Hypothesis: fructose-induced hyperuricemia as a causal mechanism for the epidemic of the metabolic syndrome

Takahiko Nakagawa*, Katherine R Tuttle, Robert A Short and Richard J Johnson

SUMMARY

The increasing incidence of obesity and the metabolic syndrome over the past two decades has coincided with a marked increase in total fructose intake. Fructose-unlike other sugars-causes serum uric acid levels to rise rapidly. We recently reported that uric acid reduces levels of endothelial nitric oxide (NO), a key mediator of insulin action. NO increases blood flow to skeletal muscle and enhances glucose uptake. Animals deficient in endothelial NO develop insulin resistance and other features of the metabolic syndrome. As such, we propose that the epidemic of the metabolic syndrome is due in part to fructose-induced hyperuricemia that reduces endothelial NO levels and induces insulin resistance. Consistent with this hypothesis is the observation that changes in mean uric acid levels correlate with the increasing prevalence of metabolic syndrome in the US and developing countries. In addition, we observed that a serum uric acid level above 5.5 mg/dl independently predicted the development of hyperinsulinemia at both 6 and 12 months in nondiabetic patients with first-time myocardial infarction. Fructose-induced hyperuricemia results in endothelial dysfunction and insulin resistance, and might be a novel causal mechanism of the metabolic syndrome. Studies in humans should be performed to address whether lowering uric acid levels will help to prevent this condition.

KEYWORDS essential hypertension, insulin resistance, metabolic syndrome, obesity, uric acid

REVIEW CRITERIA

We searched PubMed in June 2005 for articles published between 1983 and 2005, containing the terms "uric acid," "fructose", "obesity", "diabetes", "hypertension", "metabolic syndrome", "insulin resistance", "hypertriglyceridemia", "nitric oxide" and "endothelial dysfunction".

T Nakagawa is Research Assistant Professor in the Division of Nephrology, Hypertension, and Transplantation at the University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, KR Tuttle is the Medical and Scientific Director at The Heart Institute and Providence Medical Research Center, Spokane, Washington, DC, RA Short is a faculty member at Washington State University, Spokane, Washington, DC, and RJ Johnson is the J Robert Cade Professor of Nephrology and the Chief of the Division of Nephrology, Hypertension and Transplantation at the University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA.

Correspondence

*Division of Nephrology, Hypertension and Transplantation, PO Box 100224, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32610, USA nakagt@medicine.ufl.edu

Received 2 July 2005 Accepted 11 August 2005 www.nature.com/clinicalpractice doi:10.1038/ncpneph0019

INTRODUCTION

Obesity is epidemic. Prevalence has quadrupled in the past 25 years; 16% of children and 30% of adults in the US are now affected.¹ Many obese people suffer from the 'metabolic syndrome', which is characterized by insulin resistance, hypertriglyceridemia and hypertension.² Progression of the obesity epidemic has coincided with increased frequency of TYPE 2 DIABETES, and now affects more than 17 million individuals in the US.

A simple explanation for the obesity epidemic is that individuals ingest more calories than they consume. One contributory factor is ready access to foods high in fat and sugar. 'Fast foods' such as soft drinks, burgers, pizza, chips and pastries comprise nearly 20% of total energy intake for the average American.³ Epidemiological studies implicate the introduction of 'Western diets' high in fatty meats and refined sugars in the epidemics of obesity, diabetes and hypertension currently occurring in Africa, Asia, South America, Australia/New Zealand and Oceania.4,5 Not surprisingly, up to 45% of females and 30% of males are dieting at any given time.⁶ Unfortunately, most studies show that, regardless of whether a low-fat or low-carbohydrate diet is followed, and despite often impressive weight loss in the first few months of a diet, longterm weight-reduction goals are seldom achieved because of poor adherence to the diet and high attrition rates.⁷

It is important to consider mechanisms of, and strategies for preventing and treating, the obesity epidemic. We propose that certain foods, particularly fructose-based sweeteners, cause the metabolic syndrome by increasing serum uric acid levels.

