

Traditional dietary pattern of South America is linked to breast cancer: an ongoing case-control study in Argentina

Natalia Tumas, Camila Niclis, Laura R. Aballay, Alberto R. Osella & María del Pilar Díaz

European Journal of Nutrition

ISSN 1436-6207

Eur J Nutr

DOI 10.1007/s00394-013-0564-0



Your article is protected by copyright and all rights are held exclusively by Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg. This e-offprint is for personal use only and shall not be self-archived in electronic repositories. If you wish to self-archive your article, please use the accepted manuscript version for posting on your own website. You may further deposit the accepted manuscript version in any repository, provided it is only made publicly available 12 months after official publication or later and provided acknowledgement is given to the original source of publication and a link is inserted to the published article on Springer's website. The link must be accompanied by the following text: "The final publication is available at link.springer.com".

Traditional dietary pattern of South America is linked to breast cancer: an ongoing case–control study in Argentina

Natalia Tumas · Camila Niclis · Laura R. Aballay ·
Alberto R. Osella · María del Pilar Díaz

Received: 21 January 2013 / Accepted: 15 July 2013
© Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2013

Abstract

Introduction Several studies have shown the effect of dietary patterns on breast cancer risk, but none has been conducted in Argentina. The aim of this study was to extract dietary patterns from Food Frequency Questioner, to estimate their effect on breast cancer occurrence while taking into account aggregation factors (family history of breast cancer) and to explore the sensitivity of the estimates to changes in the assumptions.

Methods A principal component exploratory factor analysis was applied to identify dietary patterns, which were then included as covariates in a multilevel logistic regression. Family history of BC was considered as a clustering variable. A multiple probabilistic sensitivity analysis was also performed.

Results The study included 100 cases and 294 controls. Four dietary patterns were identified. *Traditional* (fat meats, bakery products, and vegetable oil and mayonnaise) (OR III tertile vs I 3.13, 95 % CI 2.58–3.78), *Rural*

(processed meat) (OR III tertile vs I 2.02, 95 % CI 1.21–3.37) and *Starchy* (refined grains) (OR III tertile vs I 1.82, 95 % CI 1.18–2.79) dietary patterns were positively associated with BC risk, whereas the *Prudent* pattern (fruit and non-starchy vegetables) (OR III tertile vs I 0.56, 95 % CI 0.41–0.77) showed a protective effect. For *Traditional* pattern, the median bias-adjusted ORs (3.52) were higher than the conventional (2.76).

Conclusions While the *Prudent* pattern was associated with a reduced risk of BC, *Traditional*, *Rural* and *Starchy* patterns showed a promoting effect. Despite the threats to validity, the nature of associations was not strongly affected.

Keywords Dietary patterns · Breast cancer · Argentina · Multilevel · Sensitivity analysis

Abbreviations

BC Breast cancer
OR Odds ratio

N. Tumas · C. Niclis · L. R. Aballay · M. P. Díaz (✉)
Statistics and Biostatistics Unit, School of Nutrition,
Faculty of Medical Sciences, National University
of Córdoba, Córdoba, Argentina
e-mail: pdiaz@fcm.unc.edu.ar

L. R. Aballay
e-mail: laballay@fcm.unc.edu.ar

N. Tumas
Center of Research and Studies in Culture and Society,
National Council of Scientific and Technical Research
(CONICET), Córdoba, Argentina
e-mail: nataliatumas@gmail.com

N. Tumas · C. Niclis · L. R. Aballay · M. P. Díaz
Enrique Barros ESQ. Enfermera Gordillo, Ciudad Universitaria,
5000 Córdoba, Argentina

C. Niclis
National Council of Scientific and Technical Research
(CONICET), Córdoba, Argentina
e-mail: cniclis@gmail.com

A. R. Osella
Laboratorio di Epidemiologia E Biostatistica,
IRCCS Saverio de Bellis, Castellana Grotte, Italy
e-mail: arosella@irccsdebellis.it

A. R. Osella
Via Turi, 27. Zip, 70013 Castellana Grotte, Bari, Italy

Py	Person-years
EECC	Environmental Epidemiology of Cancer in Córdoba
METs	Metabolic equivalent of tasks
FFQ	Food Frequency Questioner
PCFA	Principal component factor analysis
KMO	Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin
AIC	Akaike information
BIC	Bayesian information
MLR	Multilevel logistic regression
BMI	Body mass index
TI	Tertile I

Introduction

Breast cancer is a worldwide leading cause of cancer mortality and the most common form of cancer affecting women [1]. Moreover, when both sexes are considered, it also has the highest incidence [2]. In Argentina, the female breast cancer mortality rate was 20.7×100000 person-years (py) in 2000, higher than that reported in North America and in all other Latin American countries [3]. A breast cancer incidence of 75.45×100000 py women was reported in 2004 in this country, and in Córdoba (a central Argentinean province), breast cancer represents 25 % of total tumors among the female population [4].

Scientific evidence suggests that life style factors such as diet, obesity and lack of physical activity, as well as certain reproductive choices, can modify the risk of breast cancer [5, 6]. Life style has significantly changed in the last 20 years worldwide [7]. Argentina, like most Latin American developing countries, is undergoing a rapid epidemiological transition featuring a shift in dietary habits and physical activity patterns [8]. Dietary habits seem to play an important role in breast cancer etiology; however, apart from a consistent direct association between alcohol intake and breast cancer [9, 10], most of the relationships between foods or nutrients and this type of cancer remain controversial [11].

Results from studies of single nutrients and foods may be inconsistent because they cannot disaggregate individual effects of highly correlated foods or may be unable to account for synergistic interactions of food combinations and constituents [11, 12]. The use of dietary patterns encompasses the combined effects of multiple dietary components and offers an alternative dimension to probe diet–disease relationships and also has value in guiding dietary modification to reduce disease risk [13]. Exploratory factor analysis is a statistical tool that is increasingly being used for this purpose [11, 14, 15]. Exploratory factor analysis is a procedure that empirically determines whether

a set of observed correlations (foods or nutrients) can, with reasonable accuracy, be thought of as reflecting, or as generated by, a small number of hypothetical underlying (latent) factors. This method creates “dietary patterns” by aggregating related foods/nutrients, representing the eating patterns of the study population and distinguishes individuals by their predominant dietary choices [15].

A substantial amount of research has explored the influence of dietary patterns on breast cancer risk [12, 13, 16–21]. However, most of these were conducted in countries in which diets are very different to the typical Argentinean diet, characterized by a high consumption of animal protein and fats obtained mainly from red meat, a low-fiber intake and high levels of alcohol consumption [22].

