

1 *Original Article*

2 **The role of alcohol consumption in regulating circulating levels of adiponectin: a prospective**
3 **cohort study**

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22 **Abstract (246 words)**

23 **Context:** The role of alcohol intake in influencing longitudinal trajectories of adiponectin is unclear.

24 **Objective:** To examine the association between alcohol intake and changes in circulating levels of
25 adiponectin over repeat measures.

26 **Design, setting and participants :** A prospective cohort study of 2855 men and women (74% men
27 with a mean age of 50 years at baseline) drawn from the Whitehall II study. Data from study phases 3
28 (1991-1993), 5 (1997-1999) and 7 (2002-2004) were used.

29 **Main outcome measure:** Adiponectin serum concentrations (ng/mL) were measured and alcohol
30 intake was defined in terms of number of UK units (1 unit = 8g ethanol) consumed in the previous 7
31 days on three occasions. Cross-sectional associations between alcohol and adiponectin levels were
32 calculated using linear regression. A bivariate dual change score model was used to estimate the effect
33 of alcohol intake on upcoming change in adiponectin. Models were adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity
34 and smoking status.

35 **Results:** Alcohol consumption was cross-sectionally associated with (log-transformed) adiponectin
36 levels (β ranging from 0.001 to 0.004 depending on phase and level of adjustment), but was not
37 associated with changes in adiponectin levels over time ($\gamma = -0.002$ [SE 0.002], $p = 0.246$).

38 **Conclusion:** Alcohol intake is not associated with changes in circulating adiponectin levels in this
39 cohort. This finding provides evidence that adiponectin levels are unlikely to mediate the relationship
40 between moderate alcohol consumption and reduced risk of type 2 diabetes. It is important to consider
41 dynamic longitudinal relationships rather than cross-sectional associations.

42

43 Introduction

44 Moderate alcohol intake is associated with a lower risk of developing type 2 diabetes (1) and part of
45 this effect is thought to be mediated via its role in increasing adiponectin levels (2–6). Higher levels
46 of circulating adiponectin are alleged to be associated with a lower risk of type 2 diabetes (7) and
47 prediabetes (8), in addition to cardiovascular disease (9), various forms of cancer (10) and major
48 depression (11).

49 However, the majority of studies linking alcohol intake to adiponectin rely on only one measure of
50 alcohol consumption at baseline and adiponectin level ascertained either cross-sectionally or at a
51 single follow-up occasion. It is important to consider the longitudinal development of both processes
52 to determine how, if at all, the two are related. However, studies with repeat measures of alcohol
53 consumption and adiponectin are scarce, so few studies have been able to examine the relationship
54 simultaneously. One study found that changes in drinking over a four year period, specifically the
55 uptake of modest drinking amongst initial non-drinkers and small increases in consumption amongst
56 light drinkers, were associated with higher adiponectin levels (12). However, this study was reliant on
57 a single measure of adiponectin at follow-up amongst only 697 men. Neither alcohol intake nor
58 circulating levels of adiponectin are static processes (13,14). That is, both change over time and it is
59 possible that accounting for the dynamic association between the two will shed additional light on the
60 role of alcohol intake in regulating adiponectin concentrations. The purpose of this study was
61 therefore to investigate how prospectively measured alcohol consumption is related to changes in
62 adiponectin levels over repeat measures.

63 **Materials and Methods**

64 Study design and sample

65 Participants were drawn from the Whitehall II prospective cohort study (15). The study began in
66 1985-1988 (phase 1) and included 10,308 (6,895 men) British civil servants aged 35-55 years. We

67 present data at phases 3 (1991-1993), 5 (1997-1999) and 7 (2002-2004) from a diabetes case-cohort
68 sample (16,14) with measurements of adiponectin (N=3477 with at least one valid measure). We
69 excluded those with prevalent diabetes at baseline (N=17). Furthermore we limited our sample to
70 those who consumed alcohol at some point during follow-up to limit biases associated with lifelong
71 non-drinking and sick-quitting prior to baseline influencing our estimates (exclusion of N=110)
72 (17,18). Those with missing data on covariates were also excluded from the analytic sample (N=530),
73 resulting in a final sample size of 2,855 individuals (note missing data counts for categories above are
74 not mutually exclusive). Participants excluded from the analytic sample tended to be older, from
75 lower socioeconomic groups and of non-white ethnicity (there was no gender difference in
76 participation; data not presented).

