

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ALCOHOL INTAKE, HEALTH AND SOCIAL STATUS AND CARDIOVASCULAR RISK FACTORS IN THE URBAN PARIS-ILE-DE-FRANCE COHORT: IS THE CARDIOPROTECTIVE ACTION OF ALCOHOL A MYTH?

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- 1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ALCOHOL INTAKE, HEALTH AND SOCIAL
- 2 STATUS AND CARDIOVASCULAR RISK FACTORS IN THE URBAN PARIS-ILE-
- 3 DE-FRANCE COHORT: IS THE CARDIOPROTECTIVE ACTION OF ALCOHOL A
- 4 **MYTH?**
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- 16 Study design: Cross-sectional study
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- Running title: alcohol intake and cardiovascular risk profile

20 Abstract

| Background/objective: Observational studies document inverse relationship between |
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| cardiovascular disease (CVD) and moderate alcohol intake. Causal role for alcohol in |
| cardioprotection remains however uncertain as such protection may partly arise from |
| confounders and misclassification. The aim of our study was to evaluate potential |
| confounders which may contribute to the putative cardioprotection by alcohol. |
| Subjects/Methods: We evaluated clinical and biological characteristics, including CV risk |
| factors and health status, of 149,773 subjects undergoing examination in our Center for CVD |
| Prevention (The Urban Paris-Ile-de-France Cohort). Subjects were divided into four groups |
| according to alcohol consumption: never, low (≤10g/day), moderate (10 to 30 g/day) and |
| high (>30g/day); former drinkers were analysed as a separate group. |
| Results: After adjustment for age, moderate male drinkers were more likely to display clinical |
| and biological characteristics associated with lower CV risk, including low BMI, heart rate, |
| pulse pressure, fasting triglycerides, fasting glucose, stress and depression scores together |
| with superior subjective health status, respiratory function, social status and physical activity. |
| Moderate female drinkers equally displayed low waist circumference, blood pressure and |
| fasting triglycerides and LDL-cholesterol. Alcohol intake was strongly associated with |
| plasma HDL-cholesterol in both sexes. Multivariate analysis confirmed that moderate and low |
| drinkers displayed better health status than never drinkers. Importantly, few factors were |
| causally related to alcohol intake. |
| Conclusion: Moderate alcohol drinkers display a more favourable clinical and biological |
| profile, consistent with lower CV risk as compared to non-drinkers and heavy drinkers. |
| Moderate alcohol consumption may therefore represent a marker of higher social level, |
| superior health status and lower CV risk. |

Introduction

| 46 | An inverse association between moderate alcohol consumption and cardiovascular disease |
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| 47 | (CVD) has been established in prospective observational epidemiological studies in several |
| 48 | countries. Meta-analysis (Maclure 1993, Cleophas 1999, Corrao, et al. 2000, Di Castelnuovo, |
| 49 | et al. 2002, Di Castelnuovo, et al. 2006) have confirmed that self-reported consumption of one |
| 50 | $(\sim 10~g~alcohol)$ to three $(\sim 30~g~alcohol)$ standard alcoholic drinks per day is associated with a |
| 51 | 20-25% reduction in the risk of CVD. The lower risk of CVD observed in moderate drinkers |
| 52 | is often attributed to the beneficial effects of alcohol on plasma lipids and lipoproteins, |
| 53 | (Chapman 2006). Other potential explanations include the effect of alcohol on hemostatic |
| 54 | factors (Rimm, et al. 1999) and of antioxidants present in red wine (Leikert, et al. 2002). |
| 55 | Taken together, these data have been translated into the message that "small to moderate |
| 56 | amounts of alcohol are good for your health". This message is of particular importance in |
| 57 | France where the mean alcohol intake per inhabitant is one of the highest in the world. |
| 58 | Findings in observational studies should however be viewed with caution because of number |
| 59 | of bias not always taken into account. A growing body of evidence suggests that the apparent |
| 60 | protection afforded by alcohol intake against CVD might be due in part to misclassification |
| 61 | and confounding (Shaper, et al. 1988, Tjonneland, et al. 1999, Mortensen, et al. 2001, Naimi, |
| 62 | et al. 2005, Fillmore, et al. 2007, Stockwell, et al. 2007, Fillmore, et al. 2008). In order to |
| 63 | evaluate these confounding, we undertook a large population study to analyse the relationship |
| 64 | between alcohol intake and other cardiovascular risk factors in a large French population. We |
| 65 | assessed a number of key factors not taken into account in earlier well conducted studies; |
| 66 | these include social factors, health status (mental well-being, subjective health status), |
| 67 | respiratory function, anthropometric values, heart rate and pulse pressure. |

