Kusz Monika, Alzubedi Adam, Polski Pawel, Pawluczuk Paulina, Maślak Agnieszka. Metabolic disorders in kidney stone disease in children. Journal of Education, Health and Sport. 2020;10(3):158-163. eISSN 2391-8306. DOI <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.12775/JEHS.2020.10.03.017</u> <u>https://apcz.umk.pl/czasopisma/index.php/JEHS/article/view/JEHS.2020.10.03.017</u> <u>https://zenodo.org/record/3731129</u>

The journal has had 5 points in Ministry of Science and Higher Education parametric evaluation. § 8. 2) and § 12. 1. 2) 22.02.2019. © The Authors 2020; This article is published with open access at Licensee Open Journal Systems of Nicolaus Coperaicus University in Torun, Poland Open Access. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Noncommercial License which permits any noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author (s) and source are credited. This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non commercial use, distribution non commercial license Share alike. (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/) which permits unrestricted, non commercial use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited. The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

Received: 10.03.2020. Revised: 18.03.2020. Accepted: 27.03.2020.

Metabolic disorders in kidney stone disease in children

Monika Kusz¹, Adam Alzubedi², Paweł Polski², Paulina Pawluczuk¹, Agnieszka Maślak¹

1. Department of Paediatric Nephrology, Medical University of Lublin

2. Department of General and Transplant Surgery and Nutritional Treatment, Medical

University of Lublin

Abstract

Urolithiasis is not a rare disorder in children. Its etiology, incidence and localization vary by geographic region. It is an increasing problem, especially in developing countries. Metabolic abnormalities have been claimed to play a significant role in the kidney stone disease. Most of the studies confirmed that hypercalciuria, hypocitraturia are the most commonly identified metabolic disorder in children with urolithiasis. It is important to evaluate them to modify and prevent the stone recurrence.

Key words: nephrolithiasis, metabolic

Introduction

Urolithiasis is an increasing medical problem in developing countries. Paediatric kidney stone is a relatively rare condition in comparison to the high incidence in adults. The prevalence has been estimated between 0.1 to 5 % in the USA and Europe.¹ In Asia is reported from 1-5% to 13-15% in the USA ². For instance in Turkey urinary stone disease is seems to be endemic, about 17 % of all cases with nephrolithiasis were under 14 years. (kidney stones turkey. Nephrolithiasis has an extremely high prevalence in Saudi Arabia which is estimate to about 20 % with a probability to relapse up to 50 % during the life. ³ Admissions to a hospital because of renal stone disease varies in geographic regions, from about 0.001 to 0.1 % in the USA to around 7 % in Asia^{4 5}

The prevalence in recurrent nephrolithiasis changing through the lifetime, e.g., it was reported about 10 % in the first years, 35 % up to five years and about 50 % up to 10 years after the first episode of the formation. 6

A lot of factors may contribute to urolithiasis, of which dietary, environmental factors, genetic, infection, anomalies of the genitourinary tract and the most important metabolic disturbances could have an essential influence in kidney stone formation.⁷ It is considered with high morbidity despite low prevalence in children and it is associated with indicative rates of recurrence. ⁸

In recent years, understanding the pathophysiology of nephrolithiasis in children improved greatly. Most young patients have underlying metabolic risk factors. It estimated that about 40 to 50 % of children have identifiable metabolic disorders. ⁹ It seems to hypercalciuria is the most prevalent abnormality in children. ¹⁰¹¹The other metabolic abnormalities include hypocitraturia, hyperoxaluria, hypomagnesuria, hyperuricosuria. To determine the etiology of stone formation is essential to evaluate urinary stone composition. The majority of calcium stones are composed of calcium oxalate (CaOx), about 75 %, calcium phosphate (50%), struvite (10-20%), urate (5 %) and cysteine (1-2%).¹² Rarely, stones mad also comprise xanthine , or 2,8-dihydroxyadenine. Moreover, most protocols recommend 24-hour urine collection as the gold standard to asses metabolic risk factors in stone disease patients.

