A Dyadic Growth Modeling Approach to Examine Associations Between Weight Gain and Lung Function Decline: The NHLBI Pooled Cohorts Study

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Running head: Modeling Weight Gain and Lung Function Decline
ABSTRACT

The relationship between body weight and lung function is complex. Using a dyadic multilevel linear modeling approach, treating body mass index (BMI) and lung function as paired, within-person outcomes, we test the hypothesis that individuals with more rapid increase in BMI exhibit more rapid decline in lung function: forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV1), forced vital capacity (FVC), and their ratio (FEV1/FVC). Models included random intercepts and slopes and were adjusted for socio-demographic and smoking-related factors. A sample of 9,115 adults with paired measurements of BMI and lung function at ≥3 visits were selected from a pooled set of 5 US population-based cohorts (1983 – 2018; mean age at baseline, 46 years; median follow-up, 19 years). At age 46, average annual rates-of-change in BMI, FEV1, FVC, and FEV1/FVC were 0.22 kg/m²/year, -25.50 mL/year, -21.99 mL/year, and -0.24 percent/year, respectively. Individuals with steeper BMI increases had faster declines in FEV1 (r=-0.16) and FVC (r=-0.26), and slower declines in FEV1/FVC (r=0.11) (all P<0.0001). Results were similar in subgroup analyses. Residual correlations were negative (P<0.0001), suggesting additional interdependence between BMI and lung function. Results show that greater rates of weight gain are associated with greater rates of lung function loss.

Keywords (3-8): BMI, cohort studies, COPD, dyadic models, longitudinal, lung function, obesity, spirometry

Abbreviations: CRD = Chronic Respiratory Diseases; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; BMI = Body Mass Index; FEV1 = Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 Second; FVC = Forced Vital Capacity; CARDIA = Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults; CHS = Cardiovascular Health Study; FHS-O = Framingham Offspring Cohort; Health ABC = Health, Aging and Body Composition; MESA = Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis
Obesity and chronic respiratory diseases (CRDs) have increased in prevalence and global public health impact over recent decades (1, 2). According to the Global Burden of Disease study, high body mass index (BMI) contributed to 4.0 million deaths in 2015, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and asthma contributed to 3.6 million deaths (1). Understanding interrelationships between the obesity and CRD epidemics is therefore of great public health importance.

Obesity and low lung function are physiologically interdependent: obesity may restrict ventilatory capacity, reduce exercise capacity, and contribute to breathlessness, while low lung function may reinforce sedentary and obesogenic behavior (3-6). Elevated BMI and low lung function also have shared risk factors, such as aging, immune response, diet, physical inactivity, and the microbiome (7). These complex causal networks may engender correlations between within-person changes in BMI and lung function.

Dyadic growth modeling has been applied to understand associations in rates-of-change between paired individuals (e.g., couples, parent/child) (8, 9). To our knowledge, it has never been applied to paired, within-individual health outcomes such as BMI and lung function. Rather, prior research has relied on non-dyadic models that test associations between a given exposure and outcome—whether changes in BMI predict changes in lung function, or vice versa (10-32). Dyadic models are better suited for describing the association between rates-of-change for BMI and lung function because they provide estimates of the between-person association of the within-person long-term trends/trajectories in the two outcomes and, also, the pooled within-person association between the concurrent short-term deviations of each outcome from its
trajectory. Because neither outcome is predicting the other, dyadic models bypass concerns regarding causal ordering (e.g., confounding by prior exposure) (33).

We applied a dyadic growth modeling approach to examine concurrent rates-of-change in BMI and lung function in a large, US general population-based sample of adults (34). Treating BMI and lung function as a person-level “dyad,” we tested the hypothesis that individuals with more rapid rates of gain in BMI would exhibit more rapid rates of lung function loss. We explored whether these associations varied over the life-course, across ranges of BMI and lung function at baseline, or according to socio-demographic and clinical factors.

