

## RVC OPEN ACCESS REPOSITORY – COPYRIGHT NOTICE

This author's accepted manuscript may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with [Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving](#).

The full details of the published version of the article are as follows:

TITLE: Systemic hypertension in cats with acute kidney injury

AUTHORS: Cole, L., Jepson, R. and Humm, K.

JOURNAL: Journal of Small Animal Practice

PUBLISHER: Wiley

PUBLICATION DATE: 5 September 2017 (online)

DOI: [10.1111/jsap.12726](https://doi.org/10.1111/jsap.12726)

1 Abstract

2 Objective: To describe the prevalence of systemic hypertension in cats with community acquired acute  
3 kidney injury (AKI) and investigate its relationship with disease severity.

4 Methods: Retrospective study of cats presenting to the Queen Mother Hospital for Animals, Royal  
5 Veterinary College with AKI between 2007 and 2015. Systolic blood pressure (SBP) was measured  
6 using Doppler sphygmomanometry and systemic hypertension was defined as a SBP  $\geq$ 150mmHg.  
7 Median SBP measurement (on admission and during hospitalisation), IRIS (International Renal Interest  
8 Society) grade of AKI, serum creatinine on admission, the presence of anuria or oliguria, length of  
9 hospitalisation, survival to discharge and 6-month survival were all recorded.

10 Results: Forty-six cats were eligible for inclusion. The prevalence of systemic hypertension on  
11 admission was 48.8% (21/43) and this was severe ( $\geq$ 180mmHg) in 18.6% (8/43) of cases. During the  
12 whole hospitalisation period, systemic hypertension was detected in 27/46 (58.7%) cases and severe in  
13 28.2% (13/46) cases. Systemic hypertension did not appear to be statistically associated with grade of  
14 kidney injury, serum creatinine on presentation, oliguria or anuria.

15 Clinical significance: Systemic hypertension is common in cats with acute kidney injury but does not  
16 appear to be associated with its severity.

17 Keywords: Feline, hypertension, kidney, survival, IRIS

18 **Journal of Small Animal Practice**

19

21 Introduction

22 Acute kidney injury (AKI) is defined as an acute and abrupt decrease in kidney function resulting in  
23 abnormal glomerular filtration rate, tubular function and urine production (Hoste & Kellum 2007). AKI  
24 can be graded to encompass a continuum of functional and parenchymal damage from its least severe  
25 **Grade I, a progressive increase in serum creatinine or documented oliguria over a six-hour period**, to its  
26 most severe manifestation Grade V, in which renal replacement therapy may be indicated (IRIS 2013).  
27 Progressive increases in serum creatinine have been shown to be predictive of mortality in man, dogs  
28 and cats (Harison et al. 2012, Hoste et al. 2006, Uchino et al. 2010). For those patients that survive  
29 AKI, reversibility of kidney injury is variable and many patients ultimately develop chronic kidney  
30 disease (CKD; Basile 2001, Chertow et al. 2006).

31 Systemic hypertension (SH) is a potentially serious complication of AKI in dogs and cats (Acierno &  
32 Labato 2005, Monaghan et al. 2012). The International Renal Interest Society (2015) defines systolic  
33 blood pressure (SBP) in the following categories; patients with a SBP <150 mmHg are considered  
34 normotensive, SBP of 150 to 159 mmHg are considered borderline hypertensive with a low risk of  
35 target organ damage (TOD), patients with SBP  $\geq$ 160 to 179 mmHg are considered hypertensive with  
36 moderate risk of TOD and patients with SBP  $\geq$ 180 mmHg have severe hypertension with high risk of  
37 TOD (IRIS 2015). The most common pathological changes reported in hypertensive cats are  
38 hypertensive choroidopathy, which can result in blindness, and hypertensive cardiac hypertrophy,  
39 which can result in a cardiac murmur or gallop rhythm (Maggio et al. 2000, Chetboul et al. 2003). A  
40 less common but severe complication of SH is hypertensive encephalopathy resulting in obtundation  
41 and seizures (Chetboul et al. 2003, Kletzmayer et al. 2003). The kidney itself has been reported to be a  
42 target organ for hypertensive injury and hypertension has been associated with progression of kidney  
43 disease in humans and dogs (Klag et al. 1996, Jacob et al. 2003, Ravera et al. 2006).

