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Article:

Pot, GK, Stephen, AM, Dahm, CC et al. (12 more authors) (2014) Dietary patterns derived with multiple methods from food diaries and breast cancer risk in the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. ISSN 0954-3007

<https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2014.135>

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1 **Dietary patterns derived with multiple methods from food diaries and breast**
2 **cancer risk in the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium**

3 Running title: dietary patterns and breast cancer

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20

21 Journal: EJCN (max 3000 words, 50 references, 6 tables/figures)

22 Word count: 2847; Nr of tables/figures: 5 tables (+2 supplementary tables)

23 *Keywords*: breast cancer, dietary patterns, reduced rank regression, PCA, Mediterranean
24 Diet Score

25

26 Conflict of interest: DCG has received grant funding from Danone and WCRF. The other
27 authors had no personal or financial conflict of interest.

Abstract

Word count: 250

Background/ Objectives: In spite of several studies relating dietary patterns to breast cancer risk, evidence so far remains inconsistent. This study aimed to investigate associations of dietary patterns derived with three different methods with breast cancer risk.

Subjects/ Methods: The Mediterranean Diet Score (MDS), principal components analyses (PCA) and reduced rank regression (RRR) were used to derive dietary patterns in a case-control study of 610 breast cancer cases and 1891 matched controls within 4 UK cohort studies. Dietary intakes were collected prospectively using 4-to 7-day food diaries and resulting food consumption data were grouped into 42 food groups. Conditional logistic regression models were used to estimate odds ratios (ORs) for associations between pattern scores and breast cancer risk adjusting for relevant covariates. A separate model was fitted for post-menopausal women only.

Results: The MDS was not associated with breast cancer risk (OR comparing 1st tertile with 3rd 1.20 (95% CI 0.92; 1.56)), nor the first PCA-derived dietary pattern, explaining 2.7% of variation of diet and characterized by cheese, crisps and savoury snacks, legumes, nuts and seeds (OR 1.18 (95% CI 0.91; 1.53)). The first RRR-derived pattern, a 'high-alcohol' pattern, was associated with a higher risk of breast cancer (OR 1.27; 95% CI 1.00; 1.62), which was most pronounced in post-menopausal women (OR 1.46 (95% CI 1.08; 1.98)).

Conclusions: A 'high-alcohol' dietary pattern derived with RRR was associated with an increased breast cancer risk; no evidence of associations of other dietary patterns with breast cancer risk was observed in this study.

52 **Introduction**

53 Diet could play a role in the on-going rise of breast cancer incidence (1, 2) but to what
54 extent is still unclear. Individual dietary risk factors have been studied in relation to
55 breast cancer but often the approach of focussing on single foods or nutrients when
56 investigating diet breast cancer associations has resulted in null findings or inconclusive
57 results (2-5). An alternative approach is to study dietary patterns. This has been done in
58 a number of studies, but again findings are inconsistent (6, 7). The majority of studies
59 have used *posteriori* dietary patterns, mainly using principal components analysis (PCA)
60 or using predefined diet quality scores, like the Mediterranean Diet score (MDS) (8, 9). A
61 few studies have used the reduced rank regression (RRR) method (10-14), which
62 combines *a priori* knowledge with *posteriori* analyses and therefore benefits from using
63 information on potential diet-disease associations (15). A combination of multiple
64 methods to study dietary patterns in relation to breast cancer risk could give a more
65 complete picture but this approach has rarely been used (16). Most studies of dietary
66 patterns have used food frequency questionnaires (FFQs) as the method of dietary
67 assessment. To assess dietary intake, food diaries are generally thought to result in
68 more accurate and varied dietary data than FFQs (6). In our analyses, we aimed to
69 explore multiple methods to derive dietary patterns using detailed dietary information
70 from food diaries and relate this to breast cancer risk; we also explored these
71 associations in post-menopausal women separately as dietary risk factors could be
72 different for this subgroup (2).

73 **Subjects and Methods**

74 *Subjects*

75 The UK Dietary Cohort Consortium was set up to investigate associations between
76 dietary intake, assessed using prospective food diaries, and cancer risk (5). The
77 participating cohorts in these analyses were EPIC-Norfolk (17), EPIC-Oxford (18), the UK
78 Women's Cohort Study (UKWCS) (19), and Whitehall II study (20). Participants gave
79 informed consent and each study was approved by the respective ethics committees.
80 The designs, selection of controls, methods of pooling and standardization of dietary
81 data have been described in detail elsewhere (4, 5).