METHODS

NHLBI Pooled Cohorts Study

The NHLBI Pooled Cohorts Study harmonized and pooled data from nine US epidemiologic cohorts that conducted lung function assessments over the last four decades (34). This report is limited to five cohorts that conducted three or more spirometry assessments between 1983 – 2018 (Web Table 1): Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults (CARDIA) (35); Cardiovascular Health Study (CHS) (36); Framingham Offspring Cohort (FHS-O) (37); the Health, Aging and Body Composition (Health ABC) (38); and the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA) (39).
Primary analyses included participants with $\geq 3$ valid spirometry exams with full data on BMI and covariates. The sample was restricted to participants of Non-Hispanic White or African-American race/ethnicity due to low numbers of participants in other race/ethnic groups (Web Figure 1).

All studies were approved by Institutional Review Boards at participating institutions and all participants provided written informed consent.

Lung function

Pre-bronchodilator lung function was measured using water-seal, dry-rolling-seal, or flow-sensing spirometers following American Thoracic Society (ATS) guidelines current at the time of assessment. To harmonize spirometry data, we applied a standardized quality grading system based upon 2005 ATS/European Respiratory Society guidelines, which define valid exams as two or more acceptable curves reproducible within 150 mL. Invalid exams were excluded (34, 40). This approach was previously found to reduce between-person and within-person variability, outliers, and lung-function trend irregularities.

Lung function outcomes were forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV1), forced vital capacity (FVC), and their ratio (FEV1/FVC). Standardized Z-scores, generated using the Global Lung Function Initiative (GLI) equations (41) were used in sensitivity analyses.
Airflow limitation was defined as FEV1/FVC less than the lower-limit-of-normal (LLN), defined by the NHANES III reference equations (42). Restrictive pattern was defined as FEV1/FVC ≥ LLN and FVC < LLN. Preserved spirometry was defined as absence of airflow limitation or restrictive pattern.

BMI

Height and weight were measured using standard techniques at each spirometry exam. BMI was defined as weight/height-squared (kg/m²).

BMI was categorized according to the Centers for Disease Control (CDC) definitions (43): obesity (≥30), overweight (≥25-<30), normal weight (≥18.5-<25), and underweight (<18.5).

Covariates

Sex, race/ethnicity, educational attainment, birth year, and pack-years of smoking history were self-reported at the baseline exam. Smoking status was self-reported at each spirometry exam; biochemical verification by cotinine was available for two cohorts, in which 2% to 4% were reclassified as current smokers based on cotinine discordance (44, 45). Baseline clinical CRDs were self-reported COPD, emphysema, chronic bronchitis, and/or asthma; or, inhaler use, defined by self-report or medication inventory (34).
Statistical analyses

Data were structured so that there were two observations for each person-visit: one observation representing BMI as the outcome, and the other representing lung function (FEV1, FVC, or FEV1/FVC) as the outcome. Using mixed linear models (PROC MIXED, SAS Version 9.4, Cary, NC), a random intercept and random slope for the effect of time were specified separately for each outcome to account for individual differences in within-person rates of change for each outcome. The repeated statement was used to account for unexplained within-person variance in lung function and BMI (residuals), as well as any covariance between concurrent (i.e., same exam) lung function and BMI residuals.

Separate dyadic models were specified for the relationships between rate-of-change in BMI with rates-of-change in each of the three lung function measures (Figure 1). First, we examined predicted BMI and lung function levels over the life course, together with estimates of the predicted rate-of-change (slope) at specific ages. Second, we examined the degree of association between individuals’ average rate-of-change in BMI and their average rates-of-change in lung function, specifically the correlations ($r$) and their standard errors ($se$). To visualize the bivariate distribution of these two rates-of-change, estimates of each participants’ random effect for rates-of-change in BMI and lung function were plotted, along with 95% confidence ellipses. Third, “residual correlations” were examined; this indicates additional, short-term association between individuals’ BMI and lung function, independent of their shared temporal patterns (46).
All models treated biological age-at-measurement as the time scale and were adjusted for the following covariates, entered as predictors of both intercept and slope: time-varying age-squared, height, height-squared, and smoking status; and time-invariant (baseline) gender, educational attainment, birth-year, race/ethnicity, study, and pack-years. Height and height-squared were included as covariates since they are major determinants of predicted lung function (42). Sensitivity analyses were performed using weight (kg) and waist circumference as outcomes, rather than BMI, among participants without baseline clinical CRDs, and including all participants with two or more valid spirometry measures.

