

Title: Independent and joint associations of grip strength and adiposity with all-cause and cardiovascular disease mortality in 403,199 adults: The UK Biobank study

Authors: Youngwon Kim*^a, Ph.D, Katrien Wijndaele^a, Ph.D, Duck-chul Lee^b, Ph.D, Stephen J Sharp^a, MSc, Nick Wareham^a, Ph.D, Soren Brage^a, Ph.D

Names for PubMed indexing: Kim, Wijndaele, Lee, Sharp, Wareham and Brage.

Affiliations: ^a MRC Epidemiology Unit, University of Cambridge School of Clinical Medicine, UK (YK, KW, SJS, NW, SB)

^b Department of Kinesiology, Iowa State University, IA, USA (DCL)

Full Addresses:

^a MRC Epidemiology Unit, University of Cambridge School of Clinical Medicine, Box 285 Institute of Metabolic Science, Cambridge Biomedical Campus, Cambridge, Cambridgeshire, UK CB2 0QQ

^b Department of Kinesiology, Iowa State University, 251 Forker Building, 534 Wallace Road, Ames, Iowa, USA 50011-4008

Corresponding Author:

Name: Youngwon Kim*^a, Ph.D

Mailing Address: MRC Epidemiology Unit,
University of Cambridge School of Clinical Medicine,
Box 285 Institute of Metabolic Science,
Cambridge Biomedical Campus,
Cambridge, Cambridgeshire, UK CB2 0QQ

E-mail Information: youngwon.kim@mrc-epid.cam.ac.uk

Telephone: +44 (0) 1223 769118

Fax: +44 (0) 1223 330316

Sources of Support: This work was supported by the UK Medical Research Council [grant numbers MC_UU_12015/1 to NW and MC_UU_12015/3 to SB] and an Intermediate Basic Science Research Fellowship of the British Heart Foundation [grant number FS/12/58/29709 to KW]. This research has been conducted using the UK Biobank Resource under Application Number 408.

Short running head: Grip strength, adiposity and mortality

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; CVD, cardiovascular disease; GS, grip strength; HR, hazard ratio; MVPA, moderate-to-vigorous physical activity; %BF, percent body fat; WC, waist circumference

1 **Abstract**

2 **Background:** Higher grip strength (GS) is associated with lower mortality risk. However,
3 whether this association is independent of adiposity is uncertain.

4 **Objective:** The purpose of this study was to examine the associations between GS, adiposity and
5 mortality.

6 **Design:** The UK Biobank study is an ongoing prospective cohort of >0.5 million UK adults aged
7 40-69 years. Baseline data collection (2006-2010) included measurements of GS and adiposity
8 indicators including body mass index (BMI). Age- and gender-specific GS quintiles were used.
9 BMI was classified according to clinical cut-points.

10 **Results:** Data from 403,199 participants were included in analyses. Over a median 7.0-year
11 follow-up, 8,287 all-cause deaths occurred. The highest GS quintile had 32% (95% confidence
12 interval [CI]: 26%, 38%) and 25% (95% CI: 16%, 33%) lower all-cause mortality risks in men
13 and women, respectively, compared with the lowest GS quintile, after adjustment for
14 confounders and BMI. Obesity class II ($BMI \geq 35$) was associated with greater all-cause mortality
15 risks. Compared with the highest GS and normal weight category, the highest GS and Obesity
16 class II category showed relatively higher all-cause mortality hazards (not statistically significant
17 in men); however, the increased risk was relatively lower than the risk for the lowest GS and
18 Obesity class II category. All-cause mortality risks were generally lower for obese but stronger
19 individuals than for non-obese but weaker individuals. Similar patterns of associations were
20 observed for cardiovascular mortality.

21 **Conclusions:** Lower grip strength and excess adiposity are both independent predictors of higher
22 mortality risk. The higher mortality risk associated with excess adiposity is attenuated, although

- 23 not completely **attenuated, by greater GS**. Interventions/policies should focus on improving
- 24 muscular strength of the population regardless of their adiposity levels.
- 25 Key words: grip strength, adiposity, muscle strength, obesity, mortality, UK Biobank

26 Introduction

27 Obesity is a global public health concern (1). Excess adiposity is known to be associated with
28 greater risk of mortality as well as cardiovascular disease (CVD) such as heart failure,
29 hypertension, and coronary heart disease (2). However, substantial evidence (3) suggests greater
30 aerobic fitness can lower the risk of death and CVD associated with greater fatness.
31 Muscular fitness, a complementary aspect of fitness, has also been found to be a strong predictor
32 of mortality (4). As such, grip strength (GS), as a simple inexpensive measure of overall
33 muscular strength (5-7), has been recognized as a useful prognostic indicator of mortality (8, 9)
34 as well as adverse health outcomes, such as sarcopenia and frailty (10). A few studies (11-14)
35 have attempted to further explore the “fit-fat” paradigm in relation to mortality and muscle
36 strength, suggesting that mortality risk may be reduced in individuals with higher muscle
37 strength irrespective of weight status. However, **the evidence on the associations of muscle**
38 **strength and fatness with mortality** has been predicated primarily upon data with a relatively
39 small sample size (<8000) of men (11, 12) or older adults (13). So, findings from these studies
40 provide limited evidence on the relative risk of mortality for the combination of muscle strength
41 and fatness for general adult populations. Furthermore, the majority of the studies have used
42 body mass index (BMI) as a sole crude adiposity indicator (12-14). Abdominal adiposity defined
43 by waist circumference (WC) predicts mortality independently of general adiposity (i.e. BMI,
44 percent body fat [%BF]) (15). Hence, it is critical to discern the interactions of different
45 adiposity indicators and muscle strength with mortality in general populations of men and
46 women. Therefore, the purpose of the present analysis is to examine the relative risk of all-cause
47 and CVD mortality for GS, various clinical adiposity measures (BMI, WC, %BF) and **their**
48 **interactions** in middle-aged and older men and women.

49 **Subjects and Methods**

50 **Study design and participants**

51 UK Biobank is an ongoing UK national cohort of over half a million adults aged 40-69 years at
52 recruitment. Individuals were contacted who were registered with the National Health Service
53 and living <25 miles away from one of 22 assessment centers across the UK. Of those, >500 000
54 individuals performed baseline data collection (2006-2010) that included a wide variety of
55 physical measurements and biological samples, as well as questionnaires on socio-demographic
56 factors, family history/early-life exposures, general health/disabilities, environmental/lifestyle
57 factors, and psychological/cognitive state. The UK Biobank methodology is described in detail
58 elsewhere (16). All participants signed informed written consent prior to participation, and the
59 protocol of the UK Biobank project was approved by the North West Multi-Centre Research
60 Ethics Committee.

61 **Exposures**

62 ***Grip strength (GS)***

63 GS was assessed once in each hand using a Jamar J00105 hydraulic hand dynamometer, which
64 can measure isometric grip force up to 90 kilograms (calibrated by staff at the start of each
65 measurement day) showing good reliability and reproducibility (17). The handle of the device
66 was adjustable to five grip positions between 1-3/8 and 3-3/8 inches. Participants were allowed
67 to choose a grip position that they felt most comfortable with. Each participant was asked to
68 grasp the handle of the device in their right hand while sitting upright on a chair with their
69 forearm on the armrest. They were required to maintain a 90° angle of their elbow adjacent to
70 their side so that their thumb would face upwards while squeezing the handle as strongly as
71 possible for about 3 seconds. The same protocol was undertaken with the left hand. For the

72 current analysis, values from the two hands were averaged if available; otherwise, the value from
73 a single hand was used in a small subsample (n=1,177).

74 *Adiposity measures*

75 BMI was calculated as measured weight (kg) divided by measured height (m) squared. WC was
76 measured using a tape measure at the level of the umbilicus. Fat-free mass was assessed with the
77 Tanita BC-418MA bio-impedance analyzer, from which %BF was calculated as 1 minus fat-free
78 mass divided by body weight. BMI was categorized into normal weight (18.5-24.9 kg/m²),
79 overweight (25.0-29.9 kg/m²), obesity class I (30.0-34.9 kg/m²) and obesity class II (≥ 35.0
80 kg/m²). The following sex-specific clinical cut-offs were applied to create three groups of WC
81 and %BF: WC<94cm, 94-102cm or ≥ 102 cm for men; WC<80cm, 80-88cm, or ≥ 88 cm for
82 women (1); %BF $\leq 20\%$, 20-25% or >25% for men; and %BF $\leq 30\%$, 30-33% or >33% for women
83 (18).