Methods

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Subjects were examined at the IPC (Clinical and Preventive Investigation Center in Paris, France). This Medical Center, which is subsidized by the French National Health Care system (Social Security-CNAMTS), offers a complementary medical examination to all working and retired individuals and their families once every five years. It is one of the largest medical centers of this kind in France, carrying out approximately 25,000 health examinations per year for people living in the Paris area. Our study population underwent a health checkup at the IPC Center between January 1999 and December 2005 and was composed of 149, 773 subjects (97, 406 men and 52, 367 women) with a mean age of 47.6 ± 15 and 47.0 ± 12 years respectively). Supine blood pressure (BP) was measured in the right arm using a manual mercury sphygmomanometer, after a 10-minute resting period. The first and the fifth Korotkoff phases were used to define systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP). The mean of three measurements was considered as the BP value. Pulse pressure (PP) was defined as the difference between SBP and DBP. Waist circumference (WC) was measured using an inelastic tape placed midway between the lower ribs and iliac crests on the mid-axillary line. Standard biological parameters (enzymatic method, automat HITACHI 917; colorimetric method for albumin dosage and hematology: ABX, Pentra 120) were measured under fasting conditions; HDL-C was measured by direct enzymatic assay with cyclodextrin (Roche Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland). A resting electrocardiogram was recorded. Respiratory function was assessed by spirometry by measuring forced expiratory volume (FEV1). Tobacco consumption (never smoker, ex-smoker and current smoker), physical activity (regular physical activity: yes or no), personal medical history, current medications and alcohol consumption, social status and occupational activity were assessed using a self-

administered questionnaire. Stress and depression scores were assessed by validated

questionnaires (Cohen, et al. 1983) (Beck, et al. 1974); Subjected Health Status (SHS) score were collected with a self-estimation on a scale between 0 to 10. Alcohol intake was quantified as the number of standardized glasses of alcohol (10 g/glass) consumed per day. Each type of alcoholic beverage (i.e. cider and beer, wine, appetizer) was recorded. Total alcohol intake was calculated as the sum of all types of alcohol consumed and the corresponding quantity (as grams of alcohol) was estimated. All clinical and biological parameters were evaluated on the same day of the examination.

The IPC Center received authorization from the *National Committee of Information and Civil Liberty* to conduct these analyses. All subjects gave their informed consent at the time of the examination.

Statistical analysis

Alcohol consumption was divided into 5 classes: (1): Never alcohol consumption, (2): Low alcohol consumers (less than on glass per day), (3): moderate alcohol consumers (between 1 and 3 glasses per days), (4): High alcohol consumers (more than 3 glasses), (5): subjects who previously consumed alcohol but who no longer consume alcohol (former drinkers). As a consequence of the heterogeneity in the group of former drinkers (time elapsed since cessation of alcohol consumption, reason for this cessation...), data in this group were analysed separately.

For quantitative variables, the four first groups were compared by multivariate model analysis, which included age in order to take into account the difference in age observed between the different groups; respiratory function (FEV1) was compared across the groups before and after further adjustment for tobacco status. For qualitative variables, comparisons were made using the Chi2 test. As one may hypothezise that the relationships between alcohol and health and social status are not identical in males and females, we analysed these relationships on the basis of stratification by gender. All parameters associated with alcohol

consumption in univariate analysis were included in a multivariate model. Forward regression analysis was carried out and all variables remaining in the model were significant with p<0.05. All statistical analyses were performed with SAS statistical software (version 8.2). **Results** Data from a total of 149, 773 subjects (97, 406 men and 52, 367 women) were analyzed. The average ages of men and women were 47.6 ± 15 and 47.0 ± 12 years respectively. In this population, 13.7% of the men and 23.9% of the women were abstinent (4.5% former drinkers and 9.2% never drinkers in men; 20.1% never drinkers and 3.1% former drinkers in women). Total alcohol intake increased with age both in men and women. **Figure 1** presents the type of alcoholic beverage preferred according to sex and age. With the exception of the subgroup of young subjects (<30 years of age), alcoholic beverages mainly consisted of wine. In addition, wine consumption increased with age whereas those of beer and appetizers decreased (p<0.0001). Age-adjusted clinical characteristics of the study population according to alcohol consumption (never, low, moderate and heavy drinkers) are presented in Table 1 for men and in **Table 2** for women. In women, BMI, WC, hip circumference, waist-to-hip ratio as well as the prevalence of obesity (BMI > 30 kg/m²) were all lowest in moderate drinkers and highest in never drinkers. No clear relationship was observed between alcohol consumption and anthropometric variables in men; however, moderate drinkers were less likely to be obese as compared to other groups. In women, SBP and DBP differed as a function of alcohol consumption, being lowest in moderate drinkers and highest in never drinkers. Moreover, in women, PP was negatively associated with alcohol intake, being highest in female never drinkers. In men, the lowest value for SBP was observed in low drinkers, whereas there was a

progressive increase in DBP with increment in alcohol intake; PP was the lowest in low and

