

**ORIGINAL ARTICLE** 

# Assessment of relationship between pain, psychological status, quality of life and body mass index

Nilay Sahin<sup>1</sup>, Ali Yavuz Karahan<sup>2</sup>, Aziz Atik<sup>3</sup>, Erdal Dogan<sup>4</sup>, Ilknur Albayrak Gezer<sup>5</sup>, Hatice Ugurlu<sup>6</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Balikesir University Medical Faculty Department of Physical Therapy and Rehabilitation, Balikesir, TURKEY

<sup>2</sup>Beyhekim State Hospital Department of Physical Therapy and Rehabilitation Konya, TURKEY

<sup>3</sup>Balikesir University Medical Faculty Department of Orthopedics and Traumatology, Balikesir, TURKEY

<sup>4</sup>Malatya State Hospital Department of Physical Therapy and Rehabilitation Malatya, TURKEY

<sup>5</sup>Selcuk University Faculty of Medicine Department of Physical Therapy and Rehabilitation, Konya, TURKEY

<sup>6</sup>Necmettin Erbakan University Meram Faculty of Medicine Department of Physical Therapy and Rehabilitation Konya, TURKEY

ABSTRACT: Objective: The purpose of the study is to evaluate health-related quality of life (HRQL), pain, the number of painful areas, and depression level; both to compare obesity level and these parameters, and to compare between obese and non-obese participants. Materials (Subjects) and Methods: 1875 voluntary patients were evaluated. Patients were grouped into 5 according to body mass index (BMI) values: Group 1:17-24.99kg/m², Group 2:25-29.99kg/m², Group 3:30-34.99kg/m², Group 4:35-35.99kg/m², Group 5: BMI more than 40kg/m². Patients were asked to fulfill a questionnaire about demographic data and a number of painful areas (neck, shoulder, elbow, wrist, back, low back, knee, ankle, and temporomandibular joint). All patients were evaluated with visual analog scale (VAS), for pain, short form-36 (SF-36) for HRQL, Beck Depression Scale (BDS) for depression level. Results: We have included 1832 patients (460 male, and 1372 female) in the study: Group 1: 285(16%), Group 2: 623(34%), Group 3: 653(36%), Group 4: 190(10%), Group 5: 81(4%). When the groups was compared according to VAS scores during activity; all other groups was higher than group 1 (p<0.01). When the BDS scores were compared; depression levels were higher in group 5 than the other groups. When a number of painful areas were compared; groups 3,4,5 had higher values than group 1,2, and group 2 had higher values than group 1 (p<0.001). Conclusion: This study evaluates pain level, the number of painful areas, physical HRQL, and depression levels of pre-obese and obese patients using VAS, BDS, and SF-36 scores and proves negative effects when compared to the healthy population. But this effect does not correlate with BMI levels.

Keywords: Obesity, Pain, Psychological status, Quality of life

### INTRODUCTION

Obesity is a worldwide problem which leads to several disorders with a prevalence of 7-15% in first world countries, but 33% in USA (1,2). It is estimated that there are nearly 300 million obese in the world, and this will suppose to reach twice in 2025 (3). Obesity causes many disorders like metabolic syndromes, hypertension, atherosclerosis, cardiac function failures,

diabetes type II, locomotor symptoms and so disaffects person's daily life (4).

Obesity can simply be explained as an increased body mass index (BMI) according to borderline measurements. BMI is calculated with the ratio of weight to the square of height and presented as kg/m² unit (5-7). The World Health Organization (WHO) has categorized BMI scores into three main groups: underweight (BMI

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author: Ali Yavuz Karahan MD. State Hospital of Konya Beyhekim, yunusemre mh nurani sk no 1 meram/ Konya/TURKEY, +90 538 692 19 34, e-mail address: ayk222@hotmail.com

< 18.5 kg/m²), normal weight (18.5 to < 25 kg/m²) and overweight ( $\geq$  25 kg/m²). Overweight is further subdivided into four groups: pre-obese (25 to <30 kg/m²), obese class I (30 to < 35 kg/m²), obese class II (35 to < 40 kg/m²) and obese class III ( $\geq$  40 kg/m²) (8).

The term "health" represents the status of wellness in social, physical, and psychological aspects (9). If obesity and health are taken under consideration then it can be said that obesity increases morbidity so decreases health-related quality of life (HRQL) and life capacity (10,11). HRQL includes physical activity, functional status, pain, viability, social life, and mental wellness. Studies have shown that when BMI increases, these components are affected so HRQL decreases (12-24).

The disruption of physical HRQL in obese patients was reported by many studies, but there have been different results about the interaction between a mental component of HRQL and obesity. Some studies claimed that obese patients have negative effects in mental HRQL when compared to the normal population (10,25,26), but the other some reported no relationship between BMI and mental HRQL (27,28). In common, it is possible to find decreases in mental HRQL with the patients of previous psychological disorders (29). Especially class III obese patients have more tendency to depression and mental HRQL decrease (30-32). It's clear that the depression level is not only affected with BMI but also age, sex, genetics, marriage status, family history, pain and other chronic diseases may alter it (33,34).

