

Predicting the risk of acute kidney injury

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Predicting the risk of acute kidney injury: Derivation and validation of STRATIFY-AKI

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How this fits in

- Acute kidney injury is one of the more serious adverse events associated with antihypertensive treatment, reducing an individual's health-related quality of life and increasing the risk of hospitalisation.
- Clinical guidelines recommend that when prescribing antihypertensives, general practitioners (GPs) should take into account the likelihood of both the benefits and the harms from treatment but few data exist in regard to the risk of acute kidney injury.
- We developed and externally validated a clinical prediction model for the risk of acute kidney injury up to 10 years in the future in patients eligible for antihypertensive medication, incorporating commonly recorded patient characteristics, co-morbidities and prescribed medications.
- The model showed good discrimination and good calibration for probabilities up to 20%, enabling GPs to accurately identify patients at higher risk of acute kidney injury. This could be useful to reassure the majority of patients starting or continuing treatment that their risk of acute kidney injury is very low.

Abstract

Background: Antihypertensives reduce the risk of cardiovascular disease but are also associated with harms including acute kidney injury (AKI). Few data exist to guide clinical decision making regarding these risks.

Aim: To develop a prediction model estimating the risk of AKI in people potentially indicated for antihypertensive treatment.

Design and setting: This observational cohort study used routine Primary Care data from the Clinical Practice Research Datalink (CPRD) in England.

Methods: People aged 40+ years, with at least one blood pressure measurement between 130-179 mmHg were included. Outcomes were hospitalisation or death with AKI within 1, 5 and 10 years. The model was derived with data from CPRD GOLD (n=1,772,618), using a Fine-Gray competing risks approach, with subsequent recalibration using pseudo-values. External validation used data from CPRD Aurum (n=3,805,322).

Results: The mean age of participants was 59 years and 52% were female. The final model consisted of 27 predictors and showed good discrimination at 1, 5 and 10 years (C-statistic 0.82, 95%CI 0.82-0.82). There was some over-prediction at the highest predicted probabilities (O/E 0.63, 95%CI 0.62-0.65), affecting patients with the highest risk. Most patients (>95%) had a low 1-5 year risk of AKI.

Conclusions: This clinical prediction model enables GPs to accurately identify patients at high risk of AKI which will aid treatment decisions. Since the vast majority of patients were at low risk, such a model may provide useful reassurance that most antihypertensive treatment is safe and appropriate whilst flagging the few for whom this is not the case.

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Introduction

Blood pressure lowering (antihypertensive) medications are one of the most commonly prescribed medications in older people.(1) They are highly effective at reducing the risk of cardiovascular disease and mortality,(2) however, they are also associated with adverse events, including acute kidney injury (AKI), electrolyte abnormalities, hypotension and syncope.(3)

At present, decisions about when to start (or continue) antihypertensive therapy are made almost exclusively on the basis of blood pressure level and cardiovascular disease risk, aided by cardiovascular risk prediction models.(4) In contrast, less emphasis is given to the potential for harm from treatment. To make such informed clinical decisions, GPs need to understand both the effect of treatment on adverse events (which has been shown previously),(3) and an individual's underlying risk of harm, which currently remains largely unknown.

One such adverse event is AKI, which is typically defined as an increase in serum creatinine of ≥ 0.3 mg/dl within the past 48 hours or an increase of ≥ 1.5 times the baseline value within the past 7 days.(5) Over the past decade, automatic reporting of potential AKI on renal function test reports has become usual practice(6) and may lead to GPs modifying potentially beneficial treatment. In serious cases, AKI can lead to hospitalisation and reduced quality of life and here acute renal failure, as it was previously known, is a significant and long standing issue.(7) Better understanding of an individual's risk of serious AKI (resulting in hospitalisation or death), along with other adverse events, could better inform GPs making antihypertensive treatment decisions, particularly where such a risk is high. This study therefore aimed to use

routinely available data from clinical records to develop and externally validate a clinical prediction model to predict an individual's underlying risk of experiencing hospitalisation or death with AKI within the next 1, 5 and 10 years, for patients with an indication for antihypertensive treatment.

Methods

Extended methods for this study are described in the supplementary material. This study used an observational cohort design and aimed to develop and validate a prediction model for hospitalisation or death with AKI. As a prediction modelling study, it was not the aim to examine the association between antihypertensive treatment and AKI, which has been studied previously.⁽³⁾ The study, utilised routine primary care data from the Clinical Practice Research Datalink (CPRD) in England, linked to Office for National Statistics (ONS) mortality data, basic inpatient hospital episode statistics (HES) and patient-level Index of Multiple Deprivation data (IMD). The model was derived using population data from CPRD GOLD and externally validated using CPRD Aurum, each of which is based on data from English general practices using different EHR software.