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moderate drinkers as compared to never drinkers. Heart rate was the lowest in moderate drinkers in both men and women. There was a significant positive relationship between smoking and alcohol consumption. In women, moderate drinkers were more likely to declare that they practiced regular physical activity as compared to the other groups. By contrast in men, never drinkers reported the highest level of physical activity. In both genders, respiratory function assess by FEV1 was highest in moderate drinkers and lowest in never drinkers. Similar results were observed after adjustment for tobacco consumption (data not shown). In men, the percentage of subjects living alone was the highest among never drinkers and lowest among moderate drinkers. By contrast, in women, moderate drinkers were more likely to live alone than never drinkers. SHS across the groups is presented on **Figure 3**. The proportion of subjects with a low evaluation of their SHS was lowest in the group of moderate alcohol consumers and the highest in never drinkers; this finding was observed in both genders. Score values of depression and stress differed significantly among groups distinguished by the level of alcohol consumption. For both scores, minimal values were observed among moderate alcohol consumers in both women and men. Higher values of these scores were observed among individuals who were abstainers. Intermediate values were observed among heavy drinkers. **Tables 3 and 4** show age-adjusted means of biological parameters in men and women respectively. MGV as well as GGT were positively associated with self-reported alcohol consumption, thereby confirming the validity of data collection concerning alcohol intake. In both genders, total cholesterol levels were positively associated with alcohol consumption. The lowest levels of total cholesterol were observed among never drinkers while the highest were observed among heavy drinkers. In men, LDL-Cholesterol (LDL-C) levels were also positively associated with alcohol consumption. In women, the lowest values of LDL-C were

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observed among moderate drinkers. In both genders, the lowest values of plasma triglycerides and fasting blood glucose were observed among low or moderate drinkers.

Mean values (SEM) of HDL-C concentration are presented in **Tables 3** (for men) and **4** (for women) and in **figure 2**. In both genders, the level of HDL-C was the lowest among never drinkers and increased linearly with alcohol consumption. This relationship was similar across age groups, and equally persisted in hypertriglyceridemic subjects. Moreover, this relationship was independent of the type of alcoholic beverage consumed (data not shown). A multivariate analysis was performed in order to determine the factors associated with low or moderate alcohol consumption (Table 5). This analysis revealed that FEV1, age, current smoking, HDL-C, general health status, a lower anxiety score, cholesterol, Gamma-GT, a lower heart rate, the absence of diabetes and an absence of regular physical activity were the major factors which were positively associated with low or moderate alcohol consumption.

Discussion

In this-cross sectional study, alcohol consumption was strongly associated with several clinical, social and biological characteristics that favour a superior overall health status and a lower risk of CVD in moderate alcohol drinkers as compared to never drinkers. Our multivariate analysis, which included all factors associated with alcohol consumption in the univariate analysis, confirmed that moderate and low drinkers display a superior health status as compared with never drinkers. Importantly, few of these factors seem causally related to alcohol consumption.

In this study, the relationship between alcohol intake and HDL-C levels was strong and constant in both sexes. Moreover, it was independent of the type of alcoholic beverage consumed. In this context, it is relevant that Rimm and colleagues quantified the effect of

alcohol consumption in a metaanalysis of 25 studies (Rimm, et al. 1999), and clearly

established a causal relationship between alcohol and HDL-C levels. However, to our knowledge, the causal relationship between alcohol-related increment in HDL-C levels and reduction in cardiovascular risk remains to be established. Previous studies have focused on the importance of HDL functionality, i.e the capacity of HDL particles to protect against atherosclerosis, which might be more informative than quantitative data on HDL-C (Kontush, et al. 2006). Alcohol may impact HDL metabolism and functionality, but there are few data which demonstrate that this effect is beneficial. Some studies suggest that ethanol may impair HDL function despite an increase in HDL-C. (Marmillot, et al. 2007). (Hannuksela, et al. 1992). Thus, the influence of alcohol on HDL cannot simply be interpreted as a cardioprotective effect. In our study, the BMI and the percentage of obese subjects in both men and women, as well as the WC in women, were lowest in moderate drinkers. The earliest observational studies reported discordant results concerning the association between alcohol intake and anthropometric variables (Suter 2005). Several studies reported a J-shaped relationship between alcohol consumption and BMI and waist-to-hip ratio, such that light to moderate drinking was believed to exert beneficial effects in reducing weight, whereas non-drinking and heavy or risky drinking exerted the opposite effect (Colditz, et al. 1991, Arif, et al. 2005) (Lukasiewicz, et al. 2005). Other studies have revealed a positive relationship between alcohol intake and BMI and/or WC. Thus, there is no clear evidence of a favourable or unfavourable effect of alcohol intake on weight and body fat distribution. Lower WC noncausally related with moderate alcohol intake might thus, in part, account for the apparent protective effect of alcohol intake. SBP in both sexes, as well as DBP, was lower in moderate drinkers as compared to abstainers. Moreover PP, which might represent a potent CV risk factor (Panagiotakos, et al. 2005), was significantly lower in drinkers. These results are strongly suggestive of a confounding effect.

