

Correlation of uric acid with body mass index based on NHANES 2013–2018 data

A cross-sectional study

Huashuai Wang, MD^{a,b}, Jia Yao, MD^{c,d}, Ning Ding, MD^a, Yongheng He, MD^{c,*} 

Abstract

Clinical investigation of obesity-related risk factors aids in the early detection, prevention, and management of obesity. We aimed to examine the association between obesity and serum uric acid (sUA). A cross-sectional study was conducted including 18473 subjects from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES). The exposure and outcome variables were sUA and body mass index (BMI), respectively. The weighted multivariate linear regression models and smooth curve fittings were conducted to assess the association between sUA and BMI. There were significantly positive correlations between sUA and BMI in both males and females ($\beta = 1.414$, 95% CI: 1.323–1.505, $P < .0001$, $\beta = 1.853$, 95% CI: 1.740–1.966, $P < .0001$, respectively). Furthermore, individuals in the higher sUA quartiles had higher BMI than those in the lowest quartile in both males and females. Subgroup analyses were stratified by race/ethnicity, results indicated the positive association of sUA with BMI in males remained in all races including Mexican American ($\beta = 1.203$, 95% CI: 0.965–1.442, $P < .0001$), other Hispanic ($\beta = 1.126$, 95% CI: 0.858–1.395, $P < .0001$), non-Hispanic White ($\beta = 1.493$, 95% CI: 1.343–1.642, $P < .0001$), non-Hispanic Black ($\beta = 1.331$, 95% CI: 1.122–1.540, $P < .0001$), and other races ($\beta = 1.329$, 95% CI: 1.115–1.544, $P < .0001$). And the positive association of sUA with BMI in females also remained in all races including Mexican American ($\beta = 1.806$, 95% CI: 1.520–2.092, $P < .0001$), other Hispanic ($\beta = 2.033$, 95% CI: 1.687–2.379, $P < .0001$), non-Hispanic White ($\beta = 1.847$, 95% CI: 1.657–2.037, $P < .0001$), non-Hispanic Black ($\beta = 2.141$, 95% CI: 1.874–2.408, $P < .0001$), and other races ($\beta = 1.348$, 95% CI: 1.081–1.615, $P < .0001$). The current cross-sectional study with 18473 US participants found that an elevated sUA was positively correlated with a higher BMI in males, females, and all kinds of races.

Abbreviations: BMI = body mass index, DBP = diastolic blood pressure, HDL-C = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, LDL-C = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, NHANES = National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, SBP = systolic blood pressure, sUA = serum uric acid, TC = total cholesterol, US = United States.

Keywords: body mass index, cross-sectional study, NHANES, uric acid

1. Introduction

Obesity is becoming a critical issue affecting individuals all over the world. Since the 1970s, global obesity has nearly quadrupled.^[1] Overweight adults accounted for more than 1.9 billion people (39% of the worldwide adult population) in 2016, with over 650 million obese.^[2] Obesity is linked to many comorbidities, including obstructive sleep apnea, a prothrombotic condition, dyslipidemia, diabetes, hypertension,

metabolic syndrome, and cardiovascular disease.^[3,4] Obesity is one of the most serious public health issues, putting a huge strain on affected individuals, healthcare institutions, and society as a whole.^[5]

Clinical investigation of obesity-related risk factors aids in the early detection, prevention, and management of obesity. As a result, ongoing research is examining the relationship between obesity and serum uric acid (sUA). UA is a byproduct of purine metabolism and hyperuricemia results from an imbalance in

This study was supported by Natural Science Foundation of Hunan Province (No. 2021JJ30419) and Hunan Province Traditional Chinese Medicine Research Program (No. 2021017).

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

All the authors have read and approved the manuscript.

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are publicly available. The complete data can be found at <http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/>. And the data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

The study was granted ethical approval by the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS). The study was carried out following the ethical standards of the responsible committee on human experimentation and with the 1975 Helsinki Declaration and its later amendments. All methods were performed following the relevant guidelines and regulations. The written informed consents were obtained from all participants or their proxies.

Supplemental Digital Content is available for this article.

^a Hunan University of Chinese Medicine, Hunan, China, ^b Department of Anorectal Surgery, Hunan Academy of Traditional Chinese Medicine

Affiliated Hospital, Hunan, China, ^c School of Second Clinical Medicine, Guangzhou University of Chinese Medicine, Guangzhou, China, ^d Department of Endocrinology, Guangdong Provincial Hospital of Chinese Medicine, Guangzhou, China.

*Correspondence: Yongheng He, Department of Anorectal Surgery, Hunan Academy of Traditional Chinese Medicine Affiliated Hospital, Hunan 410006, China (e-mail: 320034@hnuacm.edu.cn).

Copyright © 2022 the Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 (CCBY), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

How to cite this article: Wang H, Yao J, Ding N, He Y. Correlation of uric acid with body mass index based on NHANES 2013–2018 data: A cross-sectional study. *Medicine* 2022;101:39(e30646).

Received: 24 June 2022 / Received in final form: 16 August 2022 / Accepted: 16 August 2022

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MD.00000000000030646>

uric acid synthesis and excretion. A growing body of research suggests that sUA levels are linked to metabolic and cardiovascular disorders.^[6–9] Furthermore, some investigations have found a relationship between obesity and hyperuricemia.^[10–14] Elevated sUA and obesity are likely to interact through numerous pathways, elevated sUA can speed up hepatic and peripheral lipogenesis thus causing obesity.^[15] The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) is a key initiative of the National Center for Health Data in the United States (US), which is part of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and is in charge of producing essential and medical statistical data for the whole nation. Nevertheless, based on NHANES data, there is a scarcity of research on the correlation between sUA and obesity.