84 **Outcomes**

85 Participants were followed up for mortality until February 15th 2016 through linkage with death
86 records from the National Health Service Information Centre and the Scottish Morbidity Record.
87 CVD mortality was defined as the International Classification of Diseases-10 codes F01 and I00-
88 I99. The median follow-up period was 7 years (interquartile range: 6.3 and 7.6 years).

89 **Covariates**

90 The following variables that could confound GS-mortality associations were included as
91 covariates in the analyses: ethnicity (White, mixed, Asian/Asian British, Black/Black British,
92 others), smoking status (never, previous, current), employment (unemployed, employed),
93 Townsend Deprivation Index (a composite score of employment, car ownership, home
94 ownership and household overcrowding, with higher values indicating a given area's higher

95 degree of deprivation), statin use (yes/no), hormone replacement therapy (yes/no; women only),
96 alcohol consumption (never, previous, currently <3times/week, currently \geq 3times/week),
97 processed/red meat consumption (days/week), resting pulse rate (beats/min), and moderate-to-
98 vigorous physical activity (MVPA) (minutes/day). MVPA time was estimated based on self-
99 reported walking, transportation activities, occupational activities/walking, strenuous/other
100 exercise, and do-it-yourself activities by calibrating them to heart rate and accelerometry data
101 (19) from 12 435 UK adults participating in the Fenland project (20).

102 **Statistical analyses**

103 Cox regression models (with age as the underlying time scale) were used to estimate associations
104 of GS and adiposity with all-cause and CVD mortality. First, models were fit to estimate
105 associations between GS and mortality, with adjustment for potential confounders (Model 1).
106 Further adjustments for each of the three adiposity indicators (BMI, WC or %BF) were made in
107 three separate models (Models 2a, 2b and 2c). In parallel with the models using GS as an
108 exposure variable, models using each adiposity measure as an exposure variable were also fitted
109 with adjustment for the same covariates (Model 1) and additional adjustments for GS (Model 2).
110 Models using per-5kg increment in GS as an exposure were fitted by personal/lifestyle risk factor
111 and disease status. GS-mortality associations were stratified by each adiposity variable. Gender-
112 and age-specific quintiles of GS (Q1-Q5) and different adiposity categories were combined to
113 examine joint associations with mortality. All analyses were performed for men and women
114 separately. Subgroup analyses and tests of interaction between GS and age, weight status, waist
115 circumference, %BF, MVPA, TV viewing, smoking, alcohol consumption, hypertension and
116 diabetes were performed. Log-log plots provided support for the proportional hazards
117 assumptions for all covariates. Sensitivity analyses were performed 1) using the maximum GS

118 from either hand, 2) GS normalized for body weight or fat-free mass to account for variation by
119 body size, 3) excluding the first 2-year mortality follow-up, and 4) excluding individuals who
120 had chronic obstructive pulmonary disease or were ‘current’/‘previous’ smokers at baseline
121 when examining adiposity as exposure (the latter two to minimize the risk of reverse causality).
122 All analyses were performed in STATA/SE Version 14 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX).

123 **Results**

124 Of an initial sample of 502,639 participants who undertook baseline data collection, individuals
125 were excluded if they had a history of heart attack, stroke or cancer at baseline (n=55,401) to
126 minimize the risk for reverse causality (8, 21), their censoring date was before the date of
127 baseline data collection (n=3) or they had missing values on any of the variables (n=44,036),
128 leaving 403,199 participants in the final analytic sample (Supplemental Figure 1).
129 Table 1 shows participants’ characteristics across quintiles of GS. The specific cut-points to
130 create the gender- and age-specific quintiles of GS are shown in Supplemental Table 1. A total of
131 8,081 all-cause deaths occurred during 1,268,314 person-years of follow-up for men and
132 1,533,538 person-years for women. Differences in BMI, WC, and %BF across quintiles of GS
133 and the correlations between these variables (Supplemental Table 2) were minimal.
134 Table 2 summarizes associations between GS and all-cause mortality. Compared with the lowest
135 quintile of GS, the highest quintile of GS had considerably lower risks of all-cause mortality in
136 both men and women (except for Q2) after adjusting for confounders (Model 1) plus additional
137 adjustments for each adiposity measure (Model 2): p-values for trends <0.0001. **Specifically,**
138 **hazards of all-cause mortality were approximately 32% (95% confidence interval [CI]: 26%,**
139 **38%) and 25% (95%CI: 16%, 33%) lower for men and women in Q5 of GS, respectively,**
140 **compared with Q1 of GS after adjusting for confounders and BMI (Model 2a).** The hazard ratios

141 (HR) for per-5kg increase in GS was 0.92 for both men (95%CI: 0.90, 0.93) and women (95%CI:
142 0.89, 0.95) after adjusting for all confounders and BMI (Model 2a). Sensitivity analyses found
143 similar associations with the maximal GS from either hand, and GS unnormalized or normalized
144 for body weight or fat-free mass (Supplemental Figure 2). Another sensitivity analysis removing
145 the first 2 years of follow-up yielded similar results (Supplemental Table 3). The pattern of
146 associations of GS with CVD mortality was similar to the associations with all-cause mortality
147 for men (Table 2). While the HRs were not statistically significant in women, p-values for linear
148 trends were all less than 0.05. The associations of per-5kg increase in GS with all-cause and
149 CVD mortality were significant (p-values<0.05) within almost all of the subgroups examined in
150 both men and women (Figure 1), with some exceptions particularly for women.

151 Associations of adiposity measures with all-cause and CVD mortality after adjusting for
152 confounders (Model 1) and GS (Model 2) are shown in Supplemental Table 4. There were ‘J-
153 shaped’ associations between BMI and mortality risk (i.e. substantially lower all-cause mortality
154 only in overweight men compared with normal weight men), which persisted even after
155 excluding individuals who had chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and/or were
156 ‘current’/‘previous’ smokers at baseline (Supplemental Table 5). The highest categories of BMI
157 (i.e. obesity class II) and WC (i.e. abdominal obesity in men) were associated with increased
158 hazards of all-cause and CVD mortality.

159 Figure 2 shows joint associations of GS quintiles and adiposity categories with all-cause
160 mortality. Compared with normal weight men with the highest level of GS, more obese men with
161 lower GS had higher risks of all-cause mortality. For example, men with the highest level of
162 BMI (i.e. Obesity class II) and lowest level of GS had a 89% higher risk of all-cause mortality
163 (HR: 1.89; 95%CI: 1.50, 2.39) compared with the normal weight men with the highest GS. A

164 notable observation was the relatively higher mortality risks for normal weight men with lower
165 GS in comparison with more obese men with higher GS. Similar trends of findings were
166 observed with WC and %BF as adiposity indicators.
167 Similarly, more obese women with lower GS had generally higher all-cause mortality risks
168 compared with normal weight women with higher GS. The HR for women with the highest BMI
169 level (i.e. Obesity class II) and lowest GS was 1.69 (95%CI: 1.32, 2.16) compared with normal
170 weight women with the highest GS. The higher GS quintiles in the Obesity class II category
171 were associated with significantly higher risks of all-cause mortality compared with the reference
172 group. Joint analyses with WC and %BF as adiposity indicators found more obese women with
173 higher GS to have lower all-cause mortality risks compared with non-obese women with lower
174 GS. This pattern of associations was, in general, similar to the associations observed for CVD
175 mortality (Figure 3).

