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Total number of authors:
45

Published in:
The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition

Link to article, DOI:
[10.1093/ajcn/nqaa157](https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/nqaa157)

Publication date:
2020

Document Version
Peer reviewed version

[Link back to DTU Orbit](#)

Citation (APA):

Sieri, S., Agnoli, C., Grioni, S., Weiderpass, E., Mattiello, A., Sluijs, I., Sanchez, M. J., Jakobsen, M. U., Sweeting, M., van der Schouw, Y. T., Nilsson, L. M., Wennberg, P., Katzke, V. A., Kühn, T., Overvad, K., Tong, T. Y. N., Conchi, M.-I., Quirós, J. R., García-Torrecillas, J. M., ... Krogh, V. (2020). Glycemic index, glycemic load, and risk of coronary heart disease: a pan-European cohort study. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 112(3), 631-643. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/nqaa157>

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Glycemic index, glycemic load and risk of coronary heart disease: a pan-European cohort study

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Funding

EPIC-CVD was supported by the European Union Framework 7 (HEALTH-F2-2012-279233), the European Research Council (268834), the UK Medical Research Council (G0800270 and MR/L003120/1), the British Heart Foundation (SP/09/002 and RG/08/014 and RG13/13/30194), and the UK National Institute of Health Research. The establishment of the study subcohort was supported by the EU Sixth Framework Programme (FP6) (grant LSHM_CT_2006_037197 to the InterAct project) and the Medical Research Council Epidemiology Unit (grants MC_UU_12015/1 and MC_UU_12015/5). NJW and NGF acknowledge support from NIHR Biomedical Research Centre Cambridge: Nutrition, Diet, and Lifestyle Research Theme (IS-BRC-1215-20014).

EPIC-Asturias was supported by the Regional Government of Asturias. EPIC-Greece was supported by the Hellenic Health Foundation. EPIC-Heidelberg was supported by German Cancer Aid, the German Cancer Research Centre, and the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research. EPIC-Oxford was supported by the UK Medical Research Council (MR/M012190/1) and Cancer Research UK (570/A16491). EPIC-Ragusa was supported by the Sicilian Regional Government, the Iblean Charitable Association for Epidemiological Research (AIRE), Ragusa, and the Italian Association of Blood Donors (AVIS) Ragusa. EPIC-Turin was supported by the Compagnia di San Paolo and the Human Genetics Foundation (HuGeF) Turin. EPIC-NL was supported by the Dutch Ministry of Public Health, Welfare and Sports (VWS), the Netherlands Organisation for Health Research and Development (ZonMW); and the World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF). EPIC-Umeå was supported by the Swedish Cancer Society, the Swedish Scientific Council and the Regional Government of Västerbotten.

The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Data described in the manuscript will be made available upon request pending application (see website <http://epic.iarc.fr/access/index.php>.)

Short Title: Dietary glyceic load and coronary heart disease

Abbreviations List

CHD Coronary heart disease; CVD Cardiovascular disease; BMI Body mass index; GL Glycemic load; GI Glycemic index; HR Hazard ratio; CI Confidence interval; CRP C-reactive protein; HDL High density lipoprotein; HbA1c Hemoglobin A1c

1 ABSTRACT

2 **Background:** High carbohydrate intake raises blood triglycerides, glucose, and insulin, reduces
3 high density lipoproteins, and may increase risk of coronary heart disease (CHD).

4 Epidemiological studies indicate that high dietary glycemic index (GI) and load (GL) are
5 associated with increased CHD risk.

6 **Objectives:** To determine whether dietary GI, GL, and available carbohydrates are associated
7 with CHD risk in both sexes.

8 **Methods:** This large prospective study - the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer
9 and Nutrition- consisted of 338,325 participants who completed a dietary questionnaire. Hazard
10 ratios (HRs) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) for a CHD event, in relation to intake of GI,
11 GL and carbohydrates were estimated using covariate-adjusted Cox proportional hazard
12 models.

13 **Results:** After 12.8 years (median), 6378 participants had a CHD event. High GL was
14 associated with greater CHD risk: HR 1.16 95% CI 1.02,1.31; p-trend 0.035 highest vs. lowest
15 quintile; HR 1.18 95% CI 1.07,1.29 per 50 g/day of GL intake. The association between GL
16 and CHD risk was evident in those subjects with BMI ≥ 25 kg/m² (HR 1.22 95% CI 1.11,1.35
17 per 50 g/day), but not in those with BMI < 25 kg/m² (HR 1.09 95% CI 0.98,1.22 per 50 g/day)
18 (p for interaction 0.022).

19 The GL-CHD association did not differ between men (HR 1.19 95% CI 1.08,1.30 per 50 g/day)
20 and women (HR 1.22 95% CI 1.07,1.40 per 50 g/day) (test for interaction not significant). GI
21 was associated with CHD risk only in the continuous model (HR 1.04 95% CI 1.00,1.08 per 5
22 units/day). High available carbohydrate was associated with greater CHD risk: HR 1.11 (95%
23 CI 1.03,1.18) per 50 g/day. High sugar intake was associated with greater CHD risk (HR 1.09
24 95% CI 1.02,1.17 per 50 g/day)

25 **Conclusions:**

26 This large pan-European study provides robust additional support for the hypothesis that a diet
27 that induces a high glucose response is associated with greater CHD risk.

28

29 **Keywords**

30 Glycemic index, Glycemic load, Coronary heart disease, Case-cohort study, EPIC-CVD study.

31 INTRODUCTION

32 Dietary guidelines have long emphasized that reducing consumption of fat, particularly
33 saturated fat, and getting more calories from unsaturated fat or carbohydrate, lowers risk of
34 cardiovascular disease (CVD), including coronary heart disease (CHD) (1). Conversely,
35 evidence from observational studies suggests that replacing saturated fat by sugars or refined
36 starch does not reduce risk but may increase it (1,2); while replacing fat with carbohydrates
37 from whole fruits, vegetables, pulses, and whole grains may decrease risk (3).

38 High intake of carbohydrates, particularly refined carbohydrates, can raise fasting triglycerides
39 (4), reduce high density lipoproteins (HDL) (5), and increase blood glucose and insulin (6); and
40 may increase CHD risk.

41 Variation in the ability of carbohydrates to increase blood glucose is captured by the glycemic
42 index (GI) (7), which ranks carbohydrate foods according to their blood-glucose-raising ability.

43 Dietary GI is a measure of the overall ability of consumed carbohydrates to raise blood glucose.
44 Glycemic load (GL), the product of a food's GI and its available carbohydrate, incorporates the
45 effect of the total amount of carbohydrate consumed (7). Dietary GL is the sum of the GLs for
46 all carbohydrate-containing foods consumed, and reflects the quantity as well as the blood-
47 glucose-raising ability of consumed carbohydrates.