82 Briefly, cases were women who developed breast cancer, defined as codes CD 174 or
83 C50 of the 9th and 10th Revision of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases,
84 Injuries, and Causes of Death. Cases were free of cancer (except for non-melanoma skin
85 cancer) at the time of dietary assessment and developed breast cancer ≥ 12 m later (6m
86 in EPIC-Oxford). In total, there were 610 cases, of which 409 were post-menopausal
87 (**Table 1**). Each case was matched to four control subjects within each cohort who were
88 free of cancer (except for non-melanoma skin cancer) at the date of dietary assessment
89 and free of breast cancer at the end of follow-up within the appropriate stratum of
90 matching criteria. Matching criteria included cohort, age at enrolment (± 3 y), and date of
91 diet diary completion (± 3 m). In total, 1891 controls were matched to the cases. There is
92 some minor variation in the matching design since these independent studies
93 approached matching differently before the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium was set up
94 (5).

95 Information on demographic and socio-economic variables, including social class and
96 education, were obtained through standard questionnaires, either self-administered or
97 administered by trained researchers, at or close to time of dietary assessment.

98

99 *Dietary assessment*

100 All participating cohorts collected dietary information in the form of estimated food
101 diaries over 4-7 days, the period depending on the cohort (from 1991 to 2002; Table 1)

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102 (17-20). Participants were asked to record all foods and drinks consumed and to
103 describe portions using household measures or by reference to photographs that showed
104 various serving sizes of representative food items. Food records were coded using the
105 data entry and processing programs Data Into Nutrients for Epidemiological Research
106 (DINER) and DINERMO (21) and for UKWCS using the Diet and Nutrition Tool for
107 Evaluation (DANTE) (22). Data output included nutrients and food groups, the latter
108 being aggregated into 42 predefined food groups according to usage or differences in
109 energy density and total fat content.

110

111 *Dietary patterns*

112 To explore the association of dietary patterns and breast cancer risk, dietary patterns
113 were investigated using three methods. The first method used was a predefined diet
114 quality score, the MDS based on Trichopoulou et al (23) using foods (vegetables,
115 legumes, fruits and nuts, cereals, fish and seafood, dairy, meat and meat products) and
116 a number of nutrients (ratio MUFA/SFA, alcohol) which were scored based on the median
117 intake or for alcohol using 5-25g/d as an acceptable range. As alcohol on its own is an
118 established risk factor for breast cancer (2, 3, 24) the MDS was also calculated excluding
119 alcohol from the score and adjusting the analyses for alcohol intake. The maximum score
120 attainable was 9 when including alcohol and 8 when excluding alcohol. Second, PCA was
121 used; the 42 predefined food groups were entered into the model and based on
122 evaluation of eigen values and scree plots, patterns were derived and rotated using
123 VARIMAX. Only factor loadings >0.25 were presented for ease of interpretation.

124 Thirdly, RRR (13) was used on the 42 food groups; alcohol, total fat (as % energy) and
125 fibre were chosen as response variables as they have been suggested as dietary factors
126 that are associated with breast cancer risk (2, 5, 25-29). The number of response
127 variables dictates the maximum number of dietary patterns, which were three in these
128 analyses. Both PCA and RRR analyses were checked by repeating the analyses on a 50%
129 random split sample.

130

131 *Statistical methods*

132 Tertiles of dietary patterns scores were entered into conditional logistic regression
133 models that calculated odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CI); these
134 models automatically adjust for the matching variables. However, since the age
135 matching of cases and controls was up to 3y, analyses were also adjusted for age as a
136 continuous variable. Multivariable analyses were also adjusted for parity (0,1,2,3,4+
137 children), use of hormone replacement therapy (HRT) (yes or no), weight (<60, 60-65,
138 66-71, ≥ 72 kg), height (<158, 158-162, 163-167, ≥ 168 cm), physical activity (low, low-
139 medium, medium-high, or high), menopausal status (pre-, peri-, and post-menopausal)
140 and energy intake (continuous). We refer to this as model 1.

