Estimating Risk of Encapsulating Peritoneal Sclerosis Accounting for the Competing Risk of Death

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Abstract

**Background.** Risk of Encapsulating Peritoneal Sclerosis (EPS) is strongly associated with the duration of peritoneal dialysis (PD), such that patients who have been on PD for some time may consider elective transfer to haemodialysis to mitigate risk of EPS. There is a need to determine this risk to better inform clinical decision-making, but previous studies have not allowed for the competing risk of death.

**Methods.** This study included new adult PD patients in either Australia and New Zealand (ANZ 1990-2010) or Scotland (2000-2008) followed until 2012. Age, time on PD, primary renal disease, gender, dataset and diabetic status were evaluated as predictors at start of PD, then at three and five years after starting PD using flexible parametric competing risks models.

**Results.** In 17,396 patients (16,162 ANZ, 1,234 Scotland), EPS was observed in 99 (0.57%) patients less frequently in ANZ patients (n=65, 0.4%) than in Scottish patients (n=34, 2.8%). The estimated risk of EPS was much lower when the competing risk of death was taken into account (1-KM=0.0126, CIF=0.0054). Strong predictors of EPS included age, primary renal disease and time on PD. The risk of EPS was reasonably discriminated at the start of PD (C-statistic = 0.74 to 0.79) and this improved at 3 and 5 years after starting PD (C-statistic = 0.81 to 0.92).

**Conclusions.** EPS risk estimates are lower when calculated using competing risk of death analyses. A patient’s estimated risk of EPS is country-specific, and can be predicted using age, primary renal disease and duration of PD.
Introduction

Encapsulating Peritoneal Sclerosis (EPS) is a serious, uncommon condition predominantly affecting patients exposed to peritoneal dialysis (PD). Due to the strong association between EPS and longer periods of exposure to PD treatment, an important management question for patients is when the risk of future EPS becomes sufficiently high to justify switching to haemodialysis (HD) to mitigate this risk. Appropriate decisions require accurate assessment of the risk of EPS, including an accurate estimation of the impact of exposure time of PD on EPS risk.

For some patients, even if the risk of EPS is thought to be high, it may still be relatively small in comparison to the risk of death. The challenge for safe and effective management is estimating when the risk of future EPS becomes sufficiently high to justify switching to haemodialysis (HD); there may be significant disruption to the patient’s quality of life and little to length of life advantage. Appropriate clinical judgements and shared decisions with patients require an accurate risk assessment of EPS informed by a patient’s clinical indicators rather than population-based associations between incidence and exposure to PD treatment.

As death prevents the opportunity to develop EPS, death can be considered a competing risk to EPS. Analyses using methodology which does not appropriately incorporate competing events have been shown to overestimate the probability of occurrence of the event of interest. Competing risks examples in nephrology include time until peritonitis episode with competing events of technique failure/death/transplantation, end stage kidney disease for diabetes patients with the competing event of death, and cause-specific mortality (cardiac death vs. other causes of death).

When identifying risk factors in a competing risks situation, standard (cause-specific) survival methodology can be applied to estimate relative risks which reflect the direct association between the risk factor and a specific outcome. However, as the assumption of independent censoring can no longer be justified, competing risks methodology and the cumulative incidence function are required to provide unbiased risk estimates. Competing risks analysis adjusts for the rate and risk of the competing events when estimating the absolute risk of the event of interest. Thus, the risk of EPS for any given predictor variable (e.g. older age) would appreciably over-estimate the true risk if that
predictor variable was also associated with an increased risk of death and that competing risk was not taken into account.

To our knowledge, there has been no analysis of the incidence of EPS using a competing risks approach, such that previous risk estimates may have been misleadingly high. Furthermore, the prior identification of risk factors for EPS based on analyses that did not correctly account for the presence of competing risks may have been misleading. We sought to determine unbiased probabilities of EPS occurrence and death and consider the prognostic factors which enable identification of high risk patients.
**Materials and Methods**

*Population*

Data were extracted from two large registries, the Australia and New Zealand Dialysis and Transplant (ANZDATA) Registry and the Scottish Renal Registry (SRR). The ANZDATA data comprised all PD patients who started PD between January 1990 and December 2010, who were followed-up until October 2012. SRR data comprised PD patients who started PD between January 2000 and January 2008, with follow-up until April 2012. For both data sources, patients who started PD before they turned 18 were excluded.

