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Acute Treatment Effects on GFR in Randomized Clinical Trials of Kidney Disease Progression

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ABSTRACT

Background Acute changes in GFR can occur after initiation of interventions targeting progression of CKD. These acute changes complicate the interpretation of long-term treatment effects.

Methods To assess the magnitude and consistency of acute effects in randomized clinical trials and explore factors that might affect them, we performed a meta-analysis of 53 randomized clinical trials for CKD progression, enrolling 56,413 participants with at least one estimated GFR measurement by 6 months after randomization. We defined acute treatment effects as the mean difference in GFR slope from baseline to 3 months between randomized groups. We performed univariable and multivariable meta-regression to assess the effect of intervention type, disease state, baseline GFR, and albuminuria on the magnitude of acute effects.

Results The mean acute effect across all studies was -0.21 ml/min per 1.73 m² (95% confidence interval, -0.63 to 0.22) over 3 months, with substantial heterogeneity across interventions (95% coverage interval across studies, -2.50 to $+2.08$ ml/min per 1.73 m²). We observed negative average acute effects in renin-angiotensin system blockade, BP lowering, and sodium-glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitor trials, and positive acute effects in trials of immunosuppressive agents. Larger negative acute effects were observed in trials with a higher mean baseline GFR.

Conclusion The magnitude and consistency of acute GFR effects vary across different interventions, and are larger at higher baseline GFR. Understanding the nature and magnitude of acute effects can help inform the optimal design of randomized clinical trials evaluating disease progression in CKD.

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A key challenge in the design and conduct of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) of CKD is that kidney failure typically develops over a long period of time, thus studies seeking to detect effects on this outcome require substantial follow-up time. As a result, there has been substantial effort from investigators, regulatory authorities, and sponsors toward identifying robust alternative endpoints for kidney failure, particularly for the early stages of CKD and for early-phase trials.^{1–6}

A 2018 scientific workshop convened by the National Kidney Foundation, United States Food and Drug Administration, and European Medicines Agency evaluated the evidence for rate of change in GFR (*i.e.*, GFR slope) as an alternative endpoint for kidney disease progression in RCTs.⁷ On the basis of two separate meta-analyses of observational cohorts and RCTs, the workshop concluded that treatment effects on GFR slope accurately predicted treatment effects

on clinical outcomes, indicating GFR slope may be a viable alternative endpoint for kidney disease progression. On the basis of these data, some ongoing studies are using GFR slope as an endpoint.^{8–14} Interventions that affect CKD progression often produce early, short-term effects on GFR (referred to hereon in as acute effects) that differ from their long-term treatment effects (referred to hereon in as chronic slope), as, for example, are seen with agents that block the renin-angiotensin system (RAS) and sodium-glucose cotransporter 2 (SGLT2) inhibitors.^{15–18} The presence of acute effects may complicate the design and interpretation of RCTs in which GFR slope is the primary outcome. For example, negative acute effects may increase risk of falsely concluding no benefit, whereas positive acute effects may increase the risk of falsely concluding treatment benefit.

Although such acute effects are common, there is little understanding of them. We sought to describe the nature and magnitude of acute treatment effects on GFR in RCTs in which kidney disease progression was assessed, and eval-

Significance Statement

GFR slope has been proposed as a surrogate endpoint for progression to kidney failure in clinical trials studying patients with CKD. Acute or immediate effects on GFR after treatment initiation may complicate the interpretation of long-term treatment effects. In this large meta-analysis of 53 randomized clinical studies of CKD progression, the authors found the magnitude and nature of acute effects are variable across different interventions and may be larger at a higher baseline GFR. Negative acute effects (such as an acute reduction in GFR) were observed in trials of renin-angiotensin system blockade and BP lowering, whereas positive acute effects were more common in trials of immunosuppressive therapies. Such information can inform the optimal design and analysis plan for randomized clinical trials in CKD.

uate the consistency of these effects across key study level characteristics, including intervention type, GFR, and albuminuria.

METHODS

Datasets

As part of our previous work, we developed a pooled database of RCTs by performing a systematic literature search to identify relevant trials and obtaining individual participant data for these studies.^{1,19–61} A complete list of search terms used is provided in Supplemental Table 1 and the study inclusion criteria are listed in Supplemental Table 2. Risks of bias for each study were assessed using the risk-of-bias tool of the Cochrane collaboration⁶² (Supplemental Figure 1). As we have done previously, we included a separate randomized treatment comparison for each independent treatment versus control comparison for trials that evaluated more than one intervention, but unlike in our prior work, we did not pool small trials that had <100 participants if the disease and intervention were the same.^{1,34,42–44,48,49,51–54,63–65} For this analysis, we excluded four RCTs that did not have at least one follow-up study visit at or before 6 months postrandomization.^{63–66} The study was approved by Tufts Medical Center Institutional Review Board.

GFR

GFR was estimated using the Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration (CKD-EPI) 2009 creatinine equation.⁶⁷ Creatinine was standardized to isotope dilution mass spectroscopy traceable reference methods using direct comparison, or was reduced by 5%, as has previously been described.⁶⁸

Estimation of Acute Effects

Our primary definition of the acute treatment effect was the mean difference in the change in GFR from baseline to

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3 months between the treatment and control arms. The primary analysis used analysis of covariance to estimate the acute effect while adjusting for baseline GFR as a covariate. This analysis was restricted to studies with baseline GFR and at least one planned measurement of GFR between month 3 and month 6. For patients who had measurements at 4, 5, or 6 months, the acute effect was computed at that time. As we have previously performed, we categorized the observed mean acute effect (ml/min per 1.73 m^2) as very large negative (≤ -2.5), moderate-to-large negative (> -2.5 to < -1.25), small negative (-1.25 to < 0), small positive (> 0 to < 1.25), moderate-to-large positive (1.25 to < 2.5), and very large positive (≥ 2.5).⁶⁹ In a sensitivity analysis, we fitted a linear mixed effects model to GFR between months 3 and 24 of follow-up, with covariate adjustment for the baseline GFR level. This model includes fixed effects for treatment assignment, baseline GFR and the interactions of these factors with time, and random slopes and intercepts for characterizing variation in GFR trajectories across patients. For studies that had follow-up longer than 24 months, the follow-up time was truncated at 24 months to ensure the long-term trajectory did not overly influence the estimation of the acute effect. This sensitivity analysis was able to formally evaluate mean GFR change to 3 months, even if the initial GFR follow-up assessment occurred later than month 3, on the basis of the assumption of linear mean decline between months 3 and 24. With the exception of the analyses that related the size of the acute effects to baseline GFR and urinary albumin-creatinine ratio (UACR) levels (see below), acute effects were estimated on the basis of change in GFR on the linear (raw) scale and expressed in units of ml/min per 1.73 m^2 .

Meta-analyses

We performed separate random effects meta-analyses to model the distribution of “true” treatment effects on the acute GFR change to 3 months across all studies, and then separately for subgroups of studies on the basis of intervention type. Our random effects models assumed the acute effects were normally distributed across studies. We used these models to obtain the mean acute effect across the studies included in each analysis, with a 95% confidence interval. In addition, to assess heterogeneity of acute effects between studies, we computed 95% coverage intervals from the mean and the between-study SD of the acute effects from the random-effects meta-analysis. The coverage interval provides lower and upper limits that included 95% of the acute effects across the studies, under the assumption that the acute effects are normally distributed.

We performed separate univariable meta-regression analyses to explore the effect of mean baseline GFR and median baseline UACR on the magnitude of the acute effects across studies. For these analyses, we analyzed the longitudinal GFR measurements for estimation of the acute effect on

both on the linear scale and natural log scale. When the longitudinal GFR measurements were expressed on the linear scale, the acute effect is expressed in absolute units of ml/min per 1.73 m^2 . When the longitudinal GFR measurements were expressed on the natural log scale, the acute effect is expressed as a relative effect and expressed as a ratio of geometric mean GFR levels between the treatment and control groups. Median baseline UACR was log transformed in these analyses irrespective of whether the longitudinal GFR measurements were expressed on the raw scale or natural log scale. Baseline GFR was expressed on the linear scale when the longitudinal GFR measurements were expressed on the linear scale and on the natural log scale when the longitudinal GFR measurements were log transformed. In addition, to consider whether standard of care at the time of the study affected the magnitude of the acute effects, we also performed separate univariable meta-regression analyses by year of publication.

We also performed multivariable meta-regression to further assess the effect of baseline mean GFR and median UACR on acute effects after adjusting for intervention type, and diabetes status. In additional sensitivity analyses, we analyzed acute effects by quartiles of baseline GFR within individual studies to compare associations observed at the study and individual participant levels.

Analyses were performed using SAS version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) and R 3.16.1 (R Project for Statistical Computing, www.r-project.org).

RESULTS

We included 53 randomized studies enrolling 56,413 participants that had at least one visit by 6 months after randomization. Aggregate characteristics of included studies stratified by intervention are summarized in Table 1, Supplemental Table 3 (stratified by disease), and Supplemental Table 4. The median baseline UACR was higher in trials with lower mean baseline GFR, except for immunosuppression studies (Supplemental Figure 2).

Acute Effects Overall and by Intervention

Across all studies, the mean acute effect (difference in GFR between randomized groups) was -0.21 ml/min per 1.73 m^2 over the first 3 months (95% confidence interval, -0.63 to 0.22). There was substantial heterogeneity across studies; the 95% coverage interval for the acute effect across studies ranged from -2.50 to $+2.08$ ml/min per 1.73 m^2 (Figure 1, Supplemental Table 5, Supplemental Figure 3, and Supplemental Figure 4). Results were similar in sensitivity analyses using the simple linear mixed models (Supplemental Table 5 and Supplemental Figure 5). For specific intervention types, there is evidence that RAS blockade versus calcium channel blockers (CCB), RAS blockade versus control,

Table 1. Clinical characteristics of the population overall and stratified by intervention

	N studies	N participants	Age	Female	Black	Diabetes	GFR	ACR
Overall	53	56413	61.5 (11.2)	22514 (37.4)	4601 (7.6)	45342 (75.3)	61.8 (26.3)	59 (13, 539)
Intervention								
RASB versus control	19	25157	61.7 (11.1)	9964 (37.9)	1720 (6.5)	22650 (86.1)	64.0 (23.8)	83 (14, 691)
RASB versus CCB	4	1884	57.6 (9.1)	832 (36.3)	862 (37.6)	1520 (66.3)	52.1 (20.5)	836 (105, 1983)
BP ^a	5	2438	51.0 (12.8)	1157 (40.4)	1235 (43.1)	435 (15.2)	55.9 (26.3)	68 (24, 393)
Diet ^b	2	731	51.8 (12.4)	332 (39.6)	66 (7.9)	43 (5.1)	34.5 (13.5)	192 (42, 904)
IS ^a	15	1039	41.7 (12.9)	407 (33.0)	19 (1.5)	4 (0.3)	72.1 (29.2)	1557 (898, 2814)
Other	8	25164	64.0 (9.1)	9822 (36.8)	699 (2.6)	20690 (77.4)	61.4 (28.3)	30 (9, 186)

Values for age and GFR are presented as mean (SD) and for ACR as median (25th, 75th percentile). Values for other characteristics are presented as number (%). The N participants presented here are for the primary analysis (analysis of covariance). RASB, renin-angiotensin system blockers.

^aBP, low versus usual BP control.

^bDiet, low versus high protein diet.

^cIS, various immunosuppression treatment versus control studies.

