

**Maastricht University** 

# Determinants of the prevalence of gout in the general population: a systematic review and meta-regression

# Citation for published version (APA):

Wijnands, J. M. A., Viechtbauer, W., Thevissen, K., Arts, I. C. W., Dagnelie, P. C., Stehouwer, C. D. A., ... Boonen, A. (2015). Determinants of the prevalence of gout in the general population: a systematic review and meta-regression. European Journal of Epidemiology, 30(1), 19-33. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-014-9927-y

Document status and date: Published: 01/01/2015

DOI: 10.1007/s10654-014-9927-y

**Document Version:** Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

**Document license:** Taverne

## Please check the document version of this publication:

• A submitted manuscript is the version of the article upon submission and before peer-review. There can be important differences between the submitted version and the official published version of record. People interested in the research are advised to contact the author for the final version of the publication, or visit the DOI to the publisher's website.

• The final author version and the galley proof are versions of the publication after peer review.

 The final published version features the final layout of the paper including the volume, issue and page numbers.

Link to publication

#### General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these riahts.

• Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.

You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
 You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal.

If the publication is distributed under the terms of Article 25fa of the Dutch Copyright Act, indicated by the "Taverne" license above, please follow below link for the End User Agreement:

www.umlib.nl/taverne-license

#### Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us at:

repository@maastrichtuniversity.nl

providing details and we will investigate your claim.

REVIEW

# Determinants of the prevalence of gout in the general population: a systematic review and meta-regression

José M. A. Wijnands · Wolfgang Viechtbauer · Kristof Thevissen · Ilja C. W. Arts · Pieter C. Dagnelie · Coen D. A. Stehouwer · Sjef van der Linden · Annelies Boonen

Received: 5 February 2014/Accepted: 10 June 2014/Published online: 27 July 2014 © Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht 2014

**Abstract** Studies on the occurrence of gout show a large range in estimates. However, a clear insight into the factors responsible for this variation in estimates is lacking. Therefore, our aim was to review the literature on the prevalence and incidence of gout systematically and to obtain insight into the degree of and factors contributing to the heterogeneity. We searched MEDLINE, EMBASE, and Web of Science (January 1962 to July 2012) to identify primary studies on the prevalence and incidence of gout in the general population. Data were extracted by two persons on sources of clinical heterogeneity, methodological heterogeneity, and variation in outcome reporting. Meta-analysis and meta-regression analysis were performed for the prevalence of gout. Of 1,466 articles screened, 77 articles were included, of which 71 reported the prevalence and 12 the incidence of gout. The pooled prevalence (67 studies; N = 12,226,425) based on a random effects model was 0.6 % (95 % CI 0.4; 0.7), however there was a high level

**Electronic supplementary material** The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s10654-014-9927-y) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

J. M. A. Wijnands  $(\boxtimes) \cdot K.$  The vissen  $\cdot$  S. van der Linden  $\cdot$  A. Boonen

Division of Rheumatology, Department of Internal Medicine, Maastricht University Medical Center, P.O. Box 5800, 6202 AZ Maastricht, The Netherlands e-mail: j.wijnands@maastrichtuniversity.nl

J. M. A. Wijnands · I. C. W. Arts · P. C. Dagnelie · S. van der Linden · A. Boonen School for Public Health and Primary Care (CAPHRI), Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands

W. Viechtbauer

Department of Psychiatry and Psychology, Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands

of heterogeneity ( $I^2 = 99.9 \%$ ). Results from a mixedeffects meta-regression model indicated that age (p = 0.019), sex (p < 0.001), continent (p < 0.001), response rate (p = 0.016), consistency in data collection (p = 0.002), and case definition (p < 0.001) were significantly associated with gout prevalence and jointly accounted for 88.7 % of the heterogeneity. The incidence in the total population ranged from 0.06 to 2.68 per 1,000 person-years. In conclusion, gout is a common disease and the large variation in the prevalence data on gout is explained by sex, continent on which the study was performed, and the case definition of gout.

**Keywords** Gout · Prevalence · Incidence · Systematic review · Meta-regression

## Introduction

Gout is an inflammatory arthritis which has been associated with the metabolic syndrome, hypertension, kidney

I. C. W. Arts · P. C. Dagnelie · C. D. A. Stehouwer CARIM School for Cardiovascular Diseases, Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands

I. C. W. Arts · P. C. Dagnelie Department of Epidemiology, Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands

C. D. A. Stehouwer Department of Internal Medicine, Maastricht University Medical Center, Maastricht, The Netherlands disease, and cardiovascular disease [1]. Partially due to the associated co-morbidity, gout has a substantial impact on an patient's health-related quality of life [2] and may be a major health issue in affluent countries [3]. Studies on the prevalence and incidence of gout in the general population show a large range in estimates and an increase in these estimates has often been suggested [4]. However, a clear insight into the factors contributing to this variation in estimates is lacking. Meta-analysis and meta-regression are helpful techniques that may shed light on the reasons for the heterogeneity in the findings.

In systematic reviews, two major types of heterogeneity can be distinguished, i.e. clinical and methodological heterogeneity. *Clinical heterogeneity* refers to differences in patient characteristics or treatment regimen, while *methodological heterogeneity* refers to variation in study design, outcome measures, and the duration of follow up. Several sources of heterogeneity emerged from previous studies on the prevalence and incidence of gout, such as age, sex, geographic region (representing ethnic background and susceptibility to gout) [5], and case definition [6–9]. In contrast to these studies, meta-regression can assess and quantify the effect of these factors on the occurrence of gout simultaneously.

The aim of the present study was to review literature on the prevalence and incidence of gout systematically and to perform a meta-analysis including meta-regression analysis to obtain insight into the degree of and factors contributing to the heterogeneity.

## Materials and methods

#### Data sources and searches

MEDLINE, EMBASE, and Web of Science were searched for primary studies on the prevalence and/or incidence of gout using the free text- and MeSH-search term "gout" with subheading "epidemiology", and the search term "gout" in combination with "epidemiology", "prevalence", and "incidence". Replacing the search term "gout" by the keywords "crystal arthritis" or "crystal arthropathy" did not lead to additional titles.

The search was limited to articles published in English, German, French, Spanish, or Dutch. Letters, comments, and editorial citations were excluded by adding the search term: NOT "letter" [Publication Type] NOT "comment" [Publication Type] NOT "editorial" [Publication Type]. The search was executed on 22 February 2010 and was last updated on 1 July 2012. References were imported in Endnote and duplicates were removed. Finally, hand search of bibliographies of relevant articles was performed.

#### Study selection

Two reviewers (JW, SvL) independently screened titles and (if available) the corresponding abstracts. Studies were included if; (1) the aim of the study was to estimate the prevalence and/or incidence of gout; (2) primary data, derived from a new or original research study, were reported; (3) the general population was the target. Any disagreement was resolved after consensus between the two reviewers (JW, SvL). Full-text articles of the selected titles were accessed via PUBMED or were requested from the corresponding authors, after which a full-text review was performed by the first reviewer (JW).

#### Data extraction

Data were extracted by two independent reviewers (JW, KT). In case of disagreement, a third reviewer (AB) was consulted and consensus reached. In addition to study identification, data extraction comprised sources of clinical heterogeneity (mean age of the sample, male/female distribution, country, setting), and sources of methodological heterogeneity (year in which data collection began, sampling frame to recruit study population, sampling method, exclusion criteria, response rate, representativeness of study population for the general population, case definition for gout, duration of follow up in case of an incidence study, consistency in case finding and case definition throughout the study). Finally variables related to outcome reporting were extracted (figures on prevalence and/or incidence including its numerator and denominator, confidence intervals, measure of prevalence and/or incidence).

