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1 **Obesity measures, metabolic health and their association with 15-year all-**
2 **cause and cardiovascular mortality in the SAMINOR 1 Survey: a population-**
3 **based cohort study**

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17 Keywords: Abdominal obesity. A body shape index. All-cause mortality. Body mass index.

18 Cardiovascular mortality. Metabolically healthy obesity. Metabolic syndrome. Obesity. Waist
19 circumference.

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28

29 **Abstract**

30 **Background:** The mortality of metabolic—obesity phenotypes has been thoroughly studied, but
31 it is not known if or how the association between mortality and body mass index (BMI), waist
32 circumference or a body shape index (ABSI) differ in strata of cardiometabolic health status.

33 **Methods:** We linked data on 12,815 men and women aged 36–79 years from the SAMINOR 1
34 Survey with mortality data from the Norwegian Cause of Death Registry. We defined
35 metabolically healthy and unhealthy as having zero and ≥ 1 , respectively, of the following: MetS,
36 pre-existing diabetes or cardiovascular disease (CVD), or prescribed drugs for high blood
37 pressure, hyperglycaemia or dyslipidaemia. We defined general and abdominal obesity as BMI
38 ≥ 30 kg/m² and waist circumference ≥ 88 cm (women) or 102 cm (men), respectively, and cross-
39 classified these categories with metabolic status to create metabolically healthy non-obese and
40 obese (MHNO and MHO) and metabolically unhealthy non-obese and obese (MUNO and
41 MUO) phenotypes. We used Cox regression to estimate the hazard ratio (HR) for all-cause and
42 CVD mortality for 1) the four phenotypes and 2) BMI, waist circumference and ABSI fitted with
43 restricted cubic splines. We adjusted for age and lifestyle, and tested for interactions with sex and
44 metabolic status (only continuous measures).

45 **Results:** The MHO phenotype was present in 7.8% of women and 5.8% of men. During a
46 median follow-up of 15.3/15.2 years, 596/938 women/men had died, respectively. The MUNO
47 and MUO groups had higher mortality than the MHNO group. Sex and phenotypes interacted
48 with respect to CVD mortality: relative to the MHNO group, the MHO group had an adjusted
49 HR (95% confidence interval) for CVD mortality of 1.05 (0.38–2.88) in women and 2.92 (1.71–
50 5.01) in men. We found curvilinear associations between BMI/waist circumference and all-cause
51 mortality irrespective of metabolic status. Corresponding relationships with CVD mortality were
52 linear and the slope differed by sex and metabolic status. ABSI was linearly and positively
53 associated with all-cause and CVD mortality in men.

54 **Conclusion:** The relationships between BMI, waist circumference or ABSI and mortality
55 differed by sex, metabolic status and cause of death. Poor metabolic health substantially increases
56 mortality regardless of obesity status.

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74 **Keywords:** Abdominal obesity. A body shape index. All-cause mortality. Body mass index. Cardiovascular mortality.
75 Metabolically healthy obesity. Metabolic syndrome. Obesity. Waist circumference.

76 **1 Background**

77 The prevalence of obesity doubled between 1980 and 2015 in more than 70 countries (1).
78 Obesity is a strong driver of a cluster of risk factors known as metabolic syndrome (MetS). MetS
79 is etiologically linked to insulin resistance and visceral adipose tissue that promotes a
80 proinflammatory and prothrombotic state, making it an antecedent of both cardiovascular disease
81 (CVD) and type 2 diabetes mellitus (2). At least half of the cardiovascular risk linked to obesity is
82 mediated through metabolic risk factors (3,4). In Europe, approximately 7–19% of people with
83 obesity do not have MetS, so-called metabolically healthy obesity (MHO) (5). Accumulating
84 evidence strongly suggests that, compared to the metabolically healthy normal-weight group,
85 people with MHO are at increased risk of CVD (6–8), type 2 diabetes mellitus (9,10), and
86 mortality (11,12).

87 A body mass index (BMI) ≥ 30 kg/m² is commonly used to define obesity in populations of
88 European ancestry, but BMI is a crude marker of body fat distribution. Waist circumference is a
89 better measure of the visceral adipose tissue that is particularly strongly associated with
90 cardiometabolic disease (13). BMI and waist circumference usually show J- or U-shaped
91 associations with mortality (14,15). This may indicate a functional relationship not reflected well
92 by crude dichotomies, as dichotomisation of continuous predictors cause loss of information and
93 statistical power to demonstrate associations (16). However, BMI and waist circumference are
94 usually highly correlated. Krakauer et al. developed a body shape index (ABSI), which is a
95 measure of central obesity that has a low correlation with BMI (17).

96 To the best of our knowledge, no studies have examined the relationships between continuous
97 measures of BMI, waist circumference or ABSI and mortality by metabolic health status. We
98 aimed to examine these relationships using a population-based multi-ethnic sample of adult
99 women and men from rural Northern Norway, which has high prevalence of both general and
100 abdominal obesity and MetS (18,19).

101 **2 Methods**

102 **2.1 Data**

103 We used the national 11-digit personal identity number linking individual data from the three
104 following sources: baseline information on participants in the SAMINOR 1 Survey (the first
105 survey of the Population-based Study on Health and Living Conditions in Regions with Sami and
106 Norwegian Populations—the SAMINOR Study), mortality data from the Norwegian Cause of
107 Death Registry, and information on emigration from Statistics Norway.

108 The population of Northern Norway includes people of Norwegian, Sami and Kven
109 (descendants of Finnish immigrants in the 18th and 19th Century) ethnicity. The Sami is an ethnic
110 minority and acknowledged as an indigenous people. Traditionally, the Sami inhabited Northern
111 parts of Norway, Sweden, Finland and the Kola Peninsula in the Russian Federation.

112 The SAMINOR Study is a population-based study designed to investigate the health and living
113 conditions in regions of Norway with an assumed proportion of at least 5–10% Sami
114 inhabitants. The Centre for Sami Health Research at UiT The Arctic University of Norway and
115 the Norwegian Institute of Public Health conducted the SAMINOR 1 Survey in 2003–2004 in
116 24 rural municipalities mainly in northern parts of Norway. Clinical measurements, blood
117 samples and self-administered questionnaire data were collected on men and women aged 36–79
118 years. Of 27,151 invited individuals, 16,455 (60.6%) participated and consented to have their data
119 linked to medical and national registries. Survey details have been reported previously (20).

