A systematic review and meta-analysis indicates long-term risk of chronic and end-stage kidney disease after preeclampsia

Bianca Covella¹, Angela Elena Vinturache², Gianfranca Cabiddu³, Rossella Attini⁴, Loreto Gesualdo¹, Elisabetta Versino⁵ and Giorgina Barbara Piccoli⁵

¹Department of Medicine, Unit of Nephrology, Dialysis and Transplantation, Polyclinic University Hospital, Bari, Italy; ²Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Women's Centre, John Radcliffe Hospital, Oxford University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, Oxford, UK; ³Department of Medicine, Nephrology Ospedale Botzu, Cagliari, Italy; ⁴Department of Surgery, Obstetrics, University of Torino, Torino, Italy; and ⁵Department of Clinical and Biological Sciences, University of Torino, Torino, Italy

Preeclampsia is a pregnancy-related syndrome of variable severity, classically characterized by acute kidney involvement, with hypertension and/or proteinuria and reduced kidney function. Once considered a self-limited disease healed by delivery, it is now acknowledged that preeclampsia can affect cardiovascular and kidney health in the long term. The entity of risk has not been established and consequently follow-up policies have not been defined. Here we undertook a systematic review to gain better insights into the need for post-preeclampsia followup. Articles published between January 2000 and March 2018 were selected, dealing with at least 20 preeclampsia patients, with follow-up of 4 years or more (MEDLINE, Embase, and Cochrane Library). No quality selection or language restriction was performed. Of the 10,510 titles and abstracts originally considered, 21 papers were selected, providing information on 110,803 cases with and 2,680,929 controls without preeclampsia, with partial overlap between studies on the same databases. Heterogeneity was high, and a random meta-analytic model selected. The increase in risk of end stage renal disease after preeclampsia was significant (meta-analytic risk ratios (95% confidence interval) 6.35 (2.73-14.79)); the risk of albuminuria and chronic kidney disease increased but statistical significance was not reached (4.31 (0.95-19.58) and 2.03 (0.58-7.32), respectively). Translating meta-analytic risk into the number of patients who need follow-up to detect one adverse event, 310 patients with preeclampsia are needed to identify one woman with end stage renal disease or four to identify one woman with albuminuria. Heterogeneity in definitions, insufficient follow-up and incomplete recruitment may account for discrepancies. Thus, preeclampsia significantly increases the risk of end stage renal disease. However, there is lack of

sufficient data to show a relationship between preeclampsia, albuminuria and chronic kidney disease, underlining the need for further prospective studies.

Kidney International (2019) ■, ■-■; https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.kint.2019.03.033

KEYWORDS: albuminuria; chronic kidney disease; dialysis; eGFR; hypertensive disorders of pregnancy; preeclampsia; rapid review; systematic review Copyright © 2019, International Society of Nephrology. Published by Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Preeclampsia (PE) is a pregnancy-related syndrome of variable severity that has been differently defined, pointing to hypertension, fetal growth, and kidney involvement.^{1–3} Although the presence of proteinuria, which was long seen as a requisite for diagnosis, is no longer considered to be a condition *sine qua non*, an increase in serum creatinine is presently considered an alternative diagnostic element, thus further pointing to the central role of the kidney in this syndrome.^{1–12} *PE* has in fact been defined as a transitory reversible kidney disease that resolves spontaneously after delivery. In the classical definition of PE, kidney derangements are reversible within 1 to 3 months of delivery, regardless of their severity; however, this may not be the case in all patients, and the relationship between PE and chronic kidney disease (CKD) is not entirely understood.^{13–18}

The prevalence of PE has been variously estimated: the range most frequently reported is 3% to 5%, but may decrease to 1% to 2% in "low-risk pregnancies" or increase to >10% if related disorders such as pregnancy-induced hypertension and hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, low platelet (HELLP) syndrome are included within the broad definition of "the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy." The non-univocal definition of superimposed PE, identifying cases in which the clinical syndrome of hypertension and proteinuria develops in the presence of preexisting hypertension or kidney disease, adds to the difficulty in reaching univocal definitions.^{1–4,18–23}

The discussion on whether PE is a single disease, a syndrome, or a spectrum of alterations is still open; the new molecular approaches, and in particular the analysis of the ratio between proangiogenic and anti-angiogenic factors, such as placental growth factor and soluble fms-like tyrosine kinase 1, may offer some interesting insights into its pathogenesis.^{1-4,21-30}

Correspondence: Giorgina Barbara Piccoli, Department of Clinical and Biological Sciences, University of Torino, Torino, Italy or Ospedale san Luigi Gonzaga, Regione Gonzole, Orbassano Torino 10100, Italy; and Centre Hospitalier Le Mans, Le Mans 72000 France. E-mail: <u>appiccoli@yahoo.it</u>

Received 13 December 2018; revised 23 March 2019; accepted 28 March 2019; published online 14 May 2019

clinical investigation

PE is no longer considered as a transitory disease and has been associated with a vast array of cardiovascular and renal diseases, of which the pregnancy-related affection may be a herald, a cause, or a consequence.^{31–36} Most of the studies and virtually all the systematic reviews show that patients who had PE in \geq 1 pregnancy are at an increased risk of developing cardiovascular and metabolic diseases.^{31–41} However, the entity of the risk, the timing of the development of clinical problems, and the control strategies that can be used are not clear, and large prospective cohort studies are still lacking.

This uncertainty is shared by the analysis of the risk of CKD (including end-stage renal disease [ESRD]), which may become clinically evident only in the long term and whose global prevalence remains low, possibly too low to justify specific follow-up programs. A comprehensive systematic review focused on kidney disease, performed in 2010, highlighted the association between microalbuminuria (but not estimated glomerular filtration rate [eGFR]) and a previous episode of PE.⁴² The review includes 7 studies reporting on outcomes recorded at least 6 weeks postpartum (~300 PE episodes). Several large studies were published after this review appeared, and information is also accumulating on hard outcomes, such as ESRD.

It was in this context that we decided to undertake the present systematic review to gather updated information from

large recent observational and cohort studies focused on the long-term occurrence of ESRD, CKD (defined on the basis of glomerular filtration rate [GFR] and presence of proteinuria), and morbidity from kidney-related causes after an episode of PE as a guide for defining long-term control and CKD prevention strategies.

RESULTS

Characteristics of the studies

After removing duplicates, 8366 titles and abstracts were screened and the full texts of 159 articles were assessed, leading to a final selection of 21 articles for qualitative synthesis and 11 included in the different meta-analyses (Figure 1).⁴³⁻⁶³

Overall, qualitative data provided information on 110,803 cases and 2,680,929 controls, with a partial overlap between studies in the same databases (Table 1).

Selected studies were heterogeneous in terms of number of cases (30–26,651), setting of the study, over half being from European countries, period of pregnancy, and duration of follow-up (Table 1).

None of the studies were prospective; the interval between pregnancy and analysis ranged from 4.4 to >30 years. The definition of exposure (PE alone or combined with other hypertensive disorders of pregnancy) and the definitions of the outcomes and their measures were not homogeneous,



Figure 1 | Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses flowchart of study selection and database search. PE, preeclampsia. Reprinted with permission from Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG; PRISMA Group. Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *PLoS Med.* 2009;6:e1000097. Copyright © 2009 Moher *et al.*

following also the changes that have occurred over time in the nomenclature of these diseases (Tables 2^{64} and 3).

There were 2 main types of study design: cross-sectional evaluation of a cohort of patients retrospectively identified (8 studies) and linkage between different databases (11 studies). Two studies analyzed selected patients using questionnaires administered in the setting of a randomized controlled trial for other purposes (Table 2).

Four main outcomes were examined, alone or in combination: development of ESRD (Table 4), GFR level or presence of CKD (Table 5), development of proteinuria or microalbuminuria (Table 5), and hospitalization for causes related to CKD (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). Four studies examined different outcomes, alone or in combination (1 examined hemodynamic pattern, 1 looked at mortality caused by CKD, and 1 investigated outcomes associated with kidney biopsy) (Supplementary Table S1).

Although ESRD and hospitalization were dichotomous in all articles, kidney function was analyzed in 7 articles as a dichotomous variable (CKD vs. normal kidney function or hyperfiltration vs. normal kidney function) and in 7 articles as continuous eGFR values by using different formulas (Modification of Diet in Renal Disease study equation, Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration equation, and creatinine-cystatin equation; Table 5). Likewise, the presence of albuminuria was analyzed as a continuous covariate in 4 articles, according to a threshold in 7 articles and in both ways in 2 studies (Table 5). The modalities were however different and included 24-hour urine collections and/or albumin/creatinine ratio (Tables 3 and 5).

The studies selected reported on a consistent proportion of the exposed population; completeness of selection was higher in linkage databases and in studies based on questionnaires; completeness was consistently lower in cross-sectional analyses of populations selected on the basis of pregnancy data recorded 4 to 30 years previously, the range going from 20% to 100% (Supplementary Table S3A–C).

Quality of the studies, heterogeneity, and publication bias

The evidence was rated as of overall low quality by the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) scale because of the observational nature of the studies; however, studies were rated as of fair to good quality in the National Institutes of Health scale, which is focused on observational studies (Supplementary Tables S4 and S5). This discrepancy is due to the fact that the GRADE scale is focused on the absolute value of the evidence whereas the National Institutes of Health scale considers the specific limitations of each study in the framework of their intrinsic limitations.

Indeed, even if the National Institutes of Health scale is considered, no study was fully unbiased, as was to be expected given the retrospective nature of the analyses. Clinical heterogeneity was high.