48 Recent reviews and meta-analyses on GI/GL and CHD risk (8-11) found that high GI and GL
49 diets were associated with increased CHD risk in women, especially women with high body
50 mass index (BMI), but in men findings were inconsistent. A 2019 meta-analysis of prospective
51 studies found that high dietary GI and GL were strongly associated with increased CHD risk in
52 both sexes (12). However, a large and comprehensive 2019 review and meta-analyses on
53 carbohydrate quality and several non-communicable disease endpoints including CHD,
54 reported that, across observational studies and clinical trials, GI had no or inconsistent
55 association with CHD, while high GL was moderately associated with increased CHD risk (13).

56 We estimated associations between risk of first CHD event and dietary GL, GI, and available
57 carbohydrate in a large pan-European cohort of men and women recruited to the European
58 Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC).

59 **METHODS**

60 **Study Population**

61 EPIC is a prospective study of $\approx 520,000$ men and women, mostly 35-70 years, recruited
62 between 1991 and 1999 from 23 centers in ten European countries: Denmark, France, Greece,
63 Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, and the UK. Details of EPIC design
64 and methods are described elsewhere (14). Briefly, volunteers completed dietary and lifestyle
65 questionnaires, had their anthropometric measurements recorded by trained health professionals
66 (self-reported in France, Norway and Oxford); most also provided blood samples. All
67 participants gave written informed consent. Ethical committees of the International Agency for
68 Research on Cancer and local centers approved the EPIC protocol.

69 After exclusion of 10,455 with a history of myocardial infarction or stroke, 44,318 with a history
70 of diabetes, 6837 with no dietary data, and 7412 in the top or bottom 1% of the ratio of energy
71 intake to energy requirement, 452,752 remained. After also eliminating participants from
72 France and Norway for incomplete follow up and 2254 cases whose date of CHD diagnosis was
73 before the date of EPIC baseline (prevalent cases), a total of 338,325 participants remained,
74 including 6378 CHD incident cases (Supplementary Figure 1).

75

76 **Measurements**

77 First fatal and non-fatal CHD events were defined by codes 410-414 of the 9th edition, or I20-
78 I25 of the 10th edition, of the International Classification of Diseases. EPIC centers identified
79 events by various methods including primary and secondary care databases, hospital
80 admissions records, and self-report (15). Non-fatal CHD events were validated from medical

81 records or databases. Fatalities were usually confirmed from mortality databases. End of
82 follow-up varied with center: from end of 2003 to end of 2010.

83 Diet over the year up to recruitment was assessed by country-specific (in some cases center-
84 specific) questionnaires designed to capture local eating habits. Nutrient values of consumed
85 foods were obtained from the EPIC Nutrient Database (16). Published values of GIs (glucose
86 as reference) (17-19), were assigned to carbohydrate-containing foods as described elsewhere
87 (20).

88 Average dietary GI for each participant was calculated as the sum of the GIs of each food item
89 consumed, multiplied by the average daily amount consumed and percentage carbohydrate
90 content, all divided by the total daily carbohydrate intake. Dietary GL was calculated similarly
91 except that there was no division by daily carbohydrate intake.

92 A standardized lifestyle questionnaire at recruitment recorded menopausal status, hormone
93 treatment, medical history, physical activity, alcohol consumption, smoking, education, and
94 other information. Weight (kg) and height (m) were measured at recruitment, except in France,
95 the Oxford center, and Norway where they were measured in a subset and self-reported in the
96 rest. BMI was calculated as kg/m^2 . Physical activity was categorized according to the
97 Cambridge Physical Activity Index (21).

98 Blood pressure was measured using standard procedures, but was only available for 62% of
99 participants (22). We therefore used a composite blood pressure variable available for 92.4%
100 of participants: if one or more of self-reported hypertension, self-reported use of anti-
101 hypertensive medication, systolic blood pressure >140 mmHg, diastolic blood pressure >90
102 mmHg were present, the participant was considered hypertensive. Other categories were:
103 normotensive or unknow/missing (7.6%).

104 Circulating CHD risk factors were available for sub-cohort of 18,157 EPIC participants
105 randomly sampled from all 23 EPIC centers, with stratification by center (23). The following

106 factors were measured: high-sensitivity C-reactive protein, total cholesterol, HDL cholesterol
107 and triglycerides (Stichting Huisartsen Laboratorium, Etten-Leur, the Netherlands), erythrocyte
108 hemoglobin A1c (G8 HPLC analyzer, Tosoh Bioscience, Japan), and glucose (Cobas enzymatic
109 assay, Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). Non-HDL cholesterol was calculated as total
110 cholesterol minus HDL cholesterol, since LDL cholesterol was not directly assayed. These data
111 were not available for Norwegian participants.

112 **Statistical methods**

113 Participant characteristics are presented as means and standard deviations (continuous
114 variables), or percentages (categorical variables), by quintiles of energy-adjusted GI and GL.
115 Primary outcome variables were hazard ratios (HRs) for CHD in relation to variation in GI and
116 GL. Secondary outcome variables were HRs for CHD in relation to available carbohydrate,
117 starch, and sugar. HRs with 95% confidence intervals (CI) were estimated by Cox proportional
118 hazard models, using center, age and sex-stratified baseline hazards.

119 Age (years) was the time variable: participant entry was age at recruitment; exit was age at first
120 CHD event, death for other causes, loss to follow-up, or end of CHD follow-up (whichever
121 came first). Dietary intakes of interest were adjusted for energy intake using the regression-
122 residual method (24) and categorized (quintiles) based on the entire cohort. Models were run
123 on men and women together, with stratification by sex only in subgroup analyses. The study
124 variables were also modeled as continuous variables, in which case HRs indicate risks
125 associated with 50 g/day (GL) or 5 units/day (GI) increments of intake. Available carbohydrate
126 was defined as starch and sugars: indigestible carbohydrate was excluded.

127 Three models are presented: model 1 stratified by center, age, and sex; model 2 additionally
128 adjusted for smoking status (current: 1-15 cig/day, 16-25 cig/day, 26+ cig/day; former: quit \leq 10
129 years, 11-20 years, 20+ years previously; never), physical activity (inactive, moderately
130 inactive, moderately active, active), BMI ($<$ 25, 25-29.9, \geq 30 kg/m²), alcohol consumption (not

131 drinker, sex-specific quintiles of intake: cut points in men 4.1, 10.6, 19.6, and 37.5 g/d; cut
132 points in women 1.1, 3.4, 7.7, and 14.7 g/d), education (no schooling, primary,
133 technical/professional, secondary, longer education) and blood pressure (high, normal,
134 unknown/missing); model 3 additionally adjusted (all continuous) for intakes of energy,
135 saturated fat, monounsaturated fat, protein, and fiber (or cereal fiber for the analyses
136 investigating GI and GL). Model 3, analyzing GL and available carbohydrate, was also run
137 adjusting for energy, polyunsaturated and monounsaturated fat (not saturated fat), protein, and
138 fiber (or cereal fiber); another model 3 was run adjusting for energy, polyunsaturated, saturated
139 monounsaturated fat, (not protein), and fiber (or cereal fiber).

