

Bradley A. Warady · Franz Schaefer
Steven R. Alexander *Editors*

Pediatric Dialysis Case Studies

A Practical Guide to Patient Care

 Springer

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Preface

The management of chronic dialysis therapy in children is a complex, all-consuming, and ultimately rewarding discipline. As members of a small, yet international subspecialty, pediatric dialysis practitioners have learned to turn to one another for clinical advice when faced with difficult clinical problems. It is, in fact, the clinical experience of our colleagues that continues to be a truly invaluable resource. Whereas bedside rounds remain the “gold standard” of clinically based instruction, writing about clinical situations using real-life cases employs the same teaching technique by directly applying clinical management principles at the patient level.

The worldwide success of *Pediatric Dialysis* and its second edition, which remain the only textbooks available that are entirely devoted to dialysis in children, led us to consider a companion text in which cases would be used to reinforce the material contained in those publications. To that end, we have had the great pleasure of working with a team of international experts in pediatric dialysis care to develop the book *Pediatric Dialysis Case Studies*. In this unique text, each chapter is introduced by a case presentation that serves as the basis for key learning points that are clinically applicable and presented in a succinct manner by authors who have a wealth of knowledge and clinical expertise. Whereas some chapters address frequently noted complications with evidence-based recommendations for prevention and treatment, other chapters highlight less common events and provide unique perspectives on disease management. The topics that we have included in *Pediatric Dialysis Case Studies* cover virtually all aspects of pediatric dialysis care and, in turn, represent the efforts of individuals with firsthand clinical expertise in virtually every discipline that is represented in the pediatric dialysis team.

As was the case in the development of the first and second editions of *Pediatric Dialysis*, the goal of this book is to create a resource that is worthy of a place on the bookshelves of all busy dialysis clinicians and would be frequently consulted for some “bedside” expertise. In *Pediatric Dialysis Case Studies*, we believe that we have achieved that goal.

We conclude by sincerely thanking our co-authors, all of whom are experts in their own right, and all of our patients and their families who are our best teachers. We also want to thank Springer developmental editor Michael Wilt for his patient

guidance and unfailing support. Together, we have created what we believe is a special textbook about clinical challenges associated with pediatric dialysis that we all have encountered or will likely encounter in the future. Most importantly, we hope that this textbook becomes a resource that will lead to improved outcomes for the sometimes complex, but always special, patients we care for.

Kansas City, MO, USA
Heidelberg, Germany
Stanford, CA, USA

Bradley A. Warady
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Steven R. Alexander

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Chapter 1

Peritoneal Access

Richard J. Hendrickson and Walter S. Andrews

Case Presentation

A previously healthy one-year-old male presented to the emergency room with a several day history of decreased oral intake, cough, and decreased urine output. His past medical history was significant for poor oral intake with failure to thrive being evaluated for surgical gastrostomy placement. He had no past surgical history. After a comprehensive evaluation and initial fluid resuscitation in the emergency room, he was admitted to the pediatric intensive care unit with dehydration and septic shock. He was intubated for respiratory insufficiency and diagnosed with rhino/enterovirus infection. He remained hemodynamically stable after initial fluid resuscitation. His initial laboratory values demonstrated an elevated creatinine of 8.0 mg/dL. His electrolytes were maintained within normal ranges with medical therapy.

Despite aggressive fluid resuscitation, he remained anuric, consistent with acute kidney injury (AKI). Due to persistent anuria and worsening anasarca over the next 24 h, nephrology was consulted for further management. Despite continued maximal medical therapy, his renal function did not improve, and a surgical consult was obtained for dialysis access. At our center, we prefer peritoneal dialysis (PD) as the initial mode for both acute and chronic dialysis. If urgent dialysis is needed, hemodialysis may be instituted temporarily and possibly continuous renal replacement therapy (CRRT) if the patient cannot tolerate hemodialysis. Once stabilized, we convert to PD if possible.

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Once this patient was stable, he was taken to the operating room for PD catheter placement. In addition, as he had been scheduled to have a gastrostomy tube inserted in the near future, this procedure was added to PD catheter placement. In the OR, cefazolin and fluconazole were given within 60 min before incision, and the patient's abdomen was prepped. The PD catheter that was selected was a double-cuffed, curled, swan neck catheter (Argyle™, Peritoneal Dialysis Catheters, Covidien, Mansfield, MA). The catheter was sized by measuring the distance between the umbilicus and the symphysis pubis. The location of the exit site of the catheter was marked on the patient's right side, halfway between the midclavicular and anterior axillary lines and lateral and inferior to the initial incision located just lateral to the umbilicus.