176 **The lower GS quintiles had relatively higher all-cause (Supplemental Figure 3) and CVD**
177 **mortality (Supplemental Figure 4) risks compared with the highest GS quintile within each**
178 **adiposity stratum in both men and women.**

179 **Discussion**

180 This study investigated the complex interplay of GS and various clinical adiposity measures with
181 mortality from all causes and CVD in middle-aged and older men and women. Overall, greater
182 GS was strongly associated with lower all-cause mortality risks, independently of adiposity
183 measures. Moreover, every 5kg increment in GS was associated with about 8% lower hazard of
184 mortality across nearly all subgroups defined by demographic and lifestyle risk factors or disease
185 status. In contrast, adiposity measures had non-significant and/or inconsistent associations with
186 mortality, although obesity class II and abdominal obesity were strong predictors of mortality,

187 independent of GS. The mortality risk was highest for men and women with the lowest level of
188 GS and the highest level of adiposity in the combined analyses. More importantly, obese
189 individuals with greater GS had lower or similar mortality risks compared with non-obese
190 individuals with lower GS. The pattern of associations between GS and CVD mortality was
191 comparable to the findings for all-cause mortality. Overall, our findings provide compelling
192 rationales for developing interventions and policies to improve muscular strength and reduce
193 excess adiposity to minimize mortality risk.

194 The findings of this study are consistent with previous research by Leong et al. (9), which also
195 demonstrated the high prognostic value of GS for various mortality and adverse health outcomes
196 in 139,691 adults from 17 countries of different economic status. The HR of all-cause mortality
197 for every 5kg reduction was 1.16 in Leong et al. study (9) but 1.08 (i.e. 1/0.92) in the present
198 study. Some potential reasons for the difference are the use of gender- and age-specific quintiles
199 of GS to take into account the inherent variation of GS by gender and age since GS is higher in
200 men and younger individuals, and the exclusion of baseline medical conditions to minimize
201 potential bias due to underlying subclinical conditions on GS and mortality in the present study.
202 Furthermore, the use of a substantially larger sample allowed for comprehensive subgroup
203 analyses by a number of lifestyle risk factors as well as disease status.

204 The present study is generally consistent with the previous studies (11-14) in terms of the
205 independent and joint associations of GS and adiposity with mortality outcomes. For instance,
206 greater muscle strength predicted mortality independent of adiposity (11-14). In addition, the
207 highest mortality risk was observed in individuals with the lowest muscle strength level and the
208 highest adiposity level, implying the interactive impacts of muscle strength and adiposity on
209 mortality (11, 12, 14). However, a novel observation of the present study is that strong obese

210 individuals had relatively lower mortality risks compared with weak non-obese individuals. This
211 suggests that improving muscle strength may be a more important public health priority than
212 reducing adiposity levels in decreasing mortality risks, although excessive adiposity itself is a
213 strong risk factor for mortality (15). Another novel aspect of this study over the previous studies
214 (11-14) is the use of a large cohort dataset, which enabled to create multiple sub-groups of GS
215 and various clinical adiposity indicators in examining the joint associations with mortality in
216 men and women separately.

217 The present study found that men had more consistent associations between GS and mortality
218 (independent of adiposity) than women, which is in line with previous research (13). There is
219 also evidence on the weaker associations of GS with all-cause mortality for women (22). In this
220 regard, convincing evidence suggests an age-related decline in muscle strength in women
221 (particularly after menopause) can be prevented through estrogen-hormone replacement therapy
222 (23). However, none of the previous studies (13, 22) included estrogen-hormone replacement
223 therapy as a potential confounder in the models for women whereas the present study did. Our
224 study clearly demonstrated lower mortality rates for both men and women with greater GS.
225 Moreover, given that current public health guidelines (24) recommend that both men and women
226 do muscle-strengthening activities at least twice a week, interventions and policies should be
227 designed and implemented in a way to encourage both genders to engage in regular muscle-
228 strengthening activities, regardless of their adiposity levels.

229 Compelling evidence suggests that resistance exercise can result in improvements in muscle
230 strength (including GS) and neuromotor functions in healthy and clinical adult populations (25).
231 It appears that muscle strength gained through resistance exercise can diminish rapidly after the
232 termination of training, but its effects on neuromotor functions can be sustained for a relatively

233 long period of time even with a weekly session of moderate-to-vigorous intensity resistance
234 exercise (25). We observed weak relationships between GS and adiposity measures, suggesting
235 greater GS is determined based on better neuromotor functions rather than higher adiposity itself.
236 Nonetheless, it is important to point out that the effects of resistance training are typically site-
237 specific (26), so training solely GS may not necessarily yield favorable effects on other parts of
238 the body. Thus, efforts should be placed on improving whole-body muscle strength as well as
239 neuromuscular functions.

240 Effects of resistance training on reducing metabolic risk are also well-documented. Specifically,
241 glucose metabolisms and insulin sensitivity can be enhanced in response to resistance exercise
242 (27). In the present study, the prevalence of diabetes was lower in both men and women across
243 incremental GS quintiles. It may be that participation in resistance training was higher in those
244 with greater GS since people use their hands in most upper-body resistance training. This
245 suggests individuals with greater muscle strength may sustain metabolically healthier lives.

246 Furthermore, a meta-analysis of randomized-controlled trials concluded that resistance training
247 programs reduced levels of lipids and lipoproteins circulating in the blood stream (28). However,
248 high-intensity resistance training may increase arterial stiffness (29), which may then increase
249 the risk of mortality and CVD (30). More evidence is needed to determine the specific dose-
250 response relationship between resistance training and health outcomes.

251 This study is not without limitations. First, the use of data from an observational prospective
252 study cannot fully determine causal relationships between GS and mortality. However, we
253 excluded individuals with critical medical conditions at baseline in the primary analysis, and
254 further excluded individuals who died in the first 2 years of follow-up and individuals who had
255 respiratory disease or were current or previous smokers at baseline in the sensitivity analysis, in

256 order to minimize the risk for reverse causality. Second, due to the lack of sampling strategies for
257 recruiting samples in UK Biobank, results of this study may only be generalizable to those of
258 similar characteristics to the sample analyzed here. Another limitation is the measurement
259 method for aerobic fitness, a strong mortality predictor (31). Ideally, this is measured as oxygen
260 consumption during maximal exercise tests. We adjusted for resting pulse rate instead, which is
261 strongly associated with maximal oxygen consumption (32). The relatively low number of death
262 cases in the analysis for CVD mortality is another limitation. Finally, the use of self-reported
263 data for some of the covariates may have increased the risk of residual confounding.

264 **Conclusions**

265 Men and women with greater GS had lower risks of all-cause and CVD mortality, independent of
266 adiposity. While excess adiposity *per se* presents substantial risk of mortality, the risk associated
267 with excess adiposity was reduced, although not completely eliminated, through greater GS.
268 Public health efforts should aim to improve muscle strength of the population in all adiposity
269 levels.

270 **Acknowledgment**

271 The authors have no conflict of interest. YK designed this study, performed statistical analysis,
272 and drafted an initial version of the manuscript. KW, DCL, SJS, NW, and SB all contributed to
273 conceptualizing the study idea and developing the analytical plans, and provided assistance with
274 statistical analysis. All authors critically reviewed, approved of the final version of the
275 manuscript, and agreed to be responsible for all facets of this work.