Population

Patients were eligible for this study if they were registered at linked general practices contributing to the CPRD GOLD or Aurum in England. Individual records were included if they related to patients aged 40 years or older, registered to a CPRD “up-to-standard” practice and had records available after the study start date (1st January 1998). The study end date was 31st December 2018. Patients entered the cohort following their first systolic blood pressure reading ≥ 130 mmHg, chosen as a group

likely to be considered for antihypertensive therapy.(8) Patients were excluded if they had no record of blood pressure measurement or a systolic blood pressure ≥ 180 mmHg, since at this level, treatment would be indicated regardless of risk of adverse events. The index date was defined 12 months after the patient was recorded to have a systolic blood pressure reading ≥ 130 mmHg. Patients experiencing AKI on their index date were excluded from the analysis.

Outcomes

The model outcome was defined as first hospitalisation or death with a primary diagnostic code for AKI within 10 years of the index date. This was based on ICD9/10 codes documented in HES and ONS mortality data (codes available in supplementary table S1).

Model predictors

Potential predictors of AKI were identified from the literature(9, 10) and by expert clinical opinion. These included patient demographics, clinical characteristics, previous conditions and other prescribed medications (table S2). Predictors were defined as the most recent relevant clinical code prior to the index date.

Antihypertensive medications were defined as a prescription in the 12 months prior to the index date.

Sample size calculation

Assuming a conservative event rate of 24.6 per 100,000 person years,(11) an expected median follow up of 7 years,(12) an estimate of Nagelkerke's R^2 statistic of 0.15 and a maximum number of 40 parameters in the model, a sample size of

approximately 80,000 patients was estimated to be required for the development of this risk equation.(13)

Model development

A multivariable model was fitted using a Fine-Gray sub-distribution model which takes into account competing risks in order to avoid overestimation of predicted probabilities.(14) Deaths from causes other than AKI were treated as a competing event. Automated variable selection methods were not used, since all the variables were predetermined based on the literature and expert clinical opinion. Predictor effects in the model were reported as sub-distribution hazard ratios (SHR) with 95% confidence intervals, and post-estimation of the baseline cumulative incidence for AKI was calculated using the Breslow estimator as defined in the Fine-Gray paper.(14) Analyses were undertaken using the *fastcmprsk* package in RStudio.

Fractional polynomials were used to identify the optimal functional form of continuous variables. The baseline cumulative incidence function at 1, 5 and 10 years was estimated in the derivation dataset in order to allow individual risk predictions at these time points.

Initial model calibration was assessed in the development dataset using calibration curves generated from pseudo-values: jack-knife estimators representing an individual's contribution to the cumulative incidence function for AKI accounting for competing risk and, calculated by the Aalen–Johansen method. These were generated separately in 50 groups by linear predictor value, accounting for the competing risk of death.(15) Where calibration was observed to be sub-optimal at 5

and 10 years, we recalibrated the model in the development data by fitting a generalised linear model (with logit link function) directly to the pseudo-values, with the linear predictor from the Fine-Gray model as the only variable, and allowing for a non-linear recalibration effect using fractional polynomials.

Missing data

Multiple imputation was used to impute all variables with missing data, separately for each of the development and validation datasets. Ten imputations were generated for each dataset. Imputation models contained all predictors included in the main analysis, as well as the Nelson-Aalen estimator and the outcomes of interest (AKI and death).(16) The model coefficients and performance measures (such as C-statistic) were estimated from each imputation dataset and combined using Rubin's rules.(17)

External validation

The external validation was conducted independently by researchers at a different institution (LA, KIES, RDR). The final model equation (recalibrated at 5 and 10 years; box S1) was applied to each individual in the validation cohort to give the predicted probabilities of AKI at 1, 5 and 10 years, while taking into account of the competing risk of death.(18)

Model performance was determined using Royston and Sauerbrei's R_D^2 , a truncated C-statistic and the D-statistic.(19) Model calibration was assessed through comparison of predicted probabilities to observed pseudo-values estimated using jack-knife estimators representing an individual's contribution to the cumulative

incidence function for AKI, accounting for competing risks, and calculated by the Aalen–Johansen method, in the external validation cohort. Calibration was presented as the ratio of observed to expected event probabilities (O/E) and calibration plots to compare the observed versus predicted risks at 1, 5 and 10 years. A random effects meta-analysis was used to examine heterogeneity in model performance across different GP practices, where case mix and outcome prevalence were expected to vary.

The clinical utility of the model was assessed by plotting the 1, 5 and 10-year risk of AKI against the 10-year risk of cardiovascular disease, calculated using the QRisk2 algorithm.⁽⁴⁾ We also conducted a net-benefit analysis, where the harms and benefits of using the model to guide treatment/management decisions were compared to either not taking any action for everyone (irrespective of AKI risk) or taking action for everyone.⁽²⁰⁾

Results

Population characteristics

The CPRD GOLD derivation cohort included 1,772,618 patients with a mean age of 59 years (SD 13.2), including 921,867 females (52%) (figure S1, table 1). The 10-year prevalence of significant AKI following the index date was 3.2% (n=56,110) with 9.7% (n=171,018) of patients experiencing the competing event of death from other causes. Median follow up time for the cohort was 6.4 years (IQR 2.7 to 10).

