

Kidney health for everyone everywhere - from prevention to detection and equitable access to care

- a. Department of Medicine and Therapeutics, Carol & Richard Yu PD Research Centre, Prince of Wales Hospital, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.
- b. Nephrology Service, Hospital Civil de Guadalajara Fray Antonio Alcalde, University of Guadalajara Health Sciences Center, Guadalajara, Jal., Mexico.
- c. Division of Health System, Policy and Management, Jockey Club School of Public Health and Primary Care, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.
- d. James Whitcomb Riley Hospital for Children, Indiana University School Of Medicine, Indianapolis, USA.
- e. World Kidney Day Office, Avenue des Arts 1-2, 6th floor, B-1210, Brussels, Belgium.
- f. Tanker Foundation, Chennai, India.
- g. Division of Nephrology and Hypertension, 1st Department of Internal Medicine, AHEPA Hospital, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece.
- h. Nephrology Unit, Department of Internal Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Cairo University, Giza, Egypt.
- i. Renal Unit, Department of Medicine, College of Medicine, University of Nigeria, Ituku-Ozalla, Enugu, Nigeria.
- j. Division of Nephrology and Hypertension and Kidney Transplantation, University of California Irvine School of Medicine, Orange, CA, USA.

Philip Kam-Tao Li^a, Guillermo Garcia-Garcia^b, Siu-Fai Lui^c, Sharon Andreoli^d, Winston Wing-Shing Fung^e, Anne Hradsky^f, Latha Kumaraswami^g, Vassilios Liakopoulos^h, Ziyoda Rakhimova^e, Gamal Saadi^h, Luisa Strani^e, Ifeoma Ulasi^h and Kamyar Kalantar-Zadehⁱ, for the World Kidney Day Steering Committee[#]

Members of the World Kidney Day Steering Committee are: *Philip Kam Tao Li, Guillermo Garcia-Garcia, Sharon Andreoli, Kamyar Kalantar-Zadeh, Latha Kumaraswami, Vassilios Liakopoulos, Siu-Fai Lui, Gamal Saadi, Luisa Strani and Ifeoma Ulasi*

ABSTRACT

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is rapidly becoming the 5th most common cause of years of life lost globally by 2040. Crucially, the onset and progression of CKD is often preventable. The World Kidney Day 2020 campaign highlights the importance of preventive interventions on CKD. Primary prevention should focus on risks modification as well as reduced exposure to environmental risk factors and nephrotoxins. Blood pressure optimization and glycemic control should be one of the main interventions in persons with pre-existing kidney disease. Management of co-morbidities such as uremia and cardiovascular disease is highly recommended to avoid or delay dialysis or kidney transplantation. Globally, specific policies directed toward education and awareness about CKD screening, management and treatment are often lacking. Hence, there is an urgent need to increase the awareness of the importance of preventive measures throughout populations, professionals and policy makers around the world.

Key words: *chronic kidney diseases, risk factors, prevention, health policies, awareness.*

<http://dx.doi.org/10.5546/aap.2020.eng.e148>

To cite: Li PKT, Garcia-Garcia G, Lui SF, Andreoli S, et al. Kidney health for everyone everywhere - from prevention to detection and equitable access to care. *Arch Argent Pediatr* 2020; 118(2):e148.

INTRODUCTION

Around 850 million people currently are affected by different types of kidney disorders.¹ Up to one in ten adults worldwide has chronic kidney disease (CKD), which is invariably irreversible and mostly progressive. The global burden of CKD is increasing, and CKD is projected to become the 5th most common cause of years of life lost globally by 2040.² If CKD remains uncontrolled and if the affected person survives the ravages of cardiovascular and other complications of the disease, CKD progresses to end-stage renal disease (ESRD), where life cannot be sustained without dialysis therapy or kidney transplantation. Hence, CKD is a major cause of catastrophic health expenditure.³ The costs of dialysis and transplantation consume 2–3 % of the annual health-care budget in high-income countries; spent on less than 0.03 % of the total population of these countries.⁴

Importantly, however, kidney disease can be prevented and progression to ESRD can be delayed with appropriate access to basic diagnostics and early treatment including life style modifications and nutritional interventions.^{4–8}

E-mail address:

Philip Kam-Tao Li, M.D.:
philipli@cuhk.edu.hk
Kamyar Kalantar-Zadeh, M.D.:
kkz@uci.edu

Funding:
None.