Follow-up started on the patient’s first date on PD, and ended in the event of EPS, death or administrative censoring on October 2012 for ANZDATA and April 2012 for SRR. Follow-up continued, whether or not a patient was still receiving PD, as EPS frequently occurs following PD cessation.

*Outcome and Prognostic Factors*

In the ANZDATA registry, the EPS diagnosis was taken from comorbidity, cause of death or cause of PD cessation records as recorded by nephrologists from the contributing units, based on ISPD criteria or prior to that from Rigby and Hawley. In the SRR registry the EPS diagnosis was actively sought, with questionnaires sent to each centre and searching SRR data reported in hospital discharge statistics. Medical records were examined to ensure the ISPD criteria were met, and excluded if another potential cause was present, or if they lacked radiological or pathological confirmation.

Factors common to both datasets included age, gender, primary renal disease (as a surrogate for comorbidity as full information was not available in SRR), diabetes status, and cumulative exposure to PD in years. Primary renal disease was dichotomised as those considered to have a low risk of death (polycystic disease, isolated glomerulonephritis, chronic pyelonephritis) and high risk of death (all others, including uncertain aetiology).

*Statistical Methods:*

*Quantification of the Risk of EPS*
Non-parametric estimates of the risk of EPS with cumulative time on PD were calculated using a Kaplan-Meier estimate and cumulative incidence function with death as a competing risk. Direct comparisons of the estimates are presented.

**Prognostic Factors for EPS**

Both univariable and multivariable models were fitted to investigate associations between the candidate prognostic factors and EPS. Flexible parametric models using splines with three degrees of freedom to model the baseline log cumulative hazard were developed and both cause-specific hazard ratios and sub-distribution hazard ratios estimated with a proportional hazards model. Non-linear associations were investigated using fractional polynomial terms, and all first order interactions tested for including registry with prognostic factors. Due to the disparity in prevalence of EPS, all analyses were stratified by registry. Proportional subdistribution hazards were assessed with time-dependent effects.

**Predictability of EPS**

The potential prognostic ability of a model predicting the risk of EPS was investigated through the development of prognostic models in PD patients at the start of treatment, and three and five years after starting treatment. Multivariable flexible parametric models were used, assuming proportional subdistribution hazards, and stratified by registry, varying the baseline hazard functions between registries whilst retaining equal prognostic factor effects. The discrimination of the models was determined using Harrell's C-statistic. The prognostic models were used to predict cumulative incidence function estimates for EPS and death separately over time for a high risk and a low risk patient group (age<40, low risk primary renal disease vs. age 60-80, high risk primary renal disease) in patients still on PD.

All analyses used StataMP version 14 (College Station, TX). The level of statistical significance was set at 0.05.
Results

Characteristics and Clinical Outcomes

The analysis comprised 17,396 patients: 16,162 from the ANZDATA registry and 1,234 patients from the SRR registry. Patient demographic characteristics (Table 1) illustrate systematic differences between the two populations; ANZDATA patients are older with a higher rate of diabetes mellitus.

The most common outcome in both studies was death, occurring in 54.6% of ANZDATA patients and 52.3% of SRR patients. EPS was a rare event, with only 65 (0.4%) cases observed in the ANZDATA population and 34 (2.8%) in the SRR population. Those remaining on PD at three years were 43.4% (ANZDATA) and 39.2% (SRR), and at five years 25.1% (ANZDATA) and 17.7% (SRR).

Comparing those patients who experienced EPS or death, patients who experienced EPS were significantly more likely to be younger and less likely to have either diabetes or a high risk renal diagnosis (Table 1). There were also notably longer median follow-up times and median duration of PD treatment for those patients who developed EPS.

Quantification of the Risk of EPS

The difference in risk of EPS according to whether competing risks were ignored (1-Kaplan-Meier) or accounted for (cumulative incidence function) are shown in Figure 1. The 1–Kaplan-Meier curve derived markedly higher EPS risk estimates than those derived accounting for competing risks, particularly after 4 years of PD treatment.

Prognostic Factors for EPS

Increasing duration of PD was consistently associated with an increasing risk of EPS when using duration of PD as the timescale, with a non-linear relationship suggested by graphing estimates from standard survival analysis, and a linear one in the competing risks estimates (Figure 1). The same pattern was evident when duration of PD was tested as a covariate in models using calendar time as the timescale (Table 2). In these models, age was not significantly associated with EPS risk in the standard survival analysis, but older age was associated with a lower EPS risk in the competing risks analysis (SHR 0.77, 95% CI 0.68 to 0.88). Sex, diabetes and high risk primary renal disease were not
significantly associated with the risk of developing EPS. The effects of the prognostic factors were consistent across datasets, with no evidence of an interaction.

*Predictability of EPS*

Three competing risks prognostic models predicting the risk of EPS in PD patients at baseline, and three and five years after the start of PD are presented (Table 3). Duration of time on PD introduced an immortal time bias, so only age and primary renal disease were considered in the baseline model. The C-statistics demonstrated good discrimination for the baseline model in both the ANZDATA (0.74) and SRR (0.79) populations. Inclusion of duration of PD exposure in the three and five-year models improved the prognostic ability of the models further, with C-statistics between 0.81 and 0.92, but inclusion of whether a patient was currently on PD made no significant difference.

The potential utility of prognostic models for predicting individual EPS risk is demonstrated in Figures 2 and 3. Using the baseline risk of the ANZDATA population (Figure 2) for patients currently on PD, the probability of developing EPS was negligible both at the start of PD, and five years after the start of PD for patients at high risk of death (aged 60 to 80, high risk primary renal diagnosis). For the patients at low risk of death (aged<40, low risk primary renal diagnosis), the risk of EPS was larger. If the baseline risk of the Scottish Renal Registry population was used (Figure 3), the risk of EPS remained low in comparison to the risk of death in those patients at high risk of death, but became highly significant for patients at low risk of death 5 years after the start of PD. Plots for patients 3 years after the start of PD demonstrated intermediate risks between those in the graphs for patients at the start of PD and 5 years after the start (Supplementary Figure 1).
Discussion

We have demonstrated that estimation of EPS risk was strongly affected by death as a competing event, and that statistical techniques need to take this into account. For example, neither age nor primary renal disease appeared to be directly associated with the rate of EPS occurrence, but they were significant predictors when death was incorporated as a competing event. Combining age, primary renal diagnosis (as a surrogate for comorbidity), and the duration of PD accounted for the majority of the variability in EPS when allowing for death in the model.

Previous studies using models to estimate EPS risk have all used techniques, such as the Kaplan-Meier estimator or the cumulative hazard. A fundamental assumption of these models is that EPS will eventually occur in all patients, a hypothetical scenario with no deaths. The effect is overestimation of the risk of EPS, known as competing risks bias. The longer the follow-up and the greater the risk of competing events, the greater the overestimation. Estimates for EPS were strongly affected because, relative to the common competing event of death, EPS occurrence was rare.

Not accounting for the competing risks appropriately was likely to have led to the perception that the risk of EPS rose exponentially with the duration of PD. We have clearly demonstrated that, when death was appropriately accounted for, this was not the case, This was illustrated both visually, with cumulative incidence function curves using duration of PD as a time scale (Figure 1), and numerically, testing for a non-linear effect of PD duration in the survival models (Table 2).

One of the unexpected findings of this study was the magnitude of the difference in risk of EPS between the ANZDATA and SRR datasets. Potential reasons include ascertainment bias, as the SRR dataset identified EPS cases via questionnaires and follow-up phone calls to all centres. In comparison, the ANZDATA cases were identified through routinely returned registry codes which may have been less reliable than specific study data. However, it may have in part also represented true differences in EPS risk between the different populations, possibly via differences in peritonitis, genetics and dialysate usage, as estimates of risk between countries have varied (e.g. between 0.6% and 6.6% for patients on PD for more than five years), and may vary within a country over time.

Registry reports for some of the period included suggest a similar rate, but there is no data available on genotypes or dialysate usage. We overcame this disparity by stratifying the analysis to
enable the underlying risk of EPS to differ between the registries while keeping the effect of the
prognostic factors on the outcome stable.

The clinical impact of this analysis is that both the individual risk of death for a patient and the current
level of EPS risk in the local PD population need to be considered when discussing whether to switch
to haemodialysis (HD) to avoid EPS (illustrated in Figures 2 and 3). For all patients at high risk of
death, the risk of EPS is low (right hand column of both figures), even 5 years after the start of PD.
The impact of different population risks of EPS becomes relevant in those patients at low risk of
death, as illustrated by patients 5 years after the start of PD (bottom left plot, figures 2 and 3). For this
group in the ANZDATA population risk, the risk of EPS, whilst higher than in other groups, remained
of debatable significance. For the corresponding group in the SRR population, the risk of EPS was
larger than the risk of death, emphasising the need for accurate national data collection to inform
clinical risk prediction.

For patients at high risk of death/low risk of EPS, a switch to HD will take the patient off their preferred
modality with the attendant disruption to their quality of life when the likely outcome is death, whether
or not a patient is switched. Furthermore, the risk of EPS spikes immediately after PD has stopped,22
so attempting to avoid EPS in this scenario could perversely increase the risk of EPS prior to death.
For the small proportion of patients still on PD several years after starting with a low risk of death/high
risk of EPS, and where transplantation is not imminent, a switch to haemodialysis may be appropriate,
subject to an informed discussion by the patient.

A prognostic model that informed clinicians and patients of the absolute risks of EPS and death could
help in a shared decision-making process. This was not possible due to the difference in baseline risk
between the datasets, which would need to be defined for the population in which the prognostic
model would be used. However, in the models developed, duration of PD, age, and primary renal
disease were strongly predictive of EPS demonstrating that a prognostic model could be successful,
and the presence of competing risks bias demonstrates the need for a competing risks model to
ensure accurate calibration. Previous studies have identified other risk factors that may help to
identify patients at high risk of EPS, including impaired sodium sieving, poor ultrafiltration or
decreased osmotic conductance to glucose, peritonitis episodes, dialysate inflammatory cytokine
levels, exposure to non-biocompatible dialysis solutions, and dialysate glucose exposure. 10,15,22-26
The predictive performance of the reported models indicates that adding further biomarkers to the prognostic model are unlikely to improve the prediction of EPS in a meaningful way, as a C-statistic of 0.92 (albeit on internal validation) is unlikely to improve dramatically for the overall population.

Limitations of this study include the fact that the model included a limited number of EPS events. There were some simplifications, such as not accounting for transplantation or switches to haemodialysis, which may have affected the risks of EPS and death differentially. This was mainly due to not having the appropriate information from the registry datasets. However, with more granular data, model extensions could involve multistate modelling to incorporate waitlisting for transplantation, having a transplant and being on HD as distinct states or joint modelling of cumulative time on PD. We were unable to include more predictors due to the limited prognostic factors common to both datasets, and we were not able to determine a generalisable estimate of the baseline risk of EPS, as discussed previously. One other caveat is that there is no direct evidence that switching from PD to HD will mitigate the risk of EPS, although the strong association between duration of PD and EPS risk is likely to lead to this practice anyway.

In conclusion, the estimated risk of EPS can be substantially biased if death is treated as censored. When appropriately accounted for, the effect of duration of PD on EPS risk is linear, highly significant, and, when combined with age and primary renal disease, provides accurate discrimination for EPS risk after prolonged periods of PD. There is a large apparent difference in risk between Scotland and Australia/New Zealand, highlighting the need for robust data collection to ascertain the true risk in individual countries.
Conflict of Interest Statement

DWJ has previously received consultancy fees, research grants, speaker’s honoraria and travel sponsorships from Baxter Healthcare and Fresenius Medical Care. He is also the current recipient of a National Health and Medical Research Council Practitioner Fellowship.

JB, LPD, LT, HB, RM, MP, IST, SJD, MW, ML and KT have no conflicts of interest to declare.

The results presented in this paper have not been published previously in whole or part, except in abstract format

Author Contributions

SJD conceived the study with input from JB, DWJ, LPD, MW, KT and RM. DWJ, RM, and MP acquired the data. LT performed the analysis with input from ML. ML and LT co-wrote the manuscript. The results and the manuscript were reviewed by all co-authors.

Funding

This article presents independent research funded by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Research for Patient Benefit, PB-PG-0610-22456. The views expressed are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of the NHS, the NIHR or the Department of Health.
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|                          | ANZ          | SRR          |
|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|
|                          | Total        | EPS          | Died | Censored | Total | EPS | Died | Censored |
| Number of patients, (%)  | 16,162       | 65 (0.4%)    | 8,823 | 7,274     | 1,234 | 34 (2.8%) | 645 | 555 (45.0%) |
| Median Age (IQR)         | 61.3 (49.3, 70.7) | 50.7 (40.1, 57.7) | 65.7 (55.7, 73.9) | 54.8 (42.4, 65.7) | 56.8 (42.9, 67.8) | 48.5 (39.6, 60.7) | 65.2 (55.2, 72.1) | 45.4 (35.6, 57.0) |
| Male gender (%)          | 8,887 (55.0%) | 31 (47.7%)   | 4,835 | 4,021     | 675 | 19 (55.9%) | 364 | 292 (52.6%) |
| Diabetes (%)             | 6,602 (40.9%) | 16 (24.6%)   | 4,175 | 2,411     | 329 | 7 (20.6%) | 232 | 90 (16.2%) |
| High risk primary renal disease (%) | 10,238 (63.4%) | 26 (40.0%) | 6,453 | 3,759     | 740 | 16 (47.0%) | 479 | 245 (44.1%) |
| Median follow-up time (IQR), years | 4.0 (2.2, 6.8) | 6.1 (3.8, 8.0) | 2.7 (1.4, 4.7) | 5.8 (3.7, 9.4) | 5.4 (2.5, 7.8) | 4.0 (3.5, 5.8) | 2.7 (1.2, 4.5) | 7.6 (6.1, 9.6) |
| Median years on PD (IQR) | 1.8 (0.8, 3.2) | 5.5 (3.2, 7.3) | 1.9 (0.9, 3.4) | 1.6 (0.7, 2.9) | 1.7 (0.8, 3.1) | 4.0 (2.7, 5.4) | 1.4 (0.6, 2.8) | 1.9 (0.9, 3.4) |

ANZ = Australia and New Zealand Dataset, SRR = Scottish Renal Registry, EPS = Encapsulating peritoneal sclerosis, IQR = Inter-quartile Range, PD = Peritoneal Dialysis
Table 2: Prognostic Factors for EPS in Patients Starting PD

|                          | Standard Analysis |         |         |          | Competing Risks Analysis |         |         |
|--------------------------|-------------------|---------|---------|----------|--------------------------|---------|---------|
|                          | Unadjusted        | Adjusted| Unadjusted| Adjusted|                         | Unadjusted| Adjusted|
|                          | HR (95% CI)       | P       | HR (95% CI)  | P       | SHR (95% CI)  | P       | SHR (95% CI)  | P       |
| Age (10 years)           | 0.932 (0.81, 1.07) | 0.324   | 0.899 (0.78, 1.04) | 0.146   | 0.724 (0.64, 0.82) | <0.001 | 0.771 (0.68, 0.88) | <0.001 |
| Sex – Male               | 0.896 (0.59, 1.35) | 0.602   | 1.024 (0.67, 1.56) | 0.911   | 0.871 (0.59, 1.29) | 0.491   | 1.171 (0.78, 1.75) | 0.442   |
| Diabetes                 | 0.935 (0.58, 1.51) | 0.784   | 1.319 (0.75, 2.33) | 0.338   | 0.500 (0.31, 0.80) | 0.004   | 0.854 (0.49, 1.48) | 0.574   |
| High risk PRD            | 0.770 (0.51, 1.17) | 0.223   | 0.707 (0.43, 1.16) | 0.170   | 0.465 (0.31, 0.69) | <0.001 | 0.714 (0.44, 1.15) | 0.166   |
| Duration of PD (per year)* | 1.168 (1.11, 1.23) | <0.001 | 1.172 (1.11, 1.23) | <0.001 | 1.448 (1.35, 1.55) | <0.001 | 1.415 (1.32, 1.52) | <0.001 |

HR = Cause-Specific Hazard Ratio, SHR = Subdistribution Hazard Ratio, CI = Confidence interval, P = p-value, PRD = Primary Renal Disease, PD = Peritoneal Dialysis

*fractional polynomial terms with powers 2 and 3 were selected to model the non-linearity of duration of PD in the standard analysis.
Table 3: Prognostic Models for 5-year risk of EPS stratified by Dataset

|                              | Baseline | 3 Years       | 5 Years       |
|------------------------------|----------|---------------|---------------|
| Participants in cohort, %    | 17396 (100%) | 11126 (64.0%) | 6975 (40.1%)  |
| Number of EPS                | 99       | 79            | 55            |
| SHR (95% CI)                 |          |               |               |
| Age (10 years)               | 0.756 (0.67, 0.88) | 0.739 (0.64, 0.86) | 0.733 (0.61, 0.87) |
| High risk PRD                | 0.585 (0.39, 0.88) | 0.474 (0.29, 0.76) | 0.381 (0.21, 0.71) |
| Duration of PD (per year)    | -        | 11.707 (4.36, 31.43) | 4.994 (2.78, 8.98) |
| Discrimination C-Statistic (95% CI) | 0.74 (0.65-0.82) | 0.79 (0.70-0.88) | 0.87 (0.81-0.94) | 0.81 (0.75-0.88) | 0.87 (0.80-0.94) | 0.92 (0.89-0.96) |

EPS = encapsulating peritoneal sclerosis, SHR = subdistribution hazard ratio, CI = confidence interval, PRD = Primary Renal Disease, PD = Peritoneal dialysis, ANZ = Australia and New Zealand Dataset, SRR = Scottish Renal Registry.
Figure 1: Risk of EPS Calculated using ‘Standard’ and Competing Risks Approaches

The figure shows the non-parametric estimates of EPS risk over cumulative PD exposure. The ‘standard’ approach, using the Kaplan-Meier estimate, is shown by the broken line. The competing risks approach, using the cumulative incidence function estimate, is shown by the solid line.

Figure 2: ANZDATA Risks of EPS and Death over Time

Cumulative risk of EPS (black area) and death (grey area) over time in patient groups at low risk of death (left hand column) and high risk of death (right hand column) demonstrated for patients starting PD (top), and patients 5 years after starting PD (bottom). For patients currently on PD.

Figure 3: Scottish Renal Registry Risks of EPS and Death over Time

Cumulative risk of EPS (black area) and death (grey area) over time in patient groups at low risk of death (left hand column) and high risk of death (right hand column) demonstrated for patients starting PD (top), and patients 5 years after starting PD (bottom). For patients currently on PD.
Figure 1: Risk of EPS Calculated using ‘Standard’ and Competing Risks Approaches
Figure 2: ANZDATA Risks of EPS and Death over Time

Australia and New Zealand Dialysis and Transplant (ANZDATA) Registry
Baseline Cumulative Incidence Estimates

5 Year Cumulative Incidence Estimates

Low risk of death = Age:<40, low risk primary renal diagnosis, High risk = Age:60-80, high risk primary renal diagnosis
Figure 3: Scottish Renal Registry Risks of EPS and Death over Time

Scottish Renal Registry (SRR)
Baseline Cumulative Incidence Estimates

Low Risk of Death

High Risk of Death

5 Year Cumulative Incidence Estimates

Low Risk of Death

High Risk of Death

Low risk of death = Age < 40, low risk primary renal diagnosis. High risk = Age 60-80, high risk primary renal diagnosis