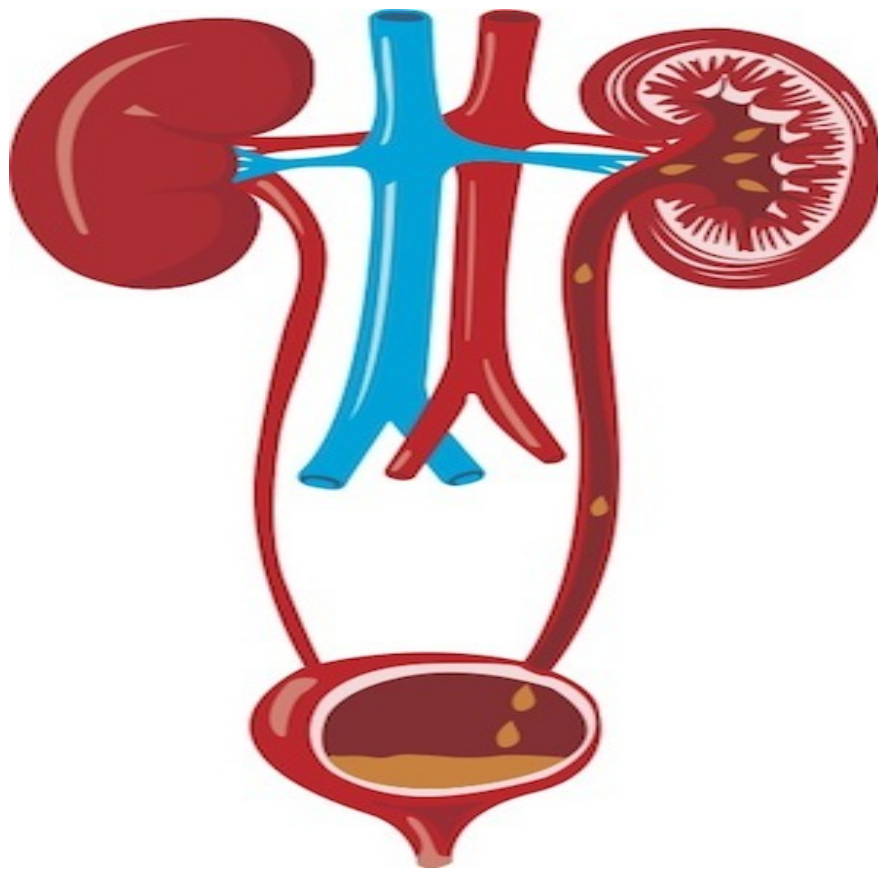


THE SCRUTINIZER JOURNAL

The Kidney and Urinary System edition

Volume 1, Oct. 2017



In the words of Aristotle himself:

"The kidneys are not present for necessity in animals but have the function of perfecting the animal itself"

Foreword:

Welcome to the first edition of **The Scrutinizer Journal**, a monthly online magazine that offers unbiased, reliable science based information on matters related to health, wellness, fitness, diseases, disease management and reviews of latest research. Most months we will be focusing on one topic of interest per volume of journal, however we may also provide issues related to current research or advancements in science.

This first edition is dedicated to learning about the **Kidney and Urinary Systems**, two very important parts of the body that work together to get rid of excess fluids and waste products. Do people really know what they do and what happens when they don't function properly? A recent study was conducted by the National Kidney Foundation with results posted in the May 2015 issue of *Nephrology News*. It showed that one half of Americans do not know how the kidney works or understand what the kidney does. More than 1000 adults were surveyed. 46% were able to identify that the kidneys produce urine, 54% were unable to identify this basic function of the kidneys. 63% have never talked to a healthcare professional about their kidneys or their kidney health. 71% were unable to identify the signs and symptoms of kidney disease. These numbers are a cause for concern because the CDC reports that 1 in 3 Americans is at risk for developing kidney disease. The more you know about your kidneys, the more you will understand why they need to be kept healthy and what can happen if they are not.

Welcome aboard,

Meenakshi and Joanne

The Only Reliable Source of Unbiased Science Based Information





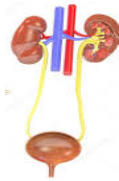
TABLE OF CONTENTS



I. What do the Kidneys Look Like?



II. The Urinary System



III. Chronic Kidney Disease (CKD)

IV. Kidney Failure and End Stage Kidney Disease

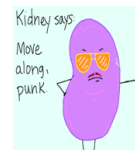


V. Kidney Stones: A Growing and Painful Problem

VI. Infections of the Kidney and the Urinary Tract

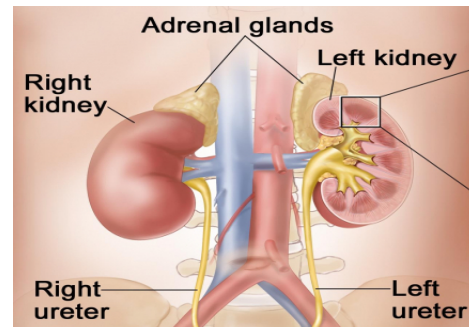


VII. Urinary Incontinence



I. WHAT DO THE KIDNEYS LOOK LIKE?

The kidneys are fist sized bean shaped organs that are located, in the lower back just below the diaphragm. They are each attached to a renal artery and vein that supplies the blood for filtering; and are also attached to a ureter that drains the urine into the bladder.

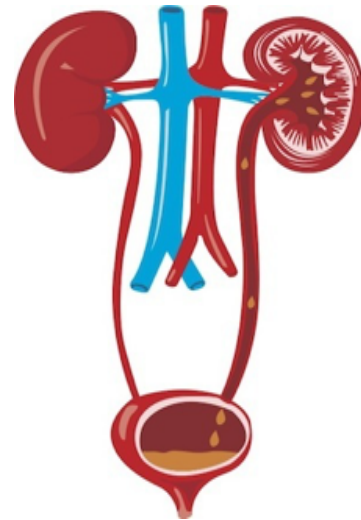


How do Kidneys Work?

The renal artery carries 600 milliliters of blood per minute, (about 2, 12 ounce cans of soda), where it passes through the kidney's filtration system: *glomerulus* and the *nephrons*.

1. The **glomerulus** is the first part of the filtering system through which the blood passes.
2. The blood then passes to the **Nephron, the main part of the filtering system.**

This is where most of the waste products and excess fluid is separated from the blood and passed to the ureter; and eventually out of the body via the bladder. The filtered blood then goes back into circulation through the renal vein.



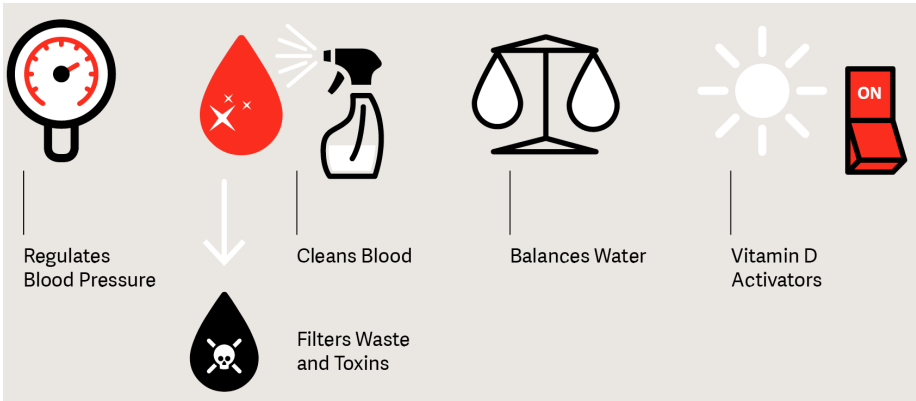
In a 24hour period, approximately 180 liters of blood is processed and filtered, producing about 1.5L of urine.



IS FILTERING THE BLOOD THE ONLY JOB THE KIDNEYS DO?

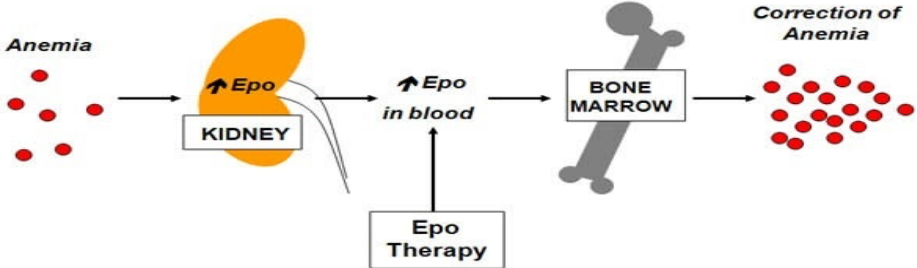


Filtering the blood is only one of many important jobs the kidneys do to keep the body healthy and in balance. Part of the filtering process is also keeping the necessary electrolytes and fluid for use in the body and eliminating what is not needed in the urine.



There are other jobs that the kidneys do:

- **Stimulate the production of Red Blood Cells.** Red Blood Cells carry oxygen in the blood. When their number becomes lower than needed, kidneys release a hormone called Erythropoietin (EPO). The Erythropoietin travels to the bone marrow via the blood stream and stimulates healthy bone marrow to produce new red blood cells.



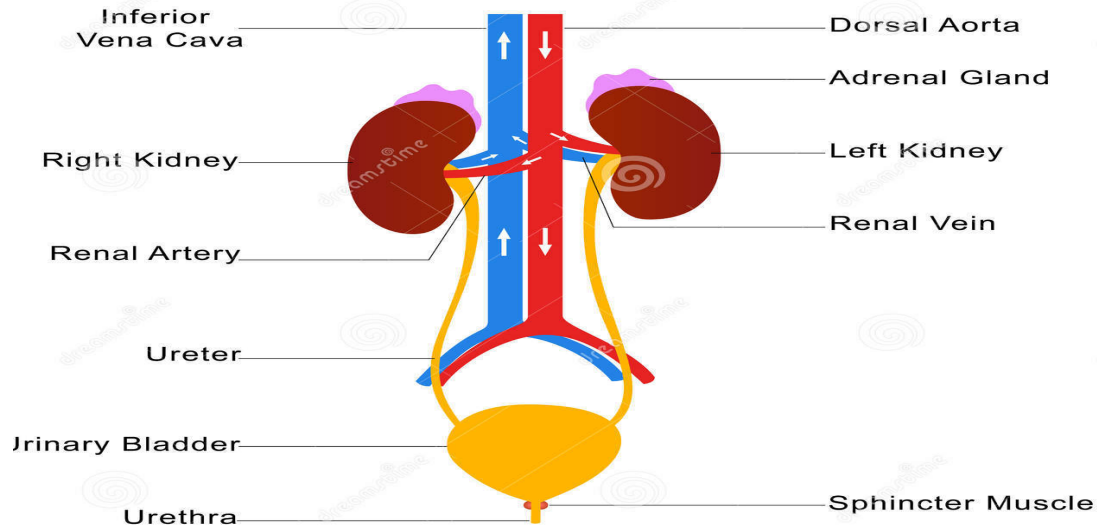
- ***Control the Blood Pressure.*** Two **important hormones** are produced to help regulate blood pressure: (i) Renin, and (ii) Angiotensin.

These two hormones help regulate the amount of salt and water the body retains during the filtering process. They also control how the blood vessel walls expand and contract as the heart beats. If there is too much water in the body, blood pressure goes up, if there is too little water, blood pressure will go down.

- ***Release the active form of Vitamin D*** to aid the body in absorbing calcium from the blood into the bones. The active form of vitamin D is the hormone **Calcitriol**. This hormone helps the kidney absorb the correct amount of calcium and phosphorus to allow bones to remain healthy and strong. Calcitriol travels through the blood stream to the intestines where it binds with calcium and carries it to the bones.
- ***Control fluid balance in the body.*** The ideal percentage of fluid content in the body is 55% for women and 60% for men. It is the kidneys job to maintain a proper balance of what fluid is consumed versus what is lost in the urine.
- Eliminate certain medications and toxins from the body.



II. THE URINARY SYSTEM



In addition to kidneys, this system also contains:

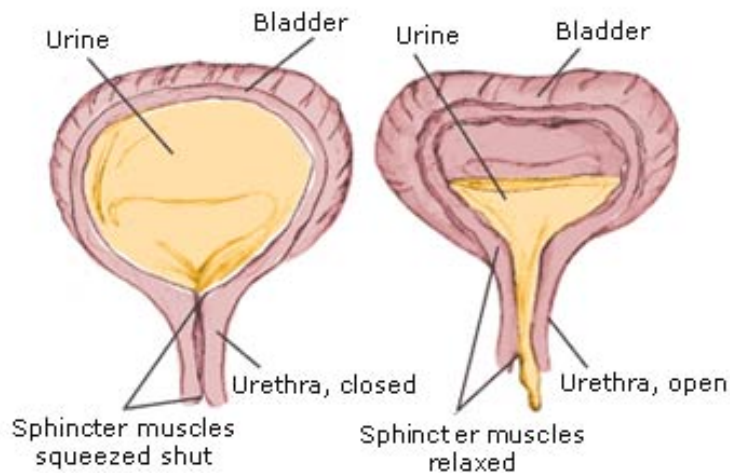
- **Two ureters:** Tubes that transport urine from Kidney to Bladder
- **One bladder:** A sac that collects urine
- **Two sphincter muscles:** control exit of urine
- **One urethra:** a passage that helps pass urine out of the body

Once the blood has filtered all the waste products in the kidneys and has formed urine, the urine then travels through the thin tubes known as **ureters** to the hollow, muscular storage area known as the **bladder**. The balloon-shaped bladder sits in the pelvic region of the lower abdomen and is held in place by ligaments that attach it to other organs and bones in the area. The bladder can be thought of as a storage or holding area for the urine until it is time to go to the bathroom. The bladder is very elastic. It is very small when empty and stretches into a round shape as the urine flows into it. When full it can hold about 2 cups or 16 ounces of urine for up to 5 hours before it causes pain and discomfort.

Sphincter muscles: Two **circular muscles** called the sphincter muscles, are located where the bladder and urethra meet and keep the urine from leaking out of the bladder. They work like rubber bands closing around the opening of the bladder until a signal from the nerves in the bladder sends the signal to you that that the bladder

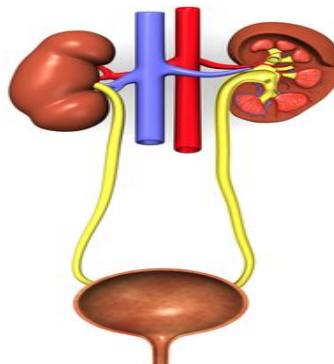
is full and it is time to urinate. At the same time the brain sends a signal to the bladder muscles to contract and tighten cause the sphincter muscles to relax and open causing urine to flow out of the body through the urethra. Most people empty their bladder about 6-8 times per day depending on:

- How much and what type of fluid they drink
- How much sodium or salt they take in each day
- What medications are taken
- Amount of Caffeine taken in during the day



III. CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE (CKD)

Sometimes healthy kidneys develop an injury or disease that causes them not to function properly. If it happens for a very short time, it usually does not create a problem. However, if the kidneys are not working properly for an extended period of time, the person will develop **Chronic Kidney Disease** or **CKD**.



Chronic Kidney Disease means that there is a long term decrease in kidney function as the healthy cells of the kidney slowly stop working for a variety of causes. As it progresses and more damage occurs, complications such as **high blood pressure**, **anemia** (low blood count), weakened bones and poor nutritional health can occur. In the early stages of kidney disease, people may not even know they have a problem until one of the above complications appears. Chronic Kidney Disease can actually progress to the point where Kidney Failure occurs, especially if undetected and the cause left untreated.

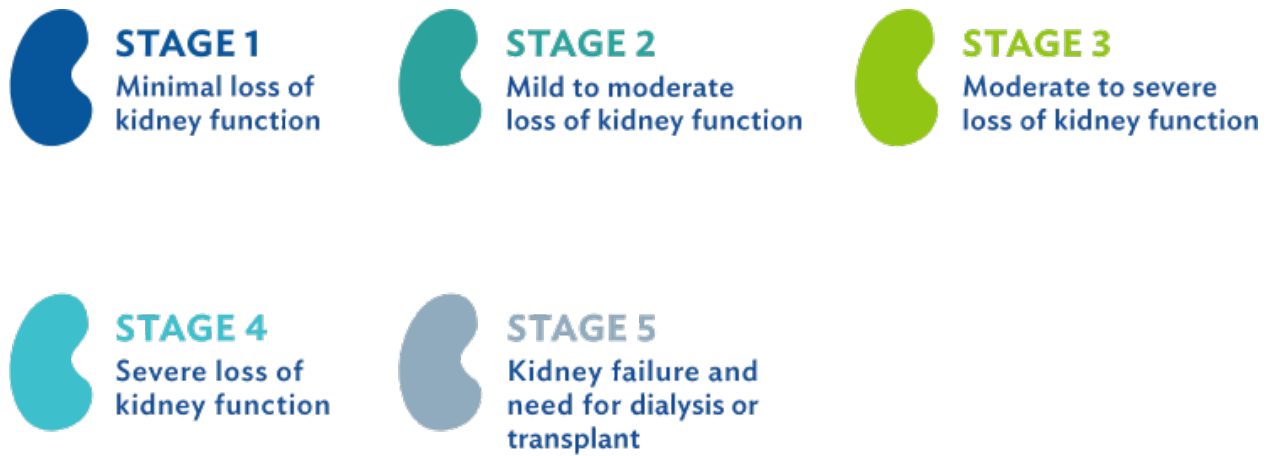
HOW COMMON IS CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE?

Chronic Kidney Disease is becoming an increasing worldwide public health problem. In 1990 CKD ranked 27th on the list of causes of death worldwide. In 2012, it had risen to 18th place on the same list. The National Kidney Foundation reports that 26 million Americans have CKD and millions of others are at risk of developing the condition.

HOW DOES CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE DEVELOP?

