# Predictive value of single－nucleotide polymorphism signature for nephrolithiasis recurrence：a 5 －year prospective study 

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#### Abstract

Background．Genetic variations are linked to kidney stone formation．However，the association of single nucleotide polymorphism（SNPs）and stone recurrence has not been well studied．This study aims to identify genetic variants associated with kidney stone recurrences and to construct a predictive nomogram model using SNPs and clinical features to predict the recurrence risk of kidney stones． Methods．We genotyped 49 SNPs in 1001 patients who received surgical stone removal between Jan 1 and Dec 31 of 2012. All patients were confirmed stone－free by CT scan and then received follow－up at least 5 years．SNP associations with stone recurrence were analyzed by Cox proportion hazard model．A predictive nomogram model using SNPs and clinical features to predict the recurrence risk of kidney stones was developed by use of LASSO Cox regression． Results．The recurrence rate at $3,5,7$ years were $46.8 \%, 71.2 \%$ ，and $78.4 \%$ ，respectively． 5 SNPs were identified that had association with kidney stone recurrence risk．We used computer－generated random numbers to assign 500 of these patients to the training cohort and 501 patients to the validation cohort．A nomogram that combined the 14 －SNPs－based classifier with the clinical risk factors was constructed．The areas under the curve（AUCs）at 3，5 and 7 years of this nomogram was $0.645,0.723$ ，and 0.75 in training cohort，and was $0.631,0.708$ ，and 0.727 in validation cohort，respectively． Results show that the nomogram presented a higher predictive accuracy than those of the SNP classifier or clinical factors alone． Conclusion．SNPs are significantly associated with kidney stone recurrence and should add prognostic value to the traditional clinical risk factors used to assess the kidney stone recurrence．A nomogram using clinical and genetic variables to predict kidney stone recurrence has revealed its potential in the future as an assessment tool during the follow－up of kidney stone patients．


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## LAY SUMMARY

SNPs are significantly associated with kidney-stone recurrence and can add prognostic value to the traditional clinical risk factors used to assess the kidney-stone recurrence. A nomogram using clinical and genetic variables to predict kidney-stone recurrence has revealed its potential to be useful in the future as an assessment tool during the follow-up of kidney-stone patients.

## GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



Keywords: kidney stone, recurrence, single-nucleotide polymorphism signature

## INTRODUCTION

Nephrolithiasis is a common condition that affects $5 \%-10 \%$ of individuals during their lifetime and is often associated with substantial healthcare and economic burdens [1, 2]. Despite the technological breakthroughs in the surgical control of stones which have significantly increased stone-free rates and reduced patient morbidity with shorter recovery time, stone recurrence remains an important health issue. After the initial episode, urolithiasis tends to tends to recur in up to $50 \%$ of cases within 5 years, with the percentage increasing to $90 \%$ within 10 years [3].

Currently, there is an unmet need to identify patients who are at a higher risk of recurrent kidney-stone events and who could benefit from more aggressive secondary prevention. The use of the 24-h urine test is guideline-supported for high-risk and interested patients [4, 5]. However, the 24 -h urine test has various constraints, such as the complexity of interpretation, the need for repeated collections, the inability to foresee stone
recurrence with individual parameters and supersaturation values, the ambiguous rationale of laboratory cutoff values and the difficulty of determining the adequacies of collected samples [6]. Therefore, identification of patients at the highest risk of recurrent kidney stone, including through the development of specific measures for early detection and prevention, remains a high priority.

Nephrolithiasis has a multifactorial etiology concerning factors from both genetic and environmental aspects. Prior studies have suggested that certain clinical and radiologic features of kidney stones are associated with disease recurrence [7-9]. In addition to traditional risk factors, genetics also play a key role in nephrolithiasis [10]. Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) is one of the most common types of genetic differences among humans. By adopting genome-wide association studies (GWASs), several SNPs associated with the genetic predisposition to kidney-stone formation have been identified [11, 12]. However, there is limited evidence that these SNPs are associated with stone recurrence and can be used to predict


Figure 1: Enrollment and outcomes. Five to 10 years' follow-up for all participants was performed.
kidney-stone recurrence. No study with a sufficiently large sample size for statistical rigor has analyzed the role of individual genetic background in the risk of kidney-stones recurrence.

In this study, we performed a prospective study to identify genetic variants associated with kidney-stone recurrences and to identify a SNP signature to boost clinical features for predicting the recurrence risk of kidney stones. We also construct a predictive nomogram model using SNPs and clinical features to predict the recurrence risk of kidney stones.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Study participants

We prospectively collected 1659 plasma samples from kidneystone patients who underwent surgical stone removal, of which 1001 passed quality control for the final analysis (Fig. 1). All samples were obtained between 1 January and 31 December 2012 from patients treated at the First Affiliated Hospital of Guangzhou Medical University, a tertiary referral center of kidney-stone disease in southern China. Patients need to meet the following criteria in order to be considered in this study: (i) have received stone removal surgery and postoperative computed tomography (CT) scans confirmed total stone-free; (ii) have complete clinical and at least 5-year follow-up data, as well as common epidemiological data. Patients who refused to
provide informed consent and did receive medical management for the prevention of recurrence stones were excluded. We used computer-generated random numbers to assign 500 of these patients to the training cohort and 501 patients to the validation cohort.

This study was approved by local ethics committee, and written informed consent was obtained from all individuals. The study was registered at http://clinicaltrials.gov/ (NCT04937192).

## Demographic and clinical data

The demographic and clinical data on the patients' medical history, kidney-stones risk factors, current condition, laboratory results, medications at admission and discharge, and imaging information were collected. Stones were removed by percutaneous nephrolithotomy or flexible ureteroscopy. Stone analyses were performed by infrared spectroscopy. Post-operative stone-free status was assessed by low-dose CT scans obtained approximately 3 months after surgery. Stone-free status was defined as no stone of any size by CT scans and during endoscopy. The patients were followed for at least 5 years. The standard followup was updated at 6-month intervals through onsite interview or direct calling. The latest follow-up data in our analysis were obtained in January 2022. Recurrence was considered to be either silent or symptomatic. Silent recurrences were diagnosed on the basis of renal ultrasound, and kidney, ureter and bladder imaging (KUB) performed at 6-month intervals. If renal stones
were detected, a low-dose CT scan was also performed. A symptomatic recurrence was defined as typical renal colic, an episode of macroscopic hematuria or spontaneous stone passage. If a symptomatic recurrence was documented on the basis of renal colic or hematuria, the recurrence had to be confirmed by CT scans.

## SNP selection and genotyping

The candidate SNPs were selected by manual searching PubMed using the keywords "kidney stone, nephrolithiasis, urolithiasis" for phenotypes and the keywords "polymorphism, SNP, mutation, variant" for polymorphisms. Only articles in English were considered. The potential functional SNPs were selected based on previously published GWAS studies, and their respective functional effect, such as those with a formerly known modification at transcription, translation, protein activity or an amino acid substitution-based hypothetic modification. We finally identified 49 SNPs in 37 genes selected from the literature related to kidney-stone formation [11-22] (Supplementary data, Table S1).

The genotyping in the study has been presented elsewhere in detail. Briefly, genomic DNA was extracted from the whole blood by using customized multiple targeted capture reagents. After amplifying with PCR, the products were genotyped by using the Illumina Nextseq CN500 platform and following its manufacturer's protocol. The quality control was performed using Bbduk software (v37.48). Contamination detection was performed on data that passed quality control using BLAST+ (v2.7.1).

## Statistical methods

The numbers are presented as mean $\pm$ standard deviation or the number and percentage. Categorical variables were compared by $\chi^{2}$ analysis or Fisher's exact test. Normally distributed scale variables were analyzed with Student's t-test for independent variables. Statistical significance for each SNP was assessed by Kaplan-Meier curves using the Cox model. The Cox regression model was used for multivariate survival analysis. Hazard ratios (HRs) and 95\% confidence intervals (CIs) are reported. The LASSO Cox regression model was used to construct an SNP-based classifier. A simplified nomogram based on the final statistical model was developed to predict the probability of stone recurrences at 3, 5 and 7 years. Finally, calibration curves were the assessing method to evaluate whether the actual outcomes predicted outcomes for the nomogram, with prognostic accuracy assessed by time-dependent receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves and areas under the curves (AUCs). All statistical tests were conducted using R software (version 3.5.0) and statistical significance was set at $P$-values $<.05$.

## RESULTS

## Characteristics of the study population

The distributions of 1001 patients' demographic and clinical characteristics are summarized in Table 1 . Some $61.5 \%$ of patients had complex stones. Of these, 314 were multiple stones and 301 were staghorn stones. During the median follow-up time of 7 years (range 5-10 years), 787 patients (78.6\%) developed recurrence. The recurrence rates at 3,5 and 7 years were $46.8 \%$, $71.2 \%$ and $78.4 \%$, respectively.

## Kidney-stone recurrence clinical predictor

Univariate analysis identified nine clinical variables nominally associated with the kidney-stone recurrence ( $P<.05$ ). Significantly higher recurrence risks were observed in male patients, and patients with hyperparathyroidism, history of recurrent stone episode, bilateral stones, multiple stones, stone size $>20 \mathrm{~mm}$, urinary tract infection or infected stone. Patients with calcium oxalate stones were negatively associated with stone recurrence as compared with other stone compositions (Table 1). A multivariable Cox model in the training cohort including the 11 clinical variables with $P<.1$ was established to predict the stone recurrence. The AUC at 3, 5 and 7 years of the model was $0.596,0.661$ and 0.695 , respectively (Fig. 2).

## The associations between SNPs and kidney-stone recurrence

After excluding 1 SNP (rs184187143 in SLC26A6) as all cases were homozygous wild type, we eventually analyzed 48 SNPs in 36 genes (Table 2). We assessed the association of each individual SNP with kidney-stone recurrence by Cox regression. The characteristics and association results of the 48 variants are displayed in Table 3. There were three SNPs (rs1544935 in KCNK5, rs11746443 in RGS14 and rs56235845 in SLC34A1) that exhibited significant association with increased kidney-stone recurrence risk. In addition, we found that two SNPs (rs10735810 in VDR and rs3798519 in TFAP2B) had negative association with kidneystone recurrence risk.

The LASSO Cox regression model was used to select the most useful prognostic markers among the 48 SNPs in training cohort and to construct an SNP-based classifier for prediction of kidney-stone recurrence. The SNP-based classifier comprised 14 of the 48 SNPs in the regions of the following genes: rs10735810 (in VDR), rs11746443 (in RGS14), rs13003198 (in DGKD), rs13041834 (in BCAS1), rs1544935 (in KCNK5), rs2043211 (in CARD8), rs2286526 (in LOC645722), rs3798519 (in TFAP2B), rs4793434 (in SOX9), rs56235845 (in SLC34A1), rs6464214 (in HIPK2), rs7057398 (in CLDN2), rs755622 (in MIF-AS) and rs780093 (in GCKR). Using the LASSO Cox regression models, we calculated a risk score for each patient based on the $14-$ SNP status:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Risk score }=(0.0632 \times \mathrm{rs} 11746443)-(0.0611 \times \mathrm{rs} 10735810) \\
& +(0.0026 \times \mathrm{rs} 13003198)-(0.0384 \times \mathrm{rs} 13041834)+(0.1157 \times \mathrm{rs} 1544935) \\
& -(0.0563 \times \mathrm{rs} 2043211)-(0.0194 \times \mathrm{rs} 2286526)-(0.0065 \times \mathrm{rs} 3798519) \\
& -(0.0361 \times \mathrm{rs} 4793434)+(0.0160 \times \mathrm{rs} 56235845)-(0.0070 \times \mathrm{rs} 6464214) \\
& +(0.0104 \times \mathrm{rs} 7057398)+(0.0455 \times \mathrm{rs} 755622)-(0.0399 \times \mathrm{rs} 780093)
\end{aligned}
$$

The risk scores of the 500 patients in the training cohort range from -0.4576 to 0.2414 . We assessed the distribution of risk scores for the 14-SNP-based classifier and recurrence status in the training cohort. Patients in the training cohort were divided into high-risk $(n=250)$ and low-risk $(n=250)$ groups, with the median risk score (of -0.1567 ) as the cutoff. Compared with patients in the low-risk group, patients in the high-risk group had shorter recurrence-free survival [HR 1.38 (95\% CI 1.13-1.69), $P=.0014$ ] (Fig. 2). The AUC at 3, 5 and 7 years of the classifier was $0.594,0.632$ and 0.636 , respectively. The risk score for each patient in the validation cohort $(n=501)$ was calculated with the same formula as that used in the training cohort. The SNP classifier achieved similar predictive ability in the validation cohort (the AUC at 3, 5 and 7 years were $0.523,0.572$ and 0.588 , respectively) (Fig. 4).

Table 1: Baseline clinical variables for patients with recurrence of kidney stones.

| Characteristic | Total | No recurrence | Recurrence | HR | 95\% CI |  | $P$-value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | Lower | Upper |  |
| $n$ (\%) | 1001 | 214 (21.4) | 787 (78.6) |  |  |  |  |
| Age (years) | $48.93 \pm 13.12$ | $49.6 \pm 13.28$ | $48.75 \pm 13.08$ | 0.99 | 0.94 | 1.04 | . 655 |
| Gender (male) | 577 (57.6) | 104 (48.5) | 473 (60.2) | 1.22 | 1.05 | 1.4 | . 008 |
| BMI ( $\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ ) | $23.44 \pm 3.75$ | $23.58 \pm 3.73$ | $23.4 \pm 3.75$ | 0.99 | 0.97 | 1.01 | . 453 |
| Recurrent stone episode, $n$ (\%) | 204 (20.4) | 7 (3.3) | 197 (25.1) | 1.9 | 1.62 | 2.24 | <. 001 |
| Urinary tract infection, $n(\%)$ | 224 (22.4) | 33 (15.4) | 191 (24.3) | 1.25 | 1.06 | 1.48 | . 007 |
| Comorbidities, $n$ (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Hyperternsion | 265 (27.5) | 66 (30.8) | 209 (26.6) | 0.88 | 0.75 | 1.03 | . 111 |
| Diabetes | 141 (14.1) | 36 (16.8) | 105 (13.4) | 0.84 | 0.68 | 1.03 | . 092 |
| Gout | 10 (0.9) | 2 (0.9) | 8 (1.1) | 1.27 | 0.68 | 2.36 | . 458 |
| Hyperparathyroidism | 44 (4.4) | 6 (2.8) | 38 (4.8) | 1.45 | 1.05 | 2.01 | . 025 |
| Hyperlipidemia | 21 (2.1) | 2 (0.9) | 19 (2.5) | 1.14 | 0.72 | 1.79 | . 578 |
| Imaging, $n$ (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Stone number |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Single | 386 (38.5) | 114 (53.2) | 272 (34.5) |  |  |  |  |
| Multiple or staghorn stone | 615 (61.5) | 100 (46.8) | 515 (65.5) | 1.36 | 1.18 | 1.58 | <. 001 |
| Stone laterality, $n$ (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Unilateral | 635 (63.5) | 163 (76.2) | 472 (59.9) |  |  |  |  |
| Bilateral | 366 (36.5) | 51 (23.8) | 315 (40.1) | 1.44 | 1.25 | 1.66 | <. 001 |
| Stone diameter, $n$ (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $<20 \mathrm{~mm}$ | 430 (42.9) | 127 (59.3) | 303 (38.5) |  |  |  |  |
| $\geq 20 \mathrm{~mm}$ | 571 (57.1) | 87 (40.6) | 484 (61.5) | 1.39 | 1.2 | 1.61 | <. 001 |
| Grade of hydronephrosis, $n$ (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| None or mild | 650 (64.9) | 144 (67.3) | 506 (64.3) |  |  |  |  |
| Moderate or severe | 351 (35.1) | 70 (32.7) | 281 (35.7) | 1.11 | 0.96 | 1.29 | . 157 |
| Laboratory parameters, $n$ (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ALT > 40 U/L | 91 (9.1) | 20 (9.4) | 71 (9.1) | 0.98 | 0.77 | 1.25 | . 867 |
| ALB < $30 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{L}$ | 239 (23.8) | 49 (22.8) | 190 (24.2) | 1.09 | 0.93 | 1.28 | . 308 |
| Serum $\mathrm{Cr}>133 \mu \mathrm{~mol} / \mathrm{L}$ | 114 (11.4) | 19 (8.9) | 95 (12.1) | 1.22 | 0.99 | 1.51 | . 068 |
| Stone composition, $n(\%)$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Calcium oxalate | 438 (43.7) | 111 (51.8) | 327 (41.6) | 0.75 | 0.65 | 0.87 | <. 001 |
| Calcium phosphate | 7 (0.7) | 1 (0.5) | 6 (0.7) | 1.11 | 0.5 | 2.47 | . 807 |
| Infection stone | 220 (21.9) | 33 (15.45) | 187 (23.7) | 1.35 | 1.14 | 1.59 | <. 001 |
| Uric acid | 72 (7.2) | 16 (7.4) | 56 (7.1) | 1 | 0.76 | 1.31 | 1 |
| Unknown | 264 (26.4) | 53 (24.8) | 211 (26.8) |  |  |  |  |

Data are mean $\pm$ standard deviation or $n(\%)$.
BMI, body mass index; Cr, creatinine.


Figure 2: Kaplan-Meier curves for patients stratified into low-risk and high-risk groups according to the 14 -SNP-based risk score.

## Nomogram construction

As the clinical factors-based model and SNP-based classifier both showed poor predictive ability for stone recurrence, we constructed a nomogram that combined the 14-SNP-based classifier with the clinical risk factors to ascertain how the 14-SNP-based classifier added prognostic value to the clinical risk factors and to provide clinicians with a quantitative method to predict the probability of recurrence in a patient with kidney stones. The nomogram was developed with data from 500 cases in the training cohort (Fig. 3). The AUC at 3, 5 and 7 years of this nomogram in the training cohort was $0.645,0.723$ and 0.75 , respectively. The AUC at 3,5 and 7 years of the classifier or clinical risk factors ranged from 0.579 to 0.688 in the training cohort. The predictive accuracy of the nomogram was significantly higher than that of the classifier or clinical risk factors alone in the training cohort (Fig. 4). A total of 501 cases in the validation cohort were used to validate the predictive accuracy of the nomogram; the AUC at 3,5 and 7 years was $0.631,0.708$ and 0.727 , respectively, in the validation cohort (Fig. 4).

Table 2: The percentage of 1001 patients with wild-type homozygous/heterozygous/variant-type homozygous genotypes.

| dbSNP rs ID | Chr | Physical position | Associated gene | SNP status (\%) |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | WT (0) | HT (1) | VT-HO (2) |
| rs1010269 | 17 | 59448945 | BCAS | 14.49 | 48.15 | 37.36 |
| rs1037271 | 13 | 42779410 | DGKH | 20.58 | 52.25 | 27.17 |
| rs10735810 | 12 | 48272895 | VDR | 20.08 | 52.65 | 27.27 |
| rs10917002 | 1 | 21836340 | ALPL | 50.45 | 39.16 | 10.39 |
| rs1155347 | 6 | 39146230 | KCNK5 | 70.13 | 27.57 | 2.30 |
| rs11746443 | 5 | 176798306 | RGS14 | 72.63 | 24.08 | 3.30 |
| rs12539707 | 7 | 27626165 | HIBADH | 0.30 | 9.99 | 89.71 |
| rs1260326 | 2 | 27730940 | GCKR | 23.78 | 52.35 | 23.88 |
| rs12626330 | 21 | 37835982 | CLDN14 | 27.47 | 51.75 | 20.78 |
| rs12666466 | 7 | 30916430 | AQP1 | 79.72 | 19.38 | 0.90 |
| rs12837024 | X | 106911003 | CLDN2 | 49.95 | 22.48 | 27.57 |
| rs13003198 | 2 | 234257105 | DGKD | 39.56 | 48.55 | 11.89 |
| rs13041834 | 20 | 52703284 | BCAS1 | 56.84 | 38.36 | 4.80 |
| rs13054904 | 22 | 23410918 | BCR | 88.31 | 10.99 | 0.70 |
| rs1481012 | 4 | 89039082 | ABCG2 | 47.85 | 42.46 | 9.69 |
| rs1544935 | 6 | 39124448 | KCNK5 | 70.83 | 26.77 | 2.40 |
| rs17216707 | 20 | 52732362 | CYP24A1 | 94.21 | 5.49 | 0.30 |
| rs184187143 | 3 | 48666132 | SLC26A6 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| rs2043211 | 19 | 48737706 | CARD8 | 23.78 | 49.75 | 26.47 |
| rs2058265 | 7 | 139462249 | HIPK2 | 58.14 | 35.16 | 6.69 |
| rs2231142 | 4 | 89052323 | ABCG2 | 46.65 | 43.06 | 10.29 |
| rs2286526 | 17 | 59472057 | LOC645722 | 38.56 | 48.85 | 12.59 |
| rs35747824 | 16 | 20393308 | PDILT | 70.73 | 27.17 | 2.10 |
| rs3752472 | 13 | 33629393 | Klotho | 85.21 | 13.89 | 0.90 |
| rs3760702 | 19 | 14588237 | GIPC1 | 56.14 | 39.76 | 4.10 |
| rs3798519 | 6 | 50788778 | TFAP2B | 58.24 | 35.46 | 6.29 |
| rs4529910 | 11 | 111243102 | POU2AF | 33.97 | 48.95 | 17.08 |
| rs4793434 | 17 | 70352537 | SOX9 | 10.99 | 44.36 | 44.66 |
| rs56235845 | 5 | 176798040 | SLC34A1 | 65.23 | 24.08 | 10.69 |
| rs578595 | 15 | 53997089 | WDR72 | 70.33 | 26.87 | 2.80 |
| rs6123359 | 20 | 52714706 | BCAS1 | 18.78 | 49.65 | 31.57 |
| rs6464214 | 7 | 139454165 | HIPK2 | 57.64 | 35.36 | 6.99 |
| rs6667242 | 1 | 21826566 | ALPL | 51.75 | 37.86 | 10.39 |
| rs6928986 | 6 | 131323992 | EPB41L2 | 15.48 | 49.45 | 35.06 |
| rs6975977 | 7 | 30917831 | INMT-FAM188B | 75.42 | 23.18 | 1.40 |
| rs7057398 | x | 106901299 | CLDN2 | 44.96 | 23.28 | 31.77 |
| rs7206790 | 16 | 53797908 | FTO | 71.33 | 26.47 | 2.20 |
| rs7277076 | 21 | 37836973 | CLDN14 | 21.28 | 52.05 | 26.67 |
| rs731236 | 12 | 48238757 | VDR | 91.41 | 8.39 | 0.20 |
| rs73247968 | x | 106911865 | CLDN2 | 70.83 | 15.18 | 13.99 |
| rs7456421 | 7 | 139415775 | HIPK2 | 57.34 | 35.46 | 7.19 |
| rs74956940 | 19 | 14571966 | PKN1 | 59.74 | 36.36 | 3.90 |
| rs755622 | 22 | 24236392 | MIF-AS | 63.14 | 34.57 | 2.30 |
| rs7652589 | 3 | 121889088 | CasR | 47.75 | 42.86 | 9.39 |
| rs77648599 | 6 | 160624115 | SLC22A2 | 89.31 | 10.19 | 0.50 |
| rs77924615 | 16 | 20392332 | UMOD | 70.43 | 27.47 | 2.10 |
| rs780093 | 2 | 27742603 | GCKR | 22.48 | 51.05 | 26.47 |
| rs7975232 | 12 | 48238837 | VDR | 44.36 | 47.25 | 8.39 |
| rs889299 | 16 | 23381914 | SCNN1B | 43.46 | 46.45 | 10.09 |

dbSNP, Database for SNPs; Chr, chromosome; WT, wild-type homozygous; HT, heterozygous; VT-HO, variant-type homozygous.

## DISCUSSION

In this study, we evaluated the effect of SNPs on the recurrence prediction of 1001 patients. Five SNPs were identified as being closely related to the recurrence of kidney stones. We further developed a 14 -SNP-based classified to complement the clinical factors for prediction of kidney-stone recurrence, which can enable physicians to make more informed treatment decision about recurrence prevention. To the best of our knowledge, this
study was the first to comprehensively assess the association between genetic background and kidney-stone recurrence with a large number of cases.

Personalized medicine has widely accepted the role of investigating the genetic makeup of an individual patient in achieving optimized medical care. In turn, the clarification of gene polymorphism contribution to kidney-stone recurrence will be advantageous in clinics to improve diagnosis of atrisk patients as well as to provide treatment with maximum

Table 3: Association between SNPs and stone recurrence.

| ID (SNP status) | Associated gene | HR | 95\% CI |  | $P$-value | ${ }^{\text {a }}$ Adjusted $P$-value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Lower | Upper |  |  |
| rs1010269 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | BCAS | 1.05 | 0.947 | 1.16 | . 358 | . 818 |
| rs1037271 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | DGKH | 1.02 | 0.925 | 1.14 | . 637 | . 983 |
| rs10735810 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | VDR | 0.868 | 0.784 | 0.96 | . 006 | . 265 |
| rs10917002 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | ALPL | 1.03 | 0.929 | 1.15 | . 558 | . 983 |
| rs1155347 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | KCNK5 | 1.05 | 0.92 | 1.21 | . 451 | . 934 |
| rs11746443 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | RGS14 | 1.17 | 1.03 | 1.32 | . 018 | . 265 |
| rs12539707 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | HIBADH | 0.972 | 0.778 | 1.22 | . 805 | . 983 |
| rs1260326 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | GCKR | 0.947 | 0.856 | 1.05 | . 285 | . 818 |
| rs12626330 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | CLDN14 | 1.08 | 0.974 | 1.19 | . 149 | . 587 |
| rs12666466 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | AQP1 | 1.02 | 0.864 | 1.19 | . 849 | . 983 |
| rs12837024 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | CLDN2 | 1.01 | 0.926 | 1.09 | . 883 | . 983 |
| rs13003198 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | DGKD | 1.08 | 0.97 | 1.2 | . 159 | . 587 |
| rs13041834 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | BCAS1 | 0.898 | 0.796 | 1.01 | . 079 | . 473 |
| rs13054904 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | BCR | 1.02 | 0.841 | 1.25 | . 809 | . 983 |
| rs1481012 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | ABCG2 | 0.96 | 0.861 | 1.07 | . 467 | . 934 |
| rs1544935 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | KCNK5 | 1.19 | 1.04 | 1.36 | . 013 | . 265 |
| rs17216707 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | CYP24A1 | 0.937 | 0.71 | 1.24 | . 647 | . 983 |
| rs2043211 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | CARD8 | 0.917 | 0.832 | 1.01 | . 079 | . 473 |
| rs2058265 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | HIPK2 | 1 | 0.896 | 1.12 | . 947 | . 983 |
| rs2231142 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | ABCG2 | 0.94 | 0.844 | 1.05 | . 265 | . 818 |
| rs2286526 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | LOC645722 | 0.969 | 0.874 | 1.07 | . 544 | . 983 |
| rs35747824 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | PDILT | 1.12 | 0.974 | 1.28 | . 113 | . 493 |
| rs3752472 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | Klotho | 0.975 | 0.817 | 1.16 | . 782 | . 983 |
| rs3760702 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | GIPC1 | 1.06 | 0.939 | 1.2 | . 338 | . 818 |
| rs3798519 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | TFAP2B | 0.873 | 0.777 | 0.981 | . 022 | . 265 |
| rs4529910 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | POU2AF | 1.04 | 0.944 | 1.15 | . 409 | . 892 |
| rs4793434 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | SOX9 | 0.908 | 0.818 | 1.01 | . 072 | . 473 |
| rs56235845 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | SLC34A1 | 1.12 | 1.01 | 1.23 | . 030 | . 283 |
| rs578595 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | WDR72 | 1.03 | 0.908 | 1.18 | . 616 | . 983 |
| rs6123359 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | BCAS1 | 1.01 | 0.911 | 1.11 | . 890 | . 983 |
| rs6464214 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | HIPK2 | 0.999 | 0.892 | 1.12 | . 988 | . 988 |
| rs6667242 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | ALPL | 1.03 | 0.924 | 1.14 | . 625 | . 983 |
| rs6928986 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | EPB41L2 | 1 | 0.906 | 1.11 | . 963 | . 983 |
| rs6975977 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | INMT-FAM188B | 1.01 | 0.874 | 1.18 | . 847 | . 983 |
| rs7057398 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | CLDN2 | 1.01 | 0.93 | 1.09 | . 833 | . 983 |
| rs7206790 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | FTO | 0.934 | 0.814 | 1.07 | . 337 | . 818 |
| rs7277076 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | CLDN14 | 1.06 | 0.954 | 1.17 | . 295 | . 818 |
| rs731236 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | VDR | 0.848 | 0.657 | 1.09 | . 206 | . 706 |
| rs73247968 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | CLDN2 | 0.997 | 0.905 | 1.1 | . 958 | . 983 |
| rs7456421 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | HIPK2 | 1.01 | 0.904 | 1.13 | . 849 | . 983 |
| rs74956940 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | PKN1 | 1.04 | 0.919 | 1.18 | . 538 | . 983 |
| rs755622 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | MIF-AS | 1.11 | 0.977 | 1.27 | . 108 | . 493 |
| rs7652589 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | CaSR | 0.994 | 0.894 | 1.11 | . 918 | . 983 |
| rs77648599 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | SLC22A2 | 1.05 | 0.849 | 1.3 | . 655 | . 983 |
| rs77924615 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | UMOD | 1.12 | 0.975 | 1.28 | . 109 | . 493 |
| rs780093 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | GCKR | 0.953 | 0.863 | 1.05 | . 344 | . 818 |
| rs7975232 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | VDR | 1.02 | 0.912 | 1.14 | . 746 | . 983 |
| rs889299 (2 vs 1 vs 0) | SCNN1B | 1.02 | 0.92 | 1.14 | . 677 | . 983 |

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.
efficacy. Accumulating evidence has suggested that genetic backgrounds affect the risk of kidney-stone formation. Previous GWAS analyses with large size samples have reported that SNPs in metabolism-related genes are linked to stone formation [11, 12]. However, there is limited evidence to show that these SNPs are associated with stone recurrence. On the other hand, these genetic variations likely will contribute to the recurrence of kidney stones as the remaining underlying metabolic basis of kidney-stone formation after surgical removal of prior mineral accumulations. Therefore, our choice of SNPs for this study
can identify those genetic variations that persist and influence kidney-stone development even after likely lifestyle changes. Our effort thus represents an effective means to determine critical genetic contributions to kidney-stone recurrence without resort to de novo identification of recurrence SNPs with a required much larger patient population.

In our study, five SNPs in five genes were shown to be associated with the recurrence of kidney stones. Consistent with previous studies, the genetic polymorphisms of RGS14 and SLC34A1 were associated with the risk of kidney-stone for-

A


B


Figure 3: Nomogram predicting stone recurrence probability. (A) Determination of the total points based on the sum of 12 predicts. (B) Estimate of recurrence risk at 3,5 and 7 years based on the total points.


Figure 4: Better nomograms for predicting stone recurrence. Time-dependent ROC curves at 3,5 and 7 years were used to assess the prognostic accuracy of the nomogram.
mation. Mutation in SLC34A1, encoding the proximal tubular sodium-phosphate transporter NaPi-lla, may cause infantile hypercalcemia, hypophosphatemic kidney stone and osteoporosis [23]. RGS14 encodes a complex scaffolding protein, known as regulator of G protein signaling 14, which is enriched in hippocampal area CA2 dendritic spines. Several studies report that the rs11746443 of RGS14 was associated with calcium-containing renal stones due to its position in the upstream of the SLC34A1 and AQP1 genes, which may be crucial for urine concentration $[24,25]$. Vitamin D is a hormone that plays a critical role in the metabolism of calcium through binding to the VDR. Genetic variations in the VDR gene have been shown to influence the interactions of the vitamin D/VDR, modulating the susceptibility
risk for several pathologic conditions. A series of studies investigated the association between these polymorphisms of the VDR gene and the risk of urolithiasis, but the findings were conflicting [26-29]. In our study, we found that rs10735810 was associated with stone recurrence while two other SNPs in VDR (rs7312366 and rs7975232) were not associated with stone recurrence. It has been reported that VDR variants have different effects on the receptor activity. In particular, the FokI isoform is synthesized from different start sites in the VDR gene and therefore it is involved in transcriptional activation [30]. Along this line, a potential start site of the FokI polymorphism (rs10735810) produces an altered VDR protein by generating an additional start codon, which results in proteins containing fewer amino acids,
which likely are more active in terms of their transactivation capacity [31].

Improving the prediction of kidney-stone recurrence following initial surgical interventions would undoubtedly contribute to more effective symptom management and patient care. Several studies have reported some clinical factors can be used for evaluating the risk of kidney-stone recurrence. Andrew D Rule et al. [7, 9] found a series of clinical risk factors for stone recurrence, such as younger age, male sex, family history of stones and uric acid stone compositions. Based on these clinical risk factors, they constructed a nomogram (called the ROKS nomogram) to predict stone recurrence, which could be helpful for better centralized management and early intervention. In our study, we identified 11 clinical factors associated with stone recurrence. Most of them were similar to those reported in the literature [7]. Such a constructed a nomogram based on the clinical risk factors did not perform well in predicting stone recurrence risk, with AUC values $<0.7$. Further improvement of this kind of nomogram will make it a practical tool in the routine clinical use to benefit kidney-stone patients.

One of the aspects to consider for improvements could be to include genetic information in the nomogram model. Indeed, genetic risk factors alone or in combination with clinical factors can be used for risk stratification and to guide strategies for treatment in various type of diseases [32, 33]. Kidney stone is generally acknowledged as a disorder caused by the interaction of multiple genetic and environmental factors. Therefore genetic signature alone is unlikely to predict kidneystone recurrence risk. On the other hand, inclusion of genetic information likely will improve the accuracy of prediction based on clinical factors. Indeed, we built a nomogram using genetic factors combined with clinical factors to predict the stone recurrence. We found that the addition of SNP information to the nomogram improved the predictive accuracy, reflecting the contribution of inherent genetic predisposition in stone recurrence. Thus, our nomogram provides a simple, accurate and improved method for predicting kidney-stone recurrence risk.

In our study we found that the addition of SNPs to the clinical model did not significantly improve the clinical model AUC in the validation cohort. The possible reasons are many: first, the sample size of the validation set is relatively small. Increasing the sample size may reveal that SNPs can improve the clinical model AUC. Second, the clinical variations may partially reflect genetic variations, and the predictive value of genetic variation may overlap with clinical variations. Therefore, addition of SNPs did not significantly improve the accuracy of clinical model for predicting stone recurrence. This indirectly confirms the effectiveness of constructing stone recurrence prediction models using clinical variations, such as the ROKS nomogram [7], as previously discovered by other researchers. Finally, this study only tested 49 SNP loci based on previous GWAS results. If more genetic information is detected through whole-genome survey, it might identify novel genetic loci to significantly improve the predictive value of the clinical model.

Our study has several limitations. First, the cohort was of Chinese origin, therefore the generalizability to other ethnic background needs confirmation. Second, the AUC of 0.631-0.645 in 3 -year recurrence for the nomogram was relatively low for a prediction tool, even though it was an improvement over the 0.579-0.614 for the nomogram based on clinical factors. Future studies may be needed to better identify predictors. Third, although no stone formers received stone prevention medica-
tions, most of them did receive dietary recommendations that might have influenced natural stone recurrence. Fourth, surgical interventions to remove renal stones were performed in all patients in our study, which might affect the natural history of renal stone recurrence. Thus, the recurrence findings seen in this study are most applicable to those with moderate to large sized stones who required surgical intervention at baseline. Fifth, silent recurrence was determined by KUB and renal ultrasound, which might miss smaller stones. It was reported that the sensitivity of KUB and ultrasound combined was $78 \%$ for renal calculi [34]. Finally, this nomogram needs to be evaluated externally in other community-based settings with a larger proportion of residents.

## CONCLUSION

Our study indicates that genetic variations are significantly associated with kidney-stone recurrence, and should add prognostic value to the traditional clinical risk factors used to assess kidney-stone recurrence. The generation of a nomogram using clinical and genetic variables to predict kidney-stone recurrence has revealed its potential in the future as an assessment tool during the follow-up of kidney-stone patients.

## SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available at ckj online.

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## AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

G.Zeng had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. G.Zeng and Y.S. contributed to the conception and design of the study. W.Zhu, X.Z., Z.Zhou, G.Zhang, X.D., Y.L., Z.Zhao, W.Zhong, Z.H. and G.A. contributed to acquisition of data. W.Zhu, X.Z. and Z.Zhou contributed to the analysis and interpretation of the data. W.Zhu and G.Zeng drafted the manuscript. Y.S. participated in the critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content. W.Zhu, X.Z. and Z.Zhou carried out the statistical analysis. G.Zeng and W.Zhu contributed to the acquisition of funding. X.D. and W.Zhong provided administrative, technical or material support. W.Zhu, X.Z. and Z.Zhou contributed equally to the work. All authors contributed to reading the manuscript and approved the submitted version.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

All data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author (Guohua Zeng, gzgyzgh@vip.sina.com) upon request.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality of the research reported.

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