120 **2.2 Clinical measurements**

121 The following measurements of each participant were made by trained personnel: waist
122 circumference, recorded to the nearest centimetre at the umbilicus, the participant standing and
123 breathing normally; height and weight, measured to the nearest 0.1 cm and 100 g, respectively,
124 using an electronic scale with participants wearing light clothing and no shoes; and blood

125 pressure, measured with a Dinamap-R automatic device (Critikon, Tampa, Florida, USA). Blood
126 pressure was measured after a 2-minute seated rest, and three measurements with 1-minute
127 intervals were recorded. The first measurement was discarded and the average of the second and
128 third was used. Trained personnel performed venepuncture with the participant in a seated
129 position and non-fasting blood samples were centrifuged within 1.5 hours. Serum was sent by
130 overnight post to the laboratory at Ullevål University Hospital, Oslo. Lipids and glucose were
131 measured by an enzymatic method (Hitachi 917 autoanalyzer, Roche Diagnostic, Switzerland)

132 **2.3 Lifestyle and disease variables**

133 Participants were asked to fill in a questionnaire from which we obtained the following
134 information (answer options in parenthesis): education (total number of school years); diabetes
135 (yes/no); angina pectoris (yes/no); previous stroke (yes/no); previous heart attack (yes/no); use
136 of blood pressure-lowering drug (currently/previously, but not now/never); use of cholesterol-
137 lowering drug (currently/previously, but not now/never); use of insulin (currently/previously,
138 but not now/never); use of glucose-lowering drug in tablet format (currently/previously, but not
139 now/never); smoking (currently/previously/never); alcohol consumption (never/not this year/a
140 few times during this year/1 time per month/2-3 times per month/1 time per week/2-3 times
141 per week/4-7 times per week). Alcohol consumption was categorised into “weekly alcohol
142 consumption”, “less than weekly alcohol consumption” and “never/not last year”. Leisure-time
143 physical activity was measured by a self-reported modified Saltin-Grimby Physical Activity Level
144 scale (reading, watching television, or engaging in sedentary activities/at least 4 hours a week of
145 walking, bicycling, or other types of physical activity/at least 4 hours a week of participating in
146 recreational athletics or heavy gardening/regular, vigorous training or participating in competitive
147 sports several times a week) (21). The Saltin-Grimby Physical Activity Level scale has been used
148 in many Nordic populations and has shown acceptable validity regarding objectively measured
149 physical activity (21). Leisure-time physical activity was categorised into “sedentary” (the first

150 option), “light” (the second option) and “moderate-hard” (the last two options merged).
151 Participants were also asked to list any medication they had used within the last four weeks and
152 the information was combined with information from drug-specific questions, details are found
153 elsewhere (22).

154 The questionnaire also included questions (11 in total) on use of language at home by
155 grandparents, parents and participants, ethnic background for parents and participants, and the
156 participants’ self-perceived ethnicity (one or more of these alternatives were allowed: Norwegian,
157 Sami, Kven, and other). Participants were categorised as Sami if they answered Sami as 1) their
158 self-perceived ethnicity or 2) their own ethnic background. All others were categorised as non-
159 Sami.

160 **2.4 Independent variables**

161 We defined MetS according to the ‘harmonised’ Adult Treatment Panel-III definition, with some
162 adaptations (23). At least three of the following five components had to be present:

163 hypertension, defined as systolic blood pressure ≥ 130 mmHg or diastolic blood pressure ≥ 85
164 mmHg or current use of antihypertensive drug;

165 elevated random glucose, defined as random serum glucose ≥ 7.8 mmol/L or self-reported
166 diabetes;

167 increased waist circumference, defined as waist circumference ≥ 80 cm in women and ≥ 94 cm in
168 men;

169 hypertriglyceridemia, defined as random serum triglycerides ≥ 1.7 mmol/L; and

170 lowered HDL cholesterol, defined as random serum HDL cholesterol < 1.3 mmol/L in women
171 and < 1.0 mmol/L in men.

172 Participants were categorised as metabolically unhealthy if they had any of the following, as
173 recommended by Smith et al. (24):

174 MetS (for abdominal obesity phenotypes, the MetS definition was modified to the presence of
175 any given two or more components excluding increased waist circumference);
176 self-reported diabetes, stroke, angina pectoris, or myocardial infarction;
177 self-reported current treatment for high blood pressure, hyperglycaemia or dyslipidaemia.

178 General and abdominal obesity were defined as BMI ≥ 30 kg/m² and waist circumference ≥ 88
179 cm in women and ≥ 102 cm in men, respectively. The following general obesity phenotypes were
180 created: metabolically healthy non-obesity (MHNO); metabolically unhealthy non-obesity
181 (MUNO); metabolically healthy obesity (MHO); and metabolically unhealthy obesity (MUO).

182 The following abdominal obesity phenotypes were created: metabolically healthy non-abdominal-
183 obesity (MHNAO); metabolically unhealthy non-abdominal-obesity (MUNAO); metabolically
184 healthy abdominal obesity (MHAO); and metabolically unhealthy abdominal obesity (MUAO).

185 In addition to using BMI and waist circumference to define general and abdominal obesity,
186 respectively, we also used them as continuous variables (BMI in kg/m² and waist circumference
187 in cm). Due to the high correlation between BMI and waist circumference (0.88 in women and
188 0.86 in men in this cohort), we also applied ABSI as developed by Krakauer et al. based on a U.S.
189 population-based cohort (NHANES) (17):

190
$$ABSI = \frac{\textit{waist circumference}}{BMI^{2/3} \textit{ height}^{1/2}}$$

191 The ABSI was transformed to a Z-score for interpretability by subtracting the sex-specific mean
192 and dividing by the sex-specific standard deviation. ABSI was not used as a determinant of
193 categorical obesity because of the lack of validated cut-offs.

194 **2.5 Outcome variables**

195 Mortality data comprised date of death and underlying cause of death, coded using the
196 International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 10th revision. The
197 study period started at the date of study entry (between 14th January 2003 and 5th March 2004)
198 and ended at date of death (the event), date of emigration (censored) or the end of follow-up 31st
199 December 2018 (censored), whichever occurred first. The outcome variables of interest were all-
200 cause mortality and CVD mortality (death from causes I00-I99).

201 **2.6 Missing data and exclusions**

202 Figure 1 shows a flow chart describing the cohort selection. We excluded 497 participants who
203 died within the first 5 years of follow-up and 90 participants with a BMI ≤ 18.5 kg/m² to avoid
204 the potential for reverse causality (14). Because information on pre-existing disease or prescribed
205 drugs was not necessary for the categorisation, we did not exclude participants with missing data
206 for these variables. However, most participants with missing data for these variables were
207 categorised into a metabolically unhealthy group by other determinants (Table 1). After
208 exclusions, the complete case analytical sample comprised 12,815 participants, 47.2% of the
209 invited sample.

210

211 **2.7 Statistical analysis**

212 Sample characteristics were described in strata of sex and metabolic–obesity phenotype and
213 reported as mean (SD) and frequency (percentage) as appropriate. One-way analysis of variance
214 and Pearson's χ^2 test were used to compare characteristics across the phenotypes. We calculated
215 age-standardised mortality rates using the direct method and the 2013 European standard
216 population.

