

International Journal of Science and Research Archive

eISSN: 2582-8185 Cross Ref DOI: 10.30574/ijsra Journal homepage: https://ijsra.net/



(REVIEW ARTICLE)



Effect of diuretic medication and coffee consumption on serum uric acid levels: A review of literature

Yasser Jamaan Mohammed Al-Ghamdi 1, Mohammed Abdullah Ali Alsloli 1 and Zakaria Yahya Ali Alamri 2,*

- ¹ Ministry of Health-Directorate of Health Affairs, Bisha, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- ² King Abdullah Hospital, Ministry of Health, Bisha, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

International Journal of Science and Research Archive, 2023, 10(01), 642-647

Publication history: Received on 18 June 2023; revised on 29 September 2023; accepted on 02 October 2023

Article DOI: https://doi.org/10.30574/ijsra.2023.10.1.0598

Abstract

Various factors like diet, medications, beverages, and congenital conditions have shown to have their effect on uric acid levels. Hyperuricemia (serum uric acid level > 6.8mg/dL) is detrimental to health and is an independent risk factor for all cause cardiovascular mortality and ischemic stroke mortality. It is one of the best independent predictors for chronic diseases like obesity, hypertension and diabetes. Hyperuricemia causes inflammatory arthritis also known as gout. In this review, the authors have focused on the iatrogenic cause of hyperuricemia, particularly diuretic medications. The mechanism of action of these medications and the key interactions at cellular and receptor levels, which are responsible for hyperuricemia, were reviewed. In various studies, coffee consumption have shown to facilitate urate excretion and thus lower the risk of gout. This study has reviewed various studies detailing the lowered risk of gout with coffee consumption and have reviewed the possible mechanisms involved in inverse association between coffee consumption and risk of developing gout.

Keywords: Uric Acid; Gout; Diuretics; Coffee; Caffeine; Hyperuricemia

1. Introduction

Uric acid is a heterocyclic compound of carbon, nitrogen, oxygen and hydrogen with the formula $C_5H_4N_4O_3$. It forms ions and salts known as urates and acid urates, such as ammonium acid urate. Uric acid is a product of the metabolic breakdown of purine nucleotides, and it is a normal component of urine. Hyperuricemia is defined as a serum uric acid level >6.8 mg/dl (404 mmol/l). Gout is an inflammatory arthritis resulting due to hyperuricemia. According to estimates, it is the most common inflammatory arthritis affecting an estimated 2.5% of the population in the UK and 3.9% in North America [1]. Hyperuricemia is detrimental to health as an independent risk factor for all cause cardiovascular and ischaemic stroke mortality [2]. For chronic diseases like obesity, hypertension and diabetes, hyperuricemia is one of the best independent predictors [3]. According to some estimates, the prevalence of hyperuricemia is up to 20% in some populations [2]. Many factors contribute to hyperuricemia, including genetics, insulin resistance, hypertension [4], hypothyroidism, chronic kidney disease, obesity, diet, iron overload, use of diuretics (e.g. thiazides, loop diuretics), and excessive consumption of alcoholic beverages [5]. Of these, alcohol consumption is the most important [6]. One of the increasingly prevalent cause of hyperuricemia in clinical practice is use of diuretic medications. One study have shown that iatrogenic hyperuricemia was responsible in 20% cases of hyperuricemia among patients admitted in hospital [7]. Some factors like caffeine consumption have shown inverse relationship with incidence of gout among the study population [8,9].

Coffee and green tea are one of the most widely consumed beverages across global populations. Caffeine is an active component in both the beverages. Caffeine is widely used in many other foods and medications. There has been great

^{*} Corresponding author: Zakaria Yahya Ali Alamri

deal of research on the health consequences of caffeine ingestion due to complex pharmacogenetic and physiological effects of caffeine [10]. Caffeine with a known diuretic action may increase uric acid excretion due to increased renal perfusion [11]. In this review, we intend to shed light on causes and pathophysiology of hyperuricemia. We would also discuss the mechanism involved in complex interactions between diuretic drugs, caffeine and hyperuricemia. We also intend to review various studies detailing these complex interactions and effect of diuretic medications and caffeine on uric acid levels.

2. Hyperuricemia

Body urate amount depends on a delicate balance between amount of purines consumed, synthesized and excreted by a person [12]. Hyperuricemia may be a result of loss of this delicate balance. It may be a result of increased production, decreased excretion or both for uric acid [4].

