Impact of dialysis modality conversion on the health-related quality of life of peritoneal dialysis patients: a retrospective cohort study in China

Heqi Sun[1][#], Ye Zhuang[1][#], Lanying Gao[2], Ningze Xu[1], Yanxiong[2], Min Yuan[1], Jun Lu[1], Jianming Ye[2]

[1] School of Public Health, Fudan University, Shanghai, China

[2] Department of Nephrology, The First People's Hospital of Kunshan, Suzhou, China

[#]These authors contributed equally to this work.

Corresponding Authors:

Lu Jun[1]

N0.130 Dong-an Road, Shanghai, 200032, China

Email address: lujun@shmu.edu.cn

Jianming Ye [2]

N0.91 West Qian-jin Road, Kunshan, Suzhou, 215300, China

Email address: ks_yjm@163.com

Abstract

Background. To analyze the health-related quality of life associated with the conversion of dialysis modality among end-stage renal disease patients in China.

Methods. Patients were recruited from hospitals and a dialysis center in Kunshan, China. Patients converting from continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis to automated peritoneal dialysis were recruited as the observation group (n=64), and patients continuing with continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis treatment were included in the control group (n=64) after matching in this historical cohort study. Their health-related quality of life was measured using the kidney disease quality of life instrument in 2019 and 2020, respectively. Baseline socio-demographic characteristics and clinical data were collected in 2019. The before-and-after cross-group comparisons of subscale scores of two groups were conducted using a student t-test. Multiple linear regression models were fitted to identify the factors associated with the change of each scale.

Results. The health-related quality of life scores of the two groups were comparable in baseline, while the observation group had higher scores in Physical Component Summary (51.92±7.50), Kidney Disease Component Summary (81.21±8.41), Symptoms(90.76±6.30), Effects(82.86±11.42), and Burden(69.04±15.69) subscales after one year. In multivariate

40 regression analysis, the change of Physical Component Summary was significantly associated
41 with conversion to APD (β=11.54, 95%CI: 7.26, 15.82); the change of Mental Component
42 Summary with higher education (β =-5.96, 95%CI: -10.18, -1.74) and CCI (>2) (β=5.39,
43 95%CI: 1.05, 9.73); the change of Kidney Disease Component Summary with conversion to
44 APD (β =15.95, 95%CI: 10.19, 21.7) and age (>60 years) (β =-7.36, 95%CI: -14.11, -0.61); the
45 change of Symptoms with CCI (>2) (β =7.96, 95%CI: 1.49, 14.44); the change of Effects with
46 conversion to APD (β =19.23, 95%CI: 11.57, 26.88); and the change of Burden with conversion
47 to APD (β =22.40, 95%CI: 13.46, 31.34), age (>60 years) (β =-12.12, 95%CI: -22.59, -1.65),
48 and higher education (β =-10.38, 95%CI: -19.79, -0.98).
49 **Conclusions.** The conversion of dialysis modality had a significant impact on the scores of most
50 subscales. Patients converting from continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis to automated
51 peritoneal dialysis generally had improved health-related quality of life scores.
52
53 ## Introduction
54
55 Renal transplantation, hemodialysis (HD) and peritoneal dialysis (PD) are three common renal
56 replacement therapy (RRT) options for patients with end-stage renal disease (ESRD). As the
57 clinical concept of "PD First" has been widely recognized globally, many countries have
58 increasingly practiced PD instead of HD in clinical settings mainly because it has less impact on
59 patients' daily life routines (*Rabindranath et al., 2007*) and saves their healthcare costs (*Vaccaro*
60 *& Sopranzi, 2017; Julián et al., 2013*).
61
62 Among major modalities of PD, ambulatory peritoneal dialysis (CAPD) and automated
63 peritoneal dialysis (APD) are the most one. CAPD is performed manually, whereas APD is
64 performed with the assistance of mechanical device and has been associated with better patient
65 compliance (*Bernardini & Nagy, 2000*). Since many systematic reviews found that the safety and
66 clinical outcomes of CAPD and APD are largely comparable (*Rabindranath et al., 2007;*
67 *Athanasios et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2016*), evidence on health-related quality of life (HRQOL) is
68 important when nephrologists and patients choose PD modality in practice (*Wright et al., 2015*).
69 To the best of our knowledge, studies conducted in other countries showed that the HRQOL was
70 largely equivalent between patients treated with CAPD and APD (*Guney et al., 2010; Michels et*
71 *al., 2011; Yang et al., 2018; Mpharm et al., 2020*). Since these studies were mainly cross-
72 sectional designs that could not analyze the impact of converting PD modalities on ESRD

73 patients, current knowledge of this topic remains little. Besides, some Chinese studies have

74 targeted the HRQOL of HD and PD patients (*Zhang et al., 2007; Bieber et al., 2014*), but they

75 did not conclude on the HRQOL of CAPD and APD patients. Therefore, this study fills the gaps

76 of knowledge and would provide real-world evidence for the selection of dialysis modalities in

77 clinical settings.