Stratified analyses were performed to identify differences by baseline BMI and lung function categories, as well as by baseline age group, birth cohort, study cohort, sex, race/ethnicity, and smoking status. Meta-analysis was performed to test for the presence of heterogeneity in slope correlations within each set of stratified analyses using the $Q$ statistic.

For comparison, associations between BMI and lung function were tested using six non-dyadic models (Figure 1): baseline BMI and rate-of-change in BMI (i.e., last BMI minus baseline BMI, divided by last age minus baseline age) as predictors of (1) FEV1, (2) FVC, and (3) FEV1/FVC, and baseline and rates-of-change in (4) FEV1, (5) FVC, and (6) FEV1/FVC as predictors of BMI. In these models, the parameter of interest was the impact of change in the predictor on change in the outcome (e.g., the association of change in BMI with the FEV1 slope—the change-by-age interaction). Estimating both the effect of BMI on lung function and vice versa violates the assumption that the residuals are independent of the predictors; hence, this is done only for illustrative purposes.
RESULTS

There were 9,115 participants (Table 1) with a median of 4 (interquartile range [IQR] 3—5) observations over a median follow-up of 19 years (IQR 10—28, Web Table 2). Fifty-seven percent were women, 73% were non-Hispanic White, and 27% were African-American. At the baseline exam, 49% were never-smokers, 31% were former smokers, and 19% were current smokers; among ever-smokers, the median pack-years was 9 (IQR 2—25). At baseline, 4% and 6% reported prior physician diagnosis of COPD and asthma, respectively.

Median BMI was 25 at the baseline exam; 18% were obese, 34% were overweight, 46% were normal weight, and 2% were underweight (Table 1). Among participants at normal weight at the baseline exam, 34% and 15% transitioned to overweight and obesity, respectively, by the time of their last spirometry visit (Web Table 3).

At baseline, mean percent predicted FEV1 was 96, mean percent predicted FVC was 99, mean FEV1/FVC was 0.78 and the prevalences of airflow limitation and restrictive spirometry were 11% and 5%, respectively. (Table 1). As of the last spirometry visit, the proportions with incident airflow limitation and restrictive spirometry were 7% and 6%, respectively (Web Table 4).

Changes in BMI and lung function over follow-up
On average, BMI increased over time, although the rate of increase decelerated with age (Figure 2A). The predicted BMI slope was 0.33 /year at age 35, but only 0.03 /year at age 65. By contrast, lung function decreased over time at an accelerating rate (Figure 2B, 2C, 2D). At 35 years old, the predicted FEV1 and FVC slopes were -18.98 mL/year and -10.38 mL/year, respectively; at 65 years old, the predicted FEV1 and FVC slopes were -36.77 mL/year and -42.05 mL/year, respectively. Consistent with a relatively greater acceleration in FVC versus FEV1 decline with increasing age, the rate of FEV1/FVC decline decelerated at later ages: -0.29 percent/year at age 35, and -0.15 percent/year at age 65.

Correlations between rates-of-change in BMI and lung function

Those with a steeper rate of increase in BMI over time tended to have a steeper rate of decline in FEV1 (r=-0.16, se=0.02, P<0.001; Figure 3A). The correlation of within-person slopes was even more negative with respect to the FVC (r=-0.26, se=0.02, P<0.001; Figure 3B). Consistent with these relationships, a steeper BMI gain was associated with a more gradual FEV1/FVC decline (i.e., less negative slope), as indicated by a positive correlation of within-person slopes (r=0.11, se=0.02, P<0.001; Figure 3C). Results when BMI was replaced by weight (FEV1: r=-0.17, P<0.001; FVC: r=-0.27, P<0.001; FEV1/FVC: r=0.11, P<0.001; Web Figure 2) or waist circumference (FEV1: r=-0.25, P<0.001; FVC: r=-0.35, P<0.001; FEV1/FVC: r=0.17, P<0.001) were similar.
Residual correlations

Correlations between residuals for BMI and those for lung function outcomes were consistently negative (FEV1: \( r = -0.25, \) \( se = 0.01, \) \( P < 0.001 \); FVC: \( r = -0.23, \) \( se = 0.01, \) \( P < 0.001 \); FEV1/FVC: \( r = -0.02, \) \( se = 0.01, \) \( P < 0.001 \); Web Figure 3). This indicates that, on those exams when a participant’s BMI was higher (lower) than predicted from her/his covariate-adjusted BMI trajectory, s/he tended to have a lower (higher) lung function than predicted.

