

BMJ Open

BMJ Open is committed to open peer review. As part of this commitment we make the peer review history of every article we publish publicly available.

When an article is published we post the peer reviewers' comments and the authors' responses online. We also post the versions of the paper that were used during peer review. These are the versions that the peer review comments apply to.

The versions of the paper that follow are the versions that were submitted during the peer review process. They are not the versions of record or the final published versions. They should not be cited or distributed as the published version of this manuscript.

BMJ Open is an open access journal and the full, final, typeset and author-corrected version of record of the manuscript is available on our site with no access controls, subscription charges or pay-per-view fees (<http://bmjopen.bmj.com>).

If you have any questions on BMJ Open's open peer review process please email editorial.bmjopen@bmj.com

BMJ Open

Model-based recursive partitioning to identify risk clusters for metabolic syndrome and its components: Findings from the International Mobility in Aging Study

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2017-018680
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	14-Jul-2017
Complete List of Authors:	Pirkle, Catherine; University of Hawai'i at Manoa, Office of Public Health Studies Wu, Yan Yan ; University of Hawai'i at Manoa, Office of Public Health Studies Zunzunegui, Maria-Victoria; Univesité de Montréal, Social and Preventive Medicine Gomez, Fernando; Universidad de Caldas
Primary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology
Secondary Subject Heading:	Diabetes and endocrinology, Global health
Keywords:	Recursive Partitioning, Metabolic Syndrome, Older adults, Global Health

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Only

Title: Model-based recursive partitioning to identify risk clusters for metabolic syndrome and its components: Findings from the International Mobility in Aging Study

Authors: Catherine M. Pirkle¹, Yan Yan Wu¹, Maria-Victoria Zunzunegui², Fernando Gomes³

Affiliations:

1. Office of Public Health Studies, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA.
2. Institut de recherche en santé publique, Université de Montréal, Montréal, Canada
3. Facultad de Ciencias para la Salud, Universidad de Caldas, Manizales, Colombia

Corresponding author:

Catherine M. Pirkle

Office of Public Health Studies

University of Hawai'i at Mānoa

1960 East West Road, Biomedical Bldg. D104H

Honolulu, Hawaii 96822

United States of America

Email: cmpirkle@hawaii.edu

Telephone: (808) 956-8748

Word Count: 2996

Abstract word count: 294

Key words: Recursive partitioning; Metabolic syndrome; Older adults; Global health

ABSTRACT

Objective: Conceptual models underpinning much epidemiological research on aging acknowledge that environmental, social, and biological systems *interact* to influence health outcomes. Recursive partitioning is a data-driven approach that allows for concurrent exploration of distinct mixtures, or clusters, of individuals that have a particular outcome. Our aim is to use recursive partitioning to examine risk clusters for metabolic syndrome (MetS) and its components, in order to identify vulnerable populations.

Study Design: Cross-sectional analysis of baseline data from a prospective longitudinal cohort called the International Mobility in Aging Study (IMIAS).

Setting: IMIAS includes sites from three middle-income countries- Tirana (Albania), Natal (Brazil), and Manizales (Colombia)- and two from Canada- Kingston (Ontario) and Saint-Hyacinthe (Quebec).

Participants: Community-dwelling male and female adults, ages 64 to 75 (N=2002).

Primary and Secondary Outcome Measures: We apply recursive partitioning to investigate social and behavioural risk factors for MetS and its components. Model-based recursive partitioning (MOB) was used to cluster participants into age-adjusted risk groups based on variabilities in: study site, sex, education, living arrangements, childhood adversities, adult occupation, current employment status, income, perceived income sufficiency, smoking status, and weekly minutes of physical activity.

Results: 43% of participants had MetS. Using MOB, the primary partitioning variable was participant sex. Among women from middle-incomes sites, the predicted proportion with MetS ranged from 58 to 68%. Canadian women with limited physical activity had elevated predicted proportions of MetS (49%, 95%CI 39-58%). Among men, MetS ranged from 26% to 41% depending on childhood social adversity and education. Clustering for MetS components differed from the syndrome and across components. Study site was a primary partitioning variable for all components except HDL cholesterol. Sex was important for most components.

Conclusion: MOB is a promising technique for identifying disease risk clusters (e.g. vulnerable populations) in modestly sized samples.

Key words: Recursive partitioning; Metabolic syndrome; Older adults; Global health

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Explores social and behavioural risk clustering for metabolic syndrome among community-dwelling older adults from five diverse global settings
- Applies model-based recursive partitioning, which is more intuitive and computationally efficient than Classification and Regression Trees (CART), to identify risk clusters
- Provides an example of how model-based recursive partitioning can be used in a modestly-sized sample for hypothesis generation about complex admixtures of risk factors
- Lacks data on participant diet, which likely clusters with many of the social and behavioural factors examined
- Strong contextual influences may have masked variance attributable to individual behaviours

INTRODUCTION

1
2
3
4
5
6 With aging, life's hazards and rewards amass and become embodied in ways that diminish or
7
8 protect health. Differences in health trajectories are the product of cumulative risk and protective
9
10 factors that are programmed into biobehavioural regulatory systems.[1] The cardio-metabolic
11
12 pathologies commonly-observed in older adults (partially) reflect the collective burden exacted on
13
14 their bodies as they adapt to life's challenges.[2] The types and magnitude of challenges that
15
16 bodies are exposed to vary across societies and time, as these reflect underlying social orders with
17
18 regards to the distribution of economic, political and social resources.[2] Research that
19
20 purposefully compares populations of older adults across heterogeneous societies may inform our
21
22 understanding of modifiable social and behavioural factors that influence the dysregulation of
23
24 biological systems. Of importance, social norms and patterning are capable of creating toxic or
25
26 protective clusters that manifest among identifiable subgroups.[3] Such information is useful for
27
28 directing public health interventions and for considering how contextual conditions render groups
29
30 particularly vulnerable.
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 Metabolic syndrome (MetS) is a highly prevalent health condition amongst older adults; it confers
40
41 an approximate 2-fold increased risk of cardiovascular disease and 5-fold increased risk of
42
43 diabetes.[4] It entails a constellation of components including obesity, impaired glucose
44
45 metabolism, hypertension, and atherogenic dyslipidaemia.[4] In older adults, MetS varies
46
47 considerably across populations. In the United States and Europe, MetS prevalence is estimated at
48
49 30% [4, 5]; in urban China researchers estimate a prevalence of 60%.[6] Studies of older adults
50
51 frequently document greater prevalence in women compared to men.[6-8] Heterogeneity in MetS
52
53 prevalence likely reflects complex, contextually-specific risk admixtures.
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5 Epidemiological research on aging explicitly acknowledges that environmental, social,
6 psychological, and biological systems *interact* to influence health outcomes.[1, 3] The well-known
7 ecological model posits that patterns of health are affected by a dynamic interplay among these
8 factors across the life-course.[2, 9] A challenge for epidemiologists, especially with modest sample
9 sizes, is to operationalize models that assume the joint effects of multiple risk factors on health
10 conditions, such as MetS.[10]
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20

21 Recursive partitioning is a technique that allows for exploration of distinct mixtures, or clusters, of
22 individuals that have a particular outcome. Based on a set of candidate independent variables, it
23 can produce classification trees with a series of binary splits highlighting subgroups with
24 relatively similar risk profiles for a given outcome.[11, 12] The classification trees depict the joint
25 effects of multiple risk factors.[12] It is a data-driven approach with the potential to identify
26 complex interactions worthy of future investigation.[12] Researchers have applied partitioning
27 techniques to identify high-risk subgroups for cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and falls in
28 population-based studies.[13-15] Most of this work examines clinical or genetic risk factors, but
29 the same technique can be expanded to examine social and behavioural risk factors.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 In an international, multi-site cohort of community-dwelling older adults, we apply recursive
44 partitioning to investigate social and behavioural risk factors for MetS and its components. Our
45 objectives are to assess if there are social/behavioural risks clusters for those with MetS, or the
46 components of the syndrome, and whether these risk clusters vary across societies. To date, we
47 know of no other studies employing recursive-partitioning techniques to investigate predictors of
48 MetS that are informed by a social epidemiological perspective.
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

METHODS

Data source and study populations

This is an analysis of 2012 baseline data from the International Mobility in Aging Study (IMIAS). IMIAS is composed of community-dwelling older adults, 65-74 years of age. This study comprises three sites in middle-income countries- Tirana (Albania), Natal (Brazil), and Manizales (Colombia)- and two from a high-income country- Kingston (Ontario, Canada) and Saint-Hyacinthe (Quebec, Canada). These cities represent diverse ways of living in distinct societies, providing a wide range of risk factors and outcomes. For example, Tirana is the capital of an ex-communist country in rapid transition to capitalism, while Manizales is in the Andean coffee-growing region, of Catholic tradition, and relatively affluent. Approximately 200 men and women, each, were recruited per site for a sample size of 2002. A detailed description of the study sites and cohort is available elsewhere.[16]

Recruitment

In Tirana, Manizales and Natal, we recruited participants through their neighbourhood primary care centres by selecting a random sample of older adults registered at each.[16] The response rate was over 90%.[16] Ethics' committees in Canada prohibited researchers directly contacting potential participants. Invitations to participate in the project were therefore sent indirectly via family physicians.[16] Thirty per cent of people receiving a letter of invitation from their doctor in Kingston and St. Hyacinthe contacted the IMIAS research team; 95% agreed to participate.[16] Comparison with 2006 Canadian census data suggests participants in Kingston were more educated than the general population of that city, while participants from St. Hyacinthe had

1
2
3 similar educational levels to inhabitants of that city. Otherwise, characteristics between those
4 recruited and the sampling frame were very similar.[16] At all sites, over 80% of older adults were
5 registered at a health centre or had a primary care physician;[16] it is unlikely that our
6 recruitment strategy systematically excluded a large segment of older adult population.
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14

15 **Exclusion Criterion**

16
17 Those with four or more errors on the orientation scale of the Leganes Cognitive Test;[17] low
18 scores indicate inability to complete study procedures.
19
20
21
22
23

24 **Measurements**

25
26 Study procedures were carried out at the participant's home, in the local language, by a trained
27 interviewer. Detailed descriptions of data collection procedures are provided elsewhere.[16]
28
29
30
31
32
33

34 **Metabolic syndrome**

35
36 Except for the measure of insulin resistance, we defined MetS according to the Adult Panel
37 Treatment III (ATP III) criteria.[18] IMIAS did not collect fasting glucose and the corresponding
38 glycosylated haemoglobin (HbA1c) value was used instead.[19] Thus, MetS was defined as the
39 presence of three or more of the following: abdominal obesity measured by waist circumference
40 (women >88cm; men >102cm); elevated triglycerides (≥ 150 mg/dL); low high-density lipoprotein
41 cholesterol (HDL-C men <40mg/dL; HDL-C women <50mg/dL); elevated HbA1c ($\geq 5.7\%$); and high
42 blood pressure (≥ 135 mmHg systolic and/or ≥ 85 mmHg diastolic).
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Socioeconomic and demographic characteristics

We categorized education as: less than secondary school and/or illiterate, some secondary school to completed secondary school, and post-secondary education. A participant's living arrangements were determined with the following questions: Do you live alone (Yes/No)? (If no) Who do you live with? Responses were then categorized as: Alone, spouse only, and multiple people.

We determined exposure to childhood social and economic adversity with a scale that varied from zero to three including parental alcohol or drug abuse, witnessing family physical violence, and having been physically abused (childhood social adversity); poor economic status, hunger, and parental unemployment (childhood economic adversity).[20] Occupation was grouped into five categories: non-manual, service, agriculture, manual, and housewife, according to self-reported longest held occupation (based on International Labour Organization categories). We enquired about current annual income levels. Based on the annual minimum salary for each site, individuals were categorized as poor, middle, upper middle, and high income. For example, in Canada, the minimum salary is \$19680CAN/year. Thus, we categorized Canadian participants as poor if they earned less than \$20000CAN/year. Those who earned more than the minimum salary but less than twice it (\$20-39, 999) were classified as middle income, while those that earned twice or greater the minimum salary, but less than three times it, were classified as upper-middle (\$40-59,999), and those that earned 3 times or more the minimum salary (\geq \$60, 000) were classified as upper-income. This was done for each site based on the site-specific minimum salary. Income sufficiency was assessed according: To what extent does your income allow you to meet your needs? Responses were categorized into: Very sufficient, sufficient, and not (at all) sufficient. We asked participants about their work history in the past two weeks and categorized them as:

1
2
3 worked with remuneration; worked without remuneration; had a job, but did not work; retired or
4
5 pensioned; and did not work. We also asked participants if they currently smoke. Responses were
6
7 categorized as regular, occasional, used to be a smoker, and never. Finally, we assessed minutes of
8
9 physical activity per week with a validated computer-animated assessment tool.[21]
10
11
12
13

14 **Statistical analysis**

15
16
17 Descriptive statistics summarize overall sample characteristics. Because the distributions were
18
19 positively skewed for some measures, we report the median, first and third quartiles for all
20
21 continuous variables. We performed Chi-square tests to investigate the associations between MetS
22
23 and categorical independent variables and carried out two-sample t-tests to examine mean
24
25 differences in biomarkers. Random Forest method was used to impute missing physical activities
26
27 (n=59).[22]
28
29
30
31
32

33
34 Model-based recursive partitioning method (MOB) was applied to cluster individuals into
35
36 subgroups with similar response values.[23] Recursive partitioning creates a decision tree that
37
38 classifies members of the population by splitting it into subpopulations based on independent
39
40 (partitioning) variables. The process is termed recursive because each sub-population may be
41
42 split a number of times until a particular stopping criterion is reached. Our stopping criteria were:
43
44 5% level of significance and minimum sample size of 100 at terminal nodes.
45
46
47
48
49

50
51 Traditional implementations of recursive partitioning algorithms are known as Classification and
52
53 Regression Trees (CART).[10] MOB integrates parametric statistical models into classification
54
55 trees.[23] A parametric model (e.g., logistic regression for MetS vs. a control variable age) is tested
56
57
58
59

1
2
3 for parameter instability over a set of partitioning variables. If there is some overall parameter
4
5
6 variability, the model is split with respect to the variable with the highest instability (i.e. the
7
8 smallest p-value), while controlling for age. For continuous partitioning variables, MOB tests and
9
10 selects an optimal cut-off point and split subjects into two subgroups.[23-25] The outcome is a
11
12 tree where each node is associated with a fitted parametric model (i.e., logistic regression model
13
14 of Mets vs. age) that can be visualized and summarized. If the outcome variable is quantitative,
15
16 linear models are applied.
17
18
19
20
21

22 We performed MOB for MetS, systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), waist
23
24 circumference, log transformed triglyceride, HDL-C, and HbA1c, controlling for age. The
25
26 partitioning variables included social and behavioural risk characteristics described previously.
27
28 Statistical software R (version 3.2.2) and the R package “party” were used.
29
30
31
32
33

34 **RESULTS**

35
36 Complete data on all variables were available for 1628 (81%) participants. Table 1 presents the
37
38 frequency of MetS according to the participant characteristics. MetS was observed in 43%
39
40 participants, 50% of women and 35% of men. For most variables, there were important
41
42 differences in the proportion of participants with MetS. It concentrated among those of lower
43
44 socioeconomic status: those with lower education, lower incomes, manual workers and
45
46 housewives. More MetS was observed among those reporting childhood adversities. Those with
47
48 MetS reported had greater mean blood pressure, waist circumference, HbA1c, triglyceride, low
49
50 HDL measures, and walked less on average than those without it.
51
52
53

54
55 ---Insert table 1 here (see next page)---
56
57
58
59
60

Table 1: Descriptive characteristics of the participants and frequency of metabolic syndrome.

	Overall (N=1628)	Metabolic Syndrome		<i>p-value*</i>
		Yes (42.7%)	No (57.3%)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Site				
Kingston	289(17.8%)	92(31.8%)	197(68.2%)	<.0001
St. Hyacinthe	310(19.0%)	96(31.0%)	214(69.0%)	
Tirana	344(21.1%)	171(49.7%)	173(50.3%)	
Manizales	374(23.0%)	172(46.0%)	202(54.0%)	
Natal	311(19.1%)	164(52.7%)	147(47.3%)	
Sex				
Female	844(51.8%)	424(50.2%)	420(49.8%)	<.0001
Male	784(48.2%)	271(34.6%)	513(65.4%)	
Educational Attainment				
Primary / illiterate	760(46.7%)	366(48.2%)	394(51.8%)	0.0001
Secondary	217(13.3%)	91(41.9%)	126(58.1%)	
Post-secondary	651(40.0%)	238(36.6%)	413(63.4%)	
Current Living Arrangements				
Alone	254(15.6%)	100(39.4%)	154(60.6%)	0.0001
Spouse only	609(37.4%)	225(36.9%)	384(63.1%)	
Other	765(47.0%)	370(48.4%)	395(51.6%)	
Adult Occupation				
Non manual	593(36.4%)	211(35.6%)	382(64.4%)	<.0001
Service	160(9.8%)	67(41.9%)	93(58.1%)	
Agriculture	94(5.8%)	41(43.6%)	53(56.4%)	
Manual	607(37.3%)	274(45.1%)	333(54.9%)	
Housewife	174(10.7%)	102(58.6%)	72(41.4%)	
Current Income				
Poor	417(25.6%)	189(45.3%)	228(54.7%)	0.001
Middle	704(43.2%)	315(44.7%)	389(55.3%)	
Upper middle	346(21.3%)	145(41.9%)	201(58.1%)	
High	161(9.9%)	46(28.6%)	115(71.4%)	
Perceived Income Sufficiency				
Very sufficient	339(20.8%)	102(30.1%)	237(69.9%)	<.0001
Sufficient	537(33.0%)	215(40.0%)	322(60.0%)	
Not (at all) sufficient	752(46.2%)	378(50.3%)	374(49.7%)	
Childhood Economic Adversity				
No adversities	858(52.7%)	351(40.9%)	507(59.1%)	0.0291
One adversity event	453(27.8%)	186(41.1%)	267(58.9%)	
Two adversity events	212(13.0%)	102(48.1%)	110(51.9%)	
Three adversity events	105(6.4%)	56(53.3%)	49(46.7%)	
Childhood Social Adversity				
No adversities	1,231(75.6%)	505(41.0%)	726(59.0%)	0.0792
One adversity event	245(15.0%)	113(46.1%)	132(53.9%)	
Two adversity events	119(7.3%)	59(49.6%)	60(50.4%)	
Three adversity events	33(2.0%)	18(54.5%)	15(45.5%)	

Table 1 (continued): Descriptive characteristics of the participants.

