2

Cross-sectional association between non-soy legume consumption, serum uric acid and hyperuricemia: The PREDIMED-Plus study

Nerea Becerra-Tomás^{1,2,3,4}, Guillermo Mena-Sánchez^{1,2,3,4}, Andrés Díaz-López^{1,2,3,4}, Miguel 3 Ángel Martínez-González^{3,5,6}, Nancy Babio^{1,2,3,4}, Dolores Corella^{3,7}, Gal·la Freixer⁸, Dora 4 Romaguera^{3,9}, Jesús Vioque^{10,11}, Ángel M. Alonso-Gómez^{3,12}, Julia Wärnberg^{3,13}, J. Alfredo 5 6 Martínez^{3,14,15}, Luís Serra-Majem^{3,16}, Ramon Estruch^{3,17}, José Carlos Fernández-García ^{3,18}, José Lapetra^{3,19}, Xavier Pintó^{3,20}, Josep A. Tur^{3,21}, José López-Miranda^{3,22}, Aurora Bueno-7 Cavanillas^{10,23}, José Juan Gaforio^{10,24}, Pilar Matía-Martín²⁵, Lidia Daimiel¹⁵, Vicente Martín 8 Sánchez^{10,26}, Josep Vidal^{27,28}, Clotilde Vázquez^{3,29}, Emili Ros^{3,30}, Cristina Razquin^{3,5}, Iván 9 Abellán Cano^{1,31}, Jose V. Sorli^{3,7}, Laura Torres⁸, Marga Morey^{3,9}, Eva M^a Navarrete-Muñoz^{10,11}, 10 Lucas Tojal Sierra^{3,12}, Edelys Crespo-Oliva^{3,13}, M. Ángeles Zulet^{3,14}, Almudena Sanchez-11 Villegas^{3,16}, Rosa Casas^{3,17}, Maria R. Bernal-Lopez^{3,18}, José Manuel Santos-Lozano^{3,19}, Emili 12 Corbella^{3,20}, Maria del Mar Bibiloni^{3,21}, Miguel Ruiz-Canela^{3,5}, Rebeca Fernandez-Carrion^{3,7}, 13 Mireia Quifer⁸, Rafel M. Prieto^{3,9,32}, Noelia Fernandez-Brufal^{10,11}, Itziar Salaverria Lete¹², Juan 14 Carlos Cenoz^{5,33}, Regina Llimona⁸ and Jordi Salas-Salvadó^{1,2,3,4}; on behalf of the PREDIMED-15 Plus Investigators*. 16

17 *A complete list of PREDIMED investigators is included as an appendix.

18

19 ¹Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Departament de Bioquímica i Biotecnologia, Unitat de Nutrició,

20 Reus, Spain

21 ²Institut d'Investigació Sanitària Pere Virgili (IISPV), Reus, Spain

22 ³Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red Fisiopatología de la Obesidad y la Nutrición

23 (CIBEROBN), Institute of Health Carlos III, Madrid, Spain

⁴University Hospital of Sant Joan de Reus, Nutrition Unit, Reus, Spain

	25	⁵ University	of Navarra,	Department o	of Preventive	Medicine and	l Public	Health,	IDISNA
--	----	-------------------------	-------------	--------------	---------------	--------------	----------	---------	---------------

- 26 Pamplona, Spain
- 27 ⁶Department of Nutrition, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA
- ⁷Department of Preventive Medicine, University of Valencia, Valencia, Spain
- ⁸Cardiovascular Risk and Nutrition research group (CARIN), Hospital del Mar Research
- 30 Institute (IMIM), Barcelona, Spain
- ⁹Health Research Institute of the Balearic Islands (IdISBa)
- 32 ¹⁰CIBER de Epidemiología y Salud Pública (CIBERESP), Instituto de Salud Carlos III, Madrid,
- 33 Spain
- 34 ¹¹Miguel Hernandez University, ISABIAL-FISABIO, Alicante, Spain
- ¹²Department of Cardiology, Organización Sanitaria Integrada (OSI) ARABA, University
- 36 Hospital Araba, Vitoria-Gasteiz, Spain.
- ¹³ Department of Nursing, School of Health Sciences, University of Málaga, Institute of
- 38 Biomedical Research in Malaga (IBIMA)-IBIMA, Málaga, Spain
- ¹⁴University of Navarra, Department of Nutrition, food Science and Physiology, IDISNA,
- 40 Pamplona, Spain
- ¹⁵Nutritional Genomics and Epigenomics Group, IMDEA Food, CEI UAM + CSIC, Madrid,
- 42 Spain
- 43 ¹⁶University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Research Institute of Biomedical and Health
- 44 Sciences (IUIBS), Preventive Medicine Service, Centro Hospitalario Universitario Insular
- 45 Materno Infantil (CHUIMI), Canarian Health Service, Las Palmas, Spain
- 46 ¹⁷Department of Internal Medicine, IDIBAPS, Hospital Clinic, University of Barcelona,
- 47 Barcelona, Spain

48	¹⁸ Virgen de la	Victoria Hospital,	Department of	Endocrinology.	Instituto de	Investigación
						6

- 49 Biomédica de Málaga (IBIMA). University of Málaga, Málaga, Spain.
- ¹⁹Department of Family Medicine, Research Unit, Distrito Sanitario Atención Primaria Sevilla,

51 Sevilla, Spain

- ²⁰Lipids and Vascular Risk Unit, Internal Medicine, Hospital Universitario de Bellvitge,
- 53 Hospitalet de Llobregat, Barcelona Spain
- ²¹Research Group on Community Nutrition & Oxidative Stress, University of Balearic Islands,
 Palma de Mallorca, Spain
- 56 ²²Department of Internal Medicine, Maimonides Biomedical Research Institute of Cordoba
- 57 (IMIBIC), Reina Sofia University Hospital, University of Cordoba, Cordoba, Spain
- ²³Department of Preventive Medicine, University of Granada, Granada, Spain
- ²⁴Division of Preventive Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, University of Jaén, Jaén, Spain
- ²⁵Department of Endocrinology and Nutrition, Instituto de Investigación Sanitaria Hospital
- 61 Clínico San Carlos (IdISSC), Madrid, Spain
- 62 ²⁶Institute of Biomedicine (IBIOMED), University of León, León, Spain
- 63 ²⁷CIBER Diabetes y Enfermedades Metabólicas (CIBERDEM), Instituto de Salud Carlos III
- 64 (ISCIII), Madrid, Spain
- ²⁸Departament of Endocrinology, IDIBAPS, Hospital Clínic, University of Barcelona,
- 66 Barcelona, Spain
- 67 ²⁹Department of Endocrinology, Fundación Jiménez-Díaz, Madrid, Spain
- ³⁰Lipid Clinic, Department of Endocrinology and Nutrition, Institut d'Investigacions
- 69 Biomèdiques August Pi Sunyer (IDIBAPS), Hospital Clínic, Barcelona, Spain
- 70 ³¹Hospital Universitario Joan XXIII Tarragona- CAP Horts de Miró Reus