217 In separate models for each pair of outcome and exposure, we modelled the relationships
218 between all-cause mortality and CVD mortality (outcomes) and MetS, general obesity phenotypes
219 and abdominal obesity phenotypes (exposures) using Cox proportional hazard regression. We
220 tested interactions between exposures and sex, and between exposures and ethnicity, and
221 compared models with and without interaction terms using the likelihood ratio test. Interaction
222 was considered present if $p < 0.05$. There were no significant interactions with ethnicity, but we
223 found evidence of interactions between sex and general ($p = 0.02$) and abdominal ($p = 0.05$) obesity
224 phenotypes for CVD mortality. Therefore, all models were stratified by sex. Attained age was set
225 as the time-scale as recommended in observational studies (25), hence, all models were inherently
226 and non-parametrically controlled for age (model 1). Further adjustments were made for smoking
227 (model 2), plus leisure-time physical activity, education and alcohol consumption (model 3). Sami
228 ethnicity is primarily regarded a sociocultural category in this cohort, and neither interacted with
229 nor affected the beta coefficient for the exposures in the models, and was therefore not included
230 in the models. The proportional hazard assumption was evaluated using Schoenfeld residuals. In
231 models with all-cause mortality, non-proportional hazards for smoking status were handled by
232 allowing separate baseline hazards for subgroups of the data, i.e. stratified Cox models. We
233 reported adjusted hazard ratios (HR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) for each pair of
234 outcome and exposure.

235 Next, in separate models, we fitted BMI, waist circumference and ABSI as continuous variables
236 using restricted cubic splines against all-cause and CVD mortality, respectively, while adjusting
237 for the same covariates as in model 3 above, in addition to metabolic health. Fitting three knots
238 provided the lowest Akaike information criterion and were thus sufficient, as recommended by
239 Harrell (26). We assessed non-linearity by testing models with the linear term against models with
240 both linear and a cubic spline term using likelihood ratio test. Non-linearity was considered
241 present if $p < 0.05$. We also assessed interaction between metabolic health status and BMI/waist
242 circumference/ABSI using likelihood ratio tests. If there was a significant interaction, we kept the

243 interaction term in the model; if there was no interaction, metabolic health status was kept in the
244 model as a covariate. Adjusted HR (95% CI) of all-cause and CVD mortality, respectively, were
245 plotted against BMI, waist circumference and ABSI, respectively, with separate curves for
246 metabolically healthy and unhealthy, using the sex-specific sample median of BMI, waist
247 circumference or ABSI as reference values. In models with a significant interaction, metabolically
248 healthy with the sex-specific sample median of BMI, waist circumference or ABSI were used as
249 reference.

250 We used R version 3.6.2 for Windows for statistical computing (27). Code and output is found in
251 the supplementary material.

252 **2.8 Sensitivity analysis**

253 We excluded 1) ever-smokers and 2) participants with pre-existing diseases (or prescribed drugs
254 for cardiometabolic disease) in sensitivity analyses. Furthermore, we analysed data with more
255 conservative cut-offs for MetS-components: waist circumference ($\geq 88/102$ cm in women/men),
256 random triglycerides (≥ 2.1 mmol/L), and random glucose (≥ 11.1 mmol/L). We also repeated the
257 analyses in the full sample, adjusting for sex. Finally, we used multiple imputation to address
258 missing data on at least one variable for 2030 participants (13.7%). The variables with the largest
259 proportion of missing data were found for leisure-time physical activity (n=1322, 8.9%) and
260 education (n=881, 5.9%). Characteristics differed between participants with complete and
261 missing data (Supplementary Table 1). The mechanism for missing information was assumed to
262 be missing-at-random (28). We used a rich set of relevant variables, performed 20 imputations,
263 and pooled the data according to Rubin's rules using the 'mice' package in R (29). Because
264 metabolic health is a known mediator of the relationship between obesity and mortality, we also
265 ran the analyses of continuous BMI/waist circumference/ABSI vs mortality without adjusting for
266 metabolic health.

267 **3 Results**

268 After median follow-up of 15.3 years in 6517 women and 15.2 years in 6298 men (12,815 in
269 total), 596 (9.1%) and 938 (14.9%) had died, respectively. In both women and men, the
270 prevalence of MetS was 29.7%. Proportions categorised as metabolically unhealthy (defined as
271 either having MetS, pre-existing disease or prescribed drugs) were 44.7% in women and 47.0% in
272 men. Proportions having general obesity were 27.0% in women and 23.5% in men, and
273 proportions having abdominal obesity were 39.0% in women and 21.1% in men.

274 Table 1 and 2 describe the prevalence of the four general obesity phenotypes and the
275 distributions of characteristics across the phenotypes in women and men, respectively. Compared
276 to the other groups, men and women with MHO were relatively young, with a higher proportion
277 of people with Sami ethnicity, a lower proportion of current smokers, and a higher proportion of
278 people who reported being sedentary in their leisure-time (but lower than in people with MUO).
279 Supplementary Table 2 and 3 describe the distribution and characteristics of the four abdominal
280 obesity phenotypes. Patterns of characteristics were generally similar to those reported for general
281 obesity phenotypes.

282 The proportion of deaths during follow-up were comparable in people with MHO and people
283 with MHNO, but they differed in the distribution of causes of death (Table 1 and 2). In general,
284 the proportion of death from CVD was lowest in the MHNO group.

285 Figure 2 shows that the lowest mean mortality rates in men occurred in the MHNO and
286 MHNAO groups, whereas in women, the metabolically healthy phenotypes regardless of obesity
287 status had the lowest mortality rates.

288 Table 3 and Table 4 show the hazard ratios (HR) from Cox proportional hazards models for all-
289 cause mortality and CVD mortality in women and men, respectively. Men and women with MetS
290 had an approximately 50% higher 15-year risk of CVD mortality than those without MetS. The

291 15-year mortality in the subgroups with MHO and MHAO compared to the respective
292 metabolically healthy non-obese groups differed markedly between the sexes, particularly for
293 CVD mortality, with significant interactions with sex differences in the beta coefficient for MHO
294 and MHAO primarily. We found that obesity, regardless of metabolic health, markedly increased
295 CVD mortality in men, but there was no association in women. In the metabolically healthy, all-
296 cause mortality was reduced in obese women (general and abdominal, respectively) compared to
297 non-obese women. In both sexes, the mortality associated with metabolically unhealthy obesity
298 phenotypes (MUNO, MUNAO, MUO, MUAO) were higher for CVD-specific death than for
299 all-cause mortality.

300 Figure 3 and 4 (panels A and C) show curvilinear relationships between all-cause mortality and
301 BMI (panel A) and waist circumference (panel C) in women and men, respectively. Figure 3 and 4
302 (panels E) show curvilinear and linear relationships between all-cause mortality and ABSI in
303 women and men, respectively. Figure 3 and 4 (panels B, D and F) show marked sex-differences
304 in the relationships with CVD mortality for BMI (panel B), waist circumference (panel D) and
305 ABSI (panel F). Interactions were present between metabolic health status and obesity measures
306 in CVD models (except in panel 3B and 4F). In men, all obesity measures had positive, strong
307 associations with CVD mortality. We found stronger associations (steeper slopes) in
308 metabolically healthy than unhealthy groups in models with BMI and waist circumference, but
309 not in models with ABSI. In women, BMI had negative associations with CVD mortality. The
310 association between waist circumference or ABSI and CVD mortality differed by metabolic
311 health status.

