

RESEARCH

Open Access



The associations between serum carotenoids and hyperuricemia among U.S. National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey

Hong He^{1†}, Ping Li^{2†}, Haokun Huang³, Yanlin Zeng¹, Min Zhang¹, Zhibing Chen⁴, Shiqi Huang³, Fangfang Zeng³ and Hui Ge^{1*}

Abstract

Background Hyperuricemia is a risk factor for various metabolic disorders. We aimed to investigate the association between serum carotenoid levels and hyperuricemia using data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES).

Methods We conducted a cross-sectional analysis utilizing data from three specific NHANES cycles (2003–2004, 2005–2006, 2017–2018), containing the most complete serum carotenoid data from 12,253 participants aged 20 years and older. Serum carotenoids were quantified using high-performance liquid chromatography, while hyperuricemia was defined as serum uric acid levels $\geq 416 \mu\text{mol/L}$ (7.0 mg/dL) in men and $\geq 357 \mu\text{mol/L}$ (6.0 mg/dL) in women. Multivariable logistic regression models were employed to assess the relationship between carotenoids and hyperuricemia.

Results The mean age of participants was 50.1 ± 18.7 years, with a hyperuricemia prevalence of 20.5%. Higher serum carotenoids were associated with a lower prevalence of hyperuricemia, with each 1-unit increase in total carotenoids being inversely associated with hyperuricemia (odds ratio [OR] = 0.77, 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.72–0.82) in multivariable analyses. Compared to participants with the lowest quartile, reduced ORs for hyperuricemia odds were observed for those with the highest quartile for total carotenoids (0.55 [0.47–0.64]), α -carotene (0.60 [0.52–0.71]), β -carotene (0.56 [0.48–0.65]), β -cryptoxanthin (0.58 [0.49–0.67]), trans-lycopene (0.75 [0.65–0.87]), cis-lycopene (0.83 [0.65–1.06]), total-lycopene (0.75 [0.64–0.87]), and lutein + zeaxanthin (0.66 [0.57–0.77]). Subgroup analyses indicated stronger associations among younger individuals, women, and those without any history of diabetes or cardiovascular disease.

Conclusions Higher serum carotenoid levels are associated with reduced odds of hyperuricemia. These results underscore the potential role of carotenoids in managing hyperuricemia and its related health complications.

Keywords Hyperuricemia, Serum carotenoids, NHANES

[†]Hong He and Ping Li contributed equally to this work.

*Correspondence:

Hui Ge

geh@mail.sysu.edu.cn

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2025. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

Introduction

Hyperuricemia (HUA) was defined as the overproduction or impaired excretion of uric acid (UA) in the blood [1], being defined by a UA > 7 mg/dL (> 420 μ M) in men and > 6 mg/dL (> 360 μ M) in women [2]. According to the previous National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) report, the prevalence of HUA in the U.S. more than doubled between 1960 and 1990 and continued to increase afterward, reaching 20.1% (95% confidence interval [CI] 17.8%–22.4%) and affecting 47.13 millions of U.S. adults during 2015–2016 [3]. Epidemiological evidence has indicated that HUA is not only the most important risk factor for the development of gout [4], but also associated with various diseases, including cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) [5, 6], chronic kidney disease [7], metabolic syndrome or hypertension [8], as well as worsen prognosis in patients with myocardial infarction [9], non-alcoholic fatty liver disease [10]. This highlights the need for strategies controlling HUA and alleviating its relevant disease burden.

The process, by which UA is formed, is caused by the breakdown of purine nucleotides, which come from both internal sources and diet [6]. In particular, nutritional epidemiological evidence has indicated that diet could be one of the cost-effective factors that could be used to control HUA [11]. On the one hand, nutrient patterns that are characterized by high purine levels obtained from purine-rich foods, high fat, and low vitamin levels were positively associated with the risk of HUA [12, 13]. On the other hand, the serum UA was found to be negatively associated with plant-based diet patterns, which are rich in carbohydrates, calcium, and vitamin B2 [14], as well as total and cereal fiber [15–17].

Carotenoids are oil-soluble natural plant pigments, and the dietary intakes of certain fruits and vegetables are good predictors of blood concentrations of carotenoids [18]. However, serum carotenoids had stronger and more linear inverse associations with diseases, compared to dietary intakes of carotenoids [19]. Six carotenoids are commonly found in human serum, including lutein, zeaxanthin, β -carotene, α -carotene, β -cryptoxanthin, and lycopene [20]. There is epidemiological evidence supporting the beneficial health effects of various serum carotenoids. A study in Italy revealed inverse associations between serum UA and serum carotenoids, including α -carotene (regression coefficient $\beta = -0.04$), lutein ($\beta = -0.04$), zeaxanthin ($\beta = -0.06$), and lycopene ($\beta = -0.03$) [21]. In addition, higher serum carotenoids were associated with lower metabolic syndrome (MetS) risk [22], which is closely related to the development of HUA [23]. Some studies consistently yielded evidence supporting that circulating UA level or HUA risk may be negatively associated with specific serum levels of

β -carotene [24, 25] or retinol [26]. Carotenoids have the antioxidative properties and capacity to scavenge reactive oxygen species [19]. In detail, as one of the natural carotenoids, lycopene can lower the blood urea nitrogen level and UA in mice with Di (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate-induced renal tubular cell and glomerular damage by mediating the aromatic hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) and AhR nuclear transporter signalling system [27]. However, limited research unveiled the potential health effects of other commonly measured carotenoids on serum UA or HUA risk.

Using the data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), the primary objective of our study is to investigate whether various serum carotenoids are associated with HUA in U.S. adults. Our findings might provide large-scale epidemiological evidence to emphasize the roles of carotenoids in HUA prevention and management.

Materials and methods

Study population

This population-based cross-sectional study used data from the NHANES, a nationally representative survey conducted by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) to assess the health and nutritional status of the non-institutionalized U.S. population. NHANES employs a complex, multistage, stratified probability sampling design to ensure national representation and that the data are released in biennial cycles. For this study, we extracted data from three independent NHANES waves (2003–2004, 2005–2006, 2017–2018), which included the most complete data on serum carotenoids of interest, detailed demographic information, physical examination, and other laboratory results.

The NHANES protocol was approved by the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS) Ethics Review Board, and written informed consent was obtained from all participants before they were included in the survey. The study followed the guiding principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. Full details of the NHANES research protocol and data collection methodology are available on the NCHS website (<https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/index.htm>).

The initial dataset included 29,732 participants. For this study, we excluded participants under 20 years of age ($n = 14,134$), those with missing data on serum carotenoids ($n = 1,577$), and those with missing HUA status ($n = 1,759$). The final analytical sample size was 12,253 (Fig. 1).

