Made available by Hasselt University Library in https://documentserver.uhasselt.be

Duration of Treatment With Glucocorticoids in Giant Cell Arteritis A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis Peer-reviewed author version

Moreel, L; Betrains, A; MOLENBERGHS, Geert; Blockmans, D & Vanderschueren, S (2023) Duration of Treatment With Glucocorticoids in Giant Cell Arteritis A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. In: JCR-JOURNAL OF CLINICAL RHEUMATOLOGY, 29 (6), p. 291 -297.

DOI: 10.1097/RHU.0000000000001897 Handle: http://hdl.handle.net/1942/43157

1 Abstract

2 The aim of this meta-analysis was to estimate the mean duration of glucocorticoid (GC) 3 treatment in patients with giant cell arteritis (GCA). PubMed, Embase and Cochrane databases 4 were searched from inception till November, 30 2021. The outcome measures were the proportion of patients on GC at year 1, 2, and 5 after diagnosis and the mean GC dose (in the 5 6 entire cohort and expressed in prednisone equivalents) at these time points. Twenty two 7 studies involving a total of 1786 patients were included. The pooled proportions of patients 8 taking GC at year 1, 2 and 5 were 89.7% [95% CI 83.2 – 93.9%], 75.2% [95% CI 58.7 – 86.6%] and 44.3% [95% CI 15.2 – 77.6%], respectively. The pooled GC dose at year 1 and 2 was 9.1 9 mg/d [95% CI 2.8 - 15.5 mg/d] and 7.8 mg/d [95% CI 1.4 - 14.1 mg/d], respectively. The 10 11 proportion of patients taking GC at year 1 was lower in multicenter studies (p = 0.003), in 12 randomized controlled trials (p = 0.01) and in studies using a GC tapering schedule (p = 0.01). There were no significant differences in the proportion of patients taking GC at year 1 and 2 13 according to study design (retrospective vs prospective), initial GC dose, use of pulse GC, 14 15 publication year, enrolment period, duration of follow-up, age and sex. This meta-analysis 16 showed that GCA is a chronic disease that requires substantial and prolonged GC treatment in a considerable proportion of patients. A predefined GC tapering schedule may help to avoid 17 18 inadequately long GC treatment.

20 Introduction

21 Giant cell arteritis (GCA) is a large vessel vasculitis that preferentially affects the cranial 22 arteries, the aorta, and its proximal branches and is commonly associated with raised 23 inflammatory markers.^{1–3} The incidence of GCA increases with age and is estimated at 20 per 100 000 in persons over 50 years old.³ GCA represents a heterogeneous group of patients 24 25 with distinct presentations according to the pattern of vessel involvement (cranial versus large 26 vessel vasculitis or combined). Manifestations of GCA may include 1) constitutional symptoms 27 (such as fever, weight loss, anorexia, and malaise) due to systemic inflammation, 2) symptoms 28 due to vasculitis (such as temporal headache, jaw or limb claudication or visual loss), and/or 3) polymyalgia rheumatica (PMR).^{4,5} 29

30

31 Glucocorticoids (GC) remain the cornerstone of the treatment. High dose GC (40-60 mg prednisone/day according to the EULAR guideline⁶ and 1 mg/kg prednisone/day with a 32 33 maximum of 80 mg according to the ACR guideline⁷ - if no visual symptoms) followed by a 34 tapering scheme is recommended. GC therapy usually results in a rapid resolution of symptoms and inflammation and prevents further ischemic complications.³ However, almost 35 half of the patients experience disease relapse, prolonging the required GC treatment.⁸ Long-36 37 term treatment increases the risk of GC-related adverse effects, including osteoporosis, hypertension, hyperglycemia, myopathy, easy bruising, cushingoid features and cataract.9,10 38 39 High-quality evidence on the optimal duration of GC treatment is lacking. Guidelines prefer an 40 individualized tapering regimen based on the disease activity, adverse events, relapses, and patient's and physician's preferences.^{6,7} Tapering to 5 mg prednisone/day after 12 months and 41 weaning of GC within 18 to 24 months is recommended.^{6,11,12} It is generally assumed that GC 42 43 treatment in GCA takes about 2-3 years and that only a minority of patients requires long-term treatment with low GC doses.^{3,13,14} However, the mean duration of GC treatment in real-life 44 45 practice is not well known.