SGLT2 inhibitors versus placebo, and intensive BP lowering led to negative average acute effects, and that immunosuppressive agents led to a positive average acute effect (Figure 1, Supplemental Table 5, and Supplemental Figure 4), although in most cases statistical significance was not reached. The substantial variation in acute effects across different trials persisted within the individual treatment comparison classes (Supplemental Table 5 and Supplemental Figure 4), and by year of publication (Supplemental Figure 6). Heterogeneity was greatest among immunosuppression (95% coverage interval across studies, -2.34–6.29 ml/min per 1.73 m²) and renin-angiotensin receptor blockers versus CCB trials (95% coverage interval across studies, -4.28–1.07 ml/min per 1.73 m²).

Supplemental Table 6 shows the categories of large, moderate, or small observed mean acute effects overall and by intervention. Overall, moderate to large (>-2.5 to ≤-1.25 ml/min per 1.73 m²) or very large (≤-2.5 ml/min per 1.73 m²) negative acute effects were observed in 13 trials, moderate to large (≥1.25 to <2.5 ml/min per 1.73 m²) or very large (≥2.5 ml/min per 1.73 m²) positive acute effects were observed in 13 trials, and small positive or negative acute effects were observed in the remaining studies.

Reflecting a combination of true variation in acute effects and random sampling error, which predominates in smaller trials, in these descriptive analyses negative acute effects were observed in four out of four studies comparing RAS blockade with CCBs, in 13 out of 23 studies comparing RAS blockade to control, in one trial comparing SGLT2 inhibitors to control, and four out of five trials of immunosuppressive agents. Positive acute effects were observed in 11 of the 15 trials of immunosuppressive agents (Supplemental Table 6).

Acute Effects by Baseline GFR

Larger negative acute effects (expressed in units of ml/min per 1.73 m²) tended to be observed in studies with higher levels of mean baseline GFR (P=0.02; Figure 2). The association between the acute effect and baseline GFR remained mostly consistent after adjustment for intervention and diabetic status at the study level (Supplemental Table 7). For trials of RAS blockade versus control, the mean acute effect (SE) varied from 0.24 (0.36) when the mean baseline GFR was 20 ml/min per 1.73 m² compared with -1.57 (0.42), when mean baseline GFR was 80 ml/min per 1.73 m² (Figure 3). For trials comparing low versus usual BP

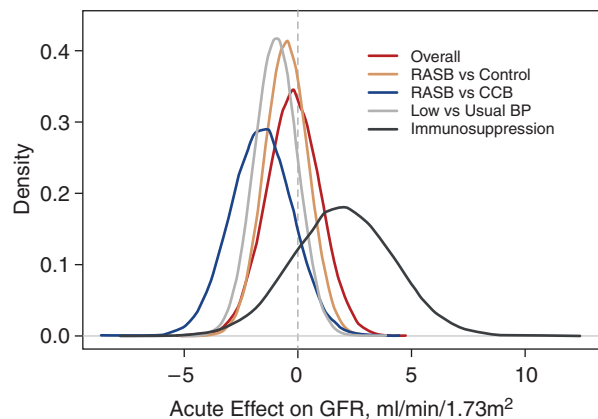
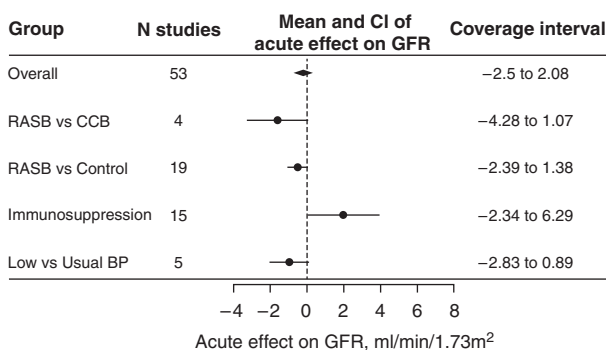


Figure 1. Distribution and estimated mean acute effect on GFR by intervention. Coverage interval refers to the interval under which 95% of the studies fall. 95% CI, 95% confidence interval; RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers.

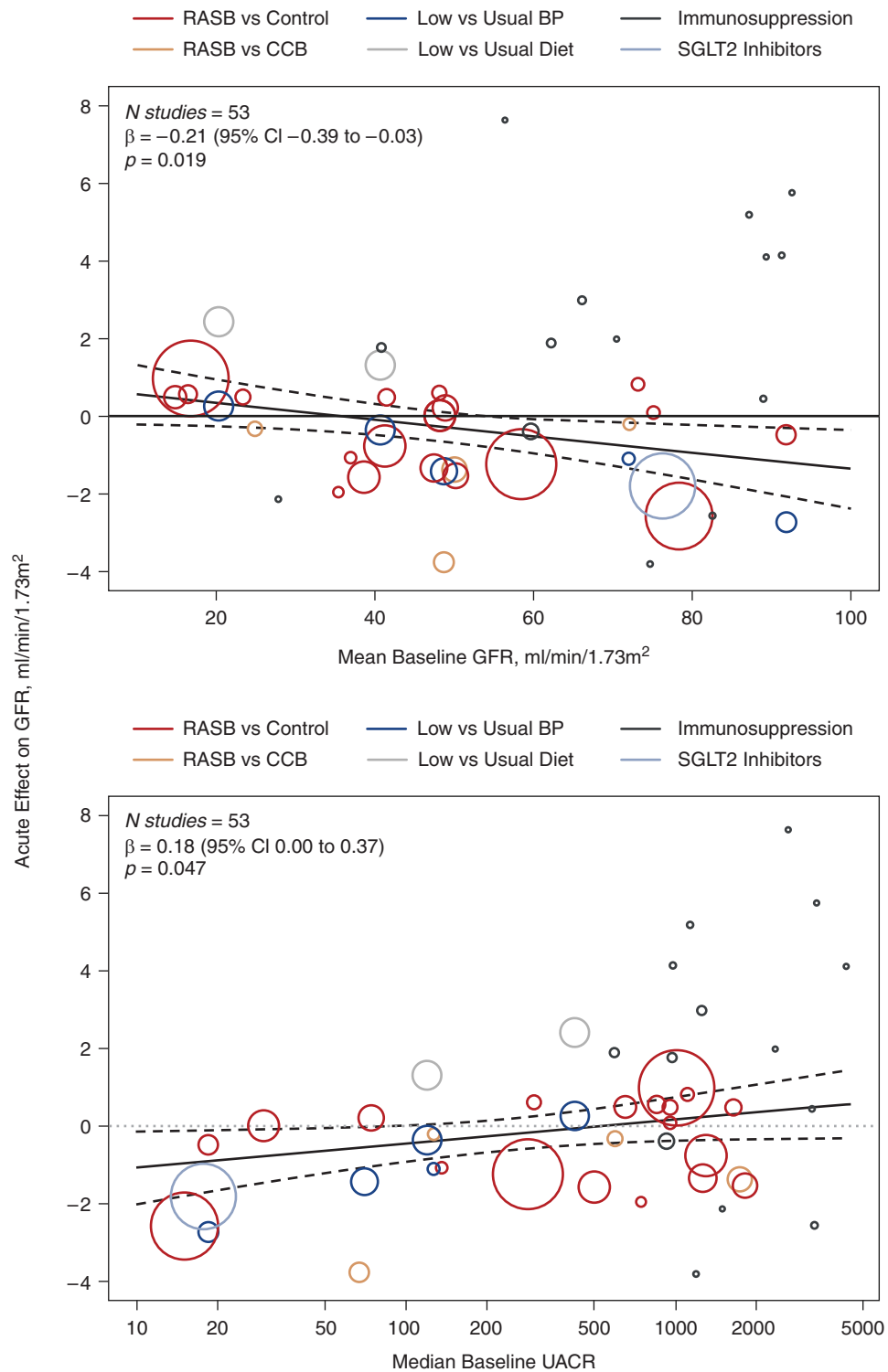


Figure 2. Meta regression of acute treatment effect on GFR by baseline GFR (top panel) and UACR (bottom panel). β refers to the coefficient for the slope through the meta-regression of the association of acute effects by mean baseline level of GFR in each study and is expressed per 10 ml/min per 1.73 m² higher levels of GFR. RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; SGLT2, sodium-glucose cotransporter-2; UACR, urine albumin: creatinine ratio.

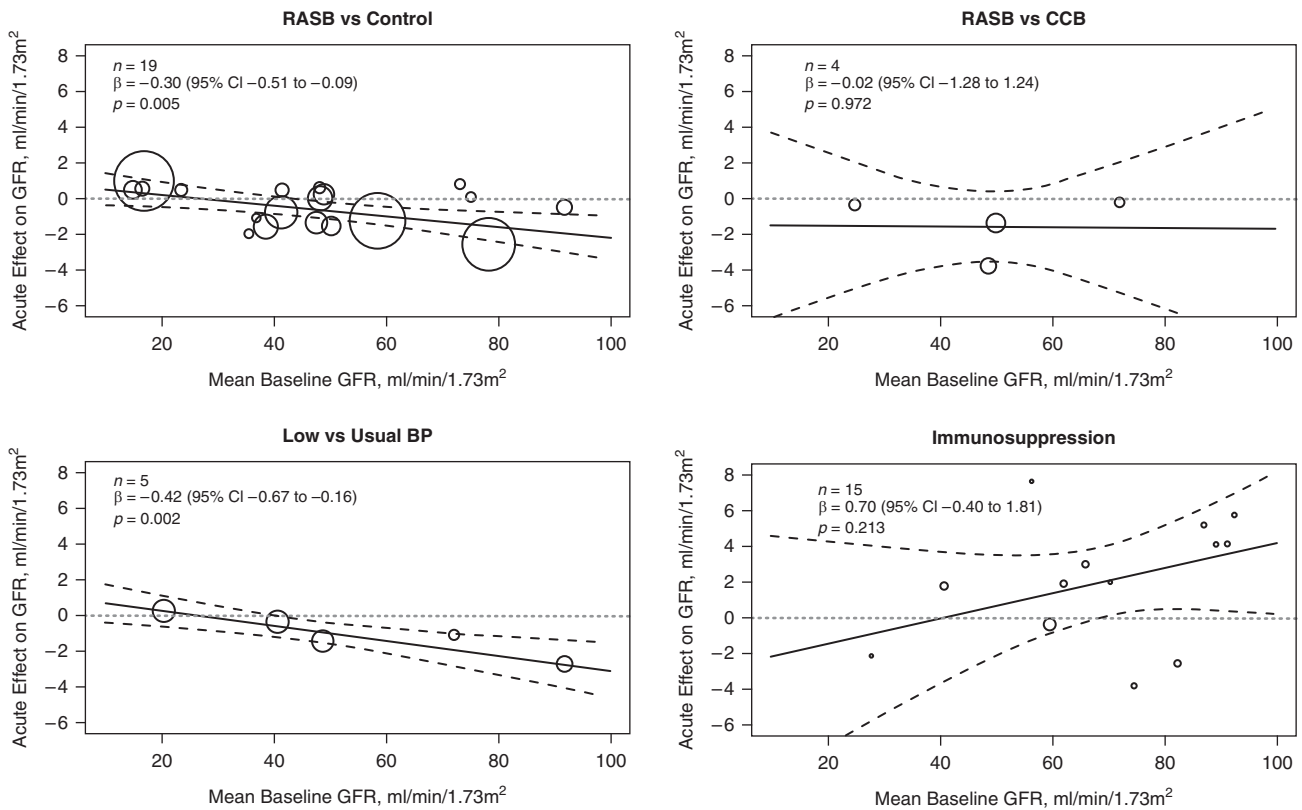


Figure 3. Meta regression plot of variation in acute effect on GFR according to baseline GFR by intervention. β refers to the coefficient for the slope through the meta-regression of the association of acute effects by mean baseline level of GFR in each study and is expressed per 10 ml/min per 1.73 m² higher levels of GFR. RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers.

control the mean acute effect varied from 0.24 (0.43) when mean baseline GFR was 20 ml/min per 1.73 m² compared with -2.25 (0.55) when mean baseline GFR was 80 ml/min per 1.73 m² (Figure 3). There was no clear association between the acute effect and mean baseline GFR for RAS blockade versus CCB or for immunosuppression trials (Figure 3), although the wide confidence bands indicate low statistical power for these analyses. The association between the acute effect and baseline GFR did not substantively change after removing trials of immunosuppressive agents (data not shown). The effect persisted when GFR was log transformed (Supplemental Figure 7 and Supplemental Figure 8). For RAS blockade versus control, there was a similar relationship between the acute effect and baseline GFR when participants were categorized by GFR quartiles within individual studies (Supplemental Figure 9).