FRUCTOSE AND THE OBESITY EPIDEMIC

Fructose is a simple sugar present in honey and fruit. It constitutes 50% of table sugar (sucrose; a disaccharide consisting of one glucose and one fructose molecule) and accounts for 55% of the sugar content of high-fructose corn syrup

www.nature.com/clinicalpractice/neph

(HFCS). HFCS was introduced in the US in 1967 as a more stable and less expensive alternative to table sugar. It is currently used in many foods, particularly soft drinks, baked goods, candies/sweets, jams/preserves, yogurts, and sweetened and packaged products. While yearly per capita sucrose intake decreased from 44 to 30 kg between 1966 and 2001, HFCS consumption increased from 0 to 29 kg.^{8,9} So, in the US, there has been an approximately 30% increase in total fructose intake, contributing to a 25–30% increase in total sweetener consumption, over the past 35 years.¹⁰

Over the past 25 years, the increased fructose intake correlates with the acceleration of the obesity epidemic.¹⁰ Ingestion of soft drinks, which are high in HFCS, is associated with an increased risk of obesity in adolescents¹¹ and of type 2 diabetes in young and middle-aged women.¹² Similarly, excessive consumption of fruit juice, which is also high in fructose, is associated with obesity in children.¹³ Feeding fructose to rats causes rapid development of the metabolic syndrome, including obesity, hypertension, insulin resistance, hypertriglyceridemia and hyperinsulinemia.^{14,15}

There are several reasons why fructose, as opposed to other sugars, might cause obesity.¹⁴ Fructose is phosphorylated in the liver by fructokinase. Further metabolism generates glycerol-3phosphate, which is crucial in the synthesis of triglycerides. Fructose administration markedly enhances triglyceride synthesis,^{15,16} which increases intramyocellular triglyceride content in the skeletal muscle, causing insulin resistance.¹⁷ Evidence indicates that fructose does not suppress appetite to the same degree as glucose. Glucose ingestion causes transient elevation of serum glucose and insulin. The latter then stimulates leptin release, signaling the brain to stop eating. Ingestion of fructose decreases postprandial glucose levels. Subsequently lower insulin and leptin levels result, thereby predisposing the individual to continue to eat.¹⁶

FRUCTOSE-INDUCED HYPERURICEMIA AND THE METABOLIC SYNDROME

We have identified another mechanism by which fructose might cause the metabolic syndrome. We propose that development of the metabolic syndrome is related to the unique ability of fructose to increase serum uric acid levels. Oral or intravenous ingestion of fructose results in a rapid (30–60 min) increase in serum uric acid in humans,

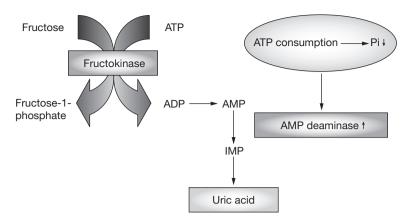


Figure 1 Fructose-induced production of uric acid in the hepatocyte.

which might be sustained;^{18–21} glucose and other simple sugars do not have the same effect. The effect of fructose intake on serum uric acid is greatest in patients with gout and their children.^{18–20}

ATP acts as a phosphate donor during phosphorylation of fructose by fructokinase in hepatocytes (Figure 1). ADP is generated, and is further metabolized to various purine substrates.¹⁴ The rapid depletion of phosphate during these reactions stimulates AMP deaminase. The combination of increased substrate (via oral ingestion of fructose) and enzyme (AMP deaminase) upregulates urate production.²²

High levels of uric acid could lead to endothelial dysfunction and reduced bioavailability of endothelial nitric oxide (NO). Soluble uric acid potently reduces NO levels in cultured human and bovine endothelial cells.^{23,24} Decreased levels of plasma nitrites (NO breakdown products) in hyperuricemic rats can be restored if uric acid concentration is lowered with allopurinol.²³ Vasorelaxation of arterial rings in response to acetylcholine, a process that is mediated by NO, is blocked by uric acid (T Nakagawa et al., unpublished data). In humans, serum uric acid concentration varies inversely with plasma NO during the day; urate levels peak in the morning when plasma NO is low.²⁵ Lowering uric acid levels using allopurinol also improves endothelial function in patients with heart failure, diabetes and hypercholesterolemia, and in heavy smokers.²⁶⁻³⁰

Decreased endothelial NO in turn results in development of insulin resistance and obesity. A contributory mechanism to this phenomenon is inhibition of insulin-dependent NO production, which is crucial for the enhancement of blood flow that allows glucose delivery to the skeletal

GLOSSARY

TYPE 2 DIABETES Referred to as maturityonset diabetes; it is not usually dependent on insulin injections and control is achieved through changes in lifestyle

www.nature.com/clinicalpractice/neph

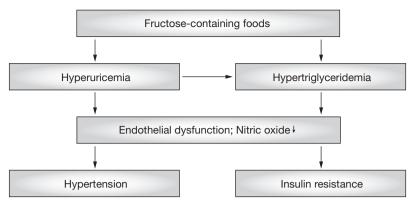


Figure 2 Proposed pathway of fructose-induced metabolic syndrome.

