POSITION ARTICLE AND GUIDELINES

II Brazilian Society of Rheumatology consensus for lupus nephritis diagnosis and treatment

Edgard Torres dos Reis-Neto^{1*†}, Luciana Parente Costa Seguro^{2†}, Emília Inoue Sato¹, Eduardo Ferreira Borba², Evandro Mendes Klumb³, Lilian Tereza Lavras Costallat⁴, Marta Maria das Chagas Medeiros⁵, Eloisa Bonfá², Nafice Costa Araújo⁶, Simone Appenzeller⁴, Ana Carolina de Oliveira e Silva Montandon⁷, Emily Figueiredo Neves Yuki², Roberto Cordeiro de Andrade Teixeira⁸, Rosa Weiss Telles⁹, Danielle Christinne Soares do Egypto¹⁰, Francinne Machado Ribeiro³, Andrese Aline Gasparin¹¹, Antonio Silaide de Araujo Junior¹, Cláudia Lopes Santoro Neiva¹², Debora Cerqueira Calderaro⁹, and Odirlei Andre Monticielo¹¹, Santorio Silaide de Araujo Andrese Aline Calderaro⁹, Torta Calderaro¹⁰, Santoro Neiva¹², Santoro Neiva¹², Debora Cerqueira Calderaro⁹, Santoro Neiva¹², Cláudia Lopes Santoro Neiva¹², Roberto Cordeiro de Andrade Teixeira⁸, Rosa Veisa Calderaro⁹, Andrese Andre Monticielo¹¹, Cláudia Lopes Santoro Neiva¹², Debora Cerqueira Calderaro⁹, Natorio Caliveira Andre Monticielo¹¹, Cláudia Lopes Santoro Neiva¹², Debora Cerqueira Calderaro⁹, Andrese Aline Calderaro⁹, Cláudia Lopes Santoro Neiva¹², Cláudia Lopes Santoro Neiva¹², Debora Cerqueira Calderaro⁹, Cláudia Lopes Santoro Neiva¹², Cláudia Lopes Calderaro¹⁰, Cláudia Lopes Calde

Abstract

Objective To develop the second evidence-based Brazilian Society of Rheumatology consensus for diagnosis and treatment of lupus nephritis (LN).

Methods Two methodologists and 20 rheumatologists from Lupus Comittee of Brazilian Society of Rheumatology participate in the development of this guideline. Fourteen PICO questions were defined and a systematic review was performed. Eligible randomized controlled trials were analyzed regarding complete renal remission, partial renal remission, serum creatinine, proteinuria, serum creatinine doubling, progression to end-stage renal disease, renal relapse, and severe adverse events (infections and mortality). The Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) approach was used to develop these recommendations. Recommendations required ≥82% of agreement among the voting members and were classified as strongly in favor, weakly in favor, conditional, weakly against or strongly against a particular intervention. Other aspects of LN management (diagnosis, general principles of treatment, treatment of comorbidities and refractory cases) were evaluated through literature review and expert opinion.

Results All SLE patients should undergo creatinine and urinalysis tests to assess renal involvement. Kidney biopsy is considered the gold standard for diagnosing LN but, if it is not available or there is a contraindication to the procedure, therapeutic decisions should be based on clinical and laboratory parameters. Fourteen recommendations were developed. Target Renal response (TRR) was defined as improvement or maintenance of renal function (±10% at baseline of treatment) combined with a decrease in 24-h proteinuria or 24-h UPCR of 25% at 3 months, a decrease

[†]Edgard Torres dos Reis-Neto and Luciana Parente Costa Seguro are first authors and contributed equally to this work.

*Correspondence: Edgard Torres dos Reis-Neto edgard.torres@unifesp.br

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article







Open Access

of 50% at 6 months, and proteinuria < 0.8 g/24 h at 12 months. Hydroxychloroquine should be prescribed to all SLE patients, except in cases of contraindication. Glucocorticoids should be used at the lowest dose and for the minimal necessary period. In class III or IV (±V), mycophenolate (MMF), cyclophosphamide, MMF plus tacrolimus (TAC), MMF plus belimumab or TAC can be used as induction therapy. For maintenance therapy, MMF or azathioprine (AZA) are the first choice and TAC or cyclosporin or leflunomide can be used in patients who cannot use MMF or AZA. Rituximab can be prescribed in cases of refractory disease. In cases of failure in achieving TRR, it is important to assess adherence, immunosuppressant dosage, adjuvant therapy, comorbidities, and consider biopsy/rebiopsy.

Conclusion This consensus provides evidence-based data to guide LN diagnosis and treatment, supporting the development of public and supplementary health policies in Brazil.

Introduction

Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) is a heterogeneous and pleomorphic systemic autoimmune disease characterized by periods of activity and remission with high rates of organ damage and morbimortality [1]. The incidence of SLE in the city of Natal/Brazil was 8.7 cases per 100,000 inhabitants per year in 2000 [2], and it is currently estimated that there are 150,000 to 300,000 people with SLE in the country [3].

Lupus nephritis (LN) occurs in up to 50% of adults with SLE and 80% of juvenile-onset SLE patients, and up to 30% progress to end-stage chronic kidney disease (CKD) in 15 years [3], with impaired quality of life and socioeconomic impact. Therefore, the early recognition of LN is very important to initiate appropriate treatment that could modify the course of the disease and improve its prognosis.

The last consensus of the Brazilian Society of Rheumatology for LN treatment was published in 2015 [4]. Since then, specific targets, new treatment options and novel biomarkers to help diagnosis and monitoring SLE have been described. In view of these new available data, associated with the high frequency of SLE in Brazil and the morbimortality of the disease, there is an urgent need to update the Consensus for diagnosis and treatment of LN, which may support decision in clinical practice as well as the development of public and supplementary health policies in Brazil.

Methods

This consensus, supported by the Brazilian Society of Rheumatology, was developed by a team of two methodologists and 20 rheumatologists with experience in SLE, members of the SLE Committee of the SBR, who defined 14 PICO questions (*population, intervention, comparator, outcome*) on different aspects of LN treatment (Supplementary Material 1). This study was conducted using a systematic review model according to the international recommendations of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA). Eligible randomized controlled trials (RCTs) were included and analyzed: complete renal remission, partial renal remission, serum creatinine, proteinuria, serum creatinine doubling, progression to end-stage renal disease (CKD), renal relapse, and severe adverse events (infections and mortality). The following databases were used for research (supplementary material 2): the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) in the Cochrane Library (2021, Edition 7), MEDLINE via PubMed (1966 to July 13, 2021), Embase via Elsevier (1974 to July 13, 2021), and Lilacs via the Virtual Health Library (VHL) Regional Portal (1982 to July 13, 2021).

The triage process was performed using Rayyan software. Two authors (ETRN and LPCS) independently selected the titles and abstracts and identified studies that met the eligibility criteria. For the studies included in the first phase, the full texts were retrieved, and eligibility for definitive inclusion was assessed. In cases of discrepancy, a third reviewer (VTC) was consulted. Information regarding the selection stage is described in the PRISMA flowchart (Fig. 1). Extraction and management of data were independently performed by two methodologists (VTC and NCJ), who assessed the risk of bias of each included study using version 2 of the Cochrane risk of bias tool version 2 (RoB2) according to the recommendations of the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions, version 6.0.

Tables of the main findings for all outcomes were created. GRADEpro Guideline Development Tool (GDT) software (GRADEpro GDT, McMaster University and Evidence Prime Inc., McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada) was used to analyze the overall certainty of the evidence, and each outcome was categorized into four levels of certainty: high, moderate, low, and very low [5]. The recommendations were prepared according to the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) Working Group guidelines, especially regarding problem priority, balance between benefits and harms, patients' values and preferences, costs, health equity, acceptability, and feasibility. Seventeen rheumatologists evaluated all the evidence and voted on the recommendations for each PICO question. Recommendations required $\geq 82\%$ (14/17) agreement among the voting members. The recommendations for each PICO question were classified as follows: strongly



Fig. 1 Literature search flowchart

in favor, weakly in favor, conditional, weakly against, and strongly against a particular intervention.

Other aspects of LN management (diagnosis, general principles of treatment, treatment of comorbidities and refractory cases) were evaluated through literature review and expert opinion.

Diagnoses of lupus nephritis

All patients diagnosed with SLE, even if asymptomatic, should undergo creatinine and urinalysis tests to assess renal involvement. The frequency must be personalized in each case, from 1 to 3 months in the induction therapy to 3 to 6 months in maintenance therapy or asymptomatic patients [6, 7]. LN is defined by the presence of persistent proteinuria (>500 mg in 24 h or urinary protein/ creatinine ratio (UPCR)>0.5) and/or active urinary sediment (dysmorphic hematuria or presence of hemoglobin, red blood cells, granular, tubular, or mixed casts) in the absence of infection or another explanation, or by renal biopsy demonstrating immune-mediated glomerulone-phritis [8]. However, lower levels of proteinuria may be present in patients with active proliferative nephritis, which has been called "silent nephritis" [9, 10].

According to the analysis of this consensus, 24-h proteinuria and spot UPCR demonstrated a strong correlation $[r=0.82 \ (0.76-0.83)]$ (supplementary material 3). However, there was high heterogeneity and low agreement between studies, especially when 24-h proteinuria was less than 500 mg or between 500 mg and 1 g [11-13]. Thus, although spot UPCR is a great test for screening and monitoring patients with LN, we recommend that 24-h proteinuria or 24-h UPCR should be used as the most accurate measure for decisions in clinical practice, including changes in clinical scenarios or in immunosuppressive therapy.

Anti-dsDNA and anti-C1q antibodies are useful for the diagnosis and monitoring of LN activity, especially in proliferative classes. Although the anti-C1q antibody test is not widely available in clinical practice in Brazil, if both are present, the positive predictive value is 67% for LN activity [14, 15]. The presence of anti-C1q, anti-dsDNA, and complement consumption increases the risk of LN (OR 14.9; 95% CI 5.8–38.4) [16]. On the other hand, it is important to reinforce that it is not necessary to treat SLE patients with anti-dsDNA antibodies or complement consumption without clinical disease manifestations [17, 18]. Anti-nucleosome antibodies are strongly correlated with anti-dsDNA antibodies and appear earlier in active LN [19]. The presence of anti-P-ribosomal antibodies seems to be related to class V, conferring a better prognosis, especially in the absence of anti-dsDNA antibodies [20, 21]. Anti-neutrophil cytoplasmic antibodies (ANCA), especially the p-ANCA pattern associated with anti-myeloperoxidase (MPO) antibodies, can be detected in LN, particularly in class IV with higher creatinine level and worse prognosis [22–24].

Kidney biopsy is considered the gold standard for diagnosing LN, establishing histological class (glomerulonephritis classes I to VI), evaluating parameters of activity (graded from 0–24) and chronicity (graded from 1–12) and guiding treatment according to previous published guidelines (Table 1) [25–27]. Tubulointerstitial and vascular involvements should also be analyzed to determine patient prognosis and support differential diagnosis [28]. It is also useful to identify other pathologies, such as hypertensive or diabetes nephropathy and thrombotic microangiopathy (TMA), which may have implications in treatment decisions and prognosis [29–31]. Biopsy should be performed when there is suspicion of renal involvement in SLE, including at least one of the following [32, 33]:

- 24-h proteinuria \geq 500 mg or UPCR \geq 0.5
- Abnormal renal function (increase in serum creatinine >30% or decrease in glomerular filtration rate, GFR) of unknown etiology

- Glomerular hematuria with proteinuria <0.5 g/24 h
- Differential diagnosis with other conditions, such as hypertension, diabetes mellitus, TMA, podocytopathy, tubulointerstitial lesions, collapsing glomerulopathy, infections, and others.

On the other hand, the delay in starting immunosuppressive treatment (especially in suspected cases of rapidly progressive glomerulonephritis) is associated with worse short- and long-term renal prognoses. Therefore, if kidney biopsy is not available or there is a contraindication to the procedure, therapeutic decisions should be based on clinical and laboratory parameters [34]. Classes I and II represent mesangial involvement that usually manifests with few clinical symptoms and laboratory abnormalities, and there may be mild proteinuria (usually <1 g/24 h) and dysmorphic hematuria. Classes III and IV usually present proteinuria above 500 mg/24 h, dysmorphic hematuria, and/or the presence of red blood cell casts. Hypertension, loss of renal function and rapidly progressive glomerulonephritis can occur in severe cases. Pure class V comprises only 10% to 20% of LNs and usually presents with nephrotic syndrome without leukocyturia or hematuria; also, class V can be associated with class III or IV [III or $IV (\pm V)$] [35, 36]. A Brazilian study developed an instrument to differentiate classes III or IV (±V) from class V based on clinical and laboratory parameters (https://ppg. unifesp.br/reumato/comunicados/lupus-nephritis) [36],

Table 1	Classification o	f lupus nephritis	and indices of	factivity and	chronicity on	kidney biopsy
---------	------------------	-------------------	----------------	---------------	---------------	---------------

Class I	Minimum Mesangial	
Class II	Proliferative Mesangial	
Class III	Focal	
	Focal active or inactive, segmental or global, endo or extra capillary glomerulonephritis involving < glomeruli	50% of all
Class IV	Diffuse	
	Diffuse active or inactive, segmental or global, endo- or extra capillary glomerulonephritis involving glomeruli; diffuse segmental (IV-S) in which ≥50% of the involved glomeruli have segmental lesion than half of the tuft); or global diffuse (IV-G) in which ≥50% of the involved glomeruli have global le more than half the tuft)	g ≥50% of all s (involving less esions (involving
Class V	Membranous	
	May occur in combination with classes III or IV	
Class VI	Advanced sclerosis	
	Global glomerular sclerosis in ≥90% without residual activity	
Activity index (0–24)	Chronicity index (0–12)	Score
 Endocapillary hypercellularity 	Total glomerular sclerosis	• 0: Absent
Neutrophils and/or karyorrhexis	Fibrous crescents	• 1: <25%
Hyaline deposits	Interstitial fibrosis	• 2: 25–50%
Fibrinoid necrosis (x2)	Tubular atrophy	• 3: >50%
• Cellular/fibrocellular crescents (x2)		
 Interstitial inflammation 		

Adapted from Weening et al. [25], Bajema et al. [26], and Austin et al. [27]

which can help clinical decision if kidney biopsy is not available.

Kidney biopsy should be repeated in cases of refractory disease (persistent proteinuria after one year and/or worsening of serum creatinine) or LN relapse [29–31].

Practical issues for lupus care: although biopsy remains the gold standard for LN diagnosis, accessibility is limited in Brazil. Therefore, the use of clinical and laboratorial parameters remains the mainstay for diagnosis in most regions of our country. An instrument was recently published in order to differentiate LN classes [36].

Treatment target: Target Renal Response (TRR)

Assessment of proteinuria is essential in the management of LN since early reduction in proteinuria level is a predictor of renal response. A 1-year proteinuria level <0.7–0.9 g/24 h is the best predictor of long-term renal outcome, assessed by important LN cohorts (Euro-Lupus and MAINTAIN nephritis trials) and by two Brazilian studies including patients with severe disease in real life situation [37–41]. Other predictive parameters of favorable renal outcome are a reduction in proteinuria of 25% at week 8 [42, 43], a significant decrease in proteinuria at week 12 [39, 44], a reduction \geq 50% from baseline at 6 months [44, 45], and proteinuria \leq 1 g at 6 months of treatment [46].

Thus, the panelists considered the improvement or maintenance of renal function ($\pm 10\%$ at baseline of treatment) combined with a decrease in 24-h proteinuria or 24-h UPCR of 25% at 3 months, a decrease of 50% at 6 months, and proteinuria <0.8 g/24 h at 12 months as the targets of response to treatment; these targets were called the Target Renal Response (TRR) (94.1% agreement). Patients with nephrotic proteinuria at baseline

may require an additional 6–12 months to achieve TRR. In these patients, immediate changes to therapy are not necessary if proteinuria improves [47]. On the other hand, if there is no clinical or laboratory improvement or worsening within 3 months, a change in therapy should be considered.

