Published in final edited form as:

Urology. 2019 July ; 129: 54–59. doi:10.1016/j.urology.2019.04.005.

Genetic and Environmental Influences on Urinary Conditions in Men: A Classical Twin Study

Marianna Gasperi^{1,2}, John N. Krieger³, Matthew S. Panizzon⁴, Jack Goldberg^{3,5}, Dedra Buchwald⁶, and Niloofar Afari^{1,2}

¹University of California, San Diego, San Diego, CA, USA.

²VA Center of Excellence for Stress and Mental Health, San Diego, CA, USA

³University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA

⁴Center for Behavior Genetics of Aging, University of California, San Diego, CA, USA

⁵Vietnam Era Twin Registry, Seattle, WA, USA.

⁶Elson S Floyd College of Medicine, Washington State University, Spokane, WA, USA

Abstract

Objective: To evaluate the genetic and environmental relationship among prostatitis and other urological conditions, including benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH) and prostate cancer (CaP), a classical twin design and biometric modeling was used. While prostatitis – characterized by pain and voiding symptoms, no clear etiology, and functional and quality of life impairments – co-occurs with other urinary conditions, the degree of shared overlapping etiological processes among them remains unclear. We examined the contribution of genetic and environmental factors to these conditions and the etiology of their associations at the level of genetic and environmental influences.

Methods: 4380 monozygotic and dizygotic male twin pairs from the Vietnam Era Twin Registry reported lifetime physician-diagnosed prostatitis (combined acute and chronic), bladder problems, enlarged prostate/BPH, and CaP. Multivariate biometrical modeling estimated the magnitude of genetic and environmental influences for each condition, as well as their genetic and environmental covariance. The common pathway model tested the assumption that covariation among these urinary conditions is determined by a single latent factor.

Results: Overall prevalence of prostatitis was 2.7%. Heritability estimates ranged from 19% for bladder problems to 42% for CaP. Significant shared environmental influences were present for CaP (12%), enlarged Prostate/BPH (10%) but were smaller than genetic influences. A reduced one

Corresponding Author: Dr. Niloofar Afari, 9500 Gilman Drive, 0737, La Jolla, CA 92093., Phone: 858-642-3387; nafari@ucsd.edu.

Publisher's Disclaimer: This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final citable form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors have no competing interests.

factor common pathway model provided the best fit, suggesting that covariation among the conditions is determined by a shared latent factor.

Conclusions: We identified a common, genetically-influenced factor that accounts for much of the comorbidity among these four disease conditions. Non-shared environmental factors also make a significant contribution.

Keywords

benign prostatic hypoplasia; chronic prostatitis; comorbidity; lower urinary tract symptoms; prostate cancer; twins

Chronic prostatitis/chronic pelvic pain syndrome (CP/CPPS) accounts for most prostatitis cases prostatitis and is characterized by urological pain that may be associated with various urinary or sexual disturbances.¹ CP/CPPS affects 1.8–10.4% of men in different populations^{2,3} and is the leading reason for urological outpatient consultations for men under age 50.⁴ Measures of functional status including ability to perform daily tasks, and maintain well-being is lower in patients with CP/CPPS than their counterparts with severe diabetes or congestive heart failure⁵, and similar to patients with Crohn's disease, angina, or myocardial infarction.⁶

Infection, inflammation, neurological and immune dysfunction⁷, oxidative stress, prostatic obstruction or edema have been linked to CP/CPPS⁸, but none of these represents the etiology of most cases. Studies have found high levels of comorbidity between CP/CPPS with other urological and non-urological syndromes, such as benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH), and prostate cancer (CaP).^{2,9,10} The reason for this comorbidity is likely multifaceted, and may stem, in part, from a common etiology among the conditions due to shared genetic influences, overlapping physiology, or common environmental factors.

The multivariate application of the classical twin design represents a powerful approach to evaluate sources of common etiology. Previous twin studies demonstrated moderate levels of heritability (' h^2 ' or proportion of variation attributable to genetic effects) for bladder problems, enlarged prostate/BPH, and CaP, suggesting that genetic factors play an important role.^{11,12} Genetic factors have been implicated in CP/CPPS¹³, however, no study has evaluated the degree to which genetic factors contribute to the comorbidity of prostatitis with other prostatic and urinary conditions. Evaluating the overlap of genetic and environmental factors common or unique to these conditions can improve our understanding of their etiology.

