

2015.1.B.3

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| <p>Question 4 Acute tubular necrosis Subject: Path LOA: 2</p> | <p>Define Acute Kidney Injury</p> <p>What are the causes of AKI (please give examples)?</p> <p>Describe the typical clinical course of AKI</p> <p>(Supplementary – if time remaining) What are the most likely causes in this 70 year old lady?</p> | <p>Clinico-path entity, acute reduction of renal function with morphologic tubular injury (usually)</p> <p>1 Ischaemia/abnormal blood flow. Systemic – thrombosis (HUS, TTP, DIC) or hypovolaemia. Intra-renal – angiopathies, malignant HT 2 Toxic injury to tubules– drugs, radio-dye, myoglobin 3 Acute tub.int nephritis – reaction to drugs 4 Obstruction (“post-renal”) –tumour, clot</p> <p>Variable 1 Initiation 36 hours – decr UO, incr urea 2 Maintenance – oliguria, salt/H2O overload, incr urea/K/H 3 Recovery - incr urine vol (up to 3L/d), H2O/Na/K loss. Ur/Cr r/t normal</p> <p>Ischaemic injury from hypovol/hypotension from femur # +/- inability to get to water Myoglobin deposition from rhabdo</p> | <p>Bold</p> <p>Bold and 1 other category 1 example for each</p> <p>Oliguric phase, polyuric recovery</p> |
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2014.1.B.1

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| <p>Question 1 Urolithiasis (Robbins pp 962-963) Subject: Path LOA: 1</p> | <p>1.What are the main types of renal calculi? <i>Prompt: What are the common constituents of renal calculi?</i> 2.What conditions in urine favour stone formation? 3. What are the complications of ureteric calculi?</p> | <p>1.Calcium oxalate and phosphate (70%); 2. Struvite or triple (magnesium ammonium phosphate) (15-20%); 3. Uric acid (5-10%); 4. Cystine (1-2%) 2. Increased concentration of stone constituents; changes in urinary pH; decreased urine volume; bacteria 3. pain, haematuria, infection, obstructive renal impairment</p> | <p>1.Calcium + 1 other to pass</p> <p>2. 2 to pass</p> <p>3. 1 bold and 1 other.</p> |
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2013.1.2

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| <p>Question 5 Obstructive uropathy LOA: 2</p> | <p>1. What are the causes of urinary tract obstruction?</p> <p>2. What are the clinical features of acute obstruction?</p> <p>3. What are the possible clinical sequelae of urinary tract obstruction?</p> | <p>1. Congenital- urethral valves & strictures; bladder neck obstruction; ureteropelvic narrowing; reflux Calculi; Prostatic hypertrophy Tumors- prostate; bladder; cervix/uterus; other Inflammation- prostatitis; urethritis; ureteritis; retroperitoneal fibrosis Sloughed papillae, clots; Pregnancy; Uterine prolapse; cystocele Functional- neurogenic (spinal cord/diabetic); dysfunctional; ureter or bladder</p> <p>2. Pain due to distension or Sx of underlying process e.g. renal colic, LUTS in prostatic disease asymptomatic (in Unilateral complete or partial) Polyuria and nocturia. Calculi, HT, distal tubular acidosis- (In Bilateral partial) oligo/anuria, hyperkalaemia, incr urea & creat- (in Complete bilateral)</p> <p>3. Infection Stone formation Atrophy/hydronephrosis/obstructive uropathy (if chronic)- => renal failure Complications of renal failure.</p> | <p>Bold plus one other.</p> <p>Bold</p> <p>3/5</p> |
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2012.2.3

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| <p>Q5 Acute Kidney Injury LOA: 2</p> | <p>1. What causes acute kidney injury?</p> <p>2. How does urine output often change with time following acute kidney injury?</p> | <p>1. Commonest cause of acute renal failure. Ischaemia: hypotension, vasoconstriction, capsular tamponade. Direct toxic injury: (aspirin), aminoglycosides, contrast, myoglobin, crystals, protein. Acute tubulointerstitial nephritis (infections, heavy metals, hypersensitivity reaction to drugs). Post renal urinary obstruction. DIC, sepsis. 2.Highly variable. a. Initiation phase: decreased urine output with elevation of urea (< 36 hours) b. Maintenance phase: sustained decreased output (40 – 400 ml/day), salt and water overload, uraemia, hyperkalaemia, metabolic acidosis. c. Recovery phase: increased output and hypokalaemia. Increased vulnerability to infection. May last for months.</p> | <p>One example for each bolded and then at least one other cause.</p> <p>Know initial decrease followed by diuresis</p> |
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2012.1.3