- ³²Laboratory of Renal Lithiasis Research, University Institute of Health Sciences Research
- 72 (IUNICS), University of Balearic Islands
- 73 ³³Servicio Navarro de Salud-Osasunbidea. Pamplona, Spain
- 74 Corresponding authors/request for reprints: Prof. Jordi Salas-Salvadó, MD, PhD. Human
- 75 Nutrition Unit, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Universitat Rovira i Virgili. C/Sant
- 76 Llorenç 21, 43201 Reus (Spain). Telephone number: +34 977759312; Fax number: +34
- 77 977759322; e-mail address: Jordi.salas@urv.cat

78 Abstract

Purpose: To assess the association between the consumption of non-soy legumes and different
subtypes of non-soy legumes and SUA or hyperuricemia in elderly individuals with overweight
or obesity and metabolic syndrome.

Methods: A cross-sectional analysis was conducted in the framework of the PREDIMED-Plus study. We included 6,329 participants with information on non-soy legume consumption and SUA levels. Non-soy legume consumption was estimated using a semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire. Linear regression models and Cox regression models were used to assess the associations between tertiles of non-soy legume consumption, different subtypes of non-soy legume consumption and SUA levels or hyperuricemia prevalence, respectively.

88 Results: Individuals in the highest tertile (T3) of total non-soy legume, lentil and pea 89 consumption, had 0.14 mg/dL, 0.19 mg/dL and 0.12 mg/dL lower SUA levels, respectively, 90 compared to those in the lowest tertile (T1), which was considered the reference one. Chickpea 91 and dry bean consumption showed no association. In multivariable models, participants located 92 in the top tertile of total non-soy legumes (Prevalence Ratio (PR): 0.89; 95% CI: 0.82 to 0.97; p-93 trend = 0.01, lentils (PR: 0.89; 95% CI: 0.82 to 0.97; p-trend = 0.01), dry beans (PR: 0.91; 95% CI: 94 0.84 to 0.99; p-trend = 0.03) and peas (PR: 0.89; 95% CI: 0.82 to 0.97; p-trend = 0.01) presented 95 a lower prevalence of hyperuricemia (vs. the bottom tertile). Chickpea consumption was not 96 associated with hyperuricemia prevalence.

97 Conclusions: In this study of elderly subjects with metabolic syndrome, we observed that despite
98 being a purine-rich food, non-soy legumes were inversely associated with SUA levels and
99 hyperuricemia prevalence.

100 Trial registration: ISRCTN89898870. Registration date: 24 July 2014

101



103 Introduction

Hyperuricemia is not always a metabolic disorder, it results from urate overproduction (10%), underexcretion (90%), or often a combination of the two. It has been suggested that hyperuricemia increases not only the risk of gout[1], but also metabolic syndrome[2], type 2 diabetes[3], hypertension and cardiovascular disease (CVD)[4]. Therefore, strategies focused on decreasing the levels of serum uric acid (SUA) could be important to reduce the global burden of these cardiometabolic diseases.

110 SUA is the end-product of the endogenous purine metabolism and the exogenous pool (diet)[5]. 111 A diet low in purines has been recommended as standard clinical practice to reduce the levels of 112 SUA and the risk of gout for many years. The general advice to avoid purine-rich foods is based 113 on data from studies conducted in animals and humans, which showed a reduction in SUA levels 114 with the acute administration of oral purines[6, 7]. However, studies linking food consumption 115 with SUA or hyperuricemia are limited and latest evidence suggested that not all purine-rich foods 116 affect SUA levels in the same manner. For instance, meat and seafood consumption seems to be 117 associated with increased levels[8, 9], whereas purine-rich vegetables are inversely[10] or not 118 associated[10–12]. Therefore, the total purine content of food seems not to be the only factor 119 associated with SUA levels. As far as we know, despite the fact that legumes are a purine-rich 120 food, its association with SUA levels has not been well-studied thus far. This is reflected in the 121 lack of consensus concerning their avoidance in the 2012 American College of Rheumatology 122 Guidelines for the Management of Gout[13]. Legume consumption, which is a key component of 123 the Mediterranean diet, has been prospectively associated in previous studies with a lower risk of 124 type 2 diabetes [14] and cardiovascular disease [15]. Despite its high purine content, legumes also 125 contain other healthy nutrients, such as polyphenols and antioxidants, which could help prevent 126 increases in SUA levels and hyperuricemia risk[16]. In fact, previous studies have associated the 127 consumption of soy and non-soy legumes with a lower risk of gout[17].

128 Therefore, to address this gap in knowledge regarding legume consumption and its association129 with SUA levels, we performed a cross-sectional analysis in the framework of the PREvención

130 con DIeta MEDiterránea (PREDIMED) Plus trial to analyze the associations between total non-

131 soy legume, different types of non-soy legume consumption, and SUA levels and hyperuricemia

risk in an elderly Mediterranean population with overweight/obesity and metabolic syndrome.

133 Material and Methods

134 Study population

135 We conducted a cross-sectional evaluation of baseline data within the framework of the 136 PREDIMED-Plus trial, whose design has been extensively described elsewhere [18] and the study protocol can be found on the PREDIMED-Plus website (https://www.predimedplus.com/). 137 Briefly, PREDIMED-Plus study is an ongoing, 6-year, multicenter, parallel group, randomized 138 139 clinical trial conducted in Spain to assess the effectiveness of an intensive weight-loss intervention 140 program (based on an energy restricted Mediterranean diet, physical activity promotion and 141 behavioral support) on hard cardiovascular events in comparison with a control group receiving 142 usual care. The study was registered at the International Standard Randomized Controlled Trial 143 registry (http://www.isrctn.com/) with the registration number 89898870. The results of the pilot 144 study regarding changes in body weight and cardiovascular risk factors have recently been 145 published[19].

