



## A Update On Current Diagnostic Modalities And Treatment Of Urolithiasis- Review

**Tawqeer shafi<sup>1\*</sup>, Mandeep Malhi<sup>2</sup>, Patil Hanumanthrao<sup>3</sup>, Patil Rajesh Kumari<sup>4</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Pharm.D (Student), Adesh Institute of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, Adesh University, Bathinda,  
Email: iamtawqeer5@gmail.com

<sup>2</sup>Associate Professor, Department Pharmaceutics , Adesh Institute of Pharmacy & Biomedical Sciences, AU, Bathinda

<sup>3</sup>Professor & Principal, Department of Pharmacy Practice, Adesh Institute of Pharmacy & Biomedical Sciences, AU,  
Bathinda, Email: hcpatil@gmail.com

<sup>4</sup>Professor, Department of Pharmacy Practice, Adesh Institute of Pharmacy & Biomedical Sciences, AU, Bathinda,  
Email: rkpatil3014@gmail.com

**\*Corresponding Author:** Tawqeer shafi

\*Pharm.D (Student), Adesh Institute of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, Adesh University, Bathinda,  
Email: iamtawqeer5@gmail.com

### Abstract:

Urolithiasis is a affliction characterized by the formation of urinary calculi in the urological system. Urolithiasis, also known as nephrolithiasis, is a frequently encountered condition in emergency room settings. The ailment results in concretion of the genitourinary system. It raises the risk of getting ESRD. Oversaturation, crystallization, crystal enlargement, accumulation with in tubular structures processes contribute to the creation of stones. Urolithiasis is a intricate, multifactorial affliction impacted by both endogenous (like age, gender, and genetic transmission ) and exogenous (like geographic location, weather pattern, diet, micronutrient concentration and hydration status) factors. A kidney stone manifests clinically as pyrexia, queasiness, emesis and intense pain originating from the side of the abdomen propagating to the lower back. In individuals with severe symptoms, the distress is often described as sharp or piercing, and there may be an elevated heart rate accompanied by the presence or absence of blood in the urine. Some claim that the trio of symptoms for urinary or kidney stones include pyrexia, emesis, and sharp flank discomfort. Therefore, in an acute setting, pain reliever is administered in the presence or absence of anti-nausea medication to prevent emesis. Intravenous fluids are administered carefully. The ideal diagnostic imaging technique is noncontrast computed tomography (CT). When urinary stones are less than 5 mm in size, they typically wash out on their own without any assistance. However, when intervention is necessary, it is either done voluntarily or as quickly as feasible. Surgical intervention is required for the management of kidney stones, and the choice of surgical approach depends on factors such as the dimensions and site of the stone within the kidney or ureter. The surgical procedure is tailored to address the specific dimensions and site of the calculi , ensuring effective removal or fragmentation.

**keywords:** Urolithiasis, Nephrolithiasis, End-stage renal disease, Noncontrast computed tomography (CT), Calcium oxalate

### INTRODUCTION

The term "urolithiasis" originates from Hellenic term ouron, means "urine," and lithos, which means "stone". Urolithiasis is a affliction characterized by the formation of urinary calculi in the urological system. It is a long-standing and widespread ailment, and Hippocrates' Aphorisms explain its clinical prevalence and presentation.[1] Urolithiasis is a prevalent condition throughout the world. Its earliest known ancestors were kidney and bladder stones discovered in Egyptian mummies dating back to 4800 B.C as well as in Native American, Indian tombs In the 1500–1000 B.C. Calculi can develop anywhere in the genitourinary tract due to the multifactorial disease urolithiasis, which has a number of contributing factors. These factors include a chain of actions that upset the balance between substances that encourage and inhibit crystallisation and their inhibitors.[2]

Urolithiasis/ Nephrolithiasis is one of the various terms for kidney stones or urinary tract stones. The ailment results in concretion of the genitourinary system. Kidney stones are often referred to as urinary or renal calculi. In essence, calculi are stones.[3] Urinary tract stones can develop anywhere in the world and don't discriminate against racial, cultural, or geographic groups.[1] Urolithiasis, which is a prevalent condition affecting the genitourinary tract, is a significant contributor to disease burden. Approximately 12% of the global population experiences the discomforting urogenital tract ailment characterized by the creation of concretion, with recurrence rates ranging from seventy to eighty one percent in males and forty seven to sixty percent in females. Males are at three times higher risk of being impacted compared to females due to testosterone's ability to enhance it and oestrogen's ability to suppress stone development.[4]

