Atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome and C3 glomerulopathy: conclusions from a “Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes” (KDIGO) Controversies Conference

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In both atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome (aHUS) and C3 glomerulopathy (C3G) complement plays a primary role in disease pathogenesis. Herein we report the outcome of a 2015 Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) Controversies Conference where key issues in the management of these 2 diseases were considered by a global panel of experts. Areas addressed included renal pathology, clinical phenotype and assessment, genetic drivers of disease, acquired drivers of disease, and treatment strategies. In order to help guide clinicians who are caring for such patients, recommendations for best treatment strategies were discussed at length, providing the evidence base underpinning current treatment options. Knowledge gaps were identified and a prioritized research agenda was proposed to resolve outstanding controversial issues.

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KEYWORDS: anti-complement therapies; atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome; C3 glomerulopathy; complement; glomerulonephritis; kidney disease

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The 2 prototypical complement-mediated kidney diseases are atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome (aHUS) and C3 glomerulopathy (C3G).

Atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome is an ultra-rare disease characterized by acute kidney injury, thrombocytopenia, and microangiopathic hemolytic anemia that occurs with a reported incidence of approximately 0.5 per million per year. Other diseases that can present with a similar phenotype include Shiga toxin-producing E. coli-associated hemolytic uremic syndrome (STEC-HUS), thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura, and other multisystem disorders. Criteria have been established to facilitate the diagnosis of aHUS. At least 50% of patients with aHUS have an underlying inherited and/or acquired complement abnormality, which leads to dysregulated activity of the alternative pathway at the endothelial cell surface. There are, however, noncomplement inherited abnormalities such as mutations in DGKE, which can result in an aHUS phenotype. Until recently, the prognosis for aHUS was poor, with the majority of patients developing end-stage renal disease within 2 years of presentation. However, with the introduction of eculizumab, a humanized monoclonal antibody against C5, it is now possible to control the renal disease and prevent development of end-stage renal disease.

C3G is also ultra-rare (incidence approximately 1 per million per year) and defines a group of incurable kidney diseases driven by uncontrolled activation of the complement cascade that leads to C3 deposition within the glomerulus. Most frequently, dysregulation occurs at the level of the C3 convertase of the alternative pathway in the fluid phase and is driven by genetic and/or acquired defects. Broad...
interindividual variability gives rise to 2 major subtypes of disease, dense deposit disease (DDD) and C3 glomerulonephritis (C3GN), that are resolved by characteristic findings on renal biopsy.

The objective of this Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) conference was to gather a global panel of multidisciplinary clinical and scientific expertise to identify key issues relevant to the optimal management of these 2 diseases and to propose a research agenda to resolve outstanding controversial issues.

RENAL PATHOLOGY

aHUS

Atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome is a “thrombotic” microangiopathy (TMA), the pathological features of which represent tissue responses to endothelial injury. In some biopsies, overt thrombosis as evidenced by intraluminal fibrin or fibrin-platelet plugging is not seen. Nonthrombotic features include endothelial swelling and denudation, mesangiolysis, double contours of the glomerular basement membrane, and subendothelial accumulation of electronlucent, flocculent material. In arteries and arterioles, intramural fibrin, myxoid intimal thickening, and concentric myointimal proliferation (onion-skinning) may occur. It is illogical to describe cases with these features and clear absence of thrombosis as thrombotic microangiopathy. We therefore suggest referring to the process as microangiopathy, with further specification of whether thrombosis is present (Table 1).

Areas of controversy and gaps in knowledge. C5b-9 staining can be seen in microangiopathy attributed to complement abnormalities, drug toxicity, and after hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. However, its presence is not reliable and we do not know whether this variability reflects technical or biological differences (Table 1).

In general, it is not possible to determine etiology from morphology. Because morphologic features do not allow identification of etiology, it is important for the pathologist to provide a differential diagnosis, especially in patients with severe hypertension, where attributing changes to hypertension alone may lead to failure to identify other specific causes such as complement dysfunction.