The present study used multivariate biometric modeling of a unique sample of middle-aged male-male twins to: a) estimate the heritability of prostatitis and other urological conditions, and b) examine genetic and environmental covariance among these conditions. Based on the literature, we expected that a moderate portion of the variance in each condition would be due to genetic factors. Because these conditions co-occur at high rates, and each has been shown to be at least partially genetically influenced, evaluating the overlap in genetic effects and their contribution to the co- occurrence of these conditions can yield information about

their shared etiology. We hypothesized that the covariation between prostatitis and other conditions results in part from common genetic and environmental factors.

Materials and Methods

Participants.

The Vietnam Era Twin (VET) Registry is a community-based sample of male twins born between 1939 and 1957 who both served in the U.S. military at some point between 1965 and 1975.¹⁴ With approximately 7,500 twin pairs, the VET Registry is one of the largest twin registries in United States. Initial contact of registry members occurred in 1987. The registry has been described in detail previously.¹⁵

Procedures.

Between 2010 and 2012, participants were contacted regarding Veterans Administration (VA) Cooperative Study #569 – “The course and consequences of post-traumatic stress disorder in Vietnam-era veteran twins.” A mailed questionnaire evaluated wide ranging physical and mental health issues, including prostatic and urinary conditions. Addition of questions on these conditions resulted from a site- specific study in the Multidisciplinary Approach to the Study of Chronic Pelvic Pain (MAPP) Research Network¹⁶. Because of the size and scope of the study, data collection was done under contract by Abt SRBI, Inc. The VA Central Institutional Review Board and the Research and Development Committee at VA San Diego Healthcare System approved the study. All participants provided written informed consent.

Measures.

Demographics and Zygosity.—Age, race, and Hispanic ethnicity were available from the Registry database. Zygosity was assigned using an algorithm based on childhood similarity questions shown to be more than 95% accurate.¹⁷ Current marital status and years of education were obtained from the questionnaire.

Self-Reported Prostatitis and Urinary Conditions.—Twins were asked to report lifetime conditions, specifically, “Have you ever been told by a doctor or other health professional that you had ...” followed by a list of conditions including acute prostatitis, chronic prostatitis, bladder problems, enlarged prostate, BPH, and CaP. Chronic prostatitis is a general diagnostic category; approximately 90% of patient with this label have CP/ CPPS¹⁸. Chronic and acute prostatitis were highly correlated in our sample, $r = .89$ (95% CI: 0.89–0.99, $p < 0.001$) and were therefore combined into one “prostatitis” variable for all subsequent analyses. Enlarged prostate and BPH questions represented the same condition, and were similarly combined.

Statistical Analyses.

In the classical twin design, monozygotic (MZ) and dizygotic (DZ) twins are compared to partition the variance of each phenotype into additive genetic influences (A), shared environmental influences (C), and non-shared environmental influences (E). This variance decomposition, or “ACE model,” is accomplished by evaluating the similarity of MZ twins

(sharing 100% of their genes) with DZ twins (sharing, on average, 50% of their segregating genes). Additive genetic influences are inferred when MZ correlations are greater than DZ correlations. Shared environmental effects increase similarity between members of a twin pair (e.g., family environment) and are inferred when DZ correlations are greater than half the MZ correlations.¹⁹ Non-shared environmental effects contribute to differences between twin pair members, and include measurement error. When two or more conditions are correlated, multivariate biometric models decompose the covariance between conditions into genetic and environmental components, thus estimating the source and magnitude of the overlap in the form of genetic and environmental correlations.

To evaluate variance components for non-continuous traits (i.e., diagnostic categories) it is assumed that the liability to develop the condition is normally distributed¹⁹, and that one or more thresholds subdivides the population into the observed diagnostic categories. The relative contribution of genetic and environmental factors to this liability is estimated using maximum likelihood.