Conflict of interest:
None.

Received: 11-16-2019
Accepted: 12-13-2019

In adhesion to this international event, the World Kidney Day 2020 editorial was published in more than 50 journals worldwide. *Archivos Argentinos de Pediatría* adheres to this important international diffusion.

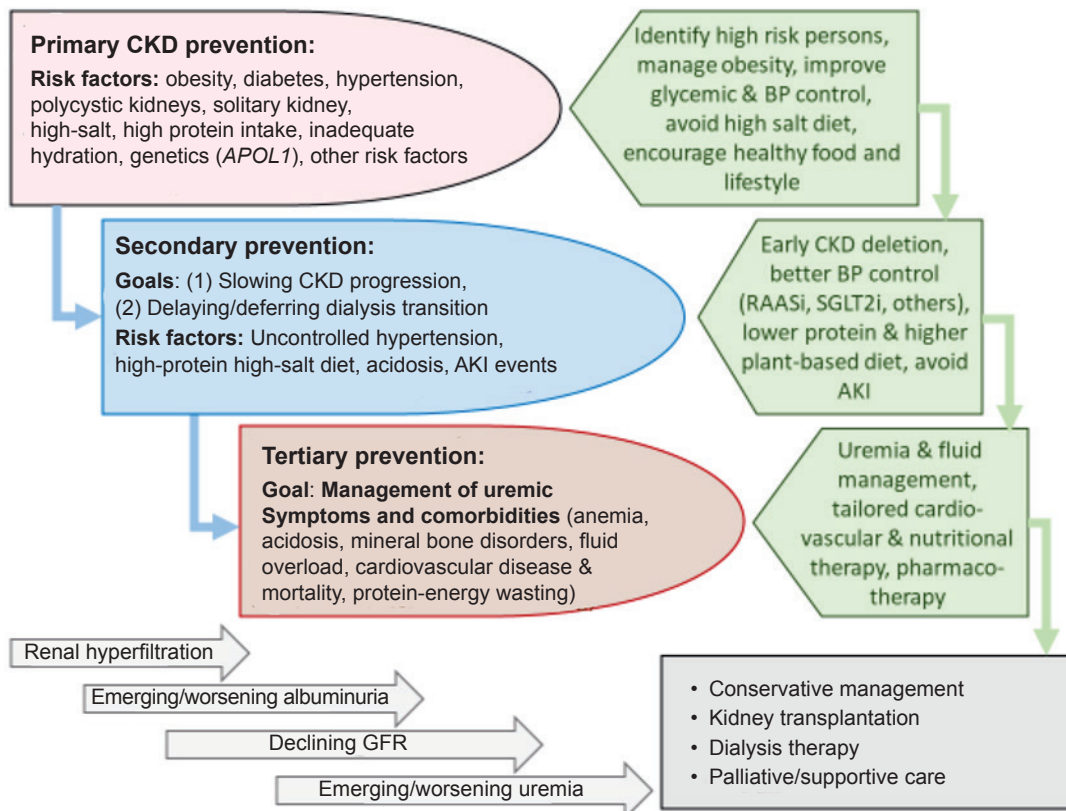
Despite this, access to effective and sustainable kidney care remains highly inequitable across the world, and kidney disease a low health priority in many countries. Kidney disease is crucially missing from the international agenda for global health. Notably absent from the impact indicators for the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Goal 3. Target 3.4: By 2030 (By 2030, reduce by one third premature mortality from non-communicable diseases (NCDs) through prevention and treatment and promote mental health and well-being) and the latest iteration of the United Nation (UN) Political Declaration on NCDs. Kidney diseases urgently need to be given political attention, priority and consideration.⁹ CKD is a major risk factor for heart disease and cardiac death, as well as for infections such as tuberculosis, and is a major complication of other preventable and treatable conditions including diabetes, hypertension, HIV and hepatitis.^{4,7} As the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) and Universal Health Coverage (UHC) agendas progress and provide a platform for raising awareness of NCD health care and

monitoring needs, targeted action on kidney disease prevention should become integral to the global policy response.¹

DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF CKD PREVENTION

According to the expert definitions including the Center for Disease Control and Prevention,¹⁰ the term “prevention” refers to activities that are typically categorized by the following three definitions: (1) Primary prevention, implies intervening before health effects occur in an effort to prevent the onset of illness or injury before the disease process begins; (2) Secondary prevention suggests preventive measures that lead to early diagnosis and prompt treatment of a disease to prevent more severe problems developing and includes screening to identify diseases in the earliest stages, and (3) Tertiary prevention indicates managing disease after it is well established in order to control disease progression and the emergence of more severe complications, which is often by means of targeted measures such as pharmacotherapy, rehabilitation, and

FIGURE 1. Overview of the preventive measures in chronic kidney disease (CKD) to highlight the similarities and distinctions pertaining to primary, secondary, and tertiary preventive measures and their intended goals



screening for and management of complications. These definitions have important bearing in the prevention and management of the chronic kidney disease (CKD), and accurate identification of risk factors that cause CKD or lead to faster progression to renal failure as shown in *Figure 1* are relevant in health policy decisions and health education and awareness related to CKD.¹¹

Primary prevention of CKD

Measures to achieve effective primary prevention should focus on the two leading risk factors for CKD including diabetes mellitus and hypertension. Other CKD risk factors include polycystic kidneys or other congenital or acquired structural anomalies of the kidney and urinary tracts, primary glomerulonephritis, exposure to nephrotoxic substances or medications (such as nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs), having one single kidney, e.g. solitary kidney after cancer nephrectomy, high dietary salt intake, inadequate hydration with recurrent volume depletion, heat stress, exposure to pesticides and heavy metals (as has been speculated as the main cause of Mesoamerican nephropathy), and possibly high protein intake in those at higher risk of CKD.⁸ Among non-modifiable risk factors are advancing age and genetic factors such as apolipoprotein 1 (*APOL1*) gene that is mostly encountered in those with sub-Saharan African ethnicity, especially among African Americans. *Table 1* shows some of the risk factors of CKD.

Among measures to prevent emergence of de novo CKD are screening efforts to identify and manage persons at high risk of CKD, especially those with diabetes mellitus and hypertension. Hence, targeting primordial risk factors of these two conditions including metabolic syndrome and overnutrition is relevant to primary CKD prevention as is correcting obesity.¹² Promoting healthier lifestyle includes physical activity and healthier diet. The latter should be based on more plant-based foods with less meat, less sodium intake, more complex carbohydrates with higher fiber intake, and less saturated fat. In those with hypertension and diabetes, optimizing blood pressure and glycemic control has shown to be effective in preventing diabetic and hypertensive nephropathies. Persons with solitary kidney should avoid high protein intake above 1 gram per kilogram body weight per day.^{13,14} Obesity should be avoided, and weight reduction strategies should be considered.¹²

Secondary prevention in CKD

Evidence suggests that among those with CKD, the vast majority have early-stage of the disease. i.e., CKD Stages 1 and 2 with microalbuminuria (30 to 300 mg/day) or CKD Stage 3B (eGFR between 45 to 60 ml/min/1.73 m²).¹⁴ For these earlier stages of CKD, the main goal of kidney health education and clinical interventions for “secondary prevention” is how to slow disease progression. Uncontrolled or poorly controlled hypertension is one of the most established risk factors for faster CKD progression.

The cornerstone of the pharmacotherapy in secondary prevention is the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system inhibitors (RAASi). Low protein diet appears to have a synergistic effect on RAASi therapy.¹⁵ Recent data suggest that a new class of anti-diabetic medications known as sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 Inhibitors (SGLT2i) can slow CKD progression, but this effect may not be related to glycemic modulation of the medication.¹⁶ Whereas acute kidney injury (AKI) may or may not cause de novo CKD, AKI events that are superimposed on preexisting CKD may accelerate disease progression.¹⁷ A relatively recent case of successful secondary prevention that highlights the significance of implementing preventive strategies in CKD is the use of a vasopressin V(2)-receptor antagonists in adult polycystic kidney disease (ADPKD).¹⁸

Tertiary prevention in CKD

In patients with advanced CKD, management of uremia and related comorbid conditions such as anemia, mineral and bone disorders, and cardiovascular disease is of high priority, so that these patients can continue to achieve highest longevity. Whereas many of these patients will eventually receive renal replacement therapy in form of dialysis therapy or kidney transplantation, a new trend is emerging to maintain them longer without dialysis by implementing conservative management of CKD.

