

1 **Comparison of methods to identify individuals with obesity at increased risk of**  
2 **functional impairment among a population of home-dwelling older adults.**

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25

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28 **Abbreviations used:** HGS: Handgrip strength; BIA: Bioelectrical impedance analysis; DXA:

29 Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry, WC: Waist circumference; FM: Fat mass FM%:

30 Percentage body fat mass, FFM: Fat free mass; BMI: Body mass index; SPBB: The Short  
31 Physical Performance Test

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34

## 35 **Abstract**

36 Obesity is associated with increased muscle mass and muscle strength. Methods taking into  
37 account the total body mass to reveal obese older individuals at increased risk of functional  
38 impairment are needed. Therefore, we aimed to detect methods to identify obese older adults  
39 at increased risk of functional impairment. Home-dwelling older adults (n 417,  $\geq 70$  years of  
40 age) were included in this cross-sectional study. Gender-specific cut-off points for two  
41 obesity phenotypes (waist circumference [WC] and body fat mass [FM %]) were used to  
42 divide women and men into obese and non-obese groups, and within-gender comparisons  
43 were performed. Obese women and men, classified by both phenotypes, had similar absolute  
44 handgrip strength (HGS), but lower relative HGS (HGS/total body mass) ( $P < 0.001$ ) than  
45 non-obese women and men, respectively. Women with increased WC and FM %, and men  
46 with increased WC had higher appendicular skeletal muscle mass ( $P < 0.001$ ), lower muscle  
47 quality (HGS/upper appendicular muscle mass) ( $P < 0.001$ ) and spent longer time on the stair  
48 climb test and the repeated sit-to stand test ( $P < 0.05$ ) than non-obese women and men,  
49 respectively. Absolute muscle strength was not able to discriminate between obese and non-  
50 obese older adults. However, relative muscle strength in particular, but also muscle quality  
51 and physical performance tests, where the total body mass was taken into account or served as  
52 an extra load, identified obese older adults at increased risk of functional impairment.  
53 Prospective studies are needed to determine clinically relevant cut-off points for relative HGS  
54 in particular.

55

## 56 **Introduction**

57 Aging and inactivity are associated with loss of muscle mass, muscle strength and muscle  
58 quality<sup>(1-4)</sup>. Obesity and low muscle strength are strong predictors of functional decline  
59 among older adults<sup>(5)</sup>, and serious health consequences such as limitations in daily living  
60 activities<sup>(6)</sup>, disability, risk of falling, fracture and mortality<sup>(7,8)</sup>. Aging is characterized by  
61 changes in body composition where loss of muscle mass is often accompanied by increased  
62 fat mass. Age-related changes in body composition also include fat redistribution, with  
63 reduction in peripheral subcutaneous fat and increased visceral fat, and fat deposition in non-  
64 adipose tissue such as e.g. skeletal muscles<sup>(3,9)</sup>. Along with the rising number of older adults  
65 aged above 65 years, the prevalence of obesity among older adults is expected to increase  
66<sup>(10,11)</sup>. Obesity, excessive accumulation of body fat, is associated with higher muscle mass<sup>(12-</sup>  
67<sup>14)</sup>, suggesting that the strength production capacity is higher in obese than non-obese  
68 individuals<sup>(15-17)</sup>. Additionally, since obesity is related to reduced muscle function and

69 mobility limitation <sup>(18–20)</sup>, muscle strength and physical performance tests where the total body  
70 mass is taken into account or serve as an extra load, may be useful tests to identify obese  
71 individuals at increased risk of functional impairment

72 Handgrip strength (HGS) is widely used as an indicator of overall muscle strength,  
73 especially among older people <sup>(21)</sup>. Low HGS in older adults has consistently been linked to  
74 poor health outcomes such as long-term disability onset, low quality of life <sup>(22,23)</sup>, functional  
75 decline and mortality <sup>(24)</sup>. However, in individuals with obesity, where fat mass serves as an  
76 extra load while moving, a limitation with measuring the absolute HGS is the reduced ability  
77 to reflect the actual physical performance capacity. Relative HGS (HGS/total body mass) has  
78 been suggested as a more sensitive method than absolute HGS to discriminate between obese  
79 and non-obese older adults at risk of impaired physical performance <sup>(25)</sup>. Further, muscle  
80 quality, defined as the ratio of muscle strength or power per unit muscle mass <sup>(26)</sup> is another  
81 suggested parameter to identify muscle function in older adults, and the use of muscle quality  
82 is expected to grow in importance <sup>(27,28)</sup>.