The issue of diet and breast cancer in Argentina has been considered in terms of foods and nutrients [23, 24], but never in terms of dietary patterns. Indeed, in this country, only two studies about dietary patterns and cancer have been reported, namely colorectal [22] and urinary tract cancer [25].

Aim of this study was to extract dietary patterns from Food Frequency Questioner (FFQ) and to estimate their effect on breast cancer occurrence while taking into account aggregation factors (familiar history of breast cancer). Moreover, a sensitivity analysis of risk estimates by assuming different scenarios was performed.

Methods

Design and participants

This ongoing case–control study is conducted as part of a project named “Environmental Epidemiology of Cancer in Córdoba” (EECC) started in 2004 covering several aspects of cancer epidemiology [4, 26–28], including case–control studies [22, 29] about the relationship between dietary and other environmental exposures with most the frequent cancers identified in Argentina: breast, prostate, colon and bladder cancer.

The person-time experience that provided the data for this case–control study was generated from 2008 in the Córdoba population, the second most populated province (3,067,000 inhabitants, according to the last census) of the country.

Cases were 100 women under 85 years old with an incident of histologically confirmed breast cancer primary diagnosis (ICD-10th Edition, ICIE10:C50), identified by the Córdoba Tumor Registry. In the same time period, controls were randomly chosen from the electoral list. Controls were included after the verification of the absence of any neoplastic or related condition as well of conditions

that changed alimentary habits for reasons of religion or custom. The verification was performed by asking questions aimed to exclude such conditions and contemplated in the questionnaire. A total of 294 non-hospital controls matched by sex, age (± 5 years) and place of residence were considered. The area from which cases come includes rural and urban counties, which are representative of the whole population of Córdoba province [26]. Less than 10 % of subjects contacted refused to participate. No statistically significant differences in age and geographical area were found between them and included controls. However, a possible residual selection bias was taken into account and considered in the sensitivity analysis.

The study was approved by the Ethical Committee of the Faculty of Medical Sciences, University of Córdoba and has therefore been performed in accordance with the ethical standards laid down in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki. All participants gave informed consent prior to their inclusion in the study.

Exposure assessment

An at-home face-to-face interview based on a questionnaire was carried out by trained interviewers. The questionnaire included information on socio-demographic characteristics (age, residence, urban/rural status), smoking history (years of smoking, average number of cigarettes per day, type of tobacco and type of cigarette), alcohol consumption (type of beverage and grams per day), self-reported anthropometric characteristics, menstrual and reproductive history (age at menarche, age at menopause, parity, number of live births, breastfeeding), medical insurance, personal medical history and family history of cancer. Physical activity was measured by means of The International Physical Activity Questionnaire [30]. Answers to different items are then expressed as metabolic equivalent of tasks (METs). Subsequently METS were categorized into low (<600 METs), moderate (600–1500 METs) and high (>1500 METs) categories of physical activity intensity.

A validated FFQ [31] of 127 items was used. The FFQ was coupled with a validated photographic atlas based on standard portion sizes in Argentina [32]. FFQ focused on the five-year period before diagnosis for cases and before interview for controls. Daily intake quantification (calories, macro- and micronutrients) was performed using the software Nutrio 2.0 [33]. Nutrio's database of food composition includes a nutritional food composition table of Argentina [34] and information from other biochemical determinations made at the local level [35]. Given the characteristics of the interview, missing values in a FFQ do not exist.

Statistical analysis

Dietary patterns identification

Characterization of dietary patterns was performed on the 294 controls. A principal component exploratory factor analysis (PCFA) and a Varimax rotation method were applied.

The 127 food items contained in the FFQ were grouped into 20 predefined food groups based on similarities in nutrient profile and culinary usage in Argentinean diet: hard cheeses, soft cheeses, milk and yogurt, lean meat (red meat with up to 14 % of fat content and skinless chicken), fat meat (red meat with more than 14 % of fat content and chicken with skin), processed meat (cold meats), eggs, starchy vegetables, non-starchy vegetables, fruits, whole grains, refined grains, pulses, bakery products, candies (ice cream, chocolates, peanut butter, *dulce de leche*—milk and sugar caramel), added sugar and sweets (sugar, jam, honey, caramel), butter and milk cream, vegetable oils and mayonnaise, alcoholic beverages and non-alcoholic beverages.

The factorability of the correlation matrix was evaluated by applying the same criteria used previously [22]: factor eigen value >1 , statistical indicators such as Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) (in which values between 0.5 and 1.0 indicate factor analysis is appropriate). Also, Akaike information (AIC) and Bayesian Information (BIC) were taken into account for parsimony and plausibility of the factors. The Varimax factor rotation technique was applied to the factor loading matrix to facilitate interpretability of the factors. Each factor was labeled by its dominant food groups, and those with absolute rotated factor loading ≥ 0.60 were considered. Then, cases and controls were scored by applying the regression method. These scoring coefficients indicate the degree to which each subject's diet conforms to each of the identified patterns [20]. All participants were then categorized into tertiles (low, medium and high) of each factor scores.

As a second step, each pattern was correlated with some life style and socio-demographic characteristics, using direct and partial correlation coefficients. The proportion differences test was used for comparison of variables of interest between cases and controls.

Risk analysis

A multilevel logistic regression (MLR) model for the binary response (1 if a case, 0 otherwise) was fitted, considering that the individual probability of a positive outcome is dependent on both individual level and contextual or group variables (family history characteristics) of the subject. Covariates at first level of MLR were tertiles of

dietary patterns, total energy intake and selected recognized variables in breast cancer risk: body mass index (BMI) [36], gynecological status [37], education [38] and physical activity [39], while family history of breast cancer was considered as a second level or clustering variable. The model was fitted assuming Tertile I (TI) as the reference category (which represents subjects with the lowest intakes of the dominant foods). Only the variance was estimated in this second hierarchy. Unlike the classical logistic regression model, MLR was also used to avoid underestimating the standard error of the regression coefficient of aggregate risk factor, leading to overestimation of the significance of the risk factor [40]. This is an important aspect to consider, mainly because of the small sample size of this work. There is agreement that a small sample size at level two leads to biased estimates of the second-level standard errors, although only a variance (family history of breast cancer), and not regression coefficients, is estimated in our work.