Multivariate Models.—We fit a series of multivariate biometric models to evaluate the relative contribution of genetic and environmental factors to the liability of each condition, and their covariance. First, we fit a Cholesky decomposition (Supplementary Figure 1A) – the most saturated model of genetic and environmental relationships among conditions – that provides estimates of genetic and environmental influences on each condition, and the genetic and environmental covariance among them.¹⁹ The Cholesky provides a summary of the data without imposing a structure.

Next, we examined the relative fit of two multivariate models applied to the four conditions; the independent pathway and the common pathway models. The independent pathway model²⁰ (Supplementary Figure 1B) specifies direct paths from genetic and environmental factors common to all conditions and as well as A, C, and E factors specific to each trait. In the independent model, common genetic and environmental influences partially explain the phenotypic covariance, along with specific genetic and environmental influences. The common pathway model²¹ (Supplementary Figure 1C) tests the assumption that covariation among conditions is determined by one latent (unobserved) factor. The latent factor is influenced by A, C, and E factors that reflect the relative contribution of genetic and environmental factors to this underlying trait. The effect of the latent factor on the observed conditions is expressed by factor loadings. Additionally, each condition is influenced by specific A, C, and E factors that decompose the residual variance of each variable. Thus, the common model allows estimation of genetic and environmental influences contributing to the latent trait and of those unique to each condition. To further improve model fit, the best multivariate model was reduced by removing insignificant paths.

The magnitude of genetic overlap among variables, and whether they are likely to share the same genes, can be expressed in terms of a genetic correlation (r_g). These correlations estimate the degree to which the same genetic (or environmental) factors influence two variables and are more informative than characteristic correlations by isolating the source of the association.¹⁹ In other words, genetic correlations estimate overlap in genetic signal rather than all sources of variance and covariance.

Models were fit in OpenMx²² version 2.3.1 using full information maximum-likelihood that utilizes information from all cases regardless of missing data to yield less-biased estimates than list-wise or pair-wise deletion methods. Model fit was evaluated by comparing -2 times the natural log likelihood ($-2\ln L$) and Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), calculated as $\chi^2 - 2 \times df$, between nested models. Lower AIC values represent a better balance between goodness of fit and parsimony. In addition to determining the best model, the magnitude of A, C, and E can be estimated with 95% confidence intervals.

Results

7,079 twins completed questionnaires (67% response rate). The analytic dataset included 6,824 individuals with known zygosity; 6,156 with prostatitis data, and 4,680 members of complete pairs (1457 MZ pairs, 883 DZ pairs). Consistent with the Registry sample, participants were middle-aged (mean = 61.1 years, range 53–73), White (92.9%), and non-Hispanic (97%). Most were married or widowed (79.7%) and had completed an average 14.1 (SD = 2.2) years of education.

Prevalence and Correlations.

There were 168 cases with prostatitis for a prevalence of 2.7% (Table 1). Prevalence rates did not vary across zygosity (all $p > 0.05$). Positive correlations were observed, particularly prostatitis with enlarged prostate/BPH ($r = 0.61$; 95% CI: 0.55; 0.67).

Biometric Modeling.

Multivariate model fitting results are reported in Table 2. Our baseline model was the ACE Cholesky decomposition (standardized variance components and correlations are presented in Supplemental Table 1). There was no significant loss in fit between the independent pathway model (Supplemental Figure 2) and the Cholesky. The common pathway model also did not produce a decrease in fit compared to the independent pathway model. This model is consistent with the hypothesis that a single latent factor accounts for the close relationship of prostatitis with the other conditions. The common pathway model was further reduced by removing insignificant paths including the shared environmental influence on the common factor, the specific shared environmental influences on prostatitis and bladder problems, and the specific genetic influence on bladder problems and enlarged prostate/BPH. The reduced common factor model (Table 2, model 4) produced the lowest AIC, suggesting an optimal balance between model fit and parsimony.

Overall variance component estimates from the best-fitting reduced common pathway model showed that all four conditions had significant genetic influences with heritabilities ranging from $h^2 = 0.19$ for bladder problems to $h^2 = 0.42$ for CaP (Table 3). Shared environmental influences were significant for enlarged prostate/BPH ($c^2 = 0.10$) and CaP ($c^2 = 0.12$). The remaining variance for each condition was due to non-shared environmental influences.