83 To prevent negative health outcomes and to enable older adults to remain living  
84 independently in their homes, effective and low-cost strategies to early identify functional  
85 impairment related to obesity are needed. In the present study, we aimed to detect methods to  
86 identify obese older adults at increased risk of functional impairment. By using two common  
87 phenotype definitions of obesity, we wanted to compare muscle strength (absolute HGS,  
88 relative HGS, and stair climb test), muscle quality (absolute HGS/upper body appendicular  
89 skeletal muscle mass) and physical performance (balance test, repeated sit-to-stand test, and  
90 gait speed) between obese and non-obese home-dwelling older adults.

91

## 92 **Methods**

### 93 *Participants*

94 The present study was conducted in 2014-15 at Oslo and Akershus University College of  
95 Applied Sciences, Norway. Invitation letters were sent to home-dwelling women and men ( $\geq$   
96 70 years) living in the area of Skedsmo, Norway, listed in the National Population Register. In  
97 total, 2860 older adults ( $\geq$  70 years of age) were invited to participate, of which 477 (17%)  
98 responded to the invitation and thus 438 (16%) participated. One participant withdrew the  
99 informed consent. Bioimpedance analyzer (BIA) measurements were only available in 417  
100 individuals, thus 417 were included in this study. There were no exclusion criteria. Cognitive  
101 health and nutritional status were measured using the Mini-Mental State Examination  
102 (MMSE) test form and the Mini Nutritional Assessment form<sup>®</sup> (MNA), respectively. Both

103 the MMSE and MNA have a maximal score of 30 points, and high scores indicate a high  
104 cognitive function and good nutritional status, respectively. In a previous study, data on  
105 cognitive health (MMSE-score), nutritional status (MNA-score), co-morbidities and dietary  
106 intake (2 x 24 hour dietary recall method) in the same study population (n 417) have been  
107 shown <sup>(29)</sup>. The data included in the current study were obtained from a cross-sectional study  
108 which served as a screening visit for a randomized controlled study (Clinicaltrials.gov, ID no.  
109 NCT02218333) <sup>(30)</sup>. The present study was conducted according to the guidelines in the  
110 Declaration of Helsinki and all procedures involving human subjects were approved by the  
111 Regional Committees for Medical and Health Research Ethics, Health Region South East,  
112 Norway (2014/150/REK). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.  
113 Extracts from the National Population Registry were used according to, and with approval by  
114 the Norwegian Tax Administration.

115

### 116 ***Study design***

117 In this cross-sectional study, gender-specific cut-off points for two obesity phenotypes (waist  
118 circumference [WC] and percentage of body fat [FM %]) were used to create groups that  
119 allowed within-gender comparisons of muscle strength, muscle mass, muscle quality and  
120 physical performance between obese and non-obese. For women the cut-off points were >  
121 35 % FM and  $\geq 88$  cm (obese) or  $\leq 35$  % and < 88 cm (non-obese). For men the cut-off points  
122 were > 25 % FM and  $\geq 102$  cm (obese) or  $\leq 25$  % and < 102 cm (non-obese) <sup>(31)</sup>.

123

### 124 ***Body composition and waist circumference***

125 Body composition was measured by a single frequency BIA (BC-418 MA, Tanita Corp.,  
126 Tokyo Japan), operating at 50 kHz, providing measurements of fat-free mass (FFM), body fat  
127 mass (FM) and FM % for the whole body. The participants were standing barefoot on the  
128 instrument platform. Four pairs of electrodes were positioned at each hand and foot, in which  
129 the low-voltage current entered the limbs. Appendicular skeletal muscle mass was derived  
130 from the sum of the fat-free mass of the four limbs based on equations incorporated in the  
131 software by the manufacturer. In-house validation of BIA against dual-energy X-ray  
132 absorptiometry (DXA) was performed in 47 individuals of the current study population,  
133 showing comparable estimates of appendicular skeletal muscle mass measured with BIA on  
134 group level. Between-day CV % (SD/mean) of the BIA measurement of fat-free mass was  
135 calculated in a subgroup (n 46). Each subject was measured twice, on separate days. The  
136 between day CV % was 1.8 %. To identify subjects with low appendicular skeletal muscle

137 mass, gender specific cut-off points (< 15 kg in women and < 20 kg in men) were used <sup>(28,32)</sup>.  
138 WC (centimeters) was measured with the use of a measuring band in standing position with  
139 arms hanging loosely, and on exhalation at the midpoint between the top of the iliac crest and  
140 the lower margin of the last palpable rib. The measurement was performed with the abdomen  
141 relaxed at the end of expiration <sup>(33)</sup>.

142

### 143 *Muscle strength, muscle quality and physical performance*

144 HGS of both hands was measured using a digital handheld dynamometer (KE-MAP80K1,  
145 Kern MAP, Elstra, Germany). Participants were placed in a sitting position, elbow in 90°  
146 flexion and wrist in a neutral position. The participants were asked to squeeze the  
147 dynamometer as hard as possible simultaneously by breathing out. The maximal HGS of three  
148 measurements was registered from each hand. Absolute HGS was defined as the maximal  
149 HGS, regardless of dominant or non-dominant hand. Low absolute HGS was defined as < 16  
150 kg in women and < 27 kg in men <sup>(28,34)</sup>. Relative HGS was defined as the absolute HGS  
151 (kg)/total body mass (kg). Upper body muscle quality was calculated by absolute HGS/upper  
152 body appendicular skeletal muscle mass <sup>(26,35–38)</sup>. As described elsewhere, in a subgroup of 47  
153 participants the between-day CV of absolute handgrip strength was 5.0 % <sup>(29)</sup>. Low muscle  
154 quality was defined as muscle quality < 5.475 in women and < 5.760 in men (36). The stair  
155 climb test (16 steps, 18 cm height) has been found to be a relevant measure of leg power  
156 (force and speed) impairments <sup>(39)</sup>. The test was performed where each participant was given  
157 two attempts with at least two minutes rest in between, and the best performance was  
158 registered. The time was recorded to the nearest 100th of a second. No cut-off points for slow  
159 stair climb exits. The Short Physical Performance Battery (SPPB) tests (balance test, repeated  
160 sit-to-stand test and gait speed) were performed according to the SPPB protocol <sup>(40)</sup>.  
161 According to SPPB, Scores of 0-4 of the three tests were summed to give a maximal total  
162 score of 12 points, and a total score ≤ 8 points indicates poor physical performance. To  
163 describe subjects with reduced muscle strength in the lower body and reduced gait speed, cut-  
164 off points for the repeated sit-to-stand test (> 15.0 sec) and gait speed (≤ 0.8 m/sec) were used  
165 <sup>(28)</sup>.

166

167 ***Statistic***

168 All continuous normally distributed data were presented as mean (standard deviation, SD),  
169 not normally distributed data were presented as median (25-75 percentiles) and categorical  
170 data as number and percentage. For continuous variables, independent sample t-test or Mann-  
171 Whitney U test were used in normally distributed and not normally distributed data,  
172 respectively, and for categorical variables, the chi-square test was used. Cohen's kappa ( $\kappa$ )  
173 was used to determine the agreement between the two phenotypes (WC and FM%) of obesity  
174 used to define women and men as either obese or non-obese. The level of significance was  
175 defined as  $P < 0.05$ . All analysis were performed using SPSS for Windows (version 26.0;  
176 SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

177  
178 **Results**

179 ***Characteristic of the study population***

180 In this study, 417 community-dwelling older women (n =217, 52 %) aged 74 (71-77) years,  
181 and men (n = 200, 48 %) aged 78 (74-82) years were included. The MMSE and MNA scores  
182 were skewed towards high values, and the median scores were 28 (26-30) and 28 (27-29) in  
183 women, and 29 (26-30) and 28 (27-29) in men, respectively. As shown in **Table 1**, using WC  
184 and FM % to define obesity, 59 % and 62 % of the women, respectively, were obese. In men,  
185 38 % and 49 % were defined as obese, respectively. Agreement between WC and FM %  
186 classification was  $\kappa = 0.62$  (95% CI 0.51-0.73)  $P < 0.001$  in women and  $\kappa = 0.54$  (95% CI 0.43-  
187 0.65)  $P < 0.001$  in men. Mean (SD) absolute HGS was 21.8 (4.7) kg in women, and 38.1 (7.0)  
188 kg in men. Few women and men had low absolute HGS (7 % and 6 %, respectively), low  
189 SPPB score (6 % and 8 %, respectively) and low appendicular skeletal muscle mass (7 % and  
190 8 %, respectively). Despite this, low muscle quality was observed in 64 % and 34 % of the  
191 women and men, respectively. Data on relative HGS, muscle quality, physical performance  
192 and body composition in women and men are further outlined in Table 1.

193  
194 ***Body composition, muscle strength, muscle quality and physical performance***

195 As shown in **Table 2**, older women with obesity defined by increased WC or FM %, had  
196 significantly higher appendicular skeletal muscle mass, but similar absolute HGS than non-  
197 obese women. However, the obese women had significantly lower relative HGS and muscle  
198 quality, and they spent significantly longer time performing the stair climb test and the  
199 repeated sit-to-stand test than the non-obese women (Table 2). As shown in **Table 3**, obese  
200 men defined by WC or FM % had similar absolute HGS, but lower relative HGS compared to

201 non-obese men. Further, obese men defined by WC had higher appendicular skeletal muscle  
202 mass, lower muscle quality, spent longer time on the stair climb test and the repeated sit-to-  
203 stand test than the non-obese men. The only difference between obese and non-obese men  
204 defined by FM % was lower relative HGS among obese men.

205

## 206 **Discussion**

207 In the present study, where home-dwelling older adults had high cognitive function  
208 and good nutritional status, we show that the absolute muscle strength was not able to  
209 discriminate between obese and non-obese older adults. However, relative muscle strength in  
210 particular, but also muscle quality and physical performance tests where the total body mass  
211 was taken into account or served as an extra load, identified the obese older adults at  
212 increased risk of functional impairment.

213 Obesity is associated with higher fat mass and muscle mass <sup>(12–14,41)</sup>, and HGS  
214 produced by obese individuals is higher than in non-obese <sup>(16,17)</sup>. HGS is widely used for the  
215 measurement of muscle strength, and cut-off points for low HGS has been lowered by the  
216 European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People (EWGSOP) <sup>(28)</sup> compared to  
217 previous recommendations <sup>(42)</sup>. Thus, the probability to misclassify obese individuals has  
218 increased. To identify obese older individuals with low muscle strength, the total body mass  
219 must also be taken into account. Further, this may incorrectly lead to the suggestion that the  
220 actual muscle strength in obese individuals is sufficient. The present study shows that obese  
221 and non-obese older adults had similar absolute HGS, but the obese individuals had poorer  
222 physical performance where total body mass served as an extra load (repeated sit-to-stand and  
223 stair climb tests) than the non-obese. Even though absolute HGS is a highly efficient  
224 screening tool <sup>(43)</sup>, it may misclassify individuals as it only accounts for ~ 40% of the variance  
225 in lower body strength <sup>(44)</sup>. Thus, caution should be taken into account when estimating  
226 overall strength from absolute HGS in obese individuals and from one single measurement  
227 tool <sup>(45–47)</sup>. Since strength production capacity relative to body mass was lower among the  
228 obese than non-obese, it may indicate that relative HGS is a more sensitive method than  
229 absolute HGS to identify obese older adults at the risk of functional impairment. Furthermore,  
230 relative HGS has been associated with cardiometabolic disease risk factors <sup>(48–50)</sup>. Currently,  
231 no population specific cut-off points for low relative HGS exist. Future prospective studies  
232 are needed to establish gender specific cut-off points that predicts clinically relevant impaired  
233 muscle function.

234 Despite finding a higher appendicular skeletal muscle mass in obese compared to non-  
235 obese individuals, differences were not observed in absolute HGS between the two groups. It  
236 is well known that obesity leads to fat infiltration into muscle tissue, causing decline in  
237 muscle strength to a greater extent than loss of muscle mass <sup>(2)</sup>. Previous studies in older  
238 adults have shown that increased fat mass contributes to a deterioration of muscle strength  
239 and lower absolute HGS <sup>(51,52)</sup>. Muscle quality, expressing muscle strength relative to muscle  
240 mass, declines with age and obesity <sup>(14,53)</sup>, and marked inter-individual differences in rates of  
241 loss have been reported <sup>(26,35,54)</sup>. In accordance with previous studies, lower muscle quality  
242 was observed in obese women and men, which may explain the lack of differences in absolute  
243 HGS between obese and non-obese individuals <sup>(14,55)</sup>. By definition, muscle quality provides a  
244 good indication of muscle function. However, muscle quality referring both to micro- and  
245 macroscopic changes in muscle architecture and composition <sup>(27,56)</sup> and may thus be  
246 technically difficult to measure accurately <sup>(27,57-59)</sup>. Further, previous studies have shown that  
247 both muscle mass, obesity and age affect the relationship between muscle quality and physical  
248 function <sup>(54)</sup>. Consequently, despite similar values of muscle quality, obese individuals may  
249 have poorer muscle function than non-obese. Muscle quality measurement is suggested to  
250 grow in importance, but cut-off points for low values needs to be established and validation of  
251 muscle quality as an assessment tool is needed. However, since the active muscle mass may  
252 only be a small part of the total muscle mass, it is important to emphasize that both relative  
253 HGS and muscle quality estimated by absolute HGS/upper body muscle mass have  
254 limitations. Further, muscle quality (HGS/upper body muscle mass) would not necessarily be  
255 a good measure of overall muscle quality because the muscle mass may be differently  
256 distributed on the body. Thus, implementation of muscle quality as a screening measurement  
257 for functional impairment in older adults, especially among obese, should be done with  
258 caution.

259 Absolute HGS has traditionally been used as a measure of muscle strength in the  
260 assessment of muscle function in older adults. However, as previously shown, lower body  
261 strength may better reflect the functional capacity compared with absolute HGS, that are  
262 necessary for activities of daily living such as mobility, gait speed and stairs climbing <sup>(41,60,61)</sup>.  
263 In addition, although absolute HGS has been shown to strongly correlate with leg strength in  
264 older adults, absolute HGS does not provide valid results when evaluating the efficacy of  
265 exercise intervention programs to increase muscle mass or strength in an older population <sup>(47)</sup>.  
266 The repeated sit-to-stand and stair climb tests are widely used as lower extremity strength  
267 measurement <sup>(21,62)</sup>, and have been shown relevant measures of leg power impairments <sup>(39)</sup>.



268 Further, these methods take total body mass into account and are affected by muscle strength,  
269 dynamic balance and cardiorespiratory endurance, and thus represent overall physical  
270 performance rather than overall muscle strength <sup>(63,64)</sup>. The short gait speed test (4m), may not  
271 be as sensitive as repeated sit-to-stand and stair climb tests in older obese adults, but studies  
272 where longer walking distances have been used (20m and 500m) <sup>(65,66)</sup> show differences  
273 between the obese and non-obese. In a clinical context, repeated sit-to-stand test and stair  
274 climbing test are simple tests that could be easily implemented.

275 More women than men were classified as obese, and a substantial agreement between  
276 WC and FM % was observed among women. A moderate agreement between the methods  
277 was observed in men, and only obesity defined by WC identified individuals at increased risk  
278 for functional impairment. In a previous study, where the two obesity phenotypes WC and  
279 FM % were compared, WC were more sensitive to identify older adults at the risk of  
280 functional impairment than FM % <sup>(67)</sup>. However, in our study, more men were defined as  
281 obese by FM % than WC. Thus, the lower agreement between the obese-phenotypes in men  
282 than in women, could be explained by the cut-off point to define obesity by FM % in men is  
283 too low. Furthermore, WC is a surrogate measure of visceral adiposity and may reflect greater  
284 inflammatory potential <sup>(68)</sup> and insulin resistance <sup>(69)</sup>, which may contribute to progressive loss  
285 of muscle mass, muscle strength, and muscle quality <sup>(69-71)</sup>. In a clinical context, WC  
286 measurement may be preferred because it is easier to implement than FM %. Moreover,  
287 increased WC is associated with lower quality of life, a decline in physical function, and a  
288 slightly higher risk of disability over time <sup>(65)</sup>. Thus, WC has been suggested to be measured  
289 routinely in clinical practice <sup>(72)</sup>.

290 There are, however, some limitations in this study. Food intake and physical activity  
291 may affect BIA measurements. Due to practicalities, non-fasting measurement of body  
292 composition BIA was performed in this study. To reduce the effect of physical activity, all  
293 physical tests were performed after the BIA measurement was performed. However, the  
294 participants had no restrictions on physical activity the last 24 hours prior to the study visit.  
295 Thus, the non-fasting measurement and the activity level may thus have influenced the  
296 estimation of fat free mass and fat mass in our study. Whether this has contributed to the  
297 reduced agreement between WC and FM % is plausible, but uncertain. Furthermore, the  
298 majority of older adults had high SPPB score, and the study population included was  
299 relatively healthy having high cognitive function, adequate nutritional status and dietary  
300 intake, and only a few had severe inflammatory disease (9%) or respiratory diseases (5%) as  
301 further described elsewhere <sup>(29)</sup>. Despite this, we cannot exclude the possibility that diseases,

302 pain or motivation may have affected the ability to perform the physical tests in some  
303 individuals. Unfortunately, we were not able to reveal age-related intra-muscular changes  
304 which affect the muscle quality. The participants included in the present study had high  
305 muscle mass and physical performance, and thus, the results may not be generalized to obese  
306 older frail or sarcopenic older adults. A strength of the present study was the large number of  
307 participants, and the fact that several tests were included to assess body composition and  
308 muscle function.

309 In conclusion, methods to identify obese older adults with increased risk of functional  
310 impairment are needed. We show that neither muscle mass nor absolute muscle strength, was  
311 able to discriminate between obese and non-obese older adults at increased risk of functional  
312 impairment. However, relative muscle strength, muscle quality, and physical performance  
313 tests where body mass serves as an extra load, identified obese older adults with an increased  
314 risk of functional impairment. Relative HGS is a simple and an effective method that is easy  
315 to implement for routine clinical practice. Thus, prospective studies are needed to investigate  
316 clinically relevant cut-off points for relative HGS in relation to functional impairment in older  
317 adults.

318

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336 **Statement of authorship**

337 SMU, KBH and IO conceived and designed the study, LKLØ and IO conducted the research,  
338 and ALN and IO interpreted and performed statistical analysis. ALN, and IO wrote this paper  
339 and had the primary responsibility for the final content. All authors have critically reviewed  
340 the manuscript.

341

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**Table 1.** Antropometric measurements, muscle strength, -quality and physical performance in women and men.

	Women ( <i>n</i> 217)		Men ( <i>n</i> 200)	
	Mean/median/ <i>n</i>	SD/Q1-Q3/%	Mean/median/ <i>n</i>	SD/Q1-Q3/%
Waist circumference (cm)	91.4	12.5	99.2	10.3
women $\geq$ 88 cm, men $\geq$ 102 cm ( <i>n</i> )	128	59	75	38
Fat mass (%)	36.2	7.0	25.2	6.1
women $>$ 35%, men $>$ 25% ( <i>n</i> )	135	62	97	49
Absolute hand grip strength (kg) <sup>†</sup>	21.8	4.7	38.1	7.0
women $<$ 16 kg, men $<$ 27 kg ( <i>n</i> )	16	7	11	6
Relative handgrip strength (kg/kg) <sup>†</sup>	0.32	0.07	0.47	0.09
Muscle quality (kg/kg) <sup>†</sup>	5.2	1.0	6.2	1.0
women $<$ 5.475, men $<$ 5.760 ( <i>n</i> )	138	64	68	34
Appendicular skeletal muscle mass (kg)	17.8	2.6	24.3	3.3
women $<$ 15 kg, men $<$ 20 kg ( <i>n</i> )	16	7	15	8
Stair climb test (sec) <sup>‡</sup>	7.9	2.3	6.7	1.8
Repeated sit-to-stand test (sec) <sup>§</sup>	11.7	3.3	11.1	2.4
$>$ 15.0 sec ( <i>n</i> ) <sup>§</sup>	26	12	12	6
Gait speed (m/sec)	1.2	0.1	1.3	0.2
$\leq$ 0.8 m/sec ( <i>n</i> )	13	6	5	3
Balance test $<$ 10 sec ( <i>n</i> ) <sup>©</sup>	35	16	20	10
SPPB (score)	11	11-12	11	11-12
$\leq$ 8 points ( <i>n</i> )	13	6	8	4
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	26.3	4.5	26.0	3.5
$>$ 30 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ( <i>n</i> )	40	18	24	12
Fat free mass (kg)	43.5	5.6	60.0	7.2
Fat mass (kg)	25.7	8.7	20.8	7.2
Body weight (kg)	69.2	12.9	80.8	12.0

Height (cm)	162	6.0	176	6.5
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† Two women and four men missing.

‡ Three women missing.

\$ Two women missing.

¢ One women missing.

**Table 2. Absolute and relative handgrip strength, muscle quality and -mass, and physical performance in obese and non-obese older women.**

	FM % > 35 <i>n</i> 135	FM % ≤ 35 <i>n</i> 82	WC ≥ 88 cm <i>n</i> 128	WC < 88 cm <i>n</i> 89	<i>P</i> -value*	<i>P</i> -value**
Absolute HGS (kg)	21.7 (4.6) <sup>†</sup>	21.8 (4.9) <sup>†</sup>	22.1 (4.6) <sup>†</sup>	21.4 (4.7) <sup>†</sup>	0.89	0.27
Relative HGS (kg/kg)	0.29 (0.06) <sup>†</sup>	0.37 (0.08) <sup>†</sup>	0.29 (0.06) <sup>†</sup>	0.36 (0.08) <sup>†</sup>	< 0.001	<0.001
Muscle quality (kg/kg)	5.0 (0.1) <sup>†</sup>	5.5 (1.1) <sup>†</sup>	4.9 (0.9) <sup>†</sup>	5.5 (1.0) <sup>†</sup>	< 0.001	<0.001
Appendicular skeletal muscle mass (kg)	18.4 (2.5)	16.7 (2.4)	18.8 (2.6) <sup>†</sup>	16.3 (1.7) <sup>†</sup>	<0.001	<0.001
Stair climb test (sec)	8.2 (2.1) <sup>†</sup>	7.4 (2.5) <sup>†</sup>	8.3 (2.4) <sup>†</sup>	7.4 (2.1) <sup>†</sup>	0.01	0.01
Repeated sit-to-stand test (sec)	12.2 (3.5) <sup>†</sup>	11.0 (2.7)	12.2 (3.3) <sup>†</sup>	11.1 (3.2)	0.01	0.02
Gait speed (m/sec)	1.2 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.2 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	0.08	0.10

FM, Total body fat mass; WC, Waist circumference; HGS, Handgrip strength.

\* Between women with FM > 35 % vs ≤ 35%.

\*\* Between women with WC ≥ 88 cm vs < 88 cm.

<sup>†</sup> One missing.

<sup>‡</sup> Two missing.

**Table 3. Absolute and relative handgrip strength, muscle quality and -mass, and physical performance in obese and non-obese older men.**

	FM % > 25 <i>n</i> 97	FM % ≤ 25 <i>n</i> 103	WC ≥ 102 cm <i>n</i> 75	WC < 102 cm <i>n</i> 125	<i>P</i> -value*	<i>P</i> -value**
Absolute HGS (kg)	38.0 (6.8) <sup>†</sup>	38.1 (7.2) <sup>†</sup>	38.6 (6.7) <sup>†</sup>	37.7 (7.2) <sup>†</sup>	0.91	0.38
Relative HGS (kg/kg)	0.44 (0.08) <sup>†</sup>	0.50 (0.09) <sup>†</sup>	0.43 (0.07) <sup>†</sup>	0.50 (0.08) <sup>†</sup>	<0.001	<0.001
Muscle quality (kg/kg)	6.1 (0.9) <sup>†</sup>	6.3 (1.0) <sup>†</sup>	5.8 (0.8) <sup>†</sup>	6.5 (1.0) <sup>†</sup>	0.23	<0.001
Appendicular skeletal muscle mass (kg)	24.6 (3.4)	24.1 (3.2)	26.2 (2.8)	23.2 (3.1)	0.21	<0.001
Stair climb test (sec)	7.0 (1.9)	6.5 (1.8)	7.2 (1.9)	6.5 (1.7)	0.06	0.004
Repeated sit-to-stand test (sec)	11.1 (2.2)	11.1 (2.7)	11.6 (2.4)	10.8 (2.5)	0.96	0.04
Gait speed (m/sec)	1.3 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	1.3 (0.2)	0.30	0.63

FM, Total body fat mass; WC, Waist circumference; HGS, Handgrip strength.

\* Between men with FM > 25 % vs ≤ 25%.

\*\* Between women with WC ≥ 102 cm vs < 102 cm.

<sup>†</sup>Two missing.