Stratified analyses

There was no evidence of heterogeneity in the correlation between individuals’ rates-of-change in BMI and lung function in analyses stratified by baseline BMI or lung disease (Figure 4). However, there were differences by baseline lung function (\( Q = 10.46, \) \( P = .005 \)). Participants with initial airflow limitation exhibited a near-zero correlation between BMI and FEV1 rates-of-change, even as the inverse correlation with FVC rate-of-change remained, resulting in the BMI rate-of-change exhibiting an even greater correlation with FEV1/FVC rate-of-change (not shown).

Correlations between rates-of-change for BMI and lung function also differed by smoking status (FEV1: \( Q = 14.49, \) \( P < .001 \); FVC: \( Q = 9.76, \) \( P = .008 \)), with the strongest correlations observed among never smokers and the weakest correlations among former smokers (Figure 4).
Correlations of BMI and FVC rates-of-change were stronger in males versus females ($Q=4.12$, $P=.042$). Correlations of rate-of-change for BMI with those for FEV1 and FVC were stronger in Black versus White participants (FEV1: $Q=14.70$, $P<.001$; FVC $Q=11.17$, $P<.001$), more recent generations (FEV1: $Q=26.88$, $P<.001$; FVC: $Q=12.79$, $P<.001$), and more contemporary study cohorts (FEV1: $Q=24.71$, $P<.001$; FVC: $Q=17.74$, $P<.001$) (Web Figure 4).

Re-analysis including participants with two or more valid spirometry measures ($N=13,332$) somewhat attenuated correlations between rates-of-change in BMI and lung function (FEV1: $r=-0.12$; FVC: $r=-0.19$; FEV1/FVC: $r=0.08$; all $P<0.0001$).

Comparisons with non-dyadic models

Non-dyadic models supported similar conclusions to our dyadic models (Web Table 5), although some results were relatively difficult to interpret or misleading. For example, the estimated effect of change in BMI on FVC intercept was positive, suggesting that those with more rapid increase in BMI had a higher FVC; however, the estimated effect of change in BMI on FVC slope was negative, suggesting that more rapid BMI increase was associated with more rapid rate of decline in FVC. Contradictory intercept and slope estimates also emerged in the non-dyadic models predicting FEV1 and FEV1/FVC from change in BMI.
DISCUSSION

More rapid rates of increase in BMI were associated with greater rates of decline in FEV1 and especially FVC in a large, US general population-based sample of adults. These correlations were present across the range of baseline BMI values, consistent with underlying physiologic interdependence between weight gain and lung function loss.

This is the first study to apply dyadic growth modeling to characterize relationships between weight gain and lung function loss, and to compare these to single-outcome growth models. In our data, non-dyadic results were inconsistent, complicating their interpretation. Non-dyadic models also did not quantify the strength of the association between rates-of-change in BMI and lung function (i.e., the correlation between the slopes representing their respective rates-of-change), and were unable to differentiate these long-term associations from correlated residuals. Importantly, if causal relationships are bidirectional, non-dyadic models suffer from time-varying confounding by prior exposure (33) and lack of independence of residuals. By contrast, our dyadic growth models identified correlations between rates-of-change in continuous measures of BMI and lung function that bypassed issues regarding causal ordering, were internally consistent and consistent with our hypotheses (based on physiologic and epidemiologic literature), and were straightforward to interpret. Rather than using change scores as a predictor, which is commonly done but inherently introduces error, treating within-person trajectories as latent variables accounts for differential uncertainty in rates-of-change across participants and increases the precision of estimated correlations between individuals’ rates-of-change in BMI and lung function (46). Furthermore, our analysis estimated correlations between BMI and lung function residuals, suggesting interdependence between concurrently assessed
measures of BMI and lung function that is not accounted for by correlated rates-of-change or other time-varying covariates.

