



Review Paper

Recent Advances in the Incidence, Etiological Factors and Management of Urolithiasis in Bovines

Safdar Ali Khan*, M. O. Kalim, S. K. Tiwari and Deepak Kashyap

Department of Veterinary Surgery &
Radiology College of Veterinary Science & A.H., DSVCKV, Anjora,
Durg

ABSTRACT

Urolithiasis condition can cause significant economic losses due to urethral obstruction; rupture of the urethra or bladder; or death from the buildup of toxic substances that are usually removed through the urine in bovines. It is a multifactorial disorder, diagnosed by laboratory findings and ultrasonography. Uroliths can be removed by surgical methods. Post-scrotal urethrotomy, tube cystotomy, cystorraphy is the common surgical methods used in management of urolithiasis in bovines. It may be prevented by dietary modification and urine acidification.

KEYWORDS: *Calculi, Sigmoid flexure, Urolithiasis, Urethrotomy etc.*

Received 14 July, 2022; Revised 26 July, 2022; Accepted 28 July, 2022 © The author(s) 2022.

Published with open access at www.questjournals.org

I. INTRODUCTION

In cattle, the tubes that carry urine from the kidneys to the bladder (the ureter), or from the bladder to the penis (the urethra), can become blocked by stones (uroliths or calculi) produced in either the kidneys or the bladder. This prevents the animal from passing urine and produces the condition known as obstructive urolithiasis. Urinary calculi, or uroliths, are concretions of solid mineral and organic compounds that caused disease through direct trauma to the urinary tract and obstruction of urinary outflow. Urinary calculi form in both castrated and uncastrated males and also in females but obstructive urolithiasis is primarily a problem of castrated adult males [3].

Calculi are mostly lodged distal to sigmoid flexure but may also be lodged between the ischial arch and the sigmoid flexure, may obstruct neck of bladder and in some cases a large calculus obstructs the urethra in cattle and at glans penis or at the sigmoid flexure but may also obstruct the neck of the urinary bladder in buffalo [3]. The number of affected animals is usually low but can be as high as 10% annually in exceptional circumstances. An overall incidence of 5.04 percent in animals has been reported in India. The species wise incidence has been reported as: goats 49.83 percent, cattle 32.87 percent, dogs 14.53 percent, horses 1.38 percent, sheep 1.04 percent and cats 0.34 percent [2]. Higher incidence reported in buffalo calves as compared to cattle [3]. The condition occurs more frequently in feedlot situations. Urolithiasis with intact urethra and rupture of urethra has been reported 89.48% and 10.52% respectively [11].

POSSIBLE PREDISPOSING FACTORS

The etiology is complex and multifactorial. Although urolithiasis is known to have numerous predisposing etiology factors, but exact mechanism of stone formation and growth is not fully known [13]. Urinary calculi formation usually results from a combination of various physiological, nutritional and management factors [3]. It may occur due to excessive or imbalanced intake of minerals in feedlots while fattening cattle receive rations high in cereal grain and oil meals [7]. Ingestion of certain plants containing high levels of oxalate, estrogen or silica. Diets high in magnesium content. Increased presence of mucoprotein in the diet caused by feeding high concentrate low roughage rations, pelleted rations, or rations high in phosphate. Concentrated urine, which is produced when there is no drinking water available or when water is of poor quality. Water deprivation can be exacerbated by heavy fluid loss from in hot conditions. An imbalance in the calcium to phosphorus ratio of the diet. Normally, a ruminant removes phosphorus from its body by excreting it

into saliva and then out through the feces (manure). High grain, low roughage diets decrease the formation of saliva, so extra phosphorus must be removed from the blood by the kidneys and then excreted in the urine. When diets are too high in phosphorus, the urine phosphorus levels become excessively high, and the phosphorus settles and consolidates into stone-like pellets that can be too large to pass [1]. Obstructive urolithiasis is found most common in the age group of 0-6 months [11]. Urolithiasis in castrated beef cattle has been reported to be associated with diethylstilbestrol (DES) implants. Geographical and seasonal influences play an important role for range herds in semi-arid areas. In addition, the anatomy of the male ruminant urinary tract also contributes due to the potential narrowness of the passage and tortuous route. The distal end of sigmoid flexure is a common site for uroliths to lodge in all ruminant species [4; 13; 9 and 11]. Prevalence of urolithiasis is highest in winter and spring season; struvite (ammonium magnesium phosphate) and calcium phosphate crystals are the most common type of urolith in urolithiasis in bovines [11].

