doi: 10.1093/jncics/pky030 Article

ARTICLE Number of Risky Lifestyle Behaviors and Breast Cancer Risk

Merete Ellingjord-Dale, Linda Vos, Kirsti Vik Hjerkind, Anette Hjartåker, Hege G. Russnes, Steinar Tretli, Solveig Hofvind, Isabel dos-Santos-Silva, Giske Ursin

See the Notes section for the full list of authors' affiliations.

Correspondence to: Merete Ellingjord-Dale, PhD, Cancer Registry of Norway, P.O. Box 5313 Majorstuen, 0304 Oslo, Norway (e-mail: merete.ellingjord-dale@kreftregisteret.no).

Abstract

Background: Lifestyle factors are associated with overall breast cancer risk, but less is known about their associations, alone or jointly, with risk of specific breast cancer subtypes.

Methods: We conducted a case–control subjects study nested within a cohort of women who participated in the Norwegian Breast Cancer Screening Program during 2006–2014 to examine associations between risky lifestyle factors and breast cancer risk. In all, 4402 breast cancer cases subjects with information on risk factors and hormone receptor status were identified. Conditional logistic regression was used to estimate odds ratios (ORs), with 95% confidence intervals (CIs), in relation to five risky lifestyle factors: body mass index (BMI) of 25 kg/m² or greater, three or more glasses of alcoholic beverages per week, ever smoking, fewer than four hours of physical activity per week, and ever use of menopausal hormone therapy. Analyses were adjusted for education, age at menarche, number of pregnancies, and menopausal status. All statistical tests were two-sided.

Results: Compared with women with no risky lifestyle behaviors, those with five had 85% (OR = 1.85, 95% CI = 1.42 to 2.42, $P_{trend} < .0001$) increased risk of breast cancer overall. This association was limited to luminal A–like (OR = 2.20, 95% CI = 1.55 to 3.12, $P_{trend} < .0001$) and luminal B–like human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)–positive (OR = 1.66, 95% CI = 0.61 to 4.54, $P_{trend} < .004$) subtypes. Number of risky lifestyle factors was not associated with increased risk of luminal B–like HER2-negative, HER2-positive, or triple-negative subtypes ($P_{trend} > .18$ for all).

Conclusions: Number of risky lifestyle factors was positively associated with increased risk for luminal A-like and luminal B-like HER2-positive breast cancer.

Previous studies have shown that alcohol (1–6), postmenopausal body mass index (BMI) (7), and menopausal hormone therapy (8–11) are risk factors for breast cancer, whereas physical activity is a protective factor for breast cancer (12). Smoking may not be a strong breast cancer risk factor (13–16), but it is strongly associated with other cancers, and thus must be considered a risky lifestyle behavior.

Often, risky lifestyle behaviors coexist, and it is therefore important to combine these behaviors, as opposed to simply looking at them individually, when studying breast cancer risk. Several studies have reported that the combined effect of risky lifestyle behaviors is associated with increased mortality overall (17–21), as well as cancer mortality (22). Very few studies have investigated the combined effect of lifestyle factors on breast cancer overall (23–25) or on the risk of specific breast cancer subtypes (23,26,27). However, although these studies have examined the association between breast cancer and BMI, food, al-cohol, smoking, and physical activity (23,25–27), none have included menopausal hormone therapy use. Further, of the three studies that examined the effect on subtypes (23,26,27),

© The Author(s) 2018. Published by Oxford University Press.

Received: February 12, 2018; Revised: May 3, 2018; Accepted: June 5, 2018

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (http://creativecommons.org/ licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com

none defined them using the full estrogen receptor (ER)/progesterone receptor (PR)/human epidermal growth factor 2 (HER2) status classification for a more refined stratification.

Breast cancer subtypes, defined as agreed upon at the 2013 St. Gallen Meeting (28), provide the basis for managing early invasive breast cancer. Different subtypes respond to different treatment regimens, suggesting that they may have a different biology and possibly also a different etiological profile. The published evidence (9,29–34) suggests that luminal A-like cancers have a hormonal etiology, but the association of hormonalrelated factors with luminal B-like, HER2-positive, and triplenegative breast cancers is less clear. A large meta-analysis found stronger positive associations between alcohol and ERpositive tumors and weaker positive associations between alcohol and ER-negative tumors (35), and there is some evidence that smoking increases the risk of ER-positive and PR-positive breast tumors (36–39).

Our previous analyses from the Norwegian Breast Cancer Screening Program (40,41) found that BMI, smoking, alcohol, physical activity, and menopausal hormone therapy were individually associated with breast cancer overall, but the magnitude of these associations varied markedly according to ER/PR/ HER2-defined subtypes, the latter taken as surrogates of the St. Gallen intrinsic subtypes (28). The aim of the present study was to extend these analyses by examining the combined effect of these lifestyle factors on risk of breast cancer overall and by ER/ PR/HER2-defined subtypes. The study did not include dietary factors other than alcohol intake because no strong associations between such factors and breast cancer risk have been found in Norway (42,43).

Methods

Study Population

The methods have previously been described in detail (40). In brief, the Cancer Registry of Norway (CRN) is a population-based registry that is responsible for the administration of the Norwegian Breast Cancer Screening Program (NBCSP) (44). The registry is estimated to be 93.8% complete (45). All women in Norway age 50 to 69 years are invited to undergo a two-view mammography screening every two years. The average attendance rate in each round is about 75% (44). Women who attended the screening during 2006–2014 were asked to complete a questionnaire on a number of standard breast cancer risk factors before age 50 years and another questionnaire on current exposure variables at subsequent screenings.

Because of short follow-up, we conducted a matched casecontrol subjects study nested within a cohort of 344 348 women who attended the NBCSP during 2006–2014. Eligible women were those with no history of breast cancer, any other invasive cancer (except nonmelanoma skin cancer), or ductal carcinoma in situ of the breast before January 1, 2006. Participants who fulfilled these criteria and who had completed the questionnaires were included in the current study cohort from which cases and control subjects were identified. Information on cancer ascertainment among cohort members was obtained through linkage to the CRN records.

