

# Obesity and Metabolic Comorbidity in Bipolar Disorder: Do Patients on Lithium Comprise A Subgroup? A Naturalistic Study.

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## Research

**Keywords:** obesity, metabolic syndrome, lithium, bipolar disorder, medical comorbidity

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**Obesity and metabolic comorbidity in bipolar disorder:  
Do patients on lithium comprise a subgroup? A naturalistic study.**

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**Running Head:** Obesity & Metabolic Comorbidity in Bipolar

## **ABSTRACT**

**Background:** Bipolar disorders (BD) are associated with increased prevalence of obesity and metabolic syndrome (MetS). Nevertheless, there is a wide range in prevalence estimates, and little is known about the relative contributions of medications, especially lithium. We hypothesized that lithium use is not associated with increased body mass index (BMI), metabolic syndrome, and type II diabetes (DM II), when compared to non-lithium users (those on anticonvulsants (ACs) or second-generation antipsychotics (APs)).

**Methods:** Cross-sectional study of 129 patients aged 18-85 with bipolar disorder, followed at tertiary care clinics in Montreal. Patients using lithium were compared with those not on lithium, for body mass index and metabolic syndrome.

**Results:** The prevalence of obesity and MetS in the sample of lithium-using bipolar patients was 42.4% and 34.9%, respectively, with an average BMI of 29.10 (+/-6.70). Lithium and non-lithium groups did not differ in BMI or prevalence of MetS. However, compared to the non-lithium group, lithium users had lower hemoglobin A1C (5.24 +/- 0.53 versus 6.01 +/- 1.83, U=753.5, p=0.006) and lower triglycerides (1.46 +/- 0.88 versus 2.01 +/-1.25, U=947, p=0.020).

**Conclusions:** There is a high prevalence of obesity and metabolic syndrome among bipolar disorder patients. However, this did not appear to be associated with lithium use,

when compared to those not on lithium. The lithium subgroup was also associated with lower prevalence of type II diabetes. Future prospective and intervention studies with larger sample sizes are necessary to further explore the association between lithium and insulin resistance, as well as its underlying mechanisms.

**Key words:** obesity; metabolic syndrome; lithium; bipolar disorder; medical comorbidity

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**Keywords:** metabolic syndrome, obesity, lithium, insulin resistance

1 **INTRODUCTION**

2

3           Lithium remains a first-line therapy in bipolar disorder, with indications in acute  
4 mania, depression, and maintenance treatment<sup>1</sup>. Additionally, it is associated with unique  
5 anti-suicidal properties<sup>2</sup>. Despite this, lithium is often avoided for its adverse physical  
6 effects including reduced renal function, hypothyroidism, and hyperparathyroidism<sup>3</sup>.  
7 Lithium is also avoided for weight gain, though alternatives (especially SGAs quetiapine  
8 and olanzapine) are thought to be more detrimental in this regard<sup>4,5</sup>.

9

10           Among these adverse physical effects, weight gain is especially concerning, as it  
11 can lead to obesity. Obesity is a constituent of metabolic syndrome, a constellation of risk  
12 factors notably associated with cardiovascular disease and stroke<sup>6</sup>. Weight gain is further  
13 recognized in the literature as contributing to poor physical health and early mortality<sup>7</sup>,  
14 treatment non-adherence<sup>8</sup>, worsening psychiatric outcomes<sup>9</sup>, and elevated economic  
15 costs<sup>10</sup>. Mitigating obesity is highlighted in numerous consensus guidelines<sup>1,11</sup>, which  
16 state that body mass index, diabetes, and dyslipidemia be assessed at treatment baseline  
17 and then regular intervals thereafter.

18

19           While it is known that patients with a bipolar disorder are at an increased risk of  
20 obesity<sup>12</sup>, prevalence rates remain heterogeneous. Estimates range from 20-65% of  
21 patients with a bipolar disorder<sup>13</sup>. The same is true for metabolic syndrome, including  
22 waist circumference, diabetes, and dyslipidemia. Further, the relative contributions of the  
23 bipolar illness itself, aging, and mood-stabilizing medications (such as lithium) remain to

24 be clarified. A number of randomized clinical trials (RCTs) and cohort studies suggest  
25 that lithium causes less weight gain<sup>4,5,14-16</sup>. However, in these studies, BMI and metabolic  
26 effects are not reported as primary outcomes. These trials also include strict ‘treatment  
27 arms’ that do not reflect true clinical prescribing patterns (for example, medication  
28 combinations, augmentation, and polypharmacy).

