

Journal of Nephrologist



The effects of probiotics on renal function and uremic toxins in patients with chronic kidney disease; a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials

Charat Thongprayoon¹, Spencer T. Hatch², Wisit Kaewput³, Konika Sharma¹, Patompong Ungprasert⁵, Karn Wijarnpreecha¹, Matthew D'Costa⁴, Michael A Mao⁴, Wisit Cheungpasitporn^{2*}

¹Department of Internal Medicine, Bassett Medical Center, Cooperstown, NY, USA

²Division of Nephrology, Department of Medicine, University of Mississippi Medical Center, Jackson, Mississippi, USA

³Department of Military and Community Medicine, Phramongkutklao College of Medicine Bangkok, Thailand

⁴Division of Nephrology and Hypertension, Department of Medicine, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minnesota, USA

⁵Clinical Epidemiology Unit, Department of Research and development, Faculty of Medicine Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University, Thailand

ARTICLE INFO

Article type:
Review

Article history:
Received: 8 January 2018
Accepted: 20 April 2018
Published online: 4 May 2018

Keywords:
Probiotics
Renal function
Creatinine
Chronic kidney disease
CKD
Gut Microbiome

ABSTRACT

Context: There is mounting evidence suggesting bidirectional crosstalk between microbiota and host. However, the effects of probiotics on renal function and uremic toxins in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients are unclear.

Evidence Acquisitions: A literature review was conducted using MEDLINE, EMBASE, and Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews from inception through November 2017 to identify randomized controlled trials (RCTs) assessing the effects of probiotics on renal function and uremic toxins in CKD patients. Effect estimates from the individual studies were extracted and combined using fixed-effect meta-analysis with inverse variance weights.

Results: Five RCTs with 161 CKD patients were enrolled. Compared to controls, there were no significant differences in serum creatinine and estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) after post-probiotic course (4 weeks to 6 months) with standardized mean differences (SMDs) of 0.01 (95% CI -0.29 to 0.30) and -0.01 (95% CI -0.43 to 0.41), respectively. Compared to the controls, p-cresol levels were significantly reduced after treatment with probiotics with SMD of -0.61 (95% CI -1.04 to -0.19). No significant infectious complications were noted during treatment with probiotics in CKD patients.

Conclusions: Based on the findings of our meta-analysis, there are no significant changes in serum creatinine or eGFR after short-term treatment with probiotics, when compared to controls. However, our meta-analysis suggests potential beneficial effects of probiotics on uremic toxins in CKD patients. Future studies are required to assess its long-term effects on CKD progression and uremic toxins.

Implication for health policy/practice/research/medical education:

The impact of probiotics on renal function and uremic toxins in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients are unclear. In this systematic review and meta-analysis consisting of five randomized controlled trials (RCTs) with 161 CKD patients, we demonstrate no significant changes in creatinine and eGFR after short-term treatment with probiotics when compared to controls. However, there are potential beneficial effects of probiotics on uremic toxins in CKD patients.

Please cite this paper as: Thongprayoon C, Hatch ST, Kaewput W, Sharma K, Ungprasert P, Wijarnpreecha K, D'Costa M, Cheungpasitporn W. The effects of probiotics on renal function and uremic toxins in patients with chronic kidney disease; a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. J Nephrologist. 2018;7(3):106-114. doi: 10.15171/jnp.2018.25.

1. Background

Despite advancements in medicine, chronic kidney disease (CKD) remains a major public health issue (1,2) affecting as many as 10% to 15% of the adult population worldwide (3-8). Studies have demonstrated associations

of CKD with increased risks of cardiovascular disease, significant comorbidities, increased health care costs, reduced quality of life, and increased mortality (2, 9). The progressive decline in kidney function in CKD patients can lead to end-stage renal disease (ESRD) resulting

*Corresponding author: Wisit Cheungpasitporn, Email: wcheungpasitporn@gmail.com

in further increased morbidity and mortality (10,11). Average annual costs for a dialysis patient (including hospitalizations) range from US \$70 000 to \$100 000 per patient (2,12).

In recent years, the influence of intestinal microbiota on health and disease has been the focus of increasing interest (13-15). Interactions between hosts and microbes are essential to many physiological aspects including nutrition and immune homeostasis (13). Intestinal dysbiosis, an imbalance between pathogenic and protective microbiota, has been associated with a variety of health conditions including *Clostridium difficile* (16,17), Crohn's disease (18,19), non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) (20), and systemic inflammation (21). Studies have also demonstrated the important role of intestinal dysbiosis in renal physiology and pathophysiology (22,23) such as accumulation of uremic toxins, systemic inflammation, and infection, which all may contribute to the development of CKD, its progression, and its complications (22,24-29). Restoration of microbiome diversity by administration of probiotics may provide beneficial effects on kidneys (25,30-33). This has been shown in uremic rats and kidney ischemia reperfusion injury models (34-37). However, the effects of probiotics on renal function and uremic toxins in vivo in CKD patients are still unclear. Therefore, we conducted this systematic review and meta-analysis to assess the effects of probiotics on renal function as well as uremic toxins in CKD patients.

