
The relationship between gut microbiota and short chain fatty acids in the renal calcium oxalate stones disease

Running title: Gut microbiota and SCFAs in renal calculus

Yu Liu^{1#}, Xi Jin^{1#}, Hyokyong G. Hong², Liyuan Xiang¹, Qingyao Jiang¹, Yucheng Ma¹, Zude Chen¹, Liang Cheng¹, Zhongyu Jian¹, Zhitao Wei¹, Jianzhong Ai¹, Shiqian Qi³, Qun Sun⁴, Hong Li¹, Yi Li^{5*}, Kunjie Wang^{1*}

1. Department of Urology, Institute of Urology (Laboratory of Reconstructive Urology), West China Hospital, Sichuan University, No. 37, Guoxue Alley, Chengdu, Sichuan Province, China
2. Department of Statistics and Probability, Michigan State University, 19 Red Cedar Road, East Lansing, Michigan, USA
3. State Key Laboratory of Biotherapy and Cancer Center, West China Hospital, Sichuan University, No. 29, Wangjiang Road, Chengdu, Sichuan Province, China
4. Key Laboratory of Bio-resources and Eco-environment of the Ministry of Education, College of Life Sciences, Sichuan University, No. 17, 3rd Section, Renmin Road, Chengdu, Sichuan Province, China
5. Department of Biostatistics, University of Michigan, 1415 Washington Heights, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA

*Corresponding authors

Yi Li

Department of Biostatistics, University of Michigan, 1415 Washington Heights, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA

Email: yili@umich.edu

Tel: +1 7346475766

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of Record](#). Please cite this article as [doi: 10.1002/FSB2.20780](https://doi.org/10.1002/FSB2.20780)

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

Kunjie Wang

Department of Urology, Institute of Urology, West China Hospital, Sichuan University, No. 37, Guoxue Alley, Chengdu, Sichuan Province, China

Email: wangkj@scu.edu.cn

Tel: +86 18980601848

#These authors contributed equally

*These authors contributed equally

Abbreviations: SCFAs, short chain fatty acids; KS, kidney stone; NS, non-kidney stone; OS, occasional stone; RS, recurrent stone; EG, ethylene glycol; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; HE, Hematoxylin-Eosin; VK, Von Kossa; OTUs, operational taxonomic units; PCoA, principal coordinates analysis; LEfSe, linear discriminant analysis Effect Size; IQR, interquartile range, ANOVA, analysis of variance; NAFLD, nonalcoholic fatty liver disease; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; PSM, propensity score match.

Abstract

The relationship of gut microbiota and calcium oxalate stone has been limited investigated, especially with no study of gut microbiota and short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) in nephrolithiasis. We provided Sprague Dawley rats of renal calcium oxalate stones with antibiotics and examined the renal crystals deposition. We also performed a case-control study by analyzing 16S rRNA microbial profiling, shotgun metagenomics and SCFAs in 153 fecal samples from non-kidney stone (NS) controls, patients with occasional renal calcium oxalate stones (OS) and patients with recurrent stones (RS). Antibiotics reduced bacterial load in feces and could promote the formation of renal calcium crystals in model rats. In addition, both OS and RS patients exhibited higher fecal microbial diversity than NS controls. Several SCFAs-producing gut bacteria, as well as metabolic pathways associated with SCFAs production, were considerably lower in the gut microbiota among the kidney stone patients compared with the NS controls. Representation of genes involved in oxalate degradation showed no significance difference among groups. However, fecal acetic acid concentration was the highest in RS patients with high level of urinary oxalate, which was positively correlated with genes

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

involvement in oxalate synthesis. Administration of SCFAs reduced renal crystals. These results shed new light on bacteria and SCFAs, which may promote the development of treatment strategy in nephrolithiasis.

Keywords

Renal calcium oxalate stones, Gut microbiota, Short chain fatty acids, 16s rRNA, Shotgun metagenomics

Introduction

Nephrolithiasis, with a worldwide prevalence rate of 5%-10%, is one of the most common urologic diseases.(1, 2) Kidney stone (KS) returns frequently with a recurrence rate of 6%-17% within one year, 21%-53% within three to five years, and a lifetime recurrence rate of 60%-80%.(2) Nephrolithiasis has increasingly strained the health care system with high prevalence, severe pain to patients, and burdensome medical costs.

Calcium oxalate stone is the most common type of KS, accounting for 60%-90% of the cases.(2) Limited knowledge of the mechanisms underlying stone formation has been available. For example, it is known that KS formation may result from poor fluid intake, high temperature or excessive consumption of high oxalate foods, which could increase urinary excretion of oxalate.(2) The oxalate in the body was directly absorbed from diet, and produced by the liver as the final metabolite product of many metabolites, such as glyoxalate, glycine, hydroxyproline and ascorbic acid.(3) Recently, Tasian et al. reported that antibiotic exposure was associated with an increasing nephrolithiasis prevalence, which indicated that the intestinal microbiota may affected the formation of renal calcium oxalate stone.(4) In addition, some studies have found that intestinal microbiota was related to calcium oxalate stone with the discovery of *Oxalobacter formigenes*, which could degrade oxalate.(5-7) Thus, the underlying mechanisms of the formation of renal calcium oxalate stones remain obscure, and need more in-depth exploration.

Short chain fatty acids (SCFAs), as a major product from the microbial fermentative activity in the gut, have been involved in energy metabolism, hormone secretion, immune inflammation, and cancer.(8, 9) While growing evidence has suggested that SCFAs play an important role in kidney disease through the gut–kidney axis by regulating inflammation, oxidative stress, and fibrosis,(10, 11) SCFAs in nephrolithiasis are rarely explored.

Recently, the emerging techniques in 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing and shotgun metagenomics have enabled us to better understand the roles of gut microbiota in the formation of renal calcium oxalate stones. This study, to our knowledge, registers the first attempt to disclose the relationship between gut microbiota

and short chain fatty acids in renal calcium oxalate stones and non-kidney stones.

Materials and Methods

Renal Calcium oxalate stone models and treatment regimes

We purchased Sprague Dawley rats (6-week-old, male) (Dossy Experimental Animals Co., Ltd, Chengdu, Sichuan, China). The animal experiment was performed in accordance with the policies of the West China Hospital of Sichuan University Medical Research Ethics Committee (2017063A). Twenty rats were randomly divided into four groups. Rats were firstly acclimatized for 1 week before experiment in the specific pathogen free animal facility with free access to standard food and water at Animal Experiment Center of West China Hospital, Sichuan University. Rats in control group had free access to drinking water. Antibiotics group rats received an extra cocktail of antibiotics resolved into drinking water, including 0.5 mg/mL ampicillin, 0.5 mg/mL metronidazole, 0.5 mg/mL neomycin and 0.25 mg/mL vancomycin. Ethylene glycol (EG) group rats received drinking water containing 1% (v/v) EG. EG + antibiotics group rats had 1% (v/v) EG and antibiotics at the same time. Another 25 rats were also randomly divided into five groups, including control, EG, EG+Acetate, EG+Propionate and EG+ Butyrate groups. The last three groups received drinking water with EG plus sodium acetate, sodium propionate and sodium butyrate respectively. The amount of drinking water was recorded every three days, and the body weight of rats was recorded every week. After 4 weeks, we injected chloral hydrate (4% (w/v), 0.8ml/100g) (JUHUI CHEMICAL, Chengdu, Sichuan, China) intraperitoneally to euthanize rats and collected kidneys and feces in colon. Kidneys were stored in 10% formaldehyde and fixed in paraffin. Feces were stored at -80 °C.

We extracted microbial DNA from fecal samples using Qiamp Fast DNA Stool extraction kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Germany) according to manufacturer's protocols. Then, we amplified DNA with primers 27F (5'-AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG-3') and 1492R (5'-CGGTTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3').

Kidneys were stained with Hematoxylin & Eosin (HE) and Von Kossa (VK) using HE staining kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) and VK staining kit (Solarbio, Beijing, China) according to the manufacturer's protocols. HE staining scoring system reported by Xiang et al. was used to examine the formation of crystals.(12) The level of calcium oxalate crystals in VK staining was evaluated by image pro plus6 software.

Human study designs, subjects, and sampling

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

A case-control study was performed at the West China Hospital in China from June 2018 to August 2019. Patients were diagnosed as renal stone by using the X-ray of kidney-ureter-bladder, ultrasound of the urinary system or abdominal computed tomography. All patients received percutaneous nephrolithotomy or flexible ureteroscopy. Patients with at least two episodes of renal stones and those who had renal stones within one year after surgery by follow-up were regarded as recurrent stones (RS) patients. All the other KS patients were considered as occasional stones (OS) patients. To eliminate the bias caused by age, we mainly recruited non-kidney stone (NS) controls without renal stones between 40-60. They were confirmed by the absence of the history of renal colic and of renal stones using abdominal ultrasonic examination in Health Promotion Center of West China hospital. This study was approved by the West China Hospital of Sichuan University Medical Research Ethics Committee (2018182), and informed consents were obtained from each participant.

The following types of KS patients were excluded: non-calcium oxalate stones, infectious stones, abnormality of the urinary system, hyperthyroidism, hyperparathyroidism, long-term use of drugs that may cause KS. The component of renal stones was confirmed by infrared spectroscopy. Participants were also excluded if they used antibiotics or immunosuppressants within three months before fecal sampling, had inflammatory bowel disease, irritable bowel syndrome, digestive tract infection, tumors of the digestive system, intestinal surgery, or diarrhea or constipation within one month before fecal sampling.

A questionnaire was designed to query participants' demographic information, dietary habits, sitting and sleeping time, history of smoking and alcohol, family history of stone and history of metabolic diseases and surgery. Body mass index was calculated by dividing weight in kilograms by the square of height in meters. Fecal and urinary samples from each participant were collected during the visit of the clinic of Urology of West China Hospital, prior to any treatment, such as antibiotics. Samples were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and subsequently stored under -80°C until analysis.

16S rRNA microbial profiling analyses

Microbial DNA was extracted from the fecal samples by using QIAamp Fast DNA Stool Mini Kit, Cat# 51604 (Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The V3-V4 hypervariable regions of the bacteria 16S rRNA gene were amplified with primers 338F (5'-ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG-3') and 806R (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3') by PCR system (GeneAmp 9700, ABI, USA). The resulting PCR products were extracted from a 2% agarose gel and further purified by using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit, Cat# AP-GX-50 (Axygen Biosciences, USA) and quantified by using QuantiFluor-ST (Promega, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Then, purified amplicons were

pooled in equimolar and paired-end sequenced (2×300) on an Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, USA) according to the standard protocol.

Raw fastq files were quality-filtered by Trimmomatic and merged by FLASH. All the sequences were clustered into different operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 97% similarity using UPARSE (version 7.1 <http://drive5.com/uparse/>), and chimeric sequences were identified and removed by using UCHIME. The taxonomy of each 16S rRNA amplicon sequence was analyzed by the RDP Classifier algorithm (<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/>) against the Silva (SSU132) 16S rRNA database with the confidence threshold of 70%. Each sample was rarefied to the same amount of sequences (10,000).

We compared alpha diversity indices, such as Chao, ACE, Shannon and Simpson across the OS, RS and NS groups. Coverage index was calculated to determine if the sequencing depth covered the whole bacterial diversity. Inter-individual variability (beta diversity) among these three groups was evaluated by the principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) and the Adonis test. Linear discriminant analysis Effect Size (LEfSe) analysis was used to identify differentially abundant bacteria among the three groups with a cutoff of 2.0. The Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes metabolic pathways were predicted by the PICRUSt package.

Shotgun metagenomics analysis of fecal samples

DNAs extracted from 15 fecal samples (five NS controls, five OS patients and five RS patients), representing the average composition of controls and KS patients, were used for deep shotgun metagenomics sequencing. Bacterial DNAs were extracted from stool samples. The metagenome sequencing was performed and analyzed using Illumina HiSeq system. The raw sequences were decoded, denoised, trimmed and assembled for gene prediction by using MetaGene (<http://metagene.cb.k.u-tokyo.ac.jp/>). The predicted genes were clustered (with identity of 95% and coverage of 95%) by CD-HIT (<http://www.bioinformatics.org/cd-hit/>) into a non-redundant gene catalog. KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes, <http://www.genome.jp/kegg/>) databases were used to predict gene functions.