Approaches to identification of chronic kidney diseases

the lack of awareness of CKD around the world is one of the reasons for late presentation of CKD in both developed and developing economies.¹⁹⁻²¹ The overall CKD awareness among general population and even high cardiovascular risk groups across 12 low-income and middle-income countries was less than 10%.²¹

Given its asymptomatic nature, screening of CKD plays an important role in early detection. Consensus and Positional Statements have been published by International Society of Nephrology,²² National Kidney Foundation,²³

Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes,²⁴ NICE Guidelines²⁵ and Asian Forum for CKD Initiatives.²⁶ There was lack of trials to evaluate screening and monitoring of CKD.²⁷ Currently most will promote a targeted screening approach

TABLE 1. Risk factors for de novo CKD and pre-existing CKD progression

*Risk factor	Contribution to de novo CKD	Contribution to CKD progression
Diabetes mellitus	~50 % of all CKDs	
Hypertension	~25 % of all CKDs	
Obesity	10-20 %	
Age	Seen with advancing age, especially in the setting of comorbid conditions.	Some suggests that older CKD patients may have slower progression.
Race, genetics and other hereditary factors: <i>APOL1</i> gene Hereditary nephritis (Alport's)	Common among those with African American ancestors.	
Acute glomerulonephritis: • Post-infectious GN • Rapidly progressive GN	<10 %	Recurrent GN or exacerbation of proteinuria.
Polycystic kidney disorders	<10 %, family history of cystic kidney disorders.	
Acute kidney injury (AKI) • Acute tubular necrosis (ATN) • Acute interstitial nephritis (AIN)	Repeated AKI bouts can cause CKD.	Repeated AKI bouts can accelerate CKD progression.
Autoimmune disorders • Lupus erythematosus • Other connective tissue disorders		
Pharmacologic: • Medications causing interstitial nephritides (NSAIDS, CNI, chemotherapy, PPI, etc.) or ATN (aminoglycosides) • Herbs and herbal medication	Variable, e.g. in Taiwan, Chinese herb nephropathy may be an important contributor.	
Environmental: • Heavy metal exposure	Rare.	
Acquired or congenital solitary kidney • Cancer, donor or traumatic nephrectomy • Congenital solitary kidney, unilateral atrophic kidney		
Acquired urinary tract disorders & obstructive nephropathy	BPH in men. Gynecological cancers in women.	
Congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract	Mostly in children and young adults.	
Inadequate fluid intake • Mesoamerican nephropathy • Others	Unknown risk, but high prevalence is suspected in Central America.	Whereas in earlier CKD stages adequate hydration is important to avoid pre-renal AKI bouts, higher fluid intake in more advanced CKD may increase the risk of hyponatremia.
High protein intake	Unknown risk, recent data suggest higher CKD risk or faster CKD progression with high protein diet, in particular from animal sources.	Higher protein intake can accelerate the rate of CKD progression.
Cardiovascular diseases (cardiorenal)	Ischemic nephropathy.	
Liver disease (hepatorenal)	NASH cirrhosis, viral hepatitis.	

* Many of these risk factors contribute to both de novo CKD and its faster progression and hence are relevant to both primary and secondary prevention.

to early detection of CKD. Some of the major groups at risk for targeted screening includes: Patients with diabetes, hypertension, those with family history of chronic kidney disease (CKD), individuals receiving potentially nephrotoxic drugs, herbs or substances or taking indigenous medicine, patients with past history of acute kidney injury and individuals older than 65 years.^{26,28} CKD can be detected with 2 simple tests: a urine test for the detection of proteinuria and a blood test to estimate the glomerular filtration rate (GFR).^{23,26}

Given that currently a population screening for CKD is not recommended and it was claimed that it might add unintended harm to the general population being screened,²⁷ there is no specialty society or preventive services group which recommends general screening.²⁹ Low-income to middle-income countries are ill-equipped to deal with the devastating consequences of CKD, particularly the late stages of the disease. There are suggestions that screening should primarily include high-risk individuals, but also extend to those with suboptimal levels of risk, e.g., prediabetes and prehypertension.³⁰

Cost-effectiveness of early detection programs

Universal screening of the general population would be time-consuming, expensive and has been shown to be not cost-effective. Unless selectively directed towards high-risk groups, such as the case of CKD in disadvantaged populations.³¹ According to a cost-effectiveness analysis using a Markov decision analytic model, population-based dipstick screening for proteinuria has an unfavorable cost effectiveness ratio.³² From an economic perspective, screening CKD by detection of proteinuria was shown to be cost-effective in patients with hypertension or diabetes in a systematic review.³³ CKD screening may be more cost-effective in populations with higher incidences of CKD, rapid rates of progression, and more effective drug therapy.