Given the probable association between sUA and obesity, and their role in the occurrence and development of cardiovascular diseases and raised mortality, a greater understanding of the interaction of sUA with obesity is required. Based on the 2013 to 2018 NHANES data, this study aimed to assess the correlation between sUA and obesity.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study population

The NHANES is a typical survey including the national subjects in the US and provides a plethora of data about the nutrition and health of the general US population by employing a complex and multistage sampling technique. The study was granted ethical approval by the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS) in the US. All methods were performed following the relevant guidelines and regulations. The written informed consents were obtained from all participants or their proxies.

The present study included NHANES data from 2013 to 2018 ($n = 29400$), which represented 3 cycles. After excluding individuals with missing sUA ($n = 10694$) and body mass index (BMI) ($n = 3584$), 18,473 subjects were finally included in this study (Figure S1, Supplemental Digital Content 1, <http://links.lww.com/MD/H343>).

2.2. Measurements of covariates

The exposure variable was sUA (mg/dL). The Roche Cobas 6000 (c501 module) technique was used to measure sUA. BMI is an important index for diagnosing obesity, and the outcome variable was BMI, which was calculated using the formula of weight (kg)/height (m)².

Categorical variables of covariates included in our analysis were as follows: gender (male or female), race/ethnicity (Mexican American, other Hispanic, non-Hispanic white, non-Hispanic black, or other race), education levels (less than high school, high school, or more than high school), marital status (living with a spouse or partner: yes or no), alcohol consumption (yes or no), and smoking behavior (yes or no). Continuous covariates: age (years), energy intake (kcal), poverty to income ratio, minutes sedentary activity (minutes), total cholesterol (TC) (mg/dL), triglyceride (mg/dL), high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) (mg/dL), low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) (mg/dL), fasting blood glucose (mg/dL), glycohemoglobin (%), systolic blood pressure (SBP) (mm Hg), and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) (mm Hg). The criteria for selecting covariates were based on previously published research and variables.^[16] The complete data on sUA, BMI, and confounders can be found at <http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/>.

2.3. Statistical analysis

To account for the significant volatility in our data set, we utilized a weighted and variance estimation strategy. To assess the

correlation of sUA with BMI, a weighted multivariate logistic regression model was utilized. To count the discrepancies between subgroups, we applied the weighted χ^2 test for the categorical data and the weighted linear regression model for the continuous variables. The stratified multivariate regression analysis was used to accomplish the subgroup analysis. Additionally, smooth curve fittings and generalized additive models were applied to clarify the non-linear relation between sUA and BMI. When nonlinearity was identified, the inflection point in the connection between sUA and BMI was estimated by a recursive technique, and a two-piecewise linear regression model was performed on both sides of the inflection point. Statistical analyses were carried out using the R package (<http://www.r-project.org>) and EmpowerStats (<http://www.empowerstats.com>), with a $P < .05$ threshold deemed statistically significant.

3. Results

In our research, 18,473 subjects were included. Among them, 8953 (48.47%) subjects were males, 9520 (51.53%) were females. In males, the weighted characteristics were subclassified according to sUA quartiles (Q1: 1.5–5.1 mg/dL; Q2: 5.2–5.9 mg/dL; Q3: 6.0–6.8 mg/dL; and Q4: 6.9–15.1 mg/dL), as presented in Table 1. Except for minutes of sedentary activity, there were significant differences in baseline characteristics between the different sUA quartiles. Individuals in the highest sUA quartile were more prone to be with higher age, BMI, TC, triglyceride, LDL-C, SBP, and DBP. In addition, participants with the greatest sUA levels had reduced HDL-C levels. In females, the weighted characteristics were subclassified according to sUA quartiles (Q1: 0.7–3.9 mg/dL; Q2: 4.0–4.6 mg/dL; Q3: 4.7–5.5 mg/dL; and Q4: 5.6–18.0 mg/dL), as showed in Table 2. There were significant differences in baseline characteristics between the different sUA quartiles. Individuals in the highest sUA quartile were more prone to be with higher age, BMI, glycohemoglobin, TC, LDL-C, SBP, and DBP. In addition, subjects with the greatest sUA levels had reduced HDL-C levels.

Table 3 showed the findings of the multivariate regression analysis in males. SUA was positively correlated with BMI in the unadjusted model ($\beta = 1.741$, 95% CI: 1.642–1.840, $P < .0001$). After adjusting for covariates, this significant link remained in model 2 ($\beta = 1.716$, 95% CI: 1.619–1.813, $P < .0001$) and 3 ($\beta = 1.414$, 95% CI: 1.323–1.505, $P < .0001$). Furthermore, individuals in the higher sUA quartiles (5.2–5.9 mg/dL, 6.0–6.8 mg/dL, and 6.9–15.1 mg/dL) had higher BMI than those in the lowest quartile (1.5–5.1 mg/dL) after alternating the sUA from a continuous variable to a categorical variable ($\beta = 1.153$, 95% CI: 0.825–1.481, $P < .0001$; $\beta = 2.376$, 95% CI: 2.049–2.703, $P < .0001$; $\beta = 4.566$, 95% CI: 4.232–4.900, $P < .0001$, respectively).

According to the results of subgroup analyses stratified by race, the positive association of sUA with BMI remained in all races including Mexican American ($\beta = 1.203$, 95% CI: 0.965–1.442, $P < .0001$), other Hispanic ($\beta = 1.126$, 95% CI: 0.858–1.395, $P < .0001$), non-Hispanic White ($\beta = 1.493$, 95% CI: 1.343–1.642, $P < .0001$), non-Hispanic Black ($\beta = 1.331$, 95% CI: 1.122–1.540, $P < .0001$), and other races ($\beta = 1.329$, 95% CI: 1.115–1.544, $P < .0001$).

To evaluate the nonlinear connection between sUA and BMI in males and stratified by race/ethnicity, smooth curve fittings, and generalized additive models were applied (Figs. 1 and 2). The association between sUA and BMI in males (turning points: 2.6, 9.0, and 10.5 mg/dL) followed an inverted U-shaped curve (Table 4).