	Overall	Metabolic Syndrome		<i>p-value*</i>
	(N=1628)	Yes (42.7%)	No (57.3%)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Smoker				
Regular	138(8.5%)	64(46.4%)	74(53.6%)	0.109
Occasional	37(2.3%)	18(48.6%)	19(51.4%)	
Used to be	676(41.5%)	265(39.2%)	411(60.8%)	
Never	777(47.7%)	348(44.8%)	429(55.2%)	
Current Employment Status				
Worked with remuneration	185(11.4%)	66(35.7%)	119(64.3%)	0.011
Worked w/o remuneration	201(12.3%)	105(52.2%)	96(47.8%)	
Had a job, but did not work	25(1.5%)	9(36.0%)	16(64.0%)	
Retired or Pensioned	1, 119(68.7%)	468(41.8%)	651(58.2%)	
Did not work	98(6.0%)	47(48.0%)	51(52.0%)	
	Median(Q1, Q3)	Median(Q1, Q3)	Median(Q1, Q3)	
Age (year)	69(67, 72)	69 (67, 72)	69 (67, 71)	0.0451
Physical Activity (minutes/week)	20(9, 39)	15 (6, 32)	24(10, 43)	<.0001
SBP (mmHg)	138(126, 152)	143(134, 157)	132(122, 146)	<.0001
DBP (mmHg)	79 (71, 86)	81(74, 88)	77(70, 84)	<.0001
Waist (cm)	96(88, 104)	101(94, 108)	92(85, 100)	<.0001
HbA1c (%)	5.8(5.5, 6.2)	6.1(5.8, 6.6)	5.7(5.4, 6.0)	<.0001
Triglyceride (mg/dL)	126(91, 172)	165(125, 211)	105 (78, 134)	<.0001
HDL (mg/dL)	50(43, 60)	45(39, 53)	55(47, 63)	<.0001

**p-values*: obtained from Chi-square tests of association between MetS (Yes/No) and categorical explanatory variables, and t-tests for difference in MetS (Yes/No) for continuous variable

Table 2 presents participant characteristics by study site and shows a notably greater frequency of MetS among participants from the middle-income sites (46-53%) compared to those from the Canadian sites (~30%).

---Insert table 2 here (see next page)---

Table 2: Descriptive characteristics of the participants by study site.

	Kingston	St. Hyacinthe	Tirana	Manizales	Natal
	289(17.8%)	310(19%)	344(21.1%)	374(23%)	311(19.1%)
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Metabolic Syndrome					
Yes	92(31.8%)	96(31.0%)	171(49.7%)	172(46.0%)	164(52.7%)
No	197(68.2%)	214(69.0%)	173(50.3%)	202(54.0%)	147(47.3%)
Sex					
Female	152(52.6%)	166(53.5%)	178(51.7%)	190(50.8%)	158(50.8%)
Male	137(47.4%)	144(46.5%)	166(48.3%)	184(49.2%)	153(49.2%)
Educational Attainment					
Primary / illiterate	29(10.0%)	85(27.4%)	54(15.7%)	310(82.9%)	282(90.7%)
Secondary	37(12.8%)	67(21.6%)	79(23.0%)	19(5.1%)	15(4.8%)
Post-secondary	223(77.2%)	158(51.0%)	211(61.3%)	45(12.0%)	14(4.5%)
Current Living Arrangements					
Alone	88(30.4%)	72(23.2%)	31(9.0%)	47(12.6%)	16(5.1%)
Spouse only	127(43.9%)	201(64.8%)	151(43.9%)	68(18.2%)	62(19.9%)
Other	74(25.6%)	37(11.9%)	162(47.1%)	259(69.3%)	233(74.9%)
Adult Occupation					
Non manual	226(78.2%)	158(51.0%)	116(33.7%)	63(16.8%)	30(9.6%)
Service	24(8.3%)	40(12.9%)	23(6.7%)	22(5.9%)	51(16.4%)
Agriculture	2(0.7%)	18(5.8%)	5(1.5%)	37(9.9%)	32(10.3%)
Manual	27(9.3%)	78(25.2%)	199(57.8%)	161(43.0%)	142(45.7%)
Housewife	10(3.5%)	16(5.2%)	1(0.3%)	91(24.3%)	56(18.0%)
Current Income					
Poor	51(17.6%)	109(35.2%)	36(10.5%)	191(51.1%)	30(9.6%)
Middle	97(33.6%)	122(39.4%)	204(59.3%)	112(29.9%)	169(54.3%)
Upper middle	61(21.1%)	62(20.0%)	82(23.8%)	50(13.4%)	91(29.3%)
High	80(27.7%)	17(5.5%)	22(6.4%)	21(5.6%)	21(6.8%)
Perceived Income Sufficiency					
Very sufficient	174(60.2%)	132(42.6%)	5(1.5%)	19(5.1%)	9(2.9%)
Sufficient	101(34.9%)	157(50.6%)	121(35.2%)	89(23.8%)	69(22.2%)
Not (at all) sufficient	14(4.8%)	21(6.8%)	218(63.4%)	266(71.1%)	233(74.9%)
Childhood Economic Adversity					
No adversities	190(65.7%)	201(64.8%)	147(42.7%)	216(57.8%)	104(33.4%)
One adversity event	73(25.3%)	92(29.7%)	89(25.9%)	108(28.9%)	91(29.3%)
Two adversity events	24(8.3%)	15(4.8%)	75(21.8%)	28(7.5%)	70(22.5%)
Three adversity events	2(0.7%)	2(0.6%)	33(9.6%)	22(5.9%)	46(14.8%)
Childhood Social Adversity					
No adversities	210(72.7%)	229(73.9%)	281(81.7%)	287(76.7%)	224(72.0%)
One adversity event	42(14.5%)	54(17.4%)	27(7.8%)	63(16.8%)	59(19.0%)
Two adversity events	25(8.7%)	22(7.1%)	30(8.7%)	18(4.8%)	24(7.7%)
Three adversity events	12(4.2%)	5(1.6%)	6(1.7%)	6(1.6%)	4(1.3%)

Table 2 (continued): Descriptive characteristics of the participants by study site.

	Kingston	St. Hyacinthe	Tirana	Manizales	Natal
	289(17.8%)	310(19%)	344(21.1%)	374(23%)	311(19.1%)
Smoker					
Regular	14(4.8%)	19(6.1%)	43(12.5%)	37(9.9%)	25(8.0%)
Occasional	3(1.0%)	5(1.6%)	12(3.5%)	13(3.5%)	4(1.3%)
Used to be	141(48.8%)	169(54.5%)	81(23.5%)	147(39.3%)	138(44.4%)
Never	131(45.3%)	117(37.7%)	208(60.5%)	177(47.3%)	144(46.3%)
Current Employment Status					
Worked with remuneration	43(14.9%)	39(12.6%)	8(2.3%)	58(15.5%)	37(11.9%)
Worked w/o remuneration	8(2.8%)	18(5.8%)	8(2.3%)	99(26.5%)	68(21.9%)
Had a job, but did not work	8(2.8%)	2(0.6%)	4(1.2%)	8(2.1%)	3(1.0%)
Retired or Pensioned	228(78.9%)	246(79.4%)	323(93.9%)	133(35.6%)	189(60.8%)
Did not work	2(0.7%)	5(1.6%)	1(0.3%)	76(20.3%)	14(4.5%)
	Median(Q1,Q3)	Median (Q1,Q3)	Median(Q1,Q3)	Median(Q1,Q3)	Median(Q1,Q3)
Age (year)	69(67, 71)	68(67, 71)	70(66, 72)	69(67, 72)	69(67, 71)
Physical Activity (minutes/wk)	26(9, 51)	24(9, 39)	27(11, 48)	17(9, 39)	10(4, 23)
SBP (mmHg)	135(124, 145)	134(125, 143)	144(130, 161)	133(123, 146)	146(130, 161)
DBP (mmHg)	77(71, 83)	75(68, 81)	84(75, 91)	79(72, 86)	78(71, 86)
Waist (cm)	96(88, 107)	94(87, 102)	102(95, 107)	90(83, 96)	100(93, 106)
HbA1c (%)	5.8(5.5, 6.0)	5.8(5.5, 6.1)	5.6(5.3, 6.3)	5.9(5.7, 6.2)	6.0(5.6, 6.5)
Triglyceride (mg/dL)	88(60, 136)	122(91, 159)	130(106, 165)	140(106, 201)	135(97, 187)
HDL (mg/dL)	54(45, 66)	56(46, 67)	47(41, 52)	48(39, 57)	52(47, 61)

Figure 1 depicts the MOB tree for MetS. The highest values of MetS were observed in clusters of women from the middle-income study sites (Tirana, Manizales, Natal). In these clusters, the predicted proportion with MetS varied from 58 to 68%, depending on education. Better-educated women from these sites had more MetS. Among women from the Canadian sites, less walking time per week distinguished the higher from lower probability cluster. The lowest predicted proportion (26%) of MetS was observed in men with post-secondary education reporting no

1
2
3 childhood social adversities, and in women from the Canadian sites who had more walking time
4
5 per week.
6
7
8
9

10 ---Insert Figure 1 here---
11
12
13

14
15 The supplementary files contain the MOB trees for MetS components. Each tree depicts unique
16
17 clusters that do not correspond with those observed for MetS as a whole. For example, the
18
19 greatest estimated mean systolic blood pressure (154 mmHg) was observed among participants
20
21 from Tirana and Natal, with income insufficiency, and who smoked regularly or used to. For this
22
23 outcome, in contrast to MetS as a whole, sex was not a partitioning variable. Overall, in all models
24
25 except HDL, study site was the primary partitioning variable and in some cases (triglycerides), the
26
27 only one. Typically, participants from Natal and Tirana had unfavourable estimates for MetS
28
29 components; however, participants from Manizales had the greatest estimated triglyceride
30
31 concentrations (145 mg/dL). Participant sex was a key partitioning variable for DBP, waist
32
33 circumference, and HDL concentration. Other partitioning variables for one or two of the MetS
34
35 components included: weekly walking time, current employment status, perceived income
36
37 sufficiency, living arrangements, smoking, adult occupation, and current income.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 **DISCUSSION**

46
47
48 The MOB technique identified distinct clusters of individuals with differential probabilities of MetS
49
50 and its components, according to multiple social and behavioural risk factors. For the syndrome as
51
52 a whole, in clusters of women from middle-income sites, the predicted proportion with MetS was
53
54 quite high (58-68%). In clusters of men, the predicted proportion with MetS was lower (26-41%)
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 and highest among men reporting childhood social adversities. MetS in women from the Canadian
4 sites varied considerably based on average walking time per week. Women from Kingston and St.
5 Hyacinthe who walked minimally (>11 min/week) had predicted probabilities of MetS identical to
6 men with post-secondary education and no childhood social adversities. This work demonstrates
7 the potential of using MOB to identify joint effects in a moderately-sized sample of individuals. It
8 raises questions for future investigation, especially related to the concentration of risk(s) in
9 certain subgroups.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 This study corroborates previous findings that the prevalence of MetS varies according to age, sex,
23 and socioeconomic status.[4, 26, 27] Consistent with other studies, we observed a concentration of
24 MetS in participants of lower socioeconomic status.[27-29] When applying MOB, we observed
25 distinct risk clusters according to study site and participant sex, education and childhood
26 adversity. These findings support a dynamic interplay between contextual and social risk factors
27 and the concentration of risks in certain subgroups, which is consistent with the notion of
28 vulnerable populations proposed by Frohlich and Potvin.[3] Accordingly, vulnerable populations
29 are defined by shared social characteristics that put them at “higher risk of risks”.[3 pp218] These
30 risks and their accumulation across the life-course relate to fundamental causes linked to one’s
31 social position within the predominant social structure.[3] This may explain why study site and
32 sex were key partitioning variables. Study site proxies societal opportunities for education,
33 occupation, and income and expectations surrounding behaviours and diet. The clustering by site
34 supports research underscoring the importance of context in patterning the risk exposures of
35 individuals.[3, 30] Sex/gender likely underpins access to resources such as money, knowledge and
36 power affecting health outcomes through multiple risk factors.[31]
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5 In studies with large sample sizes (>10, 000 participants), complex joint-effects have been
6 observed with traditional regression analysis techniques. For example, using data from
7
8 representative samples of United States' adults aged 25 and older, Loucks *et al.* reported that
9
10 overall, the prevalence of MetS was similar in women and men, both low education and poverty
11 were associated with MetS, and the social gradient of the prevalence of MetS was more
12 pronounced in women than in men.[32] These United States' findings differ from ours since in
13 IMIAS, sex was the first stratifying variable, with an overall higher frequency of MetS in women
14 than in men. However, for both men and women in our study, education was an important
15 predictor of MetS at most sites; although, the direction of the association between education and
16 MetS was not consistent. Among women from the middle-income sites, greater educational
17 attainment was associated with a greater predicted prevalence of MetS. Among men with no
18 childhood social adversity, low educational attainment was associated to a greater predicted
19 prevalence of MetS.
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 When MOB was applied to the syndrome components, only study site and participant sex were
39 consistent partitioning variables for most components. In general, when measures of
40 socioeconomic status were partitioning variables, lower status was associated with poorer
41 outcomes. For example, income insufficiency predicted higher mean diastolic blood pressure
42 among Tirana participants. Measures of socioeconomic status appeared as partitioning variables
43 more frequently than risk behaviours. This is consistent with recent work analysing individual-
44 level data from more than 1.7 million people in which low socioeconomic status was associated
45 with premature mortality across multiple disease categories and ranked 3rd in population
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 attributable fraction for mortality among a large list of risk factors (physical inactivity ranked 2nd).
4
5 [33] Greater mean weekly physical activity predicted lower waist circumferences and greater HDL
6
7 concentrations, consistent with the literature.[34-36]
8
9

10
11
12 This study has strengths. First is the use of the MOB technique. Traditional CART methods have
13
14 the vulnerability of over-fitting, selection bias and no concept of statistical significance. Thus
15
16 pruning and cross-validation methods are used to avoid the over-fitting problems characteristic of
17
18 CART. MOB is implemented via hypothesis tests, which leads to regression models whose
19
20 predictive performance is equivalent to optimally pruned trees, therefore offering an intuitive and
21
22 computationally efficient solution to the over-fitting problem, and the resulting models are easier
23
24 to communicate to practitioners.[23, 37]
25
26
27
28
29

30
31 This study has limitations. Study site and sex are structuring variables that may mask more
32
33 proximal risk factors for disease. Individual risk behaviours, such as smoking, may be ubiquitous
34
35 within certain subgroups,[30] rendering it difficult to detect the influence of these behaviours on
36
37 MetS using the MOB technique. Another limitation is that we used a single waist circumference
38
39 cut-off value for all populations. Arguments exist for country and/or ethnicity-specific waist
40
41 circumference cut-offs, but more work is required to optimally determine these.[38] Finally, we
42
43 did not collect individual dietary data or data on the early nutritional environment.[39]
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 **Conclusion**

51
52 We applied a recursive partitioning technique to investigate risk clustering for MetS in an
53
54 international, multi-site study of community-dwelling older adults and observed unique risk
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 clusters according to mostly contextual and socioeconomic characteristics. MOB may prove
4
5 informative in studies with much larger samples, such as the Health and Retirement Study, where
6
7 it can be used generate new hypotheses about risk clustering and then more traditional
8
9 deterministic techniques can corroborate or contradict these hypotheses. With regards to both
10
11 clinical practice and health promotion activities, identifying risk clusters is important for targeting
12
13 purposes, as the intensity and type of programs may differ according to sub-groups.[12]
14
15
16
17
18

19 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

20
21
22 The authors would like to thank all of the IMIAS participants.
23
24
25
26
27

28 **CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT**

29
30
31 CMP and MVZ conceived of the study. CMP and YW analysed and interpreted the data. CMP, YW,
32
33 JFG, and MVZ contributed to the writing and editing of this manuscript.
34
35
36
37
38

39 **DATA SHARING**

40
41
42 Extra data is available through registration on the IMIAS website (<http://www.imias.ufrn.br>).
43
44
45 Registered users can request IMIAS data through a data request form.
46
47
48

49 **FUNDING**

50
51
52 This study was supported by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR).
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

COMPETING INTERESTS

None declared

PATIENT CONSENT

Written informed consent was obtained from all IMIAS participants.

FIGURE 1

Model based recursive partitioning for metabolic syndrome controlling for age. The horizontal axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean proportions of metabolic syndrome obtained from logistic regression models by age. The predicted mean proportion of metabolic syndrome and 95% confidence interval for each terminal node are listed under the plots.

REFERENCES

- 1 Halfon N, Hochstein M. Life course health development: an integrated framework for developing health, policy, and research. *Milbank Q* 2002;**80**:433-79, iii.
- 2 Satariano WA. *Epidemiology of Aging: An Ecological Approach*. Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers 2006.

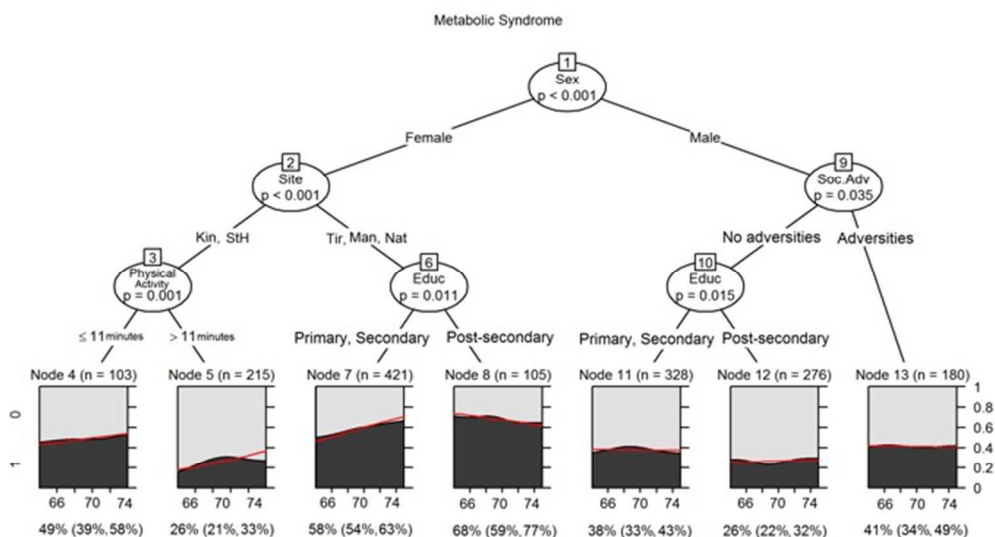
- 1
2
3 Frohlich KL, Potvin L. Transcending the known in public health practice: the inequality
4
5 paradox: the population approach and vulnerable populations. *American Journal of Public Health*
6
7 2008;**98**:216-21.
8
9
- 10 Samson SL, Garber AJ. Metabolic syndrome. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am* 2014;**43**:1-23.
11
12 Scuteri A, Najjar SS, Morrell CH, *et al.* The metabolic syndrome in older individuals:
13
14 prevalence and prediction of cardiovascular events: the Cardiovascular Health Study. *Diabetes*
15
16 *Care* 2005;**28**:882-7.
17
18
- 19 Liu M, Wang J, Jiang B, *et al.* Increasing Prevalence of Metabolic Syndrome in a Chinese
20
21 Elderly Population: 2001-2010. *PLoS One* 2013;**8**:e66233.
22
23
- 24 Davila EP, Quintero MA, Orrego ML, *et al.* Prevalence and risk factors for metabolic
25
26 syndrome in Medellin and surrounding municipalities, Colombia, 2008-2010. *Prev Med*
27
28 2013;**56**:30-4.
29
30
- 31 Moreira GC, Cipullo JP, Ciorlia LA, *et al.* Prevalence of metabolic syndrome: association with
32
33 risk factors and cardiovascular complications in an urban population. *PLoS One* 2014;**9**:e105056.
34
35
- 36 Bronfenbrenner U. Ecological Models of Human Development. *International Encyclopedia of*
37
38 *Education*. Oxford: Elsevier 1994.
39
40
- 41 Breiman L, Friedman J, Alshen R, *et al.* *CART: Classification and Regression Trees*. Belmont,
42
43 CA: Wadsworth 1984.
44
- 45 Nelson LM, Bloch DA, Longstreth WT, Jr., *et al.* Recursive partitioning for the identification
46
47 of disease risk subgroups: a case-control study of subarachnoid hemorrhage. *J Clin Epidemiol*
48
49 1998;**51**:199-209.
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 12 Nayak S, Hubbard A, Sidney S, *et al*. PP66 Self-rated health in the cardia study: a recursive
4 partitionning approach to contextualizing health determinants (Oral Presentations Abstracts).
5
6 *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 2014;**68**:A73-A4.
7
8
9
10 13 Gomez F, Wu YY, Auais M, *et al*. A Simple Algorithm to Predict Falls in Primary Care Patients
11 Aged 65 to 74 Years: The International Mobility in Aging Study. *Journal of the American Medical*
12 *Directors Association*. Epub ahead of print.
13
14
15
16
17 14 Costello TJ, Swartz MD, Sabripour M, *et al*. Use of tree-based models to identify subgroups
18 and increase power to detect linkage to cardiovascular disease traits. *BMC Genet* 2003;**4 Suppl**
19 **1**:S66.
20
21
22
23
24 15 Stern SE, Williams K, Ferrannini E, *et al*. Identification of individuals with insulin resistance
25 using routine clinical measurements. *Diabetes* 2005;**54**:333-9.
26
27
28
29 16 Zunzunegui MV, Alvarado BE, Guerra R, *et al*. The mobility gap between older men and
30 women: The embodiment of gender. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics* 2015.
31
32
33
34 17 De Yebenes MJ, Otero A, Zunzunegui MV, *et al*. Validation of a short cognitive tool for the
35 screening of dementia in elderly people with low educational level. *International Journal of*
36 *Geriatric Psychiatry* 2003;**18**:925-36.
37
38
39
40 18 National Cholesterol Education Program Expert Panel on Detection E, Treatment of High
41 Blood Cholesterol in A. Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP)
42 Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult
43 Treatment Panel III) final report. *Circulation* 2002;**106**:3143-421.
44
45
46
47
48
49
50 19 American Diabetes A. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care*
51 2010;**33 Suppl 1**:S62-9.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

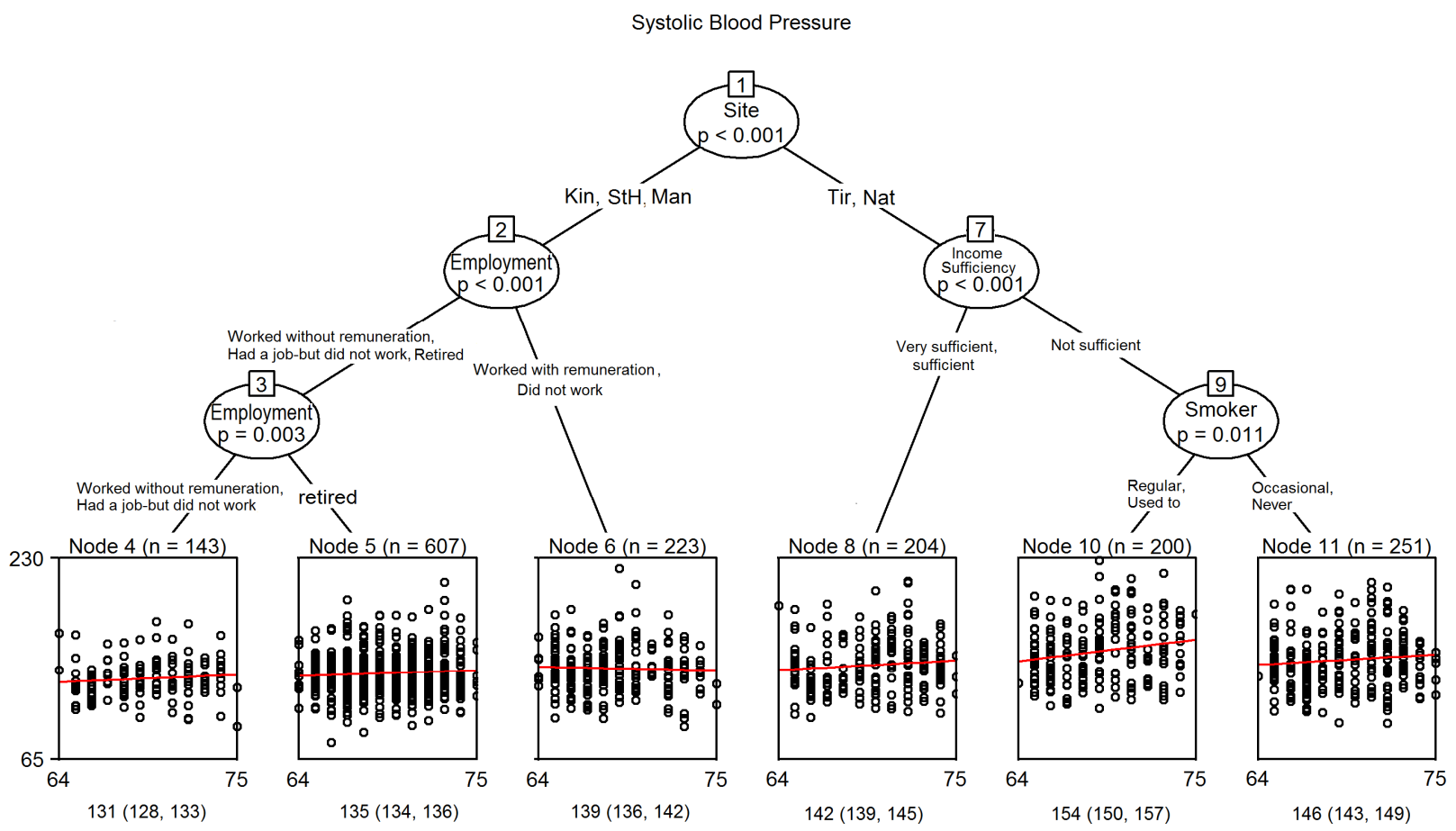
- 1
2
3 20 Sousa AC, Guerra RO, Thanh Tu M, *et al.* Lifecourse adversity and physical performance
4 across countries among men and women aged 65-74. *PloS one* 2014;**9**:e102299.
5
6
7
8 21 Marsh AP, Janssen JA, Ip EH, *et al.* Assessing Walking Activity in Older Adults: Development
9 and Validation of a Novel Computer-Animated Assessment Tool. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*
10 2015;**70**:1555-61.
11
12
13
14
15 22 Stekhoven DJ, Buhlmann P. MissForest--non-parametric missing value imputation for
16 mixed-type data. *Bioinformatics* 2012;**28**:112-8.
17
18
19
20 23 Zeileis A, Hothorn T, K. H. Model-based recursive partitioning. *Journal of Computational and*
21 *Graphical Statistics* 2008;**17**:492-514.
22
23
24 24 Seibold H, Zeileis A, Hothorn T. Model-Based Recursive Partitioning for Subgroup Analyses.
25 *Int J Biostat* 2016;**12**:45-63.
26
27
28
29 25 Hothorn T, Hornik K, Zeileis A. Unbiased Recursive Partitioning: A Conditional Inference
30 Framework. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics* 2006;**15**:651-74.
31
32
33
34 26 Eckel RH, Grundy SM, Zimmet PZ. The metabolic syndrome. *Lancet* 2005;**365**:1415-28.
35
36
37 27 Wu HF, Tam T, Jin L, *et al.* Age, gender, and socioeconomic gradients in metabolic
38 syndrome: biomarker evidence from a large sample in Taiwan, 2005-2013. *Ann Epidemiol*
39 2017;**27**:315-22 e2.
40
41
42
43 28 Loucks EB, Magnusson KT, Cook S, *et al.* Socioeconomic position and the metabolic
44 syndrome in early, middle, and late life: evidence from NHANES 1999-2002. *Ann Epidemiol*
45 2007;**17**:782-90.
46
47
48
49
50 29 Wamala SP, Lynch J, Horsten M, *et al.* Education and the metabolic syndrome in women.
51 *Diabetes Care* 1999;**22**:1999-2003.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 30 Rose G. Sick individuals and sick populations. *International Journal of Epidemiology*
4
5 2001;**30**:427-32.
6
7
8 31 Phelan JC, Link BG, Tehranifar P. Social conditions as fundamental causes of health
9
10 inequalities: theory, evidence, and policy implications. *J Health Soc Behav* 2010;**51 Suppl**:S28-40.
11
12 32 Loucks EB, Rehkopf DH, Thurston RC, *et al.* Socioeconomic disparities in metabolic
13
14 syndrome differ by gender: evidence from NHANES III. *Ann Epidemiol* 2007;**17**:19-26.
15
16
17 33 Stringhini S, Carmeli C, Jokela M, *et al.* Socioeconomic status and the 25 x 25 risk factors as
18
19 determinants of premature mortality: a multicohort study and meta-analysis of 1.7 million men
20
21 and women. *Lancet* 2017;**389**:1229-37.
22
23
24 34 Kokkinos PF, Fernhall B. Physical activity and high density lipoprotein cholesterol levels:
25
26 what is the relationship? *Sports Med* 1999;**28**:307-14.
27
28
29 35 Skoumas J, Pitsavos C, Panagiotakos DB, *et al.* Physical activity, high density lipoprotein
30
31 cholesterol and other lipids levels, in men and women from the ATTICA study. *Lipids in Health and*
32
33 *Disease* 2003;**2**:3.
34
35
36 36 Recio-Rodriguez JI, Sanchez-Aguadero N, Rodriguez-Sanchez E, *et al.* Physical Activity and
37
38 Adiposity Among Older Adults of the EVIDENT Study. *J Aging Phys Act* 2017;**25**:254-60.
39
40
41 37 Hothorn T, Hornik K, Zeileis A. Unbiased recursive partitioning: A conditional inference
42
43 framework. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics* 2006;**15**:651-74.
44
45
46 38 Alberti KG, Eckel RH, Grundy SM, *et al.* Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome: a joint
47
48 interim statement of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and
49
50 Prevention; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American Heart Association; World Heart
51
52 Federation; International Atherosclerosis Society; and International Association for the Study of
53
54 Obesity. *Circulation* 2009;**120**:1640-5.
55
56
57
58
59
60

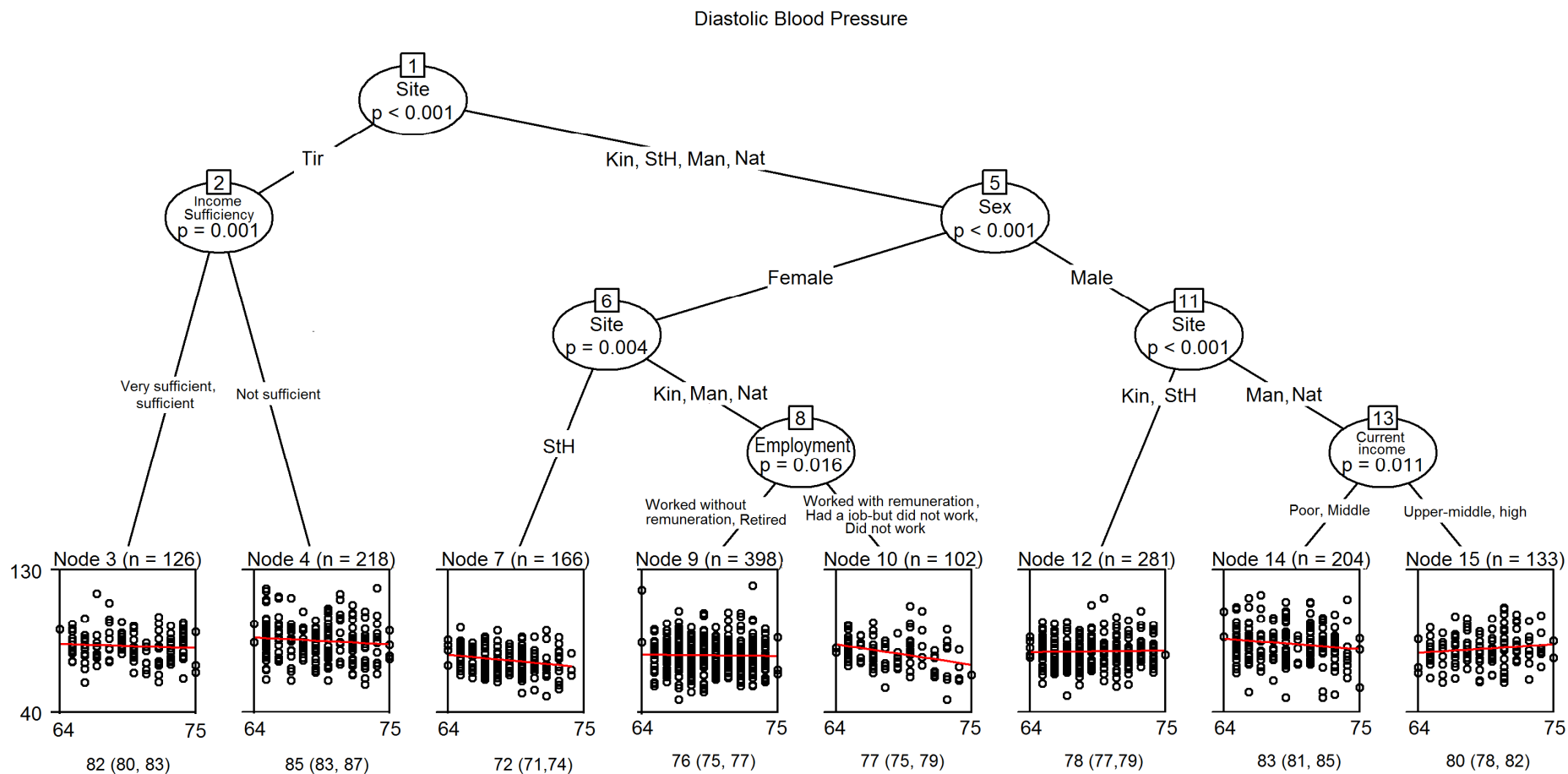
1
2
3 39 Delpierre C, Fantin R, Barboza-Solis C, *et al*. The early life nutritional environment and early
4 life stress as potential pathways towards the metabolic syndrome in mid-life? A lifecourse analysis
5 using the 1958 British Birth cohort. *BMC Public Health* 2016;**16**:815.
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