Case subjects were women diagnosed with a first occurrence of invasive breast cancer (ICD10: C50) during 2006–2014, with information on ER, PR, and HER2 receptor status (see below). Control subjects had to be cancer free, alive, and residing in the country at the time of diagnosis. Five control subjects were individually matched to each breast cancer case subjects by year of birth (+/-3 years) and year of last screening (+/-3 years).

The Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics in the South-East Health Region of Norway approved the study.

If a variable was missing on all the questionnaires a woman had completed, we excluded her from all analyses. Of the 6471 breast cancer case subjects, we excluded the following due to missing information on: BMI (n = 532), educational level (n = 135), age at menarche (n = 229), number of pregnancies (n = 164), menopausal status (n = 59), smoking habits (n = 62), alcohol intake (n = 154), and physical activity (n = 184). Finally, there were 4952 breast cancer case subjects for analysis. Of the 339 714 remaining women in the cohort, before we selected control subjects, we excluded women with missing information on: BMI (n = 67 813), educational level (n = 8362), age at menarche (n = 14 818), number of pregnancies (n = 8771), menopausal status (n = 6632), smoking (n = 6381), alcohol (n = 12 878), and physical activity (n = 16 205). This left us with 197 854 women in the cohort. Of these, we randomly selected five control subjects per case subjects, which left us with 24 760 control subjects for analysis.

Tumor Receptor Status Ascertainment

Information on ER, PR, and HER2 status, as assessed by immunohistochemistry (IHC), was extracted from pathology reports submitted to the CRN. Tumors were classified as being ER+ if they had 10% or greater reactivity from 2006 to January 2012, and if they had 1% or greater reactivity from February 2012 onwards. The change in threshold was a result of a change in treatment protocols of patients in the clinics in Norway. PR+ tumors were defined as those with a reactivity of 10% or greater throughout the study period. Case subjects with no (0) or weak (1+) immunostaining were classified as HER2-, whereas case subjects with strong immunostaining (3+) were defined as HER2+. In situ hybridization was used to confirm HER2 status if IHC yielded moderate staining (2+) results. If IHC was 2+ and fluorescence (FISH), chromogenic (CISH), or silver in situ hybridization (SISH) was missing, or if IHC was missing but FISH, CISH, or SISH were positive, the tumor was classified as HER2+. If IHC was 2+ and FISH, CISH, and SISH were negative, the tumor was regarded as HER2-.

We used a modified version of the classification of clinically defined subtypes proposed at the St. Gallen meeting in 2013 (28). Of the 4952 breast cancer case subjects, 550 case subjects had unknown hormone receptor status (ie, ER and/or PR) and HER2 status or could not be classified into subtypes. Of the 4402 breast cancer case subjects, 2761 (63%) were classified as luminal A–like (ER+PR+HER2-), 709 (16%) as luminal B–like HER2-negative (ER+PR-HER2-), 367 (9%) as luminal B–like HER2-positive (ER+PR+HER2+), 204 (5%) as HER2-positive (ER-PR-HER2+), and 361 (8%) as triple-negative (ER-PR-HER2-).

Risk Factors

Data on the exposures of interest were extracted from the questionnaires completed at the most recent screening before breast cancer diagnosis for the case subjects and the corresponding round for control subjects. Although this is less than ideal for exposures associated with initiation of cancer, the time point was chosen to capture recent exposures such as hormone therapy, for which we have previously found strong associations with breast cancer risk (40,46). The primary exposures of interest were BMI, alcohol consumption, smoking habits, physical activity, and postmenopausal hormone therapy. Weight and height were self-reported. Women were asked about the amount of beer, wine, or liquor consumed in glasses per week. The amount of total alcohol intake was estimated assuming 14 grams of ethanol per glass of liquor, 20 grams per 0.5 liters of beer, and 12 grams per glass of wine. We converted the alcohol consumed per week into glasses per week, assuming every glass would have the same alcohol content as a glass of wine (12 grams). The tables therefore contain glasses per week estimated as total grams of alcohol per week divided by 12 grams of alcohol per glass.

Smoking status was categorized into never, past, and current smoking. Never smokers were defined as those women who had never smoked. Women who did not currently smoke but had smoked in the past were defined as past smokers, and current smokers were those women currently smoking. Physical activity was estimated as number of hours per week of high-intensity physical activity (running, aerobic, or cycling for at least 30 minutes each time) and low-intensity physical activity (walking, gardening, snow clearing). We added up hours of low- and high-intensity-level physical exercise into one combined variable. We analyzed high, low, and the combined activity variables separately, but we only present results for the combined low and high activity variable. Information on menopausal hormone therapy was examined as never, past, and current use, and the latter was separated into estrogen alone (ET) and combined estrogen and progestin therapy (EPT).

Creation of the Risky Lifestyle Behavior Variable

We used cut-points to define "risky" for each of the lifestyle factors based on our previously published results (40,47), that is, where the risk estimates (odds ratios [ORs]) showed a statistically significantly elevated risk. To sum up various risky lifestyle behaviors, we created binary variables for each behavior as follows: ever smoking, weekly consumption of more than three glasses of alcoholic beverage, less than four hours of physical activity per week, ever use of menopausal hormone (estrogen or estrogen and progesterone) therapy, and BMI (\geq 25 kg/m²); we made dummy variables of smoking (0 = never, 1 = ever), alcohol intake (0 = <3 glasses/wk, 1 = ≥ 3 glasses/wk), physical activity (0 = $\geq 4 \text{ h/wk}$, 1 = <4 h/wk), menopausal hormone therapy use (0 = never, 1 = ever), and BMI $(0 = \langle 25 \text{ kg/m}^2, 1 = \geq 25 \text{ kg/m}^2)$. The risky lifestyle behavior variable was created as a sum of all the binary variables, with a resulting range from 0 to 5 risky lifestyle behaviors.

