1	Relation of antioxidant capacity of diet and markers of oxidative status with C-reactive
2	protein and adipocytokines: a prospective study.
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28 A	ABST	'RA	СТ

Background: The role of dietary antioxidants and plasma oxidant-antioxidant status in low-29 grade chronic inflammation and adipocytokine levels is not established yet. 30 **Objectives:** We aimed to evaluate whether total dietary antioxidant capacity (assessed by dietary 31 32 ferric reducing antioxidant potential (FRAP)), serum uric acid (UA) and gamma glutamyltransferase (GGT) were associated with low-grade chronic inflammation and circulating 33 adipocytokines. 34 **Methods:** Data of 4,506 participants aged \geq 55 years from the Rotterdam Study were analyzed. 35 Baseline (1990-1993) FRAP score was assessed by a food frequency questionnaire. Baseline UA 36 37 and GGT levels were assessed in non-fasting serum samples. Serum high sensitivity C-reactive 38 protein (hs-CRP) was measured at baseline and 10 years later. Plasma leptin, adiponectin, plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (PAI-1) and resistin levels were assessed 10 years later. 39 40 **Results:** A high FRAP score was associated with lower levels of UA and GGT. Overall, no 41 association was found between FRAP and hs-CRP levels. FRAP score was associated with lower 42 levels of leptin and PAI-1, higher levels of adiponectin, and no difference in resistin levels. 43 Increased levels of UA were associated with higher levels of hs-CRP, PAI-1 and leptin; lower levels of adiponectin and no difference in resistin levels. Similarly, GGT was associated with 44 45 higher levels of hs-CRP whereas no association was observed between GGT and adipocytokines. 46 **Conclusion:** These findings suggest that overall antioxidant capacity of diet and low levels of UA are associated with circulating adipocytokines whereas no consistent association was found 47 48 with hs-CRP.

- 49 Key words: total antioxidant capacity of diet, uric acid, gamma- glutamyltransferase, C- reactive
- 50 protein, adipocytokines, low-grade inflammation.

51

53 **1. INTRODUCTION**

54 Low-grade chronic inflammation has been involved in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis and development of coronary heart disease (CHD) [1, 2]. C-reactive protein (CRP), an acute phase 55 56 reactant, is a general marker of low-grade chronic inflammation and has been associated with 57 markers of atherosclerosis and CHD [2-4]. Plasma sensitive CRP (hs-CRP) correlates with 58 obesity and obesity-related disorders, including insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes [5]. Adipose tissue synthesizes and releases many inflammatory mediators into the systemic 59 circulation termed adipocytokines, and include leptin, adiponectin, plasminogen activator 60 inhibitor-1 (PAI-1) and resistin, all of which can initiate the development of chronic 61 62 inflammation and may directly contribute to metabolic and vascular diseases [6-15]. 63 An imbalance between plasma oxidants-antioxidants (oxidative stress) as well as dietary antioxidants have been suggested to play a role in systemic low-grade chronic inflammation [16]. 64 Oxidative stress, defined as an increased load of free radicals, induces the activation of NF- κ B, a 65 66 transcription factor involved in cell survival, differentiation, and inflammation [17]. Antioxidant molecules neutralize such free radicals and therefore diminish low-grade inflammation. Dietary 67 antioxidants, including vitamin A, E and C, can counteract oxidative stress and therefore its 68 adverse effect on inflammation [18]. However, studies evaluating the role of individual 69 70 antioxidants on inflammation have shown contradictory results, which can be due to not taking into account the interactive effect among nutrients [19]. Hence, assessing the overall effects of 71 antioxidants in the diet instead of the individual effects can provide further information regarding 72 the association between diet and inflammation [19]. The ferric reducing antioxidant potential 73 74 (FRAP) measures the overall antioxidant capacity of diet by measuring the reduction of ferric iron (Fe3+) to ferrous iron (Fe2+)[20] and, has been used as a marker of the overall effects of 75

76 antioxidants in many studies. FRAP has been associated with inflammatory related diseases,

- including cardiovascular disease and cancer [21, 22]. However, only a few studies have assessed
- its role on inflammation and adipocytokine levels [22-24]. Furthermore, serum levels of uric acid

79 (UA) and gamma-glutamyl transferase (GGT) are considered endogenous markers of oxidative

stress [25]. Both levels of UA and GGT positively correlate with markers of low-grade

81 inflammation including hs-CRP, but how UA and GGT levels relate longitudinally with hs-CRP

and adipocytokine levels remains unclear [26-29].

83 Therefore, we aimed to assess whether FRAP and endogenous markers of oxidative stress, UA

84 and GGT, were associated with low-grade chronic inflammation and circulating adipocytokine

concentrations in a prospective cohort of middle aged and elderly men and women.