In the normal course of things, renal concretion manifest intrarenal and are eventually expelled from the body through the genitourinary system. Small concretions have the ability to traverse the genitourinary system without inducing discernible manifestations. When the dimensions of the calculi exceeds 5 millimeters (0.2 inches), it can impede the ureteral tube and cause excruciating pain in the lower back or belly. Other symptoms of a stone include vomiting, painful urination, or blood in the urine. Nephritic colic, characterized by severe flank pain, is a typical symptom experienced by individuals with nephrolithiasis, which occurs due to the presence of calculi within the genitourinary system.[5] A mix of hereditary and environmental factors is responsible for the majority of stones. Risk factors include hypercalciuria, being overweight, eating certain foods, using Ca preparations, having thyrotoxicosis, having gouty arthritis, dehydration, high blood pressure, pregnancy, recent digestive system surgery, and illnesses like inflammatory bowel disease and persistent diarrhoea that interfere with the body's ability to absorb calcium. Several drugs, including topiramate (Topamax) and allopurinol (Zyloprim), can also raise the risk. When minerals in urine are concentrated at excessive levels, it causes nephrolithiasis.[3]

The diagnosis of renal calculi typically involves the use of radiological visualization, urinalysis, and assessment of the clinical manifestations. Hematological screening may also be conducted to aid in the diagnosis.[6] Kidney stones are classified based on their location: nephrolithiasis (found in the kidney), ureterolithiasis (located in the ureter), or cystolithiasis (present in the bladder). Renal calculi can also be categorised according to the substance they are formed of, like calcium oxalate monohydrate, urate, magnesium ammonium phosphate, or cystine. A number of physicochemical processes, including as oversaturation, crystallization, crystal enlargement, accumulation within tubular structures contribute to the complex process of stone formation. These processes are governed by the disturbances in the constituents that facilitate or impede the formation of solid crystals in the urine. It is remarkable that cellular impairment foster the persistence of deposits on the papillary surface of the kidney. In the presence of oxalate crystals kidney tubular cells are affected, a signalling sequence involves activation of the p38 MAPK pathways that leads to programmed cell death.[5]

Drinking enough fluids to create more than two litres of urine every day is the best way to prevent kidney stones in people who have already had them. If this is insufficient, thiazide diuretics, citrate, or allopurinol may be used. It is advised to avoid phosphoric acid containing soft drinks.[7] Asymptomatic calculi do not require management. However, if symptoms arise, the primary approach often involves analgesia using medications such as NSAIDs or analgesics. Tamsulosin may be used to let larger stones pass, or larger stones may need to be removed using ureteroscopy, percutaneous nephrolithotomy, or extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy. Each therapy pathway has a particular combination of hazards and success rates.[2]

#### **Categories of Stones:-**

The nomenclature of the stone is based on the minerals constituting it. The most common category of stones include those composed of silica, oxalate, urate, triple phosphate.[4]

#### **oxalate stones :-**

Calcium phosphate as well as calcium oxalate. These stones accounts for 80% of all urogenital calculi[8,9]. Calcium stones are primarily constituted of brushite or hydroxyapatite. [10] In excess of 60% of renal calculus predominantly consist of oxalate stones, including both whewellite and weddellite forms. [11]

Oxalate stones can form as a result of conditions such as oxalosis, which foster the generation of oxalate crystalluria. The presence of apatite stones is commonly associated with both thyrotoxicosis and renal tubular acidification defects. Acidic Urine pH are normally favourable for the development of calcium calculi, whereas basic urine pH favour the development of apatite stones.[12] in general, calcium stones have a higher tendency for recurrence than other categories of renal stones.