C3G

C3G defines a disease spectrum caused by abnormal control of complement activation, deposition, or degradation that results in predominant glomerular C3 fragment deposition associated with characteristic deposits as seen by electron microscopy (EM). Based on EM appearance, C3G may be subclassified as DDD (dense osmiophilic intramembranous deposits) or C3GN (light dense, amorphous mesangial, paramegial, subendothelial, and subepithelial deposits) (Table 2).

A renal biopsy is required to diagnose C3G. The pattern seen on light microscopy can be very diverse, and a diagnosis of C3G can only be made on immunofluorescence (IF). The criterion on IF with the best balance of sensitivity and specificity is the presence of dominant C3 staining, with the intensity of C3 staining at least 2 orders of magnitude greater than any other immunoreactant (i.e., IgG, IgM, IgA, and C1q). This criterion captures about 90% of DDD cases, but possibly fewer C3GN cases. In the remaining cases, the initial kidney biopsy may not show C3-dominant glomerulonephritis (GN), but subsequent biopsies may, reflecting an evolution in disease over time and suggesting that in cases with an atypical clinical course, repeat biopsies may be

### Table 1 | Morphological features in microangiopathy

| Active lesions | Chronic lesions |
|---------------|----------------|
| **Glomeruli** | **Glomeruli** |
| Thrombi | Double contours of peripheral capillary walls by LM, with variable mesangial interposition |
| Endothelial swelling or denudation | New subendothelial basement membrane by EM |
| Fragmented red blood cells | Widening of the subendothelial zone by EM |
| Subendothelial flocculent material by EM | |
| Mesangiolysis | |
| Microaneurysms | |
| Arterioles | |
| Thrombi | Hyaline deposits |
| Endothelial swelling or denudation | |
| Intramural fibrin | |
| Fragmented red blood cells | |
| Intimal swelling | |
| Myocyte necrosis | |
| **Arteries** | **Arteries** |
| Thrombi | Fibrous intimal thickening with concentric lamination (onion skin) |
| Myxoid intimal swelling | |
| Intramural fibrin | |
| Fragmented red blood cells | |

EM, electron microscopy; LM, light microscopy.

### Table 2 | Morphological features of C3G

| Light microscopy | **Active lesions** |
|------------------|------------------|
| Mesangial expansion with or without hypercellularity | |
| Endocapillary hypercellularity including monocytes and/or neutrophils | |
| Capillary wall thickening with double contours (the combination of capillary wall thickening and mesangial increase is referred to as a membranoproliferative pattern) | |
| Necrosis | |
| Cellular/fibrocapsular crescents | |
| **Chronic lesions** | Segmental or global glomerulosclerosis |
| Fibrous crescents | |

**Immunofluorescence microscopy**

- Typically dominant C3 staining

**Electron microscopy**

- DDD: Dense osmiophilic mesangial and intramembranous electron dense deposits
- C3GN: Amorphous mesangial with or without capillary wall deposits including subendothelial, intramembranous and subepithelial electron dense deposits
- Subepithelial “humps” may be seen in both DDD and C3GN

C3G, C3 glomerulopathy; DDD, dense deposit disease; C3GN, C3 glomerulonephritis.
The timing of the initial biopsy is crucial because C3G often presents in the context of an acute infection, and C3 dominance can be seen in self-limiting postinfectious glomerulonephritis. There are no morphological features in acute exudative GN that predict resolution or progression. Humps are no longer considered pathognomonic of post-infectious glomerulonephritis, as they are frequently found in C3G. Cases of acute exudative GN with double contours of the glomerular basement membrane should heighten suspicion for C3GN. EM should be conducted in all cases to unequivocally distinguish DDD and C3GN, as this distinction is clinically important. In addition, in light of recent descriptions of GN with masked monotypic Ig deposits, staining for IgG and light chains on pronase-digested paraffin sections should be considered for all cases of C3GN on standard IF, especially in adults.

**Areas of controversy and gaps in knowledge.** There is evidence that staining for C4d can distinguish C3G from immune complex-mediated GN, though its role is not established. Further studies on both frozen and paraffin sections are required.