Serum carotenoids measurement

Serum levels of different carotenoids, including α -carotene, β -carotene, lutein/zeaxanthin, trans-lycopene, cis-lycopene,

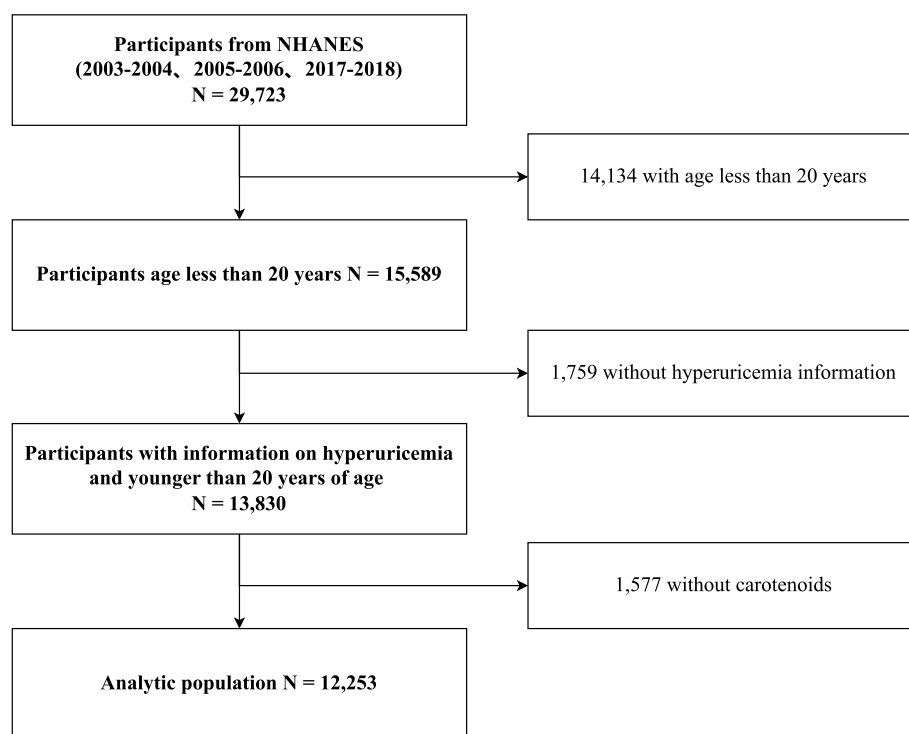


Fig. 1 Study profile

and β -cryptoxanthin, were quantified using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) with multi-wavelength photodiode-array absorbance detection. The laboratory procedures and quality control methods for serum carotenoid measurements have been described previously [28]. The total β -carotene level was calculated as the sum of the cis- β -carotene and trans- β -carotene levels. Total carotenoids were derived by summing the serum concentrations of α -carotene, β -carotene, lutein, zeaxanthin, trans-lycopene, cis-lycopene, and β -cryptoxanthin.

Definition and measurement of HUA

HUA was defined based on serum UA levels, which were measured on a Beckman Synchron LX20 (Beckman Coulter, Inc., Brea, CA) using a colorimetric method. All measurements were conducted following NHANES quality assurance and control procedures. HUA was defined as serum UA levels $\geq 416 \mu\text{mol/L}$ (7.0 mg/dl) in men and $\geq 357 \mu\text{mol/L}$ (6.0 mg/dl) in women [29].

Covariates

Several covariates were selected and included in the analysis to account for potential confounding effects. During the NHANES interview portion, demographic information was collected, including age, gender, race/ethnicity (Hispanics, non-Hispanic Whites, non-Hispanic Blacks, and other races), education level (less than high school,

high school graduate, and more than high school), marital status, smoking and alcohol drinking status, and poverty ratio to income (PIR), with a PIR of 1 or below indicating relative poverty. The study also used data on lifestyle factors (smoking status and alcohol consumption) and anthropometric measurements. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated by dividing weight in kilograms by height in meters squared (kg/m^2). We also used laboratory data including creatinine, triglycerides, and total cholesterol because HUA can significantly impair kidney function and lipids [30, 31]. The estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) was calculated using the four-variable modification of diet in renal disease (MDRD) equation. Given that HUA is significantly associated with hypertension, diabetes, and CVDs [24–26], the comorbidities of these diseases were also included in the analysis.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were conducted using R version 4.2.3. All P values were two-sided and statistical significance was determined at a $P < 0.05$ level. All analyses were conducted following NHANES analytical guidelines to enhance data accuracy and account for the complexities of the multi-stage sampling design employed in the NHANES (<https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/tutorials/weighting.aspx>). Sample weights, strata, and primary sampling units (PSUs) were incorporated into all analyses

to ensure nationally representative estimates of the U.S. population. In detail, the base weight was computed accounting for the unequal probabilities of selection given that some demographic groups were over-sampled; PSU-level adjustment factors were applied to participant base weights to equalize the contribution of each stratum to the overall survey sample; the weights for interviews and examinations were calculated using the adjusted base weights. The sample weights for combining three survey cycles (2003–2004, 2005–2006, 2017–2018) were calculated by a constant equal to $(1 / \text{number of survey cycles})$.

Participants were stratified into quartiles based on the total or individual serum carotenoids. Descriptive statistics for continuous variables were expressed as the unweighted means \pm standard deviations (SDs) or medians and interquartile ranges (IQRs), while the categorical variables were denoted as unweighted counts and percentages. The one-way ANOVA (normally distributed) test, Kruskal–Wallis test (skewed distributed), and chi-square test were used in the comparative analysis of the baseline characteristics by quartiles. The multiple imputation was carried out using the MICE R package for covariables with minor missing data.

The multivariable logistic regression models with appropriate sample weight, cluster, and strata were used to evaluate the association between total or individual serum carotenoids and HUA odds. By treating the quartiles (Q1–Q4) as categorical variables in the model, we estimated the odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for each quartile compared to the reference quartile using the lowest serum carotenoids (Q1) as a reference group. Moreover, we investigated whether HUA was associated with total or individual serum carotenoids per 1 unit increase. Regression models were constructed in three models: model 1 is the crude model without adjustment; model 2 adjusted for age, sex, race/ethnicity; model 3 additionally adjusted for education level, family monthly poverty levels, drinking, smoking, BMI, hypertension, CVDs, diabetes, eGFR, triglycerides, and total cholesterol.

To further explore the nonlinear relationship and avoid overfitting, the restricted cubic spline (RCS) model with 3 knots located at the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles was used to examine the dose–response relationship in Model 3 using the R package “rms.” *P* values for nonlinearity were calculated using a Wald test. To assess the robustness of the findings, subgroup and interaction analyses were conducted by age (20–40, 40–59, ≥ 60 years), sex (men vs. women), race/ethnicity (Hispanic, non-Hispanic Whites, non-Hispanic Blacks, other races), educational levels (less than high school, high school graduate, more than high school), economic status (low, middle, high), BMI (< 25 kg/m², 25–30 kg/m², ≥ 30 kg/m²), smoking

(non-drinker, moderate drinker, heavy drinker), alcohol drinking (never, current, former), eGFR (< 60 , 60–90, and > 90 mL/min/1.73 m²), history of HBP (no vs. yes), history of DM (no vs. yes) and history of CVDs (no vs. yes).

Results

Baseline characteristics

The demographic and clinical characteristics of the study population are summarized in Table 1. The mean age of them was 50.1 ± 18.7 years, with 51.9% of them being women. Overall, 2,482 (20.5%) participants had a prevalent HUA. Compared to participants in the lowest serum carotenoids (Q1) group, those in the higher carotenoids quartiles had a relatively lower prevalence of HUA (Q1: 27.2%; Q2: 21.6%; Q3: 18.6%; Q4: 14.8%, $P < 0.001$). In addition, participants with higher carotenoid quartiles were more likely to be younger, female, Hispanic, higher levels of education, higher family PIR, no smoker, moderate or heavy drinker, higher TC and eGFR, were less likely to have any history of hypertension, diabetes, and CVDs, but lower BMI, than those in the lower carotenoid quartile (all $P < 0.05$).

The serum concentration of total carotenoids was 1.543 (1.121, 2.089) $\mu\text{mol/L}$ and the distributions of total and individual carotenoids are shown in Table 2.