Sensitivity analysis

A multiple probabilistic sensitivity analysis was performed by assigning more conventional probability density distributions to the values of the bias parameters. The goal of such an analysis is to find a plausible range of estimates of the effect of interest and to assess how sensitive the conclusions are to changes in the assumptions [41]. These density distributions were parameterized on the basis of internal and/or external validation or evidence. Differential misclassification was assumed by drawing the sensitivities and specificities from different trapezoidal distributions for cases and controls. Thus, a minimum of 0.70 and 0.75 and a maximum of 0.90 and 1 were assigned in case and control specificity, respectively, while both sensitivities ranged from 0.75 to 1. Lower specificity was assigned in the cases group, taking into account the widely documented possibility of recall bias. In addition, a higher probability to select unexposed cases and controls was assumed, as respondents could have higher interest in health-related issues and have healthier habits than non-respondents. However, only a small association between respondents–non-respondents and breast cancer is expected. Thus, we assigned a prior lognormal distribution to the selection bias factor with mean 0 and standard deviation 0.21, which yields 95 % prior probability of the bias factor falling between $\exp(0-1.96*0.21) = 0.7$ and $\exp(0 + 1.96*0.21) = 1.5$. Finally, the potential confounding effect introduced by ignoring the effect of some reproductive characteristics was considered. Higher parity, higher time of breastfeeding and lower age at first birth are all well-known protective factors [15, 42] of breast cancer. These characteristics have a higher prevalence in exposed, since they are more

common at a lower socioeconomic status like the traditional pattern. Thus, a prevalence of the confounder of 0.2–0.3 and 0.1–0.2 was assigned among exposed and unexposed, respectively, and a prior probability distribution was specified for the confounder breast cancer OR that is lognormal with 95 % confidence limits of $\ln(0.4)$ and $\ln(0.9)$. These limits imply that the mean of this prior distribution is $\{\ln(0.4) + \ln(0.9)\}/2 = -1.1268$ with standard deviation $\{\ln(0.4) + \ln(0.9)\}/(2*1.96) = -0.0575$. The multiple probabilistic sensitivity analysis was applied only to the effect of *Traditional* pattern on the risk of breast cancer as it is the most characteristic pattern of the Argentinean diet.

Stata 11.2 software [43] was used for all analysis (factor analysis, its rotations and multilevel model fitting), including the user-written—*episens*—command [44] for sensitivity analysis.

Results

Selected study participant characteristics are shown in Table 1. Ages ranged from 24 to 88 years and, as expected from the matched design, were similar among cases and controls (58.67 ± 11.88 years; 58.86 ± 13.94 years, respectively). Cases had more frequent overweight ($p < 0.10$), presented low physical activity and higher levels of energy intake ($p < 0.05$). The proportion of women who breastfed was similar in both groups, but the prevalence of lactation for six or more months was more frequent in woman with breast cancer (76 vs 84 %). A minority of cases and controls had menarche before 12 years old. As regards the education variable, there was a similar distribution in cases and controls (most women presented medium educational level in both groups).

Dietary patterns

Four primary dietary patterns were identified (cumulative variance around 40 %). The factor loadings matrix among controls is shown in Table 2. Overall estimated KMO values indicated that factor analysis was suitable for the data set (KMO = 0.65). Factor 1 displayed high loadings for fat meats, bakery products, and vegetable oil and mayonnaise. This factor was called the *Traditional* pattern, explaining 13 % of the variance. The second factor, defined as the *Rural* pattern, showed high loadings for processed meat and explains 10 % of the variance. The third factor, defined the *Prudent* pattern, had the greatest absolute loadings on fruit and the non-starchy vegetables group, explaining 7 % of the variance. The last pattern was characterized by high positive loadings of refined grains, and a negative loading for whole grain consumption, and was labeled the *Starchy* pattern.

Table 1 Main characteristics of cases and controls. Córdoba, Argentina, 2008–2011

	Cases number (%)	Controls number (%)	<i>p</i> value
Total	100	294	
Age (years)			
<50	21 (21)	77 (26)	0.36
50–70	60 (60)	156 (53)	0.27
>70	19 (19)	61 (21)	0.81
Education			
Low	6 (6)	19 (6)	0.94
Medium	61 (61)	158 (54)	0.26
High	33 (33)	116 (40)	0.29
BMI (weight/height ²)			
<25	41 (41)	153 (52)	0.07*
≥25	59 (59)	141 (48)	0.07*
Physical activity			
Low	84 (84)	268 (91)	0.07*
Moderate	11 (11)	21 (7)	0.31
High	5 (5)	5 (2)	0.15
Age at menarche (years)			
<12	4 (5)	13 (7)	0.78
≥12	71 (95)	167 (93)	0.78
Gynecological status			
Premenopausal	22 (22)	78 (26.5)	0.44
Postmenopausal	78 (78)	216 (73.5)	0.44
Breastfeeding practice			
Yes	75 (85)	182 (84)	0.97
No	13 (15)	34 (16)	0.97
Duration of breastfeeding			
<6 months	18 (24)	30 (16)	0.22
≥6 months	57 (76)	152 (84)	0.22
Family history of BC			
No	83 (83)	247 (84)	0.93
Yes	17 (17)	47 (16)	0.93
Energy intake (kcal)			
<2284.67	16 (16)	98 (33)	0.00*
2284.67–2995.79	27 (27)	98 (33)	0.29
>2995.79	57 (57)	98 (33)	0.00

* *p* < 0.005

Correlations between dietary patterns and other selected variables are shown in Table 3. The *Traditional*, *Rural* and *Starchy* patterns were associated positively with total energy intake (Pearson's correlations).

Risk analysis

Adjusted odds ratios (OR) and the corresponding 95 % confidence intervals (95 % CI) for breast cancer by tertiles of dietary pattern scores are shown in Table 4. Four

Table 2 Rotated factor loadings matrix for dietary^a patterns identified

Food-based dietary patterns				
Food	Traditional	Rural	Prudent	Starchy
Pulses	−0.1067	0.4509	0.5103	−0.0925
Hard cheeses	−0.2163	0.1060	0.2323	0.0110
Soft cheeses	0.0454	−0.0043	0.1767	−0.1526
Starchy vegetables	0.2716	0.5435	0.2491	0.1864
Lean meat	−0.2421	0.1016	0.3145	0.0805
Fat meat	0.7319	0.1529	−0.0896	0.1868
Processed meat	0.2371	0.7122	−0.0545	0.0164
Eggs	0.2043	−0.0028	0.0595	0.2551
Non-alcoholic beverages	0.0744	0.1059	−0.0076	0.0183
Alcoholic beverages	0.1041	−0.0071	−0.0086	−0.0476
Refined grains	0.2330	−0.1505	0.0078	0.7382
Whole grains	−0.0797	−0.0877	0.0325	−0.6827
Bakery products	0.6588	0.3514	−0.0006	0.1481
Candies	−0.0115	0.5777	−0.0599	−0.1018
Added sugar and sweets	−0.0489	0.3308	−0.0865	0.5618
Butter and milk cream	−0.0179	0.1875	0.0078	0.0839
Vegetable oils and mayonnaise	0.6956	−0.0877	0.2392	−0.003
Milk and yogurt	−0.0132	0.1945	0.0700	−0.0564
Non-starchy vegetables	0.0533	0.0321	0.8115	0.0347
Fruits	0.0909	−0.1384	0.6495	−0.1226
Variance (%)	0.1395	0.1023	0.0716	0.0652
Cumulative variance (%)	0.1395	0.2418	0.3133	0.3786

