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1 **Vitamin C intake from diary recordings and risk of breast cancer in the UK**

2 **Dietary Cohort Consortium**

3 **Running title: Diary vitamin C intake and breast cancer risk**

4

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39 Abstract

40 *Background/objectives:* Vitamin C intake has been inversely associated with breast  
41 cancer risk in case-control studies, but not in meta-analyses of cohort studies using  
42 Food Frequency Questionnaires, which can over-report fruit and vegetable intake, the  
43 main source of vitamin C. This is the first study to investigate associations between  
44 vitamin C intake and breast cancer risk using food diaries.

45 *Subjects/Methods:* Estimated dietary vitamin C intake was derived from four to seven  
46 day food diaries pooled from five prospective studies in the UK Dietary Cohort  
47 Consortium. This nested case-control study of 707 incident breast cancer cases and  
48 2144 matched controls examined breast cancer risk in relation to dietary vitamin C  
49 intake using conditional logistic regression adjusting for relevant covariates.  
50 Additionally, total vitamin C intake from supplements and diet was analysed in three  
51 cohorts.

52 *Results:* No evidence of associations were observed between breast cancer risk and  
53 vitamin C intake analysed for dietary vitamin C intake (OR = 0.98 per 60mg/d, 95%CI:  
54 0.88 to 1.09,  $P_{\text{trend}} = 0.7$ ), dietary vitamin C density (OR = 0.97 per 60mg/d, 95% CI:  
55 0.87 to 1.07) or total vitamin C intake (OR = 1.01 per 60mg/d, 95%CI: 0.99 to 1.03,  
56  $P_{\text{trend}} = 0.3$ ). Additionally, there was no significant association for post-menopausal  
57 women (OR = 1.02 per 60mg/d, 95%CI: 0.99 to 1.05,  $P_{\text{trend}} = 0.3$ ).

58 *Conclusions:* This pooled analysis of individual UK women found no evidence of  
59 significant associations between breast cancer incidence and dietary or total vitamin C  
60 intake derived uniquely from detailed diary recordings.

61 Key Words: Breast cancer, Vitamin C, cohort studies, food diaries.

## 62 **Introduction**

63 In the UK a woman's cumulative risk of being diagnosed with breast cancer is 6% by  
64 the age of 65, and 11% over a lifetime (Office for National Statistics 2000). It has been  
65 hypothesised that antioxidant properties of vitamin C can reduce cancer risk by  
66 decreasing reactive oxygen species (ROS) that may cause DNA damage (Willcox et al  
67 2004). ROS, nevertheless, are involved in apoptosis, the beneficial death of tumour  
68 cells (Valko et al 2006).

69 Initial findings from retrospective case-control studies showed that fruit and vegetable  
70 intake, the main source of vitamin C, and also vitamin C intake were inversely  
71 associated with breast cancer risk (Gandini et al 2000, WCRF/AICR 1997,  
72 WCRF/AICR 2007). However, no conclusive evidence of a protective effect from fruit  
73 and vegetables has been produced prospectively from cohort studies (Key 2010,  
74 Michels et al 2007, Smith-Warner et al 2001, van Gils et al 2005, WCRF/AICR 2007).  
75 Similarly, the meta-analyses of prospective cohorts using Food Frequency  
76 Questionnaires (FFQs) in the 2007 World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF) report  
77 showed no significant associations with dietary or supplement vitamin C intake, nor in  
78 subgroup analyses by menopausal status (WCRF/AICR 2007). Only four prospective  
79 studies in this report included vitamin C from supplements as well as diet (Cho et al  
80 2003, Kushi et al 1996, Nissen et al 2003, Zhang et al 1999), one of which showed an  
81 increased risk with increased total vitamin C intake (Nissen et al 2003). Only two  
82 studies since the WCRF report was published have assessed total vitamin C intake  
83 and breast cancer risk,(Cui et al 2008, Roswall et al 2010), one of which found a weak  
84 positive association (Cui et al 2008).