The CPRD Aurum validation cohort contained 3,805,322 patients, with 131,584 (3.5%) experiencing hospitalisation or death with AKI during 10-year follow up

(incidence by practice shown in figure S2). The competing event of death affected with 407,857 (10.7%) patients during follow-up. Median follow-up time in the validation cohort was 6.9 years (IQR: 2.8 to 10).

Model derivation

The final model included 27 predictors, with transformations used for diastolic blood pressure and total cholesterol due to non-linear relationships with the outcome (table 2). Being male, morbidly obese, a smoker, a heavy drinker, more deprived, increasing age or frailty, or a history of chronic kidney disease and diabetes were associated with an increased risk of AKI (table 2). Most antihypertensive medications, with the exception of thiazide and thiazide-like diuretics, increased the risk of AKI, with ACE inhibitors (SHR 1.54, 95%CI 1.51-1.57) and angiotensin II receptor blockers (SHR: 1.43, 95%CI 1.38-1.48) conferring the highest risk (table 2).

External validation

The distribution of the linear predictor in the validation dataset, grouped by outcome type can be seen in the supplementary material (figure S3). External validation of the model showed good discrimination with a truncated C-statistic of 0.864 (95%CI 0.857-0.870) at 1 year, 0.838 (95%CI 0.835-0.840) at 5 years and 0.821 (95%CI 0.818-0.823) at 10 years (table 3).

There was some evidence of model over-prediction at each time point, although this was less pronounced in the models that had been recalibrated to the development data at 5 and 10 years (table 3, figure 1 and figure S4 and table S3). Miscalibration

was mostly evident in a small number of patients at higher predicted probabilities (>20% risk).

Net benefit analysis showed that using the model with an AKI risk threshold of $\geq 10\%$ to define those at high risk (potentially requiring action), would result in higher clinical utility compared to other approaches such as assuming that everyone is at high risk of AKI or that all patients have low risk (figure 2). Model performance varied more among smaller practices, with more consistent performance seen as practice size increased (figure S6).

Overall, most patients had a low risk of AKI, with 1,770,999 patients (99.9%) estimated to have a <10% 1-year risk, 1,693,695 (95.5%) estimated to have a <10% 5-year risk, and 1,477,166 (83.3%) estimated to have a <10% 10-year risk. Only 2,677 patients (0.15%) had a high risk of AKI (>10%) and but low risk of CVD (<10%) (table S4 and figure 3). There was a higher prevalence of obesity, deprivation and prescription of antihypertensive medications in this group (table S5).

Discussion

Summary

In this study, a clinical prediction model to identify those more at risk of AKI leading to significant harm within 10 years in patients with an indication for antihypertensive treatment showed that most had very low risk, particularly in the medium term (≤ 5 years). The model incorporated commonly recorded patient characteristics, co-morbidities and prescribed medications and showed good discrimination upon external validation. Where miscalibration occurred this primarily affected the small

proportion of patients with a very high risk of AKI (>20% over 10 years, 204,775 patients [5.4%]).

Such a tool could therefore be useful for GPs and pharmacists to reassure most patients that their risk of AKI is low, and although treatment with medications such as antihypertensives might increase this risk,(3) it is unlikely to outweigh the potential benefits from reducing blood pressure and cardiovascular disease risk. For the small number where this is not the case, the tool could flag this to allow incorporation into clinical decision making.

Strengths and limitations

This study used two large, population-based cohorts to derive and externally validate a clinical prediction model for hospitalisation or death with AKI. These datasets have been shown to be representative of patients across England and include data collected by many hundreds of GP practices. We would therefore expect the findings to be generalisable to the same population.(21) A strength of this analysis was that it accounted for the competing risk of death in each analysis, which minimises the likelihood of over-estimating the underlying risk of AKI. This is important for older patients, where the competing risk of death is high. The model only included predictors which are routinely available in primary care electronic health records, and those predictors with missing data at implementation (such as alcohol consumption, ethnicity and BMI) could easily be collected within the patient consultation in which the tool is used.

This analysis had some limitations: firstly, model miscalibration was present, particularly for those with higher predicted risks, although this is common in prediction models based on EHRs commonly used in clinical practice,(22) and has been observed in those previously developed for AKI.(23) Such miscalibration would not be a problem in practice if using lower thresholds to define high/low risk (e.g. $\pm 10\%$ over 10 years).

Secondly, the model outcome was based on hospital and death registry codes, where AKI was listed as the primary cause of admission/death, rather than guideline recommended changes in creatinine,(5) although many of these codes will have been based on creatinine measurements. This aimed to ensure that the AKI events were truly significant and hence meaningful for both patients and their GPs. It also avoided simply labelling individuals on the basis of blood results which may not have impacted on their quality of life,(24) although we acknowledge that such test results are important and can lead to further nephrology referral, investigations, and medication changes, all of which can impose a burden on patients.