44 SH has been documented in cats that have CKD (Syme et al. 2002) and has been described in dogs  
45 with AKI (Geigy et al. 2011). However, the prevalence of SH in feline AKI patients is currently  
46 unknown. The aims of this retrospective study were to describe the prevalence of SH in cats with AKI  
47 and to describe its relationship with disease severity and outcome.

49 **Materials and Methods**

50 The study was approved by Royal Veterinary College Clinical Research and Ethical Review Board.  
51 The study population comprised of client-owned cats diagnosed with community-acquired azotaemic  
52 AKI referred to the Queen Mother Hospital for Animals, Royal Veterinary College between 2007 and  
53 2015. These patients were identified through a search of the hospital's computerised clinical record  
54 system. Patients were eligible for inclusion if they fulfilled the International Renal Interest Society  
55 (IRIS) guidelines for diagnosis of Grade II AKI and above, i.e. an initial serum creatinine level  
56  $\geq 141 \mu\text{mol/L}$  and one or more of the following criteria: evidence of renal tubular injury on urinalysis  
57 (renal glucosuria, proteinuria with an inactive sediment, or renal casts), diagnostic imaging findings  
58 suggestive of AKI, or persistent urine output of less than 1 mL/kg/hour) (IRIS 2013).

59 The files of eligible patients were reviewed and the signalment, cause of AKI, medical history  
60 (including prior medications), physical examination findings (including fundic examination), SBP  
61 measurements, patient-side electrolyte, metabolite and blood gas analysis, complete blood count,  
62 biochemistry, abdominal ultrasound, urinalysis, urine output measurements, length of hospitalisation  
63 and survival to discharge were recorded when available. The use of anti-hypertensive therapy was also  
64 documented. SBP was measured indirectly using Doppler sphygmomanometry. The standard hospital  
65 protocol for SBP measurements, adapted from the American College of Veterinary Internal Medicine  
66 guidelines (Brown et al. 2007), is to record the mean of three to five consecutive readings.

67 SH was defined as a SBP  $\geq 150$  mmHg including cats identified as borderline hypertensive (SBP 150 to  
68 159 mmHg), hypertensive (160 to 179 mmHg) and severely hypertensive ( $\geq 180$  mmHg) according to  
69 the IRIS guidelines (IRIS 2015). Patients were included if there were two or more SBP measurements  
70 within the clinical records during the period of hospitalisation. When there was more than one SBP  
71 evaluation in the clinical record on a single day of hospitalisation, a median SBP measurement for that  
72 day of hospitalisation was used for analysis. The AKI grade was determined for each patient on  
73 admission. Patients were grouped as being oliguric or anuric based on whether furosemide was  
74 administered or they underwent continuous renal replacement therapy. Patient records were analysed

76 and follow-up phone calls to primary care practices were performed to identify whether those patients  
77 that survived to discharge were still alive at six months.

78 Patients were excluded if they had any history, clinicopathological data or diagnostic imaging findings  
79 suggestive of CKD including a longer history of polyuria or polydipsia, poor body condition, non-  
80 regenerative anaemia or imaging evidence compatible with chronic nephropathy (small irregular  
81 kidneys and loss of corticomedullary definition). Patients were also excluded if they had concurrent  
82 diseases that could be associated with SH (including hyperthyroidism and hyperaldosteronism) or if  
83 they had a history of pretreatment with antihypertensive drugs such as angiotensin-converting enzyme  
84 inhibitors, beta-blockers or calcium channel blockers.

#### 85 Statistical analysis

86 Data were assessed for normality using a Shapiro–Wilk W test and visual inspection of histograms.  
87 Normally distributed data were expressed as mean and standard deviation and non-normally distributed  
88 data expressed as median and ranges. Statistical analysis was performed using an online statistical  
89 calculator (<http://www.socscistatistics.com/>). Fisher's exact test was used to compare categorical data,  
90 one-way analysis of variance for ordinal data and Pearson's correlation coefficient to assess for any  
91 correlation between SBP and serum creatinine. The level of statistical significance was set at  $P < 0.05$ .