The catheter was inserted laparoscopically with the curled portion positioned deep in the pelvis. No skin exit site sutures were used. A MIC-KEY (Ballard Medical Products, Draper, UT) gastrostomy tube was then inserted laparoscopically utilizing the LEFT upper quadrant access port incision, and the stomach wall was secured to the anterior abdominal wall with internal retention absorbable sutures. Catheter function and the absence of leaks were confirmed intraoperatively by using two passes of 10 cc/kg of dialysate. Low-volume dialysis was initiated postoperatively and over the next several days was increased to full volume without incident.

One month later, his renal function returned and his PD treatment was held. During this time off PD, his PD catheter was routinely inspected with regular dressing changes and flushing of the catheter.

Two months later his renal function deteriorated and he required PD treatment again. Unfortunately, the PD catheter would not flush easily and did not drain. An abdominal radiograph demonstrated the PD catheter to be in the pelvis. Therefore, a surgical consult was obtained and the patient was taken to the operating room for laparoscopic evaluation where intraluminal fibrin plugs were identified and removed. His PD catheter continues to function well, and the patient is undergoing evaluation for kidney transplantation.

Clinical Questions

1. What are the available modalities for pediatric dialysis?
2. When PD is the preferred method, what PD catheters are available for pediatric patients?
3. What antibiotics are routinely used for PD catheter insertion or revision?
4. How are the PD catheters surgically inserted?
5. What are the options if a PD catheter does not drain satisfactorily?

Diagnostic Discussion

1. In acute situations, hemodialysis or PD may be used to help stabilize the patient who requires fluid and toxin removal. If it is apparent that the patient will require chronic treatment, PD is the preferred modality in our center.
2. There are various types of pediatric PD catheters available (Tenckhoff single and dual cuff, Tenckhoff curl catheter, Tenckhoff Swan Neck, Tenckhoff Swan Neck curl catheter) which come in various lengths. We currently prefer Argyle catheters (Argyle™, Peritoneal Dialysis Catheters, Covidien, Mansfield, MA) (Fig. 1.1). We routinely use the dual cuff Swan Neck curl catheter for both acute (e.g. patients who have Hemolytic Uremic Syndrome) and chronic dialysis situations.

Pediatric Swan Neck Curl Cath Catheters

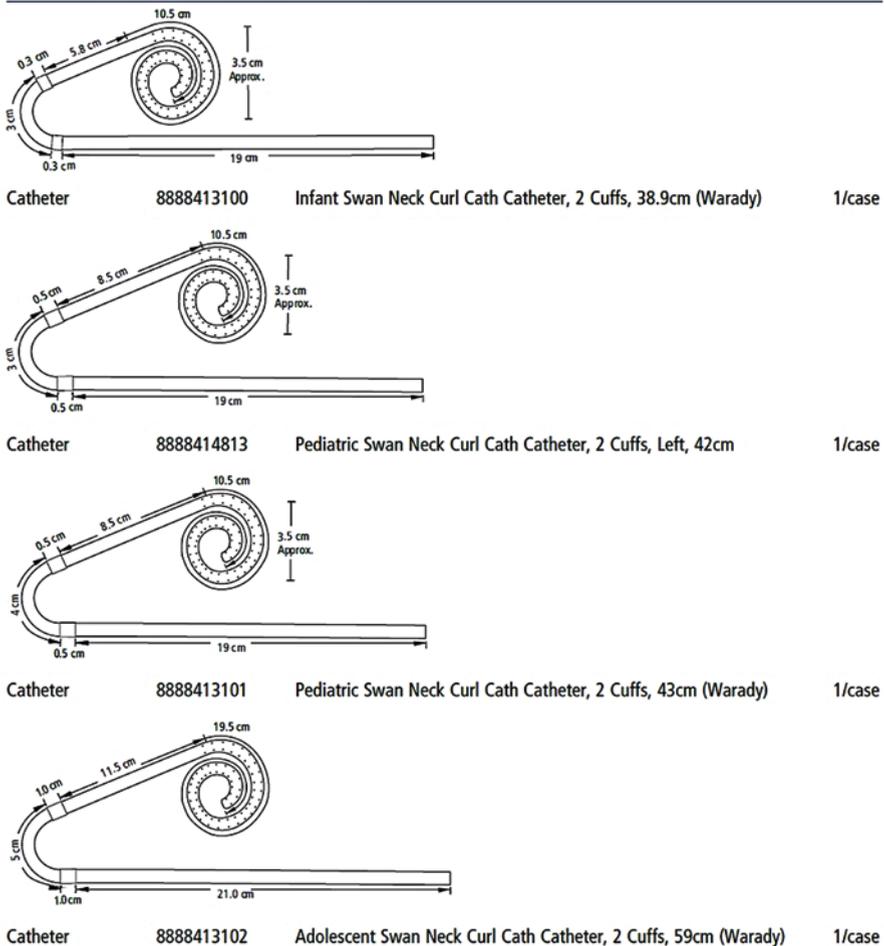


Fig. 1.1 Various types of PD catheters available for pediatric patients (Image copyright © 2016 Medtronic. All rights reserved. Used with the permission of Medtronic)

