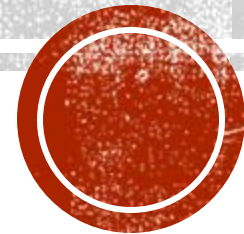


MICROSCOPIC HEMATURIA

Peter Birks, Nephrologist, Fraser Health

MD, FRCPC, MHA Candidate

Jan 22, 2020

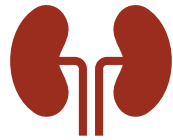


**NO
DISCLOSURES**

OBJECTIVES



Definition



Different types of
urine testing and
indications



Approach/causes



Indications for
specialist referral





WORKUP OF MICROSCOPIC HEMATURIA

- External Review Ongoing





Working group members

1. Chair: Dr. Kennard Tan, Medical Microbiologist, Vancouver
2. Dr. Kevin Afra, Infectious Diseases, Surrey
3. Dr. Peter Birks , Nephrology, Fraser Health
4. Dr. Michael Chen, Medical Biochemist, Victoria
5. Dr. Chris Hoag, Urology, North Vancouver
6. Dr. Julia Stewart, Hospitalist, Burnaby
7. Dr. Serena Verma, Family Physician, Vancouver
8. Dr. David Yap, Emergency Medicine, Vancouver
9. Katey Townsend Research Officer, Ministry of Health, Victoria





Prevalence microscopic hematuria is 2.4-31.1%



Often incidental, but may be associated with urologic malignancy in up to 10%



May be associated with nephrologic disease

BACKGROUND



DEFINITION OF MICROSCOPIC HEMATURIA

- Significant microscopic hematuria is defined as ≥ 3 **RBC per high power field** on urine microscopy



URINE TESTING

- Urinalysis
 - Includes dipstick and microscopy
 - Proper collection: midstream specimen in clean container without prior cleansing of genitalia
- Dipstick (Macroscopic urinalysis)
 - Picks up Heme
 - Sensitive but not specific (good rule out test...but needs to be confirmed)
 - False positive with myoglobin, semen, high urine pH

TESTING AND READING TIME Rev.08/2010

| | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------|---------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|-----------------|--|---------------------|----------------|
| Leukocytes 120s | Neg. | | | Trace 15 | Small 70 | Moderate 125 | Large 500 | cells/ μ l |
| Nitrite 60s | Neg. | | | | | Positive Any degree of uniform pink color | | |
| Urobilinogen 60s | 3.2 | Normal | 16 | | 32 + | 64 ++ | 128 +++ | μ mol/l |
| Protein 60s | Neg. | | Trace \pm | 0.3 + | 1.0 ++ | 3.0 +++ | ≥ 20.0 ++++ | g/l |
| pH 60s | 5.0 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 7.0 | 7.5 | 8.0 | 8.5 | |
| Blood 60s | Neg. | Non hemolyzed 10 Trace | | Hemolyzed 10 Trace | 25 Small | 80 Moderate | 200 Large | cells/ μ l |
| Specific Gravity 45s | 1.000 | 1.005 | 1.010 | 1.015 | 1.020 | 1.025 | 1.030 | |
| Ascorbate 40s | 0 | | | 0.6 | 1.4 | 2.8 | 5.0 | mmol/l |
| Ketone 40s | Neg. | | Trace 0.5 | Small 1.5 | Moderate 4.0 | 8.0 | Large 16 | mmol/l |
| Bilirubin 30s | Neg. | | | | Small 17 | Moderate 50 | Large 100 | μ mol/l |
| Glucose 30s | Neg. | | 5 Trace | 15 + | 30 ++ | 60 +++ | 110 ++++ | mmol/l |