#### 92 Results

93 One hundred and twenty cats were presented with AKI during the investigation period. Of these, 74  
94 were excluded: 44 had incomplete data, 29 had evidence of CKD and 1 had a previous diagnosis of  
95 hyperthyroidism. Forty-six cats were eligible for inclusion in the study, of which 44 had multiple blood  
96 pressure measurements on a single day and required calculation of a median blood pressure. Of these  
97 46 cats, 13 were pedigree breeds, 27 domestic short hairs and 5 domestic long hairs and for in one the  
98 breed was not identified. Twenty-four were female neutered, 21 were male neutered and 1 cat was male  
99 entire. Ages ranged from 5 months to 13 years with a median of two years. All cats had received fluid  
100 therapy before presentation. Aetiology of AKI was determined in 38 cases: non-steroidal anti-  
101 inflammatory drugs (12/46), ureteroliths (9/46), trauma (6/46), ethylene glycol (5/46), pyelonephritis

103 (3/46), lily ingestion (2/46) and neoplasia (1/46). In 8 of 46 cases the cause was unknown. Of the cases  
104 with ureterolithiasis, all were considered to have bilateral ureteral obstruction on review of  
105 ultrasonographic imaging. None of the cats reported to have ureteral obstruction in this study had  
106 clinical, historical or ultrasound findings specifically supporting chronic disease before the episode of  
107 AKI.

108 Of the 46 cats, 43 had SBP measurements on the first day of hospitalisation. The prevalence of SH  
109 (SBP  $\geq$ 150 mmHg) on day 1 of hospitalisation was 21 (48.8%) and in 8 (18.6%) cases this was severe  
110 ( $\geq$ 180 mmHg). Four cats normotensive on admission developed hypertension in hospital and did so  
111 within the first 48 hours. Out of the three cats that did not have a blood pressure measurement on the  
112 first day, two were reported to be hypertensive on their first measurement. The prevalence of SH over  
113 the whole hospitalisation period was 58.7% (n=27), which was classified as severe in 28.2% (n=13) of  
114 cases. The mean SBP of cats on day 1 was 146.6  $\pm$ 28.25 mmHg and the mean SBP over the whole  
115 hospitalisation period, excluding cats that had been started on antihypertensive therapy), was 145.25  
116  $\pm$ 29.11 mmHg.

117 Three cats were started on amlodipine besylate at a dose of 0.625 mg once daily. Two cats with an  
118 initial SBP over 180 mmHg were started on amlodipine on day 1 and one cat was started on amlodipine  
119 on day 2 of hospitalisation because of evidence of hypertensive retinopathy accompanying a SBP of  
120 160 mmHg. Of these three patients one was euthanased, one became borderline hypertensive and the  
121 other remained persistently hypertensive at follow-up.

122 The mean SBP of cats on day 1 was 146.6mmHg $\pm$ 28.25 and the mean SBP over the whole  
123 hospitalisation period, excluding cats that had been started on anti-hypertensive therapy), was  
124 145.25mmHg $\pm$  29.11.

125 On presentation the mean serum creatinine was 1034  $\pm$ 526.99  $\mu$ mol/L. Initial SBP and creatinine value  
126 on presentation were not correlated (R2 = 0.069, P = 0.078). Twenty-six cats were classified as having  
127 Grade V AKI, 16 classified as Grade IV and 2 each classified as Grades III and II AKI. There was no  
128 association between SH on presentation, IRIS AKI grade and survival (Table 1). When assessing the

130 prevalence of SH over the whole of the hospitalisation period there was not a statistically significant  
131 association between SH during hospitalisation, and IRIS AKI grade (Table 2).

132 Sixteen cats were administered furosemide, two cats had peritoneal dialysis and one cat underwent  
133 continuous renal replacement therapy. There was no statistically significant association between the  
134 presence of SH and the presence of oliguria or anuria ( $p=0.54$ ).