Statistical heterogeneity was also high: for the outcome ESRD, the study by Wang *et al.* accounted for most of heterogeneity, with I² decreasing from 94% to 23%.⁵³ For CKD,

the studies by Wang *et al.*⁵³ and Ayansina *et al.*⁴⁸ contributed to most of heterogeneity, with I^2 decreasing from 98% to 60%. The study by Paauw *et al.* contributed to most of heterogeneity of GFR, with I^2 decreasing from 83% to 73%.⁴³ For albuminuria, the study by McDonald *et al.* contributed to virtually all heterogeneity,⁵⁵ and for hospitalization, the study by Kessous *et al.* contributed to most of heterogeneity, with I^2 decreasing from 85% to 44%.⁴⁹

The funnel plot analysis reveals a substantial symmetry for ESRD and eGFR, suggesting the absence of publication bias. For the outcomes CKD and hospitalization, a gap in bottom corners of the graphs suggest that small nonsignificant studies had been omitted in both directions, balancing the effect estimate. For albuminuria, a gap in the bottom left corner of the graph suggests that a protective effect of PE was omitted, leading to a possible mild overestimation of the effect of PE (funnel plots are shown in Supplementary Figures S1–S5).

Descriptive analysis: risk of ESRD

The definition of outcomes was homogeneous only for ESRD, whose incidence was recorded over time, leading to the construction of specific, albeit differently built curves: event-free in the articles from Taiwan^{50,53} and incidence in the articles from Norway^{54,58–60} (Table 4). It should be noted that the curves of patients with or without PE start differentiating from the fourth year of observation in Norway and from the beginning of the observation in Taiwan; in both cases the differences are statistically significant. None of the studies adjust for predialysis mortality, a potential attrition bias, because of the higher mortality in patients with CKD than in the overall population.

Descriptive analysis: risk of CKD and proteinuria

The development of CKD was analyzed in different ways dichotomized at eGFR of 60 ml/min per 1.73 m² or eGFR as a continuous variable—by using different formulas (Modification of Diet in Renal Disease study equation and Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration equation) and different tests, as reported in Table 3. No significant difference in eGFR was observed, but the difference (increase in CKD after PE) is significant in the dichotomous analysis in most single studies (Table 5).

A similar pattern is observed in the case of protein excretion, expressed as microalbuminuria, as well as protein/ creatinine ratio (Table 5).

Correction for dialysis initiation was attempted in 1 article (no case recorded),⁴³ while none reported adjustment for mortality, possibly because of the rarity of this event in young women. The overall prevalence of CKD in the meta-analyzed control populations, excluding the 2 articles whose outcome was hyperfiltration, was low (1508 events per 234,068 controls [0.64%]).

Other outcomes include mortality, hospitalization, and need for kidney biopsy (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2; meta-analysis shown in Supplementary Figure S6).

* Table 1 | Main characteristics of the studies included

		Period of	Period of		Exposed/not	Aim of the study	Duration of follow-up after	Renal outcome(s)
Study	Country	pregnancy	study	Design	exposed	(as reported in the article)	pregnancy (yr)	(other outcomes)
Paauw <i>et al.</i> ⁴³	NL	1997–1998	1997–2012	Cohort study (PREVEND study); linkage with the ESRD registry	977/1805	To evaluate the incidence of CKD and ESRD and the course of kidney function after a hypertensive disorder of pregnancy in a longitudinal setting	11	CKD, ESRD, albuminuria
Lopes van Balen <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁴	NL	NA	Until 2011	Retrospective cohort, cross-sectional evaluation	79/49	To test the hypothesis that in women with a history of <i>PE</i> , kidney function correlates with endothelium-dependent flow-mediated vasodilation	4.4	CKD, microalbuminuria, (FMD)
Tooher <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁵	AU	1980–1989	NA	Retrospective record linkage	1158 (1364 pregnant)/27,262	To examine whether the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy affect women's future cardiovascular health	20 (3–29)	Hospitalization for CKD (separately: HT, CVD, stroke)
Bokslag <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁶	NL	1998–2005	2014–2016	Retrospective cohort, cross-sectional evaluation	131/56	To assess cardiovascular risk factors and established cardiovascular disease in women after <i>early-onset PE</i> , in the fifth decade of life	13.1 ± 2.2	CKD, microalbuminuria
Paauw <i>et al.</i> 47	NL	1991–2007	2009–2010	Cohort study (PREVFEM study); cross- sectional evaluation	339/332	To study renal function in a large cohort of well- characterized women with previous <i>early-onset PE</i> , 10 yr postpartum	9.1 ± 3.7	CKD, proteinuria
Ayansina <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁸	GB-SCT	1950–2008	2009	Retrospective record linkage	811 ^ª /10,457	To assess the long-term effects of the <i>hypertensive</i> <i>disorders of pregnancy</i> on kidney function by using a population-based cohort, adjusting for confounders	>15	CKD, hospitalization for CKD
Kessous <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁹	IL	1988–2012	2012	Retrospective record linkage	7824/88,546	To investigate whether severe and recurrent PE increase the risk for long-term atherosclerotic morbidity (cardiovascular and renal)	11.2	CKD, hospitalization for CVD
Wu <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁰	TW	1998–2002	NC	Retrospective cohort (registry data)	13,633/930,841	To determine the long-term postpartum risk of ESRD in women with <i>hypertensive</i> <i>disorders in pregnancy</i>	9 (7.79–10.02)	ESRD
Sandvik <i>et al</i> . ⁵¹	NO	1998–2000	2009–2010	Retrospective cohort, cross-sectional evaluation	89/69	To investigate the occurrence of the early stages of CKD after a single <i>PE pregnancy</i>	10.9 ± 1	CKD, microalbuminuria

clinical investigation

ARTICLE IN PRESS B Covella et al.: CKD after preeclampsia: a systematic review

Männistö <i>et al.</i> ⁵²	FI	1966	1967–2008 ^b	Retrospective record linkage	242/6552	To evaluate the long-term risk in women for subsequent cardiovascular, cerebrovascular, and CKD as well as CVD mortality associated with the full spectrum of hypertensive disorders during prognancy	39.4 (3.0–43.6)	CKD (CVD, cerebrovascular disease, diabetes, HT)
Wang <i>et al.</i> ⁵³	TW	1996–2009 or 1998–2009	2009	Retrospective record linkage	17,998 ^c /213,397	To investigate the risk of ESRD among Taiwanese women who had a hypertensive disorder during pregnancy	6.3	CKD, ESRD
Vikse <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁴	NO	1967–2008	2009	Retrospective record linkage	First pregnancy: 25,821/544,854 Second pregnancy: 8977/27,7233	To assess the role of genetic and environmental contributions to the association between <i>PE</i> and ESRD, investigating the occurrence of ESRD in relatives of women with PE in their first pregnancy	19.6 ± 10.4	ESRD
McDonald <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁵	International	NA	2003–2005	Recall questionnaires, cross-sectional evaluation in RCT (ORIGIN trial)	467 ^d /3613	To explore the relationship between PE (severe and nonsevere) and CVD after accounting for albuminuria and other known cardiovascular risk factors	NA ^e	CKD, microalbuminuria (CVD)
Bhattacharya et al. ⁵⁶	GB-SCT	Database started in 1950	2007	Retrospective record linkage	2026 ^f /23,937	To examine the relationship between the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and future hospital admittance for selected conditions, cancer, and death	>30	Mortality and hospitalization for CKD
Shahbazian et al. ⁵⁷	IR	2001–2003	NA	Retrospective cohort, cross- sectional evaluation	35/35	To assess whether women with a history of <i>PE</i> had higher rates of hypertension and microalbuminuria compared with women with uneventful pregnancy	5.7 (5.2–7.3)	CKD, microalbuminuria (HT)
Vikse <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁸	NO	1988–2005	2005	Retrospective record linkage	60/522	To investigate whether <i>PE and</i> other adverse pregnancy outcomes were associated with late renal damage and increased risk of progression of established CKD	Up to 16 after biopsy; age at first pregnancy, $24 \pm$ 8.4; age at biopsy, 41.3 ± 4.8	ESRD
Sandvik <i>et al.⁵⁹</i>	NO	1967–1994	2004 or 2005 ^b	Retrospective record linkage	216/1265	To assess the extent to which adverse pregnancy outcomes were associated with later development of ESRD or premature death in women with diabetes	Up to 37	ESRD (death)

(Continued on next page)

B Covella et al.: CKD after preeclampsia: a systematic review

ARTICLE IN PRESS

clinical investigation

Study	Country	Period of pregnancy	Period of study	Design	Exposed/not exposed	Aim of the study (as reported in the article)	Duration of follow-up after pregnancy (yr)	Renal outcome(s) (other outcomes)
Vikse <i>et al.</i> ⁶⁰	NO	1967–1991	2004	Retrospective record linkage	20,918/549,515	To assess the association between <i>PE</i> in ≥ 1 pregnancy and the development of ESRD	26.5 \pm 7.5 after the first pregnancy	ESRD
Lampinen <i>et al.</i> ⁶¹	FI	1996–1998	NA	Retrospective cohort, cross-sectional evaluation	30/21	To assess whether the degree of proteinuria in <i>severe PE</i> is related to impairment of vascular dilatation and/or kidney function years after pregnancy	5–6	CKD, microalbuminuria (FBF)
Vikse <i>et al.</i> ⁶²	NO	1967–1998	2002	Retrospective record linkage	29,317/72,7103	To assess whether <i>perinatal</i> outcomes are associated with later clinical CKD diagnosed by kidney biopsy	15.9 ± 9.4	Kidney biopsy
Shammas <i>et al.</i> 63	Oſ	1988	10 yr later	Retrospective cohort, cross-sectional evaluation	47 ⁹ /46	To assess the development of hypertension and its relation to renal function 10 yr after a pregnancy complicated by PE or PIH	10	CKD, microalbuminuria (HT)

AU, Australia; CKD, chronic kidney disease; CVD, cardiovascular disease; ESRD, end-stage renal disease; FBF, forearm blood flow; FI, Finland; FMD, flow-mediated dilatation; GB-SCT, Great Britain–Scotland; GH, gestational hypertension; HDP, hypertensive disorders of pregnancy; HT, hypertension; IL, Israel; IR, Iran; JO, Jordan; NA, not available; NC, not clear; NL, The Netherlands; NO, Norway; ORIGIN, Outcome Reduction with an Initial Glargine Intervention; PE, preeclampsia; PIH, pregnancy-induced hypertension; PREVEND, Prevention of Renal and Vascular End-stage Disease; PREVFEM, Preeclampsia Risk EValuation in FEMales; RCT, randomized controlled trial; TW, Taiwan.