140 To assess the significance of trends we employed orthogonal polynomial contrasts. Country-
141 specific HRs for dietary GI and GL (continuous) were also estimated, and combined with
142 random effects meta-analyses. Pooled HRs were then plotted and between-country
143 heterogeneity was quantified by the I^2 statistic (25). The proportional hazards assumption for
144 all variables in relation to CHD risk was tested using the Grambsch and Therneau method (26).
145 In all cases, the assumption was satisfied.

146 To assess whether dietary factors might act through circulating CHD risk factors, we performed
147 analysis of covariance to examine associations of GL/GI with biomarkers of CHD risk (CRP,
148 HDL cholesterol, non-HDL cholesterol, triglycerides, HbA1c, glucose), calculating mean levels
149 in each quintile of GL, and adjusting for the covariates used in model 3. We also examined
150 whether associations of CHD with dietary variables were influenced by reverse causality by
151 excluding CHD events diagnosed in first 2 years of follow up.

152 To examine whether associations of CHD with dietary variables were consistent across sub-
153 groups of other risk factors, we conducted subgroup analyses by sex and BMI. Tests for
154 heterogeneity of trend were performed adding appropriate interaction terms to the models and

155 testing for significance using a Wald chi-square test. All analyses were conducted using Stata
156 software (version 14.0, Stata Corp, College Station, TX)
157

158 RESULTS

159 After 12.8 years (median), 6378 incident CHD cases (4267men, 2111 women) were identified
160 in the EPIC cohort. Table 1 shows baseline characteristics of the cohort by quintiles of energy-
161 adjusted dietary GL. Mean GL varied substantially across quintiles (96.5-164.8); while mean
162 GI ranged from 53.4 (lowest quintile) to 58.3 (highest quintile). Participants in the highest GL
163 quintile consumed more carbohydrate and starch, and less fat, protein, and alcohol, and had
164 lower BMI, than those in the lowest; they were often more active and less often current smokers.
165 Table 2 shows cohort characteristics by quintiles of energy-adjusted dietary GI. Mean GI ranged
166 from 50.7 (lowest quintile) to 60.8 (highest quintile); GL ranged from 113.7 (lowest quintile)
167 to 146.6 (highest quintile). Those in the highest GI quintile consumed less saturated fat,
168 monounsaturated fat, and protein, and more carbohydrate and starch, than those in lower
169 quintiles; they were also less educated and more often smokers. Fiber intake and sugar intake
170 increased with increasing GL but decreased with increasing GI.

171 Table 3 shows baseline means of selected biomarkers by quintiles of energy-adjusted GL and
172 GI. Those in the highest GL and GI quintiles had significantly lower HDL cholesterol than those
173 in the lowest quintiles; those in the highest GI quintile had significantly higher triglycerides and
174 CRP than those in the lowest quintile.

175 Table 4 shows HRs for CHD by quintiles of energy-adjusted GL, GI, available carbohydrate,
176 starch, and sugar. In models 1 (minimally-adjusted) and 2 (adjusted for CHD risk factors) CHD
177 risk was unrelated to GL. After adjusting for nutrient intake (model 3), the 4th and 5th GL
178 quintiles were associated with greater CHD risk, with p trend 0.035. For 50 g/day GL
179 increments the HR was 1.18 (95% CI 1.07,1.29). In this model, in which the only nutrients not
180 included were polyunsaturated and low-GI carbohydrate, the GL variable represents the effect
181 of substituting GL for polyunsaturated fat and low-GI carbohydrate on CHD risk. When the
182 adjustments in model 3 included polyunsaturated and monounsaturated fat (not saturated fat),

183 the HR for 50 g/day GL increments was 1.19 (95% CI 1.09,1.29). When the adjustments in
184 model 3 included polyunsaturated, monounsaturated and saturated fat (not protein), the HR for
185 50 g/day GL increments was 1.13 (95% CI 1.04,1.23) (data not in Tables).

186 GI was associated with greater CHD risk only in the continuous GI model (HR 1.04 95% CI
187 1.00,1.08 per 5 unit/day increment).

188 For available carbohydrate in model 3, those in the highest quintile of consumption had greater
189 CHD risk than those in the lowest (HR 1.15; 95% CI 1.00,1.32, p trend 0.065); the risk for 50
190 g/day GL increments was HR 1.11; 95% CI 1.03,1.18. When model 3 was run adjusting for
191 polyunsaturated fat, monounsaturated fat, and protein (not saturated fat), the HR for 50 g/day
192 increments was 1.14 (95% CI 1.07,1.22); when run adjusting for polyunsaturated,
193 monounsaturated, and saturated fat (not protein), the HR for 50 g/day increments was 1.08 (95%
194 CI 1.02,1.15) (data not in Tables). Sugar intake was associated with greater CHD risk in all
195 quintiles of consumption, and the HR for 50 g/day increments was 1.09 (95% CI 1.02,1.17).
196 Starch was not associated with CHD risk.

197 Estimates of country-specific HRs (data pooled from centers) with corresponding I^2 for
198 between-country heterogeneity are shown in Figure 1. Associations of dietary variables with
199 CHD risk did not vary greatly across countries.

200 Table 5 shows sensitivity analyses for GL/GI after excluding cases diagnosed in the first two
201 years, and also by sex and BMI. Associations between GL/GI and CHD attenuated after
202 excluding those with an early CHD event during the first two years of follow-up (HR for 50
203 g/day intake: 1.15; 95% CI 1.04,1.27 for GL and 1.03; 95% CI 0.99,1.08 for GI).

204 Model 3 HR estimates for each sex were in the same direction as for the sexes combined. GL
205 was significantly associated with CHD risk in both sexes (HR for 50 g/day intake: 1.19; 95%
206 CI 1.08,1.30 for men and 1.22; 95% CI 1.07,1.40 for women) whereas GI was significantly
207 associated only in women (HR for 50 g/day intake: 1.09; 95% CI 1.02,1.16 for women and 1.02;

208 95% CI 0.98,1.07 for men). However, the interaction of dietary GL and GI with sex was not
209 significant.

210 Finally, associations between CHD and GL varied with BMI category. High GL was associated
211 with greater CHD risk among participants with BMI ≥ 25 mg/kg² (HR for 50 g/day increments
212 1.22; 95% CI 1.11,1.35); whereas no association was found in participants with BMI < 25
213 mg/kg² (HR for 50 g/day increments 1.09; 95% CI 0.96,1.22). The interaction of GL with BMI
214 was significant (p 0.022).

215

216

217 **DISCUSSION**

218 In this prospective study with 6,378 incident CHD cases from eight European countries, high
219 dietary GL and GI were associated with greater CHD risk. Dietary GL was also significantly
220 associated with greater CHD risk in overweight and obese persons, but not in those of normal
221 weight. High consumption of carbohydrate and sugar, but not starch, were also associated with
222 greater CHD risk.

223 Three recent meta-analyses of cohort studies (8-11) found that high dietary GL was significantly
224 associated with increased CHD risk, while high dietary GI was inconsistently associated with
225 risk, and the risk increases were significant only in women (when the sexes were analyzed
226 separately). However, some studies – that found (non-significant) risk increases in men (27,28)
227 – were not included in the meta-analyses because the data were unavailable in suitable form.