85 FFQs tend to encourage the over-reporting of fruit and vegetable consumption  
86 (Bingham et al 1997, Cade et al 2002, Calvert et al 1997), leading to the over-  
87 estimation of vitamin C intake (Bingham et al 1997). Alternatively, diaries may more

88 accurately record numbers of fruit and vegetable portions consumed individually or in  
89 mixed dishes, (Bingham et al 1997) over a period of days, though they are limited by  
90 their short-term nature.  
91 Our pooled analysis of the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium is the first study to  
92 investigate the relationship between breast cancer risk and vitamin C intake using food  
93 diaries; an alternative tool to FFQs used in previous analyses. Additionally, the current  
94 analysis is one of a small number of prospective studies assessing the relationship of  
95 breast cancer risk with total vitamin C intake, which includes intake from supplements  
96 as well as from diet.

97

## 98 **Methods**

### 99 ***Subjects***

100 Individual participant data were pooled from five established cohort studies within the  
101 UK Dietary Cohort Consortium: EPIC-Norfolk (Bingham et al 2001) the UK Women's  
102 Cohort Study (UKWCS) (Cade et al 2004), EPIC-Oxford (Davey et al 2003), Whitehall  
103 II (Marmot and Brunner 2005), and the MRC National Survey of Health and  
104 Development (NSHD) (Wadsworth et al 2006). Methods used were similar to those  
105 previously described for colorectal case-control analyses nested within this UK  
106 consortium(Dahm et al 2010).

### 107 ***Case ascertainment and matching***

108 Incident cases of breast cancer were identified from data provided by UK cancer  
109 registries based on the International Classification of Diseases (ICD) version 9 (174) or  
110 10 (C50). Diagnoses within six months of food diary completion were excluded to  
111 ensure that latent disease without formal diagnosis was not present; otherwise disease  
112 suspected by participants could have influenced their dietary habits. Across the cohorts  
113 707 incident cases and 2144 controls were used in the dietary vitamin C analysis. Only

114 three cohorts (EPIC-Oxford, EPIC-Cambridge and UKWCS) were used in the total  
115 vitamin C analysis which involved 601 incident cases and 1725 controls (85% of the  
116 consortium participants); the remaining two cohorts did not have adequate supplement  
117 use data to determine the vitamin C content of supplements consumed at diary date.  
118 Within each cohort, each case was matched to randomly selected controls based on  
119 age at recruitment ( $\pm 3$  years) and date of diary completion ( $\pm 3$  months or as close as  
120 possible). The number of controls matched to cases was four for EPIC-Norfolk,  
121 Whitehall and NSHD, and up to five for UKWCS. In EPIC-Oxford one control was  
122 matched to each case, to within six months of case diary completion. Controls had no  
123 registry-reported cancer diagnosis at recruitment (except non-melanoma skin cancer)  
124 and were free from breast cancer at the end of the follow-up period. The mean length  
125 of follow-up for cases in the cohorts ranged from 2.4 years to 10.8 years as detailed in  
126 Table 1; these were not adjusted for in the analyses.

127 Insert Table 1

### 128 ***Dietary methods***

129 All cohorts collected dietary information using semi-weighed food diaries or  
130 photographs to aid the estimation of portion size. The number of days intake recorded  
131 for each cohort is shown in table 1.

132 Food diary details were input by trained food diary analysts; the majority were entered  
133 into Data into Nutrients for Epidemiological Research (DINER), and checked and  
134 calculated using DINERMO to derive nutrient data (Welch et al 2001). Diaries from  
135 UKWCS were entered using an in-house Microsoft Access-based dietary analysis  
136 program (DANTE), which had previously been validated against DINER on a  
137 subsample of 100 randomly selected diaries, with acceptable agreement (Dahm et al  
138 2010). Diaries from the NSHD were entered into DIDO (Price et al 1995); which, after

139 validation proved to use portion sizes and recipes that were more concurrent with the  
140 time of NSHD diary completion. All estimated dietary vitamin C intake was based on  
141 standard tables of food composition and daily averages were calculated (Holland et al  
142 1991).

143 In separate sections of the diaries, participants were asked to record supplement  
144 brand, name and amount per day for any supplement taken. In three cohorts  
145 databases were created to match this information against manufacturers' information:  
146 EPIC-Norfolk (Lentjes et al 2011) and EPIC-Oxford and UKWCS (Hutchison *et al*  
147 *2011*). The two databases included supplement descriptions and ingredient  
148 composition from product labels directly obtained from manufacturers or the  
149 participants' descriptions and/or labels. Where participants were unclear in their  
150 description, a weighted average of vitamin C from similar supplements was calculated  
151 from the database and applied (Lentjes et al 2011). For instance, separate generic  
152 averages were calculated for multivitamins, antioxidant ACE supplements and high  
153 dose vitamin C supplements. For each participant the average daily vitamin C amount  
154 consumed from all supplement types was calculated.