Selection of Confounders

Potential confounders were selected a priori: education (no formal education/primary school, high school, Bachelor's/ Master's/higher university education), age at menarche (9–12, 13, 14, 15–18 years), number of pregnancies lasting at least six months (never, 1, 2, 3, \geq 4), and menopausal status (premenopausal if a woman reported still having a regular menstrual period, perimenopausal if she reported irregular periods, and postmenopausal if she reported that menstruation had stopped or being on menopausal hormone therapy).

Statistical Analyses

Conditional logistic regression models were fitted to estimate odds ratios (with 95% confidence intervals [CIs]) as a measure of

association between each individual risk factor, the number of risky lifestyle behaviors, and breast cancer (overall and by subtypes), adjusted for confounders.

Trend tests on the original continuous or categorical variables, as well as on the number of risky lifestyle behaviors, were performed by fitting ordinal values corresponding to exposure categories and testing whether the slope coefficient differed from zero. All analyses were performed using STATA (Stata Statistical Software: Release 14, StataCorp., College Station, TX). We considered a two-sided P value of less than .05 statistically significant.

Sensitivity Analyses

Because of the low numbers in the reference category (0 risky lifestyle behaviors), we did a sensitivity analysis where we defined the reference category as 0–1 risky lifestyle behaviors. Many of the other studies on breast cancer subtypes have combined the luminal A–like and luminal B–like HER2-negative subtype into one luminal A–like subtype. Therefore, we also performed a sensitivity analysis where we combined these two subtypes.

Given that some risk factors, such as overweight/obesity, have different associations with premenopausal vs postmenopausal breast cancer, we ran a sensitivity analysis excluding premenopausal women.

Interaction Analyses

To test whether the five lifestyle factors interacted with each other, we ran statistical analyses to test the interaction between the binary risky lifestyle factors and breast cancer overall. The $P_{interaction}$ (P_{int}) value was calculated by modeling interaction terms (cross-products) between the different binary lifestyle behaviors and breast cancer overall.

Results

BMI (P_{trend} < .0001), intake of alcohol (P_{trend} = .003), smoking status ($P_{trend} = .007$), and menopausal hormone therapy use (Ptrend < .0001) were associated with an increased risk, and physical activity (Ptrend = .02) was associated with a decreased risk for breast cancer overall (Table 1). Women with a BMI greater than 28 kg/m² had a 23% increased risk of breast cancer compared with women with low BMI (<22 kg/m²), women who drank five or more glasses of alcohol beverages a week had a 20% increased breast cancer risk compared with never drinkers, current smokers had a 13% elevated breast cancer risk compared with never smokers, current users of estrogen and progesterone therapy had a more than twofold increased breast cancer risk compared with never users, and women who were physically active for four or more hours a week had an 11% decreased breast cancer risk compared with women who exercised zero hours to one hour per week (Table 1).

Each binary risk factor was associated with a 10%–38% increase in risk of luminal A–like breast cancer and a non-statistical 18%–25% increase in risk of breast cancer of luminal B–like HER2-positive subtype, except for physical inactivity (Table 2). We found no associations between the binary risk factors and the other breast cancer subtypes.

When we combined the number of risky lifestyle behaviors, women with five risky lifestyle behaviors had an 85% increased risk (95% CI = 1.42 to 2.42) of breast cancer overall compared

Table 1. The associatio	n between alcohol	, smoking, ph	ysical activity,
hormone therapy use,	body mass index a	and breast can	cer overall

Breast cancer overall			
	Case subjects	Control subjects	OR* (95% CI)
BMI, kg/m ² †			
≤22	672	4162	1 (ref)
23–25	1318	7879	1.05 (0.95 to 1.16)
26–28	1175	6343	1.16 (1.04 to 1.29)
>28	1237	6376	1.23 (1.11 to 1.37)
P _{trend} Alcohol intake per			<.0001
Never drinkers	725	4581	1 (ref)
1	935	5300	1 08 (0 97 to 1 20)
2	850	4853	1.08 (0.97 to 1.20)
2 3_4	1073	5887	1.00 (0.57 to 1.21)
5+	819	4040	1.20 (1.07 to 1.35)
P _{trend} Smoking§			.003
Never	1748	10 000	1 (ref)
Past	1579	8572	1.07 (0.99 to 1.15)
Current	1075	5726	1.13 (1.03 to 1.23)
P _{trend} Physical activity per week, h∥			.007
0–1	712	3758	1 (ref)
2–3	2055	11 000	0.97 (0.88 to 1.07)
4+	1635	9758	0.89 (0.81 to 0.98)
P _{trend} Menopausal hormone therapy use†			.02
Never	2062	13 000	1 (ref)
Past	1612	8315	1.19 (1.10 to 1.29)
Estrogen current	183	1120	1.08 (0.91 to 1.28)
Estrogen and	224	661	2.23 (1.88 to 2.65)
progesterone current			. ,
P _{trend}			<.0001

*P_{trend} and OR mutually adjusted for BMI (≤ 22 , 23–25, 26–28, > 28 at screening), education (no education/primary school, high school, Bachelor's and Master's +), age at menarche (9–12, 13, 14, 15–18 years), number of pregnancies (never, 1, 2, 3, ≥ 4), and menopausal status (pre-, peri-, postmenopausal). BMI = body mass index; CI = confidence interval; OR = odds ratio.

+BMI and hormone therapy additionally adjusted for physical activity (never, 1 hour, 2–3 hours, 4–5 hours, 6+ hours), alcohol (never drinkers, 1 glass, 2 glasses, 3–4 glasses, 5+ glasses), and smoking (never, past, and current).

‡Alcohol additionally adjusted for physical activity (never, 1 hour, 2–3 hours, 4–5 hours, 6+ hours) and smoking (never, past, and current).