EECC study, Córdoba, Argentina, 2008–2011

^a Loadings higher than 0.60 are typed in bold

simultaneous dietary factors, together with BMI, educational level, total energy intake, gynecological status and physical activity, were included in the multilevel model, considering family history of breast cancer as a clustering variable (Table 4). Women belonging to the second or third tertiles of the *Traditional* pattern had significantly higher risk for breast cancer than the reference (OR 1.63 95 % CI 1.59–1.69, and OR 3.13, 95 % CI 2.58–3.78, respectively). High scores for the *Rural* and *Starchy* patterns were also positively related to breast cancer risk (OR 2.02, 95 % CI 1.21–3.37; OR 1.82, 95 % CI 1.18–2.79, respectively), whereas the same category of the *Prudent* pattern showed a protective effect (OR 0.56, 95 % CI 0.41–0.77). Moreover, women with BMI ≥ 25 kg/m² had a higher risk of breast cancer compared with those without overweight (OR 1.52 95 % CI 1.31–1.75). The highest category of total energy intake evidenced a promoting effect (OR 1.55 95 % CI 1.29–1.88), and a lower education level was inversely

Table 3 Pearson's and partial correlations between dietary patterns and selected variables

Variables	Traditional pattern	Rural pattern	Prudent pattern	Starchy pattern
Pearson correlations ^a				
Age (years)	-0.1191	-0.0656	0.0064	0.0188
BMI	0.1775	-0.0447	0.0923	0.0811
Total energy intake	0.5958	0.4896	0.0919	0.4043
Partial correlations ^b				
Age (years)	-0.0078	-0.0487	0.0098	0.1116
BMI	0.0684	-0.0548	0.0022	0.0206
Total energy intake	0.1358	-0.0902	-0.2468	-0.0592

EECC study, Córdoba, Argentina, 2008–2011

^a Significant Pearson's correlations higher than 0.30 are typed in bold

^b Significant partial correlations are typed in bold

associated with breast cancer (OR 0.56 95 % CI 0.34–0.91).

Finally, results of the probabilistic sensitivity analysis show that the bias-adjusted median ORs (3.52) is higher than the conventional (2.76), but the ratio of 95 % simulation limits including systematic and random error is 90 % higher than the conventional (Table 4).

Discussion

This work identified 4 dietary patterns that explained about 37 % of the total variance in dietary intakes. These preliminary results show that the *Traditional* (fat meats, bakery products and vegetable oil and mayonnaise), *Rural* (processed meat) and *Starchy* patterns (refined grains) were positively associated, whereas the *Prudent* pattern (fruit and non-starchy vegetables group) was negatively associated with an increased risk of breast cancer. BMI and total energy intake also have a promoting effect on breast cancer occurrence, while low educational level has a preventive effect. Because it is well established in genetic epidemiology that family history is an important indicator of family aggregation of disease, we proposed a modeling approach including breast cancer family history as a possible clustering variable of subjects. Although the portion of explained variability was not significant, we decided to maintain it for possible interpretations and comparisons with similar approaches in risk factors in cancer studies. A woman's risk of breast cancer approximately doubles if she has a first-degree relative (mother, sister, daughter) who has been diagnosed with breast cancer. About 15 % of women who got breast cancer had a family member diagnosed with it.

Table 4 Breast cancer risk estimates from multilevel logistic modeling^a on dietary patterns and ORs from bias analysis

Dietary patterns	Category ^a	Cases/controls	OR crude (95 % CI)	p value	OR ^b (95 % CI)	p-value
Traditional	I	17/98				
	II	26/98	1.62 (0.82; 3.22)	0.16	1.63 (1.59; 1.69)	0.00
	III	57/98	3.56 (1.91; 6.63)	0.00	3.13 (2.58; 3.78)	0.00
Rural	I	23/98				
	II	28/98	1.27 (0.68; 2.37)	0.44	1.44 (0.64; 3.26)	0.37
	III	49/98	2.22 (1.25; 3.96)	0.00	2.02 (1.21; 3.37)	0.00
Prudent	I	42/98				
	II	36/98	0.87 (0.52; 1.48)	0.62	1.10 (0.88; 1.37)	0.37
	III	22/98	0.53 (0.30; 0.97)	0.03	0.56 (0.41; 0.77)	0.00
Starchy	I	23/98				
	II	31/98	1.39 (0.67; 2.86)	0.36	1.36 (1.04; 1.76)	0.02
	III	46/98	1.75 (0.87; 3.50)	0.11	1.82 (1.18; 2.79)	0.00
Bias analysis		Percentiles			Ratio	
		2.5	50	97.5	97.5/2.5	
Conventional ORs		1.73	2.76	4.40	2.54	
Systematic error ORs		1.93	3.51	6.82	3.53	
Systematic and random error ORs		1.64	3.52	7.93	4.84	

^a I: Tertile I, II: Tertile II, III: Tertile III, of pattern score distribution

^b Adjusted for BMI, educational level, total energy intake, gynecological status and physical activity

To our knowledge, no study on breast cancer and diet had been published applying factor analysis in Argentina. In the present study, an elevated risk of breast cancer was evident for second and third tertiles of the *Traditional* pattern. Similar patterns were found by several researchers, frequently named the Western pattern [21, 45–47] and, as in our study, most of these had a promoting effect on breast cancer occurrence. Conversely, a recent systematic review and meta-analysis on dietary patterns and breast cancer risk concluded there was no evidence of a difference in the risk of breast cancer between the highest and the lowest categories of *Western/unhealthy* dietary patterns [48].