### 155 ***Statistical methods***

156 Separate quintile cut points were determined for dietary intake (mg per day), dietary  
157 vitamin C intake density (mg per megajoule per day) and total vitamin C intake  
158 including supplements (mg per day). Dietary vitamin C intake density was analysed as  
159 a separate method of controlling for potential confounding by total energy intake.  
160 Conditional logistic regression was used to model the associations between fifths of  
161 vitamin C intake and breast cancer incidence. To test for linear trends we used  
162 continuous intake variables per increment of approximately one standard deviation of  
163 mean intake (being 60mg/day for dietary intake and 8mg/MJ/day for intake density). No



164 supplement intakes were implausible. However, in sensitivity analyses women with  
165 extreme intakes, defined as more than 1.5 times the inter-quartile range above the 75<sup>th</sup>  
166 percentile, were excluded in tests for linear trends. These upper thresholds were 224.1  
167 mg/d for dietary intake, 30.6 mg/MJ/day for intake density and 262.4 mg/d for total  
168 vitamin C intake, which excluded 77, 91 and 206 women respectively.

169 Due to the process of matching cases and controls the conditional logistic regression  
170 model automatically adjusted for date of diary completion, age (in years) and cohort.  
171 The multivariate model adjusted for exact age, parity (0, 1, 2, 3, 4+, missing), hormone  
172 replacement therapy use (current, non-current, missing), alcohol intake, total energy  
173 intake, weight (<60kg, 60-, 66-, >72kg, missing), height (<158cm, 158-, 163-, >168cm,  
174 missing), physical activity (low, low-medium, medium-high, high, missing), and  
175 menopausal status (pre, peri or post-menopausal, missing). The level of missing data  
176 ranged from 0% for alcohol and total energy intake, to 0.4% for parity to 3.6% for  
177 physical activity. Alcohol and total energy intake were ascertained from the diaries. All  
178 other covariates were collected by standard questionnaires, either self-administered or  
179 by trained researchers at or close to time of diary completion. Sensitivity analysis was  
180 performed to adjust for variables which have weaker associations with breast cancer  
181 risk; smoking status and level of education, and also to adjust for important risk  
182 variables which had moderate levels of missing data; age at menarche (16%) and  
183 cumulative duration of breastfeeding (weeks) (18%); which restricted the sensitivity  
184 analysis to 2150 participants. To investigate robustness of results to missing data,  
185 analyses were repeated using multiple imputation by chained equations (Royston  
186 2009), with imputations based on exposure, covariates and outcome. Additional  
187 sensitivity analyses also controlled for dietary vitamin E and iron which affect vitamin C  
188 bioavailability. Finally, we formally tested our assumption of no heterogeneity across  
189 the different cohorts by including an exposure by centre interaction term in the models.

190 Analyses were carried out using Stata version 10 and results were based on a  
191 significance level of  $p < 0.05$ .

## 192 **Results**

### 193 ***Dietary vitamin C intake***

194 On average the total women (2851) in the five cohorts were 56 years old and  
195 consumed 346g/d fruit and vegetables; 65% were post-menopausal, 58% had never  
196 smoked, 17% were educated to degree, HNC or HND level, and only 18% took HRT at  
197 the date of diary completion.

198 As observed in table 2 total cases (707) had similar characteristics to the 2144 controls  
199 and their mean (sd) dietary vitamin C intakes were 98mg/d (56) and 95mg/d (52)  
200 respectively. Women with a higher dietary vitamin C intake tended to have a higher  
201 energy intake, consume more alcohol, dietary vitamin E and iron as well as more fruit  
202 and vegetables. Additionally they had fewer children, were more active, had attained  
203 higher levels of education, or were more likely to be of higher socio-economic status or  
204 to have never smoked (table 2)

205 Insert Table 2

206 The odds ratios for breast cancer according to dietary intake of vitamin C in the five  
207 cohorts are shown in table 3 for the unadjusted and multivariable model. There was no  
208 evidence of any significant association between dietary vitamin C intake and incidence  
209 of breast cancer for total women in the five cohorts. In the adjusted analysis for total  
210 women the odds ratio of breast cancer per 60mg/day increments was 0.98 (95%CI:  
211 0.88 to 1.09,  $P_{\text{trend}} = 0.7$ ) Similarly, there was no evidence of any linear trends or  
212 significant associations between dietary vitamin C intake groups and incidence of  
213 breast cancer in the sub-analysis by post-menopausal status (OR=0.98 per 60mg/day,

