

Studies on Metabolic Evaluation of Urinary Risk Factors in Southern Punjab, Pakistan

Urinary Risk Factors in South Punjab

Shafiq Ahmad¹, Muhammad Aslam Shad² and Tariq Mahmood Ansari²

ABSTRACT

Objective: The aim of the present study was to assess the metabolic abnormalities such as hypercalciuria, low urine volume, hypocitraturia, hyperoxaluria and hyperuricosuria in recurrent stone formers of southern Punjab as these abnormalities vary in different populations.

Study Design: Prospective study.

Place and Duration of Study: This study was conducted at the Department of Biochemistry, Bahauddin Zakarya University Multan and Nisthar Medical College Multan from December 2010 to January 2012.

Materials and Methods: One hundred adult patients who were known idiopathic recurrent calcium oxalate renal stone formers (RCSFs) were selected from the various districts of the Southern Punjab, Pakistan. Twenty four hour urine collections were made while the subjects were on their usual diet. Samples were collected in clean polyethylene containers. Volume was measured using a graduated cylinder. Hydrochloric acid N/10 HCl (1 ml/100 ml of urine) was added to stop auto-conversion of ascorbic acid to oxalate during storage. Thymol was added as a preservative.

Results: Common metabolic change found in the present work was hypercalciuria. It was found in 38 patients (38%) it was isolated in 25 cases and associated with other changes in 13 patients.

Conclusion: Most of the patients were noted to have metabolic abnormalities. Hypercalciuria, low urine volume, and hypocitraturia were common metabolic defects. Hypercalciuria was the most frequent risk factor.

Key Words: Renal calculi, risk factors, hypercalciuria, low urine volume, hyperoxaluria, hypocitraturia, hyperuricosuria, Southern Punjab, Pakistan

Citation of article: Ahmad S, Shad MA, Ansari TM. Studies on Metabolic Evaluation of Urinary Risk Factors in Southern Punjab, Pakistan. Med Forum 2016;27(10):7-11.

INTRODUCTION

Renal calculus formation is a common medical problem. It has been estimated that its prevalence is 15% once in life. Age, gender, race and geographical location are the factors which chiefly affect this disorder. That is why its incidence rate is different in different countries¹. In a particular population the incidence rate fluctuate between 68 to 72 per 1000 000. This variation may be due to difference of the region under study². Pakistan lies in stone belt. Renal calculus disease is endemic in this country as whole and in particular Punjab³. McCarrison⁴ was the first person to carry study of this illness in various parts of Pakistan. He reported that the incidence of this disorder was quite high in Dera Ghazi Khan, Sukkur, Hyderabad and Dera Ismail Khan. It was found that as compared to Southern

Punjab (33 %) the incidence of this problem was more in Northern Punjab (67 %).

Both extrinsic and intrinsic factors are responsible for this disease in different provinces of Pakistan. Majority of Pakistanis are inhabited in villages where the environment is hot⁵.

In Pakistan, very little work has been done on the studies of risk factors for renal stone formation⁶.

Metabolic studies on the population of this region show that major risk factors encountered are low urinary volume (20-30%), hyperuricosuria (20-60%), hyperoxaluria (50- 60%), hypomagnesiuria (20-30%) and hypocitraturia (30-40%)⁷.

It is very necessary to know the risk factors responsible for renal stone formation for efficient medical treatment and prevention of recurrence of this disease⁸

Reliable stone analysis and basic metabolic evaluation are highly recommended in all patients after stone passage. Every patient should be assigned to a low- or high-risk group for stone formation. High-risk stone formers should undergo specific metabolic evaluation with 24-h urine collection.⁹

The aim of the project is to study the metabolic abnormalities such as hypercalciuria, low urine volume, hypocitraturia, hyperoxaluria and hyperuricosuria in recurrent stone formers of southern Punjab as these abnormalities vary in different populations.