In the table we kept all the studies using the same databases, if they did so for different periods or for different outcomes: 6 used the Medical Birth Registry of Norway^{51,54,58-60,62}, 2 used Taiwan's National Health Insurance Research Database,^{50,53} and 2 used Aberdeen Maternity and Neonatal Databask^{48,56}; only 1 database was further analyzed for each outcome.

^aAyansina et al.: Women with GH are not considered in our study (women with GH: 3583).

^bDifferent databases.

^cWang et al.: Women with HDP other than PE are not considered in our study (women with HDP: 26,651).

^dMcDonald *et al.*: 108 severe preeclampsia and 359 nonsevere preeclampsia.

^eMcDonald *et al.*: Follow-up >20 yr on the basis of study design.

^fBhattacharya *et al.*: Women with GH are not considered in our study (women with GH: 8891).

^gShammas *et al.*: Women with GH are not considered in our study (women with GH: 54).

Study PE definition or source of criteria PE assessment/PE database Exposure Paauw et al.43 PIH, PE Patient report validated by linking data to International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy, 2014^a the registry of obstetric departments from 2 hospitals of the Netherlands Lopes van Balen et al.44 ΡE National High Blood Pressure Education Hospital database Program Working Group Report on High Radboud University, Nijmegen, The Blood Pressure in Pregnancy, 2000^b Netherlands Tooher et al.45 Society of Obstetric Medicine of Australia PIH, PE, chronic Hospital database HT, s-PE and New Zealand, 2008^c Metropolitan tertiary hospital, Sydney, Australia Bokslag et al.46 Early-onset PE American College of Obstetricians and Hospital databases Gynecologists' Task Force on Two tertiary medical centers in the Hypertension in Pregnancy, 2013^d Netherlands Severe PE: Presence of 1 or more of the following: proteinuria ≥ 5 g/24 h, HELLP syndrome, eclamptic seizure, pulmonary edema Early-onset PE: International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy, 2001⁶ Paauw et al.47 Early-onset PE Early-onset PE: International Society for the Hospital database Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy[†] Isala Klinieken, Zwolle, The Netherlands Ayansina et al.48 PE, E, PIH Aberdeen Maternity and Neonatal The classification and definition of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy Databank (Davey and MacGillivray⁶⁴), 1988⁹ Kessous et al.49 ΡE NA Hospital database Perinatal Soroka University Medical Centre, Negev, Israel Wu et al.⁵⁰ PE, E, PIH, Blood pressure \geq 140 mm Hg systolic Taiwan's National Health Insurance superimposed PE or \geq 90 mm Hg diastolic, or both, and Research Database daily urine protein ≥ 0.3 g or $\geq 1+$ on a urinary dipstick reading in a random urine sample that arises at the >20th wk of gestation Sandvik et al.⁵¹ PE National High Blood Pressure Education Medical Birth Registry of Norway Program Working Group Report on High Blood Pressure in Pregnancy, 1990^t Männistö et al.52 PE, E, PIH, Guidelines of the National Heart, Lung, and Northern Finland Birth Cohort superimposed PE Blood Institute, 2000ⁱ Wang et al.53 PE, E, PIH Canadian Hypertension Society Consensus Taiwan's National Health Insurance Conference, 1997 **Research Database** Vikse et al.54 ΡE American College of Obstetricians and Medical Birth Registry of Norway Gynecologists, 1990^k McDonald et al.55 National High Blood Pressure Education PE (severe and Patient report (questionnaire) nonsevere) Program Working Group, 1990¹ Severe PE: Spectrum of organ dysfunction including seizures (eclampsia) Nonsevere PE: Hypertension and proteinuria developing in the last half of pregnancy Bhattacharya et al.56 PE, E, PIH Diastolic pressure >90 mm Hg on 2 Aberdeen Maternity and Neonatal occasions at least 4 h apart or a single Databank reading of >110 mm Hg from the 20th wk of gestation onward in a previously normotensive woman plus at least 1 episode of proteinuria 0.3 g/24 h Shahbazian et al.57 PE, E Blood pressure ≥140/90 mm Hg and Hospital database Razi Hospital and Emam Khomeini Hospital, urinary protein excretion of ≥300 mg/24 h after the 20th wk of gestation Ahvaz, Iran Vikse et al.58 PE American College of Obstetrics and Medical Birth Registry of Norway Gynecologists, 1990^k Sandvik et al.59 PE American College of Obstetrics and Medical Birth Registry of Norway Gynecologists, 1990^k Vikse et al.60 ΡE American College of Obstetrics and Medical Birth Registry of Norway

Gynecologists, 1990^k

Table 2 | Main definitions of exposure in the articles reviewed as well as the source of definition of PE

(Continued on next page)

Table 2	(Continued)	Main definit	tions of expos	ure in the ar	ticles reviewe	d as well as	the source of	definition of	PE
---------	-------------	--------------	----------------	---------------	----------------	--------------	---------------	---------------	----

Study	Exposure	PE definition or source of criteria	PE assessment/PE database
Lampinen <i>et al.</i> ⁶¹	PE	NA	Hospital database Helsinki University Central, Helsinki, Finland
Vikse et al. ⁶²	PE	American College of Obstetrics and Gynecologists, 1990 ^k	Medical Birth Registry of Norway
Shammas et al. ⁶³	PE	ŇĂ	Hospital database King Hussein Medical Center, Amman,

E, eclampsia; HELLP, hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, low platelet; HT, hypertension; NA, not available; PE, preeclampsia; PIH, pregnancy-induced hypertension; s-PE, superimposed preeclampsia.

^aNew onset of hypertension (>140 mm Hg systolic or >90 mm Hg diastolic) after the 20th wk of gestation and the coexistence of 1 or more of the following new-onset conditions: proteinuria (spot urine protein/creatinine ratio >30 mg/mol [0.3 mg/mg] or >300 mg/d or at least 1 g/L ["2+"] on dipstick testing); other maternal organ dysfunction (renal insufficiency [creatinine >90 µmol/l; 1.02 mg/d]; liver involvement (elevated transaminases—at least twice the upper limit of normal with or without right upper quadrant or epigastric abdominal pain); neurological complications (examples include eclampsia, altered mental status, blindness, stroke, or more commonly hyperreflexia when accompanied by clonus, severe headaches when accompanied by hyperreflexia, and persistent visual scotomata); hematological complications (thrombocytopenia—platelet count <150,000/dl, diffuse intravascular coagulation, and hemolysis).

^bBlood pressure >140 mm Hg systolic or >90 mm Hg diastolic in a woman who was normotensive before the 20th wk of gestation (gestational blood pressure elevation) accompanied by proteinuria. In the absence of proteinuria, the disease is likely to be present when increased blood pressure appears accompanied by any of the following symptoms: headache, blurred vision, and abdominal pain, or by abnormal laboratory test results, specifically low platelet counts and abnormal liver enzyme values.

^cIncrease in systolic blood pressure \geq 140 mm Hg or diastolic blood pressure \geq 90 mm Hg, or both, after the 20th wk of gestation associated with the involvement of at least 1 other organ manifestation.

^dHypertension with 1 or more of the following new-onset conditions: proteinuria, thrombocytopenia, impaired liver function, renal insufficiency, pulmonary edema, or cerebral or visual disturbances.

 e Delivery before the 34th wk of gestation, blood pressure >140/90 mm Hg, and proteinuria >300 mg/24 h.

^fDiastolic blood pressure \geq 90 mm Hg with proteinuria (\geq 0.3 g/24 h) diagnosed between the 20th and 32nd wk of gestation.

^gDiastolic pressure >90 mm Hg on 2 occasions at least 4 h apart or a single reading of >110 mm Hg; from the 20th wk of gestation onward in a previously normotensive woman plus at least 1 episode of proteinuria of 0.3 g/24 h. Increased BP after the 20th wk of gestation (>140/90 mm Hg) and proteinuria (>0.3 g in a 24-h urine specimen or \geq 1+ on a urinary dipstick reading).

^hWomen normotensive before the 20th gestational week but hypertensive (blood pressure \geq 145 mm Hg systolic and \geq 95 mm Hg diastolic) after the 20th gestational week with proteinuria in \geq 1 sample.

New-onset hypertension (blood pressure >140/90 mm Hg) with proteinuria of at least 300 mg in a 24-h urine sample after the 20th wk of gestation.

^jIncreased blood pressure after the 20th wk of gestation (blood pressure \geq 140/90 mm Hg, or an increase in systolic blood pressure of \geq 30 mm Hg or in diastolic blood pressure of \geq 15 mm Hg, from measurements before the 20th wk of gestation) and proteinuria (\geq 0.3 g in a 24-h urine specimen or \geq 1+ on a urinary dipstick reading). ^kPregnancy-induced hypertension with albuminuria, which arises after the 20th wk of gestation.

Meta-analysis: ESRD and albuminuria

The only outcome found to be significant in the meta-analysis is the risk of ESRD; as the databases are partially overlapping, we included only the largest cohorts (Vikse⁵⁴ and Wang⁵³) (Figure 2). The risk of ESRD is significantly higher after PE (meta-analytic risk ratio [RR], 6.35; 95% confidence interval [CI], 2.73–14.79).

We are uncertain whether there is an increased risk of albuminuria after PE: statistical significance is not reached and CIs are wide, indicating lack of precision in the estimate (meta-analytic RR, 4.31; 95% CI, 0.95–19.58) (Figure 3); CKD was dichotomized at 60 ml/min per 1.73 m² (RR, 2.03; 95% CI, 0.58–7.32) (excluding 2 studies dealing with hyper-filtration) (Figure 4).

No difference is observed if eGFR is analyzed as a continuous variable (Supplementary Figure S7). The relative risk of hospitalization is also not significantly different (metaanalytic RR, 1.69; 95% CI, 0.98–2.92) (Supplementary Figure S6).