214 95%CI: 0.85 to 1.13,  $P_{\text{trend}} = 0.8$ ). The results remained non-significant in sensitivity  
215 analyses after further adjustment for smoking status, age at menarche, cumulative  
216 duration of breastfeeding (weeks), and level of education. Odds ratios did not alter  
217 substantially. There was no evidence of any linear trends or significant association  
218 between the incidence of breast cancer and dietary vitamin C expressed as intake  
219 density (Table 4). In the sensitivity analyses, which excluded women with extreme  
220 dietary vitamin C intakes, the odds ratios for linear trends relating to absolute dietary  
221 intake and intake density were reduced to between 0.91 and 0.95 but none were  
222 statistically significant.

223 Insert table 3 and 4

224 In tests for heterogeneity there was evidence of differences between the five study  
225 centres when a study centre by dietary vitamin C intake group interaction term was  
226 included ( $p=0.10$  total women;  $p=0.05$  post-menopausal).

227 The mean (sd) dietary intake by cohort are shown in Table 1 The lower intake for the  
228 younger, nationally representative NSHD women (mean age 43 vs 50s in other  
229 cohorts) reflected previous findings from households with similar aged adults (Defra  
230 2004).

### 231 ***Total vitamin C intake***

232 In the analyses of total vitamin C cases had a somewhat higher total vitamin C intake  
233 than controls: 174mg/d (sd 374) vs 143mg/d (sd 213). The average vitamin C intake  
234 from supplements for cases was 1.5 times higher than controls: 73mg/d (sd 364) vs  
235 48mg/d (sd 201). Total intakes by cohort are shown in table 1. The mean vitamin C  
236 supplement intake per day for EPIC-Norfolk was significantly less than for UKWCS and  
237 EPIC-Oxford Based on diary completion date, mean total intake in autumn and winter

238 compared to spring and summer was not significantly different (151.7. (sd 312) vs  
239 151.4 (sd 218) mg/d); comprising respectively of 46.4.1% and 53.6% of these women.  
240 The relationships between total vitamin C intake split by fifths and lifestyle  
241 characteristics were similar to those for dietary only intake shown in table 2. The  
242 highest intake group had the highest vitamin C intake from both diet and supplements  
243 (mean (sd) 159 (69) mg/d) and 256 (519) mg/d respectively); in this group 62% took  
244 supplements containing vitamin C and 84% of these women took them every day.

245 In pooling the three cohorts which recorded vitamin C intake from supplements there  
246 was also no evidence of any significant associations between total vitamin C intake and  
247 incidence of breast cancer for the continuous estimate for all women (OR = 1.01 per  
248 60mg/d, 95%CI: 0.99 to 1.03,  $P_{\text{trend}} = 0.3$ ), or for post-menopausal women (OR = 1.02  
249 per 60mg/d, 95%CI: 0.99 to 1.05,  $P_{\text{trend}} = 0.3$ ) or by fifths of total vitamin C intake (table  
250 5). There was no evidence of significant differences between the three study centres  
251 when formally tested using a study centre by fifths of total vitamin C intake interaction  
252 term, for total and for post-menopausal women ( $p=0.7$  and  $p=0.7$  respectively).

253 For both dietary and total intake no substantial differences in the estimates were found  
254 in sensitivity analyses controlling for dietary vitamin E and iron.

255 Finally, a total of 73 matched case-control sets in the main analyses had some missing  
256 covariate information, mostly in HRT exposure, however the strength of associations  
257 were almost identical whether these matched sets were included by using a category  
258 for missing, or included with additional information using multiple imputation.