Finally, previous prediction models for AKI, based in a secondary care setting, have included conditions such as heart failure, respiratory failure and prescription of NSAID medications.(23, 25) These predictors were not included in the present analysis and it is unclear whether their absence affected the present model performance upon external validation.

Comparison with existing literature

Previous clinical prediction models developed to predict AKI have almost exclusively focussed on utility in an inpatient or postoperative setting,(9, 23, 26) using data from a selected population of patients admitted to hospital for a range of conditions such as heart failure.(27) These models estimated the risk of AKI over shorter periods of follow-up, did not account for the competing risk of death, and did not include prescribed medication as a potential predictor.

To our knowledge, this is the first clinical prediction model for AKI developed for use in a primary care setting and taking into account prescribed medication. Unlike many other models,(9, 23, 27) the present model was externally validated in a nationally representative population and displayed better discrimination than previous models,(23) even at 10 years post index date.

Implications for Research and/or practice

The rationale for developing this model was to provide data to aid GPs in better understanding the balance of benefits and harms of antihypertensive therapy, prior to prescribing treatment or modifying existing prescriptions. To do this, GPs need to understand the effect of treatment on cardiovascular disease(2) and adverse events,(3) and an individual's underlying risk of benefit and harm. Many cardiovascular prediction models exist which enable the benefits of antihypertensive treatment to be estimated,(4) but unlike conditions such as atrial fibrillation where stroke prevention is routinely assessed against bleeding risk, the risk of harm from antihypertensive treatment is not well documented or understood.(3) (28) (29) (30) The present prediction model provides this information. Given the low risk of AKI seen across the population, it seems likely that these particular harms of treatment

would only outweigh the benefits in a small fraction of individuals. Indeed, in the present population, less than 1% of individuals had a high risk of AKI but low risk of CVD. These individuals were more likely to be obese, be from an area of high deprivation or be prescribed multiple antihypertensive medications, but using the present tool alongside existing cardiovascular prediction tools(4) would provide the most personalised risk estimates. Such tools could also be enhanced by incorporating similar evidence regarding the risk of falls(31) to develop a multidimensional antihypertensive harm tool.

Regular monitoring of creatinine levels is recommended in primary care, including in those with hypertension,(32) and blood test results now routinely alert GPs to possible AKI.(6) What GPs should do with this information remains unclear.(33) The present prediction model could be used to target such monitoring to those most likely to benefit from it.

Conclusions

The present study developed and validated a clinical prediction model for hospitalisation or death with AKI and found most patients with an indication for antihypertensives had a very low risk of AKI. This model could be used to reassure patients starting or up-titrating antihypertensive treatment and should be used alongside other prediction models for adverse events related to antihypertensive therapy(31) to allow GPs and patients to better understand the full spectrum of benefits and harms from such treatment.

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Availability of data and materials

Data were obtained via a CPRD institutional licence. Requests for data sharing should be made directly to the CPRD. The algorithm is freely available for research use and can be downloaded from <https://process.innovation.ox.ac.uk/software>. (will be made publically available upon publication of this manuscript)

Codelists used to generate the study cohort and variables included in the analysis are available at <https://github.com/jamesheppard48/STRATIFY-BP/tree/STRATIFY-AKI>

Conflicts of interest

None

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics for patients in the GOLD derivation dataset and Aurum validation dataset. Numbers are n (%) unless otherwise stated.

Patient characteristics	GOLD Derivation dataset (n=1,772,618)	Aurum Validation dataset (n=3,805,322)
Follow up - years (p50, IQR)	6.4 (2.7 to 10)	6.9 (2.8 to 10)
Age (years) – mean (SD)	59.4 (13.2)	58.6 (13.3)
Gender (female)	921,867 (52%)	1,959,472 (51%)
Systolic blood pressure – mean (SD)	143.5 (11.9)	143.8 (12.3)
Diastolic blood pressure – mean (SD)	83.8 (9.6)	83.9 (9.8)
BMI		
Underweight	20,625 (1%)	39,987 (1%)
Normal	519,374 (29%)	1,033,529 (27%)
Overweight	586,325 (33%)	1,231,156 (32%)
Obese	340,241 (19%)	757,111 (20%)
Morbidly obese	39,831 (2%)	95,006 (3%)
Missing	266,222 (15%)	648,533 (17%)
Ethnicity		
White	734,167 (41%)	2,041,469 (54%)
Black	10,799 (0.6%)	115,276 (3%)
Asian (South)	14,799 (0.8%)	94,483 (2%)
Other	15,732 (0.9%)	832,614 (22%)
Deprivation Score		
IMD 1	420,765 (24%)	790,303 (21%)
IMD 2	406,779 (23%)	732,240 (19%)
IMD 3	376,770 (21%)	684,279 (18%)
IMD 4	313,605 (18%)	630,472 (17%)
IMD 5	254,699 (14%)	597,169 (16%)
Missing	NA	370,859 (10%)
Smoking status		
Non smoker	847,217 (48%)	1,475,689 (39%)
Ex-smoker	471,008 (27%)	1,236,048 (32%)
Smoker	363,443 (21%)	838,395 (22%)
Missing	90,950 (5%)	255,190 (7%)
Electronic frailty index		