141 A number of risk factors with weaker associations with breast cancer risk were included
142 in a second extended model, resulting in more missing data. Model 2 included variables
143 in model 1 and additionally family history of breast cancer (yes/no; missing for EPIC-
144 Oxford and Whitehall), breastfeeding (yes/no; missing for Whitehall), and education
145 level (low to high). A total of 696 individuals had at least one of these variables missing.
146 To see whether any differences between model 1 and 2 were due to the additional
147 adjustments or due to the population being reduced due to missing data, model 1 was
148 fitted again restricting to those subjects contributing to model 2 (we refer to this as
149 model 1 adjusted). Other potential covariates, such as smoking, age at first birth, were
150 not adjusted for due to the amount of missing data. Further sensitivity analyses included
151 subgroup analyses for post-menopausal women only and for cases with a breast cancer
152 diagnosis ≥ 2 y after completion of the food diary to reduce the possible effect of reverse
153 causality. To test for linear trends across tertiles, median scores of the respective tertile
154 were assigned. Finally, the assumption of no heterogeneity across the different cohorts
155 was tested by including an exposure by centre interaction term in the models. Analyses
156 were carried out using SAS statistical software (SAS version 9.3) and p values of < 0.05
157 were considered statistically significant.

158 **Results**

159 Breast cancer cases were significantly younger, older at first live birth, taller, had fewer
160 children (parity), and more often had family history of breast cancer than their matched
161 controls (**Table 2**). Differences in menopausal status were observed, with more controls
162 being post-menopausal. In terms of dietary intake, breast cancer cases had higher
163 intakes of energy, dietary fibre, legumes, and alcohol and ratio of MUFA/SFA than
164 controls.

165

166 *MDS*

167 The MDS was not significantly associated with breast cancer risk in this study (model 1
168 OR 1.20 (95% CI 0.92; 1.56) comparing 1st tertile with 3rd) nor was it after further
169 adjustment (model 2 OR 1.05 (95% CI 0.77; 1.43)), among only post-menopausal
170 women (OR 1.10 (95% CI 0.80; 1.51)), nor for those diagnosed ≥ 2 year after
171 completing the food diary (OR 1.22 (95% CI 0.92; 1.62)) (**Table 3**). Leaving out alcohol
172 from the MDS score and adjusting the models for alcohol intake led to similar non-
173 significant findings (OR 1.15 (95% CI 0.83; 1.60)).

174 No evidence of heterogeneity across the different cohorts for these analyses was
175 observed (p interaction 0.16) and MDS results were comparable between the different
176 cohorts (data not shown).

177

178 *PCA*

179 Three dietary patterns were identified, which explained 6.2% of the variation in the 42
180 food groups. The first pattern explained 2.7% of the total variation and was positively
181 loaded by cheese, crisps and savoury snacks, fresh fruit, legumes, low fat milk, nuts and
182 seeds, other fruit, rice/pasta/other grains, sauces, vegetable mixed dishes and
183 negatively loaded by potatoes, poultry, and red meat (Supplementary Table 1). The first
184 dietary pattern score was not associated with breast cancer risk (model 1, OR 1.18 (95%
185 CI 0.91; 1.53)), nor after further adjusting the model (model 2, OR 1.02 (95% CI 0.75;

186 1.39)) nor in post-menopausal women only (OR 1.27 (95% CI 0.93; 1.73)) nor for the
187 two subgroups analysed (**Table 4**).

188 As the second and third pattern explained even less of the variation (1.9% and 1.6%
189 respectively), these patterns were not investigated further. No evidence of heterogeneity
190 across the different cohorts for these analyses was observed (p interaction 0.66).

191 PCA results on a random 50% split sample showed that the first pattern showed
192 similarities for the highest loading food groups but factor loadings were minor
193 contributors to the pattern (Supplementary Table 1).

194

195 *RRR*

196 Using RRR with the response variables alcohol, total fat and fibre, three factors were
197 generated and these explained 76.6% of the total variation in food intake, of which
198 33.5% was explained by the first factor. A high response score for factor 1 reflected a
199 diet high in alcohol hence the naming of the dietary pattern as 'high-alcohol'; this
200 pattern was mainly driven by consumption of wines, spirits, and beers and ciders
201 (Supplementary Table 2). For this first dietary pattern a positive association with breast
202 cancer risk was found: OR 1.27 (95% CI 1.00; 1.62; p for trend 0.04) comparing the
203 third tertile of factor loading score with the first (**Table 5**); for post-menopausal women
204 the association appeared stronger, with OR 1.46 (95% CI 1.08; 1.98; p for trend 0.01).
205 For those diagnosed ≥ 2 years after completing the food diary results were also stronger
206 than compared to the model including all subjects, OR 1.32 (95% CI 1.01; 1.71; p for
207 trend 0.03).