One normal healthy kidney contains approximately 1 million nephrons to filter the blood of the waste products and excess fluid. When Chronic Kidney Disease starts, some of the nephrons stop filtering the blood causing the kidney's filtering function to slowly drop. At first the remaining healthy nephrons will take over the workload from the dead nephrons and people don't notice a change in urination or develop other symptoms until about 50% kidney function remains.

The figure below shows the five stages of CKD

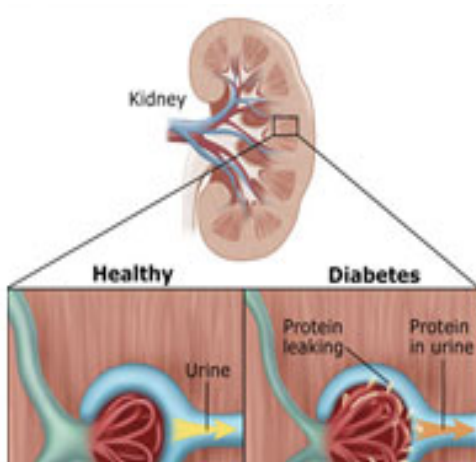


WHAT CAUSES CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE?

There are a number of causes of CKD. They include:

1. Diabetic Nephropathy: People with diabetes have an increased risk of developing diabetic nephropathy that leads to CKD. It occurs to 1 in 3 adults with diabetes. Yes, the diabetes affects Kidneys.

In diabetic nephropathy, the tissues of the glomerulus and the nephrons harden and die off.



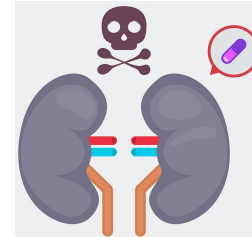
Thus, they can no longer filter the blood properly. This, eventually leads to **Kidney Failure**.

Diabetic nephropathy has been found to be more common in certain ethnic groups such as Blacks, Mexican Americans, Polynesians and certain American Indian tribes.

2. Hypertension or High Blood Pressure: This is the second most common cause of **CKD**. It occurs to 1 in 5 adults with high blood pressure. Long-term, consistently elevated blood pressure can damage the small blood vessels and glomerulus in the kidney. Other tissues in the kidneys can also get damaged. This causes CKD to appear and progress, leading to kidney failure.

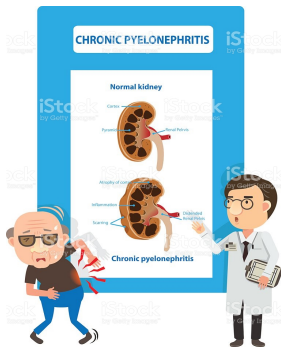
Risk factors for high blood pressure as the cause of CKD include:

- ✓ poorly controlled high blood pressure
- ✓ being of an older age, and
- ✓ the presence of another kidney damaging disease such as **diabetes**.



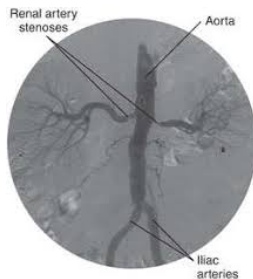
It is interesting to note that Blacks are at an especially increased risk for high blood pressure caused CKD that leads to kidney failure.

3. Chronic Pyelonephritis also known as a chronic kidney infection: People who have an altered anatomy of the urinary system are more prone to frequent bacterial urine infections.



The altered anatomy causes the urine to back up into the kidney and cause damage to the glomerulus and the nephrons. Some common causes of altered anatomy include kidney stones and other obstructions. Left untreated these infections can progress from CKD to kidney failure. Signs of a kidney infection include: fever, feeling of tiredness and fatigue, as well as lower back and flank pain.

4. Renal Artery Stenosis or occlusion:

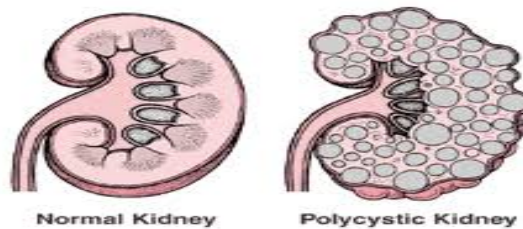


Stenosis is a narrowing of the main artery or one of its branches going into the kidney. Blood is still able to pass through, but at a slower than normal rate.

Renal artery occlusion is where the artery or one of its branches is completely blocked allowing no blood flow into the kidney.

This causes the tissues of the kidney to harden and die, no longer able to function properly. Stenosis or Occlusion of the artery can occur because of a blood clot or hardening of the arteries. People with an artery occlusion will typically have steady lower back pain, abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting and blood in the urine.

5. Polycystic Kidney Disease: This is usually an inherited condition that occurs when fluid filled sacs slowly grow and crowd out the healthy kidney tissues and can lead to CKD and eventual kidney failure.



6. Use of Medications that are toxic to the kidneys: These medications include Non-Steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (NSAID's) such as Ibuprofen, certain antibiotics and chemotherapy drugs, and intravenous contrast media.

7. Severe Dehydration and episodes of shock: Losing blood from severe bleeding can lead to shock, causing the nephrons to slowly die off from lack of blood supply. Also, not taking in enough water or fluids combined with loss of fluids from sweating and urinating in large amounts can lead to dehydration causing the nephrons to die.

8. Aging: As the body grows older as a part of the aging process, the kidneys also age. The actual mass of each of the kidneys shrink, and nephrons slowly die. Blood flow to the kidneys also decreases as the aging process continues, contributing to the slow death of the nephrons.

SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS OF KIDNEY DISEASE

Symptoms of CKD do not appear as the kidney cells slowly harden or die. Symptoms usually appear as the kidney disease gets worse. These symptoms include:

- More tired and less energy to perform daily tasks
- Having trouble concentrating and completing tasks
- Prolonged loss of appetite or no desire to eat.
- Nausea and vomiting



- Unexplained weight loss
- Difficulty sleeping including waking up not feeling rested
- Night time muscle cramping, especially in the legs.
- Swelling in the feet and ankles. This swelling is also known as **edema**
- Swelling or puffiness around the eyes especially in the mornings
- Skin that is very dry and itchy
- Skin may turn a yellow-brown almost bronze color
- More frequent urination, especially at night
- High Blood Pressure
- Anemia



HOW IS CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE DIAGNOSED?

Most often CKD is suspected when the blood levels of **BUN** and **Creatinine** are noticed to be elevated during a routine check-up. **BUN** is the abbreviation for a **Blood Urea Nitrogen level**. Urea nitrogen is a natural waste product produced from the combination of the breakdown of foods that is eaten and the body's build-up and breakdown of tissues.

Creatinine comes from all muscle activity. The body has no use for these waste products so healthy kidneys will remove them from the blood and send them out of the body in urine.

The BUN and Creatinine levels in the blood will start to rise when the glomerulus and nephrons don't filter as efficiently due to cell hardening. If the levels remain elevated for 3 or more months, then a person is considered to have **Chronic Kidney Disease**.



- Doctors will use the BUN and Creatinine levels to determine the **Glomerular Filtration Rate or GFR**. The **GFR is the best test** to determine how the kidneys are really functioning. It lets the doctor know how fast the waste product is being cleared from the blood.
 - ✓ It is calculated using the blood creatinine level, age, weight, race and gender and is reported in milliliters/min. The GFR is used to determine if you have CKD and what stage you are in so that a treatment plan can be developed to slow the progression of the disease.
- A Renal Ultrasound may also be ordered to see the size of the kidneys and check for any structural damage to the kidney or urinary tract.
- An abdominal CT scan may also be ordered.
- Doctors will also take urine samples to check for the presence or absence of protein and micro albumin in the urine. They will also check to see if any infections are present.
- A Urine Creatinine level will be checked to see how much protein is being cleaned out by the kidneys. This test also measures a protein to creatinine ratio

WHAT ARE THE RISK FACTORS FOR CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE?



Hypertension or High Blood Pressure



Diabetes



Elevated Cholesterol and Triglycerides



Smoking and tobacco use



Heart Problems or Stroke



Family History of Kidney Disease



Normal aging process. People over the age of 70 have an increased risk of kidney disease.

People who have more than one risk factor on the above list have an even greater risk for developing CKD and should be talking to their doctors about what can be done to prevent CKD. If CKD is thought to be present, testing should be completed to confirm the diagnosis and a routine follow-up and management plan put in place.

For example, **high blood pressure** should be treated with a goal of maintaining blood pressure at less than 130/80 with the use of medications and diet restrictions of salt. Diabetes should be controlled with an ideal Hgb A1C of less than 7.0. Stopping smoking and starting an exercise program can also help slow the progression.

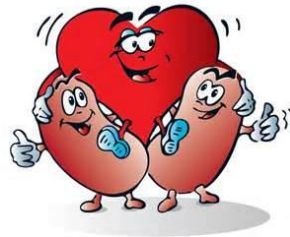
The goal of minimizing the risk factors is to prevent the Kidney Disease from progressing to the point where the kidneys fail and more aggressive treatment such as dialysis is needed.

In the next article, we will talk about Kidney Failure, End Stage Renal (Kidney) Disease and the treatment options that are available for patients who develop End Stage Renal Disease.

REFERENCES

1. Vivekanand Jha, Guillermo Garcia-Garcia, Kunitoshi Iseki, Zuo Li, Saraladevi Naicker, Brett Plattner, Rajiv Saran, Angela Yee-Moon Wang, Chih-Wei Yang (2013). Chronic kidney disease: global dimension and perspectives. The Lancet. <http://www.nephrologynews.com/articles/110898-nkf-survey-reveals-many-americans-know-little-about-their-kidneys>.
2. McMillan, JI MD. (2013) Chronic Renal Disease. Merck Manual Professional Ed. Revised 2013. <https://www.merckmanuals.com/professional/genitourinary-disorders/chronic-kidney-disease/chronic-kidney-disease>.
3. Zhang, Z MD. (2014). Benign Hypertensive Arteriolar Nephrosclerosis. Merck Manual Professional Edition. Revised April 2014. <https://www.merckmanuals.com/professional/genitourinarydisorders/renovascular-disorders/benign-hypertensive-arteriolar-nephrosclerosis>
4. Imam, TH MD. (2013, November). Chronic Pyelonephritis (Chronic Infective Tubulointerstitial Nephritis). Merck Manual Professional Edition. Revised November 2013. <https://www.merckmanuals.com/professional/genitourinary-disorders/urinary-tract-infections-uti/chronic-pyelonephritis>.
5. National Kidney Foundation (2015). About Chronic Kidney Disease. <https://www.kidney.org/kidneydisease/aboutckd>

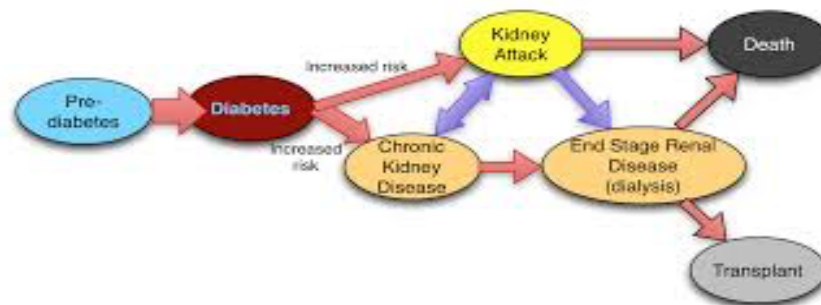
6. CDC Publication. (2014) National Chronic Kidney Disease Fact Sheet. 2014. http://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/pubs/pdf/kidney_Factsheet.pdf
7. Lederer, E MD, Oriseph, R. MD MPH. (2006, Feb.) Core Curriculum in Nephrology. American Journal of Kidney Disease. Pp. 162-170. [http://www.ajkd.org/article/S0272-6386\(06\)01615-5/pdf](http://www.ajkd.org/article/S0272-6386(06)01615-5/pdf)
8. Cheuck L,DO , Gest,TR,PHD. (Oct, 2013) Kidney Anatomy. Medscape Drugs and Diseases.
9. Fox, SI. (1999) Human Physiology 6th Edition. McGraw Hill Publishing Company. Pge 528 and 544-554.
10. Neumann, ME , Zumoff, R (2015). NKF Survey Reveals Many Americans Know Little About Their Kidneys. Nephrology News and Issues. <http://www.nephrologynews.com/articles/110898-nkf-survey-reveals-many-americans-know-little-about-their-kidneys>.



IV. KIDNEY FAILURE AND END STAGE KIDNEY DISEASE

Chronic Kidney Disease may continue to progress to the point where the kidneys are unable to filter enough of the waste products and excess fluid causing a build-up of fluid and toxins in the body. When this happens, a person is said to have **Kidney Failure**. When the kidney function decreases to less than 10% the person is considered to have **End Stage Renal (kidney) Disease (ESRD)** and will need to begin some form of treatment to replace the kidney function or face death. The CDC has reported that in 2011, 2013, 2016 patients started some form of treatment for ESRD.

WHAT HAPPENS WHEN THE KIDNEYS FAIL?



As kidney function continues to decline, patients will be referred to a **nephrologist**, a doctor who specializes in caring for the kidneys. Ideally, before reaching End Stage, the doctor and patient will discuss the treatment options available to replace normal kidney function. This should happen weeks or months before actual treatment begins so the patient and family have time to decide which treatment is preferable to them. Some nephrologists will refer patients and families to a Treatment Option Educator who is either a Renal Social Worker or Registered Nurse.

WHAT IS RENAL REPLACEMENT THERAPY OR DIALYSIS?



Renal Replacement Therapy or Dialysis is used to remove the excess fluid and waste products from the blood. It does not replace other important healthy kidney functions such as producing vitamin D for healthy bones and erythropoietin to make red blood cells.

What Dialysis does is use an artificial process to remove waste products and excess water from the body.

The process involves using a semi-permeable (it allows some items to pass through, while keeping others back) membrane to act as a filter and a specially treated solution known as Dialysate to surround the filter.

There are two different types of dialysis available:

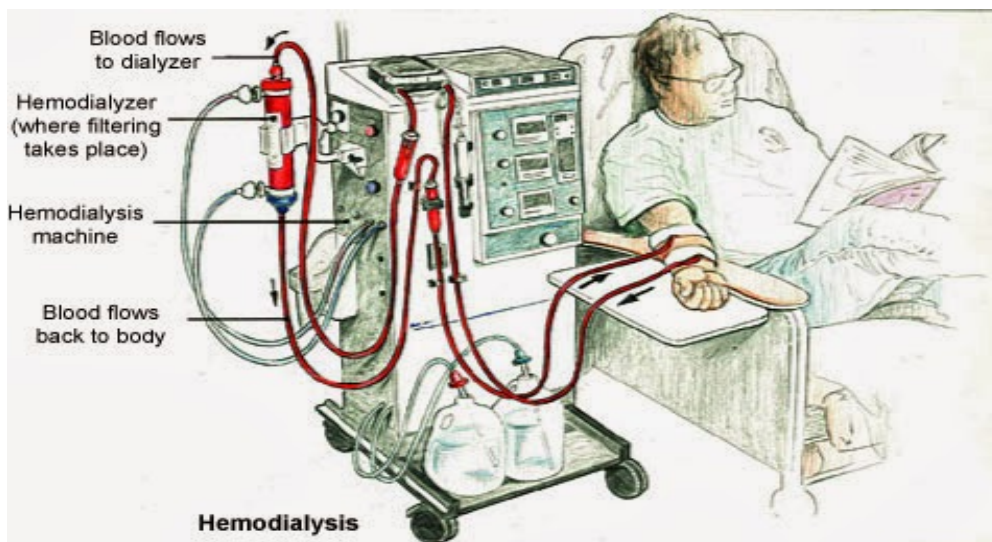
- Hemodialysis
- Peritoneal



Both use the same principle, but each works differently and offers advantages and disadvantages to patients. We will look at each separately.

HEMODIALYSIS

Hemodialysis is the most common type of dialysis used to treat End Stage Renal Disease. It involves the use of a dialysis machine to pump about 200 ml of blood per minute from the patient's body through an artificial kidney (dialyzer) to clean the waste products and excess water and return it to the patient. It requires a blood pump, a dialyzer or artificial kidney, dialysate or washing fluid, and access to the blood for the procedure to occur.

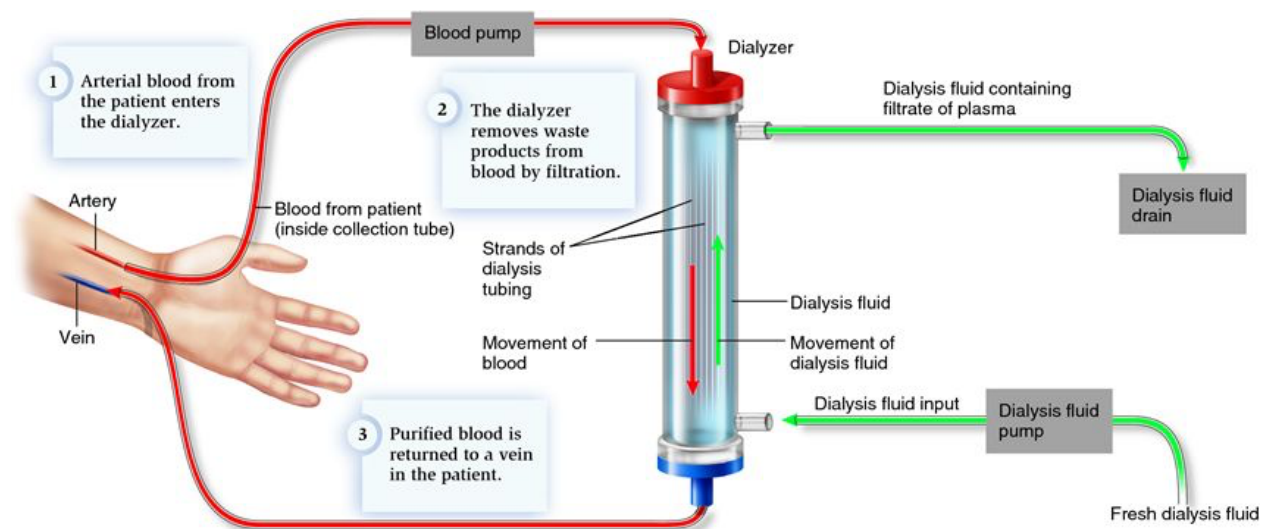


WHAT IS A DIALYZER?