2. Evidence acquisitions

2.1. Literature review and search strategy

C.T. and W.C. individually searched published studies and conference abstracts indexed in EMBASE, MEDLINE, and the Cochrane database from inception through November 2017 using the following words: “prebiotics”, “synbiotics” or “probiotic” AND “renal” or “chronic kidney disease”, or “kidney” (Supplementary file 1). A supplementary search for important studies employing references from the retrieved studies was consequently conducted. Divergent decisions were settled by joint consensus.

2.2. Selection criteria and outcomes

We included 1) randomized controlled trials (RCTs) published as original studies or conference abstracts that assessed the effects of probiotics on renal function and uremic toxins in non-dialysis CKD patients, 2) studies that included data allowing calculation for mean differences (MDs), standardized mean differences (SMDs), relative risks, or hazard ratios with 95% confidence intervals (CIs), and 3) a reference control group composed of patients

without probiotics.

The outcomes of our study consist of changes in serum creatinine and estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR), and p-cresol levels after a post-probiotic course. The characteristics and quality of each study are demonstrated in Table 1 (38-42).

2.3. Data abstraction

A classified information collection record was used to obtain the following data: year, study sample, total number, randomized study, double blinding status, placebo control, crossover, washout period, prebiotics, probiotics, and duration of probiotics.

2.4. Statistical analysis

Analysis were completed using the Comprehensive Meta-Analysis 3.3 software (version 3; Biostat Inc, Englewood, NJ, USA). Effect estimates from the individual studies were extracted and combined using fixed-effect meta-analysis with inverse variance weights (43). Given the low likelihood of between-study variances, a fixed-effect model was used. We tested for heterogeneity using the Q-statistic ($P < 0.10$ was considered significant) and I^2 test. A value of I^2 of 0%–25% indicates insignificant heterogeneity, 26%–50% low heterogeneity, 51%–75% moderate heterogeneity and 76%–100% high heterogeneity (44). For assessment of publication bias, we performed funnel plots and calculated Egger's regression intercept for studies (45).

3. Results

The search strategy of systematic review produced 491 potentially relevant articles: 427 were omitted because their titles or abstracts explicated that they did not meet inclusion criteria due to the type of article, study design, study population, or outcome of interest (Supplementary file 2). The remaining 64 articles underwent full-length review: 59 were furthered omitted because they were not RCTs ($n=17$), patient populations included ESRD patients on dialysis ($n=7$) (46-52) or did not describe outcomes of interest ($n=35$). Five RCTs (38-42) with 161 CKD patients were included in this systematic review. Of 5 RCTs, 4 RCTs compared probiotics with controls (Table 1), and were included in the meta-analysis. Table 1 and Table 2 show the detailed characteristics, type of probiotics and data of all included RCTs (38-42).

3.1. Effects of probiotics on renal function in CKD patients

Study populations consisted of patients with CKD 3 to 5 (the majority of patients had CKD stage 3 to 4 and <15% had CKD stage 5). The duration of probiotic treatment

Table 1. Main characteristics of the RCTs included in this meta-analysis

Study	Ranganathan et al (38)	Guida et al (39)	Miranda Alatraste et al (40)	Pavan (41)	Rossi et al(42)
Year	2010	2014	2014	2016	2016
Study sample	CKD stage 3-4; SCr > 2.5 mg/dL	CKD stage 3-4	CKD stage 3-4	CKD stage 3-5; not on dialysis	CKD stage 4-5; not on dialysis
Total number	46	30	30	24	31
Randomized study	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Double blinding	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Placebo control	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Crossover	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Washout period	No	N/A	N/A	N/A	4 weeks
Prebiotics	No	Inulin	No	Fructo-oligosaccharides	Insulin, fructo-oligosaccharides, galacto-oligosaccharides
Probiotics	L. acidophilus KB27, B. Longum KB 31, S. Thermophilus KB19 (90x10 ⁹ CFU/day, 15x 10 ⁹ CFU/cap, 2 caps x 3 times daily)	Probinul neutron (5x 10 ⁹ Lactobacillus plantarum, 2x10 ⁹ Lactobacillus casei subsp rhamnosus, 2x10 ⁹ Lactobacillus gasseri, 1x10 ⁹ Bifidobacterium infantis, 1x10 ⁹ Bifidobacterium longum, 1x10 ⁹ Lactobacillus acidophilus, 1x10 ⁹ lactobacillus salivarius, 1x10 ⁹ lactobacillus sporogenes, 5x10 ⁹ streptococcus thermophilus) 3 times daily	8x10 ⁹ or 16x10 ⁹ lactobacillus casei shirota daily	15x10 ⁹ Streptococcus thermophilus, 15x10 ⁹ lactobacillus acidophilus, 15x10 ⁹ bifidobacterium longum; 3 tablets daily	Nine different strains across the Lactobacillus, Bidifobacteria, and streptococcus; 45x10 ⁹ CFU/cap, 1 cap x 2 times daily
Duration of probiotics	3 months	4 weeks	8 weeks	6 months	6 weeks