§Smoking additionally adjusted for alcohol (never drinkers, 1 glass, 2 glasses, 3-4 glasses, 5+ glasses) and physical activity (never, 1 hour, 2–3 hours, 4–5 hours, 6+ hours).

||Physical activity additionally adjusted for alcohol (never drinkers, 1 glass, 2 glasses, 3–4 glasses, 5+ glasses) and smoking (never, past, and current).

with women with no risky lifestyle behaviors. However, this risk appeared to be limited to luminal breast cancers. The risk was strongest for luminal A–like breast cancer (OR = 2.20, 95% CI = 1.55 to 3.12), whereas women with five risky behaviors were at 66% increased risk (95% CI = 0.61 to 4.54) of luminal B–like HER2-positive breast cancer (Table 3).

In the sensitivity analysis where we defined the reference category as 0–1 risky lifestyle behaviors, the most important change was observed for HER2-positive breast cancer, where all the odds ratios were less than 1 (Supplementary Table 1, available online).

In the sensitivity analysis where we combined the luminal A-like and luminal B-like HER2-negative subtype into one luminal A-like subtype, the results remained largely the same as the results when we divided luminal A-like and luminal B-like HER2-negative breast cancers into two different subtypes (Supplementary Table 2, available online).

In the interaction analyses, the only statistically significant interaction was between BMI and smoking ($P_{int} = .002$) (Supplementary Table 3, available online).

The results for BMI excluding premenopausal women (OR = 1.28, 95% CI = 1.14 to 1.43) remained largely the same as for the analyses including premenopausal women (OR = 1.23, 95% CI = 1.11 to 1.37) when we compared the heaviest (BMI >28 kg/m²) with the leanest women (BMI \leq 22 kg/m²) (Supplementary Appendix 2, available online), and therefore we report the results of the analyses including the premenopausal women.

Discussion

We found that the number of risky lifestyle behaviors was positively associated with an almost twofold increase in breast cancer risk overall. The risk was particularly strong for luminal A-like and luminal B-like HER2-positive breast cancers. In contrast, we found no statistical significant associations between the number of risky lifestyle behaviors and HER2-positive and triple-negative breast cancers. However, we observed increased risk estimates between five risky lifestyle factors and HER2-positive and triple-negative breast cancers, but these were not statistically significant. Our results suggest that by modifying risky lifestyle behavior, women could substantially reduce their breast cancer risk.

Our finding of an effect on breast cancer overall is consistent with the findings from several other studies (23-25,48). Several studies have examined the association between healthy lifestyle factors and breast cancer subtypes, including the EPIC study, a Spanish case-control subjects study, and the Vitamins and Lifestyle (VITAL) cohort study (23,26,27); these studies are less consistent with our findings on subtypes. The EPIC study included diet, physical activity, smoking, alcohol consumption, and anthropometry (23), the Spanish study looked at BMI, physical activity, diet, alcohol intake, and breastfeeding (26), and the VITAL study included BMI, physical activity, diet, and alcohol consumption (27). Our study differed from these previous studies in that it included use of menopausal hormone therapy, but it did not include dietary factors other than alcohol in its lifestyle index. In our study, we found that women with five risky lifestyle behaviors had more than a twofold increased risk of luminal A-like breast cancer and a 66% increased risk of luminal B-like HER2-positive breast cancer compared with women with no risky lifestyle behaviors. The EPIC study reported that the least healthy women had a 23% increased risk for both ER-positive and ER-negative subtypes compared with the more healthy women (23), the Spanish case-control subjects study reported that adherence to only three of the nine health recommendations from World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF)/ American Institute for Cancer Research (AICR) was associated with a more than twofold increased risk of luminal A-like and triple-negative breast cancer and a 64% increased risk of HER2-positive breast cancer compared with women who followed more than five of the recommendations (26), and the VITAL cohort study reported a 16% reduced risk of ER-negative breast cancer and a 10% reduced risk of ER-positive breast cancer for women

	Lun	ninal A-like	Luminal B-	-like HER2-negative	Luminal B-	-like HER2-positive	HE	R2-positive	Trip	le-negative
	ER-	+PR+HER2-	ER	+PR-HER2-	ER+PF	R+/PR-HER2+	ER	-PR-HER2+	ER	-PR-HER2-
	No. ca/co	OR* (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)
BMI, kg/m	² †									
<25	1217/6696	1 (ref)	368/1761	1 (ref)	149/864	1 (ref)	98/505	1 (ref)	158/865	1 (ref)
≥25	1544/7109	1.20 (1.11 to 1.31)	341/1784	0.92 (0.78 to 1.08)	218/971	1.25 (0.99 to 1.58)	106/515	1.06 (0.78 to 1.45)	203/940	1.21 (0.96 to 1.52)
Alcohol in	take per week,	glasses‡								
ŝ	1009/5441	1 (ref)	275/1378	1 (ref)	125/735	1 (ref)	78/413	1 (ref)	148/711	1 (ref)
8	1752/8364	1.13 (1.04 to 1.23)	434/2167	1.02 (0.86 to 1.21)	242/1100	1.25 (0.98 to 1.59)	126/607	1.07 (0.78 to 1.48)	213/1094	0.93 (0.74 to 1.17)
Smoking§										
Never	1555/8283	1 (ref)	417/2088	1 (ref)	204/1091	1 (ref)	130/584	1 (ref)	204/1111	1 (ref)
Ever	1206/5522	1.11 (1.02 to 1.21)	292/1457	0.97 (0.82 to 1.16)	163/744	1.18 (0.93 to 1.49)	74/436	0.74 (0.54 to 1.03)	157/694	1.25 (0.99 to 1.59)
Physical a	ctivity per weei	k, h								
-> 4	1081/5877	1 (ref)	273/1464	1 (ref)	154/792	1 (ref)	93/437	1 (ref)	147/735	1 (ref)
$^{<4}$	1680/7928	1.14 (1.05 to 1.25)	436/2081	1.14 (0.96 to 1.36)	213/1043	0.97 (0.77 to 1.24)	111/583	0.91 (0.66 to 1.26)	214/1070	0.95 (0.74 to 1.21)
Menopau	al hormone th	erapy use†								
Never	1257/7209	1 (ref)	337/1778	1 (ref)	177/969	1 (ref)	107/544	1 (ref)	184/913	1 (ref)
Ever	1307/5611	1.38 (1.26 to 1.51)	320/1516	1.09 (0.91 to 1.31)	169/717	1.24 (0.97 to 1.60)	76/391	0.93 (0.65 to 1.33)	147/772	0.92 (0.71 to 1.20)

3, 2-4), and menopausal status (pre-, peri-, postmenopausal). BMI = body mass index; ca/co = case/controls subjects; CI = confidence interval; ER = estrogen receptor; HER2 = human epidermal growth factor receptor 2; OR = odds

+BMI and hormone therapy additionally adjusted for physical activity (never, 1 hour, 2-3 hours, 4-5 hours, 4-b hours), alcohol (never drinkers, 1 glasse, 2-4 glasses, 3-4 glasses), and smoking (never, past, and current). ratio; PR = progesterone receptor.

