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Associations between dietary intakes of iron, copper and zinc with risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus: A large population-based prospective cohort study

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Short Title: Iron, copper and zinc intakes and type 2 diabetes.
Abstract

**Background and aims:** Abnormal homeostasis of iron, copper and zinc has been included in the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). However, the evidence of associations between dietary intakes of these elements and T2DM is limited. We thought to examine the association between dietary intakes of iron, copper and zinc with risk of T2DM in Japanese population.

**Methods:** A prospective study encompassing 16,160 healthy Japanese men and women aged 40-65 years in whom the associations between dietary intakes of iron, copper and zinc, determined by a validated self-administered food frequency questionnaire, with risk of 5-year cumulative incidence of validated physician-diagnosed T2DM, were evaluated by logistic regression model.

**Results:** We ascertained 396 self-reported new cases of diabetes within 5-year period. Dietary intakes of iron (total and nonheme but not heme iron) and copper were positively associated with risk of T2DM; the multivariable OR in the highest versus lowest quartiles of intakes were 1.32 (1.04, 1.70; \( P \)-trend=0.03) and 1.55 (1.13, 2.02; \( P \)-trend=0.003), respectively. These associations were more evident in the high risk group; older, overweight, smokers and those with family history of diabetes. The dietary intake of zinc was inversely associated with risk of T2DM; the multivariable OR was 0.64 (0.54, 1.00; \( P \)-trend=0.003), and such association was evident among younger subjects (age 40-55 years) only.

**Conclusions:** Dietary intakes of iron and copper were associated with a higher risk, while dietary intake of zinc was associated with a reduced risk of T2DM in Japanese population.

**Keywords** Cohort study; copper; iron; Japanese; type 2 diabetes mellitus; zinc.
1. Introduction

Globally, about 415 million people suffer from diabetes mellitus and this number is expected to increase to 642 million by 2040 (1). Type 2 diabetes (T2DM) accounts for 90% of all cases of diabetes (1). A rapid increase in diabetes prevalence was seen in Japan during the past two decades (2). To curb the trajectory of T2DM burden worldwide, concerted efforts to prevent diabetes are thus desirable.

Recognizing that genetic pool evolution is slow, the surge in T2DM burden in recent decades has been attributed to environmental determinants including declining diet quality (3). Lifestyle interventions, with overall diet modifications, have proven to be effective in reducing diabetes risk (2,4). Although, dietary trace elements like iron, copper, and zinc are major elements that work as cofactors of numerous enzymes (5), they can be toxic in excessive amounts via production of free radicals (5); one of the mechanisms for development of diabetes and diabetic complications is abnormal homeostasis of trace elements (5-9).

Epidemiological studies showed the associations of iron and serum ferritin (10-11), copper (6,12) and zinc (13,14) with insulin resistance and sensitivity; however, no study so far has examined the association between dietary intake of copper and risk of T2DM. Moreover, among the few studies that investigated the associations between dietary intakes of iron (15-21) and zinc (22-25) with T2DM, none of them were in Japanese population, whom dietary intakes of such trace elements did not meet the recommendation (26).

Our hypothesis is that, higher dietary intakes iron and copper may be positively associated, while higher intake of zinc may be inversely associated with risk of T2DM, among Japanese population.
2. Subjects and Methods

2.1. Study Population

The Japanese Ministry of Education, Sports and Science has sponsored a large prospective study; the Japan Collaborative Cohort Study for Evaluation of Cancer Risk (JACC Study) which was launched in 1988 to 1990 with 110,585 subjects (n= 46,395 men and 64,190 women) aged 40-79 years from 45 Japanese communities. After subjects or community leaders have given informed consents, subjects completed a self-administered questionnaire inquiring about their medical histories and habits. Details for JACC study protocol were described previously (27). The protocol of this investigation has been approved by the ethics committees of Hokkaido and Osaka Universities.

Of the subjects, 43,255 (16,926 males and 26,329 females) at baseline 40-65 years, with no prior history of diabetes, cancer or cardiovascular diseases gave valid responses on dietary iron, copper and zinc intakes. Of these subjects, those with missing information for history of diabetes and non-respondents to the 5-year questionnaire survey were excluded. Accordingly, 16,160 subjects (5,955 males and 10,205 females) were included in the study (See supplemental figure 1).