In a case–control study carried out in Córdoba city (Argentina) to describe the role of dietary patterns on the risk of developing urinary tract tumors, two dietary patterns similar to our *Traditional* and *Prudent* patterns were identified [25]. However, a multiple correspondence analysis was used to explore dietary patterns and both sexes were considered.

Barbecued red meat is most prevalent in the Argentinean population, where there is traditionally a high consumption of animal protein and fats obtained mainly from red meat [22, 49]. Particularly in Córdoba province, Navarro et al. [49] reported a high intake of meat and meat products, with a mean of about 280 g/day. There has been no clear scientific consensus as to whether red and processed meat intake increases the risk of breast cancer. Results from a recent review and meta-analysis of red and processed meat consumption and breast cancer concluded that it did not appear to be independently associated with increasing the risk of breast cancer [50].

The *Rural* pattern, basically composed of processed meat, was also reported in other studies, named as the *Western* pattern [51]. This pattern displayed a twofold increase in risk for the higher category in the Montevideo (Uruguay) population, and the same result was observed in our study in Córdoba (Argentina). Uruguay's major ethnic streams and diet are similar to the Argentinean, though recently the existence of country-specific patterns has been emphasized [52]. Although our *Traditional* and *Rural* patterns had differences with the Southern Cone pattern identified by Pou et al. in Córdoba province, it is clear that red meat is present in all of them. The main distinction between those patterns might be explained by the differences in drinking habits between female and male genders. Traditionally, Argentinean women drink less alcohol than men, which could explain the absence of high loadings on alcoholic beverages. According to the National Risk Factors Survey in Argentina in 2009, regular alcohol consumption and episodic excessive alcohol consumption in Córdoba province were higher in men than in women (16.8 vs 7.8 % and 18 vs 4.4 %, respectively) [53].

We detected that the *Prudent* pattern, basically composed of fruits and non-starchy vegetables, results in a reduction in breast cancer risk. That had also been reported in other epidemiological research [18, 50, 52]. However, in a previous study, this pattern showed a null [13, 47, 54] or positive association with breast cancer risk [21]. On the other hand, a pooled analysis of 8 cohort studies found no overall association between fruit and vegetable intake and breast cancer risk [55], while other research evidenced an inverse association [56, 57].

The *Starchy* pattern showed high positive loadings for refined grains and a high negative load for whole grains. This pattern could be integrated into the starch-rich pattern identified by Edefonti et al. (2008) as well as with the Canteen pattern identified by Sieri et al. (2004). Our *Starchy* pattern was positively associated with breast cancer risk, which is consistent with the results of Edefonti et al. (2008). In contrast, the Canteen pattern (pasta and tomato sauce, by Sieri et al.) did not show any association with breast cancer occurrence. Other research studies linked frequent consumption of whole grains with a significantly decreased risk of most cancers, including breast cancer [58]. On the other hand, Nicodemus et al. reported a null association between whole and refined grain intake and postmenopausal breast cancer risk [59].

In this study, age at menarche and age at first birth did not show any association with breast cancer occurrence. Nevertheless, it is known that these are two well-established breast cancer risk factors [60, 61], marking the beginning and end of a period over which the nulligravid breast is undifferentiated and particularly susceptible to the potentially carcinogenic effects of endogenous hormones that circulate with menstrual cycling [62–64]. In most populations, women's average age at menarche has been declining in successive birth cohorts [65] contributing to increasing incidence of breast cancer worldwide [66–68]. Results from research in Eastern China in 2008 showed a gradual shift toward an earlier age at menarche and shorter breastfeeding lengths [69]. The protective effect of breastfeeding seems greater for women who had extended periods of breastfeeding during their lifetime [70–76]. However, other research, including ours, found no association between time of breastfeeding and breast cancer risk [77–80].

In this work, physical activity and BMI did not show association with breast cancer risk, which is consistent with results from other studies [80–82]. On the other hand, a meta-analysis showed a 6 % decrease in risk for each additional hour of physical activity per week [83], and several studies found a positive association between BMI and breast cancer risk [84–86].

Because of the nature of this study, the possibility of systematic errors must be considered. Case–control studies

were commonly affected by recall bias caused by “rumination” in cases regarding the possible causes of their disease. On the other hand, it is known that in general, the low specificity is associated with a higher degree of bias when the exposure prevalence is low [87], but the Argentinean population showed a high exposure prevalence given the dietary patterns found in the present and in other recent studies [22, 25]. Further, our FFQ had a satisfactory level of validity and reproducibility [31].

Interviewer bias is also a potential threat to any case-control study. However, we implemented several procedures to minimize the likelihood of its occurrence, including the development of a detailed manual of operations, the training of staff, the standardization of data collection procedures and the monitoring of data collection activities. Moreover, most of interviewers were masked with regard to the main study hypothesis, which may remove an important source of bias, particularly when they are familiar with the case-control status of study participants.

In order to avoid potentially important confounding factors, we tried to make cases and controls as similar as possible by matching by sex, age and place of residence, and they were interviewed in the same period of time, all of which also reduces the possibility of selection bias. Nevertheless, residual confounding may be present as we are not sure whether the study base was selected in such a way as to include covariant factors that do not occur in the general population and whether the sample size is sufficient to detect a reliable effect of dietary pattern exposure on breast cancer occurrence [22]. For instance, some reproductive characteristics (parity, time of breastfeeding and age at first birth), which have a recognized/known protective effect for breast cancer and a possible association with the exposure, must be considered.

For this purpose, a multiple probabilistic sensitivity analysis was carried out. As expected, the OR for the traditional pattern increased 30 %. Most of this increase may be attributed to heterogeneity caused by unobserved confounding, which was named here as reproductive characteristics. In fact, among women with fewer years of schooling, there was an important protective effect of the exposure of interest. No evidence of important influence of selection and classification (although non-differential classification was assumed) bias was observed. In this sense, it is worth noting that the Argentinean population's exposure to the *Traditional* pattern is intensive, as almost all the population may be located at the highest level of exposure [22, 49].

Conclusions

Summing up, the present study identified four dietary patterns named as *Traditional*, *Rural*, *Prudent* and *Starchy*.

Whereas the *Prudent* pattern was associated with a reduced risk of breast cancer, the *Traditional*, *Rural* and *Starchy* patterns showed a promoting effect. Our results support the hypothesis of an association between dietary patterns and breast cancer. Further studies could reassure the validity of our findings. In particular, confirmatory factor analysis could clarify the dietary patterns found in this study. The particular alimentary habits of this region turn necessary to deepen the study of dietary patterns and its effect on breast cancer occurrence.