‡Alcohol additionally adjusted for physical activity (never, 1 hour, 2–3 hours, 4–5 hours) and smoking (never, past, and current). SSmoking additionally adjusted for alcohol (never drinkers, 1 glasse, 2 glasses, 3–4 glasses) and physical activity (never, 1 hour, 2–3 hours, 4–5 hours, 6+ hours). ||Physical activity additionally adjusted for alcohol (never drinkers, 1 glass, 2 glasses, 3–4 glasses, 5–4 glasses) and smoking (never, past, and current).

M. Ellingjord-Dale et al. 5 of 8

			Lum	inal A-like	Luminal B–l	ike HER2 negative	Luminal B-	-like HER2 positive	HEI	82-positive	Trip	.e-negative
Breast cancer ove	rall		ER+	PR+HER2-	ER+	-PR-HER2-	ER+P1	R+/PR-HER2+	ER	-PR-HER2+	ER	PR-HER2-
	No. ca/co	OR* (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)	No. ca/co	OR (95% CI)
No. of risky lifest	yle behavio.	IS										
0	99/865	1 (ref)	56/496	1 (ref)	19/117	1 (ref)	6/58	1 (ref)	4/29	1 (ref)	14/67	1 (ref)
1	530/3401	1.34 (1.06 to 1.68)	307/1922	1.38 (1.02 to 1.88)	96/453	1.32 (0.77 to 2.26)	35/267	1.21 (0.48 to 3.04)	42/132	2.52 (0.81 to 7.78)	50/238	0.95 (0.49 to 1.84)
2	1076/6928	1.36 (1.09 to 1.70)	675/3842	1.57 (1.17 to 2.10)	184/994	1.17 (0.70 to 1.96)	90/518	1.58 (0.65 to 3.81)	47/290	1.23 (0.41 to 3.70)	80/517	0.72 (0.38 to 1.37)
ę	1365/6990	1.67 (1.34 to 2.08)	847/3933	1.89 (1.41 to 2.53)	217/1030	1.32 (0.79 to 2.20)	135/506	2.29 (0.96 to 5.48)	56/307	1.35 (0.45 to 4.06)	110/483	1.05 (0.56 to 1.96)
4	824/3847	1.82 (1.45 to 2.28)	559/2144	2.29 (1.70 to 3.09)	116/570	1.24 (0.73 to 2.12)	65/260	2.11 (0.86 to 5.18)	28/154	1.26 (0.40 to 3.94)	56/317	0.79 (0.41 to 1.52)
S	187/877	1.85 (1.42 to 2.42)	120/483	2.20 (1.55 to 3.12)	25/130	1.18 (0.61 to 2.27)	15/77	1.66 (0.61 to 4.54)	6/23	1.82 (0.45 to 7.39)	21/63	1.53 (0.70 to 3.36)
OR per behavior		1.13 (1.10 to 1.17)		1.19 (1.14 to 1.24)		1.07 (0.93 to 1.10)		1.16 (1.03 to 1.30)		0.88 (0.75 to 1.04)		1.08 (0.96 to 1.22)
Ptrend		<.0001		<.0001		.75		.004		.19		.42

Table 3. The association between number of risky lifestyle behaviors and breast cancer overall and subtypes

mutually adjusted for education/primary school, high school, Bachelor's and Master's +), age at menarche (9–12, 13, 14, 15–18 years), number of pregnancies (never, 1, 2, 3, 24), and menopausal status (pre-, peripostmenopausal). BMI = body mass index; ca/co = case/control subjects; Cl = confidence interval; ER = estrogen receptor; HER2 = human epidermal growth factor receptor 2; OR = odds ratio; PR = progesterone receptor *OR

meeting the WCRF/AICR recommendations compared with those meeting no recommendations (27).

One explanation of the inconsistent finding between our study and the EPIC, Spanish, and VITAL studies on the association between combined lifestyle factors and ER-negative breast cancer could be that the latter studies included diet in their lifestyle index. The EPIC study looked at the ratio of polyunsaturated to saturated fat intake and intake of fatty fish, margarine, glycemic load, fruit, and vegetables (23). The Spanish study looked at the intake of high-density foods, plant foods, and animal foods (26), and the VITAL study included plant foods and red and processed meat in the index (27). Dietary factors have been found to be associated with ER-negative subtype and not so much with ER-positive breast cancer (49-52). However, a recent study from the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial reported an association between an estrogen-related lifestyle score that included some aspects of diet, in addition to alcohol intake, BMI, and physical activity, and ERpositive breast cancer (48). The difference between this study and the EPIC, VITAL, and Spanish studies was that they identified a dietary pattern specifically associated with high unconjugated estradiol (E2) and a low ratio of 2- to 16-hydroxylated metabolites (2/16).

Another explanation of no findings in our study between lifestyle factors and HER2-positive and triple-negative breast cancers could be that we included menopausal hormone therapy in our health index, and previous studies have reported no association with this risk factor and HER2-positive and triplenegative breast cancer and a positive association between menopausal hormone therapy use and luminal-like breast cancers (30,33,40).