#### **Struvite Stones:**

Struvite (ammonium magnesium phosphate) which makes up 10-15% of urinary calculi, is a mineral. These stones predominantly form when there is an infectious condition caused by ureolytic microorganisms [4] These microorganisms produce the urea amidohydrolase enzyme which converts urea into ammonium hydroxide and carbonic acid gas by catalyzing its decomposition. As a result, the urinary pH rises, creating an environment conducive to the formation of struvite stones. Individuals with disorders such as spinal cord trauma, dysfunctional bladder, ileal loop diversion, urine backflow, and obstructive urinary tract diseases have a higher likelihood of getting urinary tract infections and subsequent struvite stones.[13] Underlying metabolic abnormalities such as gout, thyroid hormone excess and idiopathic calcium excretion disorder play a role in the formation of magnesium ammonium phosphate stones. If left untreated, these calculi have the potential to undergo rapid growth and develop into large calculi with a coral-like appearance, necessitating surgical intervention like percutaneous nephrolithotomy for lifelong cure.[14]

#### **Uric acid Stone:-**

Approximately 3–10% of all stone types fall into this category [8]. Oliguria, acidic urine, and hyperuricosuria are all effects of high purine diets, particularly those high in animal protein diets like meat and fish [12]. Stones can develop in

the kidney(s) in people with gouty arthritis. Idiopathic causes account for the majority of cases of urate stones [15], males experience urate calculi at higher rate than females.

#### **Cystinuria Stones:-**

Cystine stones, accounting for less than two percent of all types of urinary calculi, are associated with a inherited condition related to the transport of cystine, an amino acid. This disorder is known as cystine urolithiasis and is characterized by the excessive presence of cystine in urinary excretions [8]. Cystinuria is a non-dominant inheritance caused by a deficiency in the SLC3A1 gene located on Chr2 [16]. This genetic deficiency leads to the leakage of cystine into urine or its inadequate absorption by thenephrons. Consequently, insoluble cystine stones are formed, which do not dissolve in urine [12]. Homozygotic individuals with cystinuria excrete more than 0.6 moles of non-dissolvable cystine daily [8]. The primary clinical symptom of this cystine stone disorder is the formation of cystine in urine.[16]

#### **Silicate stones :-**

These specific type of stone constitutes only one percent of all cases. These stones are brought on by medications like triamterene, atazanavir, guaifenesin, and sulfa medicines. For example, individuals who use the indinavir to manage Human Immunodeficiency Virus may develop renal calculi. These stone-forming medications or their subproduct can accumulate and form a core either on stone that is present or independently. However, these medications can also interfere with the metabolism of calcium oxalate or purine, which can lead to calculi development [15].

### **DIAGNOSTIC INVESTIGATIONS**

Examining the patient's dietary history, family history, and medical history also helps with the diagnosis. The patient's medical history may reveal any illnesses they are now dealing with, as well as any medications or medical procedures they have recently undergone or adhered to, which could be risk factors for urolithiasis. The patient's eating habits and any genetic background of urolithiasis provide valuable insights in revealing the illness and identifying a potential cause[2]. Even if they are signs of renal stone disease and severe flank pain, the existence of stones in the urinary system is not always confirmed by these symptoms. A set of the below-mentioned diagnostic examinations must be completed in order to certify the existence of renal stones and eliminate false positives. It is essentially necessary to do the list of diagnostic tests below.

#### **URINE ANALYSIS**

It is the initial stage in the investigation to determine whether stones are present in the urinary system. The presence of blood is visualised, and the various parameters are analyzed to assess the urine composition[17,18]. The analysis of urine involves examining its visual characteristics, conducting dipstick tests, performing chemical assays, and analyzing the urine under a microscope. Haematuria is indicated by reddish urine, which is usually explained by the existence of pathogens and inflammatory cells. Urinary analysis is a valuable method for determining the acid base balance, urine density, hematuria, Pyuria, proteinuria in urine[2]. This approach allows for the assessment of these variables and aids in the diagnostic process. It is widely recognized that a low urine pH is beneficial for the creation of urate and cystinuria calculi, whereas a high urine pH encourages the creation of triple phosphate and hydroxyapatite calculi[19]. Urine pH can also be a good indicator of the type of stone that is present. Pus in the urine typically denotes an infection. Pus discovered in aciduria signifies the superinfection and that the calculi present may be a non mineral calculi, like cystinuria calculi, urate calculi or. The presence of pus in basic urine pH is a clear indication of the presence of triple phosphate calculi. To determine whether a UTI is present, urine cultures are frequently performed[18]. A microscopic evaluation is done to check for the presence of RBC, WBC, and microcrystalline particles that can form calculi. Again, a raised WBC count is a sign of a UTI, but an elevated RBC count is a sign of haematuria[19]. Microscopic examination of stones reveals a variety of shapes, including biconcave or hourglass-shaped whewellite crystals, envelope-shaped weddellite crystals, needle-shaped or acicular structures for apatite stones, coffin-lid-like rectangular prisms for infection stones, hexagonal crystals for uric acid stones. The existence of urinary excretory substances can be detected in urine, which aids in identifying the underlying metabolic disorders and contributing factor [20].