29

30 The purpose of this study is to 1) estimate the prevalence of obesity and MetS  
31 amongst a cross-sectional sample of bipolar disorder patients. We will also 2) examine  
32 the prevalence of constituents of MetS, including BMI, waist circumference,  
33 hypertension, lipid profile, and diabetic screening tests. Finally, we will 3) assess whether  
34 there are any differences in these measures between lithium and non-lithium BD patients.  
35 We hypothesize that lithium users will have less medical comorbidity, including obesity,  
36 metabolic syndrome, and diabetes.

37

## 38 **MATERIALS and METHODS**

39

40 We combined data from two studies that examined physical comorbidity in  
41 bipolar patients. We have provided individual descriptions of the methods of each study  
42 below. Specific inclusion or exclusion criteria of the studies have been previously  
43 reported<sup>17,18</sup>.

44

45 Study 1 assessed atorvastatin (20mg/day) versus placebo in the treatment of  
46 lithium users with nephrogenic diabetes insipidus (DI). It was a double-blind, placebo-

47 controlled RCT at three tertiary mental health sites in Montreal, Québec: Douglas Mental  
48 University Institute (DMHUI), Jewish General Hospital (JGH), and McGill University  
49 Health Centre (MUHC). Patients were lithium users aged 18-85, with any psychiatric  
50 disorder. At baseline, patients' self reported demographic information, past medical and  
51 psychiatric history, and somatic complaints. Current medication was obtained from  
52 medical charts and confirmed by the patient. At each visit (baseline, 4-weeks, 12-weeks),  
53 psychiatric symptoms were measured using the Montgomery-Asberg Depression Scale  
54 (MADRS)<sup>19</sup> and Young Mania Rating Scale (YMRS)<sup>20</sup>. Finally, physical measures (BMI  
55 and waist circumference), serum cholesterol levels, serum glucose levels, and thyroid  
56 function were also measured at each visit. For this analysis, baseline data from Study 1  
57 was used from patients with bipolar disorder ( $n=43$ ).

58

59 Study 2 examined the relationship between mood, sleep, and food intake in  
60 bipolar patients. Patients were recruited from those presenting at the Bipolar Disorders  
61 clinic at the DMHUI. This is a specialized clinic where the diagnosis of patients has been  
62 systematically evaluated and scrutinized before acceptance. Patients were 18 years or  
63 older and were receiving care exclusively as outpatients. Medication, demographic,  
64 clinical, and laboratory information, including serum cholesterol, serum glucose, and  
65 thyroid function, were retrieved for the initial visit. Two in-person visits, two weeks  
66 apart, were used to evaluate physical measures and mood. For this analysis, baseline data  
67 from Study 2 was used ( $n=86$ ).

68

69 ***Exposures – Lithium Users and Non-Users:***

70 We classified bipolar disorder patients into current lithium users or non-users.  
71 This was achieved by a chart review of any prescriptions valid within a 2-week period  
72 before or after the initial baseline visit.

73

74 ***Primary Outcome:***

75 Our primary outcome is obesity, measured via BMI. Obesity was chosen as  
76 lithium and other mood stabilizers have frequently been associated with weight gain,  
77 which may lead to treatment non-adherence and metabolic complications. It is also a  
78 value that can be easily measured and trended, no matter the healthcare setting. BMI was  
79 calculated using a standard formula:  $BMI = \text{weight (kg)} / \text{height}^2 \text{ (meters)}$ . A  $BMI \geq 30$   
80 was taken to indicate obesity, according to the National Institute of Health (NIH).

81

82 ***Secondary Outcomes:***

83 Our secondary outcomes are average BMI, BMI classes, metabolic syndrome, and  
84 hemoglobin A1c. The BMI classes designated by the NIH are:  $BMI < 19.0$   
85 (underweight),  $BMI 19-24.9$  (normal),  $BMI 25.0 - 29.9$  (overweight),  $BMI 30.0-34.9$   
86 (class I obesity),  $BMI 35.0+$  (class II & III obesity).

