RECOMMENDATIONS

Consensus Guidelines on Management of Steroid-Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome

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Justification: The management of steroid resistant nephrotic syndrome (SRNS) is challenging. These guidelines update existing 2009 Indian Society of Pediatric Nephrology recommendations on its management. **Objective:** To frame revised guidelines on diagnosis and evaluation, treatment and follow up, and supportive care of patients with the illness. **Process:** The guidelines combine evidence-based recommendations and expert opinion. Formulation of key questions was followed by systematic review of literature, evaluation of evidence by experts and two face-to-face meetings. **Recommendations:** Fourteen statements provide updated advice for managing steroid resistance, and underscore the importance of estimating proteinuria and baseline kidney function, and the need for kidney biopsy and genetic screening. Calcineurin inhibitors are recommended as most effective in inducing remission of proteinuria, the chief factor associated with long-term renal survival. Advice on managing allograft recurrence, congenital nephrotic syndrome, and monitoring and supportive care, including transition of care, are described. This revised practice guideline is intended to improve management and patient outcomes, and provide direction for future research.

Keywords: Calcineurin inhibitors, Congenital nephrotic syndrome, Focal segmental glomerulosclerosis, Minimal change disease.

prevalence of idiopathic nephrotic he syndrome, characterized by proteinuria, hypoalbuminemia and edema, varies from 12-16 per 100000 children [1]. Majority of patients achieve remission of proteinuria following 4-6 weeks therapy with prednisolone. However, 10-15% patients do not achieve complete remission, and are termed steroid-resistant nephrotic synd-rome (SRNS) [2]. Renal histology shows focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS), minimal change disease and mesangioproliferative glomerulonephritis. Other patterns, including C3 glomerulopathy, membranous nephropathy and IgA nephropathy, and secondary causes of nephrotic syndrome are uncommon. The management of patients with SRNS is challenging. The illness is associated with unsatisfactory patient-reported quality of life, morbidity due to infectious and non-infectious illnesses, and side effects of therapy [2,3]. Patients with persistent proteinuria are at risk for progressive kidney failure [4].

Guidelines from the Indian Society of Pediatric Nephrology (ISPN) were first published in 2009 [5]. In view of recent evidence, the ISPN has proposed revision of these recommendations. The revised guidelines refer Published online: January 4, 2021; Pll:S097475591600278

to patients with SRNS due to minimal change disease, mesangioproliferative glomerulonephritis and FSGS. These guidelines also address management of patients with post-transplant recurrence of FSGS and congenital nephrotic syndrome. Clinical practice recommendations, from the International Pediatric Nephrology Association (IPNA), on the illness were published recently [6].

PROCESS

Three work-groups were constituted to evaluate evidence on: (*i*) diagnosis and evaluation, (*ii*) treatment and follow up, and (*iii*) supportive care of patients with SRNS. The groups developed key questions, and reviewed and analyzed published studies. Quality of evidence was assessed and rated from A-D following the GRADE model [7], and is provided with each guideline. Each statement was assigned one of the two levels of guidance, recommendation or suggestion, indicating strength of the advice (Web Table I). Ungraded statements (X) are like practice points, not supported by sufficient evidence. The workgroups discussed the evidence, through alternating breakout and plenary sessions, in New Delhi on 5 April 2019. Draft guidelines were discussed with members of the ISPN in Pune on 21 December 2019.

GUIDELINES

Rationale

Table I compares the current and previous guidelines [5] and recent recommendations from the IPNA [6]. Given the challenges in management, we advise that a pediatric nephrologist be responsible for the diagnosis and management of children with SRNS.

Guideline 1: Diagnosis of Steroid-Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome (SRNS)

- 1.1 We recommend that steroid-resistance be defined in patients not showing complete remission of proteinuria, despite 6-weeks daily treatment with prednisolone. (1B)
- 1.2 We suggest similar definitions for initial and late (secondary) steroid-resistance (**Box I**). (X)

Approximately 85-90% patients with idiopathic nephrotic syndrome respond to treatment with prednisolone, with complete remission of proteinuria and normalization of serum albumin [1]. There is lack of consensus regarding the minimum duration of daily prednisolone treatment before defining steroid-resistance. The International Study of Kidney Disease in Children (ISKDC) reported that, of patients who achieved remission, 94% did so within 4-weeks daily treatment and the rest during 4-weeks' alternate-day therapy [8]. Others found that 4-weeks and 6-8 weeks initial therapy results in remission in 90-92% and 87-93% patients, respectively [9-12]. While few experts suggest additional therapy with 3-doses of IV methyl pre-dnisolone before labeling steroid-resistance, this is not uniformly practiced [6,13,14].

Table I Guidelines on Steroid-Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome (SRNS): Current Indian Society of Pediatric Nephrology (ISPN), ISPN 2009 and International Pediatric Nephrology Association (IPNA) 2020

	Current ISPN	ISPN 2009 [5]	IPNA 2020 [6]	
Definition: Duration of prednisone therapy	6 weeks daily	4 weeks daily	4 weeks daily; if partial remission, 2 weeks additional	
			therapy (confirmation period)	
Kidney biopsy	All; except if monogenic SRNS identified	All patients	All; except if monogenic SRNS identified	
Genetic testing	Specific subsets of initial SRNS, congenital NS; not in late SRNS	Specific forms of initial SRNS	All patients with initial SRNS; not in late SRNS	
Immunosuppression in monogenic SRNS	Not advised; may continue after counseling if partial remission	Not discussed	Not advised; may continue after counseling	
Estimated GFR, mL/min/1.73 m ²	At diagnosis; q 3-6 months Avoid immunosuppression if eGFR<60	At diagnosis	At diagnosis; q 3 months Prefer MMF if eGFR <30 mL/min/1.73 m ²	
First line: Calcineurin inhibitors (CNI)	Duration of therapy at least 2-year	Duration: 2-3 year	Duration: 1-2 year	
Cyclophosphamide	IV cyclophosphamide may be used; oral not advised	IV therapy has low efficacy; oral not used	IV or oral cyclophosphamide	
Indications for mycophenolate mofetil	(<i>i</i>) Prolonged CNI use and disease relapses; (<i>ii</i>) CNI-resistant SRNS	No recommendation	 (<i>i</i>) eGFR<30 mL/min/1.73 m²; (<i>ii</i>) CNI therapy for 1-yr; (<i>iii</i>) steroid sensitive relapses 	
Use of rituximab	(<i>i</i>) Prolonged CNI use and disease relapses; (<i>ii</i>) CNI-resistant SRNS; (<i>iii</i>) allograft recurrence	No recommendation	(<i>i</i>) CNI-resistant SRNS; (<i>ii</i>) allograft recurrence	
Prednisone alternate day	Taper over 6-9 months	Taper over 1-1.5 yr	Taper and stop by 6 months	
Statins; in addition to dietary advice	LDL cholesterol >160 mg/dL; >130 mg/dL if cardiovascular risk factors	Total cholesterol >200 mg/dL or LDL >130 mg/dL	LDL cholesterol>160 mg/dL; >130 mg/dL if cardiovascular risk factors	
CNI-resistant disease	Rule out monogenic cause; consider rituximab or addition of MMF	Not discussed	Switch to MMF or rituximab; enroll in clinical trials	
Renal transplantation	Evaluation of recipient, donor; managing recurrent FSGS	Not discussed	Evaluation of recipient, donor; managing recurrent FSGS	

eGFR-estimated glomerular filtration rate; FSGS-focal segmental glomerulosclerosis; LDL-low density lipoprotein; MMF-mycophenolate mofetil; NS-nephrotic syndrome.