Data synthesis and analysis

#### Variables in meta-regression analyses

With regard to *clinical heterogeneity*, the percentage of males and the mean age of the sample were included in the analyses as continuous variables. Continent of study execution was subdivided into seven categories: Europe, North America, South America, Africa, Asia, Oceania, and "indigenous people" (composed of Maori, Aboriginals and Inuit). Indigenous people were analysed as a separate category since these individuals represent a unique population in which high gout prevalences are generally found, partly due to a marked genetic predisposition for hyperuricaemia [6, 10]. The setting was subdivided into urban, rural, or a combination of both.

With respect to *methodological heterogeneity*, year in which data collection began (or publication year if not reported) was handled as a continuous variable. The following four variables were scored dichotomously: response

rate was deemed appropriate if either 75 % or more of the sampled subjects participated, or if participation was <75 % but data analysis included a non-responder analysis showing no difference in participants' characteristics between responders and non-responders; the sampling method was appropriate if a random selection was used; consistency in data collection was appropriate if the approach was similar across all participants; and representativeness of the study population if the methods used to select the study population were deemed appropriate to obtain a studied sample truly representative of the general population. The following two variables were categorized. The sampling frame was categorized into census list, household register, convenience sample, general practitioner database, hospital database, list of specific group of subjects (employees of a company), and geographic sampling. The case definition of gout was categorized into seven categories. The first two categories comprised a self-reported diagnosis of gout or self-reported symptoms suggestive of gout recorded by a questionnaire or an interview. Categories 3 and 4 involved a 2-step case definition in which a self-reported screening question (as in categories 1 and 2) was followed by a confirmation of cases based on additional clinical criteria, physical exam, or ICD codes. In case health professionals examined all participants the case definition was coded with category 5. Finally, ICD codes/free text search in general practitioner medical records or hospital medical records were coded as categories 6 and 7, respectively.

For *outcome reporting*, the measure of prevalence was dichotomized as lifetime or period, and the measure of incidence as proportion or incidence rate.

#### Prevalence studies

Where possible, data from individual articles were subdivided into independent *samples* to allow for separate results based on sex, ethnic group, setting, or location (e.g. instead of computing a single prevalence rate for an article, prevalence rates for the male and female subsamples were included in the meta-analysis). To avoid statistical dependence in the estimates, if an article reported the prevalence of a specific population over time, only the most recent estimation was used. The prevalence for each sample was calculated using raw data (i.e. number of cases divided by the sample size). In case of a missing numerator, the number of cases was back-calculated from the reported prevalence rate (%) and the sample size.

Prevalence rates were transformed with the logit (log odds) transformation before further analysis [11, 12]. The sampling distribution of a logit transformed rate is better approximated by a normal distribution, especially when the true prevalence rate is close to zero. For samples with zero

cases, we used the standard bias/continuity correction of adding  $\frac{1}{2}$  to the number of cases and non-cases before computing the logit transformed rates.

To estimate the pooled prevalence, the transformed prevalence rates were combined in a meta-analysis using a random-effects model. The pooled result and the corresponding confidence interval bounds were then back-transformed to yield an estimate of the average prevalence rate. Based on the results from the random-effects model, a 95 % prediction interval was calculated, which provides an estimate of the range where future prevalences are expected to fall in 95 % of the individual study settings [13]. The amount of heterogeneity between studies was estimated using the empirical Bayes estimator and reported in terms of the I<sup>2</sup>-statistic [14].

A sensitivity analysis, excluding studies with "low study quality", was not performed because of scientific objections to computing a quality rating score or weighting of quality items [15]. Instead, the contribution of methodological and clinical aspects of diversity (including aspects of quality) to the heterogeneity was explored by performing meta-regression analyses using mixed-effects models [16]. Univariable and multivariable models were fitted, using the empirical Bayes method to estimate the amount of residual heterogeneity [14], and model coefficients were tested using the Knapp and Hartung method [17]. Pairwise comparisons were obtained for categorical variables with p values adjusted by Holm's method [18]. We estimated the amount of heterogeneity accounted for by moderators by computing the proportional reduction in the amount of heterogeneity when the moderators are included in the model [16].

Sensitivity analyses were performed using two alternative modeling approaches for the multivariable metaregression analysis, i.e. using a mixed-effects logistic regression model with random effects per observed outcome and a beta-binomial model with logit link function. All analyses were performed with R using the packages *metafor* [19], *lme4* [20], and *VGAM* [21].

#### Incidence studies

Due to the small number of articles on the incidence of gout we chose to describe these studies and to inspect the data carefully rather than conducting meta-regression analyses.

## Results

## Study selection

The literature search provided a total of 2,126 hits (PubMed: n = 1,018, EMBASE: n = 664, Web of

Science: n = 444). After removing duplicates, 1,466 titles, the majority including abstracts, were screened for eligibility, resulting in 86 candidate titles. For 10 studies no full text could be retrieved despite the use of interlibrary loan services and a search for contact details of first authors.

After full text review 12 articles did not meet the inclusion criteria (3 titles referred to congress abstracts only, 3 did not provide primary data, and in 6 the target was not the general population). Five further articles were excluded because they reported on the same study population and the paper providing the most complete data on clinical and methodological heterogeneity was considered. The hand search of bibliographies of relevant articles were included after the last update (1 July 2012). Finally, 77 articles were included, of which 71 reported prevalence and 12 incidence (Fig. 1).

#### Prevalence

## Study characteristics

In the 71 articles [22–92], 172 independent samples were identified (Online Resource 1). Table 1 presents characteristics of these samples. Studies were carried out between 1950 and 2012. The total number of individuals in these 71 articles was unknown as denominators were not reported in all studies. Approximately 50.9 % (range 0–100 %) of the total population was male with an average age of ~45 (31–79) years. Studies were mainly conducted in Asia (61 out of 172, 35.5 %) and Europe (48 out of 172, 27.9 %). Fifty-five (38.2 % of 144) studies used a census and 37 (25.7 % of 144) a general practitioner database for sampling individuals. The case definition most frequently used was the 2-step approach where self-reported symptoms was followed by further confirmation (52 out of 172, 30.2 %).



Fig. 1 Selection of studies for the systematic review of the prevalence and incidence of gout

Table 1 Characteristics of 71 studies reporting the prevalence of gout that were considered as sources of heterogeneity

Clinical heterogeneity	Methodological heterogeneity	Outcome reporting
$Mean \ age \ (n = 129)$	Start data collection ( $n = 172$ )	Measure of prevalence
Range 31–79	Range 1950–2012	(n = 166)
Median 43.0	Median 1994	1. Life time prevalence
Mean 44.4	Mean 1990	(n = 141) 2 Period prevalence
% Males $(n = 165)$	Response rate $(n = 172)$	(n = 25)
Range 0–100	1. Adequate: $n = 119^{a}$	
Median 48.8	2. Non-adequate: $n = 53$	
Mean 50.9		
	Sampling method $(n = 172)$	
Continent $(n = 172)$ :	1. Random: $n = 128$	
1. Europe: $n = 48$	2. Non-random: $n = 44$	
2. North America: $n = 16$		
3. South America: $n = 9$	Consistency data collection $(n = 1/2)$	
4. Africa: $n = 6$	1. Approach was similar across all participants: n = 157	
5. Asia: n = 61	II = 157	
6. Oceania: $n = 22$	2. Approach was not similar across an participants. n = 15	
7. Indigenous people: $n = 10$ (composed of Maori,		
Aboriginals and Eskimos)	Sampling frame $(n = 144)$ :	
S	1. Census: $n = 55$	
Setting $(n = 139)$	2. Household register: $n = 27$	
1. Rural: $n = 37$	3. Convenience sample: $n = 8$	
2. Urban: $n = 54$	4. General practitioner database: $n = 37$	
3. Combination urban en rural: $n = 68$	5. Hospital database: $n = 4$	
	6. List of specific group of subjects: $n = 5$ (e.g. employees of a company)	
	7. Geographic sampling: $n = 8$	
	Representation general population $(n = 172)$	
	1. Yes: $n = 26$	
	2. No: n = 146	
	Case definition $(n = 172)$	
	1. Self-reported diagnosis: $n = 18$	
	2. Self-reported symptoms: $n = 11$	
	3. 2-step approach diagnosis: $n = 10$	
	4. 2-step approach symptoms: $n = 52$	
	5. Diagnose health professional: $n = 46$	
	6. Medial record general practitioner: $n = 31$	
	7. Medical record hospital: $n = 4$	