312 **3.2 Sensitivity analysis**

313 Supplementary Table 4, 5 and 6 show the results of the sensitivity analyses. In never-smokers,
314 most associations between general and abdominal obesity phenotypes and mortality were
315 stronger than those observed in the whole cohort, but several estimates included 1.0 in the CI.

316 Contrary, in participants without pre-existing disease or prescribed drugs, most estimates were
317 strongly attenuated and not statistically significant (except men with MHO and MHAO)
318 compared to those observed in the whole cohort. Using more conservative cut-offs for MetS
319 resulted in increased estimates, and the apparent protective effect of MHO and MHAO in
320 women was attenuated towards the null and was no longer statistically significant. In sex-adjusted
321 analyses, HR (95%) for all-cause mortality compared to the reference groups were 0.92 (0.71–
322 1.20) for MHO and 0.92 (0.72–1.17) for MHAO, respectively. Analysis of multiply imputed data
323 gave similar results compared to the complete case analysis. Supplementary Figure 1 and 2 of
324 “unadjusted” obesity vs mortality models show overall patterns similar with the primary analyses.
325 An exception was seen for models with CVD mortality in women, which showed no association
326 with BMI or waist circumference, but a curvilinear association with ABSI indicating significantly
327 higher mortality at higher ends of the scale.

328 **4 Discussion**

329 We followed almost 13,000 adults for 15 years and found that metabolically unhealthy status was
330 associated with a higher CVD mortality than metabolically healthy status irrespective of obesity
331 status. We found curvilinear associations between BMI (women and men), waist circumference
332 (women and men) or ABSI (women) and all-cause mortality regardless of metabolic health status.
333 However, in men, the relationship between ABSI and all-cause mortality was linear.
334 Corresponding relationships between these three continuous obesity measures and CVD
335 mortality differed by both sex and metabolic health status. Ethnicity had no impact on the
336 results.

337 To our knowledge, this study is the first to examine the relationship between continuous
338 measures of BMI, waist circumference or ABSI and mortality according to metabolic health
339 status. A recent study of a Japanese population by Izumida et al. examined the relationships
340 between four categories of BMI and 18-year mortality according to MetS status (30). The

341 relationship between BMI categories and all-cause and CVD mortality were J-shaped in
342 metabolically unhealthy people, whereas no associations were found in metabolically healthy
343 people. In contrast, we show that the relationships between BMI and CVD mortality in a
344 Norwegian population differ by sex: with no or negative association in women and positive
345 association in men. A meta-analysis of 21 prospective studies showed that compared to the
346 MHNO group, the HR for CVD in women with MHO were lower than those in men with MHO
347 (HR 1.71 vs 2.15, respectively) (31). However, the meta-analysis included few sex-stratified
348 studies. In a recent Iranian study, neither women nor men with persistent MHO status had
349 increased HR for CVD incidence compared to the non-obese comparison group (32). However,
350 among women and men who transitioned from MHO to MUO, only men had an increased HR
351 compared to the non-obese comparison group (32). In the study by Izumida et al., the authors
352 adjusted for sex, whereas we found an interaction, but only regarding CVD mortality. The
353 association between BMI/waist circumference and all-cause mortality was U-shaped in both
354 sexes. Although the HR of MHO for all-cause mortality differed by sex (HR of 0.63 in women
355 and 1.25 in men), there was no evidence of statistically significant effect modification. In
356 sensitivity analyses, the (sex-adjusted) HR (95% CI) of MHO was 0.92 (0.71–1.21).

357 The amount of visceral adipose tissue may differ between people with the same value of BMI or
358 even waist circumference, and men typically have more visceral adipose tissue than women (13).
359 This may have contributed to the sex-differences in associations between obesity measures and
360 CVD mortality in women and men. A recent UK Biobank study including nearly 300,000 men
361 and women without CVD at baseline showed that BMI had J-shaped associations with CVD
362 events and mortality in both sexes (33). In men, the association with CVD events was linear
363 when restricted to non-smokers. Residual confounding when adjusting for crude smoking
364 categories has been pointed out as a potential cause of obesity paradoxes (34). We also show that
365 when the analyses were restricted to non-smokers, most estimates increased, and women with
366 MHO had a HR of approximately 1.50 for CVD mortality, albeit non-statistically significant due

367 to low power. Importantly, in the UK Biobank study, all measures of central obesity, including
368 waist circumference, and fat mass were positively associated with CVD mortality in both sexes
369 (33).

370 A high ABSI seems to be a more consistent predictor of mortality in both women and men
371 compared to a high BMI or waist circumference irrespective of metabolic health status; however,
372 we have not formally compared the models. Studies in a US and four European (Sweden,
373 Finland, Turkey and UK) cohorts have shown that where BMI or waist circumference tend to
374 show curvilinear relationships with mortality, a progressively increasing ABSI corresponds to an
375 increasing mortality (17,35). As opposed to BMI and waist circumference, ABSI was linearly and
376 positively associated with both all-cause and CVD mortality in men. This pattern for ABSI was
377 not found in women, perhaps owing to the weak, but existing correlation with BMI (0.17 in
378 women vs 0.08 in men). Ideally, the correlation between ABSI and BMI should be null (17), but
379 due to differences in distributions of height, weight and waist circumference between the
380 participants in the NHANES and the SAMINOR Study, the formula is not a perfect fit in the
381 latter. Recently, ABSI was derived specifically for the UK Biobank population (36), and in the
382 future deriving population-specific formulae may avoid bias from correlations with BMI.

383 In models not controlling for metabolic health, we found linear (men) and U-shaped (women)
384 associations between ABSI and both all-cause and CVD mortality (Supplementary Figure 1 and
385 2). In women, ABSI scores above the mean were strongly associated with mortality. At the lower
386 end of ABSI, CIs were wide. In a recent study using a large European cohort, the ABSI -
387 mortality relationship also differed by sex (37). In women, the relationship was J-shaped, with
388 positive associations only in the higher quintiles, whereas ABSI was positively associated with
389 mortality in all quintiles in men. Our results show some similarity to these findings. The
390 aforementioned study showed that people with a high ABSI had approximately 30% higher
391 mortality compared to people with low ABSI, irrespective of BMI category (37). This suggests

392 that ABSI reflects an altered, detrimental body shape that is not reflected in BMI. A small study
393 found that ABSI and BMI were negatively and positively, respectively, associated with fat free
394 mass, or lean mass, indicating that a high ABSI is a good marker of sarcopenic obesity (38). In
395 future studies, it may be interesting to replace BMI with ABSI in defining categorical obesity
396 phenotypes, i.e., to define a MHO phenotype from body shape.