208 The second pattern reflected a diet high in fibre and low in alcohol and total fat and was
209 mainly driven by fresh fruit, raw and boiled vegetables, high fibre bread, and high fibre
210 breakfast cereals. This second pattern was not associated with breast cancer risk (OR
211 1.08 (95% CI 0.84; 1.38); p for trend 0.55) nor for post-menopausal women (OR 1.23
212 (95% 0.91; 1.66); p for trend 0.18) nor those diagnosed ≥ 2 years after completing the
213 food diary (OR 1.10 (95% CI 0.84; 1.43; p for trend 0.48). No evidence of heterogeneity
214 across the different cohorts for these analyses was observed (p interaction 0.83).

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215 The third pattern explained 14.4% of the variation in food intake but as this pattern
216 showed overlap in foods driving this pattern with the second pattern it was not taken
217 further.

218 The factor loadings of the first derived RRR patterns of a random 50% split sample
219 showed similar factor loadings as in the total sample, especially for the highest loading
220 food groups (Supplementary Table 2).

221 Discussion

222 The results of this exploratory study on dietary patterns and breast cancer do not
223 indicate that the MDS or dietary patterns derived with PCA were associated with breast
224 cancer risk. The first dietary pattern derived with RRR, the 'high-alcohol' pattern, was
225 associated with an increased risk of breast cancer, and this was most pronounced in
226 post-menopausal women. The second RRR-derived dietary pattern, the 'high-fibre'
227 pattern, was not associated with breast cancer risk.

228 By using three different methods to derive dietary patterns, each with their own
229 strengths and limitations (6, 30), this study aimed to provide a better overview of how
230 dietary patterns are associated with breast cancer risk. The MDS is an hypothesis-driven
231 approach describing a dietary pattern including consumption of vegetables, legumes,
232 fruit and nuts, cereals, fish and seafood, dairy, meat, ratio MUFA/SFA and alcohol, which
233 was not associated with breast cancer risk in this study. This was in line with previous
234 studies also showing no association of the MDS with breast cancer risk (8, 31, 32),
235 though another study did find a marginally inverse association amongst postmenopausal
236 women only (23). As the MDS does not describe the overall diet pattern, other methods
237 to derive dietary patterns were included in this study. The data-driven approach PCA did
238 not result in meaningful dietary patterns in this study and only explained 6.2% of the
239 variation in foods consumed. Examples of dietary patterns that were found to be
240 associated with breast cancer risk from previous studies include a 'Western' dietary
241 pattern, including higher consumption of red and processed meat, refined grains, sweets
242 and desserts and high-fat dairy products (33, 34) and a Mediterranean dietary pattern
243 characterized by fruit, raw and cooked vegetables, fish and crustaceans and olive oil,
244 which was found to be inversely associated with breast cancer risk (8, 35, 36). RRR, a
245 hybrid approach combining elements of both a hypothesis and data driven approach, did
246 result in a dietary pattern that was found to be associated with breast cancer risk in this
247 study, which mainly described a dietary pattern related to alcoholic drinks. Thus by
248 including these three different methods to derive dietary patterns, the overall picture
249 seems to suggest that it was mainly a dietary pattern describing alcoholic drinks that

250 emerges from the three methods studied to be associated with breast cancer risk in this
251 study. These findings are in line with the results of the latest report of the continuous
252 update programme (CUP) of the World Cancer Research Fund in 2010 which reported
253 that of the dietary factors commonly investigated to date, the most convincing evidence
254 is for alcohol intake (3); this is also supported by two recent systematic reviews by
255 Albuquerque et al (34) and by Brennan et al (7) both also identifying a 'dietary drinker
256 pattern' to be positively associated with breast cancer risk.

257 One could argue that studying a dietary pattern representing mostly alcohol intake (RRR
258 pattern 1) is not useful; however, by considering alcohol within a dietary pattern we
259 aimed to consider the contexts of its consumption, i.e. consider the role of foods often
260 consumed alongside alcohol. This could eliminate the need for complex adjustment
261 modelling and minimizes residual confounding. Alcoholic drinks were split into three
262 groups, wines, spirits, and beers and ciders, to aid interpretation of the derived dietary
263 pattern. Previously, we showed that for every 10g of alcohol consumption per day breast
264 cancer risk increases with 10%, but this was only shown for measurements that
265 combined the 7d food diary with long-term measurements from a FFQ(24). This
266 highlights the importance of reducing alcohol intake for breast cancer prevention
267 independent of consumption of other foods.