Box I Definitions Related to Nephrotic Syndrome

Nephrotic syndrome

Nephrotic range proteinuria (40 mg/m²/h or > 1000 mg/m²/day; spot Up/Uc \ge 2 mg/mg; 3-4+ by dipstick); hypoalbuminemia (albumin < 3.0 g/dL); and edema

Steroid sensitive nephrotic syndrome

Complete remission within 6-weeks' treatment with prednisolone at a dose of $60 \text{ mg/m}^2/\text{day}$ (2 mg/kg/day; maximum 60 mg/day)

Initial steroid-resistance

Failure to achieve complete remission after 6-weeks initial therapy with prednisolone (as defined above)

Late (secondary) steroid-resistance

Initially steroid-sensitive; steroid resistance in a subsequent relapse

Complete remission

Urine protein nil-trace by dipstick for 3 consecutive days, Up/Uc < 0.2, or 24-h protein < 100 mg/m $^2/day$

Partial remission

Urine protein 1+/2+ (dipstick), Up/Uc between 0.2-2, or 24-h urine protein 100-1000 mg/m²/day; serum albumin \ge 3.0 g/dL; and absence of edema

Non-response

Urine protein 3+/4+ (dipstick), Up/Uc ≥ 2 , or 24-h urine protein $> 1000 \text{ mg/m}^2/\text{day}$; albumin < 3.0 g/dL or edema

Relapse

Urine albumin 3+/4+ for 3 consecutive days, Up/Uc \ge 2, or 24-h protein > 1000 mg/m²/day, in a patient previously in partial or complete remission

Monogenic disease

Pathogenic or likely pathogenic variation, defined by American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics, in a gene associated with steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome (Web Table II)

CNI-resistant disease

Non-response to cyclosporine or tacrolimus, given in adequate doses and titrated to optimal blood trough levels, for 6-months

Allograft recurrence of nephrotic syndrome

Persistent proteinuria (Up/Uc > 1) if previously anuric; or increase of Up/Uc by >1 if proteinuria at time of transplant (in absence of other apparent causes)

CNI-calcineurin inhibitor; Up/Uc-urine protein to creatinine ratio (mg/mg).

The previous version of this guideline defined SRNS as lack of complete remission despite 4-weeks therapy with prednisolone at a daily dose of 60 mg/m² [5]. The ISKDC and Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) proposed that steroid-resistance be defined following 8-weeks therapy [8,15]. Recent IPNA and KDIGO guidelines propose confirming steroid-resistance following 4-6-weeks' therapy with predniso(lo)ne, with or without additional therapy with three-doses of IV methylprednisolone [6,16].

In order to balance the benefits of extending therapy with steroid adverse effects, we recommend defining SRNS in patients who fail to show complete remission of proteinuria despite 6-weeks therapy with prednisolone at daily dose of 60 mg/m². Patients with steroid adverse effects may receive daily prednisolone for 4-weeks, followed by alternate-day therapy for the next 2-weeks. We do not advise therapy with IV methylprednisolone before making the diagnosis of SRNS.

We suggest similar definitions for initial (primary) and late (secondary) steroid-resistance (**Box I**). Initial resistance is lack of remission at the first episode of nephrotic syndrome. Patients who are steroid-sensitive initially but show steroid-resistance during subsequent relapse have late resistance. Systemic infections may be associated with persistent proteinuria and should be treated appropriately.

Guideline 2: Evaluation of Patients

We recommend the following in all patients with SRNS: Quantitation of proteinuria; serum creatinine; estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR); and kidney biopsy (*Box* II). (1A)

Rationale

Nephrotic syndrome is characterized by nephrotic range proteinuria: $\geq 3+$ by dipstick, proteinuria ≥ 40 mg/m²/hr (> 1000 mg/m²/day), urine protein to creatinine ratio (Up/ Uc) ≥ 2 mg/mg; hypoalbuminemia (≤ 3 g/dL); and edema [6]. All patients should be evaluated appropriately (**Box II**). Estimation of proteinuria, by Up/Uc in morning specimen or 24-hr protein excretion, at diagnosis and 6-monthly follow-up, helps determine response to therapy. Since 24hr collection of urine is difficult to implement, Up/Uc is preferred. Parents are counseled regarding the importance of urinary dipstick analysis for home monitoring of proteinuria.

Response of proteinuria to therapy is an important determinant of renal survival [4,17,18]. Data from the PodoNet Registry on 1354 patients with SRNS shows that 10-year renal survival was highest (94%) in complete remission, 72% with partial remission and 43% with non-response [19]. Assessment of creatinine and eGFR at baseline and follow-up identifies acute kidney injury (AKI) secondary to hypovolemia, fluid loss, infections and drug toxicity, and CKD [20,21].

History and examination might help identify genetic and secondary forms of SRNS. History of deafness, developmental delay, seizures, family history of similar disorder and consanguinity, and syndromic features or extrarenal anomaly (e.g., genitourinary abnormality,

Box II Initial Evaluation of Patients with Steroid-Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome

Urinalysis, including microscopy

Spot urine protein to creatinine ratio; 24-h urine protein excretion

Complete blood counts

Blood creatinine, albumin, electrolytes, fasting glucose, glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c)

Total, low density and high-density cholesterol; triglycerides

Calcium, phosphate, alkaline phosphatase

Hepatitis B surface antigen; hepatitis C and human immunodeficiency virus antibodies

Ultrasonography of kidneys

Kidney biopsy (light, immunofluorescence, electron microscopy); avoided in selected patients*

Investigations in selected children

Complement C3, C4; antinuclear antibody

Genetic tests: Initial steroid-resistance with: (*i*) onset during infancy; (*ii*) family history of steroid-resistance, (*iii*) extrarenal features, (*iv*) non-response to calcineurin inhibitors, (*v*) prior to transplantation

Biopsy may be avoided in patients with familial steroidresistance or with extrarenal features, where genetic diagnosis is preferred; a biopsy is also not required in patients with congenital nephrotic syndrome (Web Box II).

microcoria, dystrophic nails and microcephaly) suggest a genetic etiology. History of joint pain, weight loss, alopecia, jaundice, rash or palpable purpura indicates a secondary cause.