Stratification for duration of follow-up (dichotomized at 10 years) and region of origin (Europe vs. rest of the world) did not substantially modify results as for ESRD and CKD (Supplementary Figures S8 and S9). Conversely, the exclusion of 1 study (McDonald *et al.*⁵⁵) in the stratification for follow-up, because of the lack of a precise follow-up measure, modifies the RR for albuminuria, whose risk reaches statistical significance (albuminuria: RR, 8.24; 95% CI, 3.07-22.10). Of note, the excluded study accounted for

8

most of heterogeneity (Supplementary Figures S8A–C and 9A–C).

Number of cases that need to be followed up over time to identify an adverse long-term event. In the case of ESRD, the cumulative estimate of the number of cases needed to detect 1 adverse event (calculated as "number needed to treat" [NNT]) was 310 (95% CI, 120–959). The cumulative prevalence of ESRD was 0.06%, in keeping with a prevalence of ESRD of ~0.1% in the overall population (this population consists of relatively young women with a lower incidence of ESRD).

The calculations of the NNT lead to 4 for albuminuria and 157 for CKD (CIs were not calculated because the metaanalytic RRs do not reach statistical significance). However, because the crude prevalence of CKD in the control population was only 0.64%, which is remarkably lower than the prevalence of CKD usually reported (estimated as $\sim 3\%$ in women of childbearing age), we considered it likely that this figure is overestimated.

DISCUSSION

PE is a protean disease, which may exert long-term effects on cardiovascular and kidney health, whose entity is however not completely known. As a consequence, follow-up after a PE episode is not established. $^{1-4,13-23,31-41}$

There are several reasons why the results of the analyses of these long-term health effects are not fully clear: the pathogenesis of PE is only partially understood; the recent trend

Study	Renal outcome(s)	CKD-eGFR	C/D	Microalbuminuria	C/D
Paauw <i>et al</i> . ⁴³	CKD, microalbuminuria	Crs: Enzymatic method CysC: Turbidimetric assay eGFR: CKD- EPI equation, creatinine-cystatin equation Threshold: eGFR <60 ml/min per 1.73 m ²	D	<i>Method:</i> Nephelometry (UAE in 24-h urine collection) <i>Threshold:</i> >30 mg/d	D
Lopes van Balen <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁴	CKD, microalbuminuria	Crs: Colorimetric enzymatic method eGFR: CKD-EPI equation Threshold: None	С	Method: Immunonephelometry (ACR in 24-h urine collection) Threshold: None	C
Bokslag <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁶	CKD, microalbuminuria	Crs: NA eGFR: NA Threshold: None	С	Method: NA (ACR in a morning urine sample) Threshold: None	C
Paauw <i>et al</i> . ⁴⁷	CKD, proteinuria	Crs: Colorimetric enzymatic method eGFR: CKD-EPI equation and MDRD study equation Threshold: eGFR <60 ml/min per 1.73 m ²	C, D	Method: Turbidimetric method (protein/creatinine ratio) Threshold: >30 mg/mmol	D
Ayansina <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁸	CKD	Crs: Colorimetric method eGFR: MDRD study equation Threshold: eGFR <60 ml/min per 1.73 m ² (≥90 d)	D	NA	
Männistö et al. ⁵²	CKD	Crs: NA eGFR: NA Threshold: NA (probably eGFR of 60 ml/min per 1.73 m ²)	D	NA	
Wang et al. ⁵³	CKD	Crs: NA <i>eGFR</i> : NA Threshold: NA (probably eGFR of 60 ml/min per 1.73 m ²)	D	NA	
McDonald et al. ⁵⁵	CKD, microalbuminuria	Crs: Colorimetric method <i>eGFR</i> : MDRD study equation Threshold: NA (probably eGFR of 60 ml/min per 1.73 m ²)	C, D	Method: Turbidimetric method (ACR in a morning urine sample) Threshold: Microalbuminuria if range between 3.4 and 34.9 mg/mmol	C, D
Shahbazian et al. ⁵⁷	CKD, microalbuminuria	Method: NA mGFR: Creatinine clearance Threshold: None	С	Method: NA (ACR in a morning midstream urine sample) Threshold: ≥30 mg/mmol	D
Lampinen et al. ⁶¹	CKD, microalbuminuria	Crs: Colorimetric enzymatic method <i>eGFR</i> : NA <i>Threshold:</i> None	С	Method: Immunoturbidimetric method (UAE in 24-h urine collection) Threshold: >30 mg/24 h	C, D
Shammas et al. ⁶³	CKD, microalbuminuria	Crs: NA <i>eGFR:</i> NA Threshold: None	С	<i>Method:</i> NA (UAE in 24-h urine collection) <i>Threshold:</i> Excretion of 20–200 mg/24 h	D
Sandvik <i>et al.</i> ⁵¹	CKD, microalbuminuria	Crs: Enzymatic method eGFR: CKD-EPI equation Threshold for high-normal eGFR: >114.3 ml/min per 1.73 m ²	D	Method: Nephelometry (ACR in 3 morning urine samples) Threshold: >2.5 mg/mmol	D

Table 3 | Main definition and assessment of biochemical data included in outcomes in studies reporting on kidney function or proteinuria

ACR, albumin/creatinine ratio; C, continuous; CKD, chronic kidney disease; CKD-EPI, Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration; Crs, serum creatinine; CysC, cystatin C; D, dichotomous; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; MDRD, Modification of Diet in Renal Disease; NA, not available; UAE, urinary albumin excretion.

toward stratification of PE into different categories underlines the heterogeneity of the disease. These include maternal versus placental, severe versus mild, and related versus unrelated derangement of the angiogenic/anti-angiogenic balance.^{17–22,65,66} Furthermore, the relationship between PE and the other hypertensive disorders of pregnancy is complex and one disease may merge with another.^{65–68} Because of changes in definitions and heterogeneity across studies, subtle differences cannot be captured in retrospective analyses (Table 2).

The relationship between CKD and PE is likewise complex and non-univocal: on the one hand, PE may be a cause or a

marker of future CKD; on the other hand, there is an increased occurrence of PE in patients with CKD and many predisposing factors, including diabetes, obesity, metabolic syndrome, and hypertension, are shared by PE and CKD.^{34–42,69}

Available evidence allows us to conclude that there is an increased risk of kidney diseases after PE, but does not permit us to quantify that risk, something which must be done if follow-up strategies are to be defined. What distinguishes our review from the meta-analysis carried out by McDonald *et al.* is not only the inclusion of recent studies but also the focus on studies that include only medium- to long-term follow-up

clinical investigation

Study	Population	Cumulative incidence	Main results as reported in the articles
Paauw <i>et al</i> . ⁴³	Women aged 28–75 yr with microalbuminuria who had hypertension in pregnancy	No case	None developed ESRD during follow-up
Wu et al. ⁵⁰	Women in Taiwan's National Health Insurance Research Database who had deliveries between 1998 and 2000	Exposed: 46/13,633 Not exposed: 212/930,841	HR, 15.23; 95% Cl, 11.07–20.95; <i>P</i> < 0.001
Wang <i>et al</i> . ⁵³	Women in the database of Taiwan's health care reimbursement claims in the 1996– 2009 period with hypertensive disorders in first pregnancy who were 19–40 yr of age between 1998 and 2009	Exposed: 61/17,998 Not exposed: 45/213,397	HR, 15.9; 95% Cl, 10.8–23.3 ; <i>P</i> < 0.001 ^a
Vikse <i>et al</i> . ⁵⁴	All women registered in the Medical Birth Registry of Norway with a first birth in 1967–2008 period	First pregnancy: Exposed: 52/25,821 ^b Not exposed: 222/503,583 Second pregnancy: Without children with PE Exposed: 39/8977 ^b Not exposed: 340/277,233	First pregnancy: Without siblings with PE: RR, 5.95; 95% Cl, 4.37–8.11 With siblings with PE: RR, 2.76; 95% Cl, 0.88–8.63 Second pregnancy: Without children with PE: RR, 3.81; 95% Cl, 2.67–5.43 With children with PE: RR, 2.97; 95% Cl, 111–7 98
Vikse et al. ⁵⁸	All women registered in the Norwegian Kidney Biopsy Registry and Medical Birth Registry of Norway who, after their last recorded birth, had a representative kidney biopsy in 1988–2005	Exposed: 10/60 Not exposed: NR	First pregnancy: RR, 1.2; 95% Cl, 0.63–2.4; P = 0.5 First or second pregnancy: RR, 1.4; 95% Cl, 0.77–2.5; $P = 0.3$
Sandvik <i>et al</i> . ⁵⁹	Women registered in the Medical Birth Registry of Norway with a first singleton delivery between 1967 and 1994 with or without preeclampsia and diabetes diagnosed before pregnancy	Exposed: 11/216 Not exposed: 37/1265	Term birth: RR, 1.3; 95% Cl, 0.41–4.4 Preterm birth: RR, 2.8; 95% Cl, 1.3–6.0
Vikse <i>et al</i> . ⁶⁰	Women registered in the Medical Birth Registry of Norway with a first singleton delivery between 1967 and 1991 with or without PE	Exposed: 67/20,918 Not exposed: 410/549,515	After the first pregnancy: RR, 4.7; 95% Cl, $3.6-6.1^{\circ}$

Table 4 | Outcome: risk of ESRD, as reported in the articles reviewed

Cl, confidence interval; ESRD, end-stage renal disease; HR, hazard ratio; NR, not reported; PE, preeclampsia; RR, risk ratio.

^aCox proportional hazards method.

^bVikse *et al.*: Cumulative incidence of ESRD in exposed and nonexposed women. Incidence of ESRD according to familial factors: exposed women without siblings with PE, 49/ 22,814; exposed women with siblings with PE, 3/3007; exposed women without children with PE, 35/7876; exposed women with children with PE, 4/1101.