The aim of this systematic review and meta-analysis is to gain insight into the duration of GCtreatment in patients with GCA.

49

50 Materials and methods

51 This systematic review was informed by the Cochrane Collaboration Handbook and was 52 conducted in accordance with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and 53 Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statements.^{15,16} This study was registered in advance in 54 PROSPERO database (CRD42022302782).

55

56 Search strategy

57 We performed a systematic literature search in PubMed, Embase, and Cochrane database 58 from inception till November 2021. We used keywords for GCA and GC, using both free text 59 and MeSH and Emtree terms. Full search terms are described in Supplementary Table 1. The 60 search was limited to articles published in English, French or Dutch. The references of relevant 61 articles were screened to identify additional studies.

62

63 Study selection

We included studies fulfilling the following criteria: (1) randomized controlled trials (RCT) or observational studies, (2) only involving patients with GCA (3) treated with GC alone (entire study or control arm of trials testing GC-sparing agents) (4) reporting on the duration of GC treatment. Studies with several treatment options were only included if results for the different treatment groups were presented separately or if at least 90% of patients were treated with GC in monotherapy. When several publications were based on a single cohort or database, the most extensive and recent study was selected.

Title and abstract screening were performed by a single investigator (LM). Afterwards, the full
text of the obtained studies was screened by two investigators (LM and AB). Disagreements
were resolved through discussion until consensus was reached.

75 Data extraction

76 Relevant data were extracted by two independent investigators (LM and AB) into a 77 standardized electronic form in Excel. Following data were extracted: first author's name, 78 publication year, enrolment period, country, study design (RCT or observational study, 79 retrospective or prospective, single or multicenter), criteria for diagnosis of GCA, number of 80 patients who received only GC therapy, overall duration of follow-up (in months), mean age, 81 proportion of women, proportion of patients with relapse, initial GC dose, number of patients 82 with GC pulse, presence of GC tapering schedule, proportion of patients on GC 1, 2 and 5 83 years after treatment initiation and mean GC dose 1, 2 and 5 years after treatment initiation (in 84 the entire cohort, also including patients who have already stopped GC and expressed in 85 prednisone equivalents, being 0 mg in patients off GC). Missing summary statistics for means were calculated based on the methods proposed by Wan et al¹⁷ (2/22 studies for age and 2/7 86 87 studies for mean GC dose).

88

Risk of bias was assessed by two independent investigators (LM and AB). Disagreements
were solved by discussion to reach a consensus. The 'Cochrane Collaboration risk of bias tool
version 2' and an adapted version of the 'Newcastle-Ottawa scale' (Supplementary Table 2)
were used for RCTs and observational studies, respectively.^{18,19}

93

94 Statistical analysis

A meta-analysis was performed to estimate the proportion of patients on GC and the mean GC
doses 1, 2, and 5 years after treatment initiation. Meta-analysis was only performed when a
minimum of 3 studies were available.

We used logit transformed proportions to stabilize the variance. As we expected high betweenstudy heterogeneity, a random-effects model was implemented with an inverse variance method to weigh each study. The 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) were adjusted with the Hartung-Knapp method. Tau was calculated using the restricted maximum likelihood method. Heterogeneity was measured by the l² and Cochrane's Q statistic. If a minimum of 10 studies 103 were available, subgroup analyses and univariable meta-regression were performed to assess 104 variables that could explain heterogeneity. A sensitivity analysis was performed excluding 105 studies with a high risk of bias. To assess small-study effects (which could indicate publication 106 bias), funnel plots in combination with the Egger's regression test were used, although these 107 results should be interpreted with caution as we aimed to estimate a pooled proportion and 108 mean of one group of patients rather than a comparison of interventions.²⁰ Small-study effects 109 were only assessed for outcomes reported in \geq 10 studies. A P value less than 0.05 was 110 considered statistically significant. All analyses were performed using R Statistical Software 111 (v2021.11.1) with the *meta* package. The risk of bias figures were constructed using RevMan 112 5.4 Software.

113

114 Results

115 Our PubMed, Embase and Cochrane database searches identified 8982 articles, resulting in 116 6740 articles after removal of duplicates (Figure 1). Title and abstract screening yielded 252 117 articles eligible for full text analysis, of which 22 studies were included involving a total of 1786 patients.²¹⁻⁴² Several studies assessed multiple outcome measures. The characteristics of the 118 119 included studies are presented in Supplementary Table 3. Most studies were observational (19 studies, n = 1616), 21-25,27-32,34,36-42 retrospective (14 studies, n = 1296), 21-25,28,29,31,32,34,36-38,40120 and single-center (16 studies, n = 1215). $^{21,23-25,27,29-31,34-43}$ The follow-up ranged from 12 to 114 121 122 months.

123

A summary of the quality assessment for specific bias domains of the included studies is presented in Figure 2. Overall, 33.3% of the RCTs had some concern of bias and 66.7% were at high risk of bias; 73.7% of the observational studies were at low risk of bias and 26.3% at high risk of bias. Supplementary Figure S1 shows the risk of bias analysis for the individual studies.

130 The proportion of patients taking GC 1, 2 and 5 years after treatment initiation were reported in 15 (n = 1290)^{21,22,24,25,27,29,31-33,35,36,38,40-42}, 14 (n = 1184)^{21,22,24,25,27,29-31,34,36,38,40-42} and 9 (n = 131 943)^{21,22,24,25,29,31,38,39,42} studies, respectively. The pooled proportion of patients with GC was 132 133 89.7% [95% CI 83.2 – 93.9%] at year 1, 75.2% [95% CI 58.7 – 86.6%] at year 2 and 44.3% 134 [95% CI 15.2 – 77.6%] at year 5 (Figure 3). The heterogeneity between studies was high. 135 Subgroup analysis and meta-regression were performed to explore between-study 136 heterogeneity in the proportion of patients still taking GC 1 and 2 years after diagnosis 137 (Supplementary Tables 4 - 7). The proportion of patients taking GC was significantly higher in 138 single-center studies compared to multicenter studies at year 1 (92.1% [95% CI 85.3 – 95.9%] 139 versus 81.7% [95% CI 77.4 – 85.4%], p = 0.003) and at year 2 (76.7% [95% CI 59.5 – 88.1%] 140 versus 55.4% [95% CI 49.1 – 61.5%], p = 0.01). Studies that reported the use of a GC tapering 141 schedule had a significantly lower proportion of patients still treated with GC at year 1 (82.2% 142 [95% CI 72.2 – 89.1%] versus 92.9% [95% CI 85.3 – 96.7%], p = 0.01), but not at year 2 (57.5% 143 [95% CI 12.3 – 92.9%] versus 80.8% [95% CI 65.0 – 90.5%], p = 0.16). A significantly higher 144 proportion of patients were still taking GC 1 year after diagnosis in observational studies 145 compared to RCTs (90.3% [95% CI 83.1 - 94.7%] versus 81.7% [95% CI 77.4 - 85.4%], p = 146 0.01). There were no significant differences in GC use after 1 and 2 years according to study 147 design (retrospective vs prospective), initial GC dose, proportion of patients with pulse GC, 148 publication year, enrolment period, duration of follow-up, age and sex. The number of studies 149 reporting relapse rate was inadequate to perform meta-regression. A sensitivity analysis 150 excluding the studies with high risk of bias showed similar results in the proportion of patients 151 taking GC at year 1 (88.1% [95% CI 78.1 – 93.9%]) and at year 2 (68.2% [95% CI 48.5 – 152 83.0%]). The proportion of patients still treated with GC at year 5 was significantly lower in 153 studies with a low risk of bias compared to studies with a high risk of bias (22.0% [95% CI 4.1 154 - 64.9%] versus 77.7% [95% CI 33.4 - 96.3%], p = 0.006).