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| Question 4 UTI | <p>What organisms cause acute pyelonephritis?</p> <p>Prompt: what are the most common?</p> <p>What steps are involved in ascending infection?</p> <p>What are the features of chronic pyelonephritis?</p> | <p>G-ve bacilli (>85%), endogenous organisms E Coli, proteus, klebsiella, enterobacter, strep faecalis Other: staph, fungi, (viruses in immunocompromised and renal transplant patients)</p> <p>5 steps: 1. colonisation distal urethra 2. entry into bladder 3. urinary tract obstruction / stasis of urine 4. vesicoureteric reflux 5. intrarenal reflux</p> <p>Chronic = chronic reflux or obstruction causes pelvocalyceal damage. Recurrent infections lead to recurrent bouts of renal inflammation and scarring</p> | <p>G-ve & 3 organisms pass</p> <p>Need to explain the steps clearly</p> <p>Bold & concept</p> |
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2011.2.1

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| Question 4 LOA: 2 | <p>1 What conditions cause urinary tract obstruction?</p> <p>2. Describe the progression of effects of unrelieved obstruction of a ureter.</p> | <p>Extrinsic and intrinsic causes</p> <p>Intrinsic – Congenital abnormalities: posterior urethral valves, urethral strictures, etc, Calculi Tumours Inflammation: prostatitis, ureteritis, urethritis Blood clots Sloughed papillae</p> <p>Extrinsic Tumours BPH Retroperitoneal fibrosis Pregnancy Uterine prolapse and cystocele Functional disorders: neurogenic bladder</p> <p>Reduced GFR Progressive dilation of the proximal ureter, renal pelvis and calyces (hydronephrosis) Renal parenchymal atrophy Blunting apices of the pyramids Interstitial inflammation leading to interstitial fibrosis Enlargement of kidney Eventual result is a large (15-20cm) thin walled non-functional cystic structure.</p> | <p>6 causes including calculi to pass (must demonstrate knowledge of intrinsic and extrinsic causes but needn't use words)</p> <p>Dilation, parenchymal atrophy and loss of function to pass.</p> |
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2010.2.1

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| Question 1.5 Post Streptococcal GN | <p>1. Describe the aetiology and pathogenesis of post streptococcal glomerulonephritis.</p> <p>2. Describe the clinical features of post Streptococcal GN.</p> | <p>1.1 Group A β-hemolytic streptococci (eg: 90% types 12, 4, and 1) 1.2 Typically post pharyngeal/skin infections (impetigo) - sometimes epidemic, partic in overcrowded insanitary conditions 1.3 An immunologically mediated disease ? Type 2/ or 3 type e.g. ? Circulating or antigen deposit disease. 1.4 Granular immune deposits in the glomeruli (IgG & C3) - partic GBM- leading to leaking glomeruli. 1.5 Streptococcal antigen found in the glomeruli. 1.6 Complement activation – low serum complement 1.7 Elevated titres of anti streptococcal Ab 1.8 Nephritis associated streptococcal plasmin receptor NAPir, Strep pyogenic exotoxin B (SpeB), zSpeB</p> <p>1. 1 to 4 weeks after a streptococcal infection of the pharynx or skin (impetigo). 1.1. Malaise, fever, nausea, oliguria, and haematuria 1.2. Red cell casts, mild proteinuria (usually < 1 gm/day), periorbital and other oedema, mild to moderate hypertension 1.3. 95% will recover quickly in 1-3 weeks, 4 % chronic, 1% severe acute renal failure. Adult onset has worst prognosis 1.4. Depleted C3 and almost always Strep Ags.</p> | <p>1. 2 x Bold + 1 others</p> <p>2. 2 x Bold + 2 others</p> |
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2008.1

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| Q 4. Nephrotic syndrome | What are the manifestations of the nephrotic Syndrome? | <p>1. Massive proteinuria, with the daily loss of 3.5 gm or more of protein (less in children)</p> <p>2. Hypoalbuminemia, with plasma albumin levels less than 30 gm/L</p> <p>3. Generalized oedema</p> <p>4. Hyperlipidemia and lipiduria</p> | Pass criteria: 3 out of 4 |
| | What are the mechanisms of the oedema? | <p>1. Loss of colloid osmotic pressure</p> <p>2. Loss of serum albumin</p> <p>3. Accumulation of water and sodium in tissues</p> <p>4. Due to compensatory secretion of aldosterone</p> <p>Mediated by</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hypovolaemia - ↑ ADH - ↑ Sympathetic system | Pass criteria: 3/4 |