78

79 In mainland China, it was estimated that about 1.5 million patients need dialysis. However, PD

80 accounts for less than 15%, of which CAPD is the main modality (*CNRDS, 2021*). Research

81 regarding APD remains to be almost blank. Fortunately, health insurance authorities and

82 healthcare facilities in Kunshan, Jiangsu, China have tried to promote the use of APD since

83 2019. Kunshan is a highly developed city in China with a GDP per capita that is equivalent to a

84 city in a developed country. To control the impact of socio-economic status on HRQOL,

85 Kunshan was selected as the sample city while ensuring the comparability of our findings with

86 international literature. Therefore, this study is the first publication comparing the one-year

87 change in HRQOL of CAPD and APD patients in China and identifying its influencing factors.

88

89 ## Methods

90

91 ### Design and ethical statement

92 This observational cohort study was designed to investigate the association between the

93 conversion of dialysis modality and health-related quality of life among the Chinese end-stage

94 renal disease patients. All procedures performed in this study involving human participants were

95 in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (as revised in 2013). The study was approved by

96 the Medical Research Ethics Committee of School of Public Health, Fudan University (IRB

97 approval number 2020-08-0844). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants at

98 the recruitment stage of the study.

99

100 ### Study setting and subjects

101 Patients were recruited from the hospitals and a dialysis center in Kunshan approached by trained

102 interviewers. The inclusion criteria were: 1) a clinical diagnosis of ESRD; 2) aged 18 years or

103 older; 3) received CAPD/APD for more than 3 months; 4) able to communicate verbally; 5)

104 provide informed consent.

105

106   Kunshan has introduced home-based APD services since 2019, with supporting medical

107   insurance reimbursement policies. Through interviews with patients and medical staff, the

108   research team learned that most patients who chose to convert from CAPD to APD were mainly

109   in the consideration of social and economic reasons: Socially, APD helps patients with daily

110   activities, work, and study throughout the day; Economically, the individual payment proportion

111   of choosing APD is lower, and the economic burden of dialysis was alleviated.

112

113   This study included all 67 eligible ESRD patients converting from CAPD to APD as the

114   observation group (hereinafter referred to as APD group), of which 64 patients completely

115   responded to the interviews, resulting in a response rate of 95.52%. Meanwhile, we also

116   interviewed 135 ESRD patients continuing with CAPD treatment, of which 125 patients

117   completely responded, and the response rate was 92.59%.

118

119   After matching was conducted based on dialysis vintage, age, and gender, 64 ESRD patients

120   continuing with CAPD treatment were included in the control group (hereinafter referred to as

121   CAPD group). During the matching process, completely matched patients were included first.

122   Incompletely matched patients were included by the order of dialysis vintage, age, and gender. If

123   more than one patient met the matching criteria, the first patient on the matching list was

124   included. We estimated that this sample size of 128 (64 in each group) would provide 99%

125   power at a two-tailed 5% significance level by using G*Power analysis.

126

127   **Procedures and assessment methods**

128

129   In this retrospective study, we collected baseline data of the observation group and control group

130   in August 2019 and then remeasured the HRQOL of two groups in August 2020.

131

132   **HRQOL instruments**

133   HRQOL data were collected using the Kidney Disease and Quality of Life-36 (KDQOL-36)

134   (*Rand. 2021*). KDQOL-36 contains a Short Form-12 (SF-12) and 3 kidney disease-specific

135   subscales, in which there are 4 items for the burden of kidney disease, 12 items for

136   symptoms/problems, and 8 items for effects of kidney disease. The kidney disease component

137   summary (KDCS) is scored by averaging the three disease-specific subscales (i.e. symptoms,

138   effects, and burden). Physical Component Summary (PCS) and Mental Component Summary

139   (MCS) can be calculated from SF-12. All scores range from 0 to 100, with higher scores

140   representing better HRQOL.

141

142   KDQOL-36 has been validated and proved reliable for the measurement of HRQOL in Chinese

143   ESRD patients (*Tao, Chow & Wong, 2014*). Pan et al. (*Pan et al. 2018*) also employed KDQOL-

144   36 to measure the HRQOL of ESRD patients in Eastern China, proving the effectiveness of

145   KDQOL-36 in the sample population.

146

147   To measure and compare the one-year differences between two groups in 6 subscales (i.e. PCS,

148   MCS, KDCS, symptoms, effects, and burden), we defined these differences as △PCS, △MCS,

149   △KDCS, △symptoms, △effects, and △burden, respectively.

150

151   **Sociodemographic and Clinical Data**
152   In this study, sociodemographic and clinical data were also collected. Socio-demographic

153   characteristics were self-reported, including age, gender, marital status, education level,

154   employment status, and dependency status. Clinical factors were retrieved from medical records,

155   containing dialysis characteristics (dialysis vintage and Kt/V), Charlson Comorbidity Index

156   (CCI), body mass index (BMI), and biochemical data (blood albumin and hemoglobin).