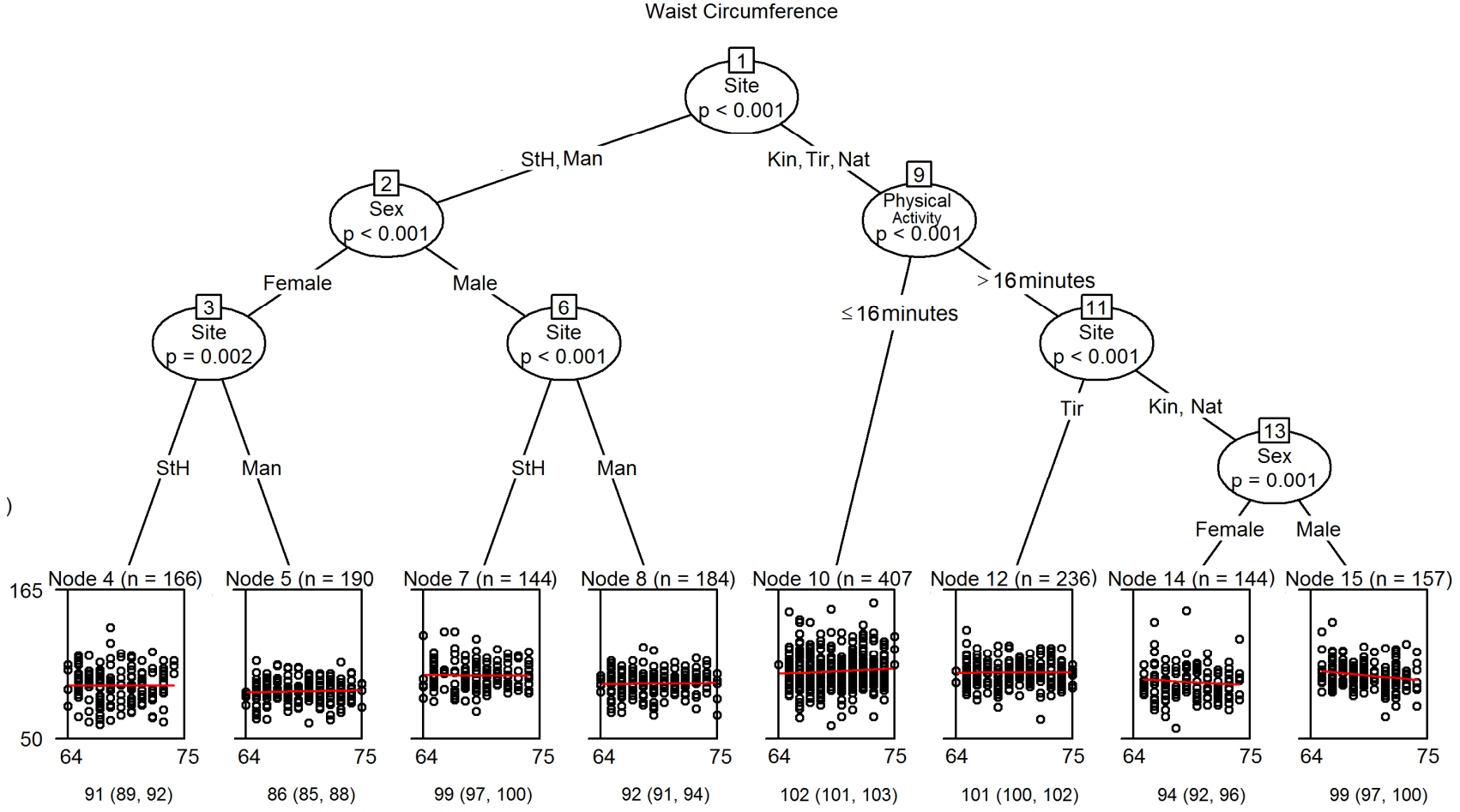
241x137mm (72 x 72 DPI)



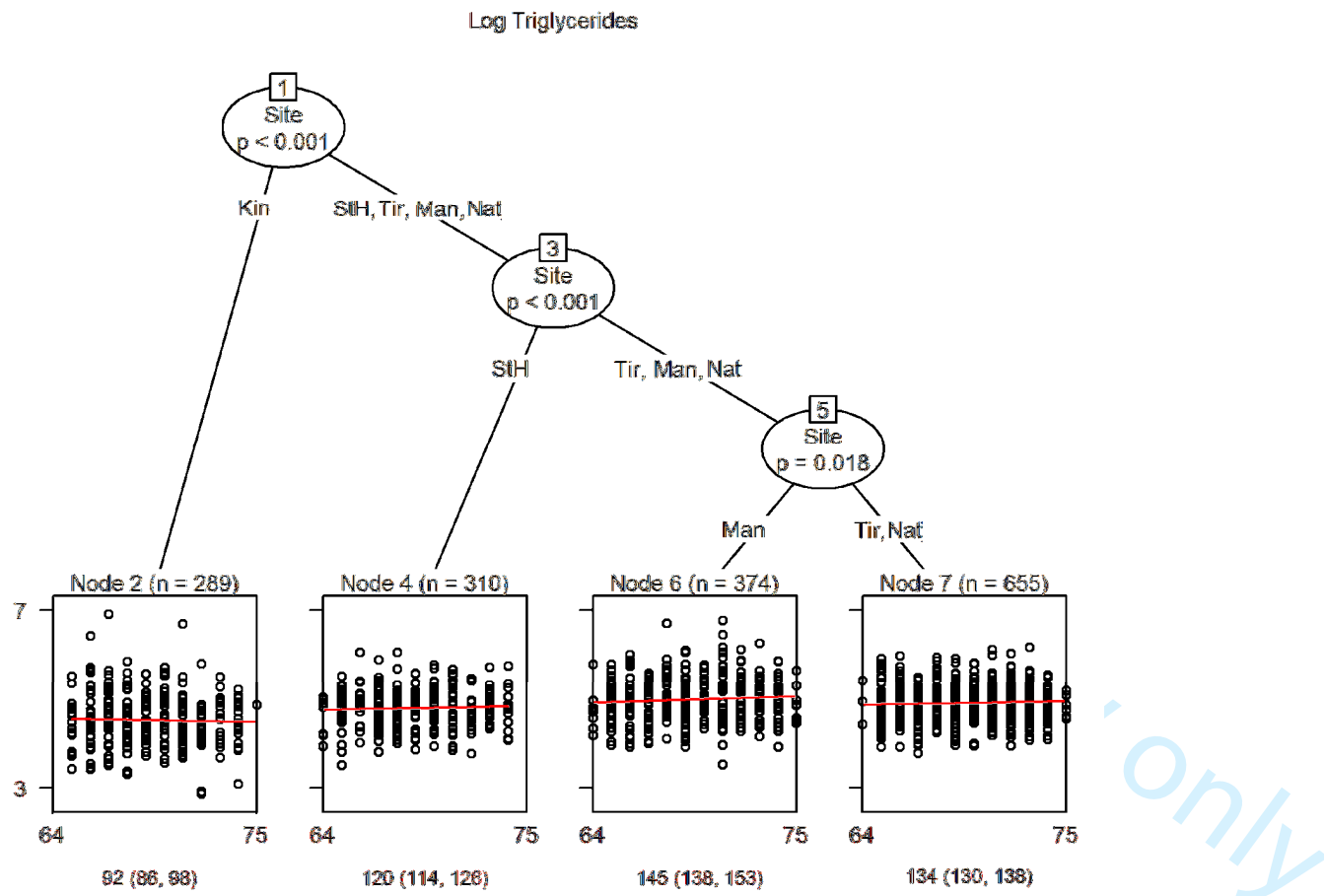
Supplemental figure 1. Model based recursive partitioning for systolic blood pressure (SBP) controlling for age. The horizontal axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean SBP obtained from linear regression models by age. The predicted mean SBP and 95% confidence interval for each terminal node are listed under the plots.



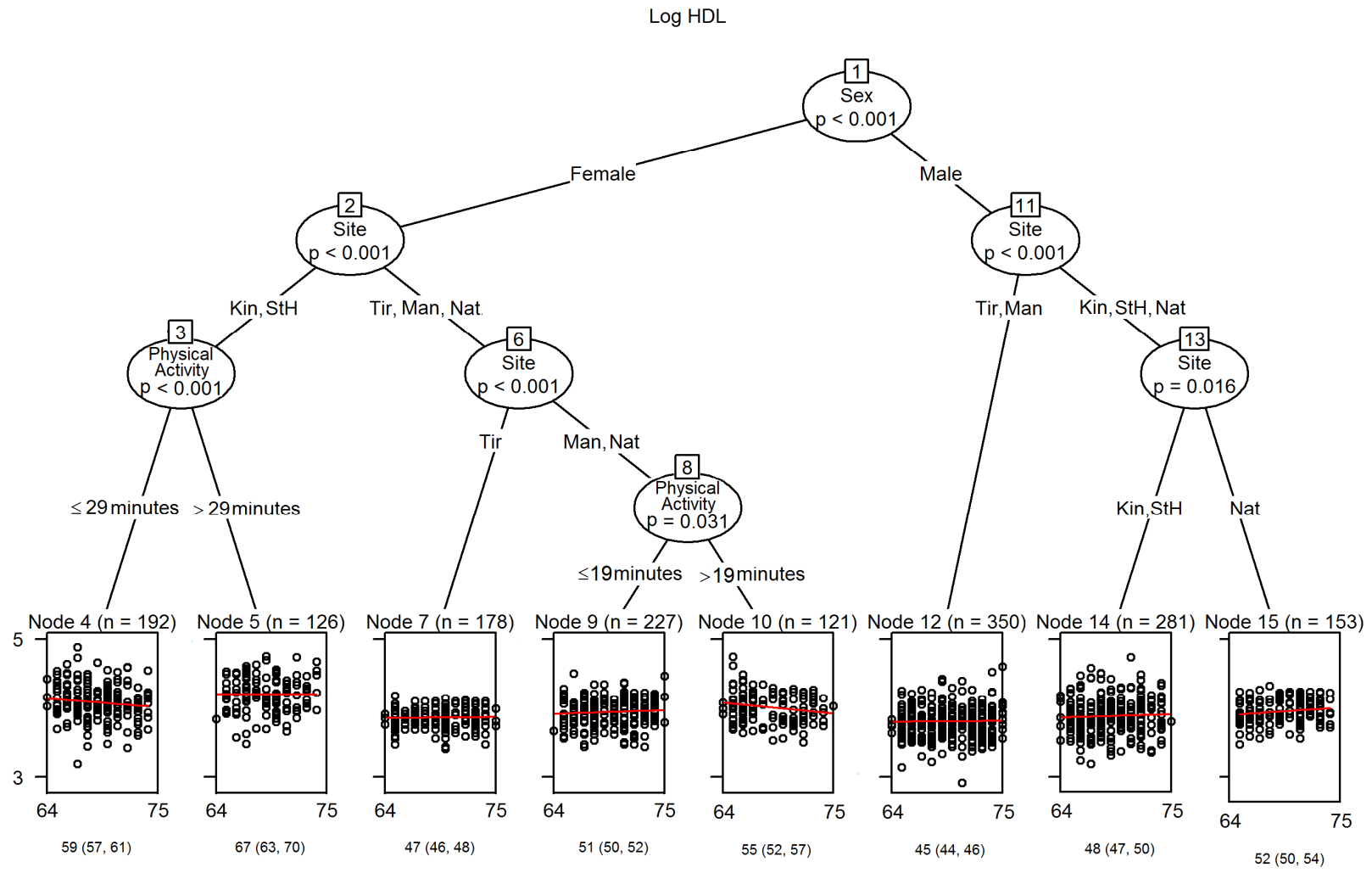
Supplemental figure 2. Model based recursive partitioning for diastolic blood pressure (DBP) controlling for age. The horizontal axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean DBP obtained from linear regression models by age. The predicted mean DBP and 95% confidence interval for each terminal node are listed under the plots.



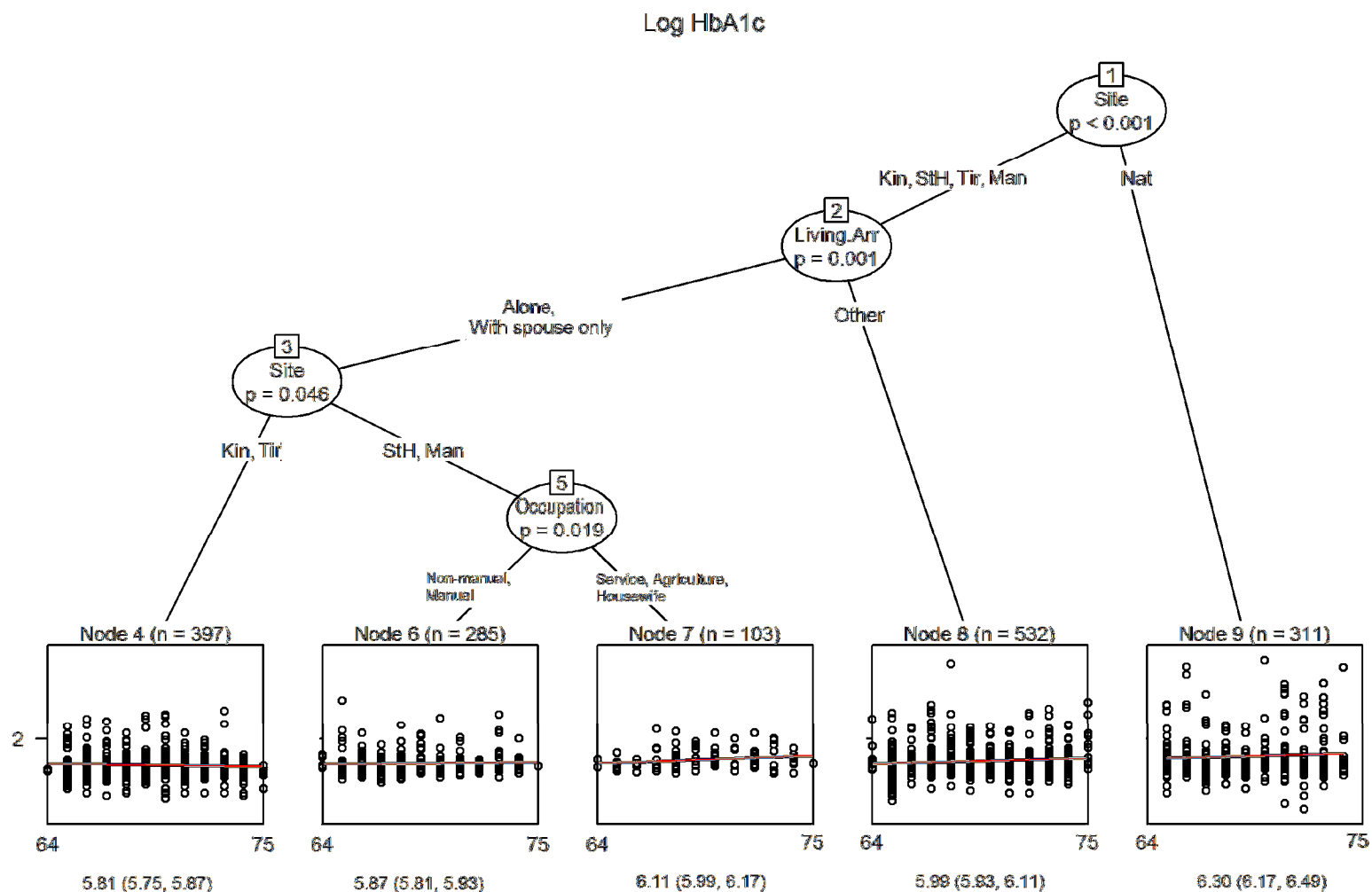
Supplemental figure 3. Model based recursive partitioning for waist circumference (WC) controlling for age. The horizontal axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean WC obtained from linear regression models by age. The predicted mean WC and 95% confidence interval for each terminal node are listed under the plots.



Supplemental figure 4. Model based recursive partitioning for log triglycerides controlling for age. The horizontal axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean triglycerides obtained from linear regression models by age. The back transformed triglycerides and 95% confidence interval for each terminal node are listed under the plots.



Supplemental figure 5. Model based recursive partitioning for log HDLs controlling for age. The horizontal axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean HDL obtained from linear regression models by age. The back transformed HDL and 95% confidence interval for each terminal node are listed under the plots.



Supplemental figure 6. Model based recursive partitioning for log Hba1c controlling for age. The horizontal axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean Hba1c obtained from linear regression models by age. The back transformed Hba1c and 95% confidence interval for each terminal node are listed under the plot.

BMJ Open

Model-based recursive partitioning to identify risk clusters for metabolic syndrome and its components: Findings from the International Mobility in Aging Study

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2017-018680.R1
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	13-Dec-2017
Complete List of Authors:	Pirkle, Catherine; University of Hawai'i at Manoa, Office of Public Health Studies Wu, Yan Yan ; University of Hawai'i at Manoa, Office of Public Health Studies Zunzunegui, Maria-Victoria; Univesité de Montréal, Social and Preventive Medicine Gomez, Fernando; Universidad de Caldas
Primary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology
Secondary Subject Heading:	Diabetes and endocrinology, Global health
Keywords:	Recursive Partitioning, Metabolic Syndrome, Older adults, Global Health

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Only

Title: Model-based recursive partitioning to identify risk clusters for metabolic syndrome and its components: Findings from the International Mobility in Aging Study

Authors: Catherine M. Pirkle¹, Yan Yan Wu¹, Maria-Victoria Zunzunegui², Fernando Gomes³

Affiliations:

1. Office of Public Health Studies, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA.
2. Institut de recherche en santé publique, Université de Montréal, Montréal, Canada
3. Facultad de Ciencias para la Salud, Universidad de Caldas, Manizales, Colombia

Corresponding author:

Catherine M. Pirkle

Office of Public Health Studies

University of Hawai'i at Mānoa

1960 East West Road, Biomedical Bldg. D104H

Honolulu, Hawaii 96822

United States of America

Email: cmpirkle@hawaii.edu

Telephone: (808) 956-8748

Word Count: 2996

Abstract word count: 294

Key words: Recursive partitioning; Metabolic syndrome; Older adults; Global health

ABSTRACT

Objective: Conceptual models underpinning much epidemiological research on aging acknowledge that environmental, social, and biological systems *interact* to influence health outcomes. Recursive partitioning is a data-driven approach that allows for concurrent exploration of distinct mixtures, or clusters, of individuals that have a particular outcome. Our aim is to use recursive partitioning to examine risk clusters for metabolic syndrome (MetS) and its components, in order to identify vulnerable populations.

Study Design: Cross-sectional analysis of baseline data from a prospective longitudinal cohort called the International Mobility in Aging Study (IMIAS).

Setting: IMIAS includes sites from three middle-income countries- Tirana (Albania), Natal (Brazil), and Manizales (Colombia)- and two from Canada- Kingston (Ontario) and Saint-Hyacinthe (Quebec).

Participants: Community-dwelling male and female adults, ages 64 to 75 (N=2002).

Primary and Secondary Outcome Measures: We apply recursive partitioning to investigate social and behavioural risk factors for MetS and its components. Model-based recursive partitioning (MOB) was used to cluster participants into age-adjusted risk groups based on variabilities in: study site, sex, education, living arrangements, childhood adversities, adult occupation, current employment status, income, perceived income sufficiency, smoking status, and weekly minutes of physical activity.

Results: 43% of participants had MetS. Using MOB, the primary partitioning variable was participant sex. Among women from middle-incomes sites, the predicted proportion with MetS ranged from 58 to 68%. Canadian women with limited physical activity had elevated predicted proportions of MetS (49%, 95%CI 39-58%). Among men, MetS ranged from 26% to 41% depending on childhood social adversity and education. Clustering for MetS components differed from the syndrome and across components. Study site was a primary partitioning variable for all components except HDL cholesterol. Sex was important for most components.

Conclusion: MOB is a promising technique for identifying disease risk clusters (e.g. vulnerable populations) in modestly sized samples.

Key words: Recursive partitioning; Metabolic syndrome; Older adults; Global health

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Strengths and limitations of this study

- Explores social and behavioural risk clustering for metabolic syndrome among community-dwelling older adults from five diverse global settings
- Applies model-based recursive partitioning, which is more intuitive and computationally efficient than Classification and Regression Trees (CART), to identify risk clusters
- Provides an example of how model-based recursive partitioning can be used in a modestly-sized sample for hypothesis generation about complex admixtures of risk factors
- Lacks data on participant diet, which likely clusters with many of the social and behavioural factors examined
- Strong contextual influences may have masked variance attributable to individual behaviours

INTRODUCTION

With aging, life's hazards and rewards amass and become embodied in ways that diminish or protect health. Differences in health trajectories are the product of cumulative risk and protective factors that are programmed into biobehavioural regulatory systems.[1] The cardio-metabolic pathologies commonly-observed in older adults (partially) reflect the collective burden exacted on their bodies as they adapt to life's challenges.[2] The types and magnitude of challenges that bodies are exposed to vary across societies and time, as these reflect underlying social orders with regards to the distribution of economic, political and social resources.[2] Research that purposefully compares populations of older adults across heterogeneous societies may inform our understanding of modifiable social and behavioural factors that influence the dysregulation of biological systems. Of importance, social norms and patterning are capable of creating toxic or protective clusters that manifest among identifiable subgroups.[3] Such information is useful for directing public health interventions and for considering how contextual conditions render groups particularly vulnerable.

Metabolic syndrome (MetS) is a highly prevalent health condition amongst older adults; it confers an approximate 2-fold increased risk of cardiovascular disease and 5-fold increased risk of diabetes.[4] It entails a constellation of components including obesity, impaired glucose metabolism, hypertension, and atherogenic dyslipidaemia.[4] In older adults, MetS prevalence varies considerably across populations. Among older adults in the United States and Europe, MetS prevalence is estimated at 30% [4, 5]; in urban China researchers estimate a prevalence of 60%.[6] In Canada, MetS prevalence increases with chronological age; approximately 40% of adults aged 60 to 79 years were estimated to have the syndrome according to the 2007-09

1
2
3 Canadian Health Measures Survey. [7] Studies of older adults frequently document greater
4 prevalence in women compared to men[6-10], but report inconsistent associations with income
5 and education. Some document linear associations between education and MetS prevalence, with
6 the lowest educated at highest risk [10]. Others document non-linear associations, in which the
7 highest risk groups are lower-middle income and high school graduates, while those in the lowest
8 income group and without a high school education are slightly protected. [7] Yet, others observe
9 strong associations with education, but not income [10] or associations with education and
10 income in one sex over the other [10, 11]. Heterogeneity in MetS prevalence likely reflects
11 complex, contextually-specific risk admixtures.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

27 Epidemiological research on aging explicitly acknowledges that environmental, social,
28 psychological, and biological systems *interact* to influence health outcomes.[1, 3] The well-known
29 ecological model posits that patterns of health are affected by a dynamic interplay among these
30 factors across the life-course.[2, 12] A challenge for epidemiologists, especially with modest
31 sample sizes, is to operationalize models that assume the joint effects of multiple risk factors on
32 health conditions, such as MetS.[13]
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 Recursive partitioning is a technique that allows for exploration of distinct mixtures, or clusters, of
43 individuals that have a particular outcome. Based on a set of candidate independent variables, it
44 can produce classification trees with a series of binary splits highlighting subgroups with
45 relatively similar risk profiles for a given outcome.[14, 15] The classification trees depict the joint
46 effects of multiple risk factors.[15] It is a data-driven approach with the potential to identify
47 complex interactions worthy of future investigation.[15] Researchers have applied partitioning
48 techniques to identify high-risk subgroups for cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and falls in
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 population-based studies.[16-18] Most of this work examines clinical or genetic risk factors, but
4
5 the same technique can be expanded to examine social and behavioural risk factors.
6
7

8
9 In an international, multi-site cohort of community-dwelling older adults, we apply recursive
10
11 partitioning to investigate social and behavioural risk factors for MetS and its components. Our
12
13 objectives are to assess if there are social/behavioural risks clusters for those with MetS, or the
14
15 components of the syndrome, and whether these risk clusters vary across societies. To date, we
16
17 know of no other studies employing recursive-partitioning techniques to investigate predictors of
18
19 MetS that are informed by a social epidemiological perspective.
20
21

22 23 24 25 **METHODS**

26 27 28 **Data source and study populations**

29
30 This is an analysis of 2012 baseline data from the International Mobility in Aging Study (IMIAS).
31
32 IMIAS is composed of community-dwelling older adults, 65-74 years of age. This study comprises
33
34 three sites in middle-income countries- Tirana (Albania), Natal (Brazil), and Manizales
35
36 (Colombia)- and two from a high-income country- Kingston (Ontario, Canada) and Saint-Hyacinthe
37
38 (Quebec, Canada). These cities represent diverse ways of living in distinct societies, providing a
39
40 wide range of risk factors and outcomes. For example, Tirana is the capital of an ex-communist
41
42 country in rapid transition to capitalism, while Manizales is in the Andean coffee-growing region,
43
44 of Catholic tradition, and relatively affluent. Approximately 200 men and women, each, were
45
46 recruited per site for a sample size of 2002. A detailed description of the study sites and cohort is
47
48 available elsewhere.[19]
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Recruitment

In Tirana, Manizales and Natal, we recruited participants through their neighbourhood primary care centres by selecting a random sample of older adults registered at each.[19] The response rate was over 90%.[19] Ethics' committees in Canada prohibited researchers directly contacting potential participants. Invitations to participate in the project were therefore sent indirectly via family physicians.[19] Thirty per cent of people receiving a letter of invitation from their doctor in Kingston and St. Hyacinthe contacted the IMIAS research team; 95% agreed to participate.[19] Comparison with 2006 Canadian census data suggests participants in Kingston were more educated than the general population of that city, while participants from St. Hyacinthe had similar educational levels to inhabitants of that city. Otherwise, characteristics between those recruited and the sampling frame were very similar.[19] At all sites, over 80% of older adults were registered at a health centre or had a primary care physician;[19] it is unlikely that our recruitment strategy systematically excluded a large segment of older adult population.

Exclusion Criterion

Those with four or more errors on the orientation scale of the Leganes Cognitive Test;[20] low scores indicate inability to complete study procedures.

Measurements

Study procedures were carried out at the participant's home, in the local language, by a trained interviewer. Detailed descriptions of data collection procedures are provided elsewhere.[19]

Metabolic syndrome

1
2
3 Except for the measure of insulin resistance, we defined MetS according to the Adult Panel
4 Treatment III (ATP III) criteria.[21] IMIAS did not collect fasting glucose and the corresponding
5 glycosylated haemoglobin (HbA1c) value was used instead.[22] Thus, MetS was defined as the
6 presence of three or more of the following: abdominal obesity measured by waist circumference
7 (women >88cm; men >102cm); elevated triglycerides (≥ 150 mg/dL); low high-density lipoprotein
8 cholesterol (HDL-C men <40mg/dL; HDL-C women <50mg/dL); elevated HbA1c ($\geq 5.7\%$); and high
9 blood pressure (≥ 135 mmHg systolic and/or ≥ 85 mmHg diastolic).

22 Socioeconomic and demographic characteristics

23
24 We categorized education as: less than secondary school and/or illiterate, some secondary school
25 to completed secondary school, and post-secondary education. A participant's living arrangements
26 were determined with the following questions: Do you live alone (Yes/No)? (If no) Who do you
27 live with? Responses were then categorized as: Alone, spouse only, and multiple people.

28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36 We determined exposure to childhood social and economic adversity with a scale that varied from
37 zero to three including parental alcohol or drug abuse, witnessing family physical violence, and
38 having been physically abused (childhood social adversity); poor economic status, hunger, and
39 parental unemployment (childhood economic adversity).[23] Occupation was grouped into five
40 categories: non-manual, service, agriculture, manual, and housewife, according to self-reported
41 longest held occupation (based on International Labour Organization categories). We enquired
42 about current annual income levels. Based on the annual minimum salary for each site, individuals
43 were categorized as poor, middle, upper middle, and high income. For example, in Canada, the
44 minimum salary is \$19680CAN/year. Thus, we categorized Canadian participants as poor if they
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 earned less than \$20000CAN/year. Those who earned more than the minimum salary but less
4
5 than twice it (\$20-39, 999) were classified as middle income, while those that earned twice or
6
7 higher the minimum salary, but less than three times it, were classified as upper-middle (\$40-
8
9 59,999), and those that earned 3 times or more the minimum salary (\geq \$60, 000) were classified as
10
11 upper-income. This was done for each site based on the site-specific minimum salary. Income
12
13 sufficiency was assessed according: To what extent does your income allow you to meet your
14
15 needs? Responses were categorized into: Very sufficient, sufficient, and not (at all) sufficient. We
16
17 asked participants about their work history in the past two weeks and categorized them as:
18
19 worked with remuneration; worked without remuneration; had a job, but did not work; retired or
20
21 pensioned; and did not work. We also asked participants if they currently smoke. Responses were
22
23 categorized as regular, occasional, used to be a smoker, and never. Finally, we assessed minutes of
24
25 physical activity per week with a validated computer-animated assessment tool.[24]
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Statistical analysis**

34
35
36 Descriptive statistics summarize overall sample characteristics. Because the distributions were
37
38 positively skewed for some measures, we report the median, first and third quartiles for all
39
40 continuous variables. We performed Chi-square tests to investigate the associations between MetS
41
42 and categorical independent variables and carried out two-sample t-tests to examine mean
43
44 differences in biomarkers. Random Forest method was used to impute missing physical activities
45
46 (n=59).[25]
47
48
49
50
51

52 Model-based recursive partitioning method (MOB) was applied to cluster individuals into
53
54 subgroups with similar response values.[26-28] MOB is reminiscent of the classification and
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 regression tree (CART) algorithms, which split the datasets into subsets based on independent
4 (partitioning) variables, of which the distributions of the response values are most different.[13]
5
6 Whereas CART trees have constant fits in the terminal nodes, MOB trees have parametric models
7
8 with one or more predictor variables controlled in each step of the partitioning, and in their
9
10 terminal nodes. For instance, age is controlled in the MOB analysis of MetS using logistic
11
12 regression models and the MOB algorithm cycles iteratively through the following steps: (1) fit the
13
14 logistic regression with MetS as response variable and age as control variable, (2) test for
15
16 parameter instability over a set of partitioning variables (socioeconomic and demographic
17
18 characteristics) while controlling for age, (3) if there is some overall parameter instability, split
19
20 the data set with respect to the variable associated with the highest instability (i.e. the smallest p-
21
22 value), (4) repeat the procedure in each of the resulting subsamples with different risk of MetS.
23
24 The process is termed recursive because each sub-population may be split a number of times until
25
26 a particular stopping criterion is reached. Our stopping criteria were: 5% level of significance and
27
28 minimum sample size of 100 at terminal nodes. For continuous partitioning variables, MOB tests
29
30 and selects an optimal cut-off point and split subjects into two subgroups.[26-28]
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40

41 We performed MOB for MetS, systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), waist
42
43 circumference, log transformed triglyceride, HDL-C, and HbA1c, controlling for age. The
44
45 partitioning variables included social and behavioural risk characteristics described previously.
46
47 Statistical software R (version 3.2.2) and the R package “party” were used.
48
49
50

51 **Ethics**

52
53 Institutional review for this project was obtained from the relevant organizations at each site: the
54
55 Institute of Public Health in Albania, the Federal University of Rio Grande do Norte in Brazil, the
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 University of Caldas in Colombia, the University of Montreal Hospital Research Centre (CR-CHUM)
4
5 and Queen's University in Canada. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.
6
7

8 9 **RESULTS**

10
11 Complete data on all variables were available for 1628 (81%) participants. Table 1 presents the
12
13 frequency of MetS according to the participant characteristics. MetS was observed in 43%
14
15 participants, 50% of women and 35% of men. For most variables, there were important
16
17 differences in the proportion of participants with MetS. It concentrated among those of lower
18
19 socioeconomic status: those with lower education, lower incomes, manual workers and
20
21 housewives. More MetS was observed among those reporting childhood adversities. Those with
22
23 MetS reported had higher mean blood pressure, waist circumference, HbA1c, triglyceride, low
24
25 HDL measures, and walked less on average than those without it.
26
27
28
29

30 ---Insert table 1 here (see next page)---
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 1: Descriptive characteristics of the participants and frequency of metabolic syndrome.

	Overall (N=1628)	Metabolic Syndrome		<i>p-value*</i>
		Yes (42.7%)	No (57.3%)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Site				
Kingston	289(17.8%)	92(31.8%)	197(68.2%)	<.0001
St. Hyacinthe	310(19.0%)	96(31.0%)	214(69.0%)	
Tirana	344(21.1%)	171(49.7%)	173(50.3%)	
Manizales	374(23.0%)	172(46.0%)	202(54.0%)	
Natal	311(19.1%)	164(52.7%)	147(47.3%)	
Sex				
Female	844(51.8%)	424(50.2%)	420(49.8%)	<.0001
Male	784(48.2%)	271(34.6%)	513(65.4%)	
Educational Attainment				
Primary / illiterate	760(46.7%)	366(48.2%)	394(51.8%)	0.0001
Secondary	217(13.3%)	91(41.9%)	126(58.1%)	
Post-secondary	651(40.0%)	238(36.6%)	413(63.4%)	
Current Living Arrangements				
Alone	254(15.6%)	100(39.4%)	154(60.6%)	0.0001
Spouse only	609(37.4%)	225(36.9%)	384(63.1%)	
Other	765(47.0%)	370(48.4%)	395(51.6%)	
Adult Occupation				
Non manual	593(36.4%)	211(35.6%)	382(64.4%)	<.0001
Service	160(9.8%)	67(41.9%)	93(58.1%)	
Agriculture	94(5.8%)	41(43.6%)	53(56.4%)	
Manual	607(37.3%)	274(45.1%)	333(54.9%)	
Housewife	174(10.7%)	102(58.6%)	72(41.4%)	
Current Income				
Poor	417(25.6%)	189(45.3%)	228(54.7%)	0.001
Middle	704(43.2%)	315(44.7%)	389(55.3%)	
Upper middle	346(21.3%)	145(41.9%)	201(58.1%)	
High	161(9.9%)	46(28.6%)	115(71.4%)	
Perceived Income Sufficiency				
Very sufficient	339(20.8%)	102(30.1%)	237(69.9%)	<.0001
Sufficient	537(33.0%)	215(40.0%)	322(60.0%)	
Not (at all) sufficient	752(46.2%)	378(50.3%)	374(49.7%)	
Childhood Economic Adversity				
No adversities	858(52.7%)	351(40.9%)	507(59.1%)	0.0291
One adversity event	453(27.8%)	186(41.1%)	267(58.9%)	
Two adversity events	212(13.0%)	102(48.1%)	110(51.9%)	
Three adversity events	105(6.4%)	56(53.3%)	49(46.7%)	
Childhood Social Adversity				
No adversities	1,231(75.6%)	505(41.0%)	726(59.0%)	0.0792
One adversity event	245(15.0%)	113(46.1%)	132(53.9%)	
Two adversity events	119(7.3%)	59(49.6%)	60(50.4%)	
Three adversity events	33(2.0%)	18(54.5%)	15(45.5%)	

Table 1 (continued): Descriptive characteristics of the participants.