HRQL is apparently affected with pain level in obese patients due to arthrosis or soft tissue wounds (35), which leads to functional disability. It was reported that physical HRQL was more affected in obese patients with pain than without pain (36).

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

We have evaluated 1875 voluntary patients in our institute between 2009 and 2013. The patients older than 18 years of age with joint pain were included in the study. The exclusion criteria were: pregnancy, neurologic deficits, serious cardiovascular or metabolic diseases, pain level more than 8 up to the visual analog scale (VAS), and antidepressant usage due to psychiatric disorders. So 1832 patients were included in the study. The local institutional ethical committee approved the study.

The patients were grouped into 5 according to

BMI values: Group 1: BMI between 17-24.99 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, Group 2: BMI between 25-29.99 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, Group 3: BMI between 30-34.99 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, Group 4: BMI between 35-35.99 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, Group 5: BMI more than 40 kg/m<sup>2</sup>.

All patients were asked to fulfill a questionnaire about demographic data (age, sex, education level, occupation), and a number of painful areas (neck, shoulder, elbow, wrist, back, low back, knee, ankle, and temporomandibular joint).

Painful areas were numbered according to the pain answers: yes or no. The Same physician measured patients' heights with a 0.5 cm sensitive wall-mounted stadiometer, and patients' weights with a 0.1 kg sensitive calibrated balance scale while the patients wearing no shoes and only light clothing. Then the BMI values were calculated. All patients were elucidated about the study and signed an informed consent form.

## Evaluation Criteria

All patients were evaluated with VAS (37,38) for pain, short form-36 (SF-36) for HRQL (39,41), Beck Depression Scale (BDS) for depression level (42-44).

**Pain:** Patients were asked to score joint pain between 0 to 10 (0: no pain, 10: worst pain ever) that happened during movements in last 7 days (37,38).

Functional status: The SF-36 assesses eight health domains; limitations in physical activities because of health problems; reductions in usual role activities attributable to physical or emotional problems; limitations in usual role activities because of physical health problems; bodily pain; general mental health (i.e. psychological distress and wellbeing); limitations in role activities because of emotional problems; vitality (i.e., energy and fatigue); and general health perceptions (45).

A scoring algorithm was used to transform the sum of the SF-36 item scores within each dimension to a scale ranging from 0 (poor health) to 100 (good health) (39-41).

**Depression level**: BDS is a questionnaire of 21 questions in which the patients were asked to choose the most appropriate sentences for themselves. Every question is composed of 4 sentences arranged through neutral position (0 points) to worst position (3 points). The maximum score can be 63. While a score  $\leq$  16 means normal, it is depression if  $\geq$  17 (42-44).

# **RESULTS**

We have included 1832 patients (460 male, and 1372 female) in the study: Group 1: 285 patients (16%),

Table 1. Demographical data of each group

|                 | Group 1<br>(BMI 17-24,99) | Group 2<br>(BMI 25-29,99) | Group 3<br>(BMI 30-34,99) | Group 4<br>(BMI 35-39,99) | Group 5 $(BMI \ge 40)$ |
|-----------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|
|                 | n=285                     | n=623                     | n=653                     | n=190                     | n=81                   |
| Age             |                           |                           |                           |                           |                        |
| $(Mean \pm Sd)$ | $49.5 \pm 11.5$           | $49.4 \pm 14.5$           | $51.8 \pm 11.9$           | $51.3 \pm 11.0$           | $51.7 \pm 8.9$         |
| Gender* (%)     |                           |                           |                           |                           |                        |
| Male            | 26                        | 33.6                      | 23.4                      | 13.2                      | 6.2                    |
| Female          | 74                        | 67.4                      | 76.6                      | 86.8                      | 93.8                   |
| Education* (%)  |                           |                           |                           |                           |                        |
| None            | 23.5                      | 19.7                      | 23.3                      | 27.9                      | 25.9                   |
| Preliminary     | 11.9                      | 45.6                      | 54.1                      | 58.4                      | 65.4                   |
| High school     | 49.4                      | 24.3                      | 16.6                      | 10.5                      | 4.9                    |
| University      | 15.2                      | 10.4                      | 6                         | 3.2                       | 3.8                    |
| Occupation* (%) |                           |                           |                           |                           |                        |
| House wife      | 20.3                      | 62                        | 70.8                      | 83.7                      | 88.9                   |
| Professional    | 20.7                      | 13.6                      | 9.2                       | 4.1                       | 3.5                    |
| Bodily work     | 41.2                      | 17.1                      | 12.3                      | 6.6                       | 5.3                    |
| Self employed   | 17.8                      | 7.3                       | 7.7                       | 5.6                       | 2.3                    |