Table 5 showed the findings of the multivariate regression analysis in females. SUA was also positively correlated with BMI in females in the unadjusted model ($\beta = 2.330$, 95% CI: 2.212–2.448, $P < .0001$). After adjusting for covariates, this

Table 1
Weighted characteristics in male subjects based on serum uric acid quartiles.

| Serum uric acid (mg/dL) | Q1 (1.5–5.1) | Q2 (5.2–5.9) | Q3 (6.0–6.8) | Q4 (6.9–15.1) | P value |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------|
| Age (yr) | 42.35 ± 20.08 | 42.65 ± 18.91 | 43.03 ± 18.62 | 45.07 ± 18.32 | <.0001 |
| Race/ethnicity (%) | | | | | .0002 |
| Mexican American | 11.74 | 10.89 | 10.53 | 8.29 | |
| Other Hispanic | 6.90 | 6.00 | 6.77 | 5.87 | |
| Non-Hispanic White | 61.01 | 65.31 | 63.21 | 64.46 | |
| Non-Hispanic Black | 11.85 | 9.18 | 9.37 | 11.08 | |
| Other races | 8.49 | 8.62 | 10.12 | 10.29 | |
| Alcohol consumption (%) | | | | | |
| <12 drinks daily | 55.28 | 67.84 | 63.77 | 68.53 | |
| ≥12 drinks daily | 1.21 | 1.98 | 2.09 | 2.35 | |
| Unknown | 43.50 | 30.17 | 34.14 | 29.12 | |
| Smoking behavior (%) | | | | | <.0001 |
| Smoked at least 100 cigarettes in life | 45.64 | 42.47 | 44.36 | 47.37 | |
| Smoked less than 100 cigarettes in life | 39.19 | 47.44 | 47.16 | 47.06 | |
| Unknown | 15.17 | 10.09 | 8.48 | 5.57 | |
| Education level (%) | | | | | <.0001 |
| Less than high school | 13.40 | 12.33 | 12.34 | 12.15 | |
| High school | 20.68 | 20.24 | 20.62 | 24.02 | |
| More than high school | 48.52 | 53.98 | 54.99 | 56.03 | |
| Unknown | 17.40 | 13.45 | 12.05 | 7.79 | |
| Marital status (%) | | | | | <.0001 |
| Live with a partner | 54.44 | 60.15 | 60.52 | 60.96 | |
| Live alone | 28.16 | 26.45 | 27.46 | 31.24 | |
| Unknown | 17.41 | 13.40 | 12.02 | 7.80 | |
| Ratio of family income to poverty | 2.82 ± 1.57 | 3.04 ± 1.57 | 2.98 ± 1.60 | 3.07 ± 1.59 | <.0001 |
| Energy (kcal) | 2520.70 ± 1031.93 | 2510.61 ± 1030.16 | 2425.80 ± 1053.41 | 2406.84 ± 1050.06 | .0001 |
| Minutes sedentary activity (minutes) | 423.18 ± 591.99 | 423.15 ± 461.95 | 410.01 ± 449.81 | 450.75 ± 600.26 | .0634 |
| Body mass index (kg/m ²) | 26.02 ± 5.84 | 27.38 ± 5.73 | 28.84 ± 5.83 | 31.73 ± 7.05 | <.0001 |
| Glycohemoglobin (%) | 5.77 ± 1.24 | 5.57 ± 0.89 | 5.54 ± 0.81 | 5.66 ± 0.85 | <.0001 |
| Fasting blood glucose (mg/dL) | 112.05 ± 33.06 | 108.00 ± 19.08 | 107.95 ± 17.94 | 110.24 ± 19.94 | <.0001 |
| Total cholesterol (mg/dL) | 174.10 ± 39.80 | 180.61 ± 42.39 | 184.69 ± 40.40 | 189.94 ± 42.45 | <.0001 |
| Triglyceride (mg/dL) | 105.11 ± 59.27 | 108.02 ± 58.98 | 114.72 ± 68.97 | 128.86 ± 98.73 | <.0001 |
| High-density lipoprotein cholesterol (mg/dL) | 50.86 ± 15.31 | 49.67 ± 13.86 | 47.89 ± 13.73 | 45.80 ± 13.08 | <.0001 |
| Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (mg/dL) | 104.81 ± 23.89 | 106.80 ± 23.76 | 108.59 ± 23.01 | 110.30 ± 24.36 | <.0001 |
| Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) | 121.17 ± 14.98 | 121.54 ± 14.62 | 122.18 ± 14.67 | 125.01 ± 15.68 | <.0001 |
| Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) | 68.93 ± 12.98 | 69.88 ± 12.88 | 70.15 ± 12.94 | 72.49 ± 12.60 | <.0001 |

Mean ± SD for continuous variables; the *P* value was calculated by the weighted linear regression model. (%) for categorical variables; the *P* value was calculated by the weighted chi-square test.

significant link remained in model 2 ($\beta = 2.260$, 95% CI: 2.140–2.379, $P < .0001$) and 3 ($\beta = 1.853$, 95% CI: 1.740–1.966, $P < .0001$). Furthermore, individuals in the higher sUA quartiles (4.0–4.6, 4.7–5.5, and 5.6–18.0 mg/dL) had higher BMI than those in the lower quartile (0.7 to 3.9 mg/dL) after alternating the sUA from a continuous variable to a categorical variable ($\beta = 1.702$, 95% CI: 1.320–2.084, $P < .0001$; $\beta = 3.182$, 95% CI: 2.810–3.555, $P < .0001$; $\beta = 6.078$, 95% CI: 5.681–6.475, $P < .0001$, respectively). According to the results of subgroup analyses stratified by race, the positive association of sUA with BMI in females remained in all races including Mexican American ($\beta = 1.806$, 95% CI: 1.520–2.092, $P < .0001$), other Hispanic ($\beta = 2.033$, 95% CI: 1.687–2.379, $P < .0001$), non-Hispanic White ($\beta = 1.847$, 95% CI: 1.657–2.037, $P < .0001$), non-Hispanic Black ($\beta = 2.141$, 95% CI: 1.874–2.408, $P < .0001$), and other races ($\beta = 1.348$, 95% CI: 1.081–1.615, $P < .0001$). Moreover, to evaluate the non-linear connection between sUA and BMI in females and stratified by race/ethnicity, smooth curve fittings and generalized additive models were applied (Figs. 3 and 4). The association between sUA and BMI in females showed a turning point of 6.1 mg/dL (Table 6).