Acute Effects by Baseline UACR

Acute effects were also somewhat more negative for studies with lower baseline UACR (Figure 2), although there was an attenuation of the effect after adjustment for baseline GFR (Supplemental Table 7). When stratified by intervention type, the association between the acute effect and baseline UACR

was only observed in studies evaluating low versus usual BP targets, with no association observed between baseline UACR and the magnitude of acute effects for other interventions (Figure 4). Results were similar in sensitivity analyses when the acute effect was estimated on the basis of log transformed GFR (Supplemental Figure 7 and Supplemental Figure 8).

DISCUSSION

We provide a comprehensive assessment of the magnitude and consistency of acute treatment effects on GFR, across a range of interventions and disease states in 53 RCTs evaluating treatments for CKD progression. Negative acute effects were observed in the majority of RAS blockade, BP lowering, and SGLT2 inhibitor trials, whereas positive acute effects were observed in immunosuppression trials. However, even within interventions there was substantial variability in the observed acute effects. These findings have important implications for the design of clinical trials assessing kidney disease progression, and highlight the importance of understanding the nature and magnitude of acute effects for specific interventions in early-phase trials to inform the

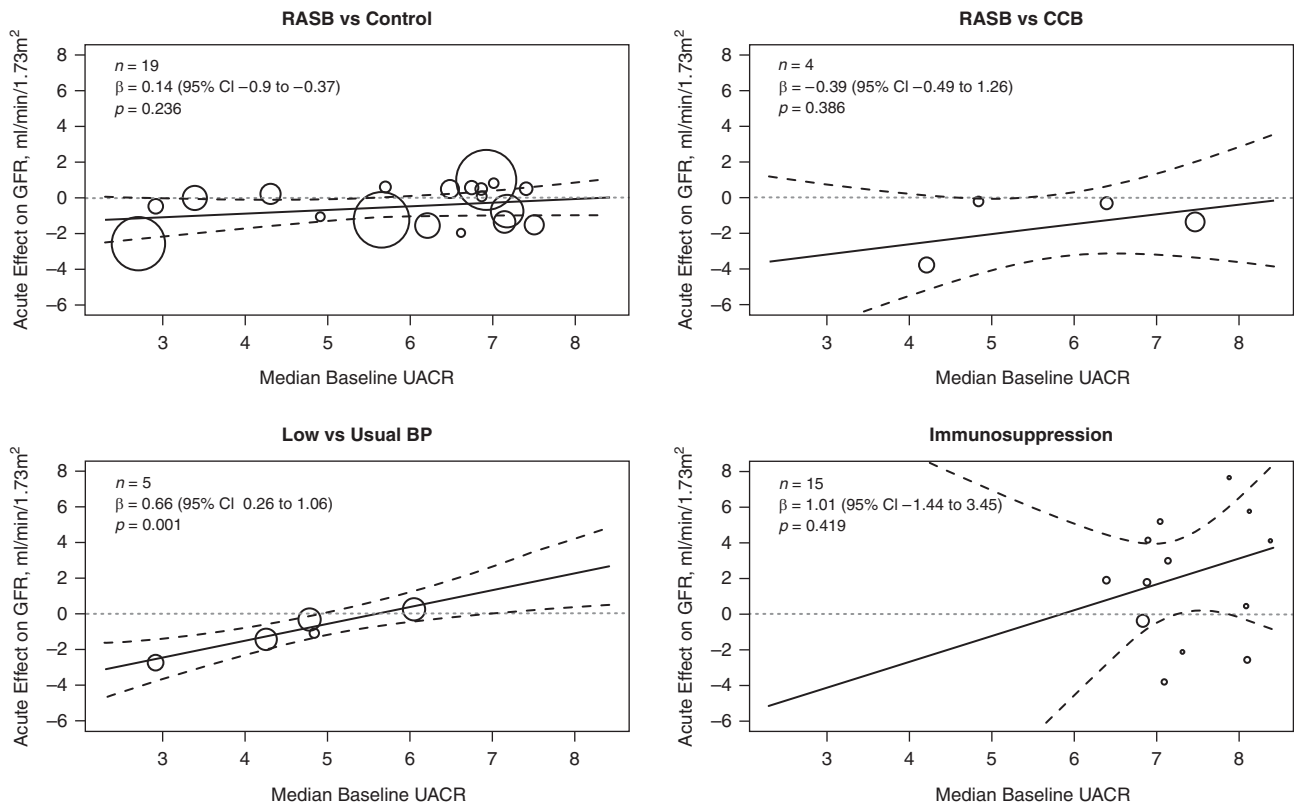


Figure 4. Meta regression plot of variation in acute effect on GFR according to UACR by intervention. β refers to the coefficient for the slope through the meta-regression of the association of acute effects by mean baseline level of GFR in each study and is expressed per 10 ml/min per 1.73 m² higher levels of GFR. RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; UACR, urine albumin: creatinine ratio.

design and analysis of longer-term studies, specifically, the decision to use a slope-based outcome or a clinical endpoint.

Negative acute effects are known to be common in interventions for CKD progression. For example, RAS blockade, SGLT2 inhibitors, and BP lowering all lead to hemodynamic changes in GFR, which are thought to differ from the long-term protective effect on the kidney. These hemodynamic effects influence the function of individual nephrons, not the number of nephrons, and are reversible on treatment discontinuation. Negative acute effects may also be a result of changes in non-GFR determinants of creatinine, as in, for example, decreased creatinine secretion by the tubules. Regardless of the mechanism, negative acute effects can increase the risk of false negative conclusions about the treatment benefit. Negative acute effects may also reduce the utility of slope-based analyses or time-to-event analyses, with endpoints defined by 30% or 40% GFR declines by eliminating power advantages of total GFR slope, or time to lesser GFR decline compared with the clinical endpoint.^{69–71} In a *post-hoc* analysis of the CANVAS Program assessing the effect of the SGLT2 inhibitor canagliflozin on different GFR decline thresholds (*i.e.*, 50%, 40%, and 30% declines in GFR), the power advantage of using lesser declines in GFR was only observed after

excluding the negative acute hemodynamic effect of canagliflozin.⁷²

One potential solution to overcome negative acute effects and utilize slope as an endpoint is to use chronic (rather than total) GFR slope, which computes the change in GFR slope after the acute phase. However, this approach may introduce bias from attenuation of the acute effect over time or early discontinuation of the study treatment.^{69,73,74} Another potential strategy is to assess GFR slope from baseline to off-treatment measures, when it is anticipated that acute and reversible hemodynamic effects will no longer be present. Ongoing trials of sparsentan and atrasentan in people with FSGS and IgA nephropathy plan to account for anticipated negative acute effects by employing both approaches: excluding the acute effect from baseline to week 6 and by assessing slope from baseline to 4 weeks off treatment.^{9,10} A third approach would be to leverage an active run-in period to assign different baseline GFRs to the active and control arms. In the Efficacy and Safety of Selonsertib in Participants with Moderate to Advanced DKD (MOSAIC, NCT04026165) trial, testing the effects of selonsertib (which causes a negative acute effect by inhibiting creatinine secretion) in people with diabetic kidney disease, the GFR at the beginning of the run-in

period is taken as the baseline measure for placebo-treated participants, whereas the GFR at randomization is used as the baseline measure in the active treatment arm.¹⁴ Finally, artificial censoring of GFR values after treatment discontinuation while using weighting or imputation to reduce the risk of selection bias may limit bias due to reversal of acute effects after treatment discontinuation.⁶⁹ As we have previously shown, if negative acute effects are relatively small (e.g., < -1.5 ml/min 1.73 m²), adequate statistical power can be achieved to detect treatment effects using total slope if there is sufficient follow-up relative to the mean rate of progression in the study population.⁶⁹

We observed positive acute effects primarily in studies of immunosuppressive agents. The cause is not well understood, but it may be related to the early anti-inflammatory action of immunosuppressive agents in glomerular diseases, or the positive hemodynamic effect of steroids.⁷⁵ If an intervention has a positive acute effect but leads to harm on the longer-term chronic slope, then positive acute effects could lead to false conclusions about treatment benefits if assessment of the treatment effect is performed on the total GFR slope. Bardoxolone produces an early increase in GFR, which has been hypothesized to be due to an increase in mesangial surface area in addition to its longer-term effect on reducing inflammation.⁷⁶ Trials evaluating bardoxolone have computed change in GFR using off-treatment GFR values to help determine whether the positive acute effect is a false conclusion or a lasting effect of the drug on the kidney. This underscores the importance of understanding the mechanisms for earlier versus longer-term changes and designing trials accordingly.

The use of GFR slope to assess kidney disease progression may be particularly relevant to trials conducted in the early stages of CKD. The association between larger negative acute effects and higher baseline mean GFR remained significant after adjustment for intervention and diabetes status. Thus, studies seeking to use GFR slope should carefully consider the mechanism of action of an intervention, study design and population characteristics (for example, the proportions of participants recruited with different levels of GFR), to ensure efficiency, and protect against the risk of a falsely positive or negative conclusion. Additionally, trials using GFR slope as an outcome must also ensure sufficient information on safety, given the timeframes over which individuals with CKD are treated.

We observed a high degree of heterogeneity in the magnitude of acute effects, even within interventions where the nature and magnitude of the acute effect is anticipated due to well-understood mechanisms of action. The reason for this observation is unclear. Possible variation in study quality may be one explanation of the heterogeneity; indeed, there was greater heterogeneity among immunosuppressive studies, which in general were smaller, and of lower quality. Because the acute effect was defined as the difference in change in GFR between treatment and control arms, differences in the

care in the control arm (*i.e.*, placebo versus active treatment) across different trials may have also contributed to the observed heterogeneity, although accounting for year of publication did not affect the results. Future work including newer studies with more consistent standard medical care in the control arm may help to evaluate this hypothesis. In addition, as we previously demonstrated, combined assessment of changes in GFR and albuminuria may predict treatment effects and outcomes better than either alone.⁷ Further work will assess the utility of combined assessments of treatment effects on GFR slope and change in albuminuria that could overcome the challenges from acute effects.