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Indeed, moderate alcohol consumption is known to have no effect or even to increase blood pressure (Suter 2005). Importantly, social status was strikingly different across the groups. Our findings demonstrate that moderate alcohol consumption is a powerful general indicator of optimal social status. These findings are concordant with those of other published reports. Thus, Mortensen et al. concluded that the association between drinking habits and social and psychological characteristics in Denmark may in large part explain the apparent health benefits of wine (Mortensen, et al. 2001). Another study conducted by Naimi et al. led to a similar conclusion in a population-based telephone survey of US adults (Naimi, et al. 2005). The majority of well conducted studies which have assessed CVD as a function of alcohol intake do not take into account adjustment for social status. Residual confounding is likely when a single index of social status is used as a covariate in other studies of the beneficial CV effect of alcohol. Global health status assessed by a scale of SHS was highest in moderate drinkers. Subjective health provides a global assessment of health status and is a strong predictor of total mortality (Idler, et al. 1997). Our present findings are consistent with those of the study by Stranges and al., in which non-current drinkers reported poorer physical and mental health than life-time abstainers and current drinkers (Stranges, et al. 2006). A similar pattern was observed for the relationship between depression score, anxiety score and alcohol intake. No evidence was obtained to support the conclusion that this relationship might be causal in nature. Our data collection included measurement of respiratory function. Drinkers displayed higher forced expiratory volume in one second and forced vital capacity. Impaired pulmonary function is a strong predictor of cardiovascular and all-cause mortality in the general population independent of smoking (Friedman, et al. 1976) (Schunemann, et al. 2000). Thus, our findings may partially explain the apparent protective effect of alcohol. Whether the relationship between alcohol intake and pulmonary function is causal remains indeterminate

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244 since published literature shows conflincting results. (Lebowitz 1981) (Lange, et al. 1988) 245 (Zureik, et al. 1996). (Sparrow, et al. 1983) (Twisk, et al. 1998) (Murray, et al. 1998) (Cohen, 246 et al. 1980). Our findings therefore support the need to integrate pulmonary function in 247 multivariate analysis when studying the effect of alcohol on CVD or health status. 248 Our data thus show that several social, clinical and biological variables differ markedly 249 according to alcohol consumption. Other studies are consistent with our data and show that 250 moderate drinkers, particularly wine drinkers, consume a healthy diet and have a healthy 251 behavioural pattern as compared to other drinkers or abstainers (Ruidavets, et al. 2004) 252 (Tjonneland, et al. 1999). 253 Our multivariate analysis showed that several risk factors which are rarely or never taken into 254 account in previous observational studies are associated with alcohol intake independently of 255 traditional risk factors. Interestingly, FEV1, socio-professional status, SHS, anxiety score, 256 waist circumference and HR all remained associated with alcohol consumption with a more 257 favourable profile in low or moderate drinkers vs never drinkers. These results emphasise the 258 caution with which one must interpret results of observational studies. Another concern in 259 observational studies is misclassification. Shaper and al. proposed that ex-drinkers who 260 ceased drinking because of illness or cardiovascular risk factors were often misclassified with 261 never drinkers, thus artifactually raising the cardiovascular risk of abstainers (Shaper, et al. 262 1988). This hypothesis was discarded in some studies which reported association after 263 exclusion of ex-drinkers (Fagrell, et al. 1999). However, in two meta-analyses (Fillmore, et al. 264 2007) (Stockwell, et al. 2007), the apparent protective effect of alcohol disappeared when 265 occasional and ex-drinkers were excluded from the group of abstainers subjects. 266 Taken together, our results raise the possibility that the protective effect of alcohol may be an 267 artifactual association due to uncontrolled confounding. Although several observational 268 studies on alcohol consumption were of very high quality, bias cannot be excluded. As

emphazised by previous examples with hormonal replacement therapy or antioxidant supplementation (Neuzil, et al. 2001), the observational design cannot lead to conclude to causal relationships. However, our results cannot eliminate the cardioprotective effect of alcohol. The strength of the present report emanates from the use of a relatively healthy large cohort of subjects who were characterized with standardized and validated clinical and biological methods. The main weakness of our study is its cross-sectional design. Another potential limitation concerns the fact that alcohol intake was based on self-reported data with the possibility of misclassification of exposure. However all previous studies have assessed alcohol intake in a similar manner. The positive relationship observed between plasma levels of GGT, MCV and the ordered groups of alcohol consumption led us to conclude that classification on the basis of the quantity of alcohol consumed was satisfactory. Furthermore, misclassification would have reduced the relationship between alcohol intake and risk factors. The third limitation in our study involved the self-selection of subjects who attended the screening centers. However, analysis of the co-morbidity and causes of mortality of subjects in our cohort lead us to consider this population as representative of the population of the urban region of Paris-Ile-de -France. In conclusion, our data reveal that mild and moderate drinkers display a more favourable health status and a lower cardiovascular risk profile (especially when we consider nontraditional CV risk factors) than never drinkers and heavy drinkers. No human clinical data other than those from observational studies are currently available to support a causal relationship between alcohol intake and CVD. Rather than a beneficial effect of alcohol consumption on classic or emerging cardiovascular risk factors, we must hypothesize that moderate drinking is a marker of a higher social level, superior general health status and lower cardiovascular risk. Future epidemiological studies assessing the relationship between

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| 294 | alcohol and CVD should cautiously select the covariates for the multivariate analysis. Our |
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| 295 | data suggest that it is clearly premature to promote alcohol consumption as the basis of |
| 296 | cardiovascular protection until such time as the causal role of alcohol in cardioprotection is |
| 297 | fully proven. |
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| 304 | Assistance Publique – Hôpitaux de Paris/INSERM (France). |
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| 306 | Conflicts of interest |
| 307 | The authors have no conflict of interest to declare for this paper. |
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Table 1: Age-adjusted clinical characteristics of men in the urban Paris-Ile-de- France

311 Cohort

| Alcohol intake | never | Low | Moderate | Heavy | P for trend |
|---|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-------------|
| N (%) | 8921 (9.2) | 46 550 (47.8) | 24 221 (24.9) | 13 311 (13.7) | |
| Age (years) | 42.8 (14.0) | 45.4 (12.1) | 49.4 (12.0) | 51.1 (11.3) | < 0.0001 |
| Weight (kg) | 75.6 (0.13) | 77.7 (0.06) | 77.3 (0.08) | 78.3 (0.10) | < 0.0001 |
| BMI (kg/m²) | 25.4 (0.04) | 25.5 (0.02) | 25.3 (0.02) | 25.6 (0.03) | < 0.0001 |
| % Obesity (n) * | 11.6 (1026) | 10.1 (4705) | 9.2 (2214) | 12.3 (1628 | < 0.0001 |
| WC (cm) | 88.4 (0.10) | 89.4 (0.05) | 89.4 (0.06) | 90.1 (0.09) | < 0.0001 |
| Hip circumference (cm) | 99.3 (0.08) | 100.1 (0.04) | 99.9 (0.05) | 99.7 (0.07) | < 0.0001 |
| WHR | 0.89(0.0007) | 0.89 (0.0002) | 0.89 (0.0004) | 0.90 (0.001) | < 0.0001 |
| SBP (mmHg) | 133.8(0.18) | 133.1 (0.08) | 133.4 (0.11) | 136.1 (0.15) | < 0.0001 |
| DBP (mmHg) | 78.8 (0.12) | 79.3 (0.05) | 79.7 (0.07) | 81.6 (0.10) | < 0.0001 |
| PP (mmHg) | 54.9 (0.12) | 53.7 (0.05) | 53.7 (0.07) | 54.4 (0.10) | < 0.0001 |
| HR (bt/mn) | 63.6 (0.11) | 62.0 (0.05) | 62.0 (0.07) | 63.5 (0.09) | < 0.0001 |
| FEV1 | 0.86 (0.002) | 0.93 (0.0008) | 0.94 (0.001) | 0.91 (0.001) | < 0.0001 |
| % Current smokers (n) | 8.6 (1656) | 29.4 (13664) | 31.9 (7722) | 44.9 (5981) | < 0.0001 |
| Anxiety score** | 4.48 (0.03) | 3.45 (0.01) | 3.45 (0.02) | 3.92 (0.03) | < 0.0001 |
| Depression score*** | 1.35 (0.02) | 1.23 (0.01) | 1.25 (0.02) | 1.69 (0.02) | < 0.0001 |
| SHS score # | 20.2 (1798) | 12.0 (5570) | 12.0 (2906) | 17.2 (2285) | < 0.0001 |
| % Physical activity (yes) (n) | 49.0 (4367) | 47.2 (21 970) | 48.1 (11 641) | 47.0 (6249) | < 0.05 |
| % Hypertensives (n) | 29.9 (2560) | 32.4 (14 418) | 38.2 (8964) | 46.8 (5699) | < 0.0001 |
| % Diabetics (n) | 4.7 (416) | 2.8 (1236) | 3.1 (742) | 4.6 (568) | < 0.0001 |
| % Subjects Living alone (n) | 29.4 (2608) | 21.9 (10195) | 18.8 (4548) | 23.9 (3172) | < 0.0001 |
| Education (%,n) | | | | | |
| -No educational or professional | 17.4 (1151) | 6.3 (2119) | 6.3 (782) | 10.3 (902) | < 0.0001 |
| diploma -High school diploma, or superior SPC (%,n) | 21.0 (1390) | 39.0 (13040) | 42.9 (5327) | 34.6 (3019) | <0.0001 |
| -Unemployed | 28.1 (2452) | 12.5 (5617) | 9.9 (2357) | 16.0 (1985) | |
| -Profession, White collar | 18.6 (1626) | 49.2 (22170) | 56.5 (13409) | 48.2 (5978) | < 0.0001 |

| | -Employés, Blue collar 5 | 53.3 (4660) 38.3 (17261) | 33.6 (7978) | 35.8 (4430) |
|-----|---|--------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 312 | Values are (means (SEM)); BMI, boo | dy mass index; WC, waist c | ircumference; W | HR, waist-to-hip ratio; SBP, |
| 313 | systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastoli | ic blood pressure; PP, pulse | pressure; HR, he | eart rate, FEV1, forced |
| 314 | expiratory volume in one second; VC | c, vital capacity; SHS subject | ctive health status | s; * BMI > 30 kg/m^2 , **, |
| 315 | (Cohen, et al. 1983); *** (Beck, et al. | . 1974); # % (n) of subjects | with a less favou | arable SHS (score $\leq 5/10$); |
| 316 | SPC, socio-professional category. | | | |
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Table 2: Age adjusted clinical characteristics of women in the urban Paris-Ile-de- France Cohort

| Alcohol intake | never | low | Moderate | heavy | P |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------|----------|
| N (%) | 10523 (20.1) | 30547 (58.4) | 7705 (14.7) | 1581 (3.0) | |
| Age (years) | 43.1 (15.9) | 47.6 (14.4) | 53.4 (14.0) | 51.5 (13.3) | |
| Weight (kg) | 64.3 (0.12) | 62.0 (0.07) | 60.9 (0.14) | 62.3 (0.30) | < 0.0001 |
| BMI (kg/m²) | 25.4 (0.04) | 23.9 (0.03) | 23.2 (0.05) | 23.5 (0.11) | < 0.0001 |
| % Obesity (n) * | 17.5 (1825) | 9.0 (2746) | 6.7 (512) | 8.1 (128) | < 0.0001 |
| WC (cm) | 79.4 (0.10) | 76.0 (0.06) | 75.2 (0.12) | 76.5 (0.27) | < 0.0001 |
| Hip circumference (cm) | 99.3 (0.09) | 97.1 (0.05) | 96.1 (0.11) | 96.5 (0.23) | < 0.0001 |
| WHR | 0.80 (0.0006) | 0.78 (0.0004) | 0.78 (0.001) | 0.79 (0.002) | < 0.0001 |
| SBP (mmHg) | 130.5 (0.18) | 127.7 (0.10) | 127.3 (0.21) | 128.6 (0.46) | < 0.0001 |
| DBP (mmHg) | 76.3 (0.11) | 75.2 (0.06) | 75.1 (0.13) | 76.6 (0.28) | < 0.0001 |
| PP (mmHg) | 54.3 (0.12) | 52.5 (0.07) | 52.3 (0.14) | 52.0 (0.32) | < 0.0001 |
| HR (bt/mn) | 66.7 (0.10) | 64.3 (0.06) | 64.0 (0.12) | 64.5 (0.26) | < 0.0001 |
| FEV1 | 0.90 (0.002) | 0.93 (0.001) | 0.94 (0.002) | 0.91 (0.004) | < 0.0001 |
| % Current smokers (n) | 13.5 (1419) | 24.8 (7575) | 28.0 (2163) | 46.2 (731) | < 0.0001 |
| Anxiety score** | 5.33 (0.03) | 4.59 (0.02) | 4.61 (0.04) | 5.10 (0.08) | < 0.0001 |
| Depression score*** | 2.70 (0.03° | 2.26 (0.02) | 2.33 (0.04) | 2.99 (0.08) | < 0.0001 |
| SHS score # | 32.0 (3359) | 19.5 (5937) | 18.2 (324) | 22.9 (361) | < 0.0001 |
| % Hypertensives (n) | 27.2 (2743) | 27.7 (8193) | 34.2 (2513) | 35.4 (506) | < 0.0001 |
| % Diabetics (n) | 3.7 (378) | 1.52 (457) | 1.76 (131) | 2.19 (32) | < 0.0001 |
| % Subjects Living alone (n) | 29.5 (3100) | 35.7 (10 891) | 33.5 (2579) | 38.0 (600) | <0.0001 |
| Education (%,n) | _,,, | ((() () () () | | | |
| -No educational or professional | 17.6 (1379 | 7.6 (1531) | 6.4 (263) | 6.4 (74) | < 0.0001 |
| diploma | | | | | |
| -High school diploma, or superior | 15.3 (1200 |) 27.4 (5525) | 29.8 (1219) | 33.7 (390) | < 0.0001 |
| SPC (%,n) -Unemployed | 43.4 (4474 | 23.7 (7147) | 24.5 (1832) | 31.2 (456) | |
| -Profession, White collar | 9.4 (974) | | 28.6 (2138) | 30.5 (445) | < 0.0001 |
| -Employés, Blue collar | 47.2 (4873 | ` ' | 46.9 (3501) | 38.3 (558) | -0.0001 |

| Values are (means (SEM)); BMI, body mass index; WC, waist circumference; WHR, waist-to-hip ratio; SBP, |
|--|
| systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; PP, pulse pressure; HR, heart rate, FEV1, forced |
| expiratory volume in one second; SHS, subjective health status; *BMI > 30 kg/m², **, (Cohen, et al. 1983); ** |
| (Beck, et al. 1974); $^{\#}$ % (n) of subjects with a less favourable SHS (score \leq 5/10); SPC, socio-professional |
| category. |
| |
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| |

329 Tale 3: Age-adjusted biological characteristics of men in the urban Paris-Ile-de- France Cohort

| Alcohol intake | never | Low | Moderate | Heavy | P |
|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|----------|
| | 8921 (9.2%) | 46 55(47.8%) | 24 221 (24.9%) | 13 311 (13.7%) | |
| CT (mg/dl) | 200 (0.004) | 214 (0.002) | 217 (0.003) | 222 (0.003) | <0.0001 |
| FBG (mg/dl) | 99 (0.002) | 98 (0.001) | 98 (0.001) | 100 (0.002) | < 0.0001 |
| Triglycerides (mg/dl) | 109 (0.008) | 111 (0.004) | 110 (0.005) | 122 (0.007) | < 0.0001 |
| HDL-C (mg/dl) | 52.2 (0.15) | 55.9 (0.07) | 58.2 (0.09) | 60.1(0.12) | < 0.0001 |
| LDL-C (mg/dl) | 126.8 (0.38) | 135.8 (0.17) | 137.4 (0.23) | 138.1 (0.31) | < 0.0001 |
| MGV (μ3) | 89.2 (0.09) | 90.9 (0.04) | 92.3 (0.05) | 93.8 (0.08) | < 0.0001 |
| Gamma-Gt (UI/l) | 30.0 (0.59) | 34.5 (0.26) | 38.7 (0.36) | 58.9 (0.48) | < 0.0001 |

³³⁰Values are (means (SEM)); TC, total cholesterol, FBG, fasting blood glucose; LDL-C, LDL-cholesterol; HDL-C, 331HDL-cholesterol; MGV, mean globular volume; P, difference between groups, by ANCOVA 332

333 Table 4: Age-adjusted biological characteristics of women in the urban Paris-Ile-de- France

334 Cohort

| Alcohol intake | never | Low | Moderate | heavy | P |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|----------|
| N (%) | 10523 (20.1%) | 30547 (58.4%) | 7705 (14.7%) | 1581 (3.0%) | |
| Cholesterol (mg/dl) | 206 (0.004) | 212 (0.004) | 212 (0.004) | 216 (0.01) | < 0.0001 |
| FBG (mg/dl) | 94 (0.01) | 92 (0.001) | 93 (0.002) | 94 (0.004) | < 0.0001 |
| Triglycerides (mg/dl) | 90 (0.004) | 82 (0.003) | 81 (0.005) | 90 (0.01) | < 0.0001 |
| HDL-C (mg/dl) | 64.0 (0.16) | 70.1 (0.10) | 73.1 (0.2) | 75.1 (0.4) | < 0.0001 |
| LDL-C (mg/dl) | 124.6 (0.33) | 125.2 (0.19) | 122.8 (0.38) | 123.1 (0.84) | < 0.0001 |
| MGV (μ3) | 88.8 (0.10) | 90.9 (0.06) | 92.5 (0.11) | 94.1 (0.27) | < 0.0001 |
| Gamma-Gt (UI/l) | 21.7 (0.3) | 21.1 (0.2) | 24.6 (0.4) | 38.4 (0.9) | < 0.0001 |

³³⁵Values are (means (SEM)); TC, total cholesterol, FBG, fasting blood glucose; HDL-C, HDL-cholesterol; LDL-336C, LDL-cholesterol; MGV, mean globular volume, P, difference between groups, by ANCOVA 337

Table 5: Multivariate analysis of determinants of moderate or low alcohol consumption *vs* never consumption

| Variable | Score chi- square | OR | CI |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------|-------|-------------|
| High vs low socio professional status | 3069.7 | 0.571 | 0.551-0.592 |
| FEV1 | 953.8 | 1.007 | 1.006-1.008 |
| Age | 1506.3 | 1.038 | 1.036-1.041 |
| Current smoker (Y/N) | 1044.2 | 2.86 | 2.69-3.04 |
| HDL-C (mg/dl) | 827.5 | 1.021 | 1.019-1.022 |
| Good Health Evaluation (SHS<5) | 323.3 | 1.533 | 1.446-1.626 |
| Cholesterol (mg/dl) | 164.6 | 1.003 | 1.002-1.004 |
| Gamma-Gt | 114.8 | 1.009 | 1.007-1.010 |
| Anxiety score | 112.6 | 0.957 | 0.950-0.965 |
| HR | 81.8 | 0.989 | 0.986-0.991 |
| Diabetes (Y/N) | 22.2 | 0.716 | 0.622-0.825 |
| Waist circumference (cm) | 27.11 | 0.990 | 0.987-0.994 |
| Gender (M/F) | 12.0 | 1.13 | 1.06-1.21 |
| Hypertension (Y/N) | 5.1 | 1.07 | 1.009-1.131 |
| | | | |

All parameters associated with alcohol consumption in univariate analysis were included in the multivariate model. Forward regression analysis was carried out and all variables remaining in the model were significant with p<0.05. FEV1, forced expiratory volume in one second, SHS, score health status; HR, heart rate; CI, confidence interval, OR, odd ratio

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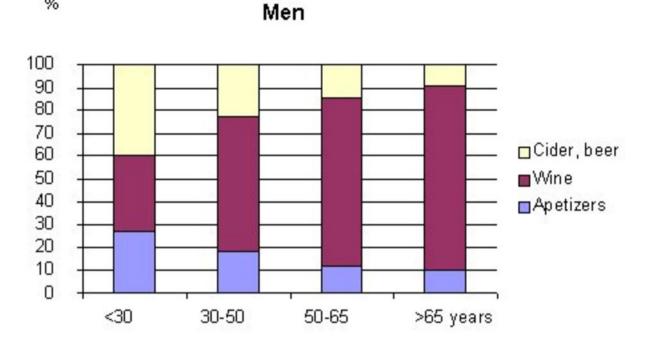
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Figure legends

- Figure 1: Nature of the preferred alcoholic beverage according to sex and age.
- Figure 2: Mean plasma HDL-C concentration expressed as a function of the level of alcohol intake in both women and men.
- Figure 3: % of subjects with a less favourable SHS (score \leq 5) as a function of alcohol intake in both women and men. SHS, Subjective Health Status.



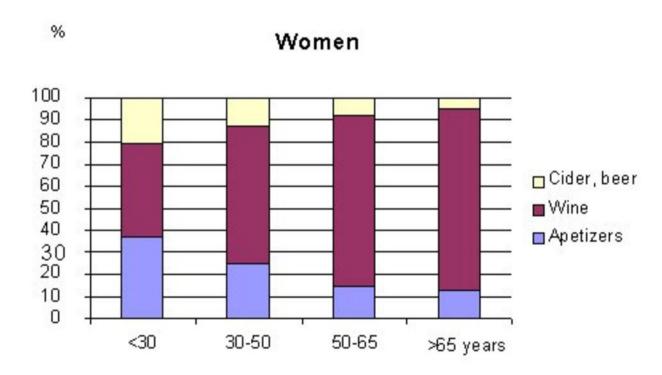


Figure 1

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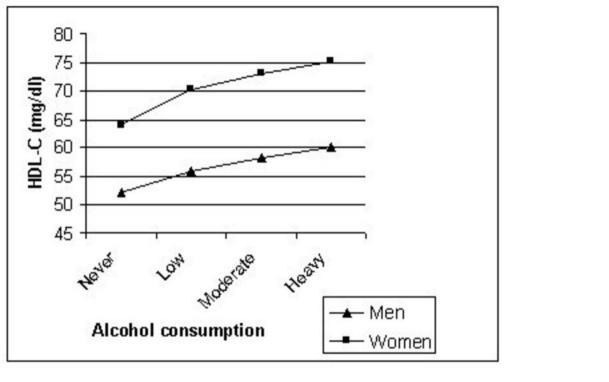


Figure 2

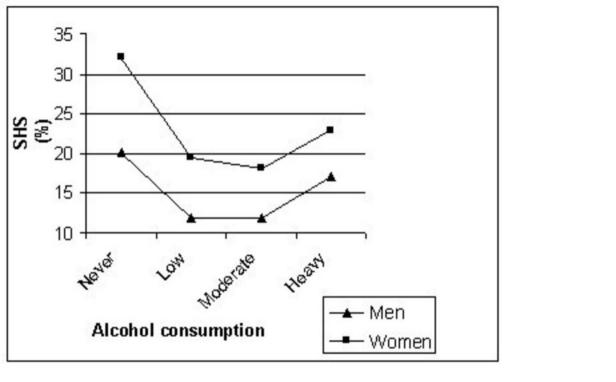


Figure 3