<sup>a</sup> Response rate  $\geq$ 75 or <75 % but data analysis included a non-responder analysis

## Meta-analysis

The meta-analysis was conducted based on 165 (95.9 %) samples extracted from 67 studies where the raw prevalence was available or could be computed. In total, the 165 samples comprised 237,464 cases and a sample size of 12,226,425 individuals. The observed prevalence ranged from 0 to 26.2 % with an unweighted mean of 1.6 %

(SD = 3.3 %; median = 0.3 %). Thirty-two samples (19.4 %) reported a prevalence of 0 %. The pooled (back-transformed) estimated average prevalence based on the meta-analysis was 0.6 % (95 % CI 0.4; 0.7). The 95 % prediction interval was 0.03–11.16 %. Note that 10 samples with sample sizes larger than 100,000 comprised 94.2 % of the total sample size. The I<sup>2</sup> statistic indicated a very high level of heterogeneity (99.9 %).

Moderator				U	nivariable analyses		
			β	SE	OR (95 %CI)	p value	$R^2$
Clinical heterogener	ity						
	Mean age		0.0625	0.0190	1.06 (1.03; 1.11)	0.001	8.8
	% male		0.0153	0.0026	1.02 (1.01; 1.02)	< 0.001	20.7
	Continent					< 0.001	31.2
	Reference = Europe	North America	0.9253	0.3926	2.52 (1.16; 5.48)	0.020	
	F(df = 6, df = 158) = 10.8	South America	-0.7192	0.5250	0.49 (0.17; 1.37)	0.173	
		Africa	-0.2869	0.7298	0.75 (0.18; 3.17)	0.695	
		Asia	-0.9152	0.2895	0.40 (0.23; 0.71)	0.002	
		Oceania	1.2495	0.3741	3.49 (1.67; 7.30)	0.001	
		Indigenous people	1.8119	0.4881	6.12 (2.33; 16.05)	< 0.001	
	Setting					0.641	0.0
	<i>Reference</i> = <i>Rural</i>	Urban	0.1258	0.3874	1.13 (0.53; 2.44)	0.746	
	F(df = 2, df = 149) = 0.4	Combination urban and rural	0.3271	0.3666	1.39 (0.67; 2.86)	0.374	
Methodological hete	erogeneity						
	Start data collection		-0.0032	0.0088	1.00 (0.98; 1.01)	0.719	0.0
	Response rate		0.1881	0.2903	1.21 (0.68; 2.14)	0.518	0.0
	Sampling method		0.0644	0.3062	1.07 (0.58; 1.95)	0.834	0.0
	Consistency data collection		-0.5815	0.5175	0.56 (0.20; 1.55)	0.263	0.2
	Sampling frame <sup>a</sup>					0.075	4.9
	<i>Reference</i> = <i>Census</i>	Household register	0.0007	0.4071	1.00 (0.45; 2.24)	0.999	
	F(df = 6, df = 130) = 2.0	Convenience sample	1.5200	0.6300	4.57 (1.31; 15.90)	0.017	
		General practitioner database	0.2113	0.3602	1.24 (0.61; 2.52)	0.558	
		Hospital database	0.7081	0.8446	2.03 (0.38; 10.79)	0.403	
		List of specific group of subjects	-0.7264	0.7809	0.48 (0.10; 2.27)	0.354	
		Geographic sampling	-1.1355	0.6900	0.32 (0.08; 1.26)	0.102	
	Representativeness study population		-0.3873	0.3764	0.68 (0.32; 1.43)	0.305	0.0
	Case definition					< 0.001	33.6
	Reference = Self-reported diagnosis	Self-reported symptoms	-0.3202	0.5300	0.73 (0.25; 2.07)	0.547	
	F(df = 6, df = 158) = 11.9	2-step approach diagnosis	-0.9793	0.5500	0.38 (0.13; 1.11)	0.077	
		2-step approach symptoms	-2.8317	0.3896	0.06 (0.03; 0.13)	< 0.001	
		Diagnose health professional	-1.7812	0.4016	0.17 (0.08; 0.37)	< 0.001	
		Medical record general practitioner	-1.8842	0.4091	0.15 (0.07; 0.34)	<0.001	
		Medical record hospital	-1.1179	0.7536	0.33 (0.07; 1.45)	0.140	
Outcome reporting							
	Measure of prevalence						
	<i>Reference</i> = <i>Life-time prevalence</i>	Period prevalence	0.3056	0.3863	1.36 (0.63; 2.91)	0.430	0.0

Table 2 Univariable meta-regression analyses on the prevalence of gout

SE standard error,  $R^2$  = the amount of heterogeneity accounted for by the predictor in %

## Univariable meta-regression analyses

Mean age, sex, continent, and case definition were significantly associated with the prevalence, accounting respectively for 8.8, 20.7, 31.2, and 33.6 % of the heterogeneity (Table 2). Start of data collection was not significantly associated with the prevalence of gout (p = 0.719). Pairwise comparison showed that in indigenous people (Maori,

Aboriginals, Inuit) and Oceania higher prevalences were found compared to Europe (p = 0.004; p = 0.013), South America (p = 0.002; p = 0.009), and Asia (p < 0.001; p < 0.001) (Fig. 2 and Online Resource 2). Europe and North America reported higher prevalences in comparison to Asia (p = 0.022; p < 0.001). Within 'case definition', self-reported approaches resulted in higher estimates of prevalences compared with: a 2-step approach using gout

symptoms as a screening question; diagnoses by a health professional; or ICD code/free text in medical records of general practitioners (range *p* values <0.001–0.029). The 2-step approach based on self-reported diagnosis, diagnosis by a health professional, and ICD code in medical records of general practitioners resulted in a significantly higher prevalence than the 2-step approach based on self-reported symptoms (p = 0.002; p = 0.011; p = 0.039). Finally, within the sampling frame, a convenience sample frame estimates higher prevalence compared with geographic sampling (p = 0.048).

## Multivariable meta-regression analysis

Table 3 shows the results of the multivariable analysis. Due to collinearity between case definition and sampling frame, the latter was not included in the total model. The multivariable analysis included 109 (63.4 %) samples, comprising a reduced total sample size of 3,813,476 individuals from 47 studies due to missing data on the sources of clinical and methodological heterogeneity. The variables age (p = 0.019), sex (p < 0.001), continent (p < 0.001), case definition (p < 0.001), response rate (p = 0.016), and consistency in data collection (p = 0.002) were significantly associated with gout prevalence (Table 3). Pairwise comparison showed that in indigenous people significantly higher prevalence rates were reported compared to all continents (all p < 0.01), except for Africa (supplementary material 2). Note that results on Africa are based on a small number of samples. Studies performed in Oceania and North America estimated significantly higher gout prevalences compared to: Asia (p < 0.001; p < 0.001); South America (p = 0.001; p = 0.003); and Europe (p < 0.001;p = 0.002). Within 'case definition', self-reported symptoms and the 2-step approach based on self-reported diagnosis provided significantly higher prevalences in comparison to a 2-step approach based on self-reported symptoms (p = 0.001; p = 0.001) or a diagnosis by a health professional (p < 0.001; p = 0.002).