Hyperuricemia can be classified into 3 functional types as follows:

2.1. Increased production of Uric Acid

A purine rich diet may cause hyperuricemia. Studies have found higher uric acid levels to be positively associated with higher consumption of meat, seafood and inversely associated with dairy food consumption [13]. Increased purine metabolism may also lead to hyperuricemia. In conditions of metabolic myopathies like glycogenosis type III, V and VII, there is increased exercise induced purine metabolism leading to hyperuricemia, which decreases over hours with rest [14].

Hyperuricemia due to increased production of uric acid may occur in certain conditions like solid organ transplant, tumor lysis syndrome, Lesch-Nhyan syndrome [15, 16].

2.2. Decreased excretion of Uric Acid

Causes of decreased excretion include kidney disease, certain drugs, and competition for excretion between uric acid and other molecule [17]. Antiuricosuric is the term used for drugs that impair renal excretion of uric acid. These include diuretics, salicylates, pyrazinamide, ethambutol, nicotinic acid, cyclosporine, 2-ethylamino-1,3,4-thiadiazole, and cytotoxic agents [18]. The gene SLC2A9 encodes a protein that helps to transport uric acid in the kidney. Several single nucleotide polymorphisms of this gene are known to have a significant correlation with blood uric acid [19]. Hyperuricemia coexisting with osteogenesis imperfecta has been shown to be associated with a mutation in GPATCH8 using exome sequencing [20]. A ketogenic diet impairs the ability of the kidney to excrete uric acid, due to competition for transport between uric acid and ketones [21]. Elevated blood lead is significantly correlated with both impaired kidney function and hyperuricemia [22,23].

2.3. Mixed Type

Causes of hyperuricemia that are of mixed type have a dual action, both increasing production and decreasing excretion of uric acid. Alcohol consumption is a significant cause of hyperuricemia. The hyperuricemia due to alcohol consumption is of mixed type with multiple mechanisms at play. Ethanol increases production of uric acid by increasing production of lactic acid, hence lactic acidosis. Ethanol also increases the plasma concentrations of hypoxanthine and xanthine via the acceleration of adenine nucleotide degradation, and is a possible weak inhibitor of xanthine dehydrogenase. As a by-product of its fermentation process, beer additionally contributes purines. Ethanol decreases excretion of uric acid by promoting dehydration and (rarely) clinical ketoacidosis [6]. Fructose consumption in high amounts leads to hyperuricemia [24–26]. Higher consumption of sugar-sweetened soft drinks have higher odds ratio for hyperuricemia [27]. Increased production of uric acid is the result of interference, by a product of fructose metabolism, in purine metabolism. This interference has a dual action, both increasing the conversion of ATP to inosine and hence uric acid and increasing the synthesis of purine [25]. Fructose also inhibits the excretion of uric acid, apparently by competing with uric acid for access to the transport protein SLC2A9 [28].

The effect of fructose in reducing excretion of uric acid is increased in people with a hereditary (genetic) predisposition toward hyperuricemia and/or gout [25]. Starvation causes the body to metabolize its own (purine-rich) tissues for energy. Thus, like a high purine diet, starvation increases the amount of purine converted to uric acid. A very low calorie diet lacking in carbohydrates can induce extreme hyperuricemia; including some carbohydrate (and reducing the protein) reduces the level of hyperuricemia [29]. Starvation also impairs the ability of the kidney to excrete uric acid, due to competition for transport between uric acid and ketones [30].

3. Diuretic Medications and Hyperuricemia

Diuresis means increased production of urine. A diuretic is any substance promoting diuresis. Diuretics are used to treat heart failure, liver cirrhosis, hypertension, influenza, water poisoning, and certain kidney diseases. The diuretics are classified into various categories depending on the mechanism of action. All diuretics increase the excretion of water from the body, through the kidneys. Among all the types of diuretics, loop diuretics, thiazide diuretics and thiazide like diuretics are associated with an increased risk of hyperuricemia. In fact, hyperuricemia is one of the well-documented side effect of these class of diuretics [31,32]. The hyperuricemia resulting from diuretic medication use may lead to gout. The clinical features of iatrogenic gout are similar to the gout resulting from other causes. Serum uric acid elevation occurs within a few days after treatment initiation and seems to be dose dependent. The elevated uric acid levels persist throughout treatment duration [33,34]. Studies have shown the uric acid levels to be elevated from 6% to 21% from baseline values after start of diuretics [35]. After stopping the diuretics, the levels have shown to return to baseline values after few months. The renal excretion of uric acid varies for different diuretics. Hence, the clinical presentation of gout varies among different patients on various class of diuretics. It is observed that compared to patients on thiazides diuretics, those on loop diuretics have more preponderance to develop gout [36,37]. Among the few studies comparing different diuretic subclasses and different diuretic agents, in one of the study, the risk of developing new onset gout was found to be similar for patients taking chlorthalidone and hydrochlorothiazide [38]. The aforementioned study compared hydrochlorothiazide, chlorthalidone and two loop diuretics for risk of gout.

4. Mechanism associated with hyperuricemia development for different diuretics

Interaction of thiazide and loop diuretics with renal urate transporters is one of the key mechanism for development of hyperuricemia. The renal proximal tubule is the site for organic anion transporters OAT1 and OAT3. These are located basolateral on the proximal tubular cells. The function of these transporters is active uptake of plasma uric acid and its secretion in proximal renal tubule for renal excretion. Loop diuretics and thiazide diuretics have shown to inhibit OAT1 and OAT3 transporters by entering the proximal tubular cells from the blood side. They act as competitive substrates of uric acid [39]. OAT 4 is involved in active reabsorption of uric acid from proximal tubular cells into plasma. Its function is enhanced by use of hydrochlorothiazide [40]. OAT4 is encoded by SLC22A11. There are known genetic variants of SLC22A11 which translate to increased transport capacity of OAT4. Additional activation of variant OAT4 may occur with intake of diuretics compounding the development of gout in such individuals [41]. Another mechanism involved in reduced uric acid excretion with diuretic intake is related to inhibition of human voltage driven drug efflux transporter NPT4. The NPT4 functions by secretion of uric acid in proximal renal tubule. It is located on the apical side of renal proximal tubular cells [39]. Some more mechanisms of diuretic induced hyperuricemia have come forth. Studies have shown that loop diuretic furosemide and hydrochlorothiazide inhibited human multidrug resistance associated protein 4 (MRP 4) mediated uric acid transport, thus leading to hyperuricemia [42]. The salt and water loss produced by diuretics leads to volume contraction, which in turn stimulates uric acid reabsorption leading to hyperuricemia. As a remedial measure, normal saline infused intravenously to prevent volume depletion induced by acute administration of ethacrynic acid and furosemide prevents development of hyperuricemia [43]. H+ ion secretion in proximal renal tubules is increased as a result of volume contraction driven by diuretic administration especially thiazides. Subsequent increase in proximal tubular cell pH drives urate uptake via OAT4 [33]. Diuretic like spironolactone increase uric acid levels due to reduced uric acid renal clearance mediated by volume contraction and elevated plasma renin activity [44]. Hyperlactacidemia caused by furosemide suppresses renal tubular uric acid secretion [45]. Data on triamterene and amiloride is unequivocal with some studies demonstrating hyperuricemia and some showing no effect of uric acid levels of these medications [46].

4.1. Coffee consumption and Gout

Coffee is most widely consumed beverage globally [47]. Researchers through prospective cohort studies have tried to establish relationship between intake of coffee and incidence of gout across men and women [9]. These studies summarize that men drinking 4-5 cups of coffee per day have 40% lower risk of developing gout. If the coffee consumption is ≥ 6 cups/ day, the risk is 59% lower as compared to the men not consuming coffee. For women consuming 1-3 cups of coffee per day, the risk of developing gout was 22% lower. If the coffee consumption was ≥ 4 cups/day, the risk is 57% lower as compared to the women not consuming coffee [8]. Women had a significantly inverse association between coffee consumption and risk of gout as compared to men. Thus, we can conclude that long-term coffee consumption is associated with a lower risk of developing gout [47]. In one of the studies, the relationship between coffee, tea and caffeine intake was evaluated for serum uric acid levels. The findings of study suggested that coffee consumption is associated with lower serum uric acid levels and the inverse association of gout with coffee appears due to factors other than caffeine [48]. Based on the review of various studies on coffee consumption and gout,

we are able to ascertain that coffee consumption reduces the risk of gout and has urate lowering properties in both men and women [47].

4.2. Mechanism of interaction of coffee with uric acid

Caffeine, an active component in coffee, is shown to raise eGFR. This might be one of the possible mechanisms through which caffeine increases excretion of uric acid in urine. The caffeine levels however, are found to be unrelated to serum concentrations of uric acid. The above findings also lend support to the hypothesis that compounds of coffee other than caffeine contribute to an inverse association between coffee and serum concentrations of uric acid [48,49]. It has been observed that there is a strong positive association between hyperinsulinemia and hyperuricemia [50,51]. Excess insulin decreases eGFR levels [52,53]. Coffee consumption has shown to increase insulin sensitivity, thus also helping to alleviate hyperuricemia by increasing eGFR [48]. Plasma C-peptide concentrations were inversely related to the intake of caffeinated and decaffeinated coffee [54]. Chlorogenic acid is a major phenolic compound present in coffee. Following an oral glucose challenge test, the ingestion of chlorogenic acid have shown to decrease glucose and insulin concentrations [55]. Xanthine oxidase is an enzyme converting xanthine to uric acid. It is a matter of speculation that coffee contains substances that inhibit xanthine oxidase resulting in reduced serum uric acid levels in population that consume coffee [11]. The above mechanisms also hold true for decaffeinated coffee [49].

5. Conclusion

To conclude, this review presents an insight into the various studies that link diuretics with hyperuricemia and beneficial effects of coffee intake on uric acid levels. Iatrogenic hyperuricemia due to antihypertensive medications like diuretics is proving to be an emergent medical issue. There needs to be further research into possible prevention of hyperuricemia in this patient population. Coffee consumption to reduce hyperuricemia may be one of the possible ways. However, the cardiovascular risks of caffeine ingestion shall be taken into account before embarking on any such medical decisions.

Compliance with ethical standards

Disclosure of conflict of interest

All the authors do not have any conflict of interest to declare

References

- [1] Luk AJ, Simkin PA. Epidemiology of hyperuricemia and gout. Am J Manag Care. 2005 Nov;11(15 Suppl):S435-42; quiz S465-8.
- [2] Chen JH, Chuang SY, Chen HJ, Yeh WT, Pan WH. Serum uric acid level as an independent risk factor for all-cause, cardiovascular, and ischemic stroke mortality: a Chinese cohort study. Arthritis Rheum. 2009 Feb 15;61(2):225–32.
- [3] Johnson RJ, Nakagawa T, Sanchez-Lozada LG, Shafiu M, Sundaram S, Le M, et al. Sugar, uric acid, and the etiology of diabetes and obesity. Diabetes. 2013 Oct;62(10):3307–15.
- [4] Gois PHF, Souza ER de M. Pharmacotherapy for hyperuricaemia in hypertensive patients. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2020 Sep 2;9(9):CD008652.
- [5] Sun SZ, Flickinger BD, Williamson-Hughes PS, Empie MW. Lack of association between dietary fructose and hyperuricemia risk in adults. Nutr Metab (Lond). 2010 Mar 1;7:16.
- [6] Yamamoto T, Moriwaki Y, Takahashi S. Effect of ethanol on metabolism of purine bases (hypoxanthine, xanthine, and uric acid). Clin Chim Acta. 2005 Jun;356(1–2):35–57.
- [7] Paulus HE, Coutts A, Calabro JJ, Klinenberg JR. Clinical significance of hyperuricemia in routinely screened hospitalized men. JAMA. 1970 Jan 12;211(2):277–81.
- [8] Choi HK, Curhan G. Coffee consumption and risk of incident gout in women: the Nurses' Health Study. Am J Clin Nutr. 2010 Oct;92(4):922–7.
- [9] Choi HK, Willett W, Curhan G. Coffee consumption and risk of incident gout in men: a prospective study. Arthritis Rheum. 2007 Jun;56(6):2049–55.

- [10] Curatolo PW, Robertson D. The health consequences of caffeine. Ann Intern Med. 1983 May;98(5 Pt 1):641-53.
- [11] Kiyohara C, Kono S, Honjo S, Todoroki I, Sakurai Y, Nishiwaki M, et al. Inverse association between coffee drinking and serum uric acid concentrations in middle-aged Japanese males. Br J Nutr. 1999 Aug;82(2):125–30.
- [12] Choi HK, Mount DB, Reginato AM, American College of Physicians, American Physiological Society. Pathogenesis of gout. Ann Intern Med. 2005 Oct 4;143(7):499–516.
- [13] Villegas R, Xiang YB, Elasy T, Xu WH, Cai H, Cai Q, et al. Purine-rich foods, protein intake, and the prevalence of hyperuricemia: the Shanghai Men's Health Study. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis. 2012 May;22(5):409–16.
- [14] Mineo I, Kono N, Hara N, Shimizu T, Yamada Y, Kawachi M, et al. Myogenic hyperuricemia. A common pathophysiologic feature of glycogenosis types III, V, and VII. N Engl J Med. 1987 Jul 9;317(2):75–80.
- [15] Stamp L, Searle M, O'Donnell J, Chapman P. Gout in solid organ transplantation: a challenging clinical problem. Drugs. 2005;65(18):2593–611.
- [16] Nanagiri A, Shabbir N. Lesch-Nyhan Syndrome. 2023.
- [17] Yamamoto T. [Definition and classification of hyperuricemia]. Nihon Rinsho. 2008 Apr;66(4):636-40.
- [18] Scott JT. Drug-induced gout. Baillieres Clin Rheumatol. 1991 Apr;5(1):39-60.
- [19] Brandstätter A, Kiechl S, Kollerits B, Hunt SC, Heid IM, Coassin S, et al. Sex-specific association of the putative fructose transporter SLC2A9 variants with uric acid levels is modified by BMI. Diabetes Care. 2008 Aug;31(8):1662–7.
- [20] Kaneko H, Kitoh H, Matsuura T, Masuda A, Ito M, Mottes M, et al. Hyperuricemia cosegregating with osteogenesis imperfecta is associated with a mutation in GPATCH8. Hum Genet. 2011 Nov;130(5):671–83.
- [21] Förster H. [Possibilities for weight reduction by means of diet]. Fortschr Med. 1979 Aug 23;97(32):1339-44.
- [22] Lai LH, Chou SY, Wu FY, Chen JJH, Kuo HW. Renal dysfunction and hyperuricemia with low blood lead levels and ethnicity in community-based study. Sci Total Environ. 2008 Aug 15;401(1–3):39–43.
- [23] Shadick NA, Kim R, Weiss S, Liang MH, Sparrow D, Hu H. Effect of low level lead exposure on hyperuricemia and gout among middle aged and elderly men: the normative aging study. J Rheumatol. 2000 Jul;27(7):1708–12.
- [24] Nakagawa T, Hu H, Zharikov S, Tuttle KR, Short RA, Glushakova O, et al. A causal role for uric acid in fructose-induced metabolic syndrome. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol. 2006 Mar;290(3):F625-31.
- [25] Mayes PA. Intermediary metabolism of fructose. Am J Clin Nutr. 1993 Nov;58(5 Suppl):754S-765S.
- [26] Miller A, Adeli K. Dietary fructose and the metabolic syndrome. Curr Opin Gastroenterol. 2008 Mar;24(2):204–9.
- [27] Choi JWJ, Ford ES, Gao X, Choi HK. Sugar-sweetened soft drinks, diet soft drinks, and serum uric acid level: the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Arthritis Rheum. 2008 Jan 15;59(1):109–16.
- [28] Vitart V, Rudan I, Hayward C, Gray NK, Floyd J, Palmer CNA, et al. SLC2A9 is a newly identified urate transporter influencing serum urate concentration, urate excretion and gout. Nat Genet. 2008 Apr;40(4):437–42.
- [29] Howard AN. The historical development, efficacy and safety of very-low-calorie diets. Int J Obes. 1981;5(3):195–208.
- [30] Kirch W, von Gicycki C. [Renal function in therapeutic starvation (author's transl)]. Wien Klin Wochenschr. 1980 Apr 11;92(8):263–6.
- [31] Choi HK, Soriano LC, Zhang Y, Rodríguez LAG. Antihypertensive drugs and risk of incident gout among patients with hypertension: population based case-control study. BMJ. 2012 Jan 12;344:d8190.
- [32] Bruderer S, Bodmer M, Jick SS, Meier CR. Use of diuretics and risk of incident gout: a population-based case-control study. Arthritis Rheumatol. 2014 Jan;66(1):185–96.
- [33] Palmer BF. Metabolic complications associated with use of diuretics. Semin Nephrol. 2011 Nov;31(6):542-52.
- [34] Handler J. Managing hypertensive patients with gout who take thiazide. J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich). 2010 Sep;12(9):731–5.
- [35] Reyes AJ. Cardiovascular drugs and serum uric acid. Cardiovasc Drugs Ther. 2003;17(5-6):397-414.
- [36] Waller PC, Ramsay LE. Predicting acute gout in diuretic-treated hypertensive patients. J Hum Hypertens. 1989 Dec;3(6):457–61.

- [37] Hunter DJ, York M, Chaisson CE, Woods R, Niu J, Zhang Y. Recent diuretic use and the risk of recurrent gout attacks: the online case-crossover gout study. J Rheumatol. 2006 Jul;33(7):1341–5.
- [38] Wilson L, Nair K V, Saseen JJ. Comparison of new-onset gout in adults prescribed chlorthalidone vs. hydrochlorothiazide for hypertension. J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich). 2014 Dec;16(12):864–8.
- [39] Jutabha P, Anzai N, Wempe MF, Wakui S, Endou H, Sakurai H. Apical voltage-driven urate efflux transporter NPT4 in renal proximal tubule. Nucleosides Nucleotides Nucleic Acids. 2011 Dec;30(12):1302–11.
- [40] Hagos Y, Stein D, Ugele B, Burckhardt G, Bahn A. Human renal organic anion transporter 4 operates as an asymmetric urate transporter. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2007 Feb;18(2):430–9.
- [41] McAdams-DeMarco MA, Maynard JW, Baer AN, Kao LW, Kottgen A, Coresh J. A urate gene-by-diuretic interaction and gout risk in participants with hypertension: results from the ARIC study. Ann Rheum Dis. 2013 May;72(5):701–6.
- [42] El-Sheikh AAK, van den Heuvel JJMW, Koenderink JB, Russel FGM. Effect of hypouricaemic and hyperuricaemic drugs on the renal urate efflux transporter, multidrug resistance protein 4. Br J Pharmacol. 2008 Dec;155(7):1066–75.
- [43] Steele TH. Evidence for altered renal urate reabsorption during changes in volume of the extracellular fluid. J Lab Clin Med. 1969 Aug;74(2):288–99.
- [44] Roos JC, Boer P, Peuker KH, Dorhout Mees EJ. Changes in intrarenal uric acid handling during chronic spironolactone treatment in patients with essential hypertension. Nephron. 1982;32(3):209–13.
- [45] Daskalopoulou SS, Tzovaras V, Mikhailidis DP, Elisaf M. Effect on serum uric acid levels of drugs prescribed for indications other than treating hyperuricaemia. Curr Pharm Des. 2005;11(32):4161–75.
- [46] Ben Salem C, Slim R, Fathallah N, Hmouda H. Drug-induced hyperuricaemia and gout. Rheumatology (Oxford). 2017 May 1;56(5):679–88.
- [47] Towiwat P, Li ZG. The association of vitamin C, alcohol, coffee, tea, milk and yogurt with uric acid and gout. Int J Rheum Dis. 2015 Jun;18(5):495–501.
- [48] Choi HK, Curhan G. Coffee, tea, and caffeine consumption and serum uric acid level: the third national health and nutrition examination survey. Arthritis Rheum. 2007 Jun 15;57(5):816–21.
- [49] Pham NM, Yoshida D, Morita M, Yin G, Toyomura K, Ohnaka K, et al. The relation of coffee consumption to serum uric Acid in Japanese men and women aged 49-76 years. J Nutr Metab. 2010;2010.
- [50] Fam AG. Gout, diet, and the insulin resistance syndrome. J Rheumatol. 2002 Jul;29(7):1350-5.
- [51] Lee J, Sparrow D, Vokonas PS, Landsberg L, Weiss ST. Uric acid and coronary heart disease risk: evidence for a role of uric acid in the obesity-insulin resistance syndrome. The Normative Aging Study. Am J Epidemiol. 1995 Aug 1;142(3):288–94.
- [52] Muscelli E, Natali A, Bianchi S, Bigazzi R, Galvan AQ, Sironi AM, et al. Effect of insulin on renal sodium and uric acid handling in essential hypertension. Am J Hypertens. 1996 Aug;9(8):746–52.
- [53] Ter Maaten JC, Voorburg A, Heine RJ, Ter Wee PM, Donker AJ, Gans RO. Renal handling of urate and sodium during acute physiological hyperinsulinemia in healthy subjects. Clin Sci (Lond). 1997 Jan;92(1):51–8.
- [54] Wu T, Willett WC, Hankinson SE, Giovannucci E. Caffeinated coffee, decaffeinated coffee, and caffeine in relation to plasma C-peptide levels, a marker of insulin secretion, in U.S. women. Diabetes Care. 2005 Jun;28(6):1390–6.
- [55] van Dijk AE, Olthof MR, Meeuse JC, Seebus E, Heine RJ, van Dam RM. Acute effects of decaffeinated coffee and the major coffee components chlorogenic acid and trigonelline on glucose tolerance. Diabetes Care. 2009 Jun;32(6):1023–5.