86 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study was performed within the Rotterdam Study (RS), a population-based cohort among individuals 55 years and over in the Ommoord district of Rotterdam, the Netherlands. The rationale and design of the RS is described elsewhere [30]. The baseline examination (RS-I) took place in 1990-1993. Trained research assistants collected data on medical history, current health status, use of medication, lifestyle and risk indicators for chronic diseases during an extensive home interview. Subsequently the participants visited the study center for detailed clinical examinations and assessment of diet. Follow up visits were held every 3-4 years.

94 2.1 MEASUREMENTS

95 2.1.1 Assessment of ferric reducing antioxidant potential (FRAP)

96 Dietary antioxidant capacity was assessed from the FFO (Online Supplemental Material) the participants filled in during the interview. We used the Antioxidant Food Table published by the 97 Institute of Nutrition Research, University of Oslo, which includes measurements of >3,000 98 foods [31], to calculate each food's contribution to ferric reducing antioxidant potential. The 99 FRAP assay assesses the antioxidant capacity of individual food items to reduce ferric iron (Fe^{3+}) 100 to ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) [20]. Since the food table consisted of foods from several manufacturers, 101 we consulted nutritional experts at Wageningen University (the Netherlands) to determine the 102 linkage of foods from several manufacturers that were closest to the Dutch food products. For 103 104 each participant, we multiplied the consumption frequency of each food by the corresponding FRAP value (in mmol/100g), and summed these values across all dietary sources. Vitamin 105 supplementation was not included in the FRAP assessment because there were no detailed data 106 107 available. Most variation in dietary FRAP score was explained by intakes of coffee (65%) and tea (21%) as described previously[21]. 108

109 2.1.2 Assessment of Uric Acid and Gamma–glutamyltransferase (GGT)

Values of serum UA and GGT were obtained from baseline (1990-1993) non-fasting blood 110 samples, which were centrifuged and the serum was subsequently frozen $(-20^{\circ}C)$ for 1 week. 111 UA was determined with a Kone Diagnostica reagent kit and a Kone autoanalyzer. In order to 112 check the calibration, 3 control samples were included every 10 samples. If the average values of 113 the control samples of each run (100 samples) were not within 2.5% of the true value, the run 114 was repeated. Day-by-day variation had to be within 5% [32]. Serum GGT levels were 115 determined within two weeks using a Merck Diagnostica kit (Merck, Whitehouse Station, NJ, 116 117 USA) on an Elan Autoanalyzer (Merck).

118 2.1.3 Assessment of hs-CRP and adipocytokines

hs-CRP was measured in non-fasting frozen serum of study participants at baseline (1990-1993)
and at the third center visit (1997-1999). A rate near-infrared particle immunoassay (Immage
Immunochemistry System, Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA, USA) was used. This system
measures concentrations from 0.2 to 1440mg/l, with a within-run precision of 0.5%, a total
precision <7.5% and a reliability coefficient of 0.995. Undetectable CRP was scored as 0.2
(n=72).

125 For assessment of adipocytokines, fasting blood samples were collected at the research center, in the third center visit (1997-1999). Plasma was isolated and immediately put on ice and stored at 126 127 -80°C. Citrate plasma (200Ul) was sent in July 2008 to Rules-Based Medicine, Austin, Texas 128 (www.myriadrbm.com). Fifty inflammatory biomarkers were quantified using multiplex immunoassay on a custom designed human multianalyte profile. The intra-assay variability was 129 less than 4% and the inter assay variability was less than 13%. Biomarkers with more than 60% 130 131 completeness of measurements were selected for imputation and further analysis. Data on leptin, adiponectin, plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 (PAI-1) and resistin, major inflammatory markers 132 released by adipose tissue [7], were available. The inflammatory markers investigated in the 133 current study have no standard international calibration reference therefore, interpretation of the 134 absolute values should be with caution. Since the current study is conducted within one set of 135 individuals, the use of relative measures should not affect the effect estimates. 136

137 2.2 POPULATION FOR ANALYSIS

138 **2.2.1 FRAP and inflammation**

139 In the baseline examination (1990-1993) of the first cohort of the Rotterdam Study, 7,983 140 participants were included. Of out 7,983 participants, 6,521 participants were invited for dietary intake interview, out of which only 5,435 (83%) participants completed food frequency 141 questionnaire and therefore had complete information on dietary intake. Moreover, out of 7,983 142 participants, randomly we invited 7,129 participants to assess cardiovascular risk factors, 143 including CRP. However, only 6658 (93.3%) had C-reactive protein assessed. Participants with 144 available information on both dietary and C-reactive protein levels were 5104. Further, we 145 excluded 598 participants who reported use of anti-inflammatory drugs at baseline and/or during 146 147 the follow-up (n=598), leaving 4,506 participants for the analysis of FRAP with CRP (Figure 1). In addition, leptin, adiponectin, PAI-1 and resistin were measured in a random subsample of 971 148 participants, hence only 798 participants were included in the analysis of FRAP with 149 adipocytokines (Figure 1). 150

151 2.2.2 Uric acid, gamma-glutamyltransferase and inflammation

In the baseline examination (1990-1993) of the first cohort of the Rotterdam Study, 7,983 152 participants were included. Uric acid and GGT data were available for 5,047 subjects (Figure 2). 153 Out of these, 893 participants were excluded either because they did not have CRP measured at 154 the first visit or because they reported use of anti-inflammatory drugs at baseline and/or during 155 156 the follow-up, leaving 4,154 participants for the analysis of uric acid with CRP and GGT with CRP. 3,447 participants were further excluded because they did not have measures of other 157 inflammatory markers, hence 707 participants were included in the analysis of uric acid and 158 GGT with leptin, adiponectin, PAI-1 and resistin (Figure 2). 159

160 2.3 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

161 Data are presented as mean (± standard deviation) for normally distributed continuous variables, 162 median (range) for continuous variables that are not normally distributed, and percentages for categorical variables. We used natural log-transformed values of serum CRP concentrations, 163 GGT, non-fasting serum glucose, leptin, adiponectin, PAI-1 and resistin to better approximate a 164 normal distribution. Pearson correlations were used to assess the correlations between 165 inflammatory markers. To account for systematic measurement error in FRAP, FRAP was 166 adjusted for total energy intake by using the residual method in the analysis[33]. FRAP was 167 analyzed continuously. For analyses evaluating CRP as outcome, we fitted linear regression 168 169 models using generalized estimating equations with exchangeable correlation structure adjusting 170 for the within-subject correlations due to the repeated measurements of CRP in the same individual (inter-class correlation coefficient = 0.682 for natural log-transformed CRP) [34]. 171 Multivariable linear regression was used to examine whether FRAP, GGT and UA were 172 independently associated with blood levels of adiponectin, leptin, resistin and PAI-1. Regression 173 coefficients (β s) and 95% confidence intervals were obtained on the basis of robust standard 174 175 errors (95% CI). First, we calculated age and gender adjusted coefficients (Model 1) for the following exposure: FRAP, GGT and UA. Subsequently in Model 2, we adjusted for potential 176 177 confounders when the covariates changed the effect estimate by more than 10% in univariate models of each exposure with any of the outcomes assessed. The following potential 178 confounding factors, were evaluated: body mass index (BMI) (continuous), energy intake 179 180 (continuous), physical activity(continuous), smoking status (never or former, current), lipid lowering medication use (Yes, No), systolic blood pressure(continuous), total 181 cholesterol(continuous), vitamin supplementation (Yes, No), hormone replacement therapy 182 183 (HRT) (Yes, No), prevalent chronic diseases (CVD or T2D) (yes, no), non-fasting blood

184 glucose(continuous), education (low, intermediate, high), income (low, intermediate, high), alcohol, energy-adjusted processed meat intake (continuous), energy-adjusted unprocessed meat 185 intake (continuous), Dutch Healthy Diet index (DHDI)(continuous). For the analysis on leptin, 186 adiponectin, PAI-1 and resistin as outcomes, we also adjusted for CRP in the first visit (1990-187 1993) as a proxy of chronic inflammation at baseline as adipocytokines were measured only at 188 the third round visit (1997-1999). To check for non-linear relation, a quadratic term was tested 189 190 in multivariable model 2. Since there is evidence that the association between diet antioxidants and inflammatory biomarkers differs by sex [35], we tested for statistical interaction by adding a 191 product term in model 2. Furthermore, stratified analysis was performed and the results were 192 presented for model 2. We further checked the association of FRAP with uric acid, and FRAP 193 with GGT using multivariable linear regression models. We also performed sensitivity analyses 194 195 (i) restricting all main analyses to participants with available information on all exposures and outcomes investigated (N=633), (ii) excluding participants with chronic diseases (CVD or T2D) 196 and (iii) further adjusted for BMI change from first to the third visit. A P-value lower than 0.05 197 198 was considered as statistically significant, but to account for multiple testing, we adjusted the pvalue from 0.05 to 0.0166 by applying the Bonferroni correction for the number of exposures 199 200 studied (N=3).

To adjust for potential bias associated with missing data we used multiple imputation procedure
(N= 5 imputations). All analyses were done using SPSS statistical software (SPSS, version 21.0;
SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois).

204 **3. RESULTS**

205 The main characteristics of the study population are shown by gender in Table 1. FRAP score 206 and GGT levels were lower in women compare to men (FRAP: 20.02±5.07 mmol/day vs. 20.83±5.95 mmol/day; GGT: median 21 U/l, range 351U/l vs median 27U/l, range 576 U/l) 207 208 whereas UA levels were higher in women (296.62±71.44 µmol/l vs. 352.88±74.40 µmol/l) (Table 1). CRP levels at baseline were slightly lower in women whereas no significant 209 difference was observed in the CRP levels at the third visit (**Table 1**). Also, women had slightly 210 higher BMI (26.55 vs. 25.68 kg/m²) and leptin levels (median: 14.0 vs 4.02 ng/mL) than men. 211 Although the energy intake was lower in women (1796 vs. 2246.2 kcal/day), they had higher 212 physical activity (89.45 vs 69.15 MET) as well as a healthier diet (DHDI: 31.95 vs. 27.95) than 213 men. Among the adipocytokines, PAI-1 and leptin (r=0.466, p=0.01), PAI-1 and CRP (r=0.325, 214 p=0.01), PAI-1 and adiponectin (r=-0.270, p=0.01), leptin and CRP (r=0.254, p=0.01) showed 215 216 the highest correlation (Supplementary Table S1). Compared to subjects who did not have information on leptin, adiponectin, PAI-1 and resistin, subjects who had information on these 217 inflammatory markers did not differ with respect to FRAP, but had higher levels of CRP, BMI, 218 systolic blood pressure and higher prevalence of chronic disease (Supplementary Table S2). 219

220 **3.1** The association between FRAP score and inflammatory markers

221 There was no association between FRAP and hs-CRP levels in the age and gender-adjusted

model or multivariable model (Table 2). In the multivariable models, FRAP score was

223 associated with lower levels of leptin (β =-0.01, 95% CI=-0.02; -0.001), PAI-1 (β =-0.02, 95% CI=-

224 0.03; -0.01) and higher levels of adiponectin (β =0.01, 95%CI=0.002; 0.015). No association was

225 observed between FRAP and resistin. (Table 2).

226 **3.2** The association between UA, GGT and inflammatory markers

227 After multivariable adjustment, increased levels of UA were associated with higher levels of hs-

228 CRP (β =0.12, 95%CI=0.09; 0.16), leptin (β =0.10, 95%CI=0.05; 0.15) PAI-1 (β =0.15,

229 95%CI=0.09; 0.20), and lower levels of adiponectin (β =-0.07, 95%CI=-0.10; -0.03) (**Table 3**).

230 No association was observed between UA and resistin (Table 3). Similarly, after correcting for

- confounding factors, GGT was associated with higher levels of hs-CRP (β =0.06, 95%CI=0.13;
- 232 0.19) whereas no association was observed between GGT and adipocytokines (**Table 3**).

233 **3.3 Effect modification by gender**

A significant effect modification by sex was found for the association between FRAP score and

hs-CRP (*P*-interaction= 0.009). After stratification, a high dietary FRAP score was associated

with lower levels of hs-CRP in women (β =-0.01, 95%CI=-0.02; -0.003), whereas no association

237 was observed in men (**Supplementary Table S3**). No effect modification by sex was observed

for the association between FRAP score with the adipocytokine levels (All *P*-interaction > 0.05).

239 Similarly, the analyses were not different between strata of sex (Supplementary Table S3).

Also, no sex differences were observed for the association of UA and GGT with CRP and

adipocytokines (All *P*-intercation > 0.05) (**Supplementary Table S4**).

242 **3.4 Sensitivity analyses**

Higher levels of FRAP score were associated with lower levels of both UA (β =-0.003, 95% CI=-

244 0.005; -0.002) and GGT (β =-0.006, 95% CI=-0.009; -0.003), after correcting for confounders

245 (Supplementary Figure S1 and Supplementary Table S5). There was no evidence against a

246 linear relation in all the main analyses (all *P*-values for quadratic term >0.05, data not shown).

Also, all associations that were statistically significant in the main analyses remained unchanged

in terms of statistical significance when the analyses were restricted to (i) participants with

available measures of FRAP, UA, GGT, CRP, leptin, adiponectin, PAI-1 and resistin (n=633)
(data not shown), (ii) to subjects without chronic diseases (Supplementary Table S6 and S7) or
(iii) when we further adjusted for changes in BMI between the first and third visit (data not
shown). The associations of FRAP with adiponectin and PAI-1, of UA with hs-CRP, leptin,
adiponectin, and PAI-1, and the association of GGT with hs-CRP, remained significant after we
applied the Bonferroni correction (all p<0.0166).

255 4. DISCUSSION

256 Overall a higher FRAP score was associated with leptin, adiponectin, and PAI-1 but not with

257 CRP levels. Furthermore, increased levels of both GGT and UA levels were associated with

258 higher levels of pro-inflammatory markers and lower levels of anti-inflammatory markers.