All patients with SRNS should undergo a kidney biopsy before instituting specific treatment. Biopsies are examined by light, immunofluorescence and electron microscopy. An adequate biopsy should include the corticomedullary junction and have ~20 glomeruli to identify focal pathology like FSGS [22]. A biopsy is useful for: (*i*) identifying pathology, extent of interstitial fibrosis and glomerulosclerosis for diagnosis and prognosis; and (*ii*) excluding differential diagnosis and secondary causes of nephrotic syndrome. Repeat biopsy is required to assess calcineurin inhibitor (CNI) toxicity, progression of disease or change in pathology.

Chief histological diagnoses in children with SRNS include FSGS (40-50%), minimal change disease (25-40%) and mesangioproliferative glomerulonephritis (5-8%) [23]. Histology suggestive of FSGS is considered a risk factor for progression to CKD [15-17,24]. Around 10-15% patients show membranous nephropathy, IgA nephropathy or proliferative glomerulonephritis, which requires additional evaluation. A kidney biopsy is not necessary in patients with well described monogenic form of SRNS, known to be unresponsive to immunosuppression, e.g., congenital nephrotic syndrome, familial disease, or if a known genetic cause is already identified.

Screening for viral infections: Patients should be evaluated for hepatitis B and C, and HIV infections. Collapsing FSGS may be associated with HIV or parvovirus infection [25]. Those with positive serology are evaluated for viral load and extent of disease. Active infection may require the use of antiviral therapy.

Guideline 3: Indications for Genetic Studies

We recommend genetic studies in the following patients: congenital nephrotic syndrome; initial resistance during infancy; nephrotic syndrome with extrarenal features; familial steroid-resistance; non-response to therapy with CNI; and prior to transplantation. (1B)

Rationale

Approximately 20-30% patients with SRNS have pathogenic variations in genes encoding proteins of podocyte structure and function (Web Table II) [2]. Mutations in *NPHS1, NPHS2, WT1, COQ2, PLCE1* and *LAMB2* account for 50-60% of monogenic disease in children [26-28]. Genetic testing is useful as follows:

- Identification of causal variant enables diagnosis of monogenic disorders, and occasional phenocopies (e.g., Alport syndrome, Dent disease, cystinosis).
 Specific diagnosis allows counseling regarding progression of kidney disease and monitoring for extrarenal complications, e.g., patients with WT1, LMX1B,WDR73 and SMARCAL1 mutations [29].
- Patients with monogenic etiology have 4-fold risk of non-response to therapy with CNI (odds ratio, OR 4.00; 95% CI 2.52-6.51) and 3-fold risk of kidney failure (OR 2.87; 95% CI 2.22-3.72) (Web Table III) [18,26,28,30].
- Certain mutations respond to targeted therapy, e.g., coenzyme Q10 for defects in CoQ pathway, and eplerenone for *ARHGDIA* mutations [31,32].
- Compared to patients with no identifiable genetic cause, those with monogenic etiology have significantly lower risk for allograft recurrence [18,27,33].
- Diagnosis of a monogenic etiology assists in counseling for future pregnancies and antenatal diagnosis, and facilitates screening of live related renal transplant donors [34-36].

While IPNA guidelines suggest comprehensive genetic evaluation in all children with initial steroidresistance [6], we suggest a focused approach. The likelihood of detecting a genetic cause is inversely related

to age at onset of the illness. A monogenic etiology was seen in 69%, 50%, 25%, 18% and 11% with disease presenting during the first 3 months, 4-12 months, 1-6 years, 7-12 year and 13-18 years, respectively [26]. Syndromic forms of the illness may be associated with specific mutations and characteristic phenotype (Web Table II). Family history of similar illness or consanguinity suggests a genetic cause in ~50-70% cases [26,27]. Although patients with an underlying genetic etiology are less likely to respond to therapy with CNI, few patients may occasionally show partial remission [37].

Siblings of patients with a monogenic cause may be screened for proteinuria by dipstick. There is no role for genetic screening in healthy children with family history of the disease. Since pathogenic mutations are not identified in patients with late steroid-resistance, genetic testing in these children is also not indicated [18,27].

The precise prevalence of monogenic variations in Indian patients with SRNS is unclear as studies are limited to small cohorts [38,39]. A nationwide study is in progress to determine the genetic basis of SRNS, and indications for testing may be revised in future.

Method of Genetic Testing

Causal variants in ~90 genes are associated with monogenic SRNS (Web Table II). Most genes do not show a clear phenotype-genotype correlation. Nextgeneration sequencing (NGS) panels, incorporating multiple genes relevant to the phenotype, are feasible and less expensive, and provide higher diagnostic yield than Sanger sequen-cing. These panels include genes associated with other renal diseases that may have phenotype similar to SRNS. Clinical exome sequencing (Mendeliome gene panel), which includes all exons of genes listed in Online Mendelian Inheritance of Man (OMIM) database, facili-tates targeted gene analysis. In case a causative variant is not identified in the gene-panel, search for variants may be extended to remaining genes in the clinical exome. Whole exome sequencing might be considered for novel disease-causing genes. Sanger sequencing is preferred if a disease-causing mutation is highly likely in a specific gene, in context of extrarenal features or positive family history with known genetic cause. Sanger sequencing is essential to confirm variants detected on NGS, to screen parents to confirm segregation and for antenatal counseling.

Parents should be advised regarding risks and benefits of NGS, including limitation of insurance cover. Referral to genetic counselors might be necessary. Testing must be performed by certified and experienced laboratories, and pathogenicity of variants determined based on criteria proposed by the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics [40].

Guideline 4: Therapy of Patients with SRNS

- 4.1 We recommend calcineurin inhibitors (CNI) as firstline therapy for patients with initial or late steroidresistance. (1A)
- 4.2 We suggest continuing therapy with CNI for at least 24-months if partial or complete remission is achieved. (2C)
- 4.3 We suggest that CNI therapy should be withheld or discontinued for patients with AKI stage 2-3 or estimated glomerular function rate (eGFR) persistently below 60 ml/min/1.73m². (2C)

Rationale

Therapy aims to induce complete or partial remission, while avoiding medication-related toxicity. Long-term renal outcome in patients who achieve remission is significantly better when compared to non-responders [17-19,41]. Randomized controlled trials (RCT) and case series show that therapy with CNI (cyclosporine, tacrolimus) results in complete remission in 30-40% and complete or partial remission in 60-80% patients [2,3,18,41,42]. A Cochrane meta-analysis that compared cyclosporine to no treatment showed increased likelihood of complete or partial remission with the former (2 RCT; relative risk RR 3.50; 95% CI 1.04-9.57) at 6-months [43]. Similarly, therapy with CNI, compared to IV cyclophosphamide, was associated with higher rates of complete or partial remission (3 RCT; RR 1.98; 95% CI 1.25-3.13) [43]. While most reports do not show different outcomes between initial and late steroid-resistance [44-46], better outcomes in the latter have been reported [18]. The efficacy of tacrolimus and cyclosporin is comparable (2 RCT; RR 1.05; 95% CI 0.87-1.25), with no difference in nephrotoxicity or hypertension [43,47].