This study has a number of strengths, including a systematic literature search, inclusion of a large number of studies with a diverse range of interventions, analyses of individual participant data, and the use of multiple methods to estimate acute GFR effects. However, a number of limitations should be considered when interpreting our findings. First, we estimated the acute effect at 3 months, but not all studies had measurements at this time point. For some studies, the acute effect might have occurred over a different time period and might not be linear. For example, the negative acute effect with SGLT2 inhibition calculated at 3 months is less than previously reported at 1 month, possibly due to an attenuation of the acute effect over time.^{77,78} The timing of an acute effect is important to appreciate due to its implications for study power; as the timing of the acute effect increases, power to detect treatment effects on total slope decreases. Second, acute effects were calculated on the basis of estimated GFR rather than measured GFR; although potentially important at an individual level, this is less likely to affect our conclusions at a population level. Third, although these analyses examined the effect of intervention type, GFR and UACR individually on the observed acute effects, effects might be multifactorial and variation in acute effects could be due to other factors not captured. We also had relatively few studies for some interventions, including trials of SGLT2 inhibitors, and had no studies with pediatric participants. Finally, despite the large number of studies and participants overall, there were an insufficient number of trials to evaluate the magnitude of acute effects for individual classes of immunosuppressive agents with different mechanisms of action and to assess more granular subgroups, which could have explained the causes of the observed heterogeneity within these groups.

In summary, the magnitude and consistency of acute effects is variable across different interventions and may be larger at higher baseline GFR. Future work will involve understanding the timing of the acute effect and the associations of the acute effects with subsequent outcomes and longer-term treatments effects. Understanding the magnitude, timing and nature of the acute effect for a specific intervention and population can help inform the optimal design of randomized trials in CKD.

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SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

This article contains the following supplemental material online at <http://jasn.asnjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1681/ASN.2021070948/-/DCSupplemental>.

Supplemental Appendix 1. Abbreviations, units, and terms.

Supplemental Appendix 2. Study funding sources.

Supplemental Table 1. Search terms.

Supplemental Table 2. Study inclusion criteria.

Supplemental Table 3. Clinical characteristics of the population overall and stratified by disease.

Supplemental Table 4. Patient characteristics by study.

Supplemental Table 5. Estimated acute effects using different methods to compute the acute effect on GFR, overall, and by intervention and disease.

Supplemental Table 6. Magnitude of acute effects on GFR, by intervention.

Supplemental Table 7. Multivariable meta-regression of acute effects on GFR, both for GFR and ACR.

Supplemental Figure 1. Evaluation of bias in studies included in meta-analysis.

Supplemental Figure 2. Mean baseline GFR and median baseline UACR across studies.

Supplemental Figure 3. Distribution and estimated mean acute effect on GFR by disease.

Supplemental Figure 4. Forest plot of acute effect on GFR by intervention, all studies, ANCOVA method.

Supplemental Figure 5. Forest plot of acute effects on GFR by intervention, all studies, sensitivity analysis using the linear mixed model.

Supplemental Figure 6. Variation in acute effect on GFR by year of study publication.

Supplemental Figure 7. Meta regression plot of variation in acute effect by (A) baseline natural log-transformed eGFR and (B) natural log acute effect by UACR.

Supplemental Figure 8. Meta regression plot of variation in acute effect by intervention by (A) baseline natural log-transformed eGFR and (B) natural log acute effect by UACR.

Supplemental Figure 9. Variation in acute effect on GFR by within-study GFR quartiles, by intervention.

Supplemental References.

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Acute treatment effects on GFR in randomized clinical trials of kidney disease progression

Supplementary tables and figures

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Appendix 1: Study funding sources

Study Name	Funding
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Zucchelli ⁴⁰	None

Appendix 2: Abbreviations, units, and terms

AASK	African American Study of Kidney Disease and Hypertension
ABCD	Appropriate Blood Pressure Control in Diabetes trial
ADVANCE	Action in Diabetes and Vascular Disease: Preterax and Diamicron MR Controlled Evaluation trial
ALTITUDE	Aliskiren Trial in Type 2 Diabetes Using Cardiorenal Endpoints
ANCOVA	ANalysis of COVariance
BP	blood pressure
CanPREVENT	Canadian Prevention of Renal and Cardiovascular Endpoints Trial
CCB	calcium channel blockers
CKD	chronic kidney disease
Diet	low protein diet
EMPA-REG OUTCOME	Empagliflozin Cardiovascular Outcome Event Trial in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Patients (referred to as EMPA-REG here on in)
ESKD	end-stage kidney disease
GFR	glomerular filtration rate (mL/min/1.73 m ²)
HALT-PKD	Halt Progression of Polycystic Kidney Disease study
HKVIN	Hong Kong study using Valsartan in IgA Nephropathy
IDNT	Irbesartan Diabetic Nephropathy Trial
IgA	immunoglobulin A nephropathy
Interv	intervention
IS	immunosuppression
MASTERPLAN	Multifactorial Approach and Superior Treatment Efficacy in Renal Patients with the Aid of Nurse Practitioners study
MDRD Study	Modification of Diet in Renal Disease study
N	sample size
NKF	National Kidney Foundation
ORIENT	Olmesartan Reducing Incidence of Endstage Renal Disease in Diabetic Nephropathy Trial
RASB	renin-angiotensin system blockade
RCT	randomized controlled trial
REIN	Ramipril Efficacy In Nephropathy study
RENAAL	Reduction of Endpoints in NIDDM with the Angiotensin II Antagonist Losartan study
ROAD	Renoprotection of Optimal Antiproteinuric Doses study
SCr	serum creatinine (mg/dL)
SD	standard deviation
SE	standard error
SGLT2	Sodium-glucose co-transporter-2
SHARP	Study of Heart and Renal Protection
STOP-IgAN	Supportive Versus Immunosuppressive Therapy for the Treatment of Progressive IgA Nephropathy trial
SUN-MACRO	Sulodexide Macroalbuminuria trial
UACR	Urine albumin to creatinine ratio

Table S1. Search terms

Database: Ovid MEDLINE(R)

Search Strategy:

- 1 kidney disease\$.mp. (112999)
- 2 chronic renal insufficiency.mp. (4302)
- 3 chronic kidney disease.mp. (21120)
- 4 renal disease.mp. (41875)
- 5 IgA nephropathy.mp. (4903)
- 6 lupus nephritis.mp. (6931)
- 7 diabetic nephropathy.mp. (12605)
- 8 glomerular disease.mp. (2168)
- 9 polycystic kidney disease.mp. (5535)
- 10 focal sclerosis.mp. (118)
- 11 membranous nephropathy.mp. (2402)
- 12 CKD.mp. (12820)
- 13 Hypertension/ and (renal or kidney).mp. (36281)
- 14 albuminuria.mp. (15383)
- 15 proteinuria.mp. (38350)
- 16 or/1-15 (222355)
- 17 randomized controlled trial.pt. (403784)
- 18 controlled clinical trial.pt. (89947)
- 19 randomized controlled trials/ (100110)
- 20 Random Allocation/ (85054)
- 21 Double-blind Method/ (132413)
- 22 Single-Blind Method/ (21138)
- 23 clinical trial.pt. (495584)
- 24 Clinical Trials.mp. or exp Clinical Trial/ (939562)
- 25 (clinic\$ adj25 trial\$).tw. (271601)
- 26 ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or trebl\$ or tripl\$) adj (mask\$ or blind\$)).tw. (129554)
- 27 placebo\$.tw. (159277)
- 28 Placebos/ (32953)
- 29 random\$.tw. (710194)
- 30 trial\$.tw. (636501)
- 31 (latin adj square).tw. (3512)
- 32 or/17-31 (1577197)
- 33 16 and 32 (23308)
- 34 limit 33 to (guideline or meta analysis or practice guideline or "review") (5907)
- 35 33 not 34 (17401)
- 36 limit 35 to comment and (letter or editorial).pt. (187)
- 37 limit 35 to (addresses or bibliography or biography or case reports or congresses or consensus development conference or consensus development conference, nih or dictionary or directory or editorial or festschrift or government publications or interview or lectures or legal cases or legislation or news or newspaper article or patient education handout or periodical index) (501)
- 38 35 not (36 or 37) (16778)
- 39 limit 38 to animals/ (2192)
- 40 38 not 39 (14586)
- 41 limit 40 to humans (14553)
- 42 limit 40 to english language (13398)
- 43 limit 42 to ("young adult (19 to 24 years)" or "adult (19 to 44 years)" or "young adult and adult (19-24 and 19-44)" or "middle age (45 to 64 years)" or "middle aged (45 plus years)" or "all aged (65 and over)" or "aged (80 and over)") (11047)
- 44 limit 43 to yr="2007 -Current" (5299)
- 45 remove duplicates from 44 (5257)

Table S2. Study inclusion criteria

1. Randomized controlled trial
2. Article published in English
3. Human subjects
4. Adults
5. Follow up > 12 months after first follow up measurement of UP or GFR
6. Quantifiable albuminuria/proteinuria (i.e. not dipstick)
7. Glomerular filtration rate > 15 mL/min/1.73 m²
8. First follow up albuminuria/proteinuria or serum creatinine latest at 12 months
9. Number of events (differ by disease)*
 - a. Glomerular disease : >10 events
 - b. Kidney disease, diabetes, hypertension, polycystic kidney disease, non-specified or other:
follow-up > 500 person years and > 30 events
 - c. High risk population (diabetes, hypertension, cardiovascular disease, heart failure not selected
for having kidney disease): follow-up > 1000 person years and > 30 events

*Events - (end-stage kidney disease, doubling of serum creatinine, 40% or 30% decline in glomerular filtration rate)

Table S3. Clinical characteristics of the population overall and stratified by disease

	N Studies	N participants	Age	Female	Black	Diabetes	GFR	ACR
Overall	53	56413	61.5 (11.2)	22514 (37.4)	4601 (7.6)	45342 (75.3)	61.8 (26.3)	59 (13, 539)
Disease								
CKD	25	13516	56.2 (13.9)	6055 (39.3)	3098 (20.1)	1854 (12.0)	38.3 (22.2)	140 (35, 700)
Diabetes	12	41752	64.0 (8.5)	15973 (36.7)	1484 (3.4)	43481 (100.0)	69.8 (22.2)	35 (9, 361)
Glomerular	16	1145	41.6 (12.7)	486 (36.2)	19 (1.4)	7 (0.5)	72.4 (29.2)	1497 (898, 2695)

Values for age and GFR are presented as mean (standard deviation) and for ACR as median (25th, 75th percentile). Values for other characteristics are presented as number (percentage). N, sample size; GFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate (mL/min/1.73m²); ACR, albumin: creatinine ratio (mg/g); RASB, renin angiotensin system blockers; CB, calcium channel blockers; BP, low vs usual blood pressure control; Diet, low vs high protein diet; IS, immunosuppression; CKD, chronic kidney disease.

Note: The N participants presented here are for the primary analysis (ANCOVA).