Our results confirm and extend previously reported associations between increasing weight and decreasing lung function, particularly FVC (24, 26, 28, 47, 48). Our findings are also consistent with cross-sectional data linking metabolic syndrome to increased prevalence of restrictive lung disease, the hallmark of which is low FVC (49), as well as longitudinal studies showing stronger associations of weight gain with FVC loss than with FEV1 loss (21-31).

Whereas some have argued that the adverse effects of increased BMI on lung function are limited to those who are already overweight or obese (25, 29), our findings clearly show that the correlation between rate of BMI gain and lung function loss is consistent across categories of baseline body BMI. This suggests that alterations in lung mechanics previously associated with massive obesity (50) impact individual lung function trajectories in the context of weight gain across the continuum of weight status. Physiological mechanisms for the observed associations between rate of weight gain and rate of FVC decline may include decreased lung compliance via micro-atelectasis and/or decreased chest-wall compliance and reduced diaphragmatic excursion due to abdominal fat (4, 51-55). With respect to FEV1 decline, increased airway resistance may be one of the adverse physiologic impacts of the shallower breathing favored by decreased lung compliance (11, 56, 57). Furthermore, weight gain is bi-directionally linked with pro-inflammatory markers (58, 59), which are implicated in airway remodeling and FEV1 decline (60, 61).
Our finding of preserved FEV1 despite weight gain in persons with initial airflow limitation provides some support for the “obesity paradox” wherein overweight and obesity have been linked with favorable outcomes in COPD, while underweight has been more strongly linked with emphysema (16-20). Physiologically, the “strapping effect” may help to explain our results. Chest wall strapping in experimental paradigms promotes breathing at smaller lung volumes. In those with airflow obstruction in particular, strapping may raise FEV1 due to increased elastance or increased dilation of small airways (62). Our finding of no association between BMI and FEV1 rates-of-change in participants with airflow limitation may reflect a lesser decline in FEV1 due to “strapping” by obesity (62-64). That said, our results were non-paradoxical among persons with and without self-reported CRDs. It is also important to consider whether the “paradox” may be explained by smoking. Smoking cessation reduces the rate of lung function decline and promotes weight gain (65). Consistent with this, correlations of rates of BMI gain with decline in FEV1 and FVC were most negative in never smokers, and most attenuated in former smokers.

Strengths of this work include the application of a novel, robust analytic method to analyze the association between rates-of-change in BMI and lung function. We used rigorously quality-controlled, harmonized data from five large, US general population-based cohort studies with excellent long-term follow-up.

There were nonetheless a number of limitations. This was a descriptive analysis, so direct clinical applicability is limited. However, results are consistent with prior work showing that an intensive weight loss program was associated with improved lung function in obese women (13,
66) and that weight loss improves asthma control in obese individuals with severe asthma (67). There is also limited evidence to suggest that inhaler use, which improves lung function, may promote weight loss, although the hypothesized mechanisms for this response relate to metabolic pathways (68).

Restricting the sample to participants with at least three observations improved estimation of parameters pertaining to individuals’ rates-of-change at the expense of potential selection bias. At baseline, participants excluded from the primary analyses were older and had higher BMI and lower lung function. Including participants with two or more measures attenuated the associations, but associations persisted.

We did not have measures of abdominal adiposity, which were more strongly associated with lung function than BMI or weight in some prior work (69). Similarly, other lung volumes, such as total lung capacity and expiratory reserve volume, have been more strongly associated with obesity in some prior studies (12), but were not available in this study. Other covariates, such as physical activity, diet, or other environmental exposures, were unavailable in this study and should be included in future research.