Similar to the IPNA and KDIGO guidelines, we recommend first-line use of CNI for patients with SRNS [6,16]. Tacrolimus is preferred to cyclosporine except in children who are unable to swallow tablets (cyclosporine is available as suspension), and patients with seizures or at risk for diabetes. Doses of tacrolimus and cyclosporine are titrated to achieve recommended trough levels, keeping in mind interaction with other medications (**Table II** and **Web Table IV**). Low levels are associated with non-response and relapse, while high levels increase the risk for nephrotoxicity [48]. Lower levels may be targeted once sustained remission is achieved for 6-9 months [49,50]. **Fig. 1** provides an outline of the approach to management of SRNS.

Medication	Dose	Adverse effects	Monitoring
First line therapy			
Tacrolimus	0.1-0.2 mg/kg/day in 2-divided doses; maximum initial dose 4 mg/day; trough level 4-8 ng/mL ^a	<i>Both:</i> Acute kidney injury, nephro- toxicity, hyperkalemia, hepatotoxic <i>Tacrolimus:</i> tremors, seizures, headache; diarrhea; glucose intolerance; hypomagnesemia	Screen for cosmetic side effects, tremors, diarrhea, hypertension Creatinine, potassium at 2-4 wk, then q 3-6 months
Cyclosporine	3-5 mg/kg/day in 2-divided doses;	Cyclosporine: Gingival hyperplasia,	Liver function tests, glucose,
	maximum initial dose 200 mg/day; trough level 80-120 ng/mL ^a	hypertrichosis; hypertension; dyslipidemia	uric acid, magnesium, lipids q 3-6 months
Prednisolone on alternate days	1.5 mg/kg for 4-wks; 1 mg/kg for 4-wks; taper to 0.3-0.5 mg/kg for ~6-9 months	Weight gain, Cushingoid features, glucose intolerance, hypertension, raised intraocular pressure, cataract, myopathy, osteoporosis	Blood pressure, screen for cosmetic effects; eye evaluation q 12 months Blood glucose q 6-12 months
Other agents ^b			
Cyclophosphamide	500-750 mg/m ² IV; every month for 6-months	Leukopenia, hemorrhagic cystitis, vomiting, alopecia, risk of infections; gonadal toxicity, malignancies	Blood counts prior to infusion; withhold if total leukocyte count <4000/mm ³ Ondansetron, mesna prevent adverse effects
Rituximab	375 mg/m ² every wk for 2-4 doses	Infusion reactions: Chills, fever, serum sickness, bronchospasm Neutropenia; <i>P. jirovecii</i> pneumonia; reactivation of hepatitis B, JC virus; acute lung injury; hypogamm- aglobulinemia	<i>Pre dose</i> : Blood counts, transaminases; hepatitis & HIV serology; IgG level <i>Post dose</i> : Monitor CD19, blood counts, IgG level
Mycophenolate mofetil	600-1200 mg/m ² /day in 2-divided doses	Leukopenia; liver dysfunction; pain abdomen, nausea, diarrhea; headache; warts; weight loss	Blood counts, liver functions q 3-6 months

Table I	I Dosing a	and Monit	oring of I	mmunosupp	oressive T	Therapy

^aDose titrated to blood trough level obtained 12-h after last dose; measure 2-wks after initiating therapy. Subsequently, if: (i) suspected drug toxicity, (ii) medications that affect levels (Web Table IV), or (iii) unsatisfactory response or relapses while on therapy. ^bPatients on intense immunosuppression (combination of calcineurin inhibitors and rituximab or mycophenolate mofetil) should receive prophylaxis with trimethoprim (5 mg/kg; 150 mg/m² on alternate days).

Most patients who respond to CNI do so within the first 6-months of treatment [44,45,47,51]. Non-response to CNI is therefore considered in patients who continue to show nephrotic-range proteinuria, hypoalbuminemia or edema despite 6-months therapy. Patients showing non-response should be screened for significant genetic variations (see above), and considered for alternate management (Guideline 6).

Therapy with CNI is initially combined with prednisolone, administered at a dose of 1-1.5 mg/kg on alternate days for 4-6 weeks, and tapered over 6-9 months [6,44-46]. Following CNI-induced remission, ~60% patients may have steroid-sensitive relapses [44,45,52]. Relapses are treated with prednisolone (2 mg/kg/day until remission; tapered on alternate-days). Stoppage of steroid therapy might not be possible in patients with multiple relapses.

The duration of treatment with CNI for patients with partial or complete remission is not clear, with guidelines recommending minimum 12-months' therapy [6,16]. An RCT comparing continued therapy with tacrolimus vs switching to mycophenolate mofetil (MMF) at 6-months, found the former twice as effective in maintaining remission (90% vs 45%) [45]. In a retrospective study on 23 patients, therapy with cyclosporine for mean duration of 1.7 years could be successfully switched to MMF in 79% cases [52]. In view of the risk of relapse with early cessation of therapy, we suggest continuing therapy with CNI for 24 months or longer (**Fig. 1**), ensuring adequate dose and trough levels [49,51].

About 10-25% patients receiving prolonged CNI treatment are at risk of nephrotoxicity [53]. Risk factors for nephrotoxicity include presence of initial resistance, dose of CNI used, duration of heavy proteinuria, and hyper-



Steroid resistant nephrotic syndrome

Fig. 1 Management of steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome. Kidney biopsy is necessary, except in patients where genetic testing may obviate the need for biopsy (Box II). Patients with monogenic cause for steroid-resistance should not receive immunosuppression and are managed with angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors and supportive therapy. Patients with likely non-genetic disease are initiated on therapy with a calcineurin inhibitor (CNI) along with supportive care. Lack of remission despite adequate therapy with CNI for 6-months is an indication for genetic screening, if not performed earlier. Patients with CNI-resistant disease who do not show a monogenic defect may be treated with IV rituximab or combined therapy of CNI and mycophenolate mofetil (MMF). Immunosuppression is withdrawn in patients with continued non-response.

tension during therapy [48,53]. In order to balance the benefits and toxicity of CNI, we suggest individualizing therapy in children with partial or complete response at 24-months. Options include: *i*) discontinue therapy if patient has been in sustained remission; *ii*) continue CNI therapy; perform kidney biopsy if treatment is prolonged beyond 30-36 months, or if restarting treatment; *iii*) switch to IV rituximab or oral MMF in patients with CNI or steroid toxicity or steroid-sensitive relapses.

Risk factors for AKI in nephrotic syndrome include volume depletion, infections, nephrotoxic injury and steroid resistance [21,54,55]. We suggest withholding CNI during AKI [16,55,56]; treatment is restarted following recovery of kidney function. Therapy with CNI is avoided if eGFR is persistently <60 mL/min/1.73 m².

Guideline 5: Alternate Immunosuppressive Therapy

- 5.1 We suggest treatment with IV cyclophosphamide in patients with non-availability of CNI, either due to its cost or adverse effects. (2B)
- 5.2 We do not suggest the use of oral cyclophosphamide for therapy of patients with steroid-resistance. (2A)

Rationale

Studies utilizing IV cyclophosphamide (every month for 6months) and tapering prednisolone show complete or partial remission in 10-50%, but with significant adverse effects [46,57,58]. Compared to CNI, IV cyclophosphamide is associated with lower rates of sustained remission (RR 0.50; 95% CI 0.37-0.68) at 6-months [43]. A multicenter study compared the efficacy of cyclosporine (150 mg/m²/day) for 48-weeks with IV cyclophosphamide (500 mg/m²; 7-doses over 36 weeks) in patients with SRNS. While complete remission was low, 47% patients treated with cyclosporine and 6% with IV cyclophosphamide had partial response [57]. Another multicenter trial on 131 patients showed 6-month complete remission rates of 31.1% with IV cyclophosphamide, as against 52.4% and 30.1%, respectively with tacrolimus [44].

Two RCT showed similar efficacy and safety of oral and IV cyclophosphamide in 61 children with steroidresistance (RR 1.58; 95% CI 0.65-3.85) [58,59]. However, two other RCT found no difference in rates of remission in patients receiving oral cyclophosphamide with prednisone compared to prednisone (n=84; RR 1.06, 95% CI 0.61-1.87) [60,61]. Based on the above, we do not advise use of oral cyclophosphamide in patients with SRNS.

Guideline 6: Treatment of CNI-Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome

In patients with non-genetic forms of SRNS and nonresponse to therapy with CNI, we suggest additional treatment with either IV rituximab or oral MMF (**Fig. 1**). (2C)

Rationale

Approximately 25-35% patients with non-genetic forms of SRNS do not show complete or partial remission following 6-months' therapy with CNI [43]. The management of patients with non-response to CNI therapy is difficult, since they are at high risk of kidney failure [17-19]. Patients with initial steroid- and CNI-resistance should be screened for an underlying monogenic disorder. Those with no pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants in podocyte genes may be considered for additional immuno-suppressive therapy, administered under close supervision.

While rituximab has shown promising results in patients with steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome, its efficacy in CNI-resistant SRNS is less satisfactory. In a systematic review (7 case series, one RCT; n=226) on efficacy of rituximab in steroid and CNI-resistant nephrotic syndrome, the mean number of rituximab doses was 3.1. Complete or partial remission was observed in 46.4%, with better response in minimal change disease (63.2%) than in FSGS (39.2%), and late-resistance (52.8%) compared to initial-resistance (40.8%) [62]. Similar findings of satisfactory response to rituximab in patients with late resistance are reported in a series from United Kingdom [18] and in a systematic review [63]. While less favorable outcomes were reported in a study

from India, with remission in 29.3% of 58 patients with CNI-resistance, there was trend for better response in minimal change disease and late-resistance [64].

We suggest administering 2-doses of IV rituximab at a dose of 375 mg/m² at weekly interval, targeting CD19 count $<5/\mu$ l or $\le1\%$ of lymphocyte count. If CD19 target is not met, 1-2 additional doses may be repeated at weekly intervals (maximum 4 doses). In patients achieving complete or partial remission, repeat dose(s) of rituximab may be given following B-cell reconstitution, which typically occurs after 6-9 months. There is limited guidance regarding redosing with rituximab, and benefits should be balanced by the risk of side effects, including infusion reactions, serum sickness, neutropenia and hypogammaglobulinemia. Therapy with rituximab may be associated with reactivation of hepatitis B, *Pneumocystis jirovecii* pneumonia, severe lung injury and rarely, progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy [65].

The efficacy of MMF in patients with SRNS is less satisfactory than in steroid-sensitive disease. In the PODONET cohort, monotherapy with this medication was not effective in 83% patients [19]. The efficacy of combination of CNI and MMF (600 to 1000 mg/m²/day) has been reported in patients with CNI-resistant disease. Three case-series (n=168) on combined therapy for 6-12 months, show complete remission, partial remission and non-response in 11.8-47.7%, 8.7-38.2% and 43.5-58.8%, respectively [66-68]. There is limited data on the efficacy of treatment with adalimumab, abatacept, of and LDL apheresis in patients with CNI-resistant SRNS. These therapies should only be used in context of clinical trials [69-71].

Intense immunosuppression is associated with risk of systemic infections. Patients receiving combined therapy with CNI and either rituximab or MMF should receive prophylaxis with cotrimoxazole (5 mg/kg trimethoprim on alternate days) for 3-6 months. **Table II** summarizes dosing, side effects and monitoring of children receiving immunosuppressive agents.

Guideline 7: Immunosuppressive Therapy With Pathogenic or Likely Pathogenic Variants

We do not recommend that patients with monogenic disease receive therapy with calcineurin inhibitors or other immunosuppressive agents. (1B)

Rationale

Patients with SRNS with pathogenic or likely pathogenic variations (monogenic disease, **Box I**) usually do not show complete or partial remission following therapy

with CNI. Analysis of pooled data (Web Table III; n=867) shows that compared to non-genetic disease, those with genetic forms of SRNS are not likely to respond to CNI (RR 4.00; 95% CI 2.52-6.51). Patients with monogenic forms of SRNS, irrespective of response are more likely to progress to kidney failure than those with non-genetic illness (RR 2.87; 95% CI 2.22-3.72).

The recent IPNA guidelines do not recommend that patients with monogenic disease receive immunosuppressive medications [6]. However, some patients with a genetic cause for steroid-resistance, especially those with *WT1* variants, might show partial remission following treatment with CNI [37]. The decision to continue therapy in such patients should follow counseling of parents regarding anticipated benefits (relief of edema, higher blood albumin) vs risks (therapy-related toxicity, infections) and cost of therapy. Targeted therapy is possible for specific mutations, e.g., coenzyme Q10 for defect(s) in CoQ10 pathway, eplerenone for *ARHGDIA*, and cortico-steroids for mutations in genes of Rho/Rac/Cdc42 network [31,32].

Guideline 8: Angiotensin Converting Enzyme Inhibitors and Angiotensin Receptor Blockers

We recommend that all patients with SRNS should receive therapy with angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers (ARB) (**Table III**). (1B)

Rationale

Since proteinuria is a risk factor for progressive kidney disease, its reduction is important for renoprotection [72]. Use of ACE inhibitors is associated with 30-40% reduction in proteinuria in a dose- and time-dependent manner (16,43). ARB may be used as effectively (Table III) [73]. Dual blockade with ACE inhibitors and ARB further reduces proteinuria, but is associated with side effects such as hypotension, AKI and hyperkalemia, and is not recommended [74]. ACE inhibitors or ARB are avoided in patients with $eGFR < 25 mL/min/1.73 m^2$, and discontinued during vomiting, diarrhea or reduced oral intake. In patients with FSGS, sparsentan, that combines endothelin receptor type A blockade with angiotensin II inhibition, reduces proteinuria and hypertension more effectively than irbesartan [75]. We do not advise therapy with other medications that target the renin-angiotensin axis, including aliskrein, eplerenone and vitamin D analogs.

SUPPORTIVE CARE AND MONITORING

Important aspects of supportive care are summarized in **Table IV**. Principles of management of edema, systemic

STEROID-RESISTANT NEPHROTIC SYNDROME

Table III Antihypertensive and Anti-proteinuric Medications

Medication	Initial (maximum) daily dose	Interval
ACE inhibitors		
Enalapril	0.08 (0.6) mg/kg	1-2 doses
Fosinopril	0.1 mg/kg (40 mg)	Once daily
Lisinopril	0.07 (0.6) mg/kg	Once daily
Ramipril	1.6 (6) mg/m ² /day	Once daily
Angiotensin receptor blo	ockers	
Irbesartan	65 (150) mg; 150 (300) mg/day if ≥13-year	Once daily
Losartan	0.7 (1.4) mg/kg	Once daily
Olmesartan	10 (20) mg; 20 (40) mg if ≥35 kg	Once daily
Valsartan	1.3 (2.7) mg/kg	Once daily
Telmisartan	1 (2) mg/kg	Once daily
Sparsentan	200 (800) mg	Once daily
Calcium channel blocke	rs	
Amlodipine	0.1 (0.6) mg/kg	1-2 doses
Nifedipine ER	0.2 (3) mg/kg	1-2 doses
Felodipine	2.5 (10) mg	Once daily
Thiazides		
Hydrochlorothiazide	1 (2) mg/kg	1-2 doses
Beta blockers		
Atenolol	0.5 (2) mg/kg	Once daily
Metoprolol	1 (6) mg/kg	1-2 doses
Labetalol	1 (12) mg/kg	2-3 doses
Alpha blockers		
Prazosin ER	$0.05(0.5)\mathrm{mg/kg}$	1-2 doses
Central alpha agonist		
Clonidine	5-7 (25) mcg/kg/day	2-3 doses

ER extended release.

infections and immunization are discussed in the revised ISPN guidelines on steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome, published recently [76].

Guideline 9: Thrombotic Complications

We do not recommend routine thromboprophylaxis in children with SRNS. (1C)

Rationale

The risk of thromboembolic complications in nephrotic syndrome is $\sim 3\%$ in children, compared to 25% in adults, with most events within the first 3-months of illness [77]. Risk factors for thrombosis include congenital nephrotic syndrome, heavy proteinuria, membranous nephropathy,

Complication	Pathophysiology	Management
Thromboembolism	Urine loss of coagulation regulators; hepatic production of hemostatic proteins; lack of ambulation; dehydration; thrombocytosis; platelet aggregation	Prevention: Ensure ambulation, optimize hydration; remove central venous catheters, avoid arterial punctures; use compression stockings Treatment: Heparin, low molecular weight heparin; warfarin Preventive anticoagulation: If previous thrombosis, risk factors
Hypertension	Glomerular disease; high renin, aldosterone, epinephrine, norepinephrine; reduced atrial natriuretic peptide	Target blood pressure 50-75 th percentile for age Lifestyle measures; restrict salt intake Angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors (ACE-I), angiotensin receptor blockers
Acute kidney injury	Hypovolemia, medications (ACE-I, calcineurin inhibitors)	Supportive care: Attention to fluid and electrolytes; management of complications of acute kidney injury
Linear growth retardation	Exposure to glucocorticoids; malnutrition; adrenocortical suppression	Regular monitoring of height, height velocity; steroid minimization Limited evidence for growth hormone therapy
Obesity	Exposure to steroids; reduced physical activity	Monitor weight, body mass index; minimize steroids; modify lifestyle
Dyslipidemia	Increased low density lipoproteins (LDL) Reduced clearance of chylomicron, very LDL	Modify lifestyle (dietary change, physical activity, weight control)
		\geq 8-yr-old with LDL cholesterol $>$ 160 mg/dL, or $>$ 130 mg/dL with risk factors ^{<i>a</i>} : Atorvastatin 10-20 mg daily
HPA suppression	Corticosteroid therapy	Stress dose if receiving oral steroids >2-weeks within past 1-yr
Bone health	Urinary loss of vitamin D; osteoblast suppression, osteoclast induction	Vitamin D (400-800 IU); calcium (250-750 mg) supplements
Hypothyroidism	Urinary loss of thyroid binding globulin, transthyretin and albumin	No treatment if remission is expected; follow-up borderline levels Low free T4, TSH >10 mU/L: treat with thyroxine

Table IV Supportive Care of Children with Steroid-Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome

HPA: hypothalamo-pituitary axis. ^aRisk factors: chronic kidney disease stage 3-5; blood pressure >90th centile for age; body mass index > 95th centile; family history of cardiovascular disease.

central venous catheters and coexisting heart disease [77]. Sites of thrombosis include the deep veins, cerebral sinus(es), renal veins and occasionally, arteries [78].

Routine use of prophylactic anticoagulants is not recommended [77]. Aspirin is less effective and is associated with risk of AKI [79]. Non-pharmacological measures such as ambulation, hydration and use of compression stockings are encouraged; central venous catheters and arterial punctures should be avoided [79,80].

Therapy aims to prevent extension of thrombi and reduce the risk of embolism. Thrombolysis followed by anticoagulation is considered in patients with life or limbthreatening thrombosis. While anticoagulation may be initiated with unfractionated heparin, this requires IV access and close laboratory monitoring, has less predictable pharmacokinetics and is associated with the risk of adverse effects (thrombocytopenia, anaphylaxis and osteoporosis) [80]. Use of low-molecular weight heparin is preferred [79,81]. Therapy is initiated with enoxaparin at a dose of 1.5 mg/kg/dose (<2-months age) or 1 mg/kg/dose (>2-months) subcutaneously, every 12-hr [81]. Long-term therapy may continue either with enoxaparin or warfarin (0.2 mg/kg/dose started concurrently with enoxaparin) for 3-months or until remission [80]. For warfarin the international normalized ratio (INR) for prothrombin time is targeted between 2.0 and 3.0. Children with recurrent throm-botic events require long-term anticoagulation [77,80].

Guideline 10: Cardiovascular Morbidity

We recommend strategies to minimize cardiovascular risk in patients with SRNS (X).

Rationale

Steroid resistance is associated with multiple cardio-

vascular risks, including hypertension, dyslipidemia, hypoalbuminemia, hypercoagulable state and steroidinduced obesity. Strategies to reduce this risk include minimizing residual proteinuria, managing hypertension, weight reduction to achieve BMI <85th centile for age, non-exposure to tobacco, and achieving target levels of lipids, fasting glucose (<100 mg/dL) and HbA1c (< 5.7%) [82].

Hypertension: Blood pressure should be measured at each visit. A study on Indian children with frequently relapsing disease showed clinic hypertension in 64%, ambulatory hypertension in 33%, white coat hypertension in 30% and increased left ventricular mass in 21% [83]. Systolic and diastolic blood pressures are targeted between 50-75th percentile for age and sex [84]. Lifestyle changes include increased intake of vegetables, fresh fruits, low-fat milk, legumes and nuts, and reduced salt and sweets. Pharmacotherapy is initiated with ACE inhibitor or ARB, in view of additional benefit of reducing proteinuria (**Table III**).

Dyslipidemia: Children with nephrotic syndrome show high blood levels of cholesterol, triglycerides, apoBcontaining lipoproteins (LDL, VLDL, IDL) and lipoprotein (*a*). While abnormalities resolve during remission, these might persist in patients with SRNS. Dyslipidemia aggravates glomerulosclerosis and proximal tubular damage and is associated with progression of CKD. Screening for dyslipidemia is advised in patients with SRNS, and those with steroid-sensitive disease and cardiovascular risk factors [82,85].

We advise reduced intake of trans-fats or saturated fats and sugar, and increased consumption of fruits, vegetables, legumes and whole grain cereals [85]. The CHILD-1 diet is the first step in children with dyslipidemia or risk factors for cardiovascular disease and includes restricting intake of saturated fat and cholesterol to <10% of daily calories and 300 mg, respectively. In case this is not effective, the respective restrictions are enhanced to 7% and 200 mg in the CHILD-2 diet [82,85]. Limiting leisure screen time to <2-hr/day, ensuring moderate physical activity for 1-hr/day, and vigorous physical activity at least 3 days a week are advised [85].

If lifestyle measures fail to correct dyslipidemia, therapy with statins is advised, especially if associated with risk factors for cardiovascular disease [85]. Therapy in children 8-year or older may begin with atorvastatin at 10 mg/day, with monitoring for adverse effects.

Guideline 11: Stress Dosing of Glucocorticoids

We recommend that patients, who have received oral corticosteroids for more than 2-weeks within the past

one-year, should receive additional steroid dosing during conditions associated with physiological stress. (1D)

Rationale

Therapy for nephrotic syndrome involves high-dose prednisolone for 12-weeks for the first episode, 5-6 weeks for relapse, and prolonged alternate-day for frequent relapses and steroid-resistance. A systematic review reported that 269 of 487 (55.2%) children receiving corticosteroids for varied indications for more than 14-days had biochemical evidence of suppressed hypothalamopituitary axis (HPA) [86]. The duration of HPA suppression might last up to two years, and vary with dose and duration of treatment [87].

We recommend additional steroids in situations where physiological stress is expected (fever $\geq 38^{\circ}$ C, inadequate oral intake, lethargy, dehydration, invasive surgery, dental surgery, trauma and large burns). Conditions such as uncomplicated viral infections, acute otitis media and fever post-immunization do not require stress dosing. In case of critical illness or surgery, hydrocortisone is administered parenterally at 100 mg/m², initially or preoperatively followed by 25 mg/m² every 6-hr. With less serious illness, hydrocortisone 30-50 mg/m²/day or prednisolone 0.3-1.0 mg/kg in a single daily dose is given during stress and tapered thereafter [88].

Guideline 12: Monitoring of Patients

Children with SRNS are at risk for progression to stage 5 CKD, complications of the disease and adverse effects of medications [89-91]. Managing immunosuppressive therapies is a challenge due to the risk of infections, non-compliance and presence of co-morbidities. Patients require regular monitoring and careful follow up, and counseling regarding need for compliance with medications (Table V).

Guideline 13: Transplantation

- 13.1 We recommend that kidney transplant be considered in all patients with SRNS and stage 5 CKD. (1B)
- 13.2 We recommend that genetic testing be performed before transplant to assist in donor selection and predict the risk of recurrence in allograft. (1B)
- 13.3 In a patient with prior allograft recurrence, the decision for retransplantation should be taken after discussing the risks and benefits with treating physicians, patient and family. (2C)
- 13.4 In patients with allograft recurrence, we suggest initiation of plasma exchanges, increasing the dose of CNI, with or without additional use of rituximab. (2B)

Parameter	Frequency
Home urine dipstick for protein	Daily for 1-2 weeks; 2-3 times/week until remission; once- weekly thereafter
Spot urine protein/creatinine ratio*	Baseline; 2-4 weeks; then every 6-12 months
Weight, height; growth velocity; body mass index	Every 3-6 months (frequent in infants and stage 3-5 chronic kidney disease)
Blood pressure Ambulatory blood pressure monitoring 2-D echocardiography	At each hospital visit Every 1-2 yr Annually, if hypertensive
Blood creatinine, electrolytes, albumin, eGFR	Baseline; 2-4 weeks; then every 3-6 months
Hemoglobin, glucose, calcium, phosphate, alkaline phosphatase, 25-hydroxyvitamin D; thyroid profile	Every 6-12 months with partial remission or non-response; every 12 months with complete remission; additional investigations may be required for stage 3-5 chronic kidney disease
Monitoring drug toxicity	See Table II
Fasting lipid profile	Every 6-12 months
Eye examination (cataract, glaucoma)	Annually, if receiving long-term steroids
Repeat renal biopsy	Calcineurin inhibitor therapy beyond 30-36 months; recommencing therapy for second course Non-recovery from acute kidney injury
Nutritional status and advice	Every 6 months; more frequent in infants, malnourished children, stage 3-5 chronic kidney disease
Immunization	Check and complete every 12 months, as appropriate

Table V Monitoring of Patients with Steroid-Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome

*24-hr urine protein estimation may be considered instead. eGFR estimated GFR (mL/min per 1.73 m²) = $\frac{0.413 \times height (cm)}{creatinine (mg/dL)}$

Rationale

Kidney transplantation is the definitive option for patients with SRNS and stage 5 CKD. Careful pretransplant evaluation of recipient and donor is required. Genetic screening of the recipient is necessary, particularly if there is initial resistance or equivocal course of the illness, since it stratifies the risk for allograft recurrence and helps in donor screening. If inheritance pattern is autosomal recessive, a heterozygous carrier (parent) may be accepted as a donor with negligible risk of recurrence, except Afro-Caribbean donors with APOL1 risk variant, or heterozygous R229Q variants in NPHS2 [35,92]. Heterozygous carriers of pathogenic variants in COL4A3 and COL4A4 and women with variants in COL4A5 should not be accepted as donors since they are at risk of kidney failure [93]. For autosomal dominant inheritance, individuals with same variant are not accepted as donors since they might show variable penetrance with late onset of disease.

FSGS recurs in the allograft in ~30% (range 6-50%) patients [94,95]. Recurrence is associated with allograft dysfunction and its loss in 40-60% patients, especially in those with persistent nephrotic range proteinuria [33,96].

Recurrence risk is highest in patients with late steroid resistance or recurrent nephrotic syndrome in a prior transplant (\sim 80%), moderate with initial resistance and no identified genetic cause (\sim 50%), and lowest with confirmed genetic mutation underlying SRNS (<5%) [18,97-100]. Patients with FSGS and kidney failure should be counseled about these risks.

Living-related transplantation is associated with better graft survival and is preferred for children in our country. While the risk of recurrence is minimally higher in children receiving live-related grafts, this is balanced by reduced risk of rejection and lower need for immunosuppression [100,101]. Live-related transplantation is therefore the first choice, except in patients with moderate to high risk of recurrence.

Nephrotic syndrome might recur occur within hours to days after transplant and is characterized by nephrotic range proteinuria and progressive hypoalbuminemia. Patients are monitored for recurrence by screening for proteinuria (Up/Uc ratio), initially daily and then with reduced frequency (Web Box I). Recurrence is considered in patients with proteinuria and Up/Uc ≥ 1 mg/mg if anuric prior to transplant or increase of ratio by ≥ 1 in those with

proteinuria at transplantation [6]. Early onset graft dysfunction may be a feature of recurrent FSGS. Where feasible, an allograft biopsy is recommended to detect podocyte foot process effacement or segmental sclerosis that supports the diagnosis of recurrence. A biopsy may also help exclude other diagnosis in patients with lower degree of late-onset proteinuria or allograft dysfunction.

Multiple therapies have been used to prevent recurrence of nephrotic syndrome, including pretransplant plasma exchanges, rituximab and lipoprotein apheresis. There is limited evidence that any of these strategies prevent allograft recurrence in the first kidney transplant [102,103]. Strategies for managing patients with allograft recurrence include combination of plasma exchanges with high-dose CNI and corticosteroids, with or without cyclophosphamide [104-107] (Web Box I). Multiple reports show benefit from additional therapy with rituximab (2-4 doses of 375 mg/m², administered once every 1-2 weeks) [65,104]. Using these strategies, 60-70% patients with recurrent FSGS show complete or partial remission.

Guideline 14: Transition of Care

A significant proportion of patients continue to have active disease into adulthood [89]. These children will need to be cared for by 'adult' physicians and nephrologists, keeping with the policy of the Indian Academy of Pediatrics of caring for children upto 18 years [108]. Parallel to the change in medical caregiver, patients need to transition from care by parents to self-care. Transition should occur smoothly, without affecting patient health. Institutionspecific protocols for transition of care should be based on standard guidelines [109].

Congenital Nephrotic Syndrome

Patients with congenital nephrotic syndrome present at birth or in first 3-months of life. Infants are born prematurely with large placenta, and show massive proteinuria, hypoalbuminemia and anasarca. Antenatal ultrasonography may show hyperechoic kidneys; amniocentesis reveals high alpha-fetoprotein. There may be dysmorphic features or comorbidities. Most patients develop kidney failure by the age of 2-8 years. Recommendations on genetic aspects and management were published recently [110,111].

Almost 70-80% patients with congenital nephrotic syndrome have a genetic cause; mutations in *NPHS1*, *NPHS2*, *WT1*, *LAMB2* and *PLCE1* account for ~90% cases [110,112]. Exome sequencing using an extended SRNS gene panel (Web Table II) is recommended. Results of screening have implications for genetic counseling. Rarely, the condition is secondary to

intrauterine infec-tions with cytomegalovirus, rubella, toxoplasma and syphilis [111]. The role of kidney biopsy is limited and may be considered if a genetic diagnosis is not established.

Evaluation aims to confirm the diagnosis and identify complications, including poor growth, hypothyroidism, systemic infections and thromboembolism (**Web Box II**) [111]. Infants with *WT1* variants are monitored by ultrasonography for Wilms tumor every 3-6 months.

Management includes maintaining euvolemia, optimizing nutrition, and therapy of complications. Patients should receive high energy (110-120 Cal/kg) and protein (3-3.5 g/kg/d) diet, orally or by feeding gastrostomy. Supplements of thyroxine, vitamin D and calcium are required. Albumin infusions (0.5-1.0 g/kg) are advised in presence of hypovolemia (oliguria, prolonged capillary refill, tachycardia) or anasarca. IV furosemide (0.5-2 mg/kg) is given at the end of infusion, unless patient has features of hypovolemia. Monitoring of fluid status, creatinine, electrolytes and blood pressure are necessary during diuretic therapy [111].

After 4-weeks of life, judicious use of ACE inhibitors (**Table III**) with or without prostaglandin inhibitors (indomethacin, celecoxib) is effective in reducing the severity of proteinuria. Therapy with these agents and diuretics should be withheld during episodes of hypovolemia. Since infections are the chief cause of death, infants should receive all primary immunization and bacterial infections are treated promptly. Therapy with anticoagulants is considered in patients with history of thrombosis.

Unilateral or bilateral nephrectomies are not proposed routinely, and may be considered in patients with repeated episodes of hypovolemia or refractory edema, thrombosis and malnutrition [112]. Bilateral nephrectomy is advised, prior to kidney transplantation, in patients with *WT1* mutations or persistent nephrotic

Box III Research Priorities in Steroid-Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome
Determine genetic burden and genotype-phenotype correlation in Indian patients; models for evaluating functional significance of variants
Pathogenesis of non-genetic forms of the illness
Duration of therapy with calcineurin inhibitors; switching to less toxic medications
Treatment for patients who are non-responsive to therapy with calcineurin inhibitors
Prevention and therapy for recurrent focal segmental glomerulosclerosis
Improving quality of life and patient-centered outcomes.

range proteinuria. Kidney transplantation is the definitive treatment, but has ethical, technical and immunologic challenges.

CONCLUSIONS

Recommendations on management of SRNS, first proposed by the ISPN in 2009, have been revised based on systematic reviews, published studies and expert opinion. While there is better understanding regarding the genetic basis and management, important clinical issues require to be examined (**Box III**). The management of the disease continues to be challenging, and patients not responsive to treatment with CNI are at risk of progressive kidney disease. We hope that the present guidelines will standardize therapies and improve the quality of care for these patients.

Note: Supplementary material related to this study is available with the online version at www.indianpediatrics.net

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ANNEXURE I

*List of Participants

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