Table S4. Patient characteristics by study

Intervention	Disease	Study	N participants	Age	Female	Black	Diabetes	eGFR	ACR
RASB v Control	CKD (CNS)	Kamper	55	49.8 (11.7)	28 (50.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	14.8 (9.0)	654 (264, 1558)
	CKD (CNS)	Ihle/Kincaid	67	45.5 (12.8)	34 (50.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	16.5 (6.7)	856 (449, 1766)
	CKD (CNS)	Hou	224	44.7 (15.4)	113 (50.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	16.8 (4.4)	1012 (635, 1338)
	CKD (CNS)	Hannedouche	98	51.2 (14.1)	47 (48.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	23.4 (7.8)	958 (359, 1916)
	CKD (CNS)	Brenner	106	46.7 (13.2)	38 (35.8)	37 (34.9)	0 (0.0)	35.4 (17.2)	747 (154, 1883)
	CKD (CNS)	Toto	122	52.4 (11.6)	44 (36.1)	74 (60.7)	0 (0.0)	37.0 (17.5)	136 (60, 585)
	CKD (CNS)	AIPRI	562	50.9 (12.5)	157 (27.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	38.6 (11.6)	500 (78, 1473)
	CKD (CNS)	REIN	322	48.8 (13.6)	73 (22.7)	2 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	41.5 (18.8)	1646 (916, 2599)
	CKD (CNS)	Van Essen	103	50.6 (12.9)	35 (34.0)	1 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	48.1 (19.3)	299 (60, 1497)
	CKD (HTN)	AASK	876	54.6 (10.7)	339 (38.7)	876 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	48.9 (15.8)	74 (26, 364)
	CKD (PKD)	HALT-PKD B	462	48.8 (8.2)	238 (51.5)	12 (2.6)	0 (0.0)	48.2 (11.8)	30 (17, 76)
	CKD (PKD)	HALT-PKD A	542	36.6 (8.3)	270 (49.8)	13 (2.4)	0 (0.0)	91.9 (17.7)	18 (12, 33)
	Diabetes	ALTITUDE	8150	64.4 (9.7)	2572 (31.6)	267 (3.3)	8150 (100.0)	58.4 (21.2)	284 (57, 881)
	Diabetes	ADVANCE	10876	65.7 (6.4)	4611 (42.4)	37 (0.3)	10876 (100.0)	78.3 (17.3)	15 (7, 40)
	Diabetes (CKD)	RENAAL	1513	60.2 (7.4)	557 (36.8)	230 (15.2)	1513 (100.0)	41.3 (13.2)	1307 (616, 2732)
	Diabetes (CKD)	ORIENT	566	59.2 (8.1)	175 (30.9)	0 (0.0)	566 (100.0)	47.5 (12.1)	1270 (617, 2285)
	Diabetes (CKD)	IDNT	1135	58.8 (7.7)	363 (32.0)	139 (12.2)	1135 (100.0)	50.2 (19.5)	1816 (1051, 3234)
Diabetes (CKD)	Lewis 1993	407	34.5 (7.6)	191 (46.9)	32 (7.9)	407 (100.0)	73.2 (25.3)	1111 (605, 2299)	
Glom (IgAN)	HKVIN	109	40.5 (9.5)	79 (72.5)	0 (0.0)	3 (2.8)	75.1 (29.0)	958 (629, 1560)	
RASB v CCB	CKD (CNS)	Zucchelli	121	55.4 (10.9)	47 (38.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	24.9 (10.1)	599 (251, 1557)
	CKD (HTN)	AASK	652	54.4 (10.8)	255 (39.1)	652 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	48.7 (15.8)	67 (25, 343)
	Diabetes	ABCD	392	59.0 (8.2)	130 (33.2)	63 (16.1)	392 (100.0)	72.1 (18.7)	127 (56, 661)
	Diabetes (CKD)	IDNT	1128	59.2 (7.5)	400 (35.5)	147 (13.0)	1128 (100.0)	50.1 (18.7)	1740 (1009, 3059)
Low v Usual BP	CKD (CNS)	MDRD Study B	255	50.8 (12.8)	104 (40.8)	13 (5.1)	13 (5.1)	20.3 (5.8)	425 (102, 1222)
	CKD (CNS)	MDRD Study A	584	52.2 (12.2)	228 (39.0)	53 (9.1)	30 (5.1)	40.7 (11.0)	120 (33, 668)
	CKD (HTN)	AASK	1093	54.6 (10.7)	425 (38.9)	1093 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	48.7 (15.7)	70 (25, 349)
	CKD (PKD)	HALT-PKD A	542	36.6 (8.3)	270 (49.8)	13 (2.4)	0 (0.0)	91.9 (17.7)	18 (12, 33)
	Diabetes	ABCD	392	59.0 (8.2)	130 (33.2)	63 (16.1)	392 (100.0)	72.1 (18.7)	127 (56, 661)
Low v Usual Diet	CKD (CNS)	MDRD Study B	255	50.8 (12.8)	104 (40.8)	13 (5.1)	13 (5.1)	20.3 (5.8)	425 (102, 1222)
	CKD (CNS)	MDRD Study A	584	52.2 (12.2)	228 (39.0)	53 (9.1)	30 (5.1)	40.7 (11.0)	120 (33, 668)
Immuno-suppression	Glom (IgAN)	Pozzi 2012	46	42.0 (11.5)	9 (19.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	27.8 (7.0)	1497 (898, 2395)
	Glom (IgAN)	Donadio 2001	72	46.3 (13.1)	13 (18.1)	2 (2.8)	0 (0.0)	40.8 (14.4)	971 (441, 1886)
	Glom (IgAN)	STOP-IgAN	151	44.2 (12.4)	34 (22.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	59.7 (27.6)	928 (641, 1229)
	Glom (IgAN)	Maes	34	44.8 (11.3)	10 (29.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	62.2 (18.9)	596 (353, 1599)
	Glom (IgAN)	Donadio 1999	96	38.5 (13.4)	26 (27.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	66.1 (22.5)	1257 (719, 2066)

Intervention	Disease	Study	N participants	Age	Female	Black	Diabetes	eGFR	ACR
	Glom (IgAN)	Pozzi 2010	197	39.2 (12.6)	55 (27.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	74.7 (25.5)	1198 (898, 1617)
	Glom (IgAN)	Pozzi 2004	83	38.6 (11.7)	25 (30.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	87.2 (21.6)	1138 (838, 1437)
	Glom (IgAN)	Schena	95	33.7 (11.1)	29 (30.5)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.1)	91.3 (23.7)	982 (790, 1497)
	Glom (Lupus)	Lewis 1992	79	32.6 (12.0)	66 (83.5)	17 (21.5)	0 (0.0)	56.4 (36.3)	2635 (1165, 4905)
	Glom (Lupus)	Chan	61	40.1 (9.9)	51 (83.6)	0 (0.0)	2 (3.3)	70.4 (26.3)	2359 (1557, 4216)
	Glom (Membran)	Ponticelli 1998	91	49.9 (10.7)	28 (30.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	82.5 (19.9)	3293 (2395, 5210)
	Glom (Membran)	Ponticelli 1989	75	44.4 (10.9)	15 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	87.7 (23.0)	2874 (2275, 4731)
	Glom (Membran)	Ponticelli 1992	76	46.7 (13.3)	26 (34.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	89.0 (25.1)	3234 (2455, 4641)
	Glom (Membran)	Praga 2007	48	46.6 (12.5)	8 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	89.3 (20.2)	4338 (2640, 5828)
	Glom (Membran)	Ponticelli 2006	31	49.3 (10.5)	12 (38.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	92.6 (22.2)	3353 (2395, 4850)
SGLT2 inhibitors	Diabetes	EMPA-REG	6936	63.2 (8.6)	1977 (28.5)	354 (5.1)	6936 (100.0)	76.2 (19.9)	18 (7, 72)
Others	CKD (CNS)	Goicoechea	113	71.8 (8.7)	40 (35.4)	0 (0.0)	42 (37.2)	40.5 (12.4)	35 (15, 362)
	CKD (CNS)	ROAD	339	50.9 (13.7)	126 (37.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	29.0 (13.4)	958 (641, 1599)
	CKD (CNS)	MASTERPLAN	640	60.5 (12.5)	199 (31.1)	49 (7.7)	156 (24.4)	36.7 (15.4)	147 (51, 449)
	CKD (CNS)	CanPREVENT	458	65.1 (7.5)	250 (54.6)	25 (5.5)	144 (31.4)	47.6 (9.9)	72 (48, 115)
	CKD (CNS)	SHARP	6245	62.9 (11.7)	2363 (37.8)	119 (1.9)	1426 (22.8)	26.2 (12.3)	206 (44, 762)
	Diabetes	ADVANCE	10876	65.7 (6.4)	4611 (42.4)	37 (0.3)	10876 (100.0)	78.3 (17.3)	15 (7, 40)
	Diabetes (CKD)	SUN-MACRO	1110	63.5 (9.3)	256 (23.1)	115 (10.4)	1110 (100.0)	33.7 (9.7)	1075 (569, 1798)

Note: Values for categorical variables are given as number (percentage); values for continuous variables, as mean (standard deviation) except ACR which is shown as median (25th, 75th percentile). Participants with missing data on age, race, sex, serum creatinine, urine albumin were excluded.

Table S5. Estimated acute effects using different methods to compute the acute effect on GFR, overall and by intervention and disease

Subgroup	N Studies	ANCOVA		Linear mixed model	
		Mean (95% CI)	Coverage interval	Mean (95% CI)	Coverage interval
Overall	53	-0.21 (-0.63, 0.22)	(-2.50, 2.08)	-0.15 (-0.54, 0.25)	(-2.31, 2.01)
Intervention					
RASB v CCB	4	-1.60 (-3.25, 0.05)	(-4.28, 1.07)	-1.39 (-3.10, 0.32)	(-4.30, 1.52)
RASB vs Control	19	-0.51 (-1.06, 0.04)	(-2.39, 1.38)	-0.30 (-0.83, 0.23)	(-2.16, 1.56)
Immunosuppression	15	1.97 (0.01, 3.93)	(-2.34, 6.29)	0.96 (-0.64, 2.56)	(-2.03, 3.95)
Low v Usual BP	5	-0.97 (-2.02, 0.09)	(-2.83, 0.89)	-0.91 (-2.02, 0.20)	(-2.97, 1.16)
SGLT2 inhibitors	1	-1.81 (-2.25, -1.36)	(-1.81, -1.81)	-1.43 (-1.92, -0.94)	(-1.43, -1.43)
Disease					
CKD	25	-0.02 (-0.56, 0.53)	(-2.30, 2.27)	0.10 (-0.42, 0.62)	(-2.14, 2.34)
Diabetes	12	-1.01 (-1.62, -0.40)	(-2.78, 0.76)	-0.88 (-1.43, -0.33)	(-2.46, 0.69)
Glomerular	16	1.55 (-0.08, 3.18)	(-1.72, 4.83)	0.55 (-0.73, 1.83)	(-1.10, 2.20)

ANCOVA, Analysis of covariance method; N, number of studies; CI, confidence interval; RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; SGLT2, sodium-glucose co-transporter-2; CKD, chronic kidney disease.

Table S6. Magnitude of acute effects on GFR, by intervention

Subgroup	Very Large Negative <=-2.5	Moderate-to-Large Negative >-2.5 & <=-1.25	Small Negative >-1.25 & <0	No Acute Effect 0	Small Positive >0 & <1.25	Moderate-to-Large Positive >=1.25 & <2.5	Very Large Positive >=2.5
Overall	5	8	10	0	17	5	8
RASB vs CCB	1	1	2	0	0	0	0
RASB vs Control	1	4	4	0	10	0	0
Immunosuppression	2	1	1	0	1	3	7
Low vs Usual BP	1	1	2	0	1	0	0
SGLT2 inhibitors	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

Values displayed are the number of studies in each magnitude category.

RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; SGLT2, sodium-glucose co-transporter-2.