228 When we analyzed men and women separately, HR estimates for dietary GL were in the same
229 direction as those for both sexes combined. A 2019 meta-analysis (that only included
230 prospective studies in which the correlation between carbohydrate intake from questionnaires
231 and ascertained food records was >0.55) found a strong relationship between GL and CHD risk
232 that did not vary between men and women (12). Finally, a large and comprehensive review and
233 meta-analysis, again published in 2019, that used the GRADE approach to assess evidence
234 quality, reported a moderate positive association, across observational studies, of GL with CHD
235 endpoints (mortality and incidence) (13).

236 We found a weak positive association between dietary GI and CHD only in the continuous
237 model. When we analyzed men and women separately, HR estimates for dietary GI were in the
238 same direction as those for both sexes combined, although the association was significant only
239 in women, but test for interaction was not significant.

240 Three previous meta-analyses showed that a high GI diet was significantly associated with CHD
241 events in women but not men (8,9,11). However, a recent large and comprehensive review and

242 meta-analysis reported a null or inconsistent finding for GI across observational studies for
243 CHD endpoints (13).

244 CHD risk in relation to available carbohydrate consumption has also been examined in
245 prospective studies but with inconsistent results: a positive association was found in both sexes
246 that consumed carbohydrate mainly from white rice and refined wheat products (29); while
247 other studies found no associations in women (30,31) or men (32). The PURE study found that
248 high carbohydrate intake was associated with increased risk of total mortality but not with the
249 risk of CVD (33).

250 Regarding our finding of a greater risk of CHD with high sugar consumption, few studies have
251 investigated this association. The Nurses' Health Study and the Women's Health Initiative
252 Observational Study found that sugar intake was not significantly related to CHD risk (30, 34).
253 Moreover, a recent meta-analysis of prospective studies found that neither total sugar nor
254 sucrose were associated with CVD incidence, either in extreme quantile analyses or in linear
255 and nonlinear dose-response models (35).

256 Many other studies have evaluated the relationship of sugars in the form of sugar-sweetened
257 beverages (SSBs) to CHD. A meta-analysis of cohort studies reported that intake of SSBs was
258 associated with CHD risk (36). More recently, data from the Nurses' Health Study and the
259 Health Professional Follow-up Study reaffirmed a strong positive association foods rich in
260 refined starches and added sugars and CHD risk (37). These findings are consistent with the
261 results of randomized trials which indicate that high sugar increases blood pressure and also
262 blood triglycerides, total cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol (38).

263 It is important to note that the association between dietary GL and CHD risk was evident in our
264 study only after adjustment for dietary variables (model 3).

265 Like most previous studies (30,39-42), we found that high dietary GL was associated with high
266 fiber intake and low saturated fat and protein intake. So, it is reasonable that associations of

267 dietary GL with CHD risk only became significant after additional adjustment for these
268 variables, even though such adjustments can be considered over-adjustments since fiber, fat and
269 protein in foods influence their GI/GL. Furthermore, the strength of the GL-CHD association
270 did not change when the substitution of GL for polyunsaturated or saturated fat or protein was
271 evaluated. A randomized controlled trial that investigated CHD in relation to replacing dietary
272 fat with carbohydrates (43) found no risk change. We also found that replacing dietary fat
273 (saturated or polyunsaturated fat) or protein with carbohydrate was associated with greater CHD
274 risk.

275 Our findings are in line with a meta-analysis of 6 observational studies (9) which found that
276 persons with higher BMI, who consumed a high GL diet, were at greater risk of CHD, so body
277 weight may serve as an effect modifier on this association. The Nurses' Health Study was the
278 first to report that, in women with high BMI (>23 kg/m²) the risk of CHD increased as intake
279 of high- GI foods increased (30).

280 The mediators of the association of high carbohydrate intake with increased CHD risk are not
281 completely understood, but it is likely that insulin resistance is involved. A high carbohydrate
282 meal (particularly of high GI carbohydrate) substantially increases postprandial blood glucose
283 and insulin. The subsequent insulin-induced decline in blood glucose precipitates hunger within
284 a few hours, stimulating further consumption (of typically high GI foods) so that blood glucose
285 remains elevated over a prolonged period (45). If such behavior is habitual, it may lead to insulin
286 resistance and obesity (46,47), with increased triglycerides and LDL cholesterol, and lowered
287 HDL, leading to metabolic syndrome.

288 Hyperinsulinemia and hyperglycemia may also trigger peripheral vasoconstriction, sodium
289 retention and increased liver production of very low-density lipoprotein, leading to
290 atherosclerosis (48). In people with high BMI, greater insulin demand in response to a high GL
291 diet may further exacerbate insulin resistance and lipid imbalance thereby increasing CHD risk

292 (49). This scenario is supported by a meta-analysis of randomized intervention trials (50) which
293 found that lowering dietary GI reduced CVD risk factors, lowering triglycerides and LDL
294 cholesterol and raising HDL cholesterol. However, such responses are not always observed
295 (5152). From Table 3 it is evident that as dietary GI increased so did triglyceride and non-HDL
296 cholesterol levels; while as dietary GL increased HDL cholesterol decreased. These cross-
297 sectional associations are nevertheless consistent with the hypothesis that insulin resistance
298 mediates the high carbohydrate-CHD association. A randomized intervention trial on patients
299 with diabetes found higher HDL cholesterol levels in the low GI treatment group (53).

300 Strengths of our study are: large number of CHD cases, prospective design, and long follow-
301 up, limiting the likelihood of reverse causation and selection bias. Although we had extensive
302 data on potential confounders that were used as covariates in the models, we cannot rule out the
303 presence of residual confounding.

304 A limitation of our study is that the dietary questionnaires (14) were not designed to specifically
305 estimate dietary GI/GL, although application of GI values to food items is straightforward, and
306 Liu et al., found it was possible to accurately estimate dietary GI and GL from questionnaire
307 responses (54). Another limitation is that diet was only assessed at baseline. Some participants
308 may have changed their diet during follow-up, giving rise to misclassification of exposure
309 which would have weakened diet-disease associations. Finally, most people do not eat single
310 foods, but meals, and a food's GI can vary depending on how it is prepared and combined with
311 other foods: it is not possible to take such interactions into account using a food questionnaire.
312 However strong correlations have been found between observed and calculated GIs for mixed
313 meals (55).

314 **CONCLUSIONS**

315 This large pan-European study has revealed a robust positive association between a diet that
316 induces a high glucose response and increased CHD risk.

317 **Acknowledgements**

318 We thank all EPIC participants. We also thank EPIC staff, including those at the EPIC-CVD
319 and EPIC-InterAct Coordinating Centres, for sample preparation and data handling, particularly
320 Sarah Spackman (EPIC-CVD Data Manager) and Nicola Kerrison (EPIC-InterAct Data
321 Manager, MRC Epidemiology Unit). We are also pleased to acknowledge Statistics Netherlands
322 for providing causes of death information on Dutch EPIC participants. Thanks are also due to
323 Don Ward for help with the English.