397 Collider bias has been suggested to explain the “obesity paradox”: obesity increases mortality and
398 causes cardiometabolic disease, but within strata of cardiometabolic disease, obesity is not
399 associated with mortality or even appears protective in some studies (39,40), as is seen in models
400 with BMI and waist circumference for women in this study. The collider bias is a type of
401 selection bias, that can be introduced through restriction, regression adjustment or stratification
402 on a variable (in this case cardiometabolic status) that is both affected by the exposure (obesity)
403 and share common causes (e.g. genes) with the outcome (death). However, the magnitude and
404 direction of the bias may be difficult to predict, and some suggest it only a partial explanation of
405 the obesity paradox (41).

406 Izumida et al. defined metabolically healthy as having no MetS components, compared to our
407 definition of two or fewer components. Hence, metabolically healthy people in our study may
408 have been in a transition phase towards full MetS and converted to metabolically unhealthy
409 during the study period. Approximately 50% of people with MHO transition to MUO (4). A
410 study with six repeated measures during 30 years of follow-up showed that duration with MHO
411 was longer in women than in men. Women transitioned back and forth between a healthy and an
412 unhealthy metabolic status while maintaining their obesity status, whereas men with MHO
413 tended to just transition once from a healthy to an unhealthy metabolic status (42). Nevertheless,
414 in a large U.S. cohort of women (N≈90,000), both those with MHO at baseline and those with
415 persistent MHO status over a period of 24 years were at increased risk of CVD compared with
416 the MHNO (43). Hence, even if women spend a longer time in the MHO state before

417 transitioning to MUO than men, MHO may not be a benign state in a perspective of several
418 decades.

419 Furthermore, in a study with repeated measures, people with MHO had higher all-cause mortality
420 only when compared to people with stable MHNO status identified during several assessments,
421 and not in comparison to the larger group that were MHNO at baseline (44). This serves as a
422 reminder that exposure status in the reference group can change over time and a single
423 measurement at baseline may give biased results. The implications for this study is that the
424 strength of associations may have been under-estimated.

425 In summary, collider bias, residual confounding by smoking and misclassification may have
426 distorted some of the relationships between obesity and mortality that we observed. The
427 pathways linking obesity, metabolic health and mortality is complex and dynamic, making it a
428 challenge to study using only data measured at a single point in time. Although obesity is
429 heterogeneous in presentation, it is unlikely a healthy state over time, as is evident particularly for
430 the men in our study.

431 **Strengths and limitations**

432 Strengths of the study include the population-based nature of the study, the long follow-up time
433 and standardised measurements of clinical and biochemical variables by trained personnel.
434 Linkage to the high quality Norwegian Cause of Death Registry enabled virtually complete
435 follow-up of total and CVD deaths. We included important confounders, such as physical
436 activity, smoking, alcohol and education. However, we did not have information on occupational
437 physical activity, which may comprise a large part of the total physical activity level throughout
438 the day. Therefore, some residual confounding from physical activity may be present. Further
439 limitations include non-fasting blood samples, and a modest participation rate that may have
440 resulted in 'healthy participation' bias. There are no valid cut-offs for random glucose regarding
441 prediabetes or impaired glucose tolerance. Non-fasting triglycerides reflect increases over fasting

442 values by a maximum of 0.3 mmol/L (45). Inclusion of inflammation markers (e.g. C-reactive
443 protein) and information on non-alcoholic fatty liver disease may have enabled us to categorise
444 more precisely into metabolically healthy vs unhealthy.

445 **5 Conclusion**

446 Metabolically unhealthy people have increased risks of 15-year all-cause and CVD mortality
447 irrespective of obesity status compared to people who were metabolically healthy at baseline.
448 Associations between BMI, waist circumference or ABSI and CVD mortality differed between
449 the sexes, with strong, positive associations in both metabolically healthy and unhealthy men. The
450 relationship between metabolic risk factors and adipose tissue is dynamic and continuous;
451 therefore, efforts should continue to be made to reduce obesity and metabolic abnormalities
452 across the population.

453 **6 Abbreviations**

454 MHNO = metabolically healthy non-obesity, MUNO = metabolically unhealthy
455 non-obesity, MHO = metabolically healthy obesity, MUO = metabolically
456 unhealthy obesity, MHNAO = metabolically healthy non-abdominal obesity,
457 MUNAO = metabolically unhealthy non-abdominal obesity, MHAO =
458 metabolically healthy abdominal obesity, MUAO = metabolically unhealthy
459 abdominal obesity, MetS = metabolic syndrome, CVD = cardiovascular disease,
460 BMI = body mass index, ABSI = a body shape index, HR = hazard ratio, CI =
461 confidence interval, SD = standard deviation, HDL = high density lipoprotein.

462 **7 Declarations**

463 Ethics approval and consent to participate: This study has been approved by the SAMINOR
464 Project Board and The Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics (reference:
465 2017/1974/REK North). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

466 Consent for publication: Not applicable.

467 Availability of data and materials: The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current
468 study are not publicly available due to privacy regulations. Data from the SAMINOR Study may
469 be made available upon reasonable request to the SAMINOR Project Board and with permission
470 of the Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics.

471 Competing interests: None.

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478 the data analysis and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. SHW aided with the planning of the
479 analysis. SHW, KK, JS, MM and ARB contributed with interpretation of the results and critically
480 revised the manuscript.

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609

610 9 Figure legends

611 Figure 1. Flow-chart describing cohort selection from SAMINOR 1 participants and patterns of
612 missing data.

613 Figure 2. Age-standardised mortality rates per 1000 person-years with 95% CI for all-cause and
614 CVD mortality given by general and abdominal obesity phenotypes. MHNO = metabolically
615 healthy non-obesity, MUNO = metabolically unhealthy non-obesity, MHO = metabolically
616 healthy obesity, MUO = metabolically unhealthy obesity, MHNAO = metabolically healthy non-
617 abdominal obesity, MUNAO = metabolically unhealthy non-abdominal obesity, MHAO =
618 metabolically healthy abdominal obesity, MUAO = metabolically unhealthy abdominal obesity.

619 Figure 3. The functional relationships between mortality (all-cause and CVD) and continuous
620 obesity measures (BMI, waist circumference and ABSI) with corresponding hazard ratios with
621 95% confidence bands in women. The reference of all curves were metabolically healthy women
622 with a BMI of 26.7 kg/m², a waist circumference of 79 cm or an ABSI Z-score of -0.32 (median
623 values for metabolically healthy women). P-values originates from likelihood ratio tests
624 comparing models with/without linear terms/interaction terms. The beta coefficient for
625 metabolic health status was statistically significant in all models. Estimates are predicted for
626 median values of confounders (smoking, leisure-time physical activity, education, alcohol
627 consumption). All models were inherently adjusted for age by using attained age as the time-scale.
628 The vertical, dotted lines represent the nadir of risk. In panel D, the nadir of risk of metabolically
629 healthy and unhealthy differ due to a significant interaction (nadir lower in unhealthy than
630 healthy). Note that panel B has different dimensions on the y-axis than the other panels. ABSI =
631 a body shape index, BMI = body mass index, WC = waist circumference.