^cAfter the second pregnancy (women with \geq 3 pregnancies): PE in first pregnancy only, RR, 3.2 (95% Cl, 2.2–4.9); PE in second pregnancy only, RR, 6.7 (95% Cl, 4.3–10.6); PE in both pregnancies, RR, 6.4 (95% Cl, 3.0–13.5). After third pregnancy (women with \geq 3 pregnancies): PE in first pregnancy only, RR, 14.4 (95% Cl, 9.4–20.5); PE in second pregnancy only, RR, 7.3 (95% Cl, 3.0–18.1); PE in third pregnancy only, RR, 14.3 (95% Cl, 8.2–24.7); PE in \geq 2 pregnancies, RR, 15.5 (95% Cl, 7.8–30.8).

(at least 4 years, instead of at least 6 weeks postpartum).⁴² The clinical and statistical heterogeneity of the studies examined is high, even with our narrower selection criteria; as a consequence, it was not possible to stratify data as for presence and type of maternal disease or characteristics of PE, and this led us to undertake the meta-analysis with a less robust random effects model.^{43–63}

The point of follow-up is crucial: taking the renal functional reserve into account, if PE represents a substantial hit, but one affecting <50% of the kidney parenchyma, it is conceivable that CKD will only become clinically detectable after a long interval. In line with this observation, some articles suggested that the risk of ESRD was graduated according to the entity of the "PE hit" and reported it as higher in women who had >1 PE episode or who had PE versus gestational hypertension.^{53,60} The lack of homogeneous definitions, however, does not allow stratifications as for number of episodes or severity of PE, suggesting to address this important issue in future research.

Probably because of the high heterogeneity of the available evidence, our study leads to an intriguing result: we found a significant association between PE and ESRD (meta-analytic RR, 6.35; 95% CI, 2.73-14.79), the most robust but rare outcome (Figures 2 and 3). We are uncertain whether there is an increased risk of albuminuria after PE: statistical significance is not reached and CIs are wide, indicating lack of precision in the estimate (metaanalytic RR, 4.31; 95% CI, 0.95-19.58). Furthermore, we failed to identify a significant relationship with the intermediate phase of kidney disease, that is, CKD (meta-analytic RR, 2.03; 95% CI, 0.56-7.32) (Figure 3). The reason why only the first (albuminuria) and last (ESRD) phases of CKD are weakly or strongly correlated to previous PE presumably resides in the limitations of the studies. In fact, the definition of ESRD is univocal; furthermore, ESRD registries are usually complete, and although none of the studies were able to control predialysis excess mortality, this is probably more relevant in elderly patients than in a

Kidney	
Internationa	
1 (2019)	
Ţ	
1	

Table 5 | Outcome: risk of CKD and albuminuria, as reported in the articles reviewed

Study	Population	CKD results: eGFR (n	nl/min per 1.73 m²)	Analysis	Albuminuria	results	Analysis
Paauw <i>et al.</i> ⁴³	Women aged 28–75 yr with microalbuminuria who answered on hypertension in pregnancy	Exposed: 88 Not exposed: HR, 1.04; 95% Cl, 0	3.0 ± 16.1 91.0 ± 15.3 .79−1.37; <i>P</i> = 0.8	С	Exposed: 9.0 mg/d (Not exposed: 8.1 mg/c P = NP	6.2–14.2 mg/d) I (6.0–13.7 mg/d) A ^a	С
Lopes van Balen <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁴	Women at a single medical center in the Netherlands	Exposed: 1 Not exposed P = 0	105 \pm 16 d: 98 \pm 14 0.55	С	Exposed: 0.5 g/mmol Not exposed: 0.6 g/mmo P = 0.9	(0.4–1.1 g/mmol) bl (0.3–1.3 g/mmol) 92	С
		Exposed Not exposed	d: 0/79 ed: 0/49 ^b	D	Exposed: Not exposed	6/79 l: 0/49 ^b	D
Bokslag <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁶	Women giving birth during 1998–2005 from obstetrical databases of 2 tertiary centers	Exposed: 9 Not exposed: P = 0	0 (82–90) 90 (82–90) .805	С	Exposed: 4.4 g/mol Not exposed: 3.0 g/mol P = 0.0	(30–7.8 g/mol) bl (3.0–3.9 g/mol) 15	С
Shahbazian <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁷	Primiparous women between 2001 and 2003	Exposed: 1 Not exposed P = 0	l08 ± 14 : 110 ± 17).59	С	Exposed: Not expose P < 0.01 (data fro	7/35 ed: 0/35 m the table)	D
Lampinen <i>et al.</i> ⁶¹	Women who delivered during 1996–1998 with 24-h proteinuria	dU-prot <5 g: Exposed: 108 (70–126)	dU-prot ≥5 g: Exposed: 126 (120–132)	С	dU-prot <5 g Exposed: 5.5 mg/d (4–10 mg/d)	dU-prot ≥5 g: Exposed: 7 mg/d (6–13 mg/d)	С
		Not exposed: 1	26 (120–150) ^c		Not exposed: (4 5–9 m	6 mg/d ng/d) ^c	
McDonald <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁵	Women aged ≥50 yr with dysglycemia who had a prior CVD event with at least 1 delivery and information about PE (ORIGIN trial)	Nonsevere PE: Exposed: Continuous: 74.8 ± 22.2 Dichotomous: 82/359	Severe PE: Exposed: Continuous: 74.1 ± 21.4 Dichotomous: 24/108	C, D	Nonsevere PE: Exposed: Continuous: 5.8 ± 26.5 mg/mmol Dichotomous: 35/359	Severe PE: Exposed: Continuous: 5.6 ± 17.5 mg/mmol Dichotomous: 14/108	C, D
		Not exp	posed:		Not expo	sed:	
		Dichotomous	(4.7 ± 22.2) : 940/3613 ^d		Continuous: 74.7 \pm Dichotomous: 9	22.2 mg/mmoi 940/3613 ^d	
Shammas <i>et al</i> . ⁶³	Women who delivered at King Hussein Medical Center in 1988 with PE or normal pregnancy	Exposed: 7 Not exposed: P =	6 mmol/l ^e 77 mmol/l ^e NA	С	Exposed: 2 Not exposed P < 0.0001 (ca	23/47 d: 3/46 llculated)	D
Ayansina <i>et al.</i> ⁴⁸	Primiparous women born on or before June 30, 1969, with a singleton first delivery before June 30, 2008, beyond 20 wk of gestation identified from AMND	Exposed: Not exposed: OR, 2.02; (95% Cl, 1. HR, 1.70 ; 95% Cl, 1.	61/811 405/10,457 53–2.67; P < 0.001 30–2.23; P < 0.001	D			
Männistö <i>et al.</i> ⁵²	Women of the Northern Finland Birth Cohort 1966 Deliver at >28 gestational weeks, birth weight of >600 g	Exposed Not exposed HR, 0.75; 95% Cl, 0.	: 2/242 d: 73/6552 17–3.38; P > 0.05	D			
Wang <i>et al.</i> ⁵³	Women in the database of Taiwan's health care reimbursement claims in the 1996–2009 period who were 19–40 yr between 1998 and 2009	Exposed: 1 Not exposed: HR, 10.8; 95%	21/26,651 90/213,397 Cl, 8.20–14.2	D			

_	1 : :		:			
c	l I n	ICAI	Inv	esti	n at	l n n
		I C U I		C 5 C 1	guu	

Study	Population	CKD results: eGFR (ml/min per 1.73 m ²)	Analysis	Albuminuria results	Analysis
Paauw et al. ⁴⁷	Women who delivered during	MDRD study equation:	C, D ^f	Continuous:	C, D
	1991–2007 (PREVFEM study)	Exposed: 95 (86–105)		Exposed: 8.5 mg/mmol (6.3–13.0 mg/mmol) ⁹	
		Not exposed: 96 (85–110)		Not exposed: 7.1 mg/mmol (5.5–10.5 mg/mmol) ^g	
		P = 0.33		P < 0.01	
		CKD-EPI equation:		Dichotomous:	
		Exposed: 106 (93–113)		Exposed: 3.68% (12 cases)	
		Not exposed: 105 (94–111)		Not exposed: 3.70% (12 cases)	
		P = 0.40		P > 0.05	
Sandvik <i>et al.</i> ⁵¹	Living women registered in the	Exposed: 27/89	μ	Exposed: 23/89	Ē
	Medical Birth Registry of	Not exposed: 12/69		Not exposed: 17/69	
	Norway, 1998–2000 (first	OR, 2.07; 95% Cl, 0.96–4.46; $P = 0.06$		OR, 1.06; 95% Cl, 0.51–2.19; $P = 0.87$	
	pregnancy)				
AMND, Aberdeen Materni vascular disease; D, dicho Outcome Reduction with	ty and Neonatal Databank; ANOVA, analysis of v tomous; dU-prot, proteins in 24-h urine collectio an Initial Glarcine Intervention: PF. preeclamsia	sriance; C, continuous; Cl, confidence interval; CKD, chronic 1): eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; HR, hazard ra PREVGFM, Preeclamosia Risk EVAluation in FFMales	kidney disease; C tio; MDRD, Modifi	KD-EPI, Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration; cation of Diet in Renal Disease; NA, not available; OR, odds ra	CVD, cardio- itio; ORIGIN,

va: 5

^apaauw et al: As reported in the article, no significant differences in 24-h albuminuria at all visits.

^bLopes van Balen *et al.*: Author's communication.

Lampinen *et al.*: eGFR: P = 0.08 (overall ANOVA); albuminuria: P = 0.3 (overall ANOVA).