Sd: Standard deviation, \*: p<0,05

Table 2. SF-36 scores of each group

| SF-36   | Group 1<br>(BMI 17-24.99) | Group 2<br>(BMI 25-29.99) | Group 3<br>(BMI 30-34.99) | Group 4<br>(BMI 35-39.99) | Group 5<br>(BMI ≥ 40) | P<br>values |
|---------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| PF      | 66.1±24.1                 | 47.0±26.8 °               | 41.1±23.8 °1              | 40.2±22.5 °1              | 32.4±20.7 ° 12        | 0.001       |
| Role    | 48.6±43.1                 | 36.3±45.6 °               | 28.4±42.3 °1              | 27.6±43.6 °1              | 18.2±37.2 °1          | 0.001       |
| Pain    | 45.1±19.3                 | 51.2±11.4 °               | 52.9±12.9 °               | 53.7±12.9                 | 56.5±14.3 °12         | 0.001       |
| GH      | 53.7±13.9                 | 55.1±15.5                 | 53.6±15.0                 | 51.9±14.3                 | 51.3±14.0             | 0.026       |
| PC      | 53.3±13.9                 | 47.4±18°                  | 43.6±16.3 °1              | 42±16.6 °1                | 39.6±15.1 °1          | 0.001       |
| Energy  | 48.2±14.0                 | 41.3±19.2 °               | 41.2±18.9 °               | 39.1±18.1 °               | 38.2±19.9 °           | 0.001       |
| Social  | 47.1±16.1                 | 48.3±11.6                 | $48.4 \pm 10.1$           | $46.3 \pm 10.1$           | 48.9±8.8              | 0.021       |
| Emotion | $50.5 \pm 42.6$           | 48.7±47.5                 | 49.9±50.7                 | 53.6±47.5                 | 41.9±46.2 °           | 0.001       |
| Mental  | 42.3±14.7                 | 41.8±14.5                 | 40.5±14.3                 | 40.2±14.7                 | 38.0±13.2             | 0.018       |
| MC      | 47±15.2                   | 47±16.8                   | 45±16.8                   | 44.7±16.9                 | 43±16.6               | 0.024       |

Physical function: PF, General Health: GH, Physical Component: PC, Mental component: MC

Table 3. Number of painful areas, VAS, BDS scores of each group

|       | Group 1       | Group 2       | Group 3       | Group 4         | Group 5        | P      |
|-------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|----------------|--------|
|       | (17-24,99)    | (25-29,99)    | (30-34,99)    | (35-39,99)      | (BMI ≥ 40)     | values |
| NPA   | $2.4 \pm 1.1$ | $3.6 \pm 1.9$ | 3.9±2.1 °1    | 3.8±2 °1        | 4.3±1.9 °1     | 0,001  |
| VAS*  | $5.3 \pm 2.7$ | $5.7 \pm 1.6$ | $5.9 \pm 1.6$ | $5.7 \pm 1.9,0$ | 6.1±1.9        | 0,01   |
| BDS** | 14.0±10.1     | 13.7±7.4      | 14.9±6.7°1    | 15.6±8.6 °1     | 17.9±7.6 ° 123 | 0,001  |

NPA: Number of painful areas, VAS: Visual analog scale, BDS: Beck depression scale

 $<sup>^{\</sup>circ}$ ; compared to group 1 p<0.05.  $^{1}$ ; compared to 2 p<0.05,  $^{2}$ ; compared to 3 p<0.05,  $^{3}$ ; compared to 4 p<0.05

 $<sup>^{\</sup>circ}$  ; for group 1 p < 0,05  $^{-1}$  ; for group 2 p < 0,05  $^{-2}$  ; for group 3 p < 0,05  $^{-3}$  ; for group 4 p < 0,05  $^{-3}$ 

Group 2: 623 patients (34%), Group 3: 653 patients (36%), Group 4: 190 patients (10%), and Group 5: 81 patients (4%).

Age, sex, the occupational and educational status of each group are summarized in table 1. While no significant difference was apparent among ages; sex, occupational and educational status had statistically significant differences.

Table 2 summarizes the mean values of SF-36 scores. When physical component took into account; group 2 was worse than group 1, and groups 3,4,5 were worse than groups 1,2 statistically (p<0.001). And according to a mental component, there was no statistically significant difference among all groups (p>0.05).

When two groups were compared according to VAS scores during activity; groups 2,3,4,5 were higher than group 1 (p<0.01). When the BDS scores were compared; depression levels were higher in group 5 than groups 1,2,3,4 and in groups 3,4 than groups 1,2 (p<0.001). When a number of painful areas were compared; groups 3,4,5 had higher values than groups 1,2, and group 2 had higher values than group 1 (p<0.001). Table 3 summarizes the number of painful areas, VAS and BDS scores.

# **DISCUSSION**

This present study deals with 1832 patients which were grouped into 5 according to BMI scores. While groups were homogenous in ages, they were different in sex, occupation, and educational status. Female patients crowded in each group. Higher the educational status increased, lower the obesity rates decreased. Most pre-obese and obese ones were housewives. While there was no difference for mental components among groups, physical components were worse in pre-obese and obese gradually, than healthy ones via SF-36 scoring for HRQL. Pain intensity was higher in obese population than healthy ones according to VAS scoring. A likely number of painful areas were increasing with weight. When depression levels were evaluated with BDS class III obese patients got the worst scores.

Most of the previous studies have investigated the relationship between BMI and HRQL. But in this study we aimed to evaluate HRQL, pain level, the number of painful areas, and depression level; both to compare obesity level and these parameters, and to compare between obese and non-obese ones.

Obesity is a rapidly increasing social problem that affects life quality, psychological wellness, and functional capability via causing several morbidities. The term "life quality" can be depicted as the self-sufficiency of any person in work or self-activities despite the physical, psychological or economic burden of a specific illness (46). Obesity diminishes the activity, so decreases work success and influences the physical HRQL negatively (13,14).

Gaining fat after puberty is more common in girls than boys. Pregnancy and lactation are natural fat-collection periods. So, in general, obesity is more frequent among females. Less activity, less collaboration in work disaffects females' HRQL more than males (48-50).

Facing with food all the day for a housewife inevitably increases fat intake. Besides overworking with heavy weight increases pain, and decreases HRQL. Even hard occupation may stir up pain, the scores of pain, depression level, the number of painful areas, and physical HRQL are worse in obese and pre-obese patients which in terms supports the thought of weight-effect over degenerative pain. Our study also proved female dominance for obesity in all BMI groups.

Several studies have reported negative impacts of lower socioeconomic and educational status on HRQL (51-53). Our results also support the illation of poorer scores in less-educated patients. It can be concluded that malnutrition and uncontrolled weight are more common in less educated people, that's because education builds up sensitivity and consciousness against malnutrition.

SF-36 is an easy and reliable method to assess HRQL (54,55) which is proven to be consistent and valid (56). It shows general health status in mental and physical forms (57,58). Many studies have used SF-36 for evaluating health condition in obese patients (59-61). We also preferred to utilize SF-36 within the lightings of the literature.

Two systematic reviews about HRQL in obese patients in 1995 and 2001 reported a strict relation between BMI and physical/mental HRQL (25,62). A metanalysis including 8 studies about life quality in obese patients with SF-36 showed that BMI influences the physical quality of lie in all obese patients, but the mental quality of life is just worse in class III obese patients (63). This analysis reported better mental HRQL in overweight people than the normal population. The reason is not yet fully understood (48). Obesity decreases physical HRQL scores, but this is

not in direct proportion probably due to other factors affecting HRQL rather than BMI. Similar results were found in our study.

BMI and mental HRQL relation are a debatable issue. Some studies have reported worse HRQL scores when BMI increased (25,64,65), but others reported no significant relationship (21,66,67). Doll et al. concluded that emotional wellness is not affected with obesity level (13). But if the patient has any chronic disease this changes.

Wadden and Stunkard reported bad psychological status in obese patients especially when comorbidity exists (25). Depressive emotion and/or high anxiety levels are the most common psychological disorders among obese patients (70), which later on increase physical symptoms and functional disturbance (50). Psychopathology can be accepted as the main factor that affects physical and psychological HRQL components (71-73). We also observed a negative effect of obesity on psychological status.

Simon et al. reported anxiety and eating disorders in 25% of obese patients (74). Carpenter et al. showed increased the prevalence of major depression, suicide attack, and suicidal thoughts in overweight females; but in contrary these were decreasing in males with weight (48). Moreira et al. reported obesity itself is an independent risk factor for increasing the prevalence of depressive symptoms and serious emotional disorders for females in Brazil (75). Female gender, alcohol abuse, and obesity levels were proven to be specific risk factors for psychopathologic disorders; but not only for obese patients, non-obese patients are also at risk in the existence of these factors (76). In our study, alcohol abuse was not common among females mostly due to cultural obligations.

Pain is obviously a negative factor for HRQL in obese patients due to excessive loading on the musculoskeletal system. Barofsky et al. reported better HRQL levels in patients who do not have pain than painful ones (36). Vertical overload to the spinal system increases subchondral degenerative sclerosis and intradiscal pressure, then spondylosis and lumbar hyperlordosis develop (81). In physically active population, a relationship between fatty mass and musculoskeletal injury and pain has been reported (82-84). In obese patients, load-increasing-activities like walking stimulates locomotor pain (85).

We observed that a reason for immobilization in obese people was this motion-stimulated pain. Some-

how it forms a vicious circle: pain induces immobilization, immobilization eases fat-gain, fat-gain increases BMI, and higher the BMI higher the complaints.

Not only lower extremity joints but also upper extremities can be affected in obese patients (35,83,86,87). Lately, some studies have proved increased fracture and osteoarthritis risk, and negative effects on soft tissues like tendon, fascia and cartilage in obese patients (35,88). The level of pain and number of painful areas also increase with obesity level, but interestingly not only in weight-bearing lower extremities but also in other joints (89,90). We also found similar results, which in terms may prove a systemic interrelationship of pain and inflammatory mediators in all body.

Hooper et al. reported decreased pain levels in patients who were undergone surgery to lose weight (91). Apart from current studies so far, our study does not only evaluate pain level but it also searches the number of painful areas. And we found higher numbers in higher weights. So any attending physician must be aware of coexistence of obesity and increased pain in overweighted patients in terms of prophylactic medicine like weight control, exercise, and modification of daily activities.

In our study, we didn't observe a relationship between BMI level and mental HRQL. This may be due to lacked sensitivity of measurement methods for mental HRQL in overweight patients (68). Besides some cultures accept obesity as a symbol of happy life (69). Every year overweight prevalence increases so the society begins to concede it normal, which in terms eases self-acceptance of weight.

We found the direct relationship between BMI and depression levels in our female dominant study. Likely, Sullivan et al. reported distinctive anxious and depressive symptoms in females who have BMI scores  $\geq 35 \text{ kg/m}^2$  (77). Obesity, depression level, and life quality have a reversible relationship within each other. More fat obese patients lose, more decreased depression levels and higher HRQL they get (15,78-80).

This study apart from the previous ones has a unique specification: taking into account of the number of painful areas. So looking for the relationship between groups and number of painful areas is one of the aims of this study. More or the less it was hypothesized that obese people have more pain, more painful areas, lower life qualities, and lower mental conditions.

Our study has some limitations: groups are not homogeneous for age, sex, and educational status. If they were homogenous, then BMI could be evaluated as an independent risk factor for HRQL, pain level, the number of painful areas, and depression level. The other limitation is overlooking for comorbid diseases in the patients because comorbidities can affect HRQL, pain, and depression levels apparently.

#### Limitations

The patients with wide range of diagnosis and severe diseases such as inflammatory arthritis were included in the study. But the patients with severe pain (VAS > 8) were excluded from the study according to exclusion criteria's. So the influence of the severe pain scores on mood changes was shifted. Another limitation of this study is that the participants were not evaluated about their dietary habits and there were no evaluation criteria according to their anthropometric parameters.

#### **CONCLUSION**

This study evaluates pain level, the number of painful areas, physical HRQL, and depression levels of pre-

obese and obese patients using VAS, BDS, and SF-36 scores and proves negative effects when compared to the healthy population. But this effect does not correlate with BMI levels. This may be because of heterogeneity of groups for age, sex, and educational status. An increased number of overweight and obese patients in the population may ease normalization of this condition. But this is for sure that obesity disaffects physical HRQL and increases depression level, pain level and a number of painful areas. These factors build a fast circle triggering each other. The way to break this circle is weight control. If pain level and the number of painful areas decrease, then physical HRQL improves and depression level diminishes. All pre-obese and obese patients must be considered under these risk factors and therapeutic regimens should include prophylactic precautions.

**Acknowledgment:** No benefits in any form have been received or will be received from a commercial party related directly or indirectly to the subject of this article. We confirm that this manuscript has not been published elsewhere and is not under consideration by another journal.

# REFERENCES

- 1. Laurier D, Guiget M, Chau P, Wells JA, Valleron A-J. Prevalence of obesity: a comparative survey in France, the United Kingdom and the United States. Int J Obes. 1992;16:565–72.
- Kuczmarski RJ, Flegal KM, Campbell SM, Johnson CL. Increasing prevalence of overweight among US adults. The National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys. 1960 to 1991. JAMA. 1994;272:205–11.
- 3. Garber AJ. The metabolic syndrome. Med Clin North Am. 2004;88(4):837-46.
- 4. Poston WS 2nd, Foreyt JP. Successful management of the obese patient. Am Fam Physician 2000;61:3615-22.
- 5. Björntorp P. Obesity: a chronic disease with alarming prevalence and consequences. J Intern Med. 1998;244(4):267-9.
- 6. Douketis JD, Paradis G, Keller H, Martineau C. Canadian guidelines for body weight classification in adults: application in clinical practice to screen for overweight and obesity and to assess disease risk. CMAJ.

- 2005;172(8):995-8.
- 7. Petricevic N, Puharic Z, Posavec M, Pavic Simetin I, Pejnovic Franelic I. Family history and parental recognition of overweight in Croatian children. Eur J Pediatr. 2012; 171(8):1209-14.
- 8. WHO. Obesity: Preventing and Managing the Global Epidemic. Report of a WHO consultation on Obesity. WHO: Geneva, 2001.
- 9. World Health Organization. The Constitution of the World Health Organization. WHO Chronicle. 1947;1.
- 10. Fontaine KR, Barofsky I, Cheskin LJ. Predictors of quality of life for obese persons. J Nerv Ment Dis. 1997;185:120 –2.
- 11. Palinkas LA, Wingard DL, Barrett-Connor E. Depressive symptoms in overweight and obese older adults: a test of the "jolly fat" hypothesis. J Psychosomatic Res. 1996;40:59–66.
- 12. Fontaine KR, Cheskin LJ, Barofsky I. Health-related quality of life in obese persons seeking treatment. J

- Fam Pract 1996; 43 (3): 265-70.
- 13. Doll HA, Petersen SEK, Stewaed-Brown SL. Obesity and physical and emotional well-being: Associations between body mass index, chronic illness, and the physical and mental components of the SF-36 Questionnaire. Obes Res 2000; 8 (2): 160-170.
- 14. Finkelstein MM. Body mass index and quality of life in a survey of primary care patients. J Fam Pract 2000; 49 (8):734-7.
- 15. Kolotkin RL, Crosby RD, Williams GR, Hartley GG, Nicol S. The relationship between health-related quality of life and weight loss. Obes Res 2001; 9 (9): 564-71.
- 16. Fontaine KR, Barofsky I. Obesity and health-related quality of life. Obes Rev 2001; 2 (3): 173-82.
- 17. Larsson U, Karlsson J, Sullivan M. Impact of overweight and obesity on health-related quality of life—a Swedish population study. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 2002; 26(3): 417-24.
- 18. Hulens M, Vansant G, Claessens AL, Lysens R, Muls E, Rzewnicki R.Health-related quality of life in physically active and sedentary obese women. Am J Human Biol 2002; 14 (6): 777-85.
- Damush TM, Stump TE, Clark DO. Body-mass index and 4-year change in health-related quality of life. J Aging Health 2002; 14 (2): 195-210.
- Kolotkin RL, Crosby RD, Williams GR. Health-related quality of life varies among obese subgroups. Obes Res 2002; 10 (8): 748-56.
- Yancy WS Jr, Olsen MK, Westman EC, Bosworth HB, Edelman D. Relationship between obesity and healthrelated quality of life in men. Obes Res 2002; 10 (10):1057-64.
- 22. Marchesini G, Bellini M, Natale S, Belsito C, Isacco S, Nuccitelli C, Pasqui F, Baraldi L, Forlani G, Melchionda N. Psychiatric distress and health-related quality of life in obesity. Diabetes Nutr Metab 2003; 16 (3): 145-54.
- 23. Lopez-Garcia E, Banegas Banegas JR, Gutierrez-Fisac JL, Perez-Regadera AG, Ganan LD, Rodriguez-Artalejo F. Relation between body weight and health-related quality of life among the elderly in Spain. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 2003; 27 (6): 701-9.
- 24. Fontaine KR, Bartlett SJ, Barofsky I. Health-related quality of life among obese persons seeking and not currently seeking treatment. Int J Eat Disord. 2000; 27(1): 101-5.
- 25. Friedman MA, Brownell KD: Psychological correlates of obesity: moving to the next research generation. Psychol Bull 1995;117:3–20.
- Sjostrom L, Larsson B, Backman L, et al. Swedish obese subjects, SOS: recruitment for an intervention study and a selected description of the obese state. Int J Obes. 1992;19:465–79.
- Stunkard AJ, Sobal J. Psychosocial consequences of obesity. In: Brownell KD, Fairburn CG, eds. Eating Disorders and Obesity. New York: Guilford Press; 1995.

- Lapidus L, Bengtsson C, Hallstrom T, Bjorntorp P. Obesity, adipose tissue distribution and health in women: results from a population study in Gothenburg, Sweden. Appetite. 1989;12:25–35.
- de Zwaan M, Mitchell JE: Binge eating in the obese: special section, eating disorders. Ann Med 1992; 24:303–308.
- Roberts RE, Deleger S, Strawbridge WJ, et al: Prospective association between obesity and depression: evidence from The Alameda County Study. Int J Obesity 2003; 27:514–521.
- 31. Mathias SD, Williamson CL, Colwell HH: Assessing healthrelated quality-of-life and health-state preference in persons with obesity. Qual Life Res 1997; 6:311–322.
- 32. Onyike CU, Crum RM, Lee HB, et al: Is obesity associated with major depression? results from The Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Am J Epidemiol 2003;158:1139-1147.
- Dong C, Sanchez LE, Price RA: Relationship of obesity to depression: a family-based study. Int J Obesity 2004; 28:790-795.
- 34. Heo M, Pietrobelli A, Fontaine KR, et al: Depressive mood and obesity in U.S. adults: comparison and moderation by sex, age, and race. Int J Obes 2006; 30:513-519.
- Wendelboe AM, Hegmann KT, Gren LH, Alder SC, White GL Jr, Lyon JL. Associations between body-mass index and surgery for rotator cuff tendinitis. J Bone Joint Surg Am 2004; 86-A:743-747.
- 36. Barofsky I, Fontaine KR, Cheskin LJ: Pain in the obese: impact on health-related quality-of-life. Ann Behav Med 1997; 19:404-410.
- 37. DeLoach LJ, Higgins MS, Caplan AB, Stiff JL. The visual analog scale in the immediate postoperative period: intrasubject variability and correlation with a numeric scale. Anesth Analg. 1998;86(1):102-6.
- 38. Gallagher EJ, Liebman M, Bijur PE. Prospective validation of clinically important changes in pain severity measured on a visual analog scale. Ann Emerg Med. 2001;38(6):633-8.
- 39. Bech P, Olsen LR, Kjoller M, Rasmussen NK. Measuring well-being rather than the absence of distress symptoms: a comparison of the SF-36 Mental Health subscale and the WHO-Five Well-Being Scale. Int J Methods Psychiatr Res. 2003;12(2):85-91.
- 40. Ware JE Jr. SF-36 health survey update. Spine (Phila Pa 1976). 2000;25(24):3130-9.
- 41. Doll HA, Petersen SEK, Stewart-Brown SL. Obesity and Physical and Emotional Well-Being: Associations between Body Mass Index, Chronic Illness, and the Physical and Mental Components of the SF-36 Questionnaire. Obesity Research Vol. 8 No. 2 March 2000.
- 42. Papelbaum M, Moreira RO, do Nascimento Gaya CW, Preissler C, Coutinho WF. Impact of body mass index on the psychopathological profile of obese women. Revista Brasileira de Psiquiatria vol 32 n 1 mar2010.

- 43. Beck AT, Ward CH, Mendelson M, Mock J, Erbaugh J. An inventory for measuring depression. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1961; 4: 561-71.
- 44. Hisli N. Beck Depresyon Envanterinin geçerlili i üzerine bir çal ma. Psikoloji Dergisi 1988; 6: 118-22.
- 45. Ware JE, Sherbourne CD. The MOS 36-item short-form health survey (SF-36) I: conceptual framework and item selection. Med Care. 1992;30:473-83.
- Gladis MM, Gosch EA, Dishuk NM, Crits-Christoph
   P. Quality of life: expanding the scope of clinical significance. J Consult Clin Psychol. 1999;67:320-31.
- 47. Bentley TG, Palta M, Paulsen AJ, et al. Race and gender associations between obesity and nine health-related quality-of-life measures. Qual Life Res 2011;20: 665-674.
- 48. Carpenter KM, Hasin DS, Allison DB, Faith MS. Relationships between obesity and DSM-IV major depressive disorder, suicide ideation, and suicide attempts: results from a general population study. Am J Pub Health. 2000;90:251-7.
- 49. Katz D, McHorney C, Atkinson R. Impact of obesity on health-related quality of life in patients with chronic illness. J Gen Int Med. 2000;15:789-96.
- 50. Mannucci E, Ricca V, Barciulli E, et al. Quality of life and overweight: the obesity related well-being (Orwell97) questionnaire. Addict Behav. 1999;24:345-57.
- Rodriguez Artalejo F, Lopez Garcia E, Gutierrez-Fisac JL, Banegas Banegas JR, Lafuente Urdinguio PJ, Dominguez Rojas V. Changes in the prevalence of overweight and obesity and their risk factors in Spain, 1987-1997. Prev Med 2002; 34 (1): 72-81.
- Stam-Moraga MC, Kolanowski J, Dramaix M, De Backer G, Kornitzer MD. Sociodemographic and nutritional determinants of obesity in Belgium. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 1999; 23 (1):1-9.
- 53. Aranceta J, Perez-Rodrigo C, Serra-Majem L, Ribas L, Quiles-Izquierdo J, Vioque J, Foz M; Spanish Collaborative Group for the Study of Obesity. Influence of sociodemographic factors in the prevalence of obesity in Spain. The SEEDO'97 Study. Eur J Clin Nutr 2001; 55(6):430-5.
- 54. McHorney CA, Ware JE, Raczek AE. The MOS 36item short-form health survey (SF-36): II. Psychometric and clinical tests of validity in measuring physical and mental health constructs. Med Care. 1993;31:247-63.
- 55. McHorney CA, Ware JE, Lu JFR, Sherborne CD. The MOS 36-item short-form health survey (SF-36): III. Tests of data quality, scaling assumptions, and reliability across diverse patient groups. Med Care. 1994;32: 40-66.
- Ware JE. The SF-36 Health Survey. In: Spilker B, ed. Quality of Life and Pharmacoeconomics in Clincial Trials. Philadelphia: Lippincott-Raven; 1996, pp. 337-45.
- 57. Ware JE, Kosinski M, Bayliss MS, et al. Comparison of methods for the scoring and statistical analysis of SF-

- 36 health profile and summary measures: summary of results from the medical outcomes study. Med Care. 1995;33(4 Suppl):264-79.
- 58. Evans DR. Health promotion, wellness programs, quality of life and the marketing of psychology. Can Psychol. 1997;38:1-12.
- 59. Kolotkin RL, Head S, Hamilton M, Tse CK. Assessing impact of weight on quality of life. Obes Res. 1995;3:49 -56.
- 60. Rippe JM, Price JM, Hess SA, et al. Improved psychological well-being, quality of life, and health practices in moderately overweight women participating in a 12-week structured weight loss program. Obes Res. 1998;6:208-18.
- 61. Le Pen C, Levy E, Loos F, Banzet MN, Basdevant A. "Specific" scale compared with "generic" scale: a double measurement of the quality of life in a French community sample of obese subjects. J Epidemiol Community Health. 1998;52:445-50.
- 62. Fontaine KR, Barofsky I. Obesity and health-related quality of life. Obes Rev 2001;2:173-182.
- 63. Ul-Haq Z, Mackay DF, Fenwick E, Pell JP. Metaanalysis of the association between body mass index and health-related quality of life among adults, assessed by the SF-36. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2013:21;322-327.
- 64. Kim JY, Oh DJ, Yoon TY, et al. The impacts of obesity on psychological wellbeing: a cross-sectional study about depressive mood and quality of life. J Prev Med Public Health 2007;40:191-195.
- Sullivan MB, Sullivan LG, Kral JG. Quality of life assessment in obesity: physical, psychological, and social function. Gastroenterol Clin North Am 1987;16:433-442.
- 66. de ZM, Petersen I, Kaerber M, et al. Obesity and quality of life: a controlled study of normal-weight and obese individuals. Psychosomatics 2009;50:474-482.
- 67. Le PC, Levy E, Loos F, et al. "Specific" scale compared with "generic" scale: a double measurement of the quality of life in a French community sample of obese subjects. J Epidemiol Commun Health 1998;52:445-450.
- 68. Mond JM, Baune BT. Overweight, medical comorbidity and health-related quality of life in a community sample of women and men. Obesity 2009;17:1627-1634.
- 69. Huang IC, Frangakis C, Wu AW. The relationship of excess body weight and health-related quality of life: evidence from a population study in Taiwan. Int J Obes 2006;30:1250-1259.
- Ricca V, Mannucci E, Moretti S, Di Bernardo M, Zucchi T, Cabras PL, Rotella CM: Screening for binge eating disorder in obese outpatients. Compr Psychiatry 2000,41(2):111-115.
- 71. Istvan J, Zavela K, Weidner G. Body weight and psychological distress in NHANES I. Int J Obes. 2002; 16(12):999-1003.
- Stunkard AJ, Faith MS, Allison KC. Depression and obesity. Biol Psychiatry. 2003;54(3):330-7.
- 73. Sanches- Roman S, Lopes-Alvarenga JC, Vargas-Ma-

- tines A, Telles-Zenteno JF. Prevalence of Psychiatric disorders in patients with severe obesity waiting for bariatric surgery. Rev Invest Clin. 2003;55(4):400-6.
- 74. Simon GE, Korff MV, Saunders K, Miglioretti DL, Crane PK, van Belle G, Kessler RC. Association between obesity and psychiatric disorders in the US adult population. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2006;63(7):824-30.
- 75. Moreira RO, Marca KF, Appolinario JC, Coutinho WC. Increased waist circumference is associated with an increased prevalence of mood disorders and depressive symptoms in obese women. Eating Weight Disord. 2007;12(1):35-44.
- Fabricatore AN, Wadden TA. Psychological aspects of obesity. Clin Dermatol. 2004;22(4):332-7.
- 77. Sullivan S, Cloninger CR, Prgbeck TR, Klein S. Personality characteristics in obesity and relationship with successful weight loss. Int J Obes. 2007;31(4):669-74.
- Engel SG, Crosby RD, Kolotkin RL, Hartley GG, Williams GR, Wonderlich SA, Mitchell JE. Impact of weight loss and regain on quality of life: mirror image or differential effect? Obes Res 2003; 11 (10): 1207-13.
- 79. Kolotkin RL, Crosby RD, Kosloski K, Williams GR. Development of a brief measure to assess quality of life in obesity. Obes Res 2001; 9 (2): 102-11.
- 80. Choban PS, Onyejekwe J, Burge JC, Flancbaum L. A health status assessment of the impact of weight loss following Roux-en-Y gastric bypass for clinically severe obesity. J Am Coll Surg 1999; 188 (5): 491-7.
- 81. Coaccioli S, Fatati G, Di Cato L, Marioli D, Patucchi E, Pizzuti C, et al. Diffuse idiopathic skeletal hyperostosis in diabetes mellitus, impaired glucose tolerance and obesity. Panminerva Med 2000;42:247-51.
- 82. Hootman JM, Macera CA, Ainsworth BE, Martin M, Addy CL, Blair SN. Association among physical activity level, cardiorespiratory fitness, and risk of musculoske-

- letal injury. Am J Epidemiol 2001; 154: 251-258.
- 83. Peltonen M, Lindroos AK, Torgerson JS. Musculoskeletal pain in the obese: a comparison with a general population and long-term changes after conventional and surgical obesity treatment. Pain 2003; 104: 549-557.
- 84. Kortt M, Baldry J. The association between musculoskeletal disorders and obesity. Aust Health Rev 2002; 25: 207-214.
- 85. Hulens M, Vansant G, Claessens AL, Lysens R, Muls E. Predictors of 6-minute walk test results in lean, obese and morbidly obese women. Scand J Med Sci Sports 2003; 13: 98-105.
- 86. Aoyagi K, Ross PD, Okano K, Hayashi T, Moji K, Kusano Y, Takemoto T. Association of body mass index with joint pain among community-dwelling women in Japan. Aging Clin Exp Res 2002; 14: 378-381.
- 87. Walker-Bone KE, Palmer KT, Reading I, Cooper C. Soft-tissue rheumatic disorders of the neck and upper limb: prevalence and risk factors. Semin Arthritis Rheum 2003; 33: 185-203.
- 88. Ding C, Cicuttini F, Scott F, Cooley H, Jones G. Knee structural alteration and BMI: a cross-sectional study. Obes Res 2005;13: 350-361.
- Mesci E, İçağasıoğlu A, Yumuşakhuylu Y, Güven A, Bıçakçı İ. Musculoskeletal Pain and Quality of Life Among Obese Children. J Clin Anal Med 2015; DOI: 10.4328/ JCAM.3769.
- 90. Jamison RN, Stetson B, Sbrocco T, Parris WC. Effects of significant weight gain on chronic pain patients. Clin J Pain 6:47-50, 1990.
- Hooper MM, Stellato TA, Hallowell PT, Seitz BA, Moskowitz RW. Musculoskeletal findings in obese subjects before and after weight loss following bariatric surgery. Int J Obes 2006 Apr 25; [Epub ahead of print].