The associations between serum carotenoids and HUA

Logistic regression results showed that total carotenoids and most of the individual serum carotenoids were negatively associated with the odds of HUA (Table 3). In the continuous model, aside from Cis-lycopene, strong negative associations of HUA with total and all individual serum carotenoids were observed in models 1 to 3. The maximally adjusted ORs and 95%CIs for per 1 unit increase were 0.77 (0.72, 0.82) for total carotenoids, 0.33 (0.19, 0.56) for α -carotene, 0.64 (0.55, 0.74) for β -carotene, 0.27 (0.18, 0.39) for β -cryptoxanthin, 0.60 (0.46, 0.78) for trans-lycopene, 0.75 (0.65, 0.87) for total-lycopene, 0.40 (0.29, 0.54) for lutein + zeaxanthin, respectively.

In particular, similar findings were observed in the categorical model, in which total and individual serum carotenoids were divided into quartiles, thus confirming a stable, statistically significant inverse association between total or individual serum carotenoids and HUA prevalence. Compared with those in the lowest quartile (Q1), the maximally adjusted ORs and 95%CIs for the odds of HUA in the highest quartiles (Q4) were 0.55 (0.47, 0.64) for total carotenoids, 0.60 (0.52, 0.71) for α -carotene, 0.56 (0.48, 0.65) for β -carotene, 0.58 (0.49, 0.67) for β -cryptoxanthin, 0.75 (0.65, 0.87) for trans-lycopene, 0.75 (0.64, 0.87) for total-lycopene, 0.66 (0.57,

Table 1 Baseline characteristics of included participants

	Serum total carotenoids (nmol/L)					<i>P</i>
	Overall (<i>N</i> = 12,253)	Q1 (<i>N</i> = 3,064)	Q2 (<i>N</i> = 3,065)	Q3 (<i>N</i> = 3,061)	Q4 (<i>N</i> = 3,063)	
Hyperuricemia, n (%)	2482 (20.5)	822 (27.2)	652 (21.6)	562 (18.6)	446 (14.8)	< 0.001
Age, years (mean [SD])	50.2 (18.7)	52.5 (19.1)	49.2 (18.9)	48.4 (18.8)	50.8 (17.9)	< 0.001
Sex, n (%)						< 0.001
Men	5892 (48.1)	1558 (50.8)	1527 (49.8)	1504 (49.1)	1303 (42.5)	
Women	6361 (51.9)	1506 (49.2)	1538 (50.2)	1557 (50.9)	1760 (57.5)	
Races, n (%)						< 0.001
Hispanic	2830 (23.1)	582 (19.0)	727 (23.7)	768 (25.1)	753 (24.6)	
Non-Hispanic White	5729 (46.8)	1583 (51.7)	1449 (47.3)	1391 (45.4)	1306 (42.6)	
Non-Hispanic Black	2625 (21.4)	679 (22.2)	670 (21.9)	671 (21.9)	605 (19.8)	
Other races	1069 (8.7)	220 (7.2)	219 (7.1)	231 (7.5)	399 (13.0)	
Education level, n (%)						< 0.001
Below high school	1889 (15.4)	544 (17.8)	458 (14.9)	439 (14.3)	448 (14.6)	
High school	4227 (34.5)	1274 (41.6)	1145 (37.4)	999 (32.6)	809 (26.4)	
Above high school	6137 (50.1)	1246 (40.7)	1462 (47.7)	1623 (53.0)	1806 (59.0)	
Family PIR, n (%)						< 0.001
< 1	2598 (21.2)	774 (25.3)	688 (22.4)	607 (19.8)	529 (17.3)	
1 ~ 3	5129 (41.9)	1444 (47.1)	1332 (43.5)	1242 (40.6)	1111 (36.3)	
> 3	4526 (36.9)	846 (27.6)	1045 (34.1)	1212 (39.6)	1423 (46.5)	
BMI, kg/m² (mean [SD])	29.0 (6.8)	30.5 (8.1)	29.8 (7.0)	28.6 (6.0)	27.0 (5.0)	< 0.001
Smoking, n (%)						< 0.001
Never	6526 (53.3)	1292 (42.2)	1516 (49.5)	1722 (56.3)	1996 (65.2)	
Current	2548 (20.8)	962 (31.4)	746 (24.3)	540 (17.6)	300 (9.8)	
Former	3179 (25.9)	810 (26.4)	803 (26.2)	799 (26.1)	767 (25.0)	
Alcohol drinking, n (%)						< 0.001
Nondrinker	8774 (71.6)	2296 (74.9)	2187 (71.4)	2131 (69.6)	2160 (70.5)	
Moderate drinker	1846 (15.1)	364 (11.9)	455 (14.8)	492 (16.1)	535 (17.5)	
Heavy drinker	1633 (13.3)	404 (13.2)	423 (13.8)	438 (14.3)	368 (12.0)	
TG, mg/dL (mean [SD])	147.1 (124.8)	146.2 (118.4)	148.6 (115.6)	148.1 (144.0)	145.4 (119.2)	0.713
TC, mg/dL (mean [SD])	197.0 (43.4)	177.2 (40.1)	191.0 (37.5)	202.2 (40.7)	217.7 (44.4)	< 0.001
eGFR, mL/min per 1.73 m² (mean [SD])	75.8 (37.5)	72.6 (36.2)	75.1 (24.1)	77.8 (20.7)	79.8 (30.4)	< 0.001
History of HBP, n (%)	6619 (54.0)	1893 (61.8)	1691 (55.2)	1527 (49.9)	1508 (49.2)	< 0.001
History of DM, n (%)	1792 (14.6)	640 (20.9)	483 (15.8)	335 (10.9)	334 (10.9)	< 0.001
History of CVDs, n (%)	1046 (8.5)	345 (11.3)	258 (8.4)	221 (7.2)	222 (7.2)	< 0.001

Mean ± SD for normally distributed continuous variables and n (%) for categorical variables

Abbreviations: NHANES National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, Q quartile, SD standard deviation, PIR ratio of family income to poverty, BMI body mass index, DM diabetes mellitus, CVDs cardiovascular disease, TG triglycerides, TC total cholesterol, HBP hypertension

0.77) for lutein + zeaxanthin, respectively. By comparing the analysis results of the three circles, we found that the associations among the circles were generally consistent with the overall results, and no significant differences were observed (Table S1).

Furthermore, as depicted in Fig. 2, the RCS model demonstrated significant linear and nonlinear trends were observed for α -carotene and β -carotene (both $P < 0.001$), β -cryptoxanthin (P linear < 0.001 , P nonlinear = 0.008).

Only linear trends were observed for trans-lycopene, total-lycopene, lutein + zeaxanthin, and total carotenoids (all P linear < 0.001 and P nonlinear > 0.05).

Subgroup and interaction analyses

Participants were stratified according to different characteristics. As shown in Table 4, notable interactions were identified concerning age (P for interaction = 0.001), sex (P for interaction = 0.024), and history of DM and