The strongest genetic correlation was between enlarged prostate/BPH and bladder problems $r_g = 0.99$ (95% CI: 0.99, .99, Table 4). Genetic correlations among prostatitis, bladder problems, and enlarged prostate/BPH were all positive and high ($r_g = 0.87$ to 0.99), while the genetic correlations between CaP and the other conditions were lower (0.48 to 0.55). No

shared environmental correlation was observed. Non- shared environmental correlations ranged from $r_e = 0.39$ (0.35; 0.50) for CaP and bladder problems to $r_e = 0.54$ (95% CI: 0.50, 0.66) for enlarged prostate/BPH and prostatitis.

The reduced common pathway model (Figure 1) found that genetic influences account for 40% of the variance in the common factor with non-shared environmental influences accounting for 60%. The common factor accounted for 69% (obtained by squaring the path: $0.83 \times 0.83 = 0.69 \times 100\% = 69\%$) of the variance in prostatitis, 52% in enlarged prostate/BPH, 49% in bladder problems, and 33% in CaP. Trait-specific genetic variance ranged from 28% for CaP (obtained by squaring the specific genetic path: $0.53 \times 0.53 = 0.28 \times 100\% = 28\%$) to 0% for bladder problems and enlarged prostate/BPH. Trait-specific shared environmental influences ranged from 12% for CaP to 0% for enlarged prostate/BPH and bladder problems, and trait specific non-shared environmental influences ranged from 52% for bladder problems to 23% for prostatitis.

Comment

We used a classical twin design with multivariate genetic analyses to explore the genetic and environmental sources of overlap among prostatitis and urinary conditions. Though these conditions frequently co-occur, a biometric evaluation of the common and unique etiology responsible for this association has not been previously conducted. The level of comorbidity in our data is consistent with existing research on the relationship of prostatitis and other conditions⁹. Supporting our hypotheses, each condition was moderately heritable (19–42%), consistent with previous estimates.¹¹¹² The covariation among the conditions was primarily due to genetic factors, with non-shared environmental factors making smaller but meaningful contributions.

Most importantly, our biometric analyses support the hypothesis that prostatitis, bladder problems, enlarged prostate/BPH, and CaP are in part different expressions of a single underlying pathology that is genetically influenced. Sizable genetic correlations indicate that the same set of genetic factors contribute to expression of the four diagnoses, suggesting they are not simply related, but instead manifestations of the same underlying genetic and environmental influences. Together, our findings support theories of a common biological etiology.

Previous research proposed several etiological risk factors that may account for our findings. Inflammatory processes, for example, have been implicated in both CP/CPPS⁸ and regulation of cellular events in CaP.²³ Post-infection inflammation may contribute to the development of BPH in the presence of androgen dysfunction²⁴, a finding in line with the association of androgen signaling gene polymorphisms with risk of CaP and BPH.²⁵ Obesity has been shown to increase the risk of CaP²⁶ and BPH²⁷ but not CP/CPPS.²⁸ Though infectious pathogens have been linked with CaP, efforts to identify potential microbiome differences in CP/CPPS are ongoing and inconclusive²⁹. The biometric analyses conducted in this study distinguish between the influence of genetic and environmental factors (such as environmental trauma, deployment, and pathogen exposure) to the development of these conditions, and this influence is captured by the estimates of non-shared environmental

influence (e^2). Further investigation could evaluate the nature of these environmental factors (similarly, specific genetic variants) and explore the genetic-environmental interplay in the development of these conditions. Taken together with our current findings, these observations highlight the need for future studies to determine etiological overlap and common pathogenetic mechanisms among these conditions.

We found that although CaP is associated with the other conditions, a sizable amount of variance in CaP is independent of the common factor. Thus, CaP appears to show less genetic and environmental overlap with other conditions; while shared etiology is present, unique genetic and environmental factors (independent of prostatitis, BPH, enlarged prostate, and bladder problems) also contribute to CaP etiology. Specific gene variants, oxidative stress, diet, hormones, infection, and exposure to environmental agents have been linked to CaP.³⁰ While we tested various models to clarify sources of co-occurrence among these urinary conditions, different models may also further illuminate these relationships. For example, future models may incorporate possible causal influences between prostatitis and CaP. Based on our findings, exploring the differential impact of these potential causes on CaP is advised.