Eligible participants were community-dwelling men (aged 55-75 years) and women (aged 60-75 years) with overweight or obesity (BMI \geq 27kg/m² and <40kg/m²), meeting at least 3 criteria for the metabolic syndrome definition[20], and free from CVD. We recruited 6,874 participants from October 2013 to December 2016 who were randomly allocated in a 1:1 ratio to the intensive diet and lifestyle intervention group or to the usual care group. All participants provided written informed consent and institutional review boards of each participating center approved the final protocol and procedures.

For the present analysis, we excluded 53 participants with missing information on baseline food frequency questionnaires, 188 participants with extreme total energy intake (women <500 and >3,500kcal/day, and men <800 and >4,000kcal/day[21]), and 304 participants with missing information on SUA levels at baseline. Finally, 6,329 participants were included for evaluation
in the current study. The data were analyzed using the available complete PREDIMED-Plus
database, dated 17 September 2018.

159 **Dietary assessment**

160 At baseline, a trained dietitian administered a 143-item semi-quantitative food frequency 161 questionnaire in a face-to-face visit. Participants were asked about their frequency consumption 162 of each specific item during the preceding year. There were nine possible answers ranging from 163 never to more than 6 times per day, which were transformed to grams per day taking into account 164 the standard portion size of each item. Four items from the food frequency questionnaire were 165 specifically related to non-soy legume consumption: lentils, chickpeas, dry beans and peas. For 166 the present analysis we considered total non-soy legumes as the sum of the aforementioned foods. 167 Two Spanish food composition tables were used to calculate total energy and nutrient intake[22, 168 23].

169 Other covariates assessment

Socio demographic (age, sex, marital status, educational level) and lifestyle (physical activity,
smoking habit, Mediterranean diet adherence) related variables, as well as information regarding
medication use and personal and family history of illness, were collected at baseline.

173 Anthropometric variables and blood pressure were measured by PREDIMED-Plus trained staff 174 following the study protocol. Weight and height were measured with participants with light 175 clothes and no shoes using calibrated scales and wall-mounted stadiometers, respectively. BMI 176 was calculated as the weight in kg divided by the square of the height in meters. Waist 177 circumference was measured using an anthropometric tape at the midway between the lowest rib 178 and the iliac crest. Blood pressure was measured in triplicate using a validated semiautomatic 179 oscillometer (Omron HEM-705CP, Netherlands), with the participant in seated position after 5 180 minutes of rest and the mean of these values was recorded.

181 Leisure time physical activity was estimated using a validated short version of the Minnesota182 Leisure Time Physical Activity Questionnaire[24, 25].

Adherence to an energy-reduced Mediterranean diet was assessed using a 17-item questionnaire that was adapted from a validated 14-item questionnaire[26]. The total score ranged from 0 to 17. One question was related to non-soy legume consumption, therefore, in order to control the analysis for the overall dietary pattern, we used this Mediterranean diet questionnaire score after removing the variable about non-soy legume consumption.

After an overnight fast, baseline blood samples were collected and laboratory technicians, who were blinded to the intervention group, performed biochemical analyses on fasting plasma glucose, triglycerides, cholesterol and SUA using standard enzymatic procedures. Hyperuricemia was defined as SUA levels >7mg/dL in men and >6mg/dL in women, as has been defined previously[27].

193 Statistical analyses

Participants were categorized into tertiles according to total non-soy legume and different types of non-soy legume consumption, adjusted for total energy intake using the residual method[28]. Baseline characteristics of study participants were presented as percentages and numbers (categorical variables) and means ± standard deviations or median [P25-P7] (continuous variables). The chi-square test and the one-way ANOVA or Kruskal Wallis test were used to compare baseline characteristics among tertiles of energy-adjusted total non-soy legume consumption.

Multivariable linear regression models were fitted to evaluate associations between tertiles of total non-soy legume, different types of non-soy legume consumption and SUA levels. For that purpose, two dummy variables (k - 1), which represent tertiles of total non-soy legume consumption, were introduced in the linear regression model, with the first category serving as the reference. The prevalence of hyperuricemia in the present sample size was high (34%). Therefore, to assess prevalence ratios (PR) and 95% confidence intervals of hyperuricemia 207 according to tertiles of energy-adjusted total non-soy legume and different types of non-soy 208 legume consumption, we performed Cox regression models with constant follow-up time (t=1) 209 and robust variance. This has been suggested as a better method than logistic regression in cross-210 sectional studies when the outcome is common (prevalence >10%) as odds ratios could 211 overestimate or underestimate the risk in logistic regression[29, 30]. Linear and Cox regression 212 models were adjusted for several potential confounders. Model 1 was adjusted for age (years), 213 sex, diabetes (yes/no), hypertension (yes/no), glomerular filtration rate (ml/min/1.73 m²), use of 214 uricosuric agents [including allopurinol and flebuxostat (yes/no)] and center (in quartiles by 215 number of participants). In Cox regression models, center was used as strata variable. Model 2 216 was additionally adjusted for leisure time physical activity (METs.min/week), BMI (kg/m2), 217 smoking habit (never, former or current), educational level (primary, secondary or 218 university/graduate), alcohol consumption in g/day (and adding the quadratic term) and 16-point 219 screener (excluding legumes) of energy-reduced Mediterranean diet adherence (continuous).

In all regression models, the robust variance estimators to account for intra-cluster correlations,
considering as clusters the members of the same household (n=372 couples) were used.

To assess the linear trend, exposure variables (total non-soy legume and different types of nonsoy legume consumption) were modeled as continuous in linear regression models. In Cox regression models, the median value of each tertile of total non-soy legume and different types of non-soy legume consumption was assigned to each participant, and this new variable was modeled as continuous.

Stratified analyses were conducted to evaluate whether the association observed between energyadjusted total non-soy legume consumption and the risk of hyperuricemia could be modified by sex (men/women), diabetes (yes/no), body mass index (<30kg/m²/ ≥30 kg/m²) and chronic kidney disease (yes/no). Statistical interactions were tested by means of likelihood ratio tests, comparing the fully adjusted model of the Cox regression with and without cross-product terms between the aforementioned variables and tertiles of total non-soy legume consumption.

Data were analyzed using software program Stata 14 (StataCorp) and statistical significance was
set at a 2-tailed *P*-value <0.05.