We did not observe an association between the risky lifestyle factors examined and luminal B-like HER2-negative breast cancer, whereas we found an association with luminal B-like HER2positive cancer. This could possibly be due to low power. Alternatively, it is possible that these risk factors are associated with HER2+ tumors. HER2 is a transmembrane tyrosine kinase receptor protein involved in the signal transduction pathways that lead to cell growth and differentiation (53,54) and overexpression of HER2 may disrupt normal cell control subjects mechanisms, potentially leading to the formation of aggressive tumor cells (55). It is plausible that the number of risky lifestyle factors exerts an increased proliferative effect on breast cells if normal cell control subjects mechanisms have been disrupted or if overexpression of HER2 has increased the stem/progenitor cell population. Our results are consistent with a positive, though not statistically significant, association with the number of these risk factors and HER2-positive breast cancer.

The only statistically significant interaction we found in our study was between BMI and smoking. The association between smoking status (never vs ever) and breast cancer was modified by BMI. Consistent with our result, a prospective study from the Women's Health Initiative reported that the effect of smoking on the risk of breast cancer was statistically significantly modified by BMI among postmenopausal women (56). A statistically significant association between smoking and breast cancer risk was only found among nonobese women. One possible explanation of the lack of association between smoking and breast cancer risk among obese women could be through endogenous estrogen. Early reports have indicated that smoking lowers the level of estrogen (57), and thus one could hypothesize that the antiestrogenic effects of smoking may have counterbalanced the carcinogenic effects of tobacco smoking in the obese smokers compared with the obese nonsmokers (56). However, more

recent studies do not support a strong antiestrogenic effect of smoking (58,59). Another explanation could be that obese smokers may have a different genetic profile from that of the nonobese smokers; that is, smoking is associated with lower body weight (60,61). Women who became obese despite smoking may better metabolize tobacco-related toxins (including carcinogens) than leaner smoking women (62).

Strengths and Limitations

Strengths of this study include its population-based design, the large size, being one of the largest single studies on breast cancer subtypes conducted so far, and the availability of prospectively collected detailed information on many risk factors for breast cancer. Other strengths include complete follow-up and complete case subjects ascertainment as well as availability of data on ER, PR, and HER2 receptor status.

Another strength is that we did not combine luminal A-like subtype with luminal B-like HER2-negative as many other studies have done. Our results indicated that the number of risky lifestyle behaviors was associated with luminal A-like but not luminal B-like HER2-negative breast cancer, suggesting that these should be treated as two different subtypes.

A limitation of the current study was that we did not include information on food intake (ie, plant foods, red and processed meat). Further, women who attend screening might be more health conscious and have a healthier lifestyle than women who do not attend. This could have contributed to obliterating the protective effects of "healthy" habits. At the same time, women who attend screening are more likely to have their breast cancers detected. Thus, the picture becomes complicated with these potential biases, and it is not clear how this could explain the results of this paper. The associations of wellestablished risk factors with overall breast cancer risk were largely as expected. Furthermore, it is unlikely that any such bias would have differentially affected the subtype results. Although this study is one of the largest to date on breast cancer subtypes, there was limited power for the rare breast cancer subtypes. Another limitation of the study was that data on risk factors were self-reported.

In this large nested case–control subjects study, having just three of the risky lifestyle behaviors was positively associated with a markedly increased risk for breast cancer overall, which was limited to luminal A–like breast cancer and luminal B–like HER2-positive breast cancer. These findings suggest that the combination of risky lifestyle behaviors may play an important role in the etiology of some luminal-like breast cancer subtypes. However, for rarer subtypes, the study may have been underpowered.

Funding

This work was supported by the Norwegian Cancer Society (698320).

Notes

Affiliations of authors: Department of research, Cancer Registry of Norway, Oslo, Norway (MED, LV, KVH, ST, SH, GU); Department of nutrition, Institute of Basic Medical Sciences, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway (AH); Department of Pathology, Institute for Cancer Research, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, Norway (HGR); Department of Cancer Genetics, Institute for Cancer Research, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, Norway (HGR); Department of radiography and dental technology, Oslo and Akershus University College of Applied Sciences, Oslo, Norway (SH); Department of Non-Communicable Disease Epidemiology, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK (IdSS); Division of epidemiology, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA (GU).

Participants were informed that submission of a completed questionnaire indicated that they gave their consent to participate in studies of breast cancer. The study was approved by the Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics in the South-East Health Region of Norway (2014/1167).

