

1 **Comparison of ultrasonographic findings in cats with and without azotaemia**

2 Christopher R. Lamb MA, VetMB, DipACVR, DipECVDI, FHEA, MRCVS, Helen Dirrig BVetMed, MRCVS
3 and Stefano Cortellini DVM MVetMed DACVECC MRCVS

4 Department of Clinical Science and Services, The Royal Veterinary College, University of London

5

6 Address correspondence to: C. R. Lamb, Department of Clinical Science and Services, The Royal
7 Veterinary College, Hawkshead Lane, North Mymms, Hertfordshire AL9 7TA, UK.

8 Email: clamb@rvc.ac.uk

9 Funding Sources: The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship or
10 publication of this article.

11 Key words: azotaemia, cat, renal disease, ultrasonography

12 Running head: Ultrasonographic findings in azotaemia

13 **Abstract**

14 Objective. To identify the renal ultrasonographic (US) findings most strongly associated with
15 azotaemia in cats.

16 Methods. Ultrasonographic findings in 238 cats with (serum creatinine >180 μ mol/L) and 270 cats
17 without azotaemia were compared in a retrospective case-control study. Cats with pre-renal
18 azotaemia or urethral obstruction were excluded. Data extracted from the medical records included
19 age, body weight and body condition score (BCS). Quantitative and subjective US findings were
20 extracted from archived ultrasound images and contemporaneous reports.

21 Results. In non-azotaemic cats, mean renal length was 40.1mm (SD 5.5mm). Male cats had larger
22 kidneys than female cats (mean difference 5.2mm, $p=0.001$) and on average the right kidney was
23 slightly larger than the left (mean difference 1.6mm, $p=0.01$). Azotaemic cats had significantly lower
24 mean body weight and BCS, and greater mean age and renal pelvic diameter. Renal pelvic diameter
25 was negatively correlated with urine specific gravity ($\rho -0.44$, $p<0.001$). Compared to non-azotaemic
26 cats, there was no difference in mean renal length of azotaemic cats because the numbers with
27 enlarged kidneys and small kidneys were similar. Radiologists' subjective assessments of renal size
28 differed markedly between azotaemic and non-azotaemic cats, with azotaemic cats more likely to be
29 recorded falsely as having abnormally small or enlarged kidneys. US findings significantly associated
30 with azotaemia were perinephric fluid (OR 26.4, CI 3.4-207.7), small kidneys (OR 8.4, CI 4.0-17.4),
31 hyperechoic renal cortex (OR 4.1, CI 2.2-7.6), loss of corticomedullary differentiation (OR 4.1, CI 1.8-
32 9.6), renal calculi (OR 2.7, CI 1.4-4.9), enlarged kidneys (OR 2.5, CI 1.2-5.5) and dilated renal pelvis
33 (OR 1.6, CI 1.3-1.9).

34 Conclusion and relevance. Perinephric fluid was the US finding most strongly associated with
35 azotaemia in this study and may merit more emphasis than it has received to date. Bias in
36 radiologists' subjective assessments of renal size suggests that other subjective findings will also be
37 biased.

38 Introduction

39 Renal azotaemia can occur because of an acute kidney injury (AKI) or the cumulative effects of
40 chronic kidney disease (CKD).^{1,2} In cats, causes of AKI include ureteral obstruction^{3,4}, ethylene glycol
41 or lily toxicity³, and pyelonephritis³, and causes of CKD include polycystic kidney disease⁵⁻⁸,
42 interstitial inflammation and fibrosis⁹, and nephrolithiasis.¹⁰ AKI and CKD can be present together,
43 for example when ureteral obstruction occurs as a sequel to nephrolithiasis.^{4,11} In patients with
44 azotaemia, ultrasonography (US) is indicated to examine the kidneys in order to distinguish AKI from
45 CKD¹², particularly to look for signs of urinary obstruction¹³, which requires specific treatment. Given
46 that unilateral renal abnormalities will not result in azotaemia if the contralateral kidney is
47 functioning well, it is essential to examine both kidneys.

48 US abnormalities can be divided into subjective findings, including abnormal renal shape and
49 echogenicity, and quantitative findings, including abnormal renal length and pelvic dilatation.¹⁴ Both
50 subjective and quantitative abnormal findings can occur in cats with or without azotaemia because
51 of overlap between the normal and abnormal ranges, because of the occurrence of subclinical renal
52 disease that does not cause azotaemia, and because the kidneys may be affected secondarily in cats
53 with various non-renal diseases, such as cardiomyopathy¹⁵ or acromegaly.¹⁶ It is unclear what
54 subjective or quantitative US findings are most strongly associated with azotaemia and, therefore,
55 are most likely to represent accurate signs of clinically significant renal disease. For example, renal
56 length is routinely measured during abdominal US examinations and there have been multiple
57 studies of normal renal size in cats¹⁷⁻²²; however, the diagnostic accuracy of renal length
58 measurements has not been assessed.