157

158   ## Statistical analysis
159

160   The socio-demographic and clinical characteristics were compared between CAPD and APD

161   groups using chi-square tests. The before-and-after cross-group comparisons of the changes in

162   scores of six HRQOL subscales were conducted using a *T*-test.

163

164   In univariate linear regression and the subsequent multivariate linear regression, we assessed the

165   associations between sociodemographic and clinical characteristics and the changes in HRQOL

166   scores. The continuous dependent variables were the changes in 6 subscales (△PCS, △MCS,

167 △KDCS, △symptoms, △effects, and △burden). All continuous independent variables were

168 coded into categorical variables based on their clinically meaningful values (*Jia et al. 2015*) or

169 means/medians concerning that the associations may not be linear. The categorical variables

170 were PD modality (continue with CAPD/convert to APD), age (≤60 years />60 years), gender

171 (male/female), marital status (with spouse/without spouse), education level (lower (no

172 formal/primary/secondary school)/higher(high school/above)), employment status

173 (employed/unemployed (including retired)), dependency status (self-care/assisted), dialysis

174 vintage (<4 years/≥4 years), Kt/V(≤1.7/>1.7), CCI(≤2/>2), BMI level (low (≤25 kg/m2)/ high

175 (>25 kg/m2)), albumin level (low (<37 g/l)/high (≥37 g/l)), hemoglobin level (low (<11

176 g/dl)/high (≥11 g/dl)).

177

178 Dialysis-related variables were included with references to previous literature (*Yang et al. 2018;*

179 *Pan et al. 2018*). All categorical variables were entered into six different multiple linear

180 regression analyses to explore their associations with the changes in HRQOL subscale scores

181 independently, regardless of their statistical significances in the univariate analyses, to assess the

182 impact of dialysis modality conversion on the changes in HRQOL scores after adjusting for

183 socio-demographic characteristics and clinical indicators. All analyses were performed using

184 SPSS 25.0, with a *p-value* of less than 0.05 being considered as statistically significant.

185

Results

186

187

188 A total of 128 PD patients were included in this study, with 64 of the patients continuing with

189 CAPD and 64 of whom converting to APD. Their characteristics are displayed in *Table 1*. The

190 mean (SD) age was 52.95(13.48) years, with 53.13 % male and the mean (SD) dialysis vintage

191 was 4.10(3.34) years. There were significant differences in dependency status between the two

192 groups. Other characteristics related to PD technique, such as residual diuresis and daily

193 ultrafiltration, were not different between the two studied groups.

194

195 Mean (SD) PCS, MCS, KDCS, symptoms, effects, and burden scores for the CAPD and APD

196 groups in two years are shown in *Table 2* respectively. There were no significant differences

197 between the CAPD group and APD group in the baseline. However, by the year 2020, PCS,

198   KDCS, Symptoms, Effects, and Burden scores of the APD group were significantly higher than

199   the CAPD group.

200

201   *Table 3* shows the results of the univariate analysis. In univariate analysis, we found that many

202   factors associated with the changes in HRQOL scores were statistically significant.

203

204   In multivariate analysis (*Table 4*), after adjusting for the effects of socio-demographic and

205   clinical factors in six models, the following factors were significantly associated with increasing

206   the of HRQOL scores: conversion to APD with $\triangle$PCS; higher education and CCI (>2) with

207    $\triangle$MCS; conversion to APD and age (>60 years) with $\triangle$KDCS; CCI (>2) with $\triangle$Symptoms;

208   conversion to APD with $\triangle$Effects; and conversion to APD, age (>60 years), and higher

209   education with $\triangle$Burden.

210

211   **Discussion**

212

213   In this study, ESRD patients had higher scores in PCS, KDCS, Symptoms, Effects, and Burden

214   subscales after converting to APD. In multivariate regression analysis, factors significantly

215   associated with the improvement of HRQOL scores were: conversion to APD, $\leq$60 years of age,

216   lower education, and higher hemoglobin. These results suggest evidence for the effectiveness of

217   APD among Chinese ESRD patients and guide the strategy of selecting appropriate dialysis

218   techniques.

219

220   HRQOL was compared between the APD group and CAPD group, and no statistical difference

221   was found at baseline. However, after one year of treatment, the physiological and disease-

222   specific subscale scores of APD patients were significantly higher than those of CAPD patients

223   in 2020. Similar results were also reported in Singapore (*Yang et al. 2018*) and Mexico (*Cortés-*

224   *Sanabria et al. 2013*). Yet Wit et al. found no significant differences in physical health between

225   APD and CAPD patients (*Wit et al.2001*). This difference in results may be due to the fact that

226   Wit et al. used SF-36 and EQ-5D instead of KDQOL-36. In addition to the fact that APD

227   operated at night can liberate patients during the day, other reasons for higher HRQOL in APD

228   patients in this study include remote monitoring and management of dialysis indicators

229   conducted by specialized doctors and timely guidance from the family doctor during follow-up,

230   which means that the technological advantages and professional supports of APD could improve

231   the physiological and disease-specific component. This study did not find differences in MCS

232   subscale scores, which was inconsistent with earlier cross-sectional studies that suggested that

233   APD patients performed better in psychological states (*Mpharm et al.2020; Cortés-Sanabria et*

234   *al. 2013; Wit et al.2001; Diaz-Buxo et al.2000*). This may be due to the short observation time of

235   this study, and the cognition and feeling of patients with chronic diseases do not change

236   significantly within one year. Overall, it is reasonable to recommend CAPD patients convert to

237   APD if the indications and financial circumstances permit.

238

239   We also observed the impacts of demographic, clinical, and dialysis-related characteristics on

240   HRQOL. First, age of more than 60 years was associated with the decrease of KDCS and

241   Burden. Age as a predictor of quality of life scores, especially in physical aspects, was also

242   confirmed by several previous studies (*Yang et al. 2018; Pan et al. 2018; Balasubramanian,*

243   *McKitty & Fan, 2010*). Second, higher education level was associated with the decrease of MCS

244   and Burden, which means that patients who were more educated and actively learned more about

245   the disease might be worried about the negative outcomes. Though Yang et al. did not observe

246   the impact of education level on the HRQOL of APD and CAPD patients (*Yang et al. 2018*), it

247   may be caused by the well-established education system and social welfare policy in Singapore,

248   and the fact that HRQOL is a subjective evaluation deeply influenced by social culture. Third,

249   CCI(>2) was associated with the changes of MCS and Symptoms respectively. Previous studies

250   explored the impact of CCI but no statistical correlation was found (*Bilgic et al. 2011; Yang et*

251   *al. 2018*). Diseases are not mutually exclusive. Our results suggest comorbidities might have an

252   influence on the HRQOL of ESRD patients.

253

254   There are some noteworthy implications for patients, clinical practice and health administration.

255   For patients, this study showed that conversion to APD significantly improves HRQOL, which

256   suggests that APD is a dialysis method worth choosing. More HRQOL evaluations should be

257   conducted to enhance patient engagement in decision-making. For clinical practice, in addition to

258   the objective physiological indicators, the subjective feelings of patients should also be

259   considered during dialysis treatment. Patient-oriented medical services are worth recommending,

260   which include involving family members and caregivers in dialysis treatment for ESRD patients,

261   especially the older patients, and strengthening psychological support for well-educated patients.

262   As for health administration, APD is mainly used at clinical rescue and ICU and lacks large-scale

263   application in China. Especially in the context of COVID-19, home-based APD treatment has

264   shown its great advantages. Priority should be given to promoting APD in the allocation of

265   healthcare resources in China.

266

267   Some of the previously published papers found no impact of PD modality on HRQOL because

268   the study design and the subjects' characteristics were different from our study. Former studies

269   were mostly cross-sectional studies, and compared HRQOL between independent APD and

270   CAPD groups. This study is a retrospective cohort study, subjects came from the same CAPD

271   sample group at baseline, and considered the conversion of dialysis modality as an influencing

272   factor. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first publication reporting the impact of PD

273   modality conversion on the HRQOL of ESRD patients. What is more, existing Asian studies

274   mainly focus on Taiwan and Singapore patients (*Tang et al., 2016; Yang et al. 2018)*. This study

275   takes mainland China residents as the research subject. It may be that different regional, social,

276   and cultural backgrounds will also bring differences to the quality of life. This study suggest the

277   effectiveness of home-based APD treatment in Chinese patients using real-world data, which is

278   an innovative approach in current Chinese literature because APD has not been widely used in

279   mainland China.

280

281   This study also had several limitations and should be acknowledged. First, the socioeconomic

282   status of Kunshan city is close to that of a city in a developed countries. China is a vast country

283   with areas of different socioeconomic development, therefore the results of this study cannot be

284   extrapolated to less developed areas in China. Second, although we started data collection when

285   the APD project was launched in Kunshan, the one-year follow-up might not be long enough to

286   observe the significant changes in MCS subscale scores. Besides, even though the sample size in

287   this study was sufficient enough to detect the effects, HRQOL is a subjective evaluation which

288   closely related to the social and cultural background, thus, the conclusion needs further

289   validation in other regions. Third, factors influencing the conversion of dialysis modality might

290   also contribute to confounding bias, such as cognition and acceptance of new technology,

291   economic level, clinical indications, etc.

292

293   **Conclusions**

294

295   In summary, this study analyzed the impact of converting PD modalities on the one-year changes

296   in HRQOL of ESRD patients in mainland China. It suggested that conversion to APD had a

297   positive influence on the improvement of HRQOL. With the increasing use of APD in China,

298   further studies should focus on the HRQOL of APD patients in other regions to expand the

299   sample size and improve representativeness.

300

301   **Acknowledgement**

302

303   We are grateful to all the participants who took part in this study.

304

305   **References**

306   **Athanasios R, Stefanos R, Konstantinos L, Marios S, Theodoros E, Vassilios L. 2020.** APD or CAPD: one glove
307   does not fit all. International Urology and Nephrology 53(6):1149-1160 DOI: 10.1007/s11255-020-02678-6

308   **Balasubramanian G, McKitty K, Fan SLS. 2010.** Comparing automated peritoneal dialysis with continuous
309   ambulatory peritoneal dialysis: survival and quality of life differences? Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation
310   26(5), 1702–1708.

311   **Bernardini J, Nagy M, Piraino B. 2000.** Pattern of noncompliance with dialysis exchanges in peritoneal dialysis
312   patients. American Journal of Kidney Diseases 35(6):1104-1110 DOI: 10.1016/S0272-6386(00)70047-3

313   **Bieber B, Qian J, Anand S, Yan YC, Chen N, Wang M, Wang M, Zuo L, Hou FF, Pisoni RL, Robinson BM,**
314   **Ramirez SPB. 2014.** Two-times weekly Hemodialysis in China: frequency, associated patient and treatment
315   characteristics and Quality of Life in the China Dialysis Outcomes and Practice Patterns study. Nephrology
316   Dialysis Transplantation 29: 1770–1777 DOI: 10.1093/ndt/gft472

317   **Bilgic A, Akman B, Sezer S, Arat Z, Ozelsancak R, Nurhan Ozdemir. 2011.** Daytime Sleepiness and Quality of
318   Life in Peritoneal Dialysis Patients. Therapeutic Apheresis and Dialysis 15(6):565–571. DOI: 10.1111/j.1744-
319   9987.2011.00987.x

320   **Chinese National Renal Data System.** Available at *http://www.cnrds.net/TxLogin* (accessed 22 March 2021)

321   **Cortés-Sanabria L, Paredes-Ceseña CA, Herrera-Llamas RM, Cruz-Bueno Y, Soto-Molina H, Pazarín L,**
322   **Cortés M, Martínez-Ramírez HR. 2013.** Comparison of Cost-Utility Between Automated Peritoneal Dialysis
323   and Continuous Ambulatory Peritoneal Dialysis. Archives of Medical Research 44(8) DOI:
324   10.1016/j.arcmed.2013.10.017

325   **Diaz-Buxo JA, Lowrie EG, Lew NL, Zhang HY; Lazarus JM. 2000.** Quality-of-life evaluation using Short Form
326   36: comparison in hemodialysis and peritoneal dialysis patients. American Journal of Kidney Diseases 35: 293–
327   300 DOI: 10.1016/S0272-6386(00)70339-8

328   **Guney I, Solak Y, Atalay H, Yazici R, Altintepe L, Kara F; Yeksan M; Turk S. 2010.** Comparison of effects of
329   automated peritoneal dialysis and continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis on health-related quality of life,

330   sleep quality, and depression. Hemodialysis International Symposium on Home Hemodialysis 14(4):515-522
331   DOI:10.1111/j.1542-4758.2010.00465.x
332   **Jia KK, Zhang CB, Huang XZ, Wang LL, Hao XK, Mu RQ, Pan BS, Zhang J, Chen WX, Xu N, Li GX, Ma**
333   **YY, Ma M, Guo W, Shang H. 2015.** Reference Intervals of Serum Sodium, Potassium, and Chlorine in Chinese
334   Han Population and Comparison of Two ISE Methods. Journal of Clinical Laboratory Analysis 29(3):226-234
335   DOI: 10.1002/jcla.21755
336   **Julián M, Juan C, Cuervo J, Rebollo P. 2013**. Employment status and indirect costs in patients with renal failure:
337   differences between different modalities of renal replacement therapy. Nefrologia 33(3):333-341 DOI:
338   10.3265/Nefrologia.pre2012.Dec.11767
339   **Michels WM, Dijk SV, Verduijn M, Cessie SL, Boeschoten EW, Dekker FW, Krediet RT. 2011.** Quality of life
340   in automated and continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis. Peritoneal Dialysis International Journal of the
341   International Society for Peritoneal Dialysis 31(2):138-47.
342   **Mpharm TT, Bpharm PN, Sritippayawan S, Bsc NA. 2020.** Kidney Disease–Specific Scores and Health Utility
343   of Continuous Ambulatory Peritoneal Dialysis and Automated Peritoneal Dialysis Patients and Their Caregivers
344   - ScienceDirect. Value in Health Regional Issues 21:194-200.
345   **Pan CW, Wu Y, Zhou HJ, Xu BX Wang P. 2018.** Health-Related Quality of Life and Its Factors of Hemodialysis
346   Patients in Suzhou, China. Blood Purification 327-333 DOI: 10.1159/000485962
347   **Rabindranath KS, Adams J, Ali TZ, Daly C, Vale L, Macleod AM. 2007.** Automated vs continuous ambulatory
348   peritoneal dialysis: A systematic review of randomized controlled trials. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation
349   22(10):2991-2998 DOI:10.1093/ndt/gfm515
350   **Rand.** Available at *https://www.rand.org/health-care/surveys_tools/kdqol.html* (accessed 22 March 2021)
351   **Tang CH , Chen TH , Fang TC, Huang SY; Huang KC; Wu YT; Wang CC; Sue YM. 2016.** Do Automated
352   Peritoneal Dialysis and Continuous Ambulatory Peritoneal Dialysis Have the Same Clinical Outcomes? A Ten-
353   year Cohort Study in Taiwan. Scientific Reports 6:29276. DOI: 10.1038/srep29276
354   **Tao X, Chow SK, Wong FK. 2014.** Determining the validity and reliability of the Chinese version of the kidney
355   disease quality of life questionnaire (KDQOL-36™). BMC Nephrology 15:115 DOI: 10.1186/1471-2369-15-115
356   **Vaccaro CM, Sopranzi F. 2017.** A comparison between the costs of dialysis treatments in Marche Region, Italy:
357   Macerata and Tolentino hospitals. Istituto Superiore di Sanita. Annali 53(4):344-349 DOI:
358   10.4415/ANN_17_04_12
359   **Wit GA, Merkus MP, Krediet RT, de Charro FT. 2001.** A comparison of quality of life of patients on automated
360   and continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis. Perit Dial Int 21(3):306–312.
361   **Wright LS, Wilson L. 2015.** Quality of Life and Self-Efficacy in Three Dialysis Modalities: Incenter Hemodialysis,
362   Home Hemodialysis, and Home Peritoneal Dialysis. Nephrology Nursing Journal 42(5):463-476.
363   **Yang F, Luo N, Lau T, Yu ZL, Foo M, Griva K. 2018.** Health-Related Quality of Life in Patients Treated with
364   Continuous Ambulatory Peritoneal Dialysis and Automated Peritoneal Dialysis in Singapore.
365   Pharmacoeconomics Open 2:203–208. DOI:10.1007/s41669-017-0046-z
366   **Zhang AH, Cheng LT, Zhu N, Sun LH, Wang T. 2007.** Comparison of quality of life and causes of
367   hospitalization between Hemodialysis and peritoneal dialysis patients in China. Health and Quality of Life
368   Outcomes 320: 49 DOI: 10.1186/1477-7525-5-49

Baseline characteristics of sample participants

1**Table 1 Baseline characteristics of sample participants.**

Characteristic	Total(n=128)	CAPD (n=64)	APD (n=64)	*p value*
Age(year), mean (SD)	52.95(13.48)	52.88(13.38)	53.02(13.69)	0.95
Gender, n (%)				0.48
Male	68(53.13)	32(50.00)	36(56.25)	
Female	60(48.87)	32(50.00)	28(43.75)	
Marital status, n (%)				1.00
With spouse	112(87.50)	56(87.50)	56(87.50)	
Without spouse	16(12.50)	8(12.50)	8(12.50)	
Education level, n (%)				0.14
Lower (illiterate/primary/secondary)	82(64.60)	37(57.81)	45(70.31)	
Higher (high school/above)	46(87.50)	27(42.19)	19(29.69)	
Employment status, n (%)				0.34
Employed	41(32.03)	18(28.12)	23(35.94)	
Unemployed & retired	87(67.97)	46(71.88)	41(64.06)	
Dependency status, n (%)				**< 0.001**
Self-care	83(64.84)	54(84.38)	29(45.31)	
Assisted	45(35.16)	10(15.62)	35(54.69)	
Dialysis				
Dialysis vintage (year), mean (SD)	4.10(3.34)	4.09(3.33)	4.11(3.38)	0.98
Kt/V, mean (SD)	1.80(0.57)	1.76(0.55)	1.84(0.59)	0.46
Clinical				
CCI, mean (SD)	2.55(1.00)	2.55(1.01)	2.55(0.99)	1.00
BMI (kg/m^2), mean (SD)	22.82(3.29)	22.67(3.33)	22.97(3.27)	0.60
Albumin (g/L), mean (SD)	36.99(4.13)	37.6(3.16)	36.39(4.86)	0.10
Hemoglobin (g/L), mean (SD)	10.69(1.81)	10.91(1.88)	10.47(1.73)	0.17

2**Notes.**

3Values in bold indicate *P*<0.05.

4CAPD, continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis; APD automated peritoneal dialysis; CCI, Charlson Comorbidity
5Index; BMI, body mass index.

6Residual diuresis and daily ultrafiltration were not reported in the table because they were not significantly different
7between two groups.

HRQOL scores in different group

1 **Table 2   HRQOL scores in different group**

	2019				2020			
	CAPD (n=64)	APD (n=64)	t	p value	CAPD (n=64)	APD (n=64)	t	p value
PCS	39.02±8.77	40.37±8.26	-0.90	0.37	39.21±8.70	51.92±7.50	-8.85	**<0.001**
MCS	45.50±9.38	46.57±8.23	-0.69	0.49	51.80±7.59	53.97±7.33	-1.65	0.10
KDCS	51.35±15.54	50.43±13.05	0.36	0.72	62.83±9.85	81.21±8.41	-11.34	**<0.001**
Symptoms	76.20±16.47	73.11±12.86	1.18	0.24	86.17±11.36	90.76±6.30	-2.83	**0.01**
Effects	56.74±19.02	55.32±14.89	0.47	0.64	61.91±10.55	82.86±11.42	-10.78	**<0.001**
Burden	21.09±19.81	22.85±18.94	-0.51	0.61	40.43±16.55	69.04±15.69	-10.04	**<0.001**

2 **Notes.**

3 Values in bold indicate $P<0.05$.

4 CAPD, continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis; APD, automated peritoneal dialysis; PCS, physical component

5 summary; MCS, mental component summary; KDCS, kidney disease component summary.

Univariate linear regression analysis of the change of HRQOL scores

1 **Table 3   Univariate linear regression analysis of the change of HRQOL scores**

Variable (reference group)	ΔPCS	ΔMCS	ΔKDCS	ΔSymptoms	ΔEffects	ΔBurden
PD modality (continue with CAPD)						
convert to APD	**11.35**	1.20	**19.29**	**7.68**	**22.37**	**26.86**
p value	**<0.001**	0.57	**<0.001**	**0.01**	**<0.001**	**<0.001**
Age (≤60 years)						
>60	0.98	**4.64**	-2.02	3.25	-0.30	-8.38
p value	0.70	**0.04**	0.58	0.34	0.95	0.13
Gender (male)						
Female	-1.65	-0.83	-2.65	1.73	-4.12	-6.56
p value	0.45	0.67	0.40	0.55	0.30	0.16
Marital status (with spouse)						
Without spouse	0.93	-4.55	-3.45	-7.44	-2.96	-0.50
p value	0.78	0.11	0.47	0.09	0.62	0.94
Education level (lower)						
Higher	-4.97	**-5.84**	**-7.08**	**-6.70**	-4.43	**-9.36**
p value	0.03	**<0.001**	**<0.001**	**0.03**	0.28	**0.05**
Employment status (employed)						
Unemployed	-0.10	-3.66	1.13	-5.06	0.38	8.76
p value	0.97	0.07	0.74	0.10	0.93	0.08
Dependency status (self-care)						
Assisted	3.75	1.48	**12.63**	**11.34**	**13.75**	**13.52**
p value	0.10	0.46	**<0.001**	**<0.001**	**<0.001**	**0.01**
Dialysis vintage (<4 years)						
≥4	3.23	0.74	3.99	2.26	4.31	4.41
p value	0.13	0.70	0.20	0.44	0.28	0.35
Kt/V (≤1.7)						
>1.7	-2.26	1.04	1.91	-0.22	5.47	1.54
p value	0.30	0.59	0.55	0.94	0.17	0.74
CCI (≤2)						
>2	-0.41	**4.54**	6.39	**10.61**	6.44	2.84
p value	0.86	**0.02**	0.06	**0.001**	0.13	0.57
BMI (≤25 kg/m²)						
>25	2.76	-1.42	-0.50	3.29	-1.65	-2.51
p value	0.29	0.54	0.90	0.35	0.73	0.66
Albumin (<37 g/L)						
≥37	-1.78	-3.04	**-8.72**	**-8.20**	**-11.99**	-6.83
p value	0.41	0.11	**0.01**	**0.01**	**0.01**	0.15
Hemoglobin (<11 g/L)						
≥11	-2.94	**3.61**	-1.31	-1.82	-2.58	-0.66
p value	0.18	**0.01**	0.70	0.53	0.52	0.89

2   **Notes.**

3   Values in bold indicate *P*<0.05

4   CAPD, continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis; APD automated peritoneal dialysis; CCI, Charlson Comorbidity

5   Index; BMI, body mass index; PCS, physical component summary; MCS, mental component summary; KDCS,

6   kidney disease component summary.

7   Residual diuresis and daily ultrafiltration were not reported in the table because they were not correlated in

8   univariate analysis with the HRQOL scores.

Multiple linear regression analysis of the change of HRQOL scores

1 **Table 4   Multiple linear regression analysis of the change of HRQOL scores**

Variable	Reference	ΔPCS β (95% CI)	p	ΔMCS β (95% CI)	p	ΔKDCS β (95% CI)	p	ΔSymptoms β (95% CI)	p	ΔEffects β (95% CI)	p	ΔBurden β (95% CI)	p
PD modality	continue with CAPD	**11.54** (7.26,15.82)	**0.00**	1.05 (-2.96,5.06)	0.60	**15.95** (10.19,21.7)	**0.00**	4.51 (-1.47,10.49)	0.14	**19.23** (11.57,26.88)	**0.00**	**22.40** (13.46,31.34)	**0.00**
Age	≤60 years	0.09 (-4.93,5.1)	0.97	2.31 (-2.39,7.01)	0.33	**-7.36** (-14.11,-0.61)	**0.03**	-3.4 (-10.41,3.61)	0.34	-5.98 (-14.95,2.99)	0.19	**-12.12** (-22.59,-1.65)	**0.03**
Gender	male	-1.84 (-5.89,2.21)	0.37	-1.79 (-5.58,2.01)	0.35	-2.87 (-8.32,2.58)	0.30	0.77 (-4.89,6.44)	0.78	-4.41 (-11.66,2.84)	0.23	-5.96 (-14.43,2.5)	0.17
Marital status	with spouse	1.59 (-4.44,7.62)	0.60	-4.71 (-10.36,0.94)	0.10	-1.79 (-9.9,6.33)	0.66	-5.49 (-13.91,2.94)	0.20	-2.1 (-12.89,8.69)	0.70	1.6 (-10.99,14.19)	0.80
Education level	lower	-3.79 (-8.3,0.71)	0.10	**-5.96** (-10.18,-1.74)	**0.00**	-5.31 (-11.37,0.75)	0.09	-4.53 (-10.83,1.77)	0.16	-0.7 (-8.76,7.35)	0.86	**-10.38** (-19.79,-0.98)	**0.03**
Employment status	employed	-0.01 (-4.77,4.74)	0.10	-1.02 (-5.47,3.43)	0.65	0.56 (-5.83,6.96)	0.86	-2.09 (-8.73,4.56)	0.54	-2.47 (-10.98,6.03)	0.57	7.11 (-2.82,17.03)	0.16
Dependency status	self-care	-1.21 (-6.4,3.97)	0.64	-3.2 (-8.06,1.66)	0.19	4.25 (-2.73,11.23)	0.23	4.51 (-2.75,11.76)	0.22	3.3 (-5.98,12.58)	0.48	5.63 (-5.2,16.47)	0.31
Dialysis vintage	<4 years	2.51 (-1.54,6.56)	0.22	0.9 (-2.89,4.7)	0.64	4.83 (-0.63,10.28)	0.08	2.95 (-2.72,8.61)	0.31	5.47 (-1.78,12.72)	0.14	5.3 (-3.16,13.76)	0.22
Kt/V	≤1.7	-2.68 (-6.84,1.48)	0.20	2.43 (-1.46,6.33)	0.22	1.04 (-4.55,6.64)	0.71	1.11 (-4.7,6.93)	0.71	4.79 (-2.65,12.24)	0.21	-1.29 (-9.98,7.4)	0.77
CCI	≤2	2.33 (-2.46,7.11)	0.85	**5.39** (1.05,9.73)	**0.02**	4.41 (-1.83,10.65)	0.16	**7.96** (1.49,14.44)	**0.02**	3.28 (-5.01,11.57)	0.44	2.25 (-7.43,11.92)	0.65
BMI	≤25 kg/m²	0.85 (-3.62,5.32)	0.34	-1.03 (-5.51,3.46)	0.65	0.38 (-6.06,6.82)	0.90	2.84 (-3.85,9.53)	0.40	-0.25 (-8.82,8.31)	0.95	-0.55 (-10.55,9.44)	0.91
Albumin	<37 g/L	-1.89 (-5.93,2.15)	0.70	-1.08 (-5.27,3.11)	0.61	-4.36 (-10.38,1.66)	0.15	-3.46 (-9.71,2.79)	0.28	-7.23 (-15.23,0.77)	0.08	-3.04 (-12.38,6.29)	0.52

| Hemoglobin | <11 g/L | 11.54 | 0.36 | 3.65 | 0.06 | 2.06 | 0.45 | 0.63 | 0.83 | 1.09 | 0.77 | 3.28 | 0.44 |
| | | (7.26,15.82) | | (-0.13,7.44) | | (-3.38,7.5) | | (-5.02,6.28) | | (-6.13,8.32) | | (-5.15,11.72) | |

2 **Notes.**

3 Values in bold indicate *P*<0.05.

4 CAPD, continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis; APD automated peritoneal dialysis; CCI, Charlson Comorbidity Index; BMI, body mass index; PCS, physical

5 component summary; MCS, mental component summary; KDCS, kidney disease component summary.