⁴McDonald *et al.*: Continuous eGFR: P = 0.9553; dichotomous eGFR: P = 0.3002; continuous albuminuria: P = 0.7396; dichotomous albuminuria: P = 0.2954

²Shammas et al.: Creatinine values.

al: Analysis considers the outcome of hyperfiltration (eGFR >110 ml/min per 1.73 m²); MDRD study equation: OR, 1.59 (95% CI, 1.09–2.33; P = 0.02); CKD-EPI equation: OR, 1.34 (95% CI, 0.97–1.86; P = 0.08) ³Paauw *et al.*: Protein/creatinine ratio values. Paaw et

Sandvik et al.: Analysis considers the outcome of hyperfultration eGFR >75th percentile (114 ml/min per 1.73 m²) and ACR >75th percentile (0.70 mg/mmol)

young female population. Albuminuria is more consistently defined in a dichotomous way, and its appearance usually precedes a reduction in kidney function: follow-up may be too short to evidence this decrease, but long enough to make it possible to discover albuminuria. Within the limitations of the studies, the meta-analysis allowed us to establish the number of patients who need to be followed up to detect an adverse long-term event for each outcome (NNT); the number of women who need to be followed up to detect 1 patient with ESRD is high (310; 95% CI, 120-959). Conversely, if we consider the NNT of 4 in the case of albuminuria, the benefit of organizing regular follow-up is more evident, given the importance of albuminuria as a global marker of cardiovascular health. In both cases, the wide CIs underline that the estimate lacks precision and needs to be refined through further studies. The NNT for ESRD is in line with the figures resulting from screening studies, which are often in the 500 to 2000 range to prevent 1 death over 5 years.⁷⁰⁻⁷² However, at difference with these studies in which the detection of a disease (e.g., colon or breast cancer) is rapidly followed by a medical choice, which usually leads to a medical treatment, in the case of ESRD, the detection occurs over a longer period of time, and ESRD represents the final phase of the disease. The lower NNT identified for albuminuria suggests that there may be a space for maneuver for prevention and early treatment, but the current knowledge does not allow further sound inference on the expected benefits (prevention of ESRD).

The interest in this review resides in the updated analysis of the rapidly accumulating evidence on the role of PE in the development of kidney disease and in the pragmatic evaluation of the organization of further follow-up.

This review has limitations, both because of the methodology chosen and because of the limitations of the literature we were able to retrieve. The review was undertaken with a rapid review of methodology, analyzing the 3 classical databases only-PubMed-MEDLINE, Embase, and Cochrane Library-and focusing on studies with a minimum number of 30 PE cases and a follow-up of at least 4 years, reported in articles published in the new millennium; the hand search was limited to references of review studies, and no search for unpublished data was performed.73-80 These choices were made to limit heterogeneity, which we expected and found to be high, and to focus on studies that were likely to be informative for establishing follow-up policies. Conversely, all steps were performed in duplicate and analysis was undertaken in conformity with the Cochrane Collaboration methodology, choosing a random effects model to avoid enhancing the effects observed.⁸¹

Concerning the limitations of the literature, none of the studies we retrieved was prospective and populations and follow-up were diverse. Further limitations are intrinsic to the study designs: the best population coverage is attained in database linkage studies, whose limitations are those of the original databases; no correction for predialysis mortality was

Table 5 (Continued) Outcome: risk of CKD and albuminuria, as reported in the articles reviewed

B Covella et al.: CKD after preeclampsia: a systematic review



Figure 2 | Forest plot for the outcome end-stage renal disease. Cl, confidence interval.

undertaken. The studies of incidence and prevalence of proteinuria and kidney function reduction are more heterogeneous, and the recruitment of the cases for the cross-sectional study is incomplete. Furthermore, evidence comes mainly from Europe (14 of 21 articles) and, although different parts of the world are represented, none of the studies retrieved comes from a low-income country, where the incidence of CKD is significantly higher and where PE is probably more frequent and more dangerous.

A further limitation, on which we suggest focusing future research, is the lack of uniform information and definition of maternal diseases and of the severity and timing of PE. The heterogeneity of the study designs and outcomes chosen reduced the possibility of performing meta-analyses, and the differences in outcomes are largely unexplained (even after stratification by follow-up times).

These limitations show the need for undertaking prospective cohort studies, which probably represent the only way to define kidney-related risks and to distinguish between the effects of the different facets of PE: revealer of the underlying kidney disease or a hit in the context of a multiplehit pathogenesis. In this regard, follow-up after PE could be a powerful measure to prevent cardiovascular and kidney disease in the long-term.

METHODS

We followed the Meta-analysis Of Observational Studies in Epidemiology consensus statement for reporting meta-analysis of observational studies (Supplementary Item S1).⁸²

We chose the methodology of a rapid review (more focused, essentially exploring the published articles, and limited to 3 main databases with arbitrary but clinically sound limits for the period of the study [2000–2018], number of cases of PE [at least 30], and length of follow-up [at least 4 years]).^{73–80} We empirically chose the cut point of at least 4 years, considering that this could allow

detection of CKD (defined as GFR <60 ml/min per 1.73 m²) in the presence of rapid progression of CKD, defined as loss of \geq 10 ml/min per 1.73 m² of GFR per year (from normal GFR, defined as \geq 90 ml/min per 1.73 m²); furthermore, we considered that the onset of albuminuria was probably antedating the onset of kidney function impairment, and we wanted to leave broad criteria to capture events occurring in the early CKD phases.

No selection for the presence of baseline diseases was made.

Our aim was to obtain timely pragmatic responses to the question of whether the evidence of a negative effect of PE on kidney health is strong enough to lead us to change our clinical practice by organizing structured follow-up programs after a PE episode.

All steps of data selection and extraction were performed in duplicate by a team of 2 nephrologists (GBP and BC), one with a master's degree in systematic reviews. Database search, data selection, and data extraction quality assessment were performed in duplicate by following the classical indications of the *Cochrane Handbook* versions 5.1 and 5.3.^{83,84} Quality assessment is described in that specific paragraph. Controversies were solved through discussion (EV and GC).

The review was prospectively registered in the PROSPERO database (registration no.: CRD42016043386, dated July 22, 2016).

Eligibility criteria and PICOS criteria

The eligibility criteria and PICOS criteria are as follows:

P (patients): women who had ≥ 1 episodes of PE during ≥ 1 pregnancy

I (intervention - exposure): exposure to PE

C (controls): women who had at least 1 uncomplicated pregnancy in the same setting and period of time

O (outcomes): long-term (at least 4 years of follow-up) development of CKD (reduction of kidney function and proteinuria), renal-related hospitalization, ESRD, or other relevant kidney health– related outcomes

S (studies): observational studies with a control population available, displaying at least 30 cases of PE, with a mean follow-up of at least 4 years, published between 2000 and 2018. No selection for language or quality was performed (see below).



Figure 3 | Forest plot for the outcome albuminuria. Cl, confidence interval.

clinical investigation



Figure 4 | Forest plot for the outcome chronic kidney disease (dichotomized at estimated glomerular filtration rate of 60 ml/min per 1.73 m²). Cl, confidence interval.

Search strategy for the identification of studies

The following databases were searched in duplicate by GBP and BC: MEDLINE, Embase, and Cochrane databases of systematic reviews.

The following terms were used: preeclampsia OR gestosis OR eclampsia OR "hypertensive disorder of pregnancy" OR "hypertensive disorders of pregnancy induced hypertension" OR "pregnancy induced hypertensive disorder" OR "pregnancy induced hypertensive disorders" OR PIH OR HELLP; they were combined with CKD OR "chronic kidney disease" OR dialysis OR hemodialysis OR ESRD OR "end stage kidney disease" OR "end stage renal disease" OR proteinuria OR renal outcome OR renal disease OR kidney disease OR albuminuria OR microalbuminuria.

The period of the search was January 1, 2000, to May 31, 2018.

No language limitation was applied, as the authors as a group understand several European languages, and if needed, they can obtain help for other languages (this did not occur in this review). We reviewed in duplicate reference lists of all studies retrieved in full text; in keeping with rapid review methods, we limited the search of abstracts to those published in the selected databases; in cases where missing or incomplete data would have interfered with metaanalysis, all authors were contacted by BC via e-mail (twice in the case of no response).

Duplicate publications

In the case of duplicate or partially duplicate publications (i.e., in the same databases in the case of linkage analysis), we followed the following criteria: for duplicate series, all articles have been included if they deal with different outcomes; in the case of >1 article from the same source and on the same outcome, only 1 is included in each meta-analysis; in these cases, either the full article (in the case of abstract and full article) or the most recent article has been chosen.

For partially duplicate publications (same databases, overlapping but nonidentical selections), the largest cohort and, in the case of similar numbers, the most recent one was selected for meta-analysis; all are included in the descriptive analysis and different outcomes are analyzed as previously described.

Data collection and analysis

We extracted the following information from each study (BC and GBP): population (characteristics of the population, including age, parity, ethnicity, presence or absence of predisposing diseases, such as diabetes or hypertension; inclusion or exclusion of twin pregnancies; and all other relevant information as reported in the articles); number of cases and number of controls; type of study design; aims (as reported in the article); country(ies) where study was performed; period of pregnancy; period of study; follow-up after pregnancy (as reported in the article); type of exposure (PE, hypertensive disorders of pregnancy, and their definitions, whenever available); type of outcomes (definition of all outcomes, including laboratory assessment, if available); type of data analysis; and health outcomes (however defined in the articles; the definitions were also extracted): ESRD, CKD, albuminuria, proteinuria, hospitalization for kidney-related causes, and other relevant outcomes related to CKD (as reported in the articles).

Quality assessment

Quality of the evidence was assessed by EV and GBP according to the GRADE scale⁸⁵; however, because observational studies are uniformly rated as of low quality by the GRADE scale, the single studies were also was scored by BC and EV according to the National Institutes of Health criteria.⁸⁶ This latter choice was based on simplicity, reproducibility, and the possibility of giving an overall, individually weighted quality score for each qualitative characteristic of the studies.

Selection on the basis of quality of the study was not performed; however, all the studies are of fair or good quality according to the National Institutes of Health criteria.

Assessment of reporting biases and of heterogeneity

We assessed publication bias through the funnel plot method for each outcome measure.⁸⁷ Significance was tested as recommended by Higgins and Green.⁸³

We performed a test of heterogeneity when ≥ 2 studies were included in the meta-analysis. We assessed statistically significant heterogeneity between primary outcome studies using the chi-square test and I² statistic. We considered a significant χ^2 (P < 0.01) and an I² value of at least 50% as statistical heterogeneity. We identified studies that most heavily influenced heterogeneity and performed a sensitivity analysis by omitting them.

