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Identification of Brain Structures Involved in Lower Urinary 1 Tract Symptoms and Sexual Dysfunctions in Patients with 2 Multiple Sclerosis 3 Emilio Sacco Δ Received: 15 June 2021 Accepted: 4 July 2021 Published: 15 July 2021 5

Abstract 7

Multiple sclerosis is an autoimmune progressive neurological disease with a diverse range of 8 urological symptomatology, since most MS patients experience one or more moderate to severe urinary symptoms, as well as bladder and/or sexual disorders. Urologists play the director?s 10 role in evaluating and treating these patients. Therefore, identifying and understanding the 11 central neural processes involved in specific parts of micturition in patients with neurogenic 12 lower urinary tract dysfunction may identify areas of interest for future intervention. 13

Index terms— 15

14

1 Introduction 16

ultiple sclerosis (MS), which is the most frequently occurring progressive neurological autoimmune disease in 17 young people, can affect any part of the central nervous system (CNS). The lifetime prevalence of MS is roughly 18 250 per 100,000 people [1]; MS is commonly diagnosed in younger adults ??20-40 years) and affects females 3-4 19 times more often than males. It has been reported that lower urinary tract dysfunction occurs in the first 18 20 years after disease onset in up to 90% of MS patients [2,3]. In the 2005 North American Research Committee 21 on Multiple Sclerosis (NARCOMS) survey of almost 10,000 patients with MS, 65% of participants reported 22 experiencing one or more moderate to severe urinary symptoms, as well as bladder and sexual disorders [4]. In 23 MS patients, lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) occur on a spectrum of severity, ranging from urgency to urge 24 urinary incontinence, potentially accompanied by incomplete bladder emptying and/or hesitancy. The severity 25 of LUTS and their presentation may show considerable variation among MS patients as a result of the multifocal 26 and diffuse involvement of the CNS. Roughly 70% of MS patients indicated that they experienced a moderate 27 or severe impact on their quality of life as a result of LUTS [5]. Furthermore, in addition to the serious impact 28 of LUTS on the quality of life of MS patients, LUTS also pose an elevated risk for upper urinary tract integrity 29 [6]. In diagnostic evaluations of patients with MS, the most frequently observed urological findings are urgency, 30 frequency and neurogenic detrusor over activity (NDO) (34-99%) [7]. 31 II.

32

$\mathbf{2}$ Objectives 33

This study was conducted to review and summarize data on neurologic lower urinary tract disorders, sexual 34 dysfunctions and their correlation with brain and brainstem lesions in patients with MS. 35

3 III. 36

4 Methods 37

A literature review (PubMed, Web of Science, and Scopus) was conducted for articles on urological and sexual 38 dysfunction in MS patients and their correlation with brain and brainstem alterations. 39

40 **5** IV.

⁴¹ 6 Neural Pathways of Micturition

Until the age of 3 to 5 years, the micturition occurs involuntarily in infants and in young children. After this age, 42 the development of the system controlling the micturition is complete and mature. In CNS, there are many areas 43 and pathways involved in this process, and they are strictly connected to tracts in the spinal cord. These circuits 44 coordinate the activity of the smooth and striated muscle of the bladder and the tone of the sphincter, allowing 45 the storage and the elimination of urine. The coordination is mediated by a complex neural system that is located 46 in the brain, in the spinal cord and in the peripheral ganglia. [8]. The bladder has only two modes of operation: 47 storage and elimination. Both modalities involve a pattern of afferent and efferent signaling in parasympathetic 48 (pelvic nerves), sympathetic (hypogastric nerves) and somatic (pudendal nerves) pathways. These bring to the 49 formation of reflexes, which can keep the bladder relaxed with a low intravesical pressure, or can initiate the 50 contraction of the detrusor to allow bladder emptying. [9]. The parasympathetic pathways mediate the relaxation 51 of the urinary sphincter and the contraction of the detrusor. Preganglionic neurons are located in the lateral part 52 of the sacral (S2-S4) intermediate gray matter (also called sacral parasympathetic nucleus). The postaganglionic 53 neurons are located both in the pelvic plexus and in the detrusor wall layer. [10]. Sympathetic pathways mediate 54 the relaxation of detrusor muscle and the contraction of the bladder outlet region and urethra. The preganglionic 55 neurons are located in the intermediolateral nuclei of T10-L2 of the spinal cord. The axons follow a complex route 56 through the sympathetic chain ganglia, the inferior mesenteric ganglia, ending through the hypogastric nerves 57 to the pelvic ganglia. [11]. The motoneurons controlling the activity of external urinary sphincter (EUS) are 58 59 located in the lateral border of the ventral horn, commonly names as the Onuf nucleus. The somatic innervation is provided by the pudendal nerve [12]. The afferent pathways moves from periphery through the pelvic nerves 60 to the dorsal root ganglia at the lumbosacral level of the spinal cord, but some fibers travel from periphery to 61 the spinal cord through the hypogastric nerve [13]. The most important informations come from receptors of the 62 bladder wall, which travel along those routes and are activated when the intravesical pressure overcomes a certain 63 threshold (5-15 mmH2O, first sensation of bladder filling). There are also smaller fibers which are "silent", but are 64 activated following chemical irritation to the bladder mucosa. Recent evidences suggests that the urothelium itself 65 can serve as an important signaling unit, producing a big variety of biochemical mediators [14]. Bladder filling is 66 mediated by a sympathetic storage reflex and a somatic storage reflex, with the purpose to relax the bladder and 67 to contract the EUS. As the bladder distends, afferent fibers travel informations through the pelvic nerves to the 68 spinal cord, activating a sympathetic response (L1-L3) and a consequent decrease in parasympathetic activity. 69 The predominant innervation of the human bladder from sympathetic fibers is in the outlet region, where it 70 mediates contraction. Pelvic nerves driving impulses to the spinal cord activate also neurons in the nucleus of 71 72 Onuf, activating a response through the pudendal nerve ending in the contraction of the EUS. In addition to 73 this, there is also a supraspinal imput to the nucleus of Onuf, responsible of the voluntary control of the EUS [15]. When the bladder is very full and the impulsis from the afferent fibers arise, they are brought also to more 74 rostral areas of the spinal cord, and to the brain. The periacqueductal gray (PAG) in the rostral brain stem 75 integrates information from afferent fibers and from the cerebral cortex, and is strictly connected to the Pontine 76 micturition center (PMC), which also controls the pathway of the micturition reflex. When the afferent activity 77 overcomes a certain threshold, PMC activity increases and activates the parasympathetic pathways, determining 78 the activation of the detrusor and the relaxation of the EUS, performing micturition [8]. Summing up, in adults, 79 micturition depends on a longloop spinobulbo-spinal reflex. During the filling phase, that usually occupies at 80 least 99% of the time, afferent signals from the bladder and urethra ascend through the spinal cord to synapse in 81 the midbrain periaqueductal gray (PAG). Their intensity increases as the bladder is filled. If the reflex operated 82 automatically, then it would be triggered when afferent input exceeded a certain threshold; fibers descending from 83 the PAG would then excite the pontine micturition center (PMC); PMC excitation activates descending motor 84 efferents, which are hard-wired to cause coordinated urethral sphincter relaxation and bladder contraction; thus 85 the system would enter the voiding phase and empty the bladder. However, automatic triggering of the reflex 86 implies involuntary voiding (incontinence). Normally therefore the reflex is inhibited [16]. 87

88 7 V. Urological Disorders in Multiple Sclerosis

Bladder dysfunction is the most frequently encountered disturbance of the autonomic nervous system in MS, but 89 in many cases, it is inadequately diagnosed and insufficiently treated. According to a systemic review of recent 90 articles presenting the findings of urodynamic studies in MS patients (12 studies, 1524 patients), 53% of MS 91 92 patients had detrusor overactivity (DO), 43% had detrusor sphincter dyssynergia (DSD), and 12% had atonic 93 bladder. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) studies of MS patients have suggested an association between 94 MS lesions in the corticospinal tract with progressive lower urinary tract bother, hesitancy, and urgency or 95 frequency [8]. Cervical lesions are often linked to the presence of DSD [17]. Furthermore, urinary incontinence and weak stream have shown associations with lesions in the cerebellum and pons [18]. Over the course of 96 disease progression, it is necessary to reassess MS patients in order to adjust their therapies. In many patients, 97 conservative and pharmacological therapies show diminishing effectiveness, which may be due to the cumulative 98 impact of physiological, cognitive, and physical changes over the course of MS. For this reason, it is important to 99 regularly change treatment regimens of MS patients for urological safety and to promote their quality of life. If 100

conservative and pharmacological treatments become ineffective, it is important for both physicians and patients to understand the benefits, risks, and outcomes of secondary and tertiary treatments for LUTS related to MS.

Sexual dysfunctions (SDs) are also widespread among MS patients, although their prevalence is frequently 103 underestimated and they may have a remarkably strong effect on patients' quality of life. SDs have been reported 104 to be present in 50-90% of MS patients [19,20]. Urgency, frequency, and neurogenic detrusor overactivity are the 105 most common urological symptoms in patients with neurogenic disorders like multiple sclerosis (MS), Parkinson's 106 disease, spinal cord injuries, or ischemic stroke. Dysfunctional voiding occurs in 34% to 79% of the patients [21]. 107 There seem to be three separate regimes. Firstly, at small bladder volumes when sensation is mild, responses 108 show abnormal deactivation of limbic regions, perhaps to suppress unwanted emotional reaction. Secondly, at 109 large bladder volumes with strong sensation but in the absence of DO, responses are exaggerated, representing 110 recruitment of accessory pathways to maintain bladder control and/or increased bladder awareness. Finally, if 111 bladder control is lost, signified by the onset of DO, then there seems to be a third pattern of responses, including 112 deactivation of the prefrontal cortex, that may indicate inability to maintain voluntary control of voiding ??16]. 113 In individuals with proven urge incontinence and DO, brain responses to bladder filling at small bladder volumes 114 (with relatively mild sensation and no DO) differ from normal. A considerable part of the limbic (emotional) 115 system shows deactivation with bladder infusion, including hippocampus, parahippocampal gyrus and possibly 116 117 amygdala, together with adjacent inferior temporal lobes, medial orbito-frontal cortex, and parts of the posterior 118 cortex. Such extensive deactivations were not seen in normals (significant difference between groups, P<0.01119 uncorrected), the location of deactivations in the limbic system may imply that urge-incontinent individuals suppress unwanted emotional reactions aroused by bladder infusion, even when there is no urgency and no DO. 120 Such suppression might be a conditioned reaction to bladder filling, formed by previous negative experiences of 121 loss of bladder control ??16]. 122

Other striking differences between brain responses in urge-incontinent and normal subjects occur at larger 123 bladder volumes, after subjects have signaled strong desire to void orurgency (but there is no DO or incontinence). 124 Firstly, urge-incontinent subjects show significantly stronger and more extensive activation of the brain globally, 125 especially in the ACG, part of the limbic (emotional) nervous system. Secondly, they exhibit significantly stronger 126 activation in accessory areas that include frontoparietal regions involved in pelvic-floor motor activity and the 127 lateral somatomotor cortex identified by Critchley et al, a region that supports interoceptive awareness. Together, 128 these changes suggest abnormally strong emotional arousal induced by bladder filling, and an attempt to recruit 129 accessory pathways in order to maintain control of pelvic-floor muscles and inhibition of the PMC (and the voiding 130 reflex) when loss of bladder control threatens. In DO patients, the presence of DO was associated with marked 131 decrease in activation of the prefrontal cortex bilaterally andparts of the limbic system (right parahippocampal 132 gyrus/amygdala). There was no significant change in the activation of ACG or orbitofrontal cortex. This pattern 133 of changes suggests a lack of voluntary control of the bladder with ongoing arousal ??16,17]. 134

Urgency is a key characteristic of urge incontinence. It is an abnormal sensation characterized by a compelling 135 natureand pronounced emotional content, as indicated by currentand past definitions: "a sudden compelling 136 desire to void that is difficult to defer", associated with "fear of leakage." ??16,17] Many data suggest that 137 there may be a dysfunction of the prefrontal cortex in urge-incontinent subjects, either weaker activation of 138 orbitofrontal cortex or deactivation of medial frontal cortex. Because the prefrontal cortex is associated with 139 decision-making in a social context and is involved in voiding, it is plausible that dysfunction of this region could 140 be a cause of incontinence. The dysfunction could be caused either by a regional defect or by disruption of 141 connecting pathways. In urge-incontinent subjects, brain responses to bladder filling differ from normal at both 142 small and large bladder volumes, even in the absence of DO. Weak response or deactivation observed in the 143 prefrontal cortex or the limbic system may represent intrinsic defects of supraspinal bladder control that cause 144 urge incontinence. Exaggerated ACG response at large bladder volumes apparently represents a learned reaction 145 to imminent loss of control that originates elsewhere in the brain or is due to abnormal bladder afferents. It 146 may be the neural correlate of the abnormal sensation called urgency. If actual DO develops then the prefrontal 147 cortex seems to become deactivated, consistent with the loss of voluntary bladder control. Different causes or 148 combinations of causes may be responsible for urge incontinence in different individuals, implying that there are 149 different phenotypes that may require different treatments. Understanding of these differences and their causes, 150 based on functional brain imaging, promises to bring about the next great advance in diagnosis and therapy of 151 this difficult problem ??16,17]. 152

¹⁵³ 8 VII. Neural Alterations in Detrusor-Sphincter Dyssynergia

Detrusor sphincter dyssynergia (DSD) is a very frequently found problem in patients with neurological diseases. 154 In fact, it is commonly seen in patients with SCI and MS but there seem not to be clear relationship to type 155 156 of DSD and severity of the neurological condition. Residual urine volume and thus secondary UTIs onset with 157 the risk of kidney damage is currently a problem. DSD is defined as a rise of muscle activity in the pelvic floor electromyography during relaxation of the pelvic floor, showing that the urethral sphincter muscle contracts, 158 instead of relaxing completely during initiation of voiding. Khavari et al [22] have demonstrated in subjects with 159 MS and DSD that the patients show lower, more diffuse activation than the healthy volunteers. Furthermore, 160 patients who demonstrated NDO tended to have more activation in the areas associated with executive function 161 (bilateral middle and right inferior frontal gyrus) and the brainstem than the group without NDO. Additionally, 162

the right inferior frontal gyrus, which is implicated in risk aversion, is more activated in patients with NDO, 163 which could be explained as an inhibition signal to accept a risky option of urinary incontinence [23]. About 164 patients with DSD, this small subgroup expressed a trend toward greater activation in areas of executive function, 165 emotional processing, movement (right caudate) and the brainstem (each p < 0.01) [22]. Interestingly, the caudate 166 nucleus, one of the structures in the basal ganglia that has been long associated with motor processes because 167 of its role in Parkinson's disease, is also significantly activated in this group at the time of DSD. This reaction 168 could possibly be explained by the learned behavior that these patients may require to initiate more abdominal 169 straining and Valsalva maneuvers to begin to void due to higher bladder outlet resistance. 170

A recent study from Sandra Seseke et al [24] demonstrated some differences between DSD patients and healthy 171 controls in fMRI. Surprisingly, the pontine region showed a completely different activation site in the group 172 activation map of the patients. The activation was detected in the more rostral/dorsal part in the DSD group. It 173 could be explained by a stronger activation of the pontine L-region as the patients have to try harder to initiate 174 the micturition and the urethral sphincter is inhibited as functional brain studies of Blok et al [25] and Nour et 175 al [26] elucidated. In a recent study of Keller et al [27] using an animal model, neurons in the PMC expressing 176 estrogen receptor 1 were identified, which are responsible for bladder contraction and relaxation of the urethral 177 sphincter, whereas the other subset of neurons found, expressing corticotropin-releasing hormone, only increased 178 179 the bladder pressure. The study could show that molecularly and functionally distinct cell groups may play a 180 role in the subcortical regulation of micturition. In human, further studies with larger samples have to clarify 181 the location differences in functional mapping of the pontine regions.

¹⁸² 9 VIII. Neural Alterations in IPO-and Acontractile Bladder

A wide range of neurologic injures or neurologic diseases can lead to detrusor under activity (DUA). This 183 dysfunctions may involve the brain, the spinal cord or the peripheral nerves, in both their afferent and efferent 184 component [28]. In the brain, the pontine micturition center (PMC) receives many imputs from the cerebral 185 cortex, in particular from the limbic system. Many areas, like the insula, hypothalamus and the periaqueductal 186 gray help integrating all the stimuli, resulting in the activation of micturition pathways. Any lesion in one of 187 those regions, for example, secondary to MS plaques, may potentially lead to DUA, even if there is not always a 188 direct correlation between the neurologic lesion in the brain and the urological dysfunction [29]. Overall, DUA 189 may occur in up to 20% of patients affected by MS, but in particular if neurological lesions affect the lumbosacral 190 cord instead of the brain [30]. In Parkinson's disease or after a cerebrovascular accident overactive bladder is the 191 most common sequela, but in the acute period about 50% of the patients may develop acute urinary retention, 192 due to the "cerebral shock" [31]. About peripheral innervation, injures at the level of lumbosacral cord, the 193 cauda equina and the sacral and pelvic nerves can lead to DUA. This may occur as the result of a trauma, a 194 disease of the vertebral column or after radical pelvic surgery. An interruption or impairment of efferent signaling 195 in the sacral cord (segments S2-S4), sacral roots or pelvic nerves can present with reduced or absent detrusor 196 contraction [32]. In a systematic review [33], the overall incidence of LUT dysfunctions after radical hysterectomy 197 198 was 72%, and high incidences of DUA were reported also in older series of patients undergoing radical rectal surgery. An impairment in afferent function (from the bladder or the urethra) can potentially reduce or delete 199 the micturition reflex, leading to partial or total loss of voiding efficiency. Also normal aging is associated with a 200 decline in sensory function in the lower urinary tract [34]. Without intact bladder sensation, correct functioning 201 of the efferent limb of the micturition reflex is compromised. Also urethral afferents have an important role in 202 the perception of the detrusor contraction and the flow through the urethra [35]. 203

²⁰⁴ 10 IX.

²⁰⁵ 11 Neural Alterations in Sexual Dysfunctions

Sexual dysfunctions (SDs) are often found, but frequently underestimated, in patients with MS, and may have a 206 remarkably high impact on patients' quality of life (QoL) [36]. In the past, MS-associated ED was thought to be 207 the result mainly from MS lesions in the spinal cord [36]. More recently, functional neuroimaging in healthy men 208 identified a network of brain areas, such as A the insula, visual and somatosensory association areas, cingulate 209 gyrus, prefrontal cortex, as well as subcortical regions, contributing to erectyle function (EF). Basing on these 210 assumptions, Winder and coll. conduced a retrospective study [37] assessing the cerebral lesion pattern of male 211 MS patients and correlating them with clinical scores of EF with the MS-associated lesion sites using voxel-212 based lesion symptom mapping (VLSM) ??38,39]. Study results demonstrated, in summary, how decreasing 213 214 DeltaIIEF5 scores correlated with a large cluster of MS lesions in the insular region including the adjacent 215 juxtacortical white matter, most prominently in the left-hemispheric insular region. Authors hypothesized that 216 MS lesions in the left insular region could compromise parasympathetic modulation and thereby contribute to 217 ED. Similar results were found in a study by Winder and coll. [39]; in this study, designed in order to determine associations between alterations of female sexual arousal as well as vaginal lubrication and the site of cerebral 218 MS lesions, authors found that, in 44 MS women, decreased lubrication scores were associated with bladder 219 or urinary symptoms and, as shown by multivariate VLSM analysis (including arousal and lubrication scores 220 as covariables of interest) right occipital lesions were associated with impaired arousal and left insular lesions 221 were associated with decreased lubrication. Moreover, impaired lubrication remained associated with left insular 222

lesions after adjustment for bladder or urinary dysfunction. Surprisingly, in this MS patients series, dysfunction of sexual arousability or lubrication was not associated with patient age, disease duration or severity, spinal cord involvement, or depression.

In contrast with previous evidences, Zorzon et al. in their study did not find any association between SDs and MS lesions in the aforementioned regions [40]; on the other hand, Zivadinov and coll. applied a multivariate regression analysis, finding associations between SDs and pontine MS lesions [41]. Furthermore, ??arak et al. found correlations between male and female anorgasmia and the total volume of cerebral MS lesions, and more specifically of brainstem and corticospinal tract lesions [42].

In a recent study investigating the frequency of SD in female MS patients and exploring its association with the location and number of demyelinating lesions, Solmaz and coll. [43] evaluated 42 female patients compared with 41 healthy subjects. All patients underwent neurological examination and 1.5 T brain and full spinal MRI. Results showed as MS patients had a statistically significantly lower FSFI and SF-36 scores and higher BDI and BAI scores compared with healthy subjects, but SDs seemed to be unrelated to the location and number of demyelinating lesions. These findings highlight the importance of the assessment and treatment of psychiatric comorbidities, such as depression and anxiety, in MS patients reporting SD, as reported in previous studies [44].

Finally, in 32 female and 9 male MS patients, Barak et al reported that anorgasmia correlated with the total volume of MS lesions throughout the brain and, more specifically, with MS lesions in the brainstem and corticospinal tract [42].

241 X.

$_{242}$ 12 Conclusions

Lower urinary tract symptoms are very common in multiple sclerosis patients and adversely affect this patient's quality of life. Many neural pathways are involved in the pathogenesys of these symptoms and, due to the heterogeneity of neurologic lesions, symptoms are different from patient to patient. To face better this urological dysfunctions, the urologist needs to have a deep knowledge of their pathogenesis, allowing an improved management and a long-term follow-up of the patient, that often requires also a multidisciplinary approach. In addition, urologists must have consciousness of sexual dysfunctions in this patients, to investigate and treat this conditions in the best way possible.

²⁵⁰ 13 XI.

251 Disclosures ^{1 2}

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²Identification of Brain Structures Involved in Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms and Sexual Dysfunctions in Patients with Multiple Sclerosis

²⁵² .1 Authors declare no conflict of interest and no fundings

- 253 Research did not involve Human Participants and/or Animals and therefore there is no informed consent.
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