Table 2 Distribution of different serum carotenoids

	Serum carotenoids (nmol/L)					P
	Overall (N = 12,253)	Q1 (N = 3,064)	Q2 (N = 3,065)	Q3 (N = 3,061)	Q4 (N = 3,063)	
Total carotenoids, umol/L (median [IQR])	1.543 (1.121, 2.089)	0.874 (0.701, 1.004)	1.334 (1.233, 1.441)	1.785 (1.657, 1.924)	2.611 (2.299, 3.175)	< 0.001
α-carotene, umol/L (median [IQR])	0.052 (0.026, 0.102)	0.023 (0.014, 0.038)	0.042 (0.025, 0.067)	0.065 (0.039, 0.102)	0.132 (0.078, 0.222)	< 0.001
β-carotene, umol/L (median [IQR])	0.246 (0.140, 0.452)	0.113 (0.076, 0.170)	0.195 (0.136, 0.287)	0.307 (0.208, 0.439)	0.654 (0.419, 0.994)	< 0.001
β-cryptoxanthin, umol/L (median [IQR])	0.136 (0.083, 0.227)	0.069 (0.047, 0.103)	0.114 (0.082, 0.168)	0.165 (0.116, 0.242)	0.261 (0.173, 0.414)	< 0.001
Trans-lycopene, umol/L (median [IQR])	0.371 (0.248, 0.514)	0.211 (0.143, 0.283)	0.357 (0.274, 0.443)	0.451 (0.343, 0.566)	0.540 (0.388, 0.710)	< 0.001
Cis-Lycopene, umol/L (median [IQR])	0.329 (0.220, 0.447)	0.187 (0.131, 0.247)	0.326 (0.252, 0.389)	0.407 (0.324, 0.496)	0.506 (0.364, 0.661)	< 0.001
Total-lycopene, umol/L (median [IQR])	0.697 (0.475, 0.957)	0.401 (0.278, 0.523)	0.673 (0.525, 0.810)	0.850 (0.663, 1.043)	1.039 (0.758, 1.349)	< 0.001
Lutein + zeaxanthin, umol/L (median [IQR])	0.272 (0.195, 0.385)	0.172 (0.133, 0.227)	0.243 (0.193, 0.306)	0.308 (0.244, 0.392)	0.434 (0.331, 0.572)	< 0.001

Abbreviations: Q quartile, IQR interquartile range

CVDs (both *P* for interaction < 0.001). Noteworthy, stronger protective effects against HUA were observed among younger individuals (Age 20–40 years: OR = 0.31; 40–59 years: OR = 0.45; 60 years and above: OR = 0.68) and women (OR = 0.46). Significant inverse associations were observed among those without any history of DM (OR = 0.43) or CVDs (OR = 0.48). No significant interactions were detected concerning other factors, such as race/ethnicity, education level, economic status, BMI, smoking, alcohol drinking, eGFR and history of HBP.

Discussion

In this nationwide cross-sectional study involving 12,253 U.S. adults, we observed the existence of significant associations between the serum concentrations of total carotenoids and their subtypes (α-carotene, β-carotene, β-cryptoxanthin, trans lycopene, total lycopene, and lutein+zeaxanthin) and the decreased odds of HUA. Besides, such associations appeared to be modified by age, sex, and pre-existing comorbidities, with the declined odds of HUA in response to increased total carotenoid levels being stronger among younger adults, women, and those without DM or CVDs.

Although the current studies directly explored the effect of serum carotenoids on HUA is limited, our findings of the inverse associations between serum carotenoids and UA align with previous studies. Of them, an early community-based cross-sectional study in Italy consistently reported that UA circulating levels were inversely associated with plasma antioxidants, including total carotenoids, α-carotene,

lycopene, lutein, and zeaxanthin [21]. Similarly, an early NHANES study consistently found that the serum UA level and the frequency of HUA decreased with increasing serum β-carotene level [24]. In addition, a cross-sectional study involving 32,365 adults in China reported that high dietary consumption of seaweeds, which is rich in carotenoids, was associated with lower odds of HUA [32]. Despite not being included in our study, there is supporting evidence regarding the protective effect against kidney damage associated with other carotenoids, including bixin [33] and astaxanthin [34], with inconsistent evidence coming for serum retinol [24, 26, 35, 36]. A variety of NHANES-based literature has assessed the beneficial health effects of carotenoids. Such as the inverse associations between total carotenoids or serum β-carotene and MetS [22, 37], as well as the inverse relationships between serum total carotenoids and non-MetS outcomes (HOMA-IR and C-reactive protein [CRP]) [38]. Furthermore, inverse associations of serum CRP or fibrinogen level with different serum carotenoids, including α-carotene, trans-β-carotene, cis-β-carotene, β-cryptoxanthin, combined lutein/zeaxanthin, trans-lycopene, were noticed in NHANES U.S. adults between 2001 and 2002 [39], highlighting the antioxidant properties of carotenoids. A limited amount of evidence exists, however, to compare the effects of different types of carotenoids. In other words, we may be able to obtain more robust results with our study than with studies that only focus on overall carotenoids or specific types of carotenoids due to the fact that we have larger sample sizes and a larger number of serum carotenoids of interest.

Table 3 Associations of serum total and individual carotenoids with hyperuricemia in the participants

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	OR (95%CI)	P	OR (95%CI)	P	OR (95%CI)	P
Total carotenoids						
Q1	Ref		Ref		Ref	
Q2	0.74 (0.65, 0.83)	< 0.001	0.79 (0.70, 0.89)	< 0.001	0.78 (0.69, 0.89)	< 0.001
Q3	0.61 (0.54, 0.69)	< 0.001	0.67 (0.59, 0.75)	< 0.001	0.72 (0.62, 0.82)	< 0.001
Q4	0.46 (0.41, 0.53)	< 0.001	0.47 (0.41, 0.54)	< 0.001	0.55 (0.47, 0.64)	< 0.001
For 1-unit increase	0.71 (0.67, 0.75)	< 0.001	0.71 (0.67, 0.75)	< 0.001	0.77 (0.72, 0.82)	< 0.001
α-carotene						
Q1	Ref		Ref		Ref	
Q2	0.84 (0.74, 0.94)	0.003	0.80 (0.71, 0.91)	< 0.001	0.85 (0.75, 0.97)	0.018
Q3	0.77 (0.68, 0.87)	< 0.001	0.70 (0.61, 0.79)	< 0.001	0.80 (0.70, 0.92)	0.002
Q4	0.51 (0.45, 0.58)	< 0.001	0.46 (0.40, 0.52)	< 0.001	0.60 (0.52, 0.71)	< 0.001
For 1-unit increase	0.13 (0.07, 0.21)	< 0.001	0.10 (0.05, 0.17)	< 0.001	0.33 (0.19, 0.56)	< 0.001
β-carotene						
Q1	Ref		Ref		Ref	
Q2	0.69 (0.61, 0.78)	< 0.001	0.64 (0.57, 0.72)	< 0.001	0.70 (0.61, 0.80)	< 0.001
Q3	0.69 (0.61, 0.77)	< 0.001	0.57 (0.51, 0.65)	< 0.001	0.67 (0.58, 0.77)	< 0.001
Q4	0.54 (0.48, 0.61)	< 0.001	0.40 (0.35, 0.45)	< 0.001	0.56 (0.48, 0.65)	< 0.001
For 1-unit increase	0.59 (0.52, 0.67)	< 0.001	0.44 (0.38, 0.51)	< 0.001	0.64 (0.55, 0.74)	< 0.001
β-cryptoxanthin						
Q1	Ref		Ref		Ref	
Q2	0.82 (0.73, 0.92)	< 0.001	0.86 (0.77, 0.97)	0.017	0.90 (0.79, 1.02)	0.099
Q3	0.66 (0.58, 0.74)	< 0.001	0.70 (0.62, 0.79)	< 0.001	0.78 (0.68, 0.89)	< 0.001
Q4	0.43 (0.38, 0.49)	< 0.001	0.46 (0.40, 0.53)	< 0.001	0.58 (0.49, 0.67)	< 0.001
For 1-unit increase	0.12 (0.08, 0.17)	< 0.001	0.15 (0.10, 0.21)	< 0.001	0.27 (0.18, 0.39)	< 0.001
Trans-lycopene						
Q1	Ref		Ref		Ref	
Q2	0.80 (0.71, 0.90)	< 0.001	0.96 (0.85, 1.09)	0.535	0.91 (0.80, 1.04)	0.185
Q3	0.73 (0.65, 0.83)	< 0.001	0.93 (0.82, 1.06)	0.28	0.91 (0.79, 1.04)	0.169
Q4	0.63 (0.55, 0.71)	< 0.001	0.81 (0.71, 0.93)	0.002	0.75 (0.65, 0.87)	< 0.001
For 1-unit increase	0.43 (0.34, 0.54)	< 0.001	0.70 (0.55, 0.88)	0.002	0.60 (0.46, 0.78)	< 0.001
Cis-lycopene						
Q1	Ref		Ref		Ref	
Q2	0.72 (0.58, 0.88)	0.001	0.89 (0.72, 1.09)	0.256	0.88 (0.70, 1.10)	0.259
Q3	0.75 (0.61, 0.92)	0.006	0.98 (0.79, 1.21)	0.829	0.98 (0.77, 1.23)	0.839
Q4	0.64 (0.52, 0.79)	< 0.001	0.81 (0.65, 1.01)	0.067	0.83 (0.65, 1.06)	0.138
For 1-unit increase	0.42 (0.27, 0.64)	< 0.001	0.68 (0.44, 1.05)	0.085	0.68 (0.41, 1.11)	0.127
Total-lycopene						
Q1	Ref		Ref		Ref	
Q2	0.82 (0.73, 0.92)	0.001	0.98 (0.87, 1.11)	0.767	0.94 (0.82, 1.07)	0.356
Q3	0.69 (0.61, 0.78)	< 0.001	0.87 (0.77, 0.99)	0.035	0.86 (0.75, 0.99)	0.030
Q4	0.62 (0.54, 0.70)	< 0.001	0.78 (0.69, 0.89)	< 0.001	0.75 (0.64, 0.87)	< 0.001
For 1-unit increase	0.63 (0.56, 0.71)	< 0.001	0.79 (0.70, 0.90)	< 0.001	0.75 (0.65, 0.87)	< 0.001
Lutein + zeaxanthin						
Q1	Ref		Ref		Ref	
Q2	0.81 (0.72, 0.91)	< 0.001	0.79 (0.70, 0.90)	< 0.001	0.87 (0.76, 0.99)	0.040
Q3	0.74 (0.65, 0.83)	< 0.001	0.70 (0.61, 0.79)	< 0.001	0.80 (0.69, 0.91)	0.001
Q4	0.63 (0.56, 0.71)	< 0.001	0.54 (0.47, 0.62)	< 0.001	0.66 (0.57, 0.77)	< 0.001
For 1-unit increase	0.37 (0.29, 0.49)	< 0.001	0.26 (0.20, 0.34)	< 0.001	0.40 (0.29, 0.54)	< 0.001