A dialyzer is also known as an **artificial kidney**. It contains thin fibers that act as the filter for the blood. The dialyzer has two compartments, separated by a thin semi-permeable membrane:

- one compartment to carry the blood, and
- the other to carry the dialysate.

The thin membrane fibers not only separate the blood and dialysate, it also acts as the filter and allows waste products such as urea, creatinine and potassium to be removed from the blood and washed out with the dialysate. At the same time keeping important things like blood cells and proteins in the blood.

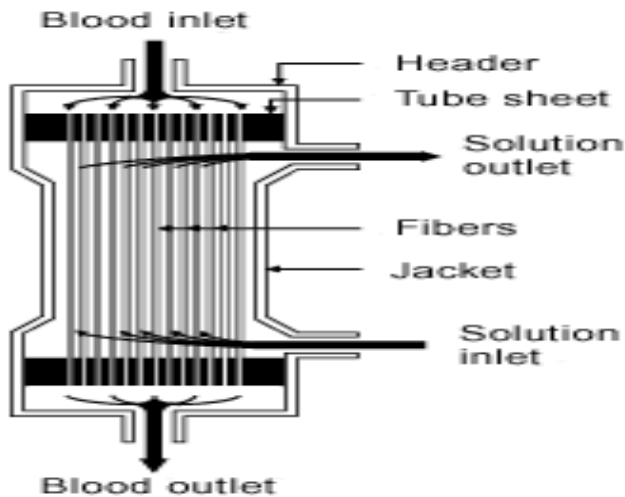


As shown in the above figure,

1. Blood from the patient is pumped through the dialyzer in a downward direction.
2. Dialysate is pumped in the opposite direction, surrounding the fibers and pulling the waste products and excess fluid from the blood.
3. The cleaned blood is returned to the body and the dialysate is washed down a drain.

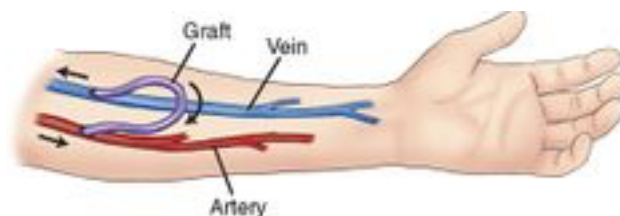
This process is repeated over several hours to assure that the blood is cleaned many times over. The dialysate used as a washing fluid contains no urea nitrogen or creatinine so that these items can be removed in large quantities. It does contain

small amounts of Sodium, Potassium and other electrolytes, mixed with sterile water that the body needs to keep at specific level in order, to survive.



HOW DOES THE BLOOD GET FROM THE BODY INTO THE DIALYZER?

Hemodialysis needs a continuous supply of blood moving to and from the patient. Therefore, an access is created into one of the veins that can remove the blood safely and return it as the body's own natural veins are too small to take the repeated needle sticks.



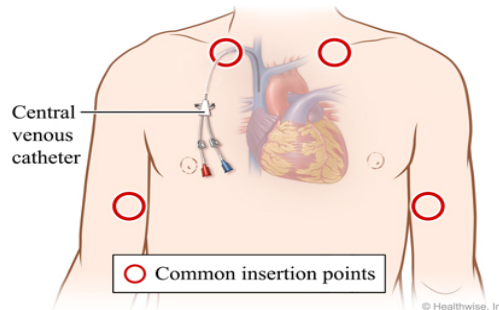
Creation of dialysis access:

Several weeks to months, before the start of dialysis treatment, an outpatient procedure is scheduled.

For the majority of patients, the procedure involves joining an artery and a vein together (Graft) as shown above. This helps divert some of the arteries blood supply into an adjoining vein through what is called an **anastomosis**.

The blood from the artery is under very high pressure and serves to strengthen the weaker walled vein. This creates a much larger vein that can tolerate having two large needles inserted for each dialysis treatment.

However, some patients have **very poor veins** and cannot have this access created. In that case, a **central dialysis catheter** may be placed, usually in the neck as shown below:



HOW LONG DOES IT TAKE TO DO A HEMODIALYSIS TREATMENT?



It depends. There are three types of hemodialysis currently available depending on where the treatment is done.

- **In-center Hemodialysis.** In-center Hemodialysis is the most common type. This is where a patient goes to an outpatient Dialysis Center 3 times a week for a 3 to 4 hour treatment each time. Specially trained nurses and dialysis technicians are there to insert the needles, set up the machines and monitor patients.

Advantages: In-center hemodialysis offers the opportunity for patients to talk to and offer support to each other. **Disadvantage:** The big disadvantage is that patients are scheduled Monday, Wednesday and Friday or Tuesday, Thursday, Saturday causing some patients to feel that they no longer have control over their schedules.

- **Home Hemodialysis.** To do home hemodialysis, the patient and a caregiver partner receive training to perform the dialysis treatments at home. They learn how to set-up the machine, insert the needles, monitor the treatment, troubleshoot any problems and discontinue treatments. After approximately 6

weeks of training at the clinic, they go home to perform the treatment for 3-4 hours 3 times a week as if they were in a center. Once a month they see the doctor and training nurse at the clinic to evaluate their treatments and obtain bloodwork. In the event of a machine problem at home the patient can always return to the dialysis center for ongoing treatment.

Advantages: Major advantage of this method is that the patient decides what times the dialysis will be completed.

- **Short Daily Home Hemodialysis.** Newer types of dialysis machines now allow patients and their caregiver/partner to do their own dialysis at home on a daily basis. After several weeks of training, the patient can then do treatments 5 to 7 days a week for about 2 hours per treatment.

Advantages: With this method, since the water and waste product is removed on a daily-basis, this helps to minimize cramping, nausea and vomiting, some of the common side effects of dialysis.

- **Nocturnal Home Hemodialysis.** After the training period is complete, patients can do their hemodialysis overnight while they sleep. These treatments last for 6 to 8 hours and may be done every other night or six nights a week, depending on the needs of the patient.

The more frequent forms of hemodialysis offer many advantages to patients, including better waste product and fluid removal as well as minimizing the side effects of dialysis such as cramping, nausea and tiredness.

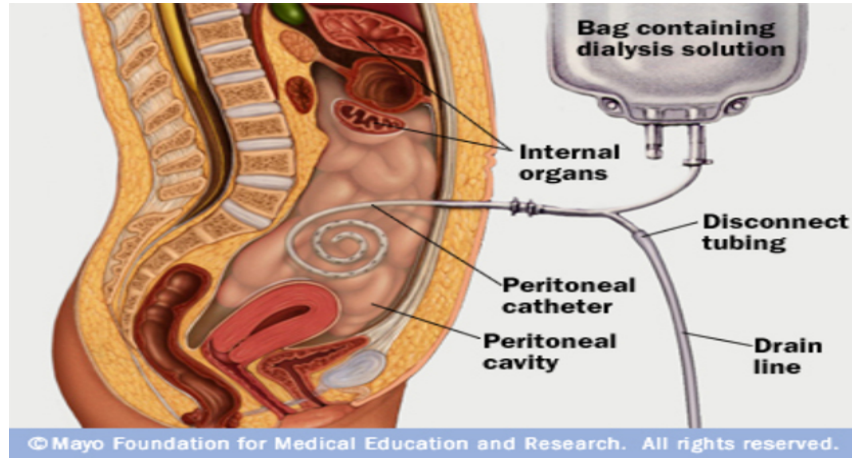
Unfortunately, not all dialysis centers offer home hemodialysis as a treatment option because it requires a specially trained nurse to teach the patient and partner, as well as a readily available dialysis machine and station in the event the home dialysis machine is not working.

ARE THERE OTHER FORMS OF DIALYSIS AVAILABLE BESIDES HEMODIALYSIS?

Yes, there is another dialysis treatment option for patients known as **Peritoneal Dialysis**. Peritoneal Dialysis works along the same principles of Hemodialysis. Blood passes through a semi-permeable membrane that is bathed in dialysate for the blood to be filtered.

The **major difference** is that in Peritoneal Dialysis, the blood does not pass outside the body. Instead it is pumped, by the heart, on its normal course through the

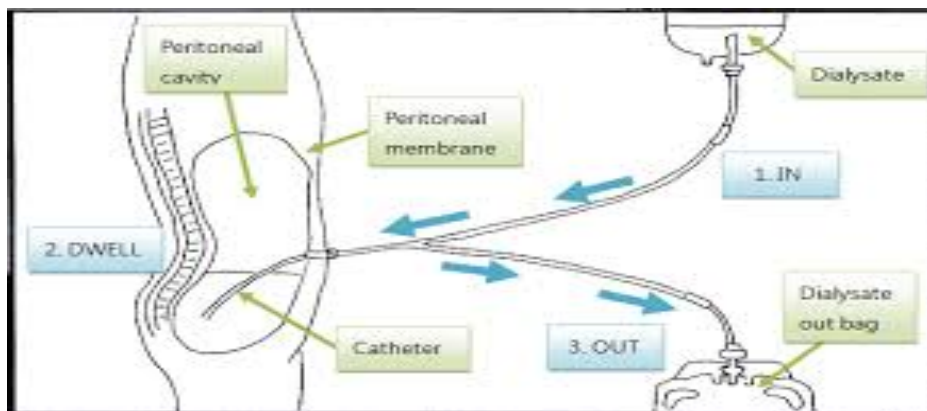
abdomen and the organs contained there-in including the semi-permeable peritoneal membrane which covers the organs. If Dialysate or dialysis washing fluid is present in the abdomen, filtering of the blood can occur.



If a patient chooses peritoneal dialysis as their treatment option, they need to have a way for the dialysate to get into the abdomen and come in contact with the blood. These patients will have a peritoneal dialysis catheter inserted into their abdomen, either to the right or left of the belly button. This catheter is about the diameter of a small pencil and is approximately 16 inches long. About one half of the catheter is inside the abdomen while the remaining portion is outside. The catheter is held in place by a Velcro cuff that is just under the skin. Once the catheter is healed the training for peritoneal dialysis can begin.

HOW DOES PERITONEAL DIALYSIS WORK?

Peritoneal Dialysis works by exchanging the waste-laden dialysate for fresh dialysate.



Following the numbers in the above image: **1.** The process begins by connecting to a sterile tubing set that has an empty drain bag and new dialysate bag.

2. Dwell Phase: The patient first drains the dialysate that has been sitting in the abdomen, known as **dwelling phase**, into the empty bag. This process lasts about 20-30 minutes as the bag drains by gravity.

3. Once the drain bag is full it is clamped closed and the new Dialysate solution bag is opened to allow the abdomen to refill with fluid. This takes about 5 to 10 minutes.

4. Once the new bag is completely empty, the patient then closes off the tubing and places a sterile cap on the end of the catheter. The new solution then dwells in the abdomen, while the patient continues with normal daily activities. This process of drain, fill and dwell is repeat several times during the day every day of the week.

There are **two different types of Peritoneal Dialysis** currently available as options.

- **CAPD: Continuous Ambulatory Peritoneal Dialysis** is done 4 times per day 7 days per week. This is the manual form of dialysis and does not require a machine. Typically, the dialysate is left to dwell in the abdomen for 4 to 6 hours during the day and 8 to 10 hours overnight. This allows the patient to have flexibility to schedule the drain and fill portion of the cycle around their own schedule.
- **APD: Automated Peritoneal Dialysis.** This type of dialysis uses a small machine called a cycler to do the drain and fill cycles over night while the patient sleeps. The patient sets the machine up and connects before going to bed. The machine does the drain, fill and dwell cycles automatically at preset intervals so the patient can have an uninterrupted night sleep. Some patients may combine this type of dialysis with a manual procedure one time midday. The typical dwell time for patients on APD is between 1 to 3 hours depending on patient need.

WHY DON'T MORE PATIENTS DO PERITONEAL DIALYSIS AT HOME?

Peritoneal Dialysis uses the body's own peritoneal membrane as the filter for the fluid and waste product removal. If the peritoneal membrane has been damaged by multiple surgeries, infections or scar tissue, there may not be enough of the membrane to adequately remove the fluid and waste products putting the patient at risk for a build-up in the blood. People who are morbidly obese are also not

recommended for this type of dialysis. Some patients may also not have enough room in their home for the supplies needed to do the dialysis as the supplies are delivered on a monthly basis. Also, some patients may have other medical issues and handicaps that may require a partner to assist in the procedure and the partner is not available.

One of the main reasons there are not more patients on Peritoneal Dialysis is the risk of an infection known as **Peritonitis**. Peritonitis occurs when the peritoneal membrane and abdomen get bacteria in the normally sterile environment, usually as a result of bacteria getting in when the tubing connection is made. Patients who have tried Peritoneal Dialysis and get peritonitis frequently often have to transfer to Hemodialysis.

IS THERE ANY OTHER TYPE OF DIALYSIS TREATMENT AVAILABLE?

Currently hemodialysis and peritoneal dialysis are the only two dialysis treatments available. In order to decide which is best for each patient, doctors will have a potential patient meet with an educator to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each type. There is also ongoing research into other dialysis options. In **Part 3** of this series we will look at what the future may hold for patients whose kidneys have failed.

References

1. Goovaerts, T. Isnard, CB. Crepaldi, C. Dean, J. Melander, S. Mooney, A. Prieto-Melasco, M. Trujillo, C. Zambon, R. Nilsson, EL. (2015) Continuing Education: Preparing Patients to Choose a Renal Replacement Therapy. *Journal of Renal Care*. Volume 41, Issue 1, pages 62–75, March 2015.
2. Rabindranath KS, Adams J, Ali TZ, MacLeod AM, Vale L, Cody JD, Wallace SA, Daly C. Continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis versus automated peritoneal dialysis for end-stage renal disease. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2007, Issue 2. Art. No.: CD006515. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD006515
3. Smart NA, Dieberg G, Ladhani M, Titus T. Early referral to specialist nephrology services for preventing the progression to end-stage kidney disease. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2014, Issue 6. Art. No.: CD007333. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD007333.pub2.

4. McMillan, J. (2014) Hemodialysis (Intermittent Hemodialysis). Merck Manual Professional Version.
<https://www.merckmanuals.com/professional/genitourinary-disorders/renal-replacement-therapy/hemodialysis>
5. McMillan, J. (2014) Peritoneal Dialysis. Merck Manual Professional Version. <https://www.merckmanuals.com/professional/genitourinary-disorders/renal-replacement-therapy/peritoneal-dialysis>
6. Gayle H, Walz D, Payne G, Castner D, Howard A, Smith K. (2013). End Stage Renal Disease Briefing Book for State and Federal Policymakers: A Guide to Kidney Disease Awareness and Education. American Nephrology Nursing Association. May 2013.
4. Nordqvist, C. (2014) What is Dialysis? What is Kidney Dialysis? Medical News Today. MediLexicon, Intl., 5 Sep. 2014. Web.30 May. 2015. <<http://www.medicalnewstoday.com/articles/152902.php>>



V. KIDNEY STONES; A GROWING AND PAINFUL PROBLEM



Kidney stones, also known as **Renal Calculi**, can not only be very painful but can also disrupt your normal life in many ways. Unfortunately, kidney stones are also a growing problem in the United States.

A study was published online in the Clinical Journal of the American Society of Nephrologists in January 2016 and revealed interesting results. This study was conducted in South Carolina and reviewed data from 152,925 obtained from both children and adults. It showed the following:

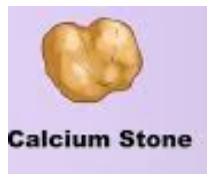
- The yearly occurrence of kidney stones increased by 16% between the years 1997 and 2012 (the years reviewed by the study).
- The greatest increase was noted in teenagers, females and African Americans.
- It was also noted that there was an increased risk of kidney stones developing in children with girls having an 87% risk and boys having a 90% risk.
- There is a 23% risk of males developing kidney stones.
- For females, there is a 15.2% risk of developing a kidney stone.

What is a kidney Stone?

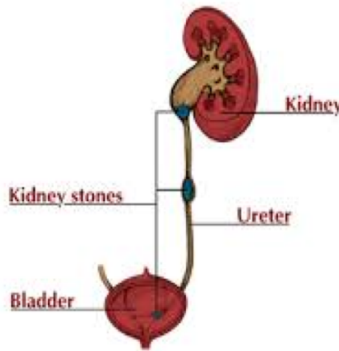
A kidney stone is a hard, solid substance that appears somewhere in the urinary tract. 85% of these stones are made up of calcium, 10% come from uric acid, 2% are made up of cystine and the



remaining come from magnesium ammonium phosphate.

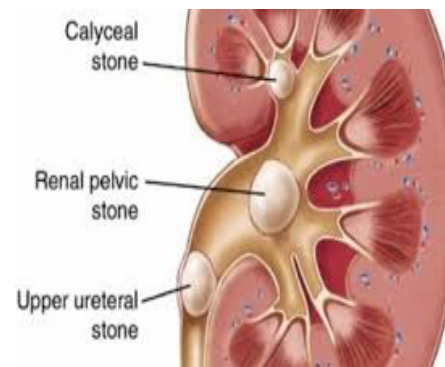


Kidney stones can appear in any part of the urinary tract, anywhere from the kidney itself to the ureter and bladder. As the kidney stone is moving



and attempting to exit the body it can become lodged in the lower part of the kidney or the ureter and block the normal flow of urine into the bladder. This blockage can cause both the ureter and the kidney to swell, creating a serious problem for the body.