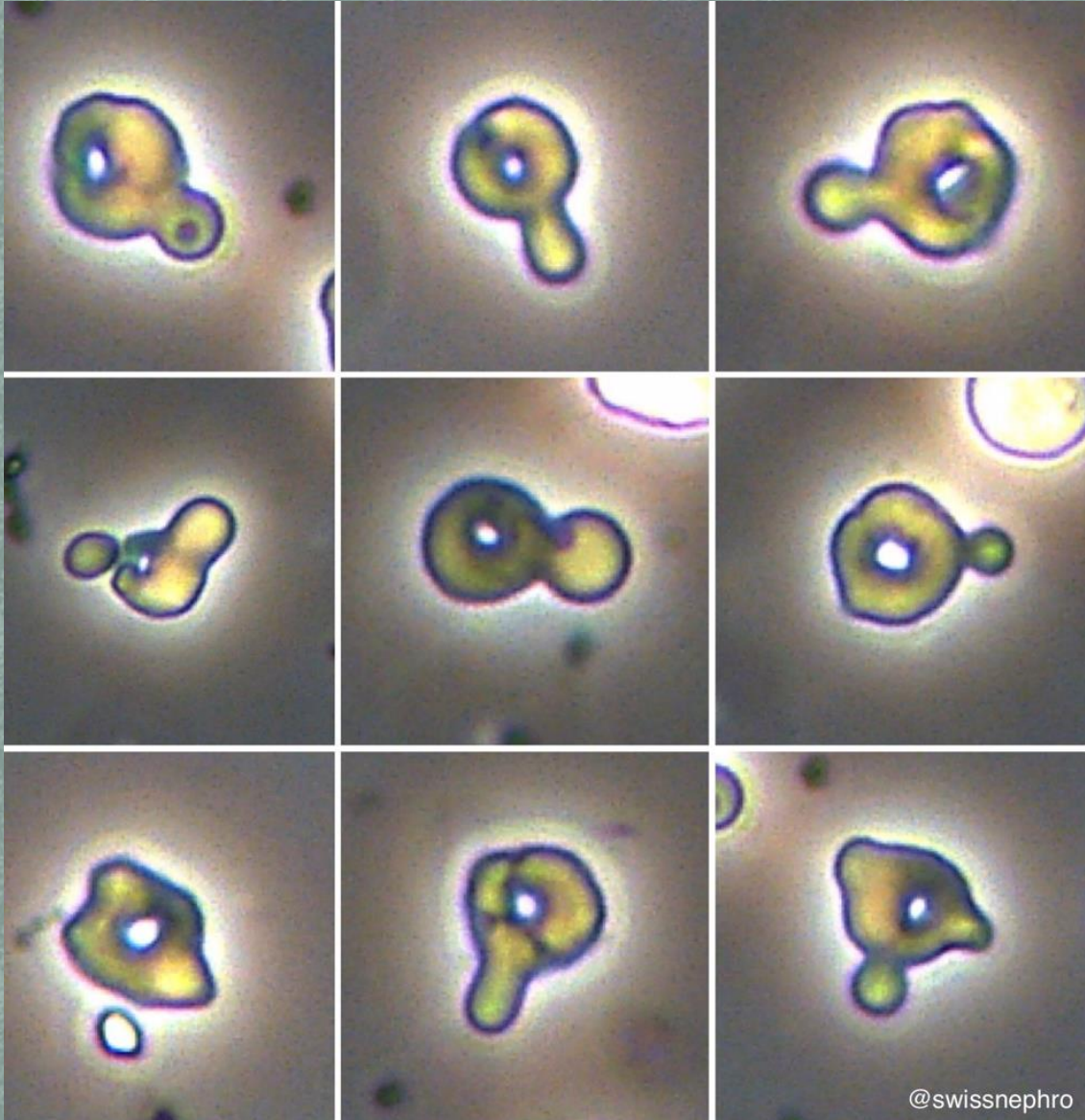


URINE TESTING

- Urine Microscopy
 - Detects cells, casts, crystals
 - Look at cell appearance (isomorphic vs dysmorphic)
- **Microscopy is not needed at initial screening in most cases and should be ordered in response to a positive dipstick**



| Finding | Positive result indicates ^{3,18} |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| Urine Dipstick | |
| Specific Gravity | Indicates relative hydration/dehydration. |
| pH | Alkaline urine suggests presence of urea-splitting organism. |
| Leukocytes, white blood cells, pyuria | Measured by Leukocyte Esterase. Dipstick is positive in the presence of > 5-15 WBC/high-power field. |
| Nitrite | Detects presence of certain bacteria that convert nitrates into nitrites. Dipstick is positive when bacteria > 10 ⁵ CFU/mL. |
| Protein | Proteinuria is defined as 10-20 mg per dL. 1+ = approximately 30 mg protein per dL 2+ = 100 mg per dL 3+ = 300 mg per dL 4+ = 10000 mg per dL |
| Glucose | Presence indicates glycosuria. |
| Ketones | Measured by acetic acid. Presence indicates ketonuria. |
| Blood | Detects presence of > 1-4 red blood cells/high-power field. |
| Urine Microscopy | |
| Red Blood Cells (RBCs) | Urinary tract inflammation or glomerular bleeding. For a list of other causes, see Urinalysis: A Comprehensive Review . ¹⁸ In the case of isolated microscopic hematuria, refer to the BC Guideline: Microscopic Hematuria . |
| White Blood Cells (WBCs) | Infection, interstitial nephritis. |
| Hyaline casts | Normal when found absence of other casts. |
| Granular casts | Acute tubular necrosis (ATN). |
| RBC casts | Glomerulonephritis. |
| WBC casts | Acute interstitial nephritis or pyelonephritis. |
| Waxy casts | Non-specific, acute or chronic kidney impairment. |
| Fatty casts | Marked proteinuria or nephrotic syndromes. |
| Renal tubular epithelial cells | Acute tubular necrosis (ATN). |
| Bacteria | Infection, contamination and/or overgrowth. |
| Schistosome ova/miracidia | Detection of <i>Schistosoma haematobium</i> requires a special request. |
| Urate or other crystals | Interpret based on crystal found. |