In the current investigation, no association was found between FRAP and CRP levels in the 259 260 overall population, however, in women, a higher FRAP score was associated with diminished 261 chronic inflammation. Similar to our findings, Detopoulou et al in a cross-sectional study of 532 262 men and women found no association between FRAP and CRP levels in the total population 263 [36]. In contrast, a cross-sectional study from Brighenti et al [23], which used the TAC assay to measure antioxidant capacity, showed an association with lower levels of CRP in an adult Italian 264 population including both men and women. We did find an interaction with gender, suggesting 265 that the association between FRAP and CRP levels is present only in women, which is in line 266 with the results of previous studies conducted in women. For example, the study from Kobayashi 267 at al.[24] showed that dietary total antioxidant capacity was associated with lower serum CRP 268 concentrations in young Japanese women (474 women, aged 18-22 years) regardless of assay 269 270 used to measure it. Also, in a 9-month observational study among postmenopausal women,

Wang and his colleagues showed that consumption of diets rich in total antioxidants wasassociated with lower plasma CRP levels [37].

Several studies show a stronger defense against oxidative damage in the female liver tissue, 273 274 which is the major determinant of CRP levels [38]. Animal studies have shown that, compared to 275 males, antioxidant capacity of diet assessed by FRAP and other methods is higher in liver tissue [38]. Also, females have greater mean hepatic alpha-tocopherol levels, total capacity of the 276 cellular systems that detoxify reactive oxygen species or free radical-drug metabolites seems to 277 be higher in the female rat liver[39]. These evidence may account for the sex differences 278 279 observed in the association between FRAP and CRP levels in our study, which merits further 280 investigation.

281 Similar to our findings, previous studies [27, 40] have shown that increased UA levels are

significantly associated with increased hs-CRP levels. Also in a study of Park et al [41] in

postmenopausal women uric acid was associated with lower adiponectin levels. Another study

from Ali et al [42] found that high GGT levels are associated with high hs-CRP levels

implicating that elevated GGT levels are associated with burden of subclinical vascularinflammation.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to show that the FRAP score was a determinant of leptin and PAI-I concentrations. In line with our findings, a previous study has shown an association between FRAP score and higher adiponectin levels [36]. Previous studies [43] have indicated that total antioxidant capacity of diet is associated with less central adiposity, as well as to metabolic (e.g. insulin resistance index) and oxidative stress markers in healthy young adults (e.g. oxidized-LDL, malondialdehyde). Central adiposity, mainly abdominal adiposity is the 293 main producer of anti-inflammatory (adiponectin) and pro-inflammatory markers (leptin, resistin 294 and PAI-1)[12, 44, 45]. Leptin is an adjocyte-derived hormone that reduces food intake and increases energy expenditure by acting in the hypothalamus [46, 47] and has also pro-295 296 inflammatory effects [7, 8]. Leptin levels correlate with higher indices of adiposity, however, individuals with similar degrees of adiposity have variations in serum leptin levels [46, 48]. 297 Adiponectin is one of the most abundant adipocyte-derived hormones and appears to improve 298 299 insulin sensitivity and vascular inflammation through its actions in liver and muscle [7]. Several studies have demonstrated that adiponectin is a marker and a mediator of metabolic risk, 300 301 including the risk for conversion to diabetes and risk of myocardial infarction [49]. PAI-1, is another hormone secreted from fat cells, and is suggested to be a possible contributor to obesity-302 induced diabetes and atherosclerosis [50]. Resistin, on the other hand, is almost an exclusively 303 white adipose tissue-expressed polypeptide, and has also been linked to energy homeostasis and 304 diet-induced obesity, insulin resistance and diabetes[51]. Other factors, including hormonal and 305 nutritional factors have been suggested to influence concentrations of these inflammatory 306 307 markers[52]. Our study also indicates that the antioxidant diet, GGT and UA may affect the levels of leptin, adiponectin, and PAI-I but not resistin independent of obesity. It was reported 308 309 that uric acid induces CRP expression by implication on cell proliferation and nitric oxide production of human vascular cells [53]. Elevation of serum GGT is involved in the 310 inflammatory response. It is plausible that elevation in GGT might occur before elevation in 311 312 CRP, if oxidative stress leads to an inflammatory response [54]. These data imply that inflammation may be one of the underlying mechanism linking an antioxidant diet, GGT and UA 313 with cardiometabolic outcomes, which needs to be elucidated by future studies. However future 314 315 studies are needed to clarify specific inflammatory markers that may be involved in the pathway.