259 Insert table 5

260

261

## 262 Discussion

263 This pooled analysis of individual participant data from five UK cohorts found no  
264 evidence of an association between incidence of breast cancer and dietary vitamin C  
265 intake recorded by food diaries. Neither was there any evidence of an association with  
266 total vitamin C intake when vitamin C from supplements was included. Our non-  
267 significant results for post-menopausal women relating to dietary vitamin C intake  
268 support results of the 2007 WCRF meta-analyses of three cohort studies (HR=1.15 per  
269 100mg/d, 95% CI: 0.92-1.43) (Graham et al 1992, Nissen et al 2003, Verhoeven et al  
270 1997, WCRF/AICR 2007), also the high versus low intake results of two US studies  
271 (Kushi et al 1996, Zhang et al 1999), and the recent European Prospective  
272 Investigation into Cancer (EPIC) involving the pooling of data from 10 European  
273 countries (highest vs. lowest quintile HR = 0.98, 95% CI: 0.87–1.11) (Nagel et al 2010);  
274 all of which used FFQs. Our results for dietary vitamin C are in conflict with significant  
275 evidence of a 12-14% reduced risk found in the meta-analysis of retrospective case-  
276 control studies (WCRF/AICR 2007) which, unlike our study, are prone to recall bias.

277 In contrast to our results and other studies (Cho et al 2003, Kushi et al 1996, Roswall  
278 et al 2010, Zhang et al 1999), the large Women's Health Initiative study (Cui et al 2008)  
279 found significant but weak evidence of increased breast cancer risk for total intake. The  
280 advanced age of the participants in this cohort (average 64 years) might suggest that  
281 high vitamin C intake may promote the progression of cancer in older people or at later  
282 stages of the disease. Similarly positive associations with post-menopausal breast  
283 cancer for both dietary and total vitamin C intake (OR= 2.06 per 100mg/d, 95% CI:  
284 1.45-2.91; and OR=1.08 per 100mg/d, 95% CI: 1.02-0.1.15 respectively) were found in  
285 a small Danish nested case-control study (Nissen et al 2003), but not in the recent full  
286 analysis of this Danish cohort (Roswall et al 2010); selection bias of controls or  
287 exclusion of non-supplement users may have possibly influenced the earlier results.

288

289 Pooling individual participant data in this consortium had three advantages. Firstly, it  
290 ensured that vitamin C intake over the whole consortium could be categorised into  
291 fifths; secondly the variations in intake across the cohorts increase the power to detect  
292 smaller effect sizes (Schatzkin et al 2001), i.e. many women in EPIC-Oxford and  
293 UKWCS were vegetarians and/ or consumed supplements containing vitamin C  
294 compared to the other cohorts; thirdly, analysis and adjustment by covariates could be  
295 done in a uniform way.

296 Our study had a few caveats. Whilst the use of missing covariate categories may have  
297 grouped dissimilar individuals and introduced some bias, its affect on the adjusted  
298 results may be considered acceptable since the level of missing data was small,  
299 confounding was judged to be weak and multiple imputation results were almost  
300 identical. To account for the possible modulation of vitamin C on cancer development  
301 due to its the role in the regeneration of vitamin E, in the absorption of iron and in the  
302 Fenton reaction, (Valko et al 2006) sensitivity analysis adjustments were made for  
303 these dietary nutrients. Supplement intake data for these nutrients, however, was not  
304 available. The Danish studies, one of which found a positive association, controlled for  
305 both dietary and supplement intake of vitamin A and E (Nissen et al 2003, Roswall et al  
306 2010). In the current study data were unavailable to adjust for family history of breast  
307 cancer which has been associated with high-dose vitamin C supplement use in the UK  
308 (Hutchinson et al 2011). Data were unavailable from all cohorts to exclude general  
309 supplement users from the dietary analysis; the different health behaviours of users  
310 may have influenced the results (Kirk et al 1999). There was inadequate power to sub-  
311 analyse by HRT users, oestrogen receptor-negative or pre-menopausal breast  
312 cancers.

313 This is the first time the relationship between breast cancer risk and vitamin C intake  
314 has been analysed using prospective data from food diaries. Diaries can capture  
315 detailed and accurate intake over a narrow period of days due to their open format,  
316 whereas FFQs aim to reflect intake over a much longer period, normally an estimated  
317 average of the previous 12 months. Repeated diary data collections may reduce their  
318 short-term limitations but were not undertaken for the whole consortium due to expense  
319 and time taken to administer, complete and analyse. The required commitment and  
320 awareness of intake may have also influence participants' consumption during diary  
321 recording. When compared to FFQs, food diaries have shown stronger correlations  
322 with plasma vitamin C biomarkers in validity tests when collected in close temporal  
323 proximity. However this may reflect the short-term nature of both plasma vitamin C and  
324 diary data, particularly since correlations with biomarker levels re-measured several  
325 years later were similar for diaries and FFQs (Bingham et al 2008, Bingham et al 1997,  
326 Willett 2008) Furthermore, other UK validation studies have shown similar associations  
327 between biomarkers and vitamin C estimated from FFQs and diaries (Brunner et al  
328 2001, Michels et al 2005). Overall correlations between biomarkers and FFQs or  
329 diaries are generally weak to moderate (Cade et al 2002, Henríquez-Sánchez et al  
330 2009). Since the absorption and storage of vitamin C is limited, particularly above  
331 400mg/d (Levine et al 2001), biomarkers are unlikely to reflect dietary vitamin C intake  
332 well. Therefore it is difficult to objectively assess whether diaries or FFQs can rank  
333 individual intake sufficiently well in order to find associations between vitamin C and  
334 cancer risk. Given the limitations, vitamin C results from both FFQs and diaries need to  
335 be treated with some caution.