Continuous (p50, IQR)	0.03 (0 to 0.08)	0.06 (0.03 to 0.08)
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Alcohol

Non drinker	289,472 (16%)	864,849 (23%)
Trivial drinker	488,292 (28%)	998,943 (26%)
Light drinker	239,734 (14%)	696,364 (18%)
Moderate	179,100 (10%)	246,466 (6%)
Heavy	22,763 (1%)	74,004 (2%)
Unknown amount	291,651 (16%)	237,458 (6%)
Missing	261,606 (15%)	687,238 (18%)

Risk Factors

Chronic kidney disease	37,385 (2%)	98,170 (3%)
Hypotension/Syncope	68,517 (4%)	147,533 (4%)
Ischemic heart disease	343,677 (19%)	508,226 (13%)
Diabetes	137,763 (8%)	324,163 (9%)
Atrial fibrillation	51,378 (3%)	115,266 (3%)

Antihypertensive medications

ACE Inhibitors	219,514 (12%)	478,763 (13%)
Angiotensin II receptor blockers	59,077 (3%)	136,917 (4%)
Alpha-blockers	34,335 (2%)	68,129 (2%)
Beta-blockers	216,124 (12%)	461,318 (12%)
Calcium channel blockers	193,142 (11%)	426,141 (11%)
Thiazide and thiazide-like diuretics	180,071 (10%)	397,971 (10%)
Other antihypertensives	10,785 (0.6%)	19,233 (1%)
Any antihypertensive medication	556,978 (31%)	1,261,268 (33%)

p50=median; IQR=interquartile range; SD=standard deviation; IMD=Indices of multiple deprivation

Table 2. Sub-hazard ratios for covariates included in the final clinical prediction model for acute kidney injury within 10 years.

Covariates	Full case analysis (n= 337,733)	Multiple Imputation model (n=1,772,618)
Age	1.04 (1.038-1.041)	1.061 (1.060-1.062)
Gender	0.66 (0.64-0.68)	0.61 (0.60-0.63)
Systolic blood pressure	1.004 (1.003- 1.005)	1.005 (1.004-1.006)
Diastolic blood pressure	1.36 (1.28-1.46)	1.29 (1.23-1.35)
BMI		
Underweight	Reference	Reference
Normal	0.95 (0.85-1.06)	0.97 (0.82-1.14)
Overweight	0.95 (0.85-1.07)	1.06 (0.89-1.26)
Obese	1.16 (1.03-1.30)	1.34 (1.11-1.62)
Morbidly obese	1.88 (1.67-2.12)	2.50 (2.20-2.90)
Cholesterol	0.77 (0.72-0.82)	0.76 (0.73-0.81)
Ethnicity		
White	Reference	Reference
Black	1.23 (1.13-1.35)	1.33 (1.10-1.63)
Asian (South)	1.00 (0.92-1.09)	1.18 (0.95-1.45)
Other	0.94 (0.87-1.02)	1.02 (0.91-1.16)
Deprivation Score		
IMD 1	Reference	Reference
IMD 2	1.04 (0.99-1.09)	1.08 (1.04-1.10)
IMD 3	1.08 (1.03-1.13)	1.10 (1.07-1.14)
IMD 4	1.18 (1.13-1.23)	1.22 (1.19-1.26)
IMD 5	1.31 (1.25-1.37)	1.37 (1.33-1.41)
Smoking status		
Non smoker	Reference	Reference
Ex-smoker	1.17 (1.14-1.21)	1.21 (1.18-1.23)
Smoker	1.51 (1.45-1.56)	1.57 (1.52-1.61)
Electronic frailty index*		
FI (for every 3.6 deficits)	1.10 (1.07-1.20)	1.28 (1.26-1.31)
Alcohol		
Non drinker	Reference	Reference

