INVITED REVIEW



Heritable traits that contribute to nephrolithiasis

John C. Lieske^{1,2} · Xiangling Wang³

Received: 30 October 2018 / Accepted: 8 November 2018 / Published online: 20 November 2018 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2018

Abstract

Urinary stones tend to cluster in families. Of the known risk factors, evidence is strongest for heritability of urinary calcium excretion. Recent studies suggest that other stone risk factors may have heritable components including urinary pH, citrate and magnesium excretion, and circulating vitamin D concentration. Several risk factors assumed purely environmental may also have heritable components, including dietary intake and thirst. Thus, future studies may reveal that genetics plays an even stronger role in urinary stone pathogenesis than previously known.

Keywords Calcium · Diet · Genetics · Urinary stone disease

Introduction

Urinary stones are common with an estimated lifetime risk in the United States of 6-12% and up to 50% recurrence rate [1–4]. Recent studies suggest that the incidence of both symptomatic and asymptomatic kidney stones has continued to increase over the last three decades [5]. Due to multiple associated comorbidities, urinary stone disease represents a significant burden on the healthcare system. Passage of urinary stones is painful, and those with frequent recurrences can be afflicted with ongoing anxiety, stress and possibly depression. Furthermore, urinary stones have been associated with chronic kidney disease (CKD). This is not only true for patients with known monogenic causes (e.g., primary hyperoxaluria, Dent disease, 2-8-dihydroxyadenuria), but also other common endemic forms in the population [6–8]. Furthermore, urinary stone formers are at increased risk for other systemic diseases including myocardial infarction, independent of CKD and other risk factors [9].

- ² Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA
- ³ Genomic Medicine Institute, Department of Nephrology and Hypertension, Lerner Research Institute, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, OH, USA

An increasing body of evidence suggests that urinary stones aggregate in families [10, 11] suggesting a large genetic component. For example, urinary stones develop approximately threefold more frequently in individuals with a positive family history, and a family history of nephrolithiasis has been reported in 4-12% of healthy controls compared with 16–37% of affected individuals [12–14]. Indeed, the familial clustering index, one epidemiologic indicator of disease heritability, is greater for nephrolithiasis (2.5-4) than for diabetes mellitus (2.0) or hypertension (2.0) [4]. A study of isolated Croatian island groups provided additional evidence of a strong genetic component due to observed differences in stone prevalence between low (1.5%), moderate (2.3%), and high (5.4%) inbreeding villages [15]. Thus, it is likely that multiple genetic and environmental factors predispose to the formation of urinary stones [16], and greater understanding of the underlying heritable traits could provide important insight regarding underlying genetic factors, which in turn could help define important disease mechanisms and potential novel therapies. Here, we will discuss what is known regarding heritable risk factors for urinary stones, including the urinary composition, dietary risk factors, calcium and vitamin D homeostasis, and metabolic syndrome traits (Table 1).

John C. Lieske Lieske.John@mayo.edu

¹ Division of Nephrology and Hypertension, Mayo Clinic, 200 First Street SW, Rochester, MN 55901, USA

Table 1	Heritable traits	that might of	contribute to t	he overall	heritability	y of urinar	y stone disease
---------	------------------	---------------	-----------------	------------	--------------	-------------	-----------------

	Comments	Refs.
Urine excretions		
Calcium	Strong evidence for heritability in stone formers	[13, 19–21]
Citrate	Significant heritability in stone formers	[13, 21]
Magnesium	Significant heritability in stone formers deserving further research	[13]
Volume	Significant heritability in stone formers	[13, 32]
Diet		
Total protein	Significant hereditability in stone formers	[32]
Animal protein	Significant heritability in stone formers	[32]
Calcium	Significant heritability in stone formers	[32]
Oxalate	Significant heritability in stone formers	[32]
Sucrose	Significant heritability in stone formers	[32]
Fructose	Significant heritability in stone formers	[32]
Calcium metabolism		
1,25-Vitamin D	Altered vitamin D metabolism associated with kidney stones. Variable levels of heritability among differ- ent studies were reported likely due to environmental conditions. No data available about its heritability in stone formers thus far	[33–41]
Serum calcium	Serum calcium regulation and renal calcium transport were noted to have heritability, though research in stone formers are of need	[42–45]
Metabolic syndrome	Metabolic syndrome associated with kidney stones. Variable levels of heritability were reported among different studies for characteristics of metabolic syndrome, including BMI, fasting glucose, insulin, triglycerides, LDL-cholesterol, HDL-cholesterol, and systolic and diastolic blood pressure. No data available among stone formers thus far	[55–61]