Table S7. Multivariable meta-regression of acute effects on GFR, both for GFR and ACR**A. GFR**

Model	Variable	Estimate (95% CI)	P-value
GFR	GFR	-0.21 (-0.39, -0.03)	0.019
GFR+Interv	GFR	-0.25 (-0.40, -0.10)	0.001
	RASB vs control	-0.74 (-1.22, -0.25)	0.003
GFR+Interv+Diab	GFR	-0.19 (-0.37, -0.02)	0.033
	RASB vs control	-0.48 (-1.10, 0.14)	0.132
	Diabetes	-0.26 (-0.66, 0.14)	0.199

B. ACR

Model	Variable	Estimate (95% CI)	P-value
ACR	ACR	0.18 (0.00, 0.37)	0.047
ACR+Interv	ACR	0.18 (0.02, 0.35)	0.029
	RASB vs control	-0.46 (-0.98, 0.07)	0.088
ACR+Interv+Diab	ACR	0.18 (0.03, 0.33)	0.019
	RASB vs control	-0.10 (-0.66, 0.45)	0.720
	Diabetes	-0.46 (-0.81, -0.10)	0.011
ACR+GFR	ACR	0.12 (-0.08, 0.32)	0.260
	GFR	-0.14 (-0.35, 0.08)	0.210

CI, confidence interval; GFR, glomerular filtration rate; interv, intervention; Diab, diabetes; ACR, albumin: creatinine ratio; RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blocker

Note: Estimates for GFR are denoted in 10 unit increases in ml/min/1.73m²

Figure S1. Evaluation of bias in studies included in meta-analysis

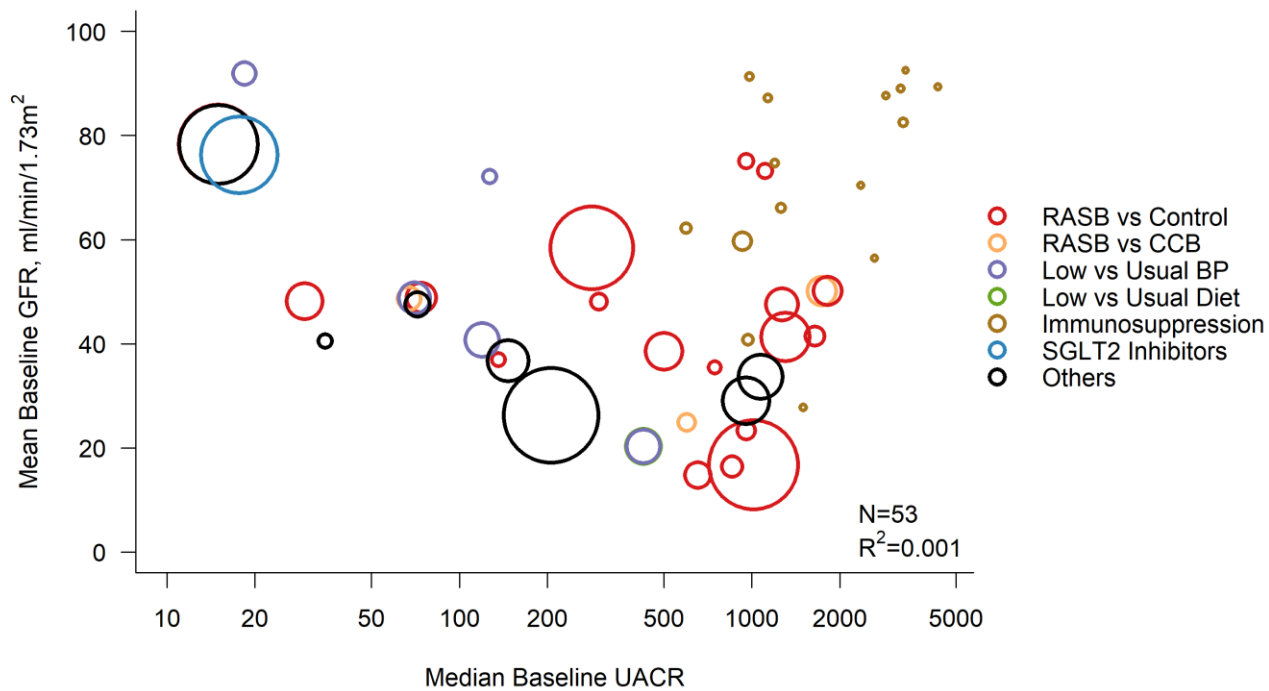
	Random sequence generation	Allocation concealment	Blinding of participants	Blinding of outcome assessment	Incomplete outcome data	Selective reporting
Kamper	+	+	-	+	?	+
Ihle/Kincaid	?	?	+	+	+	+
Hou	+	+	+	+	+	+
Hannedouche	+	?	-	+	?	+
Brenner	+	?	+	+	-	+
Toto	?	?	?	?	+	+
AIPRI	?	?	+	+	+	+
REIN	?	?	+	+	+	+
Van Essen	?	?	+	+	+	+
AASK	?	?	+	+	+	+
HALT-PKD B	+	?	+	+	+	+
HALT-PKD A	+	+	+	+	+	+
ALTITUDE	+	+	+	+	+	+
ADVANCE	+	+	+	+	+	+
RENAAL	+	+	+	+	+	+
ORIENT	?	?	+	+	?	+
IDNT	+	?	+	+	+	+
Lewis 1993	+	?	+	+	+	+
HKVIN	+	+	+	+	+	+
Zucchelli	?	?	?	+	+	+
ABCD	?	?	+	+	+	+
MDRD Study	+	+	-	+	?	+
Pozzi 2012	?	?	-	+	+	+
Donadio 2001	-	-	-	+	+	+
STOP-IgAN	+	?	-	+	+	+
Maes	?	?	?	+	+	+
Donadio 1999	?	?	-	+	?	+
Pozzi 2010	+	?	-	+	?	+
Pozzi 2004	+	?	-	+	+	+
Schena	+	+	-	+	+	+
Lewis 1992	+	+	?	?	+	+
Chan	+	?	-	+	+	+
Ponticelli 1998	+	?	-	+	+	+
Ponticelli 1989	+	+	-	+	+	+
Ponticelli 1992	?	?	?	+	+	+
Praga 2007	+	+	-	+	+	+
Ponticelli 2006	+	+	?	?	+	+
ROAD	+	+	-	+	+	+
SUN-MACRO	+	?	+	+	+	+
EMPA-REG	+	?	+	+	+	+
OUTCOME	+	?	+	+	+	+
Goicoechea	+	?	?	+	+	+
MASTERPLAN	+	?	?	-	?	+
CanPREVENT	-	+	-	+	?	+
SHARP	+	+	+	+	+	+

(Legend on the following page)

Key: Green and + indicates low risk of bias; red and – indicates high risk of bias; yellow and ? indicates unclear risk of bias.

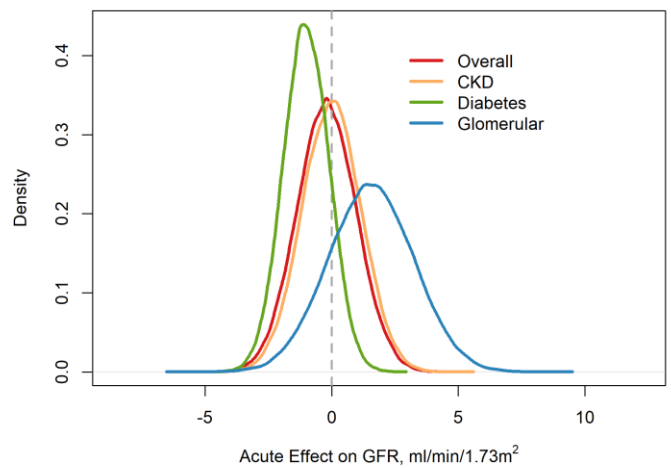
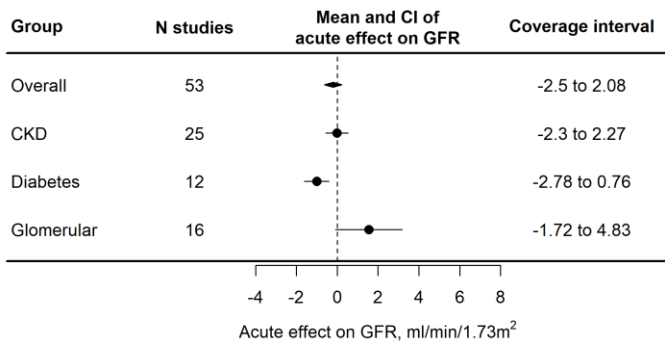
Risks of bias for each study were assessed using the risk-of-bias tool of the Cochrane collaboration. The tool includes these components: sequence generation (i.e. computer-generated random number, use of random number table or other truly random process); allocation concealment (i.e. web-based or telephone central randomization or consecutively numbered sealed opaque envelopes); blinding of participants, study personnel and outcome assessors; incomplete outcome data; selective outcome reporting. Each item of potential bias was scored as low, high or unclear based on criteria specified by the Cochrane Handbook¹.

Figure S2. Mean baseline GFR and median baseline UACR across studies



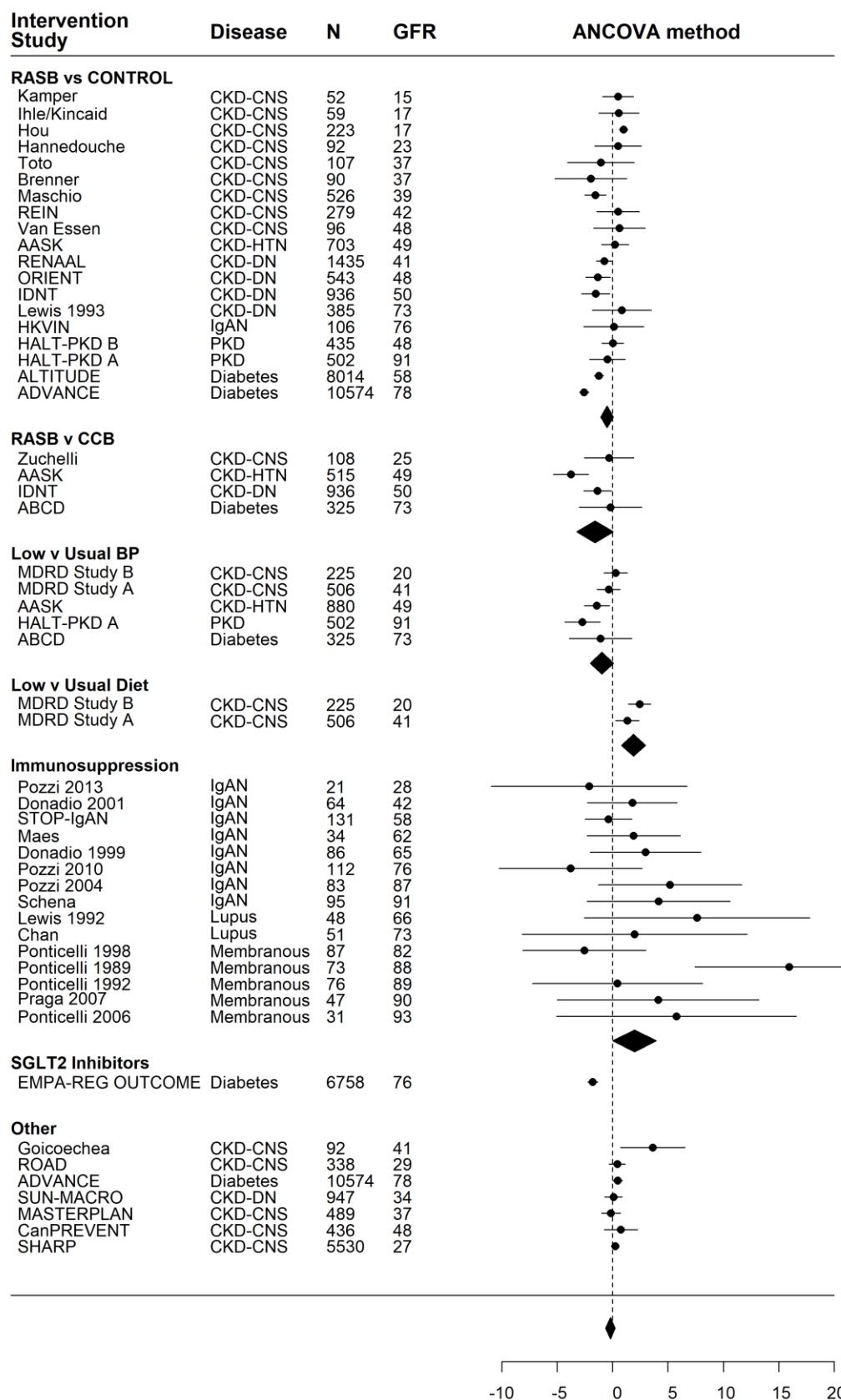
GFR, glomerular filtration rate; UACR, urine albumin creatinine ratio; RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; SGLT2, Sodium-glucose Cotransporter-2; N, number of studies.