The multivariable model accounted for 88.7 % of the variance. The predicted prevalences based on this model closely corresponded with the observed prevalences in the individuals studies (Fig. 3). Therefore, the prevalence for any given population may be estimated based on the multivariable model as shown in Table 3. For example, a study performed in 2012 in an Asian population (combining both urban and rural area) with a mean age of 44.4 years and 50.9 % males, in which gout is classified using a 2-step approach based on symptoms (representing the population with characteristics that are most frequently reported on), would provide an estimated life time prevalence of 0.03 % (95 %CI 0.01; 0.09). In contrast, a study performed in 2012 in North America with a similar age and

sex distribution, but with a gout diagnosis based on self-reported symptoms, would provide an estimated life time prevalence of 1.37 % (95 %CI 0.43; 4.24). A study with similar characteristics as the latter, but with a 20 years older population (mean age = 64.4 yrs), would result in an estimated prevalence of 2.95 % (95 %CI 0.94; 8.86).

#### Sensitivity analyses

Sensitivity analyses were performed using two alternative modeling approaches for the multivariable regression analysis: (1) using a mixed-effects logistic regression model with random effects per observed outcome and (2) a beta-binomial model with logit link function. The conclusions with respect to the relevant predictors remained largely unchanged. However, using the first alternative method, the prevalence in Asia was no longer different from the one in Europe, whereas the case definition 2-step approach based on self-reported diagnosis was now significantly different from self-reported diagnosis. Using the beta-binomial model, the case definitions self-reported symptoms and the 2-step approach based on selfreported diagnosis were significantly different from selfreported diagnosis, but the 2-step approach based on selfreported symptoms and a diagnosis by a health professional were no longer different from each other.

## Incidence

#### Study characteristics

Incidence rates were reported in 12 articles [34, 44, 50, 54, 67, 84, 93–98]. Studies were carried out between 1950 and 2012. Due to incomplete method description and missing numerators, denominators, or the number of subjects in the study, the measure of incidence (incidence proportion or incidence rate) was not always clear.

## Study results

By scrutinizing extracted data, we observed an influence of duration of follow-up of the cohort on the reported incidence (Table 4). Within the studies with a follow-up  $\leq 2$  years or in studies reporting annual rates, incidences ranged between 0.06/1,000 and 1.80/1,000, with higher incidences in men (0.12/1,000 to 1.98/1,000) than in women (0.0/1,000 to 0.74/1,000). Within studies with a longer follow-up (>2 years) an incidence of 2.68/1,000 person-years was reported, with incidences varying between 2.8/1,000 to 4.42/1,000 in men and 1.32/1,000 to 1.4/1,000 in women. Follow-up periods ranged from 7 to 52 years. In a study performed in Maori with 11 year follow-up, an incidence of 103/1,000 in men and 43/1,000 in women was reported [34].



◄ Fig. 2 Scatterplots for the continuous predictors and *boxplots* for the categorical predictors with the y-axis corresponding to the logit transformed prevalence rates plotted proportional to the sample sizes. *Continent* (*1* Europe, 2 North America, *3* South America, *4* Africa, *5* Asia, *6* Oceania, *7* Indigenous people). Case definition (*1* Self-reported diagnosis, *2* Self-reported symptoms, *3* 2-step approach diagnosis, *4* 2-step approach symptoms, *5* Diagnose health professional, *6* Medial record GP, *7* Medical record hospital). Setting (*1* rural, *2* urban, *3* combination). Sampling frame (*1* Census, *2* Household register, *3* Convenience sample, *4* General practitioner database, *5* Hospital database, *6* List of specific group of subjects, *7* Geographic sampling). Measure of prevalence (*1* lifetime prevalence, *2* period prevalence)

Note that some studies calculated incidence rates or proportions using an unconventional method, that is, by dividing new cases by the number of individuals reexamined after 11 years [34]; by using a denominator based on only the re-examined individuals with hyperuricemia [97]; or by dividing new cases (2002–2003) by census data of 2001, not excluding prevalent cases [54].

Six articles studied the incidence of gout over time. Four did not find evidence for an increasing or decreasing trend in incidence [50, 67, 84, 98]. However, Currie et al. [44] noted a significant difference between the incidence in

Table 3	Multivariable	meta-regression	analysis o	n the	prevalence	of	gout
---------	---------------	-----------------	------------	-------	------------	----	------

Moderator				Mult	ivariable analysis <sup>a</sup>	
			β	SE	OR (95 %CI)	p value
Clinical heterogeneity						
	Mean age		0.0393	0.0164	1.04 (1.01; 1.07)	0.019
	% male		0.0168	0.0016	1.02 (1.01; 1.02)	< 0.001
	Continent					< 0.001
	Reference = Europe	North America	1.3281	0.3544	1.87 (1.87; 7.63)	< 0.001
	F(df = 6, df = 86) = 22.2	South America	-0.3626	0.4541	0.70 (0.28; 1.72)	0.427
		Africa	2.726	1.1326	15.27 (1.61; 145.05) <sup>c</sup>	0.018
		Asia	-0.7383	0.3306	0.48 (0.24; 0.92)	0.029
		Oceania	1.5363	0.3636	4.65 (2.26; 9.58)	< 0.001
		Indigenous people	2.8163	0.4083	16.7 (7.42; 37.63)	< 0.001
	Setting					0.250
	Reference = rural	Urban	0.3840	0.2460	1.47 (0.90; 2.39)	0.122
	F(df = 2, df = 86) = 1.4	Combination urban and rural	0.1722	0.3148	1.19 (0.64; 2.22)	0.586
Methodological heterogeneity						
	Start data collection		-0.0007	0.0082	1.00 (0.98; 1.02)	0.937
	Response rate		0.6193	0.2523	1.86 (1.13; 3.07)	0.016
	Sampling method		-0.2410	0.2310	0.79 (0.50; 1.24)	0.300
	Consistency data collection		-1.5058	0.4742	0.22 (0.09; 0.57)	0.002
	Representativeness study population		-0.1987	0.3257	0.82 (0.43; 1.57)	0.543
	Case definition					< 0.001
	<i>Reference</i> = <i>self-reported diagnosis</i>	Self-reported symptoms	0.7527	0.4396	2.12 (0.89; 5.09)	0.090
	F(df = 6, df = 86) = 6.0	2-step approach diagnosis	0.8079	0.4985	2.24 (0.83; 6.04)	0.109
		2-step approach symptoms	-0.8786	0.3987	0.42 (0.19; 0.92)	0.030
		Diagnose health professional	-0.8818	0.3979	0.41 (0.19; 0.91)	0.029
		Medical record general practitioner	-0.3065	0.4548	0.74 (0.30; 1.82)	0.502
		Medical record hospital	-0.1233	0.7535	0.88 (0.20; 3.95)	0.870
Outcome reporting						
	Measure of prevalence					
	<i>Reference</i> = <i>life-time prevalence</i>	Period prevalence	0.1449	0.2964	1.16 (0.64; 2.08)	0.626

<sup>a</sup> Due to collinearity between case definition and sampling frame, the latter was excluded from multivariable analysis

<sup>b</sup> Intercept of multivariable model:  $\beta = -6.4984$ ; SE = 16.2324

<sup>c</sup> The small number of samples within the level "Africa" resulted in the large 95 %CI

SE standard error



Fig. 3 Scatterplot for the predicted prevalence based on the multivariable model and the observed prevalence, both on the logit scale

1971–1972 (0.29/1,000) and 1974–1975 (0.35/1,000) in England, but not in Scotland, Wales, and Great Britain as a whole. Arromdee et al. [93] reported that the age and sex adjusted incidence for all gout did not significantly increase (p = 0.10) during a 20-year interval, but found a twofold increase in incidence of primary gout only (subjects not on thiazide or diuretics).