#### **CALCULI EVALUATION**

Calculi composition analysis plays a crucial role in research into people who develop stones frequently because it gives an overview of the minerals that make up the stones and, in turn, of the causes and metabolic conditions that may be involved, which aids in the development of effective medicinal interventions. In order to determine the stone's components and their specific locations within the stone, stone analysis entails looking at both the stone's crust and its core. The results are then compiled to determine the stone's underlying cause and, as a result, to guide diagnosis and treatment. The most common methods used to analyse stones are X-ray crystallography and infrared spectroscopy[21].

#### **SERUM ANALYSIS**

Serum analysis, also known as blood chemistry or blood tests, encompasses the measurement of various substances in the blood to assess renal function and identify underlying metabolic conditions. These measurements provide valuable insights into the health of the kidneys and the body's metabolic processes. Abnormal levels of these substances can indicate kidney dysfunction, electrolyte imbalances, acid-base disturbances, or other metabolic disorders associated with renal stone disease. Monitoring these parameters helps in diagnosing and managing the condition, evaluating treatment

effectiveness, and identifying any potential complications. Serum parathyroid hormone levels must be measured in order to look into hyperparathyroidism if increased calcium levels are found in the serum. Leukocyte count is determined by haematological analysis in addition to serum analysis since leukocytosis is visible in patients with infection.[22]

### **IMAGING**

The most crucial diagnostic technique for providing confirmation of the diagnosis obtained based on a person's family history, physical examination, and other factors is imaging. Lab examinations. One of the initial imaging studies performed is KUB radiography, which primarily involves capturing a radiographic image of the abdomen to evaluate for any abnormalities or concerns. It aids in finding the stones and creating a mental image of their quantity, variety, and size. In comparison to the radiolucent struvite, cystine, and urate stones, it is more compatible in identifying calcium-rich, radiopaque stones. Although it is relatively cost-effective, its effectiveness and hence its usefulness are severely restricted due to flatulence, stool, and renal calcific. Moreover, it poses a significant risk of exposure to ionizing radiation [20]. The use of it for initial detection, ESWL, and subsequent post-visit assessment is still common, though.

Ultrasound is a type of imaging that employs high frequency sound waves that, in the presence of solid objects like stones, reverberate or bounce back, creating an image of the identical object. Ultrasonography is employed as the initial visualization method for urinary stones in pregnant women since it carries no radiation exposure hazards to the baby. Ultrasonography is the preferred imaging technique for detecting and characterizing renal stones in pediatric patients. With the exception of ureteral calculi, the procedure is relatively cost-effective and capable of detecting all forms of stones [23].

Iodinated contrast media that travels through the blood. From there it is renal filtration and eliminated from the urinary system is given to the patient intravenously as part of a procedure known as intravenous pyelography (IVP). During this procedure, a sequence of X-ray images is captured at specified time frames, utilizing the contrast medium to obtain clear visualizations of the urinary system's structure, functionality, and possible impediment or calculi [23]. It is highly successful in identifying and precisely determining the site, extent of blockage, dimensions, and morphology of the stone. Additionally, it provides elaborate data about the configuration and performance of the kidneys. Compared to KUB radiography and ultrasonography, it offers superior diagnostic accuracy. Its reliability is steadily declining due to its adverse reactions of the radiographic dyes, that encompass a wide range of symptoms and complications, spanning from queasiness and skin redness to bradycardia plus nephrotoxicity to anaphylactic reactions [20]. It is not recommended for use in those who have impaired renal function, have an allergy to contrast media, are pregnant, or are taking metformin [23].

In computed tomography (CT), the X-ray beam is rotated around the patient's body to capture a sequence of images. These images are then reconstructed into three-dimensional representations. Noncontrast helical CT has gained increasing popularity due to its speed, accuracy, and ability to detect various types of stones in different locations without the need for contrast agents. It has largely superseded IVP and is on the verge of surpassing all other imaging methods. It is known to have accuracy of 96-98 percent, sensitivity and specificity of 96-100% [24,25]. The benefit of doing so is that it can inform you of the type of stone, the degree of obstruction, the anatomy and physiology of the kidneys [20]. The primary limitation of this method is the substantial amount of ionising radiation needed for visualization, which restricts its application to pregnant women and young children. Dual energy CT (DECT) and low-dose unenhanced CT have recently been developed to combat this. It has dual X-ray source and dual detector configuration. When seen by DECT, stones appear in a variety of colours depending on their type [25].