336 To conclude, the evidence to date from this and other prospective studies does not  
337 indicate either a beneficial or a detrimental effect of vitamin C intake on breast cancer  
338 risk, whether this intake is from diet only or also from supplements.

339 **Conflict of interest**

340 The authors declare no conflict of interest

341

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348 Sheila Bingham), who died in 2009 established the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium as

349 part of the MRC Centre for Nutritional Epidemiology and Cancer of which she was

350 director .



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**Table 1: Characteristics of the 5 cohorts participating in analyses of vitamin C and breast cancer risk in the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium.**

Cohort	Participants	Diary days	Years when food diary completed	Last follow up date	Mean time to diagnosis of cases	Cases	Controls	Mean(sd) dietary vit c intake	Mean(sd) total vit c intake
EPIC-Norfolk	General population in Norfolk	7 days	1993-1998	31.12.2006	6.0 yrs	365	1329	91 (50)	118 (167)
EPIC-Oxford	General population and vegetarians in the UK	7 days	1993-1998	31.12.2004	3.5 yrs	194	194	111 (61)	233 (436)
UK Women's Cohort Study (UKWCS)	Middle aged women in the UK	4 days	1999-2003	31.12.2006	2.4 yrs	42	202	118 (60)	251 (376)
Whitehall II	Civil servants in the UK	7 days	1991-1993	30.09.2005	7.8 yrs	70	275	101 (51)	— <sup>a</sup>
National Survey of Health and Development (NSHD)	Nationally representative cohort of women who were born in one week in March 1946 in England, Wales and Scotland.	5 days	1989	31.12.2006	10.8 yrs	36	144	66 (37)	— <sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Whitehall and NSHD did not have detailed diary data of vitamin C intake from supplements

**Table 2:** Participant characteristics by fifth of dietary vitamin C intake derived from food diaries in the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium

Covariates (at diary date)	Breast cancer		Dietary vitamin C intake (diary fifths)					P*	
	Cases	Controls	1	2	3	4	5		
Cases/controls	707	2144	130/440	138/432	144/426	142/428	153/418		
Dietary vitamin C intake (mg/day)	mean (SD)	98 (56)	95 (52)	36.9 (9.9)	61.9 (6.4)	85.1 (7.2)	114.6 (10.0)	178.4(45.5)	
Fruit Intake g/d	mean (SD)	191 (138)	185 (135)	81 (74)	136 (84)	188 (105)	223 (123)	304 (159)	<0.001
Vegetable intake g/d	mean (SD)	165 (86)	158 (82)	101 (49)	141 (59)	161 (65)	182 (79)	214 (104)	<0.001
Age at diary completion (yr)	mean (SD)	55.7 (9.4)	56.3 (9.6)	55.5 (10.0)	55.7 (9.8)	56.9 (9.6)	56.8 (9.6)	56.0 (9.4)	0.3
Height (cm)	mean (SD)	163 (7)	162 (6)	160.7 (6.5)	161.5 (6.3)	161.8 (6.8)	162.3 (6.4)	162.9 (6.2)	<0.001
Weight (kg)	mean (SD)	67.8 (11.8)	67.2 (12.2)	67.9 (12.0)	67.5 (12.6)	67.8 (12.7)	66.6 (11.2)	66.8 (12.0)	0.1
Energy intake (diary, MJ/day)	mean (SD)	7.6 (1.7)	7.4 (1.7)	6.8 (1.8)	7.4 (1.6)	7.4 (1.6)	7.7 (1.7)	7.8 (1.7)	<0.001
Alcohol intake (diary, g/day)	mean (SD)	10.3 (13.6)	8.7 (12.8)	7.9 (12)	8.5 (13)	10.3 (14)	9.0 (13)	9.7 (13)	0.02
Total fat (g/d)	mean (SD)	68.9 (21.8)	67.2 (22.0)	64.9 (21.3)	69.5 (21.7)	66.2 (21.5)	70.3 (22.5)	67.6 (21.4)	0.07
Dietary vitamin E (mg/d)	mean (SD)	9.9 (4.1)	9.3 (4.0)	8.0 (3.8)	9.2 (3.7)	9.3 (3.7)	10.2 (4.2)	10.6 (4.1)	<0.001
Dietary Iron (mg/d)	mean (SD)	11.8 (3.5)	11.3 (3.4)	9.5 (3.1)	10.9 (2.9)	11.5 (3.4)	12.0 (3.5)	13.0 (3.5)	<0.001
Parity (number of children)	mean (SD)	1.8 (1.2)	1.9 (1.3)	2.1 (1.3)	1.9 (1.3)	1.9 (1.3)	1.8 (1.3)	1.6 (1.3)	<0.001
Exercise (medium - high)	n (%)	242 (37)	796 (38)	162 (30)	198 (36)	208 (37)	230 (42)	240 (44)	<0.001
HRT use (current user)	n (%)	122 (18)	373 (18)	89 (16)	94 (17)	106 (19)	110 (20)	96 (17)	0.4
Menopausal status (post-menopausal)	n (%)	436 (63)	1424 (67)	352 (63)	368 (66)	385 (68)	387 (69)	367 (65)	0.2
Never smoked	n (%)	413 (60)	1233 (58)	272 (49)	316 (56)	333 (59)	349 (62)	376 (67)	<0.001
Education level (degree, HNC, HND)	n (%)	136 (21)	313 (15)	38 (7)	68 (13)	77 (15)	113 (21)	151 (28)	<0.001
Social class (professional or intermediate)	n (%)	238 (47)	901 (47)	187 (37)	207 (42)	232 (48)	254 (53)	259 (58)	<0.001

\*p is P trend over continuous variables, and p for  $\chi^2$  tests for categorical variables

**Table 3:** Dietary vitamin C intake recorded by diaries and risk of breast cancer in the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium breast cancer study

Dietary vitamin C intake	Cases/ Controls	Unadjusted *	Multivariate †
Fifths: mean mg/day (sd)		OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)
<b>Total women</b>			
1 (lowest): 36.9 (9.9)	130/440	0.94 (0.71, 1.25)	0.95 (0.71, 1.28)
2	138/432	1	1
3	144/426	1.03 (0.78, 1.36)	1.00 (0.75, 1.33)
4	142/428	0.98 (0.74, 1.29)	0.92 (0.69, 1.22)
5 (highest): 178.4 (45.5)	153/418	1.02 (0.77, 1.35)	0.96 (0.72, 1.27)
<i>P trend per 60mg/d</i>		0.9	0.7
<i>Continuous estimate/ 60mg/d</i>		1.01 (0.91, 1.11)	0.98 (0.88, 1.09)
<b>Post menopausal</b>			
1 (lowest) 36.9 (9.7)	77/276	1.02 (0.70, 1.48)	1.05 (0.71, 1.55)
2	79/289	1	1
3	96/289	1.22 (0.85, 1.74)	1.19 (0.82, 1.71)
4	91/296	1.06 (0.74, 1.52)	0.99 (0.68, 1.44)
5 (highest) 179.0 (47.7)	93/274	1.12 (0.77, 1.61)	1.01 (0.69, 1.48)
<i>P trend per 60mg/d</i>		0.7	0.8
<i>Continuous estimate/ 60mg/d</i>		1.03 (0.90, 1.17)	0.98 (0.85, 1.13)

\* Conditional logistic regression on cases and controls matched by cohort, age and date of diary completion

† As for the unadjusted model \* with additional adjustment for exact age, height (<158cm, 158-, 163-, 168+), weight (<60kg, 60-, 66-, 72+), physical activity, parity (0,1,2,3,4+), current HRT use, menopausal status, diary-derived alcohol consumption and total energy intake. Missing data added as a category.



**Table 4:** Dietary vitamin C intake densities recorded by diaries and risk of breast cancer in the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium breast cancer study

<b>Vitamin C nutrient density</b>	<b>Cases/</b>	<b>Unadjusted*</b>	<b>Multivariate †</b>
<b>Fifths: mean mg/MJ/d (sd)</b>	<b>Controls</b>	<b>OR (95% CI)</b>	<b>OR (95% CI)</b>
<b>Total women</b>			
1 (lowest): 5.2 (1.3)	140/430	0.98 (0.75, 1.29)	0.98 (0.74, 1.30)
2	143/427	1	1
3	139/431	0.90 (0.68, 1.18)	0.89 (0.67, 1.19)
4	152/418	1.05 (0.81, 1.39)	1.05 (0.79, 1.39)
5 (highest): 25.0 (7.1)	133/438	0.80 (0.60, 1.06)	0.80 (0.60, 1.08)
<i>P trend per 8 mg/MJ/d</i>		0.4	0.5
<i>Continuous estimate/ 8 units</i>		0.96 (0.87, 1.06)	0.97 (0.87, 1.07)
<b>Post menopausal</b>			
1 (lowest): 5.3 (1.3)	76/261	0.90 (0.62, 1.30)	0.89 (0.61, 1.31)
2	81/272	1	1
3	89/293	0.95 (0.66, 1.35)	0.95 (0.66, 1.37)
4	106/297	1.10 (0.77, 1.56)	1.11 (0.77, 1.61)
5 (highest): 25.4 (7.5)	84/301	0.80 (0.55, 1.15)	0.80 (0.54, 1.19)
<i>P trend per 8 mg/MJ/d</i>		0.6	0.7
<i>Continuous estimate/ 8 units</i>		0.97 (0.86, 1.09)	0.97 (0.86, 1.10)

\* Conditional logistic regression on cases and controls matched by cohort, age and date of diary completion

† As for the unadjusted model \* with additional adjustment for exact age, height (<158cm, 158-, 163-, 168+), weight (<60kg, 60-, 66-, 72+), physical activity, parity (0,1,2,3,4+), current HRT use, menopausal status, alcohol consumption and total energy intake. Missing data added as a category.

**Table 5:** Total vitamin C intake from diet and supplements recorded by diaries and risk of breast cancer in EPIC-Oxford, EPIC-Norfolk and UKWCS cohorts

<b>Total vitamin C intake</b>	<b>Cases/</b>	<b>Unadjusted*</b>	<b>Multivariate †</b>
<b>Fifths: mean mg/day (sd)</b>	<b>Controls</b>	<b>OR (95% CI)</b>	<b>OR (95% CI)</b>
<b>Total women</b>			
1 (lowest): 39.3 (10.9)	101/364	0.88 (0.64, 1.21)	0.86 (0.62, 1.20)
2	112/353	1	1
3	133/332	1.21 (0.90, 1.64)	1.22 (0.89, 1.65)
4	130/335	1.08 (0.79, 1.48)	1.02 (0.74, 1.40)
5 (highest): 414.2 (507.3)	125/341	0.98 (0.71, 1.34)	0.93 (0.67, 1.28)
<i>P for trend per 60mg/d</i>		0.3	0.3
<i>Continuous estimate/ 60mg/d</i>		1.01 (0.99, 1.03)	1.01 (0.99, 1.03)
<b>Post menopausal</b>			
1 (lowest) 39.7 (10.7)	72/275	0.97 (0.67, 1.41)	0.99 (0.67, 1.47)
2	82/292	1	1
3	91/257	1.29 (0.90, 1.84)	1.38 (0.95, 1.99)
4	83/253	1.06 (0.72, 1.55)	0.99 (0.66, 1.47)
5 (highest) 395.3 (466.7)	78/228	1.15 (0.78, 1.67)	1.08 (0.72, 1.59)
<i>P for trend per 60mg/d</i>		0.2	0.3
<i>Continuous estimate/ 60mg/d</i>		1.02 (0.99, 1.05)	1.02 (0.99, 1.05)

\* Conditional logistic regression on cases and controls matched by cohort, age and date of diary completion

† As for the unadjusted model \* with additional adjustment for height (<158cm, 158-, 163-, 168+), weight (<60kg, 60-, 66-, 72+), physical activity, parity (0,1,2,3,4+), current HRT use, menopausal status, diary-derived alcohol consumption and total energy intake. Missing data added as a category.