268 In spite of pooling a moderately large number of cases from four established cohorts for
269 these analyses, the analyses presented in this paper were limited by inadequate power
270 for subgroup analyses (2, 3), especially for menopausal status, which is an important
271 aspect of breast cancer risk (3). It would also have been of interest to explore the
272 dietary patterns of pre-menopausal women only. A limitation of bringing together the
273 data of four different cohorts is that this could have led to additional variation despite
274 standardizing the research methods in the analysis phase; this could have reduced the
275 power to detect any dietary patterns, especially for the data-driven approaches like PCA
276 and RRR. For PCA and RRR, analyses were repeated in a random 50% split sample
277 showing similar results, though factor loadings were somewhat different. MDS results

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278 were comparable between the different cohorts (data not shown). Moreover, no evidence
279 of heterogeneity across the different cohorts in any analysis was observed.

280 The proportion of missing data for the covariates limited the study, especially in the
281 second extended model; however, the analyses of model 2 did not lead to different
282 conclusions. When using RRR to derive dietary patterns different choices of response
283 variables can be made. To date, studies using RRR to derive dietary patterns have used
284 both biomarkers (e.g. C-reactive protein (12)) or nutrients (e.g. dietary fatty acids (10))
285 as response variables; both approaches suffer from measurement error. The variation
286 explained by biomarker responses may be influenced by measurement, medical, genetic
287 and environmental factors while the larger variation often explained by nutrient
288 responses may, in part, be due to the correlated measurement errors of predictors and
289 responses. Nutrient responses have been chosen in this study due to our interest in the
290 food-nutrient-cancer pathways, and also partly due to the lack and uniformity of other
291 measures, like biomarkers, in these UK cohorts.

292 A key strength of this study is that food diaries were used for dietary assessment, rather
293 than FFQs. Food diaries have taken over from the now rarely performed weighed
294 assessments as the gold standard for dietary assessment (37). The prospective
295 assessment of dietary intake in our study reduces information bias from selected recall.
296 Moreover, a sensitivity analyses was conducted to take into account the potential for
297 reverse causality and these showed that the associations were largely similar in those
298 who completed the diary ≥ 2 years before diagnosis. Additionally, this study benefits
299 from including MDS, PCA and RRR methods to study dietary patterns in relation to breast
300 cancer and by using these different methods in one study a broader overview of dietary
301 patterns in relation to breast cancer in this cohort is given. A previous study, including
302 more than one method to study dietary patterns, showed that using different methods
303 may lead to different and sometimes complementary findings (16). The results of this
304 study support previous evidence that alcohol is the most important dietary risk factor for
305 breast cancer risk and that other dietary patterns were not associated with breast cancer
306 risk.

307 **Acknowledgments**

308 We thank the participants in the cohort studies for their contributions to this research.
309 Sheila Rodwell (also known professionally as Sheila Bingham), who died in 2009,
310 established the UK Dietary Cohort Consortium as part of the Medical Research Council
311 Centre for Nutritional Epidemiology and Cancer of which she was director.

312

313 The authors' responsibilities were as follows—AMS, CCD, TJK, BJC, VJB, JEC, DCG, RHK,
314 AB, AMcT, MAHL, GM, EJB and KTK: acquired data; GP performed statistical analyses and
315 wrote the manuscript; and all authors: interpreted data, contributed to and reviewed the
316 manuscript, and read and approved the final manuscript.

317

318 **Conflict of Interest**

319 DCG has received grant funding from Danone and WCRF. The other authors had no
320 personal or financial conflict of interest.

321

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- 322 TABLE 1 number of controls and cases per cohort of the UK dietary consortium
- 323 TABLE 2 Characteristics of controls (n=1891) and cases of breast cancer (n=610) of the
324 UK Dietary consortium#
- 325
- 326 TABLE 3 Odds ratios for breast cancer risk according to tertiles of Mediterranean Diet
327 Score (MDS), with and without including alcohol in MDS score
- 328
- 329 TABLE 4 Odds ratios for breast cancer according to tertiles of the first factor score of
330 dietary patterns derived with principal components analyses (PCA) using 42 predefined
331 food groups.
- 332
- 333 TABLE 5 Odds ratios for breast cancer according to tertiles of RRR-derived dietary
334 patterns using 42 predefined food groups using alcohol, total fat and fibre as response
335 variables. Results are presented for tertiles of the factor loading score for the first
336 dietary pattern.
- 337
- 338
- 339 Supplementary information is available at EJCN's website
- 340

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