324 **Authors' contributions to the manuscript:**

325 SS, VK, AC, SG, ASB and JD designed the study, had full access to all study data and take
326 responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the analyses. SS drafted the
327 manuscript. SS and VK did the statistical analyses. VK, YTV, IS, LMN, VAK, KO, TYNT,
328 JRQ, JHG, AT, ES, AT, EW, JMAB, ATr, WMMV, MJF, MCB, MMB, MBS, PF, RT, GM,
329 AM, ER, ASB, AB, MS, JD, SG, TK, PW, OM, MUJ, JMG, AK, EV, IS, GF, ALM, HF, HL,
330 MIC, CS, NGF take responsibility for the databases and follow-up data. All authors contributed
331 to data interpretation, and critical revision of the article, and approved the final manuscript.

332

333 **Disclosures**

334 Adam Butterworth has received grants unrelated to the present study from AstraZeneca, Biogen,
335 Merck, Novartis, and Sanofi. All other authors affirm that they have no relationships with
336 industry relevant to present study.

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Figure 1.

Title: Forest plots showing country-specific hazard ratios (HRs) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for coronary heart disease in relation to dietary glycemic load, dietary glycemic index, and intakes of available carbohydrate, starch and sugar.

Legend: The HRs were obtained from model 3, which was adjusted for age, sex, study center, smoking, education, physical activity, BMI, blood pressure and intakes of energy, protein, alcohol, fiber (available carbohydrate, starch and sugar), or cereal fiber (GI and GL), saturated and monounsaturated fat. The analyses were stratified by country and combined with random-effects meta-analysis. Weights are from random effects analysis.

Table 1. Baseline nutrient intakes and cardiovascular risk factors by quintiles of energy-adjusted dietary glyce- mic load (GL) in the EPIC cohort¹

	Quintiles of energy-adjusted dietary GL²				
	I	II	III	IV	V
N persons	68,116	68,116	68,116	68,116	68,115
Dietary GL	96.5 (14.3)	118.0 (3.7)	129.5 (3.7)	141.2 (3.8)	164.8 (16.8)
Dietary GI	53.4 (3.6)	54.9 (3.2)	55.8 (3.1)	56.7 (3.1)	58.3 (3.3)
Protein (g/day)	98.9 (30.2)	84.6 (25.6)	80.0 (25.4)	78.8 (25.4)	85.9 (27.4)
Saturated Fat (g/day)	37.1 (14.4)	31.2 (12.1)	29.3 (11.7)	28.4 (11.7)	29.2 (12.2)
Monounsaturated Fat (g/day)	42.1 (17.4)	31.9 (12.6)	28.3 (11.6)	26.5 (11.4)	28.1 (12.2)
Polyunsaturated Fat (g/day)	15.5 (7.7)	13.1(6.0)	12.5 (5.6)	12.3 (5.6)	13.0 (5.8)
Carbohydrate (g/day)	201.7 (63.5)	203.8 (61.1)	215.5 (61.2)	237.1 (62.6)	301.0 (79.5)
Starch (g/day)	104.1 (40.6)	106.3 (39.1)	113.3 (39.2)	126.1 (41.0)	166.2 (60.6)
Sugars (g/day)	90.5 (36.8)	92.4 (35.9)	98.2 (37.4)	107.8 (40.7)	132.1 (54.5)
Fiber (g/day)	21.5 (7.4)	21.0 (6.9)	21.7 (7.1)	23.2 (7.4)	27.5 (8.9)
Energy (kcal/day)	2303 (656)	1997 (579)	1939 (575)	1979 (583)	2287 (649)
Alcohol (g/day)	25.5 (27.1)	14.0 (16.1)	10.2 (12.8)	8.12 (11.2)	7.17 (10.8)
Age	51.1 (9.3)	51.4 (9.9)	50.9 (10.6)	49.9 (11.2)	48.8 (11.4)

Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	132.2 (20.0)	131.9 (19.8)	131.2 (19.8)	130.4 (19.8)	129.4 (19.0)
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	82.2 (10.8)	81.5 (10.8)	81.0 (10.8)	80.6 (10.8)	80.2 (10.7)
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	26.7 (4.30)	26.2 (4.32)	25.8 (4.26)	25.4 (4.16)	25.1 (4.08)
Sex					
Male (%)	47.8	33.1	29.3	30.2	40.5
Physical activity					
Inactive (%)	23.2	22.4	20.8	19.5	20.5
Moderately inactive (%)	33.5	33.9	33.9	33.4	30.9
Moderately active (%)	23.3	22.9	23.3	23.7	23.1
Active (%)	19.5	19.7	20.5	21.6	23.2
Education					
No schooling (%)	7.2	6.7	5.7	4.4	3.3
Primary (%)	30.6	29.1	27.2	25.4	27.4
Technical/professional (%)	21.9	24.8	25.8	26.0	24.4
Secondary (%)	14.4	14.3	14.7	16.3	17.8
Longer Education (%)	24.8	23.3	24.0	24.8	23.4
Current smoker (%)	34.6	26.1	22.5	20.2	21.3
Never smoker (%)	36.7	46.3	50.1	53.0	52.3

History of high blood pressure (%)	34.8	34.7	33.7	32.0	29.8
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¹Table entries are means with standard deviations, except where indicated; ²Energy adjustment by residual method.

Table 2. Baseline nutrient intakes and cardiovascular risk factors by quintiles of energy-adjusted dietary glycemic index (GI) in the EPIC cohort ¹

	Quintiles of energy-adjusted² dietary GI				
	I	II	III	IV	V
N persons	68,116	68,116	68,116	68,116	68,115
Dietary GI	50.7 (2.14)	54.0 (0.57)	55.8 (0.49)	57.6 (0.59)	60.8 (1.81)
Dietary GL	113.7 (22.7)	124.0 (20.5)	129.9 (20.9)	135.7 (21.5)	146.6 (26.0)
Protein (g/day)	87.5 (29.0)	86.3 (27.5)	85.4 (27.1)	84.6 (26.9)	84.6 (28.4)
Saturated Fat (g/day)	31.9 (13.9)	32.0 (12.9)	31.5 (12.6)	30.8 (12.4)	29.0 (12.2)
Monounsaturated Fat (g/day)	32.9 (16.8)	32.0 (14.7)	31.3 (13.9)	30.7 (13.2)	30.1 (12.9)
Polyunsaturated Fat (g/day)	13.1 (6.6)	13.5 (6.3)	13.5 (6.2)	13.3 (6.1)	13.1 (6.2)
Carbohydrate (g/day)	222.1 (77.4)	230.7 (73.0)	233.0 (72.9)	234.1 (73.8)	239.2 (79.2)
Starch (g/day)	98.0 (40.8)	115.3 (42.5)	123.5 (44.9)	130.8 (48.0)	148.3 (59.2)
Sugar (g/day)	118.4 (49.5)	110.2 (43.0)	104.9 (41.5)	99.2 (41.1)	88.4 (40.1)
Fiber (g/day)	23.2 (8.5)	23.4 (7.9)	23.2 (7.8)	22.8 (7.7)	22.4 (7.8)
Energy (kcal/day)	2093 (658)	2118 (627)	2110 (618)	2095 (613)	2090 (633)
Alcohol (g/day)	13.8 (19.6)	13.2 (17.3)	12.9 (17.3)	12.6 (17.5)	12.4 (18.4)
Age (years)	50.4 (10.1)	50.6 (10.5)	50.5 (10.8)	50.4 (10.9)	50.1.3 (9.3)

Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	130.0 (19.5)	131.0 (19.5)	131.5 (19.8)	131.5 (20.0)	130.9 (19.8)
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	81.0 (10.6)	81.2 (10.7)	81.2 (10.8)	81.1 (10.9)	81.0 (10.9)
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	26.1 (4.35)	25.8 (4.25)	25.7 (4.20)	25.7 (4.22)	25.9 (4.29)
Sex					
Male (%)	27.3	32.6	36.3	39.3	45.3
Physical activity					
Inactive (%)	20.0	19.4	20.4	21.5	25.0
Moderately inactive (%)	33.9	34.1	33.3	32.9	31.4
Moderately active (%)	23.6	24.0	23.9	23.2	21.5
Active (%)	21.9	21.8	21.2	20.6	18.8
Education					
No schooling (%)	5.3	4.3	4.8	5.3	7.5
Primary (%)	26.6	25.6	26.3	28.7	32.8
Technical/Professional	25.4	25.1	24.8	24.1	23.2
Secondary (%)	14.8	15.1	15.6	15.9	16.2
Longer education (%)	26.2	27.0	25.7	23.2	18.2
Current smoker (%)	23.5	22.1	23.1	25.3	30.6
Never smoker (%)	48.7	50.0	46.2	47.2	43.1

History of high blood pressure (%)	32.0	33.1	33.1	33.6	33.2
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¹Table entries are means with standard deviations, except where indicated; ²Energy adjustment by residual method.

Table 3. Mean¹ values of selected markers of lipid and glucose metabolism (with 95% confidence intervals) in the EPIC-CVD sub-cohort according to quintiles of energy-adjusted dietary glycemic index (GI) and load (GL).

	Quintiles of energy-adjusted dietary GI or GL					P value ²
	I	II	III	IV	V	
Dietary GL						
Non-HDL cholesterol (mmol/l)	4.41 (4.35,4.46)	4.39 (4.35,4.43)	4.44 (4.40,4.48)	4.47 (4.43,4.51)	4.47 (4.41,4.53)	0.1155
HDL-cholesterol (mmol/l)	1.54 (1.52,1.56)	1.50 (1.49,1.52)	1.48 (1.47,1.50)	1.47 (1.46,1.48)	1.46 (1.44,1.48)	<0.001
Triglycerides (mmol/l)	1.32 (1.28,1.36)	1.28 (1.25,1.32)	1.34 (1.31,1.37)	1.35 (1.31,1.38)	1.35 (1.31,1.39)	0.0878
C-reactive protein (mg/l)	2.06 (1.86,2.25)	2.16 (2.01,2.31)	2.30 (2.15,2.45)	2.27 (2.11,2.42)	2.37 (2.17,2.58)	0.3424
Glucose (mmol/l)	4.94 (4.88,4.99)	4.92 (4.87,4.96)	4.92 (4.88,4.96)	4.94 (4.89,4.98)	4.96 (4.90,5.03)	0.7453
Hemoglobin A1c (%)	5.46 (5.44,5.49)	5.47 (5.45,5.49)	5.47 (5.46,5.49)	5.49 (5.47,5.50)	5.48 (5.46-5.50)	0.6893
Dietary GI						
Non-HDL cholesterol (mmol/l)	4.39 (4.35,4.43)	4.39 (4.35,4.43)	4.46 (4.42,4.50)	4.44 (4.40,4.48)	4.49 (4.45,4.53)	0.0055
HDL cholesterol (mmol/l)	1.51 (1.49,1.52)	1.50 (1.49,1.52)	1.48 (1.47,1.50)	1.48 (1.47,1.50)	1.49 (1.47,1.50)	0.0423
Triglycerides (mmol/l)	1.32 (1.29,1.35)	1.28 (1.25,1.31)	1.33 (1.30,1.36)	1.32 (1.29,1.36)	1.38 (1.35,1.41)	0.0011
C-reactive protein (mg/l)	2.08 (1.92,2.23)	2.15 (2.00,2.30)	2.22 (2.07,2.36)	2.28 (2.13,2.42)	2.43 (2.28,2.59)	0.0340
Glucose (mmol/l)	4.95 (4.90,4.99)	4.91 (4.87,4.96)	4.93 (4.88,4.97)	4.93 (4.88,4.97)	4.95 (4.90,5.00)	0.6923
Hemoglobin A1c (%)	5.47 (5.45,5.49)	5.47 (5.45,5.49)	5.48 (5.46,5.50)	5.48 (5.46,5.49)	5.48 (5.46,5.49)	0.8679

¹Means adjusted for age (continuous), sex and EPIC center, smoking, education, physical activity, body mass index, and blood pressure, intakes of energy, protein, alcohol, fiber, saturated and monounsaturated fat. ²Analysis of covariance

Table 4. Hazard ratios¹ (with 95% confidence intervals) for first coronary heart disease event according to dietary glyceemic load (GL) dietary glyceemic index (GI), and intakes of available carbohydrate, starch, and sugar in the EPIC study

	Quintiles of energy-adjusted dietary variables					P trend ⁷	Continuous ^{‡8}
	I	II	III	IV	V		
Dietary GL							
Range	≤111.2	111.3-124.1	124.2-134.9	135.0-148.3	>148.3		
N cases	1386	1255	1175	1208	1354		
Model 1 ²	1	1.02 (0.94,1.10)	1.00 (0.92,1.08)	1.01 (0.93,1.10)	1.05 (0.96,1.14)	0.373	1.04 (0.99,1.10)
Model 2 ³	1	1.05 (0.97,1.14)	1.02 (0.94,1.11)	1.04 (0.96,1.14)	1.06 (0.97,1.16)	0.248	1.05 (1.00,1.11)
Model 3 ^{4,5}	1	1.08 (0.99,1.17)	1.07 (0.97,1.17)	1.11 (1.00,1.23)	1.16 (1.02,1.31)	0.035	1.18 (1.07,1.29)
Dietary GI							
Range	≤52.9	53.0,54.9	55.0,56.7	56.8,58.7	>58.7		
N cases	958	1054	1265	1395	1706		
Model 1 ²	1	0.97 (0.89,1.06)	1.05 (0.96,1.14)	1.06 (0.97,1.15)	1.17 (1.08,1.27)	0.001	1.09 (1.05,1.13)
Model 2 ³	1	0.98 (0.90,1.07)	1.04 (0.96,1.14)	1.02 (0.93,1.11)	1.05 (0.96,1.14)	0.172	1.03 (0.99,1.07)
Model 3 ^{4,5}	1	1.00 (0.91,1.09)	1.07 (0.98,1.16)	1.04 (0.95,1.13)	1.08 (0.99,1.18)	0.053	1.04 (1.00,1.08)