Table 2. Data from RCTs included in this meta-analysis

Study	Marker	N of total	Before probiotics	N of probiotics	After probiotics	N of control	Control
Ranganathan et al (38)	Creatinine (mg/dL)	N/A	N/A	46	388.5±229.8	46	414.0±342.3
	Uric acid (mg/dL)	N/A	N/A	46	517.1±99.4	46	504.5±73.9
	BUN (mg/dL)	N/A	N/A	46	23.8±12.0	46	25.9±15.1
Guida et al (39)	p-cresol (mcg/mL)	18	3.1 (1.3-6.5)	18	15 days 2.3 (0.4-3.6); 30 days 0.8 (0.3-3.7)	12	15 days 3.7 (2.0-6.1); 30 days 3.9 (3.2-5.8)
Miranda Alatraste et al (40)	Urea (mL/min)	30	81.7±26.4	30	73.2±19.5	N/A	N/A
	Creatinine (mg/dL)	30	2.48±0.89	30	2.47±1.04	N/A	N/A
	GFR (mL/min/BSA)	30	30.7±11.77	30	31.86±12.34	N/A	N/A
Pavan (41)	Creatinine (mg/dL)	N/A	N/A	12	4.45±0.30	12	4.3±0.31
	GFR (mL/min/BSA)	N/A	N/A	12	14.5±11.7	12	14.9±10.1
	GFR decline (mL/min/BSA)	N/A	N/A	12	-3.4±4.6	12	-11.6±8.6
Rossi et al (42)	Total indoxyl sulfate (µmol/L)	37	18 (12-27)	31	15 (10-26)	31	16 (12-27)
	Total p-cresyl sulfate (µmol/L)	37	110 (71-130)	31	75 (36-101)	31	93 (54-136)
	Free indoxyl sulfate (µmol/L)	37	0.7 (0.4-1.0)	31	0.6 (0.4-0.8)	31	0.5 (0.4-1.0)
	Free p-cresyl sulfate (µmol/L)	37	3.0 (2.0-3.9)	31	2.2 (0.7-2.8)	31	2.4 (1.1-3.4)
	GFR (mL/min/BSA)	N/A	N/A	31	24±8	31	24±8
	Creatinine (mg/dL)	N/A	N/A	31	231±75	31	233±74
	KIM-1 (ng/mL)	N/A	N/A	27	1.1 (0.4-2.7)	27	1.1 (0.4-2.1)
	IL-1B (pg/mL)	N/A	N/A	31	0.8±0.7	31	0.8±0.6
	IL-6 (pg/mL)	N/A	N/A	31	2.2±0.9	31	2.0±0.8
	IL-10 (pg/mL)	N/A	N/A	31	3.6±2.0	31	3.6±2.1
	TNF-alpha (pg/mL)	N/A	N/A	31	2.2±0.8	31	2.0±0.7

was between 4 weeks and 6 months. No significant infectious complications were noted during treatment with probiotics in CKD patients.

Compared to controls, there were no significant differences in serum creatinine and eGFR after post-probiotic course (4 weeks to 6 months) with SMDs of 0.01 (95% CI -0.29 to 0.30, $P=0.95$, $I^2=0$, Figure 1) and -0.01 (95% CI -0.43 to 0.41, $P=0.96$, $I^2=0$, Figure 2), respectively.

The data on the effects of probiotics on progression of CKD were limited. Pavan (41) demonstrated that the decline of eGFR during prebiotic and probiotic administration was significantly lower (-11.6 ± 8.6 vs. -3.4 ± 4.6 mL/min per $1.73 \text{ m}^2/\text{year}$, 95% CI -6.45 to -9.86, $P<0.001$) when compared to low protein diet alone. Ranganathan et al, also demonstrated a reduction of uric acid levels among patients with CKD stage 3 and 4 treated with probiotics (38,53).

3.2. Effects of probiotics on uremic toxins in CKD patients

Compared to the controls, p-cresol levels were significantly reduced after treatment with probiotics with SMD of -0.61 (95% CI -1.04 to -0.19, $P=0.005$, $I^2=77$, Figure 3). Due to between-study heterogeneity, a sensitivity analysis was performed using a random-effect model, which demonstrated that probiotics could reduce p-cresol levels. However, the reduction did not approach statistical

significance with SMD of -0.79 (95% CI -1.78 to 0.20, $P=0.12$, $I^2=77$). The data on other uremic toxin were limited. Rossi et al (24) demonstrated a reduction in serum indoxyl sulfate after treatment with *Lactobacillus*, *Bifidobacteria* and *Streptococcus* genera with prebiotic. With limited evidence, several studies also showed a small reduction in blood-urea-nitrogen with probiotic treatment (38,40,53).

3.3. Evaluation for publication bias

Funnel plot (Figure 4) and Egger's regression was performed to evaluate for publication bias regarding the effects of probiotics on creatinine. This showed no significant publication bias ($P=0.11$). Due to the limited number of studies, however, this test lacked the power to differentiate chance from true asymmetry (54).