There are numerous knowledge gaps. Broadly, correlations between renal biopsy appearances, etiology, and clinical outcome including response to therapy are ill defined. IF staining is subjective and semiquantitative, and reliability and reproducibility have not been studied. While the EM appearance of DDD is well-defined and is used as a standard against which to assess the role of IF, it is not clear whether EM appearances in C3GN are characteristic and can confirm the diagnosis if IF is equivocal. The significance of some EM findings, such as the hump-like subepithelial deposits, is uncertain, and in some cases, distinguishing DDD and C3GN by EM is difficult. While it is possible to objectively assess the density of deposits on EM, the value of this approach requires further study.

It is possible to identify different C3 breakdown products in glomeruli by IF or mass spectrometry after laser capture microdissection. This methodology can also be used to detect other complement components (i.e., factor H-related proteins, C5–C9). It is not known whether some of these complement components in specific tissue compartments (e.g., C5b-9) might identify a subset of patients likely to benefit from a specific type of therapy (e.g., anti-C5 therapy). An increased understanding of the significance of different complement components would be facilitated by detailed IF studies using well-characterized antibodies.

**CLINICAL PHENOTYPE AND ASSESSMENT**

**aHUS**

The term aHUS has been used historically to define any HUS not caused by STEC-HUS. Current classifications reflect an increased understanding of disease mechanisms including the impact of genetic background and etiologic triggers. As a result, some clinicians now use the term “primary aHUS” when an underlying abnormality of the alternative pathway of complement is strongly suspected and other causes of secondary aHUS have been excluded (Figure 1). However, even in some of these patients, a complement abnormality will not be identified. In many patients with an underlying complement risk factor, a trigger is required for aHUS to manifest. Triggers include autoimmune conditions, transplants, pregnancy, infections, drugs, and metabolic conditions. It may be difficult to show unequivocally that a trigger unmasks latent complement defects. Additional work is required to define the impact of complement risk factors in these subgroups.

**Acute versus chronic disease?** In general, we do not understand the time course of a clinical episode of aHUS and whether disease activity persists. However, many patients appear to be at life-long risk for the recurrent acute presentation of aHUS. Disease penetrance for an acute episode of aHUS is age-related, and by age 70 may be as high as 64%, an observation that supports the existence of additional disease modifiers. A small percentage (3%–5%) of patients carry more than 1 pathogenic genetic variant, supporting a relationship between mutation burden and penetrance. Presentation in later life is consistent with the need for an environmental trigger. Discordance between the pathological and clinical manifestations of the disease is sometimes seen. For instance, a thrombotic microangiopathy can sometimes be present on renal biopsy in the absence of thrombocytopenia.

The introduction of eculizumab has changed the natural history of aHUS. Prior to eculizumab, most patients with aHUS progressed to end-stage renal disease, at which time the TMA process usually ceased. With complement inhibitory therapy, glomerular perfusion and function are maintained. How the renal endothelium is altered and interacts with the complement system following withdrawal of complement inhibitors is unclear and may be informed by clinical trials.

**C3G**

In contrast to the acute presentation of aHUS, in the majority of patients with C3G, the disease follows a chronic, indolent course with persistent alternative pathway activation resulting in a 10-year renal survival of approximately 50%. However, cases of C3G presenting as a rapidly progressive GN are well recognized.

**Extrarenal manifestations of aHUS and C3G**

Extrarenal manifestations are reported in up to 20% of patients with aHUS (Supplementary Table S1). It is unclear whether these manifestations are a direct consequence of complement activation, TMA, or other factors such as severe hypertension and uremia. Interestingly, despite sharing many of the same rare genetic variants in CFH and CFI described in age-related macular degeneration, drusen formation is not commonly reported in aHUS.

In C3G (DDD and C3GN), acquired partial lipodystrophy and retinal drusen are reported and appear to be direct consequences of complement activation. Acquired
partial lipodystrophy is most commonly seen in individuals with C3 nephritic factors. Factor D, required for formation of the C3 convertase, is highly expressed in adipocytes, which undergo C3 nephritic factor–induced complement-dependent lysis. Drusen, the accumulation of lipids and complement-rich proteins between Bruch's membrane and the retinal pigment epithelium, are commonly seen in age-related macular degeneration but occur at an earlier age in C3G.