87

88 Metabolic syndrome was diagnosed in patients who fulfilled three or more of the  
89 five criteria based on the National Cholesterol Education Program Treatment Panel III  
90 (NCEP III) criteria: 1) Abdominal obesity: waist circumference  $\geq 102\text{cm}$  for men and  $\geq$   
91  $88\text{cm}$  for women. Waist circumference was measured in two ways: at the top of the iliac  
92 crest as per the National Institutes of Health (NIH), and midway between the last palpable



93 rib and the top of the iliac crest according to World Health Organization (WHO)  
94 standards; 2) Glucose dysmetabolism: impaired fasting plasma glucose (5.5-6.9mmol/L)  
95 or diabetes (fasting plasma glucose  $\geq$  7mmol/L; 3) Dyslipidemia: elevated plasma  
96 triglyceride ( $\geq$ 1.7mmol/L); 4) Dyslipidemia (second, separate criteria): decreased high-  
97 density lipoprotein (HDL) (<1.03mmol/L for men and <1.30mmol/L for women); and 5)  
98 Hypertension. Hypertension was defined as high blood pressure on patients' self-reported  
99 medical history or indication of pharmacologic intervention according to a medication  
100 report.

101

102 Hemoglobin A1c is the most widely used clinical test to diagnose diabetes,  
103 indicating the mean glucose concentration over 120 days, although it is not traditionally  
104 used in the diagnosis of metabolic syndrome.

105

106 ***Exploratory Outcomes:***

107 Our exploratory outcomes were the constituents of MetS: abdominal obesity,  
108 glucose dysmetabolism, dyslipidemia: elevated plasma triglyceride, dyslipidemia:  
109 decreased high-density lipoprotein, and hypertension. Additionally, we examined thyroid  
110 function, as it is a frequent adverse event during lithium use. Hypothyroidism was  
111 characterized as a TSH > 5.0mIU/L or necessitating thyroid hormone replacement.

112

113 ***Statistical Analysis:***

114 Data was initially assessed for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test. We  
115 compared the exposure groups for demographic values, as well as for primary, secondary,

116 and exploratory outcomes. We used Mann-Whitney U tests to examine continuous  
117 variables for non-normal distributions. Chi-squared tests were employed for dichotomous  
118 variables (eg. Diabetes Yes/No). A two-tailed alpha of 0.05 was used to determine  
119 statistical significance and all analyses were performed using IBM SPSS 26.0 (IBM SPSS  
120 Inc, Chicago, IL, USA).

121

## 122 **RESULTS**

123

124 In total, 129 bipolar disorder patients were included in the analysis of this study.  
125 Of these, 66 were lithium users and 63 were non-users. The lithium group was 43.9%  
126 male, and the mean age was 49.1 ( $\pm 11.78$ ). The majority ( $n=50$ , 79.4%) of lithium users  
127 had an age of onset of psychiatric symptoms  $< 30$  years of age, with an average of more  
128 than four mood episodes in the course of their illness.

129

130 Table 1 summarizes the study participants' baseline demographic and clinical  
131 characteristics. The lithium and non-lithium groups differed significantly in their age of  
132 onset ( $p=0.017$ ,  $\chi^2=13.8$ ) number of mood episodes ( $p=0.001$ ,  $\chi^2=15.9$ ), and their  
133 baseline MADRS ( $4.30 \pm 4.62$  versus  $6.81 \pm 6.93$  respectively) and YMRS scores ( $4.42 \pm$   
134  $8.03$  versus  $15.90 \pm 12.80$  respectively). There were higher standardized scores for  
135 depression and mania in the non-lithium group. Additionally, there were significant  
136 differences in the patients' medication profiles. Intuitively, a higher proportion of non-  
137 lithium users were on antipsychotic medications and anticonvulsants, as well as  
138 antidepressants. More specifically, 76.2% of non-lithium users were on antipsychotics,

139 compared to only 58.7% of lithium users ( $p=0.036$ ,  $\chi^2 = 4.375$ ). This pattern continued  
140 for anticonvulsants (82.5% of non-lithium users, versus 36.5%) and antidepressants  
141 (57.1% for non-lithium users, versus 38.1%). In terms of somatic medications, patients in  
142 the non-lithium group were also on more medications for diabetes and dyslipidemia.

143

144 Table 2 summarizes obesity, BMI and other physical health outcome data. With  
145 respect to the primary outcome, 43.94% of lithium using and 34.92% of non-lithium  
146 bipolar patients had obesity. There was no statistically significant difference in rate of  
147 obesity between these groups ( $p=0.384$ ,  $\chi^2=0.758$ ).