316 Probably oxidative stress is the pathway that links antioxidants with a low inflammatory profile. 317 The human body has a number of defense mechanisms against oxidative stress including antioxidants, preventive and repair mechanism and physical defense [17]. Antioxidants 318 319 themselves can be divided into enzymatic antioxidants (glutathione peroxidase, peroxide dismutase and catalase) and non-enzymatic antioxidants like ascorbic acid (vitamin C), alpha-320 tocopherol (vitamin E), carotenoids, flavonoids. Coffee and tea are the main contributors of 321 FRAP in Rotterdam Study and in other studies as well [21, 55]. The anti-inflammatory effects of 322 both coffee and tea have been previously reported [56]. On the other hand, the anti-inflammatory 323 324 effect of fruits and vegetables is supposed to come from vitamins and flavonoids they contain [19]. Antioxidants act scavenging ROS and inhibit NF- $\kappa\beta$, even though not all at the same level. 325 This may lead to decreased oxidative stress, and therefore in diminished low-grade chronic 326 inflammation. 327

328 Our study is unique among previous investigations because of its prospective design, large 329 population-based study group and adjustment for a broad range of confounders. Also, to our knowledge, this is one of the first prospective studies to use measures of CRP in two time points. 330 Also, in our study, we could assess the association between FRAP and markers of oxidative 331 stress, such as GGT and UA, showing a strong association, and therefore supporting internal 332 validity. Nevertheless, it has some limitations. First, assessment of diet was done at baseline and 333 334 there may have been changes in antioxidant consumption over time. However, it has been shown that dietary habits change very little over time in middle-aged adults [57]. Second, the FFQ can 335 336 be limited by errors in reporting and recall and by incomplete assessment of all sources of 337 antioxidant intake, which may introduce misclassification in dietary intake and would bias results toward the null. Third, we did not have repeated measures for leptin, adiponectin, PAI-1 338

339 and resistin. Also, these markers were assessed 10 years later from FRAP, UA and GGT 340 measurements. Moreover, we had no measurements of other adipocyte-derived inflammatory markers like interleukin-6 or tumor necrosis factor- α or more accurate measures of oxidative 341 stress such as ROS, that could have strengthened the results. Furthermore, we used a 342 subpopulation for the analysis regarding adiponectin, resistin, leptin and PAI-1 as outcome, 343 344 which may have introduced selection bias since this population was different with respect to some health characteristics. However, it has been shown that using a restricted source population 345 for a cohort study usually leads to bias towards the null which may have led to an 346 347 underestimation of the observed associations in our study of the exposure [58]. Moreover, it has been shown that using a selected source population for a cohort study usually leads to bias 348 towards the null. Furthermore, the restriction of the main analysis in the participants with 349 350 available information on all exposures and outcomes investigated in this study provided similar results, and therefore, selection bias is less likely to have happened. Finally, physical activity was 351 measured at the third round of the Rotterdam Study. Therefore, we cannot fully exclude residual 352 353 confounding by physical activity levels.

354 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

In conclusion, we found no consistent association between FRAP and CRP levels, while both UA and GGT were associated with low CRP. Furthermore, high overall dietary antioxidant capacity of diet and lower levels of UA were associated with lower levels of pro-inflammatory adipocytokines and higher levels of anti-inflammatory adipocytokines.

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375 **DISCLOSURE**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

377 CONTRIBUTORS/AUTHORSHIP

TM and OHF conceived and designed the study. NS, TM and OHF participated in the statistical
analyses, data interpretation, manuscript writing and revising and had primary responsibility for
the final content of the manuscript. JCK participated in data synthesis/analysis and interpretation

- of the data. NS, AD, TM, JCK and OHF drafted the final manuscript. AH designed the
- Rotterdam Study and participated in data interpretation, manuscript writing and revising. All
- authors contributed to the critical revision of the manuscript and approved the final version.

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Figure 1: Flow chart of participants included in the analysis of overall antioxidant capacity of

531 diet and inflammation : the Rotterdam Study.

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⁵⁴⁷ FRAP, ferric reducing antioxidant potential; PAI-1, Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1;

- 548 Figure 2: Flow Chart of participants included in the analysis of uric acid and gamma-
- 549 glutamyltransferse (GGT) with inflammatory markers: the Rotterdam Study.

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571	PAI-1, Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1;
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	Total	Women	Men	P -
	(N=4506)	(N=2571)	(N=1935)	value ^b
FRAP (mmol/day)	20.37±5.48	20.02±5.07	20.83±5.95	< 0.001
Age (years)	67.64±7.74	67.93±8.01	67.26±7.36	0.004
Energy intake (kcal/day)	1989.51±504.48	1796.30±405.97	2246.17±508.24	< 0.001
Physical activity	78.30±44.28	89.45±43.90	69.15±41.56	<0.001
(MET hours/week)				
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.18±3.57	26.55±3.99	25.68±2.85	< 0.001
CRP first round ^a (mg/ml)	1.78 (0.86-3.39)	1.74 (0.85-3.13)	1.85 (0.87-3.79)	< 0.001
CRP third round ^a (mg/ml)	2.34 (1.16-4.34)	2.36 (1.15-4.26)	2.30 (1.16-4.46)	0.583
Non-fasting serum glucose ^a	6.20 (5.45-7.40)	6.10 (5.40-7.10)	6.40 (5.60-7.70)	< 0.001
(mml/l)				
SBP (mmHg)	183.84±22.05	139.10±22.22	138.50±21.83	0.363
DBP (mmHg)	78.80±11.26	73.29±11.14	74.47±11.39	<0.001
Total Cholesterol (mmol/l)	6.68±1.19	6.92±1.18	6.35±1.12	< 0.001
Hormone replacement therapy,	65 (1.4%)	63 (2.5%)	2 (0.1%)	<0.001

573 T a	able 1 Baseline	characteristics	of study]	participants	(N=4506): th	e Rotterdam Study.
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n (%)

Uric Acid (µmol/l)	320.16±77.76	296.62±71.44	352.88±74.40	< 0.001
Vitamin supplement use, n (%)	329 (7.3%)	245 (9.5%)	84 (4.3%)	< 0.001
GGT ^a (U/l)	23.00 (18.00-32.00)	21.00 (16.00-28.00)	27.00 (21.00-38.00)	< 0.001
Lipid reducing agents, n (%)	119 (2.6%)	66 (2.6%)	53 (2.7%)	0.395
DHDI	30.23±9.20	31.95±9.11	27.95±8.83	< 0.001
Prevalent diseases*, n (%)	1490 (33.1%)	712 (27.7%)	778 (40.2%)	< 0.001
Smoking: Never or former, n (%)	3440 (76.3%)	2079 (80.9%)	1361 (70.3%)	< 0.001
Current, n (%)	1066 (23.7%)	492 (19.1%)	574 (29.7%)	
Income: Low, n (%)	1014 (22.5%)	829 (32.2%)	185 (9.6%)	< 0.001
Middle, n (%)	2002 (44.4%)	1062 (41.3%)	940 (48.6%)	
High, n (%)	1490 (33.1%)	680 (26.4%)	810 (41.9%)	
Education: Low, n (%)	2321 (51.5%)	1597 (62.1%)	724 (37.4%)	< 0.001
Middle, n (%)	1781 (39.5%)	862 (33.5%)	919(47.5%)	
High, n (%)	404 (9.0%)	112 (4.4%)	292 (15.1%)	
Processed meat intake	1.47±1.24	1.19±1.05	1.84±1.37	<0.001
(servings/day)				

Unprocessed meat intake	0.74 ± 0.47	0.69±0.42	0.82±0.53	0.048
(servings/day)				
Alcohol [#] :				<0.001
Quartile I (<0.1886g), n (%)	1126 (25.0%)	847 (32.9%)	279 (14.4%)	
Quartile II (0.1886-3.6813g),	1127 (25.0%)	798 (31.0%)	329 (17.0%)	
n (%)				
Quartile III (3.6813-15.1401g),	1127 (25.0%)	572 (22.2%)	555 (28.7%)	
n (%)				
Quartile IV (>15.1401g), n (%)	1126 (25.0%)	354 (13.8%)	772 (39.9%)	
Leptin ^c (ng/mL)	7.63 (3.82-16.20)	14.00 (7.85-22.00)	4.02 (2.44-6.64)	<0.001
Adiponectin ^c (µg/mL)	3.42 (2.25-5.00)	4.34 (3.17-5.89)	2.7 (1.94-3.63)	<0.001
PAI-1 ^c (ng/mL)	17.15 (9.98-28.63)	17.90 (10.30-33.20)	16.10 (9.66-26.15)	0.009
Resistin ^c (ng/mL)	0.42 (0.31-0.58)	0.42 (0.31-0.58)	0.43 (0.31-0.59)	0.951

574 FRAP, ferric reducing antioxidant potential; BMI, Body mass index; CRP, C-reactive protein;

575 DHDI, Dutch healthy diet index (excluding fruits and vegetables); DBP, diastolic blood pressure;

576 GGT, Gamma glutamyltransferase; PAI-1, Plasminogen activator inhibitor - 1; SBP, systolic

577 blood pressure

^a Median (Range between 25th percentile and 75th percentile)

^b Comparison between men and women. For continuous variables = Independent sample T-Test;

- 580 For categorical variables = $Chi^2(\chi^2)$
- ^c N=798 included in the analyses of FRAP and adipocytokines.
- ⁵⁸² *Prevalent disease include cardiovascular disease and type 2 diabetes.
- [#] Quartile I refers to values $< 25^{\text{th}}$ percentile; Quartile II refers to values between 25^{th} and 50^{th}
- percentile; Quartile III refers to values between 50th and 75th percentile; Quartile IV refers to
- 585 values $>75^{\text{th}}$ percentile.

587 Table 2 Association of ferric reducing antioxidant potential with C-reactive protein and

adipocytokines: the Rotterdam Study.

	Model 1	Model 2
	β (95% CI)	β (95%CI)
CRP [§] (N=4507)	0.001 (-0.004,0.007)	-0.002(-0.007,0.003)a
Leptin [§] (N=798)	-0.012 (-0.023, -0.001)	-0.009(-0.017, -0.00005)b
Adiponectin [§] (N=798)	0.009 (0.002,0.015)*	0.009(0.003,0.016)*b
PAI-1 [§] (N=798)	-0.018(-0.028, -0.008)*	-0.018(-0.027, -0.008)*b
Resistin [§] (N= 798)	0.002 (-0.006,0.009)	0.001(-0.006,0.009)b

- 589 CI, confidence interval; FRAP, ferric reducing antioxidant potential; CRP, C-reactive protein;
- 590 PAI-I, Plasminogen Activator Inhibitor-1.
- 591 § Variables were log transformed to better approximate normal distribution.
- ⁵⁹² *remains significant after Bonferroni correction (p=0.0166)
- 593 βs and 95% confidence intervals were estimated using generalized estimated equations (for C-
- reactive protein as outcome) and linear regression models (for leptin, adiponectin, PAI-1 and
- resistin as outcomes) adjusted for age and gender (Model 1), and additionally adjusted for body
- 596 mass index, smoking status, prevalent diseases, systolic blood pressure, non-fasting glucose, total
- 597 cholesterol, index1(time), energy intake, income, alcohol, statin use (Model 2a). For
- adipocytokines, model 2 was further adjusted for C-reactive protein (Model 2b). Additional
- adjustment for other covariates did not change the effect estimate with >10%.

601 Table 3 Association of uric acid and gamma glutamyltransferase with C-reactive protein and

adipocytokines: the Rotterdam study.

	Uric acid (per SD)		GGT (per SD) [§]	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
	β (95% CI)	β (95%CI)	β (95% CI)	β (95% CI)
CRP [§] (N=4154)	0.198	0.123	0.213	0.160
	(0.167,0.228)*	(0.091,0.155)* ^a	(0.181,0.245)*	(0.128,0.191)* ^a
Leptin [§] (N=707)	0.257	0.100	0.101	-0.020
	(0.197,0.316)*	(0.048,0.152)* ^b	(0.040,0.161)*	(-0.070,0.030) ^b
Adiponectin [§] (N=707)	-0.099	-0.066	-0.041	-0.005
	(-0.135,-0.064)*	(-0.103,-0.028)* ^b	(-0.075,-0.006)*	(-0.041,0.032) ^b
PAI-1 [§] (N=707)	0.246	0.147	0.148	0.047
	(0.193,0.300)*	(0.091,0.203)* ^b	(0.094,0.202)	(-0.007,0.100) ^b
Resistin [§] (N=707)	0.014	0.026	0.006	0.012
	(-0.028,0.056)	(-0.020,0.072) ^b	(-0.035,0.046)	(-0.032,0.055) ^b

- 603 CI, confidence interval; CRP, C-reactive protein; GGT, gamma glutamyltransferase; PAI-1,
- 604 Plasminogen Activator Inhibitor-1; SD, standard deviation.
- [§] Variables were log transformed to better approximate normal distribution.
- * remains significant after Bonferroni correction (p=0.0166)
- 607 βs and 95% confidence intervals were estimated using generalized estimated equations (for C-
- reactive protein as outcome) and linear regression models (for leptin, adiponectin, PAI-1 and
- resistin as outcomes) adjusted for age and sex (Model 1) and additionally adjusted for baseline
- body mass time, time of measurement, non-fasting glucose, energy intake, total cholesterol,

- 611 hormone replacement therapy, systolic blood pressure, diastolic blood pressure, statin use,
- 612 income, alcohol+ GGT/uric acid (adjustment for GGT when uric acid was the exposure and vice
- versa) (Model 2a). For adipocytokines as outcomes, model 2 was further adjusted for baseline C-
- reactive protein (Model 2b). Results are presented per standard deviation uric acid (for CRP as
- outcome: $1SD = 80.5611 \mu mol/L$; for adipocytokines as outcome: $1SD = 73,1832 \mu mol/L$) and
- 616 GGT levels (for CRP as outcome: 1SD=29,9731 U/L ; for adipocytokines as outcome:
- 617 1SD=22,4034 U/L).

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