Practical issues for lupus care: assessment of Target Renal Response (corresponding to a reduction in proteinuria levels at 3 months, 6 months and 12 months after treatment, with preserved renal function compared to baseline), is an easy and effective way to evaluate renal response. The target of proteinuria <0.8 g/day at 12 months was defined according to data from Brazilian patients [40, 41] (Fig. 2).

Duration of immunosuppressive treatment

Induction immunosuppressive treatment (initial therapy) should last 3 to 6 months and should be followed by maintenance treatment (sequential treatment), lasting at least 3 to 5 years in those who achieve TRR. Immunosuppressive treatment for 4 to 5 years was associated with a lower risk of renal relapse than treatment for 2 to 3 years [48]. The suspension should be gradual and individualized, and should be carried out under medical supervision, taking into account renal response, number of previous renal relapses, duration of the remission period, presence of renal damage, extrarenal activity, patient preferences and may be guided by biopsy [49].

There is a discussion on the role of rebiopsy after induction (initial) and/or maintenance (sequential) therapy to identify patients who need to prolong or intensify therapy (patients who persist with histological activity), as well as candidates to discontinue immunosuppressive

Improvement or maintenance of renal function (± 10% at baseline of treatment)



Patients with nephrotic proteinuria at baseline may require further 6–12 months to achieve the target proteinuria. In these patients, immediate changes to therapy are not necessary if proteinuria improves.

If there is clinical or laboratory worsening within 3 months, a change in therapy should be considered.

treatment (patients with complete histological response or activity index ≤ 2) [50–52].

Practical issues for lupus care: maintenance (sequential) treatment should last at least 3 to 5 years. Patients with incomplete response, with multiple previous relapses or with renal damage might need longer periods of immunosuppressive treatment.

Definition of refractory lupus nephritis

This topic is a subject of debate and still lacks consensus, given the wide variety of criteria used by different authors [53]. Refractoriness can be understood as the impossibility of achieving remission of the renal inflammatory process despite appropriate treatment [54, 55].

According to this consensus, refractory LN was defined when TRR was not achieved by at least two regimens of induction (initial) therapy or when there were contraindications to other proposed treatments, confirming that there was adherence to treatment.

The persistence of proteinuria and renal dysfunction does not always indicate persistent immune-mediated activity. Proteinuria may result from a lack of adherence to treatment, inadequate control of comorbidities (hypertension, diabetes, infections), drug nephrotoxicity, the presence of other concomitant renal diseases (e.g., TMA, other glomerulopathies), genetic factors (e.g., APOL1 variants, pharmacogenetic resistance to immunosuppressive medications) or LN with a predominance of irreversible lesions (damage). Patients with poor adherence to treatment have more LN relapse and are more susceptible to refractory disease [56].

Factors associated with worse renal prognosis in LN

- Patient characteristics: male sex, juvenile-onset lupus, increased serum creatinine or proteinuria >4 g at diagnosis, frequent relapses, incomplete remission, neuropsychiatric lupus, and thrombocytopenia at diagnosis.
- Serological characteristics: positive antiphospholipid antibodies (aPLs) or antiphospholipid syndrome (APS), high-titer anti-dsDNA, anti-C1q, and persistent complement consumption.
- Histological features: crescents, TMA or tubulointerstitial damage (interstitial fibrosis, tubular atrophy and interstitial inflammation) [33].

Treatment of class III or IV lupus nephritis with or without class V [class III or IV $(\pm V)$]

Recommendations, as well as their strength and certainty of evidence, are shown in Table 2 and the treatment flowchart is shown in Fig. 3. For immunosuppressant choice, the following factors should be considered: severity, adherence, availability/access to medication and infusion centers, pregnancy or lactation, risk of infertility, costs, and patient preference (Table 3).

Table 2	Principles and recommendations for	r the treatment of class III or	IV (±V) lupus nephritis
-	-		

Recommendation	Level of
	agreement
1. HCQ should be prescribed to all SLE patients, except if contraindicated.	100%
2. Glucocorticoids should be used at the lowest dose and for the minimal necessary period.	100%
Induction therapy	
3. Initial induction therapy involves the use of MMF or intravenous CYC	94.1%
4. The combination of MMF and TAC can be used as induction therapy, particularly if there is lack of response or impossibility to use CYC or higher doses of MMF (induction dose).	82.3%
5. The combination of BEL and MMF can be used as induction therapy according to specific characteristics of the patient	94.1%
6. TAC as immunosuppressant in monotherapy can be used as induction therapy if MMF, CYC, MMF + TAC or BEL + MMF cannot be used	100%
7. The combination of MMF and voclosporin may be considered for induction therapy after its approval by Brazilian regulatory agencies	94.1%
8. CsA as immunosuppressant in monotherapy is not recommended for induction therapy	82.3%
9. LFN as immunosuppressant in monotherapy is not recommended for induction therapy	88.9%
10. Monthly glucocorticoid pulse therapy is not recommended during induction therapy	88.2%
Maintenance therapy	
11. Both MMF or AZA can be used as maintenance therapy	82.3%
12. Calcineurin inhibitors (TAC or CsA) can be used as maintenance therapy in patients who cannot use MMF or AZA	94.1% (CsA)
	100% (TAC)
13. LFN can be used as maintenance therapy in patients who cannot use MMF or AZA	94.1%
14. CYC is not recommended for maintenance therapy	94.1%

AZA Azathioprine, BEL Belimumab, CYC Cyclophosphamide, CsA Cyclosporine, LEF Leflunomide, MMF Mycophenolate mofetil, TAC Tacrolimus



Fig. 3 Treatment of class III or IV LNs (±V). *Factors to be considered when choosing immunosuppressants: severity, availability, adherence, infusion clinic availability, gastrointestinal tolerance, cumulative dose of CYC, age/fertility, desire for pregnancy. **Target Renal Response (TRR): reduction in proteinuria by 25% at 3 months, 50% at 6 months, and proteinuria < 0.8 g at 1 year associated with maintenance or improvement (±10% baseline) in renal function. Nephrotic proteinuria at baseline may require another 6–12 months to achieve TRR and, in such cases, immediate therapy changes are not necessary if proteinuria is improving. If clinical or laboratory results worse within 3 months, therapy changes should be considered. [§]Severe Disease, Poor prognostic factors, Impossibility to MMF or CYF Euro-Lupus. [‡]In case of TRR achieved, Mycophenolate + Belimumab or Mycophenolate + Tacrolimus can be used as maintenance therapy for up to 3 years

Table 3 Factors to be considered when choosing immunosuppressants in clinical practice

	MMF	CYC NIH	CYC Euro-Lupus	AZA	TAC	CsA	BEL	RTX
Favors adherence		Х	Х					
Easy access	Х	Х	Х	Х		Х		
Need of infusion center		Х	Х				Х	Х
Severe cases or refractory		Х						Х
Compatible with pregnancy				Х	Х	Х		
Compatible with lactation				Х	Х	Х		
Risk of infertility		X*	Х*					
High cost					Х		Х	Х

AZA Azathioprine, BEL Belimumab, CYC Cyclophosphamide, CsA Cyclosporine, MMF Mycophenolate mofetil, RTX Rituximab, TAC Tacrolimus

*Risk related to CYC cumulative dose and patient age

Question: Should hydroxychloroquine (HCQ) be prescribed to all SLE patients with LN?

Recommendation 1: HCQ should be prescribed to all SLE patients, except if contraindicated. Agreement: 100%.

The use of antimalarial drugs is associated with numerous beneficial effects in SLE patients, including a higher remission rate of LN; a reduction in thrombotic risk; improved lipid and glycemic profiles; lower risks of infection, hospitalization, and progression to metabolic syndrome; better MMF response; damage prevention; and longer survival [57]. Due to its safety profile, HCQ is preferred over chloroquine diphosphate (CDF).

The recommended dose of HCQ is 5 mg/kg/day of real body weight (maximum dose of 400 mg/day), and for DFQ is 2.3 mg/kg/day (maximum dose of 250 mg/ day) [58]. The dose should be reduced by 50% in patients with GFR<30 ml/min [29]. Studies evaluating blood levels of HCQ are useful both for assessing adherence and for monitoring adequate target levels [59–62]. Of note, in obese patients (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²), dose of HCQ should not exceed 5 mg/kg/day of ideal body weight, since it has been demonstrated that even with the recommended maximum daily dose restriction (400 mg/day), these patients have very high HCQ blood levels [59].

Maculopathy caused by HCQ stands out as one of the most significant adverse events. The major risk factors for retinal toxicity are the use of HCQ and DFQ above the recommended doses, an extended usage exceeding 5 years, impaired renal function, concomitant use of tamoxifen, and previous macular or retinal disease. Ophthalmological evaluation should be performed at the initiation of HCQ therapy and subsequently on annual basis for patients with risk factors for retinal toxicity. Additionally, baseline and after 5 years (annually after this period) for those without risk factors [58]. More sensitive tests, such as spectral domain-optical coherence tomography (OCT-SD) and automated threshold visual field tests, are recommended for detecting early retinal toxicity [63].

Practical issues for lupus care: HCQ should be prescribed to all SLE patients, except if contraindicated. More sensitive tests, such as OCT-SD, are recommended for detecting early retinal toxicity. Therefore, avoiding excessive HCQ doses is important to prevent retinal toxicity. Obese patients (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²) should use 5 mg/kg/day of ideal body weight (maximum 400 mg/day), as suggested by a recent Brazilian study [59].

Question: How should glucocorticoids be used in induction and maintenance therapy?

Recommendation 2: Glucocorticoids should be used at the lowest dose and for the minimal necessary period. Agreement: 100%.

Glucocorticoids (GC) exert rapid effect on the inflammatory process, with immediate benefits in controlling disease activity [64]. However, they are associated with several adverse events and damage accrual [65]. GC are related to 58% of first year damage and 80% of late damage (after 15 years of disease) [65, 66]. Some protocols using lower doses of GC have shown similar efficacy with less adverse events [67, 68]. GC are recommended for induction (initial) treatment, using the lowest dose, for the minimal necessary period and associated with immunosuppressants.

The consensus suggests that intravenous (IV) pulse therapy with methylprednisolone should be given at a preferred dose of 500 mg/day (ranging from 250 to 750 mg/day) for 1–3 days, followed by oral prednisone 0.5 mg/kg/day (ranging from 0.25 to 0.7 mg/kg/day), with progressive dose reduction and a target of \leq 5 mg/day in 3 to 6 months.

Practical issues for lupus care: Similarly to other international recommendations, this consensus strongly recommends that glucocorticoids should be used at the lowest dose and for the minimal necessary period, in order to prevent damage accrual.

Induction therapy

Question: Is there a preference for mycophenolate mofetil (MMF) or cyclophosphamide (CYC) as induction therapy for LN?

Recommendation 3: Induction therapy should involve the use of either MMF or intravenous CYC. Strength of

recommendation: conditional. Certainty of evidence: moderate. Agreement: 94.1%.

In class III or IV LN (±V), induction treatment includes either MMF (2 to 3 g/day) or intravenous CYC at a dose of 500 mg every 2 weeks for 3 months [Euro-Lupus Nephritis Trial protocol (Euro-Lupus)]. National Institutes of Health (NIH) CYC protocol, with monthly doses of $0.5-1.0 \text{ g/m}^2$ of body surface area for 6 months, involves higher CYC cumulative dose. The pooled analysis of data from RCTs comparing these strategies showed, with moderate certainty of evidence, similar complete and partial remission rates between the groups at the 24-week evaluation. There was also no significant difference between the groups in terms of serum creatinine or proteinuria, although there was certainly weak evidence for these outcomes. Likewise, there was no significant difference between treatments regarding important adverse events such as infections and mortality [44, 69-77]. In the Aspreva Trial, MMF and CYC had similar efficacy overall to short-term induction therapy for LN and more Black and Hispanic patients responded to MMF than IVC. However, as these factors are inter-related, it is difficult to draw firm conclusions about their importance [78]. In cases of gastrointestinal intolerance to MMF, mycophenolate sodium (MFS) may be administered at a dosage of 1.44 to 2.16 g/day [79].

The choice of medication should consider factors such as patient age, desire for pregnancy, risk of infertility or early menopause, previous cumulative dose of CYC, availability of an infusion center, patient adherence to medications, previous gastrointestinal intolerance to MMF/MFS, and clinical and histological parameters of severity. In patients of childbearing age, the risk of infertility associated with CYC must be clearly shared with the patient, particularly when administered at high doses.

The Euro-Lupus protocol presents a lower cumulative CYC dose, and it has similar efficacy to that of the NIH regimen after a 10-year follow-up period [44, 77], including in patients outside European continent [70]. Euro-Lupus CYC Pivotal studies excluded patients with crescentic glomerulonephritis or a GFR < 25-30 mL/min [70–72, 74–77]. Post hoc analysis of the ASPREVA Lupus Management Study revealed no difference in response to treatment with MMF or the CYC NIH in patients with a GFR<30 mL/min. However, there were few patients in each group, and the pivotal study was not designed for this purpose [80]. Therefore, considering the efficacy data and the increased risk of infertility and early menopause with higher doses of CYC, the CYC NIH regimen should be reserved for patients with poor prognostic factors, such as GFR<30 mL/min or kidney biopsy with cellular crescents, fibrinoid necrosis, or severe tubulointerstitial nephritis in \geq 50% of glomeruli, as well as for patients treated in centers with structural limitations to provide infusions or clinical visits more frequently (every 2 weeks).

Practical issues for lupus care: either MMF or CYC can be used as first line immunosuppressive drugs for induction LN therapy. MMF was recently incorporated into the treatment of LN by the Public Health System in Brazil, which simplifies patients' access to medication. IV CYC is preferred for non-adherent patients to oral medication although it requires an infusion center. CYC NIH should be reserved for patients with more severe forms of LN due to higher CYC cumulative doses and adverse events, including infertility.

Question: Can the combination of MMF and tacrolimus (TAC) be used as induction therapy for LN?

Recommendation 4: The combination of MMF and TAC can be used in induction therapy, particularly if there is a lack of response or impossibility to use CYC or higher doses of MMF (induction dose). Strength of recommendation: weakly in favor. Certainty of Evidence: moderate. Agreement: 82.3%.

TAC is a calcineurin inhibitor with immunosuppressive effects similar to those of cyclosporine (CsA). Its mechanism of action involves both T cells immunosuppression and direct antiproteinuric effect due to podocyte cytoskeleton stabilization and reduction of glomerular perfusion pressure through afferent arteriolar constriction [81]. While CsA is associated with a greater risk of dyslipidemia, hypertension, gingival hyperplasia, hypertrichosis and hyperuricemia, TAC is associated with a greater frequency of diabetes and alopecia. Nephrotoxicity can occur with these medications, both acute (TMA, afferent arteriolar vasoconstriction, tubular dysfunction, fluid and electrolyte disturbances) and chronic (glomerular sclerosis, arteriolar thickening, tubular atrophy or interstitial fibrosis) [82].

Studies limited to Asian population, with two RCTs including 402 patients evaluated LN induction therapy with 1000 mg of MMF combined with 4 mg of TAC (divided in two doses) versus CYC NIH. The group with multitarget therapy (MMF+TAC) presented a 33.4% greater rate of CRR (relative risk (RR) 2.37; CI 1.07–5.26; moderate certainty of evidence), with no difference in creatinine levels at 6 months or in the incidence of infections or mortality, compared to CYC. However, these studies excluded patients with creatinine >3 mg/dL; there is a lack of data on long-term histological renal outcomes; and more studies are needed to determine the efficacy and safety of MMF+TAC therapy in other populations [83–85].

TAC for LN is not recommended for patients with creatinine >3 mg/dL, should be avoided for patients with TMA on kidney biopsy, and requires the monitoring of creatinine, blood pressure (BP), and blood glucose after initiation [81–85]. Although there are only a few studies, the association of MMF and CsA can be evaluated when TAC is contraindicated or unavailable [86, 87].