	Overall	Metabolic Syndrome		<i>p-value*</i>
	(N=1628)	Yes (42.7%)	No (57.3%)	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Smoker				
Regular	138(8.5%)	64(46.4%)	74(53.6%)	0.109
Occasional	37(2.3%)	18(48.6%)	19(51.4%)	
Used to be	676(41.5%)	265(39.2%)	411(60.8%)	
Never	777(47.7%)	348(44.8%)	429(55.2%)	
Current Employment Status				
Worked with remuneration	185(11.4%)	66(35.7%)	119(64.3%)	0.011
Worked w/o remuneration	201(12.3%)	105(52.2%)	96(47.8%)	
Had a job, but did not work	25(1.5%)	9(36.0%)	16(64.0%)	
Retired or Pensioned	1, 119(68.7%)	468(41.8%)	651(58.2%)	
Did not work	98(6.0%)	47(48.0%)	51(52.0%)	
	Median(Q1, Q3)	Median(Q1, Q3)	Median(Q1, Q3)	
Age (year)	69(67, 72)	69 (67, 72)	69 (67, 71)	0.0451
Physical Activity (minutes/week)	20(9, 39)	15 (6, 32)	24(10, 43)	<.0001
SBP (mmHg)	138(126, 152)	143(134, 157)	132(122, 146)	<.0001
DBP (mmHg)	79 (71, 86)	81(74, 88)	77(70, 84)	<.0001
Waist (cm)	96(88, 104)	101(94, 108)	92(85, 100)	<.0001
HbA1c (%)	5.8(5.5, 6.2)	6.1(5.8, 6.6)	5.7(5.4, 6.0)	<.0001
Triglyceride (mg/dL)	126(91, 172)	165(125, 211)	105 (78, 134)	<.0001
HDL (mg/dL)	50(43, 60)	45(39, 53)	55(47, 63)	<.0001

**p-values*: obtained from Chi-square tests of association between MetS (Yes/No) and categorical explanatory variables, and t-tests for difference in MetS (Yes/No) for continuous variable

Table 2 presents participant characteristics by study site and shows a notably higher frequency of MetS among participants from the middle-income sites (46-53%) compared to those from the Canadian sites (~30%).

---Insert table 2 here (see next page)---

Table 2: Descriptive characteristics of the participants by study site.

	Kingston	St. Hyacinthe	Tirana	Manizales	Natal
	289(17.8%)	310(19%)	344(21.1%)	374(23%)	311(19.1%)
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Metabolic Syndrome					
Yes	92(31.8%)	96(31.0%)	171(49.7%)	172(46.0%)	164(52.7%)
No	197(68.2%)	214(69.0%)	173(50.3%)	202(54.0%)	147(47.3%)
Sex					
Female	152(52.6%)	166(53.5%)	178(51.7%)	190(50.8%)	158(50.8%)
Male	137(47.4%)	144(46.5%)	166(48.3%)	184(49.2%)	153(49.2%)
Educational Attainment					
Primary / illiterate	29(10.0%)	85(27.4%)	54(15.7%)	310(82.9%)	282(90.7%)
Secondary	37(12.8%)	67(21.6%)	79(23.0%)	19(5.1%)	15(4.8%)
Post-secondary	223(77.2%)	158(51.0%)	211(61.3%)	45(12.0%)	14(4.5%)
Current Living Arrangements					
Alone	88(30.4%)	72(23.2%)	31(9.0%)	47(12.6%)	16(5.1%)
Spouse only	127(43.9%)	201(64.8%)	151(43.9%)	68(18.2%)	62(19.9%)
Other	74(25.6%)	37(11.9%)	162(47.1%)	259(69.3%)	233(74.9%)
Adult Occupation					
Non manual	226(78.2%)	158(51.0%)	116(33.7%)	63(16.8%)	30(9.6%)
Service	24(8.3%)	40(12.9%)	23(6.7%)	22(5.9%)	51(16.4%)
Agriculture	2(0.7%)	18(5.8%)	5(1.5%)	37(9.9%)	32(10.3%)
Manual	27(9.3%)	78(25.2%)	199(57.8%)	161(43.0%)	142(45.7%)
Housewife	10(3.5%)	16(5.2%)	1(0.3%)	91(24.3%)	56(18.0%)
Current Income					
Poor	51(17.6%)	109(35.2%)	36(10.5%)	191(51.1%)	30(9.6%)
Middle	97(33.6%)	122(39.4%)	204(59.3%)	112(29.9%)	169(54.3%)
Upper middle	61(21.1%)	62(20.0%)	82(23.8%)	50(13.4%)	91(29.3%)
High	80(27.7%)	17(5.5%)	22(6.4%)	21(5.6%)	21(6.8%)
Perceived Income Sufficiency					
Very sufficient	174(60.2%)	132(42.6%)	5(1.5%)	19(5.1%)	9(2.9%)
Sufficient	101(34.9%)	157(50.6%)	121(35.2%)	89(23.8%)	69(22.2%)
Not (at all) sufficient	14(4.8%)	21(6.8%)	218(63.4%)	266(71.1%)	233(74.9%)
Childhood Economic Adversity					
No adversities	190(65.7%)	201(64.8%)	147(42.7%)	216(57.8%)	104(33.4%)
One adversity event	73(25.3%)	92(29.7%)	89(25.9%)	108(28.9%)	91(29.3%)
Two adversity events	24(8.3%)	15(4.8%)	75(21.8%)	28(7.5%)	70(22.5%)
Three adversity events	2(0.7%)	2(0.6%)	33(9.6%)	22(5.9%)	46(14.8%)
Childhood Social Adversity					
No adversities	210(72.7%)	229(73.9%)	281(81.7%)	287(76.7%)	224(72.0%)
One adversity event	42(14.5%)	54(17.4%)	27(7.8%)	63(16.8%)	59(19.0%)
Two adversity events	25(8.7%)	22(7.1%)	30(8.7%)	18(4.8%)	24(7.7%)
Three adversity events	12(4.2%)	5(1.6%)	6(1.7%)	6(1.6%)	4(1.3%)

Table 2 (continued): Descriptive characteristics of the participants by study site.

	Kingston	St. Hyacinthe	Tirana	Manizales	Natal
	289(17.8%)	310(19%)	344(21.1%)	374(23%)	311(19.1%)
Smoker					
Regular	14(4.8%)	19(6.1%)	43(12.5%)	37(9.9%)	25(8.0%)
Occasional	3(1.0%)	5(1.6%)	12(3.5%)	13(3.5%)	4(1.3%)
Used to be	141(48.8%)	169(54.5%)	81(23.5%)	147(39.3%)	138(44.4%)
Never	131(45.3%)	117(37.7%)	208(60.5%)	177(47.3%)	144(46.3%)
Current Employment Status					
Worked with remuneration	43(14.9%)	39(12.6%)	8(2.3%)	58(15.5%)	37(11.9%)
Worked w/o remuneration	8(2.8%)	18(5.8%)	8(2.3%)	99(26.5%)	68(21.9%)
Had a job, but did not work	8(2.8%)	2(0.6%)	4(1.2%)	8(2.1%)	3(1.0%)
Retired or Pensioned	228(78.9%)	246(79.4%)	323(93.9%)	133(35.6%)	189(60.8%)
Did not work	2(0.7%)	5(1.6%)	1(0.3%)	76(20.3%)	14(4.5%)
	Median(Q1,Q3)	Median (Q1,Q3)	Median(Q1,Q3)	Median(Q1,Q3)	Median(Q1,Q3)
Age (year)	69(67, 71)	68(67, 71)	70(66, 72)	69(67, 72)	69(67, 71)
Physical Activity (minutes/wk)	26(9, 51)	24(9, 39)	27(11, 48)	17(9, 39)	10(4, 23)
SBP (mmHg)	135(124, 145)	134(125, 143)	144(130, 161)	133(123, 146)	146(130, 161)
DBP (mmHg)	77(71, 83)	75(68, 81)	84(75, 91)	79(72, 86)	78(71, 86)
Waist (cm)	96(88, 107)	94(87, 102)	102(95, 107)	90(83, 96)	100(93, 106)
HbA1c (%)	5.8(5.5, 6.0)	5.8(5.5, 6.1)	5.6(5.3, 6.3)	5.9(5.7, 6.2)	6.0(5.6, 6.5)
Triglyceride (mg/dL)	88(60, 136)	122(91, 159)	130(106, 165)	140(106, 201)	135(97, 187)
HDL (mg/dL)	54(45, 66)	56(46, 67)	47(41, 52)	48(39, 57)	52(47, 61)

Figure 1 depicts the MOB tree for MetS, adjusting for participant age. The highest estimates of MetS prevalence were observed in clusters of women from the middle-income study sites (Tirana, Manizales, Natal). In these clusters, the predicted proportion with MetS varied from 58 to 68%, depending on education. Better-educated women from these sites had more MetS. Among women from the Canadian sites, less walking time per week distinguished the higher from lower probability cluster. The lowest predicted proportion (26%) of MetS was observed in men with post-secondary education reporting no childhood social adversities, and in women from the

1
2
3 Canadian sites who had more walking time per week. The graphs under each node in figure 1
4
5 depict the estimated prevalence according to age and demonstrate that for certain nodes (e.g. 7),
6
7 there is a strong association between increasing age and higher estimated MetS prevalence.
8
9

10
11
12 ---Insert Figure 1 here---
13
14
15

16
17 The supplementary files contain the MOB trees for MetS components. Each tree depicts unique
18
19 clusters that do not correspond with those observed for MetS as a whole. For example, the highest
20
21 estimated mean systolic blood pressure (154 mmHg) was observed among participants from
22
23 Tirana and Natal, with income insufficiency, and who smoked regularly or used to. For this
24
25 outcome, in contrast to MetS as a whole, sex was not a partitioning variable. Overall, in all models
26
27 except HDL, study site was the primary partitioning variable and in some cases (triglycerides), the
28
29 only one. Typically, participants from Natal and Tirana had unfavourable estimates for MetS
30
31 components; however, participants from Manizales had the highest estimated triglyceride
32
33 concentrations (145 mg/dL). Participant sex was a key partitioning variable for DBP, waist
34
35 circumference, and HDL concentration. Other partitioning variables for one or two of the MetS
36
37 components included: weekly walking time, current employment status, perceived income
38
39 sufficiency, living arrangements, smoking, adult occupation, and current income.
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 **DISCUSSION**

49

50 The MOB technique identified distinct clusters of individuals with differential probabilities of MetS
51
52 and its components, according to multiple social and behavioural risk factors. For the syndrome as
53
54 a whole, in clusters of women from middle-income sites, the predicted proportion with MetS was
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 quite high (58 or 68% depending on the cluster). In clusters of men, the predicted proportion with
4
5 MetS was lower (26, 38 or 41% depending on the cluster) and highest among men reporting
6
7 childhood social adversities (41%). MetS in women from the Canadian sites varied considerably
8
9 based on average walking time per week. Women from Kingston and St. Hyacinthe who walked
10
11 minimally (>11 min/week) had predicted probabilities of MetS identical to men with post-
12
13 secondary education and no childhood social adversities. This work demonstrates the potential of
14
15 using MOB to identify joint effects in a moderately-sized sample of individuals. It raises questions
16
17 for future investigation, especially related to the concentration of risk(s) in certain subgroups.
18
19
20
21
22
23

24 This study corroborates previous findings that the prevalence of MetS varies according to age, sex,
25
26 and socioeconomic status.[4, 10, 29] Consistent with other studies, overall, we observed a
27
28 concentration of MetS in participants of lower socioeconomic status[10, 30, 31]; although, among
29
30 women from the middle-income sites, MetS was more prevalent among those with post-secondary
31
32 education. Better educated women from the middle-income sites likely had/have more money to
33
34 afford obesogenic, Westernized foods and over their lifetimes, may have engaged in less exercise,
35
36 as educational attainment may have allowed them to “escape” physically strenuous jobs.
37
38
39

40 Consistent with other research[32], early life adversity was associated to higher prevalence
41
42 estimates of MetS; however, this association was only observed in men, whereas it has been
43
44 observed in both men and women elsewhere[32]. The strong context-specificity of our findings
45
46 highlights the utility of using MOB to identify unique admixtures that might have been overlooked
47
48 with traditional statistical techniques and/or would have been impossible to identify without a
49
50 very large sample size.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 When applying MOB, we observed distinct risk clusters according to study site and participant sex,
4
5 education and childhood adversity. These findings support a dynamic interplay between
6
7 contextual and social risk factors and the concentration of risks in certain subgroups, which is
8
9 consistent with the notion of vulnerable populations proposed by Frohlich and Potvin.[3]
10
11 Accordingly, vulnerable populations are defined by shared social characteristics that put them at
12
13 “higher risk of risks”. [3 pp218] These risks and their accumulation across the life-course relate to
14
15 fundamental causes linked to one’s social position within the predominant social structure.[3]
16
17 This may explain why study site and sex were key partitioning variables. Study site proxies
18
19 societal opportunities for education, occupation, and income and expectations surrounding
20
21 behaviours and diet. The clustering by site supports research underscoring the importance of
22
23 context in patterning the risk exposures of individuals.[3, 33] Sex/gender likely underpins access
24
25 to resources such as money, knowledge and power affecting health outcomes through multiple
26
27 risk factors.[34]
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 In studies with large sample sizes (>10, 000 participants), complex joint-effects have been
37
38 observed with traditional regression analysis techniques. For example, using data from
39
40 representative samples of United States’ adults aged 25 and older, Loucks *et al.* reported that
41
42 overall, the prevalence of MetS was similar in women and men, both low education and poverty
43
44 were associated with MetS, and the social gradient of the prevalence of MetS was more
45
46 pronounced in women than in men.[11] These United States’ findings differ from ours since in
47
48 IMIAS, sex was the first stratifying variable, with an overall higher frequency of MetS in women
49
50 than in men. However, for both men and women in our study, education was an important
51
52 predictor of MetS at most sites; although, the direction of the association between education and
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 MetS was not consistent. Among women from the middle-income sites, greater educational
4 attainment was associated with a higher predicted prevalence of MetS. Among men with no
5 childhood social adversity, low educational attainment was associated to a higher predicted
6 prevalence of MetS. In the study by Loucks et al., education was generally not associated to MetS in
7 men; although, their study did not consider childhood adversity experiences[10, 11], in contrast to
8 our own work. Interestingly, in the Loucks et al. study, among men, low education was associated
9 with the MetS components of abdominal obesity, hypertension, and hyperglycemia [11].
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 When MOB was applied to the syndrome components, only study site and participant sex were
23 consistent partitioning variables for most components. In general, when measures of
24 socioeconomic status were partitioning variables, lower status was associated with poorer
25 outcomes. For example, income insufficiency predicted higher mean diastolic blood pressure
26 among Tirana participants. Measures of socioeconomic status appeared as partitioning variables
27 more frequently than risk behaviours. This is consistent with recent work analysing individual-
28 level data from more than 1.7 million people in which low socioeconomic status was associated
29 with premature mortality across multiple disease categories and ranked 3rd in population
30 attributable fraction for mortality among a large list of risk factors (physical inactivity ranked 2nd).
31 [35] In our study, higher mean weekly physical activity predicted lower waist circumferences and
32 higher HDL concentrations, consistent with the literature.[36-38]
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 This study has strengths. First is the use of the MOB technique. Traditional CART methods have
51 the vulnerability of over-fitting, selection bias and no concept of statistical significance. Thus
52 pruning and cross-validation methods are used to avoid the over-fitting problems characteristic of
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 CART. MOB is implemented via hypothesis tests, which leads to regression models whose
4
5 predictive performance is equivalent to optimally pruned trees, therefore offering an intuitive and
6
7 computationally efficient solution to the over-fitting problem, and the resulting models are easier
8
9 to communicate to practitioners.[27, 39] Finally, this is one of the very few studies that apply MOB
10
11 to examine social and behavioural risk clusters for disease. Most research applying recursive
12
13 partitioning focuses on identifying patient subgroups within a clinical setting [26] and/or how to
14
15 better define components that constitute syndromes such as MetS [40].
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 This study has limitations. Study site and sex are structuring variables that may mask more
23
24 proximal risk factors for disease. Individual risk behaviours, such as smoking, may be ubiquitous
25
26 within certain subgroups,[33] rendering it difficult to detect the influence of these behaviours on
27
28 MetS using the MOB technique. Another limitation is that we used a single waist circumference
29
30 cut-off value for all populations. Arguments exist for country and/or ethnicity-specific waist
31
32 circumference cut-offs, but more work is required to optimally determine these.[41] Finally, we
33
34 did not collect individual dietary data or data on the early nutritional environment.[32]
35
36
37
38
39
40

41 **Conclusion**

42
43 We applied a recursive partitioning technique to investigate risk clustering for MetS in an
44
45 international, multi-site study of community-dwelling older adults and observed unique risk
46
47 clusters according to mostly contextual and socioeconomic characteristics. The main partitioning
48
49 variables in our results were study site and sex, which for most people are not easily modifiable.
50
51 However, the policies and opportunities afforded to residents of different communities and to men
52
53 versus women can be modified and do vary dramatically on a global scale, which likely helps to
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 explain the large variations in MetS prevalence across communities and even the inconsistencies
4
5 observed across the literature in which women sometimes, but not always, have higher MetS
6
7 prevalence. By identifying risk clusters with techniques such as MOB, we can generate novel
8
9 hypotheses about both contributing and protective factors that might have been missed with
10
11 traditional regression techniques, as relatively few studies have sufficient resources to recruit
12
13 large enough samples for multiple order joint effects. MOB may also prove particularly
14
15 informative in studies with much larger samples, such as the Health and Retirement Study, where
16
17 it can be used generate new hypotheses about risk clustering and then more traditional
18
19 deterministic techniques can be applied to the same sample in order to corroborate or contradict
20
21 these hypotheses. Finally, with regards to both clinical practice and health promotion activities,
22
23 identifying risk clusters is important for targeting purposes, as the intensity and type of programs
24
25 may differ according to sub-groups.[15]
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

34
35 The authors would like to thank all of the IMIAS participants.
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 **CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT**

43
44
45 CMP and MVZ conceived of the study. CMP and YW analysed and interpreted the data. CMP, YW,
46
47 JFG, and MVZ contributed to the writing and editing of this manuscript.
48
49
50
51
52

53 **DATA SHARING**

1
2
3 Extra data is available through registration on the IMIAS website (<http://www.imias.ufrn.br>).

4
5 Registered users can request IMIAS data through a data request form.
6
7
8
9

10 **FUNDING**

11
12
13 This study was supported by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR).
14
15

16 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

17
18
19 None declared
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

27 **PATIENT CONSENT**

28
29
30 Written informed consent was obtained from all IMIAS participants.
31
32
33
34
35

36 **FIGURE 1**

37
38
39 Model based recursive partitioning for metabolic syndrome controlling for age. The horizontal
40 axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean
41 proportions of metabolic syndrome obtained from logistic regression models by age. The
42 predicted mean proportion of metabolic syndrome and 95% confidence interval for each terminal
43 node are listed under the plots.
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 **REFERENCES**

- 1 Halfon N, Hochstein M. Life course health development: an integrated framework for
2 developing health, policy, and research. *Milbank Q* 2002;**80**:433-79, iii.
- 3 Satariano WA. *Epidemiology of Aging: An Ecological Approach*. Sudbury, MA: Jones and
4 Bartlett Publishers 2006.
- 5 Frohlich KL, Potvin L. Transcending the known in public health practice: the inequality
6 paradox: the population approach and vulnerable populations. *American Journal of Public Health*
7 2008;**98**:216-21.
- 8 Samson SL, Garber AJ. Metabolic syndrome. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am* 2014;**43**:1-23.
- 9 Scuteri A, Najjar SS, Morrell CH, *et al*. The metabolic syndrome in older individuals:
10 prevalence and prediction of cardiovascular events: the Cardiovascular Health Study. *Diabetes*
11 *Care* 2005;**28**:882-7.
- 12 Liu M, Wang J, Jiang B, *et al*. Increasing Prevalence of Metabolic Syndrome in a Chinese
13 Elderly Population: 2001-2010. *PLoS One* 2013;**8**:e66233.
- 14 Riediger ND, Clara I. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in the Canadian adult population.
15 *CMAJ* 2011;**183**:E1127-34.
- 16 Davila EP, Quintero MA, Orrego ML, *et al*. Prevalence and risk factors for metabolic
17 syndrome in Medellin and surrounding municipalities, Colombia, 2008-2010. *Prev Med*
18 2013;**56**:30-4.
- 19 Moreira GC, Cipullo JP, Ciorlia LA, *et al*. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome: association with
20 risk factors and cardiovascular complications in an urban population. *PLoS One* 2014;**9**:e105056.
- 21 Wu HF, Tam T, Jin L, *et al*. Age, gender, and socioeconomic gradients in metabolic
22 syndrome: biomarker evidence from a large sample in Taiwan, 2005-2013. *Ann Epidemiol*
23 2017;**27**:315-22 e2.
- 24 Loucks EB, Rehkopf DH, Thurston RC, *et al*. Socioeconomic disparities in metabolic
25 syndrome differ by gender: evidence from NHANES III. *Ann Epidemiol* 2007;**17**:19-26.
- 26 Bronfenbrenner U. Ecological Models of Human Development. *International Encyclopedia of*
27 *Education*. Oxford: Elsevier 1994.
- 28 Breiman L, Friedman J, Alshen R, *et al*. *CART: Classification and Regression Trees*. Belmont,
29 CA: Wadsworth 1984.
- 30 Nelson LM, Bloch DA, Longstreth WT, Jr., *et al*. Recursive partitioning for the identification
31 of disease risk subgroups: a case-control study of subarachnoid hemorrhage. *J Clin Epidemiol*
32 1998;**51**:199-209.
- 33 Nayak S, Hubbard A, Sidney S, *et al*. PP66 Self-rated health in the cardia study: a recursive
34 partitioning approach to contextualizing health determinants (Oral Presentations Abstracts).
35 *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 2014;**68**:A73-A4.
- 36 Gomez F, Wu YY, Auais M, *et al*. A Simple Algorithm to Predict Falls in Primary Care Patients
37 Aged 65 to 74 Years: The International Mobility in Aging Study. *Journal of the American Medical*
38 *Directors Association* 2017;**18**:774-779.
- 39 Costello TJ, Swartz MD, Sabripour M, *et al*. Use of tree-based models to identify subgroups
40 and increase power to detect linkage to cardiovascular disease traits. *BMC Genet* 2003;**4 Suppl**
41 **1**:S66.
- 42 Stern SE, Williams K, Ferrannini E, *et al*. Identification of individuals with insulin resistance
43 using routine clinical measurements. *Diabetes* 2005;**54**:333-9.

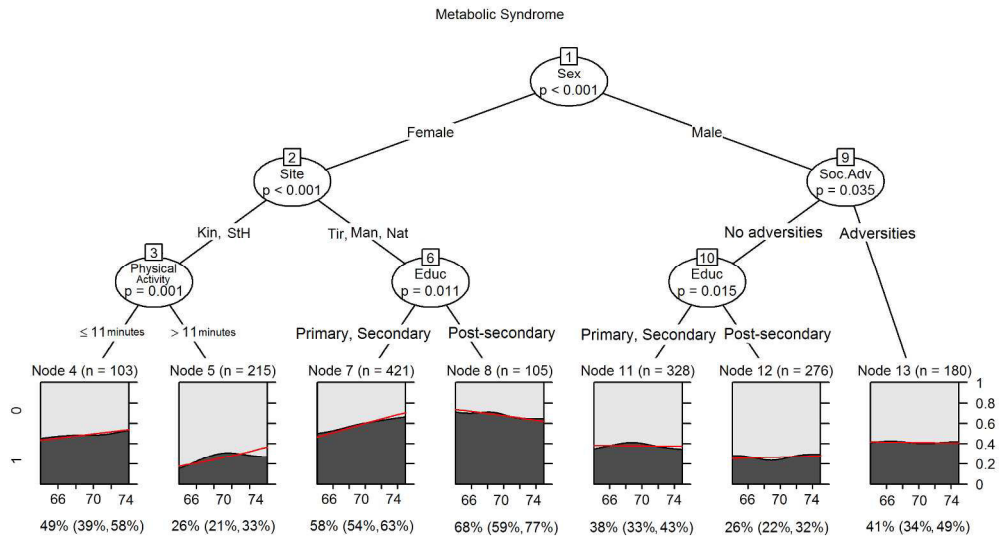
- 1
2
3 19 Zunzunegui MV, Alvarado BE, Guerra R, *et al*. The mobility gap between older men and
4 women: The embodiment of gender. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics* 2015;**61**:40-8.
- 5 20 De Yebenes MJ, Otero A, Zunzunegui MV, *et al*. Validation of a short cognitive tool for the
6 screening of dementia in elderly people with low educational level. *International Journal of*
7 *Geriatric Psychiatry* 2003;**18**:925-36.
- 8 21 National Cholesterol Education Program Expert Panel on Detection E, Treatment of High
9 Blood Cholesterol in A. Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP)
10 Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult
11 Treatment Panel III) final report. *Circulation* 2002;**106**:3143-421.
- 12 22 American Diabetes A. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care*
13 2010;**33 Suppl 1**:S62-9.
- 14 23 Sousa AC, Guerra RO, Thanh Tu M, *et al*. Lifecourse adversity and physical performance
15 across countries among men and women aged 65-74. *PloS one* 2014;**9**:e102299.
- 16 24 Marsh AP, Janssen JA, Ip EH, *et al*. Assessing Walking Activity in Older Adults: Development
17 and Validation of a Novel Computer-Animated Assessment Tool. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*
18 2015;**70**:1555-61.
- 19 25 Stekhoven DJ, Buhlmann P. MissForest--non-parametric missing value imputation for
20 mixed-type data. *Bioinformatics* 2012;**28**:112-8.
- 21 26 Seibold H, Zeileis A, Hothorn T. Model-Based Recursive Partitioning for Subgroup Analyses.
22 *Int J Biostat* 2016;**12**:45-63.
- 23 27 Zeileis A, Hothorn T, K. H. Model-based recursive partitioning. *Journal of Computational and*
24 *Graphical Statistics* 2008;**17**:492-514.
- 25 28 Hothorn T, Hornik K, Zeileis A. Unbiased Recursive Partitioning: A Conditional Inference
26 Framework. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics* 2006;**15**:651-74.
- 27 29 Eckel RH, Grundy SM, Zimmet PZ. The metabolic syndrome. *Lancet* 2005;**365**:1415-28.
- 28 30 Loucks EB, Magnusson KT, Cook S, *et al*. Socioeconomic position and the metabolic
29 syndrome in early, middle, and late life: evidence from NHANES 1999-2002. *Ann Epidemiol*
30 2007;**17**:782-90.
- 31 31 Wamala SP, Lynch J, Horsten M, *et al*. Education and the metabolic syndrome in women.
32 *Diabetes Care* 1999;**22**:1999-2003.
- 33 32 Delpierre C, Fantin R, Barboza-Solis C, *et al*. The early life nutritional environment and early
34 life stress as potential pathways towards the metabolic syndrome in mid-life? A lifecourse analysis
35 using the 1958 British Birth cohort. *BMC Public Health* 2016;**16**:815.
- 36 33 Rose G. Sick individuals and sick populations. *International journal of epidemiology*
37 2001;**30**:427-32.
- 38 34 Phelan JC, Link BG, Tehranifar P. Social conditions as fundamental causes of health
39 inequalities: theory, evidence, and policy implications. *J Health Soc Behav* 2010;**51 Suppl**:S28-40.
- 40 35 Stringhini S, Carmeli C, Jokela M, *et al*. Socioeconomic status and the 25 x 25 risk factors as
41 determinants of premature mortality: a multicohort study and meta-analysis of 1.7 million men
42 and women. *Lancet* 2017;**389**:1229-37.
- 43 36 Kokkinos PF, Fernhall B. Physical activity and high density lipoprotein cholesterol levels:
44 what is the relationship? *Sports Med* 1999;**28**:307-14.
- 45 37 Skoumas J, Pitsavos C, Panagiotakos DB, *et al*. Physical activity, high density lipoprotein
46 cholesterol and other lipids levels, in men and women from the ATTICA study. *Lipids in Health and*
47 *Disease* 2003;**2**:3.
- 48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 38 Recio-Rodriguez JI, Sanchez-Aguadero N, Rodriguez-Sanchez E, *et al*. Physical Activity and
4 Adiposity Among Older Adults of the EVIDENT Study. *J Aging Phys Act* 2017;**25**:254-60.

5 39 Hothorn T, Hornik K, Zeileis A. Unbiased recursive partitioning: A conditional inference
6 framework. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics* 2006;**15**:651-74.

7 40 Girman CJ, Dekker JM, Rhodes T, *et al*. An exploratory analysis of criteria for the metabolic
8 syndrome and its prediction of long-term cardiovascular outcomes: the Hoorn study. *Am J*
9 *Epidemiol* 2005;**162**:438-47.

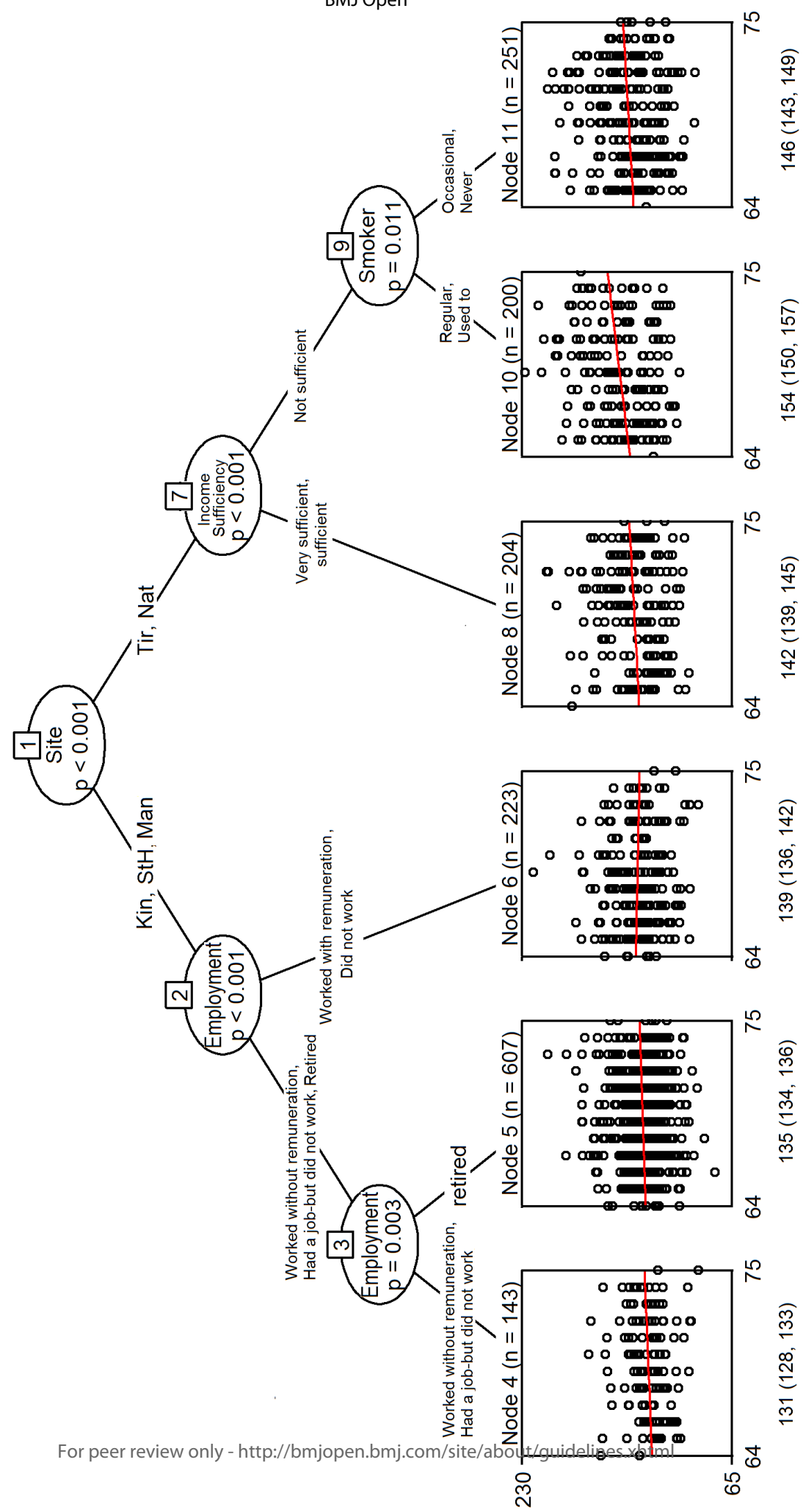
10 41 Alberti KG, Eckel RH, Grundy SM, *et al*. Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome: a joint
11 interim statement of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and
12 Prevention; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American Heart Association; World Heart
13 Federation; International Atherosclerosis Society; and International Association for the Study of
14 Obesity. *Circulation* 2009;**120**:1640-5.
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



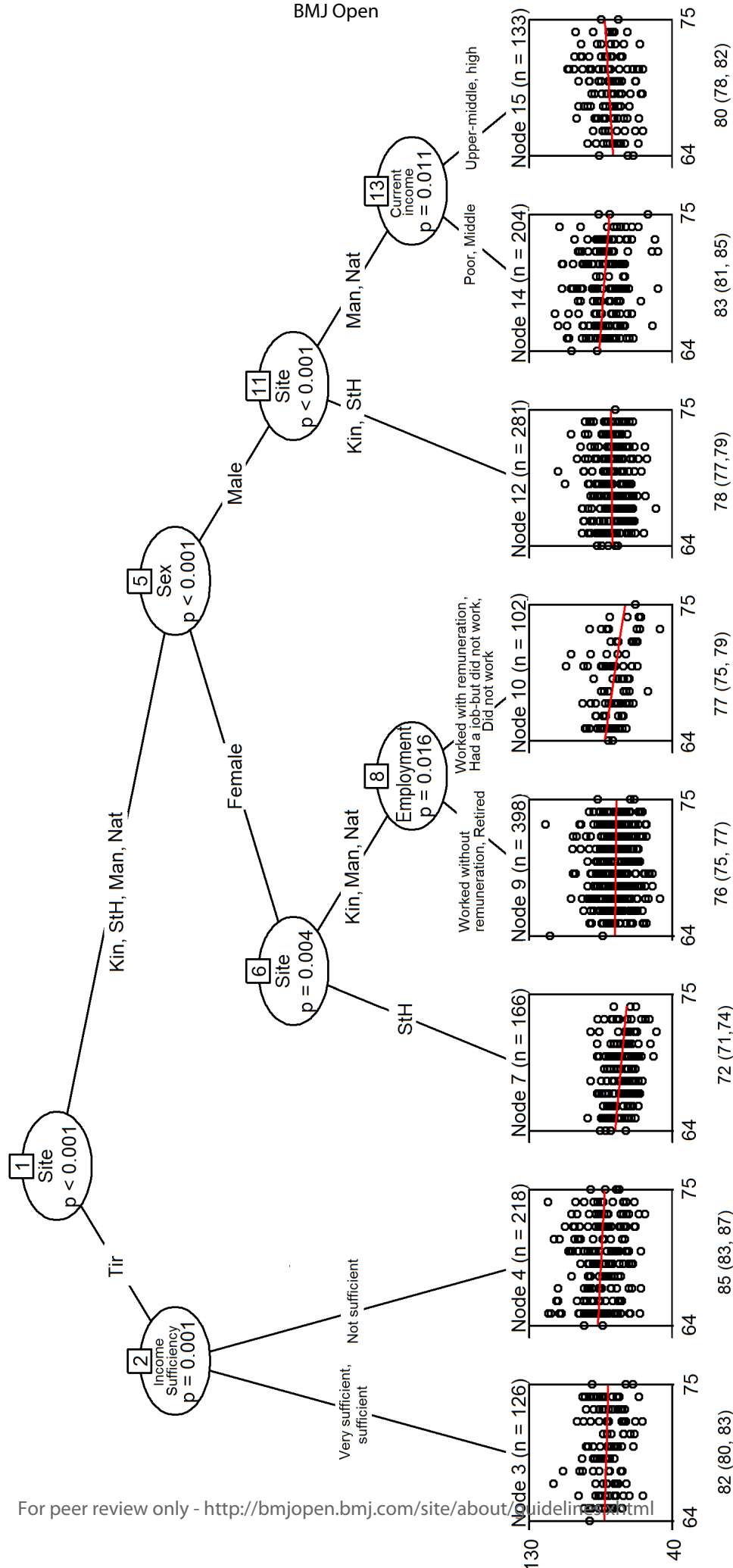
Model based recursive partitioning for metabolic syndrome controlling for age. The horizontal axis of the terminal plots is age (64-75y), and the vertical axis shows the predicted mean proportions of metabolic syndrome obtained from logistic regression models by age. The predicted mean proportion of metabolic syndrome and 95% confidence interval for each terminal node are listed under the plots.

329x188mm (216 x 216 DPI)

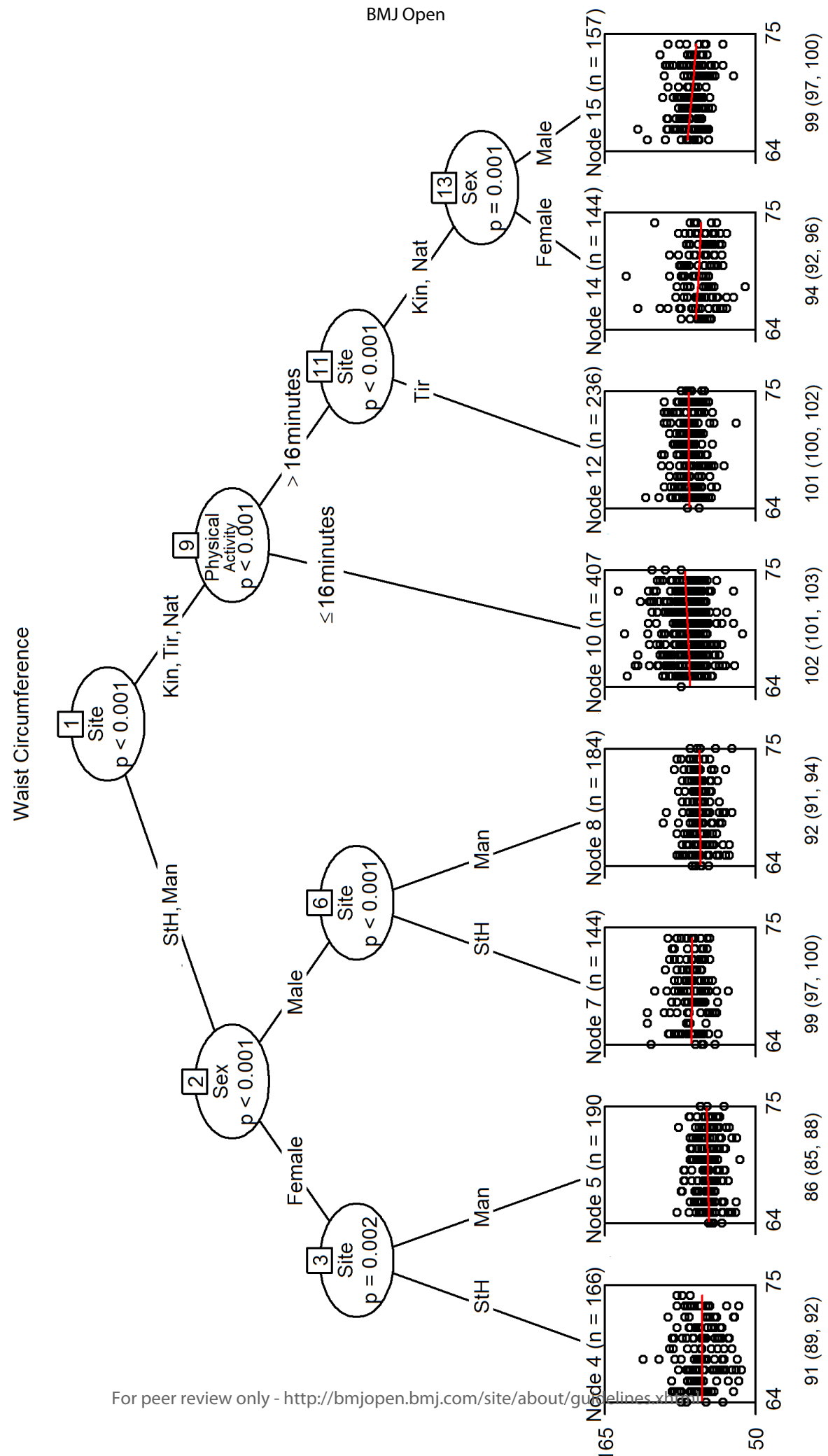
Systolic Blood Pressure



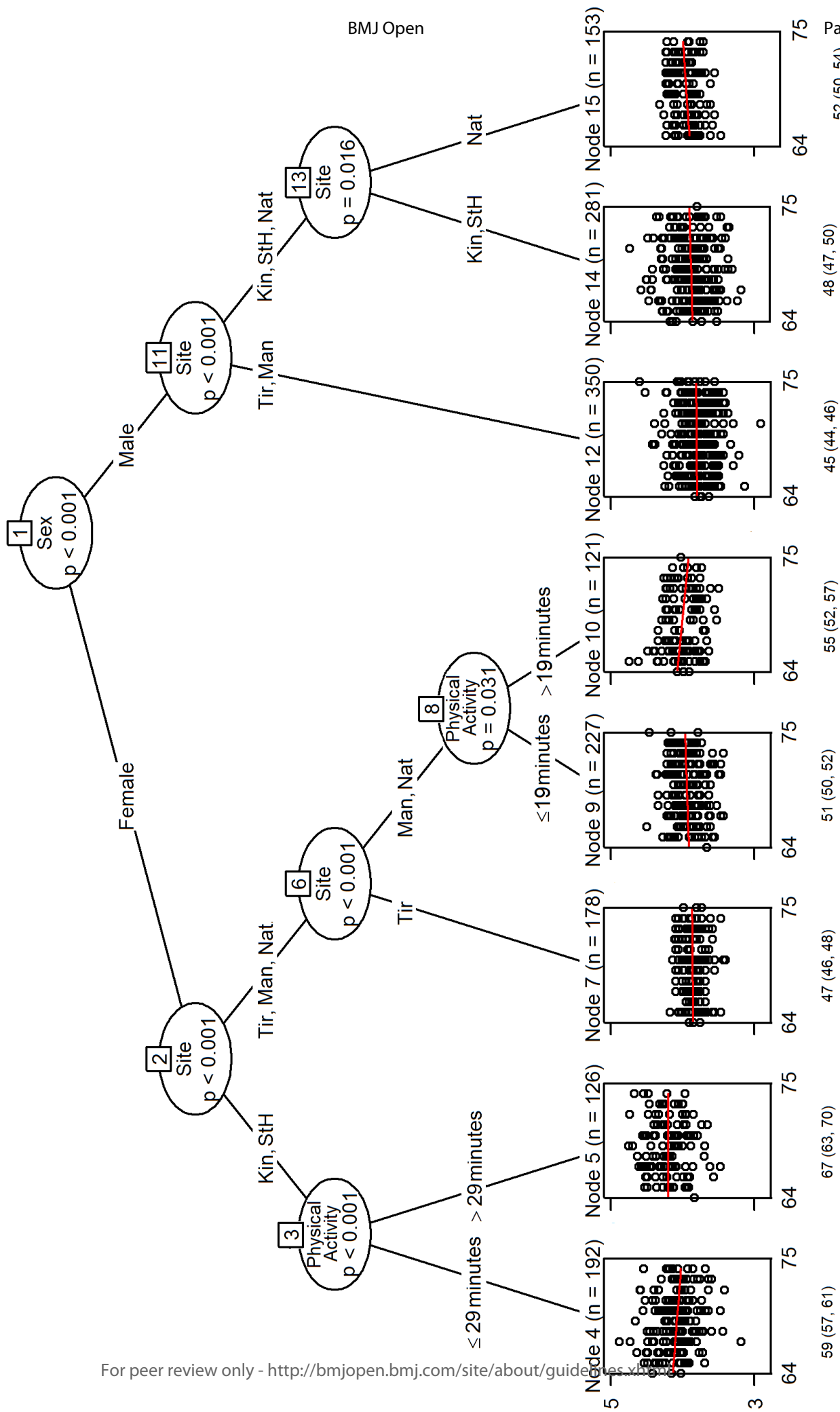
Diastolic Blood Pressure



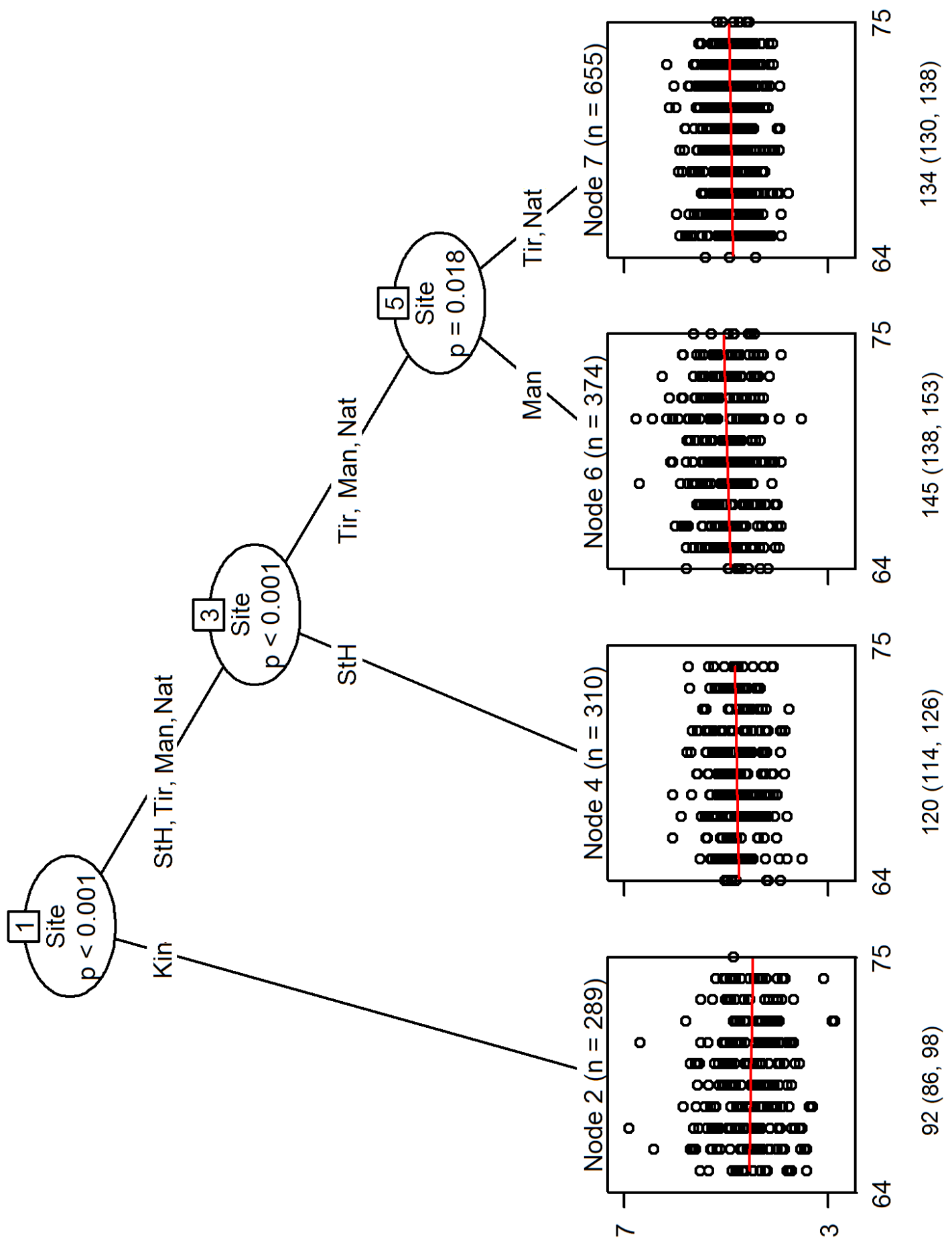
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



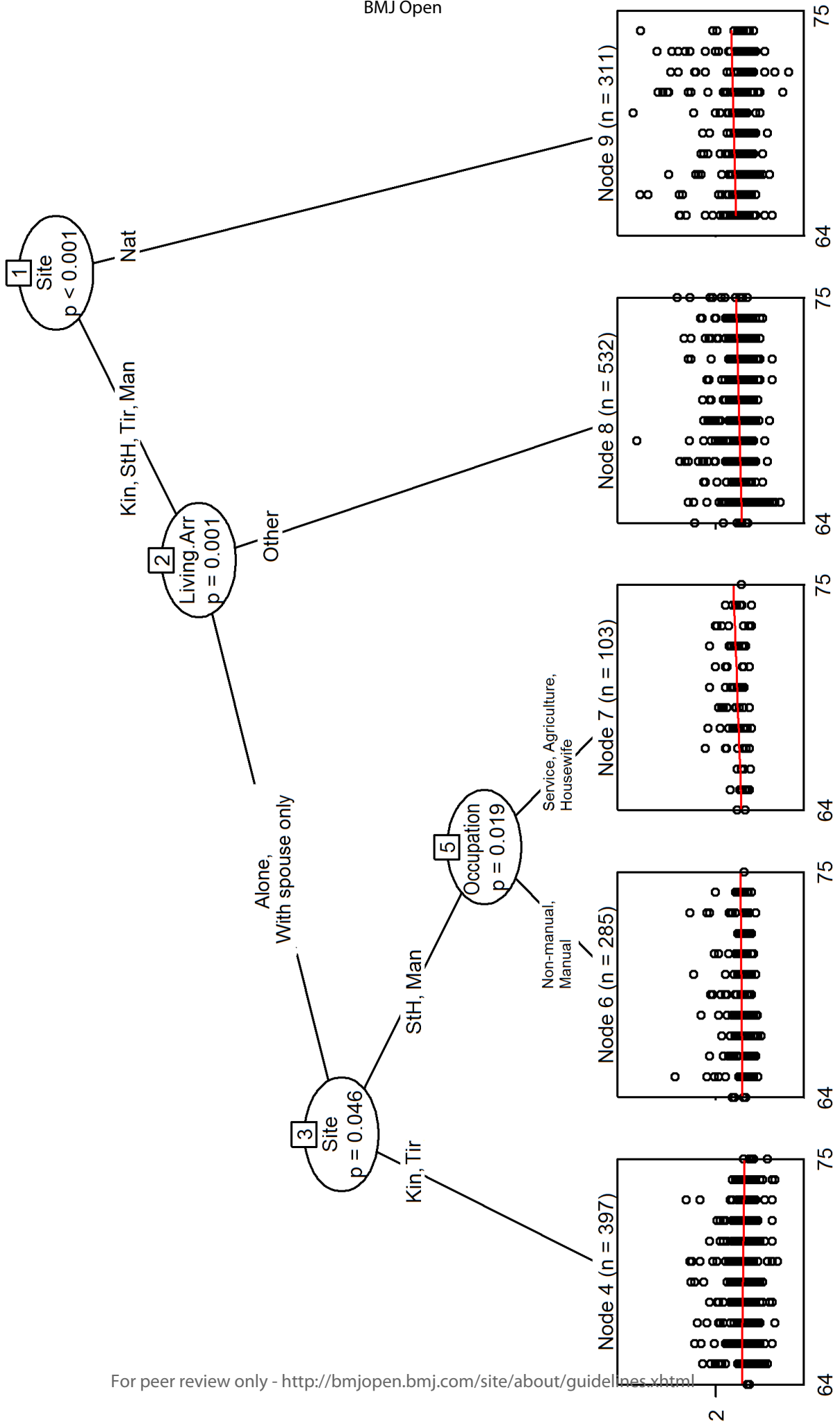
Log HDL



Log Triglycerides



Log HbA1c



1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of *cross-sectional studies*

	Page No	Recommendation
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract
	2	(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found
Introduction		
Background/rationale	4-5	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported
Objectives	6	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses
Methods		
Study design	6	Present key elements of study design early in the paper
Setting	6-7	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection
Participants	7	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants
Variables	7-9	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable
Data sources/ measurement	7-9	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group
Bias	7-9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias
Study size	6	Explain how the study size was arrived at (<i>in separate publication</i>)
Quantitative variables	7-9 +Analysis	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why
Statistical methods	9-10	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed
		(d) If applicable, describe analytical methods taking account of sampling strategy
		(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses
Results		
Participants	n/a	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram
Descriptive data	Tables 1 & 2	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest
Outcome data	Tables & Figures	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures
Main results	Tables and Figures	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear

		which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period
Other analyses	16 & suppl. files	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses
Discussion		
Key results	16-17	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives
Limitations	Limitations box and 20	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias
Interpretation	Whole discussion	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence
Generalisability	Conclusion	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results
Other information		
Funding	Funding	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based