The main mechanism is based on an imbalance between promoters and inhibitors of crystallization. To initiate a kidney calculi it requires the supersaturation of some ions in the urine. Total urine volume, the uneven proportion of promotors and inhibitors of crystallization, urine pH and total urine volume are the most relevant determinates responsible for solubility and crystallization. Highly acidic pH enhances calcium oxalate crystallization and promotes secondary nucleation of calcium oxalate by formation of calcium phosphate precipitates. Crystals can be formed in renal tubular fluid or in interstitial fluid.¹³. Promoters support the process of crystallization include: high oxalate, calcium, sodium, urate. The major inhibitors that prevent the process of stone formation include citrate, magnesium, pyrophosphate, some certain glycosaminoglycans, nephrocalicin, phytates and osteopontin. Moreover, citrates directly inhibit the crystallization, growth of kidney stones and reduce indirectly the saturation the calcium oxalate. ¹⁴ On the other hand, the coexisting of uric acid in the urine support calcium oxalate crystallization. ¹⁵ Only 1,2 % of children with urinary tract infection develop calculi. ¹⁶

Mechanism of the kidney stone formation is still unclear, although the roots of this disease go back to Ancient Egyptians. In 1901, E. Smith found one of the first stone in the bladder from an almost 5000 years old mummy in El Amrah in Egypt. ¹⁷The mechanism of stone renal formation include nucleation of crystals, growth and aggregation or second nucleation, fixation and further aggregation or second nucleation finally forming the clinical stone.¹⁸

Metabolic evaluation

Metabolic abnormalities can be found in majority of pediatric patients with nephrolithiasis.¹⁹²⁰

Hypercalciuria:

Idiopathic hypercalciuria is the most frequent risk factors, being detected in approximately 30 % to 50 % of stone-forming children. ²¹ Mechanism of hypercalciuria is based on increasing intestinal absorption of calcium, decreased renal reabsorption of calcium, increases transfer calcium to bone and enhance urine supersaturation and crystallization.^{13,22} In a study by Tefekli et all. found that hypercalciuria and hyperuricosuria were significantly higher percentage in adults than in paediatric population. Hypercalciuria is defined as calcium excretion of greater than 4mg/kg/d in children more than 2 years. Usually, a 24-hours urine collection is a gold standard to estimate daily calcium excretion.²³ For younger childs, the calcium to creatinine ratio is essential to estimate daily calcium excretion. Idiopathic hypercalciuria is the prevalent cause in children and adults. It is defined as an excess urine excretion of calcium with no underlying cause. To prevent calcium stone formation the thiazide diuretics have proven effective in reducing urinary excretion of calcium. Children with hypercalcaemic hypercalciuria should be investigated with hyperparathyroidism, hypervitaminosis D, sarcoidosis, malignancy, juvenile idiopathic arthritis or William syndrome. In patients with hypocalcaemia hypercalciuria, the possibility of hypoparathyroidism , autosomal, dominant hypocalcaemia hypercalciuria should be investigated. The majority cause is normocalcemic hypercalciuria, other conditions, such as Dent disease, Barter syndrome, familial hypomagnesemia with hypercalciuria and nephrocalcinosis (FHHNC) or distal ren tubular acidosis (dRTA) should be excluded before establish appropriate diagnosis.

Familial primary hypomagnesemia with hypercalciuria and nephrocalcinosis FHHC, an autosomalrecessive disorder is characterized by renal magnesium and calcium wasting, nephrocalcinosis and progressive renal failure. The other symptoms include distal tubular acidosis, ocular abnormalities, and urinary tract infections. ²⁴ The mutations in the gene CLDN16, which encodes for paracellin-1 9claudin-16) caused the FHHNC. ²⁵

Distal renal tubular acidosis dRTA is a rare kidney disease characterized by impairment of urinary acidification due to loss of bicarbonates. Different forms of this disease could be distinguished. The primary dRTA is characterized by hyperchloremic metabolic acidosis, severe nephrocalcinosis and or nephrocalcinosis associated with hypocitraturia and hypercalciuria. Type secondary could be caused by medication i.e., amphotericin B, some antibiotics or another disease e.g. systematic lupus erythematosus(SLE), Sjogren's syndrome or rheumatoid arthritis.²⁶

Hereditary hypophosphatemic rickets with hypercalciuria (HHRH)is a rare autosomal recessive disorder, caused by a mutation in the SLC34A3 gene which encodes the sodium dependant phosphate cotransporter 2c. HHRH is characterised by hypophosphatemia, thus leading to increased 1,25(OH)2 vitamin D levels, hypercalciuria, short stature, muscle weakness or rickets. ²⁷²⁸

Barter syndrome is rare, inherited autosomal recessive condition which is characterized by hypokalaemia, hypercalciuria, metabolic alkalosis and decreased serum magnesium levels. According to the age of onset, specific gene, severity it is classified types of Bartter syndrome. Mutations in the SLCA1, KCNJ1 and CLCNKB are responsible for Barter syndrome type I, II and III, respectively. In some cases, the cause of the disease has not been identified. The severity varies from mild to severe. The aim of treatment is based on correcting the imbalance of electrolytes, by using supplements or nonsteroidal anti-inflammatories (NSAIDs) and diuretic. ^{29,30}

Hypocitraturia:

Hypocitraturia is defined as less than 300mg/gm in 24-hour urine collection. Citrate are very important to inhibit stone formation. Citrate forms complexes with calcium and therefore lower the supersaturation of calcium oxalate, inhibit aggregation of some crystals and attachment of crystals to urinary epithelium.³¹ In study Fallahzadeh et all detect in hypocitraturia in as one of the most common findings. In a study by Tefekli et all. hypocitraturia was the most common abnormality in paediatrics and adults group, 60,6% and 45,8 % respectively.³² Some studies show that hypocitraturia alone or with hyperoxaluria are the most prevalent metabolic abnormalities in children with urolithiasis. ^{19,33}

Hypomagnesuria

Magnesium is a crucial inhibitor of crystallization and stone formation, thus inhibits the nucleation and growth of crystals, as well as aggregation. ³⁴ In a study by Valavi et all. found almost 50 % of patients hypomagnesuria with a normal serum magnesium level. A group from Turkey concluded that decreased magnesium excretion was more commonly associated in children than in adults with nephrolithiasis. ³⁵

Hyperuricosuria

Is defines as urinary uric acid excretion more than 95% of normal values for age and sex. In a study by Valavi et all. found that 30 % patients had increased urinary acid excretion in 24 urine collection. The pathophysiological mechanism of uric acid based on of antagonistic influence on substances in the urine, and increasing binding calcium oxalate to cells .^{14,36}Albait, uric acid stones are not common in pediatric population, children naturally excrete higher amount of uric acid. One study shows that in pediatric population there is no increasing risk for calculi due to excessive urinary uric acid excretion.³⁷

Hyperoxaluria

In normal circumstances, 10-15 % of urinary oxalates originates from dietary intake. The pathomechanism of this metabolic disorder is focused on increased intestinal oxalate absorption, urinary supersaturation and formation of calcium oxalate crystals, increased dietary intake The inborn error of metabolism is known as hyperoxaluria. Type I is a rare condition inherited in an autosomal recessive trait. .^{13,39}

Conclusion

Paediatric urolithiasis is an important medical problem, which have an increasing incidence in developing countries. Most patients have identified metabolic cause for stone formation. Multifactorial causes of stone disease in children should be detailed evaluated in children with lithiasis to enable appropriate treatment.

References

- 1. Milliner DS, Murphy ME. Urolithiasis in Pediatric Patients. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 1993;68(3):241-248. doi:10.1016/S0025-6196(12)60043-3.
- 2. Perrone HC, Rinaldi D, Santos MV, et al. Pediatric Nephrology Urolithiasis in childhood : metabolic evaluation. 1992:14-16.
- 3. Amato M, Lusini ML, Nelli F. Epidemiology of nephrolithiasis today. Urol Int. 2004;72(SUPPL. 1):1-5. doi:10.1159/000076582.
- 4. Choi BH, Duckett JW. Urolithiasis in Childhood: Current Management. 1987;22(2):158-164.

- 5. Troup CW, Lawnicki CC, Bourne RB, Hodgson NB. Renal calculus in children. J Urol. 1972;107(2):306-307. doi:10.1016/S0022-5347(17)61011-5.
- 6. Wilkinson H. Clinical investigation and management of patients with renal stones. *Ann Clin Biochem.* 2001;38(3):180-187. doi:10.1258/0004563011900623.
- 7. Smith CK. Urinary calculi in children. J Am Med Assoc. 1928;91(19):1431-1435. doi:10.1001/jama.1928.02700190015005.
- 8. Noe HN, Stapleton FB, Jerkins GR, Roy S. Clinical experience with urolithiasis. *J Urol.* 1983;129(6):1166-1168. doi:10.1016/S0022-5347(17)52622-1.
- 9. Pietrow PK, Pope JC IV, Adams MC, et al. Clinical outcome of pediatric stone10. Hogg RJ, Reisch JS, Green K, et al. Idiopathic hypercalciuria: Association with isolated hematuria and risk for urolithiasis in children. *Kidney Int*. 1990;37(2):807-811. doi:10.1038/ki.1990.49.
- Vandervoort K, Wiesen J, Frank R, et al. Urolithiasis in Pediatric Patients: A Single Center Study of Incidence, Clinical Presentation and Outcome. 2007;177(June):2300-2305. doi:10.1016/j.juro.2007.02.002.
- 12. Bihl G, Meyers A. Recurrent renal stone disease Advances in pathogenesis and clinical management. *Lancet*. 2001;358(9282):651-656. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(01)05782-8.
- 13. Sakhaee K. Recent advances in the pathophysiology of nephrolithiasis. *Kidney Int Eval calcium* oxalate monohydrate Cryst Kinet Vitr. 2009;75(6):585-595. doi:10.1038/ki.2008.626.
- 14. Nicar MJ, Hill K, Pak CYC. Inhibition by citrate of spontaneous precipitation of calcium oxalate in vitro. *J Bone Miner Res.* 1987;2(3):215-220. doi:10.1002/jbmr.5650020308.
- 15. Copelovitch L. Urolithiasis in Children. Medical Approach. *Pediatr Clin North Am.* 2012;59(4):881-896. doi:10.1016/j.pcl.2012.05.009.
- 16. Burke C, Stickler B. Nephrolithiasis. 2020;(1).
- 17. Shah J, Whitfield HN. Urolithiasis through the ages. *BJU Int.* 2002;89(8):801-810. doi:10.1046/j.1464-410X.2002.02769.x.
- 18. Ratkalkar VN, Kleinman JG. Mechanisms of stone formation. *Clin Rev Bone Miner Metab*. 2011;9(3-4):187-197. doi:10.1007/s12018-011-9104-8.
- 19. Bilge I, Yilmaz A, Kayiran SM, et al. Clinical importance of renal calyceal microlithiasis in children. *Pediatr Int.* 2013;55(6):731-736. doi:10.1111/ped.12186.
- 20. Güven AG, Koyun M. Urolithiasis in the first year of life. 2010:129-134. doi:10.1007/s00467-009-1296-5.
- 21. Stapleton FB, McKay CP, Noe NH. Urolithiasis in children: the role of hypercalciuria. Pediatr Ann 1987;16:980–92.
- 22. Assimos D. Re: Nephrolithiasis-Associated Bone Disease: Pathogenesis and Treatment Options. *J Urol.* 2011;185(5):1749-1749. doi:10.1016/s0022-5347(11)60193-6.
- 23. Mir C, Rodriguez A, Rodrigo D, et al. Analysis of urine composition from split 24-h samples: use of 12-h overnight samples to evaluate risk factors for calcium stones in healthy and stone forming children. *J Pediatr Urol.* 2020. doi:10.1016/j.jpurol.2020.02.011.
- 24. Benigno V, Canonica CS, Bettinelli A, Von Vigier RO, Truttmann AC, Bianchetti MG. Hypomagnesaemia-hypercalciuria-nephrocalcinosis: A report of nine cases and a review. *Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2000;15(5):605-610. doi:10.1093/ndt/15.5.605.
- 25. Jaya Kausalya P, Amasheh S, Günzel D, et al. Disease-associated mutations affect intracellular traffic and paracellular Mg2+ transport function of Claudin-16. *J Clin Invest*. 2006;116(4):878-

891. doi:10.1172/JCI26323.

- 26. Karet FE. Inherited distal renal tubular acidosis. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2002;13(8):2178-2184. doi:10.1097/01.ASN.0000023433.08833.88.
- 27. Dhir G, Li D, Hakonarson H, Levine MA. Late-onset hereditary hypophosphatemic rickets with hypercalciuria (HHRH) due to mutation of SLC34A3/NPT2c. *Bone*. 2017;97:15-19. doi:10.1016/j.bone.2016.12.001.
- 28. Tang AR, Hinz LE, Khan A, Kline GA. Phosphate matters when investigating hypercalcemia: A mutation in SLC34A3 causing HHRH. *Endocrinol Diabetes Metab Case Reports*. 2019;2019(1). doi:10.1530/EDM-19-0058.
- 29. Cunha T da S, Heilberg IP. Bartter syndrome: Causes, diagnosis, and treatment. *Int J Nephrol Renovasc Dis.* 2018;11:291-301. doi:10.2147/IJNRD.S155397.
- 30. Hebert SC. Bartter syndrome. *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens*. 2003;12(5):527-532. doi:10.1097/00041552-200309000-00008.
- 31. Kok DJ, Papapoulos SE, Blomen LJMJ, Bijvoet OLM. Modulation of calcium oxalate monohydrate crystallization kinetics in vitro. *Kidney Int.* 1988;34(3):346-350. doi:10.1038/ki.1988.187.
- 32. Tefekli A, Esen T, Ziylan O, Erol B, Armagan A, Ander H. Metabolic Risk Factors in Pediatric and Adult Calcium Oxalate Urinary Stone Formers : Is There Any Difference ? 2003:273-277. doi:10.1159/000070134.
- 33. Alon US, Zimmerman H, Alon M. Evaluation and treatment of pediatric idiopathic urolithiasis Revisited. *Pediatr Nephrol.* 2004;19(5):516-520. doi:10.1007/s00467-004-1422-3.
- 34. Lieske JC, Farell G, Deganello S. The effect of ions at the surface of calcium oxalate monohydrate crystals on cell-crystal interactions. *Urol Res.* 2004;32(2):117-123. doi:10.1007/s00240-003-0391-5.
- 35. Spivacow FR, Negri AL, Valle EE, Calviño I, Fradinger E, Zanchetta JR. Metabolic risk factors in children with kidney stone disease. 2008:1129-1133. doi:10.1007/s00467-008-0769-2.
- 36. Pak CYC, Sakhaee K, Peterson RD, Poindexter JR, Frawley WH. Biochemical profile of idiopathic uric acid nephrolithiasis. *Kidney Int.* 2001;60(2):757-761. doi:10.1046/j.1523-1755.2001.060002757.x.
- 37. Menon M. Uric acid excretion in children with urolithiasis: Editorial comment. J Urol. 1990;144(2 I):406.
- 38. Holmes RP, Goodman HO, Assimos DG. Contribution of dietary oxalate to urinary oxalate excretion. *Kidney Int Eval calcium oxalate monohydrate Cryst Kinet Vitr*. 2001;59(1):270-276. doi:10.1046/j.1523-1755.2001.00488.x.