Figure S3. Distribution and estimated mean acute effect on GFR by disease



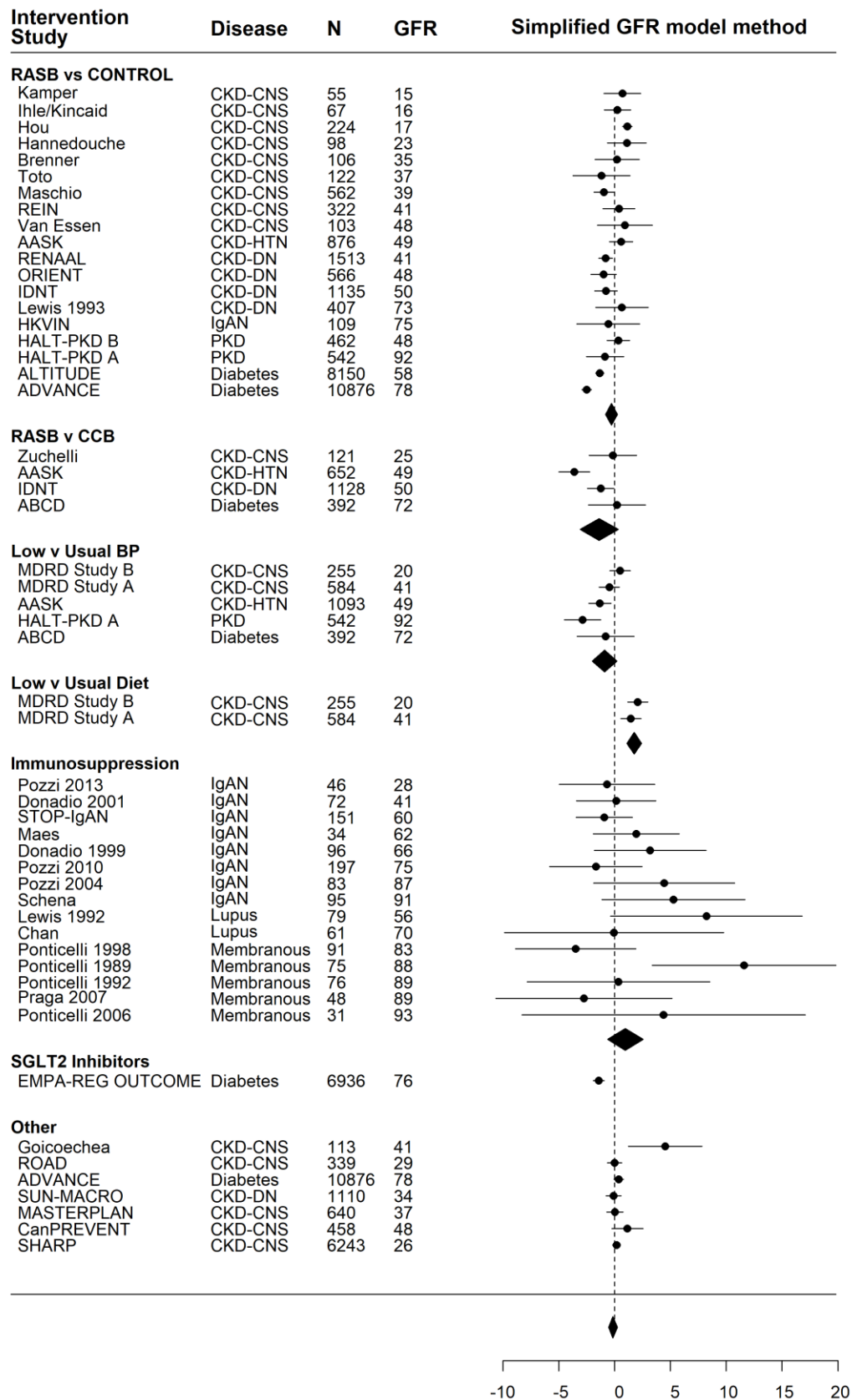
CI, confidence intervals; CKD, chronic kidney disease. Coverage interval refers to the interval under which 95% of the studies fall; N, sample size.

Figure S4: Forest plot of acute effect on GFR by intervention, all studies, ANCOVA method



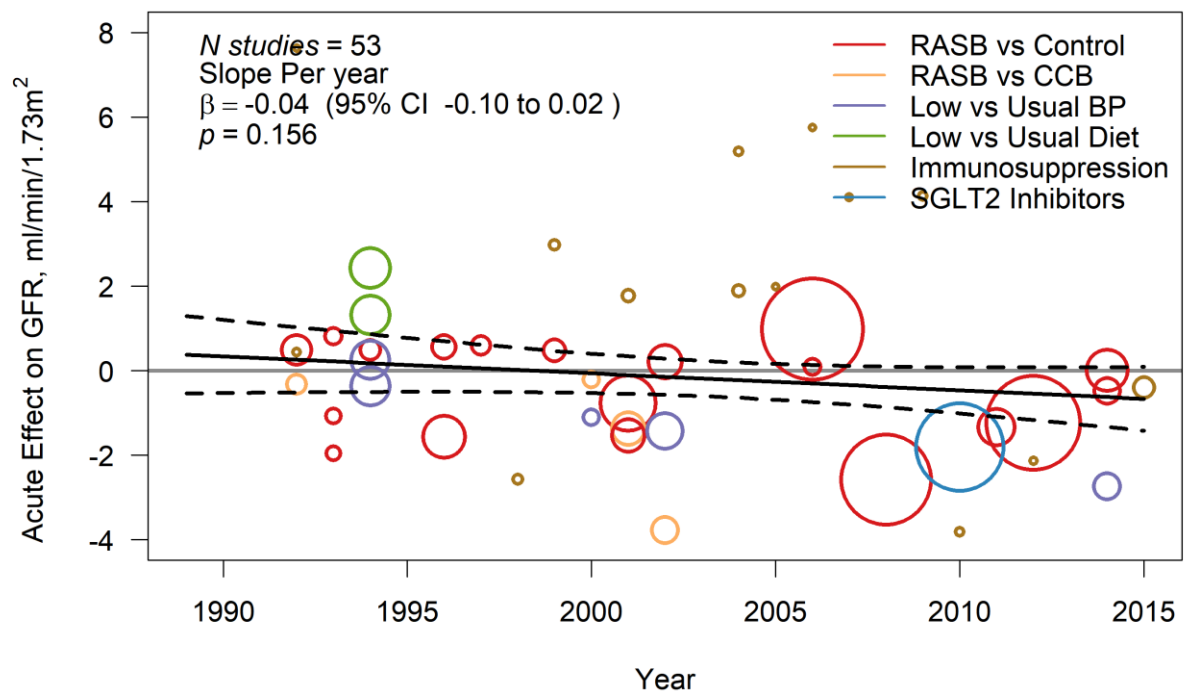
RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; SGLT2, sodium-glucose cotransporter-2; GFR, glomerular filtration rate; N, sample size (participants).

Figure S5: Forest plot of acute effects on GFR by intervention, all studies, sensitivity analysis using the linear mixed model



RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; SGLT2, sodium-glucose cotransporter-2; GFR, glomerular filtration rate; N, sample size (participants).

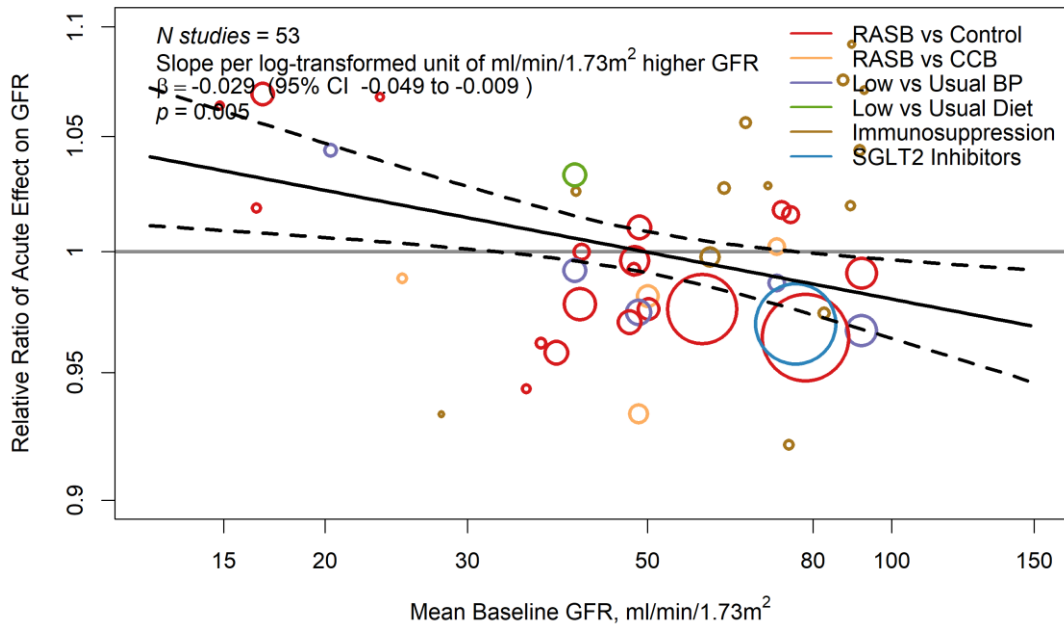
Figure S6: Variation in acute effect on GFR by year of study publication



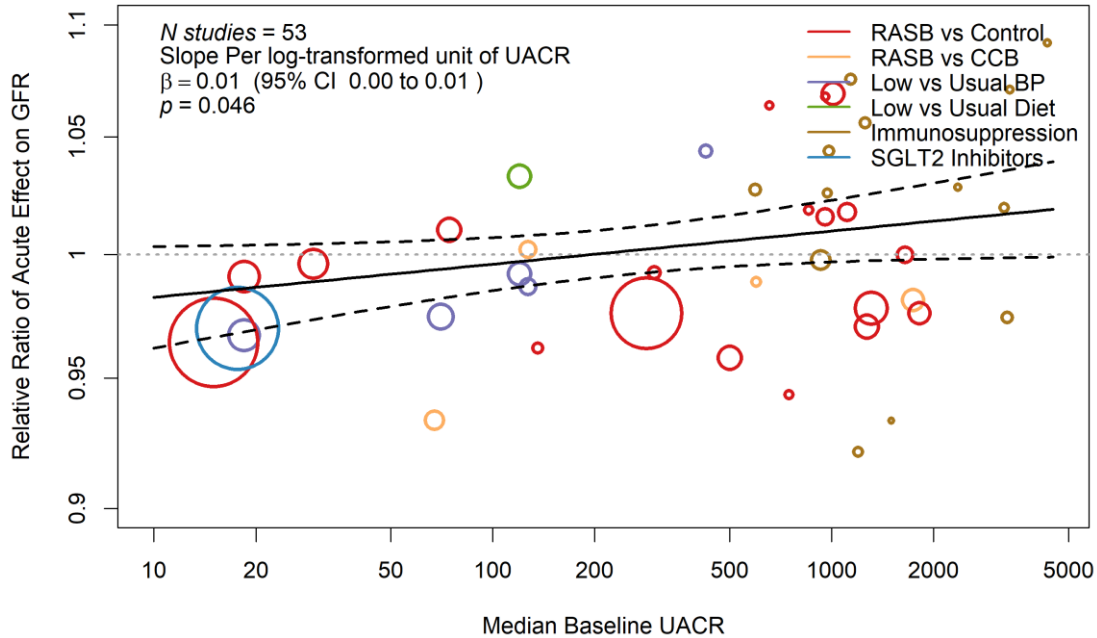
RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; SGLT2, sodium-glucose cotransporter-2; GFR, glomerular filtration rate; CI, confidence interval; β , slope; N, sample size.