632 Figure 4. The functional relationships between mortality (all-cause and CVD) and continuous
633 obesity measures (BMI, waist circumference and ABSI) with corresponding hazard ratios with
634 95% confidence bands in men. The reference of all curves were metabolically healthy men with a
635 BMI of 27.2 kg/m², a waist circumference of 90 cm or an ABSI Z-score of -0.28 (median values
636 for metabolically healthy men). P-values originates from likelihood ratio tests comparing models
637 with/without linear terms/interaction terms. The beta coefficient for metabolic health status was
638 statistically significant in all models. Estimates are predicted for median values of confounders
639 (smoking, leisure-time physical activity, education, alcohol consumption). All models were
640 inherently adjusted for age by using attained age as the time-scale. The vertical, dotted lines
641 represent the nadir of risk. ABSI = a body shape index, BMI = body mass index, WC = waist
642 circumference.

643 10 Tables

644 Table 1. Sample characteristics in mean (standard deviation) or frequency (percent) according to general obesity phenotypes in
645 6517 women in the SAMINOR 1 Survey (2003–2004)

	Metabolically healthy non- obesity (N=3095, 47.5%)	Metabolically unhealthy non- obesity (N=1662, 25.5%)	Metabolically healthy obesity (N=510, 7.8%)	Metabolically unhealthy obesity (N=1250, 19.2%)	Total (N=6517)	p-value
Age (years)	49.4 (9.4)	57.4 (10.7)	52.1 (10.2)	57.4 (11.0)	53.2 (10.8)	<0.001 ¹
Ethnicity						<0.001 ²
non-Sami	2462 (79.5%)	1319 (79.4%)	349 (68.4%)	920 (73.6%)	5050 (77.5%)	
Sami	633 (20.5%)	343 (20.6%)	161 (31.6%)	330 (26.4%)	1467 (22.5%)	
Smoking						<0.001 ²
Yes, currently	1063 (34.3%)	588 (35.4%)	120 (23.5%)	277 (22.2%)	2048 (31.4%)	
Yes, previously	948 (30.6%)	481 (28.9%)	192 (37.6%)	441 (35.3%)	2062 (31.6%)	
Never	1084 (35.0%)	593 (35.7%)	198 (38.8%)	532 (42.6%)	2407 (36.9%)	
Died during follow-up	154 (5.0%)	230 (13.8%)	25 (4.9%)	187 (15.0%)	596 (9.1%)	<0.001 ²
Cause of death						<0.001 ²
Malignant tumor	83 (53.9%)	63 (27.4%)	12 (48.0%)	60 (32.1%)	218 (36.6%)	
CVD	16 (10.4%)	73 (31.7%)	5 (20.0%)	58 (31.0%)	152 (25.5%)	
Respiratory	19 (12.3%)	25 (10.9%)	3 (12.0%)	15 (8.0%)	62 (10.4%)	
Other	33 (21.4%)	67 (29.1%)	4 (16.0%)	51 (27.3%)	155 (26.0%)	
Unknown	3 (1.9%)	2 (0.9%)	1 (4.0%)	3 (1.6%)	9 (1.5%)	
Alcohol consumption						<0.001 ²
Weekly	822 (26.6%)	296 (17.8%)	89 (17.5%)	132 (10.6%)	1339 (20.5%)	
Less than weekly	1881 (60.8%)	958 (57.6%)	312 (61.2%)	741 (59.3%)	3892 (59.7%)	
Never/not last year	392 (12.7%)	408 (24.5%)	109 (21.4%)	377 (30.2%)	1286 (19.7%)	

Leisure-time physical activity						<0.001 ²
Sedentary	594 (19.2%)	394 (23.7%)	140 (27.5%)	397 (31.8%)	1525 (23.4%)	
Light	2082 (67.3%)	1100 (66.2%)	324 (63.5%)	751 (60.1%)	4257 (65.3%)	
Moderate-hard	419 (13.5%)	168 (10.1%)	46 (9.0%)	102 (8.2%)	735 (11.3%)	
Education (years)	12.6 (3.9)	10.6 (3.7)	11.6 (4.1)	10.5 (3.9)	11.6 (4.0)	<0.001 ¹
General obesity	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	510 (100.0%)	1250 (100.0%)	1760 (27.0%)	
Metabolic syndrome	0 (0.0%)	948 (57.0%)	0 (0.0%)	990 (79.2%)	1938 (29.7%)	<0.001 ²
Hypertension	802 (25.9%)	1173 (70.6%)	176 (34.5%)	1023 (81.8%)	3174 (48.7%)	<0.001 ²
Increased waist circumference	1274 (41.2%)	1267 (76.2%)	503 (98.6%)	1244 (99.5%)	4288 (65.8%)	<0.001 ²
Low HDL cholesterol	542 (17.5%)	768 (46.2%)	102 (20.0%)	768 (61.4%)	2180 (33.5%)	<0.001 ²
Elevated triglycerides	308 (10.0%)	810 (48.7%)	59 (11.6%)	792 (63.4%)	1969 (30.2%)	<0.001 ²
Hyperglycemia	30 (1.0%)	157 (9.4%)	2 (0.4%)	194 (15.5%)	383 (5.9%)	<0.001 ²
Stroke	0 (0.0%)	68 (4.5%)	0 (0.0%)	37 (3.2%)	105 (1.7%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	3	166	2	83	254	
Angina pectoris	0 (0.0%)	146 (9.8%)	0 (0.0%)	134 (11.4%)	280 (4.5%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	3	167	2	73	245	
Myocardial infarction	0 (0.0%)	58 (3.9%)	0 (0.0%)	36 (3.1%)	94 (1.5%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	3	165	2	80	250	
Diabetes	0 (0.0%)	101 (6.7%)	0 (0.0%)	133 (11.3%)	234 (3.7%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	3	163	2	74	242	
Blood pressure-lowering drug	0 (0.0%)	713 (43.8%)	0 (0.0%)	629 (50.9%)	1342 (20.8%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	3	36	2	14	55	
Cholesterol-lowering drug	0 (0.0%)	460 (29.0%)	0 (0.0%)	303 (25.5%)	763 (12.0%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	3	75	2	60	140	
Glucose-lowering drug	0 (0.0%)	96 (6.3%)	0 (0.0%)	108 (9.3%)	204 (3.2%)	<0.001 ²