77 The study was approved by the University College London Medical School Committee on the Ethics
78 of Human Research. Informed consent was obtained at baseline and renewed at each contact.
79 Whitehall II data, protocols, and other metadata are available to bona fide researchers for research
80 purposes. Please refer to the Whitehall II data sharing policy at [http://www.ucl.ac.uk/whitehallII/data-](http://www.ucl.ac.uk/whitehallII/data-sharing)
81 [sharing](http://www.ucl.ac.uk/whitehallII/data-sharing).

82 Measurements

83 *Alcohol intake*

84 Participants were asked to report the number of alcoholic drinks they had consumed in the previous
85 week, providing information separately for beer/cider (pints), wine (glasses), and spirits (measures).
86 Drinks were converted into UK units of alcohol (one unit is equivalent to 8 g of ethanol) using a
87 conservative estimate of one UK unit for each measure of spirits and glass of wine, and two UK units
88 for each pint of beer. The sum of these converted measurements was used to define total weekly
89 number of UK units consumed.

90 *Adiponectin*

91 Adiponectin serum concentrations were measured using the Quantikine ELISA kit (R&D Systems,
92 Wiesbaden, Germany). The same standard operating procedures were followed for blood collection,
93 processing and storage during all study phases. Venous fasting (≥ 5 hour of fasting) blood samples
94 were drawn before a standard 2 hour oral-glucose tolerance test. Within an hour samples were
95 centrifuged on-site and serum immediately removed from the monovette tubes into microtubes stored
96 at -80°C . All assays were performed in the same laboratory (German Diabetes Center) and to
97 minimize imprecision samples from different study phases of the same participant were measured
98 using the same ELISA plate. The limit of detection was 3.9 ng/mL (all samples gave values above the
99 limit of detection).

100 *Other covariates*

101 We regressed the intercept and slope terms for both alcohol intake and adiponectin on the following
102 time-invariant covariates: age at baseline (centered on the sample mean), sex, ethnicity (white vs. non-
103 white) and socioeconomic position defined using employment grade (high, intermediate or low). We
104 entered smoking status (not current vs. current) as a time-varying covariate influencing adiponectin
105 levels at each time point (19). We chose not to adjust for variables that may lie on the causal pathway
106 between alcohol intake and adiponectin levels to avoid overadjustment bias (20,21), this includes
107 body mass index (22) and fasting insulin (23). Due to our sample size and the complexity of our
108 longitudinal model we did not stratify by sex or ethnicity.

109 *Statistical analysis*

110 The association between adiponectin and alcohol intake cross-sectionally at each study phase was
111 calculated using linear regression. To examine the association between adiponectin concentrations
112 and weekly alcohol intake over repeat measures we used bivariate dual change score (BDCS)
113 modelling, which allows for growth/decline to be measured whilst simultaneously allowing for lagged

114 effects from one process on the upcoming change in the other variable. A detailed explanation of the
115 mathematical and statistical properties of BDCS models can be found elsewhere (24,25).