Heritability of urinary traits

Human urine is often supersaturated with respect to stoneforming salts, which is a key factor in kidney stone pathogenesis [17]. Hypercalciuria is the best-established risk factor for calcium urolithiasis. In the male health professionals' follow-up study, men with a family history tended towards higher urinary calcium excretion [12], consistent with a previous study that demonstrated that stone formers with positive family history had a higher incidence of hypercalciuria [18]. A family study of French Canadians provided additional evidence that hypercalciuria is a heritable trait [19]. In this study, comprised of 83 sibships (212 affected sibs and 176 unaffected sibs from 71 families), urinary calcium excretion, regardless of the subtype, appeared to be the major phenotype associated with calcium urolithiasis in those families with at least two calcium stone-forming sibs [19]. In addition, urinary calcium excretion was higher in affected compared to unaffected sibs of the same sibship, suggesting that hypercalciuria is hereditary [19]. In a follow-up study by the same research team, segregation of hypercalciuria was also modeled in cohort of French–Canadian families [20]. In this report, they plotted major gene, polygenic, and mixed models to fit to 24-h urine calcium excretion from 567 individuals from 221 nuclear families of 154 pedigrees each containing at least two siblings with a history of calcium stones [20]. All of the proposed genetic models fit the data significantly better than the null model. The most parsimonious was a mixed codominant/polygenic model, but this was statistically indistinguishable from a singlegene codominant model [20]. In both of these models, the heritability attributable to the major gene was estimated to be 0.58 [20]. Data from the Genetic Determinants of Urinary Lithogenicity (GDUL) cohort study comprised of 811 individuals from 446 sibships in Rochester, Minnesota [13] supported the French-Canadian study with an estimated heritability for urinary calcium excretion of 0.25. Urinary calcium excretion was also identified as a heritable trait in a smaller identical twin study (12 sets) with an estimated heritability of 0.94 [21]. Taken together, these studies provide strong evidence for heritability of urinary calcium, and suggest it should be feasible to genetically map the quantitative trait locus.

Hypocitraturia is another known and import risk factor for calcium oxalate stone formation. Significant heritability of citrate excretion was also reported in the GDUL cohort with an estimated heritability of 0.36 [13]; in the identical twin study referenced above, the estimated heritability was 0.95 [21]. Urinary oxalate and uric acid also appeared to have heritable components in the identical twin study [21] and a pedigree analysis [22], but not in the GDUL cohort [13]. However, a heritable component for urinary magnesium

excretion (0.34) was noted in the GDUL participants [13]. A previous genome-wide association study suggested that variants in *CLDN14*, the gene encoding claudin-14, associated with urinary stone risk [11] and recent work suggested that genetic variants in *CLDN14* were associated with the ratio of urinary excretion of magnesium to calcium [23]. Thus, further study into the genetic regulation of urinary magnesium in relation to urinary stone disease appears warranted.

Low urinary volume has been consistently identified as a major risk factor for urinary stone disease and it has recurrence in many studies over the years. Interestingly, significant heritability for urinary volume was noted in the GDUL cohort, which in turn may implicate genetic regulation of thirst [13]. In addition, it is notable that a heritable component to urinary pH was also detected in the GDUL cohort that lacked any subjects with known disorders of systemic acid–base balance (e.g., renal tubular acidosis) [13].

Heritability of dietary traits

A number of studies have implicated dietary factors, and the risk of incident and recurrent kidney stones [24–29]. Many of these dietary intakes are thought to directly or indirectly change the urinary excretion of lithogenic substances. For example, a low-sodium diet can reduce calcium excretion in hypercalciuric stone formers [27], and consuming more animal protein is associated with higher serum uric acid concentration and urinary uric acid excretion [26]. In general, an ideal stone prevention diet appears to involve overall greater intake of dietary fiber, fruits and vegetables, and this dietary pattern was associated with a reduced risk of incident kidney stones in postmenopausal women [25].

Previously, dietary habits were thought to be largely due to shared environment and culture. However, a paired twin study revealed that 44% of the variance in meal frequency and 65% of the variance in meal size could be attributed to heredity [30]. Data from the Erasmus Rucphen Family (ERF) study that investigated a young genetically isolated population also demonstrated that dietary intake patterns are heritable and can also predict obesity risk [31]. These findings indicate that prospective intervention regarding diet habits could potentially decrease the subsequent risk of certain diseases including urinary stones.

Heritability of dietary risk factors for urinary stones was also recently investigated in the GDUL cohort [32]. Many key dietary features previously associated with urinary stone risk appeared to have a strong heritable component including intakes of dietary protein, animal protein, calcium, oxalate, sucrose and fructose, and remained statistically significant even after adjustment for age, sex, height and weight [32]. In this study, three dietary components (total protein, calcium, and sucrose) had strongly positive heritable components, with additional environmental contributions [32]. These findings suggest that the line between genetic and environmental risk factors may be more blurred than previously appreciated, and that certain individuals may be predisposed to dietary preferences that increase stone risk [32]. It is possible that the strong genetic correlations between the various dietary intakes with heritable components identified in the GDUL cohort could be the result of underlying taste preferences which are known to have genetic components and also influence eating behaviors; alternatively, genetic factors might influence consumption of foods rich in calcium, protein and sucrose via other pathways yet to be defined [32].

Altered calcium and vitamin D homeostasis

The formation and growth of calcium stones requires delivery of calcium to the urinary space. Calcium homeostasis is normally tightly regulated through an integrated hormonal system that controls calcium transport in the bone, gut and kidney [33], all of which can be impacted by vitamin D metabolism [34]. Vitamin D can be acquired via dietary intake or de novo synthesis in the skin. It is hydroxylated in the liver to 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25[OH]D) and released into the serum. 25(OH)D is further hydroxylated in the kidney to form the active metabolite 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D (1,25 (OH) 2D). Studies in male patients with active kidney calcium stones demonstrated that higher serum 1,25 (OH) 2D was associated with higher urinary excretion of calcium [35]. Furthermore, a prospective case–control study of men in the Health Professionals Follow-Up Study found that higher plasma 1,25(OH)2D, even in ranges considered normal, is independently associated with higher risk of symptomatic kidney stones [36]. Data from Olmsted County, MN, also revealed the serum Ca and 1,25(OH)VD were increased in a cohort of first-time male and female calcium stone formers compared to controls [1]. Interestingly, the Olmsted County study also revealed that the ratio of serum 24,25(OH)2D/25(OH)D was increased in the first-time stone formers, and that PTH concentrations were slightly higher [1, 34]. These findings suggest that first-time calcium stone kidney formers may have a subtle abnormality in calcium metabolism that includes decreased 24-hydroxylase activity, the enzyme that converts 25(OH)D to a less active form of vitamin D [1, 34]. Patients with mutations in CYP24A1, the gene that encodes 24-hydroxylase, can present with profound hypercalciuria [1, 34]. Conversely, circulating concentrations of 25(OH)D do not appear to associate with kidney stone risk [36]. Vitamin D intake in recommended amounts has not been independently associated with kidney stone risk [37, 38].

Data from the German Asthma Family Study Group in sib children pairs revealed that, after adjusting for sex and age, 25-OH-D3 levels had a heritability of 0.8 while for 1,25-(OH)2-D3 heritability was only 0.3 [39]. In the cross-sectional Insulin Resistance Atherosclerosis Family Study, the heritability of 25(OH)D ranged from 0.227 to 0.413 after adjustment for sex, age, solar radiation, BMI, and physical activity, and heritability for 1,25(OH)2D ranged from 0.162 to 0.484 after adjustment for sex, age, BMI, and 25(OH)D [40]. These results indicate a moderate genetic contribution to both 25(OH)D and 1,25(OH)2D circulating concentrations. Furthermore, twin studies suggested that serum 25(OH)D concentrations are highly heritable during the winter compared to the summer [41]. Thus, environmental conditions (e.g., sun exposure) may potentially cloud the potential influence of heritability of serum 25 (OH) D concentrations. There are no data on the heritability of either 25(OH)D or 1,25(OH)2D in a cohort of stone formers.