135 Twenty-five cats were euthanased during hospitalisation of which two were borderline hypertensive,  
136 five hypertensive and seven were severely hypertensive during hospitalisation. Twenty-one cats  
137 survived to discharge of which three were classified as borderline hypertensive, four as hypertensive  
138 and six as severely hypertensive during hospitalisation. Of these, one cat was discharged to be  
139 euthanased at home and three cats were euthanased within the following six months with the remaining  
140 cats still being alive after six months. Those cats that survived had a median hospitalisation length of  
141 seven days, ranging from 1 to 18 days.

142 Of the eight patients classified as severely hypertensive on presentation, three survived and five died.  
143 Of those cats that survived, one was persistently hypertensive at re-examination despite treatment with  
144 amlodipine, one became non-hypertensive during hospitalisation and one had incomplete records. Of  
145 those cats that died, two became borderline hypertensive on day 2 of hospitalisation, one of which was  
146 given amlodipine. The other three cats were euthanased between one and four days after admission and  
147 no follow-up SBP was recorded. Five cats developed severe SH during hospitalisation of which two  
148 were normotensive on presentation. Of these five cats, two died and three survived. Out of the three  
149 cats that survived two became less severely hypertensive, of which one became normotensive. The  
150 other cat had incomplete records. The other two cats were euthanased within 12 to 48 hours of  
151 developing severe hypertension.

## 152 Discussion

153 This retrospective study shows that SH, including cats with borderline hypertension, is common in cats  
154 with AKI with a prevalence of 58.7% over the course of hospitalisation; in 28.2% of cases the  
155 hypertension was classified as severe. SH in cats has most extensively been described in patients with

157 CKD where studies report a prevalence varying between 19.8% and 65% (Syme et al. 2002, Stiles et al.  
158 1994) depending on criteria used to define hypertension. with a prevalence varying between 19.8 and  
159 65% (Stiles et al. 1994, Syme et al. 2002) depending on criteria used to define hypertension. Previous  
160 studies of feline AKI have attempted to assess prognosis and severity indices (Lee et al. 2012, Segev et  
161 al. 2013) but have not examined the prevalence of SH in detail. Segev et al. (2013) reported a  
162 prevalence of SH (defined as SBP >150 mmHg) of 38%, but included cats with “acute-on-chronic”  
163 kidney disease. Furthermore, the frequency and technique for SBP measurement was not detailed,  
164 therefore direct comparison with the current study is not possible.

165 In our study 54.3% of cats were euthanased in hospital, of which 56% were classified as either  
166 borderline or severely hypertensive. SBP did not appear to be correlated with IRIS AKI grade or serum  
167 creatinine at presentation. This suggests that SH in cats with AKI is not necessarily related to severity  
168 of azotaemia and AKI grade. These findings are in line with the studies of CKD in cats in which  
169 hypertension has not been found to be associated with survival or a progressive phenotype of CKD  
170 (Syme et al. 2002, Jepson et al. 2007, Bijmans et al. 2015). In contrast, in humans and dogs,  
171 hypertension has been associated with progression of renal disease (Klag et al. 1996, Wehner et al.  
172 2008).

173 Due to the small sample size and the various confounding factors of outcome including the variable  
174 prognosis of the different causes of AKI, owner finances and other co-morbidities, the association  
175 between SH and outcome could not be reliably assessed. Failure to see evidence of an association  
176 between SH and severity of AKI in this study may have been due to using creatinine as the sole  
177 indicator of kidney function [recognised to be problematic for multiple reasons including variation in  
178 hydration status and body condition between patients (Braun et al. 2003)] or the result of a type II  
179 statistical error.