Subgroup analyses

We planned to perform subgroup analyses using the following factors: duration of follow-up, considering the hypothesis that only the longest follow-up would make it possible to detect robust outcomes, such as ESRD; severity, timing of PE, and presence of baseline maternal diseases (superimposed, severe, and early PE could be associated with worse health outcomes); age at pregnancy (older women have a higher risk of both PE and CKD or ESRD); and setting for the analysis. However, either the number of studies making these analyses was too low or data were reported in a highly heterogeneous way, not allowing any sound stratification (as in the case of severity, timing of PE, and presence of maternal diseases).

B Covella et al.: CKD after preeclampsia: a systematic review

Within these limitations, we attempted stratification as for setting of care (Europe vs. other countries) and duration of follow-up (dichotomized at 10 years), acknowledging the clinical importance of these issues.

Data synthesis

When possible, we combined the outcome measures from the individual studies through meta-analysis; we planned to use a fixed effects model in the case of low heterogeneity and a random effects model in the case of high heterogeneity.

The random effects method incorporates the assumption that different studies estimate different yet related intervention effects.⁸⁸ The method is based on the inverse variance approach, making an adjustment to the study weights according to the extent of variation, or heterogeneity, between the varying intervention effects.

For meta-analysis we used Review Manager (RevMan 5.3).⁸⁴ The forest plot was used to synthesize results. Studies partially or completely answering our PICOS criteria were included in the analysis by using homogeneous measures of effect.

Sensitivity analyses were performed using different effect size measures (e.g., odds ratios and standardized mean differences).

Measures of health effect

For dichotomous outcomes we calculated RRs and 95% CIs.

For continuous outcomes we calculated mean difference between groups and 95% CIs to summarize results across studies.

On the basis of meta-analytic RRs, we estimated the frequency of an event in the PE group and consequently the number of patients with PE who need follow-up to identify an adverse health outcome (corresponding to NNT) and 95% CIs by using the formulas for NNT.⁸⁹

We performed scenario analysis, testing 2 hypotheses of CKD, one based on the dichotomous data analyzed in the meta-analysis and the other based on the hypothesis that the relationship between cases of ESRD and cases of CKD stages 3–5 not on dialysis was the same as reported in the overall population, with a rounded prevalence of ESRD of 0.1% versus 5% in patients with CKD stages 3–5 not on dialysis.⁶⁹ In the case of nonsignificant results, 95% CIs were omitted in accordance with Altman.⁸⁹

DISCLOSURE

All the authors declared no competing interests.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Susan Finnel for her careful language review.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Figure S1. Funnel plot of comparison: exposed versus not exposed to preeclampsia for the outcome CKD (eGFR < 60 ml/min per 1.73 m²). **Figure S2.** Funnel plot of comparison: exposed versus not exposed to PE for the outcome CKD (continuous eGFR).

Figure S3. Funnel plot of comparison: exposed versus not exposed to PE for the outcome ESRD.

Figure S4. Funnel plot of comparison: exposed versus not exposed to PE for the outcome albuminuria (dichotomous).

Figure S5. Funnel plot of comparison: exposed versus not exposed to PE for the outcome hospitalization.

Figure S6. Forest plot: exposed versus not exposed to PE for the outcome hospitalization.

Figure S7. Forest plot: exposed vs not exposed to PE for the outcome e-GFR (continuous eGFR).

Figure S8. (**A**) Forest plot: exposed vs not exposed to PE stratified for duration of follow-up: ESRD. (**B**) Forest plot: exposed vs not exposed to PE stratified for duration of follow-up: albuminuria. (**C**) Forest plot: exposed vs not exposed to PE stratified for duration of follow-up: CKD (eGFR <60 ml/min per 1.73 m²).

Figure S9. (**A**) Forest plot: exposed vs not exposed to PE stratified for setting of follow-up: ESRD. (**B**) Forest plot: exposed vs not exposed to PE stratified for setting of follow-up: albuminuria. (**C**)Forest plot:

exposed vs not exposed to PE stratified for setting of follow-up: CKD (eGFR $<\!60$ ml/min per 1.73 m²).

Table S1. Other outcomes, including hospitalization, as reported in the articles.

Table S2. Hospitalization codes considered for analysis.

Table S3A. Inclusion, exclusion criteria, and ratio between "at-risk" and examined cases.

Table S3B. Inclusion, exclusion criteria, and selected cases: retrospective and cross-sectional studies.

Table S3C. Inclusion, exclusion criteria, and selected cases: other study designs.

Table S4. Summary table and quality assessment according to the GRADE evaluation tool.

Table S5. Quality assessment according to the National Institutes of Health evaluation tool.

Supplementary material is linked to the online version of the paper at www.kidney-international.org.

REFERENCES

- Phipps E, Prasanna D, Brima W, Jim B. Preeclampsia: updates in pathogenesis, definitions, and guidelines. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2016;11: 1102–1113.
- Steegers EA, von Dadelszen P, Duvekot JJ, Pijnenborg P. Pre-eclampsia. Lancet. 2010;376:631–644.
- Mol BWJ, Roberts CT, Thangaratinam S, et al. Pre-eclampsia. Lancet. 2016;387:999–1011.
- Umans JG. Obstetric nephrology: preeclampsia—the nephrologist's perspective. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2012;7:2107–2113.
- Dekker GA. Management of preeclampsia. Pregnancy Hypertens. 2014;4: 246–247.
- Roberts JM, Mascalzoni D, Ness RB, Poston L, Global Pregnancy Collaboration. Collaboration to understand complex diseases: preeclampsia and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Hypertension*. 2016;67: 681–687.
- 7. Fisher SJ. Why is placentation abnormal in preeclampsia? *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2015;213:S115–S122.
- Redman C. Pre-eclampsia: a complex and variable disease. Pregnancy Hypertens. 2014;4:241–242.
- Redman CW, Sargent IL, Staff AC. IFPA Senior Award Lecture: making sense of pre-eclampsia—two placental causes of preeclampsia? *Placenta*. 2014;35:S20–S25.
- The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists Guidelines and resources: Preeclampsia. Available at: https://www.acog.org/Search? Keyword=preeclampsia&Categories=ec903560-57a6-46ca-ae6b-62a8 0a257e8d. Accessed June 15, 2019.
- 11. Redman C. The six stages of pre-eclampsia. *Pregnancy Hypertens*. 2014;4: 246.
- 12. Myatt L, Roberts JM. Preeclampsia: syndrome or disease? *Curr Hypertens Rep.* 2015;17:83.
- **13.** Koual M, Abbou H, Carbonnel M, et al. Short-term outcome of patients with preeclampsia. *Vasc Health Risk Manag.* 2013;9:143–148.
- Berks D, Steegers EA, Molas M, Visser W. Resolution of hypertension and proteinuria after preeclampsia. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2009;114:1307– 1314.
- Ferrazzani S, De Carolis S, Pomini F, et al. The duration of hypertension in the puerperium of preeclamptic women: relationship with renal impairment and week of delivery. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1994;171:506–512.
- Remuzzi G, Ruggenenti P. Prevention and treatment of pregnancyassociated hypertension: what have we learned in the last 10 years? *Am J Kidney Dis.* 1991;18:285–305.
- 17. Leeman L, Fontaine P. Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. *Am Fam Physician*. 2008;78:93–100.

clinical investigation

- Henry CS, Biedermann SA, Campbell MF, Guntupalli JS. Spectrum of hypertensive emergencies in pregnancy. *Crit Care Clin.* 2004;20:697–712. ix.
- **19.** Tranquilli AL, Brown MA, Zeeman GG, et al. The definition of severe and early-onset preeclampsia: statements from the International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy (ISSHP). *Pregnancy Hypertens*. 2013;3:44–47.
- **20.** Tranquilli AL. Introduction to ISSHP new classification of preeclampsia. *Pregnancy Hypertens*. 2013;3:58–59.
- **21.** Folk DM. Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy: overview and current recommendations. *J Midwifery Womens Health*. 2018;63:289–300.
- 22. Sutton ALM, Harper LM, Tita ATN. Hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol Clin North Am.* 2018;45:333–347.
- 23. Webster LM, Gill C, Seed PT, et al. Chronic hypertension in pregnancy: the impact of ethnicity and superimposed preeclampsia on placental, endothelial and renal biomarkers. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol*. 2018;315:R36–R47.
- 24. Tan MY, Syngelaki A, Poon LC, et al. Screening for pre-eclampsia by maternal factors and biomarkers at 11-13 weeks' gestation. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* 2018;52:186–195.
- 25. Panaitescu A, Ciobanu A, Syngelaki A, et al. Screening for pre-eclampsia at 35-37 weeks' gestation. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2018;52: 501–506.
- Powell KL, Carrozzi A, Stephens AS, et al. Utility of metabolic profiling of serum in the diagnosis of pregnancy complications. *Placenta*. 2018;66: 65–73.
- 27. Nair TM. Statistical and artificial neural network-based analysis to understand complexity and heterogeneity in preeclampsia. *Comput Biol Chem.* 2018;75:222–230.
- Jelliffe-Pawlowski LL, Rand L, Bedell B, et al. Prediction of preterm birth with and without preeclampsia using mid-pregnancy immune and growth-related molecular factors and maternal characteristics. *J Perinatol.* 2018;38:963–972.
- 29. Abdi F, Aghaie Z, Rahnemaie FS, Alimoradi Z. A systematic review of first trimester biochemical and molecular predictive tests for preeclampsia. *Curr Hypertens Rev.* 2018;14:21–28.
- **30.** Zeisler H, Llurba E, Chantraine F, et al. Predictive value of the sFlt-1:PIGF ratio in women with suspected preeclampsia. *N Engl J Med.* 2016;374: 13–22.
- **31.** Cunningham MW Jr, LaMarca B. Risk of cardiovascular disease, end-stage renal disease, and stroke in postpartum women and their fetuses after a hypertensive pregnancy. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol.* 2018;315:R521–R528.
- **32.** Scantlebury DC, Kattah AG, Weissgerber TL, et al. Impact of a history of hypertension in pregnancy on later diagnosis of atrial fibrillation. *J Am Heart Assoc.* 2018;7(10).
- **33.** Perry H, Khalil A, Thilaganathan B. Preeclampsia and the cardiovascular system: an update. *Trends Cardiovasc Med.* 2018;28:505–513.
- 34. Pauli JM, Repke JT. Preeclampsia: short-term and long-term implications. *Obstet Gynecol Clin North Am.* 2015;42:299–313.
- **35.** Rangaswami J, Naranjo M, McCullough PA. Preeclampsia as a form of type 5 cardiorenal syndrome: an underrecognized entity in women's cardiovascular health. *Cardiorenal Med.* 2018;8:160–172.
- **36.** Piccoli GB, Alrukhaimi M, Liu ZH, et al. World Kidney Day Steering Committee. Women and kidney disease: reflections on World Kidney Day 2018. *Kidney Int*. 2018;93:278–283.
- **37.** Brown MC, Best KE, Pearce MS, et al. Cardiovascular disease risk in women with pre-eclampsia: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2013;28:1–19.
- Bellamy L, Casas JP, Hingorani AD, Williams DJ. Pre-eclampsia and risk of cardiovascular disease and cancer in later life: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2007;335:974.
- McDonald SD, Malinowski A, Zhou Q, et al. Cardiovascular sequelae of preeclampsia/eclampsia: a systematic review and meta-analyses. *Am Heart J.* 2008;156:918–930.
- Ahmed R, Dunford J, Mehran R, et al. Pre-eclampsia and future cardiovascular risk among women: a review. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2014;63: 1815–1822.
- **41.** Wu P, Haththotuwa R, Kwok CS, et al. Preeclampsia and future cardiovascular health: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Circ Cardiovasc Qual Outcomes*. 2017;10(2).
- McDonald SD, Han Z, Walsh MW, et al. Kidney disease after preeclampsia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2010;55:1026– 1039.