References

- Dorgan JF, Baer DJ, Albert PS, Judd JT, Brown ED, Corle DK. Serum hormones and the alcohol-breast cancer association in postmenopausal women. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2001;93(9):710–715.
- Hamajima N, Hirose K, Tajima K, Rohan T, Calle EE, Heath CW Jr. Alcohol, tobacco and breast cancer—collaborative reanalysis of individual data from 53 epidemiological studies, including 58, 515 women with breast cancer and 95,067 women without the disease. Br J Cancer. 2002;87(11):1234–1245.
- Smith-Warner SA, Spiegelman D, Yaun SS, et al. Alcohol and breast cancer in women: A pooled analysis of cohort studies. JAMA. 1998;279(7):535–540.
- Reichman ME, Judd JT, Longcope C, et al. Effects of alcohol consumption on plasma and urinary hormone concentrations in premenopausal women. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1993;85(9):722–727.
- Mahabir S, Baer DJ, Johnson LL, et al. The effects of moderate alcohol supplementation on estrone sulfate and DHEAS in postmenopausal women in a controlled feeding study. Nutr J. 2004;3(1):11.
- Hirko KA, Spiegelman D, Willett WC, Hankinson SE, Eliassen AH. Alcohol consumption in relation to plasma sex hormones, prolactin, and sex hormone-binding globulin in premenopausal women. *Cancer Epidemiol* Biomarkers Prev. 2014;23(12):2943–2953.
- Fortner RT, Katzke V, Kuhn T, Kaaks R. Obesity and breast cancer. Recent Results Cancer Res. 2016;208:43–65.
- Ross RK, Paganini HA, Wan PC, Pike MC. Effect of hormone replacement therapy on breast cancer risk: Estrogen versus estrogen plus progestin. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2000;92(4):328–332.
- Park B, Choi JY, Sung HK, et al. Attribution to heterogeneous risk factors for breast cancer subtypes based on hormone receptor and human epidermal growth factor 2 receptor expression in Korea. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2016;95(14): e3063.
- Beral V, Million Women Study C. Breast cancer and hormone-replacement therapy in the Million Women Study. Lancet. 2003;362(9382):419–427.
- Chlebowski RT, Anderson GL, Gass M, et al. Estrogen plus progestin and breast cancer incidence and mortality in postmenopausal women. JAMA. 2010;304(15):1684–1692.
- Friedenreich CM, Cust AE. Physical activity and breast cancer risk: Impact of timing, type and dose of activity and population subgroup effects. Br J Sports Med. 2008;42(8):636–647.
- Gaudet MM, Gapstur SM, Sun J, Diver WR, Hannan LM, Thun MJ. Active smoking and breast cancer risk: Original cohort data and meta-analysis. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2013;105(8):515–525.
- Nyante SJ, Gierach GL, Dallal CM, et al. Cigarette smoking and postmenopausal breast cancer risk in a prospective cohort. Br J Cancer. 2014;110(9): 2339–2347.
- Xue F, Willett WC, Rosner BA, Hankinson SE, Michels KB. Cigarette smoking and the incidence of breast cancer. Arch Intern Med. 2011;171(2):125–133.
- Rosenberg L, Boggs DA, Bethea TN, Wise LA, Adams-Campbell LL, Palmer JR. A prospective study of smoking and breast cancer risk among African-American women. Cancer Causes Control. 2013;24(12):2207–2215.
- Chiuve SE, McCullough ML, Sacks FM, Rimm EB. Healthy lifestyle factors in the primary prevention of coronary heart disease among men: Benefits among users and nonusers of lipid-lowering and antihypertensive medications. Circulation. 2006;114(2):160–167.
- Kurth T, Moore SC, Gaziano JM, et al. Healthy lifestyle and the risk of stroke in women. Arch Intern Med. 2006;166(13):1403–1409.
- Myint PK, Luben RN, Wareham NJ, Bingham SA, Khaw KT. Combined effect of health behaviours and risk of first ever stroke in 20, 040 men and women over 11 years' follow-up in Norfolk cohort of European Prospective Investigation of Cancer (EPIC Norfolk): Prospective population study. BMJ. 2009;338:b349.
- Stampfer MJ, Hu FB, Manson JE, Rimm EB, Willett WC. Primary prevention of coronary heart disease in women through diet and lifestyle. N Engl J Med. 2000;343(1):16–22.
- Ford ES, Bergmann MM, Kroger J, Schienkiewitz A, Weikert C, Boeing H. Healthy living is the best revenge: Findings from the European Prospective Investigation Into Cancer and Nutrition-Potsdam study. Arch Intern Med. 2009;169(15):1355–1362.

- 22. Kvaavik E, Batty GD, Ursin G, Huxley R, Gale CR. Influence of individual and combined health behaviors on total and cause-specific mortality in men and women: The United Kingdom health and lifestyle survey. Arch Intern Med. 2010;170(8):711–718.
- McKenzie F, Ferrari P, Freisling H, et al. Healthy lifestyle and risk of breast cancer among postmenopausal women in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition cohort study. Int J Cancer. 2015; 136(11):2640–2648.
- Sanchez-Zamorano LM, Flores-Luna L, Angeles-Llerenas A, et al. Healthy lifestyle on the risk of breast cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2011;20(5): 912–922.
- Dartois L, Fagherazzi G, Boutron-Ruault MC, Mesrine S, Clavel-Chapelon F. Association between five lifestyle habits and cancer risk: Results from the E3N cohort. *Cancer Prev Res.* 2014;7(5):516–525.
- Castello A, Martin M, Ruiz A, et al. Lower breast cancer risk among women following the World Cancer Research Fund and American Institute for Cancer Research Lifestyle Recommendations: EpiGEICAM Case-Control Study. PLoS One. 2015;10(5):e0126096.
- Hastert TA, Beresford SA, Patterson RE, Kristal AR, White E. Adherence to WCRF/AICR cancer prevention recommendations and risk of postmenopausal breast cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2013;22(9):1498–1508.
- Goldhirsch A, Winer EP, Coates AS, et al. Personalizing the treatment of women with early breast cancer: Highlights of the St Gallen International Expert Consensus on the Primary Therapy of Early Breast Cancer 2013. Ann Oncol. 2013;24(9):2206–2223.
- Ambrosone CB, Zirpoli G, Ruszczyk M, et al. Parity and breastfeeding among African-American women: Differential effects on breast cancer risk by estrogen receptor status in the Women's Circle of Health Study. *Cancer Causes* Control. 2014;25(2):259–265.
- Barnard ME, Boeke CE, Tamimi RM. Established breast cancer risk factors and risk of intrinsic tumor subtypes. Biochim Biophys Acta. 2015;1856(1):73–85.
- Cui Y, Deming-Halverson SL, Shrubsole MJ, et al. Associations of hormonerelated factors with breast cancer risk according to hormone receptor status among white and African American women. *Clin Breast Cancer*. 2014;14(6): 417–425.
- Lee SK, Kim SW, Han SA, Kil WH, Lee JE, Nam SJ. The protective effect of parity in hormone receptor-positive, Ki-67 expressing breast cancer. World J Surg. 2014;38(5):1065–1069.
- Sisti JS, Collins LC, Beck AH, Tamimi RM, Rosner BA, Eliassen AH. Reproductive risk factors in relation to molecular subtypes of breast cancer: Results from the nurses' health studies. Int J Cancer. 2016;138(10): 2346–2356.
- Work ME, John EM, Andrulis IL, et al. Reproductive risk factors and oestrogen/progesterone receptor-negative breast cancer in the Breast Cancer Family Registry. Br J Cancer. 2014;110(5):1367–1377.
- Suzuki R, Orsini N, Mignone L, Saji S, Wolk A. Alcohol intake and risk of breast cancer defined by estrogen and progesterone receptor status—a metaanalysis of epidemiological studies. *Int J Cancer.* 2008;122(8):1832–1841.
- Kabat GC, Kim M, Phipps AI, et al. Smoking and alcohol consumption in relation to risk of triple-negative breast cancer in a cohort of postmenopausal women. Cancer Causes Control. 2011;22(5):775–783.
- Kawai M, Malone KE, Tang MT, Li CI. Active smoking and the risk of estrogen receptor-positive and triple-negative breast cancer among women ages 20 to 44 years. Cancer. 2014;120(7):1026–1034.
- Morabia A, Bernstein M, Ruiz J, Héritier S, Diebold Berger S, Borisch B. Relation of smoking to breast cancer by estrogen receptor status. Int J Cancer. 1998;75(3):339–342.
- Dossus L, Boutron-Ruault M-C, Kaaks R, et al. Active and passive cigarette smoking and breast cancer risk: Results from the EPIC cohort. Int J Cancer. 2014;134(8):1871–1888.
- Ellingjord-Dale M, Vos L, Tretli S, Hofvind S, Dos-Santos-Silva I, Ursin G. Parity, hormones and breast cancer subtypes—results from a large nested case-control study in a national screening program. Breast Cancer Res. 2017; 19(1):10.