Fecal short chain fatty acids quantification and detection of urinary oxalate

Fecal SCFAs were measured using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry. Each SCFA was calculated from a calibration curve produced for serially diluted SCFA standards. The SCFA calibration curve was linear ($R^2 \geq 0.999$). Urinary oxalate was measured and analyzed by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry. The oxalate calibration curve was linear ($R^2 = 0.999$). The mean recovery of oxalic acid of known
This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

concentration added to urine samples was 92.91-99.25%.

Statistical analysis

Continuous variables were summarized with mean and standard deviation if they were symmetrically distributed. Otherwise, they were reported with median and interquartile range (IQR). Analysis of variance (ANOVA), Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann-Whitney test were used for testing quantitative variables, and Chi-square test was used for categorical variables. All statistical analyses were performed with R v.3.6.0 (R Project for Statistical Computing, www.r-project.org).

Results

Effect of antibiotics on gut microbiota and renal calcium oxalate crystals

To verify the role of gut microbiota in renal calcium oxalate stone, we directly depleted bacterial load in rat gut with antibiotics. All rats were alive at the end of experiment after four weeks. The change of body weight of rats was shown in Figure S1-A). The amount of drinking water of rats was not different between EG and EG+Antibiotics groups (Figure S1-B). Rat fecal bacterial load decreased sharply by 150 times after administration of antibiotics, when compared to the control group (Figure 1, A and B). Then we observed the formation of renal crystals in rat kidney with or without administration of antibiotics. The result showed that EG successfully induced the formation of renal crystals in rat kidney (Figure 1, C, D and E). Furthermore, VK staining showed that antibiotics significantly promoted the formation of renal crystals (Figure 1, C and E).

General characteristics of non-kidney stone controls, occasional and recurrent stone patients

To identify what specific bacteria were associated with renal calcium oxalate stone, we recruited 76 renal stone patients. Seven of them were excluded because their renal stones were infectious stones or not calcium oxalate. Finally, 69 KS patients (26 RS patients and 43 OS patients) and 84 NS controls were enrolled (Figure S1-C). Age ($p=0.460$) and BMI ($p=0.198$) were not significantly different among RS, OS and NS groups. However, the distribution of gender was significantly different among the RS, OS and NS groups (76.9% male in RS, 65.1% male in OS and 40.5% male in NS, $p=0.001$). Consumption of fat or red meat, intake of milk and fruit, sitting and sleeping time, active smoking, family history of KS, hypertension and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) were significantly different among NS, OS and RS groups

(Table 1). The results of a multiple logistic regression model, after controlling for these ten variables, indicated that less fruit intake, sitting longer, hypertension and NAFLD were associated with occurrence of renal calcium oxalate stones (Table 2).

Richness and diversity of the gut microbiota in KS patients and NS controls

The fecal samples from 153 participants were applied to 16S rRNA sequence analysis. A total of 8,026,841 high-quality sequences were obtained from these 153 samples with an average length of 436. All the sequences were clustered into 1108 OTUs, which belonged to 442 genera and 23 phyla. The coverage indices of the NS, OS and RS groups were 98.34%, 97.97% and 97.98%, respectively. In addition, nearly all the rarefaction curves reached the saturation plateau (Figure S1-D).

The Wilcoxon rank-sum test showed that alpha diversity indices (Ace and Chao), representing the richness of gut microbiota, were higher in KS patients than in controls (Figure 2A, Table S1). There were no statistically significant differences in Shannon and Simpson indices across the NS, OS and RS groups (Figure 2A, Table S1). PCoA at the OTU level showed that the overall microbiota composition of the NS, OS and RS groups were different, which was confirmed by the Adonis test ($R^2=0.031$, $p=0.002$) (Figure 2B).

Taxonomic analysis of microbiota composition between KS patients and NS controls

Taxonomic assignment of the OTUs revealed the composition of the bacterial population down to the phylum and genus level. At the phylum level, Firmicutes (61.4%) was the most common bacteria in gut microbiota, followed by Bacteroidetes (18.9%) and Proteobacteria (11.7%). The ratio of Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes was higher in KS patients than that in NS controls (3.70 vs 2.72). At the genus level, the common bacteria of 153 samples were Bacteroides (9.8%), Fecalibacterium (9.5%), Blautia (4.5%), Escherichia-Shigella (4.4%), Megamonas (4.2%), Lactobacillus (4.1%) and [Eubacterium]-rectale-group (4.0%) (Figure 2C).

To identify the association between calcium oxalate stones and gut bacteria, LEfSe analysis was used to compare bacteria among NS controls, OS patients and RS patients. At the genus level, ten, seventeen and twenty-one significantly different bacteria exhibited in NS controls, OS and RS patients, respectively ($p<0.05$) (Table S2).

In addition, when comparing NS controls versus KS patients, fifteen and forty significantly different

bacteria genera were abundant in the gut microbiota of NS and KS patients ($p<0.05$) (Table S3). When comparing the gut microbiota between OS and RS patients, only three (Eubacterium, Lautropia and Ruminococcaceae_UCG_005) and four bacteria (Blautia, Eubacterium_hallii_group, Fusicatenibacter and Lachnospiraceae_ND3007_group) were higher in OS and RS patients, respectively ($p<0.05$).

Metabolic function of gut microbiota

Based on the classification of bacteria by using 16S data, differentially abundant metabolic pathways were detected among OS, RS patients and NS controls. LEfSe analysis revealed that the abundance of porphyrin and chlorophyll metabolism (ko00860) was higher in NS controls, and that of citrate cycle (ko00020) was higher in KS patients (Figure 2D). When comparing between NS controls and KS patients (OS/RS), more abundant metabolic pathways related to inflammation and oxidative stress, such as lipopolysaccharide (LPS) biosynthesis (ko00540), were identified among KS patients. On the other hand, the abundance of pathways in methane metabolism (ko00680), arginine and proline metabolism (ko00330) were higher in NS Controls ($p<0.05$) (Figure 2D).

Taxonomic analysis of gut microbiota between NS controls and KS patients selected by propensity score match (PSM)

To eliminate the possible confounding effects of the above-mentioned factors (such as gender, hypertension and NAFLD), we selected 24 NS controls and 24 KS patients by using PSM, which was a statistical tool to balance the possible confounders across comparison groups tool.(13) These factors were not statistically different between these two groups after this operation ($p>0.05$) (Table S4). Using LEfSe, we found 12 and 27 significantly different bacteria genera in the gut microbiota of NS and KS patients (Table S5) ($p<0.05$). The results were similar before and after PSM.

Functional analysis of fecal microbiota by metagenomics

To investigate the functional profile of the gut microbiome in KS patients, we also performed metagenomics analysis of the microbial DNA extracted from fecal samples of OS, RS patients and NS controls. A total of 678,658,648 filtered reads and 4,037,497 ORFs were used for functional annotation in the KEGG databases.

LEfSe analysis of metagenomics data was used to compare bacteria among NS controls, OS and RS

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

patients at the species level, and detected nine significantly different bacteria exhibited between NS controls and KS patients (Figure 3A). When comparing between OS and RS patients, only three significantly different bacteria (*Thermorudis_peleae*, *Salsuginibacillus_kocurii* and *Sebaldella_termitidis*) were found at the species level (Figure 3B).

We further determined changes in functional composition by using the KEGG pathway database ($p < 0.05$). Pearson correlations between different gut microbiota and different KEGG Orthology (KO) or gene pathways among NS controls, OS patients and RS patients were shown in figure 4 and figure 5. Predominant *Lactobacillus_diolivorans* in OS patients was positively correlated with biofilm formation. Predominant *Fictibacillus_phosphorivorans* in OS patients were positively correlated with benzoate degradation, phenylalanine metabolism, biofilm formation, beta-Alanine metabolism and caprolactam degradation.

Moreover, predominant *Enterococcus_faecium* in OS patients were positive correlated with isoquinoline alkaloid biosynthesis, limonene and pinene degradation, benzoate degradation, phenylalanine metabolism, biofilm formation, propanoate metabolism, tropane, piperidine and pyridine alkaloid biosynthesis, beta-Alanine metabolism, butanoate metabolism and caprolactam degradation.

However, predominant *Xanthobacter_sp__126* in RS patients was positive correlated with carotenoid biosynthesis. Predominant *Lentisphaera_araneosa*, *Arenitalea_lutea* and *Akkermansia_sp__KLE1605* in RS patients were all positive correlated with sesquiterpenoid and triterpenoid biosynthesis and carotenoid biosynthesis (Figure 5).

Oxalate- degradation genes in gut microbiota and oxalate levels in urine

RS patients presented a higher median urinary oxalate (32.58 ug/mL) than OS patients (15.35 ug/mL) and NS controls (10.40 ug/mL). The Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the median urinary oxalate was significantly different across the groups ($p = 0.004$). However, based on metagenomics analysis, the fecal microbiota of metagenomics data presented no significant differences in the abundance of *Oxalobacter formigenes* ($p = 0.744$), genes involved in oxalate degradation (formyl-CoA transferase ($p = 0.254$) and oxalyl-CoA decarboxylase ($p = 0.216$)) between KS patients and NS controls (Figure S1-E, F, G).

Fecal SCFAs concentrations correlate with abundance of distinct bacterial taxonomic groups

Pearson correlation was used to quantify the associations of different bacteria and the abundance of

metabolic pathways in NS patients and KS patients, separately. Interestingly, using the 16S data, the abundance of pathways involved in SCFAs production was positively correlated with the level of bacteria higher in the gut microbiota of NS controls, but was negatively correlated with that of KS patients (Figure 6A), which indicated that the gut microbiota of NS controls may tend to produce more SCFAs than KS patients.

To validate the role of SCFAs in renal calcium oxalate stones, we evaluated the fecal SCFAs concentration in NS controls, OS and RS patients. The concentration of acetic acid in the feces was higher in RS patients (median=53.20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$, IQR=28.17 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$) than that in OS patients (45.63 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$, IQR=37.41 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$) and NS controls (median=21.44 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$, IQR=10.22 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$) ($p<0.001$) (Figure 6B, Table S6).

We explored the relationship between the fecal SCFAs concentrations and the abundance of bacterial taxonomic groups. Using 16S data, we found that butanoic acid-3-methyl, pentanoic acid and hexanoic acid were highly correlated with taxa belonging to Ruminococcaceae_UCG_005 in NS controls (Figure 6C). To investigate the relationship between the fecal SCFAs and function of gut microbiota among groups, metagenomics data was analyzed by Pearson correlation analysis. Propionic acid was highly correlated with genes for *araE* (K02100) and *lysE* (K06895) in OS patients (Figure 6D). In RS patients, acetic acid was positively correlated with genes for *licA* (K16119), *shc* (K06045), *PCCB* (K01966), *pckA* (K01596), *treS* (K17311), *treU* (K17313), *hisI* (K01496), *pdxH* (K00275), *IMPDH* (K00088), *mexY* (K18095) and *secG* (K03075), which were involved in the pathways of metabolism of terpenoids and polyketides, carbohydrate metabolism, membrane transport, amino acid metabolism, metabolism of cofactors and vitamins, nucleotide metabolism, signal transduction and genetic information processing, respectively (Figure 6D).

We found high fecal concentration of acetic acid was highly positively correlated with glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism (*PCCB*, K01966) in RS patients with high level of urinary oxalate. We further investigated the bacterial taxonomic groups related to glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism (*PCCB*, K01966) among NS controls, OS and RS patients. The results showed that the abundance of s_Ruminococcaceae_bacterium_AE2021 association with *PCCB* was significant higher in KS patients than that in NS controls ($p<0.05$) (Figure 6E).

