11.3	1			1	1
	Ex-smoker	17.1	<b>1.62 (1.39-1.88)</b>			1.15 (0.97-1.36)	1.14 (0.96-1.35)

## Prevalence of chronic kidney disease

	Current smoker	10.5	0.92 (0.74-1.14)	1.12 (0.88-1.44)	1.09 (0.85-1.39)
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	Normal (<25)	10.4	1	1	1
	Overweight (25-30)	12.3	<b>1.20 (1.00-1.43)</b>	0.96 (0.79-1.17)	0.89 (0.73-1.09)
	Obese (>30)	16.0	<b>1.63 (1.36-1.96)</b>	1.14 (0.93-1.39)	1.03 (0.83-1.27)
<b>HDL Cholesterol (mmol/L)</b>		-	0.97 (0.83-1.14)		<b>0.78 (0.63-0.97)</b>
<b>Total cholesterol (mmol/L)</b>		-	0.96 (0.90-1.02)		1.05 (0.97-1.14)
<b>Diabetes</b>	No	11.0	1	1	1
	Yes	33.1	<b>3.99 (3.32-4.80)</b>	<b>2.03 (1.64-2.53)</b>	<b>1.78 (1.42-2.23)</b>
<b>Hypertension</b>	No	7.6	1	1	1
	Yes	23.6	<b>3.77 (3.26-4.36)</b>	<b>1.72 (1.44-2.04)</b>	<b>1.60 (1.34-1.92)</b>
<b>Taking lipid-lowering agents</b>	No	9.9	1		1
	Yes	31.9	<b>4.29 (3.68-5.00)</b>		<b>1.51 (1.21-1.88)</b>

\*significant associations are marked bold.

**Figure Legend**

**Figure 1: Changes in prevalence (weighted) of CKD EPI serum creatinine eGFR<60 by age and gender 2009/10-2016**

**Figure 2: Changes in prevalence (weighted) of albuminuria by age group 2009/10-2016**