Trivial drinker	0.82 (0.79-0.85)	0.85 (0.83-0.89)
Light drinker	0.81 (0.78-0.84)	0.80 (0.76-0.85)
Moderate	0.84 (0.80-0.89)	0.82 (0.78-0.87)
Heavy	1.15 (1.04-1.27)	1.27 (1.14-1.41)
Unknown amount	0.91 (0.87-0.95)	0.88 (0.84-0.93)
Risk Factors		
Chronic kidney disease	2.10 (2.05-2.2)	2.05 (1.98-2.12)
Hypotension/Syncope	0.86 (0.81-0.91)	0.87 (0.84-0.91)
Ischemic heart disease	0.93 (0.90-0.96)	0.95 (0.93-0.97)
Diabetes	1.15 (1.12-1.19)	1.53 (1.49-1.57)
Atrial fibrillation	1.27 (1.21-1.34)	1.19 (1.16-1.23)
Medications		
ACE Inhibitors	1.44 (1.40-1.49)	1.54 (1.51-1.57)
Angiotensin II receptor blockers	1.38 (1.32-1.44)	1.43 (1.38-1.48)
Alpha-blockers	1.19 (1.13-1.25)	1.23 (1.19-1.28)
Beta-blockers	1.07 (1.04-1.11)	1.16 (1.13-1.19)
Calcium channel blockers	1.13 (1.10-1.17)	1.19 (1.16-1.21)
Thiazide and thiazide-like diuretics	0.92 (0.89-0.95)	0.98 (0.95-0.99)
Other antihypertensives	1.25 (1.11-1.41)	1.27 (1.17-1.37)
Opioids	1.10 (1.07-1.41)	1.16 (1.13-1.18)
Hypnotics/Benzodiazepines	1.05 (1.02-1.09)	1.04 (1.02-1.06)
Anti-depressants	1.04 (0.99-1.08)	1.06 (1.04-1.08)
Anticholinergic medications	1.03 (0.99-1.07)	1.03 (1.00-1.06)

*Frailty index

SHR per deficit: 1.072 (95% CI: 1.068 to 1.076)

Variable transformations

The follow transformations were applied to specific variables in the model:

Diastolic blood pressure was transformed using a first degree polynomial ($^{-0.5}$), rescaled and centred $((\text{diastolic blood pressure}/1000)^{-0.5}) - 3.472411$

Age was centred= $\text{age} - 59.40057$

Systolic blood pressure was centred= $\text{systolic blood pressure} - 143.47$

The electronic frailty index was rescaled= $(\text{Frailty index}/0.1)$

Cholesterol was log transformed and centred= $\ln(\text{cholesterol}) - 1.670416$

Sub-hazard ratios presented with 95% confidence intervals; IMD=Indices of multiple deprivation

Table 3. Predictive performance statistics of the models on external validation in CPRD Aurum

Performance statistic	Model timeframe		
	1 year Estimate (95% CI)	5 years (re-calibrated model)* Estimate (95% CI)	10 years (re-calibrated model)* Estimate (95% CI)
O/E			
Pooled effect size (95% CI)	0.509 (0.493 to 0.526)	0.685 (0.671 to 0.698)	0.633 (0.621 to 0.645)
Prediction interval	0.225 to 1.150	0.415 to 1.139	0.391 to 1.020
I ²	100% (100% to 100%)	100% (100% to 100%)	100% (100% to 100%)
Tau ²	0.170 (0.153 to 0.190)	0.066 (0.059 to 0.074)	0.060 (0.054 to 0.067)
C-statistic			
Pooled effect size	0.864 (0.857 to 0.870)	0.838 (0.835 to 0.840)	0.821 (0.818 to 0.823)
Prediction interval	0.666 to 0.953	0.796 to 0.872	0.777 to 0.858
I ²	78.9% (76.3% to 81.3%)	38.7% (31.4% to 45.5%)	51.4% (45.4% to 57.0%)
Tau ²	0.346 (0.298 to 0.403)	0.020 (0.015 to 0.027)	0.020 (0.015 to 0.025)
D-statistic			
Pooled effect size	1.85 (1.69 to 2.01)	1.84 (1.69 to 1.99)	1.55 (1.42 to 1.67)
Prediction interval	0.91 to 2.78	1.23 to 2.44	1.30 to 1.79
I ²	7.2% (4.5% to 10.7%)	2.6% (1.2% to 4.6%)	0.5% (0.0% to 2.3%)
Tau ²	0.220 (0.136 to 0.342)	0.090 (0.041 to 0.164)	0.012 (0.000 to 0.060)
Royston and Sauerbrei's R_D^2			
Range	0.000 to 1.000	0.011 to 0.769	0.018 to 0.737
Median (IQR)	0.569 (0.479 to 0.641)	0.492 (0.436 to 0.549)	0.409 (0.347 to 0.477)
Mean (SD)	0.540 (0.157)	0.492 (0.087)	0.413 (0.092)

CI=confidence interval; IQR=interquartile range; SD=standard deviation

*Predictive performance of the models that had been recalibrated to the development data, when applied in the external validation data. Performance statistics for the original models can be found in the supplementary appendix (table S3)

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Figure 1. Calibration plots comparing observed and predicted risk of AKI at 1, 5 and 10 years in the GOLD derivation dataset and Aurum validation dataset

Figure 2. Decision curve analysis, showing net benefit of using the AKI prediction model for determining which patients are at high risk of AKI. Y-axis corresponds to the unit of measurement of net benefit (true positives; a net benefit of 0.1 means 10 true positives per 100 patients). The x-axis corresponds to a potential threshold probability from the AKI model (e.g., a 10% threshold used to define patients at high risk for developing AKI). All plots have lines corresponding to the net benefit of “taking action” to address the high AKI risk (either through monitoring, or deprescribing of antihypertensive drugs). Treat all corresponds to “taking action” for all patients irrespective of AKI risk, treat none corresponds to not “taking action” for anyone. The line that is the highest corresponds to the best strategy at any given threshold probability.