	Missing data	3	136	2	93	234
646	HDL = high-density lipoprotein, CVD = cardiovascular disease.					
647	Continuous variables are reported as mean (standard deviation) and categorical variables are given as frequency (percent). In the final sample, missing					
648	data existed only in pre-existing disease and drug variables; in categorisation of metabolic health status, missing was assumed “no”, but frequencies of					
649	missing are shown in this table. It is evident that most people with missing nevertheless was categorised in an unhealthy group.					
650	¹ One way analysis of variance					
651	² Pearson’s χ^2 test					
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656						
657						
658						

659 Table 2. Sample characteristics in mean (standard deviation) or frequency (percent) according to general obesity phenotypes in
 660 6298 men in the SAMINOR 1 Survey (2003–2004)

	Metabolically healthy non- obesity (N=2972, 47.2%)	Metabolically unhealthy non- obesity (N=1843, 29.2%)	Metabolically healthy obesity (N=363, 5.8%)	Metabolically unhealthy obesity (N=1120, 17.8%)	Total (N=6298)	p-value
Age (years)	51.4 (9.9)	57.8 (10.8)	51.3 (10.1)	55.4 (10.3)	54.0 (10.6)	<0.001 ¹
Ethnicity						0.002 ²
non-Sami	2264 (76.2%)	1452 (78.8%)	253 (69.7%)	865 (77.2%)	4834 (76.8%)	
Sami	708 (23.8%)	391 (21.2%)	110 (30.3%)	255 (22.8%)	1464 (23.2%)	
Smoking						<0.001 ²
Yes, currently	1060 (35.7%)	549 (29.8%)	86 (23.7%)	260 (23.2%)	1955 (31.0%)	
Yes, previously	982 (33.0%)	830 (45.0%)	158 (43.5%)	571 (51.0%)	2541 (40.3%)	
Never	930 (31.3%)	464 (25.2%)	119 (32.8%)	289 (25.8%)	1802 (28.6%)	
Died during follow-up	297 (10.0%)	402 (21.8%)	39 (10.7%)	200 (17.9%)	938 (14.9%)	<0.001 ²
Cause of death						<0.001 ²
Malignant tumor	124 (41.8%)	123 (30.6%)	12 (30.8%)	63 (31.5%)	322 (34.3%)	
CVD	56 (18.9%)	135 (33.6%)	18 (46.2%)	75 (37.5%)	284 (30.3%)	
Respiratory	38 (12.8%)	47 (11.7%)	5 (12.8%)	14 (7.0%)	104 (11.1%)	
Other	75 (25.3%)	91 (22.6%)	3 (7.7%)	41 (20.5%)	210 (22.4%)	
Unknown	4 (1.3%)	6 (1.5%)	1 (2.6%)	7 (3.5%)	18 (1.9%)	
Alcohol consumption						<0.001 ²
Weekly	1046 (35.2%)	545 (29.6%)	117 (32.2%)	315 (28.1%)	2023 (32.1%)	
Less than weekly	1691 (56.9%)	1057 (57.4%)	213 (58.7%)	683 (61.0%)	3644 (57.9%)	
Never/not last year	235 (7.9%)	241 (13.1%)	33 (9.1%)	122 (10.9%)	631 (10.0%)	
Leisure-time physical activity						<0.001 ²

Sedentary	602 (20.3%)	417 (22.6%)	93 (25.6%)	339 (30.3%)	1451 (23.0%)	
Light	1571 (52.9%)	1088 (59.0%)	200 (55.1%)	616 (55.0%)	3475 (55.2%)	
Moderate-hard	799 (26.9%)	338 (18.3%)	70 (19.3%)	165 (14.7%)	1372 (21.8%)	
Education (years)	11.7 (3.8)	10.6 (3.7)	11.2 (3.4)	10.8 (3.7)	11.2 (3.8)	<0.001 ¹
General obesity	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	363 (100.0%)	1120 (100.0%)	1483 (23.5%)	
Metabolic syndrome	0 (0.0%)	970 (52.6%)	0 (0.0%)	900 (80.4%)	1870 (29.7%)	<0.001 ²
Hypertension	1271 (42.8%)	1493 (81.0%)	164 (45.2%)	972 (86.8%)	3900 (61.9%)	<0.001 ²
Increased waist circumference	636 (21.4%)	1031 (55.9%)	331 (91.2%)	1097 (97.9%)	3095 (49.1%)	<0.001 ²
Low HDL cholesterol	258 (8.7%)	592 (32.1%)	22 (6.1%)	488 (43.6%)	1360 (21.6%)	<0.001 ²
Elevated triglycerides	825 (27.8%)	1040 (56.4%)	93 (25.6%)	815 (72.8%)	2773 (44.0%)	<0.001 ²
Hyperglycemia	44 (1.5%)	230 (12.5%)	3 (0.8%)	163 (14.6%)	440 (7.0%)	<0.001 ²
Stroke	0 (0.0%)	100 (5.9%)	0 (0.0%)	51 (4.8%)	151 (2.5%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	6	145	0	52	203	
Angina pectoris	0 (0.0%)	318 (18.6%)	0 (0.0%)	138 (12.9%)	456 (7.5%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	6	137	0	48	191	
Myocardial infarction	0 (0.0%)	236 (13.7%)	0 (0.0%)	110 (10.2%)	346 (5.7%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	6	124	0	45	175	
Diabetes	0 (0.0%)	135 (7.9%)	0 (0.0%)	85 (7.9%)	220 (3.6%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	6	134	0	45	185	
Blood pressure-lowering drug	0 (0.0%)	837 (46.4%)	0 (0.0%)	504 (45.4%)	1341 (21.5%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	6	38	0	10	54	
Cholesterol-lowering drug	0 (0.0%)	630 (35.6%)	0 (0.0%)	320 (29.5%)	950 (15.4%)	<0.001 ²
Missing data	6	74	0	35	115	
Glucose-lowering drug	0 (0.0%)	131 (7.7%)	0 (0.0%)	66 (6.3%)	197 (3.2%)	<0.001 ²

	Missing data	6	141	0	68	215
661	HDL = high-density lipoprotein, CVD = cardiovascular disease.					
662	Continuous variables are reported as mean (standard deviation) and categorical variables are given as frequency (percent). In the final sample, missing					
663	data existed only in pre-existing disease and drug variables; in categorisation of metabolic health status, missing was assumed “no”, but frequencies of					
664	missing are shown in this table. It is evident that most people with missing nevertheless was categorised in an unhealthy group.					
665	¹ One way analysis of variance					
666	² Pearson’s χ^2 test					
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677 **Table 3. All-cause and CVD mortality according to MetS, general and abdominal obesity phenotypes: Hazard ratios (HR) and 95%**
 678 **confidence intervals (CI) from Cox proportional hazards models of 6517 women in the SAMINOR 1 Survey (2003–2004)**