Effect of SCFAs on renal calcium oxalate crystals

To verify the effect of SCFAs on the formation of renal calcium oxalate crystals, we gave different SCFAs to renal calcium oxalate stone model rats. HE and VK staining showed that renal crystals reduced after four weeks' administration of acetate, propionate or butyrate (Figure 7). The results demonstrated that SCFAs

could effectively prevent the formation of renal calcium oxalate crystals.

Discussion

Our study found that depletion of gut microbiota with antibiotics could promote the formation of renal crystals in rats and then we investigated gut microbiota profiles and fecal SCFAs in relation to patients with occasional and recurrent renal calcium oxalate stones.

We found that several bacteria were higher in NS controls' gut microbiota compared with those in the KS patients. They were *Blautia*, *Anaerostipes*, *Coprococcus*, *Fusobacterium*, *Ruminococcus* and *Lachnospiraceae*, of which the common abundant metabolic products were SCFAs.(14, 15) SCFAs were known to be the energy sources for enterocytes, which can maintain gut barrier function and in turn decrease permeability of gut, circulating LPS, and systemic inflammation.(16-18) SCFAs can also enter the circulation of the host and reach kidneys to ameliorate inflammatory responses and fibrotic progress in chronic kidney disease.(9, 19) Our *in vivo* study also demonstrated that SCFAs like acetate, propionate and butyrate could reduce renal calcium oxalate stones in model rats.

This study identified *s_Anaerobiospirillum succiniciproducens*, *s_Veillonella atypica* and *s_Conexibacter woesei* associated with SCFAs, exhibited significantly higher abundance in NS controls than those in KS patients. *Anaerobiospirillum succiniciproducens* was reported to produce succinic acid,(20) through which propionate can be formed by lactate.(21) *Veillonella atypica* was found to utilize lactate as their sole carbon source into propionate.(22) Hugenholtz et al. found *Conexibacter woesei* preferred acetic acid and propionic acid for utilization.(23) However, in this study fecal acetic acid was higher in KS patients than in NS controls, suggesting that less acetic acid was absorbed and utilized by gut, bacteria or other organs (kidney) in renal stone patients.

Pseudomonas, *Staphylococcus*, *Megamonas*, *Synechococcus*, *Acinetobacter*, *Cetobacterium* and *Prevotellaceae_UCG_001* were found in KS patients, which were associated with inflammatory diseases,(24) indicating that inflammation may be involved in formation of renal stones. In addition, we found that the abundance of metabolic pathways associated with LPS biosynthesis was higher in KS patients. Excessive LPS may aggravate systematic inflammation and contribute to the injury of vascular endothelial cell or even renal tubular epithelial cell.(25) *Halomonas*, abundant in the gut microbiota of the RS patients tend to consume more red meat, was found to be more abundant in omnivores than strict vegetarians, and was associated with higher interleukin-1.(26, 27)

Previous studies on gut–kidney axis in nephrolithiasis were often based on the analysis of *Oxalobacter*

formigenes and genes involved in oxalate degradation.(28-30) Oxalobacter formigenes may degrade oxalate to reduce urinary oxalate excretion, and the bacteria enriched in healthy individuals tended to have more abundance of Oxalobacter formigenes.(29) The results showed that the abundance of Oxalobacter formigenes and oxalate-degrading genes were not different in NS controls and KS patients, which suggested that Oxalobacter formigenes may not play an important role in renal stone formation with our study. Based on 16S data, previous studies demonstrated different results that KS patients had higher, lower or similar level of formyl-CoA transferase and oxalyl-CoA decarboxylase in the gut microbiota.(30-33) A recent randomized clinical study reported that there was no difference in blood oxalate concentration and stone events between primary hyperoxaluria patients with or without probiotics containing O. formigenes.(7) The discrepancy between the studies may be attributed to several reasons. First, the included population of these studies had different lifestyle, dietary habits, living environment, ethnic backgrounds and disease states, all of which would affect the gut microbiota. Second, the relative abundance of O. formigenes was relatively low in the gut microbiota.

Our study showed that shotgun metagenomics sequencing may identify bacterial species with previously unknown oxalate synthesis properties, such as high SCFAs excretion. We found a highly expressed bacterial gene that was involved in the metabolism of glyoxylate and dicarboxylate (*PCCB*, K01966) among RS patients, and was associated with high levels of urinary oxalate and acetic acid excretion. The results revealed that gut–kidney axis in nephrolithiasis may be related to Oxalobacter formigenes and the genes involved in oxalate degradation, as well as other bacteria and genes involved in oxalate synthesis.

The present study was performed on a limited number of people residing in West China, who may not be representative of the general population. However, our study has several strengths as well. First, to our knowledge, this study, which focused on the associations between gut microbiota and renal calcium oxalate stones, has recruited the largest number of Chinese participants among the similar studies. Secondly, as opposed to the studies that did not distinguish occasional and recurrent episodes, our study further grouped the KS patients into the OS and RS patients. Our refined analyses have shed more light on the biological mechanisms underlying the development of KS. Finally, we have found, perhaps for the first time, that reducing SCFAs absorption and utilization may prevent the formation of nephrolithiasis.

In conclusion, the study showed that the depletion of gut microbiota promoted the formation of renal crystals. Fecal SCFAs dominant patients, with altered gut microbiota composition and the functional metagenome, were associated with oxalate synthesis. These results shed new light on bacteria and genes involved in oxalate synthesis, which may help the development of treatment strategy by regulating gut microbiota.

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China [81770703, 81970602]; the Foundation of Science & Technology Department of Sichuan Province [2018SZ0118]; and the 1·3·5 Project for Disciplines of Excellence, West China Hospital, Sichuan University [ZYGD18011, ZYJC18015, ZY2016104].

Conflict of Interest

The authors have stated explicitly that there are no conflicts of interest in connection with this article.

Author Contributions

Yu Liu, Xi Jin, and Kunjie Wang designed research; Yu Liu, Qingyao Jiang, Zude Chen, Liang Cheng, Yucheng Ma, Zhongyu Jian, Zhitao Wei, and Jianzhong Ai performed research; Yi Li and Hyokyoung G. Hong contributed new analytic tools; Yu Liu, Xi Jin, Hyokyoung G. Hong, Liyuan Xiang, Zhongyu Jian, Zhitao Wei, Jianzhong Ai, Shiqian Qi, Qun Sun, and Yi Li analyzed data; Yu Liu and Xi Jin wrote the paper; Hyokyoung G. Hong, Shiqian Qi, Qun Sun, Hong Li, Yi Li and Kunjie Wang reviewed the paper.

References

1. Amato, M., Lusini, M. L., and Nelli, F. (2004) Epidemiology of nephrolithiasis today. *Urologia internationalis* **72 Suppl 1**, 1-5
2. Liu, Y., Chen, Y., Liao, B., Luo, D., Wang, K., Li, H., and Zeng, G. (2018) Epidemiology of urolithiasis in Asia. *Asian journal of urology* **5**, 205-214
3. Sadaf, H., Raza, S. I., and Hassan, S. W. (2017) Role of gut microbiota against calcium oxalate. *Microbial pathogenesis* **109**, 287-291
4. Tasian, G. E., Jemielita, T., Goldfarb, D. S., Copelovitch, L., Gerber, J. S., Wu, Q., and Denburg, M. R. (2018) Oral Antibiotic Exposure and Kidney Stone Disease. *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology : JASN* **29**, 1731-1740
5. Allison, M. J., Dawson, K. A., Mayberry, W. R., and Foss, J. G. (1985) *Oxalobacter formigenes* gen. nov., sp. nov.: oxalate-degrading anaerobes that inhabit the gastrointestinal tract. *Archives of*

6. Tavasoli, S., Alebouyeh, M., Naji, M., Shakiba Majd, G., Shabani Nashtaei, M., Broumandnia, N., and Basiri, A. (2020) Association of intestinal oxalate-degrading bacteria with recurrent calcium kidney stone formation and hyperoxaluria: a case-control study. *BJU international* **125**, 133-143
7. Milliner, D., Hoppe, B., and Groothoff, J. (2018) A randomised Phase II/III study to evaluate the efficacy and safety of orally administered *Oxalobacter formigenes* to treat primary hyperoxaluria. *Urolithiasis* **46**, 313-323
8. Koh, A., De Vadder, F., Kovatcheva-Datchary, P., and Backhed, F. (2016) From Dietary Fiber to Host Physiology: Short-Chain Fatty Acids as Key Bacterial Metabolites. *Cell* **165**, 1332-1345
9. Li, L., Ma, L., and Fu, P. (2017) Gut microbiota-derived short-chain fatty acids and kidney diseases. *Drug Des Devel Ther* **11**, 3531-3542
10. Vaziri, N. D., Liu, S.-M., Lau, W. L., Khazaeli, M., Nazertehrani, S., Farzaneh, S. H., Kieffer, D. A., Adams, S. H., and Martin, R. J. (2014) High amylose resistant starch diet ameliorates oxidative stress, inflammation, and progression of chronic kidney disease. *PloS one* **9**, e114881-e114881
11. Khan, S., and Jena, G. (2014) Sodium butyrate, a HDAC inhibitor ameliorates eNOS, iNOS and TGF- β 1-induced fibrogenesis, apoptosis and DNA damage in the kidney of juvenile diabetic rats. *Food Chem Toxicol* **73**, 127-139
12. Xiang, S., Zhou, J., Li, J., Wang, Q., Zhang, Q., Zhao, Z., Zhang, L., Chen, Z., and Wang, S. (2015) Antilithic effects of extracts from different polarity fractions of *Desmodium styracifolium* on experimentally induced urolithiasis in rats. *Urolithiasis* **43**, 433-439
13. Yamamoto, K., Ishigami, M., Honda, T., Takeyama, T., Ito, T., Ishizu, Y., Kuzuya, T., Hayashi, K., Goto, H., and Hirooka, Y. (2019) Influence of proton pump inhibitors on microbiota in chronic liver disease patients. *Hepatology international* **13**, 234-244
14. Oliphant, K., and Allen-Vercoe, E. (2019) Macronutrient metabolism by the human gut microbiome: major fermentation by-products and their impact on host health. *Microbiome* **7**, 91-91
15. Canfora, E. E., Meex, R. C. R., Venema, K., and Blaak, E. E. (2019) Gut microbial metabolites in obesity, NAFLD and T2DM. **15**, 261-273
16. Spiljar, M., Merkle, D., and Trajkovski, M. (2017) The Immune System Bridges the Gut Microbiota with Systemic Energy Homeostasis: Focus on TLRs, Mucosal Barrier, and SCFAs. *Front Immunol* **8**, 1353-1353
17. Juanola, O., Ferrusquía-Acosta, J., García-Villalba, R., Zapater, P., Magaz, M., Marín, A., Olivas, P., Baiges, A., Bellot, P., Turon, F., Hernández-Gea, V., González-Navajas, J. M., Tomás-Barberán, F. A., García-Pagán, J. C., and Francés, R. (2019) Circulating levels of butyrate are inversely related to portal hypertension, endotoxemia, and systemic inflammation in patients with cirrhosis. *FASEB J* **33**,