Acknowledgments Natalia Tumas and Camila Niclis's research was supported by fellowships provided by the National Scientific and Technical Research Council (CONICET) and by the Science and Technology Secretary of the National University of Córdoba. This research was supported by the National Science and Technology Agency, FONCyT Grant PICT 2008-1814, PICT-O 2005-36035, and Science and Technical Secretariat of the University of Córdoba (SECyT-UNC) Grant 05/H207. The authors also would like to acknowledge the following institutions and physicians: Hospital Misericordia, Maternidad Nacional, Hospital La Calera, EMERCO, Clínica Privada Jesús María, Dispensarios Municipales of La Calera, Cuesta Colorada, Salsipuedes and La Granja, Drs. Perazzolo A, Chalimond E, Roldán E. and Sarmiento J.

Conflict of interest On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

References

1. Parkin DM, Bray F, Ferlay J, Pisani P (2005) Global cancer statistics. *CA Cancer J Clin* 55:74–108
2. IARC (2008) Internal Resources: Cancer Incidence and Mortality Worldwide in 2008. <http://globocan.iarc.fr/factsheets/populations/factsheet.asp?uno=32#BOTH>. Accessed 20 April 2012
3. Bosetti C, Malvezzi M, Chatenoud L, Negri E, Levi F, La Vecchia C (2005) Trends in cancer mortality in the Americas, 1970–2000. *Ann Oncol* 16(3):489–511
4. Díaz MP, Corrente JE, Osella AR, Muñoz SE, Aballay LR (2010) Modeling spatial distribution of cancer incidence in Cordoba, Argentina. *Appl Cancer Res* 30(2):245–252
5. Cappellani A, Di Vita M, Zanghi A, Cavallaro A, Piccolo G, Veroux M, Berretta M, Malaguarrera M, Canzonieri V, Lo Menzo E (2012) Diet, obesity and breast cancer: an update. *Front Biosci (Schol Ed)* 4:90–108
6. Iwasaki M, Tsugane S (2011) Risk factors for breast cancer: epidemiological evidence from Japanese studies. *Cancer Sci* 102(9):1607–1614
7. Swinburn BA, Sacks G, Hall KD et al (2011) The global obesity pandemic: shaped by global drivers and local environments. *Lancet* 378:804–814
8. Filozof C, Gonzalez C, Sereday M, Mazza C, Braguinsky J (2001) Obesity prevalence and trends in Latin-American countries. *Obes Rev* 2(2):99–106
9. Ferraroni M, Decarli A, Franceschi S, La Vecchia C (1998) Alcohol consumption and risk of breast cancer: a multicentre Italian case-control study. *Eur J Cancer* 34:1403–1409
10. Smith-Warner SA, Spiegelman D, Yaun SS et al (1998) Alcohol and breast cancer in women: a pooled analysis of cohort studies. *JAMA* 279:535–540