235 **Results**

236 Table 1 displays baseline characteristics of the study population according to tertiles of energy-237 adjusted total non-soy legume consumption. Participants located in the highest tertile of total non-238 soy legume consumption were more likely to be women, physically active and to have diabetes 239 than those in the lowest tertile. Moreover, they were also less likely to smoke, had lower 240 educational level, BMI, hypertension and took less uricosuric drugs. In general, participants with high consumption of total non-soy legumes had a better dietary pattern characterized by 241 242 consuming more fruit, vegetables, nuts, fish and dairy products and eating less olive oil, cereals, 243 meat, biscuits and alcohol than those individuals with low consumption of total non-soy legumes. 244 In multivariable linear regression analyses (**Table 2**), those individuals located in the top tertile 245 of total non-soy legume, lentil, and pea consumption had 0.14 mg/dL, 0.19 mg/dL and 0.12 mg/dL 246 lower SUA levels, respectively, than those located in the bottom tertile after adjusting for multiple 247 potential confounders. No association was observed between chickpea and dry bean consumption 248 and SUA levels.

249 The prevalence ratios and 95% CI for hyperuricemia across tertiles of total non-soy legume and 250 different types of non-soy legume consumption are presented in Table 3. Total non-soy legume 251 consumption was inversely associated with hyperuricemia prevalence (PR: 0.89; 95% CI: 0.82 to 0.97; p-trend=0.01, for $3^{rd} vs 1^{st}$ tertile). Similarly, individuals in the highest tertile of lentils were 252 253 11% less likely to have hyperuricemia than those in the lowest tertile (PR: 0.89; 95% CI: 0.82 to 254 0.97; p-trend= 0.01). Likewise, participants located in the highest tertile of dry bean and pea 255 consumption were 9% and 11% less likely to have hyperuricemia than those in the lowest tertile 256 (PR: 0.91; 95% CI: 0.84 to 0.99; p-trend = 0.03 and PR: 0.89; 95% CI: 0.82 to 0.97; p-trend= 0.01, 257 respectively). Chickpea consumption was not associated with hyperuricemia prevalence.

When we repeated all the analyses (linear regression models and Cox regression models) adjusting model 3 for tertiles of fruit, vegetable, meat, fish and dairy product consumption instead of using the MedDiet adherence score, since they have been considered as SUA influencing foods, results remained essentially unchanged (data not shown).

No statistically significant interactions were detected between total non-soy legume consumption
and sex, diabetes status, BMI and chronic kidney disease (Figure 1). Nonetheless, stratification
showed that total non-soy legume consumption was only associated with hyperuricemia in women
(PR: 0.84; 95%CI: 0.74 to 0.95), in individuals without type 2 diabetes (PR: 0.86; 95%CI: 0.78
to 0.95), in those with BMI <30kg/m² (PR: 0.76; 95%CI: 0.64 to 0.91) and those without chronic
kidney disease (PR: 0.90; 95%CI: 0.82 to 0.99).

268 Discussion

269 The main findings of the present cross-sectional study conducted in elderly individuals with 270 metabolic syndrome suggest that high consumption of total non-soy legumes and some subtypes 271 of non-soy legumes, such as lentils and peas, were associated with lower levels of SUA. However, 272 chickpea and dry bean consumption were not associated with SUA levels. Regarding 273 hyperuricemia prevalence, there was an inverse association with total non-soy legume, lentil, dry 274 bean and pea consumption. Nonetheless, chickpea consumption was not associated with SUA 275 levels. The present results provide new evidence for the potential benefit of non-soy legume 276 consumption on SUA levels and hyperuricemia, despite their high purine content.

Little is known about the association between non-soy legume consumption and SUA levels or hyperuricemia. To the best of our knowledge, only one previous study has assessed, in an indirect way, the relation between legume consumption and the risk of hyperuricemia[31]. The analysis was conducted in the framework of the PREDIMED study, where authors evaluated the prevalence of hyperuricemia according to the accomplishment of each 14-items of the Mediterranean diet adherence questionnaire. The results showed that those individuals that fulfilled the item of consuming 3 or more servings per week of legumes were 26% less likely to 284 have hyperuricemia than those that did not consume 3 or more servings per week[31]. These 285 results are in line with our findings where those individuals located in the third tertile (whose 286 legume consumption, 28.68 g/day, was approximately 3 servings/week) presented a lower risk of 287 hyperuricemia. Our results are also in line with another previous study, the Singapore Chinese 288 Health Study[17], which prospectively evaluated the association between non-soy legume 289 consumption and the risk of gout (uric acid associated disease). In this study, participants located 290 in the fourth quartile of non-soy legume consumption had a significant 17% lower risk of gout 291 incidence than those in the first quartile. All the aforementioned results support previous holistic 292 recommendations, driven by a review conducted by Choi et al., regarding the advice of consuming 293 legumes, since they do not increase the risk of gout and could have other healthy implications on 294 comorbidities associated with gout and hyperuricemia[32].

295 In the stratified analysis of the present study, the association between total non-soy legume 296 consumption and hyperuricemia remained significant in women, in individuals without diabetes, 297 in those with a body mass index less than 30 kg/m^2 and in those without chronic kidney disease. 298 One previous study also showed in its stratified analysis, that non-soy legume consumption was 299 associated with a lower risk of gout development in women, but not in men[17]. However, there 300 is no plausible explanation for the observed differences between men and women in the 301 hyperuricemia risk associated with non-soy legume consumption. Similarly, we cannot offer a 302 biological explanation for the observed differences in hyperuricemia risk by diabetes status. 303 Therefore, the results could be by chance and further studies are warranted in the future to confirm 304 these possible differences by sex and diabetes status. Regarding the other stratification variables, 305 obesity and chronic kidney disease are conditions that have been associated with higher SUA 306 levels[33–35]. As a consequence, the potential beneficial effect of legumes on hyperuricemia risk 307 could be limited by the high levels of SUA observed in individuals that have these conditions.

The association between non-soy legumes and SUA levels or hyperuricemia observed in the present study is not as expected considering their high purine content. However, it has been suggested that the estimation of the actual content of purines of foods is difficult, particularly for 311 cooked or processed foods[36]. Moreover, the purine bioavailability could vary substantially 312 from one food to another, and it has been reported that for the same amount of food, RNA has a 313 greater bioavailability than DNA[37], and adenine greater than guanine[7]. These findings could 314 explain the observed differences in the association between purine-rich foods, SUA levels and 315 hyperuricemia. In addition, despite being considered a purine-rich food, legumes contain other 316 nutrients that could exert a beneficial effect on SUA levels. Legumes are rich in polyphenols, 317 mainly phenolic acids and flavonoids. Previous studies have suggested that dietary polyphenols 318 could act as anti-hyperuricemic agents[16]. In fact, it has been shown that flavonoid glycosides 319 isolated from two legume plants (Vicia faba and lotus edulis) are potent inhibitors of xanthine 320 oxidase activity, the enzyme involved in the catalysis of xanthine to uric acid[38].

321 The present study has several limitations that need to be mentioned. First, its cross-sectional 322 design does not allow us to establish a cause-effect relationship, and the possiblility of reverse 323 causation should be acknowledged. Second, we cannot extrapolate the findings to other study 324 populations since the participants from the PREDIMED-Plus study are elderly individuals with 325 metabolic syndrome. Third, the use of a food frequency questionnaire to estimate food 326 consumption is subject to possible measurement error, especially if single foods instead of food 327 groups are assessed. The lack of detail and specificity that other dietary assessment methods have, 328 such as the recalls or dietary records, makes difficult the accurate estimation of absolute single 329 foods consumption. Nevertheless, a carefully developed food frequency questionnaire offers an 330 advantage, the assessment of the usual diet, which is one of the main interest in epidemiologic 331 studies. The current study also has some strengths, which include the relatively large sample size, 332 the analysis of different types of legumes as exposure, and we were able to control for a large 333 number of potential confounding factors.

334 Conclusions

In conclusion, in individuals with metabolic syndrome, total non-soy legume, lentil, and pea consumption were inversely associated with SUA levels. Moreover, non-soy legumes and their different subtypes, with the exception of chickpeas, were associated with a lower prevalence of

- 338 hyperuricemia. Our findings add new insights about the potential beneficial role of non-soy
- legumes on SUA levels and hyperuricemia risk and could inform future evidence-based dietary
- 340 guidelines for hyperuricemia prevention.

341 Acknowledgements

The authors especially thank the PREDIMED-Plus participants for their enthusiastic collaboration, the PREDIMED-Plus personnel for their outstanding support, and the personnel of all associated primary care centers for their exceptional effort.

345 CIBEROBN, CIBERESP and CIBERDEM are initiatives of Instituto de Salud Carlos III, Spain.

346 We thank the PREDIMED-Plus Biobank Network, part of the National Biobank Platform of

347 Instituto de Salud Carlos III for storing and managing biological samples.

348 Funding

349 The PREDIMED-Plus trial was supported by the official funding agency for biomedical research 350 of the Spanish government, ISCIII, through the Fondo de Investigación para la Salud (FIS), which is co-funded by the European Regional Development Fund (four coordinated FIS projects led by 351 352 J.S.-S. and J.Vid., including the following projects: PI13/00673, PI13/00492, PI13/00272, 353 PI13/01123, PI13/00462, PI13/00233, PI13/02184, PI13/00728, PI13/01090, PI13/01056, PI14/01722, PI14/00636, PI14/00618, PI14/00696, PI14/01206, PI14/01919, PI14/00853, 354 PI14/01374, PI14/00972, PI14/00728, PI14/01471, PI16/00473, PI16/00662, PI16/01873, 355 PI16/01094, PI16/00501, PI16/00533, PI16/00381, PI16/00366, PI16/01522, PI16/01120, 356 357 PI17/00764, PI17/01183, PI17/00855, PI17/01347, PI17/00525, PI17/ 01827, PI17/00532, PI17/00215, PI17/01441, PI17/00508, PI17/01732, and PI17/00926), the Especial Action Project 358 359 entitled: Implementación y evaluación de una intervención intensiva sobre la actividad física 360 Cohorte PREDIMED-Plus grant to J.S.-S., the European Research Council (Advanced Research 361 Grant 2013–2018, 340918) to M.Á.M.-G., the Recercaixa grant to J.S.-S. (2013ACUP00194), grants from the Consejería de Salud de la Junta de Andalucía (PI0458/2013, PS0358/2016, and 362 363 PI0137/2018), a grant from the Generalitat Valenciana (PROMETEO/2017/017), a SEMERGEN 364 grant, and funds from the European Regional Development Fund (CB06/03). O.C. is supported 365 by ISCIII grant JR17/00022.

366 Ethical standards

All participants provided written informed consent, and the study protocol and procedures were
approved according to the ethical standards of the Declaration of Helsinki by all the participating
institutions

370 Conflict of interest

371 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest related to this article

372

373 Figure Legend:

Figure 1. Prevalence ratios (95% CIs) for hyperuricemia according tertiles (3rd vs 1st) of 374 375 total non-soy legumes consumption stratified by sex, BMI, type 2 diabetes and chronic 376 kidney disease status. All prevalence ratios were adjusted for age (years), sex (in the case of sex stratification, adjustment for sex was excluded), diabetes (yes/no) (in the case of diabetes 377 378 stratification, adjustment for diabetes prevalence was excluded), hypertension (yes/no), 379 glomerular filtration rate (ml/min/1.73 m²) (in the case of chronic kidney disease stratification, 380 adjustment for glomerular filtration was excluded), use of hypouricemic agents (yes/no), center 381 (in quartiles by number of participants), leisure time physical activity (METs.min/week), body 382 mass index (kg/m²) (in the case of BMI stratification, adjustment for BMI was excluded), smoking 383 habit (never, former or current), educational level (primary, secondary or university/graduate), 384 alcohol consumption in g/day (and adding the quadratic term) and 16-point screener (excluding 385 legumes) of Mediterranean diet adherence (continuous).

386 **References**

- Bhole V, de Vera M, Rahman MM, et al (2010) Epidemiology of gout in women: Fifty two-year followup of a prospective cohort. Arthritis Rheum 62:1069–76.
- 389 https://doi.org/10.1002/art.27338
- 3902.Babio N, Martínez-González MA, Estruch R, et al (2015) Associations between serum
- 391 uric acid concentrations and metabolic syndrome and its components in the PREDIMED
- 392study. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis 25:173–80.
- 393 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.numecd.2014.10.006
- Lv Q, Meng X-F, He F-F, et al (2013) High serum uric acid and increased risk of type 2
 diabetes: a systemic review and meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. PLoS One
- 396 8:e56864. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0056864
- Borghi C, Verardi FM, Pareo I, et al (2014) Hyperuricemia and cardiovascular disease
 risk. Expert Rev Cardiovasc Ther 12:1219–25.
- 399 https://doi.org/10.1586/14779072.2014.957675
- Maiuolo J, Oppedisano F, Gratteri S, et al (2016) Regulation of uric acid metabolism and
 excretion. Int J Cardiol 213:8–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.08.109
- 402 6. Zöllner N (1973) Influence of various purines on uric acid metabolism. Bibl Nutr Dieta
 403 34–43
- Clifford AJ, Riumallo JA, Young VR, Scrimshaw NS (1976) Effect of Oral Purines on
 Serum and Urinary Uric Acid of Normal, Hyperuricemic and Gouty Humans. J Nutr
- 406 106:428–434. https://doi.org/10.1093/jn/106.3.428
- 8. Choi HK, Liu S, Curhan G (2005) Intake of purine-rich foods, protein, and dairy
- 408 products and relationship to serum levels of uric acid: the Third National Health and
- 409 Nutrition Examination Survey. Arthritis Rheum 52:283–9.
- 410 https://doi.org/10.1002/art.20761

411	9.	Miao Z, Li C, Chen Y, et al (2008) Dietary and lifestyle changes associated with high
412		prevalence of hyperuricemia and gout in the Shandong coastal cities of Eastern China. J
413		Rheumatol 35:1859–64
414	10.	Yu K-H, See L-C, Huang Y-C, et al (2008) Dietary Factors Associated with
415		Hyperuricemia in Adults. Semin Arthritis Rheum 37:243–250.
416		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.semarthrit.2007.04.007
417	11.	Zgaga L, Theodoratou E, Kyle J, et al (2012) The association of dietary intake of purine-
418		rich vegetables, sugar-sweetened beverages and dairy with plasma urate, in a cross-
419		sectional study. PLoS One 7:e38123. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0038123
420	12.	Villegas R, Xiang Y-B, Elasy T, et al (2012) Purine-rich foods, protein intake, and the
421		prevalence of hyperuricemia: the Shanghai Men's Health Study. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc
422		Dis 22:409–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.numecd.2010.07.012
423	13.	Khanna D, Fitzgerald JD, Khanna PP, et al (2012) 2012 American College of
424		Rheumatology guidelines for management of gout. Part 1: systematic nonpharmacologic
425		and pharmacologic therapeutic approaches to hyperuricemia. Arthritis Care Res
426		(Hoboken) 64:1431–46. https://doi.org/10.1002/acr.21772
427	14.	Becerra-Tomás N, Díaz-López A, Rosique-Esteban N, et al (2018) Legume consumption
428		is inversely associated with type 2 diabetes incidence in adults: A prospective
429		assessment from the PREDIMED study. Clin Nutr 37:906–913.
430		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2017.03.015
431	15.	Papandreou C, Becerra-Tomás N, Bulló M, et al (2019) Legume consumption and risk of
432		all-cause, cardiovascular, and cancer mortality in the PREDIMED study. Clin Nutr
433		38:348-356. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2017.12.019
434	16.	Mehmood A, Zhao L, Wang C, et al (2017) Management of hyperuricemia through
435		dietary polyphenols as a natural medicament: A comprehensive review. Crit Rev Food

436		Sci Nutr 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2017.1412939
437	17.	Teng GG, Pan A, Yuan J-M, Koh W-P (2015) Food Sources of Protein and Risk of
438		Incident Gout in the Singapore Chinese Health Study. Arthritis Rheumatol (Hoboken,
439		NJ) 67:1933-42. https://doi.org/10.1002/art.39115
440	18.	Martínez-González MA, Buil-Cosiales P, Corella D, et al (2018) Cohort Profile: Design
441		and methods of the PREDIMED-Plus randomized trial. Int J Epidemiol.
442		https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyy225
443	19.	Salas-Salvadó J, Díaz-López A, Ruiz-Canela M, et al (2018) Effect of a Lifestyle
444		Intervention Program With Energy-Restricted Mediterranean Diet and Exercise on
445		Weight Loss and Cardiovascular Risk Factors: One-Year Results of the PREDIMED-
446		Plus Trial. Diabetes Care dc180836. https://doi.org/10.2337/dc18-0836
447	20.	Alberti KGMM, Eckel RH, Grundy SM, et al (2009) Harmonizing the metabolic
448		syndrome: a joint interim statement of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force
449		on Epidemiology and Prevention; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American
450		Heart Association; World Heart Federation; International . Circulation 120:1640-5.
451		https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.109.192644
452	21.	Willett WC, Howe GR, Kushi LH (1997) Adjustment for total energy intake in
453		epidemiologic studies. Am J Clin Nutr 65:1220S-1228S; discussion 1229S-1231S
454	22.	Mataix Verdú J MAM (2003) Tabla de composicion de alimentos [Food Composition
455		Tables]. Granada, Spain
456	23.	Moreiras O, Carvajal A, Cabrera L, Cuadrado C (2005) Tablas de composición de
457		alimentos" Food Composition Tables" Pirámide. Madrid, Spain
458	24.	Elosua R, Garcia M, Aguilar A, et al (2000) Validation of the Minnesota Leisure Time
459		Physical Activity Questionnaire In Spanish Women. Investigators of the MARATDON
460		Group. Med Sci Sports Exerc 32:1431–7

461	25.	Elosua R, Marrugat J, Molina L, et al (1994) Validation of the Minnesota Leisure Time
462		Physical Activity Questionnaire in Spanish men. The MARATHOM Investigators. Am J
463		Epidemiol 139:1197–209
464	26.	Schröder H, Fitó M, Estruch R, et al (2011) A short screener is valid for assessing
465		Mediterranean diet adherence among older Spanish men and women. J Nutr 141:1140-5.
466		https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.110.135566
467	27.	Zhu Y, Pandya BJ, Choi HK (2011) Prevalence of gout and hyperuricemia in the US
468		general population: The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2007-2008.
469		Arthritis Rheum 63:3136–3141. https://doi.org/10.1002/art.30520
470	28.	Willett W (1998) Nutritional Epidemiology, 2n ed
471	29.	Barros AJD, Hirakata VN (2003) Alternatives for logistic regression in cross-sectional
472		studies: an empirical comparison of models that directly estimate the prevalence ratio.
473		BMC Med Res Methodol 3:21. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-3-21
474	30.	Cummings P (2009) Methods for estimating adjusted risk ratios. Stata J 9:175–196
475	31.	Guasch-Ferre M, Bullo M, Babio N, et al (2013) Mediterranean Diet and Risk of
476		Hyperuricemia in Elderly Participants at High Cardiovascular Risk. Journals Gerontol
477		Ser A Biol Sci Med Sci 68:1263–1270. https://doi.org/10.1093/gerona/glt028
478	32.	Choi HK (2010) A prescription for lifestyle change in patients with hyperuricemia and
479		gout. Curr Opin Rheumatol 22:165–172.
480		https://doi.org/10.1097/BOR.0b013e328335ef38
481	33.	Tanaka K, Ogata S, Tanaka H, et al (2015) The relationship between body mass index
482		and uric acid: a study on Japanese adult twins. Environ Health Prev Med 20:347-53.
483		https://doi.org/10.1007/s12199-015-0473-3
484	34.	de Oliveira EP, Moreto F, Silveira LV de A, Burini RC (2013) Dietary, anthropometric,
485		and biochemical determinants of uric acid in free-living adults. Nutr J 12:11.

- 486 https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2891-12-11
- 487 35. Suliman ME, Johnson RJ, García-López E, et al (2006) J-Shaped Mortality Relationship
- for Uric Acid in CKD. Am J Kidney Dis 48:761–771.
- 489 https://doi.org/10.1053/j.ajkd.2006.08.019
- 490 36. Gibson T, Rodgers A V, Simmonds HA, et al (1983) A controlled study of diet in
 491 patients with gout. Ann Rheum Dis 42:123–7
- 492 37. Zöllner N, Griebsch A (1974) Diet and gout. Adv Exp Med Biol 41:435–42
- 493 38. Spanou C, Veskoukis AS, Kerasioti T, et al (2012) Flavonoid Glycosides Isolated from
- 494 Unique Legume Plant Extracts as Novel Inhibitors of Xanthine Oxidase. PLoS One
- 495 7:e32214. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0032214

	Tertiles	of total non-soy leg	gume consumption	
	T1 (lowest)	T2	T3 (Highest)	<i>P</i> -value [†]
	n=2,110	n=2,110	n=2,109	
Total non-soy legume consumption, g/day	11 ± 4	19 ± 2	32 ± 11	
Lentils, g/day	3.9 [3.4-4.4]	5.0 [4.2-8.5]	8.6 [8.2-9.0]	
Chickpeas, g/day	3.7 [2.9-4.2]	4.3 [4.0-5.4]	8.4 [7.9-8.9]	
Dry beans, g/day	3.5 [0.4-4.0]	4.1 [3.8-4.5]	8.3 [4.3-8.7]	
Peas, g/day	0.5 [0-3.4]	3.9 [0.5-4.4]	4.20 [3.5-8.2]	
Age, years	65 ± 5	65 ± 5	65 ± 5	< 0.01
Women, % (n)	45.26 (955)	48.86 (1,031)	50.88 (1,073)	< 0.01
BMI, kg/m ²	32.67 ± 3.44	32.42 ± 3.35	32.61 ± 3.54	0.04
Leisure time physical activity, METs.min/week	1734 [839-3170]	1989 [923-3497]	1881 [839-3469]	< 0.01
Smoking habit, % (n)				< 0.01
Never	41.28 (871)	45.12 (952)	46.94 (990)	
Former	46.21 (975)	42.65 (900)	40.87 (862)	
Current	12.51 (264)	12.23 (258)	12.19 (257)	
Education, % (n)				< 0.01
Primary	44.17 (932)	48.96 (1,033)	55.10 (1,162)	
Secondary	30.14 (636)	29.10 (614)	27.12 (572)	
University/graduate	25.69 (542)	21.94 (463)	17.78 (375)	
Hypertension, % (n)	84.08 (1,774)	83.32 (1,758)	82.46 (1,739)	0.37
Diabetes, % (n)	24.88 (525)	28.20 (595)	29.87 (630)	< 0.01
Use of uricosuric agents, % (n)	9.62 (203)	7.16 (151)	8.49 (179)	0.02

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of the study population by tertiles of energy-adjusted total legume consumption*

Serum uric acid, mg/dL	6.12 ± 1.46	5.98 ± 1.42	5.88 ± 1.46	< 0.01
Food consumption, g/day [‡]				
Fruit	329 ± 196	354 ± 187	381 ± 195	< 0.01
Vegetables	294 ± 127	324 ± 127	360 ± 147	< 0.01
Nuts	13 ± 17	14 ± 15	17 ± 18	< 0.01
Olive oil	41 ± 16	42 ± 16	38 ± 17	< 0.01
Cereals	157 ± 70	154 ± 64	141 ± 62	< 0.01
Meat	151 ± 55	148 ± 51	145 ± 53	< 0.01
Fish	95 ± 46	102 ± 43	108 ± 48	< 0.01
Dairy products	342 ± 199	340 ± 188	356 ± 202	0.01
Biscuits	29 ± 31	27 ± 26	24 ± 26	< 0.01
Alcohol	7 [3-18]	7 [3-15]	6 [1-13]	< 0.01
MedDiet score (17-points)	8 ± 3	8 ± 3	9 ± 3	< 0.01

*Data are expressed as means ± SD or median [P25-P75] and percentage (number) for continuous and categorical variables, respectively

[†]P-value for differences between tertiles of total legume consumption was calculated by chi-square and ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis as appropriate

[‡]Dietary variables were adjusted for total energy intake using the residual method

Abbreviations: T, tertile; BMI, body mass index; METs, metabolic equivalent; MedDiet, Mediterranean diet

Table 2. Multivariate-adjusted β -coefficients and 95% confidence interval for serum uric acid levels according to tertiles of energy-adjusted total legume and different subtypes of legume consumption

	Tertiles	of non-soy legume consum	ption in g/day	
	T1 (lowest)	T2	T3 (highest)	P-trend
Total non-soy legumes, median (P25-P75)	11.95 (9.37 to 13.66)	18.42 (16.84 to 20.68)	28.68 (25.75 to 33.05)	
Crude model	0 (Ref.)	-0.14 (-0.23 to -0.05)	-0.24 (-0.33 to -0.16)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 1	0 (Ref.)	-0.11 (-0.19 to 0.03)	-0.19 (-0.27 to -0.11)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 2	0 (Ref.)	-0.08 (-0.16 to -0.01)	-0.14 (-0.22 to -0.06)	< 0.01
Lentils, median (P25-P75)	3.72 (3.24 to 3.99)	7.22 (4.45 to 8.10)	8.81 (8.59 to 9.08)	
Crude model	0 (Ref.)	-0.23 (-0.31 to -0.14)	-0.39 (-0.47 to -0.30)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 1	0 (Ref.)	-0.15 (-0.23 to -0.07)	-0.22 (-0.31 to -0.14)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 2	0 (Ref.)	-0.13 (-0.21 to -0.05)	-0.19 (-0.28 to -0.11)	< 0.01
Chickpeas, median (P25-P75)	3.42 (0.79 to 3.75)	4.38 (4.17 to 4.65)	8.61 (8.30 to 8.96)	
Crude model	0 (Ref.)	-0.20 (-0.29 to -0.11)	-0.24 (-0.33 to -0.16)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 1	0 (Ref.)	-0.05 (-0.13 to 0.03)	-0.11 (-0.20 to -0.03)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 2	0 (Ref.)	-0.04 (-0.12 to 0.04)	-0.07 (-0.15 to 0.01)	0.04
Dry beans, median (P25-P75)	0.78 (0.11 to 3.45)	4.13 (3.96 to 4.31)	8.40 (7.86 to 8.80)	
Crude model	0 (Ref.)	-0.10 (-0.19 to -0.02)	-0.16 (-0.25 to -0.07)	0.19
Multivariable model 1	0 (Ref.)	-0.04 (-0.12 to 0.04)	-0.09 (-0.18 to -0.01)	0.04
Multivariable model 2	0 (Ref.)	-0.02 (-0.10 to 0.06)	-0.06 (-0.14 to 0.02)	0.31
Peas, median (P25-P75)	0.04 (0 to 0.34)	3.65 (3.21 to 3.90)	4.76 (4.37 to 8.46)	
Crude model	0 (Ref.)	0 (-0.08 to 0.09)	-0.19 (-0.28 to -0.11)	0.18
Multivariable model 1	0 (Ref.)	-0.04 (-0.12 to 0.04)	-0.13 (-0.21 to -0.05)	0.06
Multivariable model 2	0 (Ref.)	-0.03 (-0.10 to 0.05)	-0.12 (-0.20 to -0.04)	0.11

Abbreviations: T, tertile.

Multivariable model 1 adjusted for age (years), sex, diabetes (yes/no), hypertension (yes/no), glomerular filtration rate (ml / min/ 1.73 m^2), use of hypouricemic agents (yes/no) and center (in quartiles by number of participants). Multivariable model 2 additionally adjusted for leisure time physical activity (METs.min/week), body mass index (kg/m²), smoking habit (never, former or current), educational level (primary, secondary or university/graduate), alcohol consumption in g/day (and adding the quadratic term) and 16-point screener (excluding legumes) of Mediterranean diet adherence (continuous).

Table 3. Multivariate-adjusted prevalence ratios and 95% confidence interval for hyperuricemia according to tertiles of energy-adjusted total legume and different subtypes of legume consumption

	Tertiles	of non-soy legume consum	ption in g/day	
	T1 (lowest)	T2	T3 (highest)	P-trend
	n=2,110	n=2,110	n=2,109	
Total non-soy legumes, median (P25-P75)	11.95 (9.37 to 13.66)	18.42 (16.84 to 20.68)	28.68 (25.75 to 33.05)	
Hyperuricemia, % (n)	36.64 (773)	33.70 (711)	31.67 (668)	
Crude model	1 (Ref.)	0.2 (0.85 to 0.99)	0.86 (0.79 to 0.94)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 1	1 (Ref.)	0.92 (0.85 to 0.99)	0.85 (0.78 to 0.93)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 2	1 (Ref.)	0.94 (0.86 to 1.01)	0.89 (0.82 to 0.97)	0.01
Lentils, median (P25-P75)	3.72 (3.24 to 3.99)	7.22 (4.45 to 8.10)	8.81 (8.59 to 9.08)	
Hyperuricemia, % (n)	36.64 (773)	33.27 (702)	32.10 (677)	
Crude model	1 (Ref.)	0.91 (0.84 to 0.99)	0.88 (0.81 to 0.95)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 1	1 (Ref.)	0.91 (0.84 to 0.99)	0.87 (0.80 to 0.95)	< 0.01
Multivariable model 2	1 (Ref.)	0.92 (0.85 to 1.00)	0.89 (0.82 to 0.97)	0.01
Chickpeas, median (P25-P75)	3.42 (0.79 to 3.75)	4.38 (4.17 to 4.65)	8.61 (8.30 to 8.96)	
Hyperuricemia, % (n)	36.02 (760)	33.55 (708)	32.43 (684)	
Crude model	1 (Ref.)	0.93 (0.86 to 1.01)	0.90 (0.83 to 0.98)	0.04
Multivariable model 1	1 (Ref.)	0.94 (0.87 to 1.02)	0.90 (0.83 to 0.98)	0.03
Multivariable model 2	1 (Ref.)	0.95 (0.87 to 1.03)	0.93 (0.86 to 1.01)	0.17
Dry beans, median (P25-P75)	0.78 (0.11 to 3.45)	4.13 (3.96 to 4.31)	8.40 (7.86 to)	
Hyperuricemia, % (n)	35.64 (752)	34.60 (730)	31.77 (670)	
Crude model	1 (Ref.)	0.97 (0.89 to 1.05)	0.89 (0.82 to 0.97)	0.01
Multivariable model 1	1 (Ref.)	0.97 (0.89 to 1.05)	0.89 (0.82 to 0.97)	0.01
Multivariable model 2	1 (Ref.)	0.97 (0.90 to 1.05)	0.91 (0.84 to 0.99)	0.03
Peas, median (P25-P75)	0.04 (0 to 0.34)	3.65 (3.21 to 3.90)	4.76 (4.37 to 8.46)	
Hyperuricemia, % (n)	35.69 (753)	34.12 (720)	32.20 (679)	
Crude model	1 (Ref.)	0.96 (0.88 to 1.04)	0.90 (0.83 to 0.98)	0.02
Multivariable model 1	1 (Ref.)	0.95 (0.87 to 1.03)	0.89 (0.82 to 0.97)	0.01

|--|

Abbreviations: T, tertile.

Multivariable model 1 adjusted for age (years), sex, diabetes (yes/no), hypertension (yes/no), glomerular filtration rate (ml / min/ 1.73 m²), use of hypouricemic agents (yes/no) and center (in quartiles by number of participants). Multivariable model 2 additionally adjusted for leisure time physical activity (METs.min/week), body mass index (kg/m²), smoking habit (never, former or current), educational level (primary, secondary or university/graduate), alcohol consumption in g/day (and adding the quadratic term) and 16-point screener (excluding legumes) of Mediterranean diet adherence (continuous). All the models were stratified by center (in quartiles by number of participants).