Model 1 was the crude model without adjustment; Model 2 adjusted for age, sex, and race; Model 3 additionally adjusted for education level, family monthly poverty levels, drinking, smoking, BMI, hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, eGFR, triglycerides, and total cholesterol.

Abbreviations: OR odds ratio, CI confidence interval, BMI body mass index, Q quartile

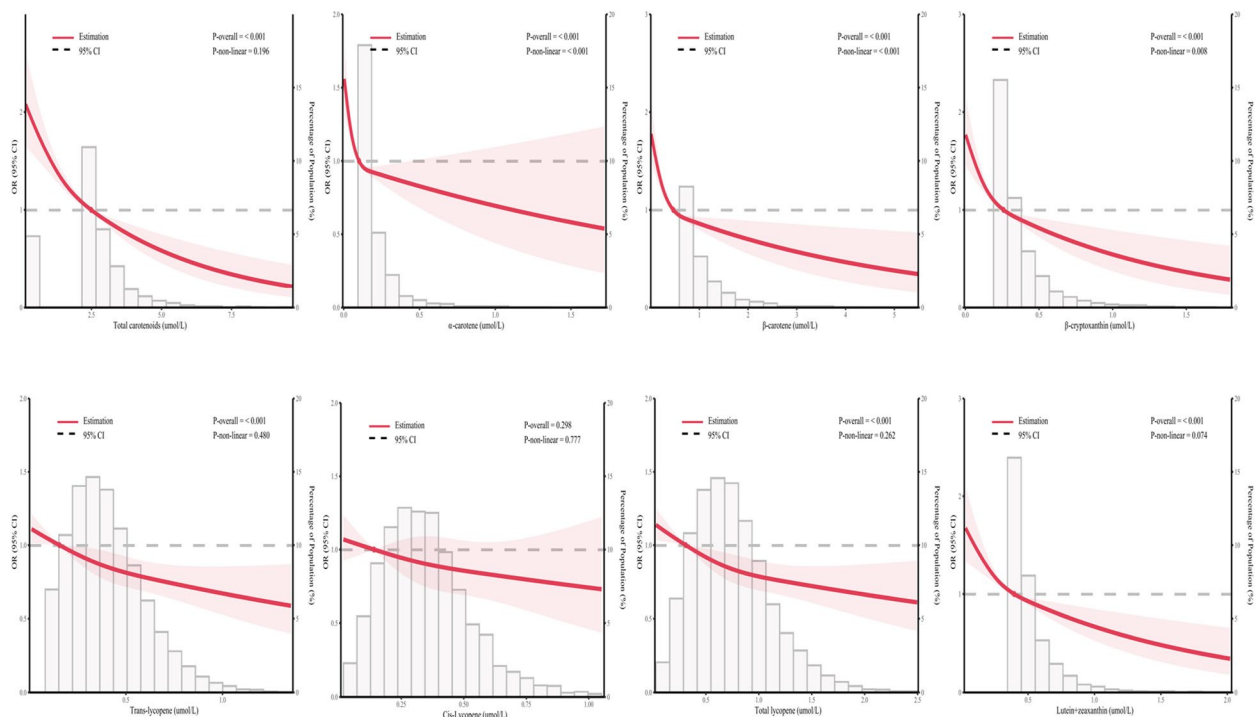


Fig. 2 The dose–response relationship between total or individual serum carotenoids and hyperuricemia

The specific biological mechanisms underlying the inverse association between serum carotenoids and the prevalence of HUA remain unclear. Several risk factors stimulate the development of HUA, including genetic and physiologic circumstances, renal disorders, lifestyle, and diet (consumption of purine-rich foods, soft drinks, fructose, and alcohol) [40]. As for lifestyle and diet, purines are derived from both endogenous and dietary sources in vivo, with dietary purine being primarily obtained from purine-fortified foods (e.g., meat, liver, anchovy, sardine, soybean, shiitake mushrooms) and alcoholic beverages [41]. Carotenoid concentrations in blood are biomarkers of fruit and vegetable intakes [42], suggesting that higher serum carotenoids are positively associated with the dietary intakes of carotenoids-enriched food. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the dietary purine might decrease as the dietary consumption of fruit and vegetables increases, which might further limit the synthesis of UA and the development of HUA. For physiologic circumstances, the major cause of HUA is a dysfunction of the enzyme xanthine oxidoreductase (XOD), which causes increased purine content in the body and facilitates the accumulation of UA in the serum and the HUA [23]. Despite not being included in our study due to data limitations, previous studies have unveiled the beneficial effect of other carotenoids on health status. For

instance, astaxanthin was proven to alleviate the ochratoxin A-induced renal oxidative stress in mice through the related nuclear factor erythroid 2 (NRF2)/Kelch-like ECH-associated protein (KEAP1) pathway [34]. According to a mice model, astaxanthin, a xanthophyll carotenoid, was demonstrated to help reduce UA synthesis by inhibiting the mRNA expressions and enzyme activities of XOD and adenosine deaminase (ADA), thereby contributing to the prevention of fructose-induced HUA [43]. In addition, bixin, a natural carotenoid extracted from the seeds of the Bixa Orellana, was also found to inhibit oxidative stress, inflammation, and fibrosis in the kidney by activating the NRF2 antioxidant system [33]. However, more studies are needed to clarify whether the antioxidant properties of carotenoids would potentially be responsible for their beneficial health effect on metabolites.

The stratified analyses indicated that the associations remained consistent in the majority of subgroups, except for the groups by age, sex, and pre-existing comorbidities. Their bioavailability primarily determines the serum levels of different carotenoids [44], which is primarily determined by carotenoids-related factors (carotenoid species) and host-related factors (sex, age, nutritional status, physiological/pathological condition, and genetic variations) [45, 46]. In particular, being in line with our findings regarding the sex difference, serum β -carotene

Table 4 Stratified analyses of the associations between serum levels of total carotenoids with hyperuricemia

	Total carotenoids concentrations				For 1-unit increase	P for interaction
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4		
Age, years						0.001
20–40	Ref	0.58 (0.45,0.75)	0.44 (0.33,0.58)	0.31 (0.22,0.43)	< 0.001	
40–59	Ref	0.69 (0.54,0.88)	0.69 (0.54,0.90)	0.45 (0.34,0.61)	< 0.001	
60 and above	Ref	0.91 (0.75,1.10)	0.77 (0.62,0.94)	0.68 (0.54,0.84)	< 0.001	
Sex						0.024
Men	Ref	0.79 (0.66,0.95)	0.62 (0.51,0.75)	0.58 (0.46,0.72)	< 0.001	
Women	Ref	0.71 (0.59,0.86)	0.69 (0.56,0.84)	0.46 (0.37,0.58)	< 0.001	
Races						0.699
Hispanic	Ref	0.66 (0.49,0.89)	0.56 (0.41,0.77)	0.35 (0.24,0.50)	< 0.001	
Non-Hispanic Whites	Ref	0.81 (0.67,0.98)	0.68 (0.56,0.84)	0.57 (0.45,0.71)	< 0.001	
Non-Hispanic Blacks	Ref	0.73 (0.56,0.95)	0.64 (0.49,0.85)	0.52 (0.37,0.71)	< 0.001	
Other races	Ref	0.73 (0.46,1.16)	0.67 (0.41,1.08)	0.59 (0.36,0.96)	0.029	
Education						0.102
Less than high school	Ref	0.81 (0.59,1.12)	0.64 (0.45,0.91)	0.41 (0.28,0.62)	< 0.001	
High school diploma	Ref	0.83 (0.67,1.02)	0.67 (0.53,0.84)	0.66 (0.51,0.86)	< 0.001	
More than high school	Ref	0.69 (0.57,0.84)	0.65 (0.53,0.79)	0.48 (0.39,0.60)	< 0.001	
Economic status						0.143
Low	Ref	0.78 (0.60,1.02)	0.61 (0.45,0.82)	0.46 (0.33,0.65)	< 0.001	
Middle	Ref	0.85 (0.70,1.03)	0.73 (0.59,0.90)	0.64 (0.50,0.82)	< 0.001	
High	Ref	0.64 (0.51,0.80)	0.59 (0.47,0.74)	0.42 (0.33,0.55)	< 0.001	
Drinking						0.929
Nondrinker	Ref	0.79 (0.68,0.92)	0.70 (0.60,0.83)	0.55 (0.46,0.66)	< 0.001	
Moderate drinker	Ref	0.73 (0.51,1.05)	0.63 (0.43,0.92)	0.44 (0.29,0.68)	< 0.001	
Heavy drinker	Ref	0.57 (0.40,0.81)	0.39 (0.27,0.57)	0.42 (0.28,0.65)	< 0.001	
BMI, kg/m²						0.700
< 25	Ref	0.78 (0.56,1.09)	0.69 (0.49,0.97)	0.62 (0.44,0.89)	0.004	
25–30	Ref	0.72 (0.56,0.91)	0.62 (0.49,0.79)	0.48 (0.36,0.63)	< 0.001	
> 30	Ref	0.78 (0.65,0.92)	0.68 (0.56,0.82)	0.51 (0.41,0.65)	< 0.001	
Smoking						0.108
Never	Ref	0.77 (0.64,0.92)	0.61 (0.50,0.74)	0.44 (0.36,0.55)	< 0.001	
Current	Ref	0.82 (0.62,1.08)	0.72 (0.52,1.00)	0.66 (0.43,1.01)	0.010	
Former	Ref	0.69 (0.54,0.87)	0.67 (0.53,0.87)	0.60 (0.45,0.79)	< 0.001	
eGFR, mL/min per 1.73 m²						0.289
< 60	Ref	0.83 (0.60,1.16)	0.72 (0.51,1.08)	0.67(0.36,1.00)	0.012	
60 ~ 90	Ref	0.80 (0.65,1.00)	0.71 (0.55,0.95)	0.60(0.40,0.85)	< 0.001	
> 90	Ref	0.77 (0.51,1.10)	0.73(0.50,1.01)	0.69 (0.48,0.99)	0.001	
HBP						0.400
No	Ref	0.68 (0.53,0.87)	0.67 (0.52,0.86)	0.42 (0.31,0.57)	< 0.001	
Yes	Ref	0.79 (0.68,0.92)	0.64 (0.54,0.75)	0.56 (0.46,0.67)	< 0.001	
DM						< 0.001
No	Ref	0.70 (0.60,0.80)	0.59 (0.50,0.68)	0.43 (0.37,0.52)	< 0.001	
Yes	Ref	0.95 (0.72,1.27)	1.02 (0.73,1.42)	1.09 (0.77,1.56)	0.422	
CVDs						< 0.001
No	Ref	0.73 (0.64,0.84)	0.61 (0.53,0.71)	0.48 (0.41,0.57)	< 0.001	
Yes	Ref	0.97 (0.65,1.45)	1.07 (0.70,1.64)	0.82 (0.52,1.29)	0.569	

Adjusted for age (categorical), sex, race, education level, family monthly poverty levels, drinking, smoking, BMI (categorical), hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, eGFR, triglycerides (quintile), and total cholesterol (quintile). The strata variable was not included in the model when stratifying by itself

Abbreviations: OR odds ratio, CI confidence interval, BMI body mass index, HBP hypertension, DM diabetes mellitus, CVDs cardiovascular diseases

exhibited a similar pattern with an inverse association with MetS in both sexes, with β -cryptoxanthin in men and lutein+zeaxanthin in women being significantly and inversely related to MetS [22]. This may be partly explained by the fact that women tend to have higher bloody concentrations of carotenoids than men because of their higher intakes of carotenoids-enriched foods and relatively lower body weight and plasma volume, compared to their male counterparts [46]. Regarding the more pronounced relationships observed among younger participants and those without any comorbidities, it may be ascribed to their potential higher bioavailability of carotenoids [20, 47]. Consistently, a study noticed the lower circulating carotenoids in patients with CVDs [48], and this may be related to the fact that CVDs and type 2 diabetes are both associated with inflammation and oxidative stress, which may cause differences in carotenoid status compared with healthy counterparts [20]. However, more studies are warranted to clarify the causes of modification effect by age, sex, and comorbidities associations with circulating carotenoids.

Our analysis revealed that the α -carotene, β -carotene, and β -cryptoxanthin exhibited a dominant linear trend with additional non-linear features with the odds of HUA, indicating the complexity behind these serum carotenoids and HUA. This significant non-linearity may indicate subtle deviations that cannot be captured by a simple linear model, such as thresholds or plateaus. Moreover, using splines might provide more flexibility in modeling the data, and this suggested that slight fluctuations could also reveal non-linearity, even if the overall trend is largely linear. Further research is necessary to confirm these patterns and explore their biological underpinnings.

This study has several limitations. First, the cross-sectional study design limited us to exploring the causal association between circulating carotenoids and HUA. So, further well-designed studies with the prospective design are needed to make a causal inference. Second, since our research was conducted exclusively among adults in the U.S., this will undoubtedly impede us from generalizing our findings to other populations since we were unable to test the external validity of our findings for other populations with different racial/ethnic backgrounds or ages. More multi-central studies are needed to validate our findings across different populations. Third, due to limited availability in the database, we cannot eliminate the residual confounding even though we developed several adjustment models controlling many known confounders. The association between circulating carotenoids and HUA; however, was sufficiently stable across different adjustment models.

Finally, using data from three independent NHANES surveys, the difference in laboratory measurement of the serum carotenoids and the selection of the study population may also cause measurement bias and volunteer bias, thus affecting the accuracy of the observed trends. In future studies, a comparison of different biomarkers across surveys will be critical to provide a better understanding of the relationship between serum carotenoids and health status.

Conclusions

In a national survey of the U.S. adults, we observed an inverse association between serum levels of total and individual carotenoids (α -carotene, β -carotene, β -cryptoxanthin, trans lycopene, total lycopene, and lutein+zeaxanthin) and the odds of HUA. Besides, such associations seem to be more evident in young people, women, and a healthier population without any comorbidities. Given the limitations of this study, the findings should be confirmed in future experiments and prospective design studies with larger sample sizes.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-025-22060-4>.

Supplementary Material 1

Acknowledgements

We acknowledge NHANES database for providing their platforms and contributors for uploading their meaningful datasets.

Authors' contributions

Hong He and Ping Li wrote the manuscript. Haokun Huang, Shiqi Huang, Yanlin Zeng and Min Zhang performed the data analysis. Zhibing Chen and Fangfang Zeng reviewed the manuscript and provided critical suggestions. Hui Ge revised the manuscript and improve the writing quality.

Funding

This study was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (82473613) and Guangdong Basic and Applied Basic Research Foundation (2023A1515030155).

Data availability

Publicly available datasets were analyzed in this study. All the raw data used in this study are derived from the public NHANES data portal <https://wwwn.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/search/default.aspx>.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study was conducted according to the guideline laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki, and all procedures involving study participants were approved by the Institutional Review Board of the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS). Ethical review and approval were waived for this study as it solely used publicly available data for research and publication. Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the NHANES.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author details

¹Healthcare Outpatient Center, The First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou 510080, China. ²Department of Plastic Surgery, The First Affiliated Hospital of Guangdong Pharmaceutical University, Guangzhou 510080, China. ³Department of Public Health and Preventive Medicine, School of Medicine, Jinan University, Guangzhou 510632, China. ⁴School of Public Health, Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou 510080, China.

Received: 8 October 2024 Accepted: 21 February 2025

Published online: 04 April 2025

References

1. Maiuolo J, Oppedisano F, Gratteri S, Muscoli C, Mollace V. Regulation of uric acid metabolism and excretion. *Int J Cardiol*. 2016;213:8–14.
2. Johnson RJ, Bakris GL, Borghi C, Chonchol MB, Feldman D, Lanaspas MA, Merriman TR, Moe OW, Mount DB, Sanchez Lozada LG, et al. Hyperuricemia, Acute and Chronic Kidney Disease, Hypertension, and Cardiovascular Disease: Report of a Scientific Workshop Organized by the National Kidney Foundation. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2018;71(6):851–65.
3. Chen-Xu M, Yokose C, Rai SK, Pillinger MH, Choi HK. Contemporary Prevalence of Gout and Hyperuricemia in the United States and Decadal Trends: The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2007–2016. *Arthritis Rheumatol*. 2019;71(6):991–9.
4. Dalbeth N, Gosling AL, Gaffo A, Abhishek A. Gout. *Lancet*. 2021;397(10287):1843–1855.
5. Sosa F, Shaban M, Lopez J, Duarte GJ, Jain S, Khizar A, Vittorio T, Mishra R, Rodriguez Guerra M. Impact of Hyperuricemia and Urate-Lowering Agents on Cardiovascular Diseases. *Clin Med Insights Cardiol*. 2024;18:11795468241239542.
6. Gan TM, Ye YY, Mo GL, Li JY. Progress of uric acid in cardiovascular disease. *Cardiovasc Endocrinol Metab*. 2024;13(2):e0300.
7. Zheng L, Zhu Y, Ma Y, Zhang H, Zhao H, Zhang Y, Yang Z, Liu Y. Relationship between hyperuricemia and the risk of cardiovascular events and chronic kidney disease in both the general population and hypertensive patients: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Cardiol*. 2024;399:131779.
8. Varelzdis R, Perez A, Reisin E. Hyperuricemia: An Intriguing Connection to Metabolic Syndrome, Diabetes, Kidney Disease, and Hypertension. *Curr Hypertens Rep*. 2024;26(6):237–45.
9. Rong J, Fang C, Chen X, Hong C, Huang L. Association of serum uric acid with prognosis in patients with myocardial infarction: an update systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Cardiovasc Disord*. 2023;23(1):512.
10. Sun Q, Zhang T, Manji L, Liu Y, Chang Q, Zhao Y, Ding Y, Xia Y. Association Between Serum Uric Acid and Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease: An Updated Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Clin Epidemiol*. 2023;15:683–93.
11. Qiu L, Cheng XQ, Wu J, Liu JT, Xu T, Ding HT, Liu YH, Ge ZM, Wang YJ, Han HJ, et al. Prevalence of hyperuricemia and its related risk factors in healthy adults from Northern and Northeastern Chinese provinces. *BMC Public Health*. 2013;13:664.
12. Li R, Yu K, Li C. Dietary factors and risk of gout and hyperuricemia: a meta-analysis and systematic review. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr*. 2018;27(6):1344–56.
13. Wang J, Chen S, Zhao J, Liang J, Gao X, Gao Q, He S, Wang T. Association between nutrient patterns and hyperuricemia: mediation analysis involving obesity indicators in the NHANES. *BMC Public Health*. 2022;22(1):1981.
14. Zykova SN, Storhaug HM, Toft I, Chadban SJ, Jenssen TG, White SL. Cross-sectional analysis of nutrition and serum uric acid in two Caucasian cohorts: the AusDiab Study and the Tromsø study. *Nutr J*. 2015;14:49.
15. Zhu Q, Yu L, Li Y, Man Q, Jia S, Zhou Y, Zuo H, Zhang J. Association between Dietary Fiber Intake and Hyperuricemia among Chinese Adults: Analysis of the China Adult Chronic Disease and Nutrition Surveillance (2015). *Nutrients*. 2022;14:1433. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu14071433>.
16. Wen ZY, Wei YF, Sun YH, Ji WP. Dietary pattern and risk of hyperuricemia: an updated systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *Front Nutr*. 2024;11:1218912.
17. Cheng S, Shan L, You Z, Xia Y, Zhao Y, Zhang H, Zhao Z. Dietary patterns, uric acid levels, and hyperuricemia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Food Funct*. 2023;14(17):7853–68.
18. Al-Delaimy WK, Ferrari P, Slimani N, Pala V, Johansson I, Nilsson S, Mattisson I, Wirfalt E, Galasso R, Palli D, et al. Plasma carotenoids as biomarkers of intake of fruits and vegetables: individual-level correlations in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC). *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2005;59(12):1387–96.
19. Aune D. Plant Foods, Antioxidant Biomarkers, and the Risk of Cardiovascular Disease, Cancer, and Mortality: A Review of the Evidence. *Adv Nutr*. 2019;10(Suppl_4):S404–s421.
20. Moran NE, Mohn ES, Hason N, Erdman JW Jr, Johnson EJ. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors Impacting Absorption, Metabolism, and Health Effects of Dietary Carotenoids. *Adv Nutr*. 2018;9(4):465–92.
21. Ruggiero C, Cherubini A, Guralnik J, Semba RD, Maggio M, Ling SM, Lauretani F, Bandinelli S, Senin U, Ferrucci L. The interplay between uric acid and antioxidants in relation to physical function in older persons. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2007;55(8):1206–15.
22. Beydoun MA, Shroff MR, Chen X, Beydoun HA, Wang Y, Zonderman AB. Serum antioxidant status is associated with metabolic syndrome among U.S. adults in recent national surveys. *J Nutr*. 2011;141(5):903–913.
23. Yang B, Xin M, Liang S, Xu X, Cai T, Dong L, Wang C, Wang M, Cui Y, Song X, et al. New insight into the management of renal excretion and hyperuricemia: Potential therapeutic strategies with natural bioactive compounds. *Front Pharmacol*. 2022;13:1026246.
24. Choi WJ, Ford ES, Curhan G, Rankin JL, Choi HK. Independent association of serum retinol and β -carotene levels with hyperuricemia: A national population study. *Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken)*. 2012;64(3):389–96.
25. Ford ES, Choi HK. Associations between concentrations of uric acid with concentrations of vitamin A and beta-carotene among adults in the United States. *Nutr Res*. 2013;33(12):995–1002.
26. Zhang P, Sun J, Guo Y, Han M, Yang F, Sun Y. Association between retinol intake and hyperuricaemia in adults. *Public Health Nutr*. 2021;24(8):2205–14.
27. Li MZ, Zhao Y, Wang HR, Talukder M, Li JL. Lycopene Preventing DEHP-Induced Renal Cell Damage Is Targeted by Aryl Hydrocarbon Receptor. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2021;69(43):12853–61.
28. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS). National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey Questionnaire (or Examination Protocol, or Laboratory Protocol). 2006. Available from <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes.htm>. Accessed 21 Sept 2024.
29. He R, Zhu Q, Ye Y, Chen S, Xie C. Nonlinear association between non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol to high-density lipoprotein cholesterol ratio and hyperuricemia in cancer patients: evidence from NHANES 2007–2018. *Lipids Health Dis*. 2024;23(1):269.
30. Yanai H, Adachi H, Hakoshima M, Katsuyama H. Molecular Biological and Clinical Understanding of the Pathophysiology and Treatments of Hyperuricemia and Its Association with Metabolic Syndrome, Cardiovascular Diseases and Chronic Kidney Disease. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2021;22(17):9221. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms22179221>.
31. Jiang Z, Zhu X, Zhao D, Jiang H, Wang X, Su F. Associations between non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol to high-density lipoprotein cholesterol ratio and hyperuricemia: a cross-sectional study. *Lipids Health Dis*. 2024;23(1):280.
32. Zhang T, Wang Y, Gu Y, Meng G, Zhang Q, Liu L, Wu H, Zhang S, Wang X, Sun S, et al. Relationship between seaweeds consumption and hyperuricaemia in general adults: a Population-based study from the Tianjin Chronic Low-grade Systemic Inflammation and Health (TCLSIH) cohort study. *Br J Nutr*. 2022;127(3):369–76.
33. Ma JQ, Zhang YJ, Tian ZK, Liu CM. Bixin attenuates carbon tetrachloride induced oxidative stress, inflammation and fibrosis in kidney by regulating the Nrf2/TLR4/MyD88 and PPAR- γ /TGF- β 1/Smad3 pathway. *Int Immunopharmacol*. 2021;90:107117.
34. Li L, Chen Y, Jiao D, Yang S, Li L, Li P. Protective Effect of Astaxanthin on Ochratoxin A-Induced Kidney Injury to Mice by Regulating Oxidative Stress-Related NRF2/KEAP1 Pathway. *Molecules*. 2020;25(6):1386. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25061386>.
35. Olsen T, Vinknes KJ, Blomhoff R, Lysne V, Midttun Ø, Dhar I, Ueland PM, Svingen GFT, Pedersen EKR, Drevon CA, et al. Creatinine, total cysteine and uric acid are associated with serum retinol in patients with cardiovascular disease. *Eur J Nutr*. 2020;59(6):2383–93.

36. Kim Y, Choi JH, Kang J, Kim GT, Lee SG. Associations of Serum Retinol and α -Tocopherol Levels with Uric Acid Concentrations: Analysis of a Population-Based, Nationally Representative Sample. *Nutrients*. 2020;12(6):1797. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12061797>.
37. Kanagasabai T, Alkhalaqi K, Churilla JR, Ardern CI. The Association Between Metabolic Syndrome and Serum Concentrations of Micronutrients, Inflammation, and Oxidative Stress Outside of the Clinical Reference Ranges: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Metab Syndr Relat Disord*. 2019;17(1):29–36.
38. Beydoun MA, Canas JA, Beydoun HA, Chen X, Shroff MR, Zonderman AB. Serum antioxidant concentrations and metabolic syndrome are associated among U.S. adolescents in recent national surveys. *J Nutr*. 2012;142(9):1693–1704.
39. Mazidi M, Kengne AP, Katsiki N, Mikhailidis DP, Banach M. Inverse association between serum antioxidant levels and inflammatory markers is moderated by adiposity: a report based on a large representative population sample of American adults. *Br J Nutr*. 2018;120(11):1272–8.
40. Mehmood A, Zhao L, Wang C, Nadeem M, Raza A, Ali N, Shah AA. Management of hyperuricemia through dietary polyphenols as a natural medicament: A comprehensive review. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr*. 2019;59(9):1433–55.
41. Mehmood A, Iftikhar A, Chen X. Food-derived bioactive peptides with anti-hyperuricemic activity: A comprehensive review. *Food Chem*. 2024;451:139444.
42. Milani A, Basirnejad M, Shahbazi S, Bolhassani A. Carotenoids: biochemistry, pharmacology and treatment. *Br J Pharmacol*. 2017;174(11):1290–324.
43. Le Y, Zhou X, Zheng J, Yu F, Tang Y, Yang Z, Ding G, Chen Y. Anti-Hyperuricemic Effects of Astaxanthin by Regulating Xanthine Oxidase, Adenosine Deaminase and Urate Transporters in Rats. *Mar Drugs*. 2020;18(12):610. <https://doi.org/10.3390/md18120610>.
44. Priyadarshani AM. A review on factors influencing bioaccessibility and bioefficacy of carotenoids. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr*. 2017;57(8):1710–7.
45. Maurya VK, Singh J, Ranjan V, Gothandam KM, Bohn T, Pareek S. Factors affecting the fate of β -carotene in the human gastrointestinal tract: A narrative review. *Int J Vitam Nutr Res*. 2022;92(5–6):385–405.
46. Böhm V, Lietz G, Olmedilla-Alonso B, Phelan D, Reboul E, Bánati D, Borel P, Corte-Real J, de Lera AR, Desmarchelier C, et al. From carotenoid intake to carotenoid blood and tissue concentrations - implications for dietary intake recommendations. *Nutr Rev*. 2021;79(5):544–73.
47. Pellowski D, Kusch P, Henning T, Kochlik B, Maars M, Schmiedeskamp A, Pohl G, Schreiner M, Baldermann S, Haase H, Schwerdtle T, Grune T, Weber D. Postprandial Micronutrient Variability and Bioavailability: An Interventional Meal Study in Young vs. Old Participants. *Nutrients*. 2024;16(5):625. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu16050625>.
48. Voutilainen S, Nurmi T, Mursu J, Rissanen TH. Carotenoids and cardiovascular health. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2006;83(6):1265–71.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.