**Laboratory investigations**

Once routine biochemical and hematological analysis has demonstrated a TMA, investigations should focus on determining the underlying etiology and excluding other diagnoses (Supplementary Table S2, Figure 1). The most urgent requirement is to measure ADAMTS13 activity to diagnose or exclude thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura. Because the incidence of thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura is much lower in children than in adults, expert opinion recommends that in children, treatment with eculizumab should not be delayed while ADAMTS13 activity is being determined; however, signs of nonresponse should be carefully monitored. By contrast, in adults, measuring ADAMTS13 activity is recommended prior to eculizumab initiation. Investigation for STEC-HUS should be routine in all patients with presumed aHUS, as approximately 5% of STEC-HUS cases have no prodromal diarrhea, whereas 30% of complement-mediated aHUS cases have concurrent diarrhea or gastroenteritis (Figure 1).

**Complement investigations of aHUS and C3G**

Serum or plasma levels of complement proteins should be measured in all patients with primary aHUS and C3G prior to plasma therapy. C3 levels will be low in 30% to 50% of aHUS cases and up to 75% of C3G cases. Low C3 levels are also seen in the acute phase of STEC-HUS and pneumococcal aHUS. CD46 surface expression should be evaluated by flow cytometry for suspected aHUS. Complement functional assays and activation markers can also be obtained. The clinical interpretation of these tests requires further study (Supplementary Table S3).
GENETIC DRIVERS OF DISEASE

aHUS

Studies of hundreds of patients with aHUS have provided an excellent understanding of genetic drivers of disease and have informed genotype–phenotype correlations that predict progression of disease, response to therapy, and the risk of recurrence after transplantation. This level of understanding supports an individualized approach to patient management and treatment based on expert interpretation of genetic profiles, and mandates genetic screening and molecular diagnostics in every patient. Delays in obtaining results from genetic or molecular diagnostic studies should not prevent a clinical diagnosis or postpone treatment, as early anti-complement treatment is crucial to preserve renal function and avoid irreversible sequelae.31

C3G

Our understanding of the genetics of C3G is not yet comparable to that of aHUS, and more data are required to inform genotype–phenotype correlations. This knowledge gap can be addressed by screening large numbers of patients with C3G, studying the effects of disease-associated variants on function, and correlating these data with clinical outcomes (Supplementary Table S4).32–35

There is no clear benefit to performing genetic analysis in every case of C3G, however genetic results may assist in treatment decisions (i.e., anti-complement therapy vs. immunosuppression) and should be undertaken in familial cases and when there is suspicion of a genetic defect.36–40

Genetic testing

The minimum set of genes that should be screened in aHUS and C3G includes CFH, CD46, CFI, C3, CFB, THBD, CFHR1, CFHR5, and DGKE.41–46 Because of the frequent concurrence of genetic risk factors in aHUS, this analysis should also include genotyping for the risk haplotypes CFH-H3 and MCPggvac.47 Genetic analyses must include suitable technologies to detect copy number variation, hybrid genes, and other complex genomic rearrangements in the CFH/CFHRs genomic region.48–53

The identification of a pathogenic genetic variant in a patient with aHUS reinforces the diagnosis and establishes with accuracy the cause of the disease, facilitating patient management, effective treatment, and genetic counseling. In C3G, however, present knowledge is insufficient except in cases of CFHR rearrangements leading to fusion genes (such as CFHR5 nephropathy), FH or FI deficiency, or with C3 mutations.36–40,54,55

Genetic analysis is essential in living-related kidney donor transplantation.56 The general recommendation in aHUS is that transplantation from living-related kidney donors should only be considered if causative genetic (or acquired) factors are clearly identified in the recipient and the related donor is free of these factors. In this setting, the presence in the donor of CFH or MCP aHUS risk haplotypes is not a contraindication to donation.

In C3G, we recommend that all planned recipients of a living-related kidney be screened and if a genetic abnormality is found, the donor should be tested to exclude that genetic abnormality. If the donor is found to carry the same genetic abnormality as the recipient, current evidence would suggest that while this finding may not constitute an absolute contraindication to donation, each case should be evaluated on an individual basis by experts in this area, taking into account the family history and specific genetic abnormality. The theoretical risks that donation may trigger disease onset must be discussed with the donor.

Genetic testing is recommended for patients in whom discontinuation of anticomplement therapies is being considered.

Understanding genetic variants. Genetic variants should be classified as benign, likely benign, variant of uncertain significance, likely pathogenic, or pathogenic following international guidelines.57

In aHUS, pathogenic variants specifically impair the capacity to protect host endothelial cells and platelets from complement damage or activation.58–67 It is clear that the combination of different pathogenic variants and/or the combination of pathogenic variants and common risk variants in CFH and MCP determine overall individual risk/predisposition to aHUS.14,15,43,47,68–71 Genetic makeup also influences disease progression, response to therapies, and recurrence after transplantation (Supplementary Table S5).56,72,73

C3G, in contrast, appears mechanistically more complex than aHUS, with massive C3 activation in plasma and complement dysregulation on surfaces, including the glycocalyx overlying the glomerular endothelial pores.2,17,38,51,55,74–78 We have limited information about genotype-phenotype correlations to distinguish different C3G subtypes, inform prognosis, and/or recommend treatment.

It is highly recommended that genetic results be interpreted by a laboratory with expertise in aHUS and C3G (Supplementary Tables S6 and S7).

ACQUIRED DRIVERS OF DISEASE

aHUS

In aHUS, the best studied are FH autoantibodies, which are typically associated with homozygosity for delCFHR3-CFH1. Positive results should be confirmed in a second sample at least 4 weeks after the initial sample. Testing should also be performed in the prerenal transplant period. In pediatric patients, FH autoantibody assays should be performed following consensus guidelines: at diagnosis and, if positive, at days 7, 14, and 28, monthly, and at 1 year.11 Relapses of anti-FH–associated HUS occur in about 20% to 25% of patients.

C3G

In C3G, C3 nephritics, FH autoantibodies and, in older adults, free light chains should be assayed (Supplementary Table S8). The results of autoantibody assays require expert interpretation, with their relevance to disease interpreted in
the context of the results for all other complement assays and genetic screens.

TREATMENT STRATEGIES

aHUS
All patients with a clinical diagnosis of primary aHUS are eligible for treatment with a complement inhibitor (Supplementary Table S9). The dosing schedule reported in the trials is recommended, although 2 options for altered dosing have been considered: (i) the minimal dose required to achieve complement blockade; and (ii) a discontinuation dosing schedule. No data exist to support either option, and both require monitoring of complement activity (Table 3). The treatment of FH autoantibody–driven aHUS involves the use of antilymphocytic therapy and is guided by antibody titer (Figure 2). Interruption of anticomplement therapy during intercurrent illness, a time of high-risk for aHUS relapse, is not recommended unless an infection with an encapsulated organism is suspected or documented.

If access to eculizumab is unavailable, plasma therapy can be used. Plasma exchange should also be considered for anti-FH-positive aHUS and in the emergency treatment of critically ill patients with severe TMA (e.g., coma or convulsions) and a strong presumption of residual ADAMTS13 activity exceeds 10%. The use of plasma exchange when eculizumab is available may be associated with some improvement, but there is a risk that delaying the onset of eculizumab may lead to a suboptimal therapeutic outcome.

Treatment duration is controversial, and to date there is no evidence to support lifelong therapy in all aHUS patients. Discontinuation of plasma therapy or complement inhibition is feasible at least in some patients with aHUS. The consensus favored a minimal period of treatment to allow optimal renal recovery without early relapse (Figure 3). Prospective studies are crucial to assess parameters predictive of relapse and to define how genetics, quality of renal recovery, age, presence or absence of a triggering event, and biomarkers related to complement activation and/or endothelial cell injury inform this decision.

Eculizumab increases the risk of meningococcal infection. Patients should receive vaccination against meningococcus, including type B; however, vaccination should not delay the start of eculizumab. Antibiotic prophylaxis is mandated during the first 2 weeks. Controversy remains as to whether vaccination is efficacious in patients with acute kidney injury, chronic kidney disease, and/or during immunosuppression. It is unknown whether antimeningococcal antibodies are protective in the setting of complement blockade; therefore, it is recommended that antibiotic prophylaxis be maintained for the treatment duration and up to 2 to 3 months after discontinuation.