@swissnephro



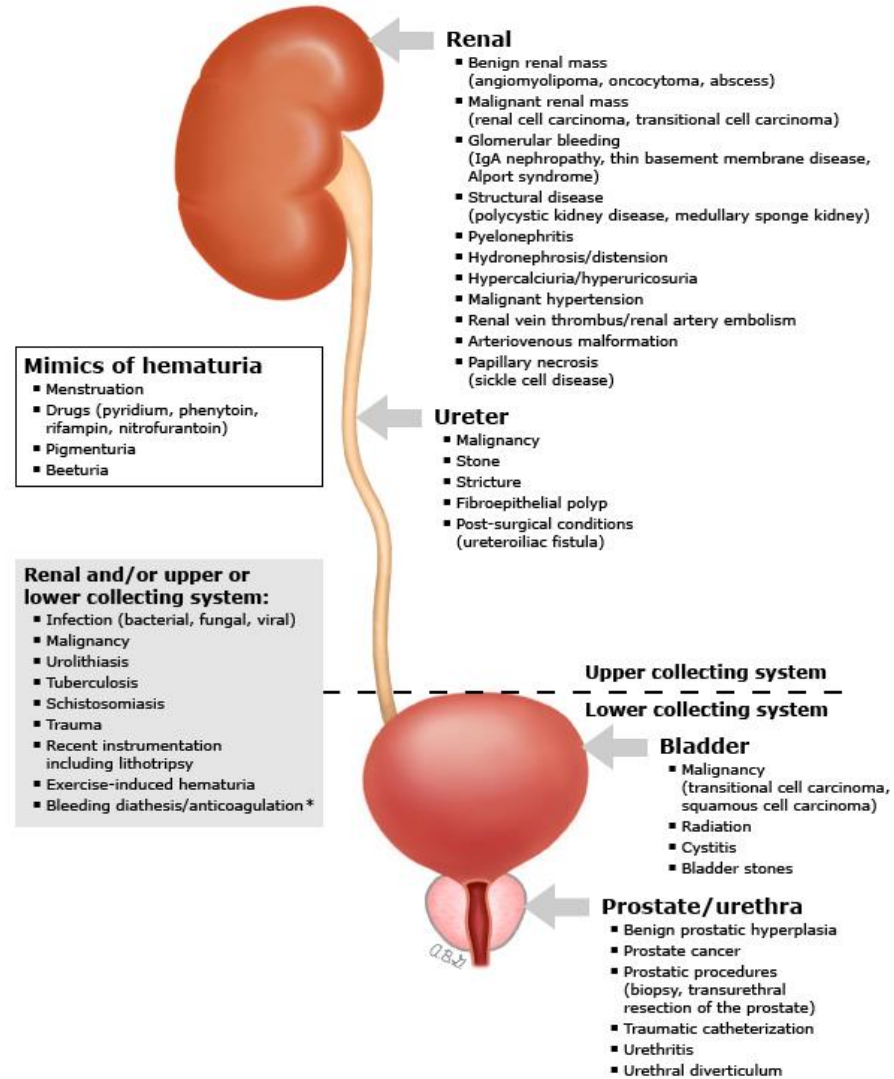
APPROACH TO MICROSCOPIC HEMATURIA

- Mimics
 - Menstrual
 - Drugs/foods causing red urine
- Systemic
 - Coagulopathy
- Renal
- Ureter
- Bladder
- Prostate
- Urethra



APPROACH TO MICROSCOPIC HEMATURIA

Causes of hematuria



IgA: immunoglobulin A.

* Hematuria may not be attributed solely to alterations in coagulation or platelet function until competing causes have been ruled out.

Courtesy of Michael Kurtz, MD.



SCREENING

- Screening the general population not recommended (AUA 2012)
 - Higher risk patients should be screened
- Urine cytology is no longer recommended (AUA guidelines 2012)
- Positive urine dipstick should prompt urine microscopy
- Significant microscopic hematuria requires further workup



INVESTIGATION OF MICROSCOPIC HEMATURIA

- After detection, rule out contributing factors such as infection, menstruation, vigorous exercise, trauma to urethra
 - If present: repeat after resolution
- Assure urine culture has been performed
- If dipstick remains + → confirm with microscopy
- All patients should have a renal imaging with **Kidney-Bladder Ultrasound**
 - CT reasonable if high suspicion malignancy or stones



RENAL IMAGING

- Patient with confirmed microscopic hematuria should be imaged
- **KUB Ultrasound** is preferred initial investigation in most cases
- IVP is not generally used anymore
- CT IVP provides better detection of mass and stones
 - Non contrast CT KUB and single-phase enhanced CT are not adequate investigations for hematuria
 - BC guidelines recommends ultrasound first, then refer
 - CT reasonable for very high-risk patients
- No imaging test can completely assess lower tract disease.... **Cystoscopy** is required



FINDINGS CONCERNING FOR RENAL PARENCHYMAL DISEASE

- Abnormal renal function
- Proteinuria (urine dipstick or urine ACR)
- RBC casts
- Dysmorphic RBC
- Other abnormal urine sediment including sterile pyuria
- *Recent URTI or pharyngitis*
- *Family history of renal disease such as ADPKD/Alport*
- These findings should prompt a **nephrology referral**





All patients age > 40



Patients with positive imaging findings



Unexplained persistent microscopic hematuria



Patients with risk factors for urothelial cancer

UROLOGIST REFERRAL



Risk Factors for Urothelial Cancer

Demographics

Age >40 years; risk increases with age

Male gender (2-3 times as high in men)

Caucasian ethnicity

Patients with a personal history of bladder cancer

Environmental

Smoking, past or present including exposure to second hand smoke

Occupational exposure to chemicals or dyes (e.g. benzenes or aromatic amines)**

Exposure to certain drugs (phenacetin, cyclophosphamide)

Overuse of analgesic drugs

Exposure to pelvic radiation

Urologic History

History of gross hematuria

Chronic inflammation of lower urinary tract. (e.g. chronic indwelling foreign body, chronic urinary tract infection, urethral or suprapubic catheter, ureteric stent, bladder stone and chronically infected stone)

History of irritative voiding symptoms

Schistosomiasis haematobium infection (exceedingly rare in North America; endemic to Middle East and Africa)

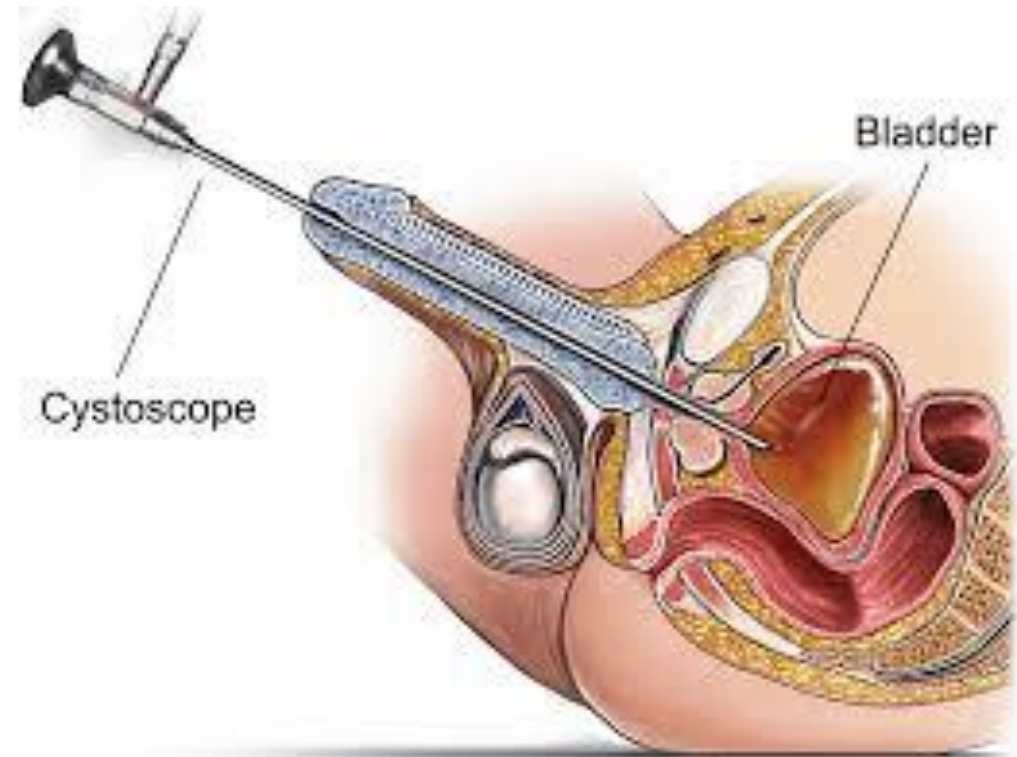
UROTHELIAL CANCER RISK

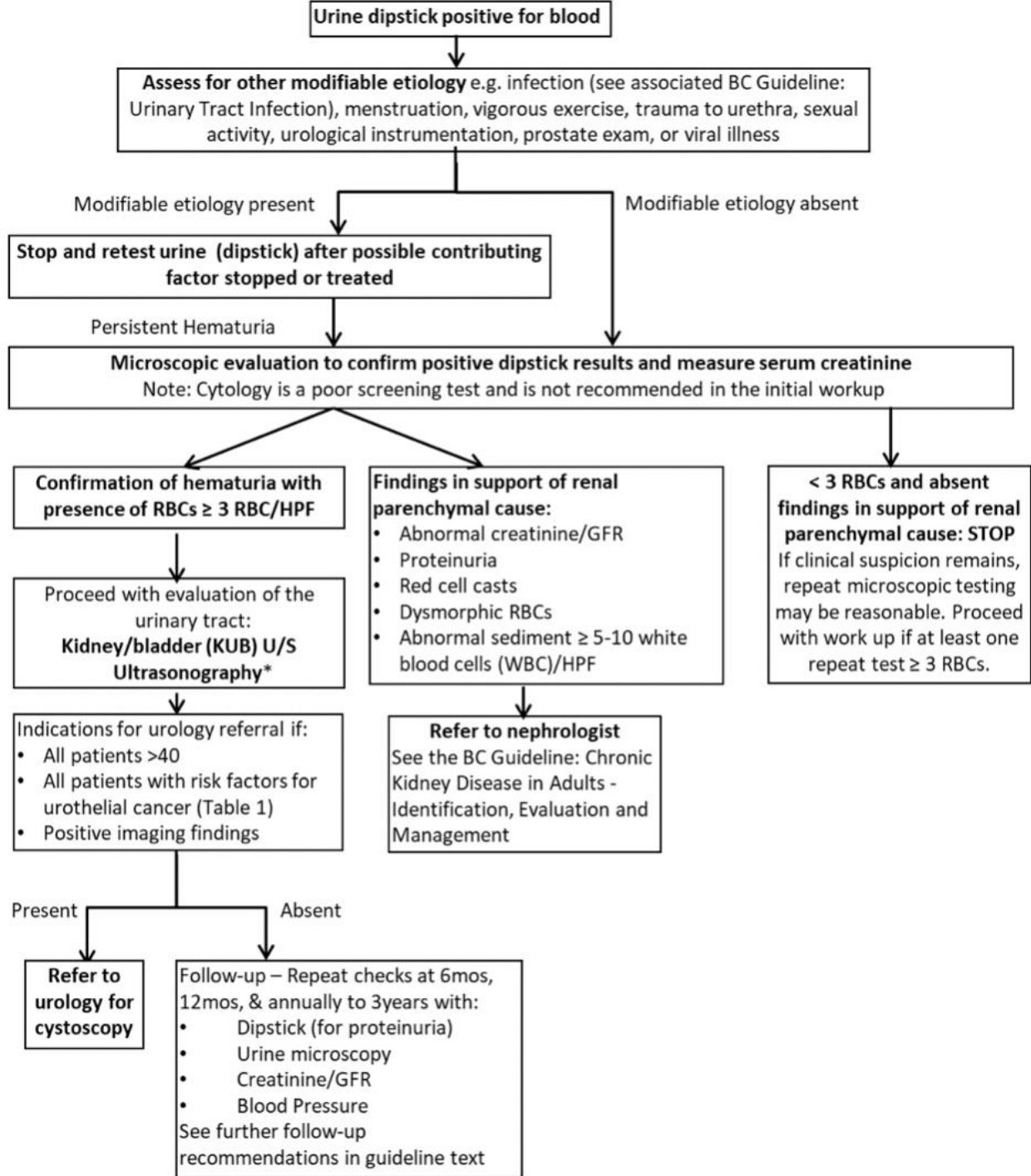
- Smoking is the most important risk factor for bladder cancer
- Men are 2-3x more likely to get bladder cancer



CYSTOSCOPY

- All patients > 40 with microscopic hematuria
- Patient of any age with microscopic hematuria and risk factors for urothelial cancer
- Patients of any age with suspicious findings for urologic malignancy





ALGORITHM



NEGATIVE WORKUP?

- Common
- Suggest at 6 and 12 months:
 - Urine ACR
 - Creatinine/GFR
 - Blood Pressure
- If 2 consecutive annual urine microscopies are negative, then routine follow up can be discontinued
- Re-initiate investigation if new gross hematuria, increase in amount RBC/HPF, symptoms



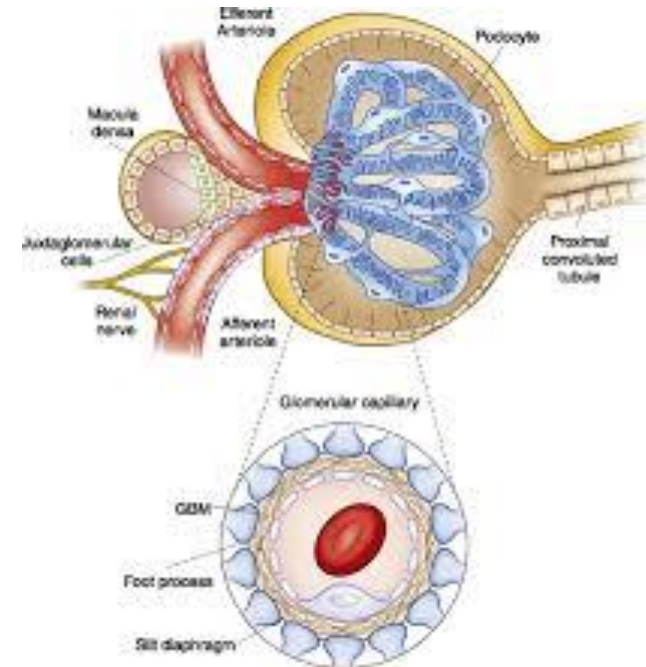
RENAL PARENCHYMAL DISEASES

- Glomerulonephritis (GN)
- Thin Basement Membrane
- Alport Syndrome
- Acute interstitial nephritis (AIN)
- Polycystic kidney disease
- Sickle cell disease
- Other
 - Loin pain hematuria syndrome
 - Nutcracker syndrome



GLOMERULONEPHRITIS - TERMINOLOGY

- Glomerular disease: Inherited or acquired disease of glomerulus
- Glomerulonephritis: Inflammation in the glomerulus
- Glomerular disease presents with some combination of proteinuria, hematuria, or change in renal function
 - Can present more on the nephritic or nephrotic spectrum depending on the cause and location of the glomerular pathology



GLOMERULONEPHRITIS

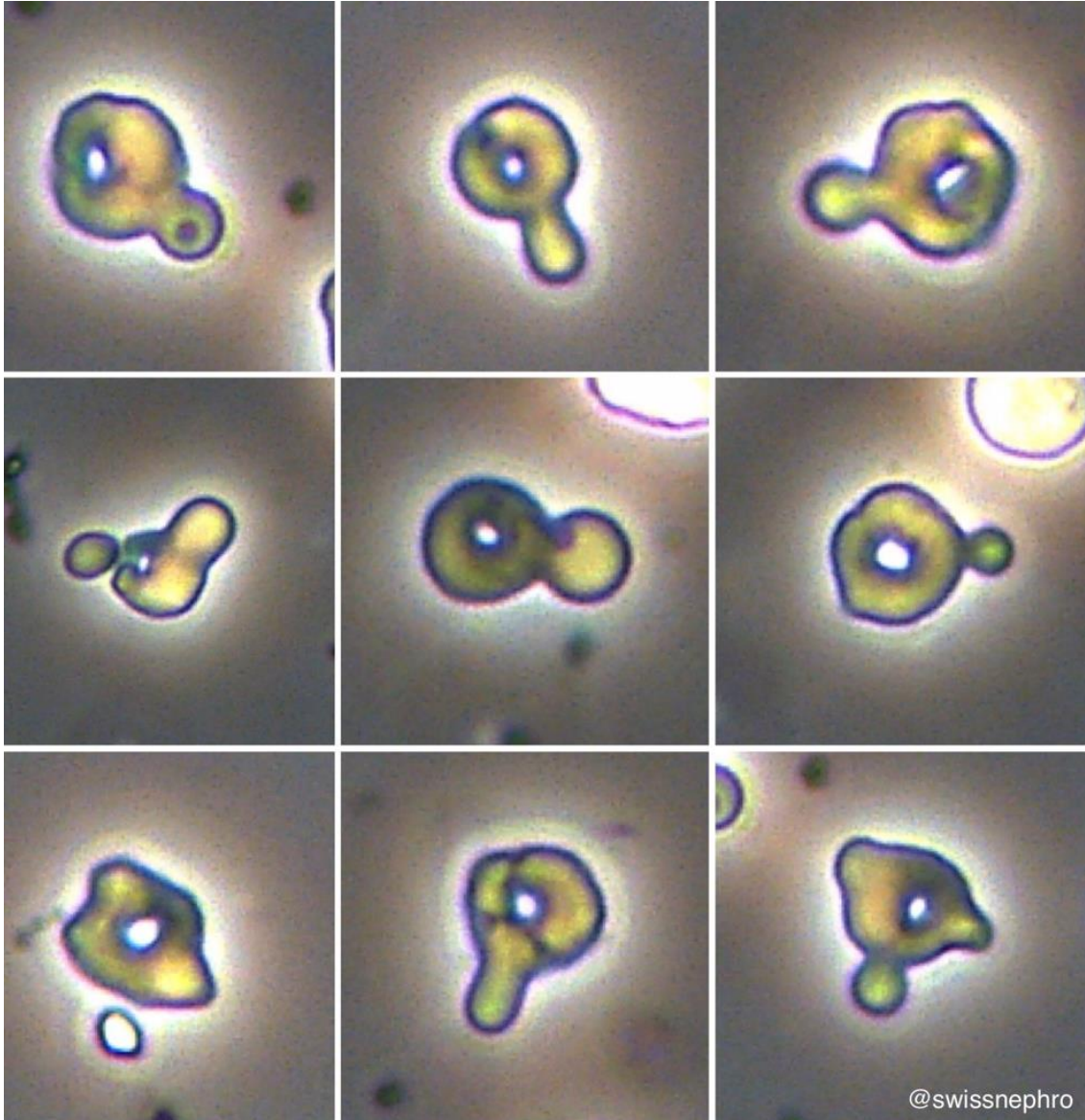
Nephritic Syndrome

- **Hematuria**
 - Especially dysmorphic RBC and casts
- Renal insufficiency
- Oliguria
- Hypertension
- Proteinuria (non-nephrotic range)

Nephrotic Syndrome

- Proteinuria $> 3.5\text{g}$ per day
- Edema
- Low albumin
- Hypertriglyceridemia
- Hypercoagulability
- Immunodeficiency
- *Typically no hematuria...but rarely can*





GLOMERULONEPHRITIS

Nephritic

- IgA /HSP
- ANCA Vasculitis (GPA, eGPA, MPA)
- Anti-GBM disease (Goodpasture's)
- SLE
- Post infectious GN (Strep/Staph)
- Endocarditis

Nephrotic

- Minimal change disease
- FSGS
- Membranous
- Diabetes
- Amyloidosis/myeloma

Mixed

- Membranoproliferative GN (MPGN)
- IgA

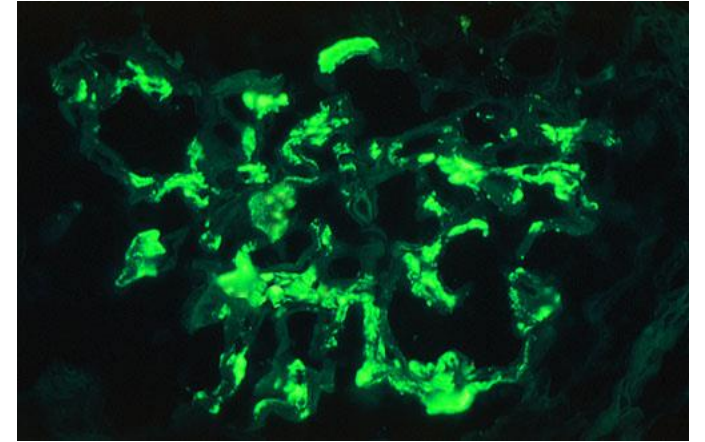


GN WORKUP

- You can have primary GN or it can be related to an underlying cause such as ***malignancy, autoimmune disease, infection, or drugs***
- HIV, Hepatitis B and C, Syphilis
- ANA, complements
- SPEP and UPEP
- ANCA and anti-GBM serology
- Cryoglobulins
- Blood cultures and ASOT



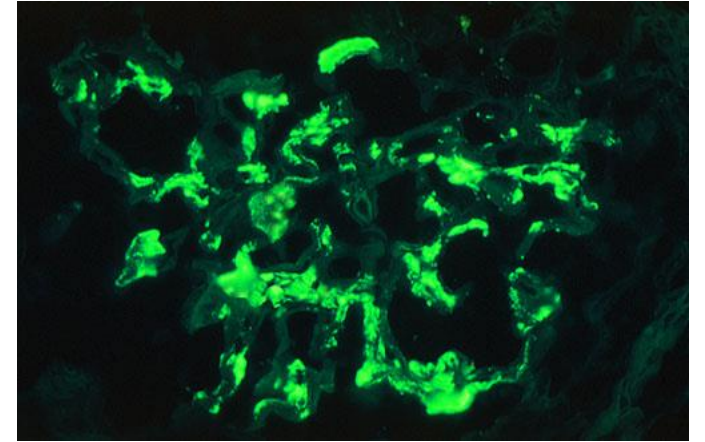
IGA NEPHROPATHY



- "Berger's disease"
- Most common primary glomerulonephritis in Western and Asian countries
- Characterized by deposits of IgA in glomerulus, causing inflammation
- Clinically
 - Episodic hematuria in 40-50%
 - Asymptomatic hematuria and proteinuria
 - Nephrotic syndrome or nephritic syndrome (rare, < 5%)
 - Acute kidney injury
 - CKD (25%)
- Episodes of macroscopic hematuria are often preceded by infection



IGA NEPHROPATHY

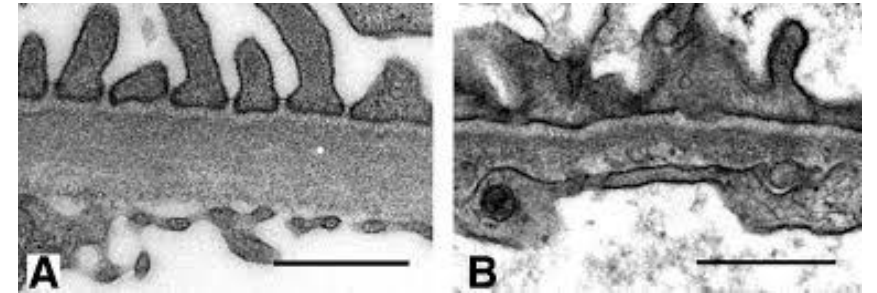


- Prognosis
 - Markers of poor prognosis: Hypertension, renal impairment, severity of proteinuria, renal biopsy findings
 - Good prognosis: Recurrent episodes of macroscopic hematuria
- Treatment
 - Blood pressure control (< 130/80)
 - RAS blockage (Urine ACR < 100 mg/mmol)
 - Fish Oil
 - Immunosuppressive agents for more severe cases
 - Transplant



THIN BASEMENT MEMBRANE DISEASE

- Familial or sporadic
 - Typically autosomal dominant
- Male = female
- Onset of hematuria typically in childhood/adolescence
- Can get gross hematuria, often in association with URTI
- Common cause of isolated glomerular hematuria
 - 20-25% of patients referred to nephrology for persistent hematuria
- GBM thinning seen on renal biopsy
- Hypertension, proteinuria, and progression to ESRD are rare
- Should be monitored over time as small risk of CKD (<5%)



Tryggvason et al, JASN 2006



ALPORT SYNDROME

- Generalized inherited disorder of basement membranes
- Mutation affecting type IV collagen
- Clinical presentation
 - Hematuria, proteinuria, progressive nephritis
 - Sensorineural deafness
 - Ocular abnormalities
- Three forms
 - X-linked: 80% of patients, male patients progress to ESRD
 - Autosomal recessive: Typically no family history, likely form in females with severe disease
 - Autosomal dominant

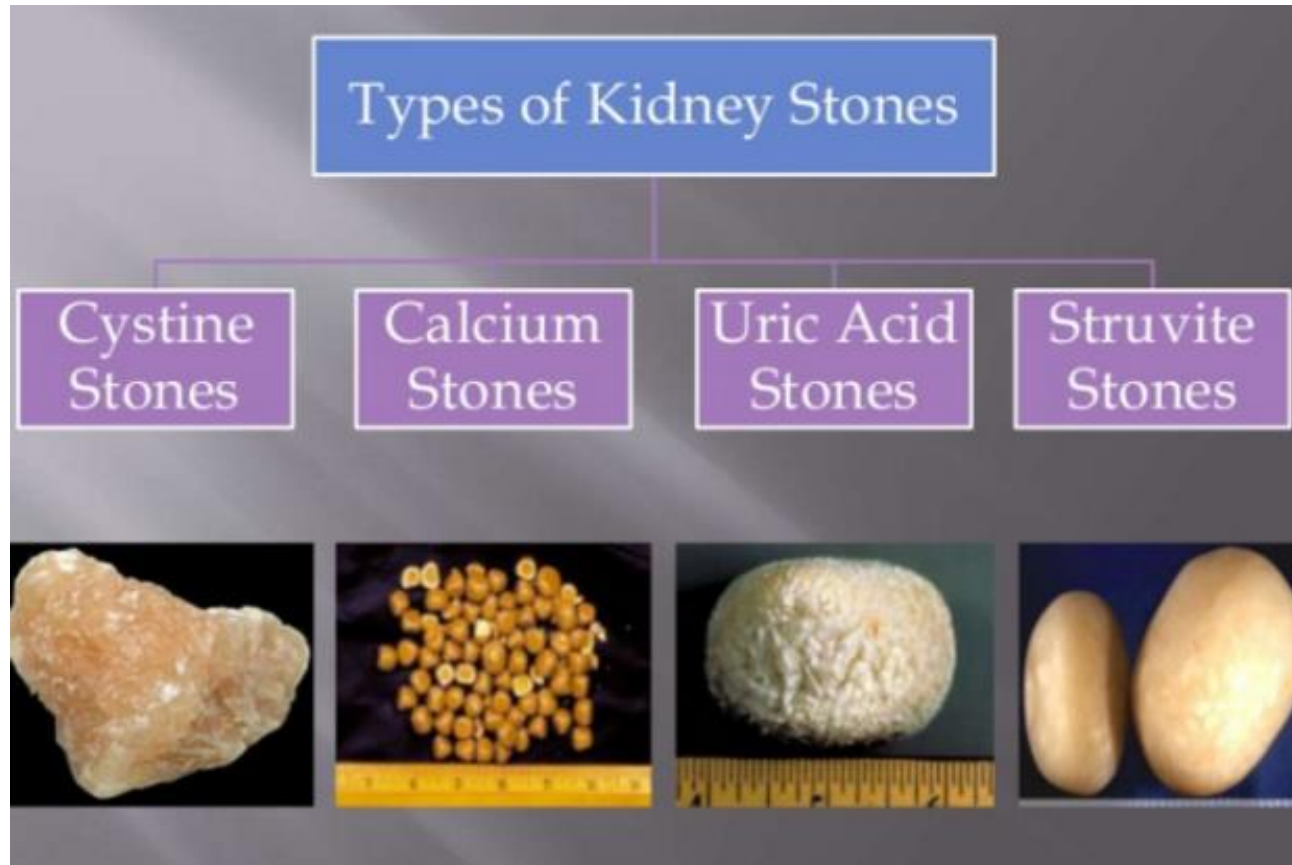


ALPORT SYNDROME

- Diagnosis:
 - Kidney biopsy and genetic testing
- Treatment:
 - Early RAS blockade
 - Kidney transplantation



NEPHROLITHIASIS



-12% lifetime risk
-50% recurrence in 10
years



TYPES OF STONES

- **Calcium oxalate:** 75-80%
- Calcium phosphate 5%
- Struvite 15%
 - More common in females, associated with UTI
- Cystine: Rare, genetic
- Uric acid:
 - Often uric acid nidus, but mixed
 - higher risk if high uric acid levels/gout
- Meds (indinavir)
- Mixed



RISK FACTORS FOR STONES

- Risk factors
 - Urine pH: Uric acid stones only form in low pH, so that is why we alkalinize the urine
 - Hypocitruria
 - Citrate inhibits stone formation
 - Causes: chronic acidosis, high sodium intake
 - UTI and instrumentation risk factors for struvite
 - Family history
 - High sucrose and fructose
 - Vitamin D and C intake
 - Other diseases: Inflammatory bowel disease, hyperparathyroidism, sarcoidosis, idiopathic hypercalciuria, renal tubular acidosis, polycystic kidney disease, medullary sponge kidney



KIDNEY STONES: TREATMENT

- Treatment: Calcium oxalate stones
 - INCREASE WATER INTAKE (day and night)
 - Add some lemon to water (citrate)
 - Avoid high oxalate food
 - Tea, chocolate, lots of coffee, rhubarb, cranberry juice
 - High dietary calcium is protective
 - Reduce sodium intake
 - Reduce sucrose/fructose intake
 - Medications
 - K-citrate
 - Thiazide
 - Surgery



SUMMARY

- Significant microscopic hematuria is defined as **≥ 3 RBC per high power field** on urine microscopy
- Urine testing
 - Dipstick as screening/initial test
 - Urine microscopy as confirmatory test
- Rule out reversible causes such as UTI and re-test
- If persistent disease, image with Renal-Bladder Ultrasound
- Urology referral in high risk patients (anyone over 40 or with risk factors)
- Nephrology referral if reduced renal function, proteinuria, or active urine



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