¹. Department of pharmacology Nishtar Medical College Multan

². Institute of Chemical Sciences, Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan

Correspondence: Shafiq Ahmad, Pharmaceutical Chemist, Department Pharmacology, Nishtar medical college Multan. Contact No: 0315-6336359 Email: biochemist111@hotmail.com

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Selection of patients

Patients' group: One hundred adult patients who were known idiopathic recurrent calcium oxalate renal stone formers (RCSFs) were selected from the various districts of the Southern Punjab. Ages ranged from 18 years to 67 years. The group of patients consisted of 75 male stone-formers (mean age 45 ± 9.97 years) with recurrent calcium oxalate renal calculus disease and 25 female stone formers (mean age 33.76 ± 11.15). These patients were referred to the different clinical laboratories by the consultants for further investigations of renal calculus disease after the stone removal. Most of these patients were those who were operated for renal calculi and visiting clinical laboratories for chemical analysis of renal calculi.

A recurrent stone former patient is one who has renal stone in his urinary tract besides evidence of previous renal stone formation. In addition he has history of passing renal stone, proof of renal stone on previous KUB X-ray or history of operation for urinary tract stone.

There were no dietary restrictions per se, but the patients were advised not to take oxalate rich and calcium rich diet. Major source of drinking water was either tap water in cities or hand pump water in the rural areas.

First time stone formers and children less than 18 years were excluded from the study. Patients suffering from any other diseases were also excluded from the study.

Control Group: The control group consisted of 48 healthy subjects, age and sex matched, 32 males and 16 females (mean age of either sex 35.0 ± 7.1 years). They were attendants of the patients and had no history of stone formation or renal diseases. No additional diagnostic procedure was performed to confirm the absence of renal stones. All subjects gave informed consent to participate in the study.

Collection of samples: Twenty four hour urine collections were made while the subjects were on their usual diet. Samples were collected in clean polyethylene containers. Volume was measured using a graduated cylinder. Hydrochloric acid N/10 HCl (1 ml/100 ml of urine) was added to stop auto-conversion of ascorbic acid to oxalate during storage. Thymol was added as a preservative.

Metabolic diagnosis consisted of five categories: low urine volume, hypercalciuria, hyperoxaluria, hyperuricosuria, and hypocitraturia. The parameters for the group of patients and the group of controls were expressed as mean value \pm standard deviation. Volume of the specimen was noted and used for the analysis of biochemical parameters.

Biochemical determination: Urinary calcium and urinary uric acid were determined using Human diagnostic kits (Germany). Urinary oxalate was

determined using the trinity biotech diagnostic kit (Ireland). Citrate was determined by using a simple modified Method for urine citrate determination by Sekar et al [10]. A spectrophotometer UV/VIS (Helios, Unicam, UK) was employed to take the measurements. Analytical work was done at Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan and Nisthatr Medical College, Multan, Pakistan.

RESULTS

In the present study, common metabolic risk factors for renal calculi formation in the idiopathic recurrent calcium oxalate stone formers of Southern Punjab, Pakistan were identified.

The percentage of patients of either gender whose urinary constituents were abnormal is shown in table 1, figure. 1

Table No.1 Overall metabolic abnormalities in patients N=100

Metabolic Abnormality	Number of Cases
Hypercalciuria	25
Hypercalciuria +low urine volume	4
Hypercalciuria+hypocitraturia	9
Low urine volume	11
Low urine volume+ hypocitraturia	20
Hyperoxaluria	10
Hyperuricosuria	3
No abnormality detected	18
Total	100

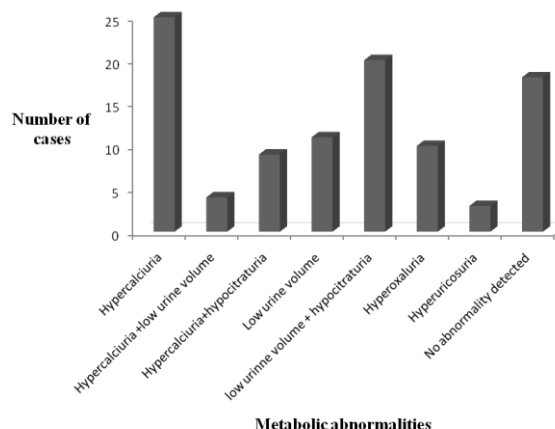


Figure No.1. overall urinary abnormalities in patients

Common metabolic change found in the present work was hypercalciuria. It was found in 38 patients (38%) it was isolated in 25 cases and associated with other changes in 13 patients.