4. Discussion

The current study of a nationally representative sample of 18473 US participants found that an elevated sUA was positively associated with a higher BMI in both males and

females, and all races including Mexican Americans, other Hispanics, non-Hispanic white, non-Hispanic black, and other races.

Currently, obesity and hyperuricemia, along with their related health issues, have developed as serious public health concerns as their growing prevalence. Obesity and sUA coexistence may accelerate disease progression, resulting in a higher medical and economic burden, posing additional difficulties to chronic disease prevention and treatment. Although changes in obesity have been observed to be separately linked with changes in sUA content, previous pathophysiological and metabolic research have just reported that they may interact. In participants from the US, elevated sUA levels were positively connected with higher BMI in both males and females, according to our current findings. This is consistent with earlier epidemiological and clinical evidence of a substantial significant positive connection between sUA and obesity in adult Chinese, Japanese, Indian, Pakistani, Iraqi, and Bangladeshi populations.^[17–19] The link between sUA and obesity can be explained by several mechanisms. Obesity or extra body fat may be linked with elevated sUA production and insufficient excretion due to insulin resistance, resulting in impaired UA metabolism and even hyperuricemia.^[14] Meanwhile, sUA has the potential to cause obesity by boosting the production of liver and peripheral fat,^[15] thus, forming a vicious cycle of hyperuricemia-obesity. Moreover, dysfunctions in glycolipid and UA metabolism may both enhance the cohabitation of the two components.

Table 2
Weighted characteristics in female subjects based on serum uric acid quartiles.

| Serum uric acid (mg/dL) | Q1 (0.7–3.9) | Q2 (4.0–4.6) | Q3 (4.7–5.5) | Q4 (5.6–18.0) | P value |
|--|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|---------|
| Age (yr) | 40.50 ± 17.53 | 42.32 ± 18.81 | 44.86 ± 19.19 | 51.72 ± 19.70 | <.0001 |
| Race/ethnicity (%) | | | | | <.0001 |
| Mexican American | 11.55 | 10.40 | 8.27 | 7.31 | |
| Other Hispanic | 8.08 | 7.62 | 5.95 | 4.80 | |
| Non-Hispanic White | 60.84 | 60.97 | 64.99 | 65.16 | |
| Non-Hispanic Black | 12.27 | 10.36 | 10.69 | 13.54 | |
| Other races | 7.26 | 10.66 | 10.10 | 9.19 | |
| Alcohol consumption (%) | | | | | .0127 |
| <12 drinks daily | 59.72 | 59.95 | 63.17 | 57.78 | |
| ≥12 drinks daily | 0.29 | 0.26 | 0.30 | 0.24 | |
| Unknown | 39.99 | 39.79 | 36.53 | 41.98 | |
| Smoking behavior (%) | | | | | <.0001 |
| Smoked at least 100 cigarettes in life | 29.54 | 30.96 | 31.66 | 37.10 | |
| Smoked less than 100 cigarettes in life | 59.38 | 59.03 | 60.71 | 57.59 | |
| Unknown | 11.08 | 10.01 | 7.63 | 5.32 | |
| Education level (%) | | | | | <.0001 |
| Less than high school | 11.56 | 10.70 | 10.92 | 12.45 | |
| High school | 17.28 | 18.09 | 19.89 | 22.90 | |
| More than high school | 57.17 | 58.29 | 58.99 | 57.53 | |
| Unknown | 13.99 | 12.92 | 10.20 | 7.11 | |
| Marital status (%) | | | | | <.0001 |
| Live with a partner | 54.60 | 56.65 | 52.06 | 49.94 | |
| Live alone | 31.41 | 30.40 | 37.87 | 42.99 | |
| Unknown | 13.99 | 12.95 | 10.07 | 7.07 | |
| Ratio of family income to poverty | 2.87 ± 1.60 | 2.91 ± 1.62 | 2.87 ± 1.59 | 2.67 ± 1.56 | <.0001 |
| Energy (kcal) | 1932.45 ± 759.49 | 1871.57 ± 755.43 | 1862.06 ± 746.47 | 1766.98 ± 715.70 | <.0001 |
| Minutes sedentary activity (minutes) | 419.54 ± 645.28 | 444.47 ± 696.65 | 438.51 ± 649.12 | 521.26 ± 1039.42 | <.0001 |
| Body mass index (kg/m ²) | 25.76 ± 5.79 | 27.61 ± 6.79 | 29.59 ± 7.54 | 33.43 ± 8.60 | <.0001 |
| Glycohemoglobin (%) | 5.48 ± 0.93 | 5.48 ± 0.78 | 5.54 ± 0.73 | 5.81 ± 0.97 | <.0001 |
| Fasting blood glucose (mg/dL) | 105.72 ± 20.53 | 105.26 ± 17.26 | 106.06 ± 16.97 | 109.73 ± 22.83 | <.0001 |
| Total cholesterol (mg/dL) | 183.44 ± 39.74 | 187.46 ± 39.03 | 190.68 ± 41.25 | 196.74 ± 42.54 | <.0001 |
| Triglyceride (mg/dL) | 99.80 ± 89.49 | 99.73 ± 37.73 | 105.14 ± 45.42 | 117.41 ± 52.08 | <.0001 |
| High-density lipoprotein cholesterol (mg/dL) | 62.31 ± 16.52 | 60.64 ± 17.38 | 58.35 ± 16.57 | 54.91 ± 16.40 | <.0001 |
| Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (mg/dL) | 105.28 ± 20.98 | 106.79 ± 22.33 | 108.73 ± 24.51 | 110.94 ± 27.49 | <.0001 |
| Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) | 115.53 ± 15.85 | 117.55 ± 16.44 | 120.43 ± 17.06 | 125.16 ± 18.51 | <.0001 |
| Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) | 67.41 ± 10.91 | 68.10 ± 11.52 | 68.66 ± 12.00 | 69.24 ± 11.96 | <.0001 |

Mean ± SD for continuous variables; the *P* value was calculated by the weighted linear regression model. (%) for categorical variables: the *P* value was calculated by the weighted chi-square test.