- **43.** Paauw ND, van der Graaf AM, Bozoglan R, et al. Kidney function after a hypertensive disorder of pregnancy: a longitudinal study. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2017;71:619–626.
- **44.** Lopes van Balen VA, Spaan JJ, Cornelis T, et al. Endothelial and kidney function in women with a history of preeclampsia and healthy parous controls: a case control study. *Microvasc Res.* 2017;116:71–76.
- Tooher J, Thornton C, Makris A, et al. All hypertensive disorders of pregnancy increase the risk of future cardiovascular disease. *Hypertension*. 2017;70:798–803.
- **46.** Bokslag A, Teunissen PW, Franssen C, et al. Effect of early-onset preeclampsia on cardiovascular risk in the fifth decade of life. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2017;216:523.e1–523.e7.
- **47.** Paauw ND, Joles JA, Drost JT, et al. High-normal estimated glomerular filtration rate in early-onset preeclamptic women 10 years postpartum. *Hypertension*. 2016;68:1407–1414.
- **48.** Ayansina D, Black C, Hall SJ, et al. Long term effects of gestational hypertension and pre-eclampsia on kidney function: record linkage study. *Pregnancy Hypertens*. 2016;6:344–349.
- **49.** Kessous R, Shoham-Vardi I, Pariente G, et al. Long-term maternal atherosclerotic morbidity in women with pre-eclampsia. *Heart*. 2015;101: 442–446.
- Wu CC, Chen SH, Ho CH, et al. End-stage renal disease after hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2014;210: 147.e1–147.e8.
- Sandvik MK, Hallan S, Svarstad E, Vikse BE. Preeclampsia and prevalence of microalbuminuria 10 years later. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2013;8: 1126–1134.
- 52. Männistö T, Mendola P, Vääräsmäki M, et al. Elevated blood pressure in pregnancy and subsequent chronic disease risk. *Circulation*. 2013;127: 681–690.
- Wang IK, Muo CH, Chang YC, et al. Association between hypertensive disorders during pregnancy and end-stage renal disease: a populationbased study. CMAJ. 2013;185:207–213.
- Vikse BE, Irgens LM, Karumanchi SA, et al. Familial factors in the association between preeclampsia and later ESRD. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2012;7:1819–1826.
- 55. McDonald SD, Yusuf S, Walsh MW, et al. Increased cardiovascular risk after pre-eclampsia in women with dysglycaemia. *Diabet Med.* 2012;30: e1–e7.
- Bhattacharya S, Prescott GJ, Iversen L, et al. Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and future health and mortality: a record linkage study. *Pregnancy Hypertens*. 2011;2:1–7.
- Shahbazian N, Shahbazian H, Ehsanpour A, et al. Hypertension and microalbuminuria 5 years after pregnancies complicated by preeclampsia. *Iran J Kidney Dis.* 2011;5:324–327.
- Vikse BE, Hallan S, Bostad L, et al. Previous preeclampsia and risk for progression of biopsy-verified kidney disease to end-stage renal disease. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2010;25:3289–3296.
- Sandvik MK, Iversen BM, Irgens LM, et al. Are adverse pregnancy outcomes risk factors for development of end-stage renal disease in women with diabetes? *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2010;25: 3600–3607.
- Vikse BE, Irgens LM, Leivestad T, et al. Preeclampsia and the risk of endstage renal disease. N Engl J Med. 2008;359:800–809.
- Lampinen KH, Rönnback M, Groop PH, Kaaja RJ. Renal and vascular function in women with previous preeclampsia: a comparison of lowand high-degree proteinuria. *Kidney Int*. 2006;70:1818–1822.
- **62.** Vikse BE, Irgens LM, Bostad L, Iversen BM. Adverse perinatal outcome and later kidney biopsy in the mother. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2006;17: 837–845.
- **63.** Shammas AG, Maayah JF. Hypertension and its relation to renal function 10 years after pregnancy complicated by pre-eclampsia and pregnancy induced hypertension. *Saudi Med J.* 2000;21:190–192.
- **64.** Davey DA, MacGillivray I. The classification and definition of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1988;158: 892–898.
- **65.** Espinoza J. The need to redefine preeclampsia. *Expert Opin Med Diagn*. 2012;6:347–357.
- **66.** Malshe AK, Sibai BM. Angiogenic and antiangiogenic markers for prediction and risk classification of preeclampsia. *Clin Obstet Gynecol.* 2017;60:134–140.
- **67.** Brown MA, Lindheimer MD, de Swiet M, et al. The classification and diagnosis of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy: statement from

B Covella et al.: CKD after preeclampsia: a systematic review

the International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy (ISSHP). *Hypertens Pregnancy*. 2001;20:IX–XIV.

- Brown MA, Magee LA, Kenny LC, et al. International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy (ISSHP). Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy: ISSHP classification, diagnosis, and management recommendations for international practice. *Hypertension*. 2018;72:24–43.
- 69. Levey AS, Coresh J. Chronic kidney disease. Lancet. 2012;379:165–180.
- **70.** Rembold CM. Number needed to screen: development of a statistic for disease screening. *BMJ*. 1998;317:307–312.
- 71. Fitzpatrick-Lewis D, Ali MU, Warren R, et al. Screening for colorectal cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Colorectal Cancer*. 2016;15:298–313.
- 72. Pinsky PF. Principles of cancer screening. *Surg Clin North Am.* 2015;95: 953–966.
- 73. Tricco AC, Antony J, Zarin W, et al. A scoping review of rapid review methods. *BMC Med.* 2015;13:224.
- 74. Polisena J, Garritty C, Umscheid CA, et al. Rapid Review Summit: an overview and initiation of a research agenda. *Syst Rev.* 2015;4:111.
- **75.** Hartling L, Guise JM, Kato E, et al. A taxonomy of rapid reviews links report types and methods to specific decision-making contexts. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 2015;68:1451–1462.e3.
- 76. Khangura S, Polisena J, Clifford TJ, et al. Rapid review: an emerging approach to evidence synthesis in health technology assessment. Int J Technol Assess Health Care. 2014;30:20–27.
- 77. Schünemann HJ, Moja L. Reviews: Rapid! Rapid! Rapid! ...and systematic. Syst Rev. 2015;4:4.
- Moher D, Stewart L, Shekelle P. All in the family: systematic reviews, rapid reviews, scoping reviews, realist reviews, and more. *Syst Rev.* 2015;4:183.

- 79. Kaltenthaler E, Cooper K, Pandor A, et al. The use of rapid review methods in health technology assessments: 3 case studies. *BMC Med Res Methodol.* 2016;16:108.
- Plüddemann A, Aronson JK, Onakpoya I, et al. Redefining rapid reviews: a flexible framework for restricted systematic reviews. *BMJ Evid Based Med*. 2018;23:201–203.
- Cochrane Community. Available at: https://community.cochrane.org. Accessed June 15, 2019.
- Stroup DF, Berlin JA, Morton SC, et al. Meta-analysis Of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (MOOSE) Group. Meta-analysis Of Observational Studies in Epidemiology: a proposal for reporting. *JAMA*. 2000;283: 2008–2012.
- Higgins JPT, Green S, eds. Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions Version 5.1.0 [updated March 2011]. The Cochrane Collaboration, 2011. Available at: www.cochrane-handbook.org. Accessed June 15, 2019.
- Review Manager (RevMan) [computer program]. Version 5.3. Copenhagen, Denmark: The Nordic Cochrane Centre, The Cochrane Collaboration; 2014.
- 85. Cochrane Community. GRADE approach. Available at: https://training. cochrane.org/grade-approach. Accessed June 15, 2019.
- National Institutes of Health. National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. Study quality assessment tools. Available at: https://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/ health-topics/study-quality-assessment-tools. Accessed June 15, 2019.
- 87. Sterne JAC, Egger M, Davey Smith G. Investigating and dealing with publication and other biases in meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2001;323:101–105.
- DerSimonian R, Laird N. Meta-analysis in clinical trials. Control Clin Trials. 1986;7:177–188.
- 89. Altman DG. Confidence intervals for the number needed to treat. *BMJ*. 1998;317:1309–1312.