59 The aim of the present study was to compare US findings in cats presenting with and without
60 azotaemia in order to identify the ultrasonographic findings most strongly associated with
61 azotaemia.

62

63 **Methods**

64 For this retrospective case-control study, electronic medical records of the Queen Mother Hospital
65 for Animals (QMHA) between June 2009 and May 2015 were reviewed. The criteria for inclusion
66 were cats presented for the first time during this period that had ultrasonography of the urinary
67 tract, ultrasound report and images available for review, and had serum creatinine determination.
68 Azotaemia was defined as serum creatinine at presentation $>180\mu\text{mol/L}$ as determined by the
69 clinical pathology laboratory or plasma creatinine $>140\mu\text{mol/L}$ as determined by bench-top
70 biochemistry analyser (Bioprofile 300, Nova Biomedical, USA). Cats with pre-renal azotaemia or
71 urethral obstruction were excluded. Determination of pre-renal azotaemia was based on serum
72 creatinine on admission above the reference range, a urine specific gravity (USG) >1.040 , and no
73 ultrasonographic evidence of urinary obstruction.³

74 Cases were collected in two stages: all azotaemic cats that satisfied the inclusion criteria were
75 collected first for use in a study of ureteral obstruction²³, followed by collection of a similar number
76 of non-azotaemic cats presented during the same time period, regardless of their clinical diagnosis.
77 Data extracted from the medical records included signalment, body weight, body condition score
78 (BCS), serum creatinine, and urine specific gravity. US findings were extracted from
79 contemporaneous reports written by 6 different Board-certified ultrasonographers employed at the
80 QMHA during the period covered by the study. Archived ultrasound images were reviewed in order
81 to add renal measurements absent from the report. US findings included objective renal length in
82 sagittal or dorsal images, objective transverse pelvic diameter, subjective renal size, subjective pelvic
83 and ureteral dilatation, renal shape (irregular, asymmetrical, nodule or mass lesion), presence of
84 renal scars (focal depressions in the cortical surface with adjacent hyperechoic cortical segment),
85 echogenicity of the cortex and medulla, presence of renal cysts, calcification of the renal
86 parenchyma, presence of perinephric fluid, and presence of renal, ureteral or bladder calculi (Table
87 1). Clinical and ultrasonographic data for each cat were derived from the first period of
88 hospitalization only.

89 *Non-azotaemic cats*

90 In non-azotaemic cats, renal length was tested for Normality. The effect of gender, body weight and
91 laterality (left or right) on renal length was tested using a linear mixed effects model that accounted
92 for repeated measures from each cat. Correlation between USG and renal pelvic diameter (neither
93 of which were Normally distributed) was tested using Spearman's coefficient (ρ). Associations
94 between age of non-azotemic cats and likelihood of abnormal US findings affecting either kidney
95 were tested using binary logistic regression.

96 *Comparisons between azotaemic and non-azotaemic cats*

97 Continuous variables were tested for Normality and differences in continuous variables between
98 azotaemic and non-azotaemic cats tested using an independent samples *t*-test. The differences in
99 body condition score and renal pelvic diameter between azotaemic and non-azotaemic cats were
100 tested using Mann-Whitney tests. Subjective US findings for the left and right kidney in each cat
101 were aggregated for statistical analysis. Pairwise testing of differences in prevalence of US findings
102 between azotemic and non-azotemic cats were tested using chi-square methodology. Associations
103 between US findings and azotaemia were tested using binary logistic regression with step-wise
104 removal of non-significant variables. Results were expressed as odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence
105 intervals (CI). Statistical tests were done using a proprietary application (SPSS Statistics, version 22,
106 IBM Corporation). Differences with $p < 0.05$ were considered significant.

107

108 **Results**

109 Records were found of 238 azotemic cats and 270 non-azotemic cats. There were 286 males (275
110 neutered) and 222 females (210 neutered). Their median age was 7y (range 2w-22y). There were
111 286 (56%) Domestic shorthair cats, 23 (5%) Persians, 30 (6%) Domestic longhairs, 21 (4%) British
112 shorthair cats, 18 (4%) Ragdolls, 16 (3%) Bengals, 16 (3%) Siamese, 15 (3%) mixed breed cats, 14
113 (3%) Burmese, 10 (2%) Maine Coons, 8 (2%) Birmans, 8 (2%) British Blues, 6 (1%) Tonkinese and 15

114 other feline breeds with less than 5 affected individuals. Median body condition score was 4/9
115 (range 1-8) and mean body weight was 4.1kg (range 0.9-8.5kg).

116 Median serum creatinine in azotemic cats was 417 μ mol/L (range 184-2100 μ mol/L) as determined by
117 the clinical pathology laboratory (n=199) and median USG was 1.018 (range 1.006-1.050). Ureteral
118 obstruction was the most frequent tentative diagnosis, recorded in 92/238 (39%) azotemic cats, and
119 of these 38 (41%) were proved to have ureteral obstruction by pyelography.²³

120 *Non-azotemic cats*

121 Renal length had a Normal distribution with mean 40.1mm (SD 5.5mm). Five (2%) juvenile (<9
122 months old) non-azotaemic cats were excluded from this calculation. There were significant effects
123 on renal length for gender (p<0.001) and laterality (p<0.01), but not body weight (p=0.85). Males
124 had larger kidneys than females (mean 42.1mm versus 36.9mm) and the right kidney was larger than
125 the left (mean 40.9mm versus 39.3mm).

126 In non-azotaemic cats, there was a significant association between likelihood of abnormal US
127 findings and increasing age (p=0.001). Specifically, the prevalence of dilated renal pelvis (OR 1.2, 95%
128 CI 1.07-1.32), hyperechoic renal cortex (OR 1.1, 95% CI 1.02-1.21) and calcification of renal
129 parenchyma (OR 1.3, 95% CI 1.02-1.58) increased with age.

130 *Comparisons between azotaemic and non-azotaemic cats*

131 Azotemic cats had significantly lower mean body weight and BCS, and greater mean age and renal
132 pelvic diameter than non-azotemic cats (Table 2). No significant difference in median renal length
133 was observed because the numbers of azotaemic cats with enlarged kidneys and small kidneys were
134 similar (see below).

135 Subjective renal length was reported to be abnormal in 182 (76%) azotemic cats, with 101 (42%)
136 having subjectively small kidneys and 81 (34%) having subjectively enlarged kidneys; however, based
137 on using renal size in the non-azotaemic cats in this study as a reference range, small kidneys

138 (<29mm) and enlarged kidneys (>51mm) were present in only 16% and 6% cats with azotaemia,
139 respectively. Plots of the probability that renal length was recorded as subjectively normal versus
140 actual renal length demonstrate markedly different distributions in non-azotaemic and azotaemic
141 cats (figure 1). In non-azotaemic cats, the kidneys were more likely to be recorded as subjectively
142 normal in size in the range 29-51mm, which corresponds closely with the reference range observed
143 in these cats. In contrast, the kidneys of azotaemic cats were more likely to be recorded as
144 subjectively normal in the narrower range 35-45mm.

145 Renal pelvic diameter was negatively correlated with USG (ρ -0.44, $p < 0.001$) (figure 2). If the 38 cats
146 with proven ureteral obstruction were excluded, the correlation between renal pelvic diameter and
147 USG was not changed significantly.

148 Abnormalities affecting the kidneys, ureters and/or bladder were observed in 226 (95%) cats with
149 azotaemia and 126 (47%) cats without azotaemia (Table 3). On the basis of pairwise testing, all
150 recorded US findings were significantly more prevalent in azotaemic cats, except renal nodule or
151 mass, polycystic disease, the medullary rim sign, halo sign and perinephric pseudocyst, which
152 occurred with similar frequency in azotaemic and non-azotaemic cats. In the final regression model,
153 US findings significantly associated with azotaemia were perinephric fluid (OR 26.4, 95% CI 3.4-
154 207.7), small kidneys (OR 8.4, 95% CI 4.0-17.4), hyperechoic renal cortex (OR 4.1, 95% CI 2.2-7.6),
155 loss of corticomedullary differentiation (OR 4.1, 95% CI 1.8-9.6), renal calculi (OR 2.7, 95% CI 1.4-
156 4.9), enlarged kidneys (OR 2.5, 95% CI 1.2-5.5), and dilated renal pelvis (OR 1.6, 95% CI 1.3-1.9).

157

158 **Discussion**

159 The cats in this series represent heterogeneous samples of azotemic and non-azotemic cats. In the
160 majority of azotemic cats, a specific final diagnosis was not determined²³ and diagnosis in non-
161 azotemic cats was not recorded for the purposes of the present study. Under these circumstances,
162 only relatively general conclusions are possible about the meaning of the US findings. For example,

163 perinephric fluid was the US finding most strongly associated with azotaemia, the majority of
164 possible US signs of renal disease had low sensitivity for azotaemia and low specificity, with
165 abnormalities affecting the kidneys reported frequently in cats without azotaemia. Although US is
166 recommended for investigation of individual cats with CKD²⁴, it is not recommended as a screening
167 test for CKD in cats²¹ because of the poor correlation between US findings and renal function and the
168 prevalence of US abnormalities in non-azotaemic cats, the significance of which is difficult to assess.

169 Abnormalities affecting the kidneys were reported in 47% non-azotaemic cats in the present study.
170 The increasing prevalence with age of dilated renal pelvis, hyperechoic renal cortex and calcification
171 of the renal parenchyma may reflect subclinical renal disease that gradually becomes more marked
172 over time.^{1,9} Other studies have also found a high prevalence of US abnormalities in cats without
173 azotaemia. For example, US changes including segmental cortical lesions and abnormal renal capsule
174 were detected in 66/133 (50%) healthy Ragdoll cats and 25/62 (40%) healthy cats of other breeds.²⁵

175 The occurrence of abnormalities affecting the kidneys in cats without azotaemia is not surprising
176 because azotaemia is an insensitive indicator of renal function²⁶ that becomes elevated only when a
177 large proportion of functional nephrons have been lost and may be low despite clinically significant
178 renal disease in cats with low body weight.^{27,28} Insensitivity of serum creatinine means that the
179 group of non-azotaemic cats in the present study will include individuals with renal disease. More
180 accurate quantitative assessment of renal function requires measurement of glomerular filtration
181 rate²⁸; however, serum creatinine remains the test most widely used for assessment of renal
182 function in cats (and dogs) because it is widely available and inexpensive compared to measurement
183 of glomerular filtration rate.

184 Polycystic renal disease and medullary rim sign occurred with similar frequency in azotemic and non-
185 azotemic cats. Polycystic renal disease encompasses a wide spectrum of severity, including
186 subclinical.^{29,30} That polycystic renal disease was found just as frequently in cats without signs of
187 renal dysfunction as in cats with azotaemia emphasizes that its significance in an individual feline
188 patient must be interpreted in combination with other clinical findings. As previously reported in

189 dogs³¹, there appears to be no association between the medullary rim sign and clinical renal disease
190 in cats.

191 Occurrence of perinephric fluid has been reported previously in cats with azotaemia^{23, 32} and has
192 been associated with hyperkalaemia in cats with urinary obstruction.³³ Although perinephric fluid
193 was not significantly associated with ureteral obstruction or severity of renal dysfunction in some
194 previous studies^{23, 32}, it was the US finding most strongly associated with azotaemia in the present
195 study and, therefore, may merit more emphasis than it has received to date. Perinephric fluid may
196 be distinguished from subcapsular collections or perinephric pseudocyst when it has a pointed shape
197 on its non-renal border and/or is confluent with hypo- or anechoic fluid dissecting between fat in the
198 retroperitoneum. By analogy to cardiac failure, in which pulmonary oedema is a more accurate
199 indicator of cardiac dysfunction than the radiographic appearance of the cardiac silhouette³⁴,
200 perinephric fluid appears to be a more accurate sign of renal dysfunction than the US appearance of
201 the kidneys. Perinephric fluid is liable to accumulate in cats with renal disease when renal
202 ultrafiltrate leaks into the renal interstitium in sufficient quantity to overwhelm the drainage
203 capacity of capsular lymphatics.³² Perinephric fluid in cats with renal dysfunction is more likely to be
204 observed after administration of intravenous fluids than at presentation when cats are liable to have
205 hypovolaemia.

206 Renal length in healthy cats has been studied in some detail. Using US measurements, the normal
207 reference range has been reported as 30.4-42.9mm in 10 cats¹⁷ and 29.8-50.9mm in 56 Ragdoll
208 cats.³⁵ Minor, non-significant inter-breed differences were observed in renal length of sphynx cats,
209 British Shorthair and Ragdoll cats.³⁶ Multiple studies have found that the right kidney in cats is
210 slightly longer than the left.^{20, 22, 36} Renal length in cats has also been positively correlated with
211 bodyweight^{20, 35}, fat accumulation in the kidney³⁷, age³⁵ and male gender.³⁵ In a radiographic study,
212 neutered cats had smaller kidneys than sexually intact cats.¹⁸ The present study provides additional
213 evidence that the reference range for feline kidneys should be approximately 29-51mm, that male

214 cats have larger kidneys than female cats (mean difference 5.2mm), and on average the right kidney
215 is normally slightly larger than the left (mean difference 1.6mm).

216 The diagnostic accuracy of renal length measurements is low because relatively few cats with
217 azotaemia have either small or large kidneys. In the present study, small kidneys (<29mm) and
218 enlarged kidneys (>51mm) were present in only 16% and 6% cats with azotaemia, respectively,
219 hence the sensitivity of this measurement for azotaemia is low; however, the kidneys of azotaemic
220 cats in the present study were more likely to be recorded as subjectively abnormal than kidneys of
221 the same size in non-azotaemic cats. This finding indicates that ultrasonographers' judgements
222 about renal size were biased by the knowledge that patients had azotaemia. This observation raises
223 questions about the validity of subjective renal size assessment in azotaemic cats specifically, and
224 questions about the validity of subjective organ size assessment in clinical patients generally.

225 Interpretation of diagnostic images (and other test results) tends to be more accurate if the clinical
226 history is known³⁸; however, one argument against providing clinical information is that readers may
227 perceive abnormalities that are not present (false positives). It appears that the ultrasonographers
228 whose data were used for the present study employed different thresholds for abnormally small and
229 abnormally large depending on the clinical history of azotaemia and, therefore, were recording
230 abnormalities that may not have been present. It is important not to over-emphasize organ size as a
231 diagnostic criterion because the normal size ranges for many anatomical structures are very wide
232 (particularly in dogs), hence there is marked overlap between normal and pathologic ranges, which
233 limits the sensitivity and specificity of tests based on measurements.³⁹

234 If subjective assessment of renal size is prone to bias, the same may be true of other subjective US
235 findings significantly associated with azotaemia in the present study, such as hyperechoic renal
236 cortex or loss of corticomedullary differentiation. Hyperechoic renal cortex is a finding based on
237 subjective comparison of renal echogenicity with adjacent structures, such as the liver. The renal
238 cortex in cats normally has similar echogenicity as the adjacent liver¹⁹, although this relationship may
239 be affected by normal variations in fat deposition in the kidney³⁷ and/or liver^{40, 41} or the type of

240 ultrasound transducer used.⁴² In cats, interstitial nephritis, interstitial necrosis and fibrosis are
241 associated with increased renal cortical echogenicity.⁴³ Particularly in a cat with CKD, in which these
242 conditions are suspected, renal echogenicity is liable to be over-interpreted. The low specificity of
243 this US finding is also emphasized by the finding that it was the abnormality reported most
244 frequently in cats without azotaemia in the present study.

245 Median renal pelvic diameter was significantly greater in azotaemic cats compared to non-azotaemic
246 cats. This difference likely reflects both the occurrence of urinary obstruction in the group of
247 azotemic cats, which was proven in 38/238 (16%) instances, and their lower median USG, which will
248 frequently be associated with polyuria. Based on all cats for which USG data were available, renal
249 pelvic diameter was negatively correlated with USG. The tendency for pyelectasia in animals
250 producing dilute urine represents a physiologic variation in pelvic diameter occurring in response to
251 different rates of urine output. This effect has been demonstrated experimentally in dogs.⁴⁴

252

253 **Conclusion**

254 On the basis of the present study, it appears that perinephric fluid is strongly associated with
255 azotaemia and may be less prone to bias than subjective assessments of renal size or echogenicity.
256 Therefore, it may prove to be one of the most accurate US signs of renal dysfunction.

257

258 **Conflict of interest**

259 The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship,
260 and/or publication of this article.

261

262 **Acknowledgement**

263 We thank Yu-Mei Chang for helping with the statistical analysis.

264 Table 1. Ultrasonographic criteria

265

Criterion	Value recorded
Renal length	mm
Pelvic transverse diameter	mm
Subjective renal size	Normal; small; enlarged
Subjectively dilated pelvis	No; slight; marked
Subjectively dilated ureter	No; slight; marked
Renal shape	Normal; irregular; asymmetrical; rounded; nodule; mass
Cortical scars	None; slight; marked
Echogenicity of cortex	Normal; increased; heterogeneous
Echogenicity of medulla	Normal; increased; heterogeneous; medullary rim sign; halo signs; loss of corticomedullary differentiation
Calcification of renal parenchyma	None; present
Renal cyst	Single cyst; polycystic renal disease
Perinephric fluid	None; slight; marked; perinephric pseudocyst
Renal calculi	None; single; multiple
Calculi in ureter	None; single; multiple
Calculi in bladder	None; single; multiple

266

267 Table 2. Comparison of continuous variables cats with and without azotaemia

268

Variable	Azotaemic (n=238)	Non-azotaemic (n=270)	p-value
Age (y)	8.1 (4.7)	6.0 (4.0)	<0.001
Body weight (kg)	3.9 (1.1)	4.3 (1.3)	0.02
Body condition score (/9)	4 (1-8)	4 (2-8)	0.02
Urine specific gravity	1.018 (1.006-1.050)	1.041 (1.011-1.070)	<0.0001
Renal length (mm)	39.3 (8.5)	40.1 (5.5)	0.11
Renal pelvic diameter (mm)	2.0 (0-50)	0 (0-12)	<0.001

269

270 Values are mean (SD) for age, body weight and renal length; values are median (range) for body
 271 condition score, urine specific gravity and renal pelvic diameter.

272 Table 3. Comparison of ultrasonographic signs in cats with and without azotaemia

273

Ultrasonographic signs	Azotemic (n=238)	Non-azotemic (n=270)	p-value
Subjectively small kidney	101 (42%)	15 (6%)	<0.001
Subjectively enlarged kidney	81 (34%)	21 (8%)	<0.001
Subjectively dilated pelvis	152 (64%)	17 (6%)	<0.001
Subjectively dilated ureter	86 (36%)	3 (1%)	<0.001
Irregular renal shape	69 (29%)	14 (5%)	<0.001
Rounded kidney	9 (4%)	0	0.001
Renal nodule or mass	1 (0.4%)	1 (0.4%)	1
Cortical scars	41 (17%)	18 (7%)	<0.001
Hyperechoic renal cortex	105 (44%)	31 (12%)	<0.001
Hyperechoic renal medulla	74 (31%)	20 (7%)	<0.001
Medullary rim sign	22 (9%)	27 (10%)	0.88
Halo sign	0	0	1
Loss of corticomedullary differentiation	61 (26%)	14 (5%)	<0.001
Calcification of renal parenchyma	12 (5%)	3 (1%)	0.01
Polycystic disease	12 (5%)	16 (6%)	0.70
Perinephric fluid	54 (23%)	1 (0.4%)	<0.001
Perinephric pseudocyst	1 (0.4%)	0	0.47
Renal calculi	92 (39%)	13 (5%)	<0.001
Calculi in ureter	77 (32%)	1 (0.4%)	<0.001
Calculi in bladder	49 (21%)	12 (4%)	<0.001

274

275 **References**

- 276 1. Khan TM and Khan KNM. Acute kidney injury and chronic kidney disease. *Veterinary Pathology*
277 2015; 52: 441-4.
- 278 2. Balakrishnan A and Drobatz KJ. Management of urinary tract emergencies in small animals.
279 *Veterinary Clinics of North America-Small Animal Practice* 2013; 43: 843-67.
- 280 3. Segev G, Nivy R, Kass PH and Cowgill LD. A retrospective study of acute kidney injury in cats
281 and development of a novel clinical scoring system for predicting outcome for cats managed
282 by hemodialysis. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 2013; 27: 830-9.
- 283 4. Kyles AE, Hardie EM, Wooden BG, et al. Clinical, clinicopathologic, radiographic, and
284 ultrasonographic abnormalities in cats with ureteral calculi: 163 cases (1984-2002). *Journal of*
285 *the American Veterinary Medical Association*. 2005; 226: 932-6.
- 286 5. Domanjko-Petric A, Cernec D and Cotman M. Polycystic kidney disease: a review and
287 occurrence in Slovenia with comparison between ultrasound and genetic testing. *Journal of*
288 *Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2008; 10: 115-9.
- 289 6. Barthez PY, Rivier P and Begon D. Prevalence of polycystic kidney disease in Persian and
290 Persian related cats in France. *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2003; 5: 345-7.
- 291 7. Beck C and Lavelle RB. Feline polycystic kidney disease in Persian and other cats: a prospective
292 study using ultrasonography. *Australian Veterinary Journal* 2001; 79: 181-4.
- 293 8. Cannon MJ, MacKay AD, Barr FJ, et al. Prevalence of polycystic kidney disease in Persian cats
294 in the United Kingdom. *Veterinary Record* 2001; 149: 409-11.
- 295 9. Brown CA, Elliott J, Schmiedt CW and Brown SA. Chronic kidney disease in aged cats: clinical
296 features, morphology, and proposed pathogeneses. *Veterinary Pathology* 2016; 53: 309-26.
- 297 10. Pimenta MM, Reche A, Freitas MF, et al. Study of nephrolithiasis and ureterolithiasis in cats
298 with chronic kidney disease. *Pesquisa Veterinaria Brasileira* 2014; 34: 555-61.

- 299 11. Roberts SF, Aronson LR and Brown DC. Postoperative mortality in cats after ureterolithotomy.
300 *Veterinary Surgery* 2011; 40: 438-43.
- 301 12. Ozmen CA, Akin D, Bilek SU, et al. Ultrasound as a diagnostic tool to differentiate acute from
302 chronic renal failure. *Clinical Nephrology* 2010; 74: 46-52.
- 303 13. Remer EM, Papanicolaou N, Casalino DD, et al. ACR appropriateness criteria® on renal failure.
304 *American Journal of Medicine* 2014; 127: 1041-8.e1.
- 305 14. Debruyne K, Haers H, Combes A, et al. Ultrasonography of the feline kidney. *Journal of Feline*
306 *Medicine and Surgery* 2012; 14: 794-803.
- 307 15. Hickey MC, Jandrey K, Farrell KS and Carlson-Bremer D. Concurrent diseases and conditions in
308 cats with renal infarcts. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 2014; 28: 319-23.
- 309 16. Lourenco BN, Randall E, Seiler G and Lunn KF. Abdominal ultrasonographic findings in
310 acromegalic cats. *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2015; 17: 698-703.
- 311 17. Walter PA, Feeney DA, Johnston GR and Fletcher TF. Feline renal ultrasonography -
312 quantitative-analyses of imaged anatomy. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* 1987; 48:
313 596-9.
- 314 18. Shiroma JT, Gabriel JK, Carter RL, et al. Effect of reproductive status on feline renal size.
315 *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* 1999; 40: 242-5.
- 316 19. Drost WT, Henry GA, Meinkoth JH, et al. Quantification of hepatic and renal cortical
317 echogenicity in clinically normal cats. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* 2000; 61: 1016-
318 20.
- 319 20. Park IC, Lee HS, Kim JT, et al. Ultrasonographic evaluation of renal dimension and resistive
320 index in clinically healthy Korean domestic short-hair cats. *Journal of Veterinary Science* 2008;
321 9: 415-9.

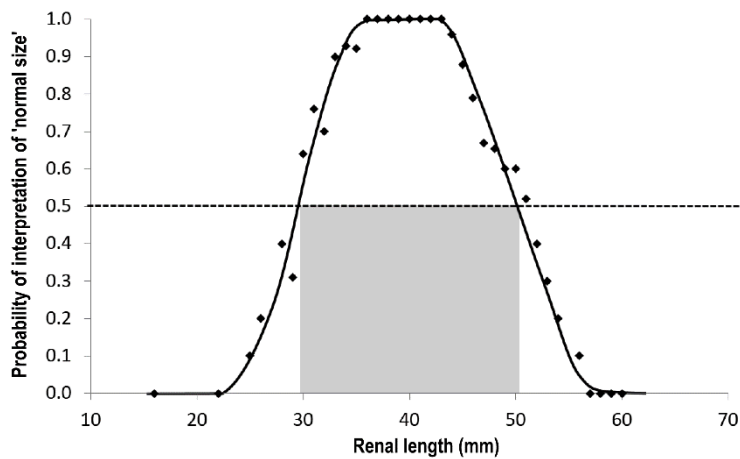
- 322 21. Paepe D and Daminet S. Feline CKD diagnosis, staging and screening - what is recommended?
323 *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2013; 15: 15-27.
- 324 22. Stocco AV, Sousa CAS, Gomes MS, et al. Is there a difference between the right and left
325 kidney? A macroscopic approach in Brazilian Shorthair Cat. *Arquivo Brasileiro De Medicina*
326 *Veterinaria E Zootecnia* 2016; 68: 1137-44.
- 327 23. Lamb CR, Cortellini S and Halfacree Z. Ultrasonography in the diagnosis and management of
328 ureteral obstruction in cats. *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2017 DOI:
329 10.1177/1098612X17694253.
- 330 24. Sparkes AH, Caney S, Chalhoub S, et al. ISFM consensus guidelines on the diagnosis and
331 management of feline chronic kidney disease. *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2016;
332 18: 219-39.
- 333 25. Paepe D, Bavegems V, Combes A, et al. Prospective evaluation of healthy Ragdoll cats for
334 chronic kidney disease by routine laboratory parameters and ultrasonography. *Journal of*
335 *Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2013; 15: 849-57.
- 336 26. Hartmann H, Schmitz R, Reder S and Hochel J. Relationship between endogenous serum
337 creatinine and glomerular filtration rate in healthy dogs and cats and animals with renal
338 disease. *Tieraerztliche Praxis Ausgabe Kleintiere Heimtiere* 2008; 36: 111-8.
- 339 27. Braun JP, Lefebvre HP and Watson ADJ. Creatinine in the dog: A review. *Veterinary Clinical*
340 *Pathology* 2003; 32: 162-79.
- 341 28. Finch N. Measurement of glomerular filtration rate in cats – Methods and advantages over
342 routine markers of renal function. *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2014; 16: 736-48.
- 343 29. Bonazzi M, Volta A, Gnudi G, et al. Prevalence of the polycystic kidney disease and renal and
344 urinary bladder ultrasonographic abnormalities in Persian and Exotic Shorthair cats in Italy.
345 *Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2007; 9: 387-91.

- 346 30. Paepe D, Saunders J, Bavegems V, et al. Screening of ragdoll cats for kidney-disease: a
347 retrospective evaluation. *Journal of Small Animal Practice* 2012; 53: 572-7.
- 348 31. Mantis P and Lamb CR. Most dogs with medullary rim sign on ultrasonography have no
349 demonstrable renal dysfunction. *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* 2000; 41: 164-6.
- 350 32. Holloway A and O'Brien R. Perirenal effusion in dogs and cats with acute renal failure.
351 *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* 2007; 48: 574-9.
- 352 33. Nevins JR, Mai W and Thomas E. Associations between ultrasound and clinical findings in 87
353 cats with urethral obstruction. *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* 2015; 56: 439-47.
- 354 34. Lamb CR and Boswood A. Role of survey radiography in diagnosing canine cardiac disease.
355 *Compendium on Continuing Education for the Practicing Veterinarian* 2002; 24: 316-26.
- 356 35. Debruyne K, Paepe D, Daminet S, et al. Renal dimensions at ultrasonography in healthy Ragdoll
357 cats with normal kidney morphology: correlation with age, gender and bodyweight. *Journal of*
358 *Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2013; 15: 1046-51.
- 359 36. Debruyne K, Paepe D, Daminet S, et al. Comparison of renal ultrasonographic measurements
360 between healthy cats of three cat breeds: Ragdoll, British Shorthair and Sphynx. *Journal of*
361 *Feline Medicine and Surgery* 2013; 15: 478-82.
- 362 37. Yeager AE and Anderson WI. Study of association between histologic features and
363 echogenicity of architecturally normal cat kidneys. *American Journal of Veterinary Research*
364 1989; 50: 860-3.
- 365 38. Loy CT and Irwig L. Accuracy of diagnostic tests read with and without clinical information: a
366 systematic review. *JAMA* 2004; 292: 1602-9.
- 367 39. Lamb CR and Nelson JR. Diagnostic accuracy of tests based on radiologic measurements of
368 dogs and cats: a systematic review. *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* 2015; 56: 231-44.