Table 3 | Monitoring eculizumab therapy

| Assay | Description | Recommended goal during therapeutic complement blockade | Recommended trough level during therapeutic complement blockade |
|-------|-------------|-----------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| CH50 (Total complement activity) | Measured the combined activity of all of the complement pathways; Tests the functional capability of serum complement components to lyse 50% of sheep erythrocytes in a reaction mixture; Will be low in congenital complement deficiency (C1–8) or during terminal complement blockade; Normal range is assay dependent | <10% of normal | 50–100 μg/ml |
| AH50 (Alternative pathway hemolytic activity) | Measured the combined activity of the alternative and terminal complement pathways; Tests the functional capability of alternate or terminal pathway complement components to lyse 50% of rabbit erythrocytes in a Mg2+-EGTA buffer; Will be low in congenital C3, FI, FB, properdin, FH, and FD deficiencies or during terminal complement blockade; Normal range is assay dependent | <10% of normal | |
| Eculizumab trough | May be a free or bound level; ELISA-based assay using C5 coated plates, patient sera, and an anti-human IgG detection system; Not affected by complement deficiencies | <10% of normal | |
| Alternative assays | The following assays are under investigation (or awaiting to be replicated in different laboratories) as a means to monitor therapeutic complement blockade | | |

aHUS, atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome; C3, complement component 3; C5, complement component 5; EGTA, ethyleneglycol tetraacetic acid; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; FB, complement factor B; FD, complement factor D; FH, complement factor H; FI, complement factor I; sC5b-9, soluble C5b-9; sMAC, soluble membrane attack complex; TCC, terminal complement complex.
Documentation of increased complement activity in the setting of aHUS after an external trigger suggests clinical benefit of complement blockade especially in the setting of severe sequelae. However, in the absence of trial data, complement inhibition in these forms of aHUS remains controversial.

Transplant. Kidney transplantation should be delayed until at least 6 months after the start of dialysis because limited renal recovery may occur several months after starting eculizumab. The resolution of hematological TMA features and extrarenal manifestations is a prerequisite for transplantation. The decision to use anticomplement therapy during transplantation should be based on recurrence risk (Table 4).

Living-related kidney donation carries a risk for recurrence in the recipient and a risk of de novo disease in the donor should the donor carry an at-risk genetic variant. Potential donors with evidence of abnormal alternative complement pathway activity should be excluded. If the potential living-related donor does not carry a pathogenic variant in a complement gene and has no evidence of abnormal complement activation, donation is feasible.

Liver transplant remains an option in patients with liver-derived complement protein abnormalities, in particular for renal transplant recipients with uncontrolled disease activity despite eculizumab therapy. A single randomized controlled trial using steroid as monotherapy in mesangiocapillary GN has been published. Given the change in terminology and disease characterization and the potential confounding effect on trial stratification, the results of this trial are of limited use in guiding current treatment considerations for C3G. A retrospective study supports the effectiveness of mycophenolate mofetil in a select group. Outlined here is a tiered approach to treatment based primarily on expert opinion, with limited support from retrospective cohort studies (Table 5). In the absence of more specific data, monitoring of anticomplement therapy should be similar to that used in aHUS (Table 3).
No specific recommendation can be made for plasma therapy or rituximab (an anti-CD20 antibody). The conference attendees acknowledged published reports that support the effectiveness of plasma therapy in the setting of C3G induced specifically by pathogenic variants in factor H; however, this approach appears to be beneficial to only a select subgroup of patients with C3G.

Transplant. No specific data are available to inform decisions surrounding transplantation in C3G. Recommendations reflect expert opinion and limited case reports (Supplementary Table S10). C3G recurs in allografts at a high rate, leading to graft loss in approximately 50% of patients.

RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

We believe a cross-disciplinary approach should be undertaken for the recommendations listed below. This should include combining pathology, clinical phenotyping, genetics, and therapy prospectively using scoring systems such as the MEST score in IgA nephropathy.

Renal pathology

aHUS. A comparative study of biopsies from patients with well-documented malignant hypertension and patients with well-documented alternative complement pathway disease is required to identify morphological and/or immunohistochemical features that may distinguish between these groups. A longitudinal study of patients with features of chronic microangiopathy on biopsy but without a history of acute presentation is needed to define associations with clinical features, etiology, and outcome.

C3G. A comprehensive study is needed to define the relationship of morphology to etiology, clinical course, and response to therapy, which would be best achieved by a multicenter collection of well-annotated cases, analyzed by a group of renal pathologists in a manner similar to that used for the Oxford classification of IgA nephropathy. The study should include: light microscopy with histologic markers of activity and chronicity; IF, including routine studies together with staining for C3 fragments and other complement proteins; and EM, including objective assessment of deposit density, quantity, and distribution.

Clinical phenotype and evaluation of aHUS and C3G

A consensus on the terminology covering TMAs and aHUS should be sought as more information concerning their pathogenesis becomes available.
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Table 4 | Prophylaxis against aHUS recurrence in allografts based on a risk-assessment strategya

| Recurrence risk     | Treatment regimen                                      |
|---------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|
| High risk (50-100%) | Prophylactic eculizumab\(^{abc}\)                      |
|                     | Note: Start on the day of transplantation due to potential for severe recurrence and limited recovery of function in renal grafts compared with native kidneys |
| Moderate risk       | Prophylactic eculizumab or plasma exchange\(^d\)        |
| Low risk (<10%)     | No prophylaxis                                          |

aHUS, atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome; CFI, complement factor I gene; FH, complement factor H protein; MCP, membrane cofactor protein gene.
\(^a\)Requires complete screening of all genes implicated in aHUS.
\(^b\)Prophylactic regimens are based on local center protocols; no trial data exist to support superiority of 1 protocol over another.
\(^c\)Liver transplantation can be considered for renal transplant recipients with liver-derived complement protein abnormalities, uncontrolled disease activity despite eculizumab therapy, or financial considerations regarding cost of long-term eculizumab therapy.
\(^d\)The decision to perform or not to perform prophylactic plasma exchange or complement inhibition is left to the discretion of the clinician.

Clinical studies are required to define how complement biomarkers correlate with current or impending aHUS relapse and/or renal involvement, to identify risk factors for aHUS relapse upon cessation of anti-complement therapy, to identify alternative anticomplement therapeutics for aHUS, to assess the value of proximal (at the level of the alternative pathway) anticomplement therapy in C3G, and to determine whether complement biomarkers can inform clinical outcome in C3G patients.

Genetic and acquired drivers of disease

Genetic testing should be undertaken in all persons with suspected primary aHUS, although in cases of secondary aHUS, the role of genetic testing must be clarified. Exceptions include de novo posttransplant aHUS and pregnancy-associated aHUS, both of which require genetic testing.

In C3G, except for particular cases, present knowledge is insufficient to establish robust phenotype–genotype correlations. Comprehensive genetic testing is required to fill this knowledge gap.

The impact of acquired autoantibodies such as C3 nephritic factor and FH autoantibody must be followed in longitudinal studies to define their relevance to disease course in the context of the results of all other complement assays and genetic screening.

Table 5 | Recommended treatment approach for C3Ga

| All patients | • Optimal blood pressure control (suggested blood pressure below the 90% in children and ≤120/80 mm Hg in adults) |
|             | ○ Priority agents include angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors and angiotensin receptor blockers |
|             | ○ Optimal nutrition for both normal growth in children and healthy weight in adults |
|             | ○ Lipid control |
| Moderate disease | Description                                      |
|             | • Urine protein over 500 mg/24 h despite supportive therapy |
|             | or Moderate inflammation on renal biopsy |
|             | or Recent increase in serum creatinine suggesting risk for progressive disease |
|             | Recommendation                                 |
|             | • Prednisone                                     |
|             | • Mycophenolate mofetil                          |
| Severe disease | Description                                      |
|             | • Urine protein over 2000 mg/24 h despite immunosuppression and supportive therapy |
|             | or Severe inflammation represented by marked endo- or extracapillary proliferation with or without crescent formation despite immunosuppression and supportive therapy |
|             | or Increased serum creatinine suggesting risk for progressive disease at onset despite immunosuppression and supportive therapy |
|             | Recommendation                                 |
|             | • Methylprednisolone pulse dosing as well as other anti-cellular immune suppressants have had limited success in rapidly progressive disease |
|             | • Data are insufficient to recommend eculizumab as a first-line agent for the treatment of rapidly progressive disease |

C3G, C3 glomerulopathy.

*Based on a single, small prospective trial, case reports, and expert opinion.

In patients with aHUS and C3G in whom neither genetic nor acquired drivers of disease are identified, concerted efforts should be made to elucidate disease triggers.

Treatment and clinical trial strategies for aHUS and C3G

Despite remarkable advances in our understanding of the underlying pathological mechanisms involved in C3G and aHUS, much remains to learn about treatment. Because eculizumab has altered the natural history of aHUS, controversy has arisen in several areas of treatment. Dosing schedule and treatment duration remain controversial and should be rigorously studied.

The treatment of C3G has not been studied thoroughly. In the absence of trial data, retrospective reviews, case studies, and expert opinion inform the current approach to C3G treatment. The development and trial of complement inhibitors as therapeutic interventions for C3G is a high priority. For the purposes of selecting patients for clinical trials, the conference participants felt that only a single phenotypic parameter
warranted consideration: the EM designation as either DDD or C3GN. While data demonstrating that EM will predict treatment response to current therapeutic options are lacking, limited retrospective studies suggest that there is a difference in renal survival between the 2 groups. Alth

Although stratification based on sC5b-9 appears appealing, particularly when considering terminal complement blockade therapeutics, there is a paucity of data to support the reliability of this assay as a true marker of disease pathology. There is also insufficient evidence to support stratification according to C5b-9 staining of renal biopsy tissue. The conference participants believed there was sufficient evidence in other glomerular diseases to exclude patients from C3G trials if they were stable on prior supportive therapy or immune suppression after a 3-month period, had rapidly progressive disease, or had more than 25% sclerosis on renal biopsy.

CONCLUSION
In this report, we document the proceedings of a KDIGO Controversies Conference on the management of aHUS and C3G. We have made recommendations pertinent to the diagnosis and treatment of patients with these 2 diseases based on current expert opinion practices. In addition, we have identified knowledge gaps and offered suggestions for future research. While there are knowledge gaps in both diseases, it is clear that the evidence base for the management of patients with C3G lags behind that of aHUS, and addressing this disparity should be a priority. Though we have presented these 2 diseases as distinct entities, it is clear that there is substantial overlap not only in the pathogenesis but also in the clinical presentation such that some patients may show features of both. This should not be overlooked.

DISCLOSURE
THJ Goodship declared that his employer (Newcastle University) has received consultancy fees on his behalf from Akari Therapeutics and Alexion. HTC declared having received consultancy fees from Achillion and speaker honoraria from Alexion. FF declared having received consultancy fees and speaker honoraria from Alexion. VFB declared having received consultancy fees from Alexion. DK declared having received equity ownership/stock options on Gyrscope Therapeutics and received research support from Fight for Sight, Kidney Research UK, Macular Society, Medical Research Council, Northern Counties Kidney Research Fund, and Wellcome Trust. CMN declared having received consultancy fees from Achillion and royalties from UpToDate. MN declared having received consultancy fees from Alexion and Novartis. MCP declared having received consultancy fees from Achillion and research support from Alexion. SRdC declared having received speaker honoraria from Alexion. LTR declared having received research support from CSL Behring. All the other authors declared no competing interests.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL
Table S1. Extrarenal manifestations reported in aHUS, DDD, and C3GN.

| Table S2. Investigations recommended for TMA. |
| Table S3. Complement studies for aHUS and C3G. |
| Table S4. Genetic drivers in aHUS and C3G. |
| Table S5. Genotype-phenotype correlations in aHUS. |
| Table S6. Categorization of the genetic variants. |
| Table S7. Complement assays that should be considered in addition to genetic screening in aHUS and C3G. |
| Table S8. Acquired drivers of disease in aHUS and C3G: screening recommendations. |
| Table S9. Eculizumab dosing in aHUS based on dosing goal. |
| Table S10. Transplant considerations in C3G. |

Supplementary material is linked to the online version of the paper at www.kidneyernational.org.

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**APPENDIX**

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