CLINICAL SIGNS

The major clinical signs reported in partial obstruction include anorexia, suspended rumination and decreased water intake. Animals suffering from partial obstruction dribble blood tinged urine after prolonged, painful attempts of urination, as the disease progresses the symptoms depicted are abdominal bilateral distention, tenesmus, colic, and weight shifting, and grinding of teeth, urethral pulsation. In case of total obstruction symptoms are as above but more painful, animals may strain to urinate but are not able to pass any urine and may have a stretched out stance or go down and tendency of rectal prolapse. In advanced cases the animal may seem more comfortable again for a while but will develop swelling under the skin of the belly, the sheath, under the tail, and will gradually deteriorate over a couple of days in case of rupture of the urethra. Less specific signs include rectal prolapse, rumen stasis, tachycardia and tachypnea. There is severe damage to the bladder and urethral mucosa by uroliths which leads to haematuria, oliguria and dysuria. Complete urethral obstruction results in death due to uraemia.

Animal may seem more comfortable initially in rupture of the bladder (cystorrhexis), but one to two days after the rupture its belly will start to fill up with urine (a fluid thrill) on abdominal ballottement is noticed and the animal will become depressed and weak [3]. Then it will go down and die fairly quickly. If there is no obstruction and it is not relieved, a bladder or urethral rupture will occur usually within 48 hours.

PATHOGENESIS

Formation of calculi and development of urolithiasis is a complex process and occurs in a series of phases from formation of nidus, concentration of urine and lastly the precipitation of various salts from urine. Formation of urinary calculi is dependent on super saturation of urine with soluble ionized minerals. Crystal formation occurs when the inhibitory capacity of mucopolysaccharides, ions, and organic acids is exceeded. Factors further predisposing supersaturation of urine includes increased insensible water loss, urine stasis, increases in urine pH allowing precipitation of phosphate solute, decrease production and secretion of mucus from the bladder. Vitamin A deficiency and high estrogen intake have all been implicated as risk factors.

Calculus composition is directly related to the type of diet; for example silicate urolithiasis is common when the diet is composed of grass hay or cereal grass hays as the majority of the diet. Hay high in oxalates promotes oxalate stone formation. Diet composed of high calcium containing grains or high legume or clover hay promotes the formation of calcium carbonate stones. Cereal grains that are typically fed to ruminants and may make up part of the diet for pet goats are high in phosphorus and lead to an imbalance or inversion of the calcium/phosphorus ratio, thus causing the formation of triple phosphate stones. Urolith formation can be further exacerbated if there is a significant amount of magnesium in the diet leading to magnesium ammonium phosphate stone formation. The formation of urinary calculi has been evaluated in multiple nutritional studies in various species and continues to be a significant cause of morbidity and mortality in production food animals as well as the evergrowing pet ruminant population. The role of nutrition and over conditioning of the pet ruminant population has significantly increased the presence of urolithiasis in this population.

LABORATORY FINDINGS

Common routine blood work consisting of a complete blood count (CBC) and serum biochemical analysis (SBA) are warranted in the suspected urolithiasis case. The CBC is typically within normal limits however, evidence of mild to moderate chronic non regenerative (normocytic normochromic) anemia may be present along with evidence of an inflammatory leukogram consisting of increased percent band neutrophils, decreased segmented neutrophils, decreased neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio (1:1), and increased production of fibrinogen. The SBA typically has elevations in the blood urea nitrogen and creatinine. The presence of azotemia may be pre-renal, renal, or post-renal. The azotemia can become quite severe in the ruptured case due to a larger amount of soft tissue for equilibration of the BUN and creatinine [5 and 11]. The ruptured bladder or urethra results in more severe alterations of the blood electrolytes: hyperkalemia, hyponatremia, hypoglycemia,