Figure 3. Comparison of patients’ risk of cardiovascular disease (QRisk2) and acute kidney injury AKI at 1, 5 and 10 years in the GOLD derivation dataset.

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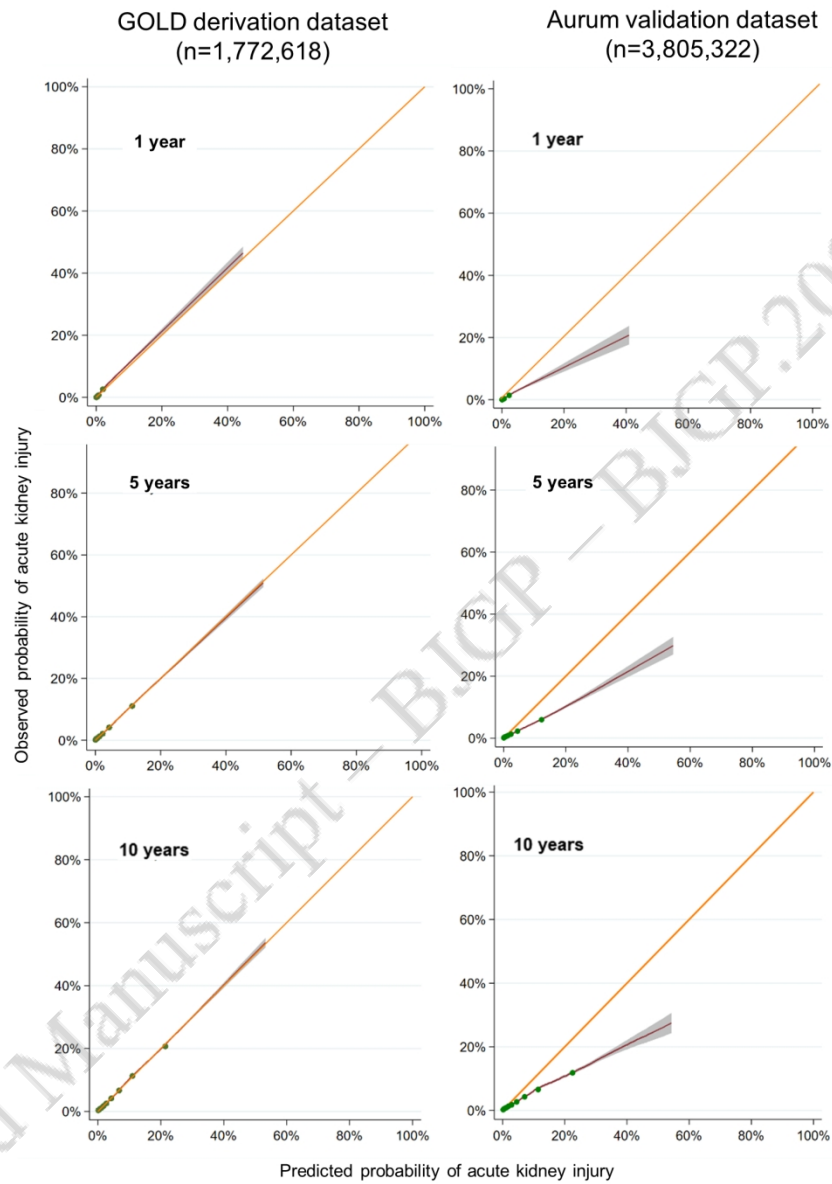


Figure 1

145x189mm (300 x 300 DPI)