180 Although hypertension is common in kidney disease its pathogenesis is poorly understood. Suggested  
181 aetiologies in humans have included volume-impaired excretion of sodium, leading to volume  
182 overload, excessive activation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, stimulation of the  
183 sympathetic nervous system, reduced bioavailability of the endothelial vasodilator, nitric oxide and



185 increased production of the vasoconstrictor endothelin and increase in reactive oxygen species  
186 (Campese et al. 2006, Pouchelon et al. 2015). To date there have been no studies of pathogenesis of SH  
187 in AKI in cats and even in CKD the pathogenesis remains poorly explained. In this study there was no  
188 association between anuria and SH. As these are the patients that are most susceptible to volume  
189 overload it could be hypothesised that volume overload was not an important cause of hypertension in  
190 this population of cats. However, improved data in terms of clinical signs relating to volume overload  
191 such as baseline body weights and body weight changes and urine output as well as an assessment of  
192 volume status (e.g. utilising bioimpedence) would be required to better evaluate this hypothesis.

193 Adverse effects on the ophthalmic, cardiovascular and central nervous systems has been reported in  
194 cats with hypertension (Jepson 2011). In this study, one patient had signs consistent with hypertensive  
195 retinopathy–choroidopathy. However, this was the only patient that had written documentation of a  
196 fundic examination having been performed and so the true prevalence of ocular manifestations of SH  
197 in these AKI patients cannot be reported with confidence. Nevertheless, ophthalmic examination  
198 should be recommended for patients with AKI if there is suspicion of SH and future studies should  
199 include evaluation for hypertensive ocular damage.

200 There are a number of limitations to this study. First, the strict inclusion criteria, particularly the  
201 exclusion of those patients with acute on CKD reduced the sample size and overall power of the study.  
202 Important records such as fundic examination findings, baseline body weights, daily weight changes  
203 and accurate urine output measurements were lacking in some cases, preventing further assessment of  
204 fluid overload and its effect on development of SH in the hospital. Urine output measurement is  
205 required for early IRIS AKI grading and to accurately diagnose a patient as anuric or oliguric and has  
206 been shown to be a prognostic factor in AKI in humans (Behrend & Miller 1996). This study did not  
207 enrol patients with IRIS AKI Grade I, and only captured two patients with IRIS AKI Grade II reducing  
208 the data distribution and therefore making it possible that the lack of association between IRIS grade  
209 and SH results from type II statistical error. The IRIS grading system itself is a useful guide for  
210 determining severity of disease but it has not yet been validated for use in AKI.

213 In the current study, we attempted to exclude those patients with acute-on-chronic disease based on  
214 recorded historical, physical examination and ultrasound findings. Patients with ureteroliths, without  
215 documented historical, physical examination and ultrasonographic findings consistent with CKD were  
216 included. However, due to the pathophysiology of obstructive disease and retrospective nature of the  
217 study we cannot exclude the -possibility that these patients did not have underlying subclinical CKD  
218 and therefore inadvertently included some acute-on-chronic causes of AKI.

219 Of particular concern in this study, is the “white coat effect,” especially in those patients with fewer  
220 blood pressure readings in their clinical records. White-coat hypertension, an increase in blood pressure  
221 as a result of adrenergic stimulation during situations of stress, anxiety or excitement, has been  
222 documented in healthy cats during simulated visits to a veterinary clinic (Belew et al. 1999). In an  
223 attempt to minimise this effect on the findings of this study, when multiple blood pressure recordings  
224 were recorded on a single day of hospitalisation a median SBP reading for that day was used for the  
225 analysis. However, in some patients only a single blood pressure reading was performed on any  
226 particular day and these patients therefore carry greater risk of inappropriate classification. Due to the  
227 retrospective nature of the study there was limited information on the circumstances surrounding blood  
228 pressure measurement and the clinician's perspective on the accuracy of the single blood pressure  
229 readings. Assessment for hypertensive retinopathy–choroidopathy in all patients would have been  
230 useful to assess for evidence of TOD as part of exclusion criteria for white-coat hypertension and,  
231 ideally, continuous blood pressure monitoring would be required to completely mitigate the white-coat  
232 effect.

233 In summary, this study suggests SH is common in cats with AKI. However, it does not appear to be  
234 associated with disease severity or magnitude of azotaemia. This study should be considered a  
235 preliminary study for future prospective studies assessing hypertension in AKI, its persistence during  
236 hospitalisation and the effect of antihypertensive treatment on outcome.

237

238

240 Conflict of interest

241 None of the authors of this article has a personal or financial relationship with other persons or  
242 organisations that could inappropriately influence or bias the content of the paper.