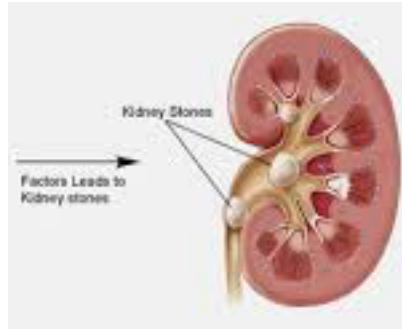
It is hard to determine when a kidney stone will lodge and block off the urine flow. Typically, the larger the stone, the greater the chance it will lodge in the small ureter and cause a blockage. Stones that are larger than 5 millimeters will typically lodge while stones that are smaller than 5 millimeters will usually pass through on their own.



How do Kidney Stones Form?

Kidney stones typically form when there is an excess of urinary salts such as calcium or uric acid produced from the kidney and in the urine. Stones that form as a result of excess calcium in the urine is known as **hypercalciuria**. The blood levels of calcium remain normal but there is a larger than normal amount of calcium in the urine. The risk for developing **hypercalciuria** can run in families. 50% of male and 75% of females are reported to have inherited the gene for hypercalciuria.





Calcium stones can also form when people drink too much tea or eat too much Rhubarb, spinach, cocoa, nuts, or pepper. It is also reported that people who take in more than 2000 milligrams per day of Vitamin C, eat a low calcium diet, or eat too much meat poultry or fish can also be at a greater risk for getting a calcium kidney stone.

A kidney stone from **uric acid** usually happens as a result of the urine being too acidic. This causes the extra uric acid in the blood to crystalize and form a stone. The stone formed from uric acid can also bind with calcium in the urine and cause a mixed calcium uric acid stone to form.

How do you know if you have a kidney stone?

The symptoms of a kidney stone can be different for everyone and depends upon where the stone is located and whether it is fully lodged or partially lodged.

Some patients report no symptoms at all.

1. **Severe Pain:** The usual symptom most patients notice is severe pain on either the right or left side in the middle to lower back near where the affected kidney and ureter is located.

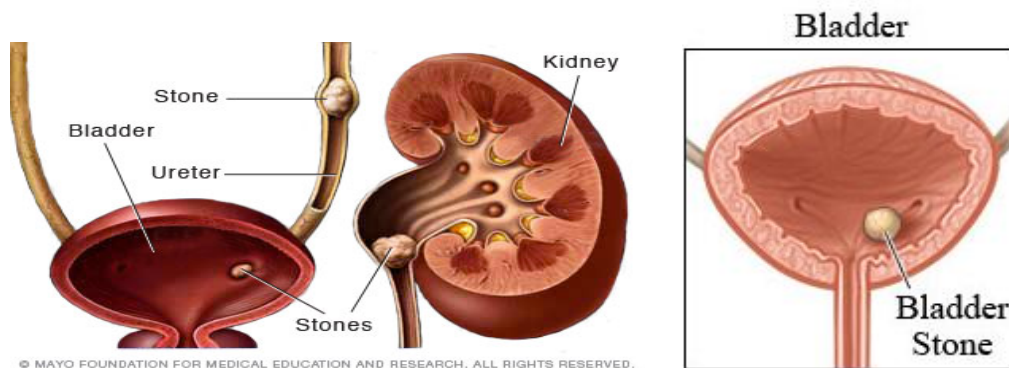
2. **Nausea and Vomiting:** Half of the patients who have this severe pain also complain of nausea and vomiting.

3. **Blood in the urine:** There could be blood present in the urine (**hematuria**) and/or there is need to go to the bathroom both frequently and urgently. The exact location of the pain and other symptoms depends on where the stone is.



For example:

- Stones that are located where the kidney and ureter meet will cause mild to severe deep pain in the lower back area. Other symptoms include the need to go to the bathroom frequently and urgently as well as pain when attempting to urinate.
- Stones that are in or get trapped in the ureter can cause a sudden severe pain that seems to come and go with no explanation. Men may complain of pain in the testicles and women in their vulvar area. Patients will usually have intense and severe nausea and vomiting with this pain.
- If the stone is moving down the urinary tract, patients may complain of the pain in changing locations.
- Once the stone reaches the bladder, and come out in the urine, the pain may disappear.
- People with kidney stones may try sitting, laying down, pacing the floor in hopes of relieving the pain without success. This is a good indication that they need to see a healthcare professional as soon as possible.



Healthcare professionals will determine if you have kidney stones based on the symptoms you report as well as a physical examination. They may press on your abdomen and lower back to check for tenderness and if the pain radiates anywhere. They will also do a number of tests to see if it is a kidney stone and where it is located.

Tests to determine the location of kidney stones

- 1. Urine Dipstick:** Getting a urine sample and using a urine dipstick to check for the presence of red blood cells and bacteria.



This is a quick test that gives results within a few minutes. If the test comes back positive they will then get a urine culture to see what bacteria is growing and what antibiotic is needed. At this point, pH of urine will also be determined.

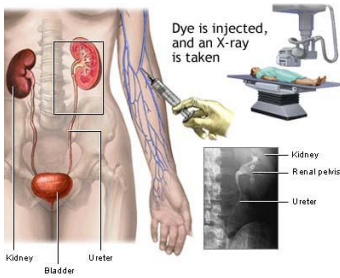


2. Blood Draw to check for: Complete Blood Count (CBC), BUN, Creatinine, potassium, sodium, calcium and phosphorus levels to check kidney function.

3. 24 hour urine collection



4. An ultrasound of the kidney and pelvis will be done to locate the stone.



5. An abdominal x-ray will be done of the Kidneys, Ureters and Bladder.



6. CT scan will be done of the abdomen and pelvis

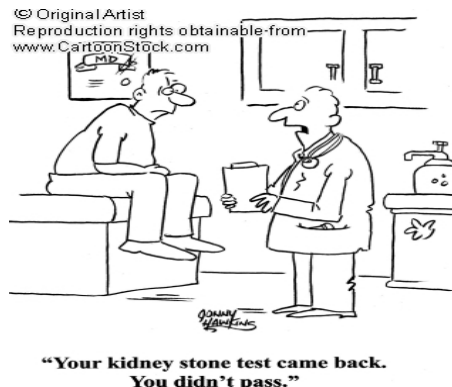
How is a kidney stone treated?

Once the healthcare professional has decided that there is a kidney stone and where it is located, they can start treatment to manage the symptoms as well as get rid of the stones.

Treatment can include:

- ✚ Intravenous fluids to help keep the patient hydrated and, also to keep the kidney functioning as well as hopefully passing the stone without further intervention
- ✚ Medications as needed for pain
- ✚ Medications for nausea and vomiting
- ✚ Steroids to decrease inflammation
- ✚ Antibiotics to treat infections

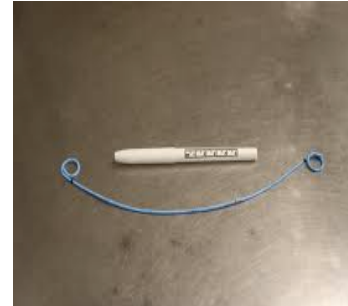
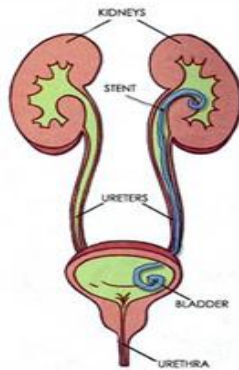
The goal of the above treatments is to keep the patient comfortable and hopefully pass the stone without needing more aggressive treatment. That is not always possible since some stones are larger than others and can get easily stuck in the kidney or ureter.



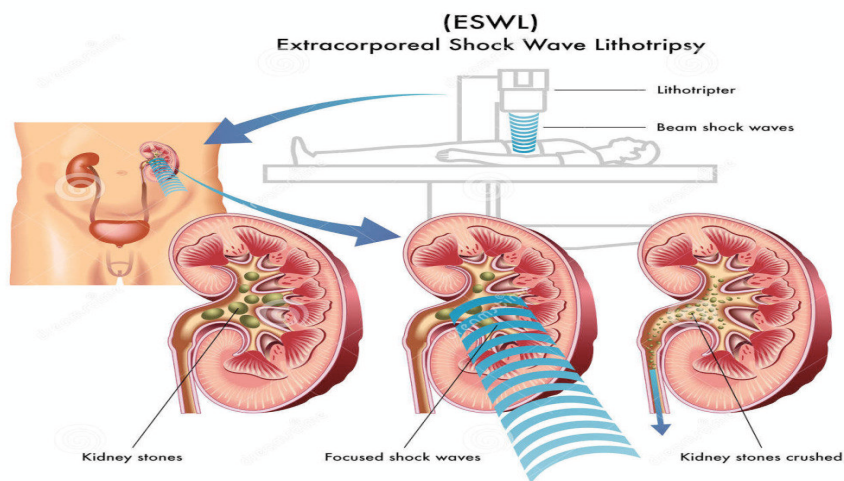
In this case, it would be necessary to have a surgical procedure done to remove the stone. The **different kinds of procedures** include:

1. Placing a stent in the ureter. The stent used in the ureter is a small, soft, flexible tube, about 10-12 inches long and has a pigtail on each end. One end sits in the kidney with the tube resting in the ureter and the other pigtail end sits in the bladder. It allows urine to flow freely from the kidney to the bladder by keeping the ureter open. It can allow for the kidney stone to pass more quickly from where it is lodged into the bladder and outside the body.

KIDNEY STENTS

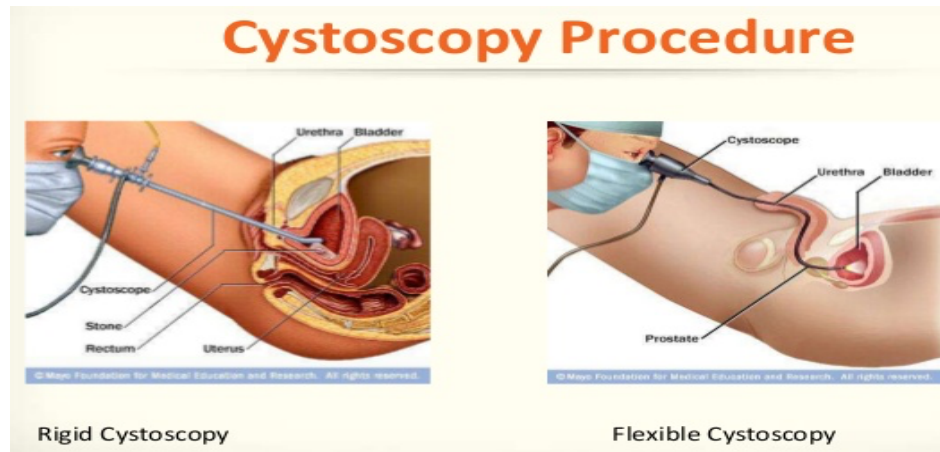


2. Extracorporeal shockwave lithotripsy (ESWL)



If the stones are very large, shock waves can be used to break up the stones and allow them to move into the bladder and exit the body. Patients are given anesthesia to relieve the pain from both the kidney stones and the procedure. Shock waves that are very high energy are used along with sound waves. These waves are guided to the stones by either X-ray or ultrasound and will continue to tap the stones until they are broken up. This treatment is not as commonly used as it used to be.

3. Ureterscopy and Cystoscopy. These procedures are more commonly used currently for the treatment of kidney stones. The procedure involves using a scope inserted into the bladder, ureter and kidneys to look for abnormalities such as kidney stones. It can be used to flush the kidney stone out or to place a **Ureteral Stent**. The scope is long and thin with a light and camera on one end and a lens on the other.



Preventing Kidney Stones

Chances are if you have had one kidney stone in your life, you may develop others. There are some things you can do to lessen your chances of getting one.



Make sure you drink plenty of fluids, especially water during the day. It is recommended you drink 6-8 glasses (8oz.) every day, unless you have another medical condition that means you need to drink less than that.



Avoid certain foods such as nuts, legumes, rhubarb, spinach and wheat bran. These foods are high in Oxalate: a substance that binds with calcium and helps to form kidney stones.



Cut back on the amount of sodium and salt in your daily diet. Foods that are high in sodium include canned, packaged and fast foods. Some seasonings and processed meats are very high in salt.



Supplements like Calcium, Vitamin D and Vitamin C should be consumed with care



Eating too much animal protein can put you at an increased risk for kidney stones so try and limit how much you eat. Animal proteins, high in Oxalate include beef, chicken, pork, organ meats, eggs, fish, shellfish, milk cheese and dairy products.

Good proteins to eat include beans, dried peas and lentils as they are high in protein and have very little oxalate.

It is important to remember to seek treatment immediately if a kidney stone is suspected. Besides being painful, an untreated kidney stone can lead to other more serious problems such as infections and even the need for dialysis.

References:

1. [Guideline] Turk C, Knoll T, Petrik A, Sarica K, Skolarikos A, Straub M, et al. Guidelines on urolithiasis. European Association of Urology. <http://uroweb.org/wp-content/uploads/EAU-Guidelines-Urolithiasis-2015-v2.pdf>. 2015; Accessed: May 16, 2016.
2. Scales CD Jr, Smith AC, Hanley JM, Saigal CS, Urologic Diseases in America Project. Prevalence of kidney stones in the United States. *Eur Urol*. 2012 Jul. 62 (1):160-5. [\[Medline\]](#).
3. Pearle MS, Calhoun EA, Curhan GC. Urologic diseases in America project: urolithiasis. *J Urol*. 2005 Mar. 173(3):848-57. [\[Medline\]](#).
4. Evan AP, Coe FL, Lingeman JE, Shao Y, Sommer AJ, Bledsoe SB, et al. Mechanism of formation of human calcium oxalate renal stones on Randall's plaque. *Anat Rec (Hoboken)*. 2007 Oct. 290(10):1315-23. [\[Medline\]](#).
5. Chandhoke PS. Evaluation of the recurrent stone former. *Urol Clin North Am*. 2007 Aug. 34(3):315-22. [\[Medline\]](#).

6. Borghi L, Schianchi T, Meschi T, Guerra A, Allegri F, Maggiore U, et al. Comparison of two diets for the prevention of recurrent stones in idiopathic hypercalciuria. *N Engl J Med*. 2002 Jan 10. 346(2):77-84. [\[Medline\]](#).
7. Russinko PJ, Agarwal S, Choi MJ, Kelty PJ. Obstructive nephropathy secondary to sulfasalazine calculi. *Urology*. 2003 Oct. 62(4):748. [\[Medline\]](#).
8. Thomas A, Woodard C, Rovner ES, Wein AJ. Urologic complications of nonurologic medications. *Urol Clin North Am*. 2003 Feb. 30(1):123-31. [\[Medline\]](#).
9. Whelan C, Schwartz BF. Bilateral guaifenesin ureteral calculi. *Urology*. 2004 Jan. 63(1):175-6. [\[Medline\]](#).
10. Worcester EM, Coe FL. Nephrolithiasis. *Prim Care*. 2008 Jun. 35(2):369-91, vii. [\[Medline\]](#).
11. Tasian GE, Ross ME, Song L, Sas DJ, Keren R, Denburg MR, et al. Annual Incidence of Nephrolithiasis among Children and Adults in South Carolina from 1997 to 2012. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2016 Mar 7. 11 (3):488-96. [\[Medline\]](#).
12. Tasian GE, Copelovitch L. Evaluation and medical management of kidney stones in children. *J Urol*. 2014 Nov. 192 (5):1329-36. [\[Medline\]](#).
13. Moore CL, Bomann S, Daniels B, Luty S, Molinaro A, Singh D, et al. Derivation and validation of a clinical prediction rule for uncomplicated ureteral stone--the STONE score: retrospective and prospective observational cohort studies. *BMJ*. 2014 Mar 26. 348:g2191. [\[Medline\]](#).
14. Borrero E, Qeral LA. Symptomatic abdominal aortic aneurysm misdiagnosed as nephroureterolithiasis. *Ann Vasc Surg*. 1988 Apr. 2(2):145-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
15. Lindqvist K, Hellström M, Holmberg G, Pecker R, Grenabo L. Immediate versus deferred radiological investigation after acute renal colic: a prospective randomized study. *Scand J Urol Nephrol*. 2006. 40(2):119-24. [\[Medline\]](#).
16. Bove P, Kaplan D, Dalrymple N, Rosenfield AT, Verga M, Anderson K, et al. Reexamining the value of hematuria testing in patients with acute flank pain. *J Urol*. 1999 Sep. 162(3 Pt 1):685-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
17. Press SM, Smith AD. Incidence of negative hematuria in patients with acute urinary lithiasis presenting to the emergency room with flank pain. *Urology*. 1995 May. 45(5):753-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
18. Dundee P, Bouchier-Hayes D, Haxhimolla H, Dowling R, Costello A. Renal tract calculi: comparison of stone size on plain radiography and noncontrast spiral CT scan. *J Endourol*. 2006 Dec. 20(12):1005-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
19. Jackman SV, Potter SR, Regan F, Jarrett TW. Plain abdominal x-ray versus computerized tomography screening: sensitivity for stone localization after

- nonenhanced spiral computerized tomography. *J Urol*. 2000 Aug. 164(2):308-10. [\[Medline\]](#).
20. Pais VM Jr, Payton AL, LaGrange CA. Urolithiasis in pregnancy. *Urol Clin North Am*. 2007 Feb. 34(1):43-52. [\[Medline\]](#).
 21. Jindal G, Ramchandani P. Acute flank pain secondary to urolithiasis: radiologic evaluation and alternate diagnoses. *Radiol Clin North Am*. 2007 May. 45(3):395-410, vii. [\[Medline\]](#).
 22. Middleton WD, Dodds WJ, Lawson TL, Foley WD. Renal calculi: sensitivity for detection with US. *Radiology*. 1988 Apr. 167(1):239-44. [\[Medline\]](#).
 23. Cauni V, Multescu R, Geavlete P, Geavlete B. [The importance of Doppler ultrasonographic evaluation of the ureteral jets in patients with obstructive upper urinary tract lithiasis]. *Chirurgia (Bucur)*. 2008 Nov-Dec. 103(6):665-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
 24. Merten GJ, Burgess WP, Gray LV, Holleman JH, Roush TS, Kowalchuk GJ, et al. Prevention of contrast-induced nephropathy with sodium bicarbonate: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2004 May 19. 291(19):2328-34. [\[Medline\]](#).
 25. Gdor Y, Faddegon S, Krambeck AE, et al. Multi-institutional assessment of ureteroscopic laser papillotomy for chronic flank pain associated with papillary calcifications. *J Urol*. 2011 Jan. 185(1):192-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
 26. Neville A, Hatem SF. Renal medullary carcinoma: unsuspected diagnosis at stone protocol CT. *Emerg Radiol*. 2007 Sep. 14(4):245-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
 27. Dusseault BN, Croce KJ, Pais VM Jr. Radiographic characteristics of sulfadiazine urolithiasis. *Urology*. 2009 Apr. 73(4):928.e5-6. [\[Medline\]](#).
 28. Kishore TA, Pedro RN, Hinck B, Monga M. Estimation of size of distal ureteral stones: noncontrast CT scan versus actual size. *Urology*. 2008 Oct. 72(4):761-4. [\[Medline\]](#).
 29. Narepalem N, Sundaram CP, Boridy IC, Yan Y, Heiken JP, Clayman RV. Comparison of helical computerized tomography and plain radiography for estimating urinary stone size. *J Urol*. 2002 Mar. 167(3):1235-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
 30. Katz DS, Lane MJ, Sommer FG. Unenhanced helical CT of ureteral stones: incidence of associated urinary tract findings. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1996 Jun. 166(6):1319-22. [\[Medline\]](#).
 31. Smith RC, Verga M, Dalrymple N, McCarthy S, Rosenfield AT. Acute ureteral obstruction: value of secondary signs of helical unenhanced CT. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1996 Nov. 167(5):1109-13. [\[Medline\]](#).
 32. Smergel E, Greenberg SB, Crisci KL, Salwen JK. CT urograms in pediatric patients with ureteral calculi: do adult criteria work?. *Pediatr Radiol*. 2001 Oct. 31(10):720-3. [\[Medline\]](#).