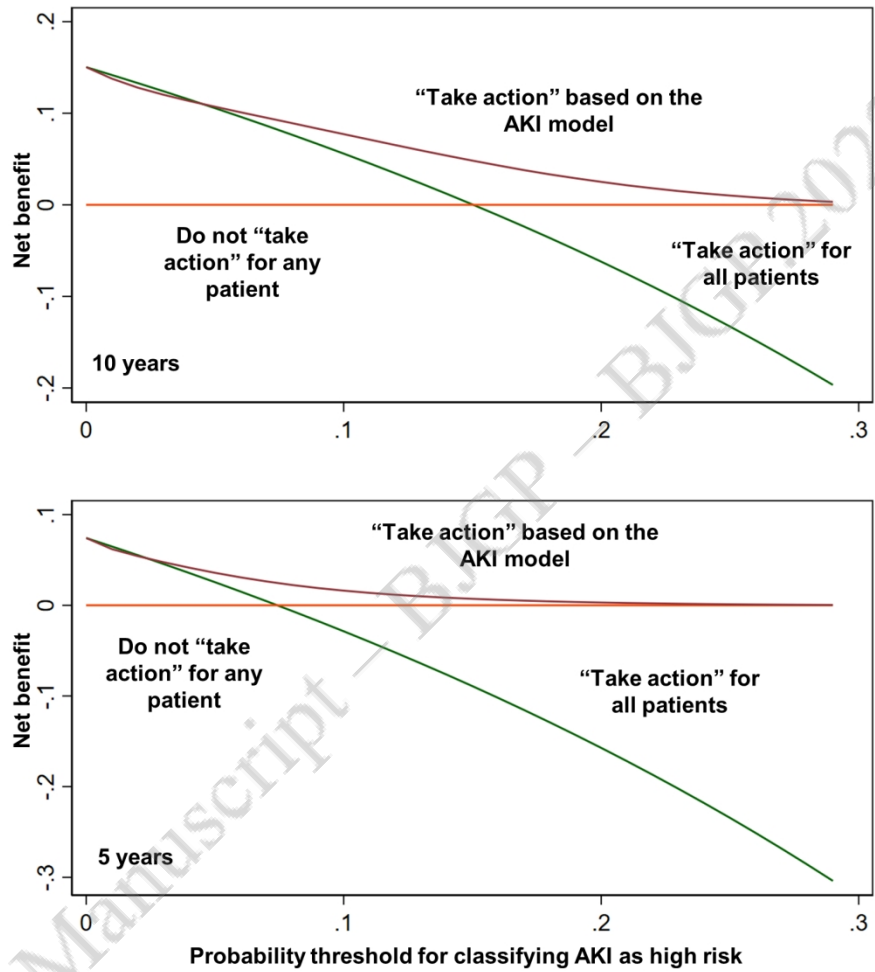


Figure 2

145x189mm (300 x 300 DPI)

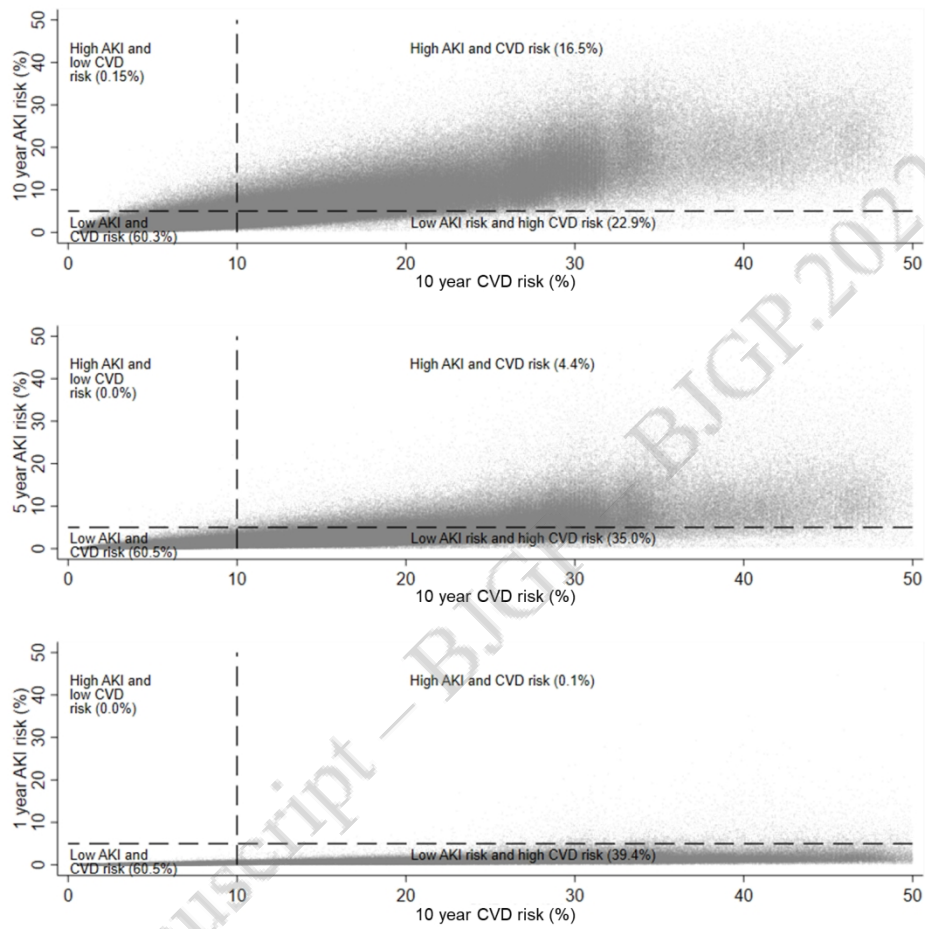


Figure 3

145x150mm (300 x 300 DPI)