Recent advancements in imaging technology include digital tomosynthesis. When compared to the popular noncontrast CT, it has been demonstrated to carry a significantly lower risk of radiation exposure and may offer greater advantages and wider acceptance [26].

Nuclear imaging, commonly called isotope renography, diagnostic approach that utilizes a radiopharmaceutical agent labelled with technetium-99 that is administered intravenously in order to produce images of the urinary tract as the radioactive substance travels down it [23].

Urinary stones can be imaged using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), which also employs radio waves and the body's own magnetic properties [23]. In some cases, paramagnetic contrast media must be administered. The embryotoxic effects of high doses of paramagnetic contrast were identified after their discovery. [26], Due to its superior soft tissue contrast and the absence of ionizing radiation risks, DECT has found uses in imaging pathological alterations caused by calculi in the genitourinary tract, particularly in infants and gestating patients. However, it has turned out to be a safer option since contrast media administration is not necessary [23].

### **TREATMENT PROTOCOLS**

Urinary stone removal surgery or pharmacological therapy may be used to treat them depending on their dimension, configuration, position, category, and other ailment once their presence has been confirmed and their dimension, category, and position have been determined.

The preferred therapeutic classes for treating urolithiasis-related pain are non-steroidal anti-inflammatory medicines (NSAIDs) and opioids. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs may cause adverse GI and kidney related consequences, as well as queasiness, emesis, ischuria, fecal impaction and hypoventilation, opioid analgesics cause side effects like queasiness, emesis. Despite this, both drug categories have been found to be equally effective. With continued use of opioids, there is also a risk of addiction[3].

Mid-dimensioned lower ureteric concretion are expelled spontaneously passed through the urogenital system using medical expulsive treatment (MET). For MET, calcium antagonist, alpha-blockers, steroids are utilised. Tamsulosin is preferred medication for medical expulsive treatment because of its heightened tolerance. However, both doxazosin and terazosin have demonstrated comparable effectiveness in achieving the desired results. Glucocorticoids due to their anti-inflammatory properties and ability to alleviate kidney stone pain, have demonstrated significant efficacy as a valuable adjunct to tamsulosin treatment.[24]

In cases of renal stone disease accompanied by idiopathic hypercalciuria, thiazide and similar diuretics are recommended. They are known to have a hypocalcemic effect via increasing calcium absorption at the nephron segments. One concern with thiazide diuretics is their known tendency to cause low potassium levels. This condition can contribute to low levels of citrate in the urine, a risk factor for urolithiasis. To address this, potassium citrate or amiloride supplementation can be used to manage hypocitraturia. Triamterene, a diuretic that helps to conserve potassium, can also be employed to treat low levels of potassium. In the case of oxalate calculi and urate calculi, allopurinol is recommended. Allopurinol acts as a xanthine oxidase inhibitor, preventing the formation of uric acid from hypoxanthine and xanthine. By reducing urate levels in the urine, it inhibits the nucleation of calcium oxalate. [27]

Allopurinol and febuxostat are both xanthine oxidase inhibitors, Febuxostat has demonstrated greater efficacy in reducing urinary uric acid levels.[28]

In essence, urinary citrate levels are increased by potassium citrate. Citrate inhibits calcium phosphate and calcium oxalate crystal aggregation by converting urine calcium to a soluble state. Due to its alkalinizing impact on urine, potassium citrate also tends to prevent uric acid stones from forming[29]. However, it does have a propensity to cause stomach discomfort. Known diuretics that lower the risk of stone recurrence include potassium citrate, allopurinol, and thiazides[30].

It is well known that sodium cellulose phosphate binds to intestinal calcium and so prevents calcium absorption, lowering the high calcium excretion and preventing oxalate calculi creation. In addition, this treatment may contribute to the development of hypomagnesaemia and hyperoxaluria, which are known to exacerbate nephrolithiasis. It is worth noting that calcium polystyrene sulfonate has the propensity to provoke the parathyroid gland, adding another concern to consider.[31]

Although it has been found to be effective, it has the potential to lead to hypomagnesaemia and hyperoxaluria, both of which are crucial for aggravating renal stone disease. Additionally, sodium cellulose phosphate might stimulate the parathyroid gland.[31].

D-penicillamine is utilized for the management of cystinuria, particularly in situations involving cystinoliths. It promotes the disintegration of cystinoliths and decreases the concentration of cysteine disulfide in urinary flow by forming mixed disulfides, which have better solubility than disulfide bonds. Tiopronin is an alternative medication that is more easily accessible but generally less effective than D-penicillamine.[29]

AHA treatment is used as a healing approach option for infection stones which are linked with urinary tract infection provoked by ureolytic microorganisms. The efficacy of the treatment regimen is subject to scrutiny due to its undesirable effects, including the occurrence of DVT, erythrocyte destruction, gastric upset, quivering and hair loss.[29,31].

In the human gastrointestinal tract, an interesting anaerobic bacterium called *Oxalobacter formigenes* is known to increase the metabolic breakdown of oxalic acid into methanoic acid and carbonic acid, which in turn lowers the levels of oxalate in the urine. This bacterium is prescribed for idiopathic stone disease. *O. formigenes* has shown promise in treating primary hyperoxaluria-related urolithiasis.

Chemolytic dissolution medical intervention uses pH manipulation, detoxification, and disulfide shuffling to liquefy and eliminate nephrolithiasis. Urate stones undergo systematic chemolysis in the alkaline urine by administering bicarbonate of soda and citric acid[32]. Acetazolamide, a carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, can similarly quickly alkalinize the body, albeit its usage is constrained due to its propensity to induce calcium phosphate stones[33]. It is possible to produce systemic chemo lysis of cystinuric concretions with the utilization of D-penicillamine or -mercaptopyronylglycine chelation. chemical stone dissolution therapy can be employed as a non-surgical approach to completely avoid invasive procedures. Large, staghorn-shaped, or very close-by stones that are likewise refractory to medicinal treatment call for operative procedure.

### **ESWL:**

A popular and minimally invasive method for removing active stones is extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy. It utilizes sound waves generated by lithotripter to breakdown stones. The stones are targeted and broken up under fluoroscopic supervision as the patient is lying on a water filled tank which acts as a coupling agent for the delivery of sound waves to the individual's body. As a result, small enough stone fragments are produced that they finally pass through the body with the urine. An electromagnetic, electrohydraulic, or piezoelectric energy source may be used by a lithotripter to produce shock waves. Currently, it is also employed to fragment triple phosphate calculi, coral calculi, and calculi located in the ureter. It is currently also being used to fragment struvite stones, staghorn stones, and ureteric stones. It has the capability to disintegrate calculi located in the pelvis or calyx with a dimension of two cm. A crucial precondition for patient acceptance is that it can be done without anaesthesia and outside of a hospital setting [34]. The most significant of these negative effects is the risk for stone recurrence, which is true of every cure, including this stone-fragmentation tool, which has changed the therapeutic intervention choices for urinary stone disease. Other connected consequences include damage to the renal tissues, bleeding, and leftover stone fragments. [35]

### **Ureteroscopy:**

A flexible fiberoptic ureteroscope is used during ureteroscopy, a minimally invasive procedure that allows for access to the complete renal collecting system. It travels into the urethra, bladder, and ureter. It can effectively eliminate renal gravel and break bigger calculi through the implementation of stone fragmentation methods. This technique has gained significant popularity in the management of genitourinary concretion in infant clients and is increasingly being utilized in gestating women and patients who have undergone urostomy indicating a growing acceptance of its use in these populations. The risks connected with ureteroscopy include ureteral damage, rupture, blood in urine and UTI, albeit these risks are currently on decline due to the development of more flexible and constrictive ureteroscopes [36].

Retrograde intrarenal surgery are facing obsolescence as robotic-assisted retrograde intrarenal surgery, relieving surgeons from the arduous and fatiguing duty of manually manipulating nephroscopes for prolonged durations during endoscopic interventions of the urinary tract. [2]

### **PCNL:**

To reach calculus positioned within urinary collecting structure and adjacent urinary ducts, PCNL, another method for fragmenting and extracting stones, necessitates a back incision and tract dilatation. [2] For stones with a diameter greater than 2 cm that are found in the renal pelvis or calyx as well as for numerous stones, it is regarded as a good treatment option. Its most harmful complication, bleeding and injury to nearby organs, made it unpopular, especially with children [36].

### **Laparoscopic surgery:**

In laparoscopic surgery, where several keyhole trocar sites are made to insert trocars or cannulas. These trocars allow the introduction of surgical implements, is a relatively invasive procedure. Through one of the ports, a nephroscope may occasionally be inserted to view and remove stones. Although it is less common currently, laparoscopic surgery is required when urolithiasis is linked to consequences such as renal abnormalities or other issues, and when minimally invasive advanced procedures are ineffective [37].

### **Open surgery:**

In order to access the stone during open surgery to remove it, a single, sizable incision must be created. It is followed by excruciating agony and is associated with significant blood loss. It is recommended when the patient has a more complicated stone load, when kidney transplantation is involved, when the patient has anatomical abnormalities or morbid obesity, and when other cutting-edge treatments don't seem to be able to clear the patient of stones [38].

Herbal medicines have a substantial part in the treatment plans for urolithiasis in addition to synthetic formulations and surgical procedures. Phytopharmacology is essential for the prophylaxis and intervention of genitourinary concretion, is a very effective plus well-accepted technique due to its low cost, superior tolerability, and various areas of action. Actually, phytotherapy has the capacity to prevent kidney stones from recurring and is safer.

### **PREDISPOSING FACTORS AND PREVENTIVE DIETARY MODIFICATIONS**

Due to the fact that urinary stones are a complex condition, a number of risk factors, including nutritional, urinary, and genetic factors, are linked to their development. Other risk factors besides metabolism.

Higher consumption of oxalate, sodium chloride salt, a diet high in protein (animal protein), and a poor intake of fluids are all dietary risk factors. Low Increased fluid consumption causes low volume, highly saturated urine, which is a major contributor to the development of all forms of stones. [39] Low urine volume, hyperuricosuria, hypercalciuria, and hyperoxaluria are all urinary risk factors. Urinary stone production is greatly influenced by metabolic predispositions. Elevated quetelet index is associated with increased concentrations of oxalic acid, Ca and urate in the urinary fluid. diabetes mellitus because it is hypothesized that it promotes the creation of urate calculi. [40], and familial history of

urolithiasis[39]. The formation of infection stones can occur due to the presence of UTI, prolonged use of certain medications(such as trimethoprim, ceftriaxone, topiramate, indinavir, and probenecid)

Adequate hydration is essential for the mitigation of urolithiasis since it boosts urine volume and lowers supersaturation, which affects the formation of all stone forms. Additionally, greater fluid intake causes more frequent voiding, which is preferable to prevent the retention of precipitating solutes and the emergence of an infection in the urinary tract. Water is the most crucial fluid in this regard because it is affordable and readily available.

Urinary stone occurrences can be decreased by limiting dietary oxalate, salt, and animal protein intake and increasing calcium intake. It has been demonstrated that calcium from the diet, rather than calcium supplements, improves enteric oxalic acid assimilation. Additionally, it reduces the formation of lime salts in the urinary fluid.[42]

Reducing the usage of L-ascorbic acid dietary aids and incorporating pyridoxal-rich foods into the diet offer advantages. Ascorbic acid metabolism can lead to ethanedioate formation, whereas pyridoxal, by facilitating the conversion of oxoacetic acid to amino acetic acid, inhibits ethanedioate formation from oxoacetate.[43]

### Conclusion:

Urolithiasis is a frequently encountered condition in emergency room settings. The ailment results in concretion of the genitourinary system. The occurrence of urolithiasis is escalating worldwide even with remarkable improvement in the evolution of innovative therapies for the interventions for renal calculi. A urinary stone manifests clinically as pyrexia, queasiness, emesis and intense pain originating from the side of the abdomen propagating to the lower back. In individuals with severe symptoms, the distress is often described as sharp or piercing, and there may be an elevated heart rate accompanied by the presence or absence of blood in the urine. Oversaturation, crystallization, crystal enlargement, accumulation within tubular structures processes contribute to the creation of stones. These seem to be key objectives that enable the development of an innovative strategy for prevention of urolithiasis and pharmaceuticals that treat urinary stones. The ideal diagnostic imaging technique is noncontrast computed tomography (CT). Furthermore, identifying novel therapeutic biomarkers by studying biochemical plus cytologic alterations associated with the creation of genitourinary concretion can contribute to the development of more efficient pharmaceutical interventions. A more profound understanding fundamental principles of urogenital concretion and the factors that either promote as well as inhibit stone formation will be pivotal in the discovery of effective pharmacological agents for eliminating calculi.

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