4. Discussion

In this systematic review and meta-analysis of 5 RCTs with 161 CKD patients, we demonstrated no significant changes in serum creatinine or eGFR after short-term treatment with probiotics. However, probiotic use potentially reduced uremic toxins in CKD patients. Some well-known pro-inflammatory uremic toxins including indoxyl sulfate and p-cresol sulfate are mainly produced in the colon (55). In CKD patients, dysbiosis and changes in colonic function (56) can result in further

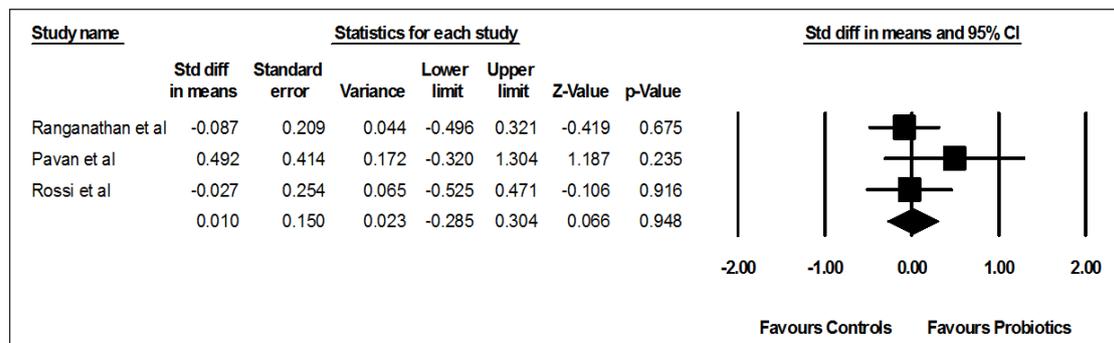


Figure 1. Forest plot evaluating effects of probiotics vs. controls on serum creatinine in CKD patients.

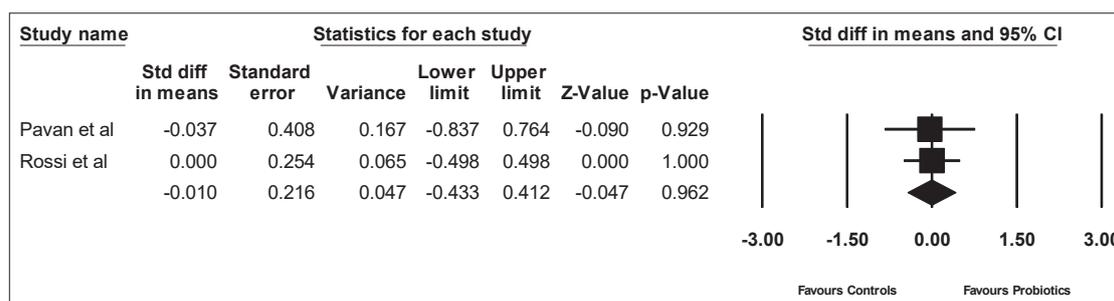


Figure 2. Forest plot of all studies evaluating effects of probiotics vs. controls on eGFR in CKD patients.

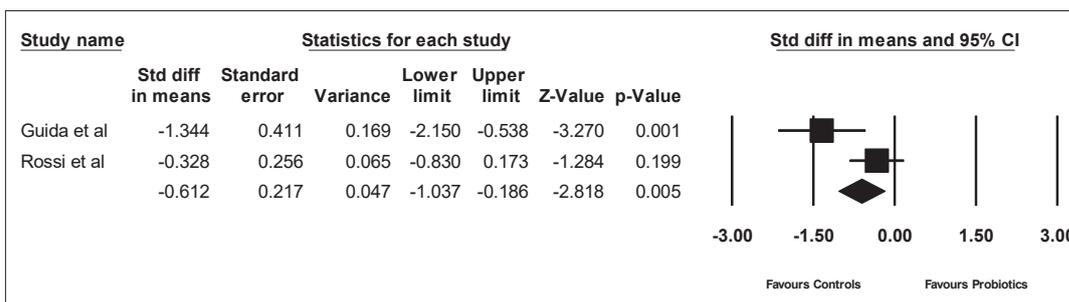


Figure 3. Forest plot of all studies evaluating effects of probiotics vs. controls on p-cresol levels in CKD patients.