116 Briefly, change in a variable (Δ) is considered as a function of three components: (1) a constant
117 amount (α) which is the sum of change scores over time, (2) an amount proportional to the previous
118 value of itself (β) – in many ways representing self-feedback in the dynamic system, and (3) an
119 amount proportional to the previous state of the alternative variable (γ). **It is also important to note**
120 **that while BDCS models are usually specified as linear models (i.e. the association between**
121 **alcohol intake and changes in adiponectin is linear), nonlinear trajectories can be**
122 **accommodated/modelled because at each time point the autoproportional (β) and coupling (γ)**
123 **parameters are multiplied by scores from the previous measurement occasion which alter over**
124 **time. The result is that even in a model where the coefficients are assumed to be static over time**
125 **the actual effects are compounded across occasions as a result of being multiplied by shifting**
126 **values (25,26).**

127 Both the intercepts (estimated values for log-transformed adiponectin and weekly alcohol intake at the
128 first study phase) and slopes (α terms) were fitted as random effects. Intercepts and slopes were
129 correlated within single processes (for example, the adiponectin intercept with the adiponectin slope)
130 and between processes (for example, the alcohol intercept with the adiponectin slope). See Figure 1
131 for a simplified graphical depiction of the model. As described above, intercepts and slopes were
132 estimated conditional on baseline covariates whilst smoking status was entered into the model as a
133 time-varying covariate. As adiponectin values (ng/mL) were heavily positively skewed we used
134 natural log-transformed values for analysis.

135 Models were estimated in Mplus version 7.3 (27) using Full Information Maximum Likelihood
136 (FIML) with Robust Standard Errors. Model fit was examined using the Tucker–Lewis index (TLI),
137 the comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA). Cut-off

138 values approaching 0.95 were used to determine a good fit for TLI and CFI, while a threshold close to
139 0.06 was used for RMSEA (28). Statistical significance was inferred at a two-tailed $P < 0.05$.

140 **Results**

141 Descriptive statistics

142 Presented in Table 1 are the basic demographic statistics of the analytic sample. The mean age of
143 participants at baseline was approximately 50 years (range 40 to 63 years). Almost three quarters of
144 the sample were men and the majority of them white (approximately 93%) and of high to intermediate
145 socioeconomic position. Descriptive statistics concerning the primary variables of interest, alcohol
146 intake and adiponectin, are presented in Table 2 alongside summaries of the proportion of current
147 smokers which also changed over time in the models estimated. The majority of the sample were non-
148 smokers and the prevalence of current smoking declined over time. Mean alcohol intake at baseline
149 was almost 11 UK units per week, peaking at 14 units during follow-up before declining after this
150 (consistent with previous work (13)). Mean adiponectin levels declined throughout follow-up
151 (geometric means of 9.06, 9.05 and 9.03 at study phases 3, 5 and 7 respectively).

152 Regression estimates

153 Fit indices for all estimated models fell within the acceptable ranges reported above (data not shown).
154 Presented in Table 3 are regression coefficients and standard errors from a series of linear regression
155 models of the cross-sectional association between alcohol intake and log-transformed adiponectin
156 levels. In both age and sex as well as fully adjusted models higher alcohol intake was associated with
157 higher levels of circulating adiponectin (β ranging from 0.001 to 0.004 depending on phase and level
158 of adjustment; only the phase 3 fully adjusted did not meet the threshold for statistical significance
159 [$P=0.12$]).

160 Table 4 contains regression coefficients and standard errors for two bivariate dual change score
161 models, one with adjustment for age and sex only, and another with adjustment for ethnicity,

162 socioeconomic position and changes in smoking status. Alcohol intake was significantly associated
163 with upcoming changes in itself in both models ($\beta = -1.642$ [SE 0.121] in age and sex adjusted, and β
164 $= -1.647$ [SE 0.123] in the fully adjusted model). Adjustment for additional confounding factors
165 attenuated the estimated lagged effect of adiponectin towards the null ($\beta = 0.245$ in the age and sex
166 adjusted model compared to $\beta = -0.047$), however, in both cases the association was not statistically
167 significant.

168 The effect of alcohol intake on upcoming change in adiponectin was non-significant in both models (γ
169 $= -0.001$ [SE 0.002] in age and sex adjusted, and $\gamma = -0.002$ [SE 0.002] in the fully adjusted model).

170 **Conclusions**

171 Summary of findings

172 Higher alcohol intake was associated with increased levels of adiponectin when measured cross-
173 sectionally at all occasions, however, we found no evidence that alcohol consumption is associated
174 with changes in circulating levels of adiponectin over a 10 year period in a well-documented middle
175 age cohort of mostly white men and women.

176 Comparison to previous work

177 Our cross-sectional findings are broadly in agreement with existing studies on the topic of alcohol
178 intake and adiponectin – including interventional studies (6), however, our longitudinal findings are
179 not in line with other observational studies (12). The existing longitudinal studies have typically
180 examined the impact of a change in alcohol consumption between two measurement occasions on
181 adiponectin levels at a single point in time. **In contrast, our primary focus was on predicting the**
182 **impact of alcohol consumption on changes in adiponectin levels over time.** As such our findings
183 are not directly comparable. Whilst experimental studies have generally shown an association
184 between alcohol intake and higher adiponectin levels it is important to note that these effects are
185 limited to the short-term and there is substantial heterogeneity between them (6). It may therefore be

186 that alcohol consumption is predictive of adiponectin levels acutely but not long term, and our
187 findings are broadly supportive of this.

188 Adiponectin was one of several plausible biomarkers recently put forward as having compelling
189 evidence in favour of it being a mediator in the relationship between moderate alcohol intake and
190 reduced risk of CHD and related conditions (11). Our findings cast doubt on this assertion and add to
191 the suspicion that a substantial proportion of the alleged protective effects of moderate alcohol intake
192 can be explained by misclassification bias, residual confounding and failing to longitudinal dynamics
193 between alcohol consumption and health over time (13,22,29).

194 The role of adiponectin as an intermediate in the association between moderate alcohol intake and
195 reduced risk of developing type 2 diabetes is further weakened when considering evidence from a
196 large scale Mendelian randomisation study that demonstrated that adiponectin is unlikely to be
197 causally associated with type 2 diabetes (30) (a recent meta-analysis also revealed that adiponectin
198 levels are not predictive of coronary heart disease either (31)).

199 Strengths and limitations

200 Our study is the largest investigation into the role of alcohol consumption on changes in adiponectin
201 that we are aware of, with a sample size of 2855 men and women compared to 697 men (12). Unlike
202 other studies we were also able to use repeat measures of both alcohol intake and adiponectin. This is
203 important as others have shown that accounting for variation in drinking over time is important when
204 predicting health outcomes (13,32).

205 Our study also has a number of limitations. For example, the Whitehall II study is not representative
206 of the general population, so there may be concerns regarding the generalisability of our findings to
207 the general population. However, it has been shown that aetiological associations observed in
208 Whitehall II are comparable with those observed in representative samples (33).

209 We also concentrated on total adiponectin level but others have noted that multimetric forms of
210 adiponectin exist (e.g. high molecular weight oligomers, trimers and hexamers) and the association
211 between adiponectin levels and subsequent harm might be dependent on these different forms (21).
212 Unfortunately we did not have information on this. However, this is a shared limitation with previous
213 work looking at alcohol intake and adiponectin so should not impact comparisons made between our
214 work and the existing evidence base.

215 We also did not take into account beverage type, however, previous work has shown that beverage
216 preference is not associated with the development of type 2 diabetes (34) and others have noted that
217 often beverage specific effects are likely to be confounded by socioeconomic position (35–37).

218 Finally, we only considered total weekly alcohol intake. While this does not affect comparisons
219 between our work and existing studies that have used similar measures (12), it is nevertheless a
220 limitation, as others have shown that drinking pattern is an important determinant of harm. **We were**
221 **unable to account for variation due to pattern of alcohol use per occasion (i.e. someone drinking**
222 **14 UK units per day may consume 2 UK units per day over the course of a week, or**
223 **alternatively reach their total intake by consuming 7 UK units on two occasions)** – furthermore, it
224 has been demonstrated that even irregular bouts of heavy drinking amongst typically moderate
225 drinkers is associated with an increased risk of ill health (38).

226 Conclusion

227 We found that average weekly alcohol intake is associated with higher levels of adiponectin cross-
228 sectionally but is not associated with changes in total circulating adiponectin levels over time. Future
229 work should examine the role of drinking pattern in the association between alcohol intake and
230 adiponectin, as well as different forms of adiponectin.

231 **Author contributions**

232 SB and AB conceived and designed the study. SB analysed the data and wrote the first draft of the
233 manuscript. AB provided important additional intellectual content and contributed to the revision of
234 the manuscript. Both authors saw the final manuscript and agreed on the decision to submit for
235 publication.

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391

393 **Tables**

394 **Table 1 - Basic demographic information of the sample**

Variable	N	% or Mean (Standard Deviation)
Age	2855	49.8 (6.0)
Sex		
Men	2107	73.8
Women	748	26.2
Ethnicity		
White	2650	92.8
Non-white	205	7.2
Socioeconomic position		
High	1193	41.8
Intermediate	1331	46.6
Low	331	11.6

395 **Table 2 - Descriptive information for variables changing over time**

	Phase 3		Phase 5		Phase 7		Within-subject standard deviation
	N	% or Mean (Standard Deviation)	N	% or Mean (Standard Deviation)	N	% or Mean (Standard Deviation)	
UK units	2854	10.7 (12.6)	2795	14.3 (15.5)	2828	12.5 (13.1)	5.0
Adiponectin [†]	2855	9.1 (1.1)	2855	9.1 (1.1)	2855	9.0 (1.06)	0.2
Smoking status							
Not current	2855	88.1	2590	90.7	2636	92.3	--
Current	340	11.9	265	9.3	219	7.7	--

396 [†]Geometric mean

397 **Table 3 - Regression coefficients (standard error) for the association between alcohol intake and**
 398 **adiponectin levels cross-sectionally at each study phase**

Differences in log(Adiponectin)	Age and sex adjusted	Fully adjusted
Phase 3 Alcohol (N=2847)	0.002 (0.001)*	0.001 (0.001)
Phase 5 Alcohol (N=2700)	0.002 (0.001)**	0.001 (0.001)**
Phase 7 Alcohol (N=2644)	0.004 (0.001)***	0.003 (0.001)***

399 *** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

400 Fully adjusted = age, sex, ethnicity, socioeconomic position and smoking status.

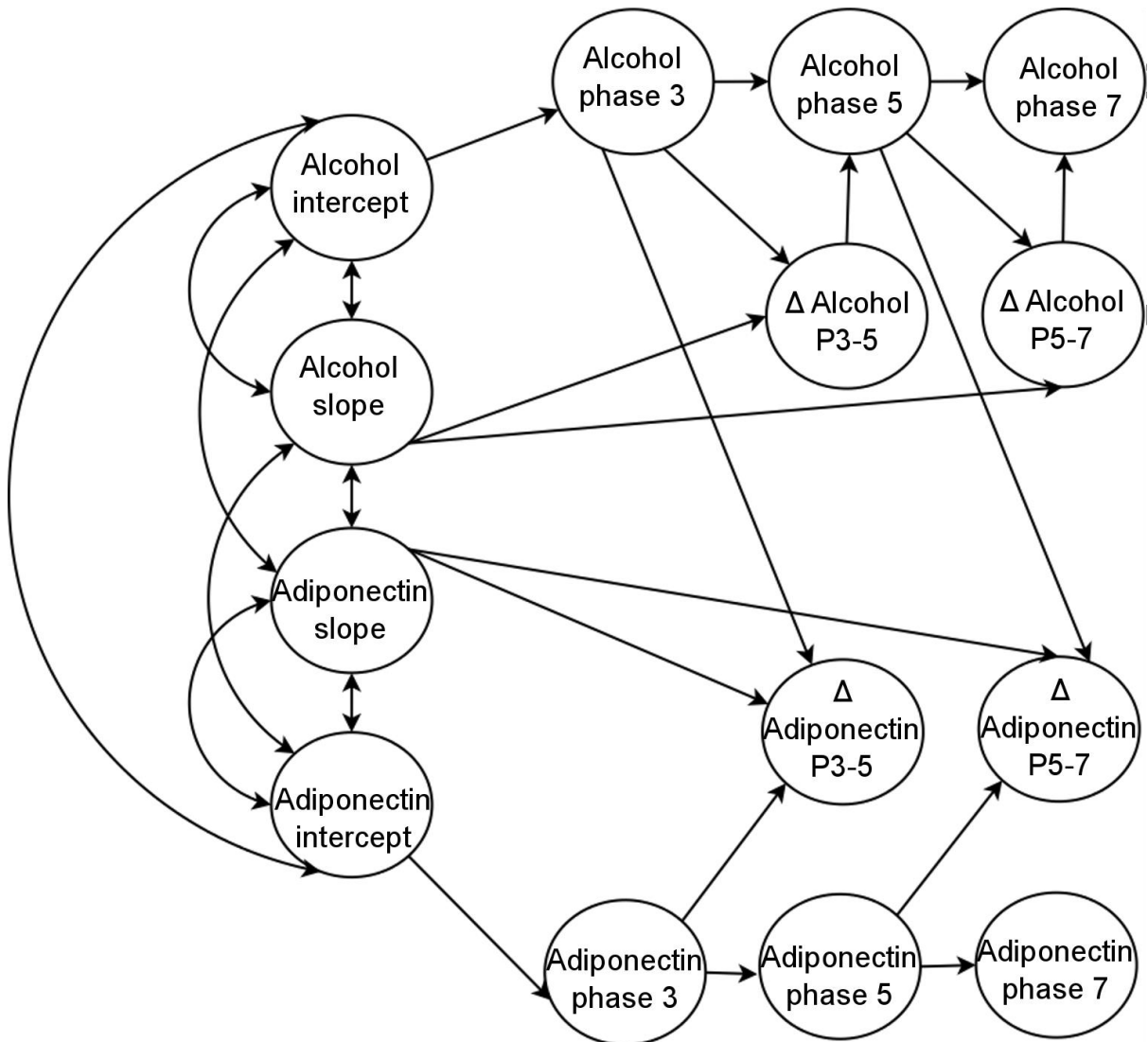
401 **Table 4 - Regression coefficients (standard error) for bivariate dual change score model of alcohol intake affecting upcoming change in adiponectin**
 402 **levels**

Alcohol → Δ Adiponectin	Age and sex adjusted		Fully adjusted	
<i>Fixed effects</i>				
	Alcohol	Adiponectin	Alcohol	Adiponectin
Intercept	12.757 (0.375)***	8.950 (0.010)***	13.839 (0.425)***	8.972 (0.012)
Slope (α)	25.028 (1.914)***	-2.186 (2.318)	26.953 (2.059)***	0.444 (2.034)
Autoproportional (β)	-1.642 (0.121)***	0.245 (0.258)	-1.647 (0.123)***	-0.047 (0.226)
Coupling (γ)	-0.001 (0.002)	--	-0.002 (0.002)	--
<i>Random effects</i>				
Intercept/slope covariance	184.031***	-0.044	180.918***	0.011
Intercept covariance	0.242*		0.143	
Slope covariance	0.318		0.595	
Alcohol intercept, Adiponectin slope covariance	0.160		0.287	
Adiponectin intercept, Alcohol slope covariance	0.533**		0.378*	

403 *** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

404 N=2855

405 Fully adjusted = age, sex, ethnicity, socioeconomic position and smoking status.



407
 408 **Figure 1 - Simplified diagram of model specification**
 409

410 Single headed arrows indicate regression coefficients, double headed arrows indicate covariance
 411 terms