Practical issues for lupus care: This consensus also suggests MMF plus TAC as induction therapy, particularly if there is lack of response or impossibility to use CYC or higher doses of MMF (induction dose). However, the limited accessibility of TAC in most regions of Brazil and the scarcity of evidence among non-Asian patients should be emphasized. TAC is not recommended in patients with TMA and/or creatinine >3 mg/dL.

Question: When belimumab (BEL) combined with standard of care therapy can be indicated for LN patients?

Recommendation 5: The combination of BEL and MMF can be used as induction therapy according to specific characteristics of patient. Strength of recommendation: conditional. Certainty of evidence: moderate. Agreement: 94.1%.

A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled study evaluated the use of BEL (10 mg/kg intravenously) at 0, 2, and 4 weeks and then every 4 weeks combined with standard therapy (MMF or CYC Euro-Lupus followed by AZA) and reported an 11% increase in renal response rates (PERR-primary efficacy renal response: uPCR \leq 0.7; GFR \geq 60 mL/min/1.73 m² or no more than 20% worse than the preflare value; no need for rescue therapy) at 2 years in those who responded to treatment (NNT=9) and a 10.3% increase in CRR (RR 1.51; CI 1.09–2.12; moderate certainty of evidence), with no difference in the incidence of infections [88]. Post hoc analysis of the pivotal study suggested a better response in subgroups with histological class III or IV, in those with baseline proteinuria <3 g/g, and in combination with MMF as an immunosuppressant, with twice the chance of achieving CRR as those in combination with CYC Euro-Lupus, which was probably underrepresented in the study compared to MMF. Finally, treatment with BEL combined with standard therapy reduced the chance of new renal flares by 11.6% (p=0.0008) [89].

Thus, BEL must be used in combination with standard therapy (CYC Euro-Lupus or MMF) for LN. Given current studies, BEL can be combined preferably with MMF in patients with class III or IV renal biopsy and proteinuria <3 g/24 h at baseline. In addition, it should be considered in patients with difficulty in reducing GC dose, high risk of progression to damage, associated extrarenal manifestations, high risk of relapse or frequent relapses, and a high risk of progression to CKD. It should not be recommended to treat LN for those on renal replacement therapy or with a GFR<30 mL/min, except in cases of extrarenal manifestations [88–91]. The subcutaneous presentation can also be administered at a dose of 400 mg weekly in the first month followed by a dose of 200 mg weekly thereafter.

Practical issues for lupus care: BEL can be combined preferably with MMF to enhance renal response, decrease the risk of new flares and help to reduce oral GC dose. It should be considered in patients with difficulty in reducing GC dose, high risk of progression to damage, associated extrarenal manifestations, high risk of relapse or frequent relapses, and high risk of progression to CKD.

Question: Can TAC be used as immunosuppressant in monotherapy in induction therapy in patients with LN?

Recommendation 6: TAC as an immunosuppressant in monotherapy can be used as induction therapy if MMF, CYC, MMF+TAC or BEL+MMF cannot be used. Strength of recommendation: conditional. Certainty of evidence: moderate. Agreement: 100%.

Research conducted exclusively on Asian population suggest that TAC exhibit comparable efficacy to CYC and MMF in LN induction treatment. The dose used ranged from 0.05 to 0.1 mg/kg/day, divided into two daily doses. Tacrolinemia is monitored, with a target of 4 to 8 ng/ mL, 6 to 8 ng/mL, or 5 to 10 ng/mL, depending on the study. Patients with severe renal impairment and crescentic glomerulonephritis were excluded from the studies [72, 92-95]. Compared to that of CYC NIH, TAC is noninferior during induction treatment of LN [93]. A 2-year multicenter RCT revealed a similar response rate and increased risk of leukopenia and gastrointestinal symptoms in the CYC NIH group [92]. A small prospective RCT evaluated 60 patients with active LN treated with CYC, MMF, or TAC and reported similar complete renal response (CRR) (30%, 45% and 40%, respectively; p>0.05) and partial renal response (PRR) (60%, 75%) and 70%, respectively; p > 0.05) with rapid improvement in proteinuria and an increase in serum albumin in the TAC group [72]. According to the analysis of the RCTs included in the consensus, there was a better rate of CRR (RR 1.38; 1.09-1.75) for TAC than for CYC, with a moderate certainty of evidence. MMF and TAC had similar CRRs (RR 0.91; 0.65-1.27). Additional studies involving diverse populations is warranted.

Practical issues for lupus care: This consensus suggests that TAC monotherapy can be considered as induction therapy if MMF, CYC, MMF+TAC or BEL+MMF cannot be used. TAC accessibility is limited in most regions of Brazil.

Question: Can voclosporin be used as an induction treatment for LN?

Recommendation 7: The combination of MMF and voclosporin may be considered for induction therapy after its approval by Brazilian regulatory agencies.

Voclosporin is a calcineurin inhibitor that is analogous to CsA but has better metabolic stability and a similar mechanism of action, blocking proliferation and responses mediated by T lymphocytes and stabilizing renal podocytes [81, 96, 97].

Phase II (AURA-LV) [96] and a phase III (AURORA 1) [97] studies reached their primary endpoints. AURORA 1 evaluated voclosporin 23.7 mg+mycophenolate 1 g twice daily with low-dose corticosteroids in LN patients with class III and IV with UPCR≥1.5 g/g or class V UPCR≥2 g/g and found a greater chance of achieving the primary endpoint at 52 weeks (41% versus 23%/OR 2.65; 95% CI 1.64–4.27; p<0.0001) (97). Voclosporin was approved for the LN treatment in the USA in 2021. In Brazil, voclosporin has not been approved by regulatory agencies yet, and the posology for this combination (10 pills/day) raises concerns regarding adherence.

Practical issues for lupus care: Although studies demonstrated the effectiveness of voclosporin plus MMF as induction therapy for LN, the former drug is not approved in Brazil.

Question: Can CsA be used as an induction therapy in LN? Recommendation 8: CsA as an immunosuppressant in monotherapy is not recommended for induction therapy. Strength of recommendation: strongly against. Certainty evidence: very low. Agreement: 82.3%.

CYCLOFA-LUNE, an open, multicenter RCT, evaluated the use of CYC or CsA for the induction and maintenance therapy of LN proliferative with preserved renal function and reported similar results between the two drugs, considering response and adverse effects [98]. Due to the limited number of RCTs and the associated risk of drug toxicity, especially in chronic use, panelists do not recommend CsA as immunosuppressant in monotherapy for Class III or IV (\pm V) LN.

Practical issues for lupus care: Due to the limited number of studies, this consensus does not recommend CsA monotherapy for proliferative LN induction therapy. Caution with arterial hypertension, hyperglycemia, hypertrichosis and worsening renal function is important when using CsA.

Question: Can leflunomide (LFN) be used as an induction therapy for LN?

Recommendation 9: LFN as immunosuppressant in monotherapy is not recommended for induction therapy. Strength of recommendation: strongly against. Certainty of evidence: very low. Agreement: 88.9%.

LFN, an inhibitor of dihydroorotate dehydrogenase, has antiproliferative and anti-inflammatory effects by decreasing T cells and B cells. Despite the low quality of available evidence, some observational studies and one small RCT suggested that LFN is safe and well tolerated and may be an effective induction treatment for proliferative LN. These studies predominantly involved Asian SLE patients [99–102].

A recent RCT study in Chinese patients evaluated LFN 40 mg/day for 3 days followed by 20 mg/day versus CYC 0.8–1.0 g monthly as an induction treatment for proliferative LN and reported similar efficacy and safety profiles. The study included fewer patients than the original sample size calculated, and the follow-up only lasted 24 weeks [103]. A systematic review encompassing 254 patients evaluated the efficacy and safety of LFN compared to CYC in Chinese adults with LN and, despite the small sample and high heterogeneity of the studies, suggested a similar favorable safety profile of LFN in these patients [104].

Given the overall low quality of the evidence regarding the use of LFN for proliferative LN induction therapy, coupled with the predominantly Asian population and limited follow-up duration in the available studies, the panel strongly advises against the use of LFN for proliferative LN induction therapy.

Practical issues for lupus care: Due to the limited number of studies and quality of evidence, this consensus does not recommend LFN monotherapy for LN induction therapy.

Question: Should pulse therapy with methylprednisolone be combined with CYC throughout induction therapy for LN?

Recommendation 10: Monthly glucocorticoid pulse therapy is not recommended during induction therapy. Strength of recommendation: strongly against. Certainty of evidence: very low. Agreement: 88.2%.

Since the discovery and application of GC in the 1950s, this class of medication has been very important in the treatment of various immune-mediated rheumatic diseases [105]. It has been used as an anchor medication for many years and is combined with standard therapy. On the other hand, it presents a risk of serious adverse events and damage [65].

A randomized study evaluated the effect of combined therapy with CYC NIH and pulse therapy with monthly methylprednisolone (1 g/m² body surface area) versus each therapy alone. There was no difference between combined therapy and CYC alone, with a possibly greater risk of adverse events [106, 107]. Thus, pulse therapy with methylprednisolone combined with CYC or other immunosuppressants throughout the induction treatment is not recommended.

Practical issues for lupus care: monthly GC pulse therapy is not recommended, in order to avoid damage accrual.

Maintenance therapy

Question: Can MMF or AZA be used as maintenance therapy for LN?

Recommendation 11: Both MMF or AZA can be used as maintenance therapy. Strength of recommendation: conditional. Certainty evidence: very low. Agreement: 82.3%.

MMF and AZA are the most indicated medications for LN maintenance treatment [29]. The MAINTAIN study included 105 European patients who received AZA 2 mg/kg/day or MMF 2 g/day after induction treatment with CYC Euro-Lupus [108], and long-term analyses confirmed the lack of superiority of any of the strategies regarding renal activity and progression to CKD [39]. The multicenter ALMS study evaluated 227 patients who received AZA or MMF after induction therapy with CYC or MMF and revealed the superiority of MMF in terms of renal relapse, progression to CKD, and the need for rescue therapy. Importantly, ALMS multiethnic cohort, including Europeans, Asian, Hispanic, and African American populations, demonstrated the superiority of MMF in these populations [109]. Regarding adverse events, there was no difference between the number of infections or malignancies, and those using AZA had more hematological adverse events [110].

We recommend the use of MMF 1–2 g/day or AZA 2 mg/kg/day for LN maintenance treatment. The choice of strategy should consider patient individual characteristics. For those who receive induction treatment with MMF, it is recommended to maintain the same drug during maintenance treatment according to data from the ALMS study which showed that these patients have a worse response when switching to AZA. However, AZA should be used as maintenance therapy in pregnancy and for those planning pregnancies as well as those intolerants to MMF [29, 109]. The availability, cost and dosage regimen (frequency) of the medication should also be taken into consideration [29, 31].

Practical issues for lupus care: both MMF or AZA can be used as maintenance therapy. For those who receive induction treatment with MMF, it is recommended to maintain the same drug during maintenance treatment. AZA can be used during pregnancy and pregnancy planning, and has a better posology than MMF, with fewer pills a day and less gastrointestinal intolerance.

Question: Can calcineurin inhibitors (CsA or TAC) be used as maintenance therapy for LN?

Recommendation 12: Calcineurin inhibitors (TAC or CsA) can be used as maintenance therapy in patients who cannot use MMF or AZA. Strength of recommendation: weak against. Certainty evidence: very low. Agreement: 94.1% for CsA and 100% for TAC.

Few quality RCTs have evaluated the outcomes of these drugs in maintenance therapy, so they are not recommended as first-line therapy. A study in a China compared the efficacy of TAC (with a serum concentration of 4 to 6 ng/mL) with that of AZA (2 mg/kg/day) as maintenance therapy for only 6 months and revealed no differences in CRR, PRR or adverse events [111]. An Italian multicenter, randomized, controlled study compared the efficacy of CsA and AZA in LN maintenance treatment after induction therapy with oral CYC for 3 months. Proteinuria reduction occurred in both groups but was more rapidly with CsA. However, the small number of patients and of renal flares in both groups precluded definite conclusions [112].

Practical issues for lupus care: Calcineurin inhibitors (TAC or CsA) can be used as maintenance therapy in patients who cannot use MMF or AZA. Awareness of calcineurin inhibitors renal acute and chronic toxicity is necessary.

Question: Can LFN be used as maintenance therapy for LN? Recommendation 13: LFN can be used as maintenance therapy in patients who cannot use MMF or AZA. Strength of recommendation: weak against. Certainty of evidence: very low. Agreement: 94.1%.

Only one open-label, noninferiority RCT, evaluated LFN and AZA for 36 months maintenance therapy in Chinese patients with proliferative LN, who achieved complete renal response after monthly induction therapy with monthly CYC for 6–9 months. LFN was found to be noninferior to AZA in terms of efficacy and safety [113]. The lack of evidence regarding LFN efficacy in proliferative LN maintenance therapy, coupled with the limited data form a single study involving solely Asian patients, precluded the panel from endorsing LFN as first-line therapy in this scenario. However, in patients who do not respond to MMF or AZA or who present considerable toxicity, LFN may be considered a therapeutic option.

Practical issues for lupus care: LEF can be considered for maintenance therapy in patients who cannot use MMF or AZA.

Question: Should CYC be used in maintenance therapy for LN?

Recommendation 14: CYC is not recommended for maintenance therapy. Strength of recommendation: strongly against. Certainty of evidence: very low. Agreement: 94.1%.

Only one open-label RCT after LN induction treatment compared CYC (0.5 to 1.0 g/m² every three months), AZA (1 to 3 g/kg per day), and MMF (0.5 to 3 g/day) for 1 to 3 years as maintenance therapy in a Chinese patient. The composite outcome of patient and renal survival was greater in the AZA (p=0.009) and MMF (p=0.05)

groups. LN recurrence was less frequent among those using AZA (p=0.02), with a greater frequency of hospitalizations, amenorrhea and infections with CYC [114]. The CYCLOFA-LUNE, an open, multicenter RCT, evaluated the efficacy of CYC versus CsA for both induction and maintenance of proliferative LN with preserved renal function. The study revealed comparable treatment response rates and adverse effects with both drugs [98].

Although CYC has historically been used as LN maintenance therapy, its adverse effects, especially those related to prolonged exposure time and cumulative dose, prompts caution. With the availability of newer, more effective therapeutic options with a lower risk profile of adverse events, CYC should not be recommended as maintenance therapy.

Practical issues for lupus care: CYC is not recommended for maintenance therapy due to adverse events related to CYC prolonged exposure and cumulative dose.

Treatment of class V LN

Pure class V comprises approximately 10 to 20% of LN patients and, for this reason, is underrepresented in most RCTs [115]. Up to 30% of patients may progress to CKD within 10 years [115, 116] and treatment involves the use of corticosteroids and immunosuppressants [95, 117–119] (Fig. 4).

Pulse therapy with IV methylprednisolone should be performed at a dosage of up to 500 mg/day for 1–3 days, followed by oral prednisone 0.25 to 0.5 mg/kg/day, with progressive reduction of the dose and a target dose of \leq 5 mg/day in 3 to 6 months.

The following immunosuppressants can be used to treat class V LN: MMF, CYC, AZA, combination of MMF and calcineurin inhibitor (TAC or CsA), calcineurin inhibitor (TAC or CsA). The choice of the immunosuppressant should take into consideration: severity (proteinuria and serum albumin levels), patient adherence, availability/access to medication and infusion centers, pregnancy or lactation, risk of infertility, costs, and patient opinion (Table 3).

Nephroprotective measures are extremely important in the management of class V LN. Blood pressure control and use of antiproteinuric drugs are essential to control proteinuria [120]. It is also important to stop smoking, avoid the use of nephrotoxic drugs and have a low salt diet. Nephrotic proteinuria is associated with dyslipidemia and increased thrombotic risk and preventive treatment is indicated. These measures are described below in session 11 (adjunctive measures beyond immunosuppression).

Practical issues for lupus care: this consensus recommends the use of GC and immunosuppressants for the treatment of pure class V LN. Nephroprotective measures, blood pressure control and use of antiproteinuric

drugs are essential to control proteinuria in pure class V LN.

Refractory LN

Rituximab (RTX) is an IgG1 anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody that induces B lymphocyte depletion. LUNAR pivotal study evaluated RTX as an add-on therapy (associated with MMF) and found no differences in CRR (normal serum creatinine or <115% of baseline; normal urinary sediment and UPCR<0.5) and PRR (creatinine <115% of baseline; urine 1<50% erythrocytes of baseline and absence of erythrocyte casts and 50% decrease in UPCR, with 24 h proteinuria<1 g or <3 g if nephrotic) between the groups RTX+MMF and Placebo+MMF [121].

Data from observational studies, open-label trials and systematic reviews [122, 123] support the use of RTX in LN, with beneficial effects and evidence of renal response, especially in refractory patients. Therefore, we recommend RTX for the treatment of refractory Class III, IV or V LN.

Practical issues for lupus care: this consensus recommends RTX for refractory LN (Chart 1).

Adjunctive measures beyond immunosuppression Patient education

Patient participation in the shared decision-making process, including diagnosis, follow up and treatment, can significantly contribute to treatment success. In addition to immunosuppressive treatment, patient must understand the importance of nephroprotective measures and of adhering to their treatment [29, 120, 124]. It is also relevant to raise awareness about photoprotection and smoking cessation, as they are associated with SLE flares [125].

Blood pressure (BP) target in patients with LN

BP should be controlled at levels $\leq 120/80$ mmHg (degree of agreement 92.3%) with careful consideration for patient tolerance to medications. Recently, KDIGO suggested that, for adult patients with hypertension or nondialytic CKD, the target of systolic blood pressure should be <120 mmHg. In case of transplant patients, the target was considered <130/80 mmHg [33].

Nonpharmacological measures should include a lowsodium intake diet, moderate-intensity physical activity for at least 150 min per week or at a level compatible with physical and cardiovascular tolerance, maintenance of ideal weight, avoidance of alcohol abuse, and adoption of a cardioprotective diet [33, 126].

Antiproteinuric drugs

Inhibitors of the renin–angiotensin system (angiotensinconverting enzyme inhibitors [ACEis] or angiotensin



Fig. 4 Treatment of class V LN. *Factors to be considered when choosing immunosuppressants: severity (proteinuria and serum albumin levels), availability, adherence, infusion clinic availability, gastrointestinal tolerance, CYC cumulative dose, age/fertility, desire for pregnancy. **Target Renal Response (TRR): reduction in proteinuria by 25% at 3 months, 50% at 6 months, and proteinuria < 0.8 g at 1 year associated with maintenance or improvement (±10% baseline) in renal function. Nephrotic proteinuria at baseline may require another 6–12 months to achieve TRR and in such cases, immediate therapy changes are not necessary if proteinuria is improving. If clinical or laboratory worse within 3 months, therapy changes should be considered. §Severe Disease, Poor prognostic factors, Impossibility to MMF or CYF Euro-Lupu

1 Patient education
2 Blood pressure target ≤ 120/80 mmHg
3 Antiproteinuric drugs
4 Assessment of cardiovascular risk and treatment of dyslipidemia
5 Treatment of glucocorticosteroid-induced osteoporosis
6 Antiphospholipid antibodies and prevention of thromboembolism
7 Immunization and Infection Prevention
8 Smoking cessation
9 Avoidance of nephrotoxic medications

10 Sun exposure protection

Chart 1 Adjunctive measures beyond immunosuppression in LN patients

receptor blockers [ARBs]) are recommended as firstline therapies for the treatment of patients with hypertension and/or for those with proteinuria even without hypertension, due to antiproteinuric, antihypertensive and nephroprotective effects. These treatments should be discontinued if renal function continues to deteriorate (>30%) and/or if refractory hyperkalemia occurs. The combination of ACEIs and ARBs (double blockade) should not be routinely recommended [33, 126]. To attain the BP target and make medication dose adjustments, home monitoring of BP is recommended.

Inhibitors of sodium–glucose cotransporter 2 (SGLT2) appear to be promising antiproteinuric agents for treating LN and may be useful in patients with CKD (GFR>25 ml/min) whose proteinuria persists despite immunosuppressive treatment. Data on LN are limited, but there are studies on heart failure and diabetic and nondiabetic nephropathy demonstrating important nephroprotective and cardioprotective effects [127–129].

Dyslipidemia treatment in patients with LN

SLE should be considered an independent risk factor for atherosclerotic disease [130–132]. Since LN patients are at moderate risk, the LDL target is <100 mg/dL according to the recommendations of the European Society of Cardiology. Patients with CKD (defined by GFR and/ or proteinuria), and those with documented atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (clinically or unequivocal on imaging) should be classified as either at high or very high risk. In such cases, the LDL targets are <70 mg/dl or <55 mg/dL, respectively (associated with \geq 50% LDL reduction from baseline) [133].

Prevention of glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis (GIO)

SLE patients have a greater risk of osteoporosis. GC use is the main risk factor for bone loss. In addition, the incidence of fractures varies from 30% to 50% among those taking glucocorticoids for more than three months [134]. Patients should be encouraged to address or discontinue associated modifiable risk factors, such as smoking, alcohol consumption, and physical inactivity/sedentarism [134, 135]. GC prescription should be at lowest effective dose and for the shortest possible duration. Bone densitometry and radiography of the thoracic and lumbar spine are important for evaluating the severity of bone mass reduction and the risk or presence of fracture [135].

A diet rich in calcium (1 g/day) or supplemented in cases of an insufficient diet, associated with the maintenance of adequate serum vitamin D levels (>30 ng/mL) is important for bone mineralization and prevention of GIO [134, 135].

The indication for specific drug treatment takes into account age, fracture risk, glucocorticoid dose and gestational desire [134]. Patients at very high risk (use of prednisone or equivalent \geq 30 mg/day for >30 days; prior OP fracture; or BMD T-score \leq -3.5) and patients>40 years at high risk should be treated (densitometric osteoporosis or high risk FRAX). Treatment can be considered in patients with moderate FRAX risk. Assessment tool for Brazilian population (>40 years) is available at https://abrasso.org.br/calculadora/calculadora/. FRAX should be adjusted for glucocorticoid dose (when GC dose is >7.5 mg/day, the risk for major fractures is multiplied by 1.15; and for hip fractures is multiplied by 1.2) [135].

The drugs available for the treatment of osteoporosis in Brazil are bisphosphonates, denosumab, teriparatide and romosozumab. Premenopausal women should preferably be treated with oral bisphosphonates. Zoledronate and alendronate are contraindicated when the GFR is <35 mL/min, and risedronate and ibandronate are contraindicated when the GFR is <30 mL/min [135].

Antiphospholipid antibodies and prevention of thromboembolism

The presence of antiphospholipid antibodies (aPLs) including lupus anticoagulant, anticardiolipin IgG and IgM and anti-beta-2-glycoprotein I IgG and IgM should be investigated in all SLE patients. Approximately 30–50% of SLE patients are aPL positive, and about 15% to 30% will develop antiphospholipid syndrome (APS) [136, 137]. Prophylactic treatment with low dose aspirin (75–100 mg/day) is recommended in SLE patients with a high-risk aPL profile, and may be considered in those patients with a low-risk aPL profile. In the case of APS, treatment should follow specific guidelines according to clinical phenotype [138].

Nephrotic proteinuria, especially membranous glomerulonephritis with hypoalbuminemia (<20 g/dL), is associated with a greater risk of thromboembolic events, especially in the first 6 months after the diagnosis. Despite the absence of RCTs, some authors have suggested a benefit of thromboembolic event prophylaxis in these patients [29]. The serum albumin concentration is a strong predictor of thromboembolic events. KDIGO recommends prophylaxis for thrombosis in patients with an albumin concentration <2.5 g/dL and associated risk factors (proteinuria>10 g/day, BMI>35 kg/m², hereditary thrombophilia, aPL, class III or IV heart failure, recent orthopedic or abdominal surgery, prolonged immobilization, pregnancy, malignancy, previous thromboembolic event, GC use) [33]. Lin et al. suggests prophylaxis in patients with an albumin concentration <3.0 g/dL and associated risk factors [139]. The treatments of choice are heparin or vitamin K antagonists, and prophylactic treatment should be continued until there is a significant improvement in proteinuria levels and serum albumin reaches the level of 3.0 g/dL [33]. The risk of bleeding should be assessed before prescribing thrombotic prophylaxis.

Immunization and infection prevention

SLE patients have a greater risk of infection, which is an important cause of morbidity and mortality [140, 141]. Thus, early and appropriate prevention, detection and treatment are essential in infection management of immunosuppressed patients.

Screening for hepatitis A, hepatitis B, hepatitis C, HIV, and syphilis is recommended before starting immunosuppressive therapy. Prophylactic treatment should be considered in patients with a history of cured hepatitis B (anti-HBc+/anti-HBs+) who in planning B-cell-depleting therapy or intense immunosuppression. In patients with active hepatitis C, antiviral therapy should be considered [140, 142]. The prevention of *Strongyloides stercorallis* hyper infection syndrome with the use of antiparasitic drugs is recommended for patients receiving high doses of glucocorticoids, especially in pulse therapy regimens. Ivermectin (200 μ g/kg/day for 2 days, repeated after 2 weeks) is an option with good efficacy and safety profile [143].

SLE patients also have a greater risk of developing tuberculosis than general population. Screening for latent tuberculosis should follow the recommendations of health regulatory agencies in Brazil. Treatment of latent tuberculosis is recommended for patients with a positive epidemiology and/or positive screening test (PPD \geq 5 mm or IGRA+) and/or radiographic findings suggestive of previous contact with tuberculosis [4, 142].

Pneumocystis jiroveci pneumonia (PJP) is an opportunistic lung infection with high morbidity. It can affect immunosuppressed patients and can be prevented with antibiotic prophylaxis. Although some studies have shown a low incidence of PJP in SLE patients (0.04% to 5%), these patients have a high mortality rate (up to 60%). There are still no specific recommendations for prophylactic therapy for SLE, and this topic remains controversial. The use of prednisone >7.5 mg/day, CYC, MMF, rituximab, interstitial pneumonia and LN are risk factors for PJP, while the use of HCQ seems to be a protective factor. Prophylaxis may be considered for patients with a history of PJP and/or risk factors and/or with persistent lymphopenia (<500/mm³) [142, 144–146].

Regarding Covid-19 infection, SLE patients may have a high risk of complications, especially when using RTX or high-dose GC. Preventive measures and vaccination against COVID-19 should be recommended for SLE patients, and the use of antivirals should be considered for high-risk infected patients [147, 148] according to recommendations of the Brazilian regulatory agencies.

HPV infection is a risk factor for cervical cancer in SLE patients [149]. Periodic evaluation with oncotic colpo cytology is essential, and vaccination against HPV should be also recommended according to specific guidelines [150].

One of the most effective measures for the prophylaxis of infections is vaccination. Although efficacy may be reduced in SLE patients, most of them develop protective levels of antibodies after vaccination, with a low risk of disease reactivation [142, 151]. Vaccines should be administered, preferably 2 to 4 weeks before the beginning of immunosuppressive/immunobiological therapy or in the period of clinical remission, but vaccine indication should not delay the treatment, especially in severe cases and in those at risk of rapid damage progression. Vaccination against influenza, COVID-19, pneumococcus, meningococcus, Haemophilus influenzae B, tetanus, diphtheria, pertussis, hepatitis A and B, HPV, and recombinant herpes zoster is recommended. Vaccines with live attenuated microorganisms are generally contraindicated in immunosuppressed patients. Exceptions include the risk of yellow fever during epidemic situations or for those travelling for endemic areas. In such cases, a shared decision should be discussed with the patients, considering evidence that the vaccine is safe for those with low immunosuppression [152, 153].

Prophylaxis with hyperimmune immunoglobulin is indicated after contact with measles and varicella-zoster immune globulin (VZIG) after contact with chickenpox in the contagious phase. [140, 142].

Special situations

Lupus podocytopathy

Lupus podocytopathy is a rare renal manifestation occurring in 1 to 2% of SLE patients and is not included in the classification of LN [25, 26]. Clinically, it presents as nephrotic syndrome resembling class V LN, but light microscopy of the kidney biopsy reveals one of three patterns: normal glomeruli (minimal change type), mesangial glomerulonephritis or focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS). Thus, podocytopathy should be suspected in patients with nephrotic proteinuria and class I or II LN or FSGS on light microscopy. On immunofluorescence, deposits of immune complexes are absent or restricted to the mesangium (absence of subepithelial or subendothelial immune deposits). The finding of diffuse podocyte effacement (usually greater than 70%) on electron microscopy confirms the diagnosis [154–156].

Treatment is based on observational and retrospective studies and includes the use of glucocorticoids and immunosuppressants (MMF, CsA, TAC, CYC and RTX). In patients with extensive and severe podocyte effacement, calcineurin inhibitors appear to be associated with a higher rate of remission and may be used as first-line therapy [154].

Involvement of the vascular compartment

Vascular findings secondary to SLE on kidney biopsy include TMA, lupus vasculopathy (with noninflammatory necrotizing lesions with variable immune deposits), and lupus vasculitis (necrotizing and inflammatory vasculitis with infiltration of the transmural vessel wall). TMA is strongly associated with histological chronicity indices; vasculopathy or vasculitis are related to histological activity indices [157, 158].

Clinically, patients with acute TMA may present with arterial hypertension, elevated serum creatinine, microangiopathic hemolytic anemia (presence of schistocytes) and thrombocytopenia. TMA might be suspected in patients with difficult to control arterial hypertension, dysmorphic hematuria and mild or moderate proteinuria (usually <1.5 g/24 h). In case of higher proteinuria, usually glomerulonephritis coexists. Histological findings include wall edema, obliteration or narrowing of the vascular lumen, presence of thrombi in intrarenal vessels of different vascular calibers (acute phase), arterial intimal fibrous hyperplasia, a thyroid-like tubular appearance (pseudo thyroid), an onion appearance, atherosclerosis, arteriolar occlusions and focal cortical atrophy (chronic phase). The prevalence of these findings in the biopsies of patients with LN is 10–39.5% [159–162]. The presence of TMA in renal biopsy is considered an isolated marker of poor prognosis in patients with LN, especially when it is associated with class IV [160–166]. Regarding treatment, there are no RCTs. An observational study suggested the benefits of anticoagulation therapy with warfarin, but the effects on renal outcomes are unclear [167]. In addition to low-dose aspirin, anticoagulation therapy may be considered according to the aPL antibody profile and the risk of adverse events. Treatment of LN and nephroprotective measures (especially ACE inhibitors) are essential. Drugs acting on the mTORR pathway (sirolimus) or on the complement system could represent future treatment options [168, 169]. Calcineurin inhibitors should be avoided in patients with TMA [82]. KDIGO 2024 proposed an specific management fo lupus nephritis and TMA [170].

Involvement of the tubulointerstitial compartment

Tubulointerstitial disease with or without immune deposits along the tubular basement membrane is a common finding in LN patients. In most patients, it is associated with concomitant glomerular disease, and may be a consequence of glomerular lesions. There is a correlation between glomerular activity and infiltration of interstitial inflammatory cells and between chronic glomerular lesions and tubular atrophy and interstitial fibrosis [171–174]. Interstitial infiltration, tubular atrophy and interstitial fibrosis are independent risk factors for poor prognosis in patients with LN. The severity of tubulointerstitial involvement correlates with the presence of hypertension, baseline serum creatinine, proteinuria, and progressive worsening of renal function. The presence of tubular atrophy and interstitial fibrosis is associated with a twofold increased risk of developing end-stage CKD [172, 173, 175]. It is important to emphasize the risk of tubulointerstitial toxicity caused by CsA and TAC [82].

Management of chronic kidney disease

Despite treatment, 10% to 30% of patients with LN progress to end-stage CKD, which can be treated with hemodialysis, peritoneal dialysis, or kidney transplantation. Even small elevations in serum creatinine represent significant kidney damage. Besides elevated creatinine, the presence of proteinuria is also associated with worse long-term renal outcomes. In addition to immunosuppressive treatment, patients should receive guidance and nephroprotective and cardioprotective therapies aiming at prolonging renal survival and decreasing cardiovascular risk. Proteinuria reduction is important, as it reflects disease control, and reduces glomerular hypertension, and podocyte damage (probably a major factor in glomerular scarring). Most studies suggest that end-stage renal disease in patients with LN can be largely prevented if proteinuria is reduced to levels below 0.5 g/24 h. Furthermore, progression is slowed if proteinuria is reduced to levels below 1–1.5 g/24 h [33].

Kidney transplantation

Patients with LN who undergo kidney transplantation have lower mortality than patients with SLE and CKD who remain on renal replacement therapy [176]. The outcomes are similar to those patients who underwent transplantation for other causes of CKD [177]. Thus, kidney transplantation should be considered in patients with end-stage kidney disease as soon as disease activity is controlled [33]. The best long-term results in preemptive transplantation (before the initiation of renal replacement therapy) highlight the importance of early collaboration with the transplant team to facilitate this procedure [178]. Recurrence of LN in the transplanted kidney is uncommon, occurring in up to 10% of cases. The presence of aPL antibodies (including anti-beta2-glycoprotein I IgA antibodies) or APS, is associated with worse transplant outcomes and an increased risk of thrombosis and graft loss [179–181].

Contraception and management of pregnancy in women with LN

Pregnancies in SLE patients are considered of high risk, with increased maternal and fetal morbidity. Of note, a Brazilian study demonstrated that more than 80% of pregnancies in SLE patients are unplanned, justifying the importance of addressing this topic early with patients and families [182]. Also, pregnancy planning is essential for better maternal an fetal outcomes, and patients with LN should be advised to avoid pregnancy while nephritis is active and for at least 6 months after disease control. Pregnancy should be contraindicated in any of the following conditions: stroke in the last 6 months; pulmonary arterial hypertension; severe restrictive lung disease; CKD classes 3, 4, and 5; heart failure or severe valvular heart disease; and previous episode of severe preeclampsia or HELLP syndrome despite adequate treatment [183–185].

Contraception should be prescribed for patients with pregnancy contraindications, for those with active disease or on teratogenic drugs and for women who do not wish to become pregnant. Available methods include hormonal (progestogen) or cooper intrauterine device (IUD); oral progestogen (desogestrel or drospirenone); intramuscular medroxyprogesterone; or a progestogen contraceptive implant. The use of oral contraceptives containing estrogens can be used in the absence of nephrotic syndrome, if antiphospholipid antibodies are negative, and with low lupus disease activity [185, 186].

Before conception, medication should be reconciled to medications compatible with pregnancy. HCQ should be maintained during pregnancy and lactation, as its discontinuation is associated with a greater risk of maternal– fetal complications [57, 187]. In patients with LN, the immunosupressants AZA, TAC, and CsA are compatible with pregnancy and breastfeeding. GC should be used at the lowest dose necessary to control disease activity [188]. Patients with a history of LN in the last 5 years and receiving maintenance therapy for inactive disease should continue immunosuppressive therapy during pregnancy to prevent LN recurrence. Patients with active LN during pregnancy should also receive immunosuppressive drugs to help control the disease and minimize the use of CEs.

The differential diagnosis between preeclampsia and active LN is challenging, especially when proteinuria and/ or arterial hypertension are present. The following factors favor the diagnosis of LN: altered urinary sediment, especially in the presence of dysmorphic hematuria; positive anti-dsDNA; complement consumption; and disease activity in other organs and systems [189]. To support the hypothesis of preeclampsia these factors are relevant: elevated uric acid (>5.5 mg/dL) and an elevated sFLT-1/ PLGF ratio [189, 190]. There may be concomitant LN and preeclampsia, and the diagnosis of each condition is important for appropriate treatment since active LN indicates the need for immunosuppression, while preeclampsia requires an efficient BP control and/or to consider the delivery.

The use of low dose aspirin (75–150 mg/day), starting before 16 weeks of pregnancy, is associated with a reduced risk of preeclampsia and preterm birth and is indicated for all SLE pregnant women [191–195]. A calcium rich diet (1 g/day) or calcium supplementation in case of insufficient diet is associated with a 55% reduction in the risk of preeclampsia and its maternal and fetal consequences [196]. Adequate levels of vitamin D are important for maintaining bone mass and preventing osteoporosis.

Prophylactic heparin (enoxaparin 40 mg/day or equivalent) combined with low-dose aspirin is indicated for pregnant women with obstetric APS and may be considered for pregnant women at high risk of thromboembolic events, such as in the presence of high-risk aPL antibodies or in those with active LN and proteinuria >1 g/day [185, 197].

Discussion

The present consensus aimed to review the main evidence and updates on the treatment of LN, considering the particularities of Brazilian reality. Brazil, a country with continental dimensions, exhibits significant socioeconomic disparities that might be taken into consideration. The analyses performed, including efficacy, safety, values and preferences, costs, equity, acceptability and feasibility, were considered in the decision-making process. Since the last SBR consensus for the treatment of LN in 2015 [4], there were notable advances in both concepts and approaches to the diagnosis and treatment of LN. Besides updating LN treatment, this consensus brings to light Brazilian contributions for the management of LN patients.

Regarding LN diagnosis, kidney biopsy is considered the gold standard, as it allows the evaluation of histological classes and parameters of activity and chronicity, supports differential diagnosis and guides treatment. However, accessibility to kidney biopsy is limited in Brazil and the use of clinical and laboratorial parameters remains the mainstay for diagnosis in most regions of our country. Of note, an instrument developed in Brazil in order to differentiate LN classes was recently published and can help clinical decisions if kidney biopsy is not available [36].

Assessment of proteinuria is essential in the management of LN since early reduction in proteinuria is a predictor of renal response. Two important LN cohorts (Euro-Lupus and MAINTAIN) have shown that 1-year proteinuria level is the best predictor of long-term renal outcome [37, 38]. This finding was confirmed by two Brazilian studies including patients in real life situation with severe disease and distinct histological classes, race, gender and anti-dsDNA profiles [40, 41]. Highlighting the importance of proteinuria in the evaluation of renal response, and in line with international literature, this consensus set the definition of Target Renal Response (TRR), which consists of proteinuria reduction targets at 3, 6 and 12 months, along with preserved renal function. TRR is an easy and effective way to evaluate renal response. The target of proteinuria <0.8 g/day at 12 months was defined according to data from Brazilian patients [40, 41].

Our first recommendation is that HCQ should be prescribed to all SLE patients, except if contraindicated. More sensitive tests, such as OCT-SD, are recommended for detecting early retinal toxicity, but accessibility to them is limited in Brazil. Therefore, avoiding excessive HCQ doses is important to prevent retinal toxicity. Dose of HCQ should be adjusted for real body weight (5 mg/kg/day, maximum 400 mg/day). However, for obese patients (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²), dose of HCQ should be adjusted for ideal body weight (maximum 400 mg/day), as suggested by a recent Brazilian study [59].

Similarly to other international recommendations, this consensus strongly recommends that glucocorticoids should be used at the lowest dose and for the minimal necessary period, in order to prevent damage accrual. Using lower doses of GC, both for induction and maintenance [67, 68], and reaching lower doses in 3 to 6 months is extremely important to limit damage in these patients [65, 66].

For induction treatment, either MMF or CYC Euro-Lupus can be used as first-line treatment, as the main randomized studies showed similar efficacy between the two drugs in controlling LN activity [69, 70, 73–77]. MMF was recently incorporated into the treatment of LN by the Public Health System in Brazil, which simplifies patients' access to medication. IV CYC is preferred for non-adherent patients to oral medication and CYC NIH should be reserved for patients with more severe forms of LN due to higher CYC cumulative doses and adverse events, including infertility.

Although new therapies have demonstrated benefits in patients with LN in RCTs, their use was considered conditional mainly due to their high cost and difficulty of access in our country. BEL was associated with an 11% greater renal response and with reduced relapse of renal activity [88, 89]. BEL should be considered in patients with difficulty in reducing GC dose, high risk of progression to damage, associated extrarenal manifestations, high risk of relapse or frequent relapses, and high risk of progression to CKD. The use of multitarget therapy (MMF+TAC) has proven to be an alternative to other therapies [83–85]. The association of voclosporin with MMF was also associated with greater renal response, but is not approved in Brazil yet and adherence could be a practical problem since daily dose requires a high number of pills [97].

For maintenance treatment, both MMF and AZA can be used as first-line treatment. MMF is preferred in patients who achieve a good renal response to MMF during the induction phase; however, it is more associated with gastrointestinal intolerance. AZA is easier to administer, generally requires fewer daily pills, is less expensive and is compatible with pregnancy and breastfeeding. The duration of maintenance treatment should be at least of 3 to 5 years. Patients with incomplete response, with multiple previous relapses or with renal damage might need longer periods of immunosuppressive treatment [48].

For pure class V LN, there is scarce literature data since it comprises about 10 to 20% of LN patients [115]. This consensus recommends the use of GC and immunosuppressants for the treatment of class V LN. Nephroprotective measures, blood pressure control and use of antiproteinuric drugs are essential to control proteinuria in class V LN.

Nephroprotective measures should also be emphasized to all LN patients since they are associated with better renal outcome [33]. A Brazilian study showed that a tightly controlled renoprotective protocol is effective in reducing persistent proteinuria in LN [120], which can avoid further unnecessary increases in immunosuppression due to uncontrolled proteinuria. Traditional nephroprotective measures include blood pressure control, renin-angiotensin blockage, low salt diet, smoking cessation, avoidance of nephrotoxic drugs. Despite the scarce evidence in LN, iSGLT2 has been shown to play important nephroprotective and cardioprotective roles in other diseases [127–129], and is also promising in LN.

Comparing with other published guidelines for LN, the II Brazilian Consensus for LN presents some similarities and differences. KDIGO 2024 [170] and Eular 2023 [198] have subtle differences in the definition of renal response target remission, indications of kidney biopsy and strategies of treatment. As mentioned above, in the present consensus, TRR was based in international and Brazilian studies. Regarding treatment, all guidelines reinforced the use of HCQ and low doses of GCs. Both KDIGO 2024 [170] and Eular 2023 [198] considered MMF, CYC, multitarget therapies with BEL+MMF or CYC and

MMF+TAC as initial therapy in LN. In the II Brazilian Consensus, economic factors and restricted access to BEL and TAC currently positioned these medications as conditional, taking also into consideration patients characteristics. Another interesting point, KDIGO 2024 [170] and the II Brazilian Consensus emphasizes the treatment of Class V nephritis and adjunctive measures beyond immunosuppression. Altogether, all documents provide an excellent guidance to the growing complexity of LN management and the clinical impact of differences between these guidelines should be analyzed in future studies.

The main limitation of this manuscript is the lack of inclusion of nephrologists and the patients' perspective on LN treatment, which must be in the agenda in future updates of the guideline and consensus. On the other hand, this consensus has several strengths, including: systematic review and GRADE methodology; rheumatologists with experience in the diagnosis and treatment of LN; decision-making based in important variables (efficacy, safety, values and preferences, costs, equity, acceptability and feasibility) considering the reality of Brazil; discussion of both immunosuppressive treatment and adjunctive measures beyond immunosuppression in all stages of LN; and the proposal of a treatment flowchart for LN.

In the future, there are several additional therapeutics currently being evaluated for the treatment of LN and we expect more patients from Latin America to be included in studies with different ethnicities, studies with pharmacoeconomic analyses, personalized treatments according to biomarkers and histological findings, long-term results with multitarget therapies, and new molecules in phase III/IV studies of LN (obinutuzumab, JAK inhibitors, others).

Conclusion

This consensus provides evidence-based data to guide LN diagnosis and treatment, supporting the development of public and supplementary health policies in Brazil. However, the autonomy of health professionals must be respected and ensured in relation to the different therapeutic options when based on scientific evidence.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi. org/10.1186/s42358-024-00386-8.

Supplementary Material 1

Acknowledgements Not applicable.

Author contributions

*ETRN and LPCS are first authors and contributed equally to this work. Conceptualization of this work: ETRN, LPCS, EIS, EFB, EMK, LTLC, MMCM, NCA, SA, ACOSM, EFNY, RCAT, RWT, DCSE, FMR, AAG, ASAJ, CLSN, DCC, OAM. Definition of the guidelines' scope, generation of PICO questions, voting, and elaboration of recommendations: ETRN, LPCS, EIS, EFB, EMK, LTLC, MMCM, NCA, SA, ACOSM, EFNY, RCAT, RWT, DCSE, FMR, AAG, ASAJ, CLSN, DCC, OAM. Methodology including systematic literature search, formal analysis of the literature, and grading of the evidence quality: ETRN, LPCS, EIS, EFB, EMK, LTLC, MMCM, NCA, SA, ACOSM, EFNY, RCAT, RWT, DCSE, FMR, AAG, ASAJ, CLSN, DCC, OAM. Initial draft manuscript: ETRN, LPCS. Review and editing of the manuscript: ETRN, LPCS, EIS, EFB, EMK, LTLC, MMCM, EB, NCA, SA, ACOSM, EFNY, RCAT, RWT, DCSE, FMR, AAG, ASAJ, CLSN, DCC, OAM. All authors were involved in the production of the recommendations, and have reviewed, discussed, and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

The study was funded by Brazilian Society of Rheumatology. This guideline and recommendations were developed and endorsed by Brazilian Society of Rheumatology and are intended to provide an evidence-based framework to guide health care professionals diagnosing and treating lupus nephritis as well as the development of public and supplementary health policies in Brazil to promote early diagnosis, treatment and damage prevention in SLE patients with lupus nephritis.

Data availability

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article [and its supplementary information files].

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that the research was carried out in the absence of any commercial or financial relationship that could be interpreted as a potential conflict of interest. Several authors of these guidelines, including voting members, have interacted with the pharmaceutical industry including the manufacturers of some of the drugs mentioned in these recommendations. However, none of the authors received any support or fee directly or indirectly related to or influencing the development of these guidelines. ETRN received speaker fees and/or consultancies from AstraZeneca, GSK and Novartis and participate in clinical research from Abbvie, BMS and Novartis. LPCS received speaker and research fees from AstraZeneca and GSK and participate in clinical research from Abbvie, AstraZeneca, BMS, GSK and Novartis. EIS declares no competing interests. EFB declares no competing interests. EMK received speaker fees and/or consultancies and/or advisory boards from AstraZeneca and GSK. LTLC declares no competing interests. MMCM declares no competing interests. NCA received speaker fees, advisory boards and research fee from AstraZeneca and GSK and speaker fees from Organon. SA received speaker fees from AstraZeneca and GSK; ISS from GSK. ACOSM received speaker fees from AstraZeneca and GSK. EFNY received speaker fees from AstraZeneca. RCAT declares no competing interests. RWT declares no competing interests. DCSE received speaker fees and/or consultancies from Abbvie, AstraZeneca, Janssen and GSK. FMR received speaker fees/advisory boards from GSK and AstraZeneca. AAG declares no competing interests. ASAJ received speaker fees from GSK and AstraZeneca. CLSN received speaker fees from AstraZeneca and GSK, advisory boards from AstraZeneca and participate in clinical research from Abbvie, AstraZeneca, BMS, GSK, Lilly, Merck, Novartis, Pfizer, Roche and UCB. DCC received speaker and research fees from AstraZeneca and GSK and participate in clinical research from BMS, Novartis and Roche. OAM received speaker fees and/or consultancies and/or advisory boards from Abbvie, Astrazeneca, BMS, Celltrion, GSK, Janssen-Cilag, Novartis-Sandoz and UCB.

Author details

¹Division of Rheumatology, Department of Medicine, Escola Paulista de Medicina, Universidade Federal de São Paulo (EPM/Unifesp), Otonis Street, 863, 2 Floor, Vila Clementino, São Paulo, SP 04025-002, Brazil ²Division of Rheumatology, Hospital das Clínicas, Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade de São Paulo (FMUSP), São Paulo, Brazil

³Department of Rheumatology, Hospital Universitário Pedro Ernesto, Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

⁴Division of Rheumatology, Department of Orthopedics, Rheumatology and Traumatology, Universidade Estadual de Campinas (Unicamp), Campinas, Brazil

⁵Division of Rheumatology, Universidade Federal do Ceará (UFC), Fortaleza, Brazil

⁶Division of Rheumatology, Hospital do Servidor Público Estadual de São Paulo - Instituto de Assistência Médica ao Servidor Público Estadual de São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil

⁷Division of Rheumatology, Hospital das Clínicas da Universidade Federal de Goiás, Goiânia, Brazil

⁸Division of Rheumatology, Universidade Estadual de Ciências da Saúde de Alagoas, Maceió, Brazil

⁹Division of Rheumatology, Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais (UFMG), Belo Horizonte, Brazil

¹⁰Division of Rheumatology, Department of Internal Medicine, Universidade Federal da Paraíba (UFPB), João Pessoa, Brazil

¹¹Division of Rheumatology, Department of Internal Medicine, Hospital de Clínicas de Porto Alegre, Universidade Federal Do Rio Grande Do Sul, Porto Alegre, Brazil

¹²Division of Rheumatology, Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Belo Horizonte, Belo Horizonte, Brazil

Received: 16 April 2024 / Accepted: 25 May 2024 Published online: 18 June 2024

References

- Fanouriakis A, Tziolos N, Bertsias G, Boumpas D. Update on the diagnosis and management of systemic lupus erythematosus. Ann Rheum Dis. 2021;80(1):14–21.
- Vilar MJ, Sato El. Estimating the incidence of systemic lupus erythematosus in a tropical region (Natal, Brazil). Lupus. 2002;11(8):528–32.
- Klumb E, Scheinberg M, Souza V, Xavier R, Azevedo V, McElwee E, et al. The landscape of systemic lupus erythematosus in Brazil: an expert panel review and recommendations. Lupus 2021;30:1684–95.
- Klumb EM, Silva CA, Lanna CC, Sato EI, Borba EF, Brenol JC, et al. Consensus of the Brazilian Society of Rheumatology for the diagnosis, management and treatment of lupus nephritis. Rev Bras Reumatol 2015;55:1–21.
- Moberg J, Oxman A, Rosenbaum S, Schünemann H, Guyatt G, Flottorp S, et al. The GRADE Evidence to Decision (EtD) framework for health system and public health decisions. Health Res Policy Syst 2018;16:45.
- Gatto M, Zen M, Iaccarino L, Doria A. New therapeutic strategies in systemic lupus erythematosus management. Nat Rev Rheumatol. 2019;15(1):30–48.
- Gladman D, Ibañez D, Ruiz I, Urowitz M. Recommendations for frequency of visits to monitor systemic lupus erythematosus in asymptomatic patients: data from an observational cohort study. J Rheumatol. 2013;40(5):630–33.
- Hahn BH, McMahon MA, Wilkinson A, Wallace WD, Daikh DI, Fitzgerald JD, et al. American College of Rheumatology guidelines for screening, treatment, and management of lupus nephritis. Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken) 2012;64:797–808.
- Christopher-Stine L, Siedner M, Lin J, Haas M, Parekh H, Petri M, et al. Renal biopsy in lupus patients with low levels of proteinuria. J Rheumatol 2007;34:332–35.
- Zabaleta-Lanz M, Muñoz L, Tapanes F, Vargas-Arenas R, Daboin I, Barrios Y, et al. Further description of early clinically silent lupus nephritis. Lupus 2006;15:845–51.
- Medina-Rosas J, Yap K, Anderson M, Su J, Touma Z. Utility of urinary proteincreatinine ratio and protein content in a 24-hour urine collection in systemic lupus erythematosus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Arthritis Care Res. 2016;68(9):1310–19.
- 12. Choi I, Park J, Lee E, Song Y, Lee E. Random spot urine protein to creatinine ratio is a reliable measure of proteinuria in lupus nephritis in Koreans. Clin Exp Rheumatol. 2013;31(4):584–88.

- Marques G, Cotovio P, Ferrer F, Silva C, Botelho C, Lopes K, et al. Random spot urine protein/creatinine ratio: a reliable method for monitoring lupus nephritis? Clin Kidney J 2013;6:590–94.
- 14. McCarty G, Rice J, Bembe M, Pisetsky D. Independent expression of autoantibodies in systemic lupus erythematosus. J Rheumatol. 1982;9(5):691–95.
- Moroni G, Radice A, Giammarresi G, Quaglini S, Gallelli B, Leoni A, et al. Are laboratory tests useful for monitoring the activity of lupus nephritis? A 6-year prospective study in a cohort of 228 patients with lupus nephritis. Ann Rheum Dis 2009;68:234–37.
- Orbai A, Truedsson L, Sturfelt G, Nived O, Fang H, Alarcón G, et al. Anti-C1q antibodies in systemic lupus erythematosus. Lupus 2015;24:42–49.
- Bootsma H, Spronk P, Derksen R, de Boer G, Wolters-Dicke H, Hermans J, et al. Prevention of relapses in systemic lupus erythematosus. Lancet (London, England) 1995;345:1595–99.
- van Vollenhoven RF, Mosca M, Bertsias G, Isenberg D, Kuhn A, Lerstrom K, et al. Treat-to-target in systemic lupus erythematosus: recommendations from an international task force. Ann Rheum Dis 2014;73:958–67.
- Hung W, Chen Y, Lan J, Chen H, Chen Y, Chen D, et al. Antinucleosome antibodies as a potential biomarker for the evaluation of renal pathological activity in patients with proliferative lupus nephritis. Lupus 2011;20:1404–10.
- Do Nascimento AP, Dos Santos Trindade Viana V, de Abreu Testagrossa L, Leon EP, Borba EF, Barros RT, et al. Antibodies to ribosomal P proteins: a potential serologic marker for lupus membranous glomerulonephritis. Arthritis Rheum 2006;54:1568–72.
- de Macedo PA, Borba EF, Viana VD, Leon EP, de Abreu Testagrossa L, Barros RT, et al. Antibodies to ribosomal P proteins in lupus nephritis: a surrogate marker for a better renal survival? Autoimmun Rev 2011;10:126–30.
- 22. Wang S, Shang J, Xiao J, Zhao Z. Clinicopathologic characteristics and outcomes of lupus nephritis with positive antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibody. Ren Fail. 2020;42(1):244–54.
- 23. Turner-Stokes T, Wilson H, Morreale M, Nunes A, Cairns T, Cook H, et al. Positive antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibody serology in patients with lupus nephritis is associated with distinct histopathologic features on renal biopsy. Kidney Int 2017;92:1223–31.
- 24. Rosenkranz A, Tesar V. Lupus nephritis and ANCA-associated vasculitis: towards precision medicine? Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation: official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association - European Renal Association. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2021;36(Suppl 2):37–43.
- Weening JJ, D'Agati VD, Schwartz MM, Seshan SV, Alpers CE, Appel GB, et al. The classification of glomerulonephritis in systemic lupus erythematosus revisited. J Am Soc Nephrol 2004;15:241–50.
- Bajema I, Wilhelmus S, Alpers C, Bruijn J, Colvin R, Cook H, et al. Revision of the International Society of Nephrology/Renal Pathology Society classification for lupus nephritis: clarification of definitions, and modified National Institutes of Health activity and chronicity indices. Kidney Int 2018;93:789–96.
- Austin H, Muenz L, Joyce K, Antonovych T, Balow J. Diffuse proliferative lupus nephritis: identification of specific pathologic features affecting renal outcome. Kidney Int. 1984;25(4):689–95.
- Parodis I, Tamirou F, Houssiau F. Prediction of prognosis and renal outcome in lupus nephritis. Lupus Sci Med. 2020;7(1):e000389.
- Fanouriakis A, Kostopoulou M, Cheema K, Anders H, Aringer M, Bajema I, et al. 2019 Update of the Joint European League Against Rheumatism and European Renal Association-European Dialysis and Transplant Association (EULAR/ERA-EDTA) recommendations for the management of lupus nephritis. Ann Rheum Dis 2020;79:713–23.
- Parikh S, Alvarado A, Malvar A, Rovin B. The kidney biopsy in lupus nephritis: past, present, and future. Semin Nephrol. 2015;35(5):465–77.
- Anders H, Saxena R, Zhao M, Parodis I, Salmon J, Mohan C. Lupus nephritis. Nat Rev Dis Primers. 2020;6(1):7.
- Mejia-Vilet J, Malvar A, Arazi A, Rovin B. The lupus nephritis management renaissance. Kidney Int. 2022;101(2):242–55.
- KDIGO. KDIGO 2021 clinical practice guideline for the management of glomerular diseases. Kidney Int. 2021;100(45):S1–S276.
- 34. Parikh SV, Almaani S, Brodsky S, Rovin BH. Update on lupus nephritis: core curriculum 2020. Am J Kidney Dis. 2020;76(2):265–81.
- Mavragani C, Fragoulis G, Somarakis G, Drosos A, Tzioufas A, Moutsopoulos H. Clinical and laboratory predictors of distinct histopathogical features of lupus nephritis. Medicine (Baltimore). 2015;94(21):e829.
- 36. Silaide de Araújo Júnior A, Sato El, Silva de Souza AW, Jennings F, Mastroianni Kirsztajn G, Sesso R, et al. Development of an instrument to predict proliferative histological class in lupus nephritis based on clinical and laboratory data. Lupus 2023;32:216–24.

- Dall'Era M, Cisternas M, Smilek D, Straub L, Houssiau F, Cervera R, et al. Predictors of long-term renal outcome in lupus nephritis trials: lessons learned from the Euro-Lupus Nephritis cohort. Arthritis Rheumatol 2015;67:1305–13.
- 38. Tamirou F, Lauwerys B, Dall'Era M, Mackay M, Rovin B, Cervera R, et al. A proteinuria cut-off level of 0.7 g/day after 12 months of treatment best predicts long-term renal outcome in lupus nephritis: data from the MAINTAIN Nephritis Trial. Lupus Sci Med 2015;2:e000123.
- Tamirou F, D'Cruz D, Sangle S, Remy P, Vasconcelos C, Fiehn C, et al. Longterm follow-up of the MAINTAIN Nephritis Trial, comparing azathioprine and mycophenolate mofetil as maintenance therapy of lupus nephritis. Ann Rheum Dis 2016;75:526–31.
- 40. Ugolini-Lopes M, Seguro L, Castro M, Daffre D, Lopes A, Borba E, et al. Early proteinuria response: a valid real-life situation predictor of long-term lupus renal outcome in an ethnically diverse group with severe biopsy-proven nephritis? Lupus Sci Med 2017;4:e000213.
- Braga F, Medeiros M, Viana-Junior A, Sousa Lima M, Barros L, Pontes M, et al. Proteinuria and serum creatinine after 12 months of treatment for lupus nephritis as predictors of long-term renal outcome: a case-control study. Adv Rheumatol 2022;62:2.
- Dall'Era M, Stone D, Levesque V, Cisternas M, Wofsy D. Identification of biomarkers that predict response to treatment of lupus nephritis with mycophenolate mofetil or pulse cyclophosphamide. Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken). 2011;63(3):351–57.
- 43. Dall'Era M, Levesque V, Solomons N, Truman M, Wofsy D. Identification of clinical and serological factors during induction treatment of lupus nephritis that are associated with renal outcome. Lupus Sci Med. 2015;2(1):e000089.
- 44. Houssiau F, Vasconcelos C, D'Cruz D, Sebastiani G, de Ramon Garrido E, Danieli M, et al. The 10-year follow-up data of the Euro-Lupus Nephritis Trial comparing low-dose and high-dose intravenous cyclophosphamide. Ann Rheum Dis 2010;69:61–64.
- Korbet S, Lewis E. Severe lupus nephritis: the predictive value of a ≥ 50% reduction in proteinuria at 6 months. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2013;28(9):2313–18.
- 46. Houssiau F, Vasconcelos C, D'Cruz D, Sebastiani G, de Ramon Garrido E, Danieli M, et al. Early response to immunosuppressive therapy predicts good renal outcome in lupus nephritis: lessons from long-term followup of patients in the Euro-Lupus Nephritis Trial. Arthritis Rheum 2004;50:3934–40.
- Touma Z, Urowitz M, Ibañez D, Gladman D. Time to recovery from proteinuria in patients with lupus nephritis receiving standard treatment. J Rheumatol. 2014;41(4):688–97.
- Jourde-Chiche N, Costedoat-Chalumeau N, Baumstarck K, Loundou A, Bouillet L, Burtey S, et al. Weaning of maintenance immunosuppressive therapy in lupus nephritis (WIN-Lupus): results of a multicentre randomised controlled trial. Ann Rheum Dis 2022;81:1420–27.
- 49. Moroni G, Raffiotta F, Ponticelli C. Remission and withdrawal of therapy in lupus nephritis. J Nephrol. 2016;29(4):559–65.
- 50. Zickert A, Sundelin B, Svenungsson E, Gunnarsson I. Role of early repeated renal biopsies in lupus nephritis. Lupus Sci Med. 2014;1(1):559–65.
- De Rosa M, Azzato F, Toblli J, De Rosa G, Fuentes F, Nagaraja H, et al. A prospective observational cohort study highlights kidney biopsy findings of lupus nephritis patients in remission who flare following withdrawal of maintenance therapy. Kidney Int 2018;94:788–94.
- Malvar A, Pirruccio P, Alberton V, Lococo B, Recalde C, Fazini B, et al. Histologic versus clinical remission in proliferative lupus nephritis. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2017;32:1338–44.
- Yo J, Barbour T, Nicholls K. Management of refractory lupus nephritis: challenges and solutions. Open Access Rheumatol. 2019;11:179–88.
- Cervera R, Mosca M, Ríos-Garcés R, Espinosa G, Trujillo H, Bada T, et al. Treatment for refractory lupus nephritis: rituximab vs triple target therapy. Autoimmun Rev 2019;18:102406.
- Kronbichler A, Brezina B, Gauckler P, Quintana L, Jayne D. Refractory lupus nephritis: when, why and how to treat. Autoimmun Rev. 2019;18(5):510–18.
- Ali A, Abdelaziz T, Béhiry M. The prevalence and causes of non-adherence to immunosuppressive medications in patients with lupus nephritis flares. Curr Rheumatol Rev. 2020;16(3):245–48.
- 57. Dos Reis Neto ET, Kakehasi AM, de Medeiros Pinheiro M, Ferreira GA, Marques CDL, da Mota LMH, et al. Revisiting hydroxychloroquine and chloroquine for patients with chronic immunity-mediated inflammatory rheumatic diseases. Adv Rheumatol 2020;60:32.
- Marmor MF, Kellner U, Lai TY, Melles RB, Mieler WF. Recommendations on screening for chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine retinopathy (2016 Revision). Ophthalmology. 2016;123(6):1386–94.

- Pedrosa TN, Pasoto SG, Aikawa NE, Yuki EF, Borba EF, Filho JCF, et al. Understanding the dynamics of hydroxychloroquine blood levels in lupus nephritis. Lupus 2020;29:560–68.
- Zanetti C, Pedrosa T, Kupa L, Aikawa N, Borba E, Vendramini M, et al. Hydroxychloroquine blood levels in stable lupus nephritis under low dose (2-3 mg/ kg/day): 12-month prospective randomized controlled trial. Clin Rheumatol 2021;40:2745–51.
- Blanchet B, Jallouli M, Allard M, Ghillani-Dalbin P, Galicier L, Aumaître O, et al. Hydroxychloroquine levels in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus: whole blood is preferable but serum levels also detect non-adherence. Arthritis Res Ther 2020;22:223.
- 62. Petri M, Konig M, Li J, Goldman D. Association of higher hydroxychloroquine blood levels with reduced thrombosis risk in systemic lupus erythematosus. Arthritis Rheumatol. 2021;73(6):997–1004.
- 63. Rosenbaum J, Costenbader K, Desmarais J, Ginzler E, Fett N, Goodman S, et al. American College of Rheumatology, American Academy of Dermatology, Rheumatologic Dermatology Society, and American Academy of Ophthalmology 2020 joint statement on hydroxychloroquine use with respect to retinal toxicity. Arthritis Rheumatol 2021;73:908–11.
- Tselios K, Gladman DD, Al-Sheikh H, Su J, Urowitz MB. Medium versus high initial prednisone dose for remission induction in lupus nephritis: a propensity score-matched analysis. Arthritis Care Res. 2022;74(9):1451–58.
- Gladman D, Urowitz M, Rahman P, Ibañez D, Tam L. Accrual of organ damage over time in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus. J Rheumatol. 2003;30(9):1955–59.
- 66. Urowitz M, Gladman D, Ibañez D, Fortin P, Bae S, Gordon C, et al. Evolution of disease burden over five years in a multicenter inception systemic lupus erythematosus cohort. Arthritis Care Res 2012;64:132–37.
- Ruiz-Irastorza G, Danza A, Perales I, Villar I, Garcia M, Delgado S, et al. Prednisone in lupus nephritis: how much is enough? Autoimmun Rev 2014;13:206–14.
- Ruiz-Irastorza G, Ugarte A, Saint-Pastou Terrier C, Lazaro E, Iza A, Couzi L, et al. Repeated pulses of methyl-prednisolone with reduced doses of prednisone improve the outcome of class III, IV and V lupus nephritis: an observational comparative study of the Lupus-Cruces and lupus-Bordeaux cohorts. Autoimmun Rev 2017;16:826–32.
- Sedhain A, Hada R, Agrawal R, Bhattarai G, Baral A. Low dose mycophenolate mofetil versus cyclophosphamide in the induction therapy of lupus nephritis in Nepalese population: a randomized control trial. BMC Nephrol. 2018;19(1):175.
- Rathi M, Goyal A, Jaryal A, Sharma A, Gupta P, Ramachandran R, et al. Comparison of low-dose intravenous cyclophosphamide with oral mycophenolate mofetil in the treatment of lupus nephritis. Kidney Intern 2016;89:235–42.
- 71. Anutrakulchai S, Panaput T, Wongchinsri J, Chaishayanon S, Satirapoj B, Traitanon O, et al. A multicentre, randomised controlled study of enteric-coated mycophenolate sodium for the treatment of relapsed or resistant proliferative lupus nephritis: an Asian experience. Lupus Sci Med 2016;3:e000120.
- Li X, Ren H, Zhang Q, Zhang W, Wu X, Xu Y, et al. Mycophenolate mofetil or tacrolimus compared with intravenous cyclophosphamide in the induction treatment for active lupus nephritis. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2012;27:1467–72.
- Appel G, Contreras G, Dooley M, Ginzler E, Isenberg D, Jayne D, et al. Mycophenolate mofetil versus cyclophosphamide for induction treatment of lupus nephritis. J Am Soc Nephrol 2009;20:1103–12.
- Wang J, Hu W, Xie H, Zhang H, Chen H, Zeng C, et al. Induction therapies for class IV lupus nephritis with non-inflammatory necrotizing vasculopathy: mycophenolate mofetil or intravenous cyclophosphamide. Lupus 2007;16:707–12.
- Ong L, Hooi L, Lim T, Goh B, Ahmad G, Ghazalli R, et al. Randomized controlled trial of pulse intravenous cyclophosphamide versus mycophenolate mofetil in the induction therapy of proliferative lupus nephritis. Nephrology (Carlton) 2005;10:504–10.
- Ginzler E, Dooley M, Aranow C, Kim M, Buyon J, Merrill J, et al. Mycophenolate mofetil or intravenous cyclophosphamide for lupus nephritis. New Eng J Med 2005;353:2219–28.
- 77. Houssiau F, Vasconcelos C, D'Cruz D, Sebastiani G, Garrido EER, Danieli M, et al. Immunosuppressive therapy in lupus nephritis: the Euro-Lupus Nephritis Trial, a randomized trial of low-dose versus high-dose intravenous cyclophosphamide. Arthritis Rheum 2002;46:2121–31.
- Isenberg D, Appel G, Contreras G, Dooley M, Ginzler E, Jayne D, et al. Influence of race/ethnicity on response to lupus nephritis treatment: the ALMS study. Rheumatology (Oxford) 2010;49:129–40.

- Zeher M, Doria A, Lan J, Aroca G, Jayne D, Boletis I, et al. Efficacy and safety of enteric-coated mycophenolate sodium in combination with two glucocorticoid regimens for the treatment of active lupus nephritis. Lupus 2011;20:1484–93.
- Walsh M, Solomons N, Lisk L, Jayne DR. Mycophenolate mofetil or intravenous cyclophosphamide for lupus nephritis with poor kidney function: a subgroup analysis of the Aspreva Lupus Management Study. Am J Kidney Dis. 2013;61(5):710–15.
- 81. Peleg Y, Bomback A, Radhakrishnan J. The evolving role of calcineurin inhibitors in treating lupus nephritis. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2020;15(7):1066–72.
- Farouk S, Rein J. The many faces of calcineurin inhibitor toxicity-what the FK? Adv Chronic Kidney Dis. 2020;27(1):56–66.
- Bao H, Liu Z, Xie H, Hu W, Zhang H, Li L. Successful treatment of class V+IV lupus nephritis with multitarget therapy. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2008;19(10):2001–10.
- Liu Z, Zhang H, Liu Z, Xing C, Fu P, Ni Z, et al. Multitarget therapy for induction treatment of lupus nephritis: a randomized trial. Ann Intern Med 2015;162:18–26.
- Lee Y, Song G. Multitarget therapy versus monotherapy as induction treatment for lupus nephritis: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Lupus. 2022;31(12):1468–76.
- Jesus D, Rodrigues M, da Silva J, Inês L. Multitarget therapy of mycophenolate mofetil and cyclosporine A for induction treatment of refractory lupus nephritis. Lupus. 2018;27(8):1358–62.
- Kasitanon N, Boripatkosol P, Louthrenoo W. Response to combination of mycophenolate mofetil, cyclosporin A and corticosteroid treatment in lupus nephritis patients with persistent proteinuria. Int J Rheum Dis. 2018;21(1):200–07.
- Furie R, Rovin B, Houssiau F, Malvar A, Teng Y, Contreras G, et al. Two-year, randomized, controlled trial of belimumab in lupus nephritis. N Engl J Med 2020;383:1117–28.
- Rovin B, Furie R, Teng Y, Contreras G, Malvar A, Yu X, et al. A secondary analysis of the Belimumab International Study in lupus nephritis trial examined effects of belimumab on kidney outcomes and preservation of kidney function in patients with lupus nephritis. Kidney Int 2022;101:403–13.
- Furie R, Petri M, Zamani O, Cervera R, Wallace D, Tegzová D, et al. A phase III, randomized, placebo-controlled study of belimumab, a monoclonal antibody that inhibits B lymphocyte stimulator, in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus. Arthritis Rheumatol 2011;63:3918–30.
- 91. Navarra S, Guzmán R, Gallacher A, Hall S, Levy R, Jimenez R, et al. Efficacy and safety of belimumab in patients with active systemic lupus erythematosus: a randomised, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial. Lancet 2011;377:721–31.
- Chen W, Tang X, Liu Q, Chen W, Fu P, Liu F, et al. Short-term outcomes of induction therapy with tacrolimus versus cyclophosphamide for active lupus nephritis: a multicenter randomized clinical trial. Am J Kidney Dis 2011;57:235–44.
- Zheng Z, Zhang H, Peng X, Zhang C, Xing C, Xu G, et al. Effect of tacrolimus vs intravenous cyclophosphamide on complete or partial response in patients with lupus nephritis: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA Network Open 2022;5:e224492.
- Kamanamool N, Ingsathit A, Rattanasiri S, Ngamjanyaporn P, Kasitanont N, Chawanasuntorapoj R, et al. Comparison of disease activity between tacrolimus and mycophenolate mofetil in lupus nephritis: a randomized controlled trial. Lupus 2018;27:647–56.
- Yap D, Yu X, Chen X, Lu F, Chen N, Li X, et al. Pilot 24 month study to compare mycophenolate mofetil and tacrolimus in the treatment of membranous lupus nephritis with nephrotic syndrome. Nephrology (Carlton) 2012;17:352–57.
- Rovin B, Solomons N, Pendergraft W, Dooley M, Tumlin J, Romero-Diaz J, et al. A randomized, controlled double-blind study comparing the efficacy and safety of dose-ranging voclosporin with placebo in achieving remission in patients with active lupus nephritis. Kidney Int 2019;95:219–31.
- Rovin B, Teng Y, Ginzler E, Arriens C, Casterm D, Romero-Diaz J, et al. Efficacy and safety of voclosporin versus placebo for lupus nephritis (AURORA 1): a double-blind, randomised, multicentre, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial. Lancet 2021;397:2070–80.
- Zavada J, Pesickova S, Rysava R, Olejarova M, Horák P, Hrncír Z, et al. Cyclosporine A or intravenous cyclophosphamide for lupus nephritis: the Cyclofa-Lune study. Lupus 2010;19:1281–89.
- 99. Remer C, Weisman M, Wallace D. Benefits of leflunomide in systemic lupus erythematosus: a pilot observational study. Lupus. 2001;10(7):480–83.

- Tam L, Li E, Wong C, Lam C, Szeto C. Double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled pilot study of leflunomide in systemic lupus erythematosus. Lupus. 2004;13(8):601–04.
- Wang H, Cui T, Hou F, Ni Z, Chen X, Lu F, et al. Induction treatment of proliferative lupus nephritis with leflunomide combined with prednisone: a prospective multi-centre observational study. Lupus 2008;17:638–44.
- 102. Tam L, Li E, Wong C, Lam C, Li W, Szeto C. Safety and efficacy of leflunomide in the treatment of lupus nephritis refractory or intolerant to traditional immunosuppressive therapy: an open label trial. Ann Rheum Dis. 2006;65(3):417–18.
- 103. Zhang M, Qi C, Zha Y, Chen J, Luo P, Wang L, et al. Leflunomide versus cyclophosphamide in the induction treatment of proliferative lupus nephritis in Chinese patients: a randomized trial. Clin Rheum 2019;38:859–67.
- 104. Cao H, Rao Y, Liu L, Lin J, Yang H, Zhang X, et al. The efficacy and safety of leflunomide for the treatment of lupus nephritis in Chinese patients: systematic review and meta-analysis. PloS ONE 2015;10:e0144548.
- 105. Burns C. The history of cortisone discovery and development. Rheum Dis Clin North Am. 2016;42(1):1–14.
- 106. Gourley M, Austin H, Scott D, Yarboro C, Vaughan E, Muir J, et al. Methylprednisolone and cyclophosphamide, alone or in combination, in patients with lupus nephritis. A randomized, controlled trial. Ann Intern Med 1996;125:549–57.
- 107. Illei G, Austin H, Crane M, Collins L, Gourley M, Yarboro C, et al. Combination therapy with pulse cyclophosphamide plus pulse methylprednisolone improves long-term renal outcome without adding toxicity in patients with lupus nephritis. Ann Intern Med 2001;135:248–57.
- 108. Houssiau FA, D'Cruz D, Sangle S, Remy P, Vasconcelos C, Petrovic R, et al. Azathioprine versus mycophenolate mofetil for long-term immunosuppression in lupus nephritis: results from the MAINTAIN Nephritis Trial. Ann Rheum Dis 2010;69:2083–89.
- Dooley M, Jayne D, Ginzler E, Isenberg D, Olsen N, Wofsy D, et al. Mycophenolate versus azathioprine as maintenance therapy for lupus nephritis. N Engl J Med 2011;365:1886–95.
- 110. Maneiro J, Lopez-Canoa N, Salgado E, Gomez-Reino J. Maintenance therapy of lupus nephritis with mycophenolate or azathioprine: systematic review and meta-analysis. Rheumatology (Oxford). 2014;53(5):834–38.
- 111. Chen W, Liu Q, Chen W, Tang X, Fu P, Liu F, et al. Outcomes of maintenance therapy with tacrolimus versus azathioprine for active lupus nephritis: a multicenter randomized clinical trial. Lupus 2012;21:944–52.
- 112. Moroni G, Doria A, Mosca M, Alberighi O, Ferraccioli G, Todesco S, et al. A randomized pilot trial comparing cyclosporine and azathioprine for maintenance therapy in diffuse lupus nephritis over four years. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 2006;1:925–32.
- 113. Fu Q, Wu C, Dai M, Wang S, Xu J, Dai L, et al. Leflunomide versus azathioprine for maintenance therapy of lupus nephritis: a prospective, multicentre, randomised trial and long-term follow-up. Ann Rheum Dis 2022;81:1549–55.
- 114. Contreras G, Pardo V, Leclercq B, Lenz O, Tozman E, O'Nan P, et al. Sequential therapies for proliferative lupus nephritis. N Engl J Med 2004;350:971–80.
- 115. Mok C. Membranous nephropathy in systemic lupus erythematosus: a therapeutic enigma. Nat Rev Nephrol. 2009;5(4):212–20.
- Sloan R, Schwartz M, Korbet S, Borok R. Long-term outcome in systemic lupus erythematosus membranous glomerulonephritis. Lupus Nephritis Collaborative Study Group. J Am Soc Nephrol. 1996;7(2):299–305.
- 117. Ponticelli C, Moroni G, Fornoni A. Lupus membranous nephropathy. Glomerular Dis. 2021;1(1):10–20.
- 118. Almaani S, Parikh S. Membranous lupus nephritis: a clinical review. Adv Chronic Kidney Dis. 2019;26(5):393–403.
- Austin H, Illei G, Braun M, Balow J. Randomized, controlled trial of prednisone, cyclophosphamide, and cyclosporine in lupus membranous nephropathy. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2009;20(4):901–11.
- Castro M, Ugolini-Lopes M, Borba E, Bonfá E, Seguro L. Effectiveness of renoprotective approaches for persistent proteinuria in lupus nephritis: more than just immunosuppression. Lupus. 2018;27(14):2215–19.
- 121. Rovin B, Furie R, Latinis K, Looney R, Fervenza F, Sanchez-Guerrero J, et al. Efficacy and safety of rituximab in patients with active proliferative lupus nephritis: the Lupus Nephritis Assessment with Rituximab study. Arthritis Rheumatol 2012;64:1215–26.
- Yuan Z, Xie Q, Wu X, Tan B, Zhang X. Rituximab treatment for lupus nephritis: a systematic review. Clinical Invest Med. 2020;43(2):E47–54.
- Weidenbusch M, Römmele C, Schröttle A, Anders H. Beyond the LUNAR trial. Efficacy of rituximab in refractory lupus nephritis. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2013;28(1):106–11.

- 124. Bruce IN, Gladman DD, Urowitz MB. Factors associated with refractory renal disease in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus: the role of patient nonadherence. Arthritis Care Res. 2000;13(6):406–08.
- 125. Griffin B, Lightstone L. Renoprotective strategies in lupus nephritis: beyond immunosuppression. Lupus. 2013;22(12):1267–73.
- Barroso WKS, Rodrigues CIS, Bortolotto LA, Mota-Gomes MA, Brandão AA, Feitosa ADM, et al. Brazilian guidelines of hypertension - 2020. Arq Bras Cardiol 2021;116:516–658.
- 127. Morales E, Galindo M. SGLT2 inhibitors in lupus nephropathy, a new therapeutic strategy for nephroprotection. Ann Rheum Dis. 2022.
- Heerspink H, Stefánsson B, Correa-Rotter R, Chertow G, Greene T, Hou F, et al. Dapagliflozin in patients with chronic kidney disease. N Engl J Med 2020;383:1436–46.
- Packer M, Anker S, Butler J, Filippatos G, Pocock S, Carson P, et al. Cardiovascular and renal outcomes with empagliflozin in heart failure. N Engl J Med 2020;383:1413–24.
- Bruce IN: Not only... but also': factors that contribute to accelerated atherosclerosis and premature coronary heart disease in systemic lupus erythematosus. Rheumatology (Oxford). 2005;44(12):1492–502.
- 131. Grundy S, Stone N, Bailey A, Beam C, Birtcher K, Blumenthal R, et al. 2018 AHA/ACC/AACVPR/AAPA/ABC/ACPM/ADA/AGS/APhA/ASPC/NLA/PCNA Guideline on the Management of Blood Cholesterol: a Report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines. J Am Coll Cardiol 2019;73:e285–e350.
- 132. Drosos G, Vedder D, Houben E, Boekel L, Atzeni F, Badreh S, et al. EULAR recommendations for cardiovascular risk management in rheumatic and musculoskeletal diseases, including systemic lupus erythematosus and antiphospholipid syndrome. Ann Rheum Diseases 2022;81:768–79.
- Visseren F, Mach F, Smulders Y, Carballo D, Koskinas K, Bäck M, et al. 2021 ESC guidelines on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice. Eur Heart J 2021;42:3227–337.
- 134. Pereira R, Perez M, Paula A, Moreira C, Castro C, Zerbini C, et al. Guidelines for the prevention and treatment of glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis: an update of Brazilian Society of Rheumatology (2020). Arch Osteoporos 2021;16:49.
- Buckley L, Guyatt G, Fink H, Cannon M, Grossman J, Hansen K, et al. 2017 American College of Rheumatology guideline for the prevention and treatment of glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis. Arthritis Care Res 2017;69:1095–110.
- Petri M. Epidemiology of the antiphospholipid antibody syndrome. J Autoimmun. 2000;15(2):145–51.
- Ünlü O, Zuily S, Erkan D. The clinical significance of antiphospholipid antibodies in systemic lupus erythematosus. Eur J Rheumatol. 2016;3(2):75–84.
- Tektonidou MG, Andreoli L, Limper M, Amoura Z, Cervera R, Costedoat-Chalumeau N, et al. EULAR recommendations for the management of antiphospholipid syndrome in adults. Ann Rheum Dis 2019;78:1296–304.
- Lin R, McDonald G, Jolly T, Batten A, Chacko B. A systematic review of prophylactic anticoagulation in nephrotic syndrome. Kidney Int Rep. 2019;5(4):435–47.
- Danza A, Ruiz-Irastorza G. Infection risk in systemic lupus erythematosus patients: susceptibility factors and preventive strategies. Lupus. 2013;22(12):1286–94.
- 141. Singh B, Singh S. Systemic lupus erythematosus and infections. Reumatismo. 2020;72(3):154–69.
- 142. Oku K, Hamijoyo L, Kasitanon N, Li M, Navarra S, Morand E, et al. Prevention of infective complications in systemic lupus erythematosus: a systematic literature review for the APLAR consensus statements. Int J Rheum Dis 2021;24:880–95.
- 143. Santiago M, Leitão B. Prevention of strongyloides hyperinfection syndrome: a rheumatological point of view. Eur J Intern Med. 2009;20(8):744–48.
- 144. Schmajuk G, Jafri K, Evans M, Shiboski S, Gianfrancesco M, Izadi Z, et al. Pneumocystis jirovecii pneumonia (PJP) prophylaxis patterns among patients with rheumatic diseases receiving high-risk immunosuppressant drugs. Semin Arthritis Rheum 2019;48:1087–92.
- 145. Yeo K, Chen H, Chen Y, Lin C, Chen D, Lai C, et al. Hydroxychloroquine may reduce risk of Pneumocystis pneumonia in lupus patients: a Nationwide, population-based case-control study. BMC Infect Dis 2020;20:112.
- 146. Wang W, Lai C, Huang Y, Li T, Tsao Y, Chen W, et al. Pneumocystis jirovecii pneumonia in systemic lupus erythematosus: a nationwide cohort study in Taiwan. Arthritis Care Res 2022;74:1444–50.
- Mason A, Anver H, Lwin M, Holroyd C, Faust S, Edwards C. Lupus, vaccinations and COVID-19: what we know now. Lupus. 2021;30(10):1541–52.

- 148. Marques C, Kakehasi A, Pinheiro M, Mota L, Albuquerque C, Silva C, et al. High levels of immunosuppression are related to unfavourable outcomes in hospitalised patients with rheumatic diseases and COVID-19: first results of ReumaCoV Brasil registry. RMD Open 2021;7:e001461.
- Wadström H, Arkema E, Sjöwall C, Askling J, Simard J. Cervical neoplasia in systemic lupus erythematosus: a nationwide study. Rheumatology (Oxford). 2017;56(4):613–19.
- 150. Imunizações SSBd. Calendários de Vacinação SBIm Pacientes Especiais- 2023-2024. 2023-2024.
- 151. Feldman CH, Speyer C, Ashby R, L Bermas B, Bhattacharyya S, Chakravarty E, et al. Development of a set of lupus-specific, ambulatory care-sensitive, potentially preventable adverse conditions: a delphi consensus study. Arthritis Care Res 2021;73:146–57.
- 152. Tonacio A, Do Nascimento Pedrosa T, Borba E, Aikawa N, Pasoto S, Filho J, et al. Immunogenicity and safety of primary fractional-dose yellow fever vaccine in autoimmune rheumatic diseases. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 2021;15:e0010002.
- 153. Valim V, Machado K, Miyamoto S, Pinto A, Rocha P, Serrano E, et al. Planned yellow fever primary vaccination is safe and immunogenic in patients with autoimmune diseases: a prospective non-interventional study. Front Immunol. 2020;11:1382.
- 154. Oliva-Damaso N, Payan J, Oliva-Damaso E, Pereda T, Bomback A. Lupus podocytopathy: an overview. Adv Chronic Kidney Dis. 2019;26(5):369–75.
- Wang SF, Chen YH, Chen DQ, Liu ZZ, Xu F, Zeng CH, et al. Mesangial proliferative lupus nephritis with podocytopathy: a special entity of lupus nephritis. Lupus 2018;27:303–11.
- 156. Bomback AS, Markowitz GS. Lupus podocytopathy: a distinct entity. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2016;11(4):547–48.
- 157. Mejía-Vilet JM, Córdova-Sánchez BM, Uribe-Uribe NO, Correa-Rotter R, Morales-Buenrostro LE. Prognostic significance of renal vascular pathology in lupus nephritis. Lupus. 2017;26(10):1042–50.
- 158. Banfi G, Bertani T, Boeri V, Faraggiana T, Mazzucco G, Monga G, et al. Renal vascular lesions as a marker of poor prognosis in patients with lupus nephritis. Gruppo Italiano per lo Studio della Nefrite Lupica (GISNEL). Am J Kidney Dis 1991;18:240–48.
- Tsumagari T, Fukumoto S, Kinjo M, Tanaka K. Incidence and significance of intrarenal vasculopathies in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus. Hum Pathol. 1985;16(1):43–49.
- Strufaldi F, Menezes Neves P, Dias C, Yu L, Woronik V, Cavalcante L, et al. Renal thrombotic microangiopathy associated to worse renal prognosis in lupus nephritis. J Nephrol 2021;34:1147–56.
- Song D, Wu L, Wang F, Yang X, Zhu D, Chen M, et al. The spectrum of renal thrombotic microangiopathy in lupus nephritis. Arthritis Res Ther 2013;15:R12.
- 162. Barrera-Vargas A, Rosado-Canto R, Merayo-Chalico J, Arreola-Guerra J, Mejía-Vilet J, Correa-Rotter R, et al. Renal thrombotic microangiopathy in proliferative lupus nephritis: risk factors and clinical outcomes: a case-control study. J Clin Rheumatol 2016;22:245–40.
- Hu W, Liu Z, Chen H, Zhang H, Li L, Liu Z. Clinical characteristics and prognosis of diffuse proliferative lupus nephritis with thrombotic microangiopathy. Lupus. 2010;19(14):1591–98.
- Yu F, Haas M, Glassock R, Zhao M. Redefining lupus nephritis: clinical implications of pathophysiologic subtypes. Nat Rev Nephrol. 2017;13(8):483–95.
- Park M, Caselman N, Ulmer S, Weitz I. Complement-mediated thrombotic microangiopathy associated with lupus nephritis. Blood Adv. 2018;2(16):2090–94.
- Alkhatib MH, Kant S, Menez S, Lakhani L, Sperati CJ, Fine DM, et al. Thrombotic microangiopathy versus class IV lupus nephritis in systemic lupus erythematosus. J Nephrol 2021;34:1907–13.
- 167. Sciascia S, Yazdany J, Dall'Era M, Fenoglio R, Radin M, Aggarwal I, et al. Anticoagulation in patients with concomitant lupus nephritis and thrombotic microangiopathy: a multicentre cohort study. Ann Rheum Dis 2019;78:1004–06.
- 168. Gracia-Tello B, Isenberg D. Kidney disease in primary anti-phospholipid antibody syndrome. Rheumatology (Oxford). 2017;56(7):1069–80.
- 169. Bienaimé F, Legendre C, Terzi F, Canaud G. Antiphospholipid syndrome and kidney disease. Kidney Int. 2017;91(1):34–44.
- 170. KDIGO. KDIGO 2024 clinical practice guideline for the management of LUPUS NEPHRITIS. Kidney Int. 2024;105(15):S1–S69.
- O'Dell JR, Hays RC, Guggenheim SJ, Steigerwald JC. Tubulointerstitial renal disease in systemic lupus erythematosus. Arch Intern Med. 1985;145(11):1996–99.

- 172. Wilson P, Kashgarian M, Moeckel G. Interstitial inflammation and interstitial fibrosis and tubular atrophy predict renal survival in lupus nephritis. Clin Kidney J. 2018;11(2):207–18.
- 173. Hsieh C, Chang A, Brandt D, Guttikonda R, Utset T, Clark M. Predicting outcomes of lupus nephritis with tubulointerstitial inflammation and scarring. Arthritis Care Res. 2011;63(6):865–74.
- Baranowska-Daca E, Choi Y, Barrios R, Nassar G, Suki W, Truong L. Nonlupus nephritides in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus: a comprehensive clinicopathologic study and review of the literature. Hum Pathol. 2001;32(10):1125–35.
- 175. Broder A, Mowrey W, Khan H, Jovanovic B, Londono-Jimenez A, Izmirly P, et al. Tubulointerstitial damage predicts end stage renal disease in lupus nephritis with preserved to moderately impaired renal function: a retrospective cohort study. Semin Arthritis Rheum 2018;47:545–51.
- Jorge A, Wallace Z, Lu N, Zhang Y, Choi H. Renal transplantation and survival among patients with lupus nephritis: a cohort study. Ann Intern Med. 2019;170(4):240–47.
- O'Shaughnessy M, Liu S, Montez-Rath M, Lenihan C, Lafayette R, Winkelmayer W. Kidney transplantation outcomes across GN subtypes in the United States. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2017;28(2):632–44.
- 178. Wong T, Goral S. Lupus nephritis and kidney transplantation: where are we today? Adv Chronic Kidney Dis. 2019;26(5):313–22.
- 179. Wagenknecht DR, Fastenau DR, Torry RJ, Becker DG, LeFor WM, Carter CB, et al. Risk of early renal allograft failure is increased for patients with antiphospholipid antibodies. Transpl Int 2000;13:S78–81.
- Morales J, Serrano M, Martinez-Flores J, Perez D, Serrano A. Antiphospholipid syndrome and renal allograft thrombosis. Transplantation. 2019;103(3):481–86.
- 181. Morales JM, Martinez-Flores JA, Serrano M, Castro MJ, Alfaro FJ, García F, et al. Association of early kidney allograft failure with preformed IgA antibodies to β2-glycoprotein I. J Am Soc Nephrol 2015;26:735–45.
- 182. Dos Santos FC, Ignacchiti ML, Rodrigues B, Velarde LG, Levy RA, de Jesús GR, et al. Premature rupture of membranes - a cause of foetal complications among lupus: a cohort study, systematic review and meta-analysis. Lupus 2021;30:2042–53.
- Lightstone L, Hladunewich M. Lupus nephritis and pregnancy: concerns and management. Semin Nephrol. 2017;37(4):347–53.
- 184. Bremme K, Honkanen S, Gunnarsson I, Chaireti R. The presence of lupus nephritis additionally increases the risk of preeclampsia among pregnant women with systemic lupus erythematosus. Lupus. 2021;30(7):1031–38.
- 185. Sammaritano LR, Bermas BL, Chakravarty EE, Chambers C, Clowse MEB, Lockshin MD, et al. 2020 American College of Rheumatology Guideline for the Management of Reproductive Health in Rheumatic and Musculoskeletal Diseases. Arthritis Rheumatol 2020;72:529–56.
- 186. Andreoli L, Bertsias GK, Agmon-Levin N, Brown S, Cervera R, Costedoat-Chalumeau N, et al. EULAR recommendations for women's health and the

management of family planning, assisted reproduction, pregnancy and menopause in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus and/or antiphos-pholipid syndrome. Ann Rheum Dis 2017;76:476–85.

- Dima A, Jurcut C, Chasset F, Felten R, Arnaud L. Hydroxychloroquine in systemic lupus erythematosus: overview of current knowledge. Ther Adv Musculoskelet Dis. 2022;14:14.
- Dalal D, Patel K, Patel M. Systemic lupus erythematosus and pregnancy: a brief review. J Obstet Gynaecol India. 2019;69(2):104–09.
- Buyon JP, Kalunian KC, Ramsey-Goldman R, Petri MA, Lockshin MD, Ruiz-Irastorza G, et al. Assessing disease activity in SLE patients during pregnancy. Lupus 1999;8:677–84.
- 190. Jesús GR, Lacerda MI, Rodrigues BC, Dos Santos FC, Do Nascimento AP, Cristóvão Porto L, et al. Soluble Flt-1, placental growth factor, and vascular endothelial growth factor serum levels to differentiate between active lupus nephritis during pregnancy and preeclampsia. Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken) 2021;73:717–21.
- Roberge S, Bujold E, Nicolaides K. Aspirin for the prevention of preterm and term preeclampsia: systematic review and metaanalysis. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2018;218(3):287–93.
- Rolnik DL, O'Gorman N, Roberge S, Bujold E, Hyett J, Uzan S, et al. Early screening and prevention of preterm pre-eclampsia with aspirin: time for clinical implementation. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 2017;50:551–56.
- Atallah A, Lecarpentier E, Goffinet F, Doret-Dion M, Gaucherand P, Tsatsaris V. Aspirin for prevention of preeclampsia. Drugs. 2017;77(17):1819–31.
- Ren Y, Zhao Y, Yang X, Shen C, Luo H. Application of low dose aspirin in preeclampsia. Front Med Lausanne. 2023;10:1111371.
- Rolnik DL, Wright D, Poon LC, O'Gorman N, Syngelaki A, de Paco Matallana C, et al. Aspirin versus placebo in pregnancies at high risk for preterm preeclampsia. N Engl J Med 2017;377:613–22.
- Hofmeyr GJ, Atallah AN, Duley L. Calcium supplementation during pregnancy for preventing hypertensive disorders and related problems. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2006;(3):CD001059.
- 197. Bramham K, Seed PT, Lightstone L, Nelson-Piercy C, Gill C, Webster P, et al. Diagnostic and predictive biomarkers for pre-eclampsia in patients with established hypertension and chronic kidney disease. Kidney Int 2016;89:874–85.
- Fanouriakis A, Kostopoulou M, Andersen J, Aringer M, Arnaud L, Bae S, et al. EULAR recommendations for the management of systemic lupus erythematosus: 2023 update. Ann Rheum Dis. 2024;83:15–29.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.