2.2. Dietary Assessment

Via a 40-items food frequency questionnaire (FFQ), the past year intakes of foods and drinks without specifying portion size were collected. The possible responses for the frequency of intake for each item were rarely, 1-2 times/month, 1-2 times/week, 3-4 times/week, and almost every day (27). These frequencies were then multiplied by 0, 0.38, 1.5, 3.5, and 7.0/week, respectively to obtain the intake of each food item. Dietary intakes of iron, copper and zinc- from various foods and drinks without any amounts from nutritional supplements- were obtained by multiplying the iron, copper
and zinc content from each food by the subject’s frequency scores followed by
summing all the food items. A validation study that used 1-year period intakes from
four 3-days weighted dietary records in 85 subjects as a reference was used to
estimate each portion size and to obtain data on validity of the FFQ-estimated intakes
(27). The Spearman rank correlation coefficients for iron, copper and zinc intakes
between the FFQ and DRs were 0.46, 0.53 and 0.27, respectively (27). The FFQ
estimated intakes (mean ± SD) were (6.8 ± 2.1 mg/day) for iron, (0.97 ± 0.24 mg/day)
for copper and (6.5 ± 1.5 mg/day) for zinc, while the DR estimated intakes were (9.4
± 2.0 mg/day) for iron, (1.33 ± 0.27 mg/day) for copper and (8.8 ± 1.6 mg/day) for
zinc. The FFQ was also used to assess heme and non heme iron intakes; the details of
estimations and methods used were discussed in details previously (28).

2.3. Assessment of Diabetic Status

Subjects who reported having diabetes newly diagnosed by physicians on the 5-year
questionnaire survey were considered to have incident diabetes. The validity of
self-reporting physician diagnosed diabetes was assessed by comparing the
self-reported data with treatment status and laboratory findings in a sample of 1230
men and 1837 women (29). As the criteria of the American Diabetic Association (30)
were established after the diagnosis were made; treatment with oral hypoglycaemic or
insulin or elevated serum glucose levels (fasting levels ≥ 7.8 mmol/L or randomly
measured levels of ≥ 11.1 mmol/L) were the diagnostic criteria. Accordingly, the
sensitivity of self-reporting was 70% for men and 75% for women and the specificity
was 95% for men and 98% for women (29).

2.4. Statistical Analysis

The residual method was used to calculate the calorie-adjusted dietary intakes
(31) of iron, copper, and zinc. Calorie-adjusted intakes were then modeled as four
categorical (quartiles) variables in the main analysis. The χ2-test and analysis of
covariance were used to assess the significance of differences in proportions and
mean values of subjects’ baseline characteristics across quartiles of iron, copper and
zinc intakes. Because the precise dates of diabetes onset were unknown, the outcome
was the 5-year cumulative incidence of diabetes without calculating person-years.
Associations between intakes of iron, copper and zinc with risk of T2DM, and the
respective odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) in each quartile of
intake were assessed by multiple logistic regression modeling that adjusted for age
and sex in the first model. The second model was further adjusted for non-dietary
factors including: family history of diabetes (yes, no); past history of hypertension
(yes, no); smoking status (never, former smoker, current smoker of 1-19 and ≥20
cigarettes/day); body mass index (BMI) (quartiles); walking hours (almost no, daily
0.5, 0.6-0.9, and ≥1 hour) and exercise hours (almost no, weekly 1-2, 3-4 and ≥5
hours). The third model was further adjusted for dietary factors including: alcohol
intake (never, former and current daily drinker of 0.1-22.9, 23.0-45.9, 46.0-68.9, and
≥69.0 g ethanol); green tea intake in cups (<once/week, 1-6 /week, 1-2 /day, 3-5 /day,
and ≥6 /day); coffee intake in cups (<once/week, 1-6 /week, 1-2 /day, and ≥3 /day);
total energy intake (quartiles) and energy-adjusted intakes for magnesium and total
carbohydrate (quartiles), while, on the last model we further adjusted for
energy-adjusted intakes (quartiles) of iron, copper and zinc mutually. The median
intake value (mg/day) for each quartile was used as a continuous variable to assess the
trend across increasing groups of each element intake.

Stratification by age (40-54 or 55-65 years), sex, smoking status (current
smokers and non-current smokers), family history of diabetes (yes or no), BMI (<25
or ≥25 kg/m²), alcohol intake (<23 or ≥23 g ethanol/day; the median intake) and
energy-adjusted magnesium intake (<230.7 or ≥230.7 mg/day; the median intake) were done. An interaction term generated by multiplying the median value of iron, copper and zinc intakes (mg/day) by (dichotomous) stratifying variables was added to the model to assess interactions. Two-tailed statistical tests were performed and a p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant. SAS 9.4 software (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA) was used.