Heritability estimates for serum calcium range from 0.21 to 0.45 in published twin studies [42–45] and from a study of nuclear families randomly selected from the general population [45]. Interestingly, studies in the general population also suggest a genetic influence on renal calcium handling with heritability estimates for 24-h urine calcium clearance, excretion, and fractional excretion of 45%, 44%, and 51%, respectively [45]. Thus, further investigation regarding the genetics of serum calcium regulation and renal calcium transport in cohorts of calcium stone formers are likely to be informative.

Metabolic syndrome traits

Elements of the metabolic syndrome include central obesity, hypertension, dyslipidemia, and hyperglycemia [46], which are at least partly dependent on reduced insulin sensitivity and hyperinsulinemia [47]. Systematic review and metaanalysis of studies have demonstrated that the metabolic syndrome is associated with a urinary stone risk [47, 48].

Obesity, especially central obesity, is associated with the occurrence and recurrence of kidney stones [48]. Kidney stones in obese individuals are mainly composed of calcium oxalate and uric acid [49], and obese stone formers had higher urinary excretions of sodium, calcium, uric acid and citrate, plus a lower urinary pH [50]. Furthermore, a recent study suggested that calcium stone formers with low amounts of Randall's Plaque tended to be obese [51]. Thus, patients with obesity and metabolic syndrome may have distinct pathogenic risks for stone formation and growth that differ from the non-obese population. Many studies have also demonstrated an independent association between urinary stones and hypertension [52]. The risk of urinary stones may be even higher in hypertensive individuals who are also obese [53]. Although the precise pathophysiology of the epidemiological association between hypertension and nephrolithiasis is not entirely clear, it has been proposed that the metabolic syndrome, insulin resistance, and atherosclerosis may be important underlying features [54].

Many of the metabolic syndrome traits appear to have underlying genetic risks with heritability estimates ranging from 24 to 90% for BMI [55-57], 10-75% for fasting glucose [55, 58, 59], 20–55% for fasting insulin [55], 0.03–72% for triglycerides [55], 25–98% for LDL-cholesterol [55], 30-80% for HDL-cholesterol [55], 30-74% for total cholesterol [55], 20–71% for SBP [55], and 10–50% for DBP [55]. These differences may be due in part to individual study designs, or may represent meaningful variations since heritability can depend on context, sex, or age [55, 60, 61]. A recent study in an unselected sample of adults ranging in age between 18 and 98 years suggested that the genetic contribution to metabolic syndrome traits is moderate to large in both sexes and across all ages [55]. Thus, the increasing prevalence of the metabolic syndrome over recent decades may be largely due to lifestyle changes. To date, there are no published data regarding the heritability of metabolic traits among kidney stone formers.

Conclusions

For many decades, it has been appreciated that urinary stones tend to cluster in families, thus implicating genetic factors. Of the known risk factors, evidence is strongest for heritability of urinary calcium excretion. Studies that are more recent suggest that numerous other urinary stone risk factors may have heritable components, ranging from urinary pH, citrate and magnesium excretion, to circulating vitamin D concentrations. Interestingly, several risk factors assumed purely environmental now also have evidence for a heritable component including specific dietary intakes and total urine volume (thus potentially implicating the genetics of thirst). Thus, future studies may reveal that genetics plays a much stronger role in urinary stone pathogenesis than previously known.

Funding Investigators on this study were partially supported by the Rare Kidney Stone Consortium (U54KD083908), a member of the NIH Rare Diseases Clinical Research Network (RDCRN), funded by the NIDDK and the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences (NCATS); a grant from the National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases (Mayo Clinic O'Brien Urology Research Center: DK100227), and the Mayo Foundation.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest John C Lieske declares that he has no conflict of interest. Xiangling Wang declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

References

- Ketha H, Singh RJ, Grebe SK, Bergstralh EJ, Rule AD, Lieske JC, Kumar R (2015) Altered calcium and vitamin D homeostasis in first-time calcium kidney stone-formers. PLoS One 10:e0137350
- Stamatelou KK, Francis ME, Jones CA, Nyberg LM, Curhan GC (2003) Time trends in reported prevalence of kidney stones in the United States: 1976–1994. Kidney Int 63:1817–1823
- Ljunghall S, Danielson BG (1984) A prospective study of renal stone recurrences. Br J Urol 56:122–124
- Gambaro G, Vezzoli G, Casari G, Rampoldi L, D'Angelo A, Borghi L (2004) Genetics of hypercalciuria and calcium nephrolithiasis: from the rare monogenic to the common polygenic forms. Am J Kidney Dis 44:963–986
- Kittanamongkolchai W, Vaughan LE, Enders FT, Dhondup T, Mehta RA, Krambeck AE, McCollough CH, Vrtiska TJ, Lieske JC, Rule AD (2018) The changing incidence and presentation of urinary stones over 3 decades. Mayo Clin Proc 93:291–299
- Frymoyer PA, Scheinman SJ, Dunham PB, Jones DB, Hueber P, Schroeder ET (1991) X-linked recessive nephrolithiasis with renal failure. N Engl J Med 325:681–686
- Worcester EM, Coe FL, Evan AP, Parks JH (2006) Reduced renal function and benefits of treatment in cystinuria vs other forms of nephrolithiasis. BJU Int 97:1285–1290
- Rule AD, Bergstralh EJ, Melton LJ 3rd, Li X, Weaver AL, Lieske JC (2009) Kidney stones and the risk for chronic kidney disease. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 4:804–811
- Rule AD, Roger VL, Melton LJ 3rd, Bergstrahh EJ, Li X, Peyser PA, Krambeck AE, Lieske JC (2010) Kidney stones associate with increased risk for myocardial infarction. J Am Soc Nephrol 21:1641–1644
- Griffin DG (2004) A review of the heritability of idiopathic nephrolithiasis. J Clin Pathol 57:793–796
- Thorleifsson G, Holm H, Edvardsson V, Walters GB, Styrkarsdottir U, Gudbjartsson DF, Sulem P, Halldorsson BV, de Vegt F, d'Ancona FC et al (2009) Sequence variants in the CLDN14 gene associate with kidney stones and bone mineral density. Nat Genet 41:926–930
- Curhan GC, Willett WC, Rimm EB, Stampfer MJ (1997) Family history and risk of kidney stones. J Am Soc Nephrol 8:1568–1573
- Lieske JC, Turner ST, Edeh SN, Smith JA, Kardia SL (2014) Heritability of urinary traits that contribute to nephrolithiasis. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 9:943–950
- Trinchieri A, Mandressi A, Luongo P, Coppi F, Pisani E (1988) Familial aggregation of renal calcium stone disease. J Urol 139:478–481
- Rudan I, Padovan M, Rudan D, Campbell H, Biloglav Z, Janicjevic B, Smolej-Narancic N, Rudan P (2002) Inbreeding and nephrolithiasis in Croatian island isolates. Coll Antropol 26:11–21
- Sayer JA (2017) Progress in understanding the genetics of calcium-containing nephrolithiasis. J Am Soc Nephrol 28:748–759
- Parks JH, Coward M, Coe FL (1997) Correspondence between stone composition and urine supersaturation in nephrolithiasis. Kidney Int 51:894–900
- Caudarella R, Malavolta N, Rizzoli E, Stefani F, D'Antuono G (1986) Idiopathic calcium urolithiasis: genetic aspects. Ann Med Interne (Paris) 137:200–202
- Tessier J, Petrucci M, Trouve ML, Valiquette L, Guay G, Ouimet D, Bonnardeaux A (2001) A family-based study of metabolic phenotypes in calcium urolithiasis. Kidney Int 60:1141–1147
- Loredo-Osti JC, Roslin NM, Tessier J, Fujiwara TM, Morgan K, Bonnardeaux A (2005) Segregation of urine calcium excretion in families ascertained for nephrolithiasis: evidence for a major gene. Kidney Int 68:966–971