243 References

244 Acierno, M.J. & Labato, M.A. (2005) Hypertension in renal disease; diagnosis and treatment. *Clinical  
245 Techniques in Small Animal Practice* 20, 23-30

246 Basile, D.P. (2001) Renal ischaemic injury results in permanent damage to peritubular capillaries and  
247 influences long-term function. *American Journal of Physiology – Renal Physiology* 281, F887-899

248 Behrend, T., Miller, S.B. (1996) Acute renal failure in the cardiac care unit: Etiologies, outcomes, and  
249 prognostic factors. *Kidney International*, 56, 238-243

250 Belew, A.M., Barlett, T., Brown, S.A. (1999) Evaluation of the white-coat effects in cats. *Journal of  
251 Veterinary Internal Medicine* 13, 134-142

252 Braun, J.P, Lefebvre, H.P. & Watson, A.D.J. (2003) Creatinine in the dog: A review. *Veterinary  
253 Clinical Pathology* 32, 162-179.

254 Bijsmans, E.S., Jepson, R.E., Chang, Y.M., et al. (2015) Changes in systolic blood pressure over time in  
255 healthy cats and cats with chronic kidney disease. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 29, 855-861

256 Brown, S. Atkins, C., Bagley, R., et al. (2007) Guidelines for the identification, evaluation, and  
257 management of systemic hypertension in dogs and Cats. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 21,  
258 542-558

259 Campese, V., Mitra, N. & Sandee D. (2006) Hypertension in renal parenchymal disease; why is it so  
260 resistant to treatment? *Kidney International* 69, 967-973

261

- 263 Chertow, G.M. (2006) Mortality after acute renal failure: models for prognostic stratification and risk  
264 adjustment. *Kidney International* 70, 1120-1126
- 265 Chetboul, V., Lefebvre, H., Pinhas, C., et al. (2003) Spontaneous feline hypertension: clinical and  
266 echocardiographic abnormalities, and survival rate. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 17, 89-95
- 267 Geigy C.A, Schweighauser, A, Doherr, M, et al. (2011) Occurrence of systemic hypertension in dogs  
268 with acute kidney injury and treatment with amlodopine besylate. *Journal of Small Animal Practice* 52,  
269 340-346
- 270 Harison, E., Langston, C, Palma, D., et al. (2012) Acute azotaemia as a predictor of mortality in dogs  
271 and cats. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 29, 1093-1099
- 272 Hoste, E., Clermont, G., Kersten, A, et al. (2006) RIFLE criteria for acute kidney injury are associated  
273 with hospital mortality in critically ill patients: A cohort analysis. *Critical Care Medicine* 10, R37
- 274 Hoste, E.A, Kellum, J.A. (2007) Incidence, classification, and outcomes of acute kidney injury.  
275 *Contributions to Nephrology* 156, 32–38
- 276 International Renal Interest Society (2013) <http://www.iris-kidney.com/guidelines/> [accessed 12 April  
277 2016]
- 278 International Renal Interest Society (2015) <http://www.iris-kidney.com/guidelines/staging.html>  
279 [accessed 16 April 2016]
- 280 Jacob, F., Polzin, D.J., Osbourne, C.A., et al. (2003) Association between initial systolic blood pressure  
281 and risk of developing uraemic crisis or dying in dogs with chronic renal failure. *Journal of the*  
282 *American Veterinary Medical Association* 222, 322-329
- 283 Jepson, R. (2011) Feline systemic hypertension. Classification and pathogenesis. *Journal of Feline*  
284 *Medicine and Surgery* 13, 25-34.