## Discussion

This study was the first to assess the determinants of the worldwide prevalence of gout in the general population in a systematic manner. Our results showed a pooled prevalence of 0.6 % (95 % CI 0.4; 0.7) across 67 articles. However, the prevalence estimates were extremely heterogeneous. Therefore, the pooled prevalence should be interpreted with caution. Our multivariable model explained 88.7 % of the heterogeneity and showed an independent influence of age, sex, continent of study execution, consistency in data collection, response rate, but also case definition. In addition, we found that crude incidence rates of gout varied between 0.06/1,000 and 2.68/1,000 across 12 articles.

The previously reported lower prevalence of gout in females and higher prevalence in Oceania [87, 99], North America [5], and among indigenous people (Maori, Aboriginals and Inuit) [68, 87] was confirmed in the present study. A higher prevalence in North America has been attributed to the presence of varying ethnic groups on this

continent, including Filipinos and African Americans with high gout prevalences ascribed to the shift from a lowpurine diet to a high-purine Western diet in case of immigrants [100] and higher rates of hypertension [101].

Case definition accounted, in the univariable analysis, for 33.6 % of the heterogeneity. A 2-step approach based on diagnosis and self-reported approaches to define gout resulted in the highest estimates of the prevalence of gout. While a previous study suggested that self-report of *physician-diagnosed* gout is an adequate proxy of the actual prevalence [102], we were not able to distinguish this specific self-reported diagnosis from a simple self-reported diagnosis method due to small subsamples. Note that the 2-step approaches were most often used and therefore could have influenced the pooled prevalence.

Because of the limited number of incidence studies a meta-analysis was not possible. Surprisingly, statistical approaches to calculate incidence rates were imprecise and often the exact numerator and denominator were not reported. When incidence rates are assessed over a long time frame, it is assumed that the incidence remains constant during the period of study. However, when assessing a closed cohort, gout incidence will increase with increasing age. This is probably why we found that studies with a long follow-up reported higher incidence rates in comparison to studies reporting an annual incidence.

Among the incidence studies six articles reported incidences across time, of which only two found an increase. Also, our meta-regression analysis of the prevalence rate did not show a significant influence of year of study execution. However, in case a study reported prevalences over time, only the most recent estimation was considered. Nevertheless, only two of the four studies that compared annual prevalence rates for different time points directly [43, 50, 84, 90] reported the increase to be significant [43, 90]. Based on our results, we suggest that there is insufficient evidence for a time trend in the worldwide prevalence and incidence of gout. However, we acknowledge that our finding may represent the absence of evidence, rather than evidence of absence.

Some limitations to this study need to be considered. First, we cannot exclude possible language bias and availability bias in study inclusion as we limited our search to five languages and published articles. Second, due to unavailability of some data from the primary papers, we had to exclude four articles from the meta-analyses. Third, coding the different aspects of clinical and methodological heterogeneity entails some subjectivity, however, coding was independently performed by two reviewers and disagreement resolved by consensus. Fourth, we used mixedeffects logistic regression model for the meta-regression analysis which may have influenced our results. However, sensitivity analyses showed that the impact of the used

Table 4 Ch	aracteristics and resu.	lts of studies report	ting incidence rates of §	gout					
Reference	Data collection	Geographic location and setting	1. Sampling frame 2. Case definition	Study characteristics <sup>a</sup>	Baseline age yrs: total (men, women)	Follow-up (yrs)	Sample size; 1. N 2. Person-years	Unadjusted incidenc per 1,000 person-ye (*) or persons at ris	e ars k
					Cender: % men			Total	Male/female
Arromdee	1977–1978 and	America	1. Hospital	1. No		2		1978: 0.35	
[93]	1995–1996	Urban	database	2. Yes				1996: 0.56	
			2. Screening text	3. Yes					
			using ACK	4. Yes					
Bhole	1950-2000	America	1. Census	1. No	Age: (46; 47)	52	1.		M: 4.0*
[94]		Urban + rural	2. Clinical exam	2. Yes	Gender: 44 %		M:1,951		F: 1.4*
				3. Yes			F: 2,476		
				4. Yes			2.		
							M: 49,571		
							F: 73,164		
Brauer	1963–1974	NZ Maori	1. Unknown	1. No	Age: $\sim 42$	11	1.		M: 103
[34]		Rural	2. Self-reported	2. No	Gender: 47 %		M: 252		F: 43
			symptoms	3. Yes			F: 279		
				4. Yes					
Campion	1963-1978	America	1. Convenience	1. No	Age: 42	14.9	1.		M: 2.8*
[95]		Urban + rural	sample	2. No	Gender: 100 %		M: 2,046		
			2. Clinical exam	3. No			2.		
				4. Yes			M: 30,147		
Currie	1971-1975	UK	1. GP database	1. Yes		5	1.	1971: 0.26	
[44]		Urban + rural	2. ICD	2. Yes			Total: 374,832	1975: 0.30	
				3. Yes				Range: 0.25–0.35	
				4. Yes					
Elliot	1994-2007	UK	1. GP database	1. Yes		13	1.	1994: 132	1994:
[50]		Urban + rural	2. ICD	2. Yes			Total: $\sim 920,000$	2007: 1.23	M: 1.96
				3. Yes				Range: 1.12–1.35	F: 0.70
				4. Yes					2007:
									M: 1.83
									F: 0.64

29

Table 4 con	tinued								
Reference	Data collection	Geographic location and setting	1. Sampling frame 2. Case definition	Study characteristics <sup>a</sup>	Baseline age yrs: total (men, women)	Follow-up (yrs)	Sample size; 1. N 2. Person-years	Unadjusted incide per 1,000 person-y (*) or persons at r	nce ears isk
					Gender: % men			Total	Male/female
Hannova [54]	2002-2003	Czech Republic Urban + rural	<ol> <li>GP and specialist referral to cooperating rheumatologist</li> <li>Wallace criteria</li> </ol>	1. No 2. Yes 3. Yes 4. Yes	Age: ~ 52 (53, 51) Gender: 48 %	1	1. M: 73,906 F: 79,938	0.41	M: 0.69 F: 0.16
Isomaki [96]	1974	Finland Urban + rural	<ol> <li>Referral to Rheumatism foundation hospital</li> <li>Clinical exam AND GP and hospital lists; free text search</li> </ol>	1. Yes 2. No 3. No 4. No		_	1. Total: 275,600	0.06	M: 0.12 F: 0.0
Mikuls [67]	1991–1999	UK Urban + rural	<ol> <li>GP database</li> <li>Oxmis coding system</li> </ol>	1. Yes 2. Yes 3. Yes 4. Yes	Gender: 49 %	10	2. Total in 1999: 1,716,276	Range: 1.19–1.80 1999: 1.31*	
O'Sullivan [97]	1964	America Urban	1. Census 2. Clinical exam	1. No 2. Yes 3. Yes 4. Yes	Gender: 48 %	-	1. Total: 4,612	1.0	
Soriano [98]	2000-2007	UK Urban + rural	1. GP database 2. ICD	1. Yes 2. Yes 3. Yes 4. Yes		٢	1. Total: 1,775,505	2.68 2001: 2.67 2007: 2.52	M: 4.42 F: 1.32 2001: M: 4.48 F: 1.28 F: 1.28 M: 4.01 F: 1.25
Trifiro [84]	2005-2009	Italy Urban + rural	<ol> <li>GP database</li> <li>ICD and free text search</li> </ol>	1. Yes 2. Yes 3. Yes 4. Yes		Ś		2005: 0.93 2009: 0.95 Range: 0.96–1.04	2005: M: 1.56 F: 0.38 2009 M: 1.50 F: 0.52
<sup>a</sup> 1. Represe person-years	ntativeness study po vs. persons at risk)	pulation; 2. Sampli	ng method; 3. Response-rate	e; 4. Consistency c	lata collection Studies	are not clear	on the method used t	to calculate the incic	lence rate (1,000

method was rather small. Finally, associations of the gout prevalence with population averages, such as age and sex, across studies may not reflect findings within studies.

In conclusion, the results of this systematic review show that gout is a common disease. A large part of the heterogeneity between studies on the prevalence of gout can be explained by sources of clinical heterogeneity, such as the world region in which the study was performed, and the percentage of males in the study population, but also by the case definition of gout. Researchers should carefully formulate their case definition to facilitate comparison between studies. In addition, more research is needed to support the possible time trend towards increasing prevalence or incidence of gout in the general population.

**Conflict of interest** The authors have no conflict of interest associated with the work reported in this paper.

## References

- Zhu Y, Pandya BJ, Choi HK. Comorbidities of gout and hyperuricemia in the US general population: NHANES 2007–2008. Am J Med. 2012;125:679–87. doi:10.1016/j. amjmed.2011.09.033.
- Roddy E, Zhang W, Doherty M. Is gout associated with reduced quality of life? A case-control study. Rheumatology. 2007;46:1441–4.
- Hamburger M, Baraf HS, Adamson TC 3rd, Basile J, Bass L, Cole B, et al. 2011 Recommendations for the diagnosis and management of gout and hyperuricemia. Postgrad Med. 2011;123:3–36. doi:10.3810/pgm.2011.11.2511.
- 4. Saag KG, Choi H. Epidemiology, risk factors, and lifestyle modifications for gout. Arthritis Res Ther. 2006;8:S2.
- Singh JA. Racial and gender disparities among patients with gout. Curr Rheumatol Rep. 2013;15:307. doi:10.1007/s11926-012-0307-x.
- 6. Doherty M. New insights into the epidemiology of gout. Rheumatology. 2009;48:2–8.
- Luk AJ, Simkin PA. Epidemiology of hyperuricemia and gout. Am J Manag Care. 2005;11:S435–42.
- Miller DR, Rogers WH, Kazis LE, Spiro A 3rd, Ren XS, Haffer SC. Patients' self-report of diseases in the Medicare Health Outcomes Survey based on comparisons with linked survey and medical data from the Veterans Health Administration. J Ambul Care Manage. 2008;31:161–77. doi:10.1097/01.JAC. 0000314707.88160.9c.
- Malik A, Dinnella JE, Kwoh CK, Schumacher HR. Poor validation of medical record ICD-9 diagnoses of gout in a Veterans Affairs Database. J Rheumatol. 2009;36:1283–6.
- Cheng LSC, Chiang SL, Tu HP, Chang SJ, Wang TN, Ko AMJ, et al. Genomewide scan for gout in Taiwanese aborigines reveals linkage to chromosome 4q25. Am J Hum Genet. 2004;75:498–503.
- Sutton AJ, Abrams KR, Jones DR, Sheldon TA, Song F. Methods for meta-analysis in medical research. New York: Wiley; 2000.
- 12. Lipsey MW, Wilson DB. Practical meta-analysis. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage; 2001.
- Riley RD, Higgins JP, Deeks JJ. Interpretation of random effects meta-analyses. BMJ. 2011;342:d549. doi:10.1136/bmj.d549.

- Berkey CS, Hoaglin DC, Mosteller F, Colditz GA. A randomeffects regression model for meta-analysis. Stat Med. 1995;14:395–411.
- Greenland S, O'Rourke K. On the bias produced by quality scores in meta-analysis, and a hierarchical view of proposed solutions. Biostatistics. 2001;2:463–71. doi:10.1093/biostatis tics/2.4.463.
- Raudenbush SW. Analyzing effect sizes: random-effects models. In: Cooper H, Hedges LV, Valentine JC, editors. The handbook of research synthesis and meta-analysis. 2nd ed. New York: Russell Sage Foundation; 2009. p. 295–315.
- Knapp G, Hartung J. Improved tests for a random effects metaregression with a single covariate. Stat Med. 2003;22:2693–710. doi:10.1002/sim.1482.
- Holm S. A simple sequentially rejective multiple test procedure. Scand J Statist. 1979;6:65–70.
- Viechtbauer W. Conducting meta-analyses in R with the metafor Package. J Stat Softw. 2010;36:1–48.
- Bates D, Maechler M, Bolker B, Walker S. Ime4: Linear mixedeffects models using Eigen and S4. R package version 1.1–6 2014. http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=lme4.
- 21. Yee TW. The VGAM package for categorical data analysis. J Stat Softw. 2010;32:1–34.
- 22. Akizuki S. A population study of hyperuricaemia and gout in Japan–analysis of sex, age and occupational differences in thirty-four thousand people living in Nagano Prefecture. Ryumachi. 1982;22:201–8.
- Al-Arfaj AS. Hyperuricemia in Saudi Arabia. Rheumatol Int. 2001;20:61–4.
- 24. Alvarez Nemegyei J, Nuno Gutierrez BL, Alcocer Sanchez JA. Enfermedades reumaticas y discapacidad laboral en poblacion adulta rural. Rev Med Inst Mex Seguro Soc. 2005;43: 287–92.
- 25. Anagnostopoulos I, Zinzaras E, Alexiou I, Papathanasiou AA, Davas E, Koutroumpas A, et al. The prevalence of rheumatic diseases in central Greece: a population survey. BMC Musculoskelet Disord. 2010;11:98. doi:10.1186/1471-2474-11-98.
- 26. Andrianakos A, Trontzas P, Christoyannis F, Dantis P, Voudouris C, Georgountzos A, et al. Prevalence of rheumatic diseases in Greece: a cross-sectional population based epidemiological study. The ESORDIG Study. J Rheumatol. 2003;30:1589–601.
- Annemans L, Spaepen E, Gaskin M, Bonnemaire M, Malier V, Gilbert T, et al. Gout in the UK and Germany: prevalence, comorbidities and management in general practice 2000–2005. Ann Rheum Dis. 2008;67:960–6.
- Badley EM, Meyrick JS, Wood PH. Gout and serum uric acid levels in the Cotswolds. Rheumatol Rehabil. 1978;17:133–42.
- Beighton P, Solomon L, Soskolne CL, Sweet MB. Rheumatic disorders in the South African Negro. Part IV. Gout and hyperuricaemia. S Afr Med J. 1977;51:969–72.
- Beighton P, Valkenburg HA. Bone and joint disorders on Tristan da Cunha. S Afr Med J. 1974;48:743–7.
- Bergmann MM, Jacobs EJ, Hoffmann K, Boeing H. Agreement of self-reported medical history: comparison of an in-person interview with a self-administered questionnaire. Eur J Epidemiol. 2004;19:411–6.
- Bergstrom G, Bjelle A, Sorensen LB, Sundh V, Svanborg A. Prevalence of rheumatoid arthritis, osteoarthritis, chondrocalcinosis and gouty arthritis at age 79. J Rheumatol. 1986;13:527–34.
- Boyer GS, Lanier AP, Templin DW. Prevalence rates of spondyloarthropathies, rheumatoid arthritis, and other rheumatic disorders in an Alaskan Inupiat Eskimo population. J Rheumatol. 1988;15:678–83.
- 34. Brauer GW, Prior IA. A prospective study of gout in New Zealand Maoris. Ann Rheum Dis. 1978;37:466–72.

- Cakir N, Pamuk ON, Dervis E, Imeryuz N, Uslu H, Benian O, et al. The prevalences of some rheumatic diseases in western Turkey: Havsa study. Rheumatol Int. 2012;32:895–908. doi:10. 1007/s00296-010-1699-4.
- 36. Cardiel MH, Rojas-Serrano J. Community based study to estimate prevalence, burden of illness and help seeking behavior in rheumatic diseases in Mexico City. A COPCORD study. Clin Exp Rheumatol. 2002;20:617–24.
- 37. Chaiamnuay P, Darmawan J, Muirden KD, Assawatanabodee P. Epidemiology of rheumatic disease in rural Thailand: a WHO-ILAR COPCORD study. Community Oriented Programme for the Control of Rheumatic Disease. J Rheumatol. 1998;25:1382–7.
- Chang SJ, Ko YC, Wang TN, Chang FT, Cinkotai FF, Chen CJ. High prevalence of gout and related risk factors in Taiwan's Aborigines. J Rheumatol. 1997;24:1364–9.
- Chen SL, Du H, Wang Y, Xu LQ. The epidemiology study of hyperuricemia and gout in a community population of Huangpu District in Shanghai. Chin Med J. 1998;111:228–30.
- Chopra A, Patil J, Billempelly V, Relwani J, Tandle HS. Prevalence of rheumatic diseases in a rural population in western India: a WHO-ILAR COPCORD Study. J Assoc Physicians India. 2001;49:240–6.
- Chou CT, Lai JS. The epidemiology of hyperuricaemia and gout in Taiwan aborigines. Br J Rheumatol. 1998;37:258–62.
- 42. Chou CT, Pei L, Chang DM, Lee CF, Schumacher HR, Liang MH. Prevalence of rheumatic diseases in Taiwan: a population study of urban, suburban, rural differences. J Rheumatol. 1994;21:302–6.
- Chuang SY, Lee SC, Hsieh YT, Pan WH. Trends in hyperuricemia and gout prevalence: nutrition and health survey in Taiwan from 1993–1996 to 2005–2008. Asia Pac J Clin Nutr. 2011;20:301–8.
- 44. Currie WJ. Prevalence and incidence of the diagnosis of gout in Great Britain. Ann Rheum Dis. 1979;38:101–6.
- 45. Dai SM, Han XH, Zhao DB, Shi YQ, Liu Y, Meng JM. Prevalence of rheumatic symptoms, rheumatoid arthritis, ankylosing spondylitis, and gout in Shanghai, China: a COPCORD study. J Rheumatol. 2003;30:2245–51.
- 46. Dans LF, TankehTorres S, Amante CM, Penserga EG. The prevalence of rheumatic diseases in a Filipino urban population: a WHO-ILAR COPCORD study. J Rheumatol. 1997;24:1814–9.
- Darmawan J, Valkenburg HA, Muirden KD, Wigley RD. The epidemiology of gout and hyperuricemia in a rural population of Java. J Rheumatol. 1992;19:1595–9.
- 48. Davatchi F, Jamshidi AR, Banihashemi AT, Gholami J, Forouzanfar MH, Akhlaghi M, et al. Effect of ethnic origin (Caucasians versus Turks) on the prevalence of rheumatic diseases: a WHO-ILAR COPCORD urban study in Iran. Clin Rheumatol. 2009;28:1275–82.
- Douglas WA. Rheumatic disease in the Australian Aborigine of Cape York Peninsula: a 1965 study. APLAR J Rheumatol. 2004;7:237–41. doi:10.1111/j.1479-8077.2004.00098.x.
- Elliot AJ, Cross KW, Fleming DM. Seasonality and trends in the incidence and prevalence of gout in England and Wales 1994–2007. Ann Rheum Dis. 2009;68:1728–33.
- Farooqi A, Gibson T. Prevalence of the major rheumatic disorders in the adult population of north Pakistan. Br J Rheumatol. 1998;37:491–5.
- Gardner MJ, Power C, Barker DJ, Padday R. The prevalence of gout in three English towns. Int J Epidemiol. 1982;11:71–5.
- Hall AP, Barry PE, Dawber TR, McNamara PM. Epidemiology of gout and hyperuricemia. A long-term population study. Am J Med. 1967;42:27–37.
- 54. Hanova P, Pavelka K, Dostal C, Holcatova I, Pikhart H. Epidemiology of rheumatoid arthritis, juvenile idiopathic arthritis and gout in two regions of the Czech Republic in a descriptive

🖄 Springer

population-based survey in 2002–2003. Clin Exp Rheumatol. 2006;24:499–507.

- 55. Haq SA, Darmawan J, Islam MN, Uddin MZ, Das BB, Rahman F, et al. Prevalence of rheumatic diseases and associated outcomes in rural and urban communities in Bangladesh: a COP-CORD study. J Rheumatol. 2005;32:348–53.
- Harris CM, Lloyd D, Lewis J. Prevalence and Prophylaxis of Gout in England. J Clin Epidemiol. 1995;48:1153–8.
- 57. Hoa TTM, Damarwan J, Le CS, Hung NV, Nhi CT, An TN. Prevalence of the rheumatic diseases in urban Vietnam: a WHO-ILAR COPCORD study. J Rheumatol. 2003;30:2252–6.
- Jackson L, Taylor R, Faaiuso S, Ainuu SP, Whitehouse S, Zimmet P. Hyperuricaemia and gout in Western Samoans. J Chronic Dis. 1981;34:65–75.
- Joshi VL, Chopra A. Is there an urban-rural divide? Population surveys of rheumatic musculoskeletal disorders in the Pune region of India using the COPCORD Bhigwan Model. J Rheumatol. 2009;36:614–22.
- 60. Kato H, Duff IF, Russell WJ, Uda Y, Hamilton HB, Kawamoto S, et al. Rheumatoid arthritis and gout in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan: a prevalence and incidence study. J Chronic Dis. 1971;23:659–79.
- Klemp P, Stansfield SA, Castle B, Robertson MC. Gout is on the increase in New Zealand. Ann Rheum Dis. 1997;56:22–6.
- Kramer HM, Curhan G. The association between gout and nephrolithiasis: the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey III, 1988–1994. Am J Kidney Dis. 2002;40:37–42.
- 63. Li R, Sun J, Ren LM, Wang HY, Liu WH, Zhang XW, et al. Epidemiology of eight common rheumatic diseases in China: a large-scale cross-sectional survey in Beijing. Rheumatology. 2012;51:721–9. doi:10.1093/rheumatology/ker370.
- Mahajan A, Jasrotia DS, Manhas AS, Jamwal SS. Prevalence of major rheumatic disorders in Jammu. JK Sci. 2003;5:63–6.
- 65. Miao ZM, Li CG, Chen Y, Zhao SH, Wang YG, Wang ZC, et al. Dietary and lifestyle changes associated with high prevalence of hyperuricemia and gout in the Shandong coastal cities of Eastern China. J Rheumatol. 2008;35:1859–64.
- Mikkelsen WM, Dodge HJ, Duff IF, Kato H. Estimates of the prevalence of rheumatic diseases in the population of Tecumseh, Michigan, 1959–60. J Chronic Dis. 1967;20:351–69.
- 67. Mikuls TR, Farrar JT, Bilker WB, Fernandes S, Schumacher HR, Saag KG. Gout epidemiology: results from the UK general practice research database, 1990–1999. Ann Rheum Dis. 2005;64:267–72.
- Minaur N, Sawyers S, Parker J, Darmawan J. Rheumatic disease in an Australian aboriginal community in North Queensland, Australia. A WHO-ILAR COPCORD survey. J Rheumatol. 2004;31:965–72.
- 69. Nan HR, Qiao Q, Dong YH, Gao WG, Tang B, Qian RL, et al. The prevalence of hyperuricemia in a population of the coastal city of Qingdao, China. J Rheumatol. 2006;33:1346–50.
- Obregon-Ponce A, Iraheta I, Garcia-Ferrer H, Mejia B, Garcia-Kutzbach A. Prevalence of musculoskeletal diseases in Guatemala, Central America: the COPCORD study of 2 populations. J Clin Rheumatol. 2012;18:170–4. doi:10.1097/RHU.0b013e 3182583803.
- O'Sullivan JB. Gout in a New England town. A prevalence study in Sudbury, Massachusetts. Ann Rheum Dis. 1972;31: 166–9.
- 72. Pelaez-Ballestas I, Sanin LH, Moreno-Montoya J, Alvarez-Nemegyei J, Burgos-Vargas R, Garza-Elizondo M, et al. Epidemiology of the rheumatic diseases in Mexico. A study of 5 regions based on the COPCORD methodology. J Rheumatol. 2011;86:3–8. doi:10.3899/jrheum.100951.
- Picavet HS, Hazes JM. Prevalence of self reported musculoskeletal diseases is high. Ann Rheum Dis. 2003;62:644–50.

- 74. Popert AJ, Hewitt JV. Gout and hyperuricaemia in rural and urban populations. Ann Rheum Dis. 1962;21:154–63.
- Portis AJ, Laliberte M, Tatman P, Moua M, Culhane-Pera K, Maalouf NM, et al. High prevalence of gouty arthritis among the Hmong population in Minnesota. Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken). 2010;62:1386–91. doi:10.1002/acr.20232.
- Prior IA, Rose BS, Harvey HP, Davidson F. Hyperuricaemia, gout, and diabetic abnormality in Polynesian people. Lancet. 1966;1:333–8.
- 77. Reyes-Llerena GA, Guibert-Toledano M, Penedo-Coello A, Perez-Rodriguez A, Baez-Duenas RM, Charnicharo-Vidal R, et al. Community-based study to estimate prevalence and burden of illness of rheumatic diseases in Cuba: a COPCORD study. J Clin Rheumatol. 2009;15:51–5.
- Rose BS, Prior IA. A survey of rheumatism in a rural New Zealand Maori community. Ann Rheum Dis. 1963;22:410–5.
- Salaffi F, De Angelis R, Grassi W. Prevalence of musculoskeletal conditions in an Italian population sample: results of a regional community-based study. I. The MAPPING study. Clin Exp Rheumatol. 2005;23:819–28.
- Sari I, Akar S, Pakoz B, Sisman AR, Gurler O, Birlik M, et al. Hyperuricemia and its related factors in an urban population, Izmir, Turkey. Rheumatol Int. 2009;29:869–74.
- Steven MM. Prevalence of chronic arthritis in four geographical areas of the Scottish Highlands. Ann Rheum Dis. 1992;51: 186–94.
- Sullivan FM, Barber JH, Sturrock RD. Rheumatology at the general practitioner/hospital interface: a study of prevalence and access to specialist care. Ann Rheum Dis. 1990;49:983–5.
- 83. Taylor W, Smeets L, Hall J, McPherson K. The burden of rheumatic disorders in general practice: consultation rates for rheumatic disease and the relationship to age, ethnicity, and small-area deprivation. N Z Med J. 2004;117:U1098.
- 84. Trifiro G, Morabito P, Cavagna L, Ferrajolo C, Pecchioli S, Simonetti M, et al. Epidemiology of gout and hyperuricaemia in Italy during the years 2005–2009: a nationwide populationbased study. Ann Rheum Dis. 2012;72:694–700. doi:10.1136/ annrheumdis-2011-201254.
- Veerapen K, Wigley RD, Valkenburg H. Musculoskeletal pain in Malaysia: a COPCORD survey. J Rheumatol. 2007;34: 207–13.
- 86. Wigley R, Manahan L, Muirden KD, Caragay R, Pinfold B, Couchman KG, et al. Rheumatic disease in a Philippine village II: a WHO-ILAR-APLAR COPCORD study, phases II and III. Rheumatol Int. 1991;11:157–61.
- Winnard D, Wright C, Taylor WJ, Jackson G, Te Karu L, Gow PJ, et al. National prevalence of gout derived from administrative health data in Aotearoa New Zealand. Rheumatology. 2012;51:901–9. doi:10.1093/rheumatology/ker361.

- Zalokar J, Lellouch J, Claude JR, Kuntz D. Serum uric acid in 23,923 men and gout in a subsample of 4257 men in France. J Chronic Dis. 1972;25:305–12.
- Zeng QY, Wang QW, Chen R, Xiao ZG, Huang SB, Xu JC. Primary gout in Shantou: a clinical and epidemiological study. Chin Med J. 2003;116:66–9.
- Zhu Y, Pandya BJ, Choi HK. Prevalence of gout and hyperuricemia in the US general population: the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2007–2008. Arthritis Rheum. 2011;63:3136–41. doi:10.1002/art.30520.
- Zimmet PZ, Whitehouse S, Jackson L, Thoma K. High prevalence of hyperuricaemia and gout in an urbanised Micronesian population. Br Med J. 1978;1:1237–9.
- Lin KC, Lin HY, Chou P. Community based epidemiological study on hyperuricemia and gout in Kin-Hu, Kinmen. J Rheumatol. 2000;27:1045–50.
- Arromdee E, Michet CJ, Crowson CS, O'Fallon WM, Gabriel SE. Epidemiology of gout: Is the incidence rising? J Rheumatol. 2002;29:2403–6.
- Bhole V, de Vera M, Rahman MM, Krishnan E, Choi H. Epidemiology of female gout: 52-Year follow-up of a prospective cohort. Arthritis Rheum. 2010;62:1069–76.
- Campion EW, Glynn RJ, DeLabry LO. Asymptomatic hyperuricemia. Risks and consequences in the Normative Aging Study. Am J Med. 1987;82:421–6.
- Isomaki H, Raunio J, von Essen R, Hameenkorpi R. Incidence of inflammatory rheumatic diseases in Finland. Scand J Rheumatol. 1978;7:188–92.
- O'Sullivan JB. The incidence of gout and related uric acid levels in Sudbury, Massachusetts. In: Bennett PH, Wood PHN, editors. Population studies of the rheumatic diseases. Amsterdam: Excerpta Medica; 1968. p. 371–6.
- Cea Soriano L, Rothenbacher D, Choi HK, Garcia Rodriguez LA. Contemporary epidemiology of gout in the UK general population. Arthritis Res Ther. 2011;R13:39. doi:10.1186/ar3272.
- Robinson P, Taylor W, Merriman T. A systematic review of the prevalence of gout and hyperuricemia in Australia. Intern Med J. 2012;42:997–1007. doi:10.1111/j.1445-5994.2012.02794.x.
- 100. Torralba TP, Bayani Sioson PS. The Filipino and gout. Semin Arthritis Rheum. 1975;4:307–20.
- 101. Hochberg MC, Thomas J, Thomas DJ, Mead L, Levine DM, Klag MJ. Racial differences in the incidence of gout. The role of hypertension. Arthritis Rheum. 1995;38:628–32.
- 102. McAdams MA, Maynard JW, Baer AN, Kottgen A, Clipp S, Coresh J, et al. Reliability and sensitivity of the self-report of physician-diagnosed gout in the campaign against cancer and heart disease and the atherosclerosis risk in the community cohorts. J Rheumatol. 2011;38:135–41. doi:10.3899/jrheum. 100418.