148

149 For secondary outcomes, mean BMIs were on the cusp of overweight and class I  
150 obesity; average BMI of the lithium-using patients was  $29.10 (\pm 6.70)$   $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$  and non-  
151 lithium users  $30.20 (+/-8.57)$   $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ . There was no statistically significant difference in  
152 BMI between the two groups. The vast majority of the 66 lithium-using patients were  
153 outside of the normal BMI range: 27.3% were overweight, 25.8% had class I obesity, and  
154 16.7% class II & III obesity. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome in lithium users was  
155 35.7%. There was no significant difference between lithium users and non-lithium users  
156 in BMI classes or prevalence of metabolic syndrome. However, there was a statistically  
157 significant difference in glucose metabolism as measured by HbA1C. Lithium use was  
158 associated with lower HbA1c overall ( $p=0.006$ ,  $U=753.5$ ).

159

160 Lastly, for exploratory outcomes, lithium use was associated with abnormal levels  
161 of triglycerides, with lower levels than non-lithium users ( $p=0.020$ ,  $U=947$ ). There was

162 no difference in the remaining constituents of metabolic syndrome, including waist  
163 circumference, fasting plasma glucose or diabetes, cholesterol profile or dyslipidemia, or  
164 hypertension. There was also no difference in thyroid function, despite lithium's well-  
165 established association with hypothyroidism.

166

## 167 **DISCUSSION**

168

169 We present a sample of patients with a bipolar disorder in a tertiary care,  
170 naturalistic setting, where polypharmacy is common. Overall, the prevalence of obesity  
171 and metabolic syndrome in this sample of 129 bipolar patients is 44% and 35%  
172 respectively. There was no statistically significant difference in prevalence of obesity in  
173 lithium and non-lithium BD patients. This was also true for secondary outcomes,  
174 including average BMI, BMI classes, and metabolic syndrome, as well as exploratory  
175 outcomes, such as waist circumference, fasting glucose and diabetes, impaired lipids and  
176 dyslipidemia, hypertension, and hypothyroidism. However, the most interesting finding is  
177 that the groups differed in the markers of insulin resistance, HbA1C and triglycerides.  
178 Despite polypharmacy, patients on lithium had a lower level of insulin resistance.

179

180 In other words, our findings largely indicate similar physical and metabolic  
181 comorbidity between lithium-using and non-lithium bipolar patients. This offers  
182 important insight into the adverse effects of 'real-life' bipolar pharmacotherapy  
183 treatment. In this analysis, the majority of patients were treated with conventional mood  
184 stabilizers, lithium or valproate, combined with various antidepressants and second-

185 generation antipsychotics. These medications have been studied and compared more  
186 extensively as monotherapy; for example, lithium has previously been reported to cause  
187 more clinically significant weight gain than valproate, but less than quetiapine<sup>14,16</sup>.  
188 However, the research is largely mixed regarding weight gain and other side effects (ie.  
189 metabolic syndrome and its constituents) of pharmacotherapy combinations. Previous  
190 studies are limited by their focus on individual antipsychotics or mood stabilizers and  
191 modest sample sizes<sup>21</sup>. Overall, the present study seems to suggest that lithium and non-  
192 lithium combinations emerge as comparable.

193

194         Interestingly, we found lithium use to be associated with lower markers of insulin  
195 resistance, as measured by HbA1c and triglycerides respectively. This fits into a larger  
196 discussion in the literature that conceptualizes bipolar disorder as being comprised of  
197 multiple subgroups, such as lithium-responders. One interpretation of this finding is that  
198 lithium-responders, even prior to lithium exposure, represent a subgroup that is naturally  
199 less predisposed to insulin resistance. However, a recent retrospective study has found the  
200 inverse to be true: comorbid bipolar disorder and insulin resistance appears to be  
201 associated with more severe clinical features and poor response to lithium<sup>22,23</sup>. This  
202 association can potentially be explained by shared pathophysiological mechanisms  
203 between bipolar disorder and glucose dysregulation, including genetic and epigenetic  
204 links, mitochondrial dysfunction, and hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis alterations<sup>24</sup>. In  
205 particular, glycogen synthase kinase-3 beta (GSK-3b), an essential kinase involved in cell  
206 metabolism and survival, has been identified as having significant effects on neuronal  
207 plasticity in bipolar disorder patients. It may also suppress two important targets of

208 insulin action, glycogen synthase and insulin receptor substrate-1<sup>25</sup>. Lithium, moreso than  
209 other mood stabilizers such valproate, appears to act as an inhibitor of the GSK-3b  
210 enzyme. Therefore, a second and competing hypothesis that lithium itself modulates both  
211 affective and dysmetabolic disorders<sup>26</sup>. Sleep deprivation can rapidly result in insulin  
212 resistance, and while in general patients with a bipolar disorder have disrupted circadian  
213 rhythms, lithium seems to be more likely to regulate the rhythms<sup>27</sup>. In sum, these  
214 pathophysiological explanations are consistent with our results in lithium-responsive  
215 bipolar patients, who experienced lower levels of glycosylated hemoglobin and  
216 triglycerides.

217

218         From a population health perspective, our findings contribute to a growing  
219 understanding about metabolic comorbidities in severe mental illness. The prevalence of  
220 obesity in this bipolar study group was almost double that of the general Canadian adult  
221 population (42.3% versus 24.1%)<sup>28</sup>, and almost triple that of the general Québécois adult  
222 population (42.3% versus 16.4%)<sup>29</sup>. The same can be said about metabolic syndrome  
223 (35.7% versus 19.1%)<sup>30</sup>. This confirms previous findings that obesity is startlingly  
224 common in bipolar patients and necessitates urgent attention. Prevention and early  
225 intervention with lifestyle interventions and pharmacological options is recommended<sup>31</sup>.  
226 Further, the high concurrence between psychiatric and medical comorbidity argues for  
227 primary care models that allow an integrated treatment approach to optimize outcomes.

228

229 ***Strengths and limitations:***

230           This study has several strengths. To begin, the study design is representative of  
231 the “real-world”: it had the enrolment of both bipolar I and II patients, enrolment of  
232 patients of all ages, and the inclusion of patients with concomitant psychiatric diagnoses  
233 (eg. personality disorder, substance use). The findings can be generalized to tertiary care  
234 bipolar outpatients. The grand majority of patients were based at the same hospital and so  
235 their lab tests were processed by the same laboratory. Additionally, the sample size was  
236 comparable or larger than many existing studies.

237

238           We recognize some limitations of our study. The largest limitation is that the  
239 study design was cross-sectional, which makes causation difficult to infer. Furthermore,  
240 body mass index, the basis of the primary outcome, is frequently criticized in the  
241 literature for its true clinical relevance as it has arbitrarily defined categories, does not  
242 differentiate between fat and muscle mass<sup>32</sup>, and has been paradoxically associated with  
243 lower mortality<sup>33</sup>, although the inclusion as waist circumference as a surrogate for obesity  
244 helps to mitigate this. Further, there was an important reliance on self-reported data for  
245 hypertension. Future studies could (a) incorporate a larger number of patients in a  
246 prospective study design to improve statistical power and better quantify effects of  
247 lithium (and other mood stabilizers) on metabolic outcome, (b) examine combination  
248 treatments more exhaustively, and (c) explore the postulated pathophysiological  
249 mechanisms linking bipolar disorders and metabolic dysregulation.

250

251

252 **CONCLUSION**

253

254           There is a higher prevalence of obesity and metabolic syndrome in this sample of  
255 bipolar disorder patients, when compared to the general population. However, prevalence  
256 of obesity and metabolic syndrome within bipolar disorder patients did not appear to be  
257 associated with lithium use, when compared to non-lithium users (e.g. those on  
258 anticonvulsants, second-generation antipsychotics). Constituents of metabolic syndrome  
259 also did not significantly differ between lithium users vs. non-users. An important  
260 exception was insulin resistance as reflected in HbA1c and triglycerides, with healthier  
261 levels in lithium users compared to non-lithium users. Future prospective studies with  
262 larger sample sizes will be necessary to confirm whether the association between lithium  
263 use and insulin resistance is due to a causal effect of lithium or other factors. A proactive  
264 approach to care focused on prevention, early intervention, and consistent monitoring  
265 may help prevent long-term health consequences of obesity.

266

267

## 268 **DECLARATIONS**

269

### 270 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

271 The two studies from which data was used for this study were performed in accordance  
272 with the Declaration of Helsinki. They received ethics approval by the institutional  
273 review boards at the Douglas Mental Health University Institute (Study 1 and 2), McGill  
274 University Health Centre (Study 1), and Jewish General Hospital (Study 1).

275



276 ***Consent for publication***

277 Not applicable.

278

279 ***Availability of data and material***

280 The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the

281 corresponding author on reasonable request.

282

283 ***Competing interests***

284 S.R. receives investigator-initiated grant funding from Satellite Healthcare for an

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286 Institutes of Health Research, Pfizer Research Award, National Alliance for Research on

287 Schizophrenia and Depression (NARSAD), and support for knowledge translation and

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290 Bristol-Myers Squibb (BMS), Forest Laboratories, Janssen-Ortho, Lundbeck, Merck,

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299

300 ***Author's contributions***

301 S.R., O.L., J.F.S., and J.P. designed the study; S.R., O.L., J.F.S., H.P. and J.P. analyzed  
302 and interpreted the data; S.R., O.L., J.F.S., H.P. and J.P. drafted and revised the paper;  
303 all authors approved the final version of the manuscript and have agreed both to be  
304 personally accountable for the author's own contributions and to ensure that questions  
305 related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work, even ones in which the author  
306 was not personally involved, are appropriately investigated, resolved, at the resolution  
307 documented in the literature.

308

309 ***Acknowledgements***

310 Not applicable.

**Table 1: Demographics & Clinical Characteristics in Lithium Users and Non-Users with Bipolar Disorder (BD), n= 129**

Variable	Li Users (n=66)	Non-Li Users (n=63)	Stats
Age (years), [mean (±SD)]	49.05 (11.78)	46.71 (11.20)	U=1850.5, p=0.281, z=-1.077
% Male, [% (n=)]	43.94% (n=29)	53.96% (n=34)	p=0.043, x <sup>2</sup> =0.169
Age of onset of any psychiatric symptoms, [% (n=)] <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Age &lt; 18</li> <li>○ Age 18-30</li> <li>○ Age 30-50</li> <li>○ Age &gt; 50</li> <li>○ Not known</li> </ul>	33.84% (n=22) 43.08% (n=28) 18.46% (n=12) 4.62% (n=3) 0.0% (n=0)	59.68% (n=37) 24.19% (n=15) 12.90% (n=8) 0.0% (n=0) 3.23% (n=2)	p=0.017, x <sup>2</sup> =13.8
Total number of previous mood episodes, [% (n=)] <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ 1 episode</li> <li>○ 2 episodes</li> <li>○ 3 episodes</li> <li>○ &gt; 4 episodes</li> </ul>	11.67% (n=7) 10% (n=6) 8.33% (n=5) 70% (n=45)	0% (n=0) 0% (n=0) 3.33% (n=2) 91.67% (n=55)	p=0.001, x <sup>2</sup> =15.9
MADRS score, [mean (±SD)]	4.30 (4.62)	6.81 (6.93)	U=4922.5, p=0.045 z=-2.01
YMRS score, [mean (±SD)]	4.42 (8.03)	15.90 (12.80)	U=719, p=1.57 <sup>-12</sup> , z=-7.07
Number of psychotropic medications, n=126, [mean (±SD)] <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ On anticonvulsants, [n (%)]</li> <li>○ On antidepressants, [n (%)]</li> <li>○ On antipsychotics, [n (%)]</li> </ul>	3.13 (1.72) 36.5% (n=23) 38.1% (n=24) 58.7% (n=37)	3.40 (1.40) 82.5% (n=52) 57.1% (n=36) 76.2% (n=48)	U=1738, p=0.280, z=-1.080 p=1.414x 10 <sup>-7</sup> , x <sup>2</sup> =27.70 p=0.032, x <sup>2</sup> =4.582 p=0.036, x <sup>2</sup> =4.375

<b>Number of non- psychotropic medications, [mean (<math>\pm</math>SD)]</b>	0.67 (1.004)	2.37 (2.951)	U=674, p=0.001, z=-3.371
○ For hypertension, n=117, [n (%)]	13.0% (n=7)	19% (n=12)	p=0.791, $\chi^2=0.374$
○ For diabetes, n=117, [n (%)]	7.4% (n=4)	22.2% (n=14)	p=0.027, $\chi^2=4.902$
○ For dyslipidemia, n=117, [n (%)]	3.7% (n=2)	22.2% (n=14)	p=0.004, $\chi^2=8.447$
○ For thyroid, n= 105, [n (%)]	18.4% (n=9)	23.2% (n=13)	p=0.543, $\chi^2=0.371$

**Table 2: Body Mass Index (BMI) and other Physical Health Outcomes in Lithium Users and Non-Users with Bipolar Disorder (BD) (n= 129)**

Variable	Li Users (n=66)	Non-Li Users (n=63)	Stats
<b>Obesity</b> , [n (%)]	42.42% (n=28)	34.92% (n=22)	p=0.384, $\chi^2=0.758$
<b>Mean BMI</b> , (kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) [mean ( $\pm$ SD)]	29.10 (+/-6.70)	30.20 (+/-8.57)	U= 2051, p=0.895, z=-0.132
<b>BMI stratification</b> , [n (%)] <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Underweight, &lt;19</li> <li>○ Normal, 19-25</li> <li>○ Overweight, 25-30</li> <li>○ Class I Obesity, 30-35</li> <li>○ Class II &amp; III Obesity, &gt; 35</li> </ul>	0% (n=0) 30.30% (n=20) 27.27% (n=18) 25.76%, (n=17) 16.67%, (n=11)	0, 0 33.33%, (n=21) 31.75%, (n=20) 11.11%, (n=7) 23.81%, (n=15)	p=0.184, $\chi^2=4.85$
<b>Metabolic Syndrome</b> [n (%)]	35.71% (n=15)	44.18% (n=19)	p=0.623, $\chi^2=0.24$
<b>Waist circumference, NIH</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Male, [mean (<math>\pm</math>SD)]</li> <li>○ Female, [mean (<math>\pm</math>SD)]</li> </ul>	107.91 (20.51) 98.85 (16.28)	107.77 (16.79) 105.97 (19.03)	U=1906.5, p=0.416, z=-0.813
<b>Glucose Metabolism</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Fasting Blood Glucose (mmol/L), n=107 [mean (<math>\pm</math>SD)]</li> <li>○ HbA1C (mmol/L), n=95 [mean (<math>\pm</math>SD)]</li> <li>○ Diabetes, n= 87, [n (%)]</li> </ul>	5.52 (1.03) 5.24 (0.53) 16.67% (n=7)	6.10 (2.90) 6.01 (1.83) 33.33% (n=15)	U=1344.5, p=0.712, z=-0.369 U=753.5, <b>p=0.006*</b> , z=-2.76 p=0.088, $\chi^2=3.19$
<b>Lipid Profile</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Total Cholesterol (mmol/L), n=103 [mean (<math>\pm</math>SD)]</li> <li>○ HDL (mmol/L), n=102, [mean (<math>\pm</math>SD)]</li> <li>○ LDL (mmol/L), n=100, [mean (<math>\pm</math>SD)]</li> <li>○ Triglycerides</li> </ul>	4.72 (1.02) 1.30 (0.33) 2.79 (0.87) 1.46 (0.88)	4.92 (1.10) 1.24 (0.37) 2.75 (0.89) 2.01 (1.25)	U=1233, p=0.582, z=-0.55 U=1084.5, p=0.162, z=-1.40 U=1110, p=0.377, z=-0.883 U=947,

(mmol/L), $n=102$ , [mean ( $\pm$ SD)]			<b>p=0.020*</b> , $z=-2.32$
○ Dyslipidemia, $n=96$ , [n (%)]	50%, ( $n=23$ )	70%, ( $n=35$ )	$p=0.06$ , $\chi^2=4.007$
<b>Hypertension</b> ○ Hypertension, $n=117$ , [n (%)]	12.96%, ( $n=7$ )	19.05%, ( $n=12$ )	$p=0.455$ , $\chi^2=0.791$
<b>Thyroid Function</b> ○ TSH, $n=103$ , [mean ( $\pm$ SD)]	2.39 (1.26)	2.60 (1.43)	$U=1187$ , $p=0.411$ , $z=-0.823$
○ Hypothyroidism, $n=102$ , [n (%)]	41.81%, ( $n=23$ )	59.57%, ( $n=28$ )	$p=0.112$ , $\chi^2=3.196$

*Complete information was available on all participants for BMI and waist circumference. For other domains, the number of patients available is indicated next to the name of each variable (n=).*

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