This study has important limitations. Not all of these conditions can be considered equivalent in terms of the ease with which they can be diagnosed, and some, like bladder problems could capture conditions of multiple etiologies. Use of self-reported diagnoses may have led to low prevalence estimates for prostatitis, a particularly difficult condition to diagnose. Despite this, overall prevalence and heritability estimates are consistent with previous studies suggesting that our data are representative.²⁸ Twins in this sample were, on average, 61 years old and may not have passed through the risk period for prostatitis, which becomes more prevalent with age⁹. Thus, comorbidity and prevalence may increase with time. While receiving specialized care following an initial urinary diagnosis may slightly increase the rates of comorbidity among these conditions, it is not likely to inflate the genetic relationship and genetic correlations among them. We lacked longitudinal data that would give us the natural history and progression of these conditions and further inform the nature of the comorbidity relationship. Future studies may want to validate our findings with confirmed diagnostic data and examine the association of prostatitis and other urinary conditions over time, and in the context of severity and treatment. Evaluating age of diagnosis across twins would also be helpful in understanding the development of these conditions. Despite these limitations, use of this genetically-informative sample and robust statistical approaches substantially extends the work to date by examining the sources of variance and etiology in these important urological conditions.

Conclusions

In summary, we identified a common, genetically-influenced factor that accounts for much of the comorbidity among these conditions. Along with genetic influences, non-shared environmental factors also make a significant contribution. Because our results suggest the presence of common etiological influences, further research should focus on identifying explanations for this common cause and sources of unique etiology. Further biometric and molecular genetic research can target common biological mechanisms, explore changes in

genetic influences over the life course, and the interplay of genetic and environmental factors. Understanding the nature of this common etiology may have implications for diagnosing and treating prostatitis and other urological conditions.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

Funding for the MAPP Research Network was obtained under a cooperative agreement from National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases (NIDDK), National Institutes of Health (NIH) (U01 DK082325). The Cooperative Studies Program of the Office of Research and Development, Clinical Science Research and Development, of the United States Department of Veterans Affairs provided financial support for Cooperative Study #569 and the development and maintenance of the Vietnam Era Twin (VET) Registry. In addition, this work was supported in part by National Institute on Aging K08 AG047903. The authors gratefully acknowledge the continued cooperation and participation of the members of the VET Registry; without their contribution, this research would not have been possible. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not reflect the official policy or position of NIDDK, Department of Veterans Affairs, the United States Government, or any institution with which the authors are affiliated.

References

1. Schaeffer AJ, et al., Demographic and clinical characteristics of men with chronic prostatitis: the national institutes of health chronic prostatitis cohort study. *J Urol*, 2002 168(2): p. 593–8. [PubMed: 12131316]
2. Krieger JN, et al., Epidemiology of prostatitis: new evidence for a world-wide problem. *World J Urol*, 2003 21(2): p. 70–4. [PubMed: 12712363]
3. Suskind AM, et al., The prevalence and overlap of interstitial cystitis/bladder pain syndrome and chronic prostatitis/chronic pelvic pain syndrome in men: results of the RAND Interstitial Cystitis Epidemiology male study. *The Journal of urology*, 2013 189(1): p. 141–145. [PubMed: 23164386]
4. Walz J, et al., Impact of chronic prostatitis-like symptoms on the quality of life in a large group of men. *BJU Int*, 2007 100(6): p. 1307–11. [PubMed: 17941922]
5. McNaughton Collins M, et al., Quality of life is impaired in men with chronic prostatitis: the Chronic Prostatitis Collaborative Research Network. *J Gen Intern Med*, 2001 16(10): p. 656–62. [PubMed: 11679032]
6. Wenninger K, et al., Sickness impact of chronic nonbacterial prostatitis and its correlates. *J Urol*, 1996 155(3): p. 965–8. [PubMed: 8583619]
7. Jackson CM, et al., Strain-specific induction of experimental autoimmune prostatitis (EAP) in mice. *The Prostate*, 2013 73(6): p. 651–656. [PubMed: 23129407]
8. Nickel JC, et al., Chronic prostate inflammation predicts symptom progression in patients with chronic prostatitis/chronic pelvic pain. *The Journal of Urology*, 2017 198(1): p. 122–128. [PubMed: 28089730]
9. Krieger JN, et al., Epidemiology of prostatitis. *International journal of antimicrobial agents*, 2008 31: p. 85–90.
10. Rodríguez MÁB, Afari N, and Buchwald DS, Evidence for overlap between urological and nonurological unexplained clinical conditions. *The Journal of urology*, 2009 182(5): p. 2123–2131. [PubMed: 19758633]
11. Hjelmborg JB, et al., The heritability of prostate cancer in the Nordic Twin Study of Cancer. *Cancer Epidemiology and Prevention Biomarkers*, 2014 23(11): p. 2303–2310.
12. Afari N, et al., Heritability of lower urinary tract symptoms in men: a twin study. *The Journal of urology*, 2016 196(5): p. 1486–1492. [PubMed: 27312318]