- Monga M, Macias B, Groppo E, Hargens A (2006) Genetic heritability of urinary stone risk in identical twins. J Urol 175:2125–2128
- 22. Holmes RP, Assimos DG, Goodman HO (1998) Genetic and dietary influences on urinary oxalate excretion. Urol Res 26:195–200
- Corre T, Olinger E, Harris SE, Traglia M, Ulivi S, Lenarduzzi S, Belge H, Youhanna S, Tokonami N, Bonny O et al (2017) Common variants in CLDN14 are associated with differential excretion of magnesium over calcium in urine. Pflugers Arch 469:91–103
- Taylor EN, Fung TT, Curhan GC (2009) DASH-style diet associates with reduced risk for kidney stones. J Am Soc Nephrol 20:2253–2259
- 25. Sorensen MD, Hsi RS, Chi T, Shara N, Wactawski-Wende J, Kahn AJ, Wang H, Hou L, Stoller ML, Women's Health Initiative Writing G (2014) Dietary intake of fiber, fruit and vegetables decreases the risk of incident kidney stones in women: a Women's Health Initiative report. J Urol 192:1694–1699
- Tracy CR, Best S, Bagrodia A, Poindexter JR, Adams-Huet B, Sakhaee K, Maalouf N, Pak CY, Pearle MS (2014) Animal protein and the risk of kidney stones: a comparative metabolic study of animal protein sources. J Urol 192:137–141
- Nouvenne A, Meschi T, Prati B, Guerra A, Allegri F, Vezzoli G, Soldati L, Gambaro G, Maggiore U, Borghi L (2010) Effects of a low-salt diet on idiopathic hypercalciuria in calcium-oxalate stone formers: a 3-mo randomized controlled trial. Am J Clin Nutr 91:565–570
- Lieske JC, Tremaine WJ, De Simone C, O'Connor HM, Li X, Bergstralh EJ, Goldfarb DS (2010) Diet, but not oral probiotics, effectively reduces urinary oxalate excretion and calcium oxalate supersaturation. Kidney Int 78:1178–1185
- Goldfarb DS, Coe FL (1999) Beverages, diet, and prevention of kidney stones. Am J Kidney Dis 33:398–400 (discussion 401–393)
- de Castro JM (1993) Genetic influences on daily intake and meal patterns of humans. Physiol Behav 53:777–782
- van den Berg L, Henneman P, Willems van Dijk K, Delemarre-van de Waal HA, Oostra BA, van Duijn CM, Janssens AC (2013) Heritability of dietary food intake patterns. Acta Diabetol 50:721–726
- Lieske JC, Turner ST, Edeh SN, Ware EB, Kardia SL, Smith JA (2016) Heritability of dietary traits that contribute to nephrolithiasis in a cohort of adult sibships. J Nephrol 29:45–51
- Peacock M (2010) Calcium metabolism in health and disease. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 5(Suppl 1):S23–S30
- Assimos DG (2016) Re: altered calcium and vitamin D homeostasis in first-time calcium kidney stone-formers. J Urol 195:658–659
- 35. Shakhssalim N, Gilani KR, Parvin M, Torbati PM, Kashi AH, Azadvari M, Golestan B, Basiri A (2011) An assessment of parathyroid hormone, calcitonin, 1,25 (OH)2 vitamin D3, estradiol and testosterone in men with active calcium stone disease and evaluation of its biochemical risk factors. Urol Res 39:1–7
- Taylor EN, Hoofnagle AN, Curhan GC (2015) Calcium and phosphorus regulatory hormones and risk of incident symptomatic kidney stones. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 10:667–675
- Ferraro PM, Taylor EN, Gambaro G, Curhan GC (2017) Vitamin D intake and the risk of incident kidney stones. J Urol 197:405–410
- Malihi Z, Wu Z, Stewart AW, Lawes CM, Scragg R (2016) Hypercalcemia, hypercalciuria, and kidney stones in long-term studies of vitamin D supplementation: a systematic review and metaanalysis. Am J Clin Nutr 104:1039–1051
- Wjst M, Altmuller J, Braig C, Bahnweg M, Andre E (2007) A genome-wide linkage scan for 25-OH-D(3) and 1,25-(OH)2-D3 serum levels in asthma families. J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol 103:799–802
- Engelman CD, Fingerlin TE, Langefeld CD, Hicks PJ, Rich SS, Wagenknecht LE, Bowden DW, Norris JM (2008) Genetic

and environmental determinants of 25-hydroxyvitamin D and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D levels in Hispanic and African Americans. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 93:3381–3388

- Karohl C, Su S, Kumari M, Tangpricha V, Veledar E, Vaccarino V, Raggi P (2010) Heritability and seasonal variability of vitamin D concentrations in male twins. Am J Clin Nutr 92:1393–1398
- 42. Bathum L, Fagnani C, Christiansen L, Christensen K (2004) Heritability of biochemical kidney markers and relation to survival in the elderly—results from a Danish population-based twin study. Clin Chim Acta 349:143–150
- Whitfield JB, Martin NG (1984) The effects of inheritance on constituents of plasma: a twin study on some biochemical variables. Ann Clin Biochem 21:176–183
- Hunter DJ, Lange M, Snieder H, MacGregor AJ, Swaminathan R, Thakker RV, Spector TD (2002) Genetic contribution to renal function and electrolyte balance: a twin study. Clin Sci (Lond) 103:259–265
- 45. Moulin F, Ponte B, Pruijm M, Ackermann D, Bouatou Y, Guessous I, Ehret G, Bonny O, Pechere-Bertschi A, Staessen JA et al (2017) A population-based approach to assess the heritability and distribution of renal handling of electrolytes. Kidney Int 92:1536–1543
- 46. Zimmet P, Magliano D, Matsuzawa Y, Alberti G, Shaw J (2015) The metabolic syndrome: a global public health problem and a new definition. J Atheroscler Thromb 12:295–300
- 47. Rendina D, De Filippo G, D'Elia L, Strazzullo P (2014) Metabolic syndrome and nephrolithiasis: a systematic review and meta-analysis of the scientific evidence. J Nephrol 27:371–376
- Wong Y, Cook P, Roderick P, Somani BK (2016) Metabolic syndrome and kidney stone disease: a systematic review of literature. J Endourol 30:246–253
- Mosli HA, Mosli HH, Kamal WK (2013) Kidney stone composition in overweight and obese patients: a preliminary report. Res Rep Urol 5:11–15
- Lee SC, Kim YJ, Kim TH, Yun SJ, Lee NK, Kim WJ (2008) Impact of obesity in patients with urolithiasis and its prognostic usefulness in stone recurrence. J Urol 179:570–574
- 51. Wang X, Krambeck AE, Williams JC Jr, Tang X, Rule AD, Zhao F, Bergstralh E, Haskic Z, Edeh S, Holmes DR 3rd et al (2014)

Distinguishing characteristics of idiopathic calcium oxalate kidney stone formers with low amounts of Randall's plaque. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 9:1757–1763

- Cappuccio FP, Strazzullo P, Mancini M (1990) Kidney stones and hypertension: population based study of an independent clinical association. BMJ 300:1234–1236
- Borghi L, Meschi T, Guerra A, Briganti A, Schianchi T, Allegri F, Novarini A (1999) Essential arterial hypertension and stone disease. Kidney Int 55:2397–2406
- Cupisti A, D'Alessandro C, Samoni S, Meola M, Egidi MF (2014) Nephrolithiasis and hypertension: possible links and clinical implications. J Nephrol 27:477–482
- 55. van Dongen J, Willemsen G, Chen WM, de Geus EJ, Boomsma DI (2013) Heritability of metabolic syndrome traits in a large population-based sample. J Lipid Res 54:2914–2923
- Maes HH, Neale MC, Eaves LJ (1997) Genetic and environmental factors in relative body weight and human adiposity. Behav Genet 27:325–351
- 57. Elks CE, den Hoed M, Zhao JH, Sharp SJ, Wareham NJ, Loos RJ, Ong KK (2012) Variability in the heritability of body mass index: a systematic review and meta-regression. Front Endocrinol (Lausanne) 3:29
- Pilia G, Chen WM, Scuteri A, Orru M, Albai G, Dei M, Lai S, Usala G, Lai M, Loi P et al (2006) Heritability of cardiovascular and personality traits in 6,148 Sardinians. PLoS Genet 2(8):e132
- 59. Zarkesh M, Daneshpour MS, Faam B, Fallah MS, Hosseinzadeh N, Guity K, Hosseinpanah F, Momenan AA, Azizi F (2012) Heritability of the metabolic syndrome and its components in the Tehran Lipid and Glucose Study (TLGS). Genet Res (Camb) 94:331–337
- McCarthy JJ (2007) Gene by sex interaction in the etiology of coronary heart disease and the preceding metabolic syndrome. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis 17:153–161
- Snieder H, van Doornen LJ, Boomsma DI (1997) The age dependency of gene expression for plasma lipids, lipoproteins, and apolipoproteins. Am J Hum Genet 60:638–650