18. Bultman, S. J. (2018) Bacterial butyrate prevents atherosclerosis. *Nature microbiology* **3**, 1332-1333
19. Heaney, L. M., Davies, O. G., and Selby, N. M. (2019) Gut microbial metabolites as mediators of renal disease: do short-chain fatty acids offer some hope? *Future science OA* **5**, Fso384
20. Lee, P. C., Lee, S. Y., and Chang, H. N. (2008) Succinic acid production by *Anaerobiospirillum succiniciproducens* ATCC 29305 growing on galactose, galactose/glucose, and galactose/lactose. *J Microbiol Biotechnol* **18**, 1792-1796
21. Louis, P., Hold, G. L., and Flint, H. J. (2014) The gut microbiota, bacterial metabolites and colorectal cancer. *Nat Rev Microbiol* **12**, 661-672
22. Scheiman, J., Lubber, J. M., Chavkin, T. A., MacDonald, T., Tung, A., Pham, L.-D., Wibowo, M. C., Wurth, R. C., Punthambaker, S., Tierney, B. T., Yang, Z., Hattab, M. W., Avila-Pacheco, J., Clish, C. B., Lessard, S., Church, G. M., and Kostic, A. D. (2019) Meta-omics analysis of elite athletes identifies a performance-enhancing microbe that functions via lactate metabolism. *Nature medicine* **25**, 1104-1109
23. Pukall, R., Lapidus, A., Glavina Del Rio, T., Copeland, A., Tice, H., Cheng, J.-F., Lucas, S., Chen, F., Nolan, M., Bruce, D., Goodwin, L., Pitluck, S., Mavromatis, K., Ivanova, N., Ovchinnikova, G., Pati, A., Chen, A., Palaniappan, K., Land, M., Hauser, L., Chang, Y.-J., Jeffries, C. D., Chain, P., Meincke, L., Sims, D., Brettin, T., Detter, J. C., Rohde, M., Göker, M., Bristow, J., Eisen, J. A., Markowitz, V., Kyrpides, N. C., Klenk, H.-P., and Hugenholtz, P. (2010) Complete genome sequence of *Conexibacter woesei* type strain (ID131577). *Stand Genomic Sci* **2**, 212-219
24. Nishino, K., Nishida, A., Inoue, R., Kawada, Y., Ohno, M., Sakai, S., Inatomi, O., Bamba, S., Sugimoto, M., Kawahara, M., Naito, Y., and Andoh, A. (2018) Analysis of endoscopic brush samples identified mucosa-associated dysbiosis in inflammatory bowel disease. *Journal of gastroenterology* **53**, 95-106
25. Moludi, J., Alizadeh, M., Lotfi Yagin, N., Pasdar, Y., Nachvak, S. M., Abdollahzad, H., and Sadeghpour Tabaei, A. (2018) New insights on atherosclerosis: A cross-talk between endocannabinoid systems with gut microbiota. *Journal of cardiovascular and thoracic research* **10**, 129-137
26. Franco-de-Moraes, A. C., de Almeida-Pititto, B., da Rocha Fernandes, G., Gomes, E. P., da Costa Pereira, A., and Ferreira, S. R. G. (2017) Worse inflammatory profile in omnivores than in vegetarians associates with the gut microbiota composition. *Diabetology & metabolic syndrome* **9**, 62-62
27. Acharya, A., Chan, Y., Kheur, S., Kheur, M., Gopalakrishnan, D., Watt, R. M., and Mattheos, N. (2017) Salivary microbiome of an urban Indian cohort and patterns linked to subclinical

inflammation. *Oral diseases* **23**, 926-940

28. Kaufman, D. W., Kelly, J. P., Curhan, G. C., Anderson, T. E., Dretler, S. P., Preminger, G. M., and Cave, D. R. (2008) Oxalobacter formigenes may reduce the risk of calcium oxalate kidney stones. *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology : JASN* **19**, 1197-1203
29. Miller, A. W., Choy, D., Penniston, K. L., and Lange, D. (2019) Inhibition of urinary stone disease by a multi-species bacterial network ensures healthy oxalate homeostasis. *Kidney Int* **96**, 180-188
30. Ticinesi, A., Milani, C., Guerra, A., Allegri, F., Lauretani, F., Nouvenne, A., Mancabelli, L., Lugli, G. A., Turrone, F., Duranti, S., Mangifesta, M., Viappiani, A., Ferrario, C., Dodi, R., Dall'Asta, M., Del Rio, D., Ventura, M., and Meschi, T. (2018) Understanding the gut-kidney axis in nephrolithiasis: an analysis of the gut microbiota composition and functionality of stone formers. *Gut* **67**, 2097-2106
31. Suryavanshi, M. V., Bhute, S. S., Jadhav, S. D., Bhatia, M. S., Gune, R. P., and Shouche, Y. S. (2016) Hyperoxaluria leads to dysbiosis and drives selective enrichment of oxalate metabolizing bacterial species in recurrent kidney stone endures. *Scientific reports* **6**, 34712
32. Tang, R., Jiang, Y., Tan, A., Ye, J., Xian, X., Xie, Y., Wang, Q., Yao, Z., and Mo, Z. (2018) 16S rRNA gene sequencing reveals altered composition of gut microbiota in individuals with kidney stones. *Urolithiasis* **46**, 503-514
33. Suryavanshi, M. V., Bhute, S. S., Gune, R. P., and Shouche, Y. S. (2018) Functional eubacteria species along with trans-domain gut inhabitants favour dysgenic diversity in oxalate stone disease. **8**, 16598

Figure legends

Figure 1. Effect of antibiotics on gut microbiota and renal calcium oxalate crystals in rats (n=5/group). Rats received an extra cocktail of antibiotics resolved into drinking water, including 0.5 mg/mL ampicillin, 0.5 mg/mL metronidazole, 0.5 mg/mL neomycin and 0.25 mg/mL vancomycin with or without ethylene glycol. Rat microbial DNA from fecal samples were detected before **(A)** and after **(B)** antibiotics administration. The level of calcium oxalate stones was evaluated by image pro plus6 software using Von Kossa (VK) staining. Three different sections of each Von Kossa staining were selected, which resulted in 15 data in Figure 1C **(C and E)**. Kidneys were also stained with Hematoxylin-Eosin (HE), and HE staining scoring system was used to examine the formation of crystals **(D and E)**.

Figure 2. Analysis of fecal microbiota among non-kidney stone (NS) controls (n=84), occasional stone (OS) patients (n=43) and recurrent stone (RS) patients (n=26) by using 16s rRNA. **(A)** Comparison of alpha diversity of gut microbiota between NS controls, OS and RS patients. Ace, Chao, Shannon and Simpson indices at operational taxonomic units (OTUs) level were compared between NS controls (green), OS (blue) and RS patients (red) by the Wilcoxon rank-sum test (** $p < 0.01$). **(B)** Comparison of beta diversity of gut microbiota between NS controls, OS and RS patients. PCoA score plot based on binary-pearson distance at OTUs level revealed classification of NS controls, OS and RS patients. Green diamond represented NS controls. Blue triangle represented OS patients. Red points represented RS patients. **(C)** The composition of gut microbiota in NS controls, OS and RS patients at phylum or genus level. **(D)** The associations of differential bacteria with differential metabolic pathways in the NS controls and kidney stone (KS) patients (OS+RS).

Figure 3. Analysis of fecal microbiota among non-kidney stone (NS) controls (n=5), occasional stone (OS) patients (n=5) and recurrent stone (RS) patients (n=5) by using 16s rRNA at species level using metagenomics. **(A)** The different bacteria between NS controls and kidney stone (KS) patients (OS+RS) ($p < 0.05$). **(B)** The different bacteria between OS patients and RS patients ($p < 0.05$). (* $p < 0.01$).

Figure 4. Heatmap showing pearson correlation between different KEGG Orthology (KO) and different microbial taxa identified by metagenome sequence-based analysis in non-kidney stone (NS) controls (n=5), occasional stone (OS) patients (n=5) and recurrent stone (RS) patients (n=5).

Figure 5. Heatmap showing pearson correlation between different KEGG pathways and different microbial taxa identified by metagenome sequence-based analysis in non-kidney stone (NS) controls (n=5), occasional stone (OS) patients (n=5) and recurrent stone (RS) patients (n=5).

Figure 6. Analysis of fecal short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) and gut microbiota among non-kidney stone (NS) controls (n=84), occasional stone (OS) patients (n=43) and recurrent stone (RS) patients (n=26). **(A)** The associations of differential bacteria in NS controls and KS patients with pathways involved in SCFAs production. **(B)** The levels of acetate, propionate and butyrate among NS controls, OS and RS patients. The levels of acetic acid, propionic acid and butyric acid among NS controls, OS and RS patients by Mann-Whitney test (* $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$). **(C)** The correlation between SCFAs and gut microbiota. **(D)** The correlation between SCFAs and function of gut microbiota by Pearson correlation analysis. **(E)** The abundance of *s_Ruminococcaceae_bacterium_AE2021* association with *PCCB* between healthy controls and patients with kidney stone.

Figure 7. Effect of SCFAs on renal calcium oxalate crystals (n=5/group). Rats received drinking water with EG plus sodium acetate, sodium propionate and sodium butyrate respectively for 4 weeks. Hematoxylin-Eosin (HE) and Von Kossa (VK) staining showed that three kind of SCFAs all could reduce renal calcium oxalate crystals.

Table 1. Comparison of general characteristics between NS controls, OS and RS patients.

	NS CONTROLS	OS PATIENTS	RS PATIENTS	P VALUE
AGE	50.4 (7.0)	50.6 (12.0)	53.0 (11.1)	0.460 (a)
BMI	24.4 (2.5)	23.6 (2.9)	24.7 (3.5)	0.198 (a)
GENDER				
FEMALE	50 (59.5%)	15 (34.9%)	6 (23.1%)	0.001 (b)
MALE	34 (40.5%)	28 (65.1%)	20 (76.9%)	
WATER				
<1000 (ML/DAY)	30 (35.7%)	14 (32.6%)	7 (26.9%)	0.604 (b)
1000-2000 (ML/DAY)	31 (36.9%)	14 (32.6%)	13 (50.0%)	
>2000 (ML/DAY)	23 (27.4%)	15 (34.9%)	6 (23.1%)	
SALT				
LESS-SALT	27 (32.1%)	11 (25.6%)	3 (11.5%)	0.345 (b)
MEDIUM-SALT	43 (51.2%)	23 (53.5%)	17 (65.4%)	
MORE-SALT	14 (16.7%)	9 (20.9%)	6 (23.1%)	
FAT				
LESS-FAT	31 (36.9%)	3 (7.0%)	2 (7.7%)	0.001 (b)
MEDIUM-FAT	35 (41.7%)	25 (58.1%)	17 (65.4%)	
MORE-FAT	18 (21.4%)	15 (34.9%)	7 (26.9%)	
SPICY				
NON-SPICY	11 (13.1%)	11 (25.6%)	7 (26.9%)	0.094 (b)
MEDIUM-SPICY	53 (63.1%)	17 (39.5%)	12 (46.2%)	
SUPER-SPICY	20 (23.8%)	15 (34.9%)	7 (26.9%)	
PICKLED				
VEGETABLES				

<10 (TIMES/MONTH)	58 (69.0%)	30 (69.8%)	19 (73.1%)	0.420 (b)
10-20 (TIMES/MONTH)	14 (16.7%)	3 (7.0%)	4 (15.4%)	
>20 (TIMES/MONTH)	12 (14.3%)	10 (23.3%)	3 (11.5%)	
TEA OR COFFEE				
<10 (TIMES/MONTH)	67 (79.8%)	27 (62.8%)	15 (60.0%)	0.172 (b)
10-20 (TIMES/MONTH)	2 (2.4%)	1 (2.3%)	1 (4.0%)	
>20 (TIMES/MONTH)	15 (17.9%)	15 (34.9%)	9 (36.0%)	
RED MEAT				
<100 (G/DAY)	67 (79.8%)	28 (65.1%)	18 (69.2%)	0.004 (b)
100-200 (G/DAY)	15 (17.9%)	6 (14.0%)	7 (26.9%)	
>200 (G/DAY)	2 (2.4%)	9 (20.9%)	1 (3.8%)	
MILK				
<250 ML/DAY	54 (64.3%)	37 (86.0%)	22 (84.6%)	0.012 (b)
>250 ML/DAY	30 (35.7%)	6 (14.0%)	4 (15.4%)	
FRUIT				
<200 (G/DAY)	42 (50.0%)	31 (72.1%)	20 (76.9%)	0.010 (b)
>200 (G/DAY)	42 (50.0%)	12 (27.9%)	6 (23.1%)	
SITTING TIME				
<4 (H/DAY)	67 (79.8%)	12 (27.9%)	6 (23.1%)	<0.001 (b)
4-7 (H/DAY)	17 (20.2%)	19 (44.2%)	9 (34.6%)	
>7 (H/DAY)	0 (0.00%)	12 (27.9%)	11 (42.3%)	
SLEEPING TIME				