	Cases	Person-years	IR	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
				HR	95% CI	HR	95% CI	HR	95% CI
Outcome: All-cause mortality									
Metabolic syndrome									
No	343	68588.7	5.0	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Yes	253	28604.7	8.8	1.14	0.97 – 1.35	1.15	0.97 – 1.35	1.11	0.94 – 1.31
General obesity phenotypes									
Metabolically healthy non-obese	154	46629.4	3.3	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Metabolically unhealthy non-obese	230	24487.6	9.4	1.13	0.92 – 1.40	1.14	0.92 – 1.41	1.11	0.90 – 1.38
Metabolically healthy obese	25	7753.5	3.2	0.64	0.42 – 0.97	0.68	0.44 – 1.04	0.63	0.41 – 0.97
Metabolically unhealthy obese	187	18322.8	10.2	1.17	0.94 – 1.46	1.27	1.02 – 1.59	1.17	0.93 – 1.47
Abdominal obesity phenotypes									
Metabolically healthy non-abdominally obese	119	39259.1	3.0	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Metabolically unhealthy non-abdominally obese	170	20308.6	8.4	1.12	0.88 – 1.43	1.14	0.89 – 1.45	1.12	0.88 – 1.43
Metabolically healthy abdominally obese	42	12571.2	3.3	0.71	0.50 – 1.01	0.75	0.53 – 1.07	0.71	0.50 – 1.02
Metabolically unhealthy abdominally obese	265	25054.5	10.6	1.23	0.99 – 1.55	1.31	1.04 – 1.64	1.22	0.97 – 1.54
Outcome: CVD mortality									
Metabolic syndrome									
No	73	68588.7	1.1	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Yes	79	28604.7	2.8	1.55	1.12 – 2.13	1.53	1.11 – 2.11	1.46	1.06 – 2.02
General obesity phenotypes									
Metabolically healthy non-obese	16	46629.4	0.3	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Metabolically unhealthy non-obese	73	24487.6	3.0	2.86	1.65 – 4.95	2.88	1.66 – 4.99	2.77	1.59 – 4.80
Metabolically healthy obese	5	7753.5	0.6	1.08	0.40 – 2.96	1.12	0.41 – 3.07	1.05	0.38 – 2.88
Metabolically unhealthy obese	58	18322.8	3.2	2.81	1.60 – 4.94	2.93	1.66 – 5.15	2.65	1.49 – 4.72
Abdominal obesity phenotypes									
Metabolically healthy non-abdominally obese	16	39259.1	0.4	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Metabolically unhealthy non-abdominally obese	48	20308.6	2.4	1.90	1.07 – 3.38	1.93	1.09 – 3.43	1.86	1.05 – 3.32
Metabolically healthy abdominally obese	5	12571.2	0.4	0.55	0.20 – 1.50	0.57	0.21 – 1.56	0.54	0.20 – 1.47

Metabolically unhealthy abdominally obese 83 25054.5 3.3 2.25 1.30 – 3.88 2.31 1.34 – 3.99 2.11 1.21 – 3.69

679 IR = crude incidence rate per 1000 person-years , HR = hazard ratio, CI = confidence interval.
680 Model 1 is the crude model (all models inherently adjusted for age by using attained age as the time-scale). Model 2 was additionally adjusted for
681 smoking, and model 3 was additionally adjusted for leisure-time physical activity, education and alcohol consumption (model 3). We applied stratified
682 Cox models with separate baseline hazards for subgroups of smoking status to satisfy the proportional hazard assumption in all-cause mortality
683 models.

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699 Table 4. All-cause and CVD mortality according to MetS, general and abdominal obesity phenotypes: Hazard ratios (HR) and 95%
 700 confidence intervals (CI) from Cox proportional hazards models of 6298 men in SAMINOR 1 (2003–2004)

	Cases	Person-years	IR	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
				HR	95% CI	HR	95% CI	HR	95% CI
Outcome: All-cause mortality									
Metabolic syndrome									
No	627	65040.4	9.6	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Yes	311	27124.8	11.5	1.06	0.93 – 1.22	1.11	0.97 – 1.28	1.10	0.96 – 1.26
General obesity phenotypes									
Metabolically healthy non-obese	297	44234.7	6.7	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Metabolically unhealthy non-obese	402	26321.0	15.3	1.12	0.96 – 1.31	1.18	1.01 – 1.38	1.16	0.99 – 1.35
Metabolically healthy obese	39	5381.8	7.2	1.13	0.81 – 1.57	1.28	0.91 – 1.79	1.25	0.89 – 1.75
Metabolically unhealthy obese	200	16227.8	12.3	1.22	1.02 – 1.46	1.38	1.14 – 1.65	1.33	1.11 – 1.61
Abdominal obesity phenotypes									
Metabolically healthy non-abdominally obese	241	38178.8	6.3	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Metabolically unhealthy non-abdominally obese	430	34896.0	12.3	1.13	0.97 – 1.33	1.20	1.02 – 1.41	1.18	1.00 – 1.38
Metabolically healthy abdominally obese	40	4344.3	9.2	1.12	0.80 – 1.57	1.23	0.88 – 1.73	1.20	0.86 – 1.69
Metabolically unhealthy abdominally obese	227	14746.1	15.4	1.39	1.16 – 1.67	1.53	1.27 – 1.84	1.49	1.23 – 1.79
Outcome: CVD mortality									
Metabolic syndrome									
No	170	65040.4	2.6	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Yes	114	27124.8	4.2	1.43	1.13 – 1.82	1.53	1.20 – 1.94	1.51	1.18 – 1.91
General obesity phenotypes									
Metabolically healthy non-obese	56	44234.7	1.3	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Metabolically unhealthy non-obese	135	26321.0	5.1	1.95	1.42 – 2.68	2.11	1.54 – 2.90	2.08	1.51 – 2.86
Metabolically healthy obese	18	5381.8	3.3	2.68	1.57 – 4.56	3.03	1.77 – 5.19	2.92	1.71 – 5.01
Metabolically unhealthy obese	75	16227.8	4.6	2.40	1.69 – 3.40	2.83	1.98 – 4.03	2.72	1.90 – 3.89
Abdominal obesity phenotypes									
Metabolically healthy non-abdominally obese	47	38178.8	1.2	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Metabolically unhealthy non-abdominally obese	137	34896.0	3.9	1.81	1.30 – 2.54	1.98	1.41 – 2.76	1.94	1.38 – 2.72
Metabolically healthy abdominally obese	15	4344.3	3.5	2.07	1.15 – 3.70	2.28	1.27 – 4.09	2.18	1.21 – 3.92

Metabolically unhealthy abdominally obese 85 14746.1 5.8 2.61 1.82 – 3.74 3.00 2.08 – 4.32 2.89 2.00 – 4.17

701 IR = crude incidence rate per 1000 person-years, HR = hazard ratio, CI = confidence interval.

702 Model 1 is the crude model (all models inherently adjusted for age by using attained age as the time-scale). Model 2 was additionally adjusted for
703 smoking, and model 3 was additionally adjusted for leisure-time physical activity, education and alcohol consumption (model 3). We applied stratified
704 Cox models with separate baseline hazards for subgroups of smoking status to satisfy the proportional hazard assumption in all-cause mortality
705 models.

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