Available carbohydrate

Range	≤202.0	202.0,222.9	223.0,240.4	240.5,261.5	>261.5		
N cases	1542	1250	1206	1145	1235		
Model 1 ²	1	0.97 (0.90,1.05)	0.97 (0.90,1.05)	0.94 (0.87,1.02)	1.00 (0.92,1.08)	0.701	1.00 (0.97,1.03)
Model 2 ³	1	1.02 (0.94,1.10)	1.02 (0.94,1.11)	1.00 (0.92,1.09)	1.06 (0.97,1.15)	0.355	1.03 (0.99,1.06)
Model 3 ⁴	1	1.04 (0.96,1.14)	1.06 (0.96,1.17)	1.06 (0.95,1.19)	1.15 (1.00,1.32)	0.065	1.11 (1.03,1.18)

Starch

Range	≤97.4	97.5,113.3	113.4,127.7	127.8,147.0	>147.0		
N cases	1355	1224	1205	1322	1272		
Model 1 ²	1	0.95 (0.88,1.03)	0.90 (0.83,0.97)	0.92 (0.85,1.00)	0.86 (0.79,0.93)	0.001	0.93 (0.90,0.97)
Model 2 ³	1	0.99 (0.91,1.07)	0.95 (0.87,1.03)	0.97 (0.90,1.05)	0.93 (0.85,1.02)	0.116	0.98 (0.94,1.02)
Model 3 ^{4,6}	1	1.02 (0.94,1.11)	0.99 (0.90,1.09)	1.04 (0.93,1.15)	1.02 (0.89,1.16)	0.737	1.06 (0.99,1.14)

Sugar

Range	≤77.2	77.3,93.5	93.6,108.8	108.9,129.3	>129.3		
N cases	1509	1306	1200	1181	1182		
Model 1 ²	1	1.05 (0.97,1.13)	1.05 (0.97,1.13)	1.07 (0.99,1.16)	1.13 (1.04,1.23)	0.006	1.05 (1.01,1.09)
Model 2 ³	1	1.09 (1.01,1.18)	1.09 (1.01,1.18)	1.12 (1.03,1.21)	1.13 (1.04,1.23)	0.007	1.04 (1.00,1.08)

Model 3 ^{4,6}	1	1.12 (1.03,1.22)	1.14 (1.04,1.24)	1.18 (1.07,1.31)	1.24 (1.09,1.40)	0.001	1.09 (1.02,1.17)
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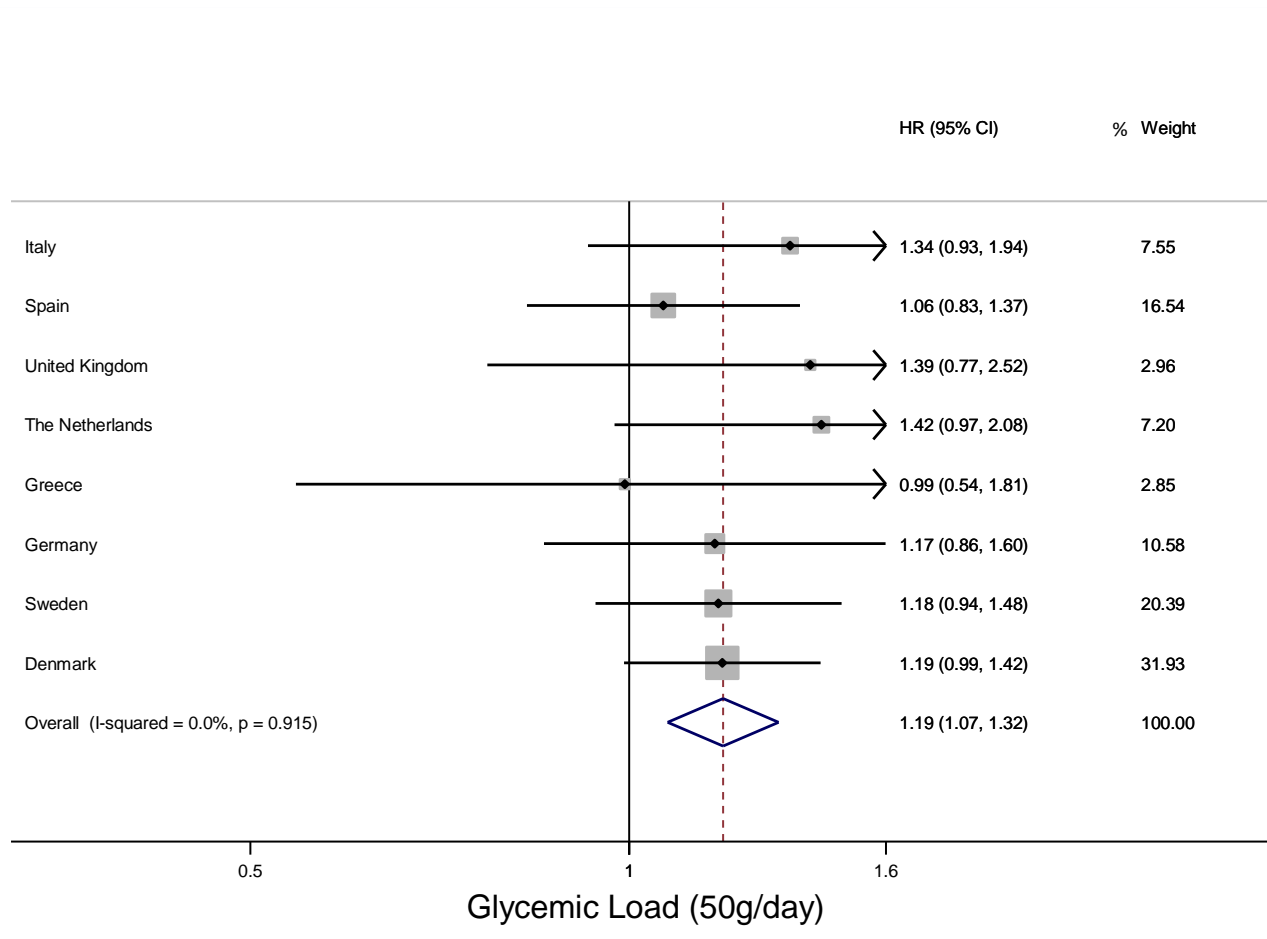
¹ Hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval estimated from Cox proportional hazard models. ² Stratified by age, sex, and recruitment center. ³ Additionally adjusted for smoking, education, physical activity, BMI, and blood pressure variable. ⁴ Additionally adjusted for intakes of energy, protein, alcohol, fiber, saturated and monounsaturated fat. ⁵ Models 3 for GL and GI were adjusted for cereal fiber instead of fiber. ⁶ Models 3 for sugar and for starch adjusted for starch and sugar, respectively. ⁷ Inter,quintile test for trend calculated by orthogonal polynomial contrasts. ⁸ For 50 g/day increments of dietary GL, carbohydrate, starch and sugar, or 5 units/day increments of dietary GI.