3. Results

Following 16,160 subjects (5,955 males and 10,205 females) aged 40-65 years for 5 years revealed a total of 396 subjects developed T2DM (2.5%); 200 (3.4%) among men and 196 (1.9%) among women (comparing women with men, P < 0.001). Compared with subjects who remained non-diabetic, those who turned diabetics were more likely to be hypertensive and to have a family history of diabetes. They were also older, with a higher BMI and more likely to smoke and to drink more alcohol (not shown in table).

Table 1 shows that subjects in the highest quartile of iron, copper and zinc intakes compared with those in the lowest quartile were older, with less ethanol intake and were less likely to smoke, to drink green tea daily and to have a familial history of diabetes; but were more likely to drink coffee and to have higher intakes of magnesium, iron, copper and zinc. In addition, subjects with high zinc intake were less likely to be hypertensives, and subjects with high copper intake had higher intakes of carbohydrate.

The OR for 5-year incident T2DM by intakes of iron, copper and zinc are given in Table 2. Increasing intakes of iron and copper were associated with an elevated risk of incident T2DM; whereas, increasing intake of zinc tended to reduce
the risk. Adjusting for non-dietary factors did not change these associations; while after adjusting for the dietary factors, the positive associations with iron and copper and the inverse association with zinc remained statistically significant. The multivariable OR (95% CI) for the highest versus the lowest quartile of intakes were 1.33 (1.05, 1.75; P-trend = 0.03) for iron, 1.55 (1.13, 2.02; P-trend = 0.002) for copper and 0.65 (0.57, 0.99; P-trend = 0.001) for zinc. Mutual adjustment for iron, copper and zinc did not affect the associations materially.

Table 3 shows the results of stratified analyses by age, sex, smoking status, family history of diabetes, BMI, ethanol intake and energy-adjusted magnesium intake. The positive associations between iron and copper intakes with risk of T2DM were observed in the high risk group (older subjects, subjects with family history of diabetes, current smokers and subjects with BMI ≥ 25 kg/m²), and there were no interactions by sex, ethanol intake or magnesium intake (P-interaction >0.1). The inverse association of risk for T2DM with higher zinc intakes was evident among younger subjects, but there were no interactions with any other studied factors.

Supplemental table 1 shows the associations between heme and nonheme iron intakes with risk of T2DM. Heme iron intake was not associated with risk of T2DM; while nonheme iron showed the same positive association as that of total iron intake.

4. Discussion
Findings from this prospective cohort study showed that higher dietary intakes of iron and copper were associated with increased risk of T2DM, while higher dietary zinc intake was associated with the reduced risk in Japanese men and women. The associations of iron and copper intakes with diabetes risk appeared more evident for
those at high risk; older, overweight, smokers and those with family history of diabetes.

Although these major elements are important cofactors of numerous enzymes (5), and their abnormal homeostasis is associated with the development of T2DM and its complications; however, disturbed serum levels of these elements were found to be induced by conditions like insulin resistance and hyperglycemia (5-9). Thus, their serum levels can be both contributors to the development of T2DM and/or results of metabolic distress in T2DM. In the current study, however, we examined the associations of dietary intakes rather than serum levels of these elements with risk of T2DM.

Mechanisms by which iron, copper and zinc associate with risk of T2DM have been studied extensively (5-14); the summary of these mechanisms include: 1- Imbalance of these elements (elevated levels of iron and copper and decreased levels of zinc) might adversely affect the pancreatic islets. 2- Iron and copper facilitate the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that might decrease the insulin gene promoter activity. 3- Elevated iron levels decrease insulin secretion and increase insulin resistance by oxidizing lipids, proteins and nucleic acids. 4- Zinc is essential for insulin secretion and storage. 5- Zinc transporter (ZnT8) is a key protein for pancreatic B-cells function.

Almost half of the previous evidence of association between iron intake and risk of T2M have come from Chinese populations (19-21), while the other half have come mostly from female gender (16-19) or from populations characterized by high BMI and high meat intake (15-19). In our study, total iron, represented mainly by non heme iron (the Spearman correlation coefficient between total iron and non heme iron in the current study was 0.99), was positively associated with T2DM. In previous
literature, there was no association between total iron intake and risk of T2DM (15,16,18), however, one Chinese study showed a positive association; the multivariable OR in the highest (mean, 40.2 mg/day) versus lowest (mean, 15.4 mg/day) quartile of total iron intake was 3.73 (1.50, 9.26; P=0.004); which was evident only for women, 5.53 (1.47, 20.44; P=0.012) but not for men, 1.73 (0.50, 6.01; P=0.39) (21). On the other hand, another study, in which total iron intake extensively reflected non-heme iron intake; r=0.995, showed an inverse association between non-heme iron and risk of T2DM; 0.80 (0.64, 1.01; P-trend=0.08) (17). Contrary to our findings of no association, a positive association between heme iron intake and risk of T2DM was evident in cross-sectional and prospective studies (15-18, 20) and in systematic reviews and meta-analyses (32-34). The causes for these opposite trends are unknown. The very low dietary intake of heme iron among Japanese might be one suggestion; our study has a mean intake of 0.2 mg/day for heme iron, which was much lower than that for European (1.8 mg/day) (16) and Chinese (1.5 mg/day) (20). The Japanese intake of heme iron is probably not high enough to increase diabetes risk. Another suggestion could be that the previous studies interpreted red meat intake as being solely heme iron (15,16), while the high fish intake in our study contributed largely to the heme iron intake; 45% of heme iron in this study come from fish intake. Lastly, Luan et al (19), reported a positive association between total iron intake and risk of T2DM in North China, like that found in South China (21), this association disappeared after adjusting for blood lipids. Lipid profile was suggested as a confounder in the Chinese study; unfortunately, we did not have such data for all the subjects of our study.

The significant inverse trend of risk in T2DM across increasing quartiles of zinc intake seen in the current study adds greatly to the scarce literature (22-25). The
scope of many previous studies has been limited to either the reduced zinc status in diabetic patients, caused by urinary loss of zinc due to nephropathy (35), or the moderate decrease in glucose levels and tendency for a reduction in HbA1c with zinc supplementation in healthy (36,37) and T2DM patients (34,38). Only four studies have systematically examined the association between dietary zinc and T2DM, and the results were inconsistent (22-25); inverse associations among women from the Australian Longitudinal Study; hazard ratio (HR) (95%CI) in the highest versus lowest categories of intake was 0.50 (0.32, 0.77; P-trend=0.006) (22) and among women from the Nurse Health Study; HR (95% CI) was 0.92 (0.84, 1.00; P-trend=0.009) (23), but no associations were found in the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis; HR (95% CI) for extreme quintiles was 1.41 (0.88, 2.27; P-trend=0.33) (24) or among Chinese healthy adults; HR (95% CI) was 0.93 (0.35, 2.46; P-trend=0.98), in whom higher zinc/heme iron ratio was associated with reduced risk of T2DM; HR (95% CI) was 0.21 (0.08, 0.54; P-trend=0.001) (25).

To the best of our knowledge, no epidemiological study has examined the association between dietary copper intake and risk of T2DM, so far. However, high levels of serum copper were detected in T2DM patients (38) and especially in diabetic complications (39); copper overload may be a contributing factor in developing diabetes and/or a result of diabetic complications (5,6-8,12, 38). Moreover, via suppressing the oxidative stress, copper supplementation can prevent Streptozotocin (STZ)-induced type 1 diabetes in mice (40), and through the Fenton reaction, copper facilitates the production of ROS (41); which are associated with development of T2DM (42). In addition, the high correlation between iron and copper; r=0.80 in the current study could be one explanation.
Limitations of our study include; first, some misclassification of outcome and exposure were unavoidable because physician-diagnosed diabetes and the intakes of the elements under study were self-reported. Based on a validation study (28), the FFQ-measured intakes of exposure variables were underestimated by at least a quarter. However, the self-reported diabetes in our study was validated and showed reasonable sensitivity and specificity (29). The actual associations between the studied elements and risk of T2DM could be more robust; because such nondifferential misclassifications were supposed to direct the associations towards the null. Second, only 37% of subjects confirmed their diabetic status at 5-year follow-up. However, there were no much difference in the mean age and BMI between respondents and nonrespondents. Also, there were no significant differences in the proportion of censored subjects, who moved or died, during the follow-up period between quartiles of the exposure variables; P-for difference=0.81, which refute the assumption that excess mortality among diabetic subjects in the highest quartiles of iron and copper intakes led to lower follow-up rate, or the assumption that the lower risk of T2DM in the highest quartile of zinc intake was attributed to patients lost to follow-up. Last, the mutual adjustment for exposure variables might be statistically incorrect, because the high correlations; r (0.70-0.80); however, we liked to examine the associations between each exposure variable with risk of T2DM regardless the effect of other elements, especially that in the model without mutual adjustment, the associations were more or less the same. It is worth mentioning that the correlation of magnesium with iron and copper were also high; the Spearman rank correlation coefficient were 0.84 and 0.64, respectively; however, no interaction by energy-adjusted magnesium intake was evident in the stratified analyses. Strengths of our study include its prospective design, a large sample size that enabled covariates-stratified analyses.
supported by an adequate statistical power, the use of a validated FFQ, and the consistent endpoint determination.
**Funding:** The JACC study, besides the support by Comprehensive Research on Cardiovascular and Lifestyle Related Diseases (H26-Junkankitou [Seisaku]-Ippan-001) was supported from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research; Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Areas of Cancer and Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Areas of Cancer Epidemiology (61010076, 62010074, 63010074, 1010068, 2151065, 3151064, 4151063, 5151069, 6279102, 11181101, 17015022, 18014011, 20014026, and 20390156).
Conflict of Interest: none declared
Author contribution

Study conception and design (Ehab S. Eshak, Hiroyasu Iso and Akiko Tamakoshi); data collection (Hiroyasu Iso, Koutatsu Maruyama, Isao Muraki, and Akiko Tamakoshi); statistical analysis (Ehab S. Eshak); drafting the manuscript (Ehab S. Eshak); critical revision of the manuscript (Hiroyasu Iso, Koutatsu Maruyama, Isao Muraki, and Akiko Tamakoshi). All Authors have read and approved the final manuscript.
Acknowledgments:

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**References**


Table 1. Participants’ baseline characteristics according to quartiles of energy-adjusted iron, copper and zinc intakes.

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<td>Magnesium intake, mg/day</td>
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<td>Copper intake, mg/day</td>
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<td>Zinc intake, mg/day</td>
<td>6.6 ± 0.71</td>
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* Chi-square test was used for categorical variables; ANOVA was used for continuous variables.

b Mean ± SD (all such values).

ANOVA: analysis of variance; BMD: body mass index; BMI: body mass index; COPA: copper; Cu: copper; CRP: C-reactive protein; DES: diabetes; EWS: energy; Fe: iron; HOMA-IR: homeostatic model assessment of insulin resistance; HDL-C: high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; IL-6: interleukin-6; INR: international normalized ratio; Mg: magnesium; Mn: manganese; Mg: magnesium; MTHFR: methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase; mCH: methionine-choline; OB: obesity; OR: odds ratio; P: p-value; PON: paroxysmal nocturnal; PC: platelet count; PP: postprandial; PT: prothrombin time; Q: quartile; SBP: systolic blood pressure; T2DM: type 2 diabetes; TAC: total antioxidant capacity; TAC: total antioxidant capacity; TC: total cholesterol; US: ultrasound; WBC: white blood cell count.
Table 2. Odds ratios (95% CI) of 5-year incidence of type 2 diabetes according to energy-adjusted intakes for iron, copper and zinc in Japanese men and women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P- trend *</th>
<th>P- trend *</th>
<th>P- trend *</th>
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<tr>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
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<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.04</td>
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<td>0.03</td>
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</table>

a Median value of iron, copper and zinc intakes in each quartile were used to test for a linear trend across quintiles. There were no interactions with sex; P for interaction >0.1.
b Model 1 Odds ratio (95% confidence intervals) estimated by using Logistic regression model adjusted for age and sex.
c Model 2 Odds ratio (95% confidence intervals) estimated by using Logistic regression model adjusted for age and sex and for non-dietary factors including: family history of diabetes, past history of hypertension, smoking status, body mass index, hours of walking and hours of exercise.
d Model 3 Odds ratio (95% confidence intervals) estimated by using Logistic regression model adjusted for age, sex, non-dietary factors including: family history of diabetes, past history of hypertension, smoking status, body mass index, hours of walking and hours of exercise and dietary factors including: alcohol intake, coffee intake, green tea intake, quartiles of total energy intake and quartiles of energy-adjusted intakes for magnesium and carbohydrate.
e Model 4 Odds ratio (95% confidence intervals) estimated by using Logistic regression model adjusted for age, sex, family history of diabetes, past history of hypertension, smoking status, body mass index, hours of walking and hours of exercise, alcohol intake, coffee intake, green tea intake, quartiles of total energy intake and quartiles of energy-adjusted intakes for magnesium and carbohydrate and adjusted further for quartiles of energy-adjusted iron, copper and zinc mutually.
Table 3. Odds ratios (95% CI) of 5-year incidence of type 2 diabetes according to energy-adjusted intakes for iron, copper and zinc stratified by age, sex, family history of diabetes, smoking status, body mass index, alcohol intake and magnesium intake.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Energy-adjusted iron intake</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Energy-adjusted copper intake</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Energy-adjusted zinc intake</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q1 (Low)</td>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Q4 (High)</td>
<td>P- trend^a</td>
<td>Q1 (Low)</td>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Q4 (High)</td>
<td>P- trend^a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-54 year</td>
<td>60/2344</td>
<td>43/2288</td>
<td>32/2175</td>
<td>35/1909</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>71/3161</td>
<td>57/2948</td>
<td>42/2607</td>
<td>42/2607</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR (95% CI)^a</td>
<td>1.00 (ref)</td>
<td>1.21 (0.77-1.66)</td>
<td>1.03 (0.63-1.61)</td>
<td>0.80 (0.50-1.31)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00 (ref)</td>
<td>1.37 (0.95-2.23)</td>
<td>1.50 (0.99-2.41)</td>
<td>1.49 (0.99-2.16)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-65 year</td>
<td>66/1696</td>
<td>61/1752</td>
<td>52/1865</td>
<td>47/2313</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>69/1618</td>
<td>62/1790</td>
<td>53/1916</td>
<td>42/2120</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cases/Subjects, n</td>
<td>1.00 (ref)</td>
<td>1.55 (1.05-2.30)</td>
<td>1.51 (1.01-2.21)</td>
<td>1.56 (1.05-1.86)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00 (ref)</td>
<td>1.62 (1.09-2.44)</td>
<td>1.44 (1.04-2.14)</td>
<td>1.41 (0.98-2.25)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR (95% CI)^a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0003</td>
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<td>Family history of diabetes</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>80/2160</td>
<td>45/1454</td>
<td>44/1219</td>
<td>31/1122</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>98/2570</td>
<td>46/1326</td>
<td>36/1057</td>
<td>20/1002</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cases/Subjects, n</td>
<td>1.00 (ref)</td>
<td>1.44 (0.95-2.23)</td>
<td>1.36 (0.91-2.11)</td>
<td>1.37 (0.97-2.34)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00 (ref)</td>
<td>2.06 (1.25-3.29)</td>
<td>1.85 (1.09-3.11)</td>
<td>1.70 (1.12-3.00)</td>
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<tr>
<td>OR (95% CI)^a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>0.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>46/1880</td>
<td>59/2586</td>
<td>40/2821</td>
<td>51/2918</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>29/1470</td>
<td>63/2714</td>
<td>54/2983</td>
<td>50/3038</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cases/Subjects, n</td>
<td>1.00 (ref)</td>
<td>1.38 (0.92-2.10)</td>
<td>1.41 (0.95-2.06)</td>
<td>1.25 (0.92-2.32)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00 (ref)</td>
<td>1.23 (0.89-1.99)</td>
<td>1.36 (1.04-2.33)</td>
<td>1.25 (0.90-1.66)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR (95% CI)^a</td>
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<td>P- interaction</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

^a P- trend calculated using log-binomial regression.
### Alcohol Intake

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quartile</th>
<th>Cases/Subjects, n</th>
<th>OR (95% CI)</th>
<th>P-interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; median, g/day</td>
<td>65/2520</td>
<td>1.00 (0.91-1.88)</td>
<td>1.30 (0.99-1.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥median, g/day</td>
<td>61/1520</td>
<td>1.00 (0.90-2.16)</td>
<td>1.41 (0.97-2.54)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Magnesium Intake

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quartile</th>
<th>Cases/Subjects, n</th>
<th>OR (95% CI)</th>
<th>P-interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; median, mg/day</td>
<td>75/2911</td>
<td>1.00 (0.97-1.71)</td>
<td>1.58 (1.09-1.92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥median, mg/day</td>
<td>51/1129</td>
<td>1.00 (1.00-1.98)</td>
<td>1.44 (0.96-2.03)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

* Median value of iron, copper and zinc intakes in each quartile were used to test for a linear trend across quintiles.

* Except for the factor of stratification, Odds ratio (95% confidence intervals) estimated by using Logistic regression model adjusted for age, sex, family history of diabetes, past history of hypertension, smoking status, body mass index, hours of walking and hours of exercise, alcohol intake, coffee intake, green tea intake, total energy intake and energy-adjusted intakes for magnesium and carbohydrate, and mutually for energy-adjusted iron, copper and zinc intakes.

* Median alcohol intake was 23g/day.

* Median energy-adjusted magnesium intake was 230.7 mg/day.