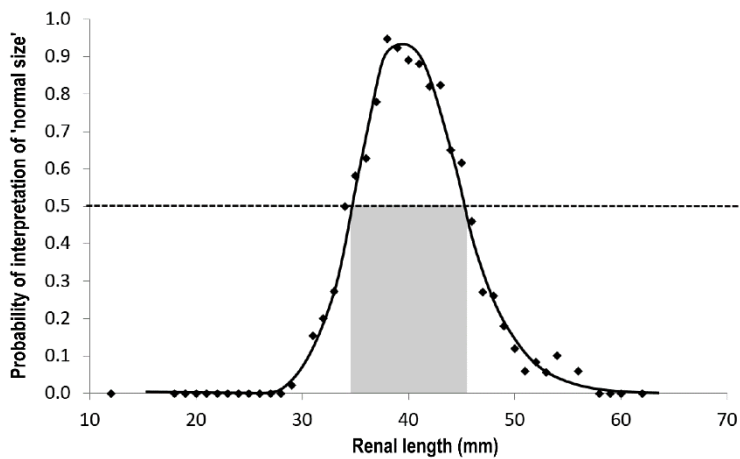
- 369 40. Nicoll RG, O'Brien RT and Jackson MW. Qualitative ultrasonography of the liver in obese cats.
370 *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* 1998; 39: 47-50.
- 371 41. Yeager AE and Mohammed H. Accuracy of ultrasonography in the detection of severe hepatic
372 lipidosis in cats. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* 1992; 53: 597-9.
- 373 42. Yabuki A, Endo Y, Sakamoto H, et al. Quantitative assessment of renal cortical echogenicity in
374 clinically normal cats. *Anatomia Histologia Embryologia* 2008; 37: 383-6.
- 375 43. Zotti A, Banzato T, Gelain ME, et al. Correlation of renal histopathology with renal
376 echogenicity in dogs and cats: an ex-vivo quantitative study. *BMC Vet Res* 2015; 11: 8.
- 377 44. Jakovljevic S, Rivers WJ, Chun R, et al. Results of renal ultrasonography performed before and
378 during administration of saline (0.9% NaCl) solution to induce diuresis in dogs without
379 evidence of renal disease. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* 1999; 60: 405-9.

380 **Figure legends**

381 Figure 1. Plots of the probability that renal length was recorded as subjectively normal versus actual
382 renal length in (A) non-azotaemic cats and (B) azotaemic cats. Probability of a kidney being reported
383 as normal size exceeds 50% in the range 29-51mm (grey zone) for non-azotaemic cats and the
384 narrower range 35-45mm for azotaemic cats. Trend lines were drawn manually for illustration
385 purposes only.



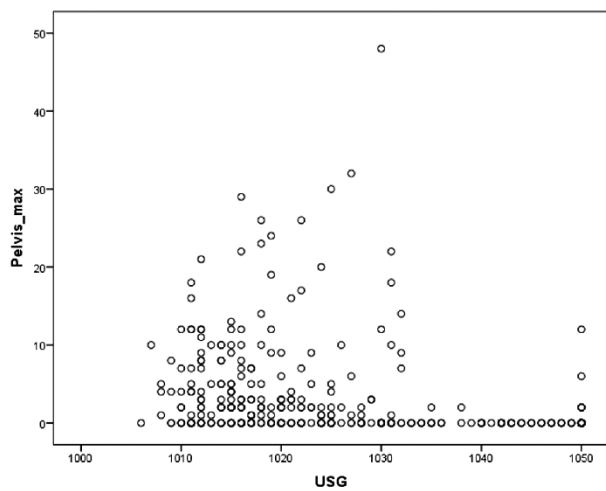
386 A



387 B

388

389 Figure 2. Scatter plot of renal pelvic diameter against USG in 368 cats. There is a moderate negative
390 correlation ($\rho = -0.44$, $p < 0.001$).



391