A rational approach to CKD early detection

The approach towards CKD early detection will include the decision for frequency of screening, who should perform the screening and intervention after screening.²² Screening frequency for targeted individuals should be yearly if no abnormality is detected on initial evaluation. This is in line with the Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO)

resolution that the frequency of testing should be according to the target group to be tested and generally needs not be more frequent than once per year.²⁴ Who should perform the screening is always a question especially when the healthcare professional availability is a challenge in lower income economies. Physicians, nurses, paramedical staff and other trained healthcare professionals are eligible to do the screening tests. Intervention after screening is also important and patients detected to have CKD should be referred to primary care and general physicians with experience in management of kidney disease for follow up. A management protocol including referral to nephrologists should be provided to the primary care and general physicians.^{21,24,26}

Integration of CKD prevention into national NCD programs

Given the close links between CKD and other NCDs, it is critical that CKD advocacy efforts be aligned with existing initiatives concerning diabetes, hypertension, and cardiovascular disease, particularly in LMIC. Some countries and regions have successfully introduced CKD prevention strategies as part of their NCD programs. As an example, in 2003, a kidney health promotion program was introduced in Taiwan, with its key components including a ban on herbs containing aristolochic acid, public-awareness campaigns, patient education, funding for CKD research, and the setting up of teams to provide integrated care.³⁴ In Cuba, the Ministry of Public Health has implemented a national program for the prevention of CKD. The integration of CKD prevention into NCDs program, has resulted in the reduction of renal and cardiovascular risks in the general population. There has been an increased rate of the diagnosis of diabetes and of glycemic control, as well as an increased diagnosis of patients with hypertension, higher prescription use of renoprotective treatment with ACEI and higher rates of blood pressure control.^{35,36} Recently, the US Department of Health and Human Services has introduced an ambitious program to reduce the number of Americans developing end-stage renal disease by 25 percent by 2030. The program, known as the Advancing American Kidney Health Initiative, has set goals with metrics to measure its success; among them is to put more efforts to prevent, detect, and slow the progression of kidney disease, in part by addressing traditional risk factors like diabetes and hypertension.³⁷ Ongoing

programs, like the Special Diabetes Program for Indians (SDPI) represents an important part of this approach by providing team-based care and care management. Since its implementation, the incidence of diabetes-related kidney failure among American Native populations decreased by over 40 percent between 2000 and 2015.³⁸

The interdisciplinary prevention approach

Since 1994, a National Institute of Health consensus advocated for early medical intervention in predialysis patients. Owing to the complexity of care of CKD, it was recommended that patients should be referred to a multidisciplinary team consisting of nephrologist, dietitian, nurse, social worker, and health psychologist, with the aim to reduce predialysis and dialysis morbidity and mortality.³⁹ In Mexico, a nurse-led, protocol driven, multidisciplinary program reported better preservation in eGFR and a trend in the improvement of quality of care of CKD patients similar to those reported by other Multidisciplinary Clinic (MDC) programs in the developed world.⁴⁰ Future models should address region-specific causes of CKD, increase the quality of diagnostic capabilities, establish referral pathways, and provide better assessments of clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness.⁴¹

Online educational programs for CKD prevention and treatment

The e-Learning has also become an increasingly popular approach to medical education. Online learning programs for NCD prevention and treatment, including CKD, have been successfully implemented in Mexico. By 2015, over 5000 health professionals (including non-nephrologists) had been trained using an electronic health education platform.⁴² It is equally important to promote "Prevention" with education programs for those at risk of kidney disease and with the general population at large. Education is key to engaging patients with kidney disease. It is the path to self-management and patient-centered care. Narva found patient education is associated with better patient outcomes.⁴³ Obstacles include the complex nature of kidney disease information, low baseline awareness, limited health literacy, limited availability of CKD information, and lack of readiness to learn. Schatell found Web-based kidney education is helpful in supporting patient self-management.⁴⁴ Reputable healthcare organizations should facilitate users to have easier

access to health information on their websites (*Appendix 1*). Engagements of professional society, patient groups, charitable and philanthropic organizations promote community partnership and patient empowerment on prevention.

RENEWED FOCUS ON PREVENTION AND AWARENESS RAISING AND EDUCATION

Given the pressing urgency pertaining to the need for increasing education and awareness on the importance of the preventive measures, we suggest the following goals to redirect the focus on plans and actions:

1. Empowerment through health literacy in order to develop and support national campaigns that bring public awareness to prevention of kidney disease.
2. Population-based approaches to manage key known risks for kidney disease, such as blood pressure control and effective management of obesity and diabetes.
3. Implementation of the World Health Organization (WHO) 'Best Buys' approach including screening of at-risk populations for CKD, universal access to essential diagnostics of early CKD, availability of affordable basic technologies and essential medicines and task shifting from doctors to front-line healthcare workers to more effectively target progression of CKD and other secondary preventative approaches.

"Kidney Health for Everyone, Everywhere" should be a policy imperative which can be successfully achieved if policy makers, nephrologists, healthcare professionals and the general public place prevention and primary care for kidney disease within the context of their Universal Health Coverage programs.

ABBREVIATION LIST

ACEI: Angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor.
ADPKD: Autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease.
AIN: Acute interstitial nephritis.
AKI: Acute kidney injury.
APOL1: Apolipoprotein 1.
ATN: Acute tubular necrosis.
BPH : Benign prostate hypertrophy.
CKD: Chronic kidney disease.
CKDu: Chronic kidney disease of unknown cause.
CNI: Calcineurin inhibitor.
CVD: Cardiovascular disease.
ESRD: End-stage renal disease.

GFR: Glomerular filtration rate.
 GN: Glomerulonephritis.
 ISN: International Society of Nephrology.
 KDIGO: Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes.
 LMIC: Low middle income countries.
 MDC : Multidisciplinary Clinic.
 NASH: Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis.
 NCD: Non-communicable disease.
 NHSP: National Health Screening Program.
 NICE: National Institute of Clinical Excellence.
 NSAID: Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs.
 PEW: Protein energy wasting.
 PPI: Proton pump inhibitor.
 RAASi: Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system inhibitors.
 SDG: Sustainable Development Goal.
 SDPI: Special Diabetes Program for Indians.
 SGLT2i: Sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 inhibitors.
 UHC: Universal Health Coverage.
 UN: United Nation.
 WHO: World Health Organization.

REFERENCES:

- International Society of Nephrology. 2019 United Nations High Level Meeting on UHC: Moving Together to Build Kidney Health worldwide.[Accessed on: July 20, 2019]. Available at: https://www.theisn.org/images/Advocacy_4_pager_2019_Final_WEB_pagebypage.pdf
- Foreman KJ, Marquez N, Dolgert A, Fukutaki K, et al. Forecasting life expectancy, years of life lost, and all-cause and cause-specific mortality for 250 causes of death: reference and alternative scenarios for 2016-40 for 195 countries and territories. *Lancet*. 2018;392(10159):2052-90.
- Essue BM, Laba TL, Knaul F, Chu A, et al. Economic burden of chronic ill health and injuries for households in low- and middle-income countries. In Jamison DT, Gelband H, Horton S, Jha P, et al (eds). *Disease Control Priorities Improving Health and Reducing Poverty*. 3rd ed. Washington, DC: World Bank; 2017:121-43.
- Vanholder R, Annemans L, Brown E, Gansevoort R, et al. Reducing the costs of chronic kidney disease while delivering quality health care: a call to action. *Nat Rev Nephrol*. 2017;13(7):393-409.
- Luyckx VA, Tuttle KR, Garcia-Garcia G, Gharbi G, et al. Reducing major risk factors for chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int Suppl* (2011). 2017;7(2):71-87.
- Luyckx VA, Tonelli M, Stanifer JW. The global burden of kidney disease and the sustainable development goals. *Bull World Health Organ*. 2018;96(6):414-22D.
- Tonelli M, Muntner P, Lloyd A, Manns BJ, et al. Risk of coronary events in people with chronic kidney disease compared with those with diabetes: a population-level cohort study. *Lancet*. 2012;380(9844):807-14.
- Kalantar-Zadeh K, Fouque D. Nutritional Management of Chronic Kidney Disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2017;377(18):1765-76.
- United Nations General Assembly. Political declaration of the third high-level meeting of the General Assembly on the prevention and control of non-communicable diseases. 2018.[Accessed on: Sept 26, 2019]. Available at: https://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/73/L.2&Lang=E
- Center for Disease Control and Prevention. Picture of America Executive Summary. 2017.[Accessed on: Sept 26, 2019]. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/pictureofamerica/executive_summary.html
- Levey AS, Schoolwerth AC, Burrows NR, Williams DE, et al. Comprehensive public health strategies for preventing the development, progression, and complications of CKD: report of an expert panel convened by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2009;53(3):522-35.
- Kovesdy CP, Furth SL, Zoccali C, World Kidney Day Steering Committee. Obesity and Kidney Disease: Hidden Consequences of the Epidemic. *J Ren Nutr*. 2017;27(2):75-7.
- Tantisattamo E, Dafoe DC, Reddy UG, Ichii H, et al. Current Management of Acquired Solitary Kidney. *Kidney Int Rep*. 2019;4(9):1205-18.
- Webster AC, Nagler EV, Morton RL, Masson P. Chronic Kidney Disease. *Lancet*. 2017;389(10075):1238-52.
- Koppe L, Fouque D. The Role for Protein Restriction in Addition to Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System Inhibitors in the Management of CKD. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2019;73(2):248-57.
- Mayer GJ, Wanner C, Weir MR, Inzucchi SE, et al. Analysis from the EMPA-REG OUTCOME® trial indicates empagliflozin may assist in preventing the progression of chronic kidney disease in patients with type 2 diabetes irrespective of medications that alter intrarenal hemodynamics. *Kidney Int*. 2019;96(2):489-504.
- Rifkin DE, Coca SG, Kalantar-Zadeh K. Does AKI truly lead to CKD? *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2012;23(6):979-84.
- Torres VE, Chapman AB, Devuyst O, Gansevoort RT, et al. Tolvaptan in patients with autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;367(25):2407-18.
- Verhave JC, Troyanov S, Mongeau F, Fradette L, et al. Prevalence, awareness, and management of CKD and cardiovascular risk factors in publicly funded health care. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2014;9(4):713-9.
- Chow KM, Szeto CC, Kwan B, Leung CB, Li PK. Public lacks knowledge on chronic kidney disease: telephone survey. *Hong Kong Med J*. 2014;20(2):139-44.
- Ene-Iordache B, Perico N, Bikbov B, Carminati S, et al. Chronic kidney disease and cardiovascular risk in six regions of the world (ISN-KDDC): a cross-sectional study. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2016;4(5):e307-19.
- Li PKT, Weening JJ, Dirks J, Lui SL, et al. A report with consensus statements of the International Society of Nephrology 2004 Consensus Workshop on Prevention of Progression of Renal Disease, Hong Kong, June 29, 2004. *Kidney Int Suppl*. 2005;(94):s2-7.
- Vassalotti JA, Stevens LA, Levey AS. Testing for chronic kidney disease: A position statement from the National Kidney Foundation. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2007;50(2):169-80.
- Levey AS, Atkins R, Coresh J, Cohen EP, et al. Chronic kidney disease as a global public health problem: approaches and initiatives – a position statement from Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes. *Kidney Int*. 2007;72(3):247-59.
- Crowe E, Halpin D, Stevens P; Guideline Development Group. Early identification and management of chronic kidney disease: summary of NICE guidance. *BMJ*. 2008;337:a1530.
- Li PKT, Chow KM, Matsuo S, Yang CW, et al. Asian chronic kidney disease best practice recommendations: positional statements for early detection of chronic kidney disease from Asian Forum for Chronic Kidney Disease Initiatives (AFCKDI). *Nephrology (Carlton)*. 2011;16(7):633-41.