13. Gasperi M, et al., Chronic prostatitis and comorbid non-urolological overlapping pain conditions: A co-twin control study. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 2017 102: p. 29–33. [PubMed: 28992894]
14. Goldberg J, et al., The Vietnam Era Twin Registry. *Twin Res*, 2002 5(5): p. 476–81. [PubMed: 12537880]
15. Tsai M, et al., The Vietnam Era Twin Registry: a quarter century of progress. *Twin Research and Human Genetics*, 2013 16(01): p. 429–436. [PubMed: 23177374]
16. Landis JR, et al., The MAPP research network: design, patient characterization and operations. *BMC urology*, 2014 14(1): p. 1. [PubMed: 24383457]
17. Forsberg CW, et al., Determining zygosity in the Vietnam era twin registry: an update. *Twin Research and Human Genetics*, 2010 13(05): p. 461–464. [PubMed: 20874468]
18. Holt JD, et al., Common questions about chronic prostatitis. *American family physician*, 2016 93(4).
19. Neale MC and Maes HHM, *Methodology for genetic studies of twins and families*. 2004, Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publisher.
20. Martin NG and Eaves LJ, The genetical analysis of covariance structure. *Heredity*, 1977 38(1): p. 79–95. [PubMed: 268313]
21. McArdle J and Goldsmith H, Alternative common factor models for multivariate biometric analyses. *Behavior Genetics*, 1990 20(5): p. 569–608. [PubMed: 2288547]
22. Neale MC, et al., OpenMx 2.0: Extended Structural Equation and Statistical Modeling. *Psychometrika*, 2016 81(2): p. 535–549. [PubMed: 25622929]
23. Taverna G, et al., Inflammation and prostate cancer: friends or foe? *Inflammation Research*, 2015 64(5): p. 275–286. [PubMed: 25788425]
24. Vignozzi L, et al., Benign prostatic hyperplasia: a new metabolic disease? *Journal of endocrinological investigation*, 2014 37(4): p. 313–322. [PubMed: 24458832]
25. Soni A, et al., Association of androgen receptor, prostate-specific antigen, and CYP19 gene polymorphisms with prostate carcinoma and benign prostatic hyperplasia in a north Indian population. *Genetic testing and molecular biomarkers*, 2012 16(8): p. 835–840. [PubMed: 22731640]
26. Allott EH, Masko EM, and Freedland SJ, Obesity and prostate cancer: weighing the evidence. *European urology*, 2013 63(5): p. 800–809. [PubMed: 23219374]
27. Parsons JK, et al., Obesity and benign prostatic hyperplasia: clinical connections, emerging etiological paradigms and future directions. *The Journal of urology*, 2013 189(1): p. S102–S106. [PubMed: 23234610]
28. Zhang R, et al., Lifestyle and risk of chronic prostatitis/chronic pelvic pain syndrome in a cohort of United States male health professionals. *The Journal of urology*, 2015 194(5): p. 1295–1300. [PubMed: 26070893]
29. Nickel JC, Is chronic prostatitis/chronic pelvic pain syndrome an infectious disease of the prostate? *Investigative and clinical urology*, 2017 58(3): p. 149–151. [PubMed: 28480339]
30. Bostwick DG, et al., Human prostate cancer risk factors. *Cancer*, 2004 101(S10): p. 2371–2490. [PubMed: 15495199]
31. Vaarala MH, et al., Prostate cancer incidence in men with self-reported prostatitis after 15 years of follow-up. *Oncology letters*, 2016 12(2): p. 1149–1153. [PubMed: 27446410]

Figure 1. Reduced Common Pathway Model path diagram with standardized path coefficients (95% confidence intervals). Variance components presented in bold.

Table 1:

Life-time Prevalence of Self-Reported, Physician-Diagnosed Urinary Conditions and Tetrachoric Correlations (Bootstrapped 95% Confidence Intervals).

Diagnosis	Prevalence (N=6,824)	Prostatitis	Bladder Problems	Enlarged Prostate Cancer	Prostate/BPH
Prostatitis	2.7%	1			
Bladder Problems	8.2%	0.53 (0.47; 0.60) n=6132	1		
Enlarged Prostate/BPH	18.8%	0.61 (0.55; 0.67) n=6150	0.50 (0.46; 0.55) n=6145	1	
Prostate Cancer	4.9%	0.52 (0.43; 0.60) n=6147	0.44 (0.36; 0.51) n=6150	0.37 (0.31; 0.42) n=6162	1

Note: BPH = benign prostatic hyperplasia. All correlations significant at $p < .001$.

Table 2:

Comparative Model Fit

Model	−2lnL	Df	AIC	−2lnL	df	P
1 Cholesky ACE Decomposition	8566.51	17036	−25505.49	-	-	-
2 Independent Pathway	8572.21	17042	−25511.79	5.7	6	0.4576
3 Common Pathway	8576.29	17048	−25519.71	9.78	12	0.6354
4 Common Pathway Reduced	8576.49	17053	−25529.51	9.98	17	0.9044

Note: Best-fitting model in bold.; lnL = log-likelihood; df = degrees of freedom; AIC = Akaike information criterion; −2LL and df are relative to the Cholesky Decomposition.

Table 3:

Standardized Variance Components Estimates from the Best-Fitting Reduced Common Pathway Model.

Component	a^2	c^2	e^2
Prostatitis	0.36 (0.33; 0.54)	-	0.64 (0.50; 0.81)
Bladder Problems	0.19 (0.17; 0.21)	-	0.81 (0.79; 0.87)
Enlarged Prostate/BPH	0.20 (0.13; 0.27)	0.10 (0.09; 0.16)	0.70 (0.61; 0.78)
Prostate Cancer	0.42 (0.09; 0.65)	0.12 (0.12; 0.45)	0.47 (0.35; 0.61)

Note: BPH = benign prostatic hyperplasia; a^2 = genetic variance; c^2 =shared environmental variance, e^2 = non-shared environmental variance. 95% confidence intervals are presented in the parentheses. Results are derived from the multivariate reduced common pathway model.

Table 4:

Genetic and Environmental Correlations (95% Confidence Intervals) from Best-Fitting Reduced Common Factor Model.

Component	Prostatitis	Bladder Problems	Enlarged Prostate/BPH
Genetic Influences			
Prostatitis	-		
Bladder Problems	0.87 (0.72; 0.90)	-	
Enlarged Prostate/BPH	0.87 (0.67; 0.91)	0.99 (0.99; 0.99)	-
Prostate Cancer	0.48 (0.33; 0.99)	0.55 (0.38; 0.58)	0.55 (0.49; 0.72)
Non-Shared Environmental Influences			
Prostatitis	-		
Bladder Problems	0.48 (0.46; 0.51)	-	
Enlarged Prostate/BPH	0.54 (0.50; 0.66)	0.41 (0.35; 0.41)	-
Prostate Cancer	0.52 (0.48; 0.67)	0.39 (0.35; 0.50)	0.43 (0.39; 0.54)

Note: BPH = benign prostatic hyperplasia. Results are derived from the multivariate reduced common pathway model.