3. When a PD catheter is inserted or revised, we routinely use perioperative administration of a first-generation cephalosporin such as cefazolin, per ISPD guideline 2.2 [1]. Vancomycin is an alternative in patients hypersensitive to cephalosporins. Of note, if a gastrostomy tube will be placed simultaneously, an antifungal agent such as fluconazole is administered perioperatively as well, per ISPD guideline 7.4 [1].
4. We routinely gain access to the peritoneum via the umbilicus with a 5 mm STEP (STEP™ Instruments, Medtronic, Covidien, Mansfield, MA) port and establish a pneumoperitoneum of 12–15 mm Hg with carbon dioxide. Laparoscopy allows for a complete inspection of the peritoneal cavity for any pathology and to also identify patent internal inguinal rings that should be repaired prior to initiation of PD treatment to avoid development of inguinal hernias. Preexisting inguinal hernias can be repaired at this point via an open or laparoscopic technique at the discretion of the surgeon.

An additional 5 mm port is placed in the LEFT upper quadrant to help facilitate visualization, as the camera can be switched between these two ports. Additionally, a 5 mm instrument can be utilized with the additional port.

Next, we perform an omentectomy in an attempt to prevent the omentum from clogging the side holes of the PD catheter. The available omentum is retrieved via the umbilicus and sequentially ligated with Vicryl ties and electrocautery (Fig. 1.2). We are reluctant to perform an omentopexy (i.e., fixation of the omentum to the anterior abdominal wall) for fear of a potential midgut volvulus [2].

Next, we select the appropriate length dual cuff swan neck curl catheter based upon the patient's size. The ideal catheter length should be approximated by placing the internal cuff lateral and 1 cm above the umbilicus and then measuring to the level of the symphysis pubis. We usually place the exit site on the RIGHT side of the abdomen, since some of these patients may need a gastrostomy tube in the LEFT upper quadrant.

After marking out the anticipated catheter track on the skin of the abdomen, an incision is made in the skin to the RIGHT of midline, and the dissection is carried down to the anterior fascia of the rectus muscle where a transverse incision is made. A purse-string monofilament suture is placed in the anterior fascia. Next, a STEP access needle and sheath are inserted through this opening and carefully advanced to the preperitoneal space with laparoscopic guidance. The sheath is tilted and carefully advanced in the preperitoneal space downward toward the pelvis where it is allowed to enter the peritoneum just above the dome of the bladder (Fig. 1.3). Once fully deployed within the peritoneal cavity, the needle is removed and the sheath left in place.

Ultimately, a peel-away introducer sheath set (Peel Away® Introducer Set, Cook Medical; Bloomington, IN) is inserted, starting with placement of the included guidewire through the STEP sheath and advancing it into the pelvis under direct visualization. The STEP sheath is removed and the dilator and sheath advanced over the guidewire down into the pelvis (Fig. 1.4). The guidewire and dilator are removed leaving the 20 French sheath down in the pelvis.



Fig. 1.2 Omentum retrieved via the umbilicus. Pen markings show anticipated medial incision to the RIGHT of the umbilicus and the more LATERAL and DOWNWARD incision for the EXIT site



Fig. 1.3 STEP needle and sheath in a preperitoneal tunnel entering the deep pelvis above the dome of the bladder

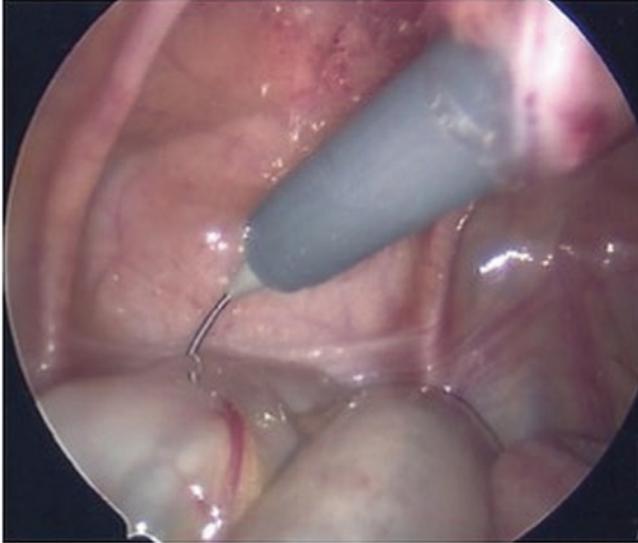


Fig. 1.4 Peel-away sheath with dilator and guide wire down deep in the pelvis

Next, the PD catheter is inserted and advanced through the peel-away sheath. When the first cuff is under the anterior fascia level, the PD catheter is usually curled within the pelvis. The peel-away sheath is then removed while holding the cuff with a pair of forceps below the level of the anterior rectus sheath. Once the sheath is removed, the cuff will remain below the rectus muscle. If needed, a 5 mm instrument can be used to steer the curl end of the PD catheter into an optimal position (Fig. 1.5). Laparoscopy is used to confirm that the radiopaque stripe is not twisted and that the inner cuff has not migrated into the peritoneum.

Next, a second incision is made out LATERAL and INFERIOR to the initial incision so that the second cuff will be positioned within the tunnel about 2 cm from the exit site, and the catheter is facing in a DOWNWARD position. The catheter is then tunneled from the first or medial incision, out toward the DOWNWARD and LATERAL incision, ensuring the radiopaque strip is not twisted (Fig. 1.6).

We routinely have a dialysis nurse in the operating room to flush our newly placed PD catheter. We watch the peritoneum fill and then drain under direct laparoscopic visualization. A dwell and drain are also performed without insufflation to ensure proper function.

Once good flow is documented, the anterior fascia purse string suture is tied around the catheter to help anchor the cuff under the anterior rectus sheath to prevent leakage. The subcutaneous tissue is closed in layers followed by skin closure. The LEFT upper quadrant 5 mm incision is closed as well to ensure no leakage. Of note, this incision can be used for a gastrostomy tube placement if needed, as described in this case. The umbilical port is removed last, and the

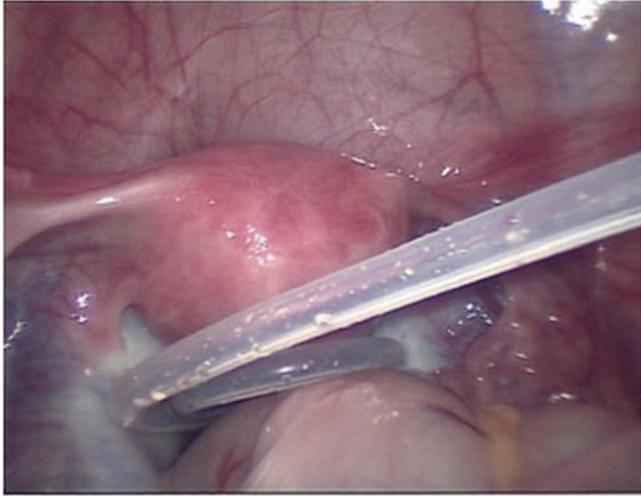


Fig. 1.5 PD catheter curl in satisfactory position deep in the pelvis

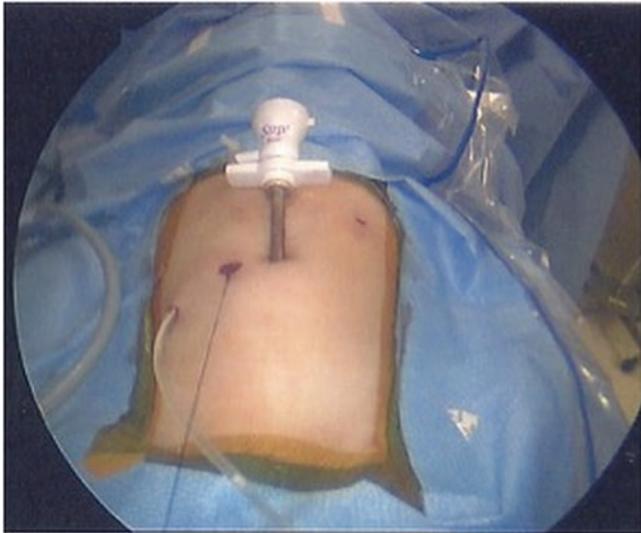


Fig. 1.6 PD catheter EXIT site is LATERAL and DOWNWARD facing. The RIGHT medial incision has the anterior fascia purse string and a 5 mm STEP port within the umbilicus. Also note the 5 mm incision in the LEFT upper quadrant where a 5 mm STEP port was utilized

fascia and skin closed in layers. NO sutures are placed at the PD catheter exit site.

Once the sterile drapes are removed, the PD catheter exit site is dressed by the dialysis nurse.

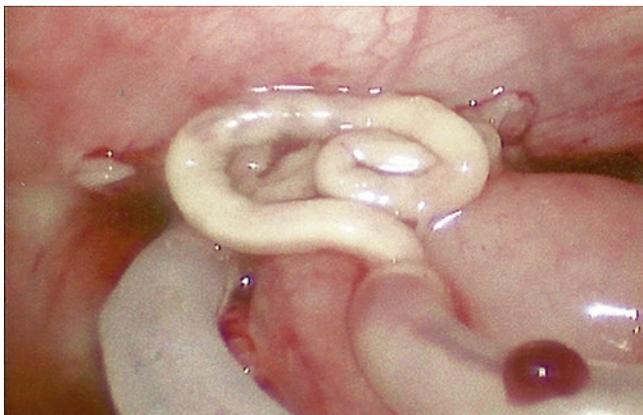


Fig. 1.7 Intraluminal fibrin plug occluding the PD catheter

5. If a peritoneal catheter is not functioning after all medical attempts to reestablish PD catheter function (i.e., flushing, positioning) have failed, a laparoscopic revision is warranted. Entrance is gained via the umbilicus, and an additional 5 mm port can be placed in the LEFT upper quadrant to help facilitate the operation. If the catheter has “flipped” out of the pelvis, it can be repositioned and tested for function. If the catheter has been encased in a fibrous peel, it can be dissected free, repositioned, and tested. If the internal lumen of the catheter is clogged (Fig. 1.7), it can be grasped via the umbilical incision and externalized to help remove the debris; note the camera will need to be in the LEFT upper quadrant port for this maneuver. If none of these maneuvers help restore function, or if the patient has outgrown the initial PD catheter, then removal and replacement can be performed as described above.

Clinical Pearls

1. Laparoscopy via the umbilicus allows for excellent peritoneal visualization for PD catheter insertion, avoiding injury to surrounding structures such as the intestines and bladder. It also allows visualization of the internal rings to ensure they are closed. If the internal rings are patent, they can be repaired with either an open or laparoscopic approach.
2. Omentectomy is routinely performed to help prevent clogging of the side holes within the catheter. Omentopexy, which is described in adults, is not our common practice for fear of a midgut volvulus.
3. STEP needle and sheath tunneling along the posterior sheath allows for deeper placement of the guide wire and sheath for the PD catheter.

4. Creation of a preperitoneal tunnel from the anterior fascia incision to the midline cephalad to the bladder helps prevent catheter dislodgement.
5. Utilization of an additional 5 mm port in the left upper quadrant helps facilitate proper catheter placement into the pelvis and omental removal. This incision can also be used for laparoscopic placement of a gastrostomy tube if needed.
6. Intraoperative testing of the peritoneal dialysis catheter with the dialysis nursing staff is very beneficial to ensure satisfactory dwell and drainage prior to leaving the operating room.
7. If PD catheters are not used for treatment, weekly inspection, and regular dressing changes and catheter flushing will help ensure continued catheter patency.

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Chapter 2

Peritoneal Equilibration Testing and Application

Francisco J. Cano

Case Presentation

FW, a recently diagnosed patient with CKD Stage 5, is a 6-year-old boy who has been recommended to initiate chronic dialysis. His primary renal disorder is renal dysplasia. His nutritional evaluation reveals a weight of 18.1 kg (SDS -1.08), height 102 cm (SDS -2.64), and BSA 0.8 m^2 . His residual renal Kt/V is 0.3. A pre-dialysis biochemical evaluation showed BUN 70 mg/dl, creatinine 6.5 mg/dl, hemoglobin 9.4 g/dl, serum calcium 9.2 mg/dl, phosphorus 7.7 mg/dl, PTH 580 pg/ml, $25(\text{OH})\text{D}_3$ 14.5 ng/ml, and serum albumin 3.8 g/L; electrolytes were Na 138 meq/L, K 5.4 meq/L, Cl 101 meq/L, and serum CO_2 19.2 meq/L. Echocardiography showed a left ventricular mass index (LVMI) value of $45 \text{ g/m}^{2.7}$.

Peritoneal dialysis (PD) was initiated several weeks after PD catheter placement, with the fill volume reaching 700 ml/exchange (900 ml/m^2) 3 weeks after dialysis initiation. The PD modality used was continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis (CAPD), and FW's initial dialysis prescription consisted of Dianeal® 1.5%, four exchanges per day, with each exchange lasting 6 h. During the second month of PD, a 4-h peritoneal equilibration test (PET) was performed.

During the night prior to the test, an 800 ml ($1,100 \text{ ml/m}^2$) exchange of 2.5% dextrose dialysis solution was instilled for 8 h. On the day of the test, the overnight exchange was drained, and another exchange with Dianeal 2.5% was infused. Dialysate samples for creatinine and glucose were obtained at 0, 2, and 4 h of dwell time, and a blood sample for creatinine was obtained at 2 h. The 4-h results were as follows:

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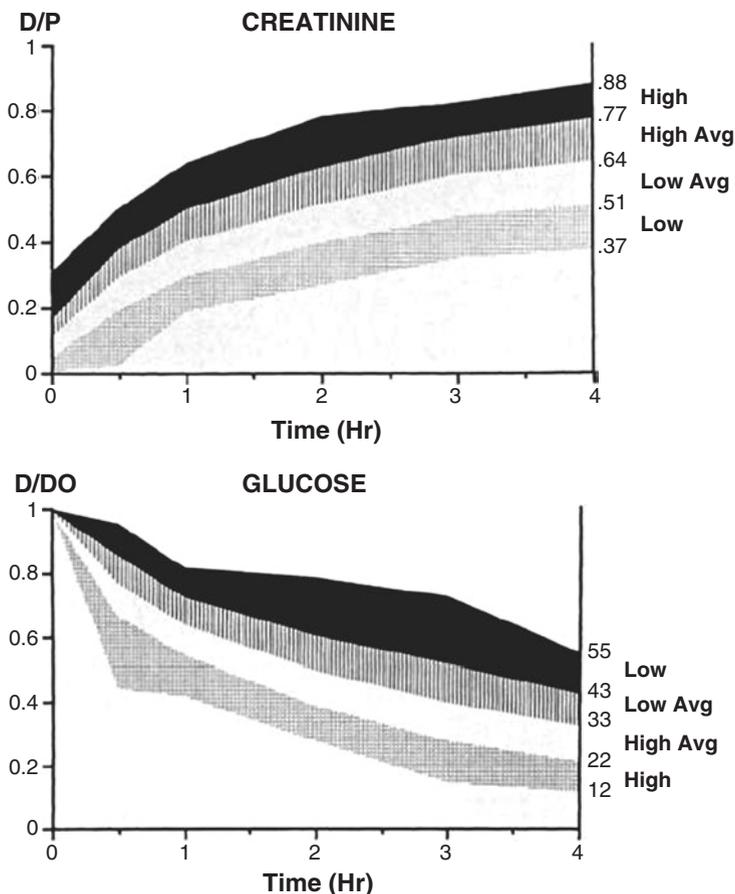


Fig. 2.1 Peritoneal equilibration test categories

D/P creatinine, 0.64, and D/D₀ glucose, 0.38. These results were compatible with a high-average transporter status (Fig. 2.1).

In view of these PET results, the PD modality was changed to nocturnal intermittent PD (NIPD). The prescription consisted of seven, 1-h exchanges nightly, with an 800 ml fill volume using Dianeal 1.5% peritoneal dialysis solution. Over the initial 18 months of PD, the patient experienced a single episode of peritonitis with a good response to antibiotic treatment. The PET was not repeated after this peritonitis episode.

After 2 years of PD, the patient's blood pressure was 110/76 mmHg (95th percentile), and the residual renal Kt/V decreased to a value of 0.2. Echocardiography demonstrated an increased LVMI with a value of 54 g/m^{2.7}. As a result of the clinical evidence of hypervolemia and the desire to provide the best PD prescription for both

solute and fluid management, a repeat PET was performed. The treating physician chose not to conduct a short PET. Results showed a 4-h D/P creatinine of 0.45 and a 4-h D/Do glucose of 0.58, findings now compatible with a low transporter status. Based on this result, FW had his PD prescription changed to a long dwell PD schedule, specifically the use of CAPD with a 1,000-ml fill volume and four, 6-h exchanges daily.

Clinical Questions

1. Is the PET a useful tool in pediatric peritoneal dialysis?
2. What is the importance of the duration of the exchange preceding the PET?
3. What is the importance of the fill volume in the PET?
4. How should the results of the PET be used to help select the PD modality and prescription?
5. Are both the Short PET and the Classical PET appropriate for use in children?
6. When should the PET be repeated?

Diagnostic Discussion

1. The success of peritoneal dialysis therapy is based on the ability of the peritoneal membrane to serve as a semipermeable membrane for solute transport and ultrafiltration. The properties of this membrane are also key determinants of the patient's outcome [1–4].

The peritoneal equilibration test (PET) represents a semiquantitative means to assess the peritoneal membrane permeability in dialyzed patients, and the resultant data aids in the individualized prescription of peritoneal dialysis therapy. In pediatrics, a considerable experience with the PET has been accumulated during the past 20 years [4, 5]. The PET helps tailor the PD prescription to meet the specific needs of the patient in terms of

- (a) Fill volume
 - (b) Length of each exchange
 - (c) Number of daily cycles
 - (d) Dextrose concentration of peritoneal dialysis solution
- *The PET is performed in children in the following manner:*
 1. An overnight 3–8h exchange is performed.
 2. The overnight exchange is drained upon arrival to the PD unit the following morning.
 3. A transfer Y-type set is installed.
 4. A 1,100-ml/m₂ fill volume, 2.5% glucose peritoneal dialysis solution is infused, and patient is rolled from side to side during the infusion.

5. After concluding the infusion, dialysis solution is maintained in the peritoneal cavity for a 2- (short PET) or 4-h (classical PET) dwell time.
6. Dialysate samples are taken at 0, 2, and 4 h for the classical PET. A 10-ml volume is sent for glucose and creatinine measurement.
7. A serum sample is obtained at the midpoint of the PET (at 1 or 2 h, dependent on length of PET).
8. The dialysate to plasma (D/P) hour 2 if short PET, hour 4 if classical PET for creatinine, and dialysate hour 2 (if short PET) or hour 4 (if classical PET) to dialysate hour 0 (D2-4/D0) glucose ratios are calculated.

- *Interpretation of the PET*

Patients are categorized as low, low-average, high-average, or high transporters according to the PET results [6].

A low transport state is diagnosed when the D/P creatinine ratio is below -1 standard deviation (SD), and the glucose D/D₀ ratio is above $+1$ SD of the mean normative value; a low-average transport capacity corresponds to a D/P creatinine ratio between the mean and -1 SD and a D/D₀ glucose ratio between the mean and $+1$ SD; a high-average transport capacity is diagnosed when the D/P creatinine ratio is between the mean and $+1$ SD and the D/D₀ glucose is between the mean and -1 SD; and a high transport capacity corresponds to a D/P creatinine ratio more than $+1$ SD and a D/D₀ glucose ratio less than -1 SD of the mean value. Pediatric reference PET data have been published [7].

2. The importance of the long-dwell exchange prior to the PET relates to the desire to obtain plasma-peritoneal solute equilibrium. In the original description of the PET, the dwell time of the preceding exchange was approximately 8 h [6]. Whereas this long-dwell exchange is easily performed in CAPD patients, pediatric patients are often prescribed automated peritoneal dialysis (APD); therefore, a nocturnal long-dwell exchange represents an important change in their dialysis regimen. In turn, Lilaj et al. [8] subsequently showed that the absence of a prior long exchange had a significant influence on the D/P ratios of small solutes, urea, creatinine, and proteins. Twardowski et al. [9] confirmed that a prior exchange with a dwell time between 3 and 8 h results in only a small and nonsignificant influence on the D/P ratios of creatinine and urea, as well as on the D/Do glucose. Therefore, each center should define a standard preceding exchange duration prior to the PET test and implement it uniformly in order to be able to draw conclusions and compare results [10].
3. The peritoneal membrane surface area in children has been determined to be twice as large as the surface area in adults when expressed per kg body weight. In contrast, the peritoneal membrane surface areas of children and adults are more comparable when the scaling factor is body surface area (BSA). In turn, when weight is used to calculate fill volume, infants and children with low body weight will receive less dialysate in proportion to their peritoneal surface area, and the PET results will give the artifactual impression of a high peritoneal membrane transport capacity because of rapid equilibration of solutes between plasma and dialysate in the setting of a small fill volume. As shown by Warady et al. [11], this phenomenon is explained by the concept of “geometry of diffusion.” Therefore,

the PET fill volume in children should be prescribed in terms of BSA to avoid a diagnosis of functional hyperpermeability and to provide the most accurate information upon which to base the dialysis prescription [12].

4. The optimal dialysis prescription in terms of solute and fluid removal will differ according to the peritoneal transporter type. In the case of fast transporters, short-dwell time exchanges should be prescribed to obtain adequate ultrafiltration and urea purification.