The next most common abnormality was low urine volume noted in 35 patients. It was isolated in 11 patients and associated in remaining patients. Hypocitraturia was the abnormality next in prevalence.

Of the total one hundred patients, 29 were having hypocitraturia and this abnormality was associated. This was followed by hyperoxaluria in 10 patients and hyperuricosuria in three patients. Value of each metabolic abnormality in 24-h urine expressed as mean with standard deviation is shown in Table 2

Table No. 2: Values of metabolic abnormalities in 24- h urine

Parameters hour Urine	Normal limit	Control Mean \pm SD	Abnormal Values Mean \pm SD	P value
Volume (ml/24h)	<1500	1754.29 \pm 134.4	1160 \pm 53.05	<0.0001*
Calcium (mg/24h)	>300	235.52 \pm 13.08	349.6 \pm 28.36	<0.0001*
Citrate (mg/24h)	<300	262.23 \pm 6.18	227.59 \pm 28.52	<0.0001*
Oxalate (mg/24h)	>40	28.58 \pm 4.61	55.5 \pm 6.5	<0.0001*
Uric acid (mg/24h)	>750	421.85 \pm 125.41	840 \pm 37.42	<0.0001*

*p value< 0.0001= highly significant

DISCUSSION

Even though risk factors for urolithiasis have been recognized but the precise reason of renal stone formation is often not known¹¹. When urine is tested, the metabolic or other abnormalities are detected in renal stone formers. Low urinary volume (20-30 %), hypercalciuria (25-40%), hyperoxaluria (10-50%) hyperuricosuria (8-30%) and hypocitraturia (5-30%) are the common abnormalities¹².

In most of idiopathic calcium oxalate stone formers, hypercalciuria, low urine volume, hypocitraturia either alone or in combinations are the main abnormalities. Imbalance between promoters and inhibitors appears to be underlying cause of the abnormalities¹³. In other studies, hypercalciuria was the most common finding in the stone formers¹⁴.

In this study the most common metabolic risk factor was hypercalciuria (38 %) which was isolated in 25 (25 %) cases and associated in 13 cases.

Thirty nine patients in India underwent metabolic evaluation and it was found that metabolic abnormalities were detected in 92.3% of the patients (n = 39) studied. Of them, almost 60% had two or more metabolic abnormalities. The most common metabolic abnormality was hypo-citraturia (82%), followed by hyper-oxaluria (56%) and hyper-calciuria (41%)¹⁵.

A study in Argentina revealed that the abnormalities present, single and associated, in order of frequency, were idiopathic hypercalciuria, (56.88%), hyperuricosuria (21.08%), unduly acidic urine (10.95%), hypocitraturia (10.55%), hypomagnesuria (7.9%), primary hyperparathyroidism (3.01%), hyperoxaluria (2.6%), and cystinuria (0.32%)¹⁶.

Regarding hypercalciuria, the result of this study is in close proximity to that of Khan and Shahjahan in Pakistan¹⁷, which showed that in the similar study carried by them, 31.7% patients, were hypercalciuric.

Higher excretion of calcium in the urine is found in studies conducted in Pakistan and other countries¹⁸. Similar results were encountered in western countries. It was found that hypercalciuria was the most frequent risk factor for urinary stone formation. The percentage of this abnormality was 60%. It was higher than in the present study. Hypercalciuria causes more than 50% of metabolic disorders in adults and 53 to 75% in children¹⁹. The most frequently found metabolic change investigated by Amaro et al²⁰ was hypercalciuria, present in 117 patients (74%), which was isolated in 62 cases (53%) and was associated with other changes in 55 (47%). Consequently, hypercalciuria is commonly found in the patients with renal stone disease. In studies of metabolic risk factors, hypercalciuria has been reported in up to or more than 50 percent of the patients.

In a study conducted in China, it was found that hypercalciuria, hyperoxaluria, high urine sodium levels, and hyperuricosuria were found to be the common metabolic risk factors of the calcium oxalate stone formation with hyperuricemia²¹.

Hypercalciuria and recurrent calcium oxalate stone formers are related to each other. It has been known for a long time but the exact nature of this relation is not known as yet. Research is underway to know this relation.

As a result of Hypercalciuria, renal stone is formed heterogeneously consisting of many entities²². As a result of increase in the concentration of urinary calcium the concentration of calcium ion increases. Consequently urine becomes saturated with stone forming salts, i.e., calcium phosphate and calcium oxalate²³. In addition, urinary inhibitors such as citrate and glycosamin complexes with calcium. This results in reduced urinary inhibitor activity. Consequently risk of renal stone formation is increased²⁴.

The main cause of this defect is overproduction of 1, 25-dihydroxy-vitamin D3 [1, 25 (OH) 2 D3]. This is vitamin D in its active form. Its moves calcium ions into intestinal cells. Calcium enters the intestine via lumen of the intestine through the brush border membrane. It also controls transport of calcium from intestinal cells²⁵.

Vitamin D3 comes from diet. Besides, it is also synthesized in the liver from provitamin. It is synthesized when skin is exposed to ultraviolet light. Body has large store of 25 (OH) D3 and enzyme 1 α -hydroxylase converts vitamin D to 1,25 (OH)2 D3²⁶.

In the present study, low urine volume was the next metabolic abnormality encountered. Out of 100 cases it was found in 35 patients.

Dehydration and inadequate fluid intake are the causes of low urine volume. It may also be caused by malabsorptive bowel disorders which also result in excessive fluid loss. High fluid intake is the most effective means of urinary supersaturation²⁷. Among the metabolic abnormalities investigated in 24 hour urine, low urine volume is the most common²⁸. Low urine volume increases the supersaturation of stone forming salts²⁹. Chronic diarrhea or hard physical exercise leads to low urine volume and ultimately increases urinary supersaturation of renal stone forming salts²⁸. As a result low urine volume is an important risk factor for renal stone formation. There is evidence to prove that low urine volume is an actual lithogenic risk factor. To support this idea some workers have drawn probability index for formation of calcium oxalate. This index proves that even if non stone former has low urine volume e.g., if it drops below 1 litre/day this normal subjects can run high risk of developing renal stone¹.

The prevalence of renal stone tends to be higher in the areas of hot climate. This is well known fact now³⁰. Insufficient fluid intake, loss of water from the skin/respiratory tract, diarrhea are the principal causes of low urine volume. These conditions lead to chronic dehydration. In such circumstances risk of stone formation increases. These conditions may include high surrounding temperature, high degree of physical activity and insufficient water replacement. The most important factor is insufficient intake of fluid. This factor plays major role in high frequency of renal stone disease in the area of hot climate³¹.

Urine dilution prevents stone recurrence and this is achieved by adequate fluid intake. When we take enough fluid risk of renal stone formation is decreased this process lowers the supersaturation of stone forming constituents³².

Low urine flow rate is the cause of high prevalence of renal stone in this region. In Pakistan river Indus and its branches mainly supply water otherwise it is barren. Composition of water varies throughout the country. At some places it is very hard having more than 300 parts per million calcium but how this relationship increases risk of renal stone formation is unclear³³.

The metabolic abnormality next in abundance was hypocitraturia. Iqbal et al³⁴ conducted a study and found that the most common risk factor was hypocitraturia. It was present in 81.2% percent patients. Hypocitraturia was found in 57 % renal stone formers in a study conducted in Pakistan on much larger scale. In a study conducted in Iran, the most common metabolic abnormalities were hypocitraturia (40.5%)³⁵. These observations are in contrast to the present study where percentage of hypocitraturia is much less (29 %) than these studies.

Citrate forms complex with calcium and in this way process of renal stone formation is slowed down. It also

results in the inhibition of nucleation and growth³⁶. When there is low concentration of citrate, calcium is free to combine with oxalate and this is how hypocitraturia increases the risk of renal stone formation. In most of the cases, it is idiopathic. Distal renal tubular acidosis, chronic diarrhea, urinary tract infection and thiazide medication can also induce hypocitraturia.

High prevalence of hypocitraturia has been found in calcium oxalate renal stone patients in many studies. These studies provide convincing evidence that this abnormality is a significant pathogenic risk factor in renal stone formation disease³⁷.

In the present study, hyperoxaluria is not a common abnormality in the stone formers. It was found only in 10 percent of the patients in the present work. In contrast to this study, Hyperoxaluria (61.4%) was the most common abnormality detected, in a study conducted in Malaysia³⁸.

CONCLUSION

Most of the patients were noted to have metabolic abnormalities. Hypercalciuria, low urine volume, and hypocitraturia were common metabolic defects. Hypercalciuria was the most frequent. The findings suggest that metabolic derangements play a role in stone formation. Metabolic studies are necessary to treat the underlying cause and prevent further recurrence. More comprehensive metabolic evaluation in southern Punjab is required to establish the results.

Acknowledgements: I would like to take this opportunity to express my profound gratitude and deep regard to my teachers for their exemplary guidance, valuable feedback and constant encouragement throughout the duration of the project.

I also thank lab staff for their continuous cooperation and support.

Conflict of Interest: The study has no conflict of interest to declare by any author.

REFERENCES

1. Soucie JM, Coates RJ, McClellan W, Austin H, Thun M. Relation between geographic variability in kidney stones prevalence and risk factors for stones. *Am J Epidemiol* 1996; 143:487-95.
2. Basiri A, Shakhssalim N, Khoshdel AR, Naghavi M. Regional and seasonal variation in the incidence of urolithiasis in Iran: a place for obsession in case finding and statistical approach. *Urol Res* 2009; 37:197-204.
3. Khan FA. History of calculus disease of urinary tract. *Pakistan Medical Assoc.* 1973; 23: 19-24.
4. McCarrison RA. Lecture on the causation of stone in India. *Br Med J* 1931;1:1009
5. UNDP. Profile of Human Poverty in Human Development. Report 1997 Oxford. University Press 1997; 137-228.

6. Hussain M, Lal, M Ali B, Ahmed S, Zafar N, Naqvi SA, Rizvi SAH. Management of urinary calculi associated with renal failure. *J Pak Med Assoc* 1995; 45:205-208.
7. Rizvi SAH, Naqvi SAA, Hussain Z, Hashmi A, Hussain M, Zafar MN, et al. The management of stone disease. *BJU Int* 2002;89:6268
8. Robertson W G. A comprehensive screening procedure for the assessment of patients with recurrent stones. Editoriale Bios, Cosenza, 1999.
9. Skolarikos A, Straub M, Knoll T, Sarica K, Seitz C, Petřík A, Türk C. Metabolic evaluation and recurrence prevention for urinary stone patients: EAU guidelines. *Eur Urol* 2015; 67(4):750-63
10. Sekar R, Fidanci V, Erol D, et al. A Simple and modified Method for Urine Citrate Determination. *Turkish J Biochem* 2009; 4: 173-177.
11. Siener R. Impact of dietary habits on stone incidence. *Urol Res* 2006;34:133-3
12. Borghi L, Meschi T, Schianchi T et al. Urine volume: Stone risk factor preventive measure. *Nephron* 1999; 81:31-7. s
13. Milosević D, Batinić D, Konjevoda P, et al. Analysis of Calcium, Oxalate and Citrate interaction in Idiopathic Calcium Urolithiasis in children. *J Chem Inf Comput Sci* 2003;43:1844-7
14. Pak CYC, Britton F, Peterson R, et al. Ambulatory evaluation of nephrolithiasis: classification, clinical presentation and diagnostic criteria. *Am J Med* 1980; 69: 19-30.
15. Joshi A, Gupta SK, Srivastava A. Metabolic evaluation in first-time renal stone formers in North India: a single center study. *Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl* 2013; 24(4):838-43.
16. Spivacow FR, Del Valle EE, Negri AL, Fradinger E, Abib A, Rey P. Biochemical diagnosis in 3040 kidney stone formers in Argentina. *Urolithiasis* 2015; 43(4):323-30.
17. Khan SP, Shahjahan S. Role of different etiological factors in renal calculus disease. *Pak J Med Res* 2000; 39:4.
18. Rizvi SAH. Calculus disease; a survey of 400 patients. *Pakistan Med Assoc* 1975, 25: 268-274.
19. Levy FL, Adams-Huet B, Pak CY. Ambulatory evaluation of nephrolithiasis: an update of a 1980 protocol. *Am J Med* 1995; 98:50-9.
20. Amaro CR, Goldberg J, Amaro JL, Padov CR. Metabolic assessment in Patients with urinary lithiasis. *International Braz J Urol* 2005;31:29-33.,
21. Yan X, Jianlin L, Xuehua C. Metabolic evaluation in stone formation with hyperuricemia. *Chinese Med J* 2014; 127(8):1582-1584.
22. Stroller MI, Meng MV. *Urinary Stone Disease The Practical Guide to Medical and Surgical Management*; New jersey: Humana press inc 2007.
23. Mandel N. Mechanism of stone formation. *Semin Nephrol* 1996; 16:364-74.
24. Lemann J. Composition of the diet and calcium kidney stones. *N Engl J Med* 1993;328:880-2
25. Buck AC. Hypercalciuria in idiopathic calcium oxalate urolithiasis. In: Wickham JEA, Buck AC, editors. *Renal Tract Stone. Metabolic Basis and Clinical Practice*. Edingburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 1990.p. 239-251.
26. Hess B, Ackermann D, Essig M, Takkinen R, Jaegar P. Renal mass and serum calcitriol in male idiopathic calcium renal stone formers: role of protein intake. *J Clin Endocrinol and Metabolism* 1995; 80: 1916-1921.
27. Curhan GC, Taylor EN. 24-h uric acid excretion and the risk of kidney stones. *Kidney Int* 2008; 734:489-496.
28. Sakhaee K, Nigam S, Snell P, Hsu MC, Pak CY. Assessment of the pathogenetic role of physical exercise in renal stone formation. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1987; 65:974-979.
29. Pak CY, Skurla C, Harvey J. Graphic display of urinary risk factors for renal stone formation. *J Urol* 1985; 134:867-870.
30. Editorial: Stones in hot climate. *Lancet* 1966;ii: 1455
31. Berlyne GM, Yagil R, Goodwin S, Morag M. Drinking habits and urine concentration of man in southern Israel. *Isr J Med Sci* 1976; 12:765-769.
32. Pak CYC, Sakhaee K, Crowther C, Brinkley L. Evidence justifying a high fluid intake in treatment of nephrolithiasis. *Ann Intern Med* 1980;93:36-39.
33. Arif P. *Urinary Stone Survey at Quetta Division Hospitals with reference to Drinking Water*. Dissertation. Lahore; Punjab university; 1992.
34. Iqbal MW, Akhtar S, Khawaja MA. Urinary metabolic abnormalities in idiopathic calcium oxalate stone formers: a single center study. *Canad J Pure and Applied Sci* 2008; 2:1, 139-142.
35. Emami-Naini A1, Eshraghi A, Shahidi S, Mortazavi M, Seyrafian S, Roomizadeh P, et al. Metabolic evaluation in patients with nephrolithiasis: A report from Isfahan, Iran. *Adv Biomed Res* 2012; 1:65. 2277-9175
36. Heilberg IP, Schor N. Renal stone disease: causes, evaluation, and medical treatment. *Arq Bras Endocrinol Metab* 2006; 50:823.
37. Cupisti A, Morelli E, Lupetti S, Meola M, Barsotti G. Low urine citrate excretion as main risk factor for recurrent calcium oxalate nephrolithiasis in males. *Nephron* 1992; 61:73-76.
38. Hussein NS, Sadiq SM, Kamaliah MD, Norakmal AW, Gohar MN. Twenty-four-hour urine constituents in stone formers: a study from the northeast part of Peninsular Malaysia. *Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl* 2013; 24(3):630-7.