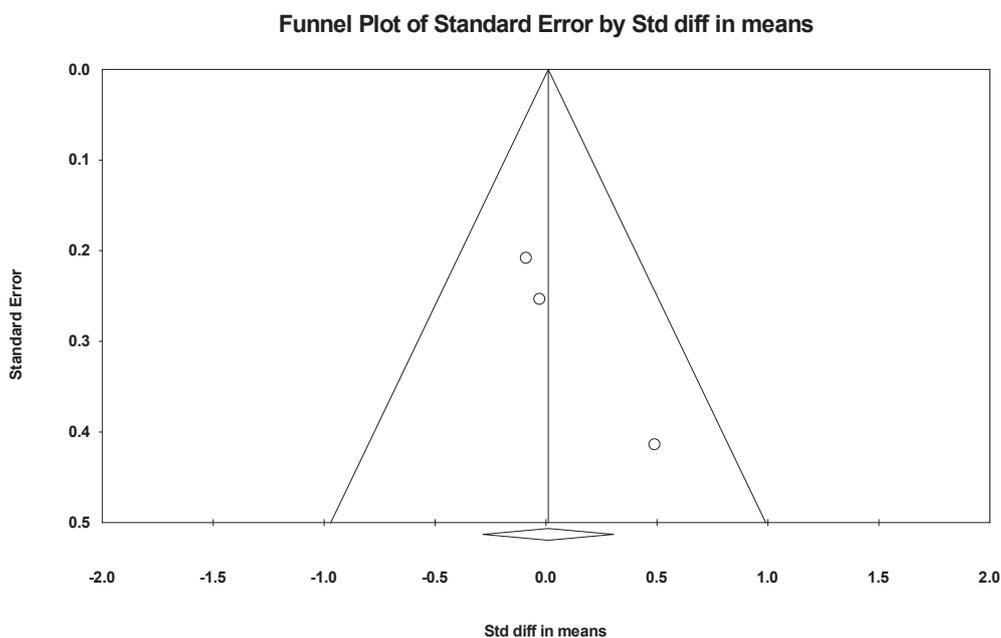


Figure 4. Funnel plot evaluating publication bias regarding the effects of probiotics on creatinine.

accumulation of uremic toxins (22,24-26,28). Human and animal models suggest that a shift in microbiome consisting of an increase in bacteria that produce urease, uricase, p-cresol- and indole-forming enzymes and a decrease in bacteria that possess short-chain fatty acid forming enzymes can lead to the findings of higher uremic toxins (56,57). Thus, restoration of microbiome by probiotics may provide beneficial effects in CKD patients by reducing uremic toxin production in the gut (25,30-33). Our meta-analysis would support this hypothesis with the finding of a potential reduction in uremic toxins in CKD patients treated with probiotics.

Bacterial toxic products such as p-cresol, indoxyl sulfate, and trimethylamine N-oxide can affect podocytes and renal tubules (58-60). Thus, probiotics may help improve renal function by the direct reduction of uremic toxins (22,53). Furthermore, several studies have shown that probiotics may potentially reduce inflammation and oxidative stress

in CKD patients (61-63). Additionally, manipulation of gastrointestinal flora can affect urinary oxalate excretion and decrease urinary supersaturation levels (64); this may decrease nephrolithiasis formation rates and help manage oxalate nephropathy. Treatment with probiotics, however, did not significantly reduce serum creatinine or eGFR after 4 weeks to 6 months treatment when compared to controls in our study. Despite the nonsignificant probiotic effects on creatinine or eGFR in our meta-analysis, Pavan (41) had demonstrated that prebiotic and probiotic administration reduced the downward trend of eGFR in CKD patients when compared to controls. As there are numerous potential contributors and causes of CKD, it is still possible that probiotics may provide benefit in specific CKD subgroups and that a larger sample size is needed in those populations to detect a statistical significance. Several limitations of our meta-analysis are noteworthy. First, there was statistical heterogeneity between the

studies that evaluated the impacts of probiotics on p-cresol levels. Consequently, using a random-effect model, the effects of probiotics on p-cresol levels did not achieve statistical significance. Further studies consisting of larger RCTs are needed. Second, the colon has been identified as the primary source (greater than 30%) of plasma uremic toxins/compounds in addition to p-cresol sulfate (55). Although it is possible that probiotics may provide benefits on other uremic solutes, these data are still limited (42). Third, the rate of creatinine or eGFR decline in CKD patients will vary significantly based on each individual patient's underlying CKD etiologies and management. Consequently, the treatment duration and follow-up period may have been too short to detect a significant change in the creatinine or eGFR in a relatively small number of patients. A larger sample size with longer treatment and follow-up due to the heterogeneity of CKD patients would be beneficial.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, this systematic review and meta-analysis shows no significant differences in serum creatinine or eGFR, after short-term treatment (4 weeks to 6 months) with probiotics. However, probiotics may reduce uremic toxins in CKD patients. Future studies are needed to evaluate the long-term effects of probiotics on CKD progression and uremic toxins.

Authors' contributions

CT and WC performed data acquisition, and statistical analysis. CT and MM were involved in manuscript creation. WC and MM supervised the project. All authors approved the manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors deny any conflict of interest.

Ethical considerations

Ethical issues (including plagiarism, data fabrication, double publication) have been completely observed by the authors.

Funding/Support

We declare no source of funding on this project

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary file 1. Search Strategy.

Supplementary file 2. Outline of search methodology.