<6 (H/DAY)	5 (6.0%)	10 (23.3%)	7 (26.9%)	0.022 (b)
6-9 (H/DAY)	77 (91.7%)	32 (74.4%)	19 (73.1%)	
>9 (H/DAY)	2 (2.4%)	1 (2.3%)	0 (0.00%)	
SMOKING				
NO	67 (79.8%)	22 (51.2%)	20 (76.9%)	0.003 (b)
YES	17 (20.2%)	21 (48.8%)	6 (23.1%)	
ALCOHOL				
NO	60 (71.4%)	28 (65.1%)	20 (76.9%)	0.562 (b)
YES	24 (28.6%)	15 (34.9%)	6 (23.1%)	
FAMILY HISTORY OF STONE				
NO	73 (86.9%)	26 (60.5%)	15 (57.7%)	<0.001 (b)
YES	11 (13.1%)	17 (39.5%)	11 (42.3%)	
DIABETES MELLITUS				
NO	80 (95.2%)	39 (90.7%)	21 (80.8%)	0.067 (b)
YES	4 (4.8%)	4 (9.3%)	5 (19.2%)	
HYPERTENSION				
NO	80 (95.2%)	30 (69.8%)	15 (57.7%)	<0.001 (b)
YES	4 (4.8%)	13 (30.2%)	11 (42.3%)	
NAFLD				
NO	80 (95.2%)	36 (83.7%)	19 (73.1%)	0.005 (b)
YES	4 (4.8%)	7 (16.3%)	7 (26.9%)	
SURGERY OF GASTROINTESTINAL TRACT				
NO	80 (95.2%)	37 (86.0%)	21 (80.8%)	0.053 (b)
YES	4 (4.8%)	6 (14.0%)	5 (19.2%)	
GASTRITIS OR ENTERITIS				

NO	74 (88.1%)	37 (86.0%)	19 (73.1%)	0.169 (b)
YES	10 (11.9%)	6 (14.0%)	7 (26.9%)	

(a) Analysis of variance (ANOVA). (b) Chi-square test. NS, non-kidney stone. OS, occasional stones. RS, recurrent stones. BMI, body mass index. NAFLD, nonalcoholic fatty liver disease.

Author Manuscript

Table 2. Multivariate logistic regression analysis for risk and protective factors of kidney stone patients.

Factors	P value	Estimate	95% CIs	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Fat				
less-fat	0.018	-1.569	-2.866	-0.272
medium-fat	0.267	-0.529	-1.463	0.405
more-fat		0		
Red meat				
<100 (g/day)	0.743	0.245	-1.220	1.710
100-200 (g/day)	0.771	-0.243	-1.879	1.394
>200 (g/day)		0		
Milk				
<250 ml/day	0.473	0.364	-0.631	1.360
>250 ml/day		0		
Fruit				
<200 (g/day)	0.003	1.335	0.455	2.215
>200 (g/day)		0		
Sitting time				
<4 (h/day)	<0.001	-3.326	-4.629	-2.024
4-7 (h/day)	<0.001	-2.402	-3.631	-1.173
>7 (h/day)		0		
Sleeping time				
<6 (h/day)	0.677	0.626	-2.318	3.570
6-9 (h/day)	0.428	-1.145	-3.974	1.684
>9 (h/day)		0		
Smoking				
No	0.744	0.142	-0.710	0.995
Yes		0		
Family history of stone				
No	0.132	-0.687	-1.581	0.207
Yes		0		

Hypertension

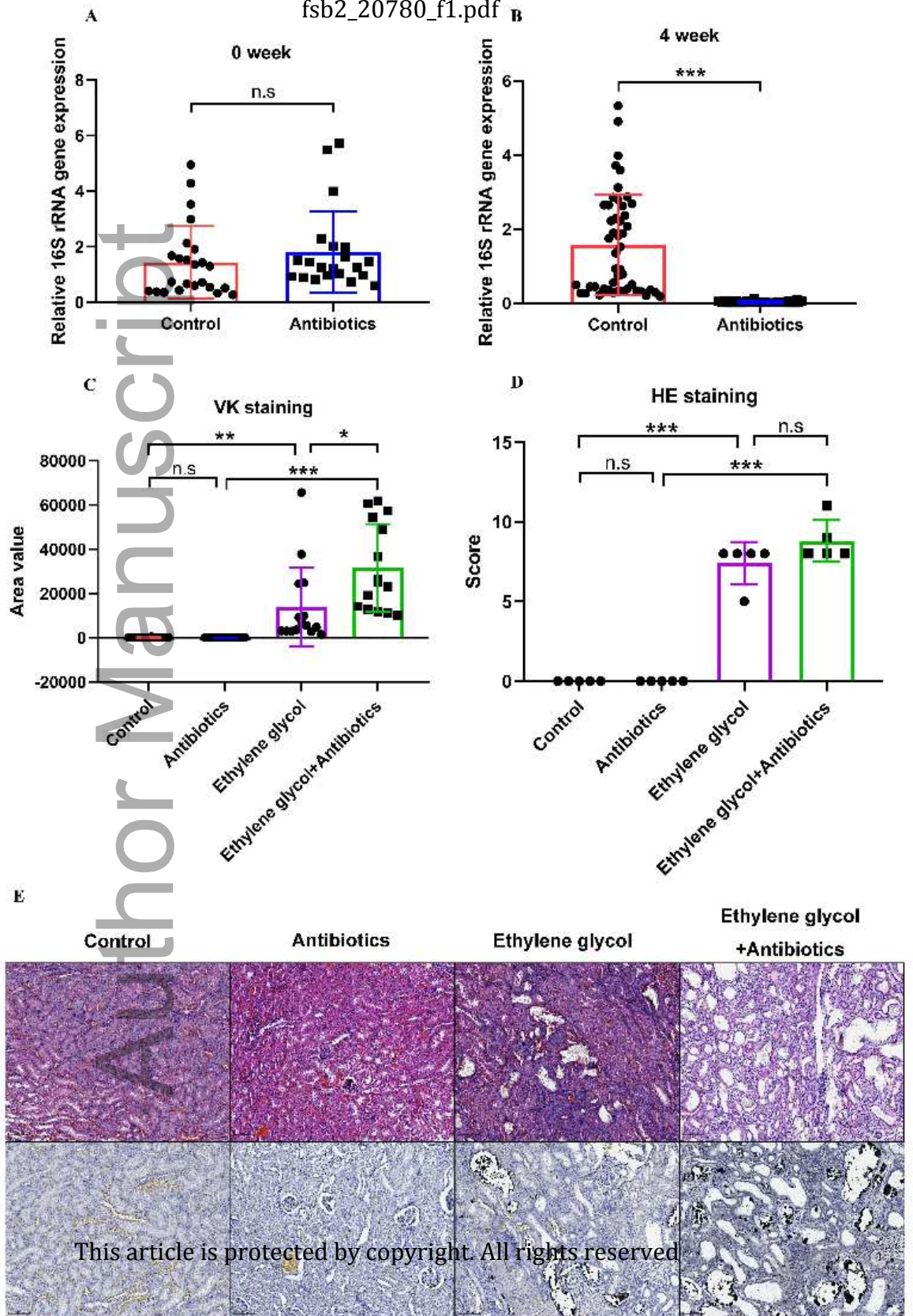
No	0.003	-1.485	-2.478	-0.492
Yes		0		

NAFLD

No	0.043	-1.244	-2.447	-0.040
Yes		0		

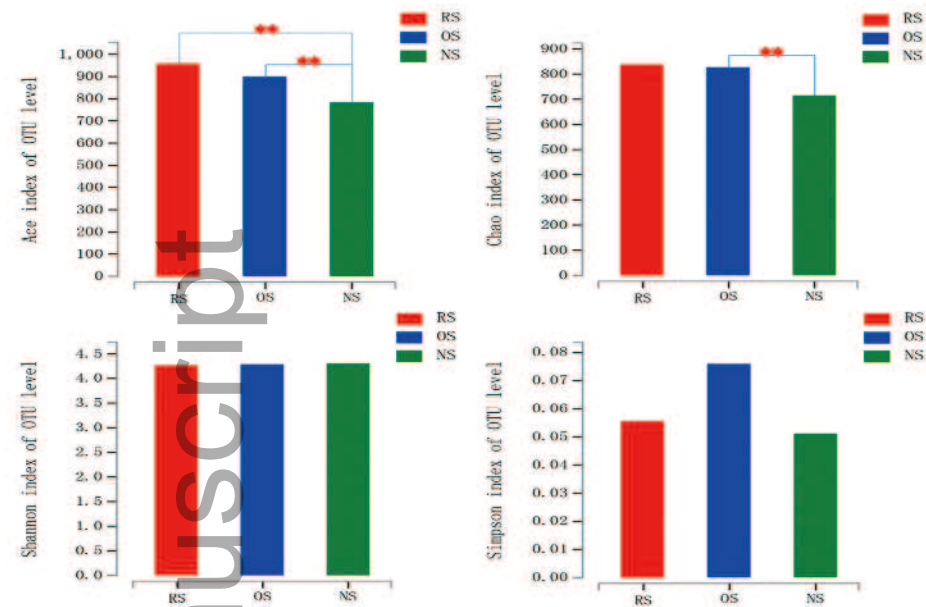
CIs, confidence intervals. NAFLD, nonalcoholic fatty liver disease.