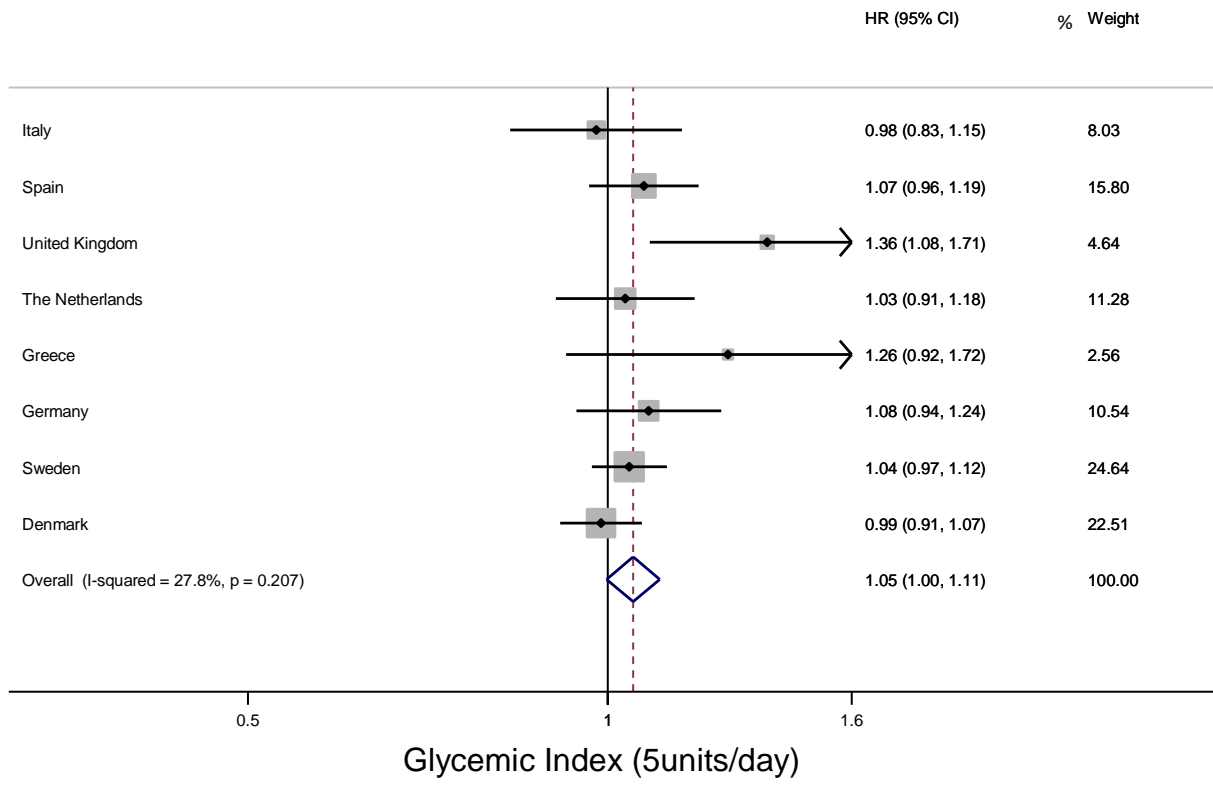
Table 5. Subgroup analyses: hazard ratios¹ (with 95% confidence intervals) for first coronary heart disease event according to quintiles dietary glycemic load (GL) and index (GI) in the EPIC study

	Quintiles of energy-adjusted dietary GL or GI					P trend ⁴	Continuous ⁵
	I	II	III	IV	V		
Dietary GL							
Excluding cases diagnosed in the first 2 years (5648 cases)							
Model 3 ^{2,3}	1	1.05 (0.96,1.15)	1.00 (0.91,1.11)	1.07 (0.95,1.19)	1.10 (0.97,1.26)	0.186	1.15 (1.04,1.27)
Men only (4251 cases)							
Model 3 ²	1	1.07 (0.97,1.18)	1.08 (0.97,1.20)	1.13 (1.01,1.27)	1.17 (1.02,1.34)	0.027	1.19 (1.08,1.30)
Women only (2103 cases)							
Model 3 ²	1	1.12 (0.96,1.30)	1.11 (0.96,1.30)	1.14 (0.97,1.34)	1.23 (1.02,1.47)	0.062	1.22 (1.07,1.40)
P heterogeneity							0.588
According to Body mass index							
<25 kg/m² (2025 cases)							
Model 3 ^{2,3}	1	0.94 (0.81,1.09)	0.90 (0.78,1.05)	0.99 (0.85,1.16)	0.98 (0.83,1.16)	0.984	1.09 (0.96,1.22)
≥25 kg/m² (4329 cases)							
Model 3 ^{2,3}	1	1.14 (1.03,1.26)	1.15 (1.03,1.28)	1.16 (1.03,1.31)	1.26 (1.10,1.44)	0.004	1.22 (1.11,1.35)
P heterogeneity							0.022
Dietary GI							
Excluding cases diagnosed in the first 2 years (5648 cases)							
Model 3 ^{2,3}	1	0.98 (0.89,1.07)	1.05 (0.96,1.15)	1.04 (0.95,1.14)	1.05 (0.96,1.16)	0.115	1.03 (0.99,1.08)
Men only (4251 cases)							

Model 3 ²	1	0.94 (0.84,1.05)	0.98 (0.88,1.09)	0.99 (0.89,1.11)	1.01 (0.91,1.12)	0.396	1.02 (0.98,1.07)
Women only (2103 cases)							
Model 3 ²	1	1.11 (0.97,1.28)	1.24 (1.08,1.42)	1.11 (0.96,1.28)	1.22 (1.06,1.40)	0.014	1.09 (1.02,1.16)
P for heterogeneity							0.090
According to Body mass index							
<25 kg/m ² (2025 cases)							
Model 3 ^{2,3}	1	1.03 (0.88,1.21)	0.99 (0.85,1.16)	1.00 (0.86,1.16)	1.04 (0.90,1.21)	0.686	1.03 (0.97,1.10)
≥25 kg/m ² (4329 cases)							
Model 3 ^{2,3}	1	0.98 (0.88,1.09)	1.10 (0.99,1.22)	1.06 (0.96,1.18)	1.10 (0.99,1.22)	0.026	1.05 (1.00,1.10)
P heterogeneity							0.674

¹ Hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval estimated from Cox proportional hazard models. ² Stratified by age, recruitment center and adjusted for smoking, education, physical activity, body mass index, blood pressure variable, and intakes of energy, protein, alcohol, cereal fiber, saturated and monounsaturated fat. ³ Additionally stratified by sex. ⁴ Inter-quintile test for trend calculated by orthogonal polynomial contrasts. ⁵ For 50 g/day increments of dietary GL or 5 units/day increments of dietary GI.





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