hyperphosphotemia, and hypochloremia; the presence of the hypochloremia lead to a hypochloremic metabolic alkalosis. Urinalysis and sediment examination should be included as part of the initial examination of the patient. Marked crystalluria supports the diagnosis of obstructive urolithiasis. Further examination of the urine for color, clarity, specific gravity; the biochemical evaluation assesses for the presence of ketones, occult blood, urobilinogen, pH, glucose, and bilirubin. Alkaline pH of urine favours the formation of phosphate and struvite calculi [12]. Ultrasonography is very useful imaging technique in the diagnosis of urolithiasis to assess the urinary bladder condition [11].

MEDICINAL AND SURGICAL TREATMENT

If the animal is diagnosed with urolithiasis pursuant of medical therapy depends on the severity of the disease, the stage of the disease, the nature and extent of the uroliths, the intended long term use of the animal, the frequency of the disease, and most importantly the financial constraints of the owner [10]. Medical management can only be pursued in the affected animal if the bladder wall is intact. In mild cases, the animal can be treated by using tranquilizers, antispasmodic drugs and litholytic drugs like cystone. Diuresis should not be used before the removal of calculi.

The treatment of obstructive urolithiasis is primarily by surgical intervention. Recurrent urolithiasis, calculi at multiple sites, badly damaged urethra, atonic bladder or severe cystitis leads to failure of surgical repair in obstructive urolithiasis. Urethrotomy, either post scrotal or post ischial at the site of calculi lodgment is widely recommended and practiced to relieve the obstruction from sigmoid flexure [3]. Other surgical methods include penile catheterization, bladder fistulation (bladder marsupialisation), intra pelvic cystic catheterization, cystorrhaphy and tubecystotomy as demanded by clinical situation. The technique of tubecystotomy is a method of fixation of tube in the urinary bladder for the free passage of urine, followed by chemical dissolution of calculi which shows excellent results. Cystotomy tubes bypass urinary outflow obstructions or as an alternative to the urethral catheterization [8]. Tube Cystotomy become popular as a treatment for obstructive urolithiasis in goats and buffalo calves with subsequent medical dissolution of the urolith [6 and 9]. Several different types of tubes are available, including Foleys catheters, Mushroom tip catheters and percutaneous catheters; more recently low profile gastrostomy tubes have been adapted for the use in cystotomy tubes. Cystotomy tubes should remain in place for at least 14 days; before removal to ensure adequate adhesions between the bladder and the body wall to reduce the possibility of urine leakage or peritonitis [14]. Overall success rate with tube cystotomy is around 73.33% and it depend upon post operative care by owners, difference in the nature and severity of lodgment of calculi [6 and 11] in the management of obstructive urolithiasis.

CONTROL AND PREVENTION

Whether the patient has clinical evidence of urolithiasis or a prevention program is being instituted both strategies must focus on dietary modification and urine acidification. The ration should be modified, which includes elimination of alfalfa feeding, reduction or elimination of grain feeding, a change to grass hay as primary forage, encouragement of grazing and ammonium chloride supplementation. Ruminant urine is highly alkaline favoring formation of calculi. Acidification of urine can increase the solubility of the uroliths and it is composed of magnesium ammonium phosphate (struvite), calcium phosphate (apatite), and calcium carbonate and thereby inhibits precipitation in the urine. Urine acidification can be accomplished through the addition of ammonium chloride (Nausadar) salt to the ration at a daily dose of 0.5% to 1% of the total dry matter intake, 2% of concentrate ration, or @ 225– 500mg/kg/b.wt./day [3]. The palatability of ammonium chloride is poor making free choice feeding difficult to maintain; most times it must be mixed with some form of concentrate