References

1. World Health Organization (WHO) Consultation. *Obesity: Preventing and managing the global epidemic - Introduction*. Who Tech Rep Ser. 2000; 894: 1-253.
2. Poirier P, Giles TD, Bray GA, Hong YL, Stern JS, Pi-Sunyer FX, and Eckel RH. *Obesity and cardiovascular disease: Pathophysiology, evaluation, and effect of weight loss - An update of the 1997 American Heart Association Scientific Statement on obesity and heart disease from the Obesity Committee of the Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism*. Circulation. 2006; 113: 898-918.
3. Barry VW, Baruth M, Beets MW, Durstine JL, Liu JH, and Blair SN. *Fitness vs. Fatness on All-Cause Mortality: A Meta-Analysis*. Progress in cardiovascular diseases. 2014; 56: 382-390.
4. Ruiz JR, Sui X, Lobelo F, Morrow JR, Jr., Jackson AW, Sjostrom M, and Blair SN. *Association between muscular strength and mortality in men: prospective cohort study*. Bmj. 2008; 337: a439.
5. Lauretani F, Russo CR, Bandinelli S, Bartali B, Cavazzini C, Di Iorio A, Corsi AM, Rantanen T, Guralnik JM, and Ferrucci L. *Age-associated changes in skeletal muscles and their effect on mobility: an operational diagnosis of sarcopenia*. Journal of applied physiology. 2003; 95: 1851-1860.
6. Bohannon RW. *Hand-grip dynamometry provides a valid indication of upper extremity strength impairment in home care patients*. Journal of hand therapy : official journal of the American Society of Hand Therapists. 1998; 11: 258-60.
7. Rantanen T, Era P, and Heikkinen E. *Maximal isometric strength and mobility among 75-year-old men and women*. Age Ageing. 1994; 23: 132-7.
8. Cooper R, Kuh D, Hardy R, Mortality Review G, Falcon, and Teams HAS. *Objectively measured physical capability levels and mortality: systematic review and meta-analysis*. Bmj. 2010; 341: c4467.
9. Leong DP, Teo KK, Rangarajan S, Lopez-Jaramillo P, Avezum A, Jr., Orlandini A, Seron P, Ahmed SH, Rosengren A, Kelishadi R, et al. *Prognostic value of grip strength: findings from the Prospective Urban Rural Epidemiology (PURE) study*. Lancet. 2015; 386: 266-73.
10. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Baeyens JP, Bauer JM, Boirie Y, Cederholm T, Landi F, Martin FC, Michel JP, Rolland Y, Schneider SM, et al. *Sarcopenia: European consensus on definition and diagnosis: Report of the European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People*. Age Ageing. 2010; 39: 412-23.
11. Ruiz JR, Sui X, Lobelo F, Lee DC, Morrow JR, Jr., Jackson AW, Hebert JR, Matthews CE, Sjostrom M, and Blair SN. *Muscular strength and adiposity as predictors of adulthood cancer mortality in men*. Cancer epidemiology, biomarkers & prevention : a publication of the American Association for Cancer Research, cosponsored by the American Society of Preventive Oncology. 2009; 18: 1468-76.
12. Rantanen T, Harris T, Leveille SG, Visser M, Foley D, Masaki K, and Guralnik JM. *Muscle strength and body mass index as long-term predictors of mortality in initially healthy men*. J Gerontol a-Biol. 2000; 55: M168-M173.
13. Gale CR, Martyn CN, Cooper C, and Sayer AA. *Grip strength, body composition, and mortality*. Int J Epidemiol. 2007; 36: 228-35.

14. Stenholm S, Mehta NK, Elo IT, Heliovaara M, Koskinen S, and Aromaa A. *Obesity and muscle strength as long-term determinants of all-cause mortality-a 33-year follow-up of the Mini-Finland Health Examination Survey*. Int J Obesity. 2014; 38: 1126-1132.
15. Ben-Shlomo Y, Spears M, Boustred C, May M, Anderson SG, Benjamin EJ, Boutouyrie P, Cameron J, Chen CH, Cruickshank JK, et al. *Aortic Pulse Wave Velocity Improves Cardiovascular Event Prediction An Individual Participant Meta-Analysis of Prospective Observational Data From 17,635 Subjects*. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2014; 63: 636-646.
16. UK Biobank Coordinating Centre. *UK Biobank: Protocol for a large-scale prospective epidemiological resource*. Design. 2007; 06: 1-112.
17. Roberts HC, Denison HJ, Martin HJ, Patel HP, Syddall H, Cooper C, and Sayer AA. *A review of the measurement of grip strength in clinical and epidemiological studies: towards a standardised approach*. Age Ageing. 2011; 40: 423-9.
18. Bray GA. *Fat distribution and body weight*. Obes Res. 1993; 1: 203-5.
19. Brage S, Westgate K, Franks PW, Stegle O, Wright A, Ekelund U, and Wareham NJ. *Estimation of Free-Living Energy Expenditure by Heart Rate and Movement Sensing: A Doubly-Labelled Water Study*. Plos One. 2015; 10.
20. O'Connor L, Brage S, Griffin SJ, Wareham NJ, and Forouhi NG. *The cross-sectional association between snacking behaviour and measures of adiposity: the Fenland Study, UK*. Brit J Nutr. 2015; 114: 1286-1293.
21. Andersen K, Rasmussen F, Held C, Neovius M, Tynelius P, and Sundstrom J. *Exercise capacity and muscle strength and risk of vascular disease and arrhythmia in 1.1 million young Swedish men: cohort study*. Bmj. 2015; 351: h4543.
22. Katzmarzyk PT, and Craig CL. *Musculoskeletal fitness and risk of mortality*. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2002; 34: 740-4.
23. Phillips SK, Rook KM, Siddle NC, Bruce SA, and Woledge RC. *Muscle Weakness in Women Occurs at an Earlier Age Than in Men, but Strength Is Preserved by Hormone Replacement Therapy*. Clin Sci. 1993; 84: 95-98.
24. *Global Recommendations on Physical Activity for Health*. 2010, Geneva. .
25. Garber CE, Blissmer B, Deschenes MR, Franklin BA, Lamonte MJ, Lee IM, Nieman DC, Swain DP, and American College of Sports M. *American College of Sports Medicine position stand. Quantity and quality of exercise for developing and maintaining cardiorespiratory, musculoskeletal, and neuromotor fitness in apparently healthy adults: guidance for prescribing exercise*. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2011; 43: 1334-59.
26. Layne JE, and Nelson ME. *The effects of progressive resistance training on bone density: a review*. Med Sci Sport Exer. 1999; 31: 25-30.
27. Strasser B, and Pesta D. *Resistance Training for Diabetes Prevention and Therapy: Experimental Findings and Molecular Mechanisms*. Biomed Res Int. 2013.
28. Kelley GA, and Kelley KS. *Impact of progressive resistance training on lipids and lipoproteins in adults: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials*. Preventive medicine. 2009; 48: 9-19.
29. Miyachi M. *Effects of resistance training on arterial stiffness: a meta-analysis*. British journal of sports medicine. 2013; 47: 393-6.
30. Vlachopoulos C, Aznaouridis K, and Stefanadis C. *Prediction of Cardiovascular Events and All-Cause Mortality With Arterial Stiffness A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis*. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2010; 55: 1318-1327.

31. Kodama S, Saito K, Tanaka S, Maki M, Yachi Y, Asumi M, Sugawara A, Totsuka K, Shimano H, Ohashi Y, et al. *Cardiorespiratory Fitness as a Quantitative Predictor of All-Cause Mortality and Cardiovascular Events in Healthy Men and Women A Meta-analysis*. *Jama-J Am Med Assoc*. 2009; 301: 2024-2035.
32. Blair SN, Wei M, and Lee CD. *Cardiorespiratory fitness determined by exercise heart rate as a predictor of mortality in the Aerobics Center Longitudinal Study*. *J Sport Sci*. 1998; 16: S47-S55.

Table 1. Participants' characteristics

Variables	Men (n=183,006)						Women (n=220,193)					
	All	Quintiles of grip strength					All	Quintiles of grip strength				
		Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5		Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
Grip strength, kg	39.7 (8.8)	27.7 (4.9)	35.3 (26)	39.3 (2.7)	43.6 (2.9)	51.2 (4.9)	23.5 (6.2)	14.7 (3.6)	20.2 (2.1)	22.9 (2.1)	26.2 (2.1)	31.2 (3.5)
Age, years	56.2 (8.2)	56.4 (8.4)	55.8 (8.3)	56.5 (8.1)	56.5 (8.2)	55.6 (8.1)	56.0 (8.0)	56.7 (8.0)	55.8 (8.2)	56.5 (8.0)	55.7 (7.7)	55.4 (8.1)
Ethnicity, %												
White	94.4%	89.6%	93.7%	95.5%	96.3%	96.6%	94.4%	90.9%	94.0%	95.1%	95.9%	95.6%
Mixed	0.5%	0.5%	0.6%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.7%	0.7%	0.7%	0.6%	0.7%	0.8%
Asian/Asian British	2.6%	6.3%	3.2%	2.0%	1.2%	0.7%	2.1%	5.0%	2.5%	1.7%	1.2%	0.6%
Black/Black British	1.6%	2.0%	1.5%	1.4%	1.4%	1.7%	1.8%	1.8%	1.6%	1.7%	1.5%	2.4%
Others	0.9%	1.6%	1.0%	0.7%	0.7%	0.5%	1.0%	1.6%	1.1%	0.9%	0.8%	0.6%
Smoking status, %												
Never	50.4%	51.4%	50.9%	50.7%	49.6%	49.7%	60.3%	61.6%	61.4%	60.5%	59.6%	58.8%
Previous	37.3%	35.0%	36.5%	37.1%	38.7%	38.9%	31.0%	29.2%	29.9%	31.3%	31.7%	32.5%
Current	12.3%	13.6%	12.6%	12.1%	11.7%	11.4%	8.7%	9.2%	8.7%	8.2%	8.7%	8.7%
Employment, %												
Unemployed	35.9%	42.2%	35.3%	36.0%	35.6%	30.9%	43.0%	50.2%	42.4%	44.4%	39.3%	39.9%
Townsend deprivation index	-1.33 (3.1)	-0.58 (3.4)	-1.16 (3.1)	-1.44 (3.0)	-1.62 (2.9)	-1.79 (2.8)	-1.39 (3.0)	-0.95 (3.2)	-1.28 (3.0)	-1.47 (3.0)	-1.57 (2.9)	-1.59 (2.9)
Statin use, %	19.7%	23.6%	19.7%	19.8%	18.9%	16.8%	11.7%	15.4%	12.1%	11.5%	10.3%	10.0%
Hormone replacement therapy (W), %	(N/A)	(N/A)	(N/A)	(N/A)	(N/A)	(N/A)	7.5%	7.4%	7.2%	7.2%	7.7%	7.9%
Alcohol Consumption, %												
Never	2.7%	4.7%	2.8%	2.4%	1.9%	1.6%	5.6%	9.1%	6.1%	5.1%	4.4%	4.1%

Previous	3.3%	5.0%	3.4%	2.9%	2.7%	2.3%	3.4%	4.8%	3.7%	3.2%	2.9%	2.7%
Current (<3times/week)	41.8%	44.3%	42.7%	41.3%	40.3%	40.7%	53.7%	56.4%	55.1%	53.4%	52.9%	51.5%
Current (≥3times/week)	52.3%	45.9%	51.0%	53.5%	55.1%	55.3%	37.2%	29.8%	35.2%	38.2%	39.7%	41.7%
Processed/red meat consumption, days/week	1.04 (0.60)	1.05 (0.64)	1.04 (0.61)	1.04 (0.59)	1.03 (0.58)	1.05 (0.58)	0.78 (0.50)	0.79 (0.53)	0.78 (0.50)	0.78 (0.50)	0.78 (0.49)	0.78 (0.49)
Resting pulse rate, beats/min	68.3 (11.7)	69.5 (12.3)	68.4 (11.8)	68.0 (11.6)	67.9 (11.6)	67.9 (11.5)	70.1 (10.5)	70.8 (10.7)	70.1 (10.5)	69.9 (10.4)	69.8 (10.4)	69.9 (10.6)
Self-reported MVPA time, min/day	82.3 (22.9)	78.4 (20.7)	81.8 (22.2)	82.4 (24.0)	83.1 (23.0)	85.3 (23.6)	51.6 (19.5)	49.2 (16.1)	51.0 (18.8)	51.3 (18.8)	52.5 (19.5)	53.5 (22.9)
BMI, kg/m ²	27.7 (4.2)	27.7 (4.6)	27.6 (4.3)	27.6 (4.1)	27.7 (3.9)	28.2 (3.9)	27.0 (5.1)	27.6 (5.5)	26.9 (5.1)	26.8 (5.0)	26.8 (4.9)	27.0 (5.0)
Normal weight, %	25.0%	28.0%	27.8%	25.9%	24.3%	19.6%	39.2%	35.0%	39.9%	40.6%	41.0%	39.1%
Overweight, %	50.1%	46.2%	48.6%	50.6%	51.7%	52.9%	37.3%	37.0%	37.0%	37.3%	37.5%	37.7%
Obesity class I, %	19.4%	19.1%	18.0%	18.5%	19.3%	22.0%	15.8%	17.9%	15.7%	15.2%	14.8%	15.5%
Obesity class II, %	5.5%	6.7%	5.6%	5.0%	4.7%	5.5%	7.7%	10.1%	7.4%	6.9%	6.7%	7.6%
WC, cm	96.6 (11.1)	97.0 (12.0)	96.2 (11.4)	96.2 (11.0)	96.4 (10.7)	97.3 (10.5)	84.5 (12.4)	86.0 (13.1)	84.2 (12.3)	83.9 (12.1)	83.8 (12.1)	84.6 (12.2)
<94cm(M); <80cm(W)	45.3%	44.8%	47.5%	46.6%	46.0%	41.8%	42.5%	37.9%	43.2%	44.1%	44.4%	42.1%
94-102cm(M); 80-88cm(W)	25.4%	23.7%	24.5%	25.4%	25.7%	27.2%	21.9%	21.3%	21.8%	21.9%	22.1%	22.3%
≥102cm(M); ≥88cm(W)	29.4%	31.5%	28.1%	28.0%	28.3%	30.9%	35.6%	40.8%	34.9%	34.0%	33.5%	35.6%
%BF	25.1 (5.8)	25.8 (6.1)	25.2 (5.9)	25.0 (5.7)	24.8 (5.6)	24.7 (5.5)	36.4 (6.9)	37.5 (7.0)	36.5 (6.9)	36.4 (6.8)	36.1 (6.8)	36.0 (6.9)
≤20%(M); ≤30%(W)	18.3%	16.5%	18.2%	18.8%	19.1%	18.9%	17.6%	14.4%	17.2%	17.5%	18.7%	19.5%
20-25%(M); 30-33%(W)	30.9%	27.5%	30.3%	31.0%	32.1%	33.1%	12.8%	11.2%	13.0%	12.8%	13.5%	13.4%
>25%(M); >33%(W)	50.8%	56.0%	51.5%	50.2%	48.8%	47.9%	69.6%	74.4%	69.8%	69.7%	67.8%	67.1%
Fat free mass, kg	63.8 (7.8)	61.0 (8.0)	62.3 (7.5)	63.3 (7.3)	64.5 (7.1)	67.3 (7.4)	44.5 (5.0)	43.4 (5.2)	43.7 (4.8)	44.0 (4.7)	44.8 (4.7)	46.3 (4.9)
Systolic blood pressure, mm Hg	140.9 (17.3)	139.2 (17.7)	139.8 (17.2)	141.1 (17.4)	142.0 (17.2)	142.3 (16.9)	135.0 (19.2)	134.3 (19.2)	133.8 (19.2)	135.2 (19.3)	135.1 (19.0)	136.1(19.1)

Diastolic blood pressure, mm Hg	84.3 (9.9)	83.2 (10.1)	83.8 (10.0)	84.3 (9.9)	84.8 (9.9)	85.4 (9.8)	80.7 (10.0)	80.2 (10.0)	80.1 (10.0)	80.5 (9.9)	80.8 (9.9)	81.5 (9.9)
Hypertension, %	61.1%	60.3%	58.7%	60.9%	62.4%	62.8%	47.7%	49.3%	46.0%	47.9%	46.8%	48.6%
Diabetes, %	6.1%	9.7%	6.5%	5.8%	4.9%	4.1%	3.4%	5.4%	3.6%	3.1%	2.8%	2.6%

Note: The quintiles of grip strength were gender- and age-specific. Body Mass Index (BMI) was used to categorize participants into normal weight ($18.5\text{kg/m}^2 \leq \text{BMI} < 25\text{kg/m}^2$), overweight ($25\text{kg/m}^2 \leq \text{BMI} < 30\text{kg/m}^2$), obesity class I ($30\text{kg/m}^2 \leq \text{BMI} < 35\text{kg/m}^2$) and obesity class II ($\text{BMI} \geq 35\text{kg/m}^2$). Hypertension was defined as systolic/diastolic blood pressure $\geq 140/90\text{mm Hg}$, reported physician diagnosis of hypertension, or reported medication use to regulate blood pressure. Participants were considered to have diabetes if they reported a physician diagnosis of diabetes, or taking glucose-lowering treatment.

Table 2. Independent associations of grip strength with all-cause and cardiovascular disease (CVD) mortality.