11. Edefonti V, Randi G, La Vecchia C, Ferraroni M, Decarli A (2009) Dietary patterns and breast cancer: a review with focus on methodological issues. *Nutr Rev* 67(6):297–314
12. Velie EM, Schairer C, Flood A, He JP, Khattree R, Stchazkin A (2005) Empirically derived dietary patterns and risk of postmenopausal breast cancer in a large prospective cohort study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 82(6):1308–1319
13. Fung T, Hu F, Holmes M, Rosner B, Hunter D, Colditz GA, Willett WC (2005) Dietary patterns and the risk of postmenopausal breast cancer. *Int J Cancer* 116(1):116–121
14. Buck K, Vrieling A, Flesch-Janys D, Chang-Claude J (2011) Dietary patterns and the risk of postmenopausal breast cancer in a German case-control study. *Cancer Causes Control* 22(2):273–282
15. Ronco AL, de Stefani E, Aune D, Boffetta P, Deneo-Pellegrini H, Acosta G, Mendilaharsu M (2010) Nutrient patterns and risk of breast cancer in Uruguay. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev* 11(2):519–524
16. Ademawobo C, Hu F, Eunyoung C, Spiegelman D, Holmes M, Willett WC (2005) Dietary patterns and the risk of breast cancer. *Ann Epidemiol* 15(10):789–795
17. Baglietto L, Krishnan K, Severi G, Hodge A, Brinkman M, English DR, McLean C, Hopper JL, Giles GG (2011) Dietary patterns and risk of breast cancer. *Br J Cancer* 104(3):524–531
18. Agurs-Collins T, Rosenberg L, Makambi K, Palmer JR, Adams-Campbell L (2009) Dietary patterns and breast cancer risk in women participating in the Black Women's Health Study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 90(3):621–628
19. Sieri S, Vittorio K, Pala V (2004) Dietary patterns and risk of breast cancer in the ORDET cohort. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 13:567–572
20. Edefonti V, Decarli A, La Vecchia C, Bosetti C, Randi G, Francheschi S, Dal Maso L, Ferraroni M (2008) Nutrient dietary patterns and the risk of breast and ovarian cancers. *Int J Cancer* 122(3):609–613
21. Murtaugh MA, Sweeney C, Giuliano AR, Herrick JS, Hines L, Byers T, Baumgartner KB, Slattery ML (2008) Diet patterns and breast cancer risk in Hispanic and non-Hispanic white women: the Four-Corners Breast Cancer Study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 87(4):978–984
22. Pou SA, Díaz MD, Osella AR (2012) Applying multilevel model to the relationship of dietary patterns and colorectal cancer: an ongoing case-control study in Córdoba, Argentina. *Eur J Nutr* 51(6):755–764
23. Iscovich JM, Iscovich RB, Howe G, Shiboski S, Kaldor JM (1989) A case-control study of diet and breast cancer in Argentina. *Int J Cancer* 44(5):770–776
24. Matos EL, Thomas DB, Sobel N, Vuoto D (1991) Breast cancer in Argentina: case-control study with special reference to meat eating habits. *Neoplasma* 38(3):357–366
25. Andreatta MM, Navarro A, Muñoz SE, Aballay L, Eynard AR (2010) Dietary patterns and food groups are linked to the risk of urinary tract tumors in Argentina. *Eur J Cancer Prev* 19(6):478–484
26. Díaz MP, Osella AR, Aballay LR, Muñoz SE, Lantieri MJ, Butinof M, Paz RM, Pou S, Eynard AR, La Vecchia C (2009) Cancer incidence pattern in Córdoba, Argentina. *Eur J Cancer Prev* 18(4):259–266
27. Niclis C, Díaz MP, La Vecchia C (2010) Breast cancer mortality trends and patterns in Córdoba, Argentina in the period 1986–2006. *Eur J Cancer Prev* 19(2):94–99
28. Aballay LR, Díaz MD, Francisca FM, Muñoz SE (2011) Cancer incidence and pattern of arsenic concentration in drinking water wells in Córdoba, Argentina. *Int J Environ Health Res* 22(3):220–231
29. Pou SA, Osella AR, Díaz MP (2011) Bladder cancer mortality trends and patterns in Córdoba, Argentina (1986–2006). *Cancer Causes Control* 22(3):407–415
30. International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) (2005) <http://www.ipaq.ki.se/ipaq.htm>. Accessed 21 May 2010
31. Navarro A, Osella AR, Guerra V, Muñoz SE, Lantieri MJ, Eynard AR (2001) Reproducibility and validity of a food-frequency questionnaire in assessing dietary intakes and food habits in epidemiological cancer studies in Argentina. *J Exp Clin Cancer Res* 20(3):203–208
32. Navarro A, Cristaldo PE, Díaz MP, Eynard AR (2000) Atlas fotográfico para cuantificar el consumo de alimentos y nutrientes en estudios nutricionales epidemiológicos en Córdoba, Argentina. *Rev Fac Cienc Méd Córdoba* 57(1):67–74
33. Peyrano M, Gigena J, Muñoz SE, Lantieri M, Eynard AR, Navarro A (1998) A computer software system for the analysis of Dietary data in cancer epidemiological research. 17th International Cancer Congress, Monduzzi Editore, p 381–384
34. Mazzei ME, Puchulu MR (1993) Tabla de composición química de alimentos. Buenos Aires, CENEXA, p 169
35. Navarro A, Muñoz SE, Lantieri MJ (1997) Composición de ácidos grasos saturados e insaturados en alimentos de consumo frecuente en Argentina. *Arch Latinoamer Nutr* 47:276–281
36. Suzuki R, Saji S, Toi M (2012) Impact of body mass index on breast cancer in accordance with the life-stage of women. *Front Oncol* 2:123
37. World Cancer Research Fund/American Institute for Cancer Research (2007). *Cancers. In: Food, nutrition, physical activity, and the prevention of cancer: a global perspective*. AICR, Washington p 289
38. Wang Q, Li J, Zheng S, Li JY, Pang Y, Huang R, Zhang BN, Zhang B, Yang HJ, Xie XM, Tang ZH, Li H, He JJ, Fan JH, Qiao YL (2012) Breast cancer stage at diagnosis and area-based socioeconomic status: a multicenter 10-year retrospective clinical epidemiological study in China. *BMC Cancer* 12:122
39. Wu Y, Zhang D, Kang S (2012) Physical activity and risk of breast cancer: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 137(3):869–882
40. Blakely T, Woodward A (2000) Ecological effects in multi-level studies. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 54:367–374
41. DiPrete TA, Markus G (2004) Assessing bias in the estimation of causal effects: Rosenbaum bounds on matching estimates and instrumental variables with imperfect instruments. *Sociol Methodol* 34:271–310
42. Hajian-Tilaki KO, Kaveh-Ahangar T (2011) Reproductive factors associated with breast cancer risk in northern Iran. *Med Oncol* 128(2):441–446
43. Stata Statistical Software, versión 12. StataCorp LP (2011) College Station, TX 77845, USA
44. Orsini N, Bellocco R, Bottai M, Wolk A, Greenland S (2008) A tool for deterministic and probabilistic sensitivity analysis of epidemiologic studies. *Stata J* 1(8):29–48
45. Ronco AL, De Stefani E, Deneo-Pellegrini H, Boffetta P, Aune D, Silva C, Landó G, Luaces ME, Acosta G, Mendilaharsu M (2010) Dietary patterns and risk of ductal carcinoma of the breast: a factor analysis in Uruguay. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev* 11(5):1187–1193
46. De Stefani E, Deneo-Pellegrini H, Boffetta P, Ronco AL, Aune D, Acosta G, Mendilaharsu M, Brennan P, Ferro G (2009) Dietary patterns and risk of cancer: a factor analysis in Uruguay. *Int J Cancer* 124(6):1391–1397
47. Cui X, Dai Q, Tseng M, Shu XO, Gao YT, Lu W, Gu K, Zheng W (2007) Dietary patterns and breast cancer risk in the Shanghai breast cancer study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 16(7):1443–1448
48. Brennan SF, Cantwell MM, Cardwell CR, Velentzis LS, Woodside JV (2010) Dietary patterns and breast cancer risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Clin Nutr* 91(5):1294–1302

49. Navarro A, Muñoz SE, Lantieri MJ, Díaz MP, Cristaldo PE, de Fabro SP, Eynard AR (2004) Meat cooking habits and risk of colorectal cancer in Cordoba, Argentina. *Nutrition* 20(10):873–877
50. Alexander DD, Morimoto LM, Mink PJ, Cushing CA (2010) A review and meta-analysis of red and processed meat consumption and breast cancer. *Nutr Res Rev* 23(2):349–365
51. Ronco A, De Stefani E, Boffetta P, Deneo-Pellegrini H, Acosta G, Mendilaharsu M (2006) Food patterns and risk of breast cancer: a factor analysis study in Uruguay. *Int J Cancer* 119(7):1672–1678
52. Balder HF, Virtanen M, Brants HA, Krogh V, Dixon LB, Tan F, Mannisto S, Bellocco R, Pietinen P, Wolk A, Berrino F, Van den Brandt PA, Hartman AM, Goldbohm RA (2003) Common and country-specific dietary patterns in four European cohort studies. *J Nutr* 133(12):4246–4251
53. Ferrante D, Linetzky B, Konfino J, King A, Virgolini M, Laspiur S (2011) Encuesta Nacional de Factores de Riesgo 2009: evolución de la epidemia de enfermedades crónicas no transmisibles en Argentina. Estudio de corte transversal. *Rev Argent Salud Pública* 2(6):34–41
54. Männistö S, Dixon LB, Balder HF, Virtanen MJ, Krogh V, Khani BR, Berrino F, Van den Brandt PA, Hartman AM, Pietinen P, Tan F, Wolk A, Goldbohm RA (2005) Dietary patterns and breast cancer risk: results from three cohort studies in the DIETSCAN project. *Cancer Causes Control* 16(6):725–733
55. Smith-Warner SA, Spiegelman D, Yaun SS, Adami HO, Beeson WL, Van den Brandt PA et al (2001) Intake of fruits and vegetables and risk of breast cancer: a pooled analysis of cohort studies. *JAMA* 285(6):769–776
56. Boggs DA, Palmer JR, Wise LA, Spiegelman D, Stampfer MJ, Adams-Campbell LL, Rosenberg L (2010) Fruit and vegetable intake in relation to risk of breast cancer in the Black Women's Health Study. *Am J Epidemiol* 172(11):1268–1279
57. Zhang CX, Ho SC, Chen YM, Fu JH, Cheng SZ, Fu JH, Cheng SZ, Lin FY (2009) Greater vegetable and fruit intake is associated with a lower risk of breast cancer among Chinese women. *Int J Cancer* 125(1):181–188
58. Chatenoud L, Tavani A, La Vecchia C, Jacobs DR Jr, Negri E, Levi F et al (1998) Whole grain food intake and cancer risk. *Int J Cancer* 77(1):24–28
59. Nicodemus KK, Jacobs DR Jr, Folsom AR (2001) Whole and refined grain intake and risk of incident postmenopausal breast cancer (United States). *Cancer Causes Control* 12(10):917–925
60. Bernstein L (1998) The epidemiology of breast cancer. *Women Cancer* 1S:7–13
61. Kelsey JL, Gammon MD, John EM (1993) Reproductive factors and breast cancer. *Epidemiol Rev* 15:36–47
62. Littman AJ, White E (2007) Relationship between age maximum height is attained, age at menarche, and age at first full-term birth and breast cancer risk. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 16(10):2144–2149
63. Andrieu N, Smith T, Duffy S, Zaridze DG, Renaud R, Rohan T et al (1998) The effects of interaction between familial and reproductive factors on breast cancer risk: a combined analysis of seven case-control studies. *Br J Cancer* 77:1525–1536
64. Clavel-Chapelon F (2002) Cumulative number of menstrual cycles and breast cancer risk: results from the E3 N cohort study of French women. *Cancer Causes Control* 13:831–838
65. Tanner JM (1981) Menarcheal age. *Science* 214(4521):604–606
66. Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer. Menarche, menopause, and breast cancer risk: individual participant meta-analysis, including 118 964 women with breast cancer from 117 epidemiological studies. *Lancet Oncol* 13(11):1141–1151
67. Zhang Jun-qing Wu, Yan-qiao ZM, Chunrong C (2010) Relationship between menstrual and reproductive factors and female breast cancer in China: meta-analysis. *Modern Prev Med* 37:1262–1264
68. Gail MH, Costantino JP, Pee D, Bondy M, Newman L, Selvan M, Anderson GL et al (2007) Projecting individualized absolute invasive breast cancer risk in African American women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 99(23):1782–1792
69. Zhang Q, Liu LY, Wang F, Mu K, Yu ZG (2012) The changes in female physical and childbearing characteristics in China and potential association with risk of breast cancer. *BMC Public Health* 12:368
70. Aguilar Cordero MJ, González Jiménez E, Álvarez Ferre J, Padilla López CA, Mur Villar N, García López PA et al (2010) Lactancia materna: un método eficaz en la prevención del cáncer de mama. *Nutr Hosp* 25(6):954–958
71. Huo D, Adebamowo CA, Ogundiran TO, Akang EE, Campbell O, Adenipekun A et al (2008) Parity and breastfeeding are protective against breast cancer in Nigerian women. *Br J Cancer* 98:992–996
72. Freund C, Mirabel L, Annane K, Mathelin C (2005) Breastfeeding and breast cancer. *Gynecol Obstet Fertil* 33:739–744
73. Romieu I, Hernandez-Avila M, Lazcano E, Lopez L, Romero-Jaime R (1996) Breast cancer and lactation history in Mexican women. *Am J Epidemiol* 143(6):543–552
74. Newcomb PA, Storer BE, Longnecker MP et al (1994) Lactation and a reduced risk of premenopausal breast cancer. *N Engl J Med* 330(2):81–87
75. Yang CP, Weiss NS, Band PR, Gallagher RP, White E, Daling JR (1993) History of lactation and breast cancer risk. *Am J Epidemiol* 138(12):1050–1056
76. Gajalakshmi V, Mathew A, Brennan P, Rajan B, Kanimozhi VC, Mathews A et al (2009) Breast feeding and breast cancer risk in India: a multicenter case-control study. *Int J Cancer* 125:662–665
77. Bessaoud F, Daurès JP (2008) Patterns of alcohol (especially wine) consumption and breast cancer risk: a case-control study among a population in Southern France. *Ann Epidemiol* 18:467–475
78. Nemesure B, Wu SY, Hambleton IR, Leske MC, Hennis AJ (2009) Risk factors for breast cancer in a black population—the Barbados National Cancer Study. *Int J Cancer* 124:174–179
79. Tessaro S, Beria JU, Tomasi E, Victora CG (2003) Breastfeeding and breast cancer: a case-control study in Southern Brazil. *Cad Saude Publica* 19(6):1593–1601
80. Gammon MD, Schoenberg JB, Britton JA, Kelsey JL, Coates RJ, Brogan D et al (1998) Recreational physical activity and breast cancer risk among women under age 45 years. *Am J Epidemiol* 147(3):273–280
81. Margolis KL, Mucci L, Braaten T, Kumle M, Trolle Lagerros Y, Adami HO, Lund E et al (2005) Physical activity in different periods of life and the risk of breast cancer: the Norwegian-Swedish Women's Lifestyle and Health cohort study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 14(1):27–32
82. Cheraghi Z, Poorolajal J, Hashem T, Esmailnasab N, DoostiIrani A (2012) Effect of body mass index on breast cancer during premenopausal and postmenopausal periods: a meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE* 7(12):e51446
83. Monninkhof EM, Elias SG, Vleems FA et al (2007) Physical activity and breast cancer: a systematic review. *Epidemiology* 18:137–157
84. Renehan AG, Tyson M, Egger M, Heller RF, Zwahlen M (2009) Body-mass index and incidence of cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Cancer* 124:698–712
85. Kuriyama S, Tsubono Y, Hozawa A et al (2005) Obesity and risk of cancer in Japan. *Int J Cancer* 113:148–157
86. Iwasaki M, Otani T, Inoue M, Sasazuki S, Tsugane S (2007) Body size and risk for breast cancer in relation to estrogen and progesterone receptor status in Japan. *Ann Epidemiol* 17:304–312
87. Szklo M, Nieto J (2007) Understanding lack of validity: bias. In: *Epidemiology: beyond the basics* 2nd ed. Jones and Bartlett Publishers, Sudbury p 109–149