feed remembering that this type of feed promotes calculogenesis or some form of treat for consumption. Alternatively it can be mixed into a sugar solution (mixed with jaggary or syrup) and drenched orally or frozen in the freezer and fed as a treat. Continuous therapy with ammonium chloride can lead to refractoriness to urine acidification therefore current recommendations are to continue the drug for 3 consecutive weeks and then discontinue for 1 week and then start back on the medication. Regular monitoring of the urine pH is necessary for monitoring the effectiveness of the drug, with the ideal pH of the urine being <6.5. Dietary management is a key step for dissolution of calculi, prevention, and management of the disease by decreasing the amount of excreted solutes in the urine. Dietary modification need to be correlated to the type of calculi present and also to the area of the country that the affected animal is located.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Ahmed, A.S., Amer, H.A. and Ibrahim, I.M. Influence of dietary mineral imbalance on the incidence of urolithiasis in Egyptian calves. *Arch. Exp. Veterinarmed*, 1989. **43**(1):73-77.
- [2]. Amarpal, Kinjavdekar, P., Aithal, H.P., Pawde, A.M., Tarunbir, Singh, Pratap, K. and Singh, T. Incidence of urolithiasis: a retrospective study of five years. *Indian Journal of Animal Sciences*, 2004. **74**(2):175-177.
- [3]. Amarpal, Bishnoi, A.K., Sharma, S.N. and Singh, Jit. In: *Ruminant Surgery text book of the surgical diseases of cattle, buffalo, camel, sheep*

- and goat. 2nd ed. CBS Publisher and Distributors, New Delhi. 2020:380-392.
- [4]. Clotide, E.M.P., Cappelaro, D.M., Nobre, D and Campedelli, P. Urolithiasis in bovines. *Biologico*, Sao. Paulo. 1980. **46**:77-80.

- [5]. Donecker, J.M. and Bellamy, J.E.C. Blood chemical abnormalities in cattle with ruptured bladders and ruptured urethras. *Can. Vet. J.*, 1982. **33**:355-357.
- [6]. Ewoldt, J.M., Anderson, D.E., Miesner, M.D. and Saville, W. Short and long term outcome and factor predicting survival after surgical tube Cystotomy for the treatment of obstructive urolithiasis in small ruminants. *Vet. Surg.*, 2006. **35**:417-422.
- [7]. Hesse, A.T., Tiselius, H.G. and Siener, R. Urinary Stones, Diagnosis, Treatment and Prevention of recurrence. 3rd edn. Basel. S. Karger AG., 2009. ISBN 978-3-8056-9149-9.
- [8]. Kalim, M.O., Zaman, R. and Tiwari, S.K. Surgical Management of Obstructive Urolithiasis in a male Cow calf. *Vet. World*, 2011. **4**(5):213-214.
- [9]. Kushwaha, R.B., Amarpal, Aithal, H.P., Kinjavdekar, P. and Pwde, A.M. Clinical appraisal of 48 cases of obstructive urolithiasis in buffalo calves treated with tube Cystotomy and Urethrotomy. *Adv. Anim. Vet. Sci.* 2014. **2**(2):106-110.
- [10]. Larson, B.L. Identifying, treating, and preventing bovine urolithiasis. *Vet. Med.*, 1996. **91**(4):366-377.
- [11]. Mahajan, A., Gupta, A.K., Bhadwal, M.S., Bhat, M.A. and Bhardwaj, H.R. Occurrence and management of obstructive urolithiasis in Ruminants. *Journal of Animal Research*, 2017. **7**(4):723-731.
- [12]. Pugh, D.G. In: Sheep and Goat Medicine, 1st ed. Elsevier Publishing Co. Philadelphia, U.S.A., 2002.
- [13]. Radostitis, O. M., Blood, D.C., Gray, G.C. and Hinchcliff, K.W. Veterinary Medicine a text book of the disease of cattle, sheep, pig, goat and horse. Bailliere Tindells, London, 2009.
- [14]. Singh, K., Gopinathan, A., Shakya, P., Bodh, D. and Sangeetha, P. Efficacy of tube Cystotomy for treatment of obstructive urolithiasis in goats with intact UB. *Ind. J. Small Rumin.* 2014. **20**(2):74-78.