						Hazard ratios (95% confidence interval) for mortality					
Mortality outcome	Gender	Comparisons	Number of deaths	Person-years of follow-up	Mortality rate	Model 1	Model 2a	Model 2b	Model 2c		
All-cause	Men		5,049	1,268,314	398.1						
		Quintiles of grip strength									
		Q1 (Reference)	1,389	241,358	575.5	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)		
		Q2	933	232,139	401.9	0.80 (0.73, 0.87)	0.81 (0.75, 0.88)	0.80 (0.73, 0.87)	0.80 (0.73, 0.87)		
		Q3	920	253,118	363.5	0.71 (0.65, 0.77)	0.72 (0.66, 0.78)	0.70 (0.65, 0.77)	0.71 (0.65, 0.77)		
		Q4	972	268,240	362.4	0.72 (0.66, 0.78)	0.73 (0.67, 0.79)	0.72 (0.66, 0.78)	0.72 (0.66, 0.78)		
		Q5	835	273,460	305.3	0.67 (0.62, 0.73)	0.68 (0.62, 0.74)	0.67 (0.61, 0.73)	0.67 (0.62, 0.74)		
		<i>P for linear trend</i>					<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	
		Per 5kg increment in grip strength					0.91 (0.90, 0.93)	0.92 (0.90, 0.93)	0.91 (0.90, 0.93)	0.91 (0.90, 0.93)	
			Women		3,238	1,533,538	211.1				
		Quintiles of grip strength									
		Q1 (Reference)	746	270,638	275.6	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)		
		Q2	652	274,981	237.1	0.96 (0.86, 1.06)	0.97 (0.87, 1.08)	0.97 (0.87, 1.07)	0.96 (0.86, 1.06)		
Q3	656	316,838	207.0	0.81 (0.73, 0.90)	0.82 (0.74, 0.91)	0.82 (0.74, 0.91)	0.81 (0.73, 0.90)				

Q4	592	323,506	182.0	0.79 (0.71, 0.88)	0.80 (0.72, 0.89)	0.80 (0.71, 0.89)	0.79 (0.71, 0.88)
Q5	592	347,576	170.3	0.74 (0.67, 0.83)	0.75 (0.67, 0.84)	0.74 (0.67, 0.83)	0.74 (0.67, 0.83)
<i>P for linear trend</i>				<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<.0001
Per 5kg increment in grip strength				0.91 (0.89, 0.94)	0.92 (0.89, 0.95)	0.91 (0.89, 0.94)	0.91 (0.89, 0.94)

CVD	Men	1,256	1,268,314	99.0			
Quintiles of grip strength							
	Q1 (Reference)	373	241,358	154.5	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)
	Q2	246	232,139	106.0	0.81 (0.69, 0.96)	0.82 (0.70, 0.97)	0.81 (0.69, 0.96)
	Q3	222	253,118	87.7	0.66 (0.56, 0.78)	0.67 (0.56, 0.79)	0.67 (0.57, 0.79)
	Q4	235	268,240	87.6	0.68 (0.58, 0.81)	0.69 (0.58, 0.81)	0.69 (0.58, 0.82)
	Q5	180	273,460	65.8	0.58 (0.48, 0.69)	0.57 (0.47, 0.68)	0.58 (0.48, 0.70)
<i>P for linear trend</i>				<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001
Per 5kg increment in grip strength				0.88 (0.84, 0.91)	0.88 (0.85, 0.91)	0.88 (0.85, 0.91)	0.88 (0.86, 0.92)
	Women	485	1,533,538	31.6			
Quintiles of grip strength							
	Q1 (Reference)	122	270,638	45.1	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)	1.00 (Reference)
	Q2	98	274,981	35.6	0.93 (0.72, 1.22)	0.93 (0.71, 1.21)	0.94 (0.72, 1.23)

Q3	89	316,838	28.1	0.73 (0.56, 0.97)	0.72 (0.55, 0.95)	0.75 (0.57, 0.99)	0.74 (0.56, 0.97)
Q4	92	323,506	28.4	0.85 (0.65, 1.12)	0.83 (0.63, 1.10)	0.86 (0.65, 1.13)	0.85 (0.65, 1.12)
Q5	84	347,576	24.2	0.74 (0.56, 0.98)	0.73 (0.55, 0.97)	0.74 (0.56, 0.98)	0.74 (0.56, 0.98)
<i>P for linear trend</i>				0.028	0.021	0.021	0.027
Per 5kg increment in grip strength				0.93 (0.87, 0.99)	0.93 (0.86, 1.01)	0.94 (0.87, 1.01)	0.94 (0.87, 1.01)

Note: All Cox regression models used age as the underlying time variable. The quintiles of grip strength were gender- and age-specific. Mortality rate is crude mortality rate per 100,000-person years

Model 1: Adjusted for ethnicity (White, mixed, Asian/Asian British, Black/Black British, others), smoking status (never, previous, current), employment (unemployed, employed), Townsend Deprivation Index, statin use (yes/no), hormone replacement therapy (yes/no; women only), alcohol consumption (never, previous, currently <3times/week, currently ≥3times/week), processed/red meat consumption (days/week), resting pulse rate (beats/min), and moderate-to-vigorous physical activity time (minutes/day).

Model 2a: Adjusted for all confounders included in Model 1 plus body mass index. Cases with BMI<18.5 (n=369 for men; n=1,525 for women) were excluded.

Model 2b: Adjusted for all confounders included in Model 1 plus waist circumference.

Model 2c: Adjusted for all confounders included in Model 1 plus percent body fat.

Figure Legends

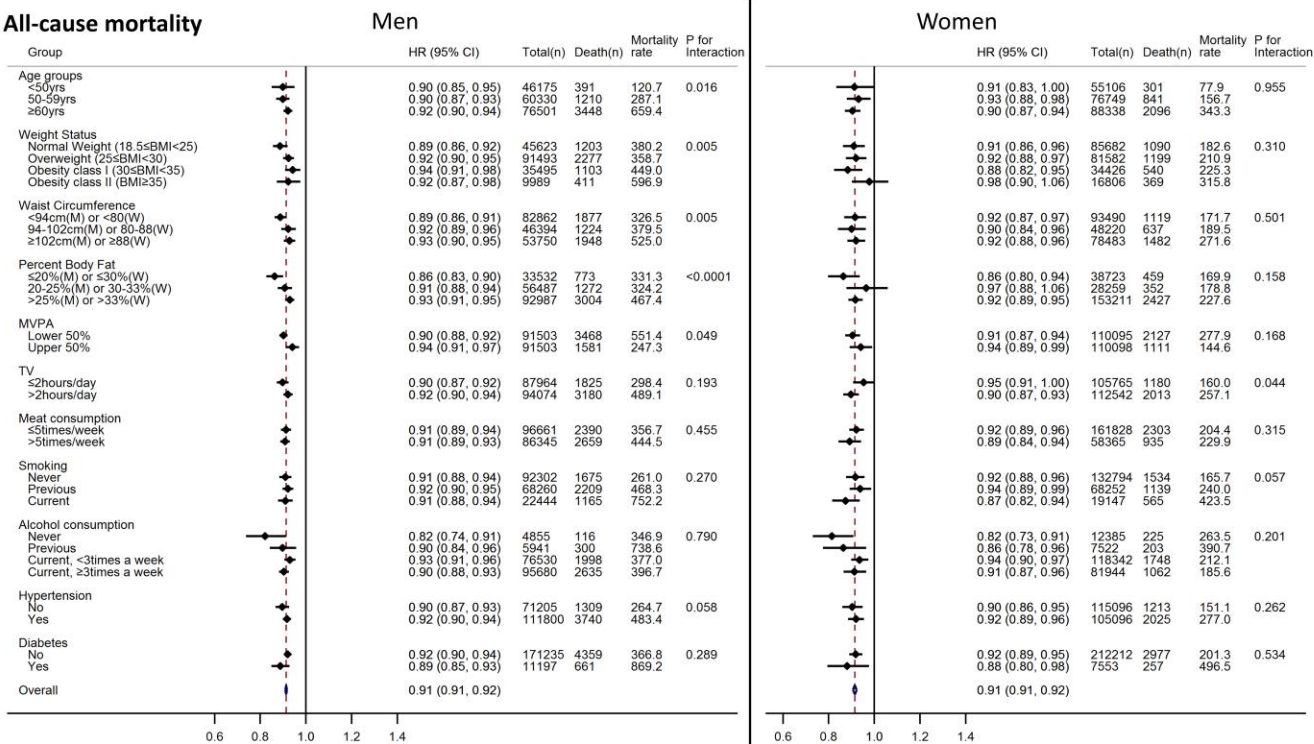
Figure 1. Associations of per-5kg increment of grip strength with all-cause and cardiovascular disease (CVD) mortality for men and women. Models (using age as the underlying time variable) were adjusted for ethnicity (White, mixed, Asian/Asian British, Black/Black British, others), smoking status (never, previous, current; except for models stratified by smoking status), employment (unemployed, employed), Townsend Deprivation Index, statin use (yes/no), hormone replacement therapy (yes/no; women only), alcohol consumption (never, previous, currently <3times/week, currently \geq 3times/week; except for models stratified by alcohol consumption), processed/red meat consumption (days/week; except for models stratified by processed/red meat consumption), resting pulse rate (beats/min), moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) time (minutes/day; except for models stratified by MVPA), and body mass index (BMI) (except for models stratified by BMI, waist circumference and percent body fat). Hypertension was defined as systolic/diastolic blood pressure \geq 140/90mm Hg, reported physician diagnosis of hypertension, or reported medication use to regulate blood pressure. Participants were considered to have diabetes if they reported a physician diagnosis of diabetes, or taking glucose-lowering treatment. Mortality rate is crude mortality rate per 100,000-person years. Cases with BMI<18.5 (n=369 for men; n=1,525 for women) were excluded in the BMI-stratified models. Abbreviations: HR – hazard ratio; CI – confidence interval; M – men; W– Women.

Figure 2. Joint associations of grip strength and body mass index, waist circumference or percent body fat with all-cause mortality for men and women. All Cox regression models (using age as the underlying time variable) were adjusted for ethnicity (White, mixed, Asian/Asian British, Black/Black British, others), smoking status (never, previous, current), employment

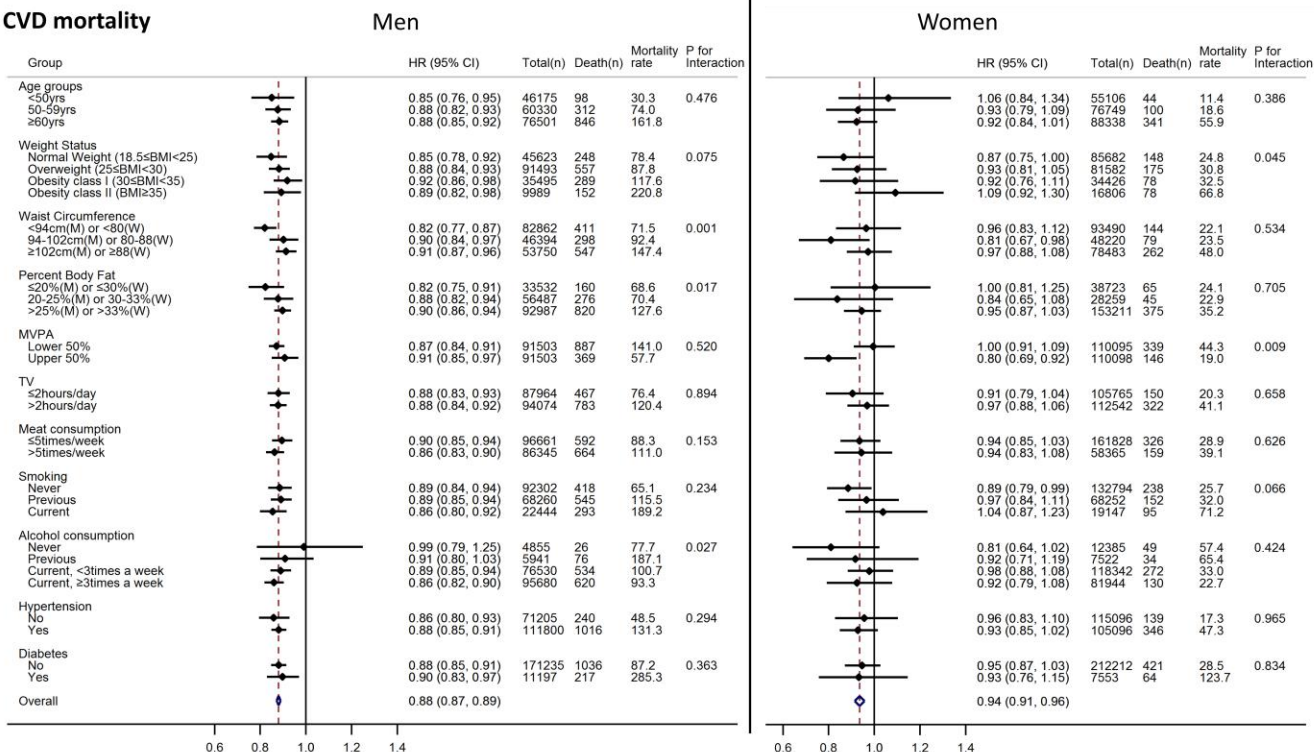
(unemployed, employed), Townsend Deprivation Index, statin use (yes/no), hormone replacement therapy (yes/no; women only), alcohol consumption (never, previous, currently <3times/week, currently \geq 3times/week), processed/red meat consumption (days/week), resting pulse rate (beats/min), and moderate-to-vigorous physical activity time (minutes/day). The quintiles of grip strength were gender- and age-specific. Mortality rate is crude mortality rate per 100,000-person years. Cases with BMI<18.5 (n=369 for men; n=1,525 for women) were excluded in the models with BMI. Abbreviations: HR – hazard ratio; CI – confidence interval; M – men; W– Women.

Figure 3. Joint associations of grip strength and body mass index, waist circumference or percent body fat with cardiovascular disease (CVD) mortality for men and women. All Cox regression models (using age as the underlying time variable) were adjusted for ethnicity (White, mixed, Asian/Asian British, Black/Black British, others), smoking status (never, previous, current), employment (unemployed, employed), Townsend Deprivation Index, statin use (yes/no), hormone replacement therapy (yes/no; women only), alcohol consumption (never, previous, currently <3times/week, currently \geq 3times/week), processed/red meat consumption (days/week), resting pulse rate (beats/min), and moderate-to-vigorous physical activity time (minutes/day). The quintiles of grip strength were gender- and age-specific. Mortality rate is crude mortality rate per 100,000-person years. Cases with BMI<18.5 (n=369 for men; n=1,525 for women) were excluded in the models with BMI. Abbreviations: HR – hazard ratio; CI – confidence interval; M – men; W– Women.

A. All-cause mortality

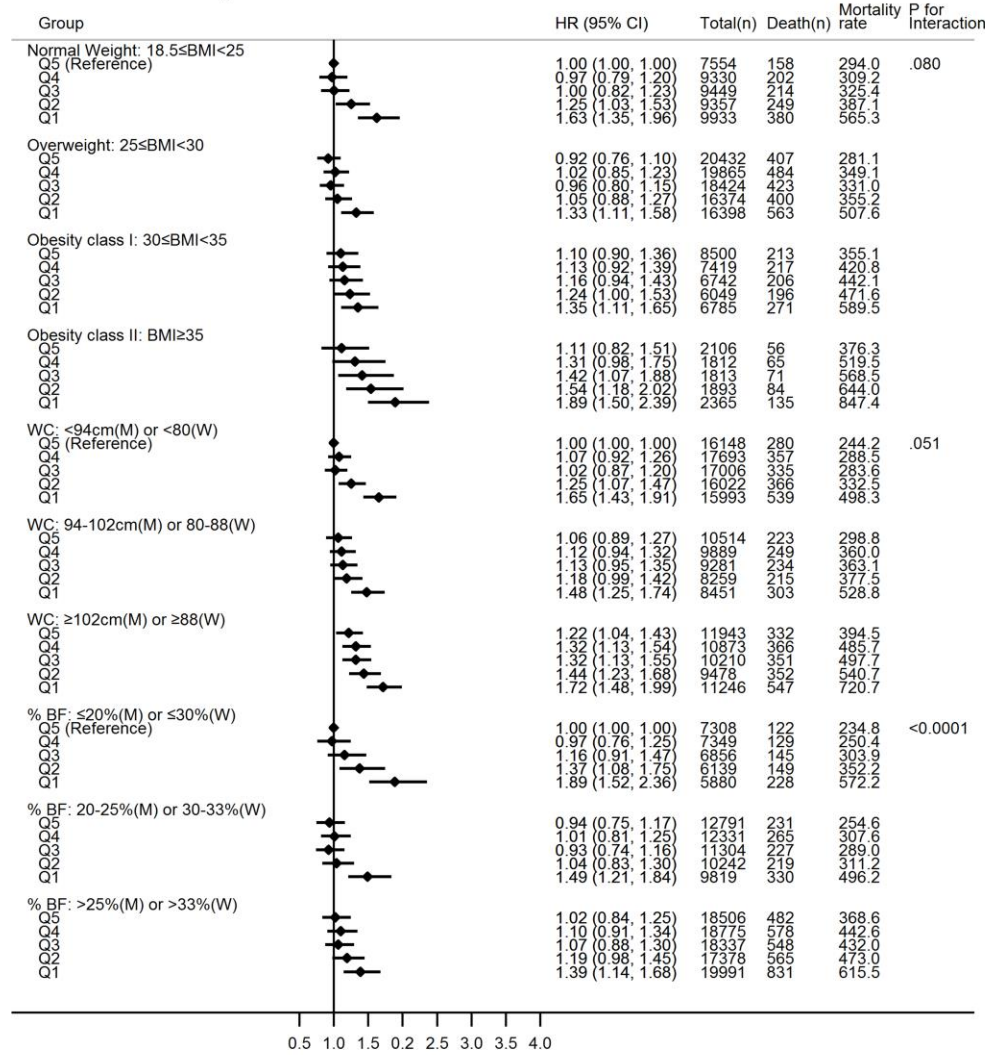


B. CVD mortality

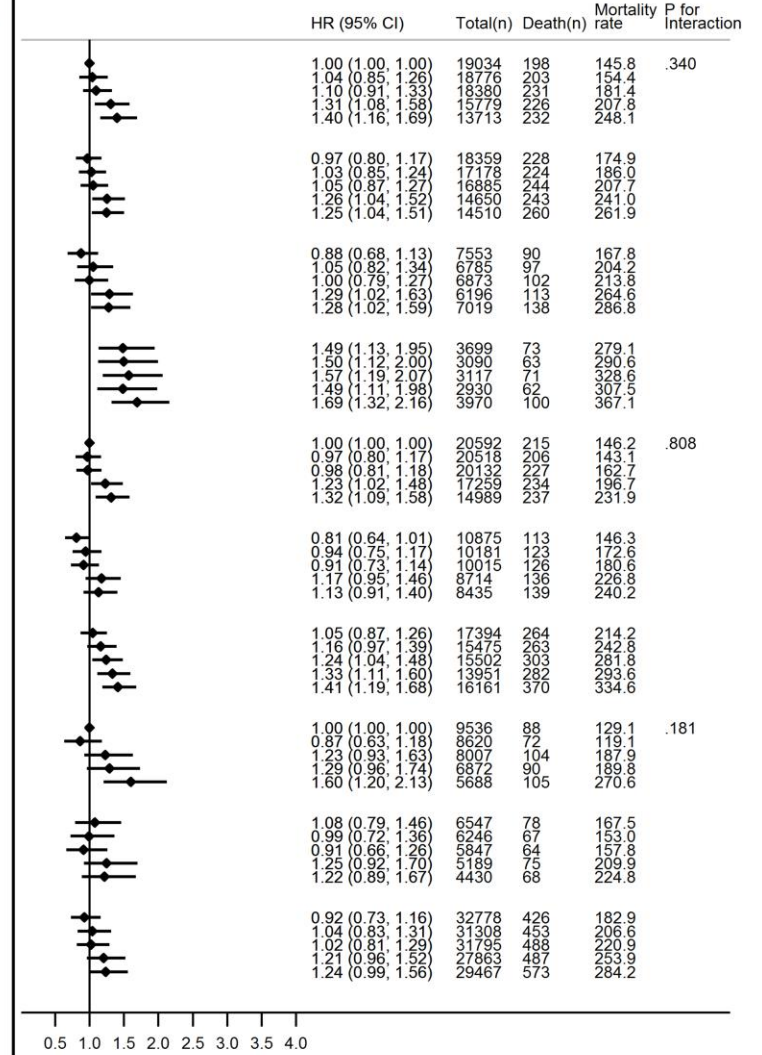


All-cause mortality

Men

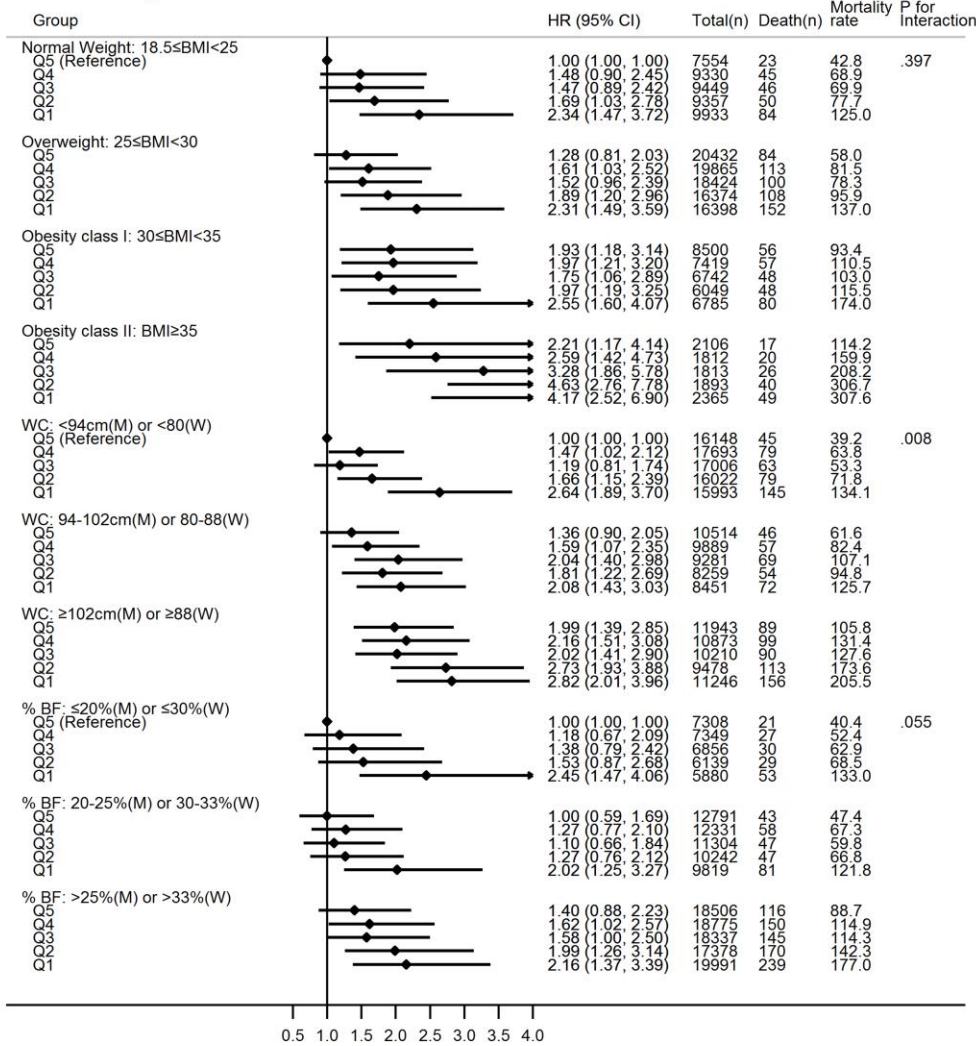


Women



CVD mortality

Men



Women