286 Jepson,R.E., Elliot, J., Brodbelt, D.,et al. (2007) Effect of control of systolic blood pressure on survival  
287 in cats with systemic hypertension.Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine 21, 401-409

288 Klag, M.J., Whelton, P.K., Randall, B.L.,et al. (1996) Blood pressure and end-stage renal disease in  
289 men.New England Journal of Medicine, 334, 13 –18

290 Kletzmayr, J., Uffmann, M, Schmaldienst, S. (2003) Severe but reversible hypertensive  
291 encephalopathy. Wien Klin Wochenschr, 115, 416

292 Lee, Y.-J., Chan, J.P.-W., Hsu, W.-L. et al. (2012) Prognostic Factors and a Prognostic Index for Cats  
293 with Acute Kidney Injury. Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine 25, 500-505

294 Maggio, F., DeFrancesco, T.C., Atkins, C.E.,et al. (2000) Ocular lesions associated with systemic  
295 hypertension in cats: 69 cases (1985-1998).Journal of the Veterinary Medical Association 217, 695-702

296 Mathur,S., Syme, H., Brown, C.A.,et al. (2002) Effects of the calcium channel antagonist amlodipine  
297 in cats with surgically induced hypertensive renal insufficiency. American Journal of Veterinary  
298 Research 63, 833- 839

299 Mitsnefes,M., Ho, P.L.,McEnery, P.T. (2003) Hypertension and progression of chronic renal  
300 insufficiency in children: A report of the North American Pediatric Renal Transplant Cooperative  
301 Study (NAPRTCS). Journal of the American Society of Nephrology 14, 2618-2622

302 Monaghan, K., Nolan, B., Labato, M. (2012). Feline Acute Kidney Injury 2. Approach to diagnosis,  
303 treatment and prognosis. Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery 14, 785-793

304 Pouchelon, J.L. (2015) Cardiovascular-renal axis disorders in the domestic dog and cat: a veterinary  
305 consensus. Journal of Small Animal Practice 56, 537-552

306 Ravera, M., Re, M., Deferrari, L.,et al. (2006) Importance of blood pressure control in chronic kidney  
307 disease. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology, 17, pp. S98-S103

- 310 Segev, G., Nivy, R., Kaaa, P.H.,et al. (2013) A retrospective study of acute kidney injury in cats and  
311 development of a novel clinical scoring system for predicting outcome for cats managed by  
312 haemodialysis. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 27, 830-839
- 313 Stiles, J., Polzin, D.J., Bistner, S.L. (1994) The prevalence of retinopathy in cats with systemic  
314 hypertension and chronic renal failure or hyperthyroidism. *Journal of the American Animal Hospital  
315 Association* 30, 564-
- 316 Syme, H.M., Barber, P.G., Markwell, P.J.,et al. (2002) Prevalence of systolic hypertension in cats with  
317 chronic renal failure at initial evaluation. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association* 220,  
318 1799-1804
- 319 Wehner, A, Hartmann, K. Hirschberger, J. (2008) Associations between proteinuria, systematic  
320 hypertension and glomerular filtration rate in dogs with renal and non-renal diseases. *Veterinary  
321 Record* 162,141-147
- 322 Uchino, S., Bellomo, R., Bagshaw, S.,et al. (2010) Transient azotaemia is associated with high risk  
323 death in hospitalized patients. *Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation* 25, 1833–1839
- 324

326 Table 1: Classification of systemic hypertension at presentation and its association with Acute  
 327 Kidney Injury grade and survival

SBP at presentation (mmHg)	Total percentage (%)	Number of cats				Survival to discharge
		IRIS AKI grade				
		II	III	IV	V	
150 to 159	6/21 (28.57%)	0	0	2	4	2/6 (33.33%)
160 to 179	7/21 (33.33%)	0	0	5	2	3/7 (42.85%)
≥180	8/21 (38.09%)	0	2	1	5	3/8 (37.5%)

328 SBP: Systolic blood pressure; IRIS: International Renal Interest Society AKI: Acute Kidney Injury

329 Table 2: Association between IRIS AKI grade and presence of hypertension (defined as  
 330 systolic blood pressure ≥ 150mmHg) during hospitalisation.

IRIS AKI grade	Number of patients	Mean SBP (mmHg)
II	2	127 ±9·89
III	2	193·75 ±8·84
IV	16	148·28 ±23·92
V	26	158·48 ±28·28

331 n= 46, p= 0.056

332 IRIS: International Renal Interest Society; AKI: Acute Kidney Injury; SBP: Systolic blood pressure