In conclusion, this is the first study to apply dyadic growth modeling to estimate correlations between within-person rates-of-change in BMI and lung function, showing that individuals with more rapid rates of increase in BMI exhibited more rapid rates of decrease in FEV1 and particularly FVC. Residual correlations between BMI and lung function suggested negative associations between BMI and lung function not accounted for by the model. Thus, in addition to
showing that increased rates of weight gain are associated with increased rates of lung function decline in the general population, this study demonstrates that dyadic growth models are a promising approach to examine associations between interdependent health outcomes.
REFERENCES


### Table 1. Baseline characteristics of participants in the NHLBI pooled cohorts study (1983 – 2018)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Total (N=9,115)</th>
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<td>Age (years)(^a)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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<td>Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Height (meters)(^b,c)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>4499</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former</td>
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<td>31.4%</td>
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### Current

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pack Years (current/former smokers only)</th>
<th>1750</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lung Function</td>
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<tr>
<td>FEV1 (L)</td>
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<tr>
<td>FVC (L)</td>
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<td>Airflow Limitation</td>
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<td>Restrictive Pattern</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserved Spirometry</td>
<td>7654</td>
<td>84.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Predicted FEV1</td>
<td>95.75 (14.7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Predicted FVC</td>
<td>98.51 (13.21)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>25.96 (5.00)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underweight</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Weight</td>
<td>4194</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overweight</td>
<td>3111</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obese</td>
<td>1604</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Study**

| CARDIA | 4083 | 44.8% |
| CHS | 1280 | 14.0% |
| FHS-O | 2237 | 24.5% |
| Health ABC | 948 | 10.4% |
| MESA | 567 | 6.2% |
BMI = Body Mass Index; FEV1 = Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 Second; FVC = Forced Vital Capacity; CARDIA = Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults; CHS = Cardiovascular Health Study; FHS-O = Framingham Offspring Cohort; Health ABC = Health, Aging and Body Composition; MESA = Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis

\( a \) Mean (standard deviation)
\( b \) Median (interquartile range)
\( c \) For time-varying covariates, the baseline observation was reported
\( d \) Defined as FEV1/FVC less than the lower-limit-of-normal (LLN), as defined by NHANES III reference equations (42)
\( e \) Defined as FEV1/FVC \( \geq \) LLN and FVC<LLN
\( f \) Defined as the absence of airflow limitation or a restrictive pattern
\( g \) Weight (kg)/height (m)\(^2\)
**Figure 1.** Diagram depicting conceptual distinctions between dyadic growth models (panel A) and non-dyadic growth models (panels B and C). Rectangles represent observed variables and circles represent latent variables. Curved lines represent covariances and straight lines represent regression parameters. Fixed parameters are denoted by *. The arrow representing the parameter of interest is bolded in each; in dyadic models, the focus is on the covariation between simultaneous rates-of-change in Body Mass Index (kg/m$^2$; BMI) and lung function. In non-dyadic models, the focus is on the estimated (presumed causal) effect of change in BMI on lung function, or the estimated effect of change in lung function on BMI.

**Figure 2.** Predicted Levels of Body Mass Index (BMI; kg/m$^2$) (panel A; Age 35, $B = 0.33$; Age 65, $B = 0.03$), FEV1 (panel B; Age 35, $B = -18.98$; Age 65, $B = -36.77$), FVC (panel C; Age 35, $B = -10.38$; Age 65, $B = -42.05$), and FEV1/FVC (panel D; Age 35, $B = -0.29$; Age 65, $B = -0.16$) between Ages 25—75. Dotted and dashed lines show slopes portraying predicted annual rate-of-change for those at ages 35 and 65, respectively. Results for BMI use parameter estimates from the dyadic model with FEV1.

BMI = Body Mass Index; FEV1 = Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 Second; FVC = Forced Vital Capacity

**Figure 3.** Scatterplots of Individuals’ Estimated Slope Coefficients for Body Mass Index (BMI; kg/m$^2$) with FEV1 ($r = -0.16$; panel A), FVC ($r = -0.26$; panel B), and FEV1/FVC ($r = 0.11$; panel C). Coefficients for FEV1 and FVC are in deciliters per year.

BMI = Body Mass Index; FEV1 = Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 Second; FVC = Forced Vital Capacity
Figure 4. Forest Plot of Correlated Rates-of-Change and 95% Confidence Intervals Between Individual Slope Coefficients for Body Mass Index (BMI; kg/m$^2$) with FEV1 (panel A) and FVC (panel B). Heterogeneity with $P<.05$ is noted by *.

BMI = Body Mass Index; FEV1 = Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 Second; FVC = Forced Vital Capacity; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease