









CAKUT & UTI

objectives:

- * Recognize the common congenital & developmental abnormality to the urinary system and how to diagnose them
- **❖** Identify infectious and non-infectious causes of urinary complaints.
- List and classify the common pathogens causing urinary tract infections in children.
- Apply basic principles of pharmacology and indications for drugs used in the management of urinary tract infections.

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Special thanks to team 437 & Faisal alsaif

Notes

Important

Book

Congenital Anomalies of the Kidney & Urinary Tract

Overview

- Congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract (CAKUT) constitute approximately 20 to 30% of all anomalies identified in the prenatal period.
- Defects can be bilateral or unilateral, and different defects often coexist in an individual child¹
- The overall rate of CAKUT in live and stillborn infants is 0.3 to 1.6 per 1000.
- The incidence is higher in women with a **family history** of CAKUT.
- Of all antenatal renal anomalies, the most frequent abnormality is hydronephrosis, (ie, upper urinary tract dilatation).
- Renal malformations are associated with non-renal congenital anomalies in about 30 % of cases, Classically preauricular tags (Extrarenal anomaly)
- Congenital anomalies are potentially important because they may:
 - be associated with abnormal renal development or function (chronic kidney disease)
 - predispose to urinary tract infection
 - involve urinary obstruction which requires surgical treatment
 - be associated with non-renal congenital anomalies.

3	al investigations of the kidneys and urinary tract
Radiology	
Ultrasound	Standard imaging procedure of the kidneys and urinary tract. Provides anatomical assessment but not function. Excellent at visualizing urinary tract dilatation, stones, and nephrocalcinosis (small, multiple calcium deposits within renal parenchyma)
	Advantages: non-invasive, mobile
	Disadvantages: operator dependent, may not detect all renal scars
Micturating	Contrast introduced into the bladder through urethral catheter
cystourethrogram (MCUG)	Can visualize bladder and urethral anatomy. Detects vesicoureteric reflux (VUR) and urethral obstruction
	Disadvantages: invasive and unpleasant investigation especially beyond infancy, high radiation dose, and can introduce infection
CT scan kidneys and ureters	To accurately identify position of kidney stones. Intravenous urograms are not performed in children
Plain abdominal X-ray	Identifies unsuspected spinal abnormalities
	May identify renal stones, but poor at showing nephrocalcinosis
Nuclear medicine	
DMSA scan (99mTc	Static scan of the renal cortex
dimercaptosuccinic acid)	Detects functional defects, such as scars or areas of non-functioning renal tissue, but very sensitive, so need to wait at least 2 months after a urinary tract infection to avoid diagnosing false 'scars'
MAG3 renogram (mercapto-acetyl-	Dynamic scan, isotope-labelled substance MAG3 excreted from the blood into the urine. Measures drainage. Best performed with a high urine flow so furosemide often given.
triglycine, labelled with ^{99m} Tc)	In children old enough to cooperate (usually >4 years of age), scan during micturition can be used to identify VUR (indirect cystogram)
Functional test	
Bladder flow	To assess how well bladder is emptying together with flow rates. Bladder abnormalities can
urodynamics	contribute to recurrent UTIs

Renal Agenesis

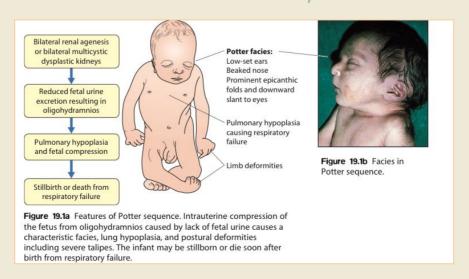
- Renal agenesis is defined as congenital absence of renal parenchymal tissue and results from major disruption of **metanephric development at an early stage.**
- Unilateral RA accounts for 5 percent of renal malformations .
- The incidence of renal agenesis is approximately 1 per 2900 births
- Usually unilateral. Can live normal if the other kidney is normal.
- Multiple factors are thought to be implicated in the pathogenesis of renal agenesis including mutations in genes important in renal development, and teratogenic and environmental agents (eg, retinoic acid and cocaine exposure)
- Other urological abnormalities have been reported in up to 33 to 65 percent of unilateral cases
- Vesicoureteral reflux (VUR) is the most commonly identified urological abnormality
- Nonrenal associated anomalies include cardiac anomalies (most commonly septal anomalies), genital tract, and gastrointestinal, respiratory, and skeletal malformations

Renal Hypoplasia Low number of nephrons

- A **lower number** of structurally **normal nephrons**, is a distinct entity separate from renal dysplasia
- Unknown causes
- Normally there is 1 million nephron in one kidney.
- The clinical diagnosis of renal hypoplasia is suggested when all of the following criteria are met:
 - Reduction of renal size by 2 standard deviations for the mean size by age
 - Exclusion of renal scarring by 99mTc-dimercaptosuccinic acid (DMSA) radionuclide scan.
 - In cases of unilateral renal hypoplasia, compensatory hypertrophy of the contralateral kidney
- Small kidney by US it could be either a scar or hypoplasia, we can not tell

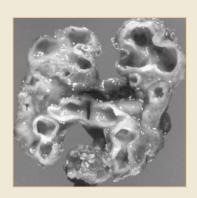
Renal Dysplasia Abnormal nephrons

- Renal dysplasia is characterized by the presence of **malformed kidney tissue** elements
- Dysplastic kidneys are variable in size but most are smaller than normal.
- Size is often determined by the presence or absence of cysts.
- Renal dysplasia may be unilateral or bilateral
- Renal dysplasia may be discovered during routine antenatal screening or postnatally when renal ultrasonography is performed in a dysmorphic infant.
- Bilateral dysplasia is likely to be diagnosed earlier than unilateral dysplasia especially if oligohydramnios is present. (Non functional kidney) These type of patients will have pulmonary hypoplasia and renal dysplasia which will lead to potter syndrome.
- The classical example of renal dysplasia is MCDK (Multicystic dysplastic kidney).
- Many think that MCDK is secondary to renal obstruction
- Infants with bilateral dysplasia may have impaired renal function at birth and subsequent progressive renal failure may occur.
- Associated urological findings include abnormalities of the renal pelvis and calyces (congenital hydronephrosis) and ureters (duplicating collecting system), megaureter, ureteral stenosis, and vesicoureteral reflux (VUR). Investigate the other side and multilevel defects.
- ❖ Because of the frequent association of renal dysplasia with a collecting system anomaly, voiding cystourethrography should be considered in all patients with renal dysplasia.
- The prognosis of renal dysplasia depends on whether there is unilateral versus bilateral disease. In general, the long-term outcome of unilateral renal dysplasia is excellent, particularly if there is a normal contralateral kidney.
- In the past they used to do nephrectomy to the dysplastic kidney because they thought it has a relation to tumor but now they don't do it



Multicystic Dysplasia

- Multicystic dysplastic kidney (MCDK) is a nonfunctioning dysplastic kidney with multiple cysts, which is thought to arise from an alteration in renal parenchymal differentiation. MCDK consists of a non reniform mass of cysts and connective tissue, and is most commonly detected by routine antenatal screening
- 50% will have involuted by 2 years of age.
 Nephrectomy is indicated only if it remains large or hypertension develops



Genetic Cystic Diseases

Genetic cystic renal diseases are disorders of terminal epithelial differentiation

Autosomal Recessive Polycystic Kidney Disease (ARPKD):

- It is caused by mutations in the PKHD1, which codes for fibrocystin.
- ARPKD is characterized by multiple microscopic cysts, principally involving the distal collecting ducts Of both kidneys
- Kidneys are usually greatly enlarged and contain small cysts; renal failure is common in childhood. The baby born can't breath due to huge kidneys.
- The liver is enlarged and has periportal fibrosis and scattered cysts.
- Fibrosis produces portal hypertension by age 5 to 10 yr.
- Disease severity and progression vary. Severe disease may manifest prenatally or soon after birth or in early childhood with renal-related symptoms; less severely affected patients present in late childhood or adolescence with hepatic-related symptoms.
- ★ Severely affected neonates commonly have pulmonary hypoplasia secondary to the in utero effects of renal dysfunction and oligohydramnios (potters syndrome).
- If the patient presents in adolescence, nephromegaly is less marked, renal insufficiency may be mild to moderate, and the major symptoms are those related to portal hypertension.

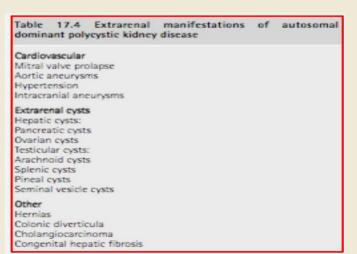


Diagnosis:

- Diagnosis may be difficult, especially without a family history.
- Ultrasonography may demonstrate renal or hepatic cysts; definitive diagnosis may require biopsy.
- Ultrasonography in late pregnancy usually allows presumptive in utero diagnosis.
- Clinical manifestations include oligohydramnios, pulmonary hypoplasia, hypertension, congestive cardiac failure, liver disease, and renal failure. The perinatal prognosis depends on the pulmonary status

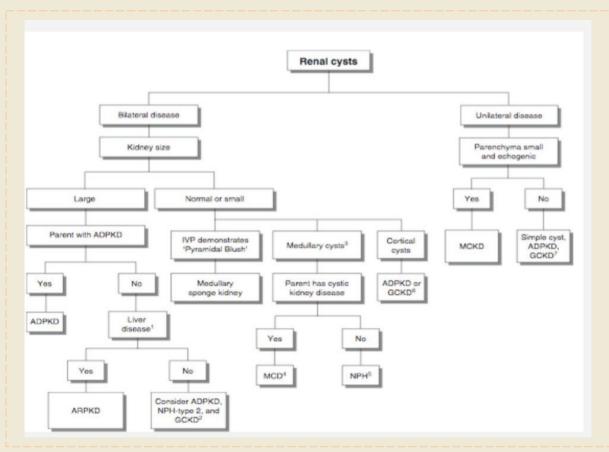
<u>Autosomal Dominant Polycystic Kidney</u> Disease (ADPKD): <u>AD</u>ult

