Kidney Stones in Children



- Abdulla M Ehlayel, MD, FAAP
- IPNA Teaching Course, Amman, Jordan
- December 5th, 2024

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Outline

- Epidemiology and Risk Factors
- Clinical Presentation and Diagnosis
- Acute Management of Kidney Stones
- Prevention of Recurrent Stones

Incidence and Prevalence

- Kidney stones is a common disease in adults affecting ~9% in US, increased from 5%
- Increasing incidence in children as well, overall lower than adults
- Highest incidence in adolescents



Sas et al. Increasing incidence of kidney stones in children evaluated in the emergency department. J Pediatr. 2010

VanDervoort et al. Urolithiasis in pediatric patients: a single center study of incidence, clinical presentation and outcome. J Urol. 2007

"Stone Belt"



Risk Factors

Metabolic Abnormality

Urinary Tract Infection

Structural Abnormality

Metabolic Abnormality



Urinary Tract Infections

- 20-25% of children with stones have UTI
- 80% of stones with UTI occur in males
- UTI with stones decreasing



Structural Abnormality

Approx 10-25% of children with stones have a renal or urological abnormality. Accompanied by stasis.

- Medullary sponge kidney
- ADPKD
- UPJ obstruction
- Neurogenic bladder
- Horseshoe kidney

Vulnerable Population

- Preterm Infants
- Lymphoproliferative and myeloproliferative disorders
- Intestinal malabsorption: Cystic Fibrosis, IBD, bowel resection
- Medications: topamirate, zonasimide, ketogenic diet, steroids, furosemide, calcineurin inhibitors

Genetic Diseases

ene symbolª	Gene name		Disease entity		MIM phenotype #	Mode	Reference
DCY10	Adenylate cyclase 10		Idiopathic (absorptive) hypercalciuria, sus	ceptibility	143870	AD	(11)
GXT	Alanine-glyoxylate aminotransferase		Primary hyperoxaluria (PH), type 1, PH1		259900	AR	(12)
PRT	Adenine phosphoribosyltransferase		Adenine phosphoribosyltransferase defici	ency, APRT	614723	AR	(13)
P6V0A4	ATPase, H+ transporting, lysosomal V0 subunit a4		dRTA		602722	AR	(14)
P6V1B1	ATPase, H+ transporting, lysosomal, V1 subunit B1		dRTA with deafness		267300	AR	(15)
42	Carbonic anhydrase II		Outroate a Planta	-	259730	AR	(16)
ASR	Calcium-sensing receptor		maravaluria	Icemia, AD	601198	AD	(17)
_CN5	Chloride channel, voltage-sensitive 5	гу ну	peroxaluria		300009/310468	XR	(18)
CNKB	Chloride channel, voltage-sensitive Kb	•	-		607364	AR	(19)
_DN16	Claudin 16 CVStI	nuria		and NC, FHHNC	248250	AR	(20)
.DN19	Claudin 19			and NC with ocular	248190	AR	(21)
	Dent	Disea	SP				
(P24A1	Cytochrome P450, family 24, subfamily A.	DISCU	50	tile hypercalcemia	143880	AR	(22)
M20A	Family with sequence similarity 20, memb	C		fect, and NC	204690	AR	(23)
RHPR	Glyoxylate reductase/hydroxypyruvate red	C			260000	AR	(24)
VF4A	Hepatocyte nuclear factor 4, alpha		•		125850	AD	(25)
DGA1	4-Hydroxy-2-oxoglutarate aldolase 1	Defic	iency		613616	AR	(26)
PRT1	Hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase		7	ficiency, HPRT-related gout	300323	XR	(27)
CNJ1	Potassium inwardly rectifying channel, subfamily J, member 1		Bartter syndrome, type 2		241200	AR	(28)
AGED2	Melanoma antigen, family D, 2		Bartter syndrome, type 5		300971	XR	(29)
ORL	Oculocerebrorenal syndrome of Lowe		Lowe syndrome/Dent disease 2		309000/300555	XR	(30)
.C12A1	Solute carrier family 12, member 1		Bartter syndrome, type 1		601678	AR	(31)
.C26A1	Solute carrier family 26 (sulfate transporter), member 1		Ca-oxalate-NL		167030	AR	(32)
.C22A12	Solute carrier family 22 (organic anion/urate transporter), men	nber 12	Renal hypouricemia, RHUC1		220150	AD/AR	(33)
.C2A9	Solute carrier family 2 (facilitated glucose transporter), member	er 9	Renal hypouricemia, RHUC2		612076	AD/AR	(10)
.C34A1	Solute carrier family 34 (sodium phosphate), member 1		Hypophosphatemic NL, osteoporosis-1, 1 syndrome 2	NPHLOP1/Fanconi renotubular	612286/613388	AD/AR	(34)
C34A3	Solute carrier family 34 (sodium phosphate), member 3		Hypophosphatemic rickets with hypercalciuria		241530	AR	(35)
.C3A1	Solute carrier family 3 (cystine, dibasic and neutral amino acid activator of cystine, dibasic and neutral amino acid transport),	I transporters, member 1	Cystinuria, type A		220100	AR	(36)
C4A1	Solute carrier family 4, anion exchanger, member 1		Primary dRTA, dominant/recessive		179800/611590	AD/AR	(37)
.C7A9	Solute carrier family 7 (glycoprotein-associated amino acid tra chain, bo, +system), member 9	insporter light	Cystinuria, type B		220100	AD/AR	(38)
.C9A3R1	Solute carrier family 9, subfamily A (NHE3, cation proton antiporter 3), member 3 regulator 1		Hypophosphatemic NL, osteoporosis-2, NPHLOP2		612287	AD	(39)
DR	Vitamin D (1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3) receptor		Idiopathic hypercalciuria		277440	AD	(40)
ЮН	Xanthine dehydrogenase		Xanthinuria, type 1		278300	AR	(41)



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Kidney Stone- Electron Microscope



Racek et al. Scanning electron microscopy in analysis of urinary stones. Scand J Clin Lab Invest. 2019

Acute Clinical Presentation

- Acute, severe flank pain that radiates to the groin.
- May also have hematuria and/or dysuria.
- In younger children (<5 years), may be non-specific.
- Infants may present with UTI.

Symptoms also depend on location of the stone



Frequency of Presenting Symptoms

Symptom	Presenting Symptom
Pain	50-75% (less common in younger children)
Gross hematuria	30-55%
Dysuria, Urgency	10%
Nausea, Vomiting	10%

Diagnosis

Stones are diagnosed with imaging <u>or</u> if patient passes a visible stone

Urinalysis usually provides indirect evidence of stones:

- Hematuria (RBC on microscopy)
- Pyuria
- Crystals

Urine Crystals





Abdominal X-ray

- Typically insufficient
- Sensitivity 45-58%
- Radiolucent stones (e.g. uric acid stones) and small stones (<5 mm) are often missed
- Useful for follow up and ESWL



Ultrasound

- Ultrasound is the **INITIAL** imaging study of choice
- Sensitivity >70%
- Specificity 70-95%
- OPERATOR DEPENDANT



CT Scan

- "Gold standard"
- Sensitivity and specificity >90%
- Concern for radiation
- Indicated if US is nondiagnostic with high clinical suspicion





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Medical Management

Pain management and **hydration** are the cornerstone of managing acute renal colic.

Typically managed in coordination with urology.

Medical expulsion therapy: use of alpha blockers (e.g. tamsulosin) to facilitate passage of ureteral stone.

- Uncomplicated ureteral stone
- ≤10 mm in diameter

Surgical Intervention



Shock wave lithotripsyPercutaneous nephrolithotomyUreteroscopy80-83%70-97%85-88%



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Recurrent Stones

- Kidney stone recur frequently
- Probability of symptomatic stone recurrence ~50% at 3 years
- Goal is to identify and treat modifiable risk factors
- Typically managed by nephrology



Evaluation

Serum	Urine (24-hr or spot)	Stone Analysis
 Kidney Function Lytes: Potassium, HCO3 Calcium, Phosphate Magnesium Uric Acid 	Urine Volume, pH Lytes: • Calcium, Phosphate • Oxalate • Citrate, Cystine • Uric acid	Identify composition of stone

Strategies for Prevention

- 1. Increase fluid intake
- 2. Dietary Changes
- 3. Medications

Increase Fluid Intake

- Low urine volume is most crucial risk factor for *any* kidney stone
- Dehydration higher with certain occupations and environmental conditions
- Goal fluid intake at least maintenance (2-2.5 L/day or 2000 ml/m²)

Fluid Recommendations

Suitable Beverages

- Fluid that increases urine volume: coffee, tea
- Fluid that increases urine pH and citrate: Orange juice, lemonade, grapefruit

Unsuitable Beverages

• Sugar-sweetened soft drinks

Dietary Changes

- Dietary changes depend on the metabolic abnormality identified
- Low sodium diet is beneficial in calcium based stones
- In general, calcium or protein restriction is not recommended

Dietary Changes

Urinary Risk Factor	Limit	Recommendation		
Urine volume	Urine volume < 2.0 L/24 h	Fluid intake that achieves urine volume ≥ 2.0 to 2.5 L/24 h Neutral and alkalizing beverages		
Hypercalciuria	Calcium > 5 mmol/24 h	Calcium intake: 1000 to 1200 mg/day Protein intake: 0.8 to 1.0 g/kg normal body weight/day Sodium chloride intake: < 2g/day Increased intake of vegetables and fruits		
Hyperoxaluria	Oxalate > 0.5 mmol/24 h	Low dietary oxalate intake Calcium intake: 1000 to 1200 mg/day (IH) Avoid Vitamin C supplements!		
Hyperuricosuria	Uric acid > 4 mmol/24 h	Protein intake: 0.8 to 1.0 g/kg normal body weight/day Reduced dietary purine intake Increased intake of vegetables and fruits		
Hypocitraturia	Citrate < 1.7 mmol/24 h	Protein intake: 0.8 to 1.0 g/kg normal body weight/day Increased intake of vegetables and fruits		

Medication

- Indicated if fluid and dietary changes are ineffective at controlling stones
- Type of medication is used based on the underlying metabolic abnormality
- Specific medications are indicated for some conditions with genetic etiology



- Incidence of kidney stones is increasing in children
- Risk factors include UTI, metabolic and structural abnormalities
- Symptoms depend on the patients age and location of the stone
- US is the initial imaging of choice
- Fluid intake and dietary changes decrease risk of recurrence





International Pediatric Nephrology Association

Chronic kidney disease; definition, complications & treatment

Sermin Saadeh, M.D. Consultant, Pediatric Nephrology The first IPNA teaching course in pediatric nephrology / the Hashemite University Amman/Jordan 5/12/2024
Burden of CKD





A life-long condition associated with substantial morbidity, decreased quality of life and premature death

The expected remaining lifetime for a child with end-stage renal disease (ESRD) treated with dialysis estimated to be approximately 18 years A growing global public health issue with varying estimates of its prevalence. However, growing incidence worldwide.



Definition of CKD

According to KDIGO, CKD in children > 2 years of age defined as either:

1.1: DEFINITION OF CKD

1.1.1: CKD is defined as abnormalities of kidney structure or function, present for >3 months, with implications for health. (*Not Graded*)

Markers of kidney damage (one or more)	Albuminuria (AER \geq 30 mg/24 hours; ACR \geq 30 mg/g [\geq 3 mg/mmol]) Urine sediment abnormalities Electrolyte and other abnormalities due to tubular disorders Abnormalities detected by histology Structural abnormalities detected by imaging History of kidney transplantation
Decreased GFR	GFR $<$ 60 ml/min/1.73 m ² (GFR categories G3a–G5)

Criteria for CKD (either of the following present for > 3 months)

Abbreviations: CKD, chronic kidney disease; GFR, glomerular filtration rate.

KDIGO 2012 Clinical Practice Guideline for the Evaluation and Management of Chronic Kidney Disease volume 3 | issue 1 | JANUARY 2013 http://www.kidney-international.org

Diagnostic exceptions for children

The following exceptions or allowances:

- (a) The criteria for duration >3 months does not apply to newborns or infants<3 months of age.
- (b) The criteria of a GFR <60 ml/min/1.73 m2 does not apply to children <2 years of age as neonates are born with a GFR of around 60, which increases to normal values in the first 2 years of life,
- (c) A urinary total protein or albumin excretion rate above the normal value for age may be substituted for albuminuria ≥30 mg/24 h.
- (d) All electrolyte abnormalities are to be defined considering age normative values.



How do we measure GFR in pediatrics?



Adv Chronic Kidney Dis. 2017 Nov; 24(6): 348–356. Measurement and Estimation of Glomerular Filtration Rate in Children. <u>Ayesa N. Mian</u> and <u>George J. Schwartz</u>



 Creatinine-Cystatin C-based CKiD equation (2012)

Stages of CKD

1.2.3: Assign GFR categories as follows (Not Graded):

GFR categories in CKD

GFR category	GFR (ml/min/1.73 m ²)	Terms	
G1	≥90	Normal or high	
G2	60-89	Mildly decreased*	
G3a	45-59	Mildly to moderately decreased	
G3b	30-44	Moderately to severely decreased	
G4	15–29	Severely decreased	
G5	<15	Kidney failure	

Abbreviations: CKD, chronic kidney disease; GFR, glomerular filtration rate.

*Relative to young adult level

In the absence of evidence of kidney damage, neither GFR category G1 nor G2 fulfill the criteria for CKD.

1.2.4: Assign albuminuria* categories as follows (Not Graded):

*note that where albuminuria measurement is not available, urine reagent strip results can be substituted (Table 7)

Albuminuria categories in CKD

Category	AER	ACR (approximate equivalent)		
	(mg/24 hours)	(mg/mmol)	(mg/g)	Terms
A1	< 30	<3	< 30	Normal to mildly increased
A2	30-300	3-30	30-300	Moderately increased*
A3	> 300	> 30	> 300	Severely increased**

Abbreviations: AER, albumin excretion rate; ACR, albumin-to-creatinine ratio; CKD, chronic kidney disease. *Relative to young adult level.

**Including nephrotic syndrome (albumin excretion usually >2200 mg/24 hours [ACR >2220 mg/g; >220 mg/mmol]).

KDIGO 2012 Clinical Practice Guideline for the Evaluation and Management of Chronic Kidney Disease volume 3 | issue 1 | JANUARY 2013 http://www.kidney-international.org



Causes of CKD

- CAKUT (50-60%)
 - Vesicoureteral reflux, obstruction, or infections (25%)
 - Hypoplasia or dysplasia (11%)
- Glomerulopathies (5-15%)
- Monogenic causes of CKD estimated at ~20%



Progression of CKD

- CKD progression is influenced by the severity of the initial renal damage, extent of nephron loss, and the age of nephron loss, which limits renal reserve.
- An increased risk with superimposed acute kidney injury from infections, dehydration, drugs, or toxins.
- The extent of injury can result from;
 - a single episode, as seen with acute glomerulonephritis
 - continuous injury from vesicoureteral reflux, chronic infections, obstructive uropathies
 - recurrent injuries from diabetes, lupus, or chronic glomerulopathies.
- Periods of rapid growth, such as with infancy and puberty may result in deterioration of function.



Pattern and timing of CKD progression in hypo/dysplasia



Fig. 53.1 Natural time course of renal disease progression in children with renal hypodysplasia. ① Denotes period of improving renal function during infancy, ② period of stable renal function, ③ period of renal function deteriorating toward ESRD. Third phase is characterized either by rapid decline soon after infancy (**a**) or at early pubertal age (**b**), or by steady slow decline of renal function (**c**) (Used with permission of Springer Science + Business Media from Gonzalez Celedon et al. [10]) • Correlates of deteriorating renal function were proteinuria, hypertension, past febrile urinary tract infections and lower GFR at onset.

• The progression phase started just after infancy in 48% and around puberty in 23% of patients. In 30% kidney function remained stable even beyond puberty.

Gonzalez Celedon C, Bitsori M, Tullus K. Progression of chronic renal failure in children with dysplastic kidneys. Pediatr Nephrol. 2007;22:1014–20.



Glomerular vs non-glomerular progression

- Children with glomerular disease are estimated to have a 43% shorter time to a composite event of KRT or a 50% GFR reduction or GFR <15 ml/min/1.73 m2 than children with non-glomerular disease. (Ckid and ESCAPE trial)
- Children with mild-to-moderate CKD without proteinuria the median time to attainment of the composite endpoint was longer than 10 years
- Children within the highest risk group, defined by CKD stage IV and gross proteinuria;
 - 50% of children with non-glomerular CKD reached the composite endpoint within 1.3 years and with glomerular CKD within 0.8 years.

Pathophysiology of progression

- According to the Brenner hypothesis any critical loss of functioning renal mass, irrespective of the nature of the initial injury, leads to glomerular hyperfiltration with an increased single-nephron glomerular filtration rate
- The remaining nephrons lose their ability to autoregulate glomerular pressure, resulting in transmission of systemic hypertension to the glomerulus.
- Increased intraglomerular pressure induces proteinuria, which is the pathophysiological link between glomerular, interstitial and tubular damage. The degree of proteinuria in glomerular diseases correlates with the rate of renal failure progression.





Pathophysiological consequences of hypertension and proteinuria



Fig. 53.4 Pathophysiological consequences of hypertension and proteinuria in chronic kidney disease

• Pediatric Kidney disease, second edition. Chapter XII



Modifiable vs non-modifiable risk factors for CKD progression

Non- modifiable

- Glomerular diseases have faster progression of disease compared to non-glomerular
- The presence of two variants of APOL1 genotype in children of Black race
- Genetics; the progression phenotype can be linked to the underlying genetic defect; i.e children with the nephronophthisis complex, those with mutations in the NPHP1 gene have ESRD at a mean age of 13 years, compared to 8 months in NPHP2 and 19 years in NPHP3 mutation carriers
- Age; the younger the age at which a significant loss of renal mass occurs may influence the degree of glomerular hypertrophy.
- Preterm birth and low birth weight due to low nephron mass

Modifiable

- Proteinuria
- Hypertension
- Anemia
- Acidosis
- diabetes

Renoprotective strategies

Blood pressure control;

- The ESCAPE Trial (Effect of Strict Blood Pressure Control and ACE Inhibition on Progression of Chronic Renal Failure in Pediatric Patients) provided evidence that intensified blood pressure control targeting for a <u>24-h mean arterial pressure</u> below the 50th percentile, yields superior long-term nephroprotection compared to a higher target range (50th–95th percentile)
- Within 5 years of observation, the risk of losing 50 % eGFR or progressing to end-stage renal disease was reduced by 35 % (from 42.7 to 29.9 %) in the strict blood pressure control arm
- This has led KDIGO guidelines to recommend intensive lowering of ambulatory BP to <50th percentile
- ESCAPE Trial Group, Wühl E, Trivelli A, Picca S, Litwin M, Peco-Antic A, Zurowska A, Testa S, Jankauskiene A, Emre S, Caldas-Afonso A, Anarat A, Niaudet P, Mir S, Bakkaloglu A, Enke B, Montini G, Wingen AM, Sallay P, Jeck N, Berg U, Caliskan S, Wygoda S, Hohbach-Hohenfellner K, Dusek J, Urasinski T, Arbeiter K, Neuhaus T, Gellermann J, Drozdz D, Fischbach M, Möller K, Wigger M, Peruzzi L, Mehls O, Schaefer F. Strict blood– pressure control and progression of renal failure in children. N Engl J Med. 2009;361(17):1639–50.