155

The mean GC doses at year 1, 2 and 5 were available in 5 (n= 257) studies^{23,27,28,39,43}, 4 (n = 302) studies^{27,34,37,39} and 1 (n = 24) study³⁹, respectively. The pooled mean GC dose in the

entire group of patients, also including those who have already stopped GC, was 9.1 mg/d [95% Cl 2.8 – 15.5 mg/d] at year 1 and 7.8 mg/d [95% Cl 1.4 – 14.1 mg/d] at year 2 after diagnosis, respectively (Figure 4 and 5). As only 1 study reported the GC dose at year 5, metaanalysis was not performed. In the study of Friedman et al. the mean GC dose at 5 years was 5.0 mg/d [95% Cl 4.5 – 5.6 mg/d].³⁹ Because of the low number of studies, we did not perform a sensitivity analysis excluding studies with a high risk of bias and subgroup analyses and meta-regression for the mean GC dose.

165

The asymmetric funnel plot and significant Egger's test (p = 0.02) suggested a potential publication bias for the proportion of patients taking GC at year 1 (Supplementary Figure 2A). Trim-and-fill results showed that 4 additional studies would be required to achieve a symmetric funnel plot, resulting in a pooled proportion of 86.2% [95% CI 75.6 – 92.7%]. Visual inspection of the funnel plot and the Egger's test (p = 0.12) did not indicate publication bias for the proportion of patients taking GC at year 2 (Supplementary Figure 2B).

172

173 Discussion

While GC have been the mainstay of treatment for GCA for decades and they remain so today, the mean duration of GC treatment in real-life practice remained poorly defined. This metaanalysis showed that 89.7%, 75.2% and 44.3% of GCA patients were still treated with GC at year 1, 2 and 5 after diagnosis, respectively. In addition, patients were still receiving a considerable mean GC dose, 9.1 mg/d, 7.8 mg/d and 5.0 mg/d 1, 2 and 5 years after treatment initiation, respectively.

180

GCA and PMR are often seen as different manifestations of the same disease spectrum ². They may be found as isolated phenomena or in combination. In both diseases, GC are the cornerstone of the treatment with a slow tapering schedule to prevent relapses, however, with a higher initial GC dose in GCA compared to PMR. This meta-analysis revealed that the proportion of GCA patients still taking GC is 13 to 24% higher at each time point compared to
the GC duration of PMR patients reported in the meta-analysis of Floris et al.⁴⁴

187

188 Several guidelines discuss some aspects of the duration of GC treatment in patients with GCA. 189 The 2018 EULAR guideline for the management of GCA recommended tapering to ≤ 5 mg 190 prednisone/day 1 year after treatment initiation and stated that in the majority of patients the 191 treatment lasts approximately 2 years before GC discontinuation.⁶ Both the EULAR and ACR 192 guideline did not specify recommendations for the optimal GC treatment duration due to the lack of evidence.^{6,7} The British Society of Rheumatology recommended a GC duration of 12 to 193 194 18 months.¹¹ The French Study Group for Large Vessel Vasculitis (GEFA) recommended 195 tapering to 5 mg prednisone/day after 12 months and weaning of GC within 18 to 24 months.¹² 196 In addition, several reviews mentioned that GC treatment in GCA generally takes about 2-3 197 years and that only a minor proportion of patients requires treatment with low doses of glucocorticoids for multiple years.^{3,13,14} However, this meta-analysis showed that only 1 out of 198 199 4 patients discontinued GC at year 2. Moreover, even after 5 years, 44% of GCA patients are 200 still on GC. In addition, we found that the mean GC dose 1 year after treatment initiation is 201 significantly higher than the recommended dose of ≤ 5 mg prednisone/day proposed by the 202 EULAR and GEFA guidelines. In fact, this dose seemed to be reached only at year 5.

203

In line with our expectations, subgroup analysis revealed a shorter GC duration in RCTs and in studies with a GC tapering schedule. The use of a predefined GC schedule appears to be important to avoid unnecessary long GC treatment. This may reflect the reluctance of clinicians to discontinue GC at an appropriate time, possibly due to concerns of microvascular and macrovascular complications and relapses.

209 Mainbourg et al. performed a meta-analysis assessing the relapse rate in patients with GCA 210 and found that a shorter GC tapering schedule was associated with an increased risk of 211 relapse.⁸ In case of relapse, GC are typically increased in dose or reinitiated and subsequently 212 tapered at a slower pace, prolonging the total duration of GC treatment. Unfortunately, the number of studies reporting relapse rate was inadequate to perform meta-regression. Thus,
an optimal GC treatment duration, which seeks a balance between the lowest possible relapse
risk on one hand and the shortest GC duration with the lowest cumulative GC dose on the
other hand, remains to be defined in future studies.

217

218 Chandran et al. compared GC usage between the time periods 1950–1979 and 1980–2009 219 and observed a higher cumulative GC dosage and a higher proportion of patients still taking 220 GC at year 1, 2 and 5 after diagnosis in the second period.²² However, in this meta-analysis 221 we did not find a significant association between the proportion of patients with GC at year 1 222 and 2 and both publication year and enrolment period.

223

Furthermore, the proportion of patients with GC at year 1 and 2 after treatment initiation was significantly lower in multicenter studies. However, this difference in GC duration between single-center and multicenter studies was not explained by the use of a GC tapering schedule. It also could not be explained by any other study, patient or treatment characteristics that were included in this study.

229

230 This meta-analysis showed that GCA is a relapsing-remitting disease that requires treatment 231 with considerable doses of GC for years and evolves into a chronic condition in the majority of 232 patients. As the adverse effects of GC are very common, increase with a longer GC duration and higher cumulative dose and are harmful,¹⁰ GC-sparing and ideally disease modifying 233 234 agents continue to be a major need for patients with GCA. Tocilizumab has been the first biological introduced and reimbursed for the treatment of GCA.⁴⁵ For methotrexate and 235 abatacept, there are inconsistent results.^{3,46} Recently, two small trials showed promising 236 237 results with the anti-GM-CSF monoclonal antibody mavrilimumab and the JAK inhibitor baricitinib, but these results need to be confirmed in larger trials.^{47,48} Trials with several other 238 239 promising targeted drugs are ongoing.

241 Our meta-analysis has several limitations. First, all outcome measures had high between-study 242 heterogeneity, which was only partially explained with prespecified subgroup analyses. These 243 results reflect the significant variability in GCA treatment strategies, which potentially result 244 from a lack of clear, evidence-based guidelines on the duration and tapering of GC treatment. 245 Second, many studies had an observational design, which results in a meta-analysis with a 246 lower grade of evidence, compared to a meta-analysis only consisting of RCTs. Third, the 247 proportion of patients with GC at year 5 after treatment initiation can be overestimated since 248 not all patients were followed up long enough and since patients who are not treated anymore 249 with GC have a higher change to be lost to follow up. In addition, we realize that a considerable 250 number of hypothesis tests have been conducted. Therefore, interpretation should be done 251 with caution, especially for p-values that approach the cutoff value of p = 0.05. Finally, many 252 different outcome measures are used in literature to evaluate the duration of GC treatment in 253 GCA patients, decreasing the number of studies per outcome measure in this meta-analysis. 254 The limited number of studies hampered the power of subgroup analyses and meta-regression 255 to detect significant interactions and decreased the confidence in the mean GC dose 256 estimates. As a consequence, we also included studies with high risk of bias. Sensitivity 257 analyses, however, did not show a significant difference after exclusion of studies with a high 258 risk of bias, except for the proportion of patients with GC at year 5 after treatment initiation.

259

In conclusion, the majority of GCA patients are treated with high doses of GC for multiple years. GCA patients receive considerable longer courses and higher doses of GC than recommended by current practice guidelines, which results in a higher cumulative GC dose and an increased risk of GC-related side effects. Early introduction of GC sparing agents in addition to the development of an optimal GC tapering schedule which seeks a balance between the lowest relapse risk and the shortest GC duration, will be crucial to avoid unnecessary long GC treatment.

267

269	Note
270	The study protocol and data extracted from the included studies are available upon
271	reasonable request.
272	
273	Keywords: Giant cell arteritis – treatment – glucocorticoids
274	
275	Supplemental digital content: MA GCA GC supplemental final JCR revision.doc
276	
277	

278 **References**

Jennette JC, Falk RJ, Bacon PA, et al. 2012 Revised International Chapel Hill
 consensus conference nomenclature of vasculitides. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2013;65:1-11.

Buttgereit F, Dejaco C, Matteson EL, Dasgupta B. Polymyalgia rheumatica and giant
 cell arteritis: a systematic review. *JAMA*. 2016;315:2442-2458.

- Salvarani C, Cantini F, Hunder GG. Polymyalgia rheumatica and giant-cell arteritis.
 Lancet. 2008;372:234-245.
- Kale N, Eggenberger E. Diagnosis and management of giant cell arteritis: a review.
 Curr Opin Ophthalmol. 2010;21:417-422.
- 5. Salvarani C, Pipitone N, Versari A, Hunder GG. Clinical features of polymyalgia
 rheumatica and giant cell arteritis. *Nat Rev Rheumatol*. 2012;8:509-521.
- Hellmich B, Agueda A, Monti S, et al. 2018 Update of the EULAR recommendations
 for the management of large vessel vasculitis. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2020;79:19-130.
- 7. Maz M, Chung SA, Abril A, et al. 2021 American College of Rheumatology/Vasculitis
 Foundation Guideline for the Management of Giant Cell Arteritis and Takayasu

293 Arteritis. *Arthritis Care Res*. 2021;73:1071-1087.

- 8. Mainbourg S, Addario A, Samson M, et al. Prevalence of Giant Cell Arteritis Relapse
- in Patients Treated With Glucocorticoids: A Meta-Analysis. *Arthritis Care Res*(*Hoboken*). 2020;72:838-849.
- 297 9. McDonough AK, Curtis JR, Saag KG. The epidemiology of glucocorticoid-associated
 298 adverse events. *Curr Opin Rheumatol.* 2008;20:131-137.
- 299 10. Castan P, Dumont A, Deshayes S, et al. Impact of Glucocorticoid Cumulative Doses in
- a Real-Life Cohort of Patients Affected by Giant Cell Arteritis. *J Clin Med*. 2022;11.
- MacKie SL, Dejaco C, Appenzeller S, et al. British Society for Rheumatology guideline
 on diagnosis and treatment of giant cell arteritis. *Rheumatol (United Kingdom)*.
- 303 2020;59:E1-E23.
- 304 12. Bienvenu B, Ly KH, Lambert M, et al. Management of giant cell arteritis:
- 305 Recommendations of the French Study Group for Large Vessel Vasculitis (GEFA). La

306

Rev Med interne. 2016;37:154-165.

307 13. Hoffman GS. Giant Cell Arteritis. *Ann Intern Med*. 2016;165:ITC65-ITC80.

Matteson EL, Buttgereit F, Dejaco C, Dasgupta B. Glucocorticoids for Management of
 Polymyalgia Rheumatica and Giant Cell Arteritis. *Rheum Dis Clin North Am*.

310 2016;42:75-90, viii.

- 311 15. Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, et al. *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic*
- 312 *Reviews of Interventions*. 2nd ed. Chichester (UK): John Wiley & Sons, Ltd; 2019.
- Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG. Preferred reporting items for systematic
 reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2009;62:10061012.
- Wan X, Wang W, Liu J, Tong T. Estimating the sample mean and standard deviation
 from the sample size, median, range and/or interquartile range. *BMC Med Res Methodol*. 2014;14:1-13.
- 319 18. Higgins JPT, Savović J, Page M, Elbers R, Sterne JAC. Chapter 8: Assessing risk of
- bias in a randomized trial. In: Higgins JP, Thomas J, Chandler J, et al., eds. *Cochrane*

321 *Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions*. Version 6. Cochrane; 2022.

- Wells G, Shea B, O'Connell D, et al. The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) for
 assessing the quality of nonrandomised studies in meta-analyses.
- 324 20. Ioannidis JPA, Trikalinos TA. The appropriateness of asymmetry tests for publication
 325 bias in meta-analyses: a large survey. *Can Med Assoc J.* 2007;176:1091-1096.
- 326 21. Beevers DG, Harpur JE, Turk KA. Giant cell arteritis the need for prolonged
 327 treatment. *J Chronic Dis.* 1973;26:571-584.
- 328 22. Chandran A, Udayakumar PD, Kermani TA, Warrington KJ, Crowson CS, Matteson
- 329 EL. Glucocorticoid Usage in Giant Cell Arteritis over Six Decades (1950 to 2009). *Clin* 330 *Exp Rheumatol.* 2015;33:S98-102.
- 331 23. Karabayas M, Dospinescu P, Locherty M, et al. Stratified glucocorticoid monotherapy
- is safe and effective for most cases of giant cell arteritis. *Rheumatol Adv Pract.*
- 333 2020;4:1-5.

Labarca C, Koster MJ, Crowson CS, et al. Predictors of relapse and treatment
outcomes in biopsy-proven giant cell arteritis: A retrospective cohort study. *Rheumatology*. 2016;55:347-356.

337 25. Lundberg I, Hedfors E. Restricted dose and duration of corticosteroid treatment in

338 patients with polymyalgia rheumatica and temporal arteritis. *J Rheumatol*.

339 1990;17:1340-1345.

Mazlumzadeh M, Hunder GG, Easley KA, et al. Treatment of giant cell arteritis using
induction therapy with high-dose glucocorticoids: a double-blind, placebo-controlled,
randomized prospective clinical trial. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2006;54:3310-3318.

343 27. Myklebust G, Gran JT. Prednisolone maintenance dose in relation to starting dose in

344 the treatment of polymyalgia rheumatica and temporal arteritis. A prospective two-345 year study in 273 patients. *Scand J Rheumatol.* 2001;30:260-267.

346 28. Nesher G, Rubinow A, Sonnenblick M. Efficacy and adverse effects of different
347 corticosteroid dose regimens in temporal arteritis: a retrospective study. *Clin Exp*348 *Rheumatol.* 1997;15:303-306.

349 29. Piette AM, Dorra M, Betourne C, et al. Maladie de horton: étude rétrospective de
350 trente-trois cas et revue de la littérature. *Sem des Hop.* 1982;58:2819-2824.

351 30. Rauzy O, Fort M, Nourhashemi F, et al. Relation between HLA DRB1 alleles and
352 corticosteroid resistance in giant cell arteritis. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 1998;57:380-382.

353 31. Restuccia G, Boiardi L, Cavazza A, et al. Flares in Biopsy-Proven Giant Cell Arteritis

in Northern Italy: Characteristics and Predictors in a Long-Term Follow-Up Study.
 Medicine (Baltimore). 2016;95:e3524.

356 32. Tam S, Wong TC. Temporal arteritis in hong kong. *Int J Rheum Dis*. 2008;11:163-169.

357 33. Chevalet P, Barrier JH, Pottier P, et al. A randomized, multicenter, controlled trial

358 using intravenous pulses of methylprednisolone in the initial treatment of simple forms

of giant cell arteritis: A one year followup study of 164 patients. *J Rheumatol*.

360 2000;27:1484-1491.

361 34. ter Borg EJ, Haanen HCM, Seldenrijk CA. Relationship between histological subtypes

- and clinical characteristics at presentation and outcome in biopsy-proven temporal
 arteritis. *Clin Rheumatol*. 2007;26:529-532.
- 364 35. Villiger PM, Adler S, Kuchen S, et al. Tocilizumab for induction and maintenance of
 365 remission in giant cell arteritis: a phase 2, randomised, double-blind, placebo366 controlled trial. *Lancet (London, England)*. 2016;387:1921-1927.
- 367 36. Chmelewski WL, McKnight KM, Agudelo CA, Wise CM. Presenting features and
- 368 outcomes in patients undergoing temporal artery biopsy. A review of 98 patients. *Arch*369 *Intern Med.* 1992;152:1690-1695.
- 370 37. Craig G, Knapp K, Salim B, Mohan S V., Michalska M. Treatment Patterns, Disease
- 371 Burden, and Outcomes in Patients with Giant Cell Arteritis and Polymyalgia
- 372 Rheumatica: A Real-World, Electronic Health Record-Based Study of Patients in
- 373 Clinical Practice. *Rheumatol Ther.* 2021;8:529-539.
- 374 38. Espitia O, Néel A, Leux C, et al. Giant cell arteritis with or without aortitis at diagnosis.
- 375 A retrospective study of 22 patients with longterm followup. *J Rheumatol*.
- 376 2012;39:2157-2162.
- 377 39. Friedman G, Friedman B. Prolonged Corticosteroid Treatment in the Management of
 378 Temporal Arteritis. *Klin Wochenschr*. 1988;66:1167-1170.
- Gallois P, Falconnet M, Dhers A, Plauchu G, Cavallaro J, Cognet JB. Aspects
 cliniques de la maladie de horton en medicine interne: a propos de 56 observations
 personelles. *Lyon Med.* 1979;241:837-842.
- García-Martínez A, Hernández-Rodríguez J, Arguis P, et al. Development of aortic
 aneurysm/dilatation during the followup of patients with giant cell arteritis: A cross sectional screening of fifty-four prospectively followed patients. *Arthritis Care Res.*
- 385 2008;59:422-430.
- Hayreh SS, Zimmerman B. Management of giant cell arteritis. Our 27-year clinical
 study: new light on old controversies. *Ophthalmologica*. 2003;217:239-259.
- Mazlumzadeh M, Hunder GG, Easley KA, et al. Treatment of giant cell arteritis using
 induction therapy with high-dose glucocorticoids: A double-blind, placebo-controlled,

- 390 randomized prospective clinical trial. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2006;54:3310-3318.
- 44. Floris A, Piga M, Chessa E, et al. Long-term glucocorticoid treatment and high relapse
 rate remain unresolved issues in the real-life management of polymyalgia rheumatica:
- a systematic literature review and meta-analysis. *Clin Rheumatol*. 2022;41:19-31.
- 394 45. Stone JH, Tuckwell K, Dimonaco S, et al. Trial of Tocilizumab in Giant-Cell Arteritis. *N*395 *Engl J Med*. 2017;377:317-328.
- 396 46. Chami S El, Springer JM. Update on the Treatment of Giant Cell Arteritis and
 397 Polymyalgia Rheumatica. *Med Clin North Am*. 2021;105:311-324.
- 398 47. Cid MC, Unizony SH, Blockmans D, et al. Efficacy and safety of mavrilimumab in giant
 399 cell arteritis: a phase 2, randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Ann Rheum*400 *Dis*. 2022:annrheumdis-2021-221865.
- 401 48. Koster MJ, Crowson CS, Giblon RE, et al. Baricitinib for relapsing giant cell arteritis: a
 402 prospective open-label 52-week pilot study. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2022:annrheumdis-2021403 221961.
- 404
- 405
- 406

407	Figure legends
408	Figure 1: PRISMA flow chart of study selection from literature search
409	Abbreviations: GCA, giant cell arteritis; PMR, polymyalgia rheumatica
410	
411	Figure 2: Risk of bias summary for the included studies. A. Randomized controlled trials B.
412	Observational studies. 📕 Low risk of bias 📃 Some concern of bias 📕 High risk of bias
413	
414	Figure 3: Forest plot of pooled mean proportion of patients with glucocorticoids 1, 2 and 5
415	years after treatment initiation.
416	Abbreviations: 95%-Cl, 95% Confidence Interval, GC, glucocorticoids
417	
418	Figure 4: Forest plot of pooled mean glucocorticoids dose (in prednisone equivalents) at year
419	1
420	Abbreviations: 95%-Cl, 95% Confidence Interval ; SD, Standard Deviation
421	
422	Figure 5: Forest plot of pooled mean glucocorticoids dose (in prednisone equivalents) at year
423	2
424	Abbreviations: 95%-Cl, 95% Confidence Interval ; SD, Standard Deviation
425	