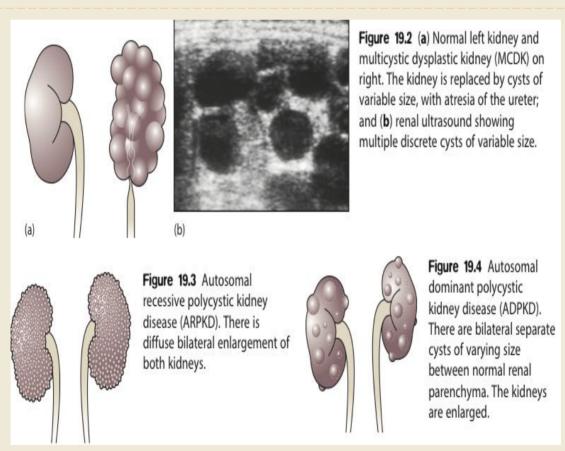
- ADPKD is characterized by bilateral renal enlargement secondary to multiple cysts.
- It is caused by mutations in either PKD1 (85 percent of patients) or PKD2 genes (15 percent)
- There is a greater variability in clinical manifestations of ADPKD with most patients having significant clinical findings only in adulthood.
- There are a subset of children who have an early onset of disease (in utero or in the first year of life) with symptoms similar to those with ARPKD.
- These include gross or microscopic hematuria, hypertension, proteinuria, cyst infection, and renal insufficiency
- ★ What distinguishes it from recessive is that it has extra-renal manifestations. First, they will have cysts everywhere; cysts in the ovaries, pancreas, liver everywhere. Also, they have cranial aneurysms as well as mitral valve prolapse. So, in the history of autosomal dominant, you have to ask about sudden death in the family. Sudden death would indicate CVA due to aneurysms.
- What is important in the autosomal recessive history? Skipped generations.
 Autosomal dominant does not skip generations; AD will be in every generation.



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Genetic Cystic Diseases





How to tell whether this is a cyst or hydronephrosis? Communicating cyst

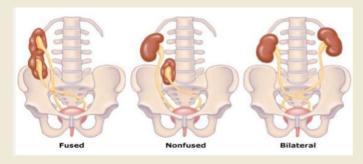
> hydronephrosis, non communicating > just a cyst

Renal Ectopia

- Renal ectopia occurs when the kidney does not normally ascend to the retroperitoneal renal fossa (level of the second lumbar vertebra).
- Simple congenital ectopy refers to a kidney that lies on the correct side of the body but lies in an abnormal position.
- → Crossed renal ectopia
- Different forms of crossed renal ectopia
 - a. 1. Fused: Ectopic kidney moves across the midline and fuses to the lower pole of the normally positioned contralateral kidney.
 - b. 2. Nonfused: Ectopic kidney moves across the midline without fusion and positioned at the rim of the pelvis (pelvic kidney).
 - c. 3. Bilateral: Both kidneys are ectopic and cross the midline with the ureters maintaining their normal bladder insertion.

Renal Fusion

- Renal fusion occurs when a portion of one kidney is fused to the other.
- The most common fusion anomaly is the horseshoe kidney, which involves abnormal migration of both kidneys (ectopy), resulting in fusion.
- This differs from crossed fused renal ectopia, which usually involves abnormal movement of only one kidney across the midline with fusion of the contralateral noncrossing kidney
- Horseshoe kidney can be a feature of many syndromes including genetic disorders such as Turner syndrome, Trisomy 13, 18 and 21
- Pancake kidney: when the fusion occur in the upper middle and lower parts of the kidney
- ★ Patients with a horseshoe kidney appear to have an increased risk for Wilms tumor (not 100% of course).
- Most patients with an ectopic or fused kidney(s) are asymptomatic and are diagnosed coincidentally, often by antenatal ultrasonography. No hydronephrosis, no reflux.
- In patients diagnosed symptomatically with either anomaly, symptoms at presentation are generally related to associated complications including urinary tract infection (with or without VUR), obstruction, and renal calculi.





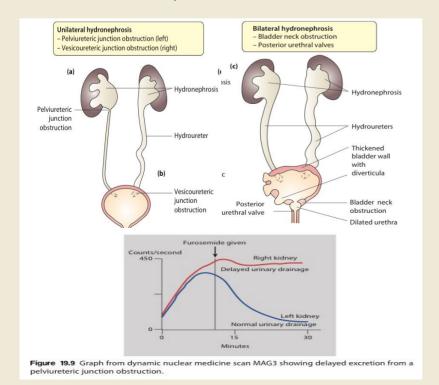
Urinary tract obstruction

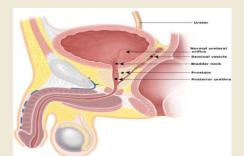
Obstruction to urine flow may occur at the pelvi-ureteric(UPJ) or vesicoureteric junction(UVJ), at the bladder neck (e.g. due to disruption of the nerve supply, neuropathic bladder), or at the posterior urethra in a boy due to mucosal folds or a membrane, known as posterior urethral valves(PUV). At worst, this results in a dysplastic kidney which is poorly functioning, and may contain cysts. In the most severe and bilateral cases Potter sequence is present. Renal dysplasia can also occur in association with severe intrauterine vesicoureteric reflux (VUR), in isolation, or associated with rare syndromes affecting multiple systems, e.g. VACTERL (vertebral, ano-rectal, cardiac, tracheoesophageal fistula, esophageal atresia, renal and limb abnormalities).

- UPJ and UVJ Obstruction, diagnosed using:
 - US (hydronephrosis)
 - DTPA (like DMSA but DMSA shows anatomy while DTPA is excreted and thus shows the function especially in older children)
- Complete obstruction > pyeloplasty (operation to removes a blockage that is keeping urine from reaching the bladder)

Posterior Urethral Valve:

- 1/3rd are born with bilateral renal failure.
- Few centers do intrauterine shunting of urine to amniotic fluid
- Diagnosis: MCUG done in lateral position with removed catheter (old keyhole sign) Gold standard is scope
- Bilateral hydronephrosis in a male infant requires urgent investigation to exclude posterior urethral valves





Bladder Exstrophy

- Physical findings characteristic of bladder exstrophy in both boys and girls include:
- Open bladder plate
- Low set umbilicus
- Diastasis of the symphysis pubis
- Anteriorly displaced anus
- Inguinal hernia
- Absence of the anterior abdominal wall muscles is frequently associated with a large bladder and dilated ureters and cryptorchidism (prune belly syndrome)



Urinary Tract Infections

Overview:

- Urinary tract infection (UTI) is a leading cause of serious bacterial illness in febrile infants, because they have specific issues compared to adults.
- Throughout childhood the cumulative incidence is approximately 10% in girls and 3% in boys, more common in girls due to short urethra.
- Urinary infection usually is ascending, with inoculation of fecally derived organisms from the urethra and peri-urethral tissues into the bladder. Rarely hematogenous
- The most prevalent pathogens in several recent pediatric studies were:
 - ➤ Escherichia coli (54%-67%) E. coli is gram negative, it surrounds the perineal area with other gram negative organisms.
 - Klebsiella (6%-17%) Proteus (5%- 12%)
 - ➤ Enterococcus (3%-9%)
 - ➤ Pseudomonas (2%-6%) (It can indicate an abnormal urinary tract structure, plastic catheters and presence of ureteral stents)
- Among patients with urinary tract anomalies or impaired immune system, less virulent organisms such as staph epidermidis, H influenza, and group B strep, may be responsible
- The hematogenous route of infection is far less common with generally different causal organisms, such as Staph Aureus, Candida and Salmonella; Pseudomonas Aeruginosa and Proteus can infect by either route

-Why UTI is more dangerous in pediatrics that adults?

Once it invade the blood it can go to so many places, for example to meninges and causes meningitis, or to joints and causes septic arthritis or to bone and causes osteomyelitis so in young children we get worry whenever these babies are having bacteremia so treat early.

-Proteus infection leads to phosphate stones (alkalinizing the urine)

Box 19.1 Presentation of urinary tract infection in infants and children

Infants

- Fever
- Vomiting
- Lethargy or irritability
- Poor feeding/ faltering growth
- Jaundice
- Septicaemia
- Offensive urine
- Febrile seizure
 (>6 months)

Children

- Dysuria, frequency and urgency
- Abdominal pain or loin tenderness
- Fever with or without rigors (exaggerated shivering)
- · Lethargy and anorexia
- · Vomiting, diarrhoea
- Haematuria
- Offensive/cloudy urine
- Febrile seizure
- · Recurrence of enuresis

Signs & Symptoms:

Non-toilet-trained & Non-vocalized Child

General symptoms; fever, lethargy, irritability. Therefore, u don't know does the child have UTI, or meningitis, or bacteremia. When they have the bug in the urinary tract it can easily go to the blood or seed to the brain (meningitis) or to the bone (osteomyelitis). It is sometimes very serious especially in little children.

Toilet trained & Verbelized Child

Like adult symptoms more or less.

Dysuria

Frequency

Urgency

Flank pain (pyelonephritis)

Fever and vomiting Easier to pick-up
than younger children

- Dysuria alone is usually due to cystitis Or vulvitis in girls or balanitis in boys. It can also be secondary to bladder neck compression due to constipation
- UTI symptoms in pediatrics can also occur following sexual abuse
- We start train the child but we don't force him/her. After five years, if he still wet it is Enuresis

Presentation

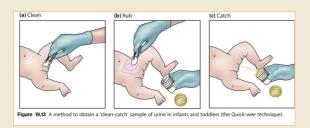
- ❖ Young infants often present with fever alone (38°C); irritability, vomiting, lethargy, or poor feeding variably may be present.
- For those younger than 3 months there is an **increased risk of bacteremia** and a greater possibility of undiagnosed congenital urological malformations.
- Older children generally have more explicit symptoms of bladder and/or flank pain.
- → For infants, any of the following increased the positive likelihood ratio of UTI to 2 or more:

history of prior UTI, fever of more than 24 hours duration or higher than 40°C, absence of circumcision in males, and suprapubic tenderness.

- Combinations of these findings amplified probability.
- For verbal children, the following symptoms were most reliable: abdominal pain with fever higher than 38°C, back pain, new onset urinary incontinence, dysuria, and frequency.

Diagnosis:

- Specimen Collection: A non contaminated urine sample is fundamental.
- For older children: Midstream urine collection.
- For infants and non-toilet-trained children, the most accurate method of collection is suprapubic bladder aspiration, however, it rarely is practical. It is safe but **urethral catheterization** or spontaneously voided clean catch midstream samples (usually obtained as you change the diaper if lucky the baby starts passing urine) are the most reliable alternatives.
- Perineal urine bag collection has a high rate of contamination and should be avoided for culture, but may help in screening infants for suprapubic bladder aspiration or urethral catheterization.
- For toilet-trained children, appropriate cleansing of the perineal/genital area before midstream urine collection is essential.
- Suprapubic aspiration can be used in severely ill infant requiring urgent treatment and diagnosis
- ❖ A urine sample should be tested in all infants with unexplained fever > 38C



Diagnosis:

You do urinalysis, gram stain, and culture.

Urinalysis:

- Although urine culture is the gold standard for UTI diagnosis, more rapid screening may be required for preliminary clinical decision making. Start empirical treatment once you take the sample.
- Urine Gram stain is the single most sensitive and specific test.
- For older infants and children, urine dipstick testing for both leukocyte esterase (means there is WBCs) and nitrites may be used if microscopy is unavailable, however, urine still must be sent for culture and symptomatic children must be treated pending the results because the dipstick false-negative rate is high (if negative nitrite doesn't exclude UTI as not all bacteria produce nitrite. Also babies pass urine frequently it's not kept in the bladder, thus nitrate is not reduced to nitrite).
- > No role of RBC as it doesn't role in or role out.

Urine Culture:

- Bacterial colony count criteria to distinguish urine infection from contamination are optional, not absolute.
- ➤ Although 10⁵ colony forming units (CFU) per mL (10⁸ CFU/L) is the generally accepted diagnostic cut-off level for midstream urine samples, true infection with a lower colony count occurs (eg, reduced bladder incubation time owing to urinary frequency or high urine flow rate, presence of an antibacterial agent in the urine). In children with clear symptoms we diagnose even if CFU is < 10⁵
- For small babies (<1 year) you have to do full septic analysis, blood culture and LP because symptoms are not specific. Then admit

Urine Collection Technique	CFU/mL (pure growth)	Probability of Infection
Suprapubic aspiration	Gram negative rod, any Gram positive cocci, more than a few thousand	>99% >99%
Catheterization	>10 ⁵ 10 ⁴ -10 ⁵ 10 ³ -10 ⁴	95% Likely Suspicious
Clean void (male)	>104	Likely
Clean void (female)	3 samples >10 ⁵ 2 samples >10 ⁵ 1 sample >10 ⁵	95% 90% 80%

Table 19.2 Interpretation of results of dip	ostick testing in children 3 years and older
Leukocyte esterase and nitrite positive	Regard as UTI
Leukocyte esterase negative and nitrite	Start antibiotic treatment if clinical evidence of UTI
positive	Diagnosis depends on urine culture
Leukocyte esterase positive and nitrite	Only start antibiotic treatment if clinical evidence of UTI
negative	Diagnosis depends on urine culture
Leukocyte esterase and nitrite negative	UTI unlikely. Repeat or send urine for culture if clinical history suggests UTI
Blood, protein, and glucose present on stick testing	Useful in any unwell child to identify other diseases, e.g. nephritis, diabetes mellitus, but will not discriminate between children with and without UTIs

Treatment¹

Younger than 3 months

All febrile neonates should be treated with IV antibiotics pending urine blood, and CSF culture results

If the fever subsides and patient can eat and looks well, -ve urine culture and can take oral ABx then you can discharge him

Older than 3 months

10 to 14 days of oral treatment with cefixime, or amoxicillin/clavulanic acid is effective as 2 to 4 days of intravenous therapy followed by 10 days oral, to complete 7 to 21 days of antibiotic treatment (discharged if blood culture is negative)



For older stable children (no dehydration or vomiting) no need for admission (oral Abx.)

- Final antibiotic choice should be based on culture and sensitivity results. Nitrofurantoin is used for prophylaxis. We usually give 3rd generation cephalosporin, if not available, Augmentin.
 - -Prompt antimicrobial therapy generally is believed necessary to diminish risk of renal scarring
 -If you treated a patient as an outpatient he must be followed up 3 days later to check
 antibiotic sensitivity

Recurrence

- You have to investigate further in boys and recurrent infection in girls.
- Recurrent UTIs develop in approximately 75% of children whose first infection occurs before the age of 1 year, and in about 40% of girls and 30% of boys presenting after this age (more in girls)
- Risk factors identified include dilating VUR, family history of UTI, infrequent voiding (also voiding dysfunction especially in females), and inadequate fluid ingestion. Constipation as well
- Strategies that may help prevent recurrence include management of voiding dysfunction and increase fluid intake.
- Do US looking for hydronephrosis, MCUG for posterior urethral valve and VUR (it cause recurrent UTI and deteriorating renal function by scarring (especially pyelonephritis))

¹⁻ Don't wait for the result, start empirical treatment (something that cover gram -ve like 3rd Treatment generation cephalosporins > cefixime) immediately then change it to definitive treatment to prevent pyelonephritis it may cause renal impairment (by scar)

Long-Term Outcomes

- Approximately 70% of infants and children with their first febrile UTI have pyelonephritis and renal scars may follow in 15% to 30%.
- With timely appropriate therapy most infants and children recover promptly without major long-term sequelae, but a small number are at risk for significant morbidity, progressive renal damage and renal insufficiency.
- How to diagnose renal scar? Nuclear medicine (DMSA)
 - Done after 6 weeks of the UTI (NOT BEFORE) to avoid false positive
- Blood pressure should be checked annually if renal dysplasia and scars are present
- Infants presenting with a first UTI should have an US to look for structural abnormalities and obstruction, and also renal defects (although it is NOT the gold standard to detect renal scars)
- Further investigations for UTI is needed if recurrent UTIs or atypical features: 1. seriously ill or septicemia 2. poor urine flow 3.abdominal pain or mass 4.raised creatinine 5.failure to respond to suitable antibiotics within 48 hrs 6.infection with atypical organisms (non-e.coli)

Vesicoureteral Reflux

- Retrograde flow of the urine from the urinary bladder into the ureters is prevented during micturition by a functional valve mechanism at the level of the ureterovesical junction (UVJ). Incompetence of the UVJ valve leads to flow of urine upstream into the ureter and the kidney, a condition known as vesicoureteral reflux or VUR.
- The association of VUR and predisposition to UTI is well established.
- Functional anatomy the UVJ lacks a traditionally defined valve to prevent retrograde flow of urine from the bladder into the ureter.
- The antireflux mechanism operative at this location is dependent on the unique anatomic configuration of the ureteral insertion into the bladder.
- There is an increased risk of hypertension in childhood or early adulthood

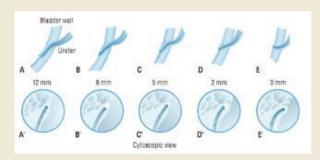


A part of the ureter is in the wall of the bladder before opening. Once the bladder is full, the increased pressure pushes and closes the valve.

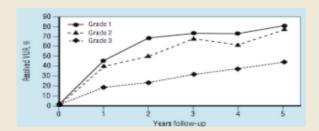
Vesicoureteral Reflux

Overview

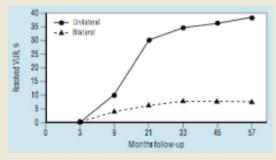
- Primary VUR is the commonest congenital anomaly affecting the
- urinary tract.
- VUR can be seen in 25-50% of asymptomatic siblings of index children diagnosed as having VUR.
- The familial pattern of VUR have been well documented, but the mode of inheritance is unclear.
- It is well known that the prevalence of VUR decreases with increasing age of children, suggesting that there is a trend towards improvement of VUR, even without any intervention throughout the childhood age spectrum
- Secondary is usually secondary to obstruction.



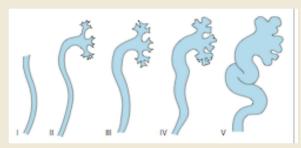
Staging; A: normal, E: when the bladder is full urine will go up (very high stage of reflux)



Do they outgrow VUR? Yes, but not always. This graph shows the number of resolved VUR cases by years of follow up. Grade 1 85-90% of them almost always resolve. It's much less as the grade is more



Unilateral vs Bilateral Resolution of grades III to V vesicoureteral reflux (VUR)



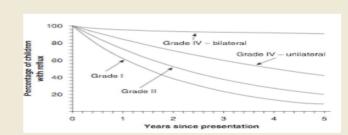
Grade 1: retrograde flow to half of ureters. opening.

Grade 2: backflow up to pelvis.

Grade 3: up to pelvis with dilation of ureters.

Grade 4: up to pelvis with torturous dilation of ureters.

Grade 5: torturous dilation, hydronephrosis & blunting of the



The other important thing is unilateral vs. bilateral. If it's bilateral VUR the chances it gets resolved is less, especially if it's high grade.

Table 36.1 Classification of vesicoureteral reflux (VUR)

Congenital VUR resulting from malimplantation of the ureter in the bladder - associated with urinary tract infection

Bladder outlet obstruction:

- Posterior urethral valves
- Bladder neck obstruction Severe urethral stricture

Neurogenic bladder:

Spina bifida-meningomyelocele

Chronic bladder inflammation Urinary tract infection

- Following bladder surgery
- Following ureteral calculus extraction



Vesicoureteral Reflux

Diagnosis

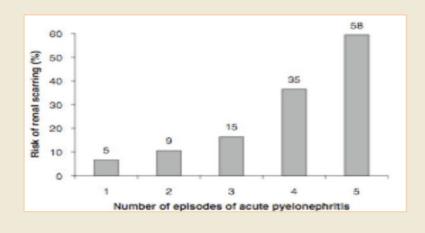
- The gold standard for evaluation of children for VUR is contrast vesico cystourethrogram (VCUG), especially in male children, but nuclear cystogram is recommended in females.
- VCUG IS A DYNAMIC STUDY sometimes we can use US don't use VCUG unless the urine culture is -ve because if you do it the infection will go to the kidney causing pyelonephritis



Grade 5 bilateral reflux on MCUG. The ureters are dilated up to the pelvis and tortuous ureter with blunting of calyces.

Renal scarring

- VUR is well recognized to be associated with renal scar formation.
- Renal scar is diagnosed using DMSA. But you have to wait 3 months after the UTI resolves because if there is pyelonephritis it can be mistaken as scar.
- In general, the incidence and severity of renal scars associated with VUR increase with the grade of VUR.
- The incidence of renal parenchymal scars is also higher in those with recurrent febrile UTIs
- Such renal scars were termed (reflux nephropathy) as a designation for renal scars associated with VUR and pyelonephritis.
- Unfortunately we still see it either delayed diagnosis or the patient in a rural area and the family is not compliant with treatment or follow up. A patient may need dialysis.

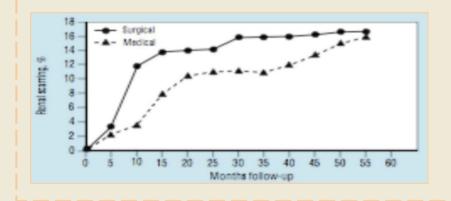


- More pyelonephritis = more scarring.
- Almost 60% scarring when you have 5 pyelonephritis.

Vesicoureteral Reflux

Management

- 1. Medical:
- a. Prophylaxis Abx. Usually 1/3 of the dose, once per day at night, usually ceftrine or Nitrofurantoin. It usually resolves because the angulation of the ureter to the bladder changes as the child grow up.
- 2. Surgery:
- a. Reserved for patients with high grade and bilateral reflux (more than or equal 4), or having break through in any grade (infection continues despite giving Abx.)
- b. De-flux injection (inject bulking agents to the wall to change the angulation, unfortunately these agents get absorbed after few months and thus you have to inject twice)
- c. Ureteral reimplantation (very invasive, you have to cut the ureter and reimplant it in a de-reflux way. Last choice)



- Effectiveness of medical versus surgical treatment: new scar formation at follow-up examinations over 5 years in children with
- By the end of follow up (60 months) there is no difference in outcome! So I'd go with non-invasive



memes about internship?? man we getting old

Extra

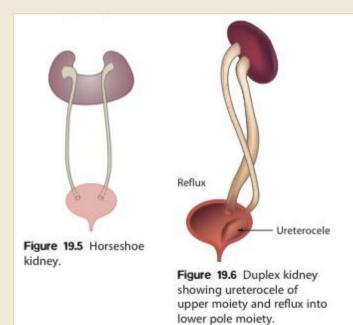
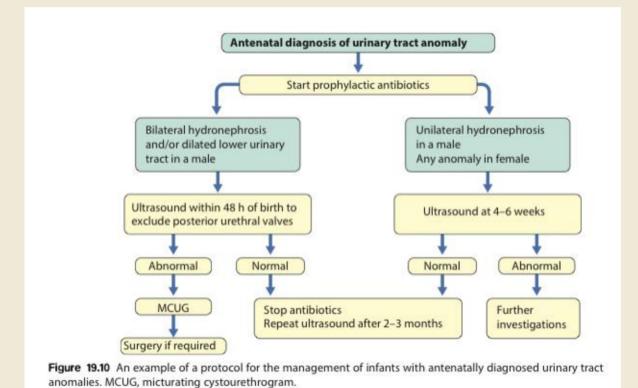




Figure 19.7 Prune-belly syndrome (absent musculature syndrome). The name arises from the wrinkled appearance of the abdomen. It is associated with a large bladder, dilated ureters, and cryptorchidism. (Courtesy of Jane Deal.)



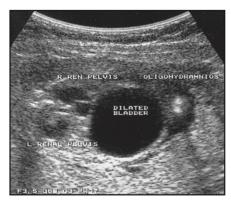


Figure 19.11a Antenatal ultrasound scan in an infant with urinary outflow obstruction from posterior urethral valve. (Courtesy of Karl Murphy.)

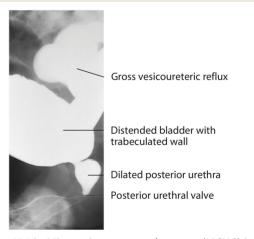
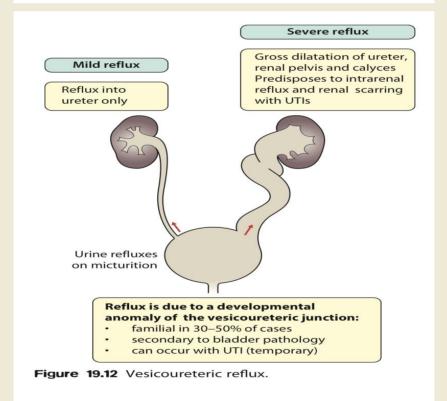


Figure 19.11b Micturating cystourethrogram (MCUG) in the same patient.

Extra

Summary A 2-year-old child with a urinary tract infection **Why important?**Up to half have a structural abnormality of their Diagnosis secure? gnosis secure? Suggestive clinical features? Upper or lower urinary tract infection? Urine sample properly collected and processed? Culture of single organisms >105/ml if clean catch or mid-stream urine or else any organisms urinary tract Pyelonephritis may damage the growing kidney by forming a renal scar, which may result in hypertension and chronic kidney disease on suprapubic aspirate or catheter sample? Predisposing factors? Incomplete bladder emptying Constipation Vesicoureteric reflux Why investigate? To identify serious structural abnormalities, urinary obstruction, renal scars, vesicoureteric reflux What investigation? Ultrasound of kidneys and urinary tract Further investigations if atypical features or Bacteriuria + fever >38°C or Fever <38°C + loin pain/tenderness = acute pyelonephritis/upper urinary tract infection urethral obstruction in boy on ultrasound Management Treat infection with antibiotics: Upper UTI and sepsis – IV then oral No sepsis of lower UTI – oral Advice about medical preventative measures to consider: High fluid intake Regular voiding, double micturition Prevent or treat constipation Good perineal hydriene Bacteriuria + no symptoms or signs or frequency/dysuria = cystitis/lower urinary tract infection Good perineal hygiene Lactobacillus acidophilus Advise to check urine culture if develops clinical features suggestive of non-specific illness If renal scarring or reflux on investigation, or develops recurrent UTIs: Consider low-dose antibiotic prophylaxis Monitor blood pressure, renal growth



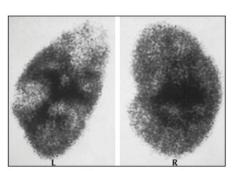


Figure 19.14 DMSA (dimercaptosuccinic acid) scan showing bilateral renal scarring, more severe on left upper pole.



Figure 19.15 Micturating cystourethrogram (MCUG) showing bilateral vesicoureteric reflux with ureteric dilatation and dilated clubbed calyces on the right.



Gross vesicoureteric reflux

Distended bladder with trabeculated wall

Dilated posterior urethra Posterior urethral valve



1- Emily is a 2-year-old girl. She presents to the Emergency Department with a 2-day history of fever, vomiting and 'smelly' urine. She has no significant medical history and is not on any medication. On examination she has a temperature of 39° C and has a heart rate of 126 beats/min. She has generalized tenderness over her abdomen.

What is the best way to collect a urine sample from her?

- A. Bag sample
- B. Catheter sample
- C. Clean catch
- D. Pad/cotton wool balls in nappy
- E. Suprapubic aspirate
- 2- Becky is a 7-year-old girl. She is seen by her general practitioner with a 2-day history of fever and abdominal pain. Her mother has noted that she is going to the toilet to pass urine more often than usual. On examination she is now afebrile and has no abdominal tenderness.

What is the most likely diagnosis?

- A. Appendicitis
- **B.** Cystitis
- C. Diabetic ketoacidosis
- D. Glomerulonephritis
- E. Pyelonephritis
- 3- Jonathan is an 8-year-old boy. He has a medical history of urinary tract infections. On this occasion he presents to hospital with acute spasmodic pain on the left side of his abdomen. He says it is the worst pain he has ever experienced. He played football yesterday but had not hurt himself. On examination he is afebrile and his abdomen is soft with no guarding. He is tender in his left loin and there are no palpable masses. He has 2+ of haematuria on dipstick of his urine but no protein or leucocytes. He is not on any medication.

What is the most likely cause of his pain?

- A. Constipation
- **B.** Glomerulonephritis
- C. Renal stone
- D. Trauma
- E. Wilms tumour
- 4- In Jonathan's particular case what is the most likely organism to have been the cause of his previous urinary tract infections?
- A. Escherichia coli
- B. Klebsiella sp.
- C. Proteus sp.
- D. Pseudomonas aeruginosa
- E. Streptococcus faecalis
- 5- Eesa, a 1-month-old Pakistani infant, is taken to his general practitioner by his mother. He is vomiting and not taking his feeds as well as normal. He is irritable and has a temperature of 39°C. His heart rate is 170 beats/min and his respiratory rate 45 breaths/min. The remainder of his examination is unremarkable. A clean catch urine sample is obtained and is positive for nitrites, leukocytes and protein on dipstick.

Which is the most appropriate next course of action?

- A. Intravenous antibiotics
- **B.** Intravenous fluids
- C. Oral antibiotics
- D. Oral paracetamol
- E. Oral rehydration solution

Answers

1- C. Clean catch

This involves waiting with a sterile bowl to catch the urine. It is the least invasive and has less risk of contamination. The child is well enough to wait before starting treatment and you want to be sure that you are actually treating a urinary tract infection. The smell of urine is an unreliable sign of genuine infection.

2-B. Cystitis

She most likely has cystitis as she has urine frequency and abdominal pain.

3-C. Renal stone

He is afebrile and the pain is spasmodic and severe. His previous urinary tract infections will have put him at higher risk of stone formation.

4-C. Proteus sp.

Proteus infection predisposes to the formation of phosphate stones by splitting urea to ammonia and thus alkalinizing the urine. It is more commonly diagnosed in boys than in girls, possibly because of its presence under the prepuce.

5- A. Intravenous antibiotics

All infants less than 3 months old who are febrile and systemically unwell should be referred immediately to a paediatric department as they need treatment with intravenous antibiotics. He probably is septicaemic from a urinary tract infection as his urine is positive for nitrites, leukocytes and protein on dipstick. However, dipsticks should not be relied upon to diagnose urinary tract infection in children aged under 3 months; at this age, urine microscopy and culture should be used.