Figure S7: Meta regression plot of variation in acute effect by (A) baseline natural log-transformed eGFR and (B) natural log acute effect by UACR

(A)



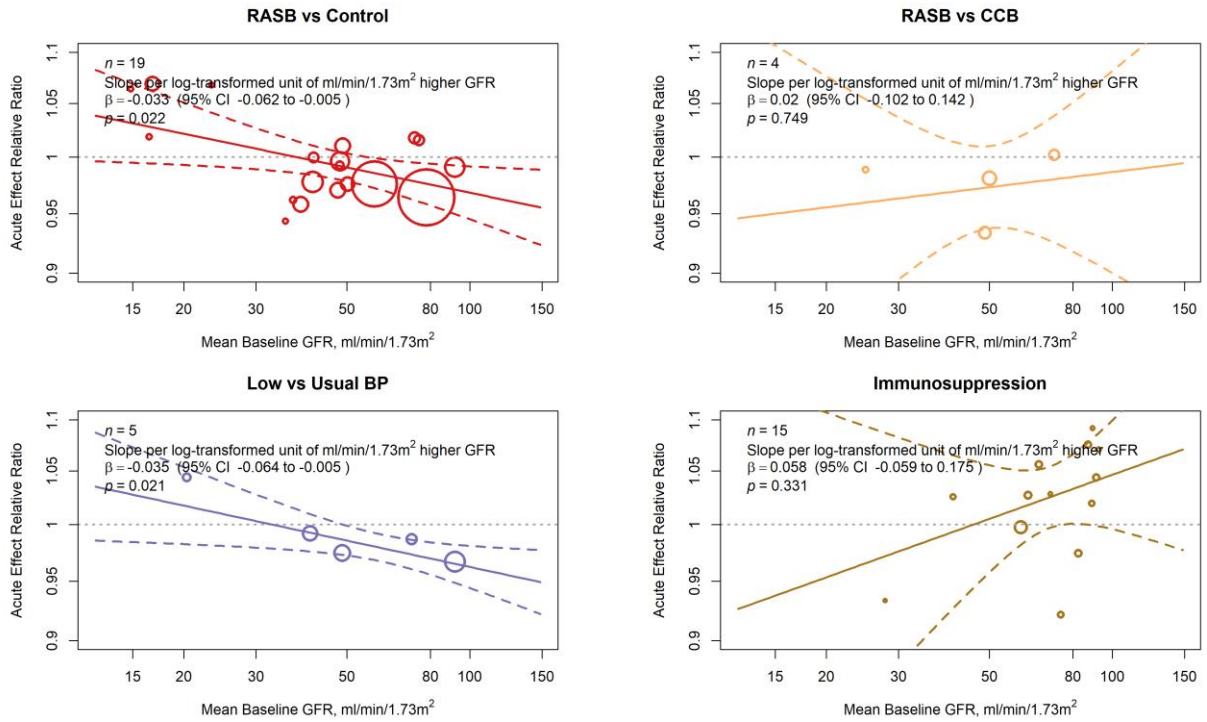
(B)



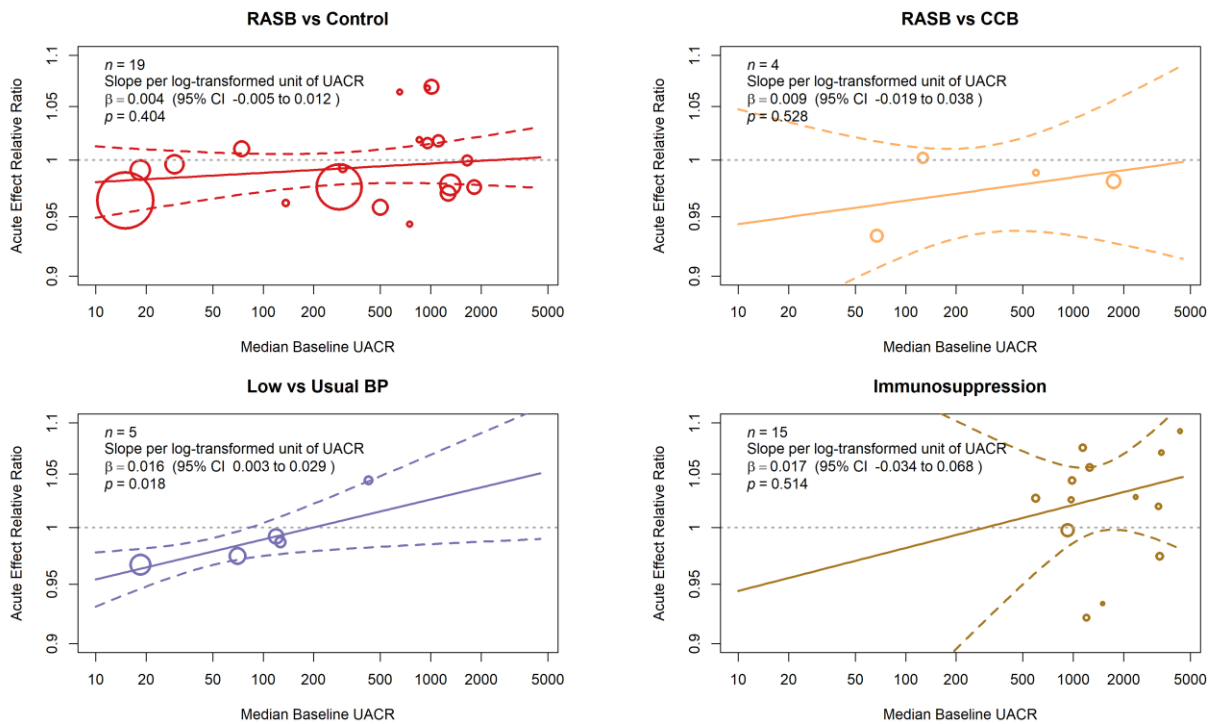
RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; SGLT2, Sodium-glucose Cotransporter-2; GFR, glomerular filtration rate.

Figure S8: Meta regression plot of variation in acute effect by intervention by (A) baseline natural log-transformed eGFR and (B) natural log acute effect by UACR

(A)

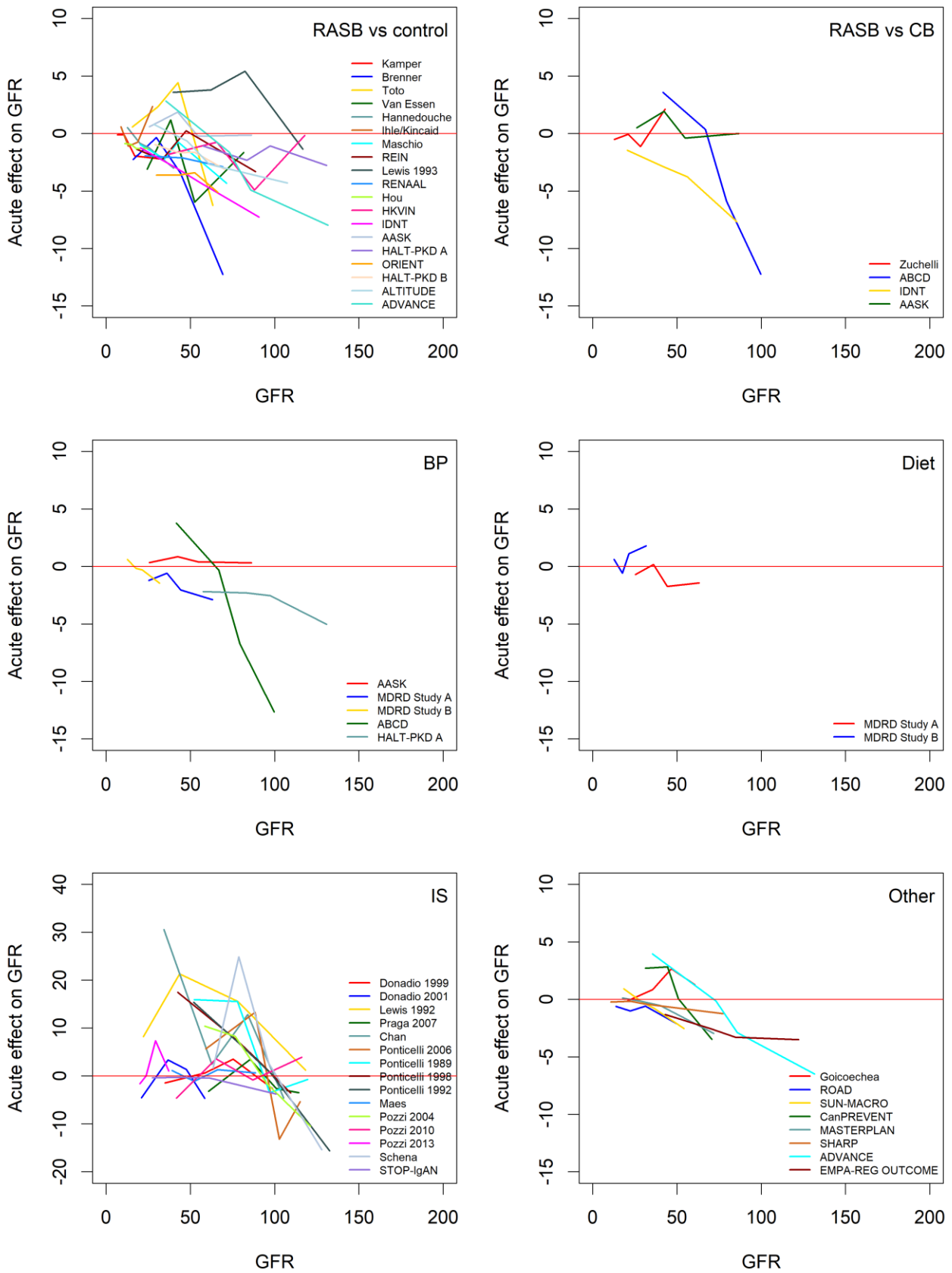


(B)



RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; UACR, urine albumin: creatinine ratio; GFR, glomerular filtration rate.

Figure S9: Variation in acute effect on GFR by within-study GFR quartiles, by intervention



RASB, renin-angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blockers; BP, blood pressure; IS, immunosuppression; GFR, glomerular filtration rate

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