- Ellingjord-Dale M, Vos L, Hjerkind KV, et al. Alcohol, physical activity, smoking, and breast cancer subtypes in a large, nested case-control study from the Norwegian Breast Cancer Screening Program. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2017;26(12):1736–1744.
- Hjartaker A, Thoresen M, Engeset D, Lund E. Dairy consumption and calcium intake and risk of breast cancer in a prospective cohort: The Norwegian Women and Cancer study. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2010;21(11):1875–1885.
- Edvardsen K, Veierod MB, Brustad M, Braaten T, Engelsen O, Lund E. Vitamin D-effective solar UV radiation, dietary vitamin D and breast cancer risk. Int J Cancer. 2011;128(6):1425–1433.
- Hofvind S, Geller B, Vacek PM, Thoresen S, Skaane P. Using the European guidelines to evaluate the Norwegian Breast Cancer Screening Program. Eur J Epidemiol. 2007;22(7):447–455.
- Larsen IK, Smastuen M, Johannesen TB, et al. Data quality at the Cancer Registry of Norway: An overview of comparability, completeness, validity and timeliness. *Eur J Cancer*. 2009;45(7):1218–1231.
- Roman M, Sakshaug S, Graff-Iversen S, et al. Postmenopausal hormone therapy and the risk of breast cancer in Norway. Int J Cancer. 2016;138(3):584–593.
- Ellingjord-Dale M, Vos L, Hjerkind KV, et al. Alcohol, physical activity, smoking and breast cancer subtypes in a large nested case-control study from the Norwegian Breast Cancer Screening Program. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2017;26(12):1736–44.
- Guinter MA, McLain AC, Merchant AT, Sandler DP, Steck SE. An estrogenrelated lifestyle score is associated with risk of postmenopausal breast cancer in the PLCO cohort. Breast Cancer Res Treat. 2018;170(3):613–622.
- 49. Baglietto L, Krishnan K, Severi G, et al. Dietary patterns and risk of breast cancer. Br J Cancer. 2011;104(3):524–531.
- Boggs DA, Palmer JR, Wise LA, et al. Fruit and vegetable intake in relation to risk of breast cancer in the Black Women's Health Study. Am J Epidemiol. 2010; 172(11):1268–1279.
- Fung TT, Hu FB, McCullough ML, Newby PK, Willett WC, Holmes MD. Diet quality is associated with the risk of estrogen receptor-negative breast cancer in postmenopausal women. J Nutr. 2006;136(2):466–472.
- Olsen A, Tjonneland A, Thomsen BL, et al. Fruits and vegetables intake differentially affects estrogen receptor negative and positive breast cancer incidence rates. J Nutr. 2003;133(7):2342–2347.
- Kumar-Sinha C, Ignatoski KW, Lippman ME, Ethier SP, Chinnaiyan AM. Transcriptome analysis of HER2 reveals a molecular connection to fatty acid synthesis. Cancer Res. 2003;63(1):132–139.
- Ross JS, Fletcher JA, Linette GP, et al. The Her-2/neu gene and protein in breast cancer 2003: Biomarker and target of therapy. Oncologist. 2003;8(4): 307–325.
- Hung MC, Schechter AL, Chevray PY, Stern DF, Weinberg RA. Molecular cloning of the neu gene: Absence of gross structural alteration in oncogenic alleles. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 1986;83(2):261–264.
- Luo JH, Horn K, Ockene JK, et al. Interaction between smoking and obesity and the risk of developing breast cancer among postmenopausal women. Am J Epidemiol. 2011;174(8):919–928.
- Michnovicz JJ, Hershcopf RJ, Naganuma H, Bradlow HL, Fishman J. Increased 2-hydroxylation of estradiol as a possible mechanism for the antiestrogenic effect of cigarette-smoking. N Engl J Med. 1986;315(21):1305–1309.
- Szkup M, Jurczak A, Karakiewicz B, Kotwas A, Kopeć J, Grochans E. Influence of cigarette smoking on hormone and lipid metabolism in women in late reproductive stage. *Clin Interv Aging*. 2018;13:109–115.
- Ruan X, Mueck AO. Impact of smoking on estrogenic efficacy. Climacteric. 2015;18(1):38–46.
- Dallosso HM, James WP. The role of smoking in the regulation of energy balance. Int J Obes. 1984;8(4):365–375.
- Perkins KA, Epstein LH, Stiller RL, et al. Acute effects of nicotine on hunger and caloric intake in smokers and nonsmokers. Psychopharmacology (Berl). 1991;103(1):103–109.
- Harris CC. Interindividual variation among humans in carcinogen metabolism, DNA adduct formation and DNA-repair. Carcinogenesis. 1989;10(9): 1563–1566.