References

1. Schieppati A, Remuzzi G. Chronic renal diseases as a public health problem: epidemiology, social, and economic implications. *Kidney Int Suppl.* 2005;(98):S7-10. doi: 10.1111/j.1523-1755.2005.09801.x.
2. Levin A, Tonelli M, Bonventre J, Coresh J, Donner JA, Fogo AB, et al. Global kidney health 2017 and beyond: a roadmap for closing gaps in care, research, and policy. *Lancet.* 2017;390(10105):1888-917. doi: 10.1016/s0140-6736(17)30788-2.
3. Coresh J, Selvin E, Stevens LA, Manzi J, Kusek JW, Eggers P, et al. Prevalence of chronic kidney disease in the United States. *JAMA.* 2007;298(17):2038-47. doi: 10.1001/jama.298.17.2038.
4. Murphy D, McCulloch CE, Lin F, Banerjee T, Bragg-Gresham JL, Eberhardt MS, et al. Trends in Prevalence of Chronic Kidney Disease in the United States. *Ann Intern Med.* 2016;165(7):473-81. doi: 10.7326/m16-0273.
5. Hill NR, Fatoba ST, Oke JL, Hirst JA, O'Callaghan CA, Lasserson DS, et al. Global prevalence of chronic kidney disease - a systematic review and meta-analysis. *PloS One.* 2016;11(7):e0158765. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0158765.
6. Chen N, Wang W, Huang Y, Shen P, Pei D, Yu H, et al. Community-based study on CKD subjects and the associated risk factors. *Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2009;24(7):2117-23. doi: 10.1093/ndt/gfn767.
7. Kramer H, Palmas W, Kestenbaum B, Cushman M, Allison M, Astor B, et al. Chronic kidney disease prevalence estimates among racial/ethnic groups: the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2008;3(5):1391-7. doi: 10.2215/cjn.04160907.
8. Grams ME, Juraschek SP, Selvin E, Foster MC, Inker LA, Eckfeldt JH, et al. Trends in the prevalence of reduced GFR in the United States: a comparison of creatinine- and cystatin C-based estimates. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2013;62(2):253-60. doi: 10.1053/j.ajkd.2013.03.013.
9. Matsushita K, van der Velde M, Astor BC, Woodward M, Levey AS, de Jong PE, et al. Association of estimated glomerular filtration rate and albuminuria with all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in general population cohorts: a collaborative meta-analysis. *Lancet.* 2010;375(9731):2073-81. doi: 10.1016/s0140-6736(10)60674-5.
10. Anderson S, Halter JB, Hazzard WR, Himmelfarb J, Horne FM, Kaysen GA, et al. Prediction, progression, and outcomes of chronic kidney disease in older adults. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2009;20(6):1199-209. doi: 10.1681/asn.2008080860.
11. Sanguankee A, Upala S, Cheungpasitporn W, Ungprasert P, Knight EL. Effects of statins on renal outcome in chronic kidney disease patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *PloS One.* 2015;10(7):e0132970. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0132970.
12. Liyanage T, Ninomiya T, Jha V, Neal B, Patrice HM, Okpechi I, et al. Worldwide access to treatment for end-stage kidney disease: a systematic review. *Lancet.* 2015;385(9981):1975-82.
13. Evenepoel P, Poesen R, Meijers B. The gut-kidney axis. *Pediatr Nephrol.* 2017;32(11):2005-14. doi: 10.1007/s00467-016-3527-x.
14. Kahrstrom CT, Pariente N, Weiss U. Intestinal microbiota in health and disease. *Nature.* 2016;535(7610):47. doi:

- 10.1038/535047a.
15. Charbonneau MR, Blanton LV, DiGiulio DB, Relman DA, Lebrilla CB, Mills DA, et al. A microbial perspective of human developmental biology. *Nature*. 2016;535(7610):48-55. doi: 10.1038/nature18845.
 16. Ahmad S, Bromberg JS. Current status of the microbiome in renal transplantation. *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens*. 2016;25(6):570-6. doi: 10.1097/mnh.0000000000000262.
 17. Mulligan ME. Epidemiology of Clostridium difficile-induced intestinal disease. *Rev Infect Dis*. 1984;6 Suppl 1:S222-8.
 18. Stecher B, Chaffron S, Kappeli R, Hapfelmeier S, Friedrich S, Weber TC, et al. Like will to like: abundances of closely related species can predict susceptibility to intestinal colonization by pathogenic and commensal bacteria. *PLoS pathogens*. 2010;6(1):e1000711. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1000711.
 19. Manichanh C, Rigottier-Gois L, Bonnaud E, Gloux K, Pelletier E, Frangeul L, et al. Reduced diversity of faecal microbiota in Crohn's disease revealed by a metagenomic approach. *Gut*. 2006;55(2):205-11. doi: 10.1136/gut.2005.073817.
 20. Wieland A, Frank DN, Harnke B, Bambha K. Systematic review: microbial dysbiosis and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2015;42(9):1051-63. doi: 10.1111/apt.13376.
 21. Yamashiro Y. Gut Microbiota in Health and Disease. *Ann Nutr Metab*. 2017;71(3-4):242-6. doi: 10.1159/000481627.
 22. Ardalan M, Vahed SZ. Gut microbiota and renal transplant outcome. *Biomed Pharmacother*. 2017;90:229-36. doi: 10.1016/j.biopha.2017.02.114.
 23. Pluznick JL. Gut microbiota in renal physiology: focus on short-chain fatty acids and their receptors. *Kidney Int*. 2016;90(6):1191-8. doi: 10.1016/j.kint.2016.06.033.
 24. Rossi M, Johnson DW, Campbell KL. The kidney-gut axis: implications for nutrition care. *J Ren Nutr*. 2015;25(5):399-403. doi: 10.1053/j.jrn.2015.01.017.
 25. Al Khodor S, Shatat IF. Gut microbiome and kidney disease: a bidirectional relationship. *Pediatr Nephrol*. 2017;32(6):921-31. doi: 10.1007/s00467-016-3392-7.
 26. Briskey D, Tucker P, Johnson DW, Coombes JS. The role of the gastrointestinal tract and microbiota on uremic toxins and chronic kidney disease development. *Clin Exp Nephrol*. 2017;21(1):7-15. doi: 10.1007/s10157-016-1255-y.
 27. Upadhyay V, Fu YX, Bromberg JS. From infection to colonization: the role of microbiota in transplantation. *Am J Transplant*. 2013;13(4):829. doi: 10.1111/ajt.12232.
 28. Sabatino A, Regolisti G, Brusasco I, Cabassi A, Morabito S, Fiaccadori E. Alterations of intestinal barrier and microbiota in chronic kidney disease. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2015;30(6):924-33. doi: 10.1093/ndt/gfu287.
 29. Wanchai K, Pongchaidecha A, Chatsudthipong V, Chattipakorn SC, Chattipakorn N, Lungkaphin A. Role of gastrointestinal microbiota on kidney injury and the obese condition. *Am J Med Sci*. 2017;353(1):59-69. doi: 10.1016/j.amjms.2016.11.019.
 30. Di Iorio BR, Marzocco S, Nardone L, Sirico M, De Simone E, Di Natale G, et al. Urea and impairment of the gut-kidney axis in chronic kidney disease. *G Ital Nefrol*. 2017;34.
 31. Cigarran Guldris S, Gonzalez Parra E, Cases Amenos A. Gut microbiota in chronic kidney disease. *Nefrologia*. 2017;37(1):9-19. doi: 10.1016/j.nefro.2016.05.008.
 32. Koppe L, Mafra D, Fouque D. Probiotics and chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int*. 2015;88(5):958-66. doi: 10.1038/ki.2015.255.
 33. Anders HJ, Andersen K, Stecher B. The intestinal microbiota, a leaky gut, and abnormal immunity in kidney disease. *Kidney Int*. 2013;83(6):1010-6. doi: 10.1038/ki.2012.440.
 34. Prakash S, Chang TM. Microencapsulated genetically engineered live E. coli DH5 cells administered orally to maintain normal plasma urea level in uremic rats. *Nat Med*. 1996;2(8):883-7.
 35. Andrade-Oliveira V, Amano MT, Correa-Costa M, Castoldi A, Felizardo RJ, de Almeida DC, et al. Gut bacteria products prevent AKI induced by ischemia-reperfusion. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2015;26(8):1877-88. doi: 10.1681/asn.2014030288.
 36. Ranganathan N, Patel BG, Ranganathan P, Marczy J, Dheer R, Pechenyak B, et al. In vitro and in vivo assessment of inraintestinal bacteriotherapy in chronic kidney disease. *Asaio j*. 1992). 2006;52(1):70-9. doi: 10.1097/01.mat.0000191345.45735.00.
 37. Ranganathan N, Patel B, Ranganathan P, Marczy J, Dheer R, Chordia T, et al. Probiotic amelioration of azotemia in 5/6th nephrectomized Sprague-Dawley rats. *ScientificWorldJournal*. 2005;5:652-60. doi: 10.1100/tsw.2005.86.
 38. Ranganathan N, Ranganathan P, Friedman EA, Joseph A, Delano B, Goldfarb DS, et al. Pilot study of probiotic dietary supplementation for promoting healthy kidney function in patients with chronic kidney disease. *Adv Ther*. 2010;27(9):634-47. doi: 10.1007/s12325-010-0059-9.
 39. Guida B, Germano R, Trio R, Russo D, Memoli B, Grumetto L, et al. Effect of short-term synbiotic treatment on plasma p-cresol levels in patients with chronic renal failure: a randomized clinical trial. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis*. 2014;24(9):1043-9. doi: 10.1016/j.numecd.2014.04.007.
 40. Miranda Alatraste PV, Urbina Arronte R, Gomez Espinosa CO, Espinosa Cuevas Mde L. Effect of probiotics on human blood urea levels in patients with chronic renal failure. *Nutr Hosp*. 2014;29(3):582-90. doi: 10.3305/nh.2014.29.3.7179.
 41. Pavan M. Influence of prebiotic and probiotic supplementation on the progression of chronic kidney disease. *Minerva Urol Nefrol*. 2016;68(2):222-6.
 42. Rossi M, Johnson DW, Morrison M, Pascoe E, Coombes JS, Forbes JM, et al. SYNbiotics Easing Renal failure by improving Gut microbiology (SYNERGY): a protocol of placebo-controlled randomised cross-over trial. *BMC Nephrol*. 2014;15:106. doi: 10.1186/1471-2369-15-106.

43. DerSimonian R, Laird N. Meta-analysis in clinical trials. *Controlled clinical trials*. 1986;7(3):177-88.
44. Higgins JP, Thompson SG, Deeks JJ, Altman DG. Measuring inconsistency in meta-analyses. *Bmj*. 2003;327(7414):557-60. doi: 10.1136/bmj.327.7414.557.
45. Easterbrook PJ, Berlin JA, Gopalan R, Matthews DR. Publication bias in clinical research. *Lancet*. 1991;337(8746):867-72.
46. Soleimani A, Zarrati Mojarrad M, Bahmani F, Taghizadeh M, Ramezani M, Tajabadi-Ebrahimi M, et al. Probiotic supplementation in diabetic hemodialysis patients has beneficial metabolic effects. *Kidney Int*. 2017;91(2):435-42. doi: 10.1016/j.kint.2016.09.040.
47. Cruz-Mora J, Martinez-Hernandez NE, Martin del Campo-Lopez F, Viramontes-Horner D, Vizmanos-Lamotte B, Munoz-Valle JF, et al. Effects of a symbiotic on gut microbiota in Mexican patients with end-stage renal disease. *J Ren Nutr*. 2014;24(5):330-5. doi: 10.1053/j.jrn.2014.05.006.
48. Simenhoff ML, Dunn SR, Zollner GP, Fitzpatrick ME, Emery SM, Sandine WE, et al. Biomodulation of the toxic and nutritional effects of small bowel bacterial overgrowth in end-stage kidney disease using freeze-dried *Lactobacillus acidophilus*. *Miner Electrolyte Metab*. 1996;22(1-3):92-6.
49. Nakabayashi I, Nakamura M, Kawakami K, Ohta T, Kato I, Uchida K, et al. Effects of synbiotic treatment on serum level of p-cresol in haemodialysis patients: a preliminary study. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2011;26(3):1094-8. doi: 10.1093/ndt/gfq624.
50. Natarajan R, Pechenyak B. Randomized controlled trial of strain-specific probiotic formulation (Renadyl) in dialysis patients. 2014;2014:568571. doi: 10.1155/2014/568571.
51. Wang IK, Wu YY, Yang YF, Ting IW, Lin CC, Yen TH, et al. The effect of probiotics on serum levels of cytokine and endotoxin in peritoneal dialysis patients: a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Beneficial microbes*. 2015;6(4):423-30. doi: 10.3920/bm2014.0088.
52. Viramontes-Horner D, Marquez-Sandoval F, Martin-del-Campo F, Vizmanos-Lamotte B, Sandoval-Rodriguez A, Armendariz-Borunda J, et al. Effect of a symbiotic gel (*Lactobacillus acidophilus* + *Bifidobacterium lactis* + inulin) on presence and severity of gastrointestinal symptoms in hemodialysis patients. *J Ren Nutr*. 2015;25(3):284-91. doi: 10.1053/j.jrn.2014.09.008.
53. Ranganathan N, Friedman EA, Tam P, Rao V, Ranganathan P, Dheer R. Probiotic dietary supplementation in patients with stage 3 and 4 chronic kidney disease: a 6-month pilot scale trial in Canada. *Curr Med Res Opin*. 2009;25(8):1919-30. doi: 10.1185/03007990903069249.
54. Higgins J, Greene S. *Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions USA: The Cochrane Collaboration*. 2011.
55. Aronov PA, Luo FJ, Plummer NS, Quan Z, Holmes S, Hostetter TH, et al. Colonic contribution to uremic solutes. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2011;22(9):1769-76. doi: 10.1681/asn.2010121220.
56. Pahl MV, Vaziri ND. The Chronic Kidney Disease - Colonic Axis. *Semin Dial*. 2015;28(5):459-63. doi: 10.1111/sdi.12381.
57. Wong J, Piceno YM, DeSantis TZ, Pahl M, Andersen GL, Vaziri ND. Expansion of urease- and uricase-containing, indole- and p-cresol-forming and contraction of short-chain fatty acid-producing intestinal microbiota in ESRD. *Am J Nephrol*. 2014;39(3):230-7. doi: 10.1159/000360010.
58. Tang WH, Wang Z, Kennedy DJ, Wu Y, Buffa JA, Agatsuma-Boyle B, et al. Gut microbiota-dependent trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO) pathway contributes to both development of renal insufficiency and mortality risk in chronic kidney disease. *Circ Res*. 2015;116(3):448-55. doi: 10.1161/circresaha.116.305360.
59. Ichii O, Otsuka-Kanazawa S, Nakamura T, Ueno M, Kon Y, Chen W, et al. Podocyte injury caused by indoxyl sulfate, a uremic toxin and aryl-hydrocarbon receptor ligand. *PloS One*. 2014;9(9):e108448. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0108448.
60. Watanabe H, Miyamoto Y, Honda D, Tanaka H, Wu Q, Endo M, et al. p-Cresyl sulfate causes renal tubular cell damage by inducing oxidative stress by activation of NADPH oxidase. *Kidney Int*. 2013;83(4):582-92. doi: 10.1038/ki.2012.448.
61. Mafrá D, Fouque D. Gut microbiota and inflammation in chronic kidney disease patients. *Clin Kidney J*. 2015;8(3):332-4. doi: 10.1093/ckj/sfv026.
62. Mafrá D, Lobo JC, Barros AF, Koppe L, Vaziri ND, Fouque D. Role of altered intestinal microbiota in systemic inflammation and cardiovascular disease in chronic kidney disease. *Future Microbiol*. 2014;9(3):399-410. doi: 10.2217/fmb.13.165.
63. Vaziri ND. CKD impairs barrier function and alters microbial flora of the intestine: a major link to inflammation and uremic toxicity. *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens*. 2012;21(6):587-92. doi: 10.1097/MNH.0b013e328358c8d5.
64. Lieske JC, Goldfarb DS, De Simone C, Regnier C. Use of a probiotic to decrease enteric hyperoxaluria. *Kidney Int*. 2005;68(3):1244-9. doi: 10.1111/j.1523-1755.2005.00520.x.