Renoprotective strategies

Proteinuria

- Its reduction is associated with a slowing of GFR loss
- In children there is evidence from the ESCAPE trial that residual proteinuria during ACE inhibition is quantitatively associated with renal failure progression.
- Even in children with normal kidney function persistent nephrotic-range proteinuria is a risk factor for progressive renal injury; therefore, early detection and therapeutic intervention is mandatory.
- ACE inhibitors (ACEI) and more recently, angiotensin II type I receptor blockers (ARB), are pharmacotherapeutics of first choice in both adults and children with chronic kidney disease.



Other antihypertensives

- In CKD patients, RAAS antagonists are combined with a diuretic or with a calcium channel blocker, whereas their combination with a β-blocker usually does not exert an additive effect on blood pressure control.
- Calcium channel blockers can achieve BP control but failed to reduce progression of chronic renal failure. Dihydropyridine CCBs (amlodipine, isradipine) may even induce or aggravate proteinuria
- β-blockers have been shown to be also effective in lowering BP in CKD patients. Metoprolol and atenolol demonstrated beneficial effects on the decline of renal function in CKD patients. Newer β-blockers such as carvedilol have even improved antiproteinuric effects, probably due to sympathicoplegic effects.



sodium glucose cotransporter 2 (SGLT2) inhibitors

SGLT2 inhibitors (gliflozins)

- Apart from the glucose lowering effects, SGLT2 inhibitors <u>also decrease BP, body</u> weight, and albuminuria.
- Large clinical outcome trials with the SGLT2 inhibitors dapagliflozin, canagliflozin, or empagliflozin in T2DM have demonstrated potent long-term renoprotective effects of SGLT2 inhibition, including reductions of 30–50% in albuminuria or proteinuria and clear beneficial effects on hard renal outcomes such as doubling of serum creatinine, eGFR decline, attainment of KRT, or death due to renal disease.
- These nephroprotective effects are based on a decrease of sodium delivery to the distal tubule and reduced glomerular blood flow leading to reversal of glomerular hypertension and hyperfiltration

Other renoprotective strategies

- Studies have suggested beneficial effect to;
 - Dietary phosphate restriction
 - Non-hypercalcemic doses of vitamin D therapy
 - Treatment of acidosis
 - ESA therapy has beneficial tissue-protective effect



Complications of CKD; Anemia

- Elevated hepcidin levels
- Decreased Epo production
- Uremic inhibitors of erythropoiesis
- shortened RBC lifespan, and increased blood loss
- malnutrition
- Iron deficiency
- Inadequate dialysis
- Hyperparathyroidism and myelofibrosis
- Nutritional deficiencies; B12, folate, carnitine, vitamin C, copper

Schematic representation of the mechanisms underlying anemia of CKD. Iron and EPO are crucial for red blood cell production in the bone marrow.



©2012 by American Society of Nephrology

Complications of CKD Anemia

Effects on the child

- Fatigue
- Impaired cognition
- Sleep disturbances
- Decreased exercise tolerance
- Depression
- Poor appetite
- Cardiovascular complications, such as left ventricular hypertrophy and heart failure



Complications of CKD Anemia Treatment

- The Kidney Disease Outcomes Quality Initiatives recommend targeting hemoglobin levels between 11 and 13 g/dL (110-130 g/L) to reduce the need for transfusions; to lessen; and to enhance overall quality of life.
- Anemia is best managed with recombinant human erythropoiesis-stimulating agents and iron supplementation.



Anemia Treatment

Epoetin:

 Short-acting achieve maximum efficacy when dosed 1–3 times weekly and demonstrate a longer half-life when given subcutaneously (19–24 h) than intravenously (6–8 h)

Darbepoetin alfa

- Has equivalent efficacy as to maintain hemoglobin when dosed weekly or every other week in children with CKD
- Darbepoetin alfa may be administered intravenously or subcutaneously Iron supplementation
- For all pediatric CKD patients with anemia not on iron or ESA therapy, KDIGO recommends oral iron (or IV iron in children on hemodialysis) administration when < TSAT is 20% and ferritin is 100 ng/ml
- For all pediatric CKD patients on ESA therapy who are not receiving iron supplementation, KDIGO recommends oral iron (or IV iron in children on hemodialysis) administration to maintain TSAT >20% and ferritin >100 ng/ml

Complications of CKD Nutrition and Growth

Pathophysiologic features;

- Anorexia, increased energy expenditure despite adequate caloric intake, and muscle wasting
- Contributing factors; systemic inflammation, or endocrine disturbances



Malnutrition in infants

- Contributors; altered taste, oral food aversions, gastroesophageal reflux, delayed gastric emptying, elevated cytokine levels, and alterations in appetite-regulating hormones, such as leptin and ghrelin.
- Aggressive nutritional management with the guidance of qualified dieticians is critical.
- Placement of gastrostomy tubes, particularly in infants and small toddlers, is often necessary to provide adequate nutrition



Sodium supplementation

- Infants and children with renal dysplasia or obstructive uropathy often have an inability to resorb sodium from their urine with sodium excretion paralleling their urine output.
- These polyuric patients may easily be sodium deficient without replacement being given. This may also be seen in patients with salt-losing tubulopathies like Bartter's and Fanconi syndromes.
- Acidosis from bicarbonate losses would not necessarily be seen this early in CKD (GFR nearly 50% of normal).
- Hypophosphatemia may be present from tubular losses and could also affect linear growth although likely not to the same extent as sodium loss. Folate deficiency is also not typically a problem, especially in a patient receiving supplemented formula



Complications of CKD

Fluid and electrolyte abnormalities

- CKD secondary to congenital anomalies of the kidneys and urinary tract are at risk for hypokalemia, hyponatremia, and urinary concentrating defects.
- Patients with early CKD can present with a non-gap metabolic acidosis, but as the disease progresses this metabolic derangement becomes an increased anion gap acidosis.
- Hyperkalemia may become worse with progression of renal disease or in patients receiving ACE inhibitors or angiotensin-receptor blockers for hypertension



Complications of CKD Failure to thrive

- One of the most apparent effects of CKD in children; the mean height of children with CKD is 1.5 SDs below the mean.
- Contributing factors; age at the onset of CKD, duration of CKD, metabolic acidosis, treatment modalities for primary renal disease (corticosteroids), associated genetic disorders, protein-calorie malnutrition, residual urine volume, and hormonal disturbances of the gonadotropic axis (LH and FSH) and somatropic axis (GH, IGF1, and thyroid hormone).
- Short stature is the most common concern associated with low health-related quality of life among survivors of pediatric-onset CKD.
- Optimization of growth can be achieved with appropriate caloric intake and the use of growth hormone replacement.



Growth pathophysiology in CKD



Front. Pediatr., 30 July 2020 <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fped.2020.00399</u>

Strategies for Optimizing Growth in Children With Chronic Kidney Disease Dieter Haffner^{*}



Growth in CKD

 Typical growth pattern in childhood vs CKD





Growth during infancy

- One third of growth occurs during the first two years of life
- Can lead to irreversible loss of growth potential
- It depends mainly on nutritional intake
- Factors to considers;
 - Congenital renal disease resulting in saltlosing nephropathies
 - Feeding intolerance or recurrent vomiting
 - Catabolic episodes; acute illness, infections





Mid-Childhood growth

- Percentile parallel growth
- Stable if GFR > 25 ml/min/1.73m2
- Dependant on somatotropic hormone axis
- Administration of growth hormone will improve final height





Pubertal growth in CKD

- Signs of puberty as well as growth spurt are delayed by about 2 years
- Height velocity and duration of the spurt is reduced as well
- Results in 50% reduction in total pubertal height increase
- Menarche occurs only in 50% of patient treated with dialysis by 15 years of age





Treatment of growth failure in CKD

- Adequate caloric intake for infants and young children
 - Calories; 80-100% of RDA
 - Protein intake 100% of RDA
- Treatment of metabolic acidosis
- Water and electrolyte supplementation in salt-losing nephropathies
- Provide adequate dialysis
- Seek early renal transplantation in ESRD
- Hormonal therapies;
 - Calcitriol; Control of secondary hyperparathyroidism and bone turnover
 - Growth hormone; Efficacy and safety in pediatric CKD has been well established



Complications of CKD CKD- mineral and bone disorder (MBD)

Systemic disorder of mineral and bone metabolism that is manifested by either one or a combination of the following:

- Abnormalities of calcium, phosphorus, PTH, or vitamin D metabolism
- Abnormalities in bone turnover, mineralization, linear growth, or strength
- Vascular or other soft tissue calcification
- Metabolic derangements begin as early as in CKD stage II





Overview of pediatric CKD-MBD. The reduction in nephron number es both P reabsorption and renal 1-alpha hydroxylation of vitamin D, thus g hyperphosphatemia, decreased 1-25 (OH)₂ levels and subsequent hypocalcel these factors increase PTH levels, with the development of secondary hyperroidism. Dysregulated mineral metabolism is central to the vasculopathy and bone disease of CKD but additional factors worsen this (already complex) CF setting, as illustrated around the elementary and fundamental factors expla pathophysiology of CKD-MBD. *OB/OC/OCy* osteoblast/osteoclast/osteocy recombinant human growth hormone, *cIMT* carotid intima/media thickness

Assessment of CKD-MBD

- Clinical evaluation;
 - height, growth velocity, blood pressure and a musculoskeletal examination, focusing on bone pain, deformities, and fractures.
- Assessment should be more frequent during periods of rapid growth, such as infancy and adolescence.
- Ca intake from diet, nutritional supplements, and P-binders should also be assessed
- Traditional biochemical markers of mineral metabolism, including Ca, P, PTH, 25-D, and alkaline phosphatase (ALP), should be measured at routine intervals

Bone Mineral Metabolism (CKD-MB)- Treatment




Complications of CKD Neurologic and Neurocognitive effects

- When compared with healthy controls, children and adolescents with CKD are at higher risk for grade retention, absenteeism, and impairments on measures of intelligence and reading.
- Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is a known risk factor for poor neurocognitive function.
- Compared with their unaffected siblings, children with CKD have poorer performance on tests of intelligence and academic achievement.
- Duration of end-stage renal disease has been shown to be associated with worse neurocognitive outcomes in children
- It is known that after transplantation, school-age children have better neurocognitive function and school performance compared with children receiving chronic dialysis.



Psychological issues

- Depression and ADHD are common comorbidities in patients with CKD.
- Families with a child with CKD experience emotional, physical, and financial stress
- Parental distractions related to the patient's chronic condition can lead to feelings of neglect by siblings and affects the family's financial well-being.
- Financial burdens result from interrupted work schedules, insurance copayments for medical visits or medications, and poor reimbursement for travel costs, meals, or parking.
- In general, parents of a chronically ill child have higher marital distress and decreased marital harmony when compared with parents of healthy children.



Burden of care

- Time and attention by patients and their family.
- The number of medications (mean of 6) patients take once to several times per day, with dialysis and transplant patients requiring the largest number
- The complexity of care also includes procedures
- fluid and dietary restrictions
- Injections (ESA, GH)
- Home peritoneal (daily) or hemodialysis (at least thrice weekly)



Mortality in CKD

- The risk of death in Children with CKD is 30 times higher than peers
- Most common cause of death is cardiovascularsudden cardiac death (35%) followed by infections
- Risk of mortality is increased with younger age at KRT initiation, female sex, black race and later time of referral to peds neph.

Quality of life

 Compared with healthy children and adolescents, patients with CKD have significantly lower health-related quality of life in the physical, school, emotional, and social domains.



Thank you for your attention

CKD is a big and complex topic





NOCTURNAL **GIPNA** ENURESIS International Pediatric Nephrology Association FIRST IPNA TEACHING COURSE, JORDAN 5/12/5024



NOCTURNAL ENURESIS

Terminology

- Epidemiology and natural history
- Pathogenesis
- Causes
- Evaluation
- Management



TERMINOLOGY

- Refers to discrete episodes of urinary incontinence during sleep in children ≥5 years of age.
- Enuresis is divided into monosymptomatic and non-monosymptomatic forms, although the pathogenesis and evaluation of the two forms overlap.
- Monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis usually is divided into primary and secondary forms.
- Non-monosymptomatic enuresis is defined as enuresis in children with other lower urinary tract symptoms.



MONOSYMPTOMATIC NOCTURNAL ENURESIS

Primary : in which the child has never achieved a satisfactory nighttime dyness
, accounts for about 80% of the cases

 Secondary :in which the child develops enuresis after at least six months of nighttime dryness .



NON-MONOSYMPTOMATIC ENURESIS

- Consistently increased or decreased frequency of voiding
- Urgency
- Hesitancy
- Daytime incontinence
- Straining
- Weak stream
- Intermittancy
- Holding maneuvers
- Genital or urinary tact pain







Epidemiology and prognosis of monosymptomatic enuresis



Reproduced with permission from: Nevéus T, Eggert P, Evans J, et al. Evaluation and treatment of monosymptomatic enuresis - a standardisation document from the International Children's Continence Society (ICCS). Copyright © 2009 ICCS.

Graphic 58087 Version 3.0

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- Monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis is common in children. The prevalence varies according to age
 - 5 years 15 percent 6 years 13 percent 7 years - 10 percent 8 years - 7 percent 10 years - 5 percent 12 to 14 years - 2 to 3 percent ≥15 years 1 to 2 percent
- Monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis is twice as common among male compared with female individuals. It resolves spontaneously at a rate of approximately 15 percent per year
- The longer the enuresis persists, the lower the probability that it will spontaneously resolve.





PATHOGENESIS

- Maturational delay In almost all cases, monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis resolves spontaneously.
- Genetic factors: There is a genetic tendency toward nocturnal enuresis. The concordance among monozygotic twins is almost twice that among dizygotic twins (68 versus 36 percent.When one parent has a history of prolonged nighttime wetting, approximately 50 percent of the offspring are affected; when both parents have a history, approximately 75percent of offspring are affected.
- Nocturnal polyuria and Antidiuretic horomone : Increased nighttime urine output appears to play an important role in nocturnal enuresis.

• Small bladdar capacity :At birth, bladder volume is approximately 60 mL (2 ounces); bladder volume increases with age at a relatively steady rate of approximately 30 mL (1ounce) per year until 10 years of age, Children with NE have been noted to have smaller bladdar capacity.

Detrusor overactivity: They may have a defect in the circadian rhythm of detrusor inhibition and pelvic floor
 activity .



CAUSES

- Bladder dysfunction (usually associated with daytime symptoms)
- Urinary tract infection
- Chronic kidney disease associated with poor growth or weight loss, hypertension, abnormal urinalysis.
- Posterior urethral valves (associated with incomplete bladder emptying).
- Obstructive sleep apnea .
- Fecal incontinence and constipation
- Sickle cell disease (may be associated with positive family history, abnormal urinalysis decreased specific gravity, hematuria, proteinuria])
- Seizures (associated with paroxysmal, stereotyped behaviors)
- Diabetes mellitus (associated with polyuria, polydipsia, weight loss, and glucosuria)
- Arginine vasopressin disorders, previous called diabetes insipidus
- Spinal dysraphism (may be associated with abnormal overlying skin)
- Pinworms (associated with perianal excoriation)





EVALUATION /HISTORY

• Daytime wetting or lower urinary tract symptoms including urgency, holding maneuvers, interrupted micturition, weak stream, and straining. Urologic and neurologic disorders are more common among children with daytime symptoms.

- Whether the child ever had a prolonged period of dryness (ie, six months).
- Frequency and trend of nocturnal enuresis (eg,number of wet nights per week or month, number of episodes per night, time of episodes).
- Fluid intake diary. Consuming the majority of fluids during the late afternoon and evening may be associated with nocturnal polyuria
- Stooling history and history of soiling
- Medical history eg, review of systems for symptoms of sleep apnea, diabetes, sickle cell disease, urinary tract infection [UTI], gait or neurologic abnormalities).
- Family history of nocturnal enuresis.
- Social history (particularly important in secondary enuresis).
- Assessment of how the problem has affected the child and the family



Important aspects of the history for a child with enuresis

Historical feature	Possible significance
Daytime symptoms	Dysfunctional voiding
Lower urinary tract symptoms (voiding ≥ 8 or ≤ 3 times per day, hesitancy, straining, weak stream, intermittent stream, incomplete emptying, postmicturition dribble, genital or lower urinary tract pain)	Dysfunctional voiding or anatomic abnormality (eg, posterior urethral valves)
Prolonged period of dryness (>6 months)	Secondary enuresis more often associated with psychologic comorbidities
Frequency of episodes	Nightly enuresis is associated with persistence
Change in frequency of episodes over time	The natural history is of spontaneous resolution
Approximate volume of enuretic void	Estimate of bladder capacity
Fluid intake diary	May suggest etiology of nocturnal polyuria (increased afternoon/evening fluid intake; diabetes mellitus; diabetes insipidus; psychogenic polydipsia)
Stooling history	Constipation may contribute to decreased bladder capacity
Review of systems	May identify previously undiagnosed medical condition that contributes to enuresis
- Snoring	- Obstructive sleep apnea
- Weight loss, fatigue	- Diabetes, kidney disease
- Gait abnormalities	- Spinal dysraphism
- Staring spells	- Seizure disorder
- Perianal itching, vulvovaginitis	- Pinworms
- Excessive thirst, nighttime drinking	- Diabetes, kidney disease, psychogenic polydipsia
Family history of enuresis	Genetic factors may be contributing



Voiding and fluid intake diary

Date of birth:

Name: ____

Date: _____

Time Urine volume (mL) Straining/ interrupted stream Wetting: Damp/wet? Urge Comments/observations Image: I

Fluid intake diary



Instructions to caregivers or primary care provider on completing the voiding/drinking diary:

- Fill out this chart on a day without school or kindergarten (weekend or holiday). This should start on one morning and continue through to the next morning. If possible, fill out the diary two days in a row, as this is even more reliable.
- Talk to the child beforehand. They should tell you when they want to go to the toilet and should empty the urine into a measuring cup. Please measure the amount of urine and record it with the time of day. You do not have to collect the urine but can



EVALUATION / PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

- The physical examination of the child with primary monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis usually is normal.
- Poor growth and/or hypertension may indicate renal disease.
- Tonsillar hypertrophy or "adenoid facies may indicate obstructive sleep apnea.
- Detection of wetness in the undergarments is a sign of daytime incontinence.
- Palpation of stool in the abdomen suggests constipation
- Detection of incomplete bladder emptying by percussion and/or palpation or observation of voiding that demonstrates slow urinary stream.
- Perineal excoriation or vulvovaginitis may indicate pinworm infection.
- · Abnormalities of the lumbosacral spine may indicate occult spinal cord abnormalities .





MANAGEMENT/ BEHAVIORAL AND MOTIVATIONAL COUNSELING

- In primary monosymptomatic enuresis, the mainstay of management is education, and reassurance that no treatment is necessary.
- Void first thing in the morning and immediately before bed. \cdot
- Frequent voiding (aim for every 2 to 3 h, or 5 to 7 times/ day).
- Wearing a vibrating watch or timer may help decrease daytime LUTS \cdot
- Optimal posture for girls is to sit upright in the middle of the toilet with feet touching the ground or on a footstool .
- Fluid intake \cdot Drink liquids in the mornings and afternoons, and drink less after dinner. Some studies recommend 80% of total daily fluid intake before 4:00 pm. \cdot
- Avoid caffeinated drinks .
- Address constipation. Active dietary management, including medication and nutritionist referral, may be needed, with one soft bowel movement per day being the goal.





MANAGEMENT/ ACTIVE THERAPIES/ALARM THERAPY

- Children and families with persistent distress despite education and reassurance, shared decision-making with patients and families should inform the use of active therapies.
- Alarms are used since the 1930s, the enuresis alarm wakes a sleeping child with a moisture sensor at the initial stage of voiding.
- Alarm studies have demonstrated varying success rates (success being defined as 14 consecutive dry nights), typically with an initial response of 60% to 80%, although up to one-half of children may relapse when alarm use is discontinued
- Nightly enuresis is more resistant to alarm therapy, while infrequent enuresis (less than once per week) does not allow sufficient opportunity for appropriate training. At least two episodes per week should be baseline for alarm use to be effective.









MANAGEMENT/ ACTIVE THERAPIES/DESMOPRESSIN

- Desmopressin is a synthetic vasopressin analog that has been used for enuresis since the 1970s.
- Desmopressin works by decreasing both urine volume and intravesical pressure at night.
- Desmopressin is effective for treating enuresis with a range of underlying mechanisms and may be especially useful for nocturnal polyuria with normal (rather than low) daytime bladder capacity (based on history, voiding diary use, and urine measurement).
- Daily use results in a full response in 30% of children, with another 40% experiencing a partial response . The relapse rate when medication is discontinued is up to 70%
- The usual melt dose is 120 mcg administered 30 to 60 min before sleep. The anti-enuretic effect has been observed soon after medication initiation but, if dryness is not achieved, the dose can be doubled to 240 mcg. The maximum dose for desmopressin is 360 mcg.
- Guidelines for continuous use of desmopressin suggest treatment for 3 months at a time, then reassessment with a medication break to determine resolution of enuresis symptoms.



RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CLINICIANS

- Education and reassurance are the mainstays of management for monosymptomatic or 'simple' enuresis (MSE).
- Conduct a history and physical exam to determine that enuresis is the correct diagnosis, to distinguish monosymptomatic from non-monosymptomatic enuresis, and to rule out common comorbidities, especially constipation, developmental and psychiatric conditions, and upper airway obstruction.
- lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) may not be evident unless clinicians specifically ask about them. When LUTS are present, they should be addressed first or concurrently with treatment for enuresis. Referral to urology is appropriate when symptoms are severe, numerous, or atypical.
- Work with patients and families to determine whether treatment is necessary or desired. Consider the impact of enuresis on the child's self-esteem, and family factors such as motivation, support, and available resources.
- Patients experiencing distress related to their enuresis may respond well to active treatment, such as an enuresis alarm and/or the intermittent use of desmopressin.



Approach to hematuria in the outpatient setting



International Pediatric Nephrology Association

Sermin Saadeh, M.D

Pediatric Nephrology Consultant

King Faisal Specialist Hospital and Research Center

Hematuria comes in different forms

First stop, outpatient...

- 6 year old female referred for asymptomatic microscopic hematuria discovered during a checkup
- 5 year old male with macrosomia and autism. Gross hematuria noted by the mother to have red urine for two days
- 9 year old male with hx of abdominal pain, purpura on the legs and arms a month ago that resolved, continues to have microscopic hematuria

Inpatient ...

- 8 yr old male with cola-colored urine for four days, developed renal failure on the fourth day. No history of fever, sore throat, skin rashes or joint complaints!
- 12 yr old female with a crt of 260. She has had fever and fatigue for two weeks and her urine is showing blood, protein and WBCs.
- Now the ICU; 13 year old female admitted to the hospital with a pneumonia, is in respiratory failure now. Her urine is red- brown and her creatinine is rising.



What is hematuria?

- It signifies the presence of blood in urine.
- Could be visible (macroscopic or gross hematuria)
- Or only under the microscope (microscopic hematuria)
- <u>Definition</u>: the presence of more than 3- 5 RBCs per high power field collected in an un-centrifuged freshly voided midstream urine collection and confirmed in 2 out of 3 appropriately collected urine samples.



Urine discoloration by blood

- Urine turns red in color in presence of as little as 1 ml of blood in a liter of urine.
- The intensity of redness can vary based on the amount of blood and location of bleeding
 - bright red or pink usually originates from the lower tract
 - brown or dark color results from oxidation of the heme pigment and is usually of a glomerular origin.





Urine discoloration

• Conditions that cause red or dark discoloration, other than gross hematuria, can be ruled out by the absence of increased RBCs on urine microscopy. Food/ Dye: Food coloring Beetroot Blackberries Rhubarb Medications: Rifampin Nitrofurantoin Metronidazole Presence of pigment: Hemoglobin Myoglobin Urate crystals Porphyrins



Prevalence of hematuria

- Our knowledge of the prevalence of hematuria in children is based on large screening studies done in the 1970's and it is estimated to be about 1-4%.
- There are no recent large population-based study because a routine screening by urinalysis is not encouraged in most countries.
- The American Academy of Pediatrics no longer recommends a routine screening of healthy children with urinalysis during routine health surveillance visits.
- Because of a high rate of false positive results or transient abnormalities that lead to a low yield in detecting kidney problems in healthy asymptomatic children.
Screening urinalysis

• It is advisable to limit screening urinalysis to selected few patients who have a high risk for CKD;

Previous Acute Kidney Injury (AKI)

Congenital anomalies of the kidneys and urinary tract (CAKUT)

Previous acute glomerulonephritis

Hypertension

Active systemic disease

Prematurity and/ or Intrauterine growth retardation

Family history of kidney disease



Diagnosis- Urine dipstick

- Urine dipstick is very sensitive for the presence of blood and detects as little as 150 microgram/L of hemoglobin.
- False positive can result from the presence of free hemoglobin following intravascular hemolysis, myoglobin following rhabdomyolysis, urine contamination with oxidizing agents, or concentrated urine.
- False negative tests can result from very dilute urine, very acidic specimen (pH <5), and the presence of reducing substances (ascorbic acid).



Diagnosis- Urine microscopy

- The presence of hematuria by dipstick should be confirmed by microscopy of a fresh urine sample.
- RBCs from a lower urinary tract bleeding are generally intact in shape (isomorphic).
- RBCs that have undergone the sheer stress of passing through the glomerular basement membrane are mostly denatured (dysmorphic; blebs and segments). A glomerular pathology should be suspected if more than 30% of RBCs are dysmorphic.





UpToDate



Diagnosis- Urine microscopy

- Presence of RBC with granular casts is suggestive of glomerular disease
- Presence of RBCs with white blood cells is suggestive of infection or interstitial or glomerular inflammation
- Presence of eosinophils makes interstitial nephritis more likely.
- Neutrophils can be seen with infections and acute nephritis such as poststreptococcal glomerulonephritis.





Diagnosis- Urine microscopy

• The presence of crystals in urine can be indicative of nephrolithiasis as the underlying etiology for hematuria, shape of crystals may also give some insight into the possible chemical composition of kidney stone.









Urine dipstick vs. microscopy

- Dipstick is a good starting point...
- Dipstick alone is not enough!
- Use dipstick and microscopy together to make a diagnosis of hematuria



Talking about hematuria

Glomerular vs. Nonglomerular

Microscopic vs. Macroscopic (gross)





Glomerular/ Tubulointerstitial

- Glomerulonephritis
- Familial hematuria
- Hemolytic- uremic syndrome
- Polycystic kidney disease
- Pyelonephritis
- Hypercalciuria
- Papillary necrosis (Sickle cell)



Causes of hematuria by anatomical location

• In children, the causes are more often glomerular rather than from the urinary tract.

Glomerular Familial Hem

• Isolated persistent microscopic hematuria in pediatrics is most often caused by familial hematuria, IgA nephropathy or idiopathic hypercalciuria.

ular		Non- Glomerular
al Hematuria syndromes	Glomerulonephritis (GN)	Urinary Tract Infection
Autosomal dominant thin basement	Primary GN	Hypercalciuria
X-linked Alport (Male)	Post-infectious GNMembranoproliferative GN	Kidney Calculi Trauma
X-linked Alport (female) Autosomal recessive Alport	- Membranous nephropathy	Exercise- induced
	- IgA Nephropathy	Coagulopathy
	Secondary GN	Vascular malformation
	- Systemic lupus erythematosus	Nutcracker syndrome
	- Henoch Schonlein purpura	Urinary Schistosomiasis
	- Polyarteritis nodosa	Malignancy
	- ANCA positive systemic vasculitis	Menarche
		Factitious
	Hemolytic Uremic Syndrome	
	Renal Vein Thrombosis	
	Interstitial Nephritis	
	Cystic kidney disease	

Glomerular Hematuria

- Tea or cola-colored
- Casts
- Proteinuria
- Dysmorphic appearing red blood cells
- No blood clots
- Systemic signs: hypertension, edema, oliguria, impaired renal function
- Recurring/persisting pattern

Hematuria: a simple method for identifying glomerular bleeding *Kidney Int 1982;21:105*

Urinary erythrocytes

	Dysmorphic	Isomorphic	Mixed
Glomerulonephritis	55/58	0/58	3/58
Urological disorders	0/30	30/30	0/30



Non-Glomerular Hematuria

- Clots
- Red-colored
- No casts
- Little protein
- Non-dysmorphic appearing red blood cells
- GU symptoms: flank pain, dysuria, fever, urinary frequency
- Recurring/resolving pattern







Lower tract vs. Upper tract

- Terminal hematuria
- Hesitancy, incomplete bladder emptying, frequency
- Irregular or interrupted stream

- Normal voiding
- Hematuria throughout micturition
- Painful?



Clinical Approach

The goal is to...

- Rule out serious conditions
- Avoid unnecessary investigations
- And provide guidelines for future follow-up and further studies

History

Ask about:

- Timeline of symptoms; at the onset or end of urination vs. throughout the stream
- Associated symptoms: fever, back pain, dysuria, urinary frequency and urgency
- Systemic symptoms; skin rashes, joint symptoms, face and leg swelling
- Preceding events; trauma, exercise, recent respiratory or skin infections
- Intake of medications (including OTC) and herbal
- Predisposing conditions: sickle cell disease or trait, coagulopathy
- Family history: chronic kidney disease, hematuria, hypertension, stones, deafness and coagulopathy.



Some clues...

- Persistent microhematuria with episodes of gross hematuria precipitated by URI is suggestive of a glomerular disease such as IgA nephropathy.
- Hematuria in the neonatal period is suspicious for renal vein thrombosis and factors increasing the risk of this condition include maternal diabetes, dehydration, polycythemia, and umbilical catheters.
- Gross hematuria in a child with nephrotic syndrome is worrisome for renal vein thrombosis.
- Menarche and the possibility of menstrual bleeding at the time of testing should be checked.



Physical Examination

- Vital signs (temperature, heart rate, and blood pressure)
- Systemic examination;
- Edema
- Skin rashes
- Joint inflammation
- CVA tenderness
- Palpable kidneys





6

Clinical approach to the child with confirmed hematuria in ambulatory Setting

Asymptomatic microscopic hematuria

- Urinalysis with urine microscopy should be repeated three times to confirm the presence of persistent microscopic hematuria.
- The presence of febrile illness, vigorous activity and menses can cause transient microscopic hematuria.
- The presence of proteinuria, hypertension and significant history or physical examination findings; a glomerular etiology is likely and would require further work up
- Patients with family history of hematuria of impaired kidney function should be worked up further.
- Patients with family history of isolated hematuria and normal kidney function can be given the tentative diagnosis of thin basement membranes disease.
- Generally, don't require extensive investigations or biopsy for diagnosis.
- A reasonable approach would be annual screening with urinalysis and blood pressure measurement.



Role of kidney biopsy

Considered in cases suspicious for glomerulopathy that requires therapy or could lead to CKD.

- This may include the following
 - Significant proteinuria, except in poststreptococcal glomerulonephritis
 - Persistent low serum complement C3
 - o Unexplained change in kidney function
 - Systemic diseases such as systemic lupus erythematosus or ANCA-positive vasculitis
 - Family history of significant kidney disease suggestive of progressive forms of familial hematuria



Role of genetic testing

- Can be used to establish the diagnosis without the need for kidney biopsy, in some cases.
- Genetic testing for pathogenic COL4A3–5 variants is advised for patients with persistent hematuria, especially with a family history of hematuria or kidney function impairment.
- It is also suggested that first-degree family members are tested because of their risk of impaired kidney function.
- Family members with COL4A3 or COL4A4 heterozygotes are advised against donating.
- Recent recommendations have also extended the scope of testing to include persistent proteinuria and steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome due to suspected inherited FSGS and for familial IgA glomerulonephritis and kidney failure of unknown cause.



Conclusion

- The presence of hematuria with/ without proteinuria in the ambulatory setting requires individualized workup.
- History, initial clinical findings and laboratory work up guide the way.
- The differential diagnosis is wide and a step wise approach on multiple occasions is suggested to identify the cause.
- The availability of genetic testing to identify diseases associated with hematuria with or without proteinuria has decreased the need for kidney biopsy in many cases.





Thank you



Genetics In Pediatric Nephrology

Dr. Samah Al-Jbour

Pediatric Nephrology Consultant



International Pediatric Nephrology Association





Genetic Testing in Children

Testing purpose and method



- Autonomy
- Benefit to child
- Parental decision making on behalf of the child
- Uncertainty
- Communication

Points to consider: Ethical, legal, and psychosocial implications of genetic testing in children and adolescents. American Society of Human Genetics Position Statement. American Journal of Human Genetics; 97:1, 6-21. 2015

Ethical and policy issues in genetic testing and screening of children. American Academy of Pediatrics Policy Statement. Pediatrics 131;3, 620-22. 2013



Genetic Testing in Children



Autosomal Recessive Inheritance Pattern









CENTOGENE GmbH • Am Strande 7 • 18055 Rostock • Germany



Dr. Samah Jbour Dr Samah Jbour Clinic

Jordan

Order no.: 63266027 Order received: 15 Oct. 2024 Sample type / Sample collection date: blood, EDTA / 12 Oct. 2024 Report date: 22 Nov. 2024 Report type: Final report



Test(s) requested: CentoXome® Solo

CLINICAL INFORMATION

Abnormal stomach morphology; Autistic behavior; Chronic gastritis; Decreased serum zinc; Duodenitis; Enuresis; Gastritis; Global developmental delay; Hypoalbuminemia; Increased circulating copper concentration (Clinical information indicated above follows HPO nomenclature.) Diagnosed Condition(s): hyperemic stomach, diffuse gastropathy. EEG normal. MRI normal. Family history: Unknown. Consanguineous parents: Yes.

POSITIVE RESULT

Pathogenic variant with partial clinical overlap identified Potentially relevant findings identified

INTERPRETATION

(+)

A homozygous pathogenic variant was identified in the *ALB* gene. The result is consistent with a genetic diagnosis of autosomal recessive analbuminemia.

Please also note the variants in the potentially relevant findings section.

No further clinically relevant variants related to the described phenotype were detected.



(U) INVITAE DIAGNOSTIC TESTING RESULTS

Gender: Patient ID (MRN):	Sample type: Blood Sample collection date: 08-AUG-20 Sample accession date: 15-AUG-20	Report date: 10-SEP-2022 022 Invitae #: RQ3926290 022 Clinical team: Fadi Qiqieh		
Reason for testing Family history	Test performed Sequence analys the Genes Analys	est performed equence analysis and deletion/duplication testing of the gene listed in		

REQUESTED VARIANTS

GENE	VARIANT	ZYGOSITY	VARIANT CLASSIFICATION	RESULT
NPHS1	Deletion (Exons 12-20)	heterozygous	PATHOGENIC	Detected

The table above reflects the information for the requested variant(s) as of the date that this report was issued. Please see the result box for a summary of any reportable findings.

RESULT: CARRIER

One Pathogenic variant identified in NPHS1. NPHS1 is associated with autosomal recessive nephrotic syndrome.

GENE	VARIANT	ZYGOSITY	VARIANT CLASSIFICATION
NPHS1	Deletion (Exons 12-20)	heterozygous	PATHOGENIC

About this test

This diagnostic test evaluates 1 gene(s) for variants (genetic changes) that are associated with genetic disorders. Diagnostic genetic testing, when combined with family history and other medical results, may provide information to clarify individual risk, support a clinical diagnosis, and assist with the development of a personalized treatment and management strategy.

Clinical comments

Please note, familial variant analysis includes full gene sequencing and deletion/duplication testing unless otherwise indicated. The presence or absence of the requested variant(s) as well as any clinically informative variants in the gene(s) analyzed will be reported. Variants of Uncertain Significance elsewhere in these gene(s), if present, would not be reported.





MOLECULAR GENETIC TESTING REPORT

Primary Hyperoxaluria Precision Panel

Patient Information		Sample Inform	tion Referral Information		ation	
		Sample Type:	Blood	Patient ID/MRN: DUBJR-	DUBJR-	
		Date of		14/08/2024	Referral Center:	Royal Medical services
	Gender:	Male	Date of Receipt	19/08/2024	Applicant:	Dr. SAMAH ALJBOOR
	Lab Code:	GPU-24G0206	Report Date:	18/09/2024		

Clinical Indication:

The index presented with the symptoms of hyperoxaluria.

BOSITIVE RESULT Genetic findings are compatible with the clinical indication.

Conclusion:

is homozygous for the Pathogenic variant [NM_000030.2:c.358+1G>A, p.(?)] in the AGXT gene. Pathogenic variants in the AGXT gene are associated with Hyperoxaluria, primary, type 1 (#259900) with an Autosomal recessive mode of inheritance.

This result is compatible with the clinical indication.

Familial segregation of this variant is strongly recommended.

These results must be interpreted in the patient's clinic and family history context and according to the technical limitation and current scientific knowledge.





Pediatric renal diseases vary widely and are linked to high morbidity and mortality; hence, early diagnosis is vital.

- Presently, genetic testing is being incorporated into the standard of care for children and their families.
- □ The importance of both clinical and social support emerged as a strong theme.
- □ Literature findings suggest that compassionate family-clinician partnerships were important to parents throughout the genetic testing process and contributed to easing emotional distress.

Pediatric kidney diseases include a wide range of disease entities with varying clinical manifestations, courses of development, and treatment choices.

□ Children with end-stage renal disease constitute a greater portion of the monogenic condition population, accounting for almost 30% of children with chronic kidney disease (CKD).







The spectrum of renal diseases varies significantly, and even within the same nation, there are regional variations in the pattern of childhood renal disease.

Genetic predisposition, environmental background, and, to a significant extent, level of consciousness all have an impact on this diversity.

□ In addition to approximately 50% of children and 10% of adults who enroll in end-stage renal failure programs, it is predicted that 20% of children with renal disease may have an underlying genetic malformation.
Gene identification for a range of renal disorders is made possible by massively parallel sequencing, which has become an essential part of renal research.

□ More recently, the creation of approved diagnostic testing platforms has made it possible to integrate sequencing technology into routine clinical practice.

□ The families of children with renal disease can benefit from information provided by genetic testing, such as the opportunity for an earlier diagnosis, the identification of relatives who are at risk, and possibly a decrease in morbidity and mortality. • Over the past two decades, revolutionary advancements in genetic knowledge and technology have radically changed the understanding of pediatric renal disorders.

□ The main causes of CKD in children are CAKUT and genetic conditions that affect specific nephron components.

□ More than 160 genes, including those involved in nephrogenesis, primary cilia development and function, podocyte and tubular cell activities, complement regulation, and more, have been linked to hereditary nephropathies to date. □ A genetic diagnosis can be made in 15%-20% of cases of severe kidney malformations, up to 30% of cases of steroidresistant nephrotic syndrome, 60%-70% of cases of complement-mediated atypical hemolytic uremic syndrome, and 50-80% of cases of hereditary tubulopathy following a systematic screening of all known genes within each disease group by next generation sequencing.

• Nephrolithiasis and nephrocalcinosis have a complex etiology that includes heredity, systemic illnesses such as inflammatory bowel disease, parathyroid dysfunction, metabolic variables, anatomical abnormalities of the kidneys, and recurrent urinary tract infections, although the primary causes of nephrolithiasis and nephrocalcinosis are hereditary factors.

□ There have been reports of more than 30 genes being connected to the monogenic types of nephrolithiasis and nephrocalcinosis.

□ In monogenic disease, the ability to identify the underlying mutations in a monogenic disease gene is of significant diagnostic and maybe therapeutic relevance.

The relevance of genetic diagnosis in children cannot be overstated for various reasons.

□The first is that it might be significant in terms of how the disease is treated clinically; a typical example of this is with nephrotic syndromes, where the identification of structural variants in genes related to podocytes provides evidence against immunosuppressive treatments that would otherwise be regularly administered over a period of several months.

Secondly, it might be very important for the family of the child and for identifying other family members who have the mutation that might be passed on to future generations. Cascade testing of family members and genetic counseling for variant carriers are routine procedures in clinical genetics if a harmful variant is discovered in a proband.

Thirdly, in the scenario of transplantation, where the donor may be a relative, understanding the harmful variation is crucial. It is crucial to identify all family members who might require a transplant as well as rule out the possibility that the organ donor carries the same variants.

□ Furthermore, some disorders, such as focal segmental glomerulosclerosis, have a significant chance of relapsing after organ transplantation, or a more specialized selection of the transplant to be carried out may enhance their prognosis, like in the case of primary hyperoxaluria, where a combined kidney-liver transplant may produce a better prognosis.

□It's reported that more than 450 monogenic diseases have been identified as the cause of chronic kidney disease to date; these disorders account for 5-30% of cases in adult cohorts and over 30% of cases in pediatric cohorts. □ Whole-exome sequencing was utilized to find novel genes. About 33,000 exons from all 22,000 genes, or about 1-2% of the protein-coding regions, were able to be studied with the assistance of whole exome sequencing.

□ This technique of analysis continues to be the basis for the identification of novel genes involved in a variety of renal illnesses.

□ Since 1995, when a mutation in PAX2 was originally identified as the cause of optic nerve coloboma, renal hypoplasia, and vesicoureteral reflux, genetic causes of CAKUT have been identified. More than 40 genetic abnormalities have been found in earlier research, and more than 50 genes have been linked to CAKUT.

□ Currently, monogenic causes, the majority of which have a dominant pattern of inheritance, can account for up to 18% of CAKUT patients.

□ Further research utilising chromosomal microarrays revealed that 4.5-16.6% of CAKUT patients have genetic abnormalities, particularly those with renal hypodysplasia.

□ Furthermore, understanding the genetic, epigenetic, and environmental roots of kidney and urinary tract abnormalities is crucial from a therapeutic standpoint because CAKUT is the leading cause of kidney failure in children.

□ This area of the genomic landscape of CAKUT has been extensively delineated by the advent of next-generation sequencing. Currently, more than 50 genes linked to the etiology of CAKUT have been discovered. Although the development of next-generation sequencing and bioinformatic methods has enhanced knowledge of the molecular landscape of CAKUT, the majority of the patients' etiologies are still unknown.



Genetic Characterization of Kidney Failure of Unknown Etiology in Spain

Setting & Participants		Results
ECase seriesImage: Solution of the series51 centers in Spain		Top 5 Most Common Previously Undiagnosed Diseases CAKUT 5
 N = 818 patients in Gensen study Aged ≤45 years With CKD of unknown etiology (CKDUE) eGFR <15 mL/min/1.73 m² or treated with dialysis/transplantation 191 (23.3 %) reported family history of kidney disease 	 High-throughput sequencing (HTS) directed at 529 genes 203 (25%) patients had pathogenic and/or likely pathogenic (P/LP) gene variants 87 novel variants classified as P/LP were identified Variants in type IV collagen genes were the most frequent (35% of total gene variants) 	ADTKD 7 Nephronophthisis 11 Podocytopathies 19 Alport 35 0 20 40 5% of Cases

CONCLUSION: Genomic testing with HTS identified a genetic cause of kidney disease in approximately one quarter of young patients with CKDUE and advanced kidney disease.

Miquel Blasco, Borja Quiroga, José M. García-Aznar, et al @AJKDonline | DOI: 10.1053/j.ajkd.2024.04.021



Nephropathy	Pooled Diagnostic Yield	Commonly linked mutated genes	
Nephrolithiasis	47.45%	CI CN S OCDI	
Nephrocalcinosis	62.3%		
Cystic kidney Disease	70.2%	UNE1D COT 474 DVUD1 WT1	
CAKUT	26.53%	NNFID, COL4A4, FANDI, WII	

Nephropathy	Pooled Diagnostic Yield	Commonly linked mutated genes
Glomerular diseases	26.65%	COL4A4, COL4A5, NPHS1,
Tubulopathies	53.65%	SMARCALI
Hematuria, Proteinuria	44.45%	COL4A3, COL4A4, COL4A5, CLCN5, NPHS1, PKD1, PKHD1,
Rare diseases	41.8% (X-linked inherited) 29.1% (autosomal)	SMARCAL1, OCRL

Conclusions

Genetic testing validates clinical diagnosis and aids in tailoring management strategies; hence, a more precise treatment plan is developed and unnecessary investigations are avoided, which is crucial in the case of children.

These findings have further highlighted the role of genetic testing for the diagnosis of kidney diseases among children, especially during routine nephrology clinic visits. However, during routine nephrology clinic visits, genetic counseling is of utmost importance, so all ethical and social concerns are catered for in addition to patient satisfaction.

Social Implications

□ Undergoing genetic testing can be an additional stressor for parents caring for a child with chronic illness, and both diagnostic and prognostic ambiguity can cause significant psychological distress and contribute to long-lasting emotion.

□ Studies show that most parents report experiencing anxiety while awaiting the test results and after receiving the results.

Social Implications

□ Considering that some parents reported social isolation, health care providers could encourage the development of local genetic support and advocacy groups to increase opportunity to connect with other families in similar circumstances.

Social Implications

□ As renal-specific genetic testing becomes routine, understanding patient/family experiences and perspectives affords greater insight into the practical utility of the testing process.

• Expanding support mechanisms for families living with rare renal diseases by providing greater access to genetic counseling, peer support, and multimodal information resources may be important to reduce feelings of isolation and improve psychosocial outcome.



Evaluation and overview of hydronephrosis/CAKUT

The first IPNA teaching course in collaporation with • the Hashemite university Knowledge for safe practice •



International Pediatric Nephrology Association

- 5/12/2024
- Amman ,Jordan •



Evaluation and overview of hydronephrosis/CAKUT

Dr. Jumana Albaramki, MRCPCH Pediatric nephrology consultant/professor of pediatrics University of Jordan/Jordan University Hospital

Antenatal hydronephrosis/Urinary tract dilatation

- Incidence: 1-5% of pregnancies,more in males,bilateral 20-40% Postnatal ultrasound will be normal in 21-28% of patients
- More than half of the cases of AHN resolve spontaneously by the end of gestation or during the first year of life
- Associated with other non renal anomlies, sydnrome.
- In children with AHN, a second postnatal US at 4-6 wk should be performed even if the first one is normal

Measure hydronephrosis by measurement of AP diameter of renal pelvis in transverse plane

Society for Fetal Urology grading system for hydronephrosis





Classification of AHN	Second trimester APRPD (mm)	Third trimester APRPD (mm)
Mild	4-7	7-9
Moderate	7–10	9-15
Severe	>10	>15

SFU, Society of Fetal Urology; AHN, antenatal hydronephrosis; APRPD, anteroposterior renal pelvic diameter

Grade 0 - No dilation (not shown)

Grade 1 - Renal pelvis is only visualized

Grade 2 – Renal pelvis as well as a few, but not all, calyces are visualized

Grade 3 - Virtually all calyces are visualized

Grade 4 – Similar to grade 3, but when compared with the normal contralateral kidney, there is parenchymal thinning

A convincer

Antenatal hydronephrosis

Mild : < 10 mm APRPD ,grade 1-2 SFU 80% of cases ,benign , 70–98% of this group resolve, or improve during follow up. Risk of VUR and UTI is 3% Repeat ultrasound at 4-6 months SFU recommends at least follow-up for 1 year

Moderate :10-15 mm APRPD ,grade 3 SFU Severe > 15 mm APRPD ,grade 4 SFU MCUG if bilateral and ureteral dilation MAG3/DTPA with Lasix: non dilated ureter

Urinary tract dilatation classification

Table 1 Grading of UTD according to the UTD classification system Before burth After offur Second trimester Old Third trimester >48 hNew New nomenclature nomenclature nomenclature Mild UTD A1 APD 4 to < 7 mmAPD 7 to < 10 mmUTD P1 APD 10 to < 15 mm or central calyx dilatation Moderate UTD P2 APD > 15 mm orperipheral calyx dilatation or ureter > 4 mm(with APD ≥ 10 APD>7 mm or APD>10 mm o UTD A2-3 mm or calyx abnormal abnormal dilatation) kidney kidney parenchyma, parenchyma, calyces, ureters, calyces, bladder, or ureters, UTD P3 Parenchymal Severe amniotic fluid bladder, or abnormality, amniotic fluid bladder abnormality and APD > 10 mm or calyx dilatation

UTD, urinary tract dilatation; APD, anterior posterior diameter; mm, millimeters

Timing of ultrasound

U/S in first 24 h:bilateral with distended bladder,solitary kidney,oligohydraminos

To ensure volume repletion and increase uop :U/S performed between 2-7 days

Structure	Parameters	
Kidney:	Renal parenchyma Echogenicity Thickness	
	Variation in the degree of hydronephrosis	
Ureter	Ureteral dilation	
Bladder	Size and emptying	
Urethra	Posterior urethral dilation (Keyhole sign)	
Other	Amniotic fluid volume	
	Extra renal fluid (ascites)	
	Other anomalies (Neurological and cardiac)	
	Gender	De diete Marsha
	Overall growth and development	Pediatr Nephro

7/s00467-012-2240-7

Postnatal evaluation

- Pulmonary:
- Abdomen masses, palpable bladder
- Deficient abdomen muscles
- Single Umbilical artery
- Outer ear anomalies
- Genital exam: undesecended testes
- Spinal and lower extremity abnormality





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Antenatal hydronephrosis

One-third of prenatally detected ANH will resolve before birth, another third will persist into the neonatal period but resolve spontaneously within the first 2 to 3 years of life, and the remaining third will end up with a CAKUT

Etiology: Transient hydronephrosis : most common in 41-88%

CAKUT with PUJ most common

Causes of Hydronephrosis

Table 1 Differential diagnosis of AHN

Transient AHN (resolves prenatally) Isolated AHN (no renal abnormality) Ureteropelvic junction obstruction Vesicoureteric reflux Ureterovesical junction obstruction Multicystic dysplastic kidney Duplex kidneys (± ureterocele) Posterior urethral valves Others: Ectopic ureter, megaureter, urethral atresia, urogenital sinus malformations, prune-belly syndrome, tumors

AHN antenatal hydronephrosis

Pediatric Nephrology (2020) 35:2231–2239

Antenatal Hydronephrosis as a Predictor of Postnatal Outcome: A Meta-analysis

Richard S. Lee, MD^a, Marc Cendron, MD^a, Daniel D. Kinnamon, MS^b, Hiep T. Nguyen, MD^a

Pediatrics 2006;118;586-593

^aDepartment of Urology, Children's Hospital Boston, Boston, Massachusetts; ^bDepartment of Pediatrics, Division of Pediatric Clinical Research, University of Miami Miller School of Medicine, Miami, Florida

The risk of a postnatal CAKUT diagnosis increases with the degree of prenatal and postnatal dilatation, except for vesicoureteral reflux (VUR)

1678 infants diagnosed with fetal hydronephrosis, postnatal evaluation identified CAKUT in one-third .

PUJ was the most common followed by VUR

RESULTS. We screened 1645 citations, of which 17 studies met inclusion criteria. We created a data set of 1308 subjects. The risk of any postnatal pathology per degree of antenatal hydronephrosis was 11.9% for mild, 45.1% for moderate, and 88.3% for severe. There was a significant increase in risk per increasing degree of hydronephrosis. The risk of vesicoureteral reflux was similar for all degrees of antenatal hydronephrosis.

Antibiotic prophylaxis for urinary tract infections in antenatal hydronephrosis Braga .Pediatrics 2013

In a systematic review and meta-analysis that included 21 studies

In low-grade hydronephrosis (SFU grades 1 and 2), rates of UTI were similar between patients treated with or without antibiotic prophylaxis (2.2 versus 2.8 percent).

patients with high-grade hydronephrosis (SFU grades 3 and 4;) who received antibiotic prophylaxis had a lower rate of UTI compared with those who were not treated with antibiotics (15 versus 29 percent).
Antibiotic prophylaxis for prevention of urinary tract infections in the first year of life in children with vesicoureteral reflux diagnosed in the workup of antenatal hydronephrosis: a systematic review

Pediatric Nephrology (2020) 35:1639-

Jennifer Leigh¹ • Mandy Rickard² • Stephanie Sanger⁵ • Joanne Petropoulos⁵ • Luis H. Braga⁴ • Rahul Chanchlani^{3,6}

PREDICT Trial 'Antibiotic Prophylaxis and REnal Damage In Congenital Abnormalities of the Kidney and Urinary Tract'

CONCLUSIONS

In infants with III, IV, or V vesicoureteral reflux and no previous UTI, continuous antibiotic prophylaxis for 24 months was associated with a small but significant benefit with respect to the occurrence of a first symptomatic UTI, as compared with no prophylaxis. Dilated ureters (ectopic or refluxing) •An enlarged bladder (suggestive of PUV) •Bilateral UPJ obstruction •Giant hydronephrosis (massively enlarged kidney with RPD >30 mm) RESEARCH SUMMARY

Antibiotic Prophylaxis in Infants with Grade III, IV, or V Vesicoureteral Reflux

Morello W et al. DOI: 10.1056/NEJMoa2300161

100 -

CLINICAL PROBLEM

Infants with grade III, IV, or V vesicoureteral reflux often receive continuous antibiotic prophylaxis in an attempt to prevent urinary tract infection (UTI) and long-term adverse effects from related kidney scarring. However, this strategy is controversial, owing in part to research suggesting that it has no effect on kidney scarring and to the potential emergence of multidrug-resistant organisms.

CLINICAL TRIAL

Design: An investigator-initiated, phase 3, multicenter, open-label, randomized trial in Europe assessed whether continuous antibiotic prophylaxis would prevent a first symptomatic UTI and secondary kidney damage in infants with grade III, IV, or V vesicoureteral reflux.

Intervention: 292 infants 1 to 5 months of age with grade III, IV, or V vesicou reteral reflux and no previous UTI were assigned to receive or not receive continuous antibiotic prophylaxis for 24 months. The primary outcome was the occurrence of a first symptomatic UTI.

RESULTS

Efficacy: Continuous antibiotic prophylaxis had a small but significant benefit with respect to the occurrence of a first symptomatic UTI, as compared with no treatment. The incidence of new kidney scarring and the mean estimated glomerular filtration rate were similar in the two groups.



First Symptomatic UTI



Resistance to ≥2 First-Line Antibiotics

Kidney embryology

Pronephros : nonfunctioning 3 wk

Mesonephros :intermediate mesoderm,5 wk, fuses with cloaca

Metanephros : metanephric mesencyhme and ureteric bud epithelium ,6-9 wk Migrate from pelvis to lumbar region and rotate 90,so hilum medially

Embryology of the kidney



Table 2 Overview of environmental risk factors in the etiology of CAKUT

Maternal health factors	Strength of associa- tion
Obesity	+ +
Increased age	+/-
Ethnicity	?
Gravidity	?
Diabetes	+ +
Gestational diabetes	+/-
Subfertility	+
Infections	+
Maternal exposures during pregnancy	
Smoking	+/-
Alcohol	+/-
Folic acid use	+/-
Medication use (ACEi, retinol)	?

CAKUT :20-30% of all anomalies CAKUT associated with non kidney anomalies in 30% 30-50% of CKD



Genetic and CAKUT

Genetic conditions causing CAKUT are individually rare, and contribute to disease etiology in 16-20% Genes (transcription factors)play a role during embryonal kidney development

Clinical clues for monogenic CAKUT



Consider referring to genetic counseling if any of the following co-exist with CAKUT phenotype: (1) family history

Genetic and CAKUT

Single-gene causes of isolated/ oligosyndromic CAKUT

HNF1B (hepatocyte nuclear factor-1B)

Renal cysts diabetes syndrome (MODY5)

PAX2 (paired box gene 2)

Renal coloboma syndrome

EYA1 (eyes absent homolog 1)

Brachio oto renal syndrome

Human gene variants associated with defects in kidney morphogenesis

Primary disease	Gene	Kidney phenotype
Alagille syndrome	JAGGED1, NOTCH2	Cystic dysplasia
Apert syndrome	FGFR2	Hydronephrosis
Pardet-Biedl syndrome	BBS1	Cystic dysplasia
Beckwith-Wiedemann syntrome	Dysregulation of imprinting in chromosome 11p15.5	Medullary dysplasia
Pranchio-oto-renal synchome	EYA1, SIX1, SIX5	Unilateral/bilateral agenesis/dysplasia, hypoplasia, collecting system anomalies
Campomelic dysplasia	SOX9	Dysplasia, hydronephrosis
Ceptim-Lenz synars me	LRP4	Agenesis, UPJO
DiGeorge syndrome	22q11.2 deletions	Agenesis, dysplasia
Fraser syndrome	FRAS1, FREM2, GRIP1	Agenesis, dysplasia
Hypoparathyroidism, sensorineural dealness, and repet anomalies	GATA3	Dysplasia
Kallmann syndrome	KAL1, SEMA3A	Agenesis
Mammary-Ulnar syndrome	ТВХЗ	Dysplasia
Meckel Gruber syndrome	MKS1, MKS3, NPHP6, NPHP8	Cystic dysplasia
Nephronophthisis	CEP290, GLIS2, RPGRIP1L, NEK8, SDCCAG8, TMEM 67, TTC21B	Cystic dysplasia
Okihiro syndrome	SALL4	Unilateral agenesis, VUR, malrotation, cross-fused ectopia
Pallister-Hall syndrome	GLI3	Agenesis, dysplasia, hydronephrosis
Renal-coloboma (papiliorenal) syndrome	PAX2	Hypoplasia, VUR
Renal cysts and diabetes syndrome	HNF1b, TCF2	Dysplasia, hypoplasia
Renal dysplasia, isolated (cystic or noncystic)	DACH1, BICC1, CDC5L, NRIP1	Dysplasia
Renal hypoplasia, isolated	BMP4, RET, DSTYK	Hypoplasia, VUR; <i>DSTYK</i> variants also associated with UPJO
Renal tubular dysgenesis	Renin, angiotensinogen, ACE, AT1 receptor	Tubular dysgenesis
Rubinstein-Taybi syndrome	CREBBP	Agenesis, hypoplasia
Simpson-Golabi Behmel syndrome	GPC3	Medullary dysplasia
Townes-Brock syndrome	SALL1	Hypoplasia, dysplasia, VUR
Zellweger syndrome	PEX1	Cystic dysplasia
Smith-Lemli-Opitz syndrome	DHCR7	Renal hypoplasia, cysts, and aplasia

ACE: angiotensin-converting enzyme; AT1: angiotensin II receptor type 1; VUR: vesicoureteral reflux; UPJO: ureteropelvic junction obstruction.

Main extra-renal manifestations associated with monogenic CAKUT

CNS

Autism, Schizophrenia- 17q12 del, GATA3 Developmental delay- PAX2, PBX1 CNS malformations- PAX2, SALL1, PBX1 Cerebral infarction- GATA3 Basal ganglia calcifications- GATA3

Ears

Hearing loss- PAX2, EYA1, SALL1, PBX1 Dysplastic ear- EYA1, SALL1, PBX1

Genitourinary

Polycystic ovaries - *GATA3* Urogenital anomalies- *HNF1B*, *SALL1*, *GATA3* Cryptorchidism- *PBX1* Hypomagnesemia- *HNF1B*

Others

Branchial fistula or cysts- EYA1 IUGR- HNF1B, PBX1 Palate abnormalities- EYA1 Skeletal defects- PBX1, PAX2 Diaphragm malformations, lung hypoplasia- PBX1



Eyes

Coloboma- PAX2, SALL1 Optic nerve dysplasia- PAX2 Retinitis pigmentosa- GATA3

Cardiac

Congenital heart disease-SALL1, GATA3, PBX1

Endocrine

MODY- HNF1B Hypoparathyroidism- GATA3 Hyperparathyroidism- HNF1B Hypothyroidism- SALL1 Thyroiditis- GATA3

Gastrointestinal

Elevated pancreatic enzymes- PAX2 Pancreatic hypoplasia- HNF1B Abnormal liver function- HNF1B Anal malformation- SALL1

Limbs

Gout- UMOD, PAX2, HNF1B Thumb malformation- SALL1 Foot malformation- SALL1

Congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract: defining risk factors of disease progression and determinants of outcomes

Pediatric Nephrology (2023) 38:3963–3973

Laura Walawender^{1,2} · Brian Becknell^{1,2} · Douglas G. Matsell³

Table 2 CAKUT outcomes and risk factors for decline in kidney function

CAKUT category	†BP (%)	†UProt (%)	CKD (%)	CKD Stage 5 (%)	FU (yrs)	Risk factors
Multicystic dysplastic kidney ^a	5	15	7	-	5.9	genetic syndrome, kidney size, associated CAKUT, baseline eGFR
Unilateral renal agenesis ^b	16	21	10	-	9.1	genetic syndro <u>me, kidney size, a</u> ssociated CAKUT, baseline eGFR
Renal hypodysplasia ^c	17-39	18-25	37–38	9-12	6.4–10.2	kidney size, hypertension, baseline eGFR
Posterior urethral valves ^d	21-35	32-45	6-22 ^d	15-37 ^d	2-31 ^d	oligohydramnios, nadir eGFR, kidney size, VUR
Prune Belly syndrome	-	-	53	40–50	14.2	kidney size, nadir eGFR, pyelonephritis
Non-glomerular disease ^e	26	40	15	19	5.2	proteinuria, hypertension, CKD stage

Renal Hypodysplasia

Malformed kidney tissue elements associated with reflux, small cysts and lead to CKD

Appears as increased echogenicity or 'bright' kidneys, poorly defined corticomedullary differentiation with with or cystic parenchymal changes

Outcome depends if compensatory hypertrophy

Hypoplasia : nephron mass less,kidney lenghth 2 SD below mean



Multicystic dysplastic kidney

- Non communicating cysts seperated by dysplastic tissue Asymptomatic or as abdomenal mass
- Associated with extrarenal malformation
- Course: majority involutes within 5 -10 years Low risk of HTN,malignancy comparable to general population VUR in 21 % of contralateral kidney
- Serial ultrasound at 6 m,2,5,10 year Evaluate BP,creatinine,UA for proteinuira

Differentiate between UPJ,MCDK





Fig. 1 Illuscound images of multipartic dueshetic bidney and differen.

Management and etiology of the unilateral multicystic dysplastic kidney: a review

Pediatr Nephrol

David S. Hains • Carlton M. Bates • Susan Ingraham • Andrew L. Schwaderer

> tural and functional in nature. A review of the literature reveals that involution rates are reported to be 19–73%, compensatory hypertrophy of the contralateral kidney occurs from 24-81% of the time, and estimated glomerular filtration rates (GFRs) (by the Schwartz formula) range from 86-122 ml/min per 1.73 m² body surface area. Most authors suggest serial ultrasonography to monitor contralateral growth, routine blood pressure monitoring, and a serum creatinine monitoring algorithm. The risk of hypertension in those with MCDKs does not appear to be greater than that of the general population, and the rates of malignant transformation of MCDK are small, if at all increased, in comparison with those in the general population. If the patient develops a urinary to at infaction on has also amendities of the constraint and hide an

Solitary Kidney

Isolated unilateral kidney agenesis occurs in 1 in 1000 to 2000 births

Unilateral renal agenesis: a systematic review on associated anomalies and renal injury Nephrol Dial Transplant (2013) 28: 1844–1855

43 studies with 2684 patients, associated CAKUT anomalies were observed in one-third of patients with solitary kidneys, other anomalies in 31%

Evidence of kidney injury :

Microalbuminuria (21 %)

Hypertension (16%)

Reduced kidney function (10 %)

Pediatric Nephrology (2022) 37:2185-2207

Table 3 Most reported syndromes in association with congenital solitary kidney

Syndrome	Extrarenal manifestations	Genes	Possible inheritance
Branchio-oto-renal	Sensorineural hearing loss, preauricular pits, branchial cysts, and microtia	EYA1, SIX1, SIX5	Autosomal dominant
DiGeorge	Congenital heart disease, hypocalcaemia, immu- nodeficiency, and neurocognitive disorders	22q11 deletion	Autosomal dominant
Fraser	Cryptophthalmos, cutaneous syndactyly, occa- sionally malformations of the larynx, ambigu- ous genitalia, and mental retardation	FRAS1, FREM2	Autosomal recessive
Herlyn-Werner-Wunderlich or OHVIRA (obstructed hemivagina and ipsilateral renal agenesis)	Obstructed hemivagina and uterus didelphys	Unknown	Autosomal dominant
Kallmann 1	Micropenis, bilateral cryptorchidism, and anosmia	KALI	X-linked
Klinefelter	Small, firm testis, gynaecomastia, azoospermia, and hypergonadotropic hypogonadism	47, XXY	Sporadic
MURCS (Mayer-Rokitansky-Kuster-Hauser type 2)	Müllerian duct aplasia-hypoplasia and cervico- thoracic somite dysplasia	Unknown	Autosomal dominant
Renal coloboma	Retinal and optic nerve coloboma	PAX2	Autosomal dominant
Renal cysts and diabetes	Maturity-onset diabetes of the young type 5, hyperuricaemia, hypomagnesemia, and uterine malformations	HNF1B	Autosomal dominant
Townes-Brocks	Thumb anomalies, imperforate anus, and senso- rineural hearing loss	SALLI	Autosomal dominant
VACTERL association	Vertebral anomalies, anorectal malformations, cardiovascular disease, tracheoesophageal fistula, esophageal atresia, and limb defects	TRAPI	Autosomal recessive
Williams-Beuren	Developmental delay, cardiovascular anomalies,	7q11.23 deletion	Autosomal dominant

Pediatric Nephrology (2022) 37:2185-2207 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00467-022-05528-y

GUIDELINES



Management of the congenital solitary kidney: consensus recommendations of the Italian Society of Pediatric Nephrology

Claudio La Scola¹ · Anita Ammenti² · Cristina Bertulli¹ · Monica Bodria³ · Milena Brugnara⁴ · Roberta Camilla⁵ · Valentina Capone⁶ · Luca Casadio⁷ · Roberto Chimenz⁸ · Maria L. Conte⁹ · Ester Conversano¹⁰ · Ciro Corrado¹¹ · Stefano Guarino¹² · Ilaria Luongo¹³ · Martino Marsciani¹⁴ · Pierluigi Marzuillo¹² · Davide Meneghesso¹⁵ · Marco Pennesi¹⁰ · Fabrizio Pugliese¹⁶ · Sara Pusceddu¹⁷ · Elisa Ravaioli⁹ · Francesca Taroni⁶ · Gianluca Vergine⁹ · Licia Peruzzi⁵ · Giovanni Montini^{6,18}

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How should a CSK be confirmed postnatally?

- For the definitive diagnosis of CSK, a neonatal US performed by an experienced pediatric radiologist is sufficient in most cases (grade B).
- We do not recommend the routine use of scintigraphy to confirm the anatomical or functional absence of a kidney (grade B).

b) Should imaging to detect VUR be performed routinely?

Statements/recommendations:

- In children with a normal CSK and urinary tract on US (Box 1), routine imaging to rule out the presence of VUR is not recommended (grade B).
- We believe that VCUG should be performed when abnormalities of the CSK or urinary tract are reported on US (see Box 1) (Grade C).

a) Is a child with CSK at risk of decreasing glomerular filtration rate?

Children without compensatory enlargement of the CSK and/or additional ipsilateral CAKUT are at risk of GFR reduction and CKD progression (grade B).

Children showing a CSK with compensatory enlargement and the absence of ipsilateral CAKUT are at a lesser risk of GFR reduction and CKD progression

(grade B).

b) Is a child with CSK at risk of proteinuria?

c) Is a child with CSK at risk of developing hypertension?

The prevalence of proteinuria in children with a CSK is higher than in the normal pediatric population (Grade B). Evaluation of proteinuria is warranted in every child with a CSK (grade B).

Statements/Recommendations:

- 1. We recommend that office BP be measured in every child with a CSK (grade B).
- At present, no clear risk factors for hypertension in children with a CSK have been demonstrated (grade C).

Table 8 Opinion-based recommendations for follow-up in children and adolescents with congenital solitary kidney

	Low risk*	Medium risk*	High risk*
		Without CAKUT With ipsilateral CAKUT	
Setting	Primary pediatric care ¹	Pediatric nephrologist ¹ /pediatric nephrology unit	Pediatric nephrology unit
Ultrasound ²	Yearly until 3 years of age, then every 5 years	Yearly until 3 years of age, then every 3 to 5 years Further work-up depending on additional ipsilateral CAKUT finding	According to kidney function and clinical data
Proteinuria by urinalysis ³	Yearly until 3 years of age, then every 5 years	Yearly	
Office Blood pressure	Yearly≥3 years	Yearly	
Serum creatinine/eGFR	Not necessary	Yearly	
Abdominopelvic ultrasound in girls	Between thelarche and menarche	Between thelarche and menarche	Between thelarche and menarche

*Risk stratification:

- low risk: kidney length>50th pct in the first 2 years of life and≥95th pct thereafter, and absence of ipsilateral CAKUT
- medium risk: CSK without compensatory enlargement, and/or with an ipsilateral CAKUT

- high risk: decreased eGFR (i.e., mean eGFR for age -1 SD in children younger than 2 years, <90 ml/min per 1.73 m² in children older than 2 years) and/or proteinuria, and/or hypertension

Case

A one day old baby, oligohydraminos ,who remained anuric after birth and has rise in creatinine. Renal ultrasound was normal The baby died at two week of age

WES showed renal tubular dysgenesis



ANOMALIES OF EMBRYONIC KIDNEY MIGRATION

Ectopic and fusion anomaly Hoarse shoe kidney 1.present as asymptomatic,UTI,stones 2,associated with VUR and PUJ 3.Turner and triosmy 13,18,21 4.Genital anomalies

Monitor by ultrasound, BP, creat, UA

Horseshoe kidney

Crossed renal ectopia



Different forms of crossed renal ectopia.

- Fused Ectopic kidney moves across the midline and fuses to the lower pole of the normally positioned contralateral kidney.
- Nonfused Ectopic kidney moves across the midline without fusion and is positioned at the rim of the pelvis (pelvic kidney).
- Bilateral Both kidneys are ectopic and cross the midline with the ureters maintaining their normal bladder insertion.
 UpToDate[®]

ANOMALIES OF THE COLLECTING SYSTEM

Renal pelvis (eg, ureteropelvic junction obstruction)

 Ureter (eg, megaureter, ectopic ureter, ureterocele, or vesicoureteral reflux [VUR]

Urethra (eg, posterior urethral valve)

Ureteropelvic junction obstruction

Caused by intrinsic narrowing/crossing vessel Present ; antenatal screen,UTI,flank pain during diuresis Diagnosis: diuretic renogram/MRU



Illustration of a kidney with a UPJ obstruction, causing dilation of the renal pelvis and calices. In this case, the obstruction is caused by intrinsic narrowing, which is the most common cause of UPJ obstruction.

UPJ: ureteropelvic junction. Modified from: Baskin LS, Kogan BA. Handbook of Pediatric Urology, 2nd ed, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins 2005. MRI demonstrating right ureteropelvic junction obstruction



MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) showing ureteropelvic junction obstruction of the right kidney demonstrated by dilation of the renal collecting system (arrows).

(A) Coronal view.

(B) Transverse view.

LIP1: ureteronelyic junction

clinically significant obstruction on diuretic renogram :

•Prolonged washout – A half-life >20 minutes,.

•Impaired kidney function – Affected kidney with <40% of total kidney function or >10 % decline in function of the affected kidney from baseline on).

25-52 percent of patients underwent surgical correction

Conservative :Follow up by ultrasound,renogram 3-6 months



Case 2

A one month baby was admitted with two episodes of urine retention complicated by UTI

Ultrasound shows unilateral moderate dilatation duplex kidney

Associated



2008-07-0 14:26

C: 137

ureterocele







ureterocele

Cystic dilatation of submucosal or intravesical portion of ureter

Associated with upper pole of duplex kidney Cause obstruction of ureter or bladder neck Treated by transurethral puncture



Posterior Urethrel valve

Persistance of urogenital membrane, abnormal canalization of urethrea

Diagnosis : antenatal (keyhole sign),urinoma,distended bladder ,poor stream,UTI ,wetting,straining to void

Outcome : CKD, VUR, bladder dysfunction

Management :valve ablation, folley, vesicotomy,

Ultrasound image of thickened bladder wall in patient with posterior urethral valves



Ultrasound demonstrating a thickened bladder wall (arrows) in a male infant with posterior urethral valves.

Courtesy of Nicholas Holmes, MD.







Copyright 2008 by Mosby, Inc., an affiliate of Elsevier Inc.

Current strategies to predict and manage sequelae of posterior urethral valves in children Pediatr Nephrol (2018) 33:1651–1661



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 Primary non-surgical management of unilateral ureteropelvic junction obstruction in children: a systematic review. Pediatr Nephrol (2017) 32:2203-221

 Unilateral renal agenesis: a systematic review on associated anomalies and renal injury. Nephrol Dial Transplant (2013) 28: 1844–1855



Minimal Change Nephrotic Syndrome in Children

Management update The 1st IBNA Teaching Course in Pediatric Nephrology 5/12/2024

> Issa Alkhatatbeh MD,FRCP Consultant Pediatric Nephrologist

Minimal Change Nephrotic Syndrome

- Most common cause of the nephrotic syndrome in children
- ~10-15% of nephrotic syndrome in adults,
 - More common in Hispanics, Asians, Arabs and Caucasians
- clinical and pathological entity defined by selective proteinuria and hypoalbuminemia that occurs in the <u>absence</u> of
 - cellular glomerular infiltrates or immunoglobulin deposits

Primary nephrotic syndrome in Arab children in Kuwait. The annual incidence was 7.2 and 6.0 per 100,000 children below 10 and 12 years of age, respectively. Zaki etal, 1989, Volume 3, Number 2, Pages 218-220.

Primary nephrotic syndrome in Arab children. The annual incidence was 11.6/100 000 Elzouki Arch Dis Child.1984 Mar;59(3):253-5.

incidence of Nephrotic Syndrome range from 2-7 per 100,000 children, and the prevalence from 12-16 per 100,000

Eddy AA, Symons JM. Nephrotic syndrome in childhood.

Lancet 2003; 362: 629-39.

IPNA 2023 clinical practice recommendations for the diagnosis and management of children with steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome

- Nephrotic-range proteinuria UPCR ≥ 200 mg/mmol (2 mg/mg) in first morning void or 24 h urine sample ≥ 1000 mg/m2/day corresponding to 3+ or 4+ by urine dipstick
- Nephrotic syndrome Nephrotic-range proteinuria and either hypoalbuminemia (serum albumin < 30 g/l) or edema when serum albumin level is not available
- SSNS Complete remission within 4 weeks of prednisone or prednisolone (PDN) at standard dos(60 mg/m2/day or 2 mg/kg/day, maximum 60 mg/day).

IPNA 2023 clinical practice recommendations for the diagnosis and management of children with steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome

- SRNS Lack of complete remission within 4 weeks of treatment with PDN at standard dose
- Confirmation period Time period between 4 and 6 weeks from PDN initiation during which response to further oral PDN and/or pulses of iv MPDN and RAASi are ascertained in patients achieving only partial remission at 4 weeks.

- A patient achieving complete remission at 6 weeks is defined as a late responder.
 A patient not achieving complete remission at 6 weeks although he had achieved partial remission at 4 weeks is defined as SRNS.
- Complete remission UPCR (based on first morning void or 24 h urine sample) ≤ 20 mg/mmol (0.2 mg/mg) or negative or trace dipstick on three or more consecutive occasions.

Minimal Change Nephrotic Syndrome



NORMAL GLOMERULUS

MINIMAL CHANGE

The glomerular capillary wall



Normal

MCD



two-hit" theory that included the induction of CD80 (or B7-1) and regulatory T-cell (Treg) dysfunction, with or without impaired autoregulatory function of the podocytes



Minimal Change Disease

- 1-6 years of age (80% before 6yr of age)
- Absence of hypertension
- Absence of hematuria
- Normal complement levels
- Normal renal function

Kidney biopsy results from 223 children with proteinuria referred for diagnostic kidney biopsy (Glomerular Disease Collaborative Network, J. Charles Jennette, MD, Hyunsook Chin, MS, and D.S. Gipson, 2007). n = number of patients.



CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS



EDEMA

Mechanism of edema formation in nephrotic syndrome:

The underfill hypothesis

high-grade proteinuria results in hypoalbuminemia, leading to a reduction in plasma oncotic pressure with consequent leakage of plasma water into the interstitium, generating edema. The resultant diminished intravascular volume which activates compensatory neurohormonal mechanisms such as the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) and increased vasopressin with salt and water retention, thus exacerbating edema.

Biomedicines 2024 Mar 3;12(3):569



Management

Objectives :

Induce remission Prevent relapses Avoid side effects

- Older than 1 year and less than10 years of age.
- None of the following clinical findings are present: hypertension, gross hematuria, and a marked elevation in serum creatinine
- Normal complement levels

High-dose steroid

- 90% response in children
- Recur 60% if steroid is stopped
- 50% relapse frequently or become steroid dependent .
 - 50–70% of children being relapse-free at 5
 - years.
 - 85% relapse free at 10 years.

Cumulative rate of remission in response to steroids in MCD



Weeks from starting corticosteroid therapy

The rate of response of minimal change disease to corticosteroid therapy is lower in adults compared with children, and more prolonged therapy is required to achieve a remission.

Adapted with permission from: Nakayama, M, Katafuchi, R, Yanase, T, et al. Steroid responsiveness and frequency of relapse in adult-onset minimal change nephrotic syndrome. Am J Kidney Dis 2002; 39:503. KDIGO guidelines 2021

Initial therapy

Recommendation 1

The standard dosing regimen for the initial treatment of nephrotic syndrome is daily oral prednisone/ prednisolone 60 mg/m2 /d or 2 mg/kg/d (maximum 60 mg/d) for 4 weeks followed by alternate day prednisone/prednisolone, 40 mg/m2, or 1.5 mg/kg (maximum of 50 mg) for other 4 weeks, or prednisone/prednisolone 60 mg/m2 /d (maximum 60 mg/d) for 6 weeks followed by alternate day prednisone/prednisolone, 40 mg/m2, or 1.5 mg/kg (maximum of 50 mg), for other 6 weeks.glucocorticoids followed by 6 weeks of alternate-day glucocorticoids) (1B). Recommendation2:

For children with frequently relapsing and steroiddependent nephrotic syndrome who are currently taking alternate-day glucocorticoids or are off glucocorticoids, we recommend that daily glucocorticoids 0.5 mg/kg/d be given during episodes of upper respiratory tract and other infections for 5–7 days Practice Point:

1: The initial approach to relapse should include oral

prednisone/prednisolone as a single daily dose of 60 mg/m2 /d or 2 mg/kg/d (maximum 60 mg/d) until the child remits completely for 3 days.

2: After achieving complete remission, reduce oral prednisone/prednisolone to 40 mg/m2 or 1.5 mg/kg (maximum 50 mg) on alternate days for 4 weeks.

3: For children with frequently relapsing nephrotic syndrome or steroid-dependent nephrotic syndrome without glucocorticoid toxicity, the same glucocorticoid regimen may be employed in subsequent relapses.(1C).

4.For children with frequently relapsing nephrotic syndrome without serious glucocorticoid-related adverse effects, lowdose alternate-day (optimally 0.5 mg/kg/d) can be prescribed to prevent relapse Recommendation 3:

For children with frequently relapsing nephrotic syndrome who develop serious glucocorticoid-related adverse effects and for all children with steroiddependent nephrotic syndrome, we recommend that glucocorticoid-sparing agents be prescribed, rather than no treatment or continuation with glucocorticoid treatment alone (1B).

Practice Point 1:

Patients should ideally be in remission with glucocorticoids prior to the initiation of glucocorticoid sparing agents such as oral cyclophosphamide, levamisole, mycophenolate mofetil (MMF), rituximab, or calcineurin inhibitors (CNIs). Coadministration of glucocorticoids is recommended for 2 weeks following initiation of glucocorticoid-sparing treatment.

Practice Point 2:

Choosing the most appropriate glucocorticoid-sparing agent from among oral cyclophosphamide, levamisole, MMF, rituximab, and CNI is a decision that requires careful consideration of specific patient related issues such as resources, adherence, adverse effects, and patient preferences. Oral cyclophosphamide and levamisole may be preferable glucocorticoid-sparing therapies in frequently relapsing nephrotic syndrome. MMF, rituximab, CNIs, and to a lesser extent, oral cyclophosphamide may be preferable to glucocorticoid-sparing therapies in children with steroid-dependent nephrotic syndrome

IPNA 2023

 We recommend the introduction of one of the following steroid-sparing agents (alphabetical order): calcineurin inhibitors (CNIs), cyclophosphamide (CYC), levamisole (LEV), and mycophenolate mofetil (MMF)/mycophenolic sodium (MPS) (grade A, strong recommendation)

IPNA

- When using CNIs, we recommend therapeutic drug monitoring to ensure optimal dosing (see below) (grade B, moderate recommendation).
- When using cyclosporin A (CsA), we recommend a starting dose of 3–5 mg/kg/day (maximum dose 250 mg) divided into 2 doses (every 12 h) to achieve trough blood levels of 60–100 ng/mL or 2 h postdose levels of 300–550 ng/mL (grade B, moderate recommendation).
- When using tacrolimus (TAC), we recommend a starting dose of 0.1–0.2 mg/kg/day (maximum dose 10 mg) in 2 doses (every 12 h) to achieve trough blood levels of 3–7 ng/mL (grade C, moderate recommendation)

Primary immunosuppressive treatment of idiopathic NS IPNA

- We recommend administering oral PDN as a single morning dose for the treatment of the initial episode and subsequent relapses (grade B, moderate recommendation).
- We do not recommend a tapering schedule during alternate day dosing (grade A, strong recommendation).
- We suggest that PDN dose should be calculated by either weight or body surface area based on the estimated dry weight (grade B, weak recommendation).

Cyclophosphamide

Dose is 2-2.5 mg/kg/day for 12 weeks. **Prednisolone** is co-administered at a dose of 1.5 mg/kg on alternate days for 4 weeks, followed by 1 mg/kg for the next 8 weeks.

Steroid therapy is tapered and stopped over the next 2-3 months.

Therapy with cyclophosphamide should be instituted preferably following remission of proteinuria.

Latta K, von Schnakenburg C, Ehrich JHH. A meta-analysis of cytotoxic treatment for frequently relapsing nephrotic syndrome in children. Pediatr Nephrol 2001; 16: 271-28

The percentage of patients in complete remission after CPO treatment was 57% (CI 47-68) at 1 year, 42% (CI 32-53) at 2 years, and 31% (CI 21-41) at 5 years. More than 80% of relapses occurred within 2 years of CPO initiation and no patients relapsed after 4.5 years in remission. Pediatric Neph.2011, Vol.20


Levamisole

Stimulate T-lymphocyte function, in NS was first described by Tanphaichitr et al. in an uncontrolled study.
in three trials levamisole significantly reduced the risk for relapse in comparison with prednisone alone.

The Cochrane Database...2001

Trials showed that levamisole reduces the risk of a relapse during treatment (relative risk 0.60, 95% confidence interval 0.45–0.79). no conclusions can be drawn on the steroid-sparing effect, the long-term efficacy, and safety, as well as possible differences in efficacy in different subgroups of SSNS patients.

- JCJ. C. Davin M. P. Merkus
- Ped.Neph.2005, volume20, no 1, Pages 10-14

We recommend levamisole at a dose of 2–2.5 mg/kg given on alternate days (with maximum dose of 150 mg) after remission was achieved by PDN at recommended dose (grade B, moderate recommendation).

We recommend ANCA measurement at baseline, if available and every 6–12 months during therapy (grade X, moderate recommendation).

We recommend monitoring clinically for rash and measuring complete blood count and hepatic transaminases every 3–4 months (grade X, moderate recommendation)





Tacrolimus is an alternative agent, administered at a dose of 0.1-0.2 mg/kg daily for 12-24 months. Side effects include hyperglycemia, diarrhea and rarely neurotoxicity (headache, seizures). The use of tacrolimus is preferred especially in adolescents, because of lack of cosmetic side effects. Blood levels of createnine and glucose should be estimated every 2-3 months.

Westhoff TH, Schmidt S, Zidek W, Beige J, van der Giet M. Tacrolimus in steroid-resistant and steroid-dependent nephrotic syndrome. Clin Nephrol 2006; 65: 393-400

- CsA or TAC was more effective than intravenous CPH (78% vs. 40%; risk ratio 1.98 [95% CI 1.25– 3.13])
- TAC was more effective when compare with MMF in order to maintain remission (90% vs. 45%; risk ratio 2.01 [95% CI 1.32–3.07). When CsAwas compared with placebo, no treatment, or MPDN, no differences were detected in the number of patients developing ESKD but event numbers were very small
- IPNA clinical practice recommendations for the diagnosis and management of children with steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome Pediatric Nephrology (2020) 35:1529–1561

Cumulative CR rates in patients receiving CYC or TAC. Although the rate of CR was not significantly different between the two groups at the end of 24 weeks therapy, the tendency of higher rate of CR was seen more often in the TAC group than CYC group before 4 weeks





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MMF

Mycophenolate mofetil (MMF) inhibits T- and B-cell proliferation. mycophenolate mofetil (MMF) is effective in increasing the duration of remission in children with idiopathic NS

MME

Long-term therapy with MMF results in significant steroid sparing and reduction in relapse rates in patients with SDNS. Therapy with MMF and tapering doses of prednisolone appears to be a promising intervention in children with SDNS

۲۰۰۳ .Am J Kidney Dis .Dec;42(6):1114-20

MMF versus CycA for remission maintenance in nephrotic syndrome

a multi-centre randomized controlled trial to compare the efficacy of mycophenolate mofetil (MMF) to that of cyclosporine A (CsA) in treating children with frequently relapsing nephrotic syndrome and biopsy-proven minimal change disease.

pediatric neph.,2008Volume23 (Number11, Pages 2013-2020

Mycophenolate mofetil versus cyclosporine for remission maintenance in nephrotic syndrome

- 12 CyC A group 5mg/kg for 12 months
- ▶ 12 MMF group 1200 mg/kg for 12 months
- Relapse rate in the MMF group was 0.83/year compared to 0.08/year in the CsA group (p = 0.08).
- MMF has a favourable side effect profile compared to CsA; however, there is a tendency towards a higher relapse risk in patients treated with MMF.

Ped.Neph.2008, Volume 23, Number 11 Pages 2013-2020

relapse rate in the MMF group (0.83/year±1.27 SD) the CsA group (0.08/year±0.29 SD),



Mycophenolate mofetil versus cyclosporin A in children with frequently relapsing nephrotic syndrome. JAm Soc Nephrol. 2013 Oct;24

a randomized, multicenter, open-label, crossover study comparing the efficacy and safety of a 1-year treatment with mycophenolate mofetil (MMF; target plasma mycophenolic acid trough level of 1.5-2.5 µg/ml) or CsA (target trough level of 80-100 ng/ml) in 60 pediatric patients with FR-SSNS

-1Department of Pediatric Nephrology, Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin CVK, Berlin,------Germany More relapses per patient per year occurred with MMF than with CsA during the first year (P=0.03), but not during the second year (P=0.14). No relapses occurred in 85% of patients during CsA therapy and in 64% of patients during MMF therapy (P=0.06). However, the time without relapse was significantly longer with CsA than with MMF during the first year (P < 0.05), but not during the second year (P=0.36). These results indicate that MMF is inferior to CsA in preventing relapses in pediatric patients with FR-SSNS, but may be a less nephrotoxic treatment option.

MMF is given at a dose of 800-1200 mg/m² along with tapering doses of prednisolone for 12-24 months The principal side effects include gastro-intestinal discomfort, diarrhea and leukopenia. Leukocyte counts should be monitored every 1-2 months; treatment is withheld if count falls below 4000/mm3.

Afzal K,etal. Treatment with mycophenolate mofetil and prednisolone for steroiddependent nephrotic syndrome. Pediatr Nephrol 2007; 22: 2059- 2065

Nephrotic Syndrome and Rituximab Facts and Perspectives

Pediatr Nephrol (2009) 24:1433–1438

Can induce remission in NS Effective as sparing treatment When effective no CD20=no relapse No CD20 threshold for predicting relapse

Correct dosage.....? Long term therapeutic strategy....?

Vincent Guigonis, Pediatr Nephrol (2008) 23:1269–1279

Mechanisms of action

- Immune –mediated (B cell-dependent) mechanisms leading to disappearance of B-cells from peripheral circulation:
 - □ Apoptosis programmed cell death (PCD)
 - Antibody-dependent cytotoxicity (ADCC)
 - □ Cells bearing Fcy receptors (NK, macrophages, monocytes)
 - Complement-dependent cytotoxicity (CDC)
 - Antibody-dependent cellular phagocytosis (ADCP)
 - Other (lysosome-dependent non-apoptotic cell death, adaptive cell immunity activated T cells and dendritic cells)
- Non-immune (B cell-independent) mechanisms:
 - The RTX/OFA bind sphingomyelin phosphodiesterase acid-like 3b protein (SMPDL-3b) and acid sphingomyelinase (ASM) on the surface of podocytes

Therapeutic indications and rationale

- Target populations:
 - Steroid-dependent NS
 - Frequently relapsing NS
 - Steroid/treatment resistant NS

- Therapeutic goals:
 - Minimize steroid toxicity and morbidity
 - Minimize calcineurin inhibitor toxicity
 - Induce long-lasting remission
 - Induce remission in treatment-resistant patients

an open-label, randomized controlled trial at four sites in Italy tested whether rituximab is non inferior to steroids in maintaining remission in juvenile SDNS. enrolled children age 1-16 years who had developed SDNS in the previous 6-12 months and were maintained in remission with high prednisone doses. participants were assigned randomely to continue prednisone alone for 1 month (control) or to add a single intravenous infusion of rituximab (375 mg/m. Prednisone was tapered in both groups All but one child in the control group relapsed within 6 months; median time to relapse in the rituximab group was 18 months (95% confidence interval, 9 to 32 months).

Rituximab in Children with Steroid-Dependent Nephrotic Syndrome: A Multicenter, Open-Label, Noninferiority, Randomized Controlled Trial



One-year relapse-free survival by treatment group in the prednisone (control; dark gray) and rituximab (intervention; light gray) groups. The risk of relapse was reduced by 98% in children treated with rituximab J Am Soc Nephrol 2015

Rituximab therapy - SDNS



Kim et al, Kidney Res Clin Pract 2017; 36(3): 257-263

Steroid-sensitive nephrotic syndrome relaps free survival probability



lijima et al, Pediatr Nephrol 2018; 33: 1449-1455

Side effects

Rituximab is associated with several serious adverse events, including fatal hepatitis induced by rituximab reactivation of hepatitis B virus and progressive multifocal Leukoencephalopathy, fulminant myocarditis, pneumocystis pneumonia, immunemediated ulcerative colitis and agranulocytosis.

Rituximab IPNA 2023

We recommend using RTX as a steroid-sparing agent in children with FRNS or SDNS who are not controlled on therapy after a course of treatment with at least one other steroid-sparing agent at adequate dose, especially in case of nonadherence (grade B, moderate recommendation). This is especially preferable, both in terms of safety and of effectiveness, above the age of 7-9 years (grade C, weak recommendation)

What are the treatment recommendations for children with steroid resistant NS

Indications for genetic testing and renal biopsy

- We recommend, if available, that genetic testing be performed in all children diagnosed with primary SRNS
- We suggest giving priority to genetic testing in familia cases (family history of proteinuria/hematuria or CKD of unknown origin), cases with extra-renal features, and those undergoing preparation for renal transplantation
- We recommend a kidney biopsy in all children diagnosed with SRNS, except in known infection or malignancyassociated secondary disease or potentially in patients with familial and/or syndromic cases or genetic causes of SRNS
- We do not recommend performing genetic testing in patients with initial steroid sensitivity who subsequently develop steroid resistance later in their disease course.



First-line immunosuppressive treatment in children with SRNS *IPNA guideline*

- We recommend that CNI (cyclosporine or tacrolimus) should be the first-line immunosuppressive therapy inchildren with SRNS and started once the diagnosis is
- We suggest tapering PDN treatment once diagnosis of SRNS is established and discontinuing PDN therapy after 6 months.
- We recommend withholding or delaying CNI treatment in patients with an eGFR < 30 ml/min/1.73 m2, AKI, and/oruncontrolled hypertension.
- We recommend withholding CNI and stopping PDN treatment in patients with evidence for a monogenic form of SRNS.
- When CNIs are not available or unaffordable, we suggestusing cyclophosphamide (CPH) intravenous or po with or without highdose steroids.

IPNA clinical practice recommendations for the diagnosis and management of children with steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome Pediatric Nephrology (2020) 35:1529–1561

Alkylating agents

When compared with PDN/placebo, CPH showed no difference in the outcome of complete remission (risk ratio 1.06 95% CI 0.61–1.87) [60, 61]. Overall, 36% children on CPH compared with 35% on PDN achieved complete remission

IPNA clinical practice recommendations for the diagnosis and management of children with steroidresistant nephrotic syndrome Pediatric Nephrology (2020) 35:1529–1561

Patients with SRNS who fail to achieve at least partial

remission with CNIs We suggest administering two rituximab infusions at a dose of 375 mg/m2 per infusion in order to reduce the CD19 cell count below 5 per microliter or 1% (usually 1–2 infusions within 2 weeks)

IPNA clinical practice recommendations for the diagnosis and management of children with steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome Pediatric Nephrology (2020) 35:1529–1561

Rapid remission of steroid and mycophenolate mofetil (MMF)-resistant Minimal Change Nephrotic Syndrome after Rituximab therapy.

(few reports)

Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2008 Jan;23(1):377-80. Epub 2007 Nov 2

 Observational studies showed complete remissions in ~ 30% of patients treated with rituximab as a rescue therapy for multidrug-resistant SRNS

Calcium, magnesium, and vitamin D supplementations

Administering oral calcium if hypocalcemia exists based on ionized and/or albumin-corrected calcium

- levels (grade C, weak recommendation).
- Supplementing with cholecalciferol or
- ergocalciferol if 25-OH-vitamin D levels are low (< 30
- ng/mL) (grade C, moderate recommendation).

Administering oral magnesium in case of

symptomatic hypomagnesemia (grade D, weak recommendation).

IPNA Guidelines 2020

- In children with nephrotic syndrome (NS) who have a high probability of having MCD empiric therapy with oral prednisone is recommended thus avoiding renal biopsy.
- Children with steroid-responsive NS, who are frequent relapsers and/or are steroid dependent, , steroid sparing agents are recommended.

- Ten percent of children will fail to respond to steroid therapy. are at increased risk for developing end-stage renal disease.
- Mutations of the NPHS2 gene and WT1 gene account for 20 percent of cases of steroidresistant NS. immunosuppressive therapy is not recommended.

Price of aggressive immunosuppressive treatment!


NOCTURNAL **GIPNA** ENURESIS International Pediatric Nephrology Association FIRST IPNA TEACHING COURSE, JORDAN 5/12/5024



NOCTURNAL ENURESIS

Terminology

- Epidemiology and natural history
- Pathogenesis
- Causes
- Evaluation
- Management



TERMINOLOGY

- Refers to discrete episodes of urinary incontinence during sleep in children ≥5 years of age.
- Enuresis is divided into monosymptomatic and non-monosymptomatic forms, although the pathogenesis and evaluation of the two forms overlap.
- Monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis usually is divided into primary and secondary forms.
- Non-monosymptomatic enuresis is defined as enuresis in children with other lower urinary tract symptoms.



MONOSYMPTOMATIC NOCTURNAL ENURESIS

Primary : in which the child has never achieved a satisfactory nighttime dyness
, accounts for about 80% of the cases

 Secondary :in which the child develops enuresis after at least six months of nighttime dryness .



NON-MONOSYMPTOMATIC ENURESIS

- Consistently increased or decreased frequency of voiding
- Urgency
- Hesitancy
- Daytime incontinence
- Straining
- Weak stream
- Intermittancy
- Holding maneuvers
- Genital or urinary tact pain







Epidemiology and prognosis of monosymptomatic enuresis



Reproduced with permission from: Nevéus T, Eggert P, Evans J, et al. Evaluation and treatment of monosymptomatic enuresis - a standardisation document from the International Children's Continence Society (ICCS). Copyright © 2009 ICCS.

Graphic 58087 Version 3.0

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- Monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis is common in children. The prevalence varies according to age
 - 5 years 15 percent 6 years 13 percent 7 years - 10 percent 8 years - 7 percent 10 years - 5 percent 12 to 14 years - 2 to 3 percent ≥15 years 1 to 2 percent
- Monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis is twice as common among male compared with female individuals. It resolves spontaneously at a rate of approximately 15 percent per year
- The longer the enuresis persists, the lower the probability that it will spontaneously resolve.





PATHOGENESIS

- Maturational delay In almost all cases, monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis resolves spontaneously.
- Genetic factors: There is a genetic tendency toward nocturnal enuresis. The concordance among monozygotic twins is almost twice that among dizygotic twins (68 versus 36 percent.When one parent has a history of prolonged nighttime wetting, approximately 50 percent of the offspring are affected; when both parents have a history, approximately 75percent of offspring are affected.
- Nocturnal polyuria and Antidiuretic horomone : Increased nighttime urine output appears to play an important role in nocturnal enuresis.

• Small bladdar capacity :At birth, bladder volume is approximately 60 mL (2 ounces); bladder volume increases with age at a relatively steady rate of approximately 30 mL (1ounce) per year until 10 years of age, Children with NE have been noted to have smaller bladdar capacity.

Detrusor overactivity: They may have a defect in the circadian rhythm of detrusor inhibition and pelvic floor
 activity .



CAUSES

- Bladder dysfunction (usually associated with daytime symptoms)
- Urinary tract infection
- Chronic kidney disease associated with poor growth or weight loss, hypertension, abnormal urinalysis.
- Posterior urethral valves (associated with incomplete bladder emptying).
- Obstructive sleep apnea .
- Fecal incontinence and constipation
- Sickle cell disease (may be associated with positive family history, abnormal urinalysis decreased specific gravity, hematuria, proteinuria])
- Seizures (associated with paroxysmal, stereotyped behaviors)
- Diabetes mellitus (associated with polyuria, polydipsia, weight loss, and glucosuria)
- Arginine vasopressin disorders, previous called diabetes insipidus
- Spinal dysraphism (may be associated with abnormal overlying skin)
- Pinworms (associated with perianal excoriation)





EVALUATION /HISTORY

• Daytime wetting or lower urinary tract symptoms including urgency, holding maneuvers, interrupted micturition, weak stream, and straining. Urologic and neurologic disorders are more common among children with daytime symptoms.

- Whether the child ever had a prolonged period of dryness (ie, six months).
- Frequency and trend of nocturnal enuresis (eg,number of wet nights per week or month, number of episodes per night, time of episodes).
- Fluid intake diary. Consuming the majority of fluids during the late afternoon and evening may be associated with nocturnal polyuria
- Stooling history and history of soiling
- Medical history eg, review of systems for symptoms of sleep apnea, diabetes, sickle cell disease, urinary tract infection [UTI], gait or neurologic abnormalities).
- Family history of nocturnal enuresis.
- Social history (particularly important in secondary enuresis).
- Assessment of how the problem has affected the child and the family



Important aspects of the history for a child with enuresis

Historical feature	Possible significance	
Daytime symptoms	Dysfunctional voiding	
Lower urinary tract symptoms (voiding ≥ 8 or ≤ 3 times per day, hesitancy, straining, weak stream, intermittent stream, incomplete emptying, postmicturition dribble, genital or lower urinary tract pain)	Dysfunctional voiding or anatomic abnormality (eg, posterior urethral valves)	
Prolonged period of dryness (>6 months)	Secondary enuresis more often associated with psychologic comorbidities	
Frequency of episodes	Nightly enuresis is associated with persistence	
Change in frequency of episodes over time	The natural history is of spontaneous resolution	
Approximate volume of enuretic void	Estimate of bladder capacity	
Fluid intake diary	May suggest etiology of nocturnal polyuria (increased afternoon/evening fluid intake; diabetes mellitus; diabetes insipidus; psychogenic polydipsia)	
Stooling history	Constipation may contribute to decreased bladder capacity	
Review of systems	May identify previously undiagnosed medical condition that contributes to enuresis	
- Snoring - Obstructive sleep apnea		
- Weight loss, fatigue	- Diabetes, kidney disease	
- Gait abnormalities	- Spinal dysraphism	
- Staring spells	- Seizure disorder	
- Perianal itching, vulvovaginitis	- Pinworms	
- Excessive thirst, nighttime drinking	- Diabetes, kidney disease, psychogenic polydipsia	
Family history of enuresis	Genetic factors may be contributing	



Voiding and fluid intake diary

Date of birth:

Name: ____

Date: _____

Time Urine volume (mL) Straining/ interrupted stream Wetting: Damp/wet? Urge Comments/observations Image: I

Fluid intake diary



Instructions to caregivers or primary care provider on completing the voiding/drinking diary:

- Fill out this chart on a day without school or kindergarten (weekend or holiday). This should start on one morning and continue through to the next morning. If possible, fill out the diary two days in a row, as this is even more reliable.
- Talk to the child beforehand. They should tell you when they want to go to the toilet and should empty the urine into a measuring cup. Please measure the amount of urine and record it with the time of day. You do not have to collect the urine but can



EVALUATION / PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

- The physical examination of the child with primary monosymptomatic nocturnal enuresis usually is normal.
- Poor growth and/or hypertension may indicate renal disease.
- Tonsillar hypertrophy or "adenoid facies may indicate obstructive sleep apnea.
- Detection of wetness in the undergarments is a sign of daytime incontinence.
- Palpation of stool in the abdomen suggests constipation
- Detection of incomplete bladder emptying by percussion and/or palpation or observation of voiding that demonstrates slow urinary stream.
- Perineal excoriation or vulvovaginitis may indicate pinworm infection.
- · Abnormalities of the lumbosacral spine may indicate occult spinal cord abnormalities .





MANAGEMENT/ BEHAVIORAL AND MOTIVATIONAL COUNSELING

- In primary monosymptomatic enuresis, the mainstay of management is education, and reassurance that no treatment is necessary.
- Void first thing in the morning and immediately before bed. \cdot
- Frequent voiding (aim for every 2 to 3 h, or 5 to 7 times/ day).
- Wearing a vibrating watch or timer may help decrease daytime LUTS \cdot
- Optimal posture for girls is to sit upright in the middle of the toilet with feet touching the ground or on a footstool .
- Fluid intake \cdot Drink liquids in the mornings and afternoons, and drink less after dinner. Some studies recommend 80% of total daily fluid intake before 4:00 pm. \cdot
- Avoid caffeinated drinks .
- Address constipation. Active dietary management, including medication and nutritionist referral, may be needed, with one soft bowel movement per day being the goal.





MANAGEMENT/ ACTIVE THERAPIES/ALARM THERAPY

- Children and families with persistent distress despite education and reassurance, shared decision-making with patients and families should inform the use of active therapies.
- Alarms are used since the 1930s, the enuresis alarm wakes a sleeping child with a moisture sensor at the initial stage of voiding.
- Alarm studies have demonstrated varying success rates (success being defined as 14 consecutive dry nights), typically with an initial response of 60% to 80%, although up to one-half of children may relapse when alarm use is discontinued
- Nightly enuresis is more resistant to alarm therapy, while infrequent enuresis (less than once per week) does not allow sufficient opportunity for appropriate training. At least two episodes per week should be baseline for alarm use to be effective.









MANAGEMENT/ ACTIVE THERAPIES/DESMOPRESSIN

- Desmopressin is a synthetic vasopressin analog that has been used for enuresis since the 1970s.
- Desmopressin works by decreasing both urine volume and intravesical pressure at night.
- Desmopressin is effective for treating enuresis with a range of underlying mechanisms and may be especially useful for nocturnal polyuria with normal (rather than low) daytime bladder capacity (based on history, voiding diary use, and urine measurement).
- Daily use results in a full response in 30% of children, with another 40% experiencing a partial response . The relapse rate when medication is discontinued is up to 70%
- The usual melt dose is 120 mcg administered 30 to 60 min before sleep. The anti-enuretic effect has been observed soon after medication initiation but, if dryness is not achieved, the dose can be doubled to 240 mcg. The maximum dose for desmopressin is 360 mcg.
- Guidelines for continuous use of desmopressin suggest treatment for 3 months at a time, then reassessment with a medication break to determine resolution of enuresis symptoms.



RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CLINICIANS

- Education and reassurance are the mainstays of management for monosymptomatic or 'simple' enuresis (MSE).
- Conduct a history and physical exam to determine that enuresis is the correct diagnosis, to distinguish monosymptomatic from non-monosymptomatic enuresis, and to rule out common comorbidities, especially constipation, developmental and psychiatric conditions, and upper airway obstruction.
- lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) may not be evident unless clinicians specifically ask about them. When LUTS are present, they should be addressed first or concurrently with treatment for enuresis. Referral to urology is appropriate when symptoms are severe, numerous, or atypical.
- Work with patients and families to determine whether treatment is necessary or desired. Consider the impact of enuresis on the child's self-esteem, and family factors such as motivation, support, and available resources.
- Patients experiencing distress related to their enuresis may respond well to active treatment, such as an enuresis alarm and/or the intermittent use of desmopressin.





- withcollaborationn with the Hashemite university
- Jordan 5/12/2024

Renal tubular acidosis

DR REEM HANI AL-HADIDI COSULTANT PEDIATRIC NEPHROLOGY HUH-MOH 2024

The renal acid load depends on the diet

- Animal proteins (rich in sulfur-containing amino acids) generate acids
- Most fruit and vegetables contain organic acids that are metabolized to bicarbonate
- A typical western diet generate a net renal acid load of =50 mmol
- The acid load is eliminated by the kidney through:



Acid Base Homeostasis



Classification of renal tubular acidosis (RTA)

- type 1 RTA
 - inability of the distal convoluted tubule and the collecting tubule to maximally increase the urinary secretion of H+ in the presence of metabolic acidosis
- type 2 RTA
 - impaired HCO3- reabsorption in the proximal tubule
- type 3 RTA
 - mixed form of type 1 and type 2 RTA
- type 4 RTA
 - defective production of ammonium (NH4+) due to hyperkalemia resulting from either aldosterone deficiency or aldosterone resistance

Nomenclature

	Name	Segment Affected	Physiology
Type I	Distal renal tubular acidosis (dRTA)	Distal nephron, predominantly collecting duct	Failure to secrete H ⁺
Type 2	Proximal renal tubular acidosis (pRTA)	Proximal tubule	Failure to reabsorb bicarbonate (HCO ₃ -)
Туре 3	Mixed (proximal & distal renal tubular acidosis)	Both proximal tubule and collecting duct	Failure to secrete H ⁺ and reabsorb HCO ₃ ⁻
Туре 4	Hyperkalemic renal tubular acidosis	Collecting duct	Hypoaldosteronism

Consequences of chronic metabolic acidosis

- Failure-to-thrive
- Fatigue
- Muscle weakness
- Protons replace calcium ions in bones and can cause:
 - rickets
 - hypercalciuria/nephrocalcinosis

Clinical features of RTA

- Failure to thrive, short stature
- Refractory rickets
- Hypokalemic symptoms (paralysis, paralytic ileus, neck flop, U waves on ECG)
- Polyuria/polydipsia/salt craving
- Ocular problems (e.g cataract)
- Global Developmental delay (Lowe syndrome, Galactosemia)
- Cholestasis in some cases of Proximal RTA
- Family history of rickets/hypokalemic symptoms (often in a consanguineous marriage)
- Hepatosplenomegaly in some causes of Proximal RTA
- Photophobia in cystinosis
- Nephrocalcinosis on ultrasonogram

Step-wise approach to RTA

- Step 1: Determine plasma anion gap= Na - (Cl + HCO3)
- Step 2: Estimate urine anion gap= (Na + K) - Cl
- Step 3: Determine Urine pH (pH meter)
- Renal ultrasonogram
- Genetic studies

Anion gap (AG)

$$AG = (Na^{+} + K^{+}) - (Cl^{-} + HCO_{3}^{-}) (n.v. 8-16)$$

Anion gap (AG)

High AG acidosis

= acid gain

- Ketoacidosis
- Alcoholic (hydroxybutyrate)
- Starvation
- Lactic acidosis
- Organic aciduria
- Uremia
- Toxins
- Intoxications: ethylene glycol, propylene glycol, methanol, paraldehyde, iron

Normal AG acidosis =bicarbonate losses

- Gastrointestinal losses of HCO3
- <u>Renal</u> tubular acidosis
- Acetazolamide, (inhibitors of CA)
- Miscellaneous NH4+Cl ingestion Sulfur ingestion

Urinary anion gap (uAG)

- Index of urinary NH4+ excretion (usually not measured because it is cumbersome)
- A positive uAG suggests low urinary NH4+ - renal tubular acidosis
- A negative uAG suggests high urinary NH4+ - extrarenal HCO3-losses (diarrhea...)

• NB: does not work well in neonates and young infants
Simplified diagnostic approach in patients with acidosis



Simplified diagnostic approach in patients with RTA



Distal renal tubular acidosis: type 1 dRTA

ż

Dysfunction of the intercallated cells that fail to produce acid urine



Clinical diagnosis

pH urine > 5.5 when arterial pH < 7.34 normal AG normal GFR



 Other features: hypokalemia nephrocalcinosis, nephrolithiasis metabolic bone disease

Aetiology of dRTA

- Primary dRTA
 - Genetic abnormalities of the apical H+ ATPase unit
 - Variants of the gene encoding the (basolateral) anion exchanger 1 (AE1)
 - Variants of the gene encoding the cytosolic carbonic anhydrase 2
 - Autoimmune
 - Nephrotoxic medications
 - Hypercalciuria/nephrocalcinosis
- Tubular interstitial disease in older children leading to mineralocorticoid resistant



Distal Renal Tubular Acidosis: Etiology-nongenetic

Autoimmune	Drug Induced	Miscellaneous	
Sjorgren syndrome	Amphotericin B	Sickle cell disease	
Thyroiditis	Cyclamate	Marfan syndrome	
HIV-nephropathy	Vanadate	Ehlers-Danlos syndrome	
Chronic active hepatitis	lfosphamide		
Polyarthritis nodosa	Toluene		
cryoglobulinemia	Mecury		
Primary Bilary cirrhosis	Lithium		
	Foscarnate		

Proximal renal tubular acidosis: type 2 pRTA

- Defect in PT capacity to reabsorb HCO3
 - Hypokalemia is not always present
 - Hypercalciuria/nephrocalcinosis are absent or less severe compared to dRTA

Proximal Renal Tubular Acidosis -Etiology

Genetic	Drugs	Miscellaneous	
Cystinosis	Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors: Tenofovir, adefovir	Amyloidosis	
Dent's disease	Nucleoside analogs: Didanosine, lamivudine, stavudine	Heavy Metals (Pb, Hg, Cd)	
Hereditary fructose intolerance	Chemotherapeutics: lfosphamide, cisplatin	Post renal transplant	
Lowe syndrome (OCRLI)	Anticonvulsants: valproic acid	Tubulointerstitial nephritis	
Mitocondrial disease	Antibiotics: aminoglycosides	Vitamin D deficiency	
Tyrosinemia	Antiparasitics: Sumarin	Membranous	
Wilson's Disease	Antivirals: cidofovir	Multiple myloma	
<u>SLC4A4 (NBCel)</u> (Glaucoma, cataracts, band <u>Keratopathy)</u>	Other: fumaric acid, paraquat	Paroxysmal nocturia Pediatr Clin N Am 66 (2019) 135-157	

Proximal renal tubular acidosis: type 2 pRTA



Combined RTA /Type 3

- Rare form of autosomal recessive RTA
- \bullet Combines features of both type 1 and type 2 $_{\rm RTA}$
 - Manifestations:
 - Oteopetrosis, cerebral calcifications, nephrocalcinosis
 - \bullet Facial dysmorphism (hypertelorism, low set ears, and a

depressed nasal bridge),

- Conductive hearing loss and cognitive impairment
- Mutation in CA2

Renal tubular acidosis with hyperkalemia/Type 4

• High normal potassium with NAGMA

• The primary abnormality is actual or effective hypoaldosteronism resulting in sodium loss from the collecting duct

• Hyperkalemia occurs because potassium and proton secretion in the collecting duct is coupled in this part of the nephron to sodium reabsorption

• Genetic forms of hyperkalemic (type 4) RTA are known as pseudohypoaldosteronism

Obstructive uropathies can cause

aldosterone resistance



Pseudohypoaldosteronism type 1 and 2 (PHA 1, PHA 2)

- Pseudohypoaldosteronism type 1 (PHA 1)
 - Renal Na+ waisting
 - Hyperkalemia
 - Hyponatremia (hypotension)
 - Metabolic acidosis
 - High renin and aldosterone levels
 - ٠

Pseudohypoaldosteronism type 2 (PHA 2) (Gordon syndrome)

- Hyperkalemic hypertension, low level of renin
- (mild)acidosis
 - Impaired removal of distal NaCl cotransporter in DCT
 - Increased expression of ENaC
 - Decreased expression of ROMK in CD

Differentiating between types of RTA

	Type 1 RTA	Type 2 RTA	Type 3 RTA	Type 4 RTA
Urine pH	>5.5	<5.5	>5.5	<5.5
U-B pCO ₂	<20	>20	<20	>20
Urine NH4 ⁺	Low	Normal	Low	Low
Plasma K ⁺	Low/high	Low/normal	Low/normal	High
FE HCO ₃ -	<5%	>10-15%	>5%	>5-10%
Aminoaciduria	No	Yes	No/yes	No
Hypercalciuria	Yes/normal	Usually no	Yes	No/high

Test for phosphat e Handling

• Plasma phosphate levels indicates proximal tubular function

• Fractional excretion of phosphate determined on a timed (6h, 12-h, 24-h) urine specimen for phosphate wasting (Fanconi syndrome)

• Normally 5-12% of the ultrafiltered phosphate is excreted and the

tubular reabsorption is 88-95%.

FePO4=(uPO4 x sCr) / (sPO4 x uCr)

Observations from cohort

 Most cases of dRTA are "sporadic" (>70%), although genetically transmitted, deriving from homozygous or compound heterozygous mutations, with a single family member affected

• Mutations in the ATP6V0A4 gene are quite as frequent as mutations in the ATP6V1B1 gene in patients with AR dRTA

• The association of dRTA with early SNHL is not an absolute indicator of the underlying causal gene

• CKD is more frequent than reported thus far and can occur in patients with a long history of the disease Original Article | Published: 10 January 2022

Whole-exome sequencing and variant spectrum in children with suspected inherited renal tubular disorder: the East India Tubulopathy Gene Study

Rajiv Sinha, Subal Pradhan, Sushmita Banerjee, Afsana Jahan, Shakil Akhtar, Amitava Pahari, Sumantra Raut, Prince Parakh, Surupa Basu, Priyanka Srivastava, Snehamayee Nayak, S. G. Thenral, V. Ramprasad, Emma Ashton, Detlef Bockenhauer & Kausik Mandal 🖂

Pediatric Nephrology 37, 1811–1836 (2022) | Cite this article 624 Accesses | 3 Citations | 8 Altmetric | Metrics

Distal RTA (n=25; yield 64%)		Proximal RTA / Fanconi syndrome (n=12; yield 75%)	
Genes	No of pathogenic variants	Genes	No of pathogenic variants
ATP6VIBI	4	OCRL	I (Lowe's)
ATP6V0A4	5	SLC2A2	2(Fanconi Bickel syndrome)
WDR72	Ι	CTNS	4 (Nephropathic cystinosis)
SLC4A I	6	FAH	2(Tyrosinemia type I)

Sı ge c	ummary of enetic auses				
_	Protein	Gene	Inheritance	Typical clinical features	Type of RTA
	NBCel	SLC4A4	AR	Glaucoma, cataracts, band keratopathy	pRTA
	AEI	SLC4A I	AD/AR	Nephrocalcinosis, osteomalacia, rarely hemolytic anemia	dRTA
	b1 subunit of the H1ATPase	ATP6VIBI	AR	Sensorineural hearing loss, nephrocalcinosis or nephrolithiasis	dRTA
	a4 subunit of the HIATPase	ATP6V0A4	AR	Late-onset sensorineural hearing loss, nephrocalcinosis or nephrolithiasis	dRTA
	CA2	CA2	AR	Osteopetrosis	Combined RTA (type 3)

Treatment

- Correction of acidosis:
 - Na bicarbonate
 - Kcitrate citratepRTA10-15 meq/kg/day dRTA2-4meq/kg/day in 4 doses)
- Further treatment depending on the cause

- Proximal RTA/Fanconi syndrome
- Requires high dosage of alkali@5-20meq/day and potassium supplemenation@2-5 meq/day
- Fanconi syndrome:
- Phosphate (40-80 mg/kg/d) sachets or tablets containing 250 or 500 mg phosphorus.

Case 1

```
7 years old male child presented with rickets and failure to
```

thrive

•He was found to have polyuria/polydipsia and bony deformities

```
•The blood gas showed pH-7.2; HCO3 of 12; K+=3.1; AG=12;
```

```
PTH:458(increased); Cl-=117
```

UAG=10

- •Ultrasonography?
- Diagnosis?

•Distal Renal tubular disorder

•Genetic testing: ATP6V1B1

•Alkalizer @2 meq/day (Always correct potassium before initiating

bicarbonate to decrease the reflex hypokalemia)

•SNHL hearing loss: reverse phenotyping



Case 2

• A 3-year-old male child presented with complaints of poor weight

gain, delayed motor milestones since 1 year of age and features

suggestive of rickets (wrist widening, bowing of legs and Harrison's

sulcus

•He was third born of a third degree consanguineous marriage

•PH=7.19; HCO3=8; K+=2.1; UAG=8; Cl-=112; PO4=2.1; Ca=8.2

•FeHO3=30%; TRP=15%; FePO4=85%; TMP/GFR=1.4

The next step would be

```
Aminoaciduria; glucosuria
was present
•Eye evaluation
```

• • Fanconi syndrome

•Genetic testing: Compound heterozygous mutation in CTNS gene

•Segregation analysis confirmed pathogenic variation

•Alkalizer @10 meq/day (Always correct sodium before initiating

bicarbonate to decrease the reflex hypokalemia); Cysteamine



Case 3

- 4 year old female child presented with short stature, rickets, polyuria and polydipsia
- PH=7.23; HCO3=13; UAG=16; K+=2.9;
- PO4-=2.1; FeCHO3=6%; FePO4=81%
- Dental issues?
- Type of RTA?
- Amelogenesis imperfecta
- dRTA with proximal dysfunction with amelogenesis imperfecta
- Mutation analysis:WDR72 mutation
- WDR72 mutation typically causes dRTA (2013)



Summary

- Suspected in child with FTT wit NAGMA
- Urinary anion gap may help to differentiate type of RTA
- • Molecular genetics
 - To establish diagnosis or for picking up the comorbid conditions (reverse phenotyping)
 - Genetic counselling

Thank You







THE 1ST IPNA TEACHING COURSE IN PEDIATRIC NEPHROLOGY

(KNOWLEDGE FOR SAFE PRACTICE)

Hypertension in Children: Case-Based Discussion

Ibrahim F. Shatat, MD, MSCR, FAAP Pediatric Nephrology and Hypertension





I do not have any relevant financial relationship with commercial interest to disclose



Objective

Case-based discussion focused on identification and management of children with hypertension



Prevalence & Relevance

- 3.5% of children have HTN; another 10-11% have elevated BP, and the prevalence is much higher in obese children (up to 25%).
 - High BP in childhood increases the risk for adult HTN and cardiovascular disease –Tracking.
 - Even youth with HTN have evidence of accelerated vascular aging, TOD, cognitive impairment and school performance.



In the ER

10-year-old boy, previously healthy, presented to the emergency room with signs and symptoms of otitis media. His father is hypertensive on medications.

The child is crying from ear pain. His vital signs are HR 110 BPM, BP 139/85

On physical exam: right ear tympanic membrane is erythematous and bulging. You prescribe pain killer and antibiotics. Repeat BP is 130/80.

You plan to discharge the patient home when the child's father asks you: do I need to worry about his BP? Does my child have hypertension?



Your next step in management?

- A. Start antihypertensive medication
- B. Refer to specialist
- C. Repeat blood pressure measurement at later occasion in a different setting
- D. Order workup (CBC, kidney US, ECHO, kidney function test and urinalysis)
- E. Reassure parents that no further action is needed



Definition and Methodology

Hypertension—average <u>SBP and/or DBP</u> that is greater than or equal to the 95th percentile for sex, age, and height on <u>3 or more occasions</u>.
Adolescents ≥13 y/o with BP ≥130/80 are considered to be hypertensive

Elevated BP —average SBP or DBP levels that are greater than or equal to the 90th percentile, but less than the 95th percentile.
Adolescents ≥13 y/o with BP levels greater than or equal to 120/80 mmHg should be considered to have elevated BP



What to Do about the Child with an Elevated BP?

- Repeat Elevated BP's
- Blood pressure in childhood is quite **labile** and can **fluctuate** widely,



Use online calculators or cell phone apps to help you classify BP



Definition of HTN (1-18y)

TABLE 3 Updated Definitions of BP Categories and Stages

For Children Aged 1–13 y

For Children Aged \geq 13 y

Normal BP: <90th percentile</th>Normal BP: <120/<80 mm Hg</th>Elevated BP: ≥90th percentile to <95th percentile or 120/80</td>Elevated BP: 120/<80 to 129/<80 mm Hg</td>mm Hg to <95th percentile (whichever is lower)</td>Elevated BP: 120/<80 to 129/<80 mm Hg</td>

Stage 1 HTN: \geq 95th percentile to <95th percentile + 12 mmHg, Stage 1 HTN: 130/80 to 139/89 mmHg

or 130/80 to 139/89 mm Hg (whichever is lower)

Stage 2 HTN: ≥95th percentile + 12 mm Hg, or ≥140/90 mm Hg Stage 2 HTN: ≥140/90 mm Hg (whichever is lower)



Use the Correct Sized Cuff

- Proper cuff size is crucial to accurate BP measurement
- Manufacturer's recommendations on cuffs may not be accurate due to obesity-associated increased arm circumference

- Ideally arm circumference should be measured and the proper size cuff chosen
- A variety of cuff sizes must be kept on hand in the office



Figure 2. Blood pressure cuff showing size estimation based on arm circumference.



Technique

- Rest for 5 minutes
- Use correct sized cuff
- Repeat at 1-min intervals





In the ICU

You get a call from the PICU staff to evaluate the BP of a 10-year-old girl, previously normotensive, known to have CP & seizure disorder admitted with status epilepticus.

During her hospitalization, she was intubated and sedated. Yesterday, the ICU team managed to extubate her and currently she is on CPAP due to respiratory distress.

On exam: you noticed the blood pressure cuff to be on her right leg. BP 140/90, HR 80, RR 20. Her neuro exam shows her to have increased muscle tone.

Her current medications include anti-epileptics, clonidine weaning dose, stress dose steroids.


What are the possible contributing factors to the elevated BP in this child?

- A. Wrong placement of the BP cuff
- B. Respiratory distress
- C. Rebound hypertension
- D. Stress-dose steroids
- E. Increased muscle tone
- F. All the above



Take home massages

- Technique is important
- BP in children is labile
- Frequently the child with elevated BP does not require a workup or medications



The obese child

- Age: 12 years, Male
- During routine checkup: Fatigue, snoring at night.
- Family History: Hypertension, type 2 diabetes
- No significant medical history, not on any meds.
- Enjoys playing video games and ordering food from fastfood chains.
- BP Readings on multiple occasions averaged: 140/90 mmHg (stage2 HTN range)
- Weight: BMI > 99th percentile, + acanthosis nigricans.



What is the most appropriate approach for this boy?

- A. Have the boy return for a repeat blood pressure measurement in 6 months.
- B. Provide lifestyle counseling to increase physical activity and lower dietary salt and repeat blood pressure measurement in 6 months.
- C. Begin diagnostic evaluation for stage 2 hypertension.
- D. Admit to the hospital for immediate blood pressure reduction.



Patient Evaluation & Management by BP Level

BP Category (see Table 3)	BP Screening Schedule	Lifestyle Counseling (Weight, Nutrition)	Check Upper and Lower Extremity BP	ABPM	Diagnostic Evaluation	Initiate Treatment	Consider Sub- specialty Referral
Normal	Annual	Х					
	Initial measurement	Х					
Elevated BP	Second measurement: Repeat in 6 months	Х	Х				
	Third measurement: Repeat in 6 months	Х		Х	Х		Х
	Initial measurement	Х					
Stage 1 HTN	Second measurement: Repeat in 1-2 weeks	Х	Х				
	Third measurement: Repeat in 3 months	Х		Х	Х	Х	Х
	Initial measurement	Х	Х				
Stage 2 HTN	Second measurement: Repeat/refer to specialty care within 1 week	Х		Х	х	х	Х

Flynn et al, Pediatrics 2017; 140:e20171904



Relevant Guidance from the 2017 AAP CPG

Children and adolescents ≥ 6 y of age do <u>not</u> require an <u>extensive</u> evaluation for secondary causes of HTN **if** they have a positive family history of HTN, are overweight or obese, and/or do not have history or physical examination findings suggestive of a secondary cause of HTN.



TABLE 10 Screening Tests and Relevant Populations

Patient Population	Screening Tests
All patients	Urinalysis
	Chemistry panel, including electrolytes, blood urea nitrogen, and creatinine
	Lipid profile (fasting or nonfasting to include high-density lipoproteina and total cholesterol)
	Renal ultrasonography in those <6 y of age or those with abnormal urinalysis or renal function
In the obese (BMI >95th	Hemoglobin A1c (accepted screen for diabetes)
percentile) child or adolescent, in addition to	Aspartate transaminase and alanine transaminase (screen for fatty liver)
the above	Fasting lipid panel (screen for dyslipidemia)
Optional tests to be obtained on the basis of history,	Fasting serum glucose for those at high risk for diabetes mellitus Thyroid-stimulating hormone
physical examination, and	Drug screen
initial studies	Sleep study (if loud snoring, daytime sleepiness, or reported history of apnea)
	Complete blood count, especially in those with growth delay or abnormal renal function



Initial Diagnostic Evaluation

ABPM is done, demonstrating sustained hypertension while awake and asleep, with only 7% SBP dipping.

Urinalysis is normal. Creatinine is 0.7 mg/dL (62 µmol/L)

Random glucose elevated. Triglycerides and LDL cholesterol elevated. HDL cholesterol low



Uses of ABPM – 2017 AAP CPG

- Confirm diagnosis of HTN after 3 high office BP readings
 - White coat vs. sustained ambulatory HTN
- Assess adequacy of BP treatment
 - CKD: 24-hr MAP <50th percentile
 - Repeat ABPM in all treated patients

Condition	Rationale
Secondary HTN	Severe ambulatory HTN or nocturnal HTN indicates higher likelihood of secondary HTN ^{161,167}
CKD or structural renal abnormalities	Evaluate for MH or nocturnal HTN, ^{168–172} better control delays progression of renal disease ¹⁷³
T1DM and T2DM	Evaluate for abnormal ABPM patterns, ^{174,175} better BP control delays the development of MA ^{176–178}
Solid-organ transplant	Evaluate for MH or nocturnal HTN, better control BP ^{179–188}
Obesity	Evaluate for WCH and MH ^{23,189–192}
OSAS	Evaluate for nondipping and accentuated morning BP surge ^{43,46,193,194}
Aortic coarctation (repaired)	Evaluate for sustained HTN and MH ^{58,112,113}
Genetic syndromes associated with HTN (neurofibromatosis, Turner syndrome, Williams syndrome, coarctation of the aorta)	HTN associated with increased arterial stiffness may only be manifest with activity during ABPM ^{58, 195}
Treated hypertensive patients	Confirm 24-h BP control ¹⁵⁵
Patient born prematurely	Evaluate for nondipping ¹⁹⁶
Research, clinical trials	To reduce sample size ¹⁹⁷

TABLE 12 High-Risk Conditions for Which ABPM May Be Useful



BP Patterns by Office & Ambulatory BP





Which of the following is likely true about this child's BP?

- A. Component of the metabolic syndrome (secondary to obesity)
- B. Wrong technique of BP measurement (cuff size)
- C. Possibly related to obstructive sleep apnea
- D. Likely related to his life-style
- E. All the above



Management of HTN in Children & Adolescents

Treatment includes 3 components: Non-pharmacologic measures Antihypertensive medications Ongoing monitoring



Therapy: Initial Approach

Weight loss is primary therapy but difficult to achieve

Increased Physical Activity

- 2017 AAP CPG: "Vigorous" physical activity 3-5 d/wk, 30-60 min/session
- Aerobic exercise or combination of aerobic exercise plus resistance training
- Try to find an activity child is already participating in and intensify it

Nutritional Counseling

- 2017 AAP CPG: Provide advice on the DASH diet
- DASH eating plan: increased fruits and vegetables, low-fat dairy products ± sodium restriction (<u>www.dashdiet.org</u>)
- AHA: Reduce sodium intake to 1500-2300 mg/day



Outcome

He met with a nutritionist who taught him about healthy eating
Reduced sodium intake
Cut down on snacks and portion sizes at meals
His father started taking him to the gym 4 days per week
He used the treadmill and did weight training

Over a 2-year period he lost 9 Kg, and his BMI dropped to the 93rd percentile

His blood pressure fell to the elevated BP range – 120's/70s



Who Needs Pharmacologic Treatment?

In hypertensive children and adolescents who:

-Symptomatic hypertension
-Secondary hypertension
-Hypertensive target-organ damage
-Diabetes (Types 1 and 2)
-Persistent hypertension despite non-pharmacologic measures
-Stage 2 hypertension

Clinicians should initiate pharmacologic treatment with an ACE inhibitor, ARB, long-acting calcium channel blocker, or thiazide diuretic.

Flynn et al, Pediatrics 2017; 140:e20171904





Goal for Antihypertensive Treatment in Children

In children and adolescents diagnosed with HTN, the treatment goal with non-pharmacologic and pharmacologic therapy should be a reduction in SBP and DBP to <90th percentile and <130/80 mm Hg in adolescents \geq 13 years old.

• C, moderate

Children or adolescents with both CKD and HTN should be treated to lower 24-hr MAP <50th percentile by ABPM

• B, strong

Flynn et al, Pediatrics 2017; 140:e20171904



Approach to Prescribing Anti-hypertensives

Pediatricians should only prescribe drugs that have published pediatric efficacy & safety data Follow "stepped care" approach

- Begin with starting dose of a single drug
- Increase dose until goal BP or maximum dose reached, or adverse effects occur
- Add another drug from a different class, etc.

Multiple-drug regimens usually needed to reach goal BP, even in primary HTN

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REVIEW

Antihypertensive agents: a long way to safe drug prescribing in children

Nida Siddiqi¹ • Ibrahim F. Shatat^{2,3,4}

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The young child

8-year-old boy, known to have ADHD, otherwise previously healthy was found to have a BP of 160/100 during his developmental pediatrics clinic visit. BP was repeated multiple times and confirmed manually with almost the same range.

Upon further detailed history, the family reported that the child occasionally complains of headaches, fatigue, and episodes of dizziness.

Physical Exam Findings:

- Abdominal Exam: No palpable masses, + abdominal bruit, + multiple hyperpigmented lesions on the trunk and back.
- Heart Exam: Normal S1, S2; no murmurs, strong pulses X4.

Lower limb BP 170/110

• No history prematurity, past trauma, surgery, or medication intake.

Labs, imaging studies ordered

Started on amlodipine which resulted in BP reduction to the 140's/90's range.

Normal urinalysis, normal creatinine, normal electrolytes, elevated renin and aldosterone

Echocardiogram: structurally normal heart with LVH

Complete kidney US: kidneys of normal appearance and size bilaterally

Renal doppler: 2 LF renal arteries, 1 RT renal artery. Patent. Inconclusive.

CT- angiogram performed: Both renal arteries are patent, but there is minimal irregularity of the caliber of the left renal artery as it branches off from the abdominal aorta, of uncertain clinical significance.

Genetic testing ordered & confirmed diagnosis as NF1







BP was better controlled with addition of a B-Blocker: 130's/90's Child developed a TIA, underwent a whole-body MRI/MRA which confirmed vascular lesion in the brain consistent with moyamoya disease

He underwent a bypass surgery to help improve brain circulation.

On the MRI/MRA: Interim reduction in left renal bipolar length (Left Kidney: 7.9 cm, previously 9.0 cm) with reduced left renal upper-mid polar parenchymal thickness/bulk suggesting ongoing vascular insult.

Control BP & maintain brain perfusion .. A small dose of ACEi was added and resulted in BP 120's/70-80 Repeat echo 6 mo later – improved LVH



IMPRESSION:

1. Markedly decreased left renal function (18%) with severe photopenia of the left upper pole and relatively preserved lower pole uptake. The pattern correlates with known duplicated left renal arteries and attenuated upper pole arterial supply seen on recent MRA.

- 2. Findings are consistent with segmental renal ischemia affecting the left upper pole, likely chronic given the degree of functional impairment.
- 3. Right kidney demonstrates compensatory increased function (81% split function) without focal abnormalities.

Recommend interventional radiology versus surgical consultation.





Take home massages

Always check for upper and lower extremity BP Feel for femoral pulses Auscultate for abdominal bruits In children with renovascular disease genetic testing (yield up to 19-40%).

The younger the child, the higher the BP, the more sustained the BP => the more likely it is secondary

NF vascular lesions are dynamic and may affect multiple organs, look for other organ involvement, CoArc and don't forget Pheos.

Based on the local expertise, the lesions and the kidney function: a wide range of interventions can be performed (balloon, reconstruction, reimplantation, avoid stents in growing children) and have a vascular surgeon on standby.



Relevant Guidance from the 2017 AAP CPG

Doppler renal ultrasonography may be used as a noninvasive screening study for the evaluation of possible RAS in normal wt children and adolescents ≥ 8 y of age who are suspected of having renovascular HTN and who will cooperate with the procedure.

• C, moderate

In children and adolescents suspected of having RAS, either CTA or MRA may be performed as noninvasive imaging studies.

• D, weak



Causes of Childhood HTN

	Infants	School-age	Teens
Primary	1%	15-30%	85-95%
Secondary	99%	70-85%	5-15%
Renal Parenchymal Disease	20%	60-70%	
Renovascular	25%	5-10%	
Endocrine	1%	3-5%	
Coarctation	35%	10-20%	
Reflux Nephropathy	0%	5-10%	
Neoplastic	4%	1-5%	
Miscellaneous	20%	1-5%	



The baby

13 mon boy, ex 32 weeker found to be hypertensive during a scheduled MRI brain which was being completed due to multiple cafe au lait spots blood pressure was 185/95 mmHg

Child met the criteria for NF1, and later the diagnosis was genetically confirmed.

Initial management to reduce the BP to a safe range. Now BP controlled on 3 medications: Amlodipine, Atenolol and Enalapril Last BP was 105/60



	DMSA	
	Posterior	
(Counts)	Left	Right
	341K	006K
Total	341K	006K
(% Ratios)	Left	Right
	98.30	1.70
Total	98.30	1.70







BP controlled on 3 medications. Split function 2%/98%

What resources are available for you at your institution?Will you keep the child on 3 medications or consider nephrectomy?Will the child come off antihypertensive medications after nephrectomy?

Can the disease affect the other kidney?

PEDIATRIC HYPERTENSION: UPDATE

EDITED BY: Ibrahim F. Shatat and Tammy M. Brady PUBLISHED IN: Frontiers in Pediatrics



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www.frontiersin.org/research-topics/5269/pediatric-hypertension-update#overview 2017 AAP CPG: https://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/140/3/e20171904.long

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ishatat@Sidra.org @IntPedHTN @pedsnephrology