Clinically, a patient with a high peritoneal membrane transport capacity using long-duration dwell times will limit ultrafiltration and will show signs of volume overload, such as edema, hypertension, and cardiovascular deterioration.

Conversely, in slow transporters, long-dwell exchanges and large fill volumes are required to optimize solute clearance. At the same time, the slow transport results in maintenance of the glucose gradient and the achievement of adequate ultrafiltration.

Therefore, APD regimens are indicated for fast transporters, and CAPD is often the best PD modality choice for patients with low peritoneal membrane transport capacity [13–15].

High-average and low-average transporters will benefit from the use of a mixed dialysis regimen, such as with the use of CCPD, using short-time dwells during the night and keeping 1 or 2 long-dwell exchanges during the day.

5. Twardowski et al. [9, 16] previously measured D/P creatinine and D/D₀ glucose during a 2-h (short) and a 4-h (classical) PET. Those authors found that for both solutes, equilibration curves were almost identical irrespective of test duration. Thus, the short PET was considered a valid study to classify membrane characteristics as established in the original PET study.

In pediatrics, Warady et al. [17] characterized peritoneal membrane transport capacity comparing a 2- vs 4-h D/P creatinine and 2- vs 4-h D/D₀ glucose values in a retrospective experience in 20 children on PD. Results were consistent with the previous adult findings indicating that the short and classical PET provide equal characterizations of peritoneal membrane transport capacity. These conclusions were supported in a prospective multicenter pediatric study of 84 PET studies in 74 PD patients [18].

Together, these data suggest that, like in adult patients, a short version of the PET can be applied to the pediatric population.

6. The K-DOQI Guidelines on peritoneal dialysis adequacy [14] are one of the most comprehensive set of recommendations published to date on the care of patients receiving peritoneal dialysis. For adults patients, the recommendations suggest that total urea Kt/V (dialysis Kt/V + residual renal Kt/V) and peritoneal transport characteristics should be measured 1 month after starting PD. Whereas there is no need to routinely repeat the PET since peritoneal transport is stable over time in most patients, the PET should be repeated when one of the following situations arises:
 - Unexplained volume overload
 - Edema, hypertension, or increased LVMI
 - Unexplained decreasing drain volume
 - Unexplained worsening of uremia symptoms

- Changes in Kt/V
- Increasing needs for hypertonic dialysis solution to maintain ultrafiltration

The findings generated by the PET in these settings will assist the care provider in appropriately modifying the patient's dialysis prescription in terms of fill volume, exchange duration, and dextrose concentration of the dialysis solution [1, 2, 4, 15, 19].

Clinical Pearls

1. The peritoneal equilibration test (PET) has been validated to be the best method to evaluate peritoneal membrane transport capacity in children and adults.
2. The PET permits patients to be categorized as low, low-average, high-average, or high transporters which, in turn, helps determine the best PD prescription characteristics in terms of fill volume, length of each exchange, and dextrose concentration of the dialysis solution.
3. Changes in peritoneal transport should be evaluated with a repeat PET when there is clinical evidence of changes in dialysis efficiency, especially when the changes have the potential of influencing cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in uremic children.

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Chapter 3

Peritoneal Dialysis Prescription

Nathan T. Beins and Bradley A. Warady

Case Presentation

A 3-year-old patient was diagnosed at birth with posterior urethral valves and associated chronic kidney disease (CKD) and subsequently developed end-stage renal disease at 13 months of age. He was started on peritoneal dialysis (PD) and was gradually advanced to his current automated PD prescription consisting of a fill volume of 900 mL/m², dwell time of 50 min, and 10 cycles occurring overnight with a daytime fill volume of 400 mL/m². A peritoneal equilibration test (PET) conducted 5 weeks following PD initiation revealed the patient to be a high-average transporter. His weekly total Kt/V_{urea} was 2.7 approximately 6 months ago. His initial prescription included the use of 1.5% dextrose peritoneal dialysis solution, as he did not require substantial ultrafiltration because of the presence of residual kidney function. Recently, however, he has been experiencing a gradual reduction in his residual kidney function, and a repeat assessment of clearance revealed a total weekly Kt/V_{urea} measurement of only 1.6 with a 24-h urine collection demonstrating less than 100 mL of urine output. Over the past several months, he has also developed increasing evidence of “underdialysis” as reflected by rising blood urea nitrogen (BUN) and serum creatinine levels, moderate secondary hyperparathyroidism, and a decreased appetite. His anemia has remained well managed. Noteworthy is the fact that he has only had a single episode of peritonitis.

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