27. Fink HA, Ishani A, Taylor BC, Greer NL, et al. Screening for, monitoring, and treatment of chronic kidney disease stages 1 to 3: A systematic review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force and for an American College of Physicians Clinical Practice Guideline. *Ann Intern Med.* 2012;156(8):570-81.
28. Li PKT, Ng JK, Cheng YL, Kwan TH, et al. Relatives In Silent Kidney disease Screening study (RISKS): a Chinese cohort study. *Nephrology (Carlton).* 2017;22 Suppl 4:35-42.
29. Samal L, Linder JA. The primary care perspective on routine urine dipstick screening to identify patients with albuminuria. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2013;8(1):131-5.
30. George C, Mogueo A, Okpechi I, Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Kengne AP. Chronic kidney disease in low-income to middle-income countries: the case for increased screening. *BMJ Glob Health.* 2017;2(2):e000256.
31. González-Quiróz M, Nitsch D, Hamilton S, O'Callaghan Gordo C, et al. Rationale and population-based prospective cohort protocol for the disadvantaged populations at risk of decline in eGFR (CO-DEGREE). *BMJ Open.* 2019;9(9):e031169.
32. Boulware LE, Jaar BG, Tarver-Carr ME, Brancati FL, Powe NR. Screening for proteinuria in US adults: A cost-effectiveness analysis. *JAMA.* 2003;290(23):3101-14.
33. Komenda P, Ferguson TW, Macdonald K, Rigatto C, et al. Cost-effectiveness of primary screening for CKD: A systematic review. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2014;63(5):789-97.
34. Hwang SJ, Tsai JC, Chen HC. Epidemiology, impact and preventive care of chronic kidney disease in Taiwan. *Nephrology (Carlton).* 2010;15 Suppl 2:3-9.
35. Almaguer M, Herrera R, Alfonso J, Magrans C, et al. Primary health care strategies for the prevention of end-stage renal disease in Cuba. *Kidney Int Suppl.* 2005;(97):S4-10.
36. Almaguer-López M, Herrera-Valdez R, Díaz J, Rodríguez O. Integration of chronic kidney disease prevention into noncommunicable disease programs in Cuba. In García-García G, Agodoa LY, Norris KC (eds). *Chronic Kidney Disease in Disadvantaged Populations.* London: Elsevier; 2017:357-65.
37. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. *Advancing American Kidney Health.* 2019. [Accessed on: Sept 26, 2019]. Available at: <https://aspe.hhs.gov/advancing-american-kidney-health>
38. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. *The Special Diabetes Program for Indians. Estimates of Medicare savings.* 2019. [Accessed on: Sept 26, 2019]. Available at: <https://aspe.hhs.gov/pdf-report/special-diabetes-program-indians-estimates-medicare-savings>
39. Morbidity and mortality of renal dialysis: an NIH consensus conference statement. Consensus Development Conference Panel. *Ann Intern Med.* 1994;121(1):62-70.
40. García-García G, Martínez-Castellanos Y, Renoirte-López K, Barajas-Murguía A, et al. Multidisciplinary care for poor patients with chronic kidney disease in México. *Kidney Int Suppl (2011).* 2013;3(2):178-83.
41. Stanifer JW, Von Isenburg M, Chertow GM, Anand S. Chronic kidney disease care models in low- and middle-income countries: a systematic review. *BMJ Glob Health.* 2018;3(2):e000728.
42. Tapia-Conyer R, Gallardo-Rincón H, Betancourt-Cravioto M. Chronic kidney disease in disadvantaged populations: Online educational programs for NCD prevention and treatment. In García-García G, Agodoa LY, Norris KC (eds). *Chronic Kidney Disease in Disadvantaged Populations.* London: Elsevier; 2017:337-45.
43. Narva AS, Norton JM, Boulware LE. Educating Patients about CKD: The Path to Self-Management and Patient-Centered Care. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2016;11(4):694-703.
44. Schatell D. Web-based kidney education: supporting patient self-management. *Semin Dial.* 2013;26(2):154-8.

**APPENDIX 1 :
Selected websites with information on CKD patient education**

World Kidney Day

International Federation of Kidney Foundations

International Society of Nephrology

USA:	American Nephrology Nurse Association American Association of Kidney Patients America Renal Associates (Kidneyman: Patient Education Videos) Kidney School by Medical Education Institute, INC. National Kidney Disease Education Program National Kidney Disease Education Program of National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases The National Kidney Disease Education Program National Kidney Foundation
Canada:	The Kidney Foundation of Canada
United Kingdom:	Kidney care UK National Kidney Foundation NHS England
Australia:	Kidney Health Australia The Australian Kidney Foundation
Others	National Kidney Foundation India National Kidney Foundation Malaysia National Kidney Foundation Singapore New Mexico Kidney Foundation