Table 3
The association between serum uric acid (mg/dL) and body mass index (BMI) (kg/m²) in male.

| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
|--|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| | β (95% CI) P value | β (95% CI) P value | β (95% CI) P value |
| Serum uric acid (mg/dL) | 1.741 (1.642, 1.840) <.00001 | 1.716 (1.619, 1.813) <.00001 | 1.414 (1.323, 1.505) <.00001 |
| Serum uric acid categories | | | |
| Q1 (1.5–5.1 mg/dL) | Reference | Reference | Reference |
| Q2 (5.2–5.9 mg/dL) | 1.360 (0.993, 1.728) <.00001 | 1.364 (1.005, 1.723) <.00001 | 1.153 (0.825, 1.481) <.00001 |
| Q3 (6.0–6.8 mg/dL) | 2.815 (2.451, 3.179) <.00001 | 2.818 (2.462, 3.174) <.00001 | 2.376 (2.049, 2.703) <.00001 |
| Q4 (6.9–15.1 mg/dL) | 5.705 (5.339, 6.071) <.00001 | 5.621 (5.262, 5.980) <.00001 | 4.566 (4.232, 4.900) <.00001 |
| Subgroup analysis stratified by race/ethnicity | | | |
| Mexican American | 1.662 (1.411, 1.912) <.00001 | 1.663 (1.419, 1.908) <.00001 | 1.203 (0.965, 1.442) <.00001 |
| Other Hispanic | 1.533 (1.239, 1.827) <.00001 | 1.438 (1.148, 1.728) <.00001 | 1.126 (0.858, 1.395) <.00001 |
| Non-Hispanic White | 1.814 (1.650, 1.979) <.00001 | 1.773 (1.612, 1.933) <.00001 | 1.493 (1.343, 1.642) <.00001 |
| Non-Hispanic Black | 1.877 (1.657, 2.097) <.00001 | 1.765 (1.542, 1.988) <.00001 | 1.331 (1.122, 1.540) <.00001 |
| Other races | 1.521 (1.294, 1.749) <.00001 | 1.551 (1.324, 1.777) <.00001 | 1.329 (1.115, 1.544) <.00001 |

Model 1: no covariates were adjusted. Model 2: age and race/ethnicity were adjusted. Model 3: age, race/ethnicity, alcohol consumption, smoking behavior, education level, marital status, ratio of family income to poverty, energy, minutes sedentary activity, glycohemoglobin, fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, and diastolic blood pressure were adjusted. In the subgroup analysis stratified by race/ethnicity; the model is not adjusted for race/ethnicity.

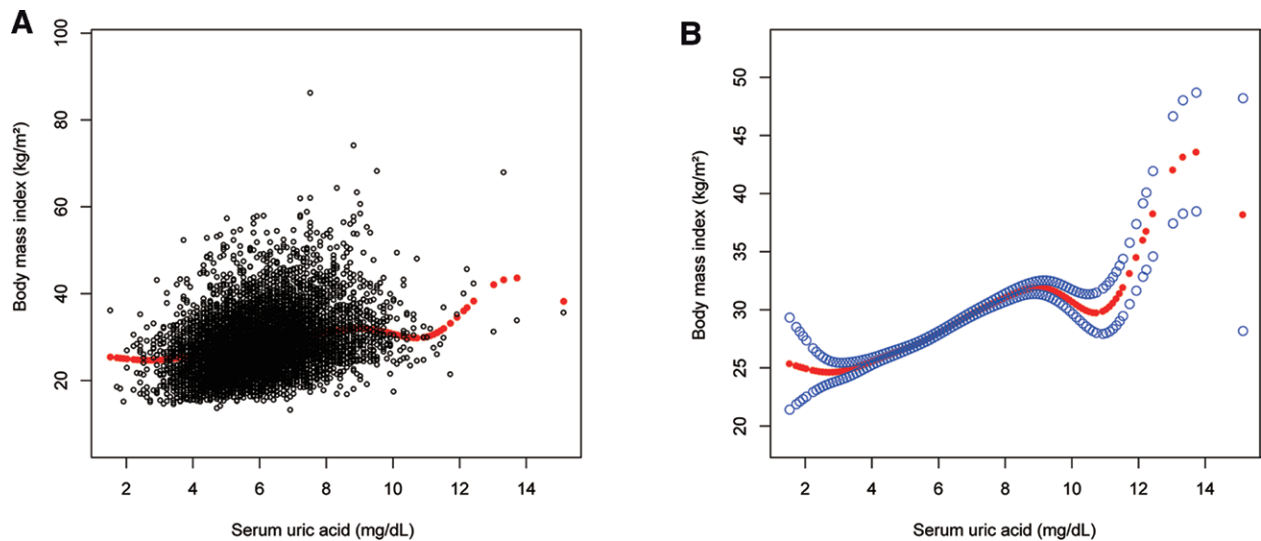


Figure 1. The association between serum uric acid and body mass index in males. (A) Each black point represents a sample. (B) The solid red line represents the smooth curve fit between variables. Blue bands represent the 95% of confidence interval from the fit. Age, race/ethnicity, alcohol consumption, smoking behavior, education level, marital status, the ratio of family income to poverty, energy, minutes of sedentary activity, glycohemoglobin, fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, and diastolic blood pressure were adjusted.

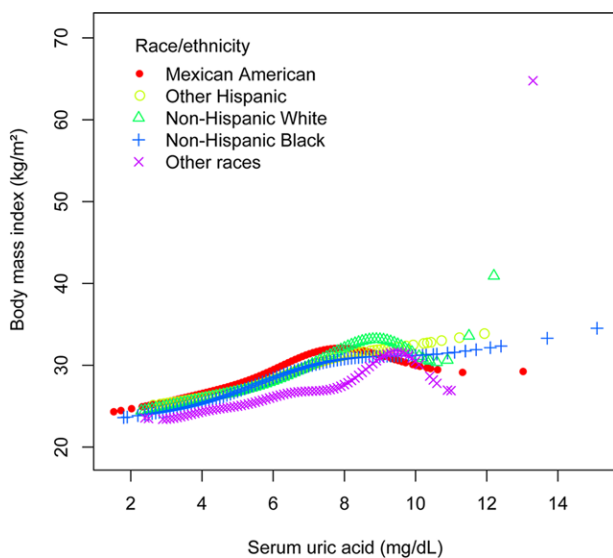


Figure 2. The association of serum uric acid with body mass index in males stratified by race/ethnicity. Age, alcohol consumption, smoking behavior, education level, marital status, the ratio of family income to poverty, energy, minutes of sedentary activity, glycohemoglobin, fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, and diastolic blood pressure were adjusted.

As a result of the intimate biological association between sUA and BMI, it is critical for preventive medicine to closely evaluate the interplay between sUA and BMI.

Moreover, our findings revealed a considerable positive correlation of sUA levels with BMI in both men and women, however, it may be stronger in women. We further evaluated the nonlinear connection between sUA and BMI. The association between sUA and BMI in males (turning points: 2.6, 9.0, and 10.5 mg/dL) followed an inverted U-shaped curve. And the association between sUA and BMI in females showed a turning

Table 4
Threshold effect analysis of serum uric acid (mg/dL) on BMI (kg/m²) in male using the two-piecewise linear regression model.

| Serum uric acid (mg/dL) | Adjusted β (95% CI), P value |
|---|------------------------------------|
| Fitting by the standard linear model | 1.414 (1.323, 1.505) <.0001 |
| Fitting by the two-piecewise linear model | |
| Inflection point | 2.6, 9.0, 10.5 |
| <2.6 | -4.267 (-10.925, 2.390) 0.2091 |
| 2.6–9.0 | 1.422 (1.330, 1.513) <.0001 |
| 9.0–10.5 | -1.441 (-2.949, 0.067) 0.0611 |
| >10.5 | 6.902 (4.115, 9.689) <.0001 |
| Log likelihood ratio | <.001 |

Age, race/ethnicity, alcohol consumption, smoking behavior, education level, marital status, ratio of family income to poverty, energy, minutes sedentary activity, glycohemoglobin, fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, and diastolic blood pressure were adjusted

point of 6.1 mg/dL. It can be seen that different uric acid levels have different effects on BMI, and there are gender differences. This is similar to the study that found a positive correlation between BMI and sUA in healthy Chinese people and revealed that the related risk of sUA levels and obesity was greater in women.^[20] Another Thailand research also reported high sUA levels were correlated with a greater risk of obesity in women.^[21] Women with obesity, according to Kim et al, had a greater risk of severe hyperuricemia than males.^[10,11] Several studies^[22–24] reported that possible mechanisms contained hormonal impact or sex variations in insulin sensitivity and body fat composition. In contrast to our findings, research in Bangladesh and Japan found that greater sUA correlated with obesity in males more strongly.^[25,26] Furthermore, studies have suggested sex-based differences in many diseases. Although age and potential variables were adjusted for the multivariate regression analysis in the present analysis, the sex-based differences we recognized could also be influenced by unmeasured confounding variables, considering the baseline discrepancy in lifestyle and social aspects, such as smoking, alcohol drinking, and education levels between

Table 5**The association between serum uric acid (mg/dL) and BMI (kg/m²) in female.**

| | Model 1 β (95% CI) P value | Model 2 β (95% CI) P value | Model 3 β (95% CI) P value |
|--|---|---|---|
| Serum uric acid (mg/dL) | 2.330 (2.212, 2.448) <.00001 | 2.260 (2.140, 2.379) <.00001 | 1.853 (1.740, 1.966) <.00001 |
| Serum uric acid categories | | | |
| Q1 (0.7–3.9 mg/dL) | Reference | Reference | Reference |
| Q2 (4.0–4.6 mg/dL) | 1.853 (1.429, 2.277) <.00001 | 1.958 (1.542, 2.375) <.00001 | 1.702 (1.320, 2.084) <.00001 |
| Q3 (4.7–5.5 mg/dL) | 3.833 (3.426, 4.241) <.00001 | 3.906 (3.504, 4.308) <.00001 | 3.182 (2.810, 3.555) <.00001 |
| Q4 (5.6–18.0 mg/dL) | 7.673 (7.255, 8.091) <.00001 | 7.475 (7.055, 7.895) <.00001 | 6.078 (5.681, 6.475) <.00001 |
| Subgroup analysis stratified by race/ethnicity | | | |
| Mexican American | 2.355 (2.055, 2.654) <.00001 | 2.191 (1.891, 2.491) <.00001 | 1.806 (1.520, 2.092) <.00001 |
| Other Hispanic | 2.585 (2.236, 2.935) <.00001 | 2.456 (2.100, 2.811) <.00001 | 2.033 (1.687, 2.379) <.00001 |
| Non-Hispanic White | 2.353 (2.156, 2.550) <.00001 | 2.275 (2.073, 2.477) <.00001 | 1.847 (1.657, 2.037) <.00001 |
| Non-Hispanic Black | 2.431 (2.180, 2.683) <.00001 | 2.386 (2.114, 2.659) <.00001 | 2.141 (1.874, 2.408) <.00001 |
| Other races | 2.006 (1.723, 2.289) <.00001 | 1.957 (1.668, 2.246) <.00001 | 1.348 (1.081, 1.615) <.00001 |

Model 1: no covariates were adjusted. Model 2: age and race/ethnicity were adjusted. Model 3: age, race/ethnicity, alcohol consumption, smoking behavior, education level, marital status, ratio of family income to poverty, energy, minutes sedentary activity, glycohemoglobin, fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, and diastolic blood pressure were adjusted. In the subgroup analysis stratified by race/ethnicity; the model is not adjusted for race/ethnicity.

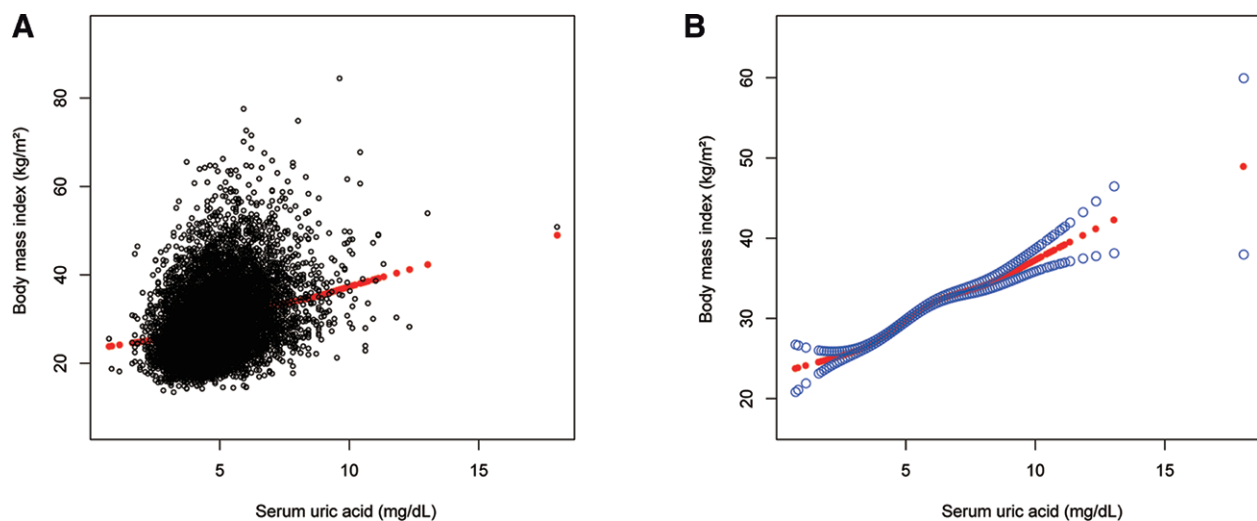


Figure 3. The association between serum uric acid and body mass index in females. (A) Each black point represents a sample. (B) The solid red line represents the smooth curve fit between variables. Blue bands represent the 95% of confidence interval from the fit. Age, race/ethnicity, alcohol consumption, smoking behavior, education level, marital status, the ratio of family income to poverty, energy, minutes of sedentary activity, glycohemoglobin, fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, and diastolic blood pressure were adjusted.

men and women. Taken as a whole, it makes sense to clarify the differences in the relations between sUA concentrations and obesity in men and women. Clinical recommendations should pay more attention to the gender disparity. More investigations on the physiology of sex in connection to sUA and obesity are needed.

The current study's limitations mainly include its cross-sectional methodology, which cannot support a causal association between sUA and obesity. Secondly, further fundamental mechanistic investigations and large-sample prospective research are needed to determine the precise mechanism of the relationship between sUA and obesity. Thirdly, we were unable to obtain more detailed data since this survey did not include questions concerning gout diagnosis or medication use, such as urate-lowering drugs and other medicines that might alter sUA levels and body weight. Fourthly, the risk of bias due to other potential variables that we could not account for remains. Despite its limitations, the findings might be helpful for public health because the positive

correlation between sUA levels and obesity was identified based on a large nationally representative survey database in the present study.

5. Conclusion

The current cross-sectional study with 18,473 US participants showed that an elevated sUA was positively connected with a higher BMI in both men and women, and all races including Mexican Americans, other Hispanics, non-Hispanic white, non-Hispanic black, and other races.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: Huashuai Wang, Jia Yao. **Data curation:** Jia Yao, Ning Ding. **Formal analysis:** Huashuai Wang. **Project administration:** Yongheng He. **Supervision:** Yongheng He. **Validation:** Jia Yao, Yongheng He. **Writing – original draft:** Huashuai Wang,

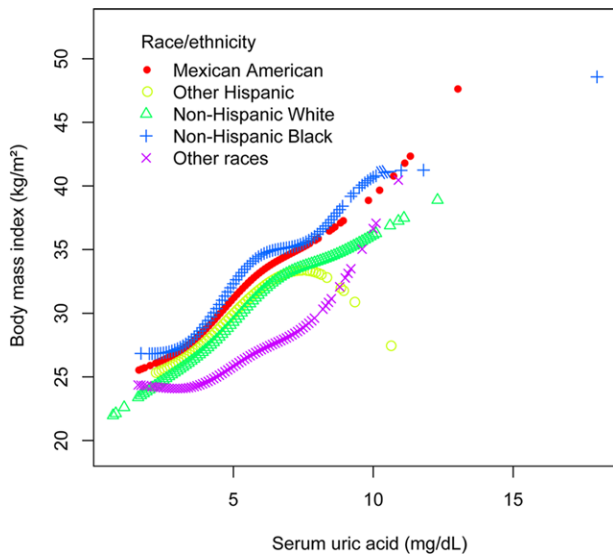


Figure 4. The association of serum uric acid with body mass index in females stratified by race/ethnicity. Age, alcohol consumption, smoking behavior, education level, marital status, the ratio of family income to poverty, energy, minutes of sedentary activity, glycohemoglobin, fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, and diastolic blood pressure were adjusted.

Table 6
Threshold effect analysis of serum uric acid (mg/dL) on BMI (kg/m²) in female using the two-piecewise linear regression model.

| Serum uric acid (mg/dL) | Adjusted β (95% CI), P value |
|---|------------------------------------|
| Fitting by the standard linear model | 1.853 (1.740, 1.966) <.0001 |
| Fitting by the two-piecewise linear model | |
| Inflection point | 6.1 |
| <6.1 | 2.077 (1.929, 2.225) <.0001 |
| >6.1 | 1.129 (0.798, 1.459) <.0001 |
| Log likelihood ratio | <.001 |

Age, race/ethnicity, alcohol consumption, smoking behavior, education level, marital status, ratio of family income to poverty, energy, minutes sedentary activity, glycohemoglobin, fasting glucose, total cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, and diastolic blood pressure were adjusted

Jia Yao.Writing – review & editing: Yongheng He.HW and JY contributed equally to this work.

References

[1] Wu H, Ballantyne CM. Metabolic inflammation and insulin resistance in obesity. *Circulation research*. 2020;126:1549–64.
 [2] Organization WH. Obesity and overweight. 2019. Available at: <https://www.who.int/en/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/obesity-and-overweight>. [Access date November 25, 2019].
 [3] Wonisch W, Falk A, Sundl I, et al. Oxidative stress increases continuously with BMI and age with unfavourable profiles in males. *Aging Male*. 2012;15:159–65.
 [4] Poirier P, Giles TD, Bray GA, et al. Obesity and cardiovascular disease: pathophysiology, evaluation, and effect of weight loss: an update of the

1997 American Heart Association Scientific Statement on Obesity and Heart Disease from the Obesity Committee of the Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism. *Circulation*. 2006;113:898–918.
 [5] Popkin BM, Adair LS, Ng SW. Global nutrition transition and the pandemic of obesity in developing countries. *Nutr Rev*. 2012;70:3–21.
 [6] Abeles AM. Hyperuricemia, gout, and cardiovascular disease: an update. *Curr Rheumatol Rep*. 2015;17:13.
 [7] Bardin T, Richette P. Impact of comorbidities on gout and hyperuricaemia: an update on prevalence and treatment options. *BMC Med*. 2017;15:123.
 [8] Bombelli M, Quarti-Trevano F, Tadic M, et al. Uric acid and risk of new-onset metabolic syndrome, impaired fasting glucose and diabetes mellitus in a general Italian population: data from the Pressioni Arteriose Monitorate E Loro Associazioni study. *J Hyper*. 2018;36:1492–98.
 [9] Yuan H, Yu C, Li X, Sun L, et al. Serum uric acid levels and risk of metabolic syndrome: a dose-response meta-analysis of prospective studies. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2015;100:4198–207.
 [10] Kim IY, Han KD, Kim DH, et al. Women with metabolic syndrome and general obesity are at a higher risk for significant hyperuricemia compared to men. *J Clin Med*. 2019;8:837.
 [11] Chang HY, Pan WH, Yeh WT, et al. Hyperuricemia and gout in Taiwan: results from the Nutritional and Health Survey in Taiwan (1993-96). *J Rheumatol*. 2001;28:1640–6.
 [12] Ishizaka N, Ishizaka Y, Toda A, et al. Changes in waist circumference and body mass index in relation to changes in serum uric acid in Japanese individuals. *J Rheumatol*. 2010;37:410–6.
 [13] Tsushima Y, Nishizawa H, Tochino Y, et al. Uric acid secretion from adipose tissue and its increase in obesity. *J Biol Chem*. 2013;288:27138–49.
 [14] Matsuura F, Yamashita S, Nakamura T, et al. Effect of visceral fat accumulation on uric acid metabolism in male obese subjects: visceral fat obesity is linked more closely to overproduction of uric acid than subcutaneous fat obesity. *Metabolism*. 1998;47:929–33.
 [15] Özalp Kızılay D, Şen S, Ersoy B. Associations between serum uric acid concentrations and cardiometabolic risk and renal injury in obese and overweight children. *J Clin Res Ped Endocrinol*. 2019;11:262–9.
 [16] Zhu F, Huang M, Jiao J, et al. Environmental exposure to perchlorate, nitrate, and thiocyanate in relation to obesity: a population-based study. *Environ Int*. 2019;133:105191.
 [17] Zeng J, Lawrence WR, Yang J, et al. Association between serum uric acid and obesity in Chinese adults: a 9-year longitudinal data analysis. *BMJ Open*. 2021;11:e041919.
 [18] Chen MY, Zhao CC, Li TT, et al. Serum uric acid levels are associated with obesity but not cardio-cerebrovascular events in Chinese inpatients with type 2 diabetes. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7:40009.
 [19] Ali N, Miah R, Hasan M, et al. Association between serum uric acid and metabolic syndrome: a cross-sectional study in Bangladeshi adults. *Sci Rep*. 2020;10:7841.
 [20] Wang H, Wang L, Xie R, et al. Association of serum uric acid with body mass index: a cross-sectional study from Jiangsu Province, China. *Iran J Pub Health*. 2014;43:1503–9.
 [21] Jaipakdee J, Jiamjarasrangri W, Lohsoonthorn V, et al. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome and its association with serum uric acid levels in Bangkok Thailand. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Pub Health*. 2013;44:512–22.
 [22] Park YH, Shin JA, Han K, et al. Gender difference in the association of metabolic syndrome and its components with age-related cataract: the Korea National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2008-2010. *PLoS One*. 2014;9:e85068.
 [23] Regitz-Zagrosek V, Lehmkuhl E, Weickert MO. Gender differences in the metabolic syndrome and their role for cardiovascular disease. *Clin Res Cardiol*. 2006;95:136–47.
 [24] Rochlani Y, Pothineni NV, Mehta JL. Metabolic syndrome: does it differ between women and men? *Cardiovasc Drugs Ther*. 2015;29:329–38.
 [25] Ali N, Perveen R, Rahman S, et al. Prevalence of hyperuricemia and the relationship between serum uric acid and obesity: a study on Bangladeshi adults. *PLoS One*. 2018;13:e0206850.
 [26] Tanaka K, Ogata S, Tanaka H, et al. The relationship between body mass index and uric acid: a study on Japanese adult twins. *Environ Health Prev Med*. 2015;20:347–53.