33. Baumgarten DA, Francis IR, Casalino DD, et al; American College of Radiology. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® acute onset flank pain — suspicion of stone disease. National Guideline Clearinghouse. Available at <http://www.guidelines.gov/content.aspx?id=15759>. Accessed: April 15, 2011.
34. Sudah M, Vanninen R, Partanen K, Heino A, Vainio P, Ala-Opas M. MR urography in evaluation of acute flank pain: T2-weighted sequences and gadolinium-enhanced three-dimensional FLASH compared with urography. Fast low-angle shot. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2001 Jan. 176(1):105-12. [\[Medline\]](#).
35. [Guideline] Assimos DG, Krambeck A, Miller NL, et al. Surgical Management of Stones: American Urological Association/Endourological Society Guideline. American Urological Association. Available at <https://www.auanet.org/education/guidelines/surgical-management-of-stones.cfm>. May 16, 2016.
36. Mariappan P, Loong CW. Midstream urine culture and sensitivity test is a poor predictor of infected urine proximal to the obstructing ureteral stone or infected stones: a prospective clinical study. *J Urol*. 2004 Jun. 171(6 Pt 1):2142-5. [\[Medline\]](#).
37. St Lezin M, Hofmann R, Stoller ML. Pyonephrosis: diagnosis and treatment. *Br J Urol*. 1992 Oct. 70(4):360-3. [\[Medline\]](#).
38. Jeffrey RB, Laing FC, Wing VW, Hoddick W. Sensitivity of sonography in pyonephrosis: a reevaluation. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1985 Jan. 144(1):71-3. [\[Medline\]](#).
39. Schneider K, Helmig FJ, Eife R, Belohradsky BH, Kohn MM, Devens K, et al. Pyonephrosis in childhood--is ultrasound sufficient for diagnosis?. *Pediatr Radiol*. 1989. 19(5):302-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
40. Fultz PJ, Hampton WR, Totterman SM. Computed tomography of pyonephrosis. *Abdom Imaging*. 1993. 18(1):82-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
41. Wu TT, Lee YH, Tzeng WS, Chen WC, Yu CC, Huang JK. The role of C-reactive protein and erythrocyte sedimentation rate in the diagnosis of infected hydronephrosis and pyonephrosis. *J Urol*. 1994 Jul. 152(1):26-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
42. Wen CC, Nakada SY. Treatment selection and outcomes: renal calculi. *Urol Clin North Am*. 2007 Aug. 34(3):409-19. [\[Medline\]](#).
43. Labrecque M, Dostaler LP, Rousselle R, Nguyen T, Poirier S. Efficacy of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in the treatment of acute renal colic. A meta-analysis. *Arch Intern Med*. 1994 Jun 27. 154(12):1381-7. [\[Medline\]](#).

44. Larkin GL, Peacock WF 4th, Pearl SM, Blair GA, D'Amico F. Efficacy of ketorolac tromethamine versus meperidine in the ED treatment of acute renal colic. *Am J Emerg Med.* 1999 Jan. 17(1):6-10. [\[Medline\]](#).
45. Cooper JT, Stack GM, Cooper TP. Intensive medical management of ureteral calculi. *Urology.* 2000 Oct 1. 56(4):575-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
46. Dellabella M, Milanese G, Muzzonigro G. Efficacy of tamsulosin in the medical management of juxtavesical ureteral stones. *J Urol.* 2003 Dec. 170(6 Pt 1):2202-5. [\[Medline\]](#).
47. Dellabella M, Milanese G, Muzzonigro G. Randomized trial of the efficacy of tamsulosin, nifedipine and phloroglucinol in medical expulsive therapy for distal ureteral calculi. *J Urol.* 2005 Jul. 174(1):167-72. [\[Medline\]](#).
48. Porpiglia F, Ghignone G, Fiori C, Fontana D, Scarpa RM. Nifedipine versus tamsulosin for the management of lower ureteral stones. *J Urol.* 2004 Aug. 172(2):568-71. [\[Medline\]](#).
49. Küpeli B, Irkilata L, Gürocak S, Tunç L, Kiraç M, Karaoglan U, et al. Does tamsulosin enhance lower ureteral stone clearance with or without shock wave lithotripsy?. *Urology.* 2004 Dec. 64(6):1111-5. [\[Medline\]](#).
50. Porpiglia F, Destefanis P, Fiori C, Fontana D. Effectiveness of nifedipine and deflazacort in the management of distal ureter stones. *Urology.* 2000 Oct 1. 56(4):579-82. [\[Medline\]](#).
51. Porpiglia F, Destefanis P, Fiori C, Scarpa RM, Fontana D. Role of adjunctive medical therapy with nifedipine and deflazacort after extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy of ureteral stones. *Urology.* 2002 Jun. 59(6):835-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
52. Yilmaz E, Batislam E, Basar MM, Tuglu D, Ferhat M, Basar H. The comparison and efficacy of 3 different alpha1-adrenergic blockers for distal ureteral stones. *J Urol.* 2005 Jun. 173(6):2010-2. [\[Medline\]](#).
53. Hollingsworth JM, Rogers MA, Kaufman SR, Bradford TJ, Saint S, Wei JT, et al. Medical therapy to facilitate urinary stone passage: a meta-analysis. *Lancet.* 2006 Sep 30. 368(9542):1171-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
54. Singh A, Alter HJ, Littlepage A. A systematic review of medical therapy to facilitate passage of ureteral calculi. *Ann Emerg Med.* 2007 Nov. 50(5):552-63. [\[Medline\]](#).
55. Beach MA, Mauro LS. Pharmacologic expulsive treatment of ureteral calculi. *Ann Pharmacother.* 2006 Jul-Aug. 40(7-8):1361-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
56. Ferre RM, Wasielewski JN, Strout TD, Perron AD. Tamsulosin for ureteral stones in the emergency department: a randomized, controlled trial. *Ann Emerg Med.* 2009 Sep. 54(3):432-9, 439.e1-2. [\[Medline\]](#).
57. Pickard R, Starr K, MacLennan G, Lam T, Thomas R, Burr J, et al. Medical expulsive therapy in adults with ureteric colic: a multicentre, randomised,

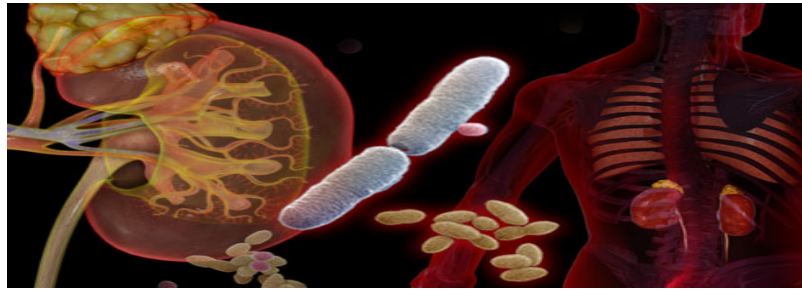
- placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2015 Jul 25. 386 (9991):341-9. [[Medline](#)]. [[Full Text](#)].
58. Hollingsworth JM, Canales BK, Rogers MAM, Sukumar S, Yan P, Kuntz GM, et al. Alpha blockers for treatment of ureteric stones: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 1 December 2016. 355:i6112. [[Full Text](#)].
 59. Springhart WP, Marguet CG, Sur RL, Norris RD, Delvecchio FC, Young MD, et al. Forced versus minimal intravenous hydration in the management of acute renal colic: a randomized trial. *J Endourol*. 2006 Oct. 20(10):713-6. [[Medline](#)].
 60. Flexible nephroscopy during PCNL a 'favorable' choice. Medscape Medical News. January 21, 2013. Available at <http://www.medscape.com/viewarticle/777933>. Accessed: February 6, 2013.
 61. Gücük A, Kemahli E, Uyetürk U, Tuygun C, Yildiz M, Metin A. Routine Flexible Nephroscopy for Percutaneous Nephrolithotomy in Renal Stones with Low Density: A Prospective Randomized Study. *J Urol*. 2013 Jan 9. [[Medline](#)].
 62. [Guideline] Preminger GM, Assimos DG, Lingeman JE, Nakada SY, Pearle MS, Wolf JS Jr. Chapter 1: AUA guideline on management of staghorn calculi: diagnosis and treatment recommendations. *J Urol*. 2005 Jun. 173(6):1991-2000. [[Medline](#)].
 63. Ramakumar S, Segura JW. Renal calculi. Percutaneous management. *Urol Clin North Am*. 2000 Nov. 27(4):617-22. [[Medline](#)].
 64. Pareek G, Hedican SP, Lee FT Jr, Nakada SY. Shock wave lithotripsy success determined by skin-to-stone distance on computed tomography. *Urology*. 2005 Nov. 66(5):941-4. [[Medline](#)].
 65. Fankhauser CD, Kranzbühler B, Poyet C, Hermanns T, Sulser T, Steurer J. Long-term Adverse Effects of Extracorporeal Shock-wave Lithotripsy for Nephrolithiasis and Ureterolithiasis: A Systematic Review. *Urology*. 2015 May. 85 (5):991-1006. [[Medline](#)].
 66. Ault A. Extracorporeal Shockwave Lithotripsy Falling Out of Favor. Medscape Medical News. Available at <http://www.medscape.com/viewarticle/845931>. June 4, 2015; Accessed: September 26, 2015.
 67. Song T, Liao B, Zheng S, Wei Q. Meta-analysis of postoperatively stenting or not in patients underwent ureteroscopic lithotripsy. *Urol Res*. 2012 Feb. 40(1):67-77. [[Medline](#)].
 68. Afane JS, Olweny EO, Bercowsky E, Sundaram CP, Dunn MD, Shalhav AL, et al. Flexible ureteroscopes: a single center evaluation of the durability and function of the new endoscopes smaller than 9Fr. *J Urol*. 2000 Oct. 164 (4):1164-8. [[Medline](#)].

69. Ho CC, Hee TG, Hong GE, Singam P, Bahadzor B, Md Zainuddin Z. Outcomes and Safety of Retrograde Intra-Renal Surgery for Renal Stones Less Than 2 cm in Size. *Nephrourol Mon.* 2012 Spring. 4 (2):454-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
70. Wen J, Xu G, Du C, Wang B. Minimally invasive percutaneous nephrolithotomy versus endoscopic combined intrarenal surgery with flexible ureteroscope for partial staghorn calculi: A randomised controlled trial. *Int J Surg.* 2016 Apr. 28:22-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
71. Dede O, Sancaktutar AA, Dağguli M, Utangaç M, Baş O, Penbegul N. Ultra-mini-percutaneous nephrolithotomy in pediatric nephrolithiasis: Both low pressure and high efficiency. *J Pediatr Urol.* 2015 Apr 28. [\[Medline\]](#).
72. Khalaf I, Salih E, El-Mallah E, Farghal S, Abdel-Raouf A. The outcome of open renal stone surgery calls for limitation of its use: A single institution experience. *African Journal of Urology.* Available at <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1110570413000386>. 2015 Feb 6; Accessed: May 17, 2016.
73. Assimos DG. Anatomic nephrolithotomy. *Urology.* 2001 Jan. 57 (1):161-5. [\[Medline\]](#).
74. Ganpule AP, Prashant J, Desai MR. Laparoscopic and robot-assisted surgery in the management of urinary lithiasis. *Arab J Urol.* 2012 Mar. 10 (1):32-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
75. Giedelman C, Arriaga J, Carmona O, de Andrade R, Banda E, Lopez R, et al. Laparoscopic anatomic nephrolithotomy: developments of the technique in the era of minimally invasive surgery. *J Endourol.* 2012 May. 26 (5):444-50. [\[Medline\]](#).
76. King SA, Klaassen Z, Madi R. Robot-assisted anatomic nephrolithotomy: description of technique and early results. *J Endourol.* 2014 Mar. 28 (3):325-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
77. Ghani KR, Rogers CG, Sood A, Kumar R, Ehlert M, Jeong W, et al. Robot-assisted anatomic nephrolithotomy with renal hypothermia for managing staghorn calculi. *J Endourol.* 2013 Nov. 27 (11):1393-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
78. Wang Z, Xu L, Su Z, Yao C, Chen Z. Invasive management of proximal ureteral calculi during pregnancy. *Urology.* 2014 Feb 6. [\[Medline\]](#).
79. Kingo PS, Ryhammer AM, Fuglsig S. Clinical experience with the Swiss lithoclast master in treatment of bladder calculi. *J Endourol.* 2014 Oct. 28 (10):1178-82. [\[Medline\]](#).
80. Chew BH, Arsovska O, Lange D, Wright JE, Beiko DT, Ghiculete D, et al. The Canadian StoneBreaker trial: a randomized, multicenter trial comparing the LMA StoneBreaker™ and the Swiss LithoClast® during percutaneous nephrolithotripsy. *J Endourol.* 2011 Sep. 25 (9):1415-9. [\[Medline\]](#).

- 81.[Guideline] Preminger GM, Tiselius HG, Assimos DG, Alken P, Buck C, Gallucci M, et al. 2007 guideline for the management of ureteral calculi. *J Urol.* 2007 Dec. 178 (6):2418-34. [\[Medline\]](#). [\[Full Text\]](#).
- 82.Simforoosh N, Radfar MH, Nouralizadeh A, Tabibi A, Basiri A, Mohsen Ziaee SA, et al. Laparoscopic anatomic nephrolithotomy for management of staghorn renal calculi. *J Laparoendosc Adv Surg Tech A.* 2013 Apr. 23 (4):306-10. [\[Medline\]](#).
- 83.el-Nahas AR, Eraky I, Shokeir AA, Shoma AM, el-Assmy AM, el-Tabey NA, et al. Factors affecting stone-free rate and complications of percutaneous nephrolithotomy for treatment of staghorn stone. *Urology.* 2012 Jun. 79 (6):1236-41. [\[Medline\]](#).
- 84.Wang CJ, Huang SW, Chang CH. Randomized trial of NTrap for proximal ureteral stones. *Urology.* 2011 Mar. 77 (3):553-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
- 85.Aboumarzouk OM, Kata SG, Keeley FX, McClinton S, Nabi G. Extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy (ESWL) versus ureteroscopic management for ureteric calculi. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2012 May 16. 5:CD006029. [\[Medline\]](#).
- 86.Portis AJ, Hermans K, Culhane-Pera KA, Curhan GC. Stone disease in the Hmong of Minnesota: initial description of a high-risk population. *J Endourol.* 2004 Nov. 18 (9):853-7. [\[Medline\]](#).

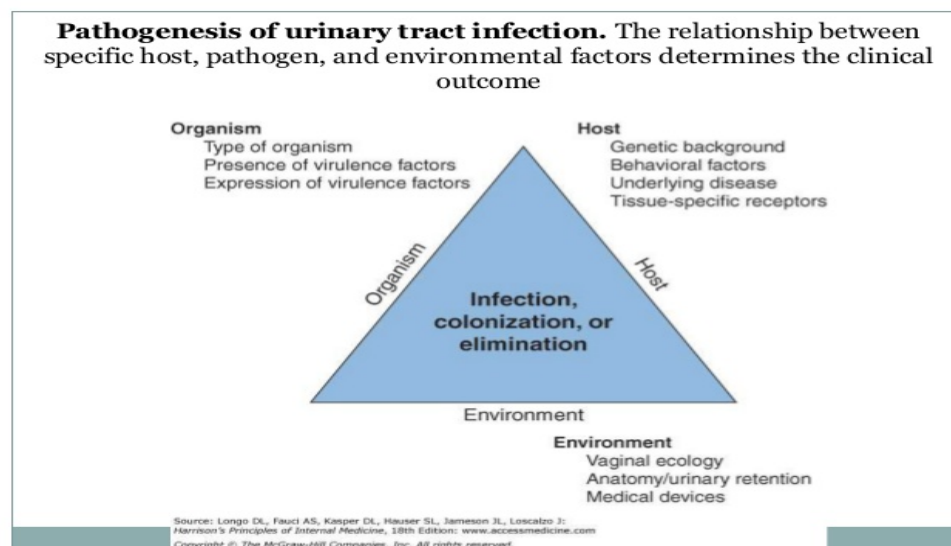


VI. INFECTIONS OF THE KIDNEYS AND THE URINARY TRACT



Kidney and Urinary Tract Infections (UTI) are more than just a nuisance they can also lead to other serious medical problems. How common are these types of infections?

- More than 8 million medical visits per year are a result of Urinary Tract Infections.
- The diagnosis of a UTI accounts for 100,000 hospital admissions in a year.
- 50% of women will have one UTI in their lifetime, with 1 in 3 women having a UTI before the age of 24.
- 20% of young women who have a UTI are at risk for getting recurrent UTI's, and the risk increases with each UTI occurrence
- Men are less likely to get an initial UTI but are more likely to have recurrent UTI's because the bacteria get imbedded in the prostate tissue and is difficult to eliminate.



What is a Urinary Tract Infection?

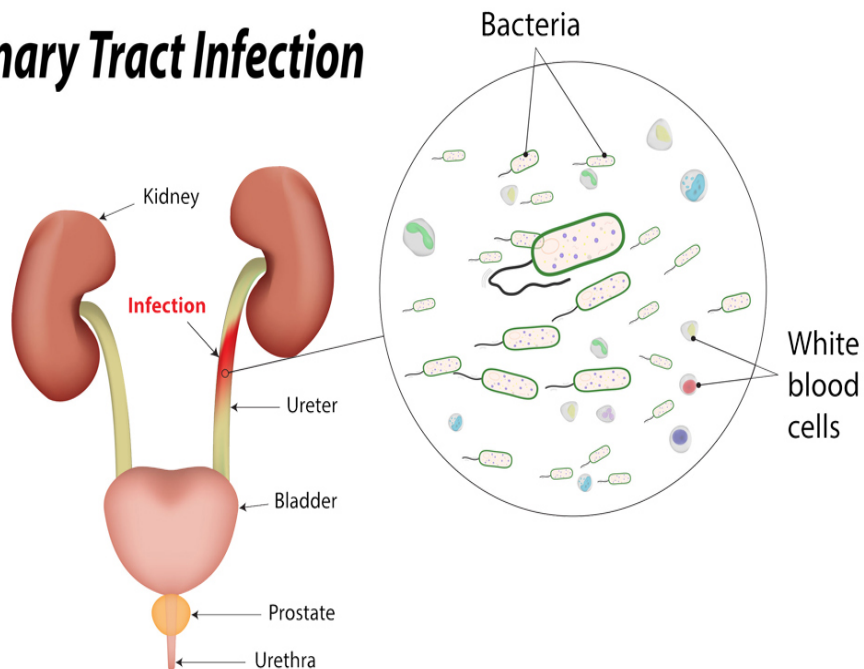


The urinary tract, including the kidneys, ureters, bladder, urethra and in males the prostate are normally sterile or completely free from bacteria. The urethra and prostate does not allow any bacteria, that attempts to invade, an opportunity to lodge in the area and start growing a bacteria colony.

However, it is possible that bacteria can swim up from the opening into the bladder and begin to grow at a very fast rate. As the bacteria begin to grow, white blood cells begin to attack and attempt to destroy them often becoming overwhelmed causing symptoms to occur. The bladder is considered to be good breeding ground for bacteria because it has everything bacteria needs to grow and flourish; it is dark, warm, moist and has a food source (sugar and other items found in urine).

The most common bacteria that causes UTI's is one of the many strains of *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) that is able to attach the cells of the bladder. Other Common bacteria include: *Klebsiella*, *Proteus* and *Pseudomonas*. There are times that the infection can be caused by fungus.

Urinary Tract Infection



What puts a person at risk for a UTI?

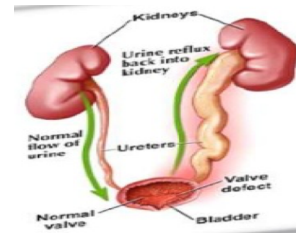
- First UTI at an early age
- History of recurrent UTI's
- Use of antibiotics
- Sexual intercourse
- New Sex partner within a year
- Family history of UTI's
- Not cleaning the urethra and outside surrounding area after a bowel movement



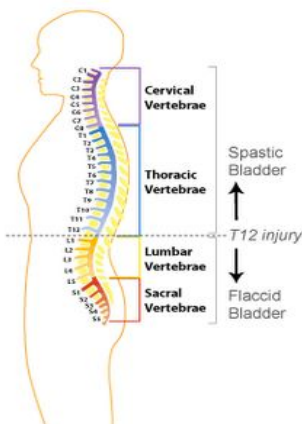
✚ Females are at more risk for bladder infection than males, because of their short urethral length, bacteria can gain access to the bladder much easier than in males.

There are also certain changes to the anatomy and the functioning of the Urinary tract that can put people at risk for UTI's. These abnormalities may be the result of a birth defect, injury or illness. For instance:

✚ **Vesicoureteral reflux:** where the vesicoureteral valve does not function properly and the urine backs up from the bladder into the ureters and even the kidney.



✚ **Neurogenic Bladder:** When there is disruption of the urinary bladder from within the central nervous system or peripheral nervous system. Interruption could be due to injury to the brain or spinal cord from trauma, Multiple Sclerosis, Parkinson's disease, Stroke or Diabetic Neuropathy.



Bladder	Spastic	Flaccid
Injury	above L1	at/below L1
Symptoms	Urgency	Retention
Bladder Pressure	Low	High

Are All Urinary Tract Infections the Same?

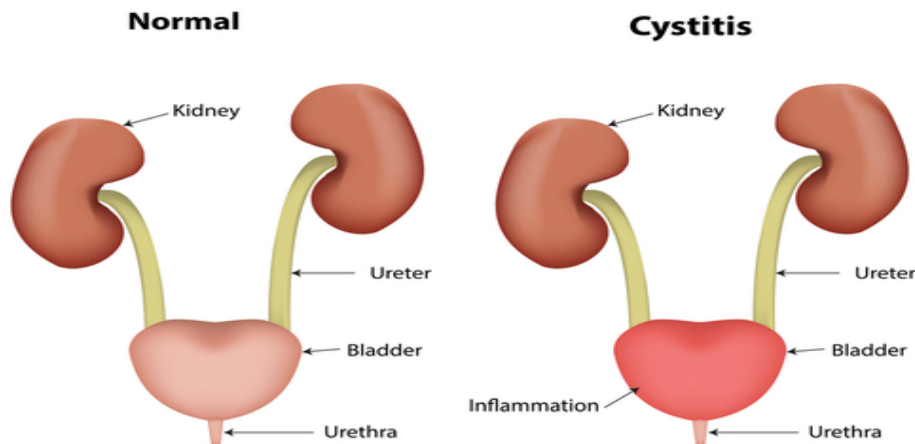
There are **different types and classifications for Urinary Tract Infections** depending on where in the urinary tract the bacteria have located themselves.

1. **Urethritis**: This infection occurs in the **urethra** itself. Bacteria or Fungi get access to the urethra and begin to populate the area. They do not move further up into the bladder but remain in the urethra itself. **Main symptoms**: severe, non-stop itching and burning in the urethral area. **Gonorrhoea** is one type of bacteria that causes this type of infection.



2. **Cystitis**: is a common infection in the **bladder** itself, especially in women. It usually happens as a result of sexual intercourse when bacteria from the partner's skin comes in contact with the urethra causing the bacteria to move upward into the bladder. Cystitis is not as common in men and usually happens because the infecting bacteria moves up into the bladder from the urethra or prostate. It can be very difficult to treat and eliminate cystitis in men because bacteria can become

Cystitis



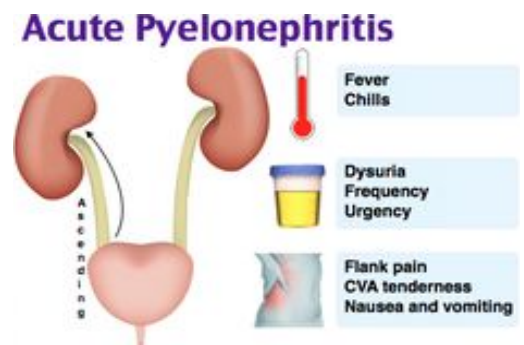
embedded deep in the soft tissues of the prostate and difficult to eliminate completely. Cystitis can also be a complication in both men and women because of placement of **urinary catheters** and **radiation treatments** performed to treat cancers in the abdominal area.

3. Acute Pyelonephritis: is a serious and potentially life threatening infection that can damage and scar the structure of the kidney itself. This type of infection could happen in the following situations:

- ✚ when bacteria travel up from the bladder through the ureters and into the lower portion of the kidney itself
- ✚ if there is bacteria present in the blood supply going through the kidney and some of the bacteria cross into the kidney and embed in the tissues there
- ✚ Kidney stones that are lodged in the ureter can also lead to pyelonephritis due to the back-up of urine into the kidney. As the bacteria grow and begin to form a colony, an abscess can grow on the kidney or the kidney can go into acute kidney failure. Even sepsis and septic shock can occur.

Symptoms of sudden onset pyelonephritis are important to catch early and include:

- Fever >103°F accompanied by chills and a feeling of general weakness.
- Noticeable blood in the urine also known as gross hematuria
- Pain near and over the affecting kidney. The pain can be described as discomfort, pressure or severe
- Nausea and vomiting
- Elderly patients may suddenly become confused, nasty, disoriented, difficulty remembering even simple tasks.



If pyelonephritis is suspected a visit to a healthcare provider, urgent care or emergency room is very important. A physical examination will be done and specific symptoms will be discussed.

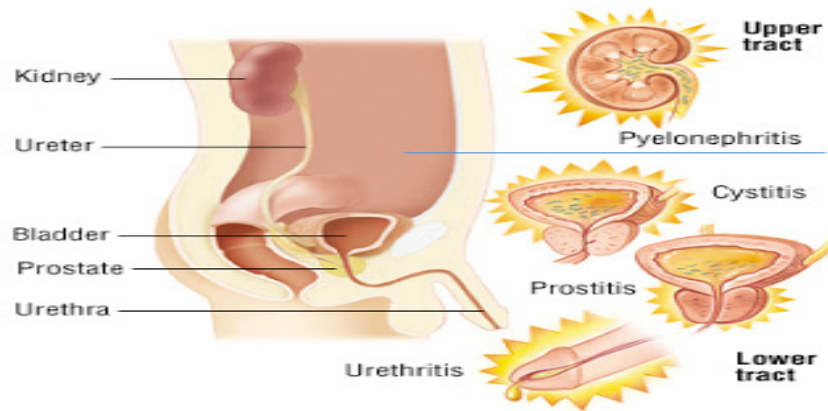


Tests may include:

- Collection of Urine for analysis. This can be done by either doing by peeing in a sterile cup, having a sterile catheter inserted directly into the bladder or in cases where there is no urine flow a needle may be inserted into the bladder.
- Culture of both the urine and blood to determine what bacteria is growing and what antibiotic will best treat it. Ideally there would be no bacteria in the blood sample, even though there is bacteria present in the urine.
- CT scan is the preferred imaging study of choice. It can show if an abscess is present on the kidney, its location and size.

Treating acute pyelonephritis quickly is very important in preventing further damage to the urinary tract. **Treatment includes:**

- Seeking immediate medical treatment usually in the emergency room
- Getting intravenous fluids to keep hydrated and preserve as much kidney function as possible
- Medications to relieve the pain and, also to treat a very high fever
- Antibiotics will be given both through the intravenous fluid as well as by mouth.
- If an abscess is present on the kidney, surgical drainage of the abscess along with all of the above treatments may be necessary.
- If the infection is the result of a lodged kidney stone, the stone may need to be removed either surgically or with lithotripsy.
- Antibiotic therapy may need to continue for several weeks



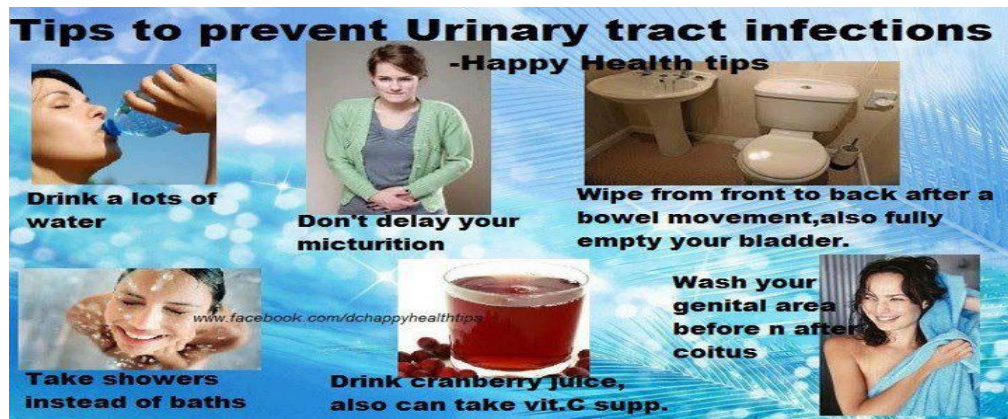
Preventing Urinary Tract Infections

Preventing an initial urinary tract infection from happening or preventing recurrences is very important, especially for women. One of the main risk factors for getting a UTI and possible reoccurrences is sexual intercourse, especially if they are using a Spermicide and or a Diaphragm as contraceptives.

Behavior Modification, or changing behaviors and habits is a usually low cost and simple way to prevent infections or keep infections from coming back. These include:

- After sexual intercourse, attempt to empty your bladder. This will help keep any coitus related bacteria from getting into the bladder and causing an infection.
- Drink 10 ounces of cranberry juice each day. Some studies have shown that the juice contain hippuric acid that helps to fight the bacteria and may also contain tannins that work to keep the *E. coli* from growing. However, these studies are inconclusive and need further review to see how exactly cranberry juice helps, if indeed it does.
- Always wipe from front to back to prevent the bacteria in the rectum can easily be transferred to the urinary tract.
- Showers are preferable to tub baths. Bath water quickly becomes contaminated with the normal bacteria on the skin and can easily enter the urethra and travel into the bladder.
- Use a separate, clean washcloth to wash the urethra, vagina and rectum. Carefully wipe from front to back.
- Urinate at least once every 4 hours while awake and try not to hold urine in your bladder for too long.

- Drink plenty of fluids throughout the day at least 6-8 8 ounce glasses. A good idea is to have one extra glass of water with each meal.
- Urine is normally pale yellow in color. If it appears darker yellow, it's a sign that the body needs more fluid.
- Wear cotton underwear that is not too tight. Cotton is a fabric that breathes well and keeps the moisture away from the skin and urethra. Remember that moisture is one ingredient for helping bacteria grow so you want to keep the urethra as dry as possible.
- Take antibiotics only if prescribed by a healthcare provider. Do not take any leftover antibiotics or antibiotics from someone else.



References:

1. Gupta K, Hooton TM, Naber KG, Wullt B, Colgan R, Miller LG, et al. International clinical practice guidelines for the treatment of acute uncomplicated cystitis and pyelonephritis in women: A 2010 update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America and the European Society for Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2011 Mar 1. 52(5):e103-20. [\[Medline\]](#).
2. Czaja CA, Scholes D, Hooton TM, Stamm WE. Population-based epidemiologic analysis of acute pyelonephritis. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2007 Aug 1. 45(3):273-80. [\[Medline\]](#).
3. National Kidney & Urologic Diseases Information Clearinghouse (NKUDIC). Kidney and Urologic Diseases Statistics for the United States. Available at <http://kidney.niddk.nih.gov/kudiseases/pubs/kustats/#urologic>. Accessed: October 31, 2011.
4. Mazaki-Tovi S, Vaisbuch E, Romero R, et al. Maternal plasma concentration of the pro-inflammatory adipokine pre-B-cell-enhancing

- factor (PBEF)/visfatin is elevated in pregnant patients with acute pyelonephritis. *Am J Reprod Immunol*. 2010 Mar 1. 63(3):252-62. [\[Medline\]](#).
5. Kofteridis DP, Papadimitraki E, Mantadakis E, et al. Effect of diabetes mellitus on the clinical and microbiological features of hospitalized elderly patients with acute pyelonephritis. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2009 Nov. 57(11):2125-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
 6. Lumbiganon P, Laopaiboon M, Thinkhamrop J. Screening and treating asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol*. 2010 Apr. 22(2):95-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
 7. Arambašić J, Mandić S, Debeljak Ž, Mandić D, Horvat V, Šerić V. Differentiation of acute pyelonephritis from other febrile states in children using urinary neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin (uNGAL). *Clin Chem Lab Med*. 2015 Jun 6. [\[Medline\]](#).
 8. Rafiei A, Mohammadjafari H, Bazi S, Mirabi AM. Urinary neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin (NGAL) might be an independent marker for anticipating scar formation in children with acute pyelonephritis. *J Renal Inj Prev*. 2015. 4 (2):39-44. [\[Medline\]](#).
 9. Abrahamian FM, Moran GJ, Talan DA. Urinary tract infections in the emergency department. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2008 Mar. 22(1):73-87. [\[Medline\]](#).
 10. Martina MC, Campanino PP, Caraffo F, et al. Dynamic magnetic resonance imaging in acute pyelonephritis. *Radiol Med*. 2010 Mar. 115(2):287-300. [\[Medline\]](#).
 11. Silverman SG, Leyendecker JR, Amis ES Jr. What is the current role of CT urography and MR urography in the evaluation of the urinary tract?. *Radiology*. 2009 Feb. 250(2):309-23. [\[Medline\]](#).
 12. Talan DA, Stamm WE, Hooton TM, et al. Comparison of ciprofloxacin (7 days) and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (14 days) for acute uncomplicated pyelonephritis in women: a randomized trial. *JAMA*. 2000 Mar 22-29. 283(12):1583-90. [\[Medline\]](#).
 13. Sandberg T, Skoog G, Hermansson AB, Kahlmeter G, Kuylenstierna N, Lannergård A, et al. Ciprofloxacin for 7 days versus 14 days in women with acute pyelonephritis: a randomised, open-label and double-blind, placebo-controlled, non-inferiority trial. *Lancet*. 2012 Aug 4. 380(9840):484-90. [\[Medline\]](#).
 14. Pohl A. Modes of administration of antibiotics for symptomatic severe urinary tract infections (Review) [database online]. www.thecochranelibrary.com: The Cochrane Collaboration. 2008, Issue 3.

15. van Nieuwkoop C, van't Wout JW, Spelt IC, et al. Prospective cohort study of acute pyelonephritis in adults: safety of triage towards home based oral antimicrobial treatment. *J Infect.* 2010 Feb. 60(2):114-21. [[Medline](#)].
16. Wagenlehner FM, Sobel JD, Newell P, Armstrong J, Huang X, Stone GG, et al. Ceftazidime-avibactam Versus Doripenem for the Treatment of Complicated Urinary Tract Infections, Including Acute Pyelonephritis: RECAPTURE, a Phase 3 Randomized Trial Program. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2016 Jun 16. [[Medline](#)].
17. FDA approves new antibacterial drug Avycaz. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Available at <http://www.fda.gov/NewsEvents/Newsroom/PressAnnouncements/ucm435629.htm>. February 26, 2015.
18. Nicolle L, Duckworth H, Sitar D, Bryski L, Harding G, Zhanel G. Pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamics of levofloxacin 750 mg once daily in young women with acute uncomplicated pyelonephritis. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2008 Mar. 31(3):287-9. [[Medline](#)].
19. Peterson J, Kaul S, Khashab M, Fisher AC, Kahn JB. A double-blind, randomized comparison of levofloxacin 750 mg once-daily for five days with ciprofloxacin 400/500 mg twice-daily for 10 days for the treatment of complicated urinary tract infections and acute pyelonephritis. *Urology.* 2008 Jan. 71(1):17-22. [[Medline](#)].
20. Vouloumanou EK, Rafailidis PI, Kazantzi MS, Athanasiou S, Falagas ME. Early switch to oral versus intravenous antimicrobial treatment for hospitalized patients with acute pyelonephritis: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *Curr Med Res Opin.* 2008 Dec. 24(12):3423-34. [[Medline](#)].
21. Hobbs AL, Shea KM, Daley MJ, Huth RG, Jaso TC, Bissett J, et al. Are first-generation cephalosporins obsolete? A retrospective, non-inferiority, cohort study comparing empirical therapy with cefazolin versus ceftriaxone for acute pyelonephritis in hospitalized patients. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2016 Jun. 71(6):1665-71. [[Medline](#)].
22. Harwood-Nuss AL, Etheredge W, McKenna I. Urological Emergencies. Harwood-Nuss A, Wolfson AB, eds. *The Clinical Practice of Emergency Medicine.* 3rd ed. Philadelphia, Pa: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2001. 2227-61.
23. Hansson S, Martinell J, Stokland E, Jodal U. The natural history of bacteriuria in childhood. *Infect Dis Clin North Am.* 1997 Sep. 11(3):499-512. [[Medline](#)].
24. Juliano TM, Stephany HA, Clayton DB, Thomas JC, Pope JC 4th, Adams MC, et al. Incidence of Abnormal Imaging and Recurrent Pyelonephritis After First Febrile Urinary Tract Infection in Children 2-24 Months. *J Urol.* 2013 Jan 22. [[Medline](#)].

25. Peterson J, Kaul S, Khashab M, Fisher AC, Kahn JB. A double-blind, randomized comparison of levofloxacin 750 mg once-daily for five days with ciprofloxacin 400/500 mg twice-daily for 10 days for the treatment of complicated urinary tract infections and acute pyelonephritis. *Urology*. 2008 Jan. 71(1):17-22. [\[Medline\]](#).
26. Vouloumanou EK, Rafailidis PI, Kazantzi MS, Athanasiou S, Falagas ME. Early switch to oral versus intravenous antimicrobial treatment for hospitalized patients with acute pyelonephritis: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *Curr Med Res Opin*. 2008 Dec. 24(12):3423-34. [\[Medline\]](#).
27. Hobbs AL, Shea KM, Daley MJ, Huth RG, Jaso TC, Bissett J, et al. Are first-generation cephalosporins obsolete? A retrospective, non-inferiority, cohort study comparing empirical therapy with cefazolin versus ceftriaxone for acute pyelonephritis in hospitalized patients. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2016 Jun. 71(6):1665-71. [\[Medline\]](#).
28. Harwood-Nuss AL, Etheredge W, McKenna I. Urological Emergencies. Harwood-Nuss A, Wolfson AB, eds. *The Clinical Practice of Emergency Medicine*. 3rd ed. Philadelphia, Pa: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2001. 2227-61.
29. Hansson S, Martinell J, Stokland E, Jodal U. The natural history of bacteriuria in childhood. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 1997 Sep. 11(3):499-512. [\[Medline\]](#).
30. Juliano TM, Stephany HA, Clayton DB, Thomas JC, Pope JC 4th, Adams MC, et al. Incidence of Abnormal Imaging and Recurrent Pyelonephritis After First Febrile Urinary Tract Infection in Children 2-24 Months. *J Urol*. 2013 Jan 22. [\[Medline\]](#).





VII.

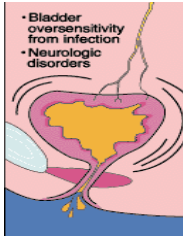
As adults age, they can experience an involuntary and uncontrollable loss of urine, known as **Urinary Incontinence**. This health issue is considered to be under reported and two times more common in women than men. It is under reported because many people do not report this problem to their healthcare provider. In addition, most healthcare providers do not ask patients about incontinence during routine visits. It is important to know that urinary incontinence can happen to anyone at any age. Statistics show that about 30% of elderly women and 15% of elderly men have incontinence.

Incontinence can cause serious changes in a person’s quality of life due to constant dribbling of urine, intermittent and inconsistent need to urinate. The need to urinate may come on suddenly and the person has no time to reach a bathroom. People with incontinence often feel embarrassment, feel as if everyone knows they have a problem, decide to isolate themselves by not going out and enjoying every day activities. All of this can lead to depression.

The Different Types of Incontinence

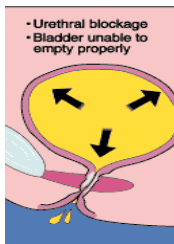


Stress Incontinence: happens when urine leaks out because of laughter, sneezing, coughing, climbing stairs, or other types of physical activities that put increased pressure on the bladder and increase the pressure throughout the abdomen. This is the second most common type of incontinence in women, especially in women who have given birth to children



Urge Incontinence happens when a small amount of leakage occurs and then the person experiences a sudden urgent desire to urinate. This can happen at night, especially for people who take diuretics like Lasix and have a difficult time getting to the bathroom in time.

Mixed Incontinence happens when involuntary leakage occurs and the person has leakage and urgency with stressful situations, sneezing coughing and exercise.



Overflow Incontinence happens when urine dribbles out from an overly full bladder. Usually it comes out in small amounts but may result in the loss of large amounts of urine over time.

Functional Incontinence is usually a result of physical or mental impairments so that the person may not know that they need to urinate or they may not be able to get to the nearest toilet.

How Does Urinary Incontinence Occur?

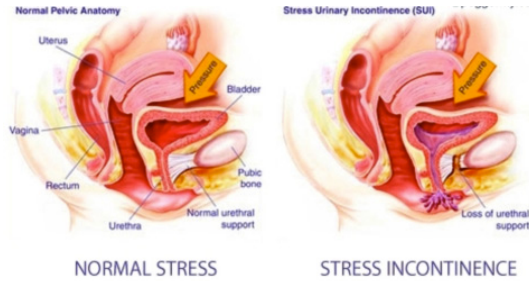
Urinary incontinence can happen as a result of nerve signals not properly getting to and from the bladder to signal that it is full. A bladder is considered full when it has between 300 and 500 ml of urine in it. The nerves will begin to send signals to the brain when the bladder reaches between 150-300ml of urine that it needs to be emptied soon. If the signal gets interrupted for some reason, the urethra may open and cause dribbling and incontinence.



When the incontinence is caused by stress, there is an increase in the pressure in the abdomen that becomes greater than the urethra's ability to stop the flow of urine and urine leaks out involuntarily and continues until the pressure in the abdomen becomes less than resistance

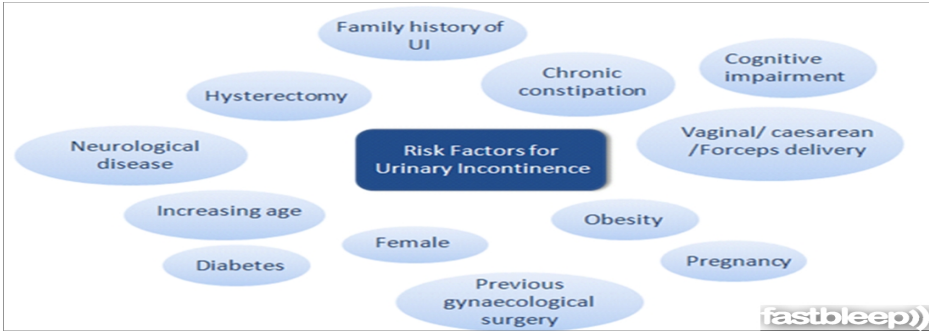
from the urethra. As a person laughs, coughs, sneezes or does some type of strenuous activity, the pressure in the abdomen increases, the urethra can no longer withstand the pressure increase and the urine flows out until the activity stops.

Urine incontinence, especially stress incontinence, can also happen as a result of the Urethra opening too quickly and not closing fast enough. This issue involves both the nerves and the muscles not working properly. The urethra is located along the pelvic floor (the lowest part of the abdomen and pelvis). The pelvic floor acts as a connection and support to both the bladder and the bladder neck. If an injury or



interruption occurs to the pelvic floor, the urethra and bladder neck rotate back and away from connection when increased pressure is applied to the abdomen. This causes the urethra to open and urine to leak out.

The most common injury to the pelvic floor happens during childbirth.



What can be done to treat Urinary Incontinence?

The first step to treating urinary incontinence is to talk to a healthcare provider about any symptoms and incidences of urinary incontinence. It is important to tell them about how many times the incontinence happen, how often it happens, when does it happen and what other symptoms you notice with it. The healthcare provider will also ask about previous medical issues such as number of children born, any injuries or surgeries to the pelvic floor, medicines taken and any injuries to the neck and back.

The healthcare provider will examine each patient individually based on the symptoms and medical history. A urine sample will be collected to see if there is an infection. The patient may be asked to come to the visit with a full bladder and asked to urinate so the healthcare provider can measure the volume urinated. They may then use an ultrasound device to scan the bladder to see if the urine remains and if

so how much. The abdomen and back will be examined for scars, hernias or any deformities.

One of the important tests the healthcare provider will do is use a cotton swab stick to softly and gently touch the urethra and vagina and see what type of response happens. **This test checks to see how the nerves respond to stimuli.** At the same time the healthcare provider will look for any color and thickness changes to the area. If there are changes noticed further testing can be ordered to find the exact cause.

Another test that can be done is **the paper towel test.** The patient is asked to cough repeatedly for a few minutes while at the same time holding a paper towel a short distance away from the urethra and measuring the size of the area of dribbling captured.

How can Incontinence be treated?

Depending on the type of incontinence, surgery may be needed to correct the problem, especially if it is severely interrupting the person's quality of life. Most patients will be asked to try the following first:

- Changing their way of eating and drinking including cutting back on the amount of caffeine in their diet and losing weight if obese.
- Make sure that Blood sugars are well controlled if diabetic.
- Training the bladder by relearning how to urinate. This includes scheduling times to urinate and consciously delaying urinating to train the bladder and urethra to hold more urine. This can take months to accomplish.
- For women, **exercising the pelvic floor** may help control the incontinence. These pelvic floor exercises are known as **Kegel exercises** or Kegel maneuvers. These exercises help strengthen the pelvic floor connections that hold the bladder in place. It is performed by slowly drawing in the muscles that open and close the bladder, holding them closed for 5 seconds and slowly releasing them. This should be done 5 times in an hour while awake.
- Vaginal cones may also be used to strengthen the muscles. These cones are weighted and inserted into the vagina. The pelvic muscles are then tightly closed around the cone for 15 minutes twice a day.

- **Biofeedback** uses an electronic device to identify which muscles need to be strengthened because of the incontinence. This treatment is very intensive and done weekly at the healthcare provider office. A tampon shaped sensor is placed into the vagina or rectum and a second sensor is placed on the abdomen to pick up the electric signals produced by the pelvic floor muscles during contraction and relaxation of the muscles during exercise. Biofeedback shows 54-87% improvement in incontinence.
- **Medication** can also be used to treat incontinence and its accompanying symptoms. Medication works best when used along with the pelvic floor (Kegel) exercises. **Ditropan** and **Tofranil** are two examples of medications used to treat incontinence. These medications are often taken together work to cause smooth muscle relaxation in the bladder as well as serve as a mild anesthetic to the area. **Tofranil** can also increase resistance in the bladder outlet in the bladder neck and will help hold the urine in the bladder longer. Other medications can be used in addition to these if the symptoms persist.

Urinary Incontinence can be very embarrassing and costly because it can ruin and underwear and clothing. For some people the use of absorbent products is recommended until a cause is determined, a treatment plan is developed or permanently depending on the person's situation. Absorbent products can include pads that can be placed in standard underwear or adult diapers or pull up briefs.

These products are very helpful for patients who continue to have incontinence in spite of treatments attempted, have a disability that prevents them from participating in pelvic floor exercises and biofeedback, and people with an incontinence that is not helped with medication or surgery. Use of these products can lead to breakdown in normal healthy skin tissue which can lead to infections.

To prevent this frequent garment or pad changes may be necessary to keep the area dry. The products used over the years have improved and are not as bulky or noticeable today. This photograph of the article author Joanne, shows her dressed for a day out, you would never know she is wearing an adult diaper!



If you are experiencing an issue with urine leakage that is happening more frequently or getting worse, please contact your healthcare provider and discuss treatment options with them. It will help prevent further medical issues and help you maintain a healthy active lifestyle once you get it under control.



References:

1. Erdem N, Chu FM. Management of overactive bladder and urge urinary incontinence in the elderly patient. *Am J Med.* 2006, 119(3 Suppl 1):29-36.
2. Nazir T, Khan Z, Barber HR. Urinary incontinence. *Clin Obstet Gynecol.* 1996, 39(4):906-11.
3. [Guideline] American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Practice Bulletin No. 155: Urinary Incontinence in Women. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2016, 127 (5):e66-81.
4. Rogers RG. Clinical practice. Urinary stress incontinence in women. *N Engl J Med.* 2008, 358(10):1029-36.
5. Rehder P, Haab F, Cornu JN, Gozzi C, Bauer RM. Treatment of Postprostatectomy Male Urinary Incontinence With the Transobturator

- Retroluminal Repositioning Sling Suspension: 3-Year Follow-up. *Eur Urol*. 2012, Feb 25. [[Medline](#)].
6. Serati M, Braga A, Cattoni E, Siesto G, Cromi A, Ghezzi F, et al. Transobturator vaginal tape for the treatment of stress urinary incontinence in elderly women without concomitant pelvic organ prolapse: is it effective and safe?. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2013, 166(1):107-10.
 7. Abrams P, Cardozo L, Fall M, Griffiths D, Rosier P, Ulmsten U, et al. The standardization of terminology of lower urinary tract function: report from the Standardization Sub-committee of the International Continence Society. *Neurourol Urodyn*. 2002, 21(2):167-78.
 8. Chutka DS, Fleming KC, Evans MP, Evans JM, Andrews KL. Urinary incontinence in the elderly population. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 1996, 71(1):93-101.
 9. Gibbs CF, Johnson TM 2nd, Ouslander JG. Office management of geriatric urinary incontinence. *Am J Med*. 2007, 120(3):211-20.
 10. McFall S, Yerkes AM, Bernard M, LeRud T. Evaluation and treatment of urinary incontinence. Report of a physician survey. *Arch Fam Med*. 1997, 6(2):114-9.
 11. Wallner LP, Porten S, Meenan RT, O'Keefe Rosetti MC, Calhoun EA, Sarma AV, et al. Prevalence and severity of undiagnosed urinary incontinence in women. *Am J Med*. 2009, 122(11):1037-42.
 12. Kelleher CJ, Cardozo LD, Khullar V, Salvatore S. A new questionnaire to assess the quality of life of urinary incontinent women. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol*. 1997, 104(12):1374-9.
 13. Abrams P, Cardozo L, Khoury S, et al, Eds. *Incontinence*. 4th ed. Paris, France: Health Publication Ltd; 2009. Chapter 5B.
 14. Delancey JO, Ashton-Miller JA. Pathophysiology of adult urinary incontinence. *Gastroenterology*. 2004, 126(1 Suppl 1):S23-32.
 15. Dietz HP, Wilson PD. Anatomical assessment of the bladder outlet and proximal urethra using ultrasound and videocystourethrography. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct*. 1998, 9(6):365-9.
 16. Chaikin DC, Groutz A, Blaivas JG. Predicting the need for anti-incontinence surgery in continent women undergoing repair of severe urogenital prolapse. *J Urol*. 2000, 163(2):531-4.
 17. Mills IW, Greenland JE, McMurray G, McCoy R, Ho KM, Noble JG, et al. Studies of the pathophysiology of idiopathic detrusor instability: the physiological properties of the detrusor smooth muscle and its pattern of innervation. *J Urol*. 2000, 163(2):646-51.
 18. Wein AJ, Rackley RR. Overactive bladder: a better understanding of pathophysiology, diagnosis and management. *J Urol*. 2006, 175(3 Pt 2):S5-10.

19. Kinder RB, Mundy AR. Pathophysiology of idiopathic detrusor instability and detrusor hyper-reflexia. An in vitro study of human detrusor muscle. *Br J Urol.* 1987, 60(6):509-15.
20. Cukier JM, Cortina-Borja M, Brading AF. A case-control study to examine any association between idiopathic detrusor instability and gastrointestinal tract disorder, and between irritable bowel syndrome and urinary tract disorder. *Br J Urol.* 1997, 79(6):865-78.
21. Tse V, Wills E, Szonyi G, Khadra MH. The application of ultrastructural studies in the diagnosis of bladder dysfunction in a clinical setting. *J Urol.* 2000, 163(2):535-9.
22. Elbadawi A, Yalla SV, Resnick NM. Structural basis of geriatric voiding dysfunction. III. Detrusor overactivity. *J Urol.* 1993, 150(5 Pt 2):1668-80.
23. Medina JJ, Parra RO, Moore RG. Benign prostatic hyperplasia (the aging prostate). *Med Clin North Am.* 1999, 83(5):1213-29.
24. Litwiller SE, Frohman EM, Zimmern PE. Multiple sclerosis and the urologist. *J Urol.* 1999, 161(3):743-57.
25. Patel AK, Chapple CR. Urodynamics in the management of female stress incontinence--which test and when?. *Curr Opin Urol.* 2008, 18(4):359-64.
26. Petros PE, Woodman PJ. The Integral Theory of continence. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct.* 2008 Jan. 19(1):35-40. [[Medline](#)].
27. Crankson SJ, Ahmed S. Female bladder exstrophy. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct.* 1997. 8(2):98-104. [[Medline](#)].
28. Wojcik LJ, Kaplan GW. The wet child. *Urol Clin North Am.* 1998 Nov. 25(4):735-44, xi. [[Medline](#)].
29. Steele AC, Kohli N, Mallipeddi P, Karram M. Pharmacologic causes of female incontinence. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct.* 1999. 10(2):106-10. [[Medline](#)].
30. Morgan JL, O'Connell HE, McGuire EJ. Is intrinsic sphincter deficiency a complication of simple hysterectomy?. *J Urol.* 2000 Sep. 164(3 Pt 1):767-9. [[Medline](#)].
31. Wilson MM. Urinary incontinence: selected current concepts. *Med Clin North Am.* 2006 Sep. 90(5):825-36. [[Medline](#)].
32. Cummings JM, Rodning CB. Urinary stress incontinence among obese women: review of pathophysiology therapy. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct.* 2000. 11(1):41-4. [[Medline](#)].
33. Sustersic O, Kralj B. The influence of obesity, constitution and physical work on the phenomenon of urinary incontinence in women. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct.* 1998. 9(3):140-4. [[Medline](#)].
34. Mishra GD, Barker MS, Herber-Gast GC, Hillard T. Depression and the incidence of urinary incontinence symptoms among young women: Results

- from a prospective cohort study. *Maturitas*. 2015 Aug. 81 (4):456-61. [\[Medline\]](#).
35. Lenherr SM, Clemens JQ, Braffett BH, Dunn RL, Cleary PA, Kim C, et al. Glycaemic control and risk of incident urinary incontinence in women with Type 1 diabetes: results from the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial and Epidemiology of Diabetes Interventions and Complications (DCCT/EDIC) study. *Diabet Med*. 2016 Nov. 33 (11):1528-1535. [\[Medline\]](#).
 36. Curtis LA, Dolan TS, Cespedes RD. Acute urinary retention and urinary incontinence. *Emerg Med Clin North Am*. 2001 Aug. 19(3):591-619. [\[Medline\]](#).
 37. Al-Mukhtar Othman J, Åkervall S, Milsom I, Gyhagen M. Urinary incontinence in nulliparous women aged 25-64 years - A national survey. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2016 Oct 6. [\[Medline\]](#).
 38. Howard D, Delancey JO, Tunn R, Ashton-Miller JA. Racial differences in the structure and function of the stress urinary continence mechanism. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2000 May. 95(5):713-7. [\[Medline\]](#). [\[Full Text\]](#).
 39. Linde JM, Nijman RJ, Trzpis M, Broens PM. Urinary incontinence in the Netherlands: Prevalence and associated risk factors in adults. *Neurourol Urodyn*. 2016 Oct 4. [\[Medline\]](#).
 40. Nygaard I, Barber MD, Burgio KL, Kenton K, Meikle S, Schaffer J, et al. Prevalence of symptomatic pelvic floor disorders in US women. *JAMA*. 2008 Sep 17. 300(11):1311-6. [\[Medline\]](#). [\[Full Text\]](#).
 41. Fultz NH, Herzog AR, Raghunathan TE, Wallace RB, Diokno AC. Prevalence and severity of urinary incontinence in older African American and Caucasian women. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*. 1999 Jun. 54(6):M299-303. [\[Medline\]](#).
 42. Anger JT, Saigal CS, Litwin MS. The prevalence of urinary incontinence among community dwelling adult women: results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. *J Urol*. 2006 Feb. 175(2):601-4. [\[Medline\]](#).
 43. Freeman EW, Grisso JA, Berlin J, Sammel M, Garcia-Espana B, Hollander L. Symptom reports from a cohort of African American and white women in the late reproductive years. *Menopause*. 2001 Jan-Feb. 8(1):33-42. [\[Medline\]](#).
 44. Sears CL, Wright J, O'Brien J, Jezior JR, Hernandez SL, Albright TS, et al. The racial distribution of female pelvic floor disorders in an equal access health care system. *J Urol*. 2009 Jan. 181(1):187-92. [\[Medline\]](#).
 45. Daneshgari F, Imrey PB, Risendal B, Dwyer A, Barber MD, Byers T. Differences in urinary incontinence between Hispanic and non-Hispanic white women: a population-based study. *BJU Int*. 2008 Mar. 101(5):575-9. [\[Medline\]](#).

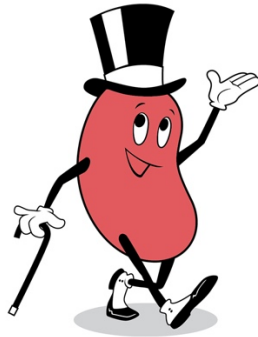
46. Castillo PA, Espallat-Rijo LM, Davila GW. Outcome measures and definition of cure in female stress urinary incontinence surgery: a survey of recent publications. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct.* 2010 Mar. 21(3):343-8. [\[Medline\]](#).
47. Foley AL, Loharuka S, Barrett JA, et al. Association between the Geriatric Giants of urinary incontinence and falls in older people using data from the Leicestershire MRC Incontinence Study. *Age Ageing.* 2012 Jan. 41(1):35-40. [\[Medline\]](#).
48. Nygaard I, Holcomb R. Reproducibility of the seven-day voiding diary in women with stress urinary incontinence. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct.* 2000. 11(1):15-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
49. Dupont MC, Albo ME, Raz S. Diagnosis of stress urinary incontinence. An overview. *Urol Clin North Am.* 1996 Aug. 23(3):407-15. [\[Medline\]](#).
50. Fedorkow DM, Sand PK, Retzky SS, Johnson DC. The cotton swab test. Receiver-operating characteristic curves. *J Reprod Med.* 1995 Jan. 40(1):42-6. [\[Medline\]](#).
51. Miller JM, Ashton-Miller JA, Delancey JO. Quantification of cough-related urine loss using the paper towel test. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1998 May. 91(5 Pt 1):705-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
52. Swift SE, Yoon EA. Test-retest reliability of the cough stress test in the evaluation of urinary incontinence. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1999 Jul. 94(1):99-102. [\[Medline\]](#).
53. Summitt RL Jr, Stovall TG, Bent AE, Ostergard DR. Urinary incontinence: correlation of history and brief office evaluation with multichannel urodynamic testing. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1992 Jun. 166(6 Pt 1):1835-40; discussion 1840-4. [\[Medline\]](#).
54. Jensen JK, Nielsen FR Jr, Ostergard DR. The role of patient history in the diagnosis of urinary incontinence. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1994 May. 83(5 Pt 2):904-10. [\[Medline\]](#).
55. Duthie J, Wilson DI, Herbison GP, Wilson D. Botulinum toxin injections for adults with overactive bladder syndrome. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2007 Jul 18. CD005493. [\[Medline\]](#).
56. Petros PE. New ambulatory surgical methods using an anatomical classification of urinary dysfunction improve stress, urge and abnormal emptying. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct.* 1997. 8(5):270-7. [\[Medline\]](#).
57. Moore KN, Schieman S, Ackerman T, Dzus HY, Metcalfe JB, Voaklander DC. Assessing comfort, safety, and patient satisfaction with three commonly used penile compression devices. *Urology.* 2004 Jan. 63(1):150-4. [\[Medline\]](#).

58. Lee DI, Wedmid A, Mendoza P, et al. Bladder Neck Plication Stitch: A Novel Technique During Robot-Assisted Radical Prostatectomy to Improve Recovery of Urinary Continence. *J Endourol*. 2011 Sep 23. [\[Medline\]](#).
59. Saint S, Elmore JG, Sullivan SD, Emerson SS, Koepsell TD. The efficacy of silver alloy-coated urinary catheters in preventing urinary tract infection: a meta-analysis. *Am J Med*. 1998 Sep. 105(3):236-41. [\[Medline\]](#).
60. Schuessler B. What do we know about duloxetine's mode of action? Evidence from animals to humans. *BJOG*. 2006 May. 113 Suppl 1:5-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
61. Cardozo L, Drutz HP, Baygani SK, Bump RC. Pharmacological treatment of women awaiting surgery for stress urinary incontinence. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2004 Sep. 104(3):511-9. [\[Medline\]](#).
62. Duckett JR, Aggarwal I, Patil A. Duloxetine treatment for women awaiting continence surgery. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct*. Nov 2006;17(6):563-5.
63. Cardozo L, Lange R, Voss S, Beardsworth A, Manning M, Viktrup L, et al. Short- and long-term efficacy and safety of duloxetine in women with predominant stress urinary incontinence. *Curr Med Res Opin*. 2010 Feb. 26(2):253-61. [\[Medline\]](#).
64. Appell RA, Sand P, Dmochowski R, Anderson R, Zinner N, Lama D, et al. Prospective randomized controlled trial of extended-release oxybutynin chloride and tolterodine tartrate in the treatment of overactive bladder: results of the OBJECT Study. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2001 Apr. 76(4):358-63. [\[Medline\]](#).
65. Steers W, Corcos J, Foote J. An investigation of dose titration with darifenacin, an M3-selective receptor antagonist. *BJU Int*. Mar 2005;95(4):580-6.
66. Serra DB, Afrime MB, Bedigian MP. QT and QTc interval with standard and suprathreshold doses of darifenacin, a muscarinic M3 selective receptor antagonist for the treatment of overactive bladder. *J Clin Pharmacol*. Sep 2005;45(9):1038-47.
67. Fehrmann-Zumpe P, Karbe K, Blessman G. Using flavoxate as primary medication for patients suffering from urge symptomatology. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct*. 1999. 10(2):91-5. [\[Medline\]](#).
68. [Guideline] Gormley EA, Lightner DJ, Faraday M, Vasavada SP, American Urological Association, Society of Urodynamics, et al. Diagnosis and treatment of overactive bladder (non-neurogenic) in adults: AUA/SUFU guideline amendment. *J Urol*. 2015 May. 193 (5):1572-80. [\[Medline\]](#). [\[Full Text\]](#).
69. Grady D, Brown JS, Vittinghoff E, Applegate W, Varner E, Snyder T. Postmenopausal hormones and incontinence: the Heart and

- Estrogen/Progestin Replacement Study. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2001 Jan. 97(1):116-20. [[Medline](#)].
70. Hendrix SL, Cochrane BB, Nygaard IE, Handa VL, Barnabei VM, Iglesia C, et al. Effects of estrogen with and without progestin on urinary incontinence. *JAMA.* 2005 Feb 23. 293(8):935-48. [[Medline](#)].
71. Cody JD, Richardson K, Moehrer B, Hextall A, Glazener CM. Oestrogen therapy for urinary incontinence in post-menopausal women. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2009 Oct 7. CD001405. [[Medline](#)].
72. Herschorn S, Gajewski J, Ethans K, Corcos J, Carlson K, Bailly G, et al. Efficacy of botulinum toxin A injection for neurogenic detrusor overactivity and urinary incontinence: a randomized, double-blind trial. *J Urol.* 2011 Jun. 185(6):2229-35. [[Medline](#)].
73. Cruz F, Herschorn S, Aliotta P, Brin M, Thompson C, Lam W, et al. Efficacy and Safety of OnabotulinumtoxinA in Patients with Urinary Incontinence Due to Neurogenic Detrusor Overactivity: A Randomised, Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled Trial. *Eur Urol.* 2011 Jul 13. [[Medline](#)].
74. Ginsberg D, et al. Phase 3 Efficacy and Safety Study of OnabotulinumtoxinA in Patients With Urinary Incontinence Due to Neurogenic Detrusor Overactivity. *Presented at 107th Annual Meeting of the American Urological Association, Washington, DC.* May, 2011.
75. FDA approves Botox to treat overactive bladder. U.S. Food & Drug Administration.
<http://www.fda.gov/NewsEvents/Newsroom/PressAnnouncements/ucm336101.htm>. January 8, 2013; Accessed: October 27, 2015.
76. Visco AG, Brubaker L, Richter HE, Nygaard I, Paraiso MF, Menefee SA, et al. Anticholinergic therapy vs. onabotulinumtoxinA for urgency urinary incontinence. *N Engl J Med.* 2012 Nov 8. 367(19):1803-13. [[Medline](#)].
77. Amundsen CL, Richter HE, Menefee SA, Komesu YM, Arya LA, Gregory WT, et al. OnabotulinumtoxinA vs Sacral Neuromodulation on Refractory Urgency Urinary Incontinence in Women: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA.* 2016 Oct 4. 316 (13):1366-1374. [[Medline](#)].
78. Chancellor MB, de Groat WC. Intravesical capsaicin and resiniferatoxin therapy: spicing up the ways to treat the overactive bladder. *J Urol.* 1999 Jul. 162(1):3-11. [[Medline](#)].
79. Waknine Y. Adipose Stem Cells: Potential Option for Female SUI. *Medscape Medicine News.* Jul 9 2014. [[Full Text](#)].
80. Kuismanen K, Sartoneva R, Haimi S, et al. Autologous adipose stem cells in treatment of female stress urinary incontinence: results of a pilot study. *Stem Cells Transl Med.* 2014 Jul 1. [[Medline](#)].

81. Robson WL. Clinical practice. Evaluation and management of enuresis. *N Engl J Med*. 2009 Apr 2. 360(14):1429-36. [[Medline](#)].
82. Qaseem A, Dallas P, Forcica MA, Starkey M, Denberg TD, Shekelle P, et al. Nonsurgical management of urinary incontinence in women: a clinical practice guideline from the American College of Physicians. *Ann Intern Med*. 2014 Sep 16. 161 (6):429-40. [[Medline](#)].
83. Goode PS, Burgio KL, Johnson TM 2nd, Clay OJ, Roth DL, Markland AD, et al. Behavioral therapy with or without biofeedback and pelvic floor electrical stimulation for persistent postprostatectomy incontinence: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2011 Jan 12. 305(2):151-9. [[Medline](#)].
84. Sjöström M, Umefjord G, Stenlund H, Carlbring P, Andersson G, Samuelsson E. Internet-based treatment of stress urinary incontinence: 1- and 2-year results of a randomized controlled trial with a focus on pelvic floor muscle training. *BJU Int*. 2015 Feb 14. [[Medline](#)].
85. Doganay M, Kilic S, Yilmaz N. Long-term effects of extracorporeal magnetic innervations in the treatment of women with urinary incontinence: results of 3-year follow-up. *Arch Gynecol Obstet*. 2010 Jul. 282(1):49-53. [[Medline](#)].
86. Burgio KL, Richter HE, Clements RH, Redden DT, Goode PS. Changes in urinary and fecal incontinence symptoms with weight loss surgery in morbidly obese women. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2007 Nov. 110(5):1034-40. [[Medline](#)].
87. Subak LL, Wing R, West DS, Franklin F, Vittinghoff E, Creasman JM, et al. Weight loss to treat urinary incontinence in overweight and obese women. *N Engl J Med*. 2009 Jan 29. 360(5):481-90.
88. Phelan S, Kanaya AM, Subak LL, et al. Weight Loss Prevents Urinary Incontinence in Women With Type 2 Diabetes: Results From the Look AHEAD Trial. *J Urol*. 2012 Jan 18. [[Medline](#)].
89. [Guideline] Guideline for the Surgical Management of Female Stress Urinary Incontinence: Update (2009). American Urological Association. Available at <https://www.auanet.org/education/guidelines/incontinence.cfm>. Accessed: October 27, 2015.
90. Harrison L. Stress incontinence: surgery beats physiotherapy. *Medscape Medical News*. September 19, 2013. [[Full Text](#)].
91. Labrie J, Berghmans BL, Fischer K, Milani AL, van der Wijk I, Smalbraak DJ, et al. Surgery versus physiotherapy for stress urinary incontinence. *N Engl J Med*. 2013 Sep 19. 369(12):1124-33.
92. Serati M, Bauer R, Cornu JN, Cattoni E, Braga A, Siesto G, et al. TVT-O for the Treatment of Pure Urodynamically Stress Incontinence: Efficacy, Adverse Effects, and Prognostic Factors at 5-Year Follow-up. *Eur Urol*. 2013 63(5):872-8.

93. Morgan JL, O'Connell HE, McGuire EJ. Is intrinsic sphincter deficiency a complication of simple hysterectomy?. *J Urol*. 2000 Sep. 164(3 Pt 1):767-9.
94. Hand L. Online Model May Predict Incontinence After Vaginal Surgery. *Medscape Medical News*. Jan 23 2014. [\[Full Text\]](#).
95. Jelovsek JE, Chagin K, Brubaker L, et al. A model for predicting the risk of de novo stress urinary incontinence in women undergoing pelvic organ prolapse surgery. *Obstet Gynecol*. Feb 2014. 123(2 Pt 1):279-87.
96. Yafi FA, DeLay KJ, Stewart C, Chiang J, Sangkum P, Hellstrom WJ. Device survival following primary implantation of the AMS 800 artificial urinary sphincter for male stress urinary incontinence. *J Urol*. 2016 Sep 7. [\[Medline\]](#).



The End