

Table 20. Candidate gene association studies for pelvic organ prolapse.

Gene	refSNP ID	Pheno- typing	Authors	Population	n cases	n controls	Allelic Test OR(95% CI)	Power OR>=2	Hardy-Weinberg	Other Notes
COL1A1	rs1800012	POPQ	Skorupski et al 2006 [767]	White Polish	37	40	1.39(0.61-3.15)	42.7%	Deviation from HWE for controls p<0.05	
	rs1800012	POPQ	Rodrigues et al 2008 [769]	Brazilian	107	209	1.38(0.89-2.15)	92.5%	In HWE	High risk population stratification
	rs1800012	POPQ	Feiner et al 2009 [770]	White Israeli or Ashkenazi	36	36	1.4(0.55-3.56)	31.6%	In HWE	High risk population stratification
	rs1800012	POPQ	Cho et al 2009 [771]	Korean	15	15	1(Not calculable)	0%	In HWE	MAF=0% among popn
COL3A1	rs1800255	POPQ	Martins et al 2011 [772]	Brazilian	107	209	0.91(0.61-1.36)	91.6%	In HWE	High risk population stratification
	rs1800255	POPQ	Jeon et al 2009 [773]	Korean	36	36	3.24(1.51-6.94)	26.6%	In HWE	
	rs1800255	POPQ	Kluivers et al 2009 [774]	Dutch	202	102	1.46(1.00-2.13)	86.7%	In HWE	High risk population stratification
	rs1800255	POPQ	Chen et al 2008 [775]	Taiwanese	84	147	1.22(0.77-1.93) 0.47(0.19-1.10)	50.3%	Deviation for cases (p<0.05) Deviation for controls (p<0.005) cases (p<0.05), and population (p<0.001)	Likely genotyping error
LOX-L1	POPQ	Ferrell et al 2009 [776]	Caucasian and African American US	137	141	1.34(0.94-1.90)	82.3%	Not calculable	High risk population stratification	
LAMC1	rs10911193	POPQ	Fu et al 2009 [777]	Unselected US	61	32	1.18(0.53-2.59)	40.4%	Not calculable	High risk population stratification
	rs10911193	POPQ	Chen et al 2010 [778]	Caucasian US	102	163	1.12(0.65-1.96)	74.8%	Not calculable	
	rs20563						0.85(0.60-1.21) 0.75(0.53-1.07)			
	rs20558			African American US	63	83	0.55(0.19-1.64) 1.28(0.79-2.06) 1.29(0.80-2.09)	32.5%		
MMP1	rs2071230	POPQ	Romero et al 2008 [779]	White US	36	36	0.78(0.28-2.0)	12.2%	Deviation only for controls at rs738789 p<0.001	
MMP2	rs7201					1.26(0.64-2.45)				
MMP3	rs679620					0.57(0.29-1.11)				
MMP8	rs35866072					0.27(0.05-1.32)				

Table 20. Candidate gene association studies for pelvic organ prolapse (continued)

Gene	refSNP ID	Pheno- typing	Authors	Population	n cases	n controls	Allelic Test OR(95% CI)	Power OR>=2	Hardy-Weinberg	Other Notes
MMP9	rs17576						0.94(0.46-1.89)			
	rs17435959						<0.74(0-0.74)			
	rs738789						0.58(0.13-2.53)			
	rs4898						0.76(0.39-1.45)			
	rs2016293						0.60(0.31-1.17)			
MMP3	rs3025058	POPQ	Skorupski et al 2010[763]	Polish	126	132	1.04(0.73-1.47)	32.8%	Deviation <0.05 for controls and <0.001 for cases and popn	Likely genotyping errors
	rs1799750				149	109	0.94(0.67-1.33)	33.1%	Deviation <0.05 for cases controls and <0.005 for popn	
MMP1	rs1144393	POPQ	Campeau et al 2011 [780]	US	23	18	0.27(0.08-0.97)	6.7%	Not calculable but stated as in HWE	8 SNPs tested in total but negative results not reported
	rs498186				19	16	6.61(1.13-38.7)	3.1%		
	rs473509				20	21	0.24(0.07-0.85)	6.4%		
MMP1	rs1799750	POPQ	Vishwajit et al 2009 [765]	Unselected US	12	8	1.66(0.46-6.00)	10.5%	Deviation from HWE for cases (<0.05)	No distinction between SUJ and POP
	rs3918242	POPQ	Chen et al 2010 [781]	Taiwanese	92	152	0.80(0.43-1.47)	71.1%	In HWE	Likely genotyping errors
ESR1	rs17576						0.62(0.40-0.98)	75.7%	Deviation for controls <0.001	
	rs2250889						1.56(0.98-2.49)	72.6%	Deviation for controls <0.05	
	rs17847075	POPQ	Chen et al 2008 [782]	Taiwanese	88	153	1.11(0.75-1.63)	67.4%	Deviation for cases alone at rs2228480 (p<0.05)	
	rs2207647						1.02(0.69-1.50)			
	rs2234693						0.97(0.66-1.42)			
ESR2	rs3798577						0.90(0.62-1.31)			
	rs2228480						1.47(0.94-2.29)			
	rs2987983	POPQ	Chen et al 2008 [783]	Taiwanese	69	141	1.20(0.77-1.85)	19.4%	In HWE	
	rs1271572						1.32(0.84-2.08)			
	rs944459						1.25(0.82-1.90)			
PGR	rs1256049						1.28(0.84-1.94)			
	rs1255998						1.31(0.86-1.99)			
	rs500760	POPQ	Chen et al 2009 [784]	Taiwanese	87	150	0.96(0.61-1.52)	53.7%	In HWE	Likely genotyping error
	rs484389					2.02(1.15-3.54)		Deviation for controls (p<0.0001) and cases (p<0.05) and population (p<0.05)		

deviation from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium for controls, or both cases and controls, highly suggestive either of genotyping error, or problems with population stratification. In addition to the high risk of bias introduced, these studies are all underpowered other than for extremely large genetic effects, and in most cases fail to account for multiple comparisons in their primary analyses.

Despite this multiplicity of methodological problems, there remains tentative evidence of replicated effects for two different polymorphisms. The rs1800012 polymorphism of collagen type I alpha1 (COLIA1), has been associated with a two-fold increased prevalence of stress incontinence in separate European populations [758,767]. The rs4994 polymorphism of the beta 3 adrenoceptor (ADRB3) has been associated with almost 2.5 fold increased risk of overactive bladder in separate studies of Japanese and Brazilian samples [30,31]. Other polymorphisms tested in more than one study include rs6313 in the 5-HT2A receptor, and rs1799750 in matrix metalloproteinase-1. In each case there are however inconsistent findings, with a high risk of genotyping error, and or population stratification.

Candidate gene studies for prolapse are at an equally nascent stage. Here polymorphisms have been tested in COLIA1, COL3A1, LOX-L1, LAMC, MMPs 1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 11, TIMP1, TIMP3, ESR, and PGR. In comparison to incontinence, investigators have used the POPQ system as standard. However, other methodological problems are common. We again found many underpowered studies, frequent significant deviation from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium, and many instances of failure to consider the impact of population stratification in samples. Although many of the primary studies report significant results, our reanalysis suggests that there are no consistently replicated associations in any populations.

With these disappointing results in mind we can consider findings from the first reported genome wide association study in this area. The discovery cohort comprised 115 familial cases of prolapse identified as having had surgical treatment (and frequently also stress or urgency incontinence treatment) with 2,976 controls. In the discovery cohort 6 individual SNPs approached or exceeded genome wide significance ($p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$), but in Manhattan and Regional Association Plots no evidence was seen to support a wider associated locus. Correspondingly, after correction for multiple comparisons none of the 6 SNPs (rs1455311 rs1036819 rs430794 rs8027714 rs1810636 rs2236479) were successfully replicated in a sample of 76 Dutch familial cases. Given the failure of the candidate gene approach, genome-wide association studies are urgently needed, but will require much larger samples of cases for reliable identification of significant loci.

VI. SUMMARY POINTS

Family studies and twin studies have provided convincing evidence of genetic predisposition to incontinence and prolapse, with genetic variation contributing up to half of population phenotypic variability in elderly women. Despite a large research effort, the candidate gene approach has not produced consistent results. Only the rs1800012 polymorphism of collagen type I alpha1 (COLIA1), and the rs4994 polymorphism of the beta 3 adrenoceptor (ADRB3) have been replicated. Despite an urgent need for genome-wide association studies to discover susceptibility genes for these conditions, initial results from the genome-wide approach have been fruitless. Future progress will likely be made through collaboration between large scale population based cohorts phenotyped for these conditions.

I. EPIDEMIOLOGY OF ANAL INCONTINENCE

I. GENERAL COMMENTS AND DEFINITIONS

Faecal Incontinence (FI) is the involuntary loss of faeces – solid or liquid. Anal Incontinence (AI) includes these events as well as the involuntary loss of flatus, which is felt by many patients to be an equally disabling disorder.

The discussion below will therefore focus on the broader definition: AI. A third cause of soiling or embarrassment is anal mucoid seepage, a troubling condition that cannot be deferred by an able sphincter and intact cognition, most often caused by an organic colonic disease or dietary sensitivity, and more rarely by faecal impaction. This is the loss of fluid, sometimes faeculent, often following a normal continent defaecation. This is an important condition to distinguish from other manifestations of incontinence because most authors that report very high prevalence rates of AI include leakage in their questionnaires and thus may include these individuals with this very common symptom. However in these individuals there is often no detectable sphincter abnormality [786]. It is not treatable by any of the standard therapies for incontinence of faeces: such as sphincter repair, neuromuscular re-education or even faecal diversion. It is in fact why we wear underclothes. Not really true for women.

1. ASCERTAINMENT OF ANAL INCONTINENCE

Older reports of AI prevalence have come from single institutions, and the patients described therein have been subject to referral bias when demographics and aetiology are discussed. The accuracy of AI

prevalence estimates may also be diminished by difficulty in ascertaining those figures due to the common underreporting of AI and patients' reluctance to report symptoms or to seek treatment [787-788]. It has been shown that women are more willing to report AI than men [789]. In addition, the character (incontinence of solid faeces, diarrhoea, or flatus, or merely anal seepage) and frequency (daily versus episodic) of reported AI varies greatly in each report, and indeed between individuals. So, prevalence depends heavily on the definition of AI.

The variation in prevalence of AI seen in a sampling of surveys in **Table 21** further demonstrates how difficult the ascertainment of AI is. The border between occasional dyschezia which may be associated with minor illness, travel or diet and a disabling disease that requires intervention to return a patient to acceptable function is not clearly drawn. Many questionnaires have been developed and "validated" for the detection of AI, at least three published since the last update of this book. No systematic review of these many questionnaires has yet to be published. The most insightful of prevalence studies has recently been published from New Zealand [790]. The authors studied adults, not excluding those in custodial care. Acknowledging the difficulty in prevalence estimation, they used three different questionnaires: the first simply asking if the participant had incontinence and if they were troubled by it, the second a well known quantitative instrument and the third a quality of life instrument specific to faecal incontinence. In the cohort examined there were those who were

totally continent, those that exceeded thresholds in all three instruments and were incontinent and those who had positive responses on only one or two of the questionnaires (**Figure 11**). The authors surmised the two out of three positive responses constituted clinical AI, though the threshold for the quality of life instrument was very high (i.e. perhaps too sensitive). From **Figure 11** it can be seen that the prevalence of AI varied from 12.6% to 26.8% for each individual instrument, 4.6% were positive for all three and 13.2% were positive for two of three, which was the authors' definition of AI.

2. DATA SOURCES AND LEVEL OF EVIDENCE

Since ICI 4 new studies were sought using Medline and EMBASE using the search terms faecal, faecal, anal, incontinence, epidemiology. In addition systematic reviews were specifically sought in Medline, EMBASE and the Cochrane Library.

II. PREVALENCE

Because therapeutic interventions are not the subject of this chapter, and so the epidemiology is descriptive and not derived from randomised clinical trials (aside from the antenatal intervention described below), the level of evidence will be at best 2, and the strongest evidence will come from systematic reviews in which there was a predefined search strategy and application of quality assessment tools that were designed specifically to minimize bias in referral or ascertainment.

Table 21. Population-based Surveys of Prevalence of Anal Incontinence

COUNTRY (ref)	POPULATION	N	PREVALENCE
U.K. [788]	Community Service	4 844	1.9%
France [808]	All >45 years	1 100	11%, 6% to faeces, 60% are women
U.S.A. [806]	Market mailing	5 430	7% soiling, 0.7% to faeces
U.S.A. [789]	Wisconsin households	6 959	2.2%, 63% women
Australia [805]	Household survey	3 010	6.8% in men, 10.9% in women, >age 15
Germany [811]	>18 years	500	4.4%-6.7% (by health)
Australia [810]	>18 years	618	11-20% (gender M>F)
Australia [482]	>18 years	651	11.3%
New Zealand [814]	>18 years old	717	8.1% for solid and higher for gas
U.K. [815]	>40 years	10 116	1.4%
U.K. [816]	Postpartum women	549	5.5%
Canada [817]	Postpartum women	949	3.1% solid, 25.5% flatus
Denmark [818]	Postpartum women	1 726	8.6% in past year, 0.6% to solid stool
Nigeria [819]	Gynecology patients	3 963	6.9%, 2.3% to solid stool
United Arab Emirates [820]	Women multips	450	11.3%, 5.5% to solid stool
Canada [821]	Teenage females	228	3.5% flatus, 3% FI
Czech Republic [822]	Gynecology patients	2 212	5.6%, 4.4% in the community
Japan [823]	Cystectomy patients	28	60.7% post ureterosigmoidostomy
Sweden [824]	Prostate cancer	864	RR 1.3-4.5
Australia [825]	Diabetics	8 657	Increased risk
Holland [826]	Women >60 years	719	4.2% to 16.9% with rising age
U.S.A. [827]	>65 years at home	328	3.7% (M >F)
Japan [828]	>65 years at home	1 405	6.6-8.7% (by age).
U.S.A. [829]	>50 years	1 440	11.1 – 15.2% (F > M)
U.K. [830]	>65 years at home	2 818	3%
Holland [831]	>60 years	3 345	6%, (M = F)
Czech Republic [832]	Nursing homes	1 162	54.4%
U.S.A. [833]	Nursing homes	18 170	47% FI
Canada [834]	Nursing homes	447	46% FI, 44% both UI and FI
France [835]	>18 years	713	30% response rate. 11% gas, 0.4% feces, Women>men.
U.S.A. [836]	Women >20 years	2 800	53% response rate. Median age onset 55 years.
France [837]	Women >50 years	2 640	85% response rate. 9.5% FI, but includes leakage.
USA [838]	Women >25 years	4 10	337% response rate. 25% AI. Obesity.

1. ADULTS

In an effort to resolve the widely varying reported prevalence figures (**Table 21**) two systematic reviews of the published frequencies have been reported of community dwelling adults (above age 15 in the second). A summary frequency was not calculated in the first because of the marked clinical heterogeneity between reports. The three reports that the authors judged most free of potential biases had frequencies between 11% and 15%, although only one of these three used a validated assessment instrument [791]. The degree of disability present in these 11%-15% is not known, nor even if a portion of them had only anal seepage. These high prevalences were obtained in surveys that employed anonymous self-administered questionnaires, which may not allow objective confirmation of AI or assessment of degree of disability associated with AI. The second systematic review found a range of solid and liquid anal incontinence of 0-15.2%, with an average across both genders and all age groups of 4.3% [462]. The prevalence in a more recent and rigorous study is discussed above under Ascertainment [790].

2. CHILDREN

The reported prevalence of AI in children can be broadly divided into two facets: in those children born with congenital anomalies of the anus and rectum – either congenital aganglionosis (Hirschsprung’s Disease) or imperforate anus – and those children without congenital anomalies. Among those children

and adults who were born with defects, despite surgical correction of the defect, life long defaecation difficulties are common, occurring in roughly half of affected children [792-794]. Problems with psychological health and development because of the defaecation disorder is also common in this group, as is a generally depressed quality of life [795]. These disorders are not horribly rare, occurring in 3 to 5 per 10,000 live births [796].

Among children without congenital defects of the anal canal, bowel control has been found to be complete in one Swiss cohort in 33% by age 1 year, 75% by age two and 97% by age three. Nevertheless in this longitudinal study, a quarter of the boys and one tenth of the girls had a major period of incomplete bowel or bladder control between the ages of 6 and 18. At least annual encopresis occurred in 2-3% of these children, boys more frequently than girls [797]. In the Wisconsin Family Health Survey the prevalence of AI in children from the ages of 5 and 16 years was 12/1367 (0.88%) with the gender distribution being 7 boys and 5 girls (Wisconsin Family Health Survey: unpublished data). The common disorder for all children and then adults in this discussion is faecal retention with overflow.

III. INCIDENCE

Clinical trials have provided incidence data after a therapeutic intervention, but usually without a preliminary continence assessment. This is best seen in two Cochrane reviews of therapy for anal fissure

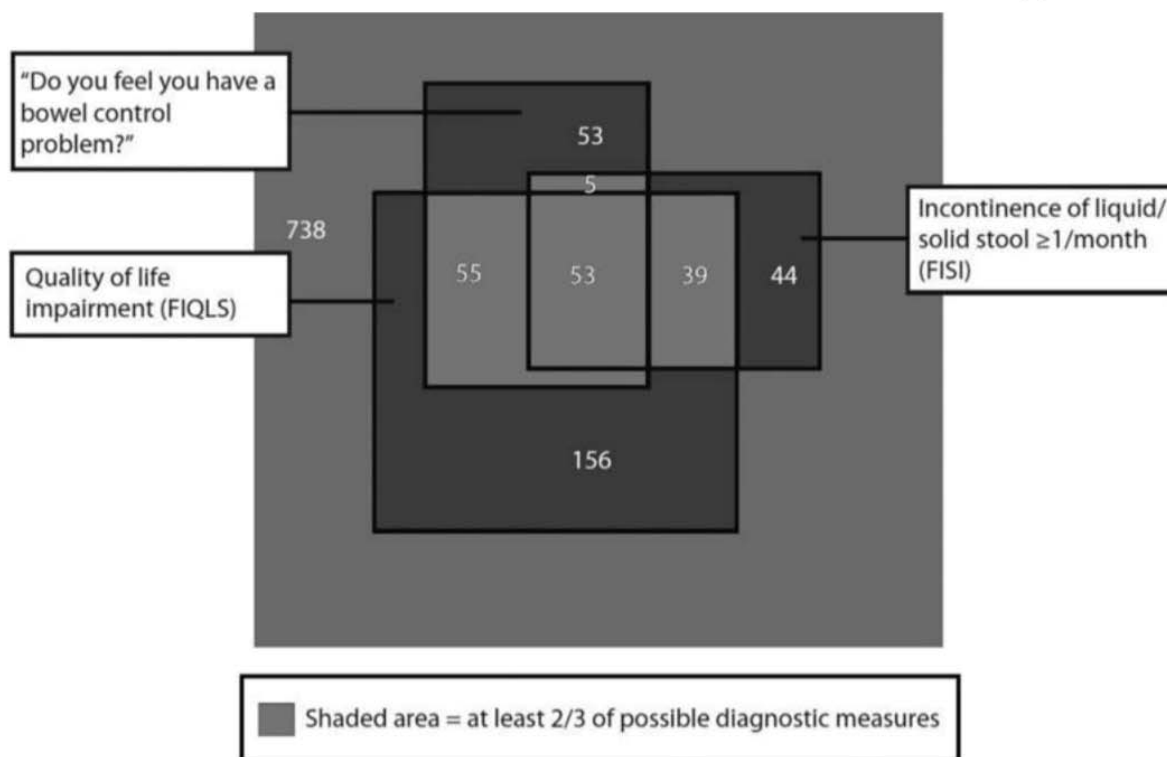


Figure 11. Co-occurrence of fecal incontinence in each of 3 diagnostic measures. FISI = Fecal Incontinence Severity Index; FIQLS = Fecal Incontinence Quality of Life Scale

[798-799]. AI incidence rates varied widely from 0% to 30%, to flatus only, and the duration was unspecified in the trials. Medical therapy was less likely than surgery to cause AI (0.23, 0.02-2.1), and certain operations (anal stretch) were more likely to cause AI than others (sphincterotomy) (4.2, 1.9-9.4). None of these trials reported rigorous ascertainment of continence before the onset of disease or therapy.

IV. RISK FACTORS

1. AGE

Two systematic reviews have analyses of the association of age and anal incontinence and found age to be the most significant of all assessed associations [800-801].

2. GENDER

Most discussions of the aetiology of AI have been based upon the assumption that women, particularly for individuals under the age of 65 years, are far more at risk for AI than men. Injury to the pudendal nerve or sphincter muscle from prior obstetric trauma is described as the primary risk factor [802-804], followed by irritable bowel syndrome (a disease thought to be more prevalent in women) [805], and other aetiologies such as diabetes a distant third [806]. Yet each population based-survey of the prevalence of AI has shown a surprisingly high prevalence in males (**Table 21**) [788-789, 807-838].

Of the two systematic reviews that looked specifically at prevalence, only one assessed the role gender played and in that review gender was not associated with incontinence in any age group [800]. In the search for this updated review, 26 publications assessed prevalence of AI, two in both genders and 24 only in women. Clearly, aetiologies other than childbirth must be sought. This represents a rather gross imbalance in research on this topic.

3. OBESITY

Four reports have demonstrated an increased risk of AI in obese women, a Kaiser cohort, a cross sectional survey in a specialty clinic and two case control studies [839-842]. One longitudinal study found a reduction in anal leakage (again not necessarily a direct correlate with incontinence) in women after bariatric surgery and weight loss, though other factors including diet and activity change may have been responsible for the improvement [843].

4. CHILDBIRTH AND MODE OF DELIVERY

A meta-analysis of published reports that assessed anal sphincter integrity after vaginal delivery and correlated this with continence stated that 77%-83% (depending on parity) of anal incontinence in parous women was due to sphincter disruption [844].

Another systematic review that looked only at post partum factors in prospective cohorts found that the only predictor of AI was 3rd-4th degree sphincter rupture during birth [845]. Three things are implied by the conclusion or the first review: first, that incontinence in men, children, of elderly onset (or even in middle aged women) and in nulliparous

women, or women having Caesarean section has a completely different cause than in women who have ever delivered vaginally. There is scant epidemiological evidence that this is the case [846]. Second, it is implied that sphincter repair would be effective

treatment for anal incontinence in almost all parous women. Yet repair of disrupted sphincter has less than a perfect track record. Even more importantly, there is a reported rapid decay in function after repair that is far too great to be explained by age alone [847-854]. Third, if direct trauma to the anal sphincter (and not intra-pelvic nerves) were the major cause of anal incontinence, then Caesarean section should be effective in preventing incontinence. However a systematic review has shown that this is not the case [801] (**Figure 12**). Twenty-one reports have been found eligible for inclusion in the review, encompassing 31,198 women having had 6,028 Caesarean deliveries and 25,170 vaginal births as index events prior to anal continence assessment. Only one of these reports demonstrated a significant benefit of Caesarean section in the preservation of anal continence. In that report AI rates exceeded 39% in both groups, suggesting a problem with ascertainment. The greater the quality of the report, the closer its Odds ratio approached 1.0. Among the seven reports that passed all quality criteria (age adjustment, parity adjustment, no previous vaginal delivery in the Caesarean section group, continence assessment more than 4 months post partum) the odds ratio for faecal incontinence was 0.98 (0.79-1.21. **Figure 12**). In reports that allowed comparison of vaginal delivery with elective Caesarean section there was also no significant difference in AI risk (OR=0.73; 0.52-1.03. **Figure 13**) There was no difference incontinence preservation in women have emergency versus elective Caesarean section (OR= 1.09; 0.89-1.34. **Figure 14**). Among the seven best studies, the NNT is 339, i.e. 339 Caesarean sections would have to be performed to prevent a single case of faecal incontinence. Pregnancy with delivery of any kind was found to be only a marginal risk factor for faecal incontinence (OR= 0.86; 0.73-1.01. **Figure 15**) though there is significant statistical heterogeneity in this analysis ($p=0.05$, $I^2=62\%$). In another publication increasing parity as an isolated risk factor does increase risk of AI [838].

But why doesn't Caesarean section prevent anal incontinence, especially when associating perineal trauma with loss of bowel control is not just intuitive, but sometimes visibly obvious? Certain aspects of vaginal delivery are clearly causally related to anal

incontinence: significant laceration, forceps, and some episiotomies [855-856]. However this review demonstrates that other factors need to be explored. So one must look to pregnancy and not just labour and delivery as an initiating factor. Further evidence in favour of this comes from the sphincter repair literature cited above. The rapid decay in function suggests that another defect is present besides a gap in the sphincter that remains after the early effects of sphincter repair wear off. What this is, is not yet known, doesn't make sense although trauma at the pelvic inlet during pregnancy or in early labour [857] seems likely. Sphincter dysfunction has been demonstrated in women who have had Caesarean section [858]. Further indirect evidence for the possibility that injury higher in the pelvis may be related to AI in pregnant women can be found in the association between hysterectomy and AI, an association seen more prominently with abdominal hysterectomy (TAH) than vaginal hysterectomy (VH), and for flatus only [859] (Odds Ratio of TAH vs. VH for faeces: 1.2, 0.3-4.7, Odds Ratio for gas: 18.9, 1.1-327). Pelvic nerve injury during surgery is the postulated reason for this difference.

5. NURSING HOME RESIDENCE

The most prominent association with AI by far is nursing home residence. Whereas the prevalence of AI is probably around 2% to 5% for community-dwelling persons, and may rise with increasing age to greater than 10%, among nursing home residents the prevalence approaches 50% [832-834]. This is partly explained by FI being one of the most common reasons for nursing home admission. In a large survey of 18,000 Wisconsin nursing home residents, risk factors for faecal incontinence (FI)

were directly observed by nursing home personnel [833]. Urinary incontinence (UI) was the greatest association with FI (OR = 12.6, 11.5-13.7), followed by the loss of ability to perform daily living activities (6.0, 4.7-7.7), tube feeding (7.6, 5.6-10.4), physical restraints (3.2, 4.7-7.7), diarrhoea (3.3, 2.7-4.2), dementia (1.5, 1.4-1.7), impaired vision (1.5, 1.4-1.7), constipation (1.4, 1.3- 1.6), faecal impaction (1.5, 1.1-2.1), stroke (1.3, 1.2- 1.5) male gender (1.2, 1.1-1.3), age and body mass index. Inverse associations were noted with heart disease, arthritis and depression.

6. DIARRHOEA

The importance of diarrhoea of liquid stool in FI cannot be overemphasised [842]. One case series noted that 51% of individuals with chronic diarrhoea were incontinent [787]. In the Wisconsin Family Health Survey of AI [789], 10 of the 25 subjects with FI lived in Milwaukee when the city experienced an outbreak of waterborne disease [860]. Non-infectious causes of diarrhoea must also be considered, such as inflammatory bowel disease [861] and those initiated by sports activities such as running [862-863].

7. SURGERY

AI originating from surgery would seem fairly insignificant in the general population, since previous anal surgery has not been an apparent risk factor in the larger surveys. Several operations nonetheless can frequently result in AI. Examples are midline internal sphincterotomy, lateral internal sphincterotomy, fistulectomy, fistulotomy, ileo-anal reservoir reconstruction, low anterior rectal resection, total abdominal colectomy, and

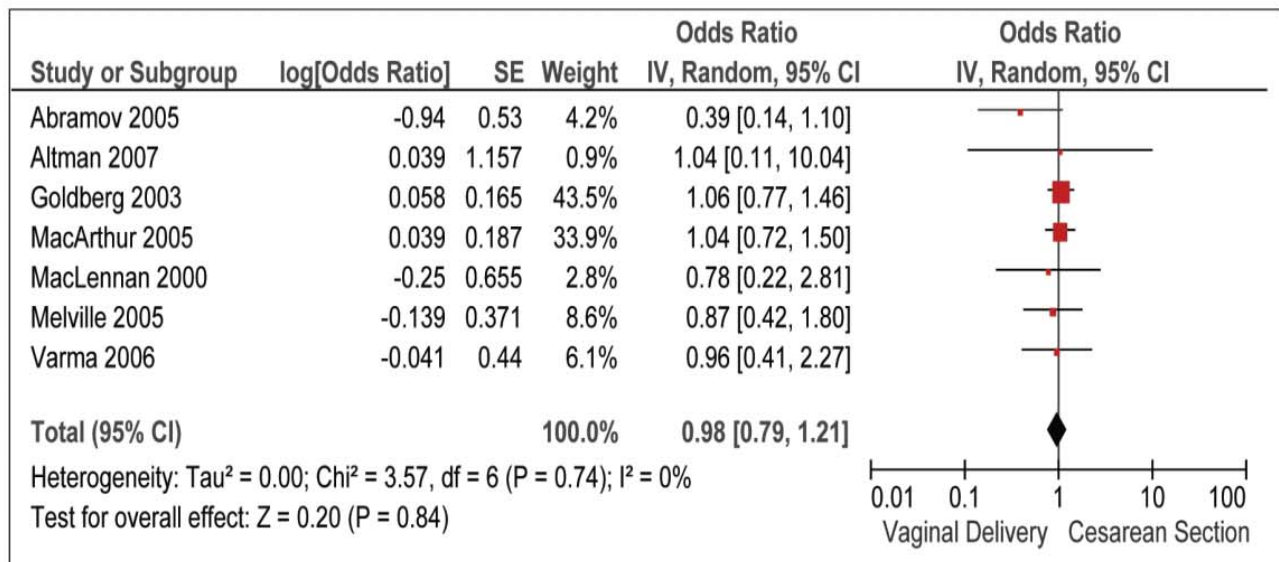


Figure 12. Systematic review of Efficacy of Cesarean Section in Preventing Faecal Incontinence: 7 Studies fulfilling all quality criteria

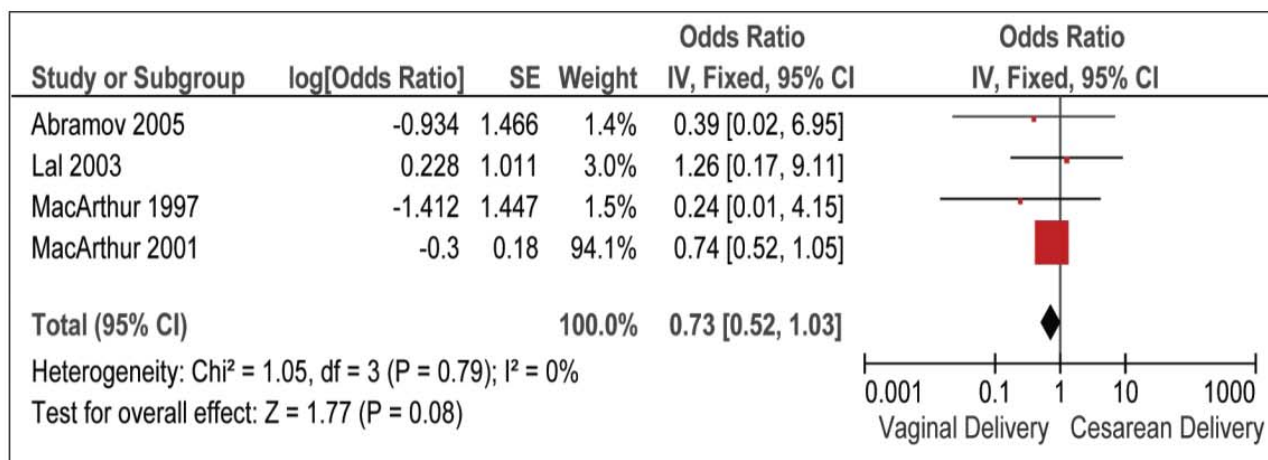


Figure 13. Systematic review of Efficacy of Cesarean Section in Preventing Faecal Incontinence: Vaginal Delivery versus Elective Cesarean Section

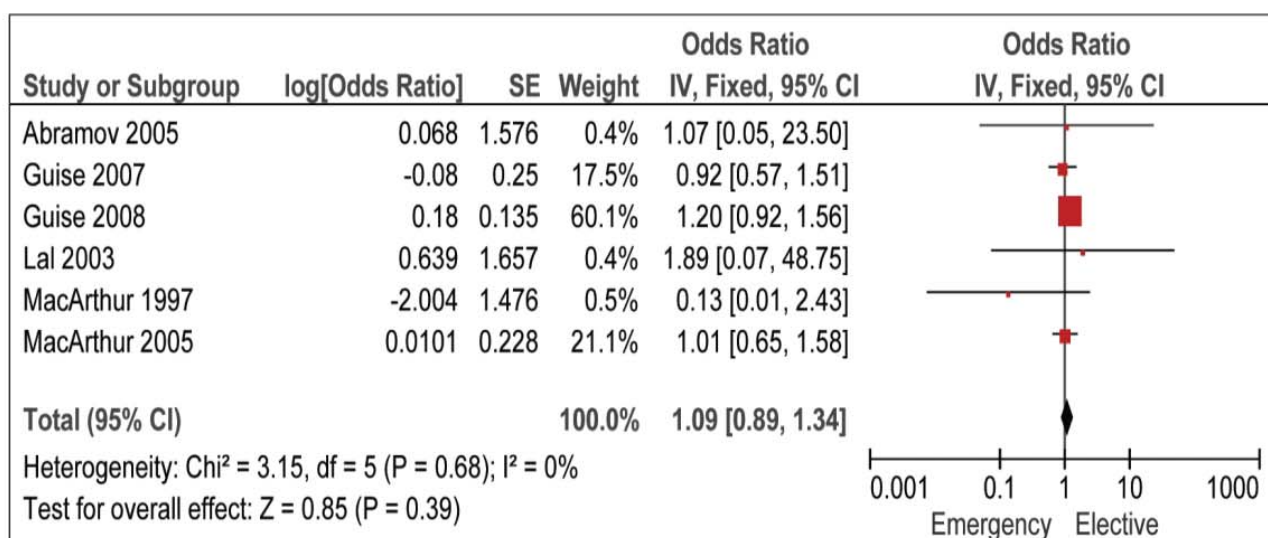


Figure 14. Systematic review of Efficacy of Cesarean Section in Preventing Faecal Incontinence: Elective vs. Emergency Cesarean Section

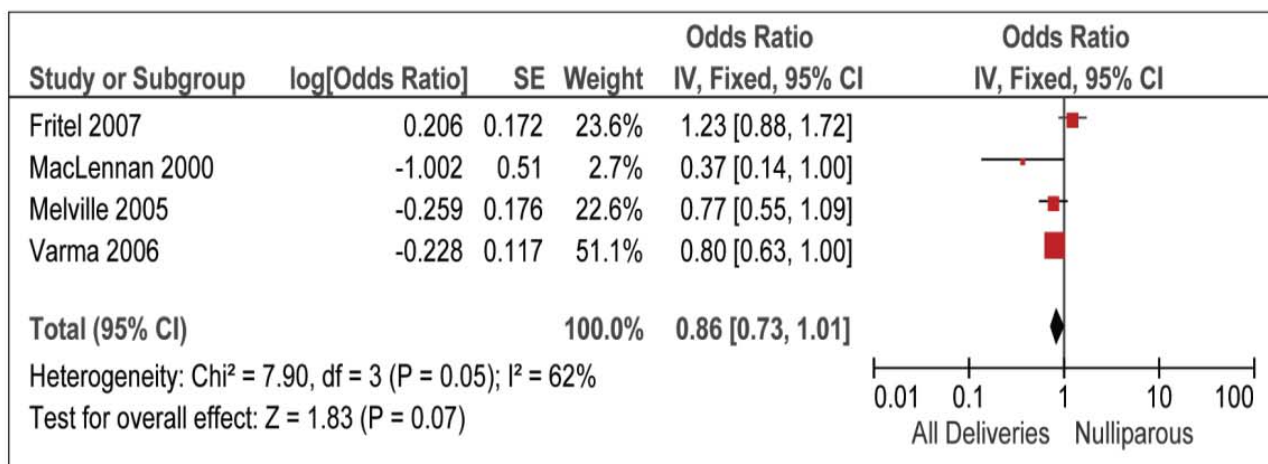


Figure 15. Systematic review of Efficacy of Cesarean Section in Preventing Faecal Incontinence: Nulliparous women versus Any Form of Delivery

ureterosigmoidostomy. The risk of lateral internal sphincterotomy for anal fissure causing AI was previously thought to be insignificant when compared to midline sphincterotomy, but a recent reappraisal of this operation has shown an AI risk may be 8% [864]. The risk of AI after fistulotomy has been reported to be as high as 18% to 52% [865]. New approaches to fissure and fistula have recently been developed specifically to lower this risk [865-866]. However incontinence after haemorrhoidectomy has also been reported to be as high as 33%, an operation in which no sphincter is divided [867]. This suggests either that division of the anoderm, not the sphincter may be affecting continence, or that the method of ascertainment used in published surveys is not accurate. Mixing urine and stool has been found to have a predictable effect on anal sphincter control, as does diarrhoea, in patients having uretero-sigmoidostomy after urinary bladder resection [823]. Patients with rectal cancer form a special group in whom cancer issues often mute the continence disturbance that may result from rectal resection [868] or radiotherapy [869].

8. SPECIFIC NEUROLOGICAL AND OTHER DISEASES

Several specific diseases have been anecdotally associated with AI in case series, and mechanisms to explain the associations have been investigated [870]. Examples are diabetes [825], stroke [871-872], multiple sclerosis, Parkinson's disease, systemic sclerosis, myotonic dystrophy, amyloidosis, spinal cord injury, imperforate anus, Hirschsprung's disease, retarded or interrupted toilet training, proclivencia, and any illness causing diarrhoea (HIV, IBD, radiation, infection). Many of these conditions directly affect patient mobility and ability to perform daily living activities or they cause diarrhoea or faecal impaction.

9. CONSTIPATION

Constipation may alternate with diarrhoea in irritable bowel syndrome making defaecation chaotic and often very urgent. Just as often retained faeces lead to anal seepage that cannot be held. In the New Zealand survey [790], the 2 of 3 rule for categorising an individual as incontinent excluded constipated patients, which was also assessed in their survey, the positive rate fell from 13.2% to just over 9%. This further demonstrates the frequent co-existence of constipation and AI, similar to the frequent coexistence of urinary incontinence and AI.

10. COHORTS INITIATED BEFORE CLINICAL AI ASSESSED FOR SUBSEQUENT DEVELOPMENT OF AI

Because of a paucity of clinical trials that specifically address risk factors and prevention of AI,

the strongest available data to identify risk come from cohorts that collected data on potential risk factors prior to the onset of incontinence. Prospectively collected risk assessments for FI have occurred in three nursing home cohorts. Porell combined UI and FI into a single outcome variable and found many positive associations in a cohort of 60,000 nursing home residents in Massachusetts [873]. Age, African American race, cognitive and ADL impairments, predicted the outcome, although specific relative risks for incidence are not presented. Chassange followed 234 previously non-FI residents in France for 10 months, during which 20% had FI episodes, but only 7.5% developed long lasting FI [874]. The others had acute episodes due to diarrhoea or impaction. The factors associated with the development of long lasting FI were urinary incontinence (UI) (2.9, 1.8-4.6), decreased mobility (1.8, 1.1-3.0), and cognitive defects: either as seen in an MMSE score <15 (2.5, 1.4-4.4) on history of dementia (2.1, 1.2-3.5). Neither gender nor age were risk factors. Nelson reported, in a cohort of 18,000 nursing home residents in Wisconsin, a subgroup of 3,850 continent of both urine and faeces in 1992 who were assessed one year later [875]. 15% developed FI. Positive associations were seen for ADL loss (3.4, 2.4-4.5), trunk restraints (2.5, 1.7-3.6), dementia (1.7, 1.4-2.0), African American race (2.1, 1.3-3.4) and age (1.02, 1.0-1.0). UI was not investigated as a risk factor because it was felt to be a co-morbid condition. In a broadly based cross sectional survey, it was apparent that factors that affect an individual's general health or physical capabilities, independent of age and gender, place that individual at greatest risk for AI [805], though all four are significantly associated with AI [789]. Among obstetric patients age has also been a consistent association, with less consistent associations noted for chronic bronchitis (OR =6.5, 1.1-38), symptoms of pelvic organ prolapse (5.0, 3.0-8.7) and obesity (3.0, 1.0-3.4) [876]. Defaecatory dysfunction has also been assessed in antenatal women [877-879], found to be prevalent which has led to an important preventive strategy for post partum AI described below.

V. PREVENTION

This discussion is by necessity descriptive, so preventive measures are only relevant insofar as they provide insight into the aetiology of incontinence. By far the most frequently applied preventive measure is Caesarean delivery, discussed above. Its lack of effectiveness in preventing anal incontinence provides a valuable insight into the relationship between pregnancy and AI – that the focus may need to be more on the pregnancy rather than the delivery and how it

affects defaecation afterwards. A decision analysis study suggests specific obstetric indication for elective C. section that may be cost effective [880]. Another study related to birth trauma randomised mothers to immediate post-partum anal ultrasound with repair of occult defects in the sphincter and continence assessed in follow-up, demonstrating an improved outcome with this intervention [881]. Antenatal intervention with pelvic floor exercises has been assessed in a number of randomised trials [882-883] for the purpose of diminishing post partum AI. One Cochrane review found this strategy effective [882]. Sixteen studies were included in the analysis in which 6,181 women participated. Those without prior urinary incontinence were randomised to either pelvic floor training or standard care. At 12 months postpartum the intervention group were half as likely to have AI (RR= 0.52; 0.31-0.87). A subsequent report has not shown this benefit, and has yet to be included in the Cochrane review [883].

The AHRQ recently published a monograph on the prevention of incontinence, although the strategies listed for AI were therapies for existing AI, such as pelvic floor exercises and retraining, rather than established mechanisms for prevention [884].

VI. SUMMARY POINTS

- Anal and urinary incontinence commonly coexist, particularly in the elderly and in nursing home residents (LE 1).
- The prevalence of anal incontinence increases with age, but is present in all age groups and both genders varying from 1.5% in children to more than 50% in nursing home residents (LE1).
- AI is almost as common in men as in women (LE 2).
- Mode of delivery does not seem to be a significant factor in the development of obstetric anal incontinence, i.e., AI develops after Caesarean delivery as often as after vaginal delivery (LE 2).
- Obesity is perhaps the most modifiable risk factor for AI (LE 2). Intrapartum pelvic floor education can decrease the risk of subsequent development of post partum AI (LE 1).
- As populations age, co-morbid disease becomes a significant component of faecal incontinence risk. Surgery, neurological diseases, and stroke are examples.
- Cognitive and ADL impairment are associated with faecal incontinence.
- More population based prevalence surveys have been published.

- More analyses comparing AI after Caesarean section and vaginal delivery have been published.
- Systematic reviews of prevalence, including the role of age and gender, Caesarean delivery and decision analyses for the application of Caesarean delivery in macrosomia have been published, providing needed aggregation of data with quality assessment of existing literature.

VII. FUTURE NEEDS

- Risk factors for AI in each age group are still poorly defined.
- Prevention research, much less policy, are therefore still a great distance away.
- Randomised trials are needed of AI (and UI) in average risk women comparing vaginal delivery and Cesarean section.

J. WHY DO PREVALENCE ESTIMATES DIFFER?

The discussion here relates to UI only, as data and literature for FI and POP are very scarce. However, many of the principal arguments will be relevant to these conditions as well.

I. GENERAL PROBLEMS IN SURVEY RESEARCH

The well documented variation in prevalence estimates is thought to result at least in part from several confounders common to survey and epidemiological research. Herzog and Fultz, [74] in a review of the prevalence and incidence of UI in community-dwelling populations, proposed that past investigations were plagued by sampling and non-response issues, by self selection and attrition, by definitional, conceptual, and measurement issues. It is clear that there are large methodological challenges to rigorous research in this field. In general, the quality of recent large studies has undoubtedly improved, but the scientific community must continue to deal with methodological challenges in order to achieve progress.

II. DIFFERENT DEFINITIONS AND MEASUREMENT

A major problem in research on UI has been the use of different definitions and measurements,

and this might contribute to the wide range of reported prevalence estimates. The former ICS definition of UI – as a condition in which involuntary loss of urine is a social or hygienic problem and is objectively demonstrable - included objective demonstration of urine loss as one critical component. This aspect limited the ICS definition for community based epidemiological investigations, because objective demonstration of UI is difficult to achieve outside of the clinical setting, and studies which were able to include this aspect in their assessment might have produced different prevalences. In addition, a social or hygienic aspect of the definition was problematic in epidemiologic studies because it added a subjective aspect to an objectively defined condition and therefore confounded the investigation of prevalence, incidence, and risk factors. In our previous report we argued for reconsideration of the definition of UI, and we emphasized that the core of the definition should be "any involuntary loss of urine". In accordance with this view, ICS changed its definition in 2003 to UI being "the complaint of any involuntary leakage of urine".[1]

The new definition makes epidemiological research easier. But three consequences should be addressed:

1. Epidemiological studies should not be based on this definition alone, and all studies should include a minimal additional data set, standard confounders, and questions specific to the aim of the study. This is discussed in the Section on Recommendations for further research.
2. The number of persons fulfilling the definition will increase. This should not be interpreted as an increase in the number potential of patients.
3. Public awareness, case finding of health care personnel, and help seeking behaviour may be affected of a new and more extensive definition.

Studies have used different severity levels and time frames for defining UI. A further factor complicating the conceptualisation and measurement of UI in epidemiological studies lies in the nature of the condition. UI is a chronic condition (or set of conditions) that often starts slowly and comes and goes for a considerable time period before it become fully established. If people get used to their UI or notice it less, this can interfere with valid assessment.

Ideally self-report measures are validated by clinical evaluations. However, clinical and even urodynamic investigations should be regarded as other measures, not necessarily as gold standards, because it is known to be difficult to demonstrate all urinary symptoms in the clinical setting.

Holtedahl calculated prevalence estimates using different definitions of UI for the same sample of 50

to 70 year old women. The prevalence of any self-reported leakage was 47%. Self-reported regular UI with or without objective demonstration was found for 31% of women, regular incontinence according to the former full ICS definition for 19%. Another study found prevalences of 69% and 30% for any UI and the former ICS definition, respectively. The results indicate that the former ICS definition was rather restrictive.

Low response rates may further bias prevalence estimates. Known differences between responders and non-responders can be compensated during the analysis. The major problems is unknown differences in response rates and other characteristics. Incontinent women may not answer (or deny UI) because of embarrassment or related handicaps. But incontinent women may also find the subject particularly relevant and therefore respond to a greater extent than continent women. At present, we do not know much about how these factors may affect the comparison between incontinent and continent women.

One paper explored the problem of underreporting incontinence and how it can be altered with the use of an introduction to the incontinence questions and probing. Another paper explored the issue of selection bias in mailed surveys. The first wave had higher prevalence of incontinence than follow-up mailings, and thus individuals with UI tended to respond on the first wave. In an English mailed survey on incontinence and other urinary symptoms, a sample of non-responders were traced, and those eligible were asked questions from the survey. Compared with the responders, the non-responders overall showed little differences in reporting of urinary symptoms. However, non-responders >70 tended to be of poorer general health, and they reported certain urinary symptoms more frequently.

III. SUMMARY POINTS:

- The lack of epidemiological data from populations underrepresented in research limits the world wide application of the present information.
- Many investigations are plagued by sampling and non response issues, by self selection and attrition. Many early studies were obtained from sampling patients seeking care.
- A major problem is the use of different definitions of incontinence. The new ICS definition makes epidemiological research easier.
- There are large methodological challenges to research in the field of UI. Unless the scientific community deals with these issues, progress will be difficult to make.

K. HELP SEEKING BEHAVIOUR

I. URINARY INCONTINENCE

A majority of people with UI have not sought help, and this is confirmed also in recent publications. [454-455, 469-470] Reasons given by people for not seeking help include: not regarding incontinence as abnormal or serious, considering incontinence to be a normal part of ageing, having low expectations of treatment and thinking they should cope on their own. Some studies also confirm the notion that embarrassment may be an important reason for not seeking help [332-334] There is an association between help seeking and condition-specific factors like duration, frequency and amount, and people's perceptions of the impact of incontinence, but other more personal characteristics like individual health care behaviour and attitudes may also play a role.

In a Norwegian study 4.4 % of all women >20 years old in a community consulted their general practitioner for UI during a 3 year period. But mentioning the symptoms to a physician may not be enough. There are reports of doctors not responding, either by ignoring the statement of symptoms or by providing a dismissive explanation, and people interpreting a lack of response from the doctor as an indication that no treatment is available. In a study of management of incontinence in general practice, 30% of the women who had told their doctor about their symptoms perceived that they were offered no help. It is probable that many primary health care providers lack confidence in managing UI, and that this contributes to under treatment in those seeking help [338].

Only a small proportion of incontinent community-residing women have had surgery, medication, or exercise regimens. In addition to seeking help from the formal health care system, common responses to symptoms of illness are self-management and self-treatment behaviour. The major method of actively managing UI among community residents is the use of absorbent products.

It is obvious that millions of men and women suffer from their UI, and that for many of them good treatment options are available. However, for many persons with very mild or occasional UI it is probably adequate not to seek help from the health care system. Others are satisfied with just information and understanding about the causes and in many cases self care may be quite appropriate. A Danish study has shown that simple information and advice was adequate "treatment" for 23% of the women attending an open access incontinence clinic. A Swedish study found that among 136 women with UI, 36% wanted clinical evaluation, and only 24% subsequently started treatment.

Both epidemiological and qualitative research in this field should be encouraged in order to understand cultural, religious, and personal factors for help seeking behaviour world wide. Specifically, other than condition-specific factors should be further explored, e.g. persons' health care behaviour, perceptions and attitudes.

II. FAECAL INCONTINENCE AND PELVIC ORGAN PROLAPSE

There are indications of underreporting also of FI and patients' reluctance to report symptoms or to seek treatment.[787-788, 820] It has been shown that women are more willing to report FI than men. For POP we have no information.

III. SUMMARY POINTS:

- Recent publications confirm that a majority of people with FI, UI, and POP have not sought help.
- Only a small proportion of urinary incontinent community-residing people have had surgery, medication, or exercise regimens.
- Increasing severity, increasing duration, and urgency/mixed type of UI are related to consulting a health care provider.
- Associations other than condition-specific factors should be further explored in future research, e.g. persons' health care behaviour, perceptions and attitudes.
- Health care personnel should be encouraged to approach those at risk for FI, UI and POP. People with such symptoms should be assessed so services and treatment can be offered and targeted. The patient's view of management, even denial, should be respected.

L. EPIDEMIOLOGY AND CLINICAL WORK: FROM RESPONDENT TO PATIENT

We have emphasised some major and important differences between epidemiology and clinical work. These differences may have several implications. A selection process is most often accomplished first by self-selection (help seeking), then a referral system, which provides specialist physicians to a patient population with higher prevalence of disease, more severe disease, and often skewed type distribution, thus obtaining

test results with fewer false positives, better diagnostic accuracy, and more efficient use of resources. However, such intended and purposeful selection bias has its drawbacks. There is growing evidence that this selection process introduces bias into research and hampers our ability to generalise hospital based research back to general or primary care populations. Furthermore, it may result in recommendations and guidelines for diagnosis or therapy derived from tertiary care centres that are inappropriate at the primary care level. Often guidelines, review articles or teaching material do not take into account the varying prevalence and variation in clinical picture between community and hospital. They may also emphasise use of tests or equipment that are not appropriate or relevant for primary health care, thus leading to over utilisation of referrals. Data from hospitals or specialist level may also overestimate level of burden, costs and number of persons in need of treatment if such data are used for extrapolation back to community level. Therefore it is important that this Consultation uses different algorithms for initial and specialised care (see other relevant chapters).

One study provides substantial empirical evidence to support the existence of selection bias for UI. The analyses were based on three populations of incontinent women: Community level (epidemiological survey), primary care level (prospective study), and secondary care level (university hospital, prospective study). The general practice patients were older and the hospital patients younger than those in the community. From community via general practice to hospital, there was an increase in duration, frequency of leakage, amount of leakage, severity and perceived impact of incontinence. Help-seeking at the primary care level was associated with increasing age and severity, and with urgency symptoms and impact. Referral from general practice to hospital was only associated with (lower) age and urgency symptoms.

Under the subtitle Severity and impact we have given examples of how the prevalence estimates for women change dramatically when bothersomeness and severity are considered. Taken together with selection bias, this emphasises caution when epidemiological data are used in a clinical context. It concerns "level of care" in several ways; there is a large transitional zone from healthy to diseased, there is a danger of medicalisation, and there is a danger of treating patients at a higher level than necessary. Risk factors, predictors and correlates discovered in epidemiological studies are probabilistic of nature and may not be decisive in the clinical assessment of an individual patient. In addition, the attributable risk due to some known risk factors may be statistically but not clinically significant.

I. WORLDWIDE ESTIMATES OF CURRENT AND FUTURE INDIVIDUALS (≥20 YEARS) WITH LOWER URINARY TRACT SYMPTOMS INCLUDING URINARY INCONTINENCE AND OVER-ACTIVE BLADDER

In order to effectively plan health care resources it is necessary to estimate the prevalence and incidence of illnesses to know to what extent resources require to be allocated to a specific illness health care condition. This chapter has dealt with three major global problems, urinary and faecal incontinence as well as pelvic organ prolapse, that affect women and men throughout the world. Irwin and coworkers [885] have published data estimating the current and future worldwide prevalence of lower urinary tract symptoms.

The objective of the study was to estimate the current and future number of people with LUTS, including overactive bladder (OAB) and Urinary Incontinence (UI) utilising the current ICS definitions. Age- and gender-specific prevalence rates from the EPIC study[455] were applied to the worldwide over 20 year old population (4.2 billion) with males and females stratified into five-year age groups (20-24 to 80+). Projected population estimates for all worldwide regions were based on the United States Census Bureau International Database (IDB).

Estimates were presented for 2008, 2013 and 2018 and are summarised in **Tables 22 and 23**. **Table 22** summarises the estimated number of individuals with certain LUTS symptoms by year and sex in the world population and **Table 23** describes the estimated number of individuals of LUTS and OAB over 10 years across the world regions.

Estimates and projections featured in this analysis were based on prevalence rates of LUTS described in the EPIC study – based primarily on a European population. The prevalence rates featured in the EPIC study are similar to other prevalence rates of LUTS that were found in others studies across other countries [452,461]

The projections in this report assume the prevalence rates of LUTS will remain throughout the year 2018 for all age and sex groups

Prevalence of LUTS will also increase as other factors related to LUTS, such as obesity, increases (**Figures 16 & 17**). The estimated number for present and future years are not true numbers but are based on a projected population configured by the International Database (IDB). The IDB's estimates and projections are drawn by Census Bureau demographers and are based on reviewed censuses, surveys, and vital statistics provided by

Table 22. Estimated Number of Individuals with Certain LUTS By Year & Sex- World Population (In Millions)

LUTS Symptoms	Male 2008	Male 2013	Male 2018	Female 2008	Female 2013	Female 2018
Incontinence						
Any Incontinence	98	109	120	250	275	301
UUI	22	25	27	27	30	33
MUI	11	12	14	43	47	52
SUI	10	12	13	127	140	153
Other1	55	61	66	53	58	64
Storage						
Any Storage Symptom (Noct \geq 1)	1,050	1,151	1,250	1,249	1,363	1,474
Any Storage Symptom (Noct \geq 2)	597	655	713	760	831	901
Noct \geq 1	942	1,035	1,127	1,098	1,200	1,301
Noct \geq 2	388	427	467	464	509	555
Urgency	205	226	247	249	273	297
Frequency	127	139	152	161	174	186
Voiding Symptoms						
Voiding Symptoms	515	563	610	402	511	473
Intermittency	164	181	198	148	176	175
Slow Stream	156	173	193	122	161	146
Straining	132	145	157	83	120	98
Term Dribble	289	315	340	210	276	245
Post Micturition Symptoms						
Post Mic3 Symptoms	332	365	396	297	350	348
Incomplete Emptying	263	288	314	257	290	302
Other Post Mic Incontinence	108	118	129	64	96	76
Any LUTS (Noct\geq1)						
Any LUTS (Noct \geq 1)	1,260	1,377	1,490	1,379	1,460	1,623
Storage + Voiding Symptoms (Noct \geq 1)	350	386	422	309	373	367
Storage + Post Mic Symptoms (Noct \geq 1)	247	273	299	238	274	282
Voiding + Post Mic Symptoms (Noct \geq 1)	205	226	247	158	205	187
Storage + Voiding + Post Mic Symptoms (Noct \geq 1)	166	183	202	137	173	163
Any LUTS (Noct\geq2)						
Any LUTS (Noct \geq 2)	933	1,020	1,104	994	1,068	1,170
Storage + Voiding Symptoms (Noct \geq 2)	247	273	299	237	275	283
Storage + Post Mic Symptoms (Noct \geq 2)	188	207	227	190	214	226
Voiding + Post Mic Symptoms (Noct \geq 2)	205	226	247	158	205	187
Storage + Voiding + Post Mic Symptoms (Noct \geq 2)	130	144	158	119	142	142

Table 23. Estimated Worldwide Number of Individuals with LUTS including OAB and Incontinence by Region (In Millions)

Region	Estimated Number of individuals with any LUTS			Estimated Number of Individuals with OAB			Estimated Number of Individuals with Incontinence		
	2008	2013	2018	2008	2013	2018	2008	2013	2018
World	1,930	2,106	2,277	455	500	545	346	383	420
Africa	203	231	263	46	53	60	33	38	43
North America	167	180	193	40	44	48	32	34	37
South America	111	122	133	26	29	32	20	22	24
Asia	1,166	1,284	1,396	272	302	332	206	231	256
Europe	273	278	280	68	70	71	54	56	57

Table 24. Summary of major findings

<p>46% of the 4.2 billion of the adult world population (\geq 20 and over) experience any LUTS</p> <p>455 million individuals or 11% of the world population estimated to experience OAB symptoms</p> <p>346 million individuals or 8% of the world population estimated to experience some type of UI</p> <p>SUI is the most common type of incontinence in 2008 and 2018 (Figure 1)</p> <p>136 (3%) and 164 (4%) million individuals are estimated to experience SUI in 2008 and in 2018 respectively</p> <p>49 (1%) and 60 (1%) million individuals are estimated to experience UUI in 2008 and in 2018 respectively</p> <p>53(1%) and 65 (1%) million individuals are estimated to experience MUI in 2008 and in 2018 respectively</p> <p>108 (3%) and 131 (3%) million individuals are estimated to experience Other Incontinence in 2008 and in 2018 respectively</p> <p>Assuming LUTS prevalence rates remain stable for the next ten years, 2.3 billion individuals are estimated to experience LUTS by the year 2018</p> <p>An increase of 18% from 2008</p> <p>Storage symptoms has the highest burden in both the male and female population than other LUTS (Figure 2)</p> <p>Male: estimated 597 million in 2008, 713 million in 2018</p> <p>Female: estimated 760 million in 2008, 901 million in 2018</p> <p>Asia region is estimated to carry the highest burden of LUTS. Estimated 1.2 billion individuals in Asia regions may experience any LUTS</p>
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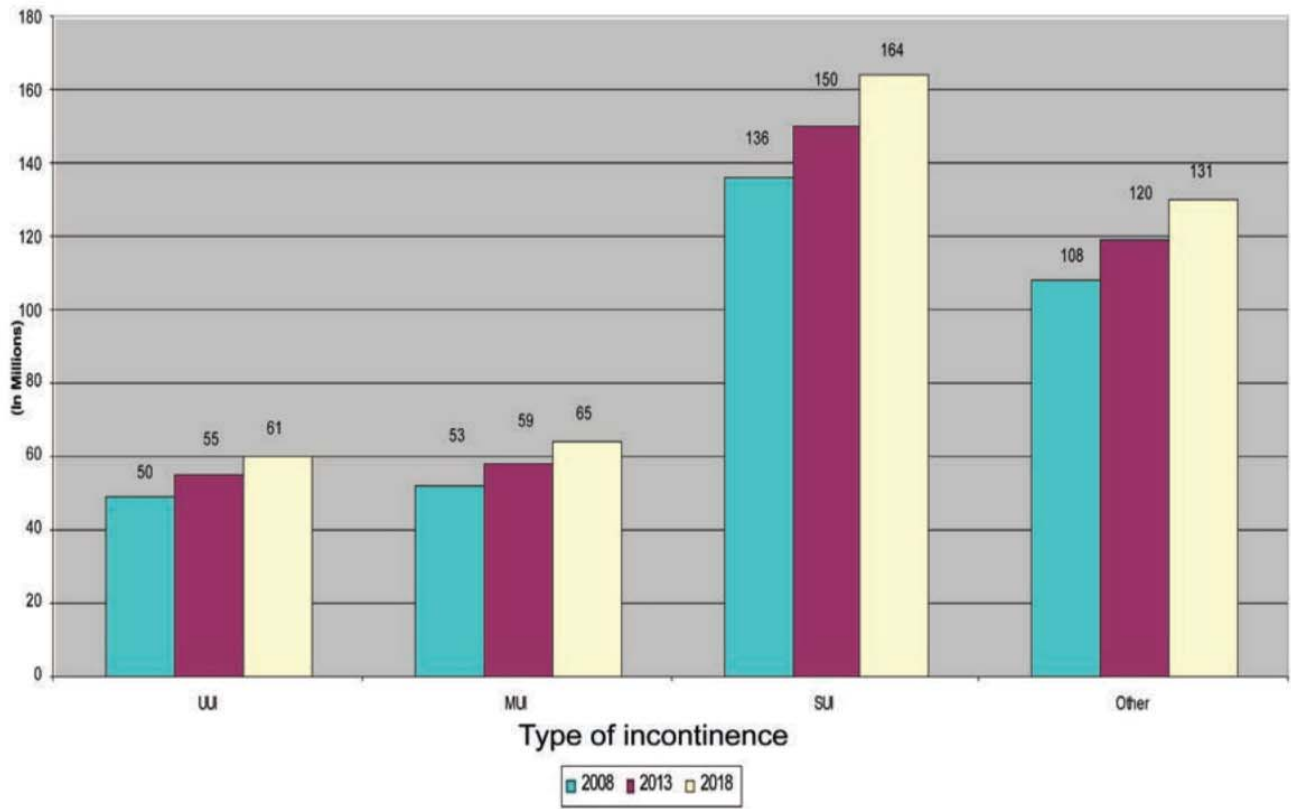


figure 16. Estimated number of individuals with UI 2008, 2013 and 2018 grouped according to type of incontinence

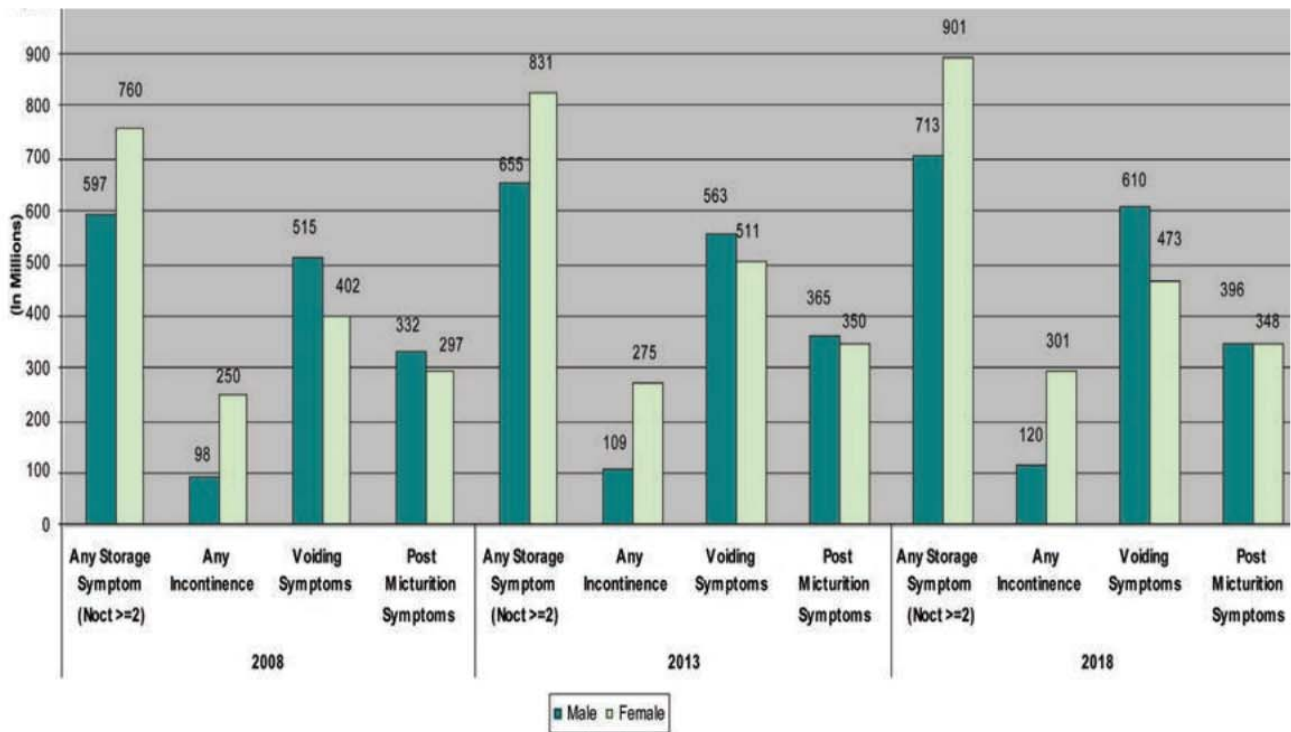


figure 17. Estimated number of individuals with LUTS 2008, 2013 and 2018 grouped according to gender.

National Statistics Offices⁹. Data on international migration and refugee movements, public health efforts, socio-political circumstances, and historical events such as natural disasters and conflict are all considered when the IDB calculates the estimates and projections.

It is anticipated that with the overall aging of the population the prevalence of LUTS will also increase.

It has been shown that LUTS are burdensome to individuals [397,539] and the likely increase in the number of individuals experiencing LUTS has implications on healthcare resources and overall health burden. This analysis is an estimate of the number of individuals with LUTS based on a conservative prevalence rate, and so the future number of those with certain LUTS may surpass those of this report.

II. SUMMARY POINTS

- The spectrum of severity of anal and urinary incontinence, as well as pelvic organ prolapse, and the symptom profile of patients referred to specialist centres do not necessarily reflect the spectrum of disease seen in the community.
- The selection and referral process may introduce bias into research and hamper the ability to generalise hospital-based research back to primary care populations.
- One should be very careful with calculating numbers of patients in need of therapy based on epidemiological data.

M. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Much biomedical research is observational and the reporting of such research is often inadequate which hampers the assessment of its strengths and weaknesses and of a study's generalisability. The STROBE (Strengthening of the Reporting of OBServational studies in Epidemiology) statement was introduced [661]. It is a checklist of items that should be addressed in articles reporting on the three main study designs of analytical epidemiology: cohort, case-control, and cross sectional studies. The use of this checklist is highly recommended.

I. URINARY INCONTINENCE

It is recommended that more sustained research on measurement of UI should be performed in-

cluding, its types and severity to move the research ahead. Longitudinal study designs are needed to estimate incidence of UI and describe the course of the condition and its different forms and to investigate its risk factors and possible protective factors.

There is still little knowledge with regard to prevalence, incidence, and other epidemiological data in developing countries. It is recommended that fundamental research regarding prevalence, incidence and other epidemiological data in developing countries should be encouraged, and tailored to the cultural, economic and social environment of the population under study.

Crude prevalence studies (descriptive epidemiology) from USA and Europe are abundant, and further studies should be done only with recommended and validated questionnaires or in order to combine data from the prevalence study with studies of co-factors and predictors (analytical epidemiology). Control for confounders, stratification, and multivariate techniques should be increasingly used because of the need for more advanced epidemiological analyses of risk factors and comorbidity. Strength of associations should be determined by relative risks and odds ratios, and confidence limits should be given. We still have very little knowledge of the absolute and relative importance of several risk factors, and almost no information about the attributable risk of the factors in the society.

Some potential risk and protective factors deserve more attention. For example, the role of pregnancy and childbirth in the development of UI must be studied in a fashion that links population-based methods to clinical assessment of pregnancy, delivery and the birth trauma and follows women over many years. Such a design is necessary because the effect of pregnancy and childbirth may become clear only years later when the woman is older and because the woman will not be able to report the exact nature of the tear or episiotomy, etc. There should be more emphasis on the associations between UI and specific diseases like stroke, diabetes, psychiatric disease and genital prolapse. Genetic components should be investigated.

Primary prevention is the main goal in the management of human disease. An important strategy would thus be to identify the individuals at risk, and then take measures to reduce the risk among those individuals or in certain risk groups. Based on current knowledge there are no well documented efforts that can be done in order to avoid the occurrence of UI in large populations. Primary prevention studies should be encouraged, but the epidemiological basis for choosing appropriate interventions is weak.

In surveys based on questionnaires or interviews symptoms can be registered. There are convincing data suggesting that the different types may reflect quite different pathologies and risk factors. Differentiating the types in future research might therefore prove very fruitful. Methodological work has still to be done in this area, but typical type descriptions should be included in new studies. Likewise, studies of risk factors should include important and known confounders such as age, parity, and weight.

Variations in definitions and measurement issues are fundamental and lead to problems with assessing the findings in epidemiological studies. We need to improve epidemiological studies by including variables that better characterise UI, so that more advanced and informative analyses may be conducted. It is therefore recommended that all epidemiological studies include a minimum data set (**Table 25**), including elements of screening question, frequency measure, quantity of urine loss, duration, type, and severity. In addition, it is recommended that validated measures of bother/quality of life and urinary symptoms other than UI should be included. We here also refer to the

chapter from the committee on symptom and quality of life assessment.

In addition, it is recommended that validated measures of bother/quality of life and urinary symptoms other than UI should be included.

II. FAECAL INCONTINENCE AND PELVIC ORGAN PROLAPSE

In these areas there is a need for more epidemiological research in all areas; prevalence, incidence, and risk factors. Many of the fundamental methodological issues relevant to UI discussed above are highly relevant to the fields of FI and POP.

The committee emphasises that uniform definitions of FI and POP should be used in studies, and there should be a move towards a standardisation of measurement instruments in community surveys that can be used worldwide. Developing definitions is a scientific process requiring careful conceptualisation of the condition in light of its many clinical presentations and underlying mechanisms. This will require a multi-method approach and consideration of issues such as a reliability and validity.

Table 25. Elements in a minimum data set recommended for all epidemiological studies

-
- Screening question for any involuntary urine loss.
 - Frequency measure. For example, classification into categories of none, less than once a month, one/several times a month, one/several times a week, every day/nigh, all the time.
 - Quantity of urine loss for a typical episode. For example, classification into categories of none, drops, small amounts, moderate amounts, much/a great deal.
 - Duration. For example months, years.
 - Type. Based on typical description; stress, urge, mixed and other.
 - Severity. Either by combining existing questions or by a validated index.
-

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Committee 4

Pathophysiology of Urinary Incontinence, Faecal Incontinence and Pelvic Organ Prolapse

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Pathophysiology of Urinary Incontinence, Faecal Incontinence and Pelvic Organ Prolapse

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PREFACE

For this 5th International Consultation on Incontinence, the Committee on Pathophysiology has considered the causes of pelvic organ prolapse and urinary and faecal incontinence. Knowledge has increased in the recent years about childbirth and pregnancy, leading to urinary and faecal incontinence.

Special problems of the elderly have also been included for this ICI. We have also been asked to consider pathophysiological mechanisms underlying pelvic organ prolapse. These three areas (urinary incontinence, pelvic organ prolapse and faecal incontinence) are closely interconnected by virtue of similar location within the body. In the case of women, childbirth and pregnancy may contribute to one or all of these conditions. Yet there are also neurological factors, and gender specific factors which must be considered in the evaluation of any given patient. Thus, we have tried to provide a balanced overview of the subject, keeping in mind both the common and the distinct qualities of the various conditions, while organising them in a logical, narrative manner that make any one section of the chapter easy to read.

In the area of women's stress incontinence, intrinsic urethral function continues to receive increased attention. As newer pharmacological agents to provide neural stimulation of the striated sphincter appear, and the limits of vaginal suspensory operations for correction of urethral dysfunction are reported, considerations of pathophysiology have shifted from the 50 year old paradigm regarding urethral mobility associated with vaginal prolapse in the genesis of incontinence. However, these newer directions should be considered against the background of half a century of observation and practical clinical experience. We therefore continue to recommend a balanced approach.

In the area of men's incontinence, the greatest concern remains the problem of sphincter injury

following radical pelvic surgery and brachytherapy. While many thousands of procedures are performed annually, our knowledge about sphincter anatomy and function has progressed little. Instead, empirical methods of treatment and hopefully prevention have been advanced to treat affected individuals, and insofar as prosthetic implants remain an effective method of treatment, enthusiasm for further basic research into male sphincter function remains limited. In contrast to this kind of sphincter injury, the causes of incontinence associated with bladder outlet obstruction and prostatic enlargement have been well characterised, and little new knowledge has appeared in recent years.

A. THE OVERACTIVE BLADDER

I. INTRODUCTION

The International Continence Society defines urgency as "the complaint of a sudden compelling desire to pass urine, which is difficult to defer" [1]. The "overactive bladder" (OAB) is a symptom syndrome which is defined by the presence of urgency, with or without urgency incontinence, but usually with frequency and nocturia in the absence of infection or other obvious pathology [1]. Therefore, urgency is the pivotal symptom of the OAB syndrome. A better understanding of the genesis of urgency and its relationship to other aspects of bladder function is required to unravel the pathophysiology of OAB and to develop more effective treatments [2].

OAB symptoms are suggestive of urodynamically demonstrable detrusor overactivity (DO; involuntary detrusor contractions) during the filling phase which may be spontaneous or provoked [1]. However, OAB is not interchangeable with DO regardless of whether they are associated with reported urgency. Only about half of all patients with DO experience

urgency [3], whereas among patients with urgency 44–69% exhibit DO during cystometric studies [4-7].

The definition of urgency as a complaint implies that it can only be measured in cognitively intact patients [2, 8]. Quantifiable and objective demonstration of urgency is difficult, and thus surrogate measures are often used as outcome measures in OAB, leading to inconsistency between clinical trials. Urgency is a pathological sensation and does not necessarily involve the same mechanisms as those underlying the physiologic desire to void upon bladder filling. Therefore, comparisons between urge in healthy people and urgency in patients may help our understanding of the mechanisms involved in the latter but, in fact, may be misleading [8].

The emphasis on urgency, rather than DO, as the defining element of OAB gives the condition a subjective foundation which renders derivation of basic science insights challenging. The subjective nature of urgency makes development of animal models impossible. Despite these limitations, most studies on mechanisms related to urgency/

OAB have employed the use of isolated tissues and experimental animals. Non-voiding contraction remains the most frequently used surrogate parameter in such experimental animal studies [8]. The pathophysiology of the OAB syndrome and DO is still incompletely known, but most probably multifactorial. Against the background mentioned above, this section focuses on pathophysiology of OAB and reviews studies that have provided insight into the mechanisms underlying OAB symptoms and DO.

DO may be further characterised as neurogenic when there is a relevant neurological condition. The dependence of lower urinary tract (LUT) functions on complex central neural networks makes these functions susceptible to a variety of neurological disorders. Non-neurogenic aetiologies may be related to outflow obstruction, aging and female anatomical incontinence, but most cases are idiopathic. There may be two possible origins of OAB symptoms; 1) decreased capacity to handle the afferent signals in the brain, and 2) abnormally increased afferent signals from the bladder and /or urethra (**Figure 1**).

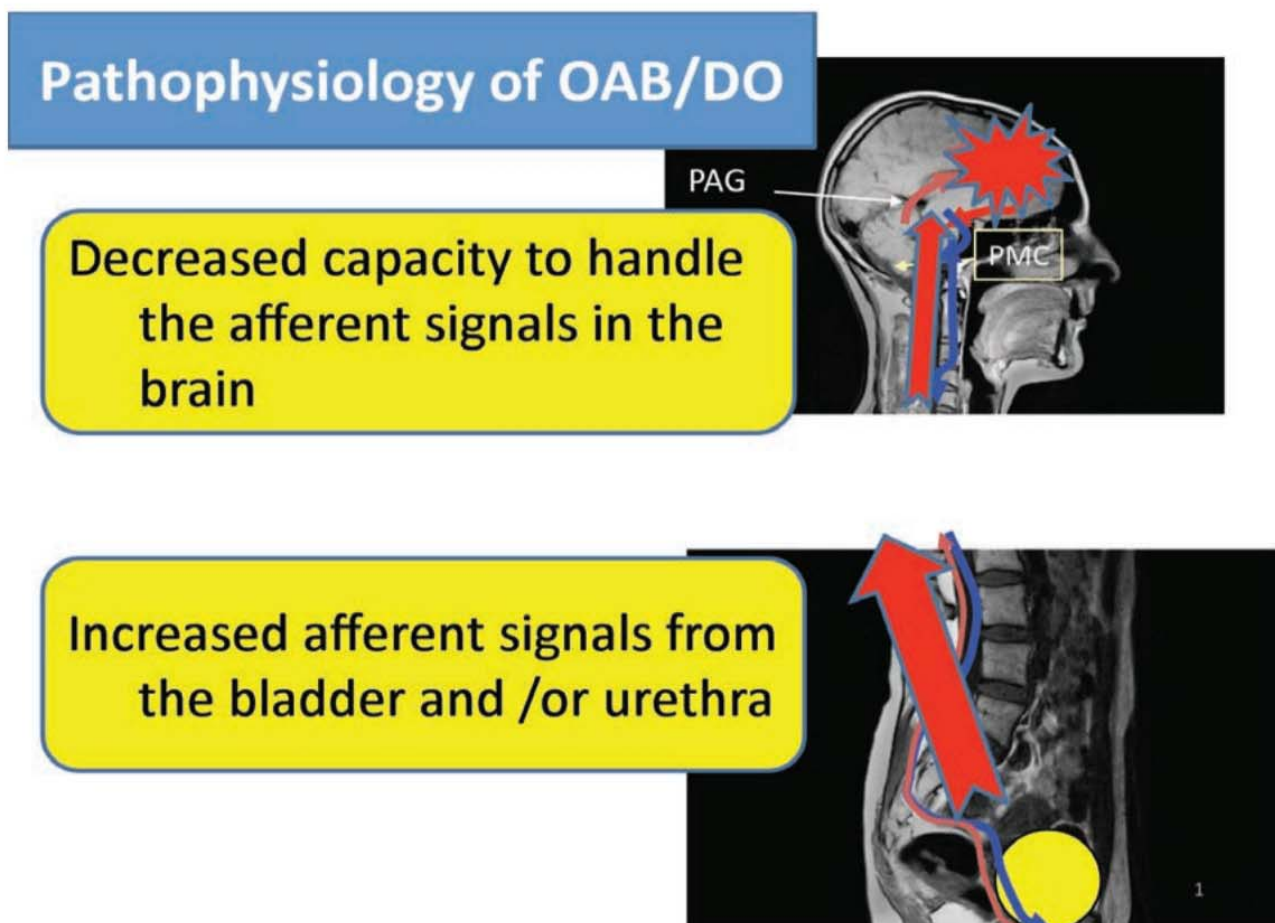


Figure 1. Two possible origins of OAB symptoms; 1) decreased capacity to handle the afferent signals in the brain, and 2) abnormally increased afferent signals from the bladder and /or urethra.

II. MECHANISMS UNDERLYING INCREASED AFFERENT ACTIVITY

Two theories probably contribute in varying proportion to the complex mechanisms underlying the genesis of DO and the associated storage symptoms comprising OAB, have been put forward (**Figure 2**):

- The urothelium-based hypothesis: changes in urothelial receptor function and neurotransmitter release as well as in the sensitivity and coupling of the suburothelial interstitial cell network lead to enhancement of involuntary contractions [9, 10].
- The myogenic hypothesis: changes to the excitability and coupling of smooth muscle cells with other myocytes or interstitial cells lead to the generation of uninhibited contractions [11, 12].

1. THE UROTHELIUM-BASED HYPOTHESIS

There is increasing evidence that urothelial cells play an important role in modulation of bladder activity by responding to local chemical and mechanical stimuli and then sending chemical signals to bladder afferent nerves. It has been shown that urothelial cells express various “sensor molecules” such as receptors of bradykinin, neurotrophins, purines (P2X and P2Y), norepinephrine (NE) (α and β), ACh (nicotinic and muscarinic), epithelial Na⁺ channels (ENaC), and a number of transient receptor potential (TRP) channels. These sensor molecules respond to mechanical as well as chemical stimuli and in turn release chemicals such as ATP,

prostaglandins (PG), nerve growth factor (NGF), ACh, and NO. These agents are known to have excitatory or inhibitory actions on afferent nerves, which are located close to or in the urothelium (**Figure 3**) [10].

The urothelium interacts closely with the underlying suburothelial layer, in particular the interstitial cell network contained within it, so that the whole structure can be regarded as a functional unit [9]. The suburothelium is an area composed of nerves, blood vessels, and connective tissue in intimate contact with the urothelium. Recently, the roles of the urothelium and suburothelial myofibroblasts in afferent activation have become the focus of intense interest. The C-fibre afferents generally have endings in the suburothelial layer of the bladder wall, but in some cases, they also penetrate the urothelium [13].

ATP was the first neurotransmitter demonstrated to be released directly from the urothelium [14]. Non-vesicular ATP release is evoked by chemical stimuli or by stretch proportional to the extent of bladder distension [15-19]. Both P2X and P2Y purinergic receptor subtypes have been identified in the bladder urothelium. It is now thought that these may respond to urothelial-derived adenosine triphosphate (ATP) release in autocrine and paracrine signalling [15, 16, 20-23]. By acting on structures such as nerves [24] and interstitial cells in the suburothelial space, it is thought to trigger the underlying afferent signalling bladder fullness and pain and possibly even to activate the micturition reflex [25].

Mechanisms involved in increased afferent input from the bladder

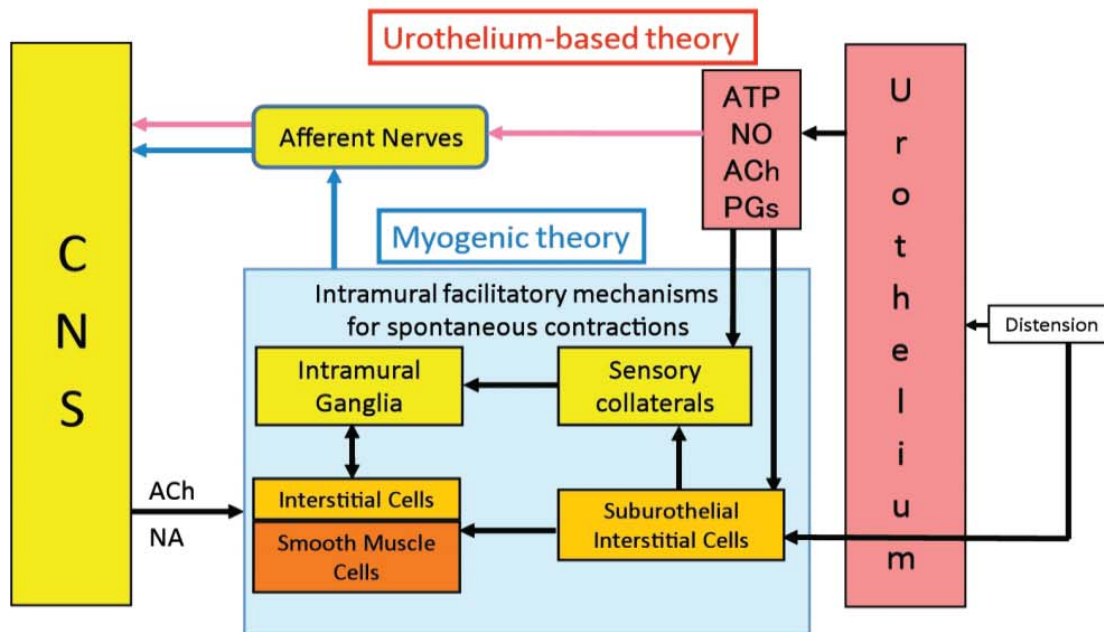


Figure 2. Mechanisms involved in increased afferent input from the bladder: the urothelium-based and myogenic theories

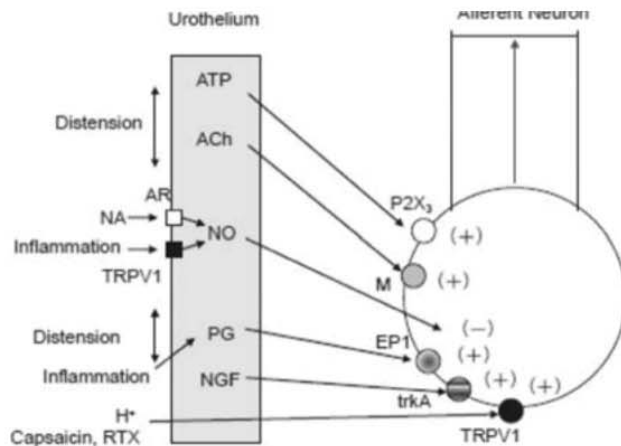


Figure 3. The urothelial afferent transduction system (modified from Yoshida M et al. 2010 [10])

After successful treatment with botulinum toxin injection, a reduced immunoreactivity correlated well with a reduction in urgency [26]. Pathologically increased amounts of urothelially released ATP in rats with spinal cord injury can be reduced on treatment with botulinum toxin [27]. Sugaya et al [28] recently reported that improvement of OAB symptoms with antimuscarinic treatment was significantly correlated with a decrease in urinary ATP level in female patients with OAB.

The presence and localisation of muscarinic receptor protein and mRNA in the human [29-34] and mouse [35] urothelium have been studied. All five muscarinic subtypes are expressed throughout the urothelial layers with a specific localisation of the M2 subtype to the umbrella cells and M1 to the basal layer, with M3 receptors more generally distributed. Release of ACh from human urothelial and suburothelial sites increases with age, as well as during bladder stretch, and represents a functional, non-neuronal, alternative cholinergic system [31]. At therapeutic doses, antimuscarinics act mainly during the filling phase and exert little effect on detrusor contraction during emptying [36-38]. This lends support to the suggestion that urothelial muscarinic receptors might be involved in the generation of afferent impulses.

Urothelial cells express both α and β adrenoceptor subtypes, stimulation of which has been shown to trigger the release of ATP and nitric oxide (NO), respectively [39, 40]. Stimulation of urothelial β adrenoceptors also triggers an urothelially-derived inhibitory factor [41]. Catecholamines could be released from nerves adjacent to the urothelium; however, neither a role for catecholamines nor an altered adrenoceptor profile has yet been shown in pathological conditions.

In addition to the changes in ACh-release mentioned above, several specific alterations in urothelial function and ultrastructure have been demonstrated in OAB. Expression of the mechanosensitive ENaC is increased significantly in human obstructed bladders

in comparison to unobstructed controls and correlates significantly with storage symptom scores [42]. It is possible that increased expression of mechanosensitive channels such as ENaC in the urothelium enhances substance release upon bladder stretch. Levels of PG, which is locally synthesised in bladder muscle and mucosa, and levels of NGF are increased in subjects with OAB in comparison to controls; and in symptomatic patients, levels of PGE 2 are positively correlated with voiding behaviour and maximum cystometric capacity [43, 44]. Bladder biopsies from patients with both idiopathic detrusor overactivity (IDO) [45] and neurogenic detrusor overactivity (NDO) [46] have shown increased urothelial TRPV1 expression. This may be in accordance with the fact that intravesical vanilloids (resineferatoxin) have been shown to improve OAB symptoms in patients with idiopathic detrusor overactivity as well as with hypersensitivity disorders [47, 48].

This sensory process is more complex than originally thought. A suburothelial layer of myofibroblasts (interstitial cells) that or a functional syncytium through connexin 43 gap junction can be identified in the bladder wall [49, 50]. These myofibroblasts make close apposition to unmyelinated nerves (afferent C-fibre nerves) [51]. The studies investigating human myofibroblasts show that the cells can respond to ATP by generating an intracellular Ca^{2+} transient, which is mediated by a P2Y receptor, most likely including a P2Y6 [52]. On the basis of these observations, it has been hypothesised that the close relation between nerves and myofibroblasts allows for an amplification of the afferent system in its response to stimulatory mediators such as ATP.

Overall, up-regulation of urothelial function and increased release of various chemical mediators and known neurotransmitters may influence afferent nerve activity to generate OAB symptoms, although the precise mechanism by which these processes interact with neural tissue to achieve signal transduction remains to be clarified.

2. MYOGENIC HYPOTHESIS

Brading and Turner [11, 12] have emphasised that myogenic changes (regardless of aetiology) may contribute to the pathophysiology of idiopathic detrusor overactivity. On the basis of observation that denervation is consistently found in detrusor biopsy specimens from patients with various forms of non-neurogenic detrusor overactivity, it has been proposed that partial denervation of the detrusor may alter the properties of smooth muscle, leading to increased excitability and increased coupling between cells [53]. Thus, local contraction (activity) that occurs somewhere in the detrusor will spread throughout the bladder wall, resulting in coordinated myogenic contraction of the whole bladder. In addition, this local contraction in the bladder wall has been shown to generate afferent discharge [54, 55]. Recently,

localised bladder activity was assessed by the micromotion detection method, demonstrating that women with increased bladder sensation on filling cystometry had a significantly higher prevalence of localised activity than the control group [56]. This observation suggests that localized distortion of the bladder wall simulates afferent activity, which would precipitate a feeling of urgency and detrusor overactivity [57, 58] (Figure 4).

Although the relationships between intercellular communication and spontaneous mechanical activity and the degree of involvement of different types of connexins (Cxs) need further study, Cx45 and Cx43 appear to be the most prominent Cxs expressed in human detrusor smooth muscle tissue and cultured cells. Observations in tissue biopsies from patients with neurogenic DO and urgency symptoms clearly demonstrated an increase in the presence of Cx43-derived gap junction channels in detrusor muscle [59].

In addition, another population of cells in the bladder known as interstitial cells has been proposed for a pacemaking role in spontaneous activity of the bladder [60, 61]. Because it has been reported that the number of interstitial cells is increased in a guinea-pig model of BOO [62] and that c-kit tyrosine kinase inhibitors, which inhibit interstitial cell activity, decreased the amplitude of spontaneous contractions in the guinea-pig and human bladder [63, 64], interstitial cells may also be involved in the emergence of detrusor overactivity because of enhanced autonomous detrusor muscle activity.

3. OTHER LOCAL FACTORS

a) Ischaemia

Ischaemia/reperfusion has been proposed as a pathophysiological factor of OAB/DO. Recent studies suggest that arterial obstructive disease, such as atherosclerosis, may cause OAB in both men and women via ischaemia, hypoxia and oxidative stress in the bladder [65-68]. DO associated mitochondrial stress may have a central role in epithelial damage, smooth muscle cell injury and neurodegeneration. Superoxide dismutase and aldose reductase up-regulation in the overactive bladder imply intrinsic defensive reaction against free radicals that apparently fails to prevent oxidative damage and neurodegeneration [67]. HIF, TGF- β , VEGF and NGF up-regulation in the ischaemic bladder was accompanied by the loss of mitochondrial structural integrity, fibrosis, and the degeneration of microvasculature and nerve fibres [69]. These observations may suggest the role of ischaemia in the overactive bladder with impaired contraction, as reported in elderly patients without obstruction. Ischaemia may be a key factor in aging associated LUTS.

b) Inflammation

Recent studies have noted signs of inflammation in bladder biopsy specimens from OAB patients [69, 70]. Increases in cytokines, chemokines, and growth factors have been reported in the urine of OAB patients [71]. Consistent association of increasing serum CRP levels and OAB has been also demonstrated [72, 73]. All together, these results support the hypothesis for the role of inflammation in the development of OAB.

The myogenic hypothesis of the mechanisms underlying increased afferent activity

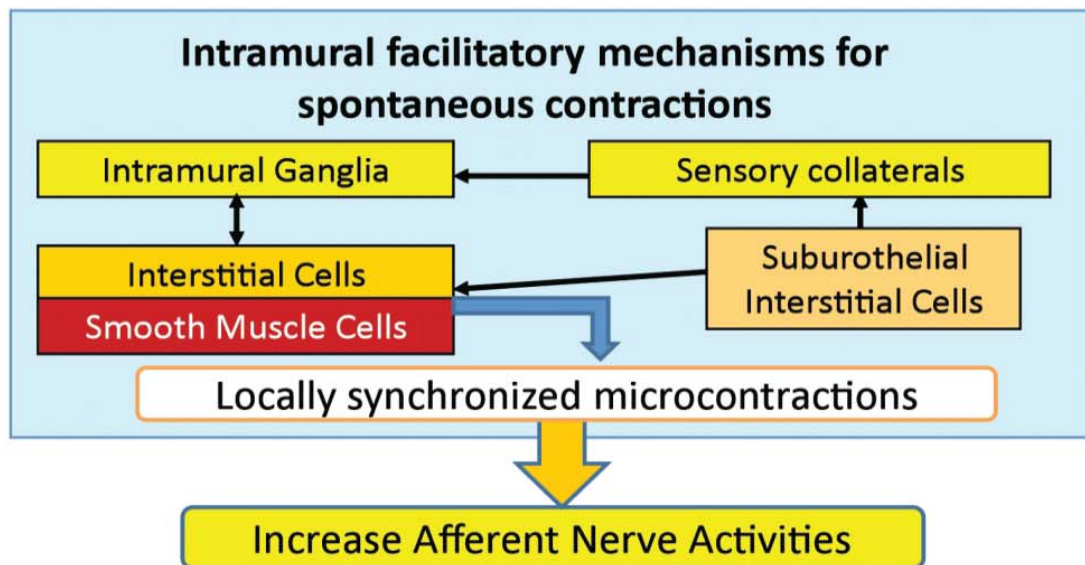


Figure 4. The myogenic hypothesis of the mechanisms involved in increased afferent input from the bladder

III. MECHANISMS INVOLVED IN ABNORMAL HANDLING OF THE AFFERENT SIGNALS IN THE BRAIN

The 'neurogenic hypothesis' suggests that damage to the central inhibitory pathways, or sensitisation of afferent nerves, leads to the unmasking of primitive voiding reflexes which trigger overactive detrusor contraction [74, 75]. Plasticity both in the peripheral innervation and within the CNS may have a pathophysiological role in DO [76], and increased release of nerve growth factor has been reported, which may alter the neural regulation of detrusor muscle [77-79]. Peripherally, neurological diseases might cause a sensitisation of C fibres that are silent under normal circumstances, thereby leading to the emergence of a C-fibre-mediated reflex.

1. NEUROGENIC DETRUSOR OVERACTIVITY

Recent advances in functional brain imaging have made it possible to directly study the supraspinal control system operating during bladder filling. Comparisons between brain response in subjects with normal bladder function and those with OAB may give us a neural correlate of urgency and possible origins of OAB symptoms [80-82].

While many neurological diseases predispose patients to neurogenic detrusor overactivity (NDO), the only populations that have been systematically studied are adults with multiple sclerosis, adults with spinal cord injury (SCI) and children and young adults with myelodysplasia [73]. As a sensation it can be affected by neurological disorders and may, therefore, be perceived differently in patients with neurological lesions.

a) Suprapontine lesions

It is generally accepted that suprapontine lesions such as cerebrovascular disease and Parkinson's disease produce DO. The patient with a suprapontine lesion loses voluntary inhibition of micturition, which corresponds to uninhibited overactive bladder according to a classification by Fall et al. [83, 84].

Higher brain centres provide an additional level of urinary control, which is responsible for conscious sensation, volition and emotional response. Key higher centres include the prefrontal cortex, insular cortex and anterior cingulate gyrus, and functional brain imaging has shown changes in higher CNS activity in OAB [75, 80, 81]. Although such observations have been made infrequently, they do point to some key areas for consideration. For example, the participation of several brain areas in urinary control may explain why brain diseases and senile cerebral atrophy are risk factors for lower urinary tract dysfunction [75]. Variation in observations between individuals implicates a diversity of processes in the mechanisms that underlie OAB, although these are expressed clinically in the common manifestation of OAB. The increased activity observed in certain re-

gions of the brain in patients with OAB may actually be compensatory, to counteract urgency, rather than being responsible for the symptom [75]. This confounds interpretation of function, and there are many questions that still need to be answered.

Brain transection studies in animals with an intact neuroaxis showed that suprapontine areas generally exert a tonic inhibitory influence on the pontine micturition centre (PMC) [85, 86]. In humans, the cerebral cortex (medial frontal lobes) and the basal ganglia are thought to suppress the micturition reflex. Thus, damage to the brain induces DO by reducing suprapontine inhibition.

1. STROKE (CEREBRAL INFARCTION)

The mechanism of DO induced by cerebral infarction or Parkinson's disease has been further studied using animal models [87, 88]. In the central nervous system, a glutamatergic pathway is known to play a role in both excitatory and inhibitory regulation of micturition [88-90]. It has been demonstrated that in the rat cerebral infarction model, bladder overactivity is mediated by NMDA glutamatergic and D2 dopaminergic excitatory mechanisms [88], suggesting that cerebral infarction may alter a balance between the facilitatory and inhibitory mechanism that results in up-regulation of an excitatory pathway and down-regulation of a tonic inhibitory pathway.

2. PARKINSON'S DISEASE

Parkinson's disease (PD) is characterised by the degeneration of dopamine-producing cells in the substantia nigra of the midbrain and Lowy body formation. PD is the most common cause of parkinsonism which is the neurological syndrome bearing the hallmarks, hypokinesia and postural instability. Urgency occurs in 33-54% of patients with PD. Neurogenic DO was seen in 45-93% of PD patients [91]. The most widely accepted theory of pathophysiology of DO in PD is that basal ganglia inhibits the micturition reflex in the normal situation via D1 receptors, and that cell depletion in the substantia nigra in PD results in loss of D1-mediated inhibition and consequently DO [91, 92]. The absence of dopaminergic tone via D1 receptors may cause a dysfunction in GABA regulation in the periaqueductal gray (PAG) and DO [93]. Kitta et al [94] demonstrated an increased activation in the PAG, supplementary motor area, cerebellar vermis, insula, putamen and thalamus during DO in male patients with PD. Compared with previous results in healthy volunteers the periaqueductal gray, insula, putamen and thalamus were common activation sites responding to bladder filling, while the pons was not activated during DO, suggesting alteration in brain activation sites in response to bladder filling may be related to the pathophysiology of DO in patients with PD.

b) Spinal cord lesions

A spinal cord lesion above the lumbosacral level eliminates voluntary and supraspinal control of micturition,

leading to DO mediated by spinal reflex pathways [85]. Disruption below the level of the pons leads to unsustainable and uncoordinated detrusor contractions often associated with uncoordinated sphincter overactivity (detrusor-sphincter dyssynergia, DSD). Impairment or loss of bladder sensation is a typical feature.

Electrophysiological studies of the effect of capsaicin on voiding reflexes have shown that the afferent limb of the micturition reflex in chronic spinal cats, consists of unmyelinated C-fibre afferents, whereas in normal cats it consists of myelinated A-delta afferents [85, 95, 96]. Since C-fibre bladder afferents in the cat do not usually respond to bladder distension [97], a considerable reorganisation of reflex connections takes place in the spinal cord following the interruption of descending pathways from the brain. In humans with spinal cord lesions, NDO is likely to be mediated by capsaicin-sensitive C-fibre afferents. Clinical experience with capsaicin supports the role of these C-fibre afferents in the pathophysiology of NDO. Capsaicin has been used for the treatment of NDO in patients with spinal cord injury or multiple sclerosis. When administered intravesically, capsaicin increases bladder capacity, reduces micturition contraction pressure, decreases autonomic dysreflexia and reduces the frequency of incontinence [98-100]. More recently, resiniferatoxin, an ultra-potent analogue of capsaicin, has also been used [101-103].

Increased TRPV1, P2X3 and pan-neuronal marker (PGP9.5) staining in suburothelial nerves and increased TRPV1 staining in the basal layer of the urothelium have been observed in patients with neurogenic bladder due to SCI and multiple sclerosis [26]. Treatment of NDO patients with intravesical capsaicin or resiniferatoxin reduces the density of TRPV1, P2X3 and PGP9.5 immunoreactive nerve fibres and urothelial TRPV1 immunoreactivity in those patients exhibiting symptomatic improvement [104]. Injections into the bladder wall of botulinum neurotoxin type A (BoNT/A), an agent that blocks the release of neurotransmitters from afferent and efferent nerves, and from urothelial cells, also reduces NDO and the density of TRPV1- and P2X3-immunoreactive nerves [105]. These results indicate that an abnormality of the C-fibre afferent innervation contributes to NDO.

Upregulation of TRPA1 protein and mRNA levels, in bladder and in dorsal root ganglion (DRG; L6-S1) has been reported in rats with SCI. Moreover, HC-030031 (TRPA1 antagonist) treatment decreased the number and the amplitude of DO, suggesting that the TRPA1 activation and upregulation seem to exert an important role in DO following SCI [106].

Following SCI changes in the electrophysiological properties of bladder afferent neurons have also been observed consisting in multiple action potentials (tonic firing) in response to long depolarizing current pulses [107]. In addition, A-type K⁺ channels are suppressed in parallel with an increased expression of TTX-sensitive Na⁺ currents, thereby

increasing excitability of C-fibre bladder afferent neurons[108]. These electrophysiological changes contribute to the emergence of the C-fibre-mediated spinal micturition reflex following SCI.

B. PREGNANCY, CHILDBIRTH AND THE PELVIC FLOOR

Despite the great achievements made in modern obstetric practice in developed countries during the last 100 years, delivery remains the most stressful and dangerous event the female pelvic diaphragm is submitted to during a woman's lifespan.

Reduction in both perinatal and maternal mortality rates in recent decades has allowed us to focus increasingly on maternal morbidity and the long-term sequelae of childbirth. Due to improved investigative techniques available over the past decade, the incidence and mechanisms of obstetric injury to the pelvic floor have come under scrutiny.

However, the controversial debate on whether and how pregnancy and vaginal delivery are responsible for pelvic floor damage is still wide open.

During pregnancy, muscular, connective and nervous pelvic structures are already subjected to anatomical, morphological, functional and hormonal changes. During vaginal delivery, the pelvic floor undergoes an enormous amount of stretching to allow the passage of the newborn through it.

During the pregnancy and just after delivery, the functions sustained by the pelvic floor (urinary and faecal continence, pelvic organ containment and sexual function) often begin to fail. Evident or hidden injuries of the pelvic floor may manifest themselves through symptoms of urinary and faecal incontinence, prolapse or sexual dysfunction, with a considerable impact on quality of life.

If several mechanisms of birth trauma have already been investigated, a lot needs to be understood regarding the role of pregnancy on the pelvic floor.

The growing knowledge of the consequences of childbirth and pregnancy on the pelvic floor, offers the chance to develop prevention and treatment strategies. It is important that contributing obstetric factors are identified and their occurrence minimised, in order to focus efforts on preventable risk factors.

I. DAMAGE TO FUNCTIONS SUSTAINED BY THE PELVIC FLOOR

1. POSTPARTUM URINARY INCONTINENCE

A recent systematic review of 33 studies reported a 33% prevalence of any type postpartum urinary incontinence (UI) in the first 3 months postpartum, with a prevalence of weekly and daily incontinence of 12% and 3% respectively. The prevalence in the

vaginal delivery group (31%) was double that of the caesarean section group (15%). Long-term studies in the first year postpartum showed small changes in prevalence over time [109]. Cesarean section seems to decrease the risk of postpartum UI [110, 111], but its protective effect seems to diminish over time and disappears after multiple deliveries [111, 112].

In a recent cohort study extracted by the national Swedish Medical Birth Registry between 1973 and 1982, two groups were identified: 30,880 women who had their first and all subsequent deliveries by cesarean vs. an age-matched sample of 60,122 women who delivered vaginally only. Stress urinary incontinence (SUI) surgery was observed in 0.4% of the cesarean group and 1.2% of the vaginal group (follow-up time 26.9 years), and the risk of SUI is estimated to be 2.9 times higher after vaginal delivery compared with women after cesarean section. Among women with vaginal deliveries, rates of SUI surgery increased with the number of births, whereas in the cesarean delivery cohort it slightly decreased with a higher number of births. Compared with cesarean delivery, the risk of SUI was more than doubled for vaginal delivery with vacuum extraction and tripled for a vaginal non-instrumental delivery, but this lower risk for a vacuum extraction delivery has been in part explained by an overall lower birth rate in this subset of patients. After vaginal delivery, the incidence rates for SUI surgery steadily increased, reaching a peak close to 3 decades after the first delivery. For cesarean delivery, the incidence of SUI increased more slowly and started to diverge from the curve for vaginal delivery very early during follow-up (Figure 5 A) [113].

After the first delivery, women who delivered vaginally seem to have at least a two-fold greater risk of urinary incontinence than those who delivered by cesarean. However, data for the rates of incontinence after elective and emergency cesarean section are mixed; therefore meaning that the information as to whether cesarean done before labour confers greater protection than cesarean done after labour is lacking.

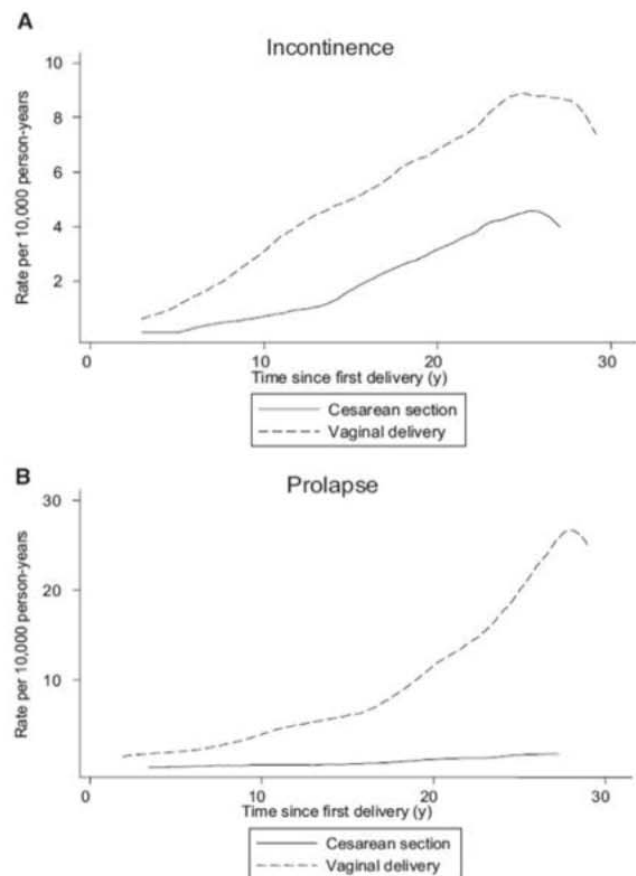
To understand the true impact of cesarean delivery on urinary incontinence, future studies must compare incontinence by planned (not actual) delivery modes, consider a woman's entire reproductive career, focus on leakage severe enough to be problematic, consider other bladder symptoms as well as incontinence, and take into account other risk factors, particularly antepartum urinary incontinence [114].

2. ANAL INCONTINENCE

De-novo anal incontinence symptoms after childbirth are reported as up to 26-38% between 6 weeks-6 months postpartum [115-120].

In a population-based survey estimating the postpartum incidence of faecal incontinence, Guise et al. [116] reported that 29% of 8,774 women reported faecal incontinence (defined as recurring episodes

of involuntary loss of stool or flatus since delivery) within 3-6 months postpartum: almost half (46%) of them reported incontinence of stool, and 38% reported incontinence of flatus only. Approximately 46% reported the onset of incontinence after the delivery of their first child. Higher body mass index, longer pushing, forceps-assisted delivery, third or fourth-degree tears and smoking were associated with severe faecal incontinence. The authors conclude that in this population-based study, more than one in four women reported faecal incontinence within 6 months of childbirth, with almost half reporting the onset of symptoms after delivery of their first child. Four in ten women reported loss of flatus or stool during intercourse. Given the burden of this condition, both in number and social impact, coupled with the hesitancy of women in initiating this conversation, providers should ask women about symptoms of faecal incontinence during postpartum examinations. Additionally, these data suggest that there may be a benefit to extending postpartum follow-up visits beyond the typical 6-8 weeks to provide surveillance for potential incontinence. LEVEL OF EVIDENCE: II.



A, Incidence rates of stress urinary incontinence surgery in relation to mode of delivery and time since first childbirth; B, Incidence rates of pelvic organ prolapse surgery in relation to mode of delivery and time since first childbirth.

Figure 5 [113] Incidence rates in relation to mode of delivery and time since first childbirth
From: Leijonhufvud et al. Incontinence and prolapse surgery after childbirth. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2011[113]

In comparison to cesarean section, vaginal delivery seems to be associated with an increased risk of anal incontinence. In a population-based study, Guise et al. [115], reported that vaginal delivery has a greater risk of FI compared to cesarean (OR 1.45; 95%CI: 1.29-1.64) 3-6 months postpartum. However, a vaginal delivery without a tear or instrument assistance did not create a higher risk of FI than the risk with cesarean delivery. Being overweight (body mass index ≥ 30 kg/m²), pushing for greater than 2 h, and constipation were independently associated with postpartum FI ($p < 0.05$) regardless of route of delivery.

A self-administered survey of faecal incontinence symptoms and delivery events administered to 50 women at 6 weeks postpartum, showed that vaginal delivery was associated with an increased risk of any faecal incontinence symptom in comparison with cesarean section (43% vs. 20%) [117].

3. PELVIC ORGAN PROLAPSE

The occurrence rate of pelvic organ prolapse stage ≥ 2 in the first 3-6 months postpartum has been described in literature between 18.1-56% [121-123].

In a cross-sectional study of 382 primigravid women, pelvic organ support was explored 6 months postpartum: POP-Q stage $\geq II$ was present in 7.7, 18.1 and 29.0% of women who delivered by cesarean section, spontaneous and instrumental vaginal delivery, respectively. Spontaneous vaginal delivery increased the risk by more than three times (OR 3.19) while instrumental vaginal delivery increased it more than five-fold (OR 5.52) in comparison with cesarean section. Instrument-assisted delivery did not increase the risk of prolapse in women who delivered vaginally. The authors concluded that cesarean section is associated with a lower prevalence of pelvic organ prolapse after delivery and instrument assisted delivery is not associated with an increased risk of postpartum prolapse among women who delivered vaginally [121].

In the cohort study extracted by the nationwide Swedish Medical Birth Registry [113], POP surgery was recorded in 2.2% of vaginal deliveries and 0.2% of cesarean sections (follow-up time 25.9 years). Among women who had only had vaginal deliveries, rates of POP surgery increased with number of deliveries. In the cesarean delivery cohort, rates of POP surgery slightly decreased with increasing parity. Compared with a cesarean delivery, the risk of POP surgery was increased nine-fold both after non-instrumental vaginal delivery and after vacuum extraction, whereas among women with forceps delivery a twenty-fold increase in risk was observed. The incidence rate of POP in women with cesarean deliveries showed very little variation over time, but started to diverge more notably from the vaginal delivery cohort 10 years after the first birth (**Figure 5B**).

The association between cesarean section and POP was investigated by Larsson et al. [124]: the Swed-

ish Hospital Discharge Registry was used to identify women with an inpatient diagnosis of pelvic organ prolapse, and the data were linked to the Swedish Medical Birth Registry. A total of 1.4 million women were investigated. A strong and statistically significant association between cesarean section and pelvic organ prolapse was found (Adjusted OR 0.18 [95% CI: 0.16-0.20] and overall hazard ratio=0.20 [95% CI: 0.18-0.22]). The authors concluded that cesarean section is associated with a lower risk of pelvic organ prolapse than vaginal delivery.

The incidence rate of urinary incontinence (UI) and anal incontinence during pregnancy in previously continent women has been reported as 39.1% and 10.3% respectively. Age, baseline body mass index, and family history of UI were significantly associated with the occurrence of UI during pregnancy, while age and excess weight gain during pregnancy were associated with the occurrence of anal incontinence during pregnancy. The identified risk factors for both incontinences postpartum were incontinence during pregnancy and vaginal delivery. LEVEL OF EVIDENCE II [125].

About half of all women develop transient urinary incontinence during pregnancy [114]; SUI in pregnancy was a significant predictor for postpartum incontinence. The weight of the women and duration of their labour were also significantly associated with the development of SUI postpartum [126].

Women with incontinence before pregnancy were nearly three times more likely to have postpartum incontinence [127].

Among 272 eligible women attending follow-up at 2 years postpartum, 26 (9.5%) women reported persistent SUI since pregnancy. A higher BMI in pregnant women at term was recognised as an independent risk factor for the persistence of SUI from pregnancy to 2 years post partum [128].

Fear of birth is a frequent cause of cesareans demanded by the patient [129, 130]. A recent cross-sectional study based on the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study ($n=58.881$), reported that 6% of the sample preferred cesarean over vaginal delivery in week 30 of pregnancy; 16% reported "fear of giving birth" as the reason for cesarean preference [131]. A general fear of pelvic floor trauma was cited as the most common reason for this choice [132]. Despite being based on incomplete prognostic data, this feeling may be echoed increasingly among obstetric patients and may lead to an unselected, and even misguided, increase in cesarean delivery rates.

However, so far, there is no evidence from randomised controlled trials, upon which to base any practice recommendations regarding planned cesarean section for non-medical reasons at term. This has been demonstrated by Lavender et al. [133]: their aim was to find out, from randomised trials, the effects on perinatal and maternal morbidity and

mortality, and on maternal psychological morbidity, of planned cesarean delivery versus planned vaginal birth in women with no clear clinical indication for cesarean section. A search of the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group's Trials Register (December 2005), MEDLINE (1974 to April 2005), EMBASE (1974 to April 2005), CINAHL (1982 to April 2005) and PsycINFO (1887 to April 2005) was carried out. The selection criteria were the following: comparisons of intention to perform cesarean section and intention for women to give birth vaginally; random allocation to treatment and control groups; adequate allocation concealment; women at term with a single fetus with cephalic presentation and no clear medical indication for cesarean section. No studies were identified that met the inclusion criteria [133].

To our knowledge, scientific data are insufficient to justify an elective cesarean section in order to avoid pelvic floor symptoms in a woman without previous disorders [134], considering that pregnancy itself may be involved in the development of such problems.

A recent systematic review of Cochrane assessed the ability of cesarean delivery (CD), in comparison to vaginal delivery (VD), to preserve anal continence: 21 reports have been found eligible for inclusion, encompassing 31,698 women having had 6,028 CDs and 25,170 VDs, as the index event prior to anal continence assessment. Only one report randomised women (with breech presentation) to CD or VD, but because of extensive cross-over, 52.1% after randomisation, it was analysed along with the other 20 studies as treated, i.e. as a non-randomized trial. Only one of these reports demonstrated a significant benefit of CD in the preservation of anal continence, a report in which the incidence of incontinence was extremely high, 39% in CD and 48% in VD, questioning, relative to other reports, the timing and nature of continence assessment. The authors did not find any difference in continence preservation in women who had an emergency versus elective CD. They concluded that without demonstrable benefit, preservation of anal continence should not be used as a criterion for choosing elective primary CD [135].

Despite the great advances that have been made in many areas of obstetric care, the effect of pregnancy on the morphology and function of the pelvic floor is still mostly unknown. Prospective data assessing the severity of urinary and anal incontinence during pregnancy are scarce.

II. EFFECT OF PREGNANCY ON PELVIC FLOOR FUNCTION

1. EFFECT ON THE COLLAGEN

During pregnancy, hormones affect the biochemical composition of the solid matrix and hydration phases constituting all pelvic floor tissue. Remodelling mechanisms lead to changes in the organisation, orientation, and diameter of the collagen fibres as well as the crimp structure of the collagen

fibrils reinforcing each tissue. Such effects can significantly affect the short and long-term viscoelastic properties of the vaginal wall, the pubovisceral muscles, and the perineal body, for example. They will largely determine (a) the extent and rate at which these structures can be stretched by an expulsive force acting cyclically on the fetal head, and (b) the resistance to stretch provided by those structures. The more a tissue exhibits creep behaviour, the further it will stretch under a constant load. And the more it exhibits relaxation behaviour, the more the stress in a tissue will decrease over time when held at a constant length, thereby helping to lower the risk of rupture in the next loading cycle. Were a tissue to exhibit viscoplasticity, it would behave as a solid below a critical level of stress, but above that level, it would flow like a viscous liquid. There is evidence that tensile failure in some soft tissues can be predicted by the product of the stress times the strain extent in the tissue, so mechanisms that lower one or both these variables will reduce the risk of rupture. Pregnancy is known to significantly affect the instantaneous stiffness and relaxation behaviour of vaginal tissues in rats. However, accurate data are lacking for pregnant human pelvic floor tissues, and the effects of pregnancy on injury at any tissue level, and on structural failure, are as yet largely unknown [136].

Changes in collagen may result in greater mobility of the bladder neck resulting in stress incontinence. In a study of 116 primigravidae, perineal ultrasound was used to assess bladder neck mobility. Women with antenatal bladder neck mobility of more than 5mm on linear movement (equivalent to $>108^\circ$ rotation) were found to be at higher risk of developing postpartum stress incontinence. Approximately 50% of this group reported stress incontinence at 3 months postpartum [137].

There may be a group of women at an inherent increased risk of developing incontinence due to abnormalities in collagen [138], as the collagenous component of the connective tissue contributes to structural support of the bladder neck. In pregnancy, the tensile properties of the connective tissue are reduced, with a reduction in total collagen content and increase in glycosaminoglycans [139].

2. NATURAL HISTORY

Distinguishing the time of onset, severity, and persistence of urinary and anal incontinences during and after pregnancy may provide an insight into the natural history of incontinence, and hence in the differences between transient incontinence due to the hormonal and mechanical effects of pregnancy and the damage that may occur as a result of delivery [125].

Solans-Domenech et al. [125] have brought to light the high incidence of urinary incontinence and anal incontinence over the three trimesters of pregnancy, and particularly in the second trimester. In this cohort study, an incidence rate of urinary incontinence

during pregnancy of 39.1% and 10.3% of anal incontinence was found.

Figure 6 shows the evolution of severity of UI by data collection time, as well as the changes in trends between slight and moderate UI, with a tendency for slight to become moderate UI. The correlation between the severity of UI and level of interference in daily living was moderate but statistically significant in all periods of data collection with correlation coefficients of 0.35, 0.13, 0.46, and 0.47 for the first, second, and third trimesters and postpartum, respectively.

Ten percent of women presented anal incontinence at some point during pregnancy: the evolution of the prevalence of anal incontinence in this study cohort is 2.3%, 6.8% and 7.4% in the first, second and third trimesters. The presence of anal incontinence was characterised by loss of flatus in more than 90% of cases and common to all periods LEVEL OF EVIDENCE: II [125].

The prevalence of urinary and anal incontinence in a subgroup African American of pregnant adolescents (age: 14-19 years) in the third trimester, resulted even higher: 44% of patients complained of urinary urgency incontinence and 43% of stress incontinence; 12% complained of faecal and 41% of flatal incontinence [140].

Incontinence during pregnancy has been linked to age [141], body mass index [142], strenuous physical exercise [143] and smoking history [142].

The risk of UI increases in pregnant women aged more than 35 years, in women who are overweight or obese at baseline, and in those with a family history of UI, while the risk of anal incontinence rises with age and excessive weight gain during pregnancy [125]. Weight gain greater than the 50th percentile

during weeks 0–15 of pregnancy was weakly associated with a higher incidence of UI at week 30 compared with weight gain less than or equal to the 50th percentile [144].

The recent data regarding the relationship between urinary incontinence during pregnancy and its persistence or worsening condition postpartum are controversial: the results of Solans-Domenech et al. [125] showed that the occurrence of UI and anal incontinence during pregnancy is related to the presence of incontinence in the postpartum period, and vaginal delivery increases the risk of persistent incontinence. On the other hand Wesnes et al [145] conclude that the association between incontinence postpartum and mode of delivery is not substantially influenced by incontinence status in pregnancy and the prediction of a group with high risk of incontinence according to mode of delivery cannot be based on continence status in pregnancy.

3. FAMILIAL PREDISPOSITION

A familial predisposition in the evaluation of the aetiology of urinary incontinence has also been considered, but the results are still controversial. Buchsbaum et al. [146] investigated the role of vaginal delivery and familial factors in the development of urinary incontinence by comparing the prevalence of this condition in nulliparous women and their parous sisters. Among this sample of biological sisters, urinary incontinence was reported by 47.6% of nulliparous women and by 49.7% of parous women (P =0.782). Considering the high concordance in continence status between sister pairs, and considering that the majority of parous women are continent, an underlying familial predisposition toward the development of urinary incontinence may be present. LEVEL OF EVIDENCE II-2.

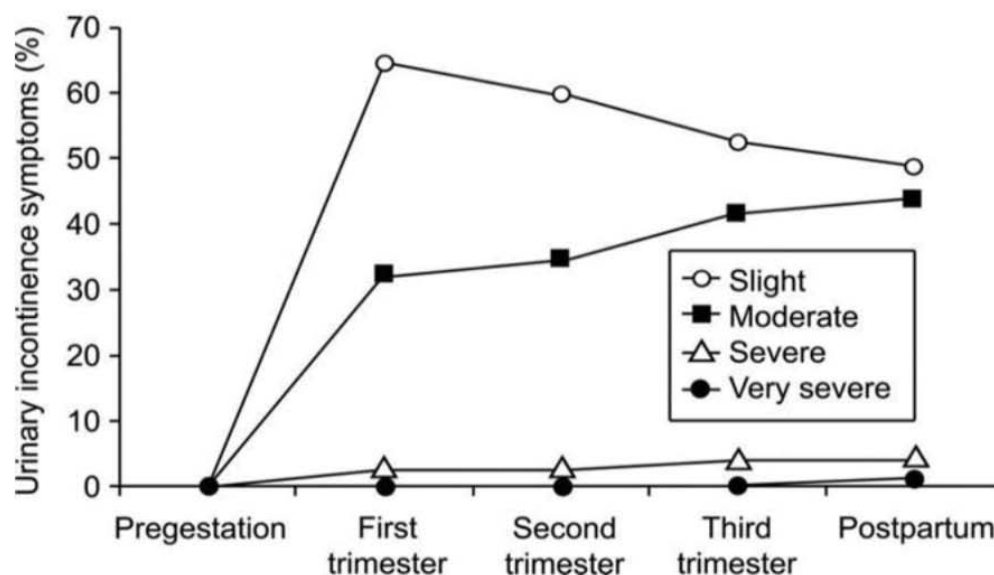


Figure 6. Evolution of the severity of urinary incontinence symptoms by time of data collection. From: Solans-Domenech. *Incontinence During Pregnancy and Postpartum. Obstet Gynecol 2010* [125].

A recent article of Nguyen et al. [147], analysed a large population comprising 1530 identical and 234 non-identical female twins (mean age 41.3 years), who answered a specific questionnaire focusing on symptoms of SUI. The two groups were comparable in terms of age, race, parity, BMI, menopausal status, tobacco use, mode of delivery and prior pelvic surgery. The authors demonstrated that environmental factors contributed significantly to the occurrence of SUI (shared environmental factors contribute 77.6% of the variance, unique environmental factors contribute to 20.9% of the variance; $p < 0.001$). The heritability of SUI was not statistically significant for the contribution of the phenotypic variance (1.49%; $p = 0.46$). Additional analyses were performed on the subgroup of women without prior incontinence or prolapse surgery (638 twin pairs) and in the subgroup of twins with “pure stress urinary incontinence” (458 twin pairs): the results in this cohort of patients showed no genetic influence. The authors underscore that environmental factors (in particular obstetric events) play a dominant role in middle-aged women; genetics contributed more toward the development of stress urinary incontinence in elderly women, as reported by Rohr et al. [148]: “nurture” before menopause and “nature” during aging. LEVEL OF EVIDENCE II.

III. PATHOPHYSIOLOGICAL MECHANISM OF BIRTH INJURY TO THE PELVIC FLOOR

Strong epidemiological evidence links vaginal childbirth and the development of postpartum incontinence and prolapse.

There would seem to exist three major mechanisms by which vaginal delivery might contribute to the pelvic floor trauma: a) muscle trauma, b) connective tissue damage, c) nerve injury, d) vascular damage.

1. MUSCLE TRAUMA

The effect of delivery on muscular structure has been widely investigated, either with computer models, MRI and ultrasound. In a three-dimensional computer model Lien et al. [149] predicted levator ani muscle stretch during vaginal birth. Serial magnetic resonance images from a healthy nulliparous 34-year-old woman, and engineering graphics software, were used to construct a structural model of the levator ani muscles along with related passive tissues. The model was used to quantify pelvic floor muscle stretch induced during the second stage of labour as a model in which the fetal head progressively engaged and then stretched the iliococcygeus, pubococcygeus and puborectalis muscles. The largest tissue strain reached a stretch ratio (tissue length under stretch/original tissue length) of 3.26 in the medial pubococcygeus muscle, the shortest, most medial and ventral levator ani muscle. Regions of the ileococcygeus, pubococcygeus, and puborectalis muscles reached a maximal stretch ratio of 2.73, 2.50, and 2.28, respec-

tively. Tissue stretch ratios were proportional to fetal head size: for example, increasing fetal head diameter by 9% increased medial pubococcygeus stretch by the same amount. The authors demonstrated that the medial pubococcygeus muscles undergo the largest stretch of any levator ani muscles during vaginal birth and it is therefore at the greatest risk of stretch-related injury [149] (Figure 7).

Svabik et al. [150] showed that the area of the levator hiatus needs a distension of between 25% and 245% to allow the passage of the fetal head, considering as average a cross-sectional fetal head area of 68 cm², based on Caucasian biometric data.

The occurrence rate of postpartum levator avulsion in primiparae, diagnosed with 3D-4D ultrasound between 24 hours and 9 months after vaginal delivery, is reported between 15-39.5% [151-157]. The incidence of levator trauma evaluated with MRI is reported between 17.7%-19.1% 6-12 months postpartum [158-161].

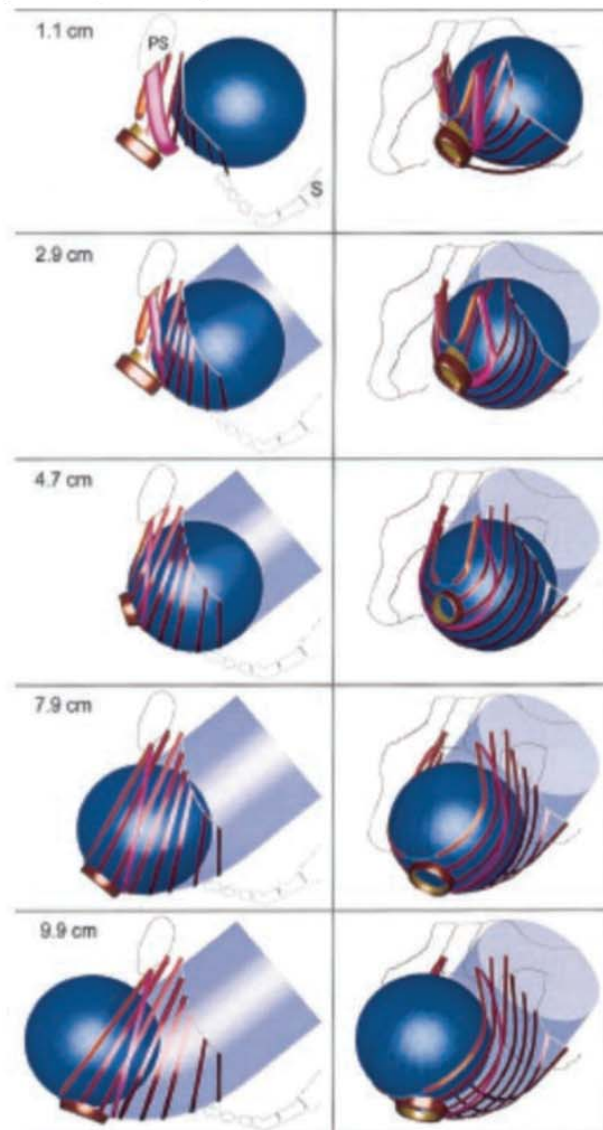


Figure 7. Simulated effect of fetal head descent on the levator ani muscles in the second stage of labour. From Lien et al, *Obstet Gynecol* 2004 [149].