muscle and adipose tissues.³¹ Mice deficient in endothelial NO synthase develop features of the metabolic syndrome including hypertension, insulin resistance and hypertriglyceridemia.³² In studies in which NO synthesis was blocked in rats *in vivo* with L-NAME (N-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester), rates of insulin-dependent glucose uptake into skeletal muscle and adipose tissue were significantly decreased and insulin resistance developed.³³

We therefore propose that rapid ingestion of fructose causes a transient increase in serum uric acid that limits endothelial NO bioavailability. By this theory, uric acid-induced NO inhibition would occur while concomitant intake of glucose stimulated insulin secretion. The consequence would be inhibition of insulin-mediated NO release, and slowing of rates of glucose delivery to skeletal muscle (Figure 2). The physiological response would be to increase insulin levels to overcome the acquired insulin resistance, leading to hyperinsulinemia. As less glucose would be delivered to skeletal muscle than is normal for the level of insulin, it is possible that signaling in the central nervous system could sustain ingestion.

SUPPORTING EVIDENCE

Several lines of evidence support our hypothesis (Box 1). Fructose-fed rats develop hyperuricemia, endothelial dysfunction, insulin resistance and the metabolic syndrome.¹⁴ If fructose-induced hyperuricemia is prevented by administration of allopurinol, the development of obesity, hyperinsulinemia, hypertension and hypertriglyceridemia is significantly attenuated (T Nakagawa *et al.*, unpublished data). Two older studies showed that rats made hyperuricemic using different uricase inhibitors develop hypertension, **Box 1** Evidence supporting involvement of uric acid in development of insulin resistance.

 Uric acid predicts, and is an integral component of, the metabolic syndrome.^{36–41}

 Serum uric acid levels are elevated in secondary insulin-resistance syndromes (e.g. gout, transplantation, pre-eclampsia and diuretic use).^{42–45}

• Elevated serum uric acid levels correlate with increased frequency of obesity and insulin resistance in the US, in developing countries, and in studies of immigrant populations.^{47–57}

• Experimental hyperuricemia induces diabetes and hypertension in animals.^{34,35}

• Fructose-induced hyperuricemia in rats leads to hypertension, insulin resistance, obesity and hypertriglyceridemia; these conditions are ameliorated by decreasing uric acid levels. (REFS 14,16 and T Nakagawa *et al.*, unpublished data.)

• Fructose ingestion increases serum uric acid levels^{18–21} and correlates with progression of the obesity epidemic.^{10–13}

• Uric acid-induced endothelial dysfunction with impaired NO production might mediate development of insulin resistance and hypertension.

hyperglycemia and hypertriglyceridemia.^{34,35} These data are consistent with recent work demonstrating a strong causal relationship between experimentally induced hyperuricemia and hypertension.³⁶

Further support for our hypothesis is the fact that elevated serum uric acid independently predicts development of the metabolic syndrome; for example, increased serum levels of uric acid independently predict development of obesity,37 insulin resistance³⁸ and hypertension.^{36,39} In a secondary analysis, we examined whether serum uric acid might predict the development of hyperinsulinemia in 60 nondiabetic adults admitted with first-time myocardial infarction (45 males and 15 females; mean age 57 ± 9 years, range 39-80 years). Fasting serum uric acid, plasma insulin and a series of cardiovascular risk factors were measured in the first month following myocardial infarction, and 6 and 12 months later. The power of serum uric acid to predict hyperinsulinemia (defined as a plasma insulin concentration $>12 \mu U/ml$) at 6 and 12 months was determined using a multiple logistic regression model that controlled for gender, age >60 years,

www.nature.com/clinicalpractice/neph

calculated (MDRD FORMULA) glomerular filtration rate <60 ml/min, insulin levels at baseline and at 6 months, and baseline BMI \geq 27 kg/m².

At baseline, 28 of 60 patients (47%) had serum uric acid levels \geq 5.5 mg/dl (mean 6.6 ± 0.8 mg/dl) and 32 patients had serum uric acid levels <5.5 mg/dl (mean 4.9 ± 0.5 mg/dl). Patients with higher (\geq 5.5 mg/dl) serum uric acid levels at baseline were more likely to develop hyperinsulinemia at 6 months (ODDS RATIO 5.47, 90% CI 1.6–17.7, n=60, P=0.01) and 12 months (odds ratio 3.4, 90% CI 1.1–10.4, n=53, P=0.04) (Figure 3).

Hyperuricemia and endothelial dysfunction are common in subjects with the metabolic syndrome; hyperuricemia is an integral component of the metabolic syndrome in both children and adults.^{40,41} Elevated uric acid concentrations are also evident in other insulin-resistant conditions, such as gout,⁴² pre-eclampsia⁴³ and transplantation,⁴⁴ and during low-dose diuretic treatment.⁴⁵ Altered bioavailability of endothelial NO is also common in subjects with the metabolic syndrome, hypertension and/or vascular disease.⁴⁶

Epidemiological studies have established a link between the increasing prevalence of the metabolic syndrome and an elevated population mean serum uric acid concentration. Notwithstanding different methods of determining uric acid levels, there has been a general increase in population mean uric acid in the US-levels have risen in men from <3.5 mg/dl in the 1920s,⁴⁷ to approximately 5.0 mg/dl in the 1950s,⁴⁸ to 5.5 mg/dl in the 1960s,⁴⁹ and to 6.0–6.5 mg/dl in the 1970s.^{50,51} Similar changes over time have been reported in Germany.⁵² The escalation of serum uric acid levels during the twentieth century correlates not only with the frequency of diabetes and obesity, but also with a progressive increase in hypertension. In the 1930s, 10-11% of the US population were affected by hypertension.⁵³ Today, the incidence of hypertension has tripled to 30%.

A study in Rochester, MN, detected a twofold increase in the incidence of gout between 1977 and 1995.⁵⁴ The onset and increasing impact of gout in indigenous populations, such as the Maori of New Zealand, also parallels the increased frequency of diabetes, hypertension and obesity that accompanied their adoption of the Western diet.⁵⁵ Developing countries such as the Seychelles currently have high frequencies of hyperuricemia that correlate closely with parameters of the metabolic syndrome, particularly hypertrigylceridemia and hypertension.⁵⁶ Similarly, studies of immigrants have linked dietary changes

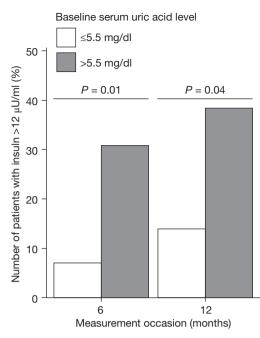


Figure 3 Uric acid predicts hyperinsulinemia in first-time myocardial infarction patients.

with elevated serum uric acid concentrations, increased frequency of hypertension, and higher fasting plasma glucose levels.⁵⁷

Ingestion of alcohol (especially beer and hard drinks) and foods rich in purines (such as fatty red meats [beef, pork and lamb], shellfish, lobster, dark fish and organ meats) also increases levels of serum uric acid. Increased consumption of these types of food correlates with an increased risk of gout,⁵⁸ and with the global epidemic of hypertension, diabetes, obesity and cardiovascular disease.⁵⁹ It is likely that the increase in fatty meat consumption had a role in increasing rates of obesity during the early twentieth century; however, it is unlikely to have been the predominant mechanism behind the rise in obesity during the past 20 years. The average per capita intake of red meat decreased by a little more than 10% between 1980 and 2001,8 and so does not correlate with the marked increase in obesity observed during this time.

Once frank diabetes develops, serum uric acid levels fall. This action is a function of glycosuria stimulating renal urate excretion. So, serum concentrations of uric acid are elevated in insulin resistance but not necessarily in diabetes.⁶⁰ Interestingly, in studies of type 2 diabetes, persistent hyperuricemia has been associated with progression of renal disease, whereas hypouricemia correlates with poor metabolic control, hyperfiltration and decreased risk of

GLOSSARY

MDRD FORMULA Used to calculate

glomerular filtration rate; developed as a result of the Modification of Diet in Renal Disease study conducted by Levey *et al.* in 1999

ODDS RATIO

Ratio of odds of an event in intervention group to odds in control group; when <1 for an undesirable outcome, the intervention reduced the risk www.nature.com/clinicalpractice/neph

renal-disease progression.⁶¹ One might posit that this phenomenon is the result of the fact that experimental hyperuricemia promotes glomerular hypertension and renal vasoconstriction,⁶² both of which can induce and accelerate renal injury.⁶³

We propose that hyperuricemia has a role in inducing insulin resistance that could become less important once insulin resistance and obesity are established. It is well documented that obesity itself causes insulin resistance, either as an effect of increased triglycerides in adipocyte and muscle cells,¹⁸ or because associated hyperglycemia and/or advanced glycation endproducts impair endothelial cell-dependent release of NO.^{64,65} Hyperuricemia might therefore be more important in the development phase of insulin resistance than in maintenance of prediabetic and diabetic states.

The renin–angiotensin system has a key role in mediating the endothelial and vascular effects associated with experimental hyperuricemia⁶⁶ and fructose-induced endothelial dysfunction,⁶⁷ and in rats in which NO synthesis is chronically inhibited.⁶⁸ Preservation of endothelial function by angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors and angiotensin receptor blockers in response to hyperuricemia or other mechanisms might explain why these agents have been found to reduce the incidence of type 2 diabetes.⁶⁹

COUNTERING ARGUMENTS

There are countering issues to the above propositions to consider. First, fructose has been considered safe for consumption by diabetics as it does not elevate glucose levels to the extent of glucose itself;⁷⁰ however, if fructose causes insulin resistance, its benefit as a nonglucose carbohydrate source might be nullified. Second, several studies indicate that uric acid is elevated in the metabolic syndrome because insulin enhances uric acid reabsorption.⁷¹ This evidence does not, however, negate the possibility that uric acid might also cause hyperinsulinemia. Third, there are certain populations, particularly in Oceania, whose serum uric acid levels are elevated without concomitant obesity, hypertension or cardiovascular disease.⁷² It is possible that these individuals have the advantage of mechanisms that confer protection; for example, the raw cocoa ingested by the Kuna Indians of Panama contains flavonoids that enhance NO release from endothelial cells.⁷³ Finally, one study found that infusion of uric acid into human volunteers did not impair brachial artery reactivity, a reflection

of endothelial function.⁷⁴ Our more recent studies, however, indicate that the mechanism of urate-induced endothelial dysfunction could be a consequence of a urate oxidant-based reaction, rather than a direct effect of uric acid (A Angerhofer *et al.*, unpublished data). As such, direct infusion studies might not reproduce the physiological mechanism by which uric acid exerts its effect.

CONCLUSIONS

It was over 100 years ago that Osler prescribed diets low in fructose as a means to prevent gout. He wrote in his 1893 text⁷⁵ that "The sugar should be reduced to a minimum. The sweeter fruits should not be taken". This brilliant insight gels with our proposition that foods that elevate serum uric acid levels induce transient endothelial dysfunction, which in turn causes insulin resistance and hypertension to develop. The primary dietary inductive factors are foods containing fructose or table sugar, and fatty meats that contain high concentrations of purines. We have outlined a mechanistic pathway that at least partially explains why low-carbohydrate diets such as the Atkins diet, and more classic eating plans, are successful to some degree. Adherence to most diets can decrease uric acid levels in concert with weight loss.⁷⁶ Importantly, once a person becomes obese and diabetic, insulin resistance will be driven primarily by the obesity itself, as a consequence of elevated intramuscular triglyceride levels.¹⁸ Clinical studies of either lowfructose diets and/or lowering uric acid levels with allopurinol as a means of preventing or treating the early metabolic syndrome, should be considered. Such a trial is urgent given the magnitude of the metabolic syndrome epidemic.

KEY POINTS

 Increased ingestion of fructose in processed foodstuffs has correlated with development of the obesity epidemic

 Hypothesis: fructose-mediated elevation of serum uric acid levels has a role in development of the metabolic syndrome

• By the proposed hypothesis, transient hyperuricemia would exert its effect by limiting bioavailability of endothelial nitric oxide, leading to insulin resistance and hypertension

• Low-fructose diets or allopurinol-mediated lowering of serum uric acid levels might prevent or successfully treat early stage metabolic syndrome

www.nature.com/clinicalpractice/neph

References

- 1 Hedley AA et al. (2004) Prevalence of overweight and obesity among children, adolescents, and adults, 1999–2002. JAMA 2: 2847–2850
- 2 Weiss R *et al.* (2004) Obesity and the metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents. *N Engl J Med* **350:** 2362–2374
- 3 Block G (2004) Foods contributing to energy intake in the U.S.: data from NHANES III and NHANES 1999–2000: *J Food Comp Analysis* **17**: 439–447
- 4 Johnson RJ *et al.* (2005) Uric acid, evolution, and primitive cultures. *Sem Nephrol* **25:** 3–8
- 5 Yusuf S *et al.* (2001) Global burden of cardiovascular diseases. Part I: General considerations, the epidemiologic transition, risk factors, and impact of urbanization. *Circulation* **104**: 2746–2753
- 6 Serdula MK et al. (1999) Prevalence of attempting weight loss and strategies for controlling weight. JAMA 282: 1353–1358
- 7 Foster GD et al. (2003) A randomized trial of a low-carbohydrate diet for obesity. N Engl J Med 348: 2082–2089
- 8 United States Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service report. [http://www.ers.usda.gov/ data/foodconsumption/spreadsheets/sweets.xls]
- 9 US Census Bureau (2003) Health and Nutrition. No. 214 Per Capita Consumption of Major Food Commodities: 1980 to 2001. In: *Statistical Abstract of the United States: 2003*, 143. Washington DC: US Census Bureau
- 10 Bray GA et al. (2004) Consumption of high-fructose corn syrup in beverages may play a role in the epidemic of obesity. Am J Clin Nutr **79:** 537–543
- 11 Ludwig DS *et al.* (2001) Relation between consumption of sugar-sweetened drinks and childhood obesity: a prospective, observational analysis. *Lancet* **357**: 505–508
- 12 Schulze MB *et al.* (2004) Sugar-sweetened beverages, weight gain, and incidence of type 2 diabetes in young and middle-aged women. *JAMA* **292:** 927–934
- 13 Dennison BA et al. (1997) Excess fruit juice consumption by preschool-aged children is associated with short stature and obesity. *Pediatr* 99: 15–22
- 14 Hallfrisch J (1990) Metabolic effects of dietary fructose. *FASEB J* **4:** 2652–2660
- 15 Lingelbach LB and McDonald RB (2000) Description of the long-term lipogenic effects of dietary carbohydrates in male Fischer 344 rats. *J Nutr* **130**: 3077–3084
- 16 Teff KL *et al.* (2004) Dietary fructose reduces circulating insulin and leptin, attenuates postprandial suppression of ghrelin, and increases triglycerides in women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **89:** 2963–2972
- 17 Zammit VA *et al.* (2001) Insulin stimulation of hepatic triacylglycerol secretion and the etiology of insulin resistance. *J Nutr* **131:** 2074–2077
- 18 Perheentupa J and Raivio K (1967) Fructose induced hyperuricemia. Lancet 2: 528–535
- 19 Emmerson BT (1974) Effect of oral fructose on urate production. *Ann Rheum Dis* **33:** 276–280
- 20 Stirpe F *et al.* (1970) Fructose-induced hyperuricemia. *Lancet* **2:** 1310–1311
- 21 Fox IH and Kelley WN (1972) Studies on the mechanism of fructose-induced hyperuricemia in man. *Metabolism* **21:** 713–721
- 22 Smith CM et al. (1977) Fructose-induced adenine nucleotide catabolism in isolated rat hepatocyte. Can J Biochem 55: 1237–1240
- 23 Khosla UM et al. (2005) Hyperuricemia reversibly inhibits endothelial dysfunction in rats. Kidney Int 67: 1739–1742

- 24 Kang DH *et al.* (2003) Uric acid induced C-reactive protein (CRP) expression via upregulation of angiotensin type 1 receptors (AT₁) in vascular endothelial cells and smooth muscle cells [abstract #136]. *J Am Soc Nephrol* **14**
- 25 Kanabrocki EL *et al.* (2000) Circadian relationship of serum uric acid and nitric oxide. *JAMA* **283**: 2240–2241
- 26 Butler R *et al.* (2000) Allopurinol normalizes endothelial dysfunction in type 2 diabetics with mild hypertension. *Hypertension* **35:** 746–751
- 27 Doehner W *et al.* (2002) Effects of xanthine oxidase inhibition with allopurinol on endothelial function and peripheral blood flow in hyperuricemic patients with chronic heart failure: results from 2 placebo-controlled studies. *Circulation* **105:** 2619–2624
- 28 Farquharson CA *et al.* (2002) Allopurinol improves endothelial dysfunction in chronic heart failure. *Circulation* **106:** 221–226
- 29 Cardillo C *et al.* (1997) Xanthine oxidase inhibition with oxypurinol improves endothelial vasodilator function in hypercholesterolemic but not in hypertensive patients. *Hypertension* **30:** 57–63
- 30 Guthikonda S *et al.* (2003) Xanthine oxidase inhibition reverses endothelial dysfunction in heavy smokers. *Circulation* **107:** 416–421
- 31 Scherrer U et al. (1994) Nitric oxide release accounts for insulin's vascular effects in humans. J Clin Invest 94: 2511–2515
- 32 Cook S *et al.* (2003) Clustering of cardiovascular risk factors mimicking the human metabolic syndrome X in eNOS null mice. *Swiss Med Wkly* **133**: 360–363
- 33 Roy D et al. (1998) Insulin stimulation of glucose uptake in skeletal muscles and adipose tissues in vivo is NO dependent. Am J Physiol 274: E692–E699
- 34 Wexler BC and Greenberg BP (1977) Effect of increased serum urate levels on virgin rats with no arteriosclerosis versus breeder rats with preexistent arteriosclerosis. *Metabolism* **26:** 1309–1320
- 35 Wexler BC (1982) Allantoxanamide-induced myocardial necrosis in Sprague-Dawley vs. Spontaneously Hypertensive Rats. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* **170:** 476–485
- 36 Johnson RJ *et al.* (2005) The resurrection of uric acid as a causal factor in hypertension. *Hypertension* **45**: 18–20
- 37 Masuo K *et al.* (2003) Serum uric acid and plasma norepinephrine concentrations predict subsequent weight gain and blood pressure elevation. *Hypertension* **42:** 474–480
- 38 Nakanishi N et al. (2003) Serum uric acid and risk for development of hypertension and impaired fasting glucose or Type 2 diabetes in Japanese male office workers. Eur J Epidemiol 18: 523–530
- 39 Sundström J et al. (2005) Relations of serum uric acid to longitudinal blood pressure tracking and hypertension incidence. Hypertension 45: 28–33
- 40 Vuorinen-Markkola H and Yki-Järvinen H (1994) Hyperuricemia and insulin resistance. *J Clin Endo Metab* **78:** 25–29
- 41 Costa A *et al.* (2002) Uric acid concentration in subjects at risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus: Relationship to components of the metabolic syndrome. *Metabolism* **51:** 372–375
- 42 Berkowitz D (1966) Gout, hyperlipidemia, and diabetes interrelationships. *JAMA* **197:** 117–120
- 43 Thadhani R *et al.* (2004) Insulin resistance and alterations in angiogenesis. Additive insults that may lead to preeclampsia. *Hypertension* **43**: 988–992
- 44 Pascual E (1994) Hyperuricemia and gout. *Curr Opin Rheumatol* **6:** 454–458

www.nature.com/clinicalpractice/neph

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by NIH grants DK-52121, HL-68607, a George O'Brien Center grant (DK-P50-DK064233) and a pilot grant from the Juvenile Diabetes Foundation. We thank Amy Buhler for help in obtaining some of the older references, and Edward R Block, Daniel I Feig, Olena Glushakova, Jaime Herrera-Acosta, Hanbo Hu, Xiaosen Ouyang and Sergey Zharikov for assistance with experimental studies.

Competing interests

The authors declared competing interests; go to the article online for details.

- 45 Lindholm LH *et al.* (2003) Metabolic outcome during 1 year in newly detected hypertensives: results of the Antihypertensive Treatment and Lipid profile in a North of Sweden Efficacy Evaluation (ALPIN study). *J Hypertens* **21:** 1563–1574
- 46 Deedwania PC (2003) Mechanisms of endothelial dysfunction in the metabolic syndrome. *Curr Diab Rep* 3: 289–292
- 47 Fishberg AM (1924) The interpretation of increased blood uric acid in hypertension. *Arch Int Med* **34:** 503–507
- 48 Hall AP *et al.* (1967) Epidemiology of gout and hyperuricemia. *Am J Med* **42:** 27–37
- 49 Mikkelsen WM *et al.* (1965) The distribution of serum uric acid values in a population unselected as to gout or hyperuricemia. Tecumseh, Michigan. 1959–1960. *Am J Med* **39:** 242–251
- 50 Glynn RJ *et al.* (1983) Trends in serum uric acid levels. 1961–1980. *Arthritis Rheum* **26:** 87–93
- 51 Freedman DS *et al.* (1995) Relation of serum uric acid to mortality and ischemic heart disease. *Am J Epidemiol* **141:** 637–644
- 52 Gresser U et al. (1990) Uric acid levels in Southern Germany in 1989. A comparison with studies from 1962, 1971, and 1984. Klin Wochenschr **68:** 1222–1228
- 53 Robinson SC and Brucer M (1939) Range of normal blood pressure. A statistical and clinical study of 11,383 persons. *Arch Int Med* **64:** 409–444
- 54 Arromedee E *et al.* (2002) Epidemiology of gout: Is the incidence rising? *J Rheumatol* **29:** 2403–2406
- 55 Lennane GAQ *et al.* (1960) Gout in the Maori. *Ann Rheum Dis* **19:** 120–125
- 56 Conen D *et al.* (2004) Prevalence of hyperuricemia and relation of serum uric acid with cardiovascular risk factors in a developing country. *BMC Public Health* **4:** 1–9
- 57 Kagan A *et al.* (1974) Epidemiologic studies of coronary heart disease and stroke in Japanese men living in Japan, Hawaii, and California. Demographic, physical, dietary and biochemical characteristics. *J Chron Dis* **27:** 345–364
- 58 Choi HK *et al.* (2004) Purine-rich foods, dairy and protein intake, and the risk of gout in men. *N Engl J Med* **350**: 1093–1103
- 59 Johnson RJ and Rideout BA (2004) Uric acid and diet: insights into the epidemic of cardiovascular disease. *N Engl J Med* **350:** 1071–1073
- 60 Tuomilehto J *et al.* (1988) Plasma uric acid level and its association with diabetes mellitus and some biological parameters in a biracial population of Fiji. *Am J Epidemiol* **127:** 321–336
- 61 Bo S *et al.* (2001) Hypouricemia and hyperuricemia in type 2 diabetes: two different phenotypes. *Eur J Clin Invest* **31:** 318–321

- 62 Sánchez-Lozada LG *et al.* (2005) Mild hyperuricemia induces severe cortical vasoconstriction and perpetuates glomerular hypertension in normal rats and in experimental chronic renal failure. *Kidney Int* **67:** 237–234
- 63 Kang DH et al. (2002) A role for uric acid in renal progression. J Am Soc Nephrol **13:** 2888–2897
- 64 Beckman JA *et al.* (2002) Inhibition of protein kinase C β prevents impaired endothelium-dependent vasodilation caused by hyperglycemia in humans. *Circ* Res **90:** 107–111
- 65 Hogan M *et al.* (1992) Advanced glycosylation endproducts block the antiproliferative effect of nitric oxide. Role in the vascular and renal complications of diabetes mellitus. *J Clin Invest* **90:** 1110–1115
- 66 Mazzali M et al. (2001) Elevated uric acid increases blood pressure in the rat by a novel crystalindependent mechanism. *Hypertension* **38**: 1101–1106
- 67 Shinozaki K *et al.* (2004) Evidence for a causal role of the renin angiotensin system in vascular dysfunction associated with insulin resistance. *Hypertension* **43**: 255–262
- 68 Pollock DM *et al.* (1993) Angiotensin blockade reverses hypertension during long-term nitric oxide blockade. *Hypertension* **21:** 660–666
- 69 Yusuf S et al. (2001) HOPE Study Investigators. Ramipril and the development of diabetes. JAMA 286: 1882–1885
- 70 Osei K et al. (1987) Metabolic effects of fructose as a natural sweetener in the physiological meals of ambulatory obese patients with type 2 diabetes. Am J Med 83: 249–255
- 71 Galvan AQ *et al.* (1995) Effect of insulin on uric acid excretion in humans. *Am J Physiol* **268:** E1–E5
- 72 Prior IAM *et al.* (1966) Hyperuricemia, gout and diabetic abnormality in Polynesian people. *Lancet* **1:** 333–338
- 73 Fisher ND *et al.* (2003) Flavanol-rich cocoa induces nitric-oxide-dependent vasodilation in healthy humans. *J Hypertens* **21:** 2281–2286
- 74 Waring WS *et al.* (2004) Hyperuricaemia does not impair cardiovascular function in healthy adults. *Heart* 90: 155–159
- 75 Osler W (1893) Gout. In: *The Principles and Practice of Medicine*, edn 2, 287–295.New York: Appleton
- 76 Dessein PH *et al.* (2000) Beneficial effects of weight loss associated with moderate calorie/carbohydrate restriction, and increased proportional intake of protein and unsaturated fat on serum urate and lipoprotein levels in gout; a pilot study. *Ann Rheum Dis* **59:** 539–543