Author Manuscript

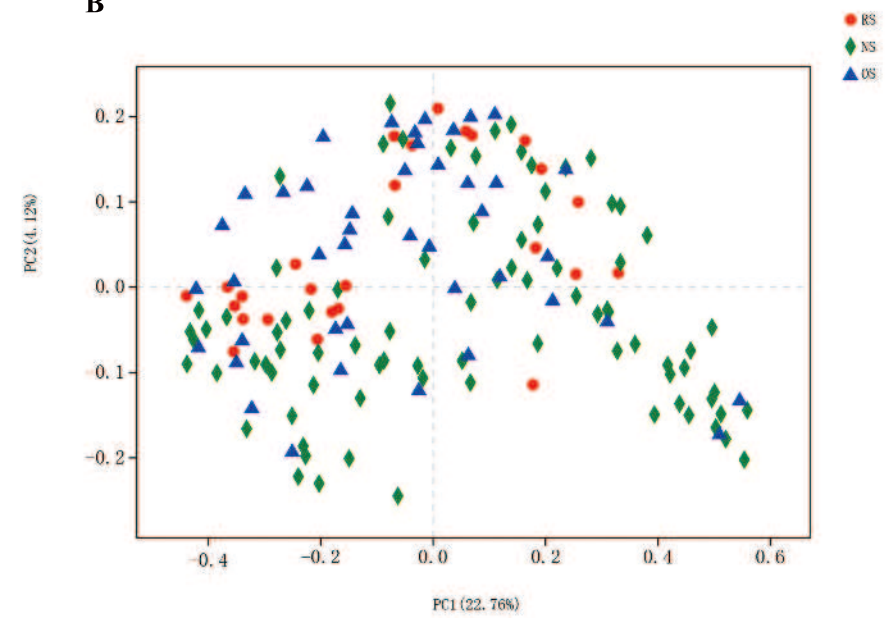


A

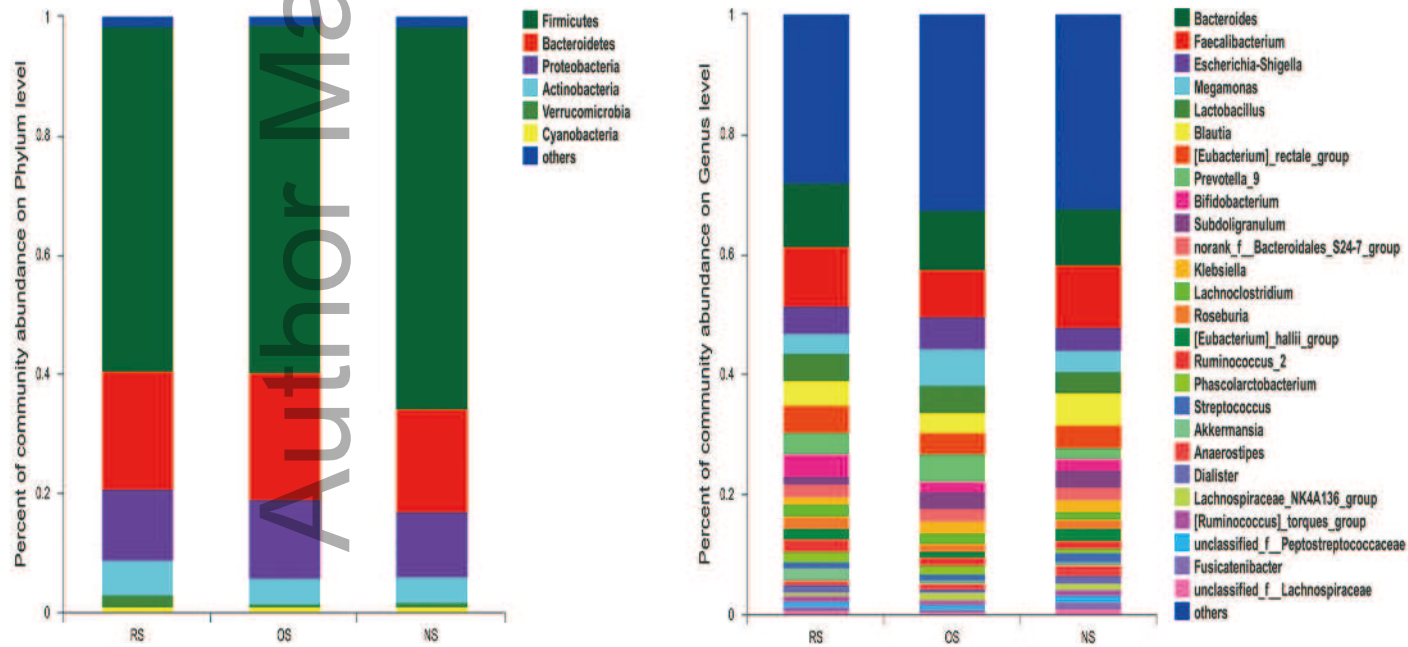
fsb2_20780_f2.pdf



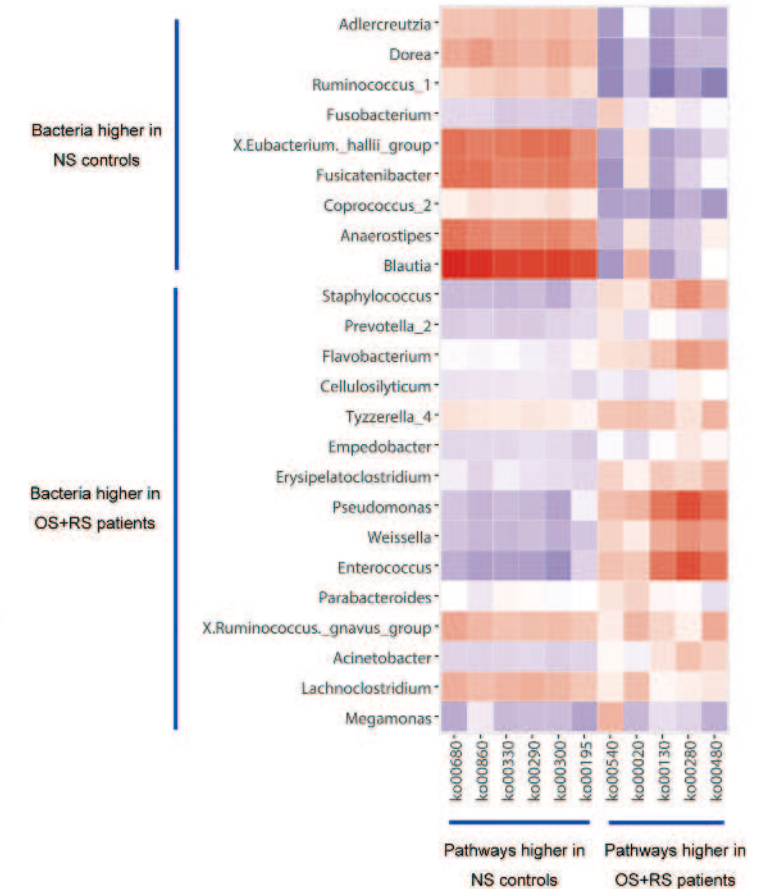
B



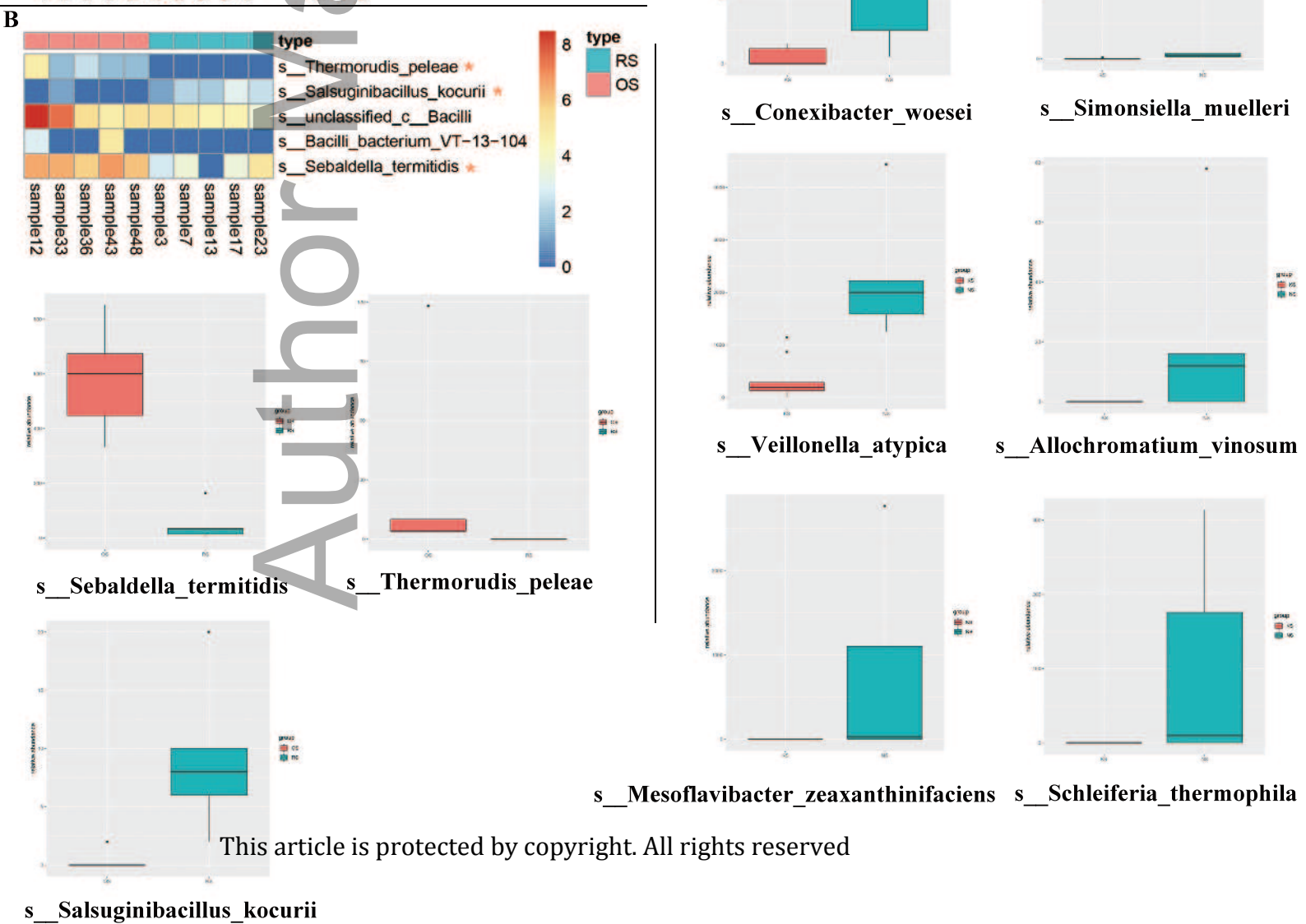
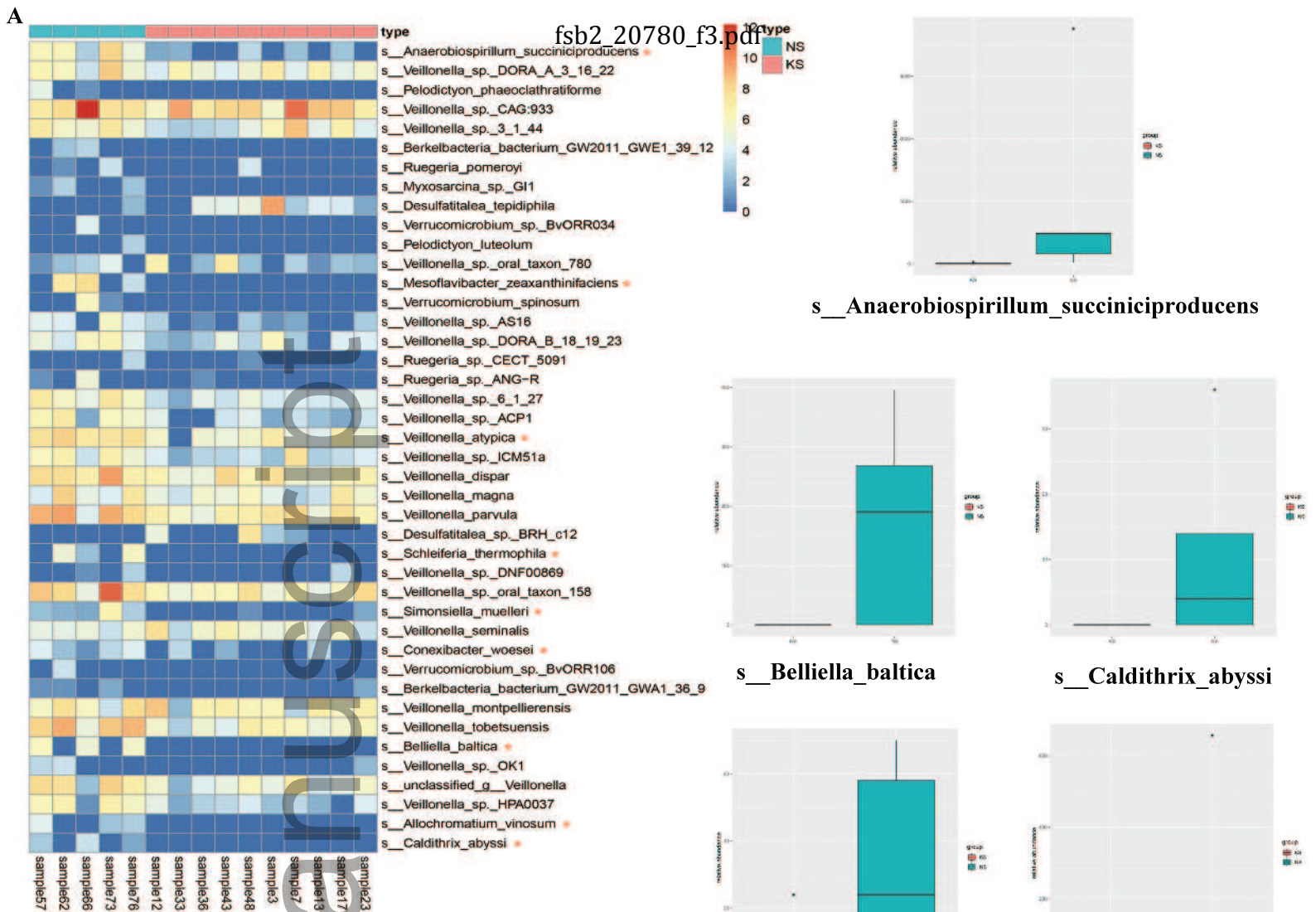
C

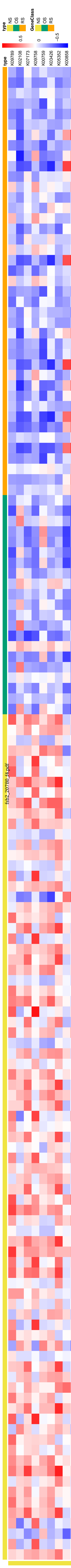


D



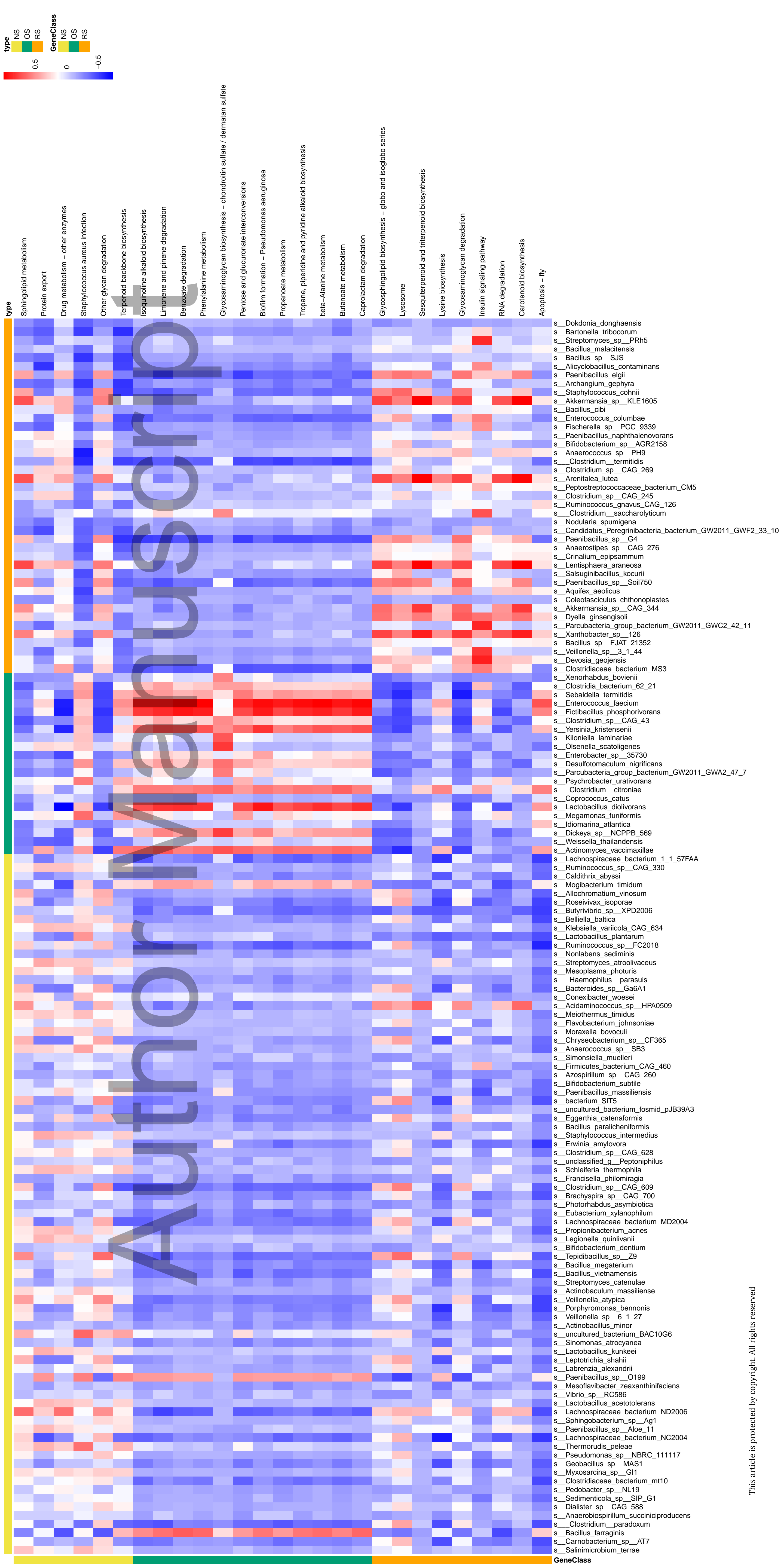
This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

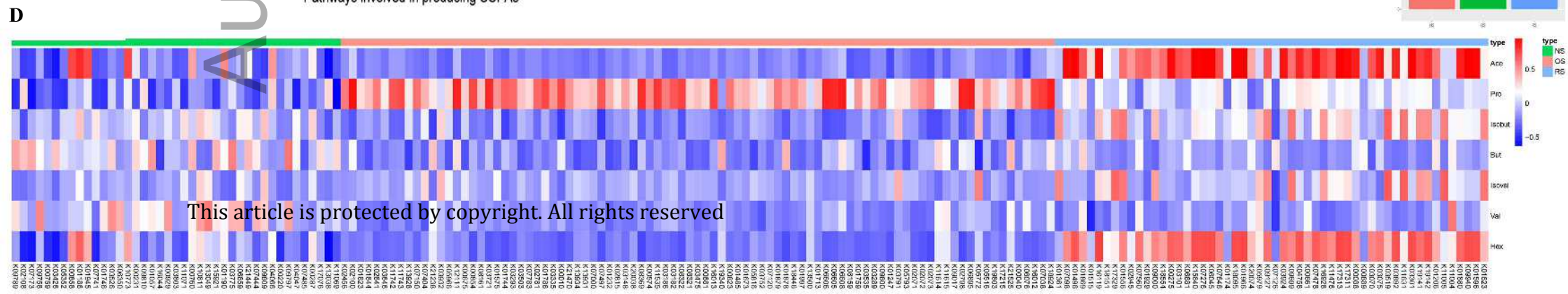
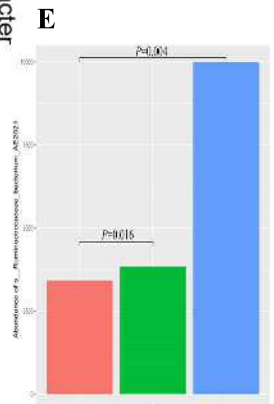
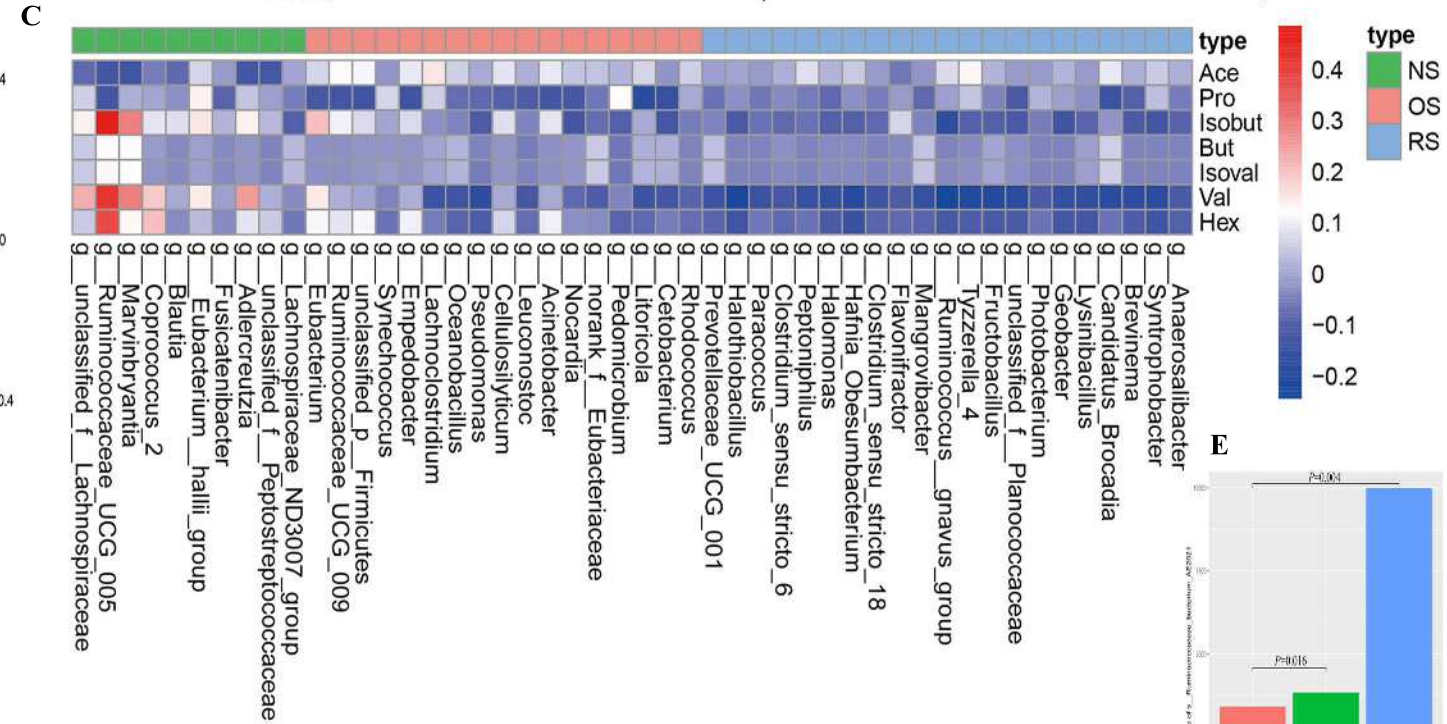
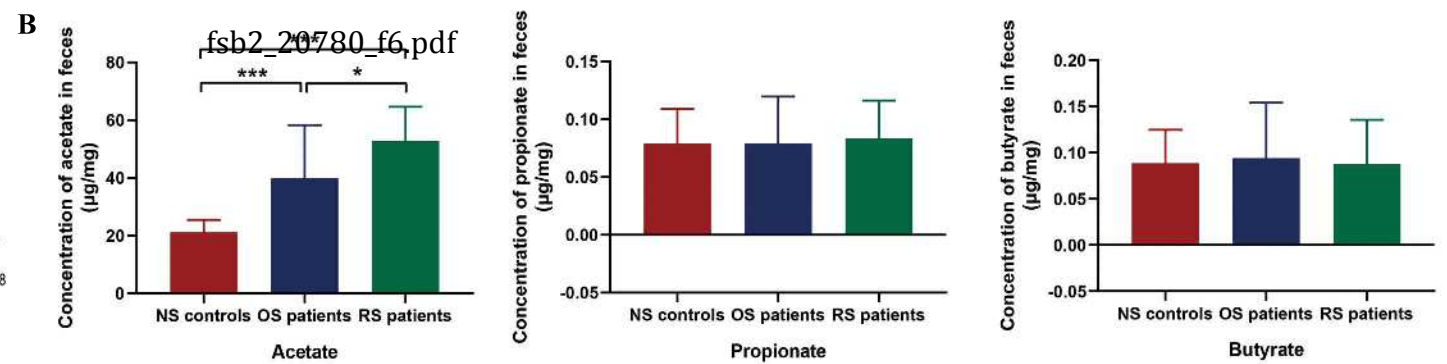
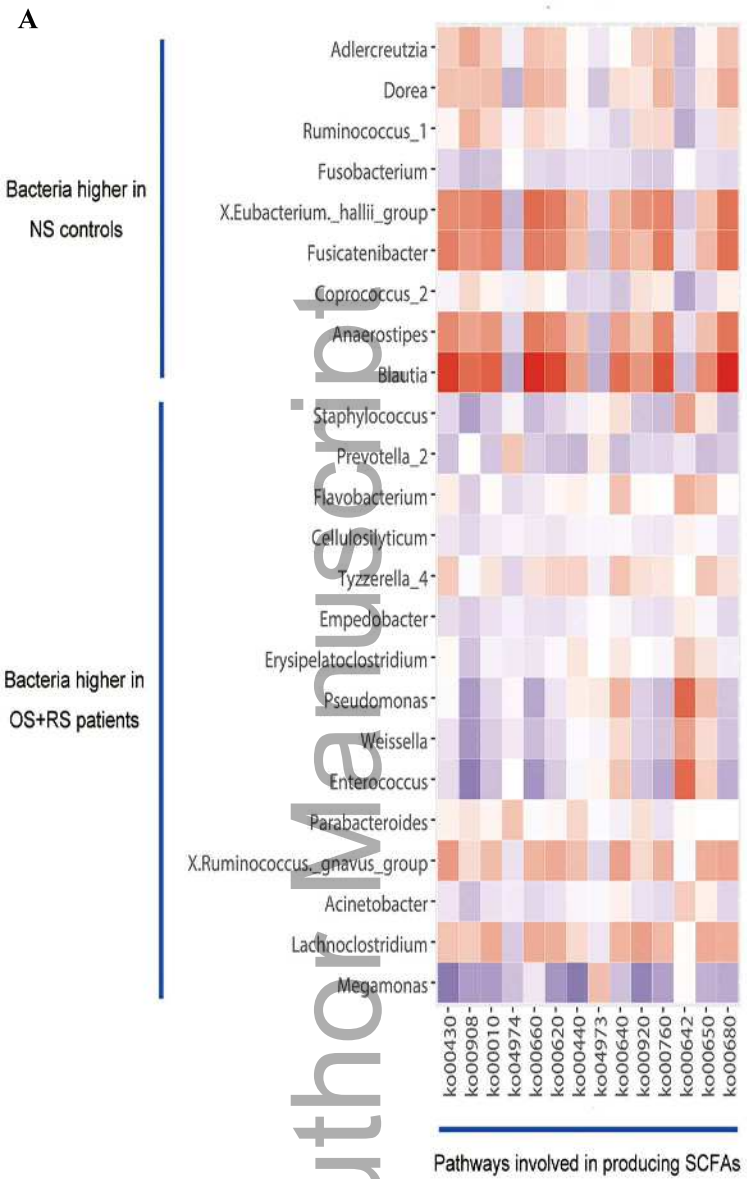




Author Manuscript

- s.* *Dakonia_danjiangensis*
- s.* *Bartonella_tribocorum*
- s.* *Streptomyces_sp_P1h5*
- s.* *Bacillus_malackensis*
- s.* *Bacillus_sp_SJS*
- s.* *Alcyobacillus_contaminans*
- s.* *Paenibacillus_elgi*
- s.* *Archangium_gaghyia*
- s.* *Staphylococcus_cottii*
- s.* *Akkermansia_sp_KLE1605*
- s.* *Bacillus_cibi*
- s.* *Enterococcus_columbae*
- s.* *Fischerella_sp_PCC_8339*
- s.* *Paenibacillus_naphthalenovorans*
- s.* *Bifidobacterium_sp_AGR158*
- s.* *Anaerococcus_sp_P19*
- s.* *Clostridium_terminis*
- s.* *Clostridium_sp_CAG_269*
- s.* *Areniteba_lutea*
- s.* *Peptostreptococcaceae_bacterium_C45*
- s.* *Clostridium_sp_CAG_245*
- s.* *Ruminococcus_griacus_CAG_126*
- s.* *Clostridium_saccharolyticum*
- s.* *Nodularia_spirigena*
- s.* *Candidatus_Peregineibacteria_bacterium_GW2011_GWF2_33_10*
- s.* *Paenibacillus_sp_G4*
- s.* *Anaerostipes_sp_CAG_276*
- s.* *Crinatum_episammum*
- s.* *Lentipharmia_arenosa*
- s.* *Selwynibacillus_kouri*
- s.* *Paenibacillus_sp_S01750*
- s.* *Aquifex_aerolicus*
- s.* *Coneobacterium_orthorobustus*
- s.* *Akkermansia_sp_CAG_344*
- s.* *Oyella_guangxiensis*
- s.* *Parvobacteria_group_bacterium_GW2011_GW2_42_11*
- s.* *Xanthobacter_sp_126*
- s.* *Bacillus_sp_FAT_21352*
- s.* *Velloneia_sp_3_1_44*
- s.* *Devosia_georgiensis*
- s.* *Clostridiaceae_bacterium_M53*
- s.* *Xenobacter_bovienii*
- s.* *Clostridia_bacterium_02_21*
- s.* *Sebakella_terminis*
- s.* *Enterococcus_bacium*
- s.* *Ficitibacillus_phosphovorus*
- s.* *Clostridium_sp_CAG_43*
- s.* *Yersinia_kristensenii*
- s.* *Xilonella_lammariae*
- s.* *Olsenella_scoligenes*
- s.* *Enterobacter_sp_35730*
- s.* *Desulfotomaculum_nigrificans*
- s.* *Parvobacteria_group_bacterium_GW2011_GW42_47_7*
- s.* *Psychrobacter_urethranus*
- s.* *Clostridium_chloriae*
- s.* *Coprococcus_catus*
- s.* *Lactobacillus_dolikovans*
- s.* *Megamonas_furiformis*
- s.* *Stomaria_attarica*
- s.* *Dickeya_sp_NC998_569*
- s.* *Weissella_thailandensis*
- s.* *Actinomyces_vaccinifoliae*
- s.* *Lachnospiraceae_bacterium_1_1_57FAA*
- s.* *Ruminococcus_sp_CAG_330*
- s.* *Caldivivibrio_albus*
- s.* *Mogibacterium_timidum*
- s.* *Allochroium_vinosum*
- s.* *Roseivivax_isopora*
- s.* *Butyrivibrio_sp_XPO2006*
- s.* *Bellefella_baltica*
- s.* *Klebsiella_varicola_CAG_634*
- s.* *Lactobacillus_glanum*
- s.* *Ruminococcus_sp_FC2018*
- s.* *Norcadia_sedimae*
- s.* *Streptomyces_atrovivaxus*
- s.* *Mesoplasma_photuris*
- s.* *Hemophilus_parasuis*
- s.* *Bacteroides_sp_G46A1*
- s.* *Coneobacter_woesei*
- s.* *Acidimicrobium_sp_HFW0509*
- s.* *Micrותרmus_timidus*
- s.* *Flavobacterium_johnsoniae*
- s.* *Moraxella_bovoculi*
- s.* *Chryseobacterium_sp_CF365*
- s.* *Anaerococcus_sp_SB3*
- s.* *Simonsiella_muelleri*
- s.* *Firmicutes_bacterium_CAG_460*
- s.* *Anaerospillum_sp_CAG_260*
- s.* *Bifidobacterium_subtile*
- s.* *Paenibacillus_maasilensis*
- s.* *bacterium_S15*
- s.* *uncultured_bacterium_bomid_pJ83943*
- s.* *Eggerthia_catalanensis*
- s.* *Bacillus_parietehomii*
- s.* *Staphylococcus_intermedius*
- s.* *Erwinia_amylovora*
- s.* *Clostridium_sp_CAG_620*
- s.* *unclassified_g_Peptorhynchus*
- s.* *Scheitleria_thermophila*
- s.* *Francisella_phlebotomae*
- s.* *Clostridium_sp_CAG_609*
- s.* *Brachyspira_sp_CAG_700*
- s.* *Photobacterium_amblyotis*
- s.* *Eubacterium_xylophilum*
- s.* *Lachnospiraceae_bacterium_MD2004*
- s.* *Propionibacterium_acnes*
- s.* *Legionella_quintanali*
- s.* *Bifidobacterium_dentium*
- s.* *Topobacillus_sp_Z9*
- s.* *Bacillus_megaterium*
- s.* *Bacillus_siamensis*
- s.* *Streptomyces_catenulae*
- s.* *Actinobaculum_mastersonae*
- s.* *Velloneia_atypica*
- s.* *Porphyromonas_bemsonis*
- s.* *Velloneia_sp_6_1_27*
- s.* *Actinobacillus_minor*
- s.* *uncultured_bacterium_BAC1006*
- s.* *Simonsiella_atrocyanea*
- s.* *Lactobacillus_kunkei*
- s.* *Leptorhynchus_shahi*
- s.* *Liberibacillus_alexandri*
- s.* *Paenibacillus_sp_O199*
- s.* *Mesoflavobacter_rossanthenifaciens*
- s.* *Vibrio_sp_RC586*
- s.* *Lactobacillus_acetivivans*
- s.* *Lachnospiraceae_bacterium_ND2006*
- s.* *Sphingobacterium_sp_Ag1*
- s.* *Paenibacillus_sp_Alex_11*
- s.* *Lachnospiraceae_bacterium_NC2004*
- s.* *Thermotoga_gabriele*
- s.* *Pseudomonas_sp_NBRC_111117*
- s.* *Geobacillus_sp_MAS1*
- s.* *Myxococcus_sp_G11*
- s.* *Clostridiaceae_bacterium_r110*
- s.* *Peckobacter_sp_NL19*
- s.* *Sedimenticola_sp_SIP_G1*
- s.* *Diallaw_sp_CAG_588*
- s.* *Anaerobiospirillum_sucroreproduens*
- s.* *Clostridium_pardaxum*
- s.* *Bacillus_ferroginis*
- s.* *Carnobacterium_sp_AT7*
- s.* *Salinimicrobium_terrae*





Control

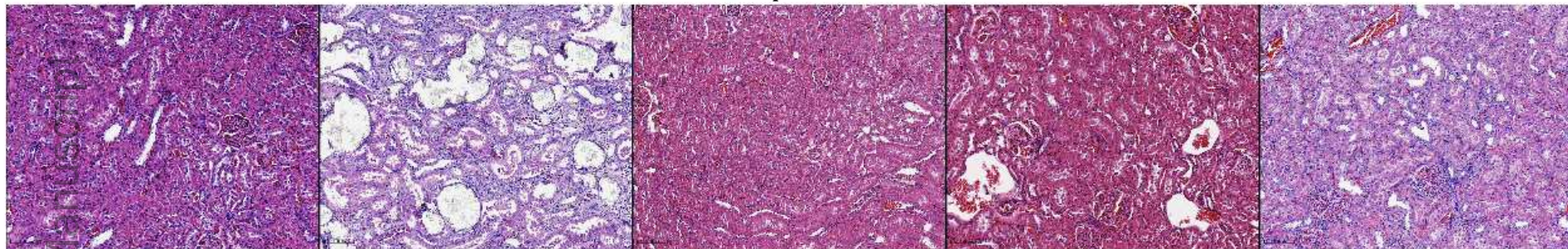
EG

fsb2_20780_17.pdf
EG+Acetate

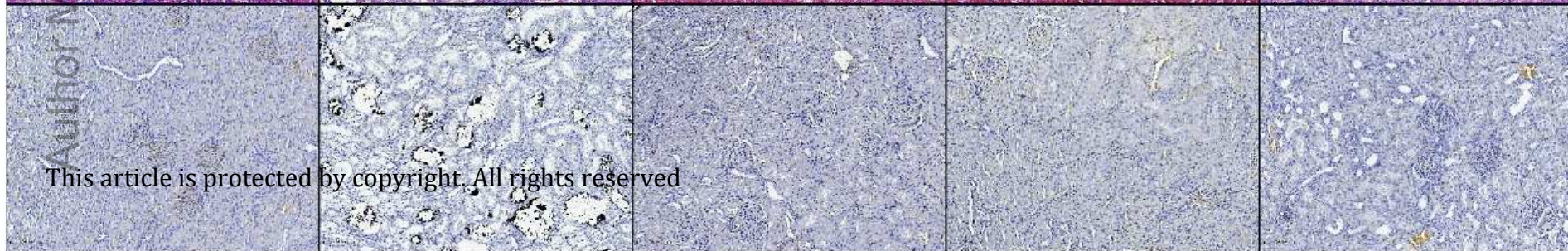
EG+Propionate

EG+Butyrate

HE staining



VK staining



This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved