



AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

Consumption of Meat, Fish, Dairy Products, and Eggs and Risk of Ischemic Heart Disease

This is a pre print version of the following article:
Original Citation:
Availability:
This version is available http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1704681 since 2020-02-28T16:45:26Z
Published version:
DOI:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.118.038813
Terms of use:
Open Access
Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)

Meat, fish, dairy products, eggs and risk of ischemic heart disease: a prospective study of 7198 incident cases among 409,885 participants in the pan-European EPIC cohort

Running Title: Key et al; Meat, Fish, Dairy, Eggs and Ischemic Heart Disease

Timothy J Key, DPhil¹; et al.

¹Nuffield Department of Population Health, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

Address for correspondence:

Professor Timothy J Key

Nuffield Department of Population Health

University of Oxford

Richard Doll Building

Roosevelt Drive

Oxford OX3 7LF

UK

Telephone: +44 1865 289 648

Email: <u>tim.key@ndph.ox.ac.uk</u>

Total word count: 8781

ABSTRACT

Background: There is uncertainty about the relevance of intake of animal foods to the aetiology of ischemic heart disease (IHD). We examined the relationships of meat, fish, dairy products and eggs with risk for IHD in the pan-European EPIC cohort.

Methods: A prospective study of 409,885 men and women in nine European countries. Dietary intakes were assessed using validated questionnaires, calibrated using 24-hour recalls. Lipids and blood pressure were measured in a subsample. During a mean 12.6 years follow up, 7198 participants suffered a myocardial infarction or died from IHD. The relationships of animal foods with risk were examined using Cox regression with adjustment for other animal foods and relevant covariates, sensitivity analyses including the exclusion of the first 4 years of follow-up to allow for possible reverse causation, and analyses modelling substitutions of different animal foods for red and processed meat.

Results: The hazard ratio (HR) for IHD was 1.19 (95% CI 1.06-1.33) for a 100 g/d increment in the intake of red and processed meat, and this remained significant after exclusion of the first 4 years of follow-up (HR 1.25 [1.09-1.42]). Risk was inversely associated with intakes of yogurt (HR 0.93 [0.89-0.98] per 100 g/d increment), cheese (HR 0.92 [0.86-0.98] per 30 g/d increment) and eggs (HR 0.93 [0.88-0.99] per 20 g/d increment); the associations with yogurt and eggs were attenuated and non-significant after excluding the first four years of follow-up. Risk was not significantly associated with intakes of poultry, fish or milk. In analyses modelling dietary substitutions, replacement of 100 kcal/d from red and processed meat with 100 kcal/d from fatty fish, yogurt, cheese and eggs were associated with approximately 20% lower risks of IHD. Consumption of red and processed meat was positively associated with serum non-HDL cholesterol concentration and systolic blood pressure, and consumption of cheese was inversely associated with serum non-HDL cholesterol.

Conclusions: The risk for IHD was moderately positively associated with consumption of red and processed meat, and modestly inversely associated with consumption of yogurt, cheese and eggs, although the associations with yogurt and eggs may be influenced by reverse causation bias. It is not clear whether the associations with red and processed meat and cheese are due to causal relationships, but they were consistent with the associations of these foods with plasma non-HDL cholesterol, and for red and processed meat with systolic blood pressure, which could mediate such effects.

Keywords: meat; fish; dairy products; eggs; ischemic heart disease

Clinical Perspective

What is new?

- We followed the health of 400,000 men and women in nine European countries for 12 years to examine the relevance of intake of animal foods to the etiology of ischemic heart disease.
- Higher consumption of red and processed meat was positively associated with the risk for ischemic heart disease.
- None of the other animal foods examined were positively associated with risk, and intakes of yogurt, cheese and eggs were modestly inversely associated with risk.

What are the clinical implications?

- High intakes of red and processed meat may increase risk of ischemic heart disease.
- Substituting other foods for red and processed meat may reduce risk of ischemic heart disease

1 Introduction

2

Ischemic heart disease (IHD) is the commonest disease and cause of death in Europe.¹ The 3 risk of IHD is affected by diet, but there is uncertainty about the relevance of intake of animal 4 foods such as red and processed meat, poultry, fish, dairy products and eggs. Meat and dairy 5 products are major dietary sources of saturated fatty acids; in the UK, for example, meat and 6 meat products contribute 24% of saturated fat intake in adults, and milk and milk products 7 contribute 22%.² Controlled feeding trials have shown that high intakes of saturated fatty 8 acids raise circulating low density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, an established risk factor 9 for IHD, suggesting that higher intakes of foods rich in saturated fatty acids may increase the 10 risk of IHD.³⁴ Meta-analyses of previous prospective studies of meat and incidence and death 11 from IHD have suggested that intake of processed meat may be associated with higher risk 12 whereas unprocessed red meat might not.⁵⁶ For dairy products and eggs, systematic reviews 13 of prospective studies have reported no consistent evidence that higher intakes are associated 14 with a higher risk of IHD.⁷⁸ Fatty fish consumption might reduce the risk of IHD because it 15 is a rich source of long-chain n-3 fatty acids, and a meta-analysis has suggested an inverse 16 association between overall fish consumption and mortality from IHD.⁹ 17

18

Here we report the relationships of these foods with risk of IHD in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC), a cohort of half a million men and women.¹⁰
¹¹ To assess whether associations might be due to reverse causation we examined the results after excluding the first four years of follow-up. To assess whether associations might be explained by known metabolic risk factors for IHD, we examined the cross-sectional associations of food intake with cholesterol fractions and blood pressure in a sub-sample of

- 1 participants and interpreted the relationships of foods with risk with respect to their
- 2 associations with non-high density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol and systolic blood pressure.
- 3
- 4

5 Methods

6

7 Study population

8

9 EPIC is a prospective study of approximately 520,000 men and women recruited through 23 centres in 10 European countries, mostly between 1992 and 2000.^{10, 11} Participants in EPIC 10 completed dietary and lifestyle questionnaires, and the majority also provided blood samples 11 and had their blood pressure measured. The baseline data were centralized at the World 12 Health Organization's International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) in Lyon, France. 13 All participants gave written informed consent and the study protocol was approved by the 14 ethical review boards of IARC and the institutions where participants were recruited.¹⁰ 15 Because of the sensitive nature of the data collected for this study, requests to access the 16 dataset from qualified researchers trained in human subject confidentiality protocols may be 17 sent to the International Agency for Research on cancer at 18 http://epic.iarc.fr/access/index.phpcontact information. 19 20 Dietary intake during the year before enrolment was measured by country-specific diet 21 assessment methods, in most centres food frequency questionnaires; these were validated 22 using a standardized, co-ordinated approach.¹⁰ Dietary intakes estimated using a standardized 23

- and computerized 24-hour recall method were also collected from an 8% random sample
- across all centres, approximately 1.4 years after recruitment; the sample was stratified by age

and sex, with weighting according to predicted disease rates in these strata, and distributed
 equally by season and day of the week.¹² Details of the categorization of foods are in the
 Supplementary material.

4

Assessments of the non-dietary variables were based on responses in the baseline 5 questionnaires and categorized into the following groups: smoking (never, former, current 6 <10 or unknown number of cigarettes per day, current 10-19 cigarettes per day, current ≥ 20 7 cigarettes per day, or unknown (2.4%), alcohol intake (not current drinker, sex-specific fifths 8 9 of current intake: cut-points in men were 3.5, 9.7, 18.8 and 36.2 g/d, cut-points in women were 0.9, 2.8, 6.9 and 13.9 g/d), physical activity (Cambridge physical activity index, based 10 on occupational physical activity and cycling/other physical exercise, and categorised in 11 approximate quartiles termed inactive, moderately inactive, moderately active, active, and 12 unknown $(2.2\%)^{13}$, highest education level obtained (none or primary school only, secondary) 13 school, vocational qualification or university degree, unknown (4.3%), employment status 14 (currently employed or student, neither, unknown (11.4%)), histories of diabetes mellitus, 15 hypertension and hyperlipidaemia (each self-reported: yes, no, unknown (4.2%, 5.5% and 16 **23.7%** respectively). Body mass index (BMI: <22.5, 22.5-24.9, 25.0-27.4, 27.5-29.9, ≥ 30.0 17 kg/m^2 and unknown (0.9%)) was calculated from measured height and weight (except for 18 participants in Norway, and some participants in France and the UK, where height and weight 19 20 were self-reported). Baseline systolic and diastolic blood pressures were measured in millimetres of mercury by trained personnel (further details in Supplementary material 21 online).¹³ 22

23

Lipids were measured in stored plasma samples as part of the EPIC-CVD case-cohort study, which is nested within EPIC.¹¹ The sub-cohort was randomly selected from participants with a stored blood sample, with selection stratified by the 23 EPIC recruitment centres. Details of
 methods are in the Supplementary material.

3

Ascertainment and verification of cases of ischemic heart disease

5

4

The outcome was IHD, defined as the composite of first non-fatal myocardial infarction (MI: 6 ICD-10 I21) or death from IHD (ICD-10 I20-25). Incident non-fatal MIs were ascertained in 7 each EPIC centre using a combination of record linkage to morbidity or hospital registries, 8 and self-reports followed by confirmation with medical records.¹¹ Information on vital status 9 was collected from mortality registries at the regional or national level in most centres except 10 in Greece where vital status was ascertained by active follow-up of study participants and 11 next of kin. Centres in Denmark, Greece, Italy, Norway and Spain validated all suspected 12 cases of MI, whereas centres in France, the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK validated a 13 subset of the suspected cases to assess the accuracy of the overall ascertainment process. A 14 range of methods was used to confirm the diagnosis of IHD and included retrieving and 15 assessing medical records or hospital discharge notes, contact with medical professionals, 16 retrieval and assessment of death certificates, or verbal autopsy with the next of kin. The last 17 year of follow-up varied across centres between 2003 and 2010, but was mainly 2008 or 18 2009. 19

20

21 Statistical analysis

22

Of the 518,502 participants for whom data were available, those with no dietary data, no nondietary (lifestyle) data, or those in the top or bottom 1% of the ratio of energy intake to energy requirement, were excluded (n=16,837), as were those who had a self-reported or

unknown history of MI or stroke at baseline (n=11,308), 23 cases whose date of diagnosis
was after the end of follow-up for each centre, and 23 participants with no follow-up data.
These exclusions left a total of 490,311 participants, and further restricting the dataset to
EPIC centres with known values for all of the animal foods (which meant excluding
Heidelberg, Potsdam, Naples and Umeå) left a total of 409,885 participants, including 7198
incident cases of non-fatal MI (n=5392) or fatal IHD (n=1806).

7

Follow-up was measured from recruitment until the date of first non-fatal MI or fatal IHD 8 9 event, or censoring at the date of death from other causes, non-fatal non-MI IHD, the date at which follow-up for IHD events was considered complete, or emigration or other loss to 10 follow-up (1.3%). Relative risks as hazard ratios (HRs) and their 95% confidence intervals 11 (95% CIs) were estimated using Cox regression models. All analyses were stratified by sex 12 and EPIC centre and adjusted for exact age at recruitment (continuous), smoking, self-13 reported histories of diabetes, hypertension, and hyperlipidemia, physical activity, 14 employment status, level of education, BMI (these latter eight covariates were all categorical 15 variables, with 'unknown' categories added), current alcohol consumption (categorical), and 16 intakes of energy, fruit and vegetables, dietary fibre from cereals, and percent energy from 17 sugars (each continuous). In the main analyses of calibrated food intakes, the results for each 18 animal source food were also adjusted simultaneously for the other animal source foods. 19 20

Participants were divided into fifths of self-reported intake for each animal food based on the recruitment questionnaire (for any foods with more than 20% zero values the categories were approximate fifths), with the quintiles calculated for all included participants, and a trend test performed by scoring the categorical fifths of intake 1 to 5 and treating this as a continuous variable. To test for whether the data were compatible with a linear trend, we also fitted

models with the fifths of intake treated as a categorical variable; there were no significant 1 improvements in fit when comparing the categorical intake model with the continuous (trend 2 test) intake model, suggesting that any associations between food intake and risk were 3 approximately linear. Then, to improve the comparability of dietary data across participating 4 centres and to correct for measurement error in relative risk estimates, the dietary data from 5 the subset of participants with 24-hour recalls were used to provide statistically calibrated 6 estimates of dietary intakes for all included participants. HRs were calculated for increments 7 in observed and calibrated intake of each food. Observed food intakes were calibrated using a 8 9 fixed-effect linear model in which centre and sex specific 24-hour recall data from an 8% random sample of the cohort were regressed on the observed intakes, generating a calibrated 10 intake corresponding to each observed intake.^{12 15} The sizes of the increments were chosen to 11 approximate the difference in mean 24 hour recall intake between participants in the lowest 12 and highest fifths of observed intake, and with reference to the increments used in previous 13 publications such the World Health Organization's review of the carcinogenicity of red and 14 processed meat.¹⁶ 15 16 Using the results from the mutually-adjusted risks model, the effects of substituting 100 17 kcal/d of each other animal food for 100 kcal/day of red and processed meat were estimated 18 from the ratios of the risk (as measured by the hazard ratio) for each food in turn and the risk 19 for red and processed meat.¹⁷ For example, if P and R represent the hazard ratios per 100 20 kcal/day yogurt and per 100 kcal/day red and processed meat in the mutually-adjusted risks 21 model, the effect of substituting 100 kcal/day yogurt for 100 kcal/day red and processed meat 22 is estimated by the ratio P/R. 23

1	To examine whether the overall results might be influenced by reverse causality, we repeated
2	the analyses after excluding the first 4 years of follow-up (i.e. with follow-up for all
3	participants commencing 4 years after the date of recruitment). To examine whether
4	associations between the animal foods and IHD risk were consistent across sub-groups of
5	other risk factors, we also conducted separate analyses for subsets of sex, smoking status
6	(never, former and current), prior disease status (participants with or without a history of
7	diabetes, hypertension or hyperlipidemia), age at recruitment (<55, 55-64, ≥65 years), BMI
8	(<25.0, 25.0-29.9, \geq 30.0 kg/m ²), European region (Northern Europe: Denmark, Norway,
9	Sweden; Central Europe: France excepting Provence and SW France, Netherlands, UK;
10	Southern Europe: Greece, Italy, Spain, Provence, SW France), and countries with partial
11	(France, Netherlands, Sweden, UK) or complete (Denmark, Greece, Italy, Norway, Spain)
12	validation of cases. Tests for heterogeneity of trend between sub-groups were obtained by
13	comparing the risk coefficients for each sub-group using inverse variance weighting, testing
14	for statistical significance using a chi-square test on k-1 degrees of freedom where k is the
15	number of sub-groups.
16	
17	To examine whether dietary risk factors might act through major established physiological
18	IHD risk factors, we examined the associations of food intakes with non-HDL cholesterol and
19	systolic blood pressure, calculating mean levels of these biomarkers in each category of
20	animal food intake (using linear regression to estimate least-squares means), with adjustment
21	for age, sex and EPIC centre.
22	
23	All analyses were performed using Stata version 15.1 (Stata Corporation, College Station,
24	TX, USA), and a P-value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

2 **Results**

3

After a mean follow-up of 12.6 years there were 7198 incident cases of MI or death from IHD. Table 1 shows participant characteristics by sex for all cohort participants and also for incident cases. On average, cases were 6-10 years older than average for the cohort, with higher mean BMI and lower mean alcohol intake. Cases were more likely to smoke, be inactive, unemployed, diabetic, hypertensive or hyperlipidemic, had lower mean observed intakes of fruit and vegetables, and moderate differences in intakes of animal foods.

10

Table 2 shows the HRs and 95% CIs for IHD in each fifth of observed intake of animal 11 foods, relative to the bottom fifth of intake, and P values for tests of trend based on the 12 observed intakes. HRs in the top fifth of intake compared with the bottom fifth of intake were 13 1.13 (1.02-1.26) for red and processed meat combined, 1.10 (0.99-1.21) for red meat and 1.10 14 (0.99-1.22) for processed meat. Intakes of poultry, white fish, fatty fish and milk were not 15 associated with IHD, whereas intakes of yogurt, cheese and eggs were inversely associated 16 with risk, with HRs (95% CIs) in the top fifths of 0.90 (0.84-0.97), 0.88 (0.80-0.96) and 0.93 17 (0.86-1.01), respectively. 18

19

Figure 1 shows the associations of IHD risk with statistically calibrated increments in intake of eight mutually-exclusive animal foods (including red and processed meat combined, but not red meat and processed meat separately), with mutual adjustment of risks for the animal foods (see Supplementary material online Table S1 for HRs for uncalibrated and calibrated increments, without mutual adjustment). For red and processed meat combined, the HR (95% CI) was 1.19 (1.06-1.33) for a 100 g/day increment in calibrated intake. The HRs for

1	calibrated intakes of yogurt (100 g/d), cheese (30 g/d) and eggs (20 g/d) were 0.93 (0.89-
2	0.98), 0.92 (0.86-0.98) and 0.93 (0.88-0.99), respectively.
3	
4	In analyses excluding the first 4 years of follow-up the association of risk with intake of red
5	and processed meat was marginally stronger (HR per 100 g/day increment 1.25 (1.09-1.42),
6	P=0.001), whereas the associations with calibrated intakes of yogurt and eggs were attenuated
7	and neither these associations, nor the association with cheese, were statistically significant
8	(Table 3).
9	
10	Substitution analyses
11	
12	Table 4 shows the HRs for modelled substitution of 100 kcal/day of calibrated intake of red
13	and processed meat by 100 kcal/d of each of the other animal foods. Fatty fish, yogurt,
14	cheese and eggs were associated with significantly lower risks for IHD than red and
15	processed meat (15% to 24% reductions in risk per 100 kcal substituted per day).
16	
17	Sub-group analyses
18	
19	In analyses subdivided by history of diabetes, previous hypertension or hyperlipidemia, there
20	was no appreciable heterogeneity in the associations of animal foods with IHD risk except for
21	white fish, but this was not significantly associated with risk in either sub-group (see
22	Supplementary material online, Table S2). In analyses subdivided by smoking status, there
23	was no appreciable heterogeneity in the associations of animal foods with IHD risk except for
24	yogurt, which was inversely associated with risk in current smokers but not in never smokers
25	or former smokers (Supplementary Table S3). In analyses subdivided by age, there was no
	13

1	appreciable heterogeneity in the associations of animal foods with IHD risk except for red
2	and processed meat, which was strongly positively associated with risk in participants
3	recruited before age 55, but not in older people (Supplementary Table S4). In analyses
4	subdivided by sex, there was no appreciable heterogeneity in the associations of animal foods
5	with IHD risk except for eggs, which were inversely associated with risk in men but not in
6	women (Supplementary Table S5). There was no appreciable heterogeneity in the
7	associations of animal foods with IHD risk subdivided by BMI or by European region
8	(Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). There was evidence of heterogeneity by the extent of
9	validation of cases in the associations of dietary intake with IHD risk for red and processed
10	meat, and for milk (Supplementary Table S8); for red and processed meat, there was a large
11	and highly significant association with risk in the countries with complete case verification,
12	but not in the other countries. For milk there was a small positive association with risk in the
13	countries with complete verification, but not in the other countries.
14	
15	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure
15 16	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure
15 16 17	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of red and processed meat with those in
15 16 17 18	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of red and processed meat with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was higher by 0.19 mmol/l (4.3%), and systolic blood
15 16 17 18 19	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of red and processed meat with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was higher by 0.19 mmol/l (4.3%), and systolic blood pressure was higher by 3.3 mm Hg (2.5%); for processed meat, the difference in systolic
15 16 17 18 19 20	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of red and processed meat with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was higher by 0.19 mmol/l (4.3%), and systolic blood pressure was higher by 3.3 mm Hg (2.5%); for processed meat, the difference in systolic blood pressure was 3.7 mm Hg (2.8%). Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake
15 16 17 18 19 20 21	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of red and processed meat with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was higher by 0.19 mmol/l (4.3%), and systolic blood pressure was higher by 3.3 mm Hg (2.5%); for processed meat, the difference in systolic blood pressure was 3.7 mm Hg (2.8%). Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of cheese with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was lower by 0.10 mmol/l, whereas
15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of red and processed meat with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was higher by 0.19 mmol/l (4.3%), and systolic blood pressure was higher by 3.3 mm Hg (2.5%); for processed meat, the difference in systolic blood pressure was 3.7 mm Hg (2.8%). Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of cheese with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was lower by 0.10 mmol/l, whereas the intake of cheese was unrelated to systolic blood pressure (see Supplementary material
15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23	Associations of foods with plasma lipids and blood pressure Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of red and processed meat with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was higher by 0.19 mmol/l (4.3%), and systolic blood pressure was higher by 3.3 mm Hg (2.5%); for processed meat, the difference in systolic blood pressure was 3.7 mm Hg (2.8%). Comparing participants in the highest fifth of intake of cheese with those in the lowest, non-HDL cholesterol was lower by 0.10 mmol/l, whereas the intake of cheese was unrelated to systolic blood pressure (see Supplementary material online, Tables S9 and S10).

1 Discussion

2

In this large European cohort we observed a positive association between red and processed 3 meat intake and risk of IHD, with a 19% (95% CI 6%-33%) higher risk per 100 g/day 4 increment in calibrated intake. Both red and processed meat showed independent associations 5 with risk, which were of similar magnitude. The association of risk with red and processed 6 meat was observed after excluding the first 4 years of follow up and in participants without 7 diabetes, hypertension or hyperlipidaemia, reducing the likelihood of reverse causation or 8 9 residual confounding. In a recent meta-analysis of meat and risk of IHD it was reported that unprocessed red meat consumption was not associated with risk of IHD, whereas processed 10 meat was, with a 42% higher risk per 50 g/d increment in intake.⁵ However, that review 11 included only 769 events from four studies for unprocessed red meat, including one case-12 control study; for processed meat it included 21,308 events from five studies, but most cases 13 derived from one study for which the endpoint was total cardiovascular mortality rather than 14 incident MI and fatal IHD. A subsequent meta-analysis of the association of meat with 15 mortality from IHD also concluded that processed meat but not unprocessed red meat was 16 associated with mortality, based on up to 1370 deaths from IHD.⁶ By comparison, the current 17 study included over 7000 IHD events. 18

19

We observed no significant association of IHD risk with consumption of either white fish or fatty fish (although there was a borderline significant inverse association for fatty fish); a recent analysis of fish consumption and mortality in EPIC found no evidence that high intakes of total, white or fatty fish were associated with mortality from IHD.¹⁸ The possible protective role of fish in IHD has been investigated for more than 30 years. A meta-analysis of 4472 deaths in 17 cohort studies indicated that there was an overall significant inverse association between fish intake and IHD mortality, but the association was not linear and the
 relative risk in the highest category of fish intake was not significantly lower than that in the
 lowest intake.⁹

4

Dairy products are a major source of dietary saturated fatty acids, but prospective 5 observational studies have generally not shown a higher risk of IHD with a higher intake of 6 foods such as milk, yogurt and cheese.^{19 20} We observed no association of milk with risk of 7 IHD, which is consistent with a meta-analysis of 4391 incident IHD cases in six prospective 8 studies.²¹ We observed that yogurt consumption was inversely associated with risk of IHD. 9 However, this association was attenuated and non-significant after excluding the first 4 years 10 of follow-up and showed heterogeneity by smoking status, with no association in never 11 smokers, suggesting that the observed association may partly be explained by changes in diet 12 due to preclinical disease and/or residual confounding by smoking. Yogurt consumption is 13 associated with healthy dietary patterns, behaviors and lifestyle factors²², and a meta-analysis 14 of 5 prospective studies (number of cases unclear) reported no association between yogurt 15 consumption and risk of IHD.²³ We also observed that cheese consumption was inversely 16 associated with risk of IHD; this inverse association was not significant after excluding the 17 first four years of follow-up, although the estimate was only slightly attenuated. A meta-18 analysis of 8 prospective studies with 7425 incident cases showed a lower risk for IHD in 19 participants with a relatively high intake of cheese.²⁴ It has been suggested that cheese has 20 constituents which might act to reduce the risk of IHD, for example that the calcium in 21 cheese forms insoluble soaps with fatty acids thus reducing absorption of saturated fatty 22 acids, and that the calcium also binds to bile acids, reducing their enterohepatic circulation 23 and possibly leading to a cholesterol lowering effect.^{19 25} 24

25

Egg consumption was inversely associated with IHD risk overall, but this association was no longer evident after excluding the first 4 years of follow up perhaps due to limited power to evaluate a modest association, or because people with preclinical disease may have reduced their egg consumption. A recent meta-analysis of six prospective studies including 5847 incident cases reported no association of egg consumption with risk of coronary heart disease.⁸

7

The positive association we observed between red and processed meat and risk of IHD might 8 9 be related to the saturated fat content of these foods. However, although dairy products are also relatively rich in saturated fats, intake of dairy products was not positively related to IHD 10 risk in this study; in fact there was a suggestion of an inverse association between cheese 11 intake and future risk of IHD. This finding might suggest that different food sources of 12 saturated fat, and/or different proportions of individual saturated fatty acids contained within 13 meat and dairy foods, may differ in their impact on risk of IHD, which would affect the 14 interpretation of previous studies of total dietary saturated fatty acids and risk.²⁶ It is also 15 possible that plant sources of protein may be associated with a lower risk of IHD than animal 16 foods,²⁷ and this may be considered in future analyses. 17

- 18
- 19

20 Substitution of other animal foods for red and processed meat

21

Our analyses showed that red and processed meat were positively associated with risk for
IHD, whereas the other animal foods were not associated or inversely associated with risk.
We therefore conducted analyses modelling isocaloric dietary substitutions, which showed
that fatty fish, yogurt, cheese and eggs were associated with significantly lower risks for IHD

1	when substituted for red and processed meat (15% to 24% reductions in risk per 100 kcal
2	substituted per day). Plant foods might also be associated with a lower risk of cardiovascular
3	disease than animal foods ²⁷ and may be considered in future analyses.
4	

5 **Possible roles of plasma lipids and blood pressure**

7 The positive associations of red and processed meat and the inverse association of cheese consumption with the risk of IHD might be explained through the associations of these foods 8 9 with well-established risk factors for IHD, such as cholesterol fractions and systolic blood pressure. Compared to participants in the lowest fifth of intake of red and processed meat, 10 those in the top fifth had a higher non-HDL cholesterol by 0.19 mmol/l and a higher systolic 11 blood pressure by 3.3 mm Hg; the difference in systolic blood pressure was larger for 12 processed meat than for red meat (3.7 and 2.2 mm Hg, respectively), consistent with previous 13 observations and possibly due to the high salt content of most processed meats.²⁸ Based on 14 results from the Emerging Risk Factors Collaboration and the Prospective Studies 15 Collaboration^{29 30}, these differences would be expected to be associated with higher IHD risks 16 of 8% and 12%, respectively. Such modelling suggests that the observed (uncalibrated) 13% 17 higher risk in the top fifth of intake of red and processed meat could be readily explained by 18 the differences in blood lipids and blood pressure. Other mechanisms might also be involved, 19 for example high intakes of red and processed meat might increase the risk of IHD through 20 the conversion of carnitine in meat into trimethylamine oxide.³¹ Compared to participants in 21 the lowest fifth of intake of cheese, those in the top fifth had lower non-HDL cholesterol by 22 0.10 mmol/l, but no significant difference in systolic blood pressure. Again on the basis of 23 results from the Prospective Studies Collaboration, this difference in lipids would be 24 expected to be associated with a 4% lower IHD risk, indicating that the observed 12% lower 25

IHD risk in the top fifth of intake of cheese might be only partly explained by standard lipid
 fractions.

3

4 Strengths and limitations

5

Strengths of this study are the large number of cases, the prospective design, the wide range
of diets across Europe, the calibration of the dietary data using 24-hour recalls, and the ability
to adjust for major risk factors for IHD and to estimate the impacts of associations with
circulating lipids and blood pressure.

10

As with all observational studies, a potential limitation is that the associations may be 11 influenced by confounding by other risk factors. We have adjusted our results for major risk 12 factors for IHD, including smoking and BMI as well as socio-economic factors. However, as 13 the magnitudes of the associations we observed were relatively modest, we cannot discount 14 that the results have been influenced by residual confounding by adiposity, socio-economic 15 factors or other unmeasured factors. Another potential limitation is that, due to the multi-16 centre design of the cohort, there were some variations in the ascertainment and validation of 17 the endpoint; the positive association of red and processed meat with risk for IHD was strong 18 in the countries with complete validation of cases. It is also possible that associations of 19 specific foods with risk may vary between populations due to differences in associations with 20 other aspects of diet. 21

22

23 Conclusion

This large prospective study in Europe shows a moderate positive association between
consumption of red and processed meat and risk of IHD, and suggests a modest inverse
association between consumption of cheese and IHD risk. It is not clear whether these
associations are due to causal relationships, but they were consistent with the associations of
these foods with plasma non-HDL cholesterol, and for red and processed meat with systolic
blood pressure, which could mediate such effects.

Author List

Timothy J Key, DPhil; Paul N Appleby, MSc; Kathryn E Bradbury, PhD; Michael Sweeting, PhD; Angela Wood, PhD; Ingegerd Johansson, MD; Tilman Kühn, PhD; Marinka Steur, PhD; Elisabete Weiderpass, MD; Maria Wennberg, MD; Anne Mette Lund Würtz, PhD; Antonio Agudo, MD; Jonas Andersson, MD; Larraitz Arriola,MD; Heiner Boeing, PhD; Jolanda M.A. Boer, PhD; Fabrice Bonnet, PhD; Marie-Christine Boutron-Ruault, MD; Amanda J Cross, PhD; Ulrika Ericson, MD; Guy Fagherazzi, PhD; Pietro Ferrari, PhD; Marc Gunter, PhD; José María Huerta, MD; Verena Katzke, PhD; Kay-Tee Khaw, MD; Vittorio Krogh, MD; Carlo La Vecchia, MD; Giuseppe Matullo, MD; Conchi Moreno-Iribas, MD; Androniki Naska, MD; Lena Maria Nilsson, PhD; Anja Olsen, PhD; Kim Overvad, PhD; Domenico Palli, MD; Salvatore Panico, MD; Elena Molina-Portillo, MD; J Ramón Quirós, MDE; Guri Skeie, PhD; Ivonne Sluijs, PhD; Emily Sonestedt, PhD; Magdalena Stepien, PhD; Anne Tjønneland, MD; Antonia Trichopoulou, MD; Rosario Tumino, MD; Ioanna Tzoulaki, PhD; Yvonne T van der Schouw, PhD; W.M. Monique Verschuren, PhD; Emanuele di Angelantonio, MD; Claudia Langenberg, PhD; Nita Forouhi, MD; Nick Wareham, MD; Adam Butterworth, PhD; Elio Riboli, MD; John Danesh, MD

Acknowledgments

We thank all EPIC participants and staff for their contribution to the study. We thank staff from the EPIC-CVD and EPIC-InterAct Coordinating Centres for carrying out sample preparation and data-handling work, particularly Sarah Spackman (EPIC-CVD Data Manager) and Nicola Kerrison (EPIC-InterAct Data Manager). We thank the EPIC-InterAct project (<u>http://www.inter-act.eu/</u>) for use of the data on plasma lipids. Statistics Netherlands is acknowledged for providing information on causes of death to the Dutch EPIC Centres.

Sources of funding

Analyses supported by the UK Medical Research Council (MR/M012190/1), Cancer Research UK (C8221/A19170 and 570/A16491), and the Wellcome Trust (Our Planet Our Health, Livestock Environment and People 205212/Z/16/Z). EPIC-CVD has been supported by the European Union Framework 7 (HEALTH-F2-2012-279233), the European Research Council (268834), the UK Medical Research Council (G0800270 and MR/L003120/1), the British Heart Foundation (SP/09/002 and RG/08/014 and RG13/13/30194), and the UK National Institute of Health Research. The coordination of EPIC is financially supported by the European Commission (DG-SANCO) and the International Agency for Research on Cancer. The national cohorts are supported by Danish Cancer Society (Denmark); Ligue Contre le Cancer, Institut Gustave Roussy, Mutuelle Générale de l'Education Nationale, Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale (INSERM) (France); German Cancer Aid, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF), Deutsche Krebshilfe, Deutsches Krebsforschungszentrum and Federal Ministry of Education and Research (Germany); the Hellenic Health Foundation (Greece); Associazione Italiana per la Ricerca sul Cancro-AIRC-Italy and National Research Council (Italy); Dutch Ministry of Public Health, Welfare and Sports (VWS), Netherlands Cancer Registry (NKR), LK Research Funds, Dutch Prevention Funds, Dutch ZON (Zorg Onderzoek Nederland), World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF); Health Research Fund (FIS), PI13/00061 to Granada, PI13/01162 to EPIC-Murcia, Regional Governments of Andalucía, Asturias, Basque Country, Murcia (no. 6236) and Navarra, ISCIII RETIC (RD06/0020) (Spain); Swedish Cancer Society, Swedish Research Council and County Councils of Skåne and Västerbotten (Sweden); Cancer Research UK (14136 to EPIC-Norfolk; C570/A16491 and C8221/A19170 to EPIC-Oxford), UK Medical Research Council (1000143 to EPIC-Norfolk, MR/M012190/1 to EPIC-Oxford, MC_UU_12015/1 (CL, NJW), and MC_UU_12015/5

(NF), and NIHR Biomedical Research Centre Cambridge: Nutrition, Diet, and Lifestyle Research Theme (IS-BRC-1215-20014) to the MRC Epidemiology Unit Cambridge. Kathryn Bradbury holds hold the Girdlers' New Zealand Health Research Council Fellowship. Marinka Steur received Core MRC Unit support through the Nutritional Epidemiology Programme (MC_UU_12015/5) whilst at the MRC Epidemiology Unit, and received funding from the Alpro Foundation whilst at the Cardiovascular Epidemiology Unit. JD holds a BHF Professorship, NIHR Senior Investigator Award, and ERC Senior Investigator Award. The funders play no role in the design of the study; the collection, analysis, and interpretation of the data; or the decision to approve publication of the finished manuscript. The authors assume full responsibility for analyses and interpretation of these data.

Disclosures

All authors declare no financial relationships with any organisations that might have an interest in the submitted work and no relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.

Affiliations

Nuffield Department of Population Health, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK (T.J.K., P.N. A., K.E.B.). MRC Epidemiology Unit, University of Cambridge School of Clinical Medicine, Cambridge, UK (M.Sw., M.St., C.L., N.F., N.W., J.D.). MRC/BHF Cardiovascular Epidemiology Unit, Department of Public Health and Primary Care, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK (A.W., E. d. A., J.D.). Department of Odontology, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden (I.J.). German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Division of Cancer Epidemiology, Heidelberg, Germany (T.K.). Department of Community Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences, UiT, The Arctic University of Norway, Tromsø, Norway (E.W., G.S.). Department of Research, Cancer Registry of Norway, Institute of Population-Based Cancer Research, Oslo, Norway (E.W.). Department of Medical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden (E.W.). Genetic Epidemiology Group, Folkhälsan Research Center, and Faculty of Medicine, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland (E.W.). Department of Public Health and Clinical Medicine, Nutritional Research, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden (M.W.). Section for Epidemiology, Department of Public Health, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark (A.M.L.W., K.O.). Unit of Nutrition and Cancer, Cancer Epidemiology Research Program, Catalan Institute of Oncology-IDIBELL, Barcelona, Spain (A.A.). Department of Public Health and Clinical Medicine, Research Unit Skellefteå, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden (J.A.). Public Health Division of Gipuzkoa, Instituto BIO-Donostia, Basque Government, San Sebastian, Spain (L.A.). CIBER de Epidemiología y Salud Pública (CIBERESP), Spain (L.A., J.M.H., E.M.-P.). Department of Epidemiology, German Institute of Human Nutrition (DIfE), Potsdam-Rehbrücke, Germany (H.B.). Centre for Nutrition, Prevention and Health Services, National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), Bilthoven, The Netherlands (J.M.A.B., W.M.M.V.). CESP, INSERM U1018, Université Paris-Sud, UVSQ, Université Paris-Saclay, Villejuif Cedex, F-94805, France (F.B., M.-C.B.-R., G.F.). Gustave Roussy, Villejuif, F-94805, France (F.B., M.-C.B.-R., G.F.). Department of Endocrinology, Rennes University Hospital (CHU), Rennes, France (F.B.). Rennes 1 University, Rennes, France (F.B.). School of Public Health, Imperial College, London, UK (A.J.C., E.R.). Department of Clinical Sciences Malmö, Lund University, Malmö, Sweden (U.E., E.S.). International Agency for Research on Cancer, World Health Organization, Lyon, France (P.F., M.G., M.S.). Department of Epidemiology, Murcia Regional Health Council, IMIB-Arrixaca, Murcia, Spain (J.M.H.). Clinical Gerontology, Department of Public Health and Primary Care, School of Clinical Medicine, University of Cambridge (K.-T.K.). Epidemiology and Prevention Unit, Fondazione IRCCS Istituto Nazionale dei Tumori, Milan, Italy (V.K.). Hellenic Health Foundation, Athens, Greece (C.L.V., A.N., A.T.). Department of Clinical Sciences and Community Health, Università degli Studi di Milano, Italy (C.L.V.). Italian Institute for Genomic Medicine (IIGM), Turin, Italy (G.M.). Department of Medical Sciences, University of Turin, Italy (G.M.). Instituto de Salud Pública de Navarra, IdiSNA - Navarre Institute for Health Research, Pamplona, Spain (C.M.-I.). WHO Collaborating Center for Nutrition and Health, Unit of Nutritional Epidemiology and Nutrition in Public Health, Department of Hygiene, Epidemiology and Medical Statistics, School of Medicine, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Greece (A.N., A.T.). Arctic Research Centre at Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden (L.M.N.). Danish Cancer Society Research Center, Copenhagen, Denmark (A.J., A.T.). Cancer Risk Factors and Life-Style Epidemiology Unit, Institute for Cancer Research, Prevention and Clinical Network - ISPRO, Florence, Italy (D.P.). Dipartimento di Medicina Clinica e Chirurgia, Federico II University, Naples, Italy (S.P.). Escuela Andaluza de Salud Pública, Instituto de Investigación Biosanitaria ibs., Universidad de Granada, Granada, Spain (W.M.-P.). Public Health Directorate, Asturias, Spain (J.R.M.). Julius Center for Health Sciences and Primary Care, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands (I.S., Y.T.v.d. S., W.M.M.V.). Cancer Registry and Histopathology Unit, "Civic - M.p.Arezzo" Hospital, ASP Ragusa, Italy (R.T.). Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, London, UK (I.T.). MRC-PHE Centre for Environment, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, London, UK (I.T.). Department of Hygiene and Epidemiology, University of Ioannina Medical School, Ioannina, Greece (I.T.).

Contributors

The study was conceived and designed by TJK, PNA, KEB, AB, ER, and JD. The data were analysed by PNA. The first draft of the manuscript was prepared by TJK, PNA and KEB, and edited with input from the writing team (IJ, TK, MS, EW, MW and AMLW). All other authors provided the data and revised the manuscript critically for important intellectual content. All authors gave final approval of the version to be published and have contributed to the manuscript. TJK is the guarantor.

Data sharing

For information on how to submit an application for gaining access to EPIC data and/or biospecimens, please follow the instructions at <u>http://epic.iarc.fr/access/index.php</u>

References

- Townsend N, Wilson L, Bhatnagar P, Wickramasinghe K, Rayner M, Nichols M. Cardiovascular disease in Europe: epidemiological update 2016. Eur Heart J 2016;37:3232-45.
- Bates B, Lennox A, Prentice A, Bates C, Page P, Nicholson S and Swan G. National Diet and Nutrition Survey: Results from Years 1-4 (combined) of the Rolling Programme (2008/2009 – 2011/12).https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/fi le/310997/NDNS_Y1_to_4_UK_report_Executive_summary.pdf (accessed 29/04/16).
- 3. Clarke R, Frost C, Collins R, Appleby P, Peto R. Dietary lipids and blood cholesterol: quantitative meta-analysis of metabolic ward studies. Brit Med J 1997;314:112-117.
- 4. Prospective Studies Collaboration, Lewington S, Whitlock G, Clarke R, Sherliker P, Emberson J, Halsey J, Qizilbash N, Peto R, Collins R. Blood cholesterol and vascular mortality by age, sex, and blood pressure: a meta-analysis of individual data from 61 prospective studies with 55 000 vascular deaths. Lancet 2007;370:1829-1839.
- Micha R, Michas G, Mozaffarian D. Unprocessed red and processed meats and risk of coronary artery disease and type 2 diabetes--an updated review of the evidence. Curr Atheroscler Rep. 2012 Dec;14(6):515-524.

- Abete I, Romaguera D, Vieira AR, Lopez de Munain A, Norat T. Association between total, processed, red and white meat consumption and all- cause, CVD and IHD mortality: a meta-analysis of cohort studies. Br J Nutr 2014;112:762-775.
- Gibson RA, Makrides M, Smithers LG, Voevodin M, Sinclair AJ. The effect of dairy foods on CHD: a systematic review of prospective cohort studies. Br J Nutr 2009;102:1267-1275.
- Rong Y, Chen L, Zhu T, Song Y, Yu M, Shan Z, Sands A, Hu FB, Liu L. Egg consumption and risk of coronary heart disease and stroke: dose-response metaanalysis of prospective cohort studies. BMJ 2013;346:e8539.
- Zheng J, Huang T, Yu Y, Hu X, Yang B, Li D. Fish consumption and CHD mortality: an updated meta-analysis of seventeen cohort studies. Public Health Nutr 2012;15:725-737.
- Riboli E, Hunt KJ, Slimani N, Ferrari P, Norat T, Fahey M, Charrondière UR, Hémon B, Casagrande C, Vignat J, Overvad K, Tjønneland A, Clavel-Chapelon F, Thiébaut A, Wahrendorf J, Boeing H, Trichopoulos D, Trichopoulou A, Vineis P, Palli D, Bueno-De-Mesquita HB, Peeters PH, Lund E, Engeset D, González CA, Barricarte A, Berglund G, Hallmans G, Day NE, Key TJ, Kaaks R, Saracci R. European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC): study populations and data collection. Public Health Nutr 2002;5:1113-1124.

- Danesh J, Saracci R, Berglund G, Feskens E, Overvad K, Panico S, Thompson S, Fournier A, Clavel-Chapelon F, Canonico M, Kaaks R, Linseisen J, Boeing H, Pischon T, Weikert C, Olsen A, Tjønneland A, Johnsen SP, Jensen MK, Quirós JR, Svatetz CA, Pérez MJ, Larrañaga N, Sanchez CN, Iribas CM, Bingham S, Khaw KT, Wareham N, Key T, Roddam A, Trichopoulou A, Benetou V, Trichopoulos D, Masala G, Sieri S, Tumino R, Sacerdote C, Mattiello A, Verschuren WM, Buenode-Mesquita HB, Grobbee DE, van der Schouw YT, Melander O, Hallmans G, Wennberg P, Lund E, Kumle M, Skeie G, Ferrari P, Slimani N, Norat T, Riboli E; EPIC-Heart. EPIC-Heart: the cardiovascular component of a prospective study of nutritional, lifestyle and biological factors in 520,000 middle-aged participants from 10 European countries. Eur J Epidemiol 2007;22:129-141.
- 12. Slimani N, Kaaks R, Ferrari P, Casagrande C, Clavel-Chapelon F, Lotze G, Kroke A, Trichopoulos D, Trichopoulou A, Lauria C, Bellegotti M, Ocké MC, Peeters PH, Engeset D, Lund E, Agudo A, Larrañaga N, Mattisson I, Andren C, Johansson I, Davey G, Welch AA, Overvad K, Tjønneland A, Van Staveren WA, Saracci R, Riboli E. European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) calibration study: rationale, design and population characteristics. Public Health Nutr 2002;5:1125-1145.
- InterAct Consortium, Peters T, Brage S, Westgate K, Franks PW, Gradmark
 A, Tormo Diaz MJ, Huerta JM, Bendinelli B, Vigl M, Boeing H, Wendel-Vos
 W, Spijkerman A, Benjaminsen-Borch K, Valanou E, de Lauzon Guillain B, Clavel-Chapelon F, Sharp S, Kerrison N, Langenberg C, Arriola L, Barricarte A, Gonzales
 C, Grioni S, Kaaks R, Key T, Khaw KT, May A, Nilsson P, Norat T, Overvad K, Palli

D, Panico S, Ramón Quirós J, Ricceri F, Sanchez MJ, Slimani N, Tjonneland A, Tumino R, Feskins E, Riboli E, Ekelund U, Wareham N. Validity of a short questionnaire to assess physical activity in 10 European countries. Eur J Epidemiol 2012;27:15-25.

- 14. Schulze MB, Kroke A, Saracci R, et al. The effect of differences in measurement procedure on the comparability of blood pressure estimates in multi-centre studies. Blood Press Monit 2002;7:95–104.
- 15. Ferrari P, Day NE, Boshuizen HC, Roddam A, Hoffmann K, Thiébaut A, Pera G, Overvad K, Lund E, Trichopoulou A, Tumino R, Gullberg B, Norat T, Slimani N, Kaaks R, Riboli E. The evaluation of the diet/disease relation in the EPIC study: considerations for the calibration and the disease models. Int J Epidemiol 2008;37:368-378.
- 16. Bouvard V, Loomis D, Guyton KZ, Grosse Y, Ghissassi FE, Benbrahim-Tallaa L, Guha N, Mattock H, Straif K; International Agency for Research on Cancer Monograph Working Group. International Agency for Research on Cancer Monograph Working Group. Carcinogenicity of consumption of red and processed meat. Lancet Oncol 2015;16:1599-1600.
- Song M, Giovannucci E. Substitution analysis in nutritional epidemiology: proceed with caution. Eur J Epidemiol. 2018 Feb;33(2):137-140. doi: 10.1007/s10654-018-0371-2.

- 18. Engeset D, Braaten T, Teucher B, Kühn T, Bueno-de-Mesquita HB, Leenders M, Agudo A, Bergmann MM, Valanou E, Naska A, Trichopoulou A, Key TJ, Crowe FL, Overvad K, Sonestedt E, Mattiello A, Peeters PH, Wennberg M, Jansson JH, Boutron-Ruault MC, Dossus L, Dartois L, Li K, Barricarte A, Ward H, Riboli E, Agnoli C, Huerta JM, Sánchez MJ, Tumino R, Altzibar JM, Vineis P, Masala G, Ferrari P, Muller DC, Johansson M, Luisa Redondo M, Tjønneland A, Olsen A, Olsen KS, Brustad M, Skeie G, Lund E. Fish consumption and mortality in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition cohort. Eur J Epidemiol 2015;30:57-70.
- Lovegrove JA, Givens DI. Dairy food products: good or bad for cardiometabolic disease? Nutr Res Rev 2016;29:1-19.
- 20. Dehghan M, Mente A, Rangarajan S, Sheridan P, Mohan V, Iqbal R, Gupta R, Lear S, Wentzel-Viljoen E, Avezum A, Lopez-Jaramillo P, Mony P, Varma RP, Kumar R, Chifamba J, Alhabib KF, Mohammadifard N, Oguz A, Lanas F, Rozanska D, Bostrom KB, Yusoff K, Tsolkile LP, Dans A, Yusufali A, Orlandini A, Poirier P, Khatib R, Hu B, Wei L, Yin L, Deeraili A, Yeates K, Yusuf R, Ismail N, Mozaffarian D, Teo K, Anand SS, Yusuf S; Prospective Urban Rural Epidemiology (PURE) study investigators. Association of dairy intake with cardiovascular disease and mortality in 21 countries from five continents (PURE): a prospective cohort study. Lancet 2018 Sep 11. pii: S0140-6736(18)31812-9.
- 21. Soedamah-Muthu SS, Ding EL, Al-Delaimy WK, Hu FB, Engberink MF, Willett WC, Geleijnse JM. Milk and dairy consumption and incidence of cardiovascular

diseases and all-cause mortality: dose-response meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. Am J Clin Nutr 2011;93:158-171.

- 22. Panahi S, Fernandez MA, Marette A, Tremblay A. Yogurt, diet quality and lifestyle factors. Eur J Clin Nutr 2017;71:573-579.
- 23. Qin LQ, Xu JY, Han SF, Zhang ZL, Zhao YY, Szeto IM. Dairy consumption and risk of cardiovascular disease: an updated meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. Asia Pac J Clin Nutr 2015;24:90-100.
- 24. Chen GC, Wang Y, Tong X, Szeto IMY, Smit G, Li ZN, Qin LQ. Cheese consumption and risk of cardiovascular disease: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. Eur J Nutr 2016 56(8):2565-2575.
- 25. Lorenzen JK, Astrup A. Dairy calcium intake modifies responsiveness of fat metabolism and blood lipids to a high-fat diet. Br J Nutr 2011;105:1823-1831.
- 26. Chowdhury R, Warnakula S, Kunutsor S, Crowe F, Ward HA, Johnson L, Franco OH, Butterworth AS, Forouhi NG, Thompson SG, Khaw KT, Mozaffarian D, Danesh J, Di Angelantonio E. Association of dietary, circulating, and supplement fatty acids with coronary risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Ann Intern Med. 2014 Mar 18;160(6):398-406.
- 27. Song M, Fung TT, Hu FB, Willett WC, Longo VD, Chan AT, Giovannucci EL.

Association of Animal and Plant Protein Intake With All-Cause and Cause-Specific Mortality. JAMA Intern Med. 2016 Oct 1;176(10):1453-1463.

- 28. Oude Griep LM, Seferidi P, Stamler J, Van Horn L, Chan Q, Tzoulaki I, Steffen LM, Miura K, Ueshima H, Okuda N, Zhao L, Soedamah-Muthu SS, Daviglus ML, Elliott P; INTERMAP Research Group. Relation of unprocessed, processed red meat and poultry consumption to blood pressure in East Asian and Western adults. J Hypertens 2016;34:1721-1729.
- 29. Emerging Risk Factors Collaboration, Di Angelantonio E, Sarwar N, Perry P, Kaptoge S, Ray KK, Thompson A, Wood AM, Lewington S, Sattar N, Packard CJ, Collins R, Thompson SG, Danesh J. Major lipids, apolipoproteins, and risk of vascular disease. JAMA 2009;302:1993-2000.
- 30. Lewington S, Clarke R, Qizilbash N, Peto R, Collins R; Prospective Studies Collaboration. Age-specific relevance of usual blood pressure to vascular mortality: a meta-analysis of individual data for one million adults in 61 prospective studies. Lancet 2002;360:1903-1913.
- 31. Koeth RA, Wang Z, Levison BS, Buffa JA, Org E, Sheehy BT, Britt EB, Fu X, Wu Y, Li L, Smith JD, DiDonato JA, Chen J, Li H, Wu GD, Lewis JD, Warrier M, Brown JM, Krauss RM, Tang WH, Bushman FD, Lusis AJ, Hazen SL. Intestinal microbiota metabolism of L-carnitine, a nutrient in red meat, promotes atherosclerosis. Nat Med 2013;19:576-585.

Figure legend

Figure 1. Mutually-adjusted hazard ratios* (95% confidence intervals) for first non-fatal MI or fatal IHD per increment in statistically calibrated intake of animal foods

Characteristic	М	en	Women	
	All men	Male cases	All women	Female cases
Number of participants	106751	4608	303134	2590
Age, y (SD)	52.7 (10.3)	58.7 (8.3)	51.3 (9.8)	61.0 (8.5)
BMI, kg/m^2 (SD)*	26.6 (3.7)	27.3 (3.8)	25.0 (4.4)	27.0 (4.7)
Alcohol in current drinkers, g/day (SD)	22.4 (23.2)	20.6 (22.4)	9.2 (12.0)	7.9 (11.4)
Not current alcohol drinker, n (%)	5409 (5.1)	304 (6.6)	38716 (12.8)	395 (15.3)
Smoking status and cigarettes/day, n (%)*				
Never smoker	32986 (31.4)	926 (20.3)	168240 (57.0)	1071 (41.7)
Former smoker	38347 (36.5)	1661 (36.5)	68785 (23.3)	563 (21.9)
Current smoker, <10 or number unknown	12198 (11.6)	621 (13.6)	16637 (5.6)	195 (7.6)
Current smoker, 10-19	8216 (7.8)	513 (11.3)	23900 (8.1)	436 (17.0)
Current smoker, ≥20	13281 (12.6)	835 (18.3)	17522 (5.9)	306 (11.9)
Highest level of education completed, n (%)*				
None or primary	37929 (36.8)	2129 (47.9)	85431 (29.5)	1242 (51.8)
Secondary	13854 (13.4)	444 (10.0)	75699 (26.2)	225 (9.4)
Vocational or university	51281 (49.8)	1868 (42.1)	128157 (44.3)	930 (38.8)
Cambridge physical activity index, n (%)*				
Inactive	20078 (19.4)	1188 (26.4)	65052 (21.9)	866 (34.1)
Moderately inactive	31545 (30.4)	1365 (30.4)	103286 (34.8)	855 (33.6)
Moderately active	25068 (24.2)	958 (21.3)	83872 (28.2)	458 (18.0)
Active	27034 (26.1)	985 (21.9)	44910 (15.1)	362 (14.2)
Employed or student, n (%)*				
Yes	68176 (75.0)	2338 (58.2)	176825 (64.9)	886 (37.1)
No	22727 (25.0)	1677 (41.8)	95471 (35.1)	1503 (62.9)
History of diabetes, n (%)*				
No	100468 (96.7)	4095 (93.0)	282565 (97.8)	2233 (91.6)
Yes	3379 (3.3)	308 (7.0)	6220 (2.2)	205 (8.4)

Table 1Participant characteristics at recruitment in 409,885 participants by gender and incident case status for first non-fatal MI or fatal
IHD – EPIC Study

Previous hypertension, n (%)*				
No	83183 (82.5)	3160 (73.0)	238272 (83.2)	1591 (64.4)
Yes	17697 (17.5)	1171 (27.0)	48209 (16.8)	879 (35.6)
Prior hyperlipidemia, n (%)*				
No	67978 (81.3)	2082 (73.7)	200039 (87.2)	1230 (78.6)
Yes	15586 (18.7)	742 (26.3)	29309 (12.8)	335 (21.4)
Region, n (%) ^{&}				
Northern Europe	34924 (32.7)	2510 (54.5)	80922 (26.7)	1253 (48.4)
Central Europe	32300 (30.3)	1059 (23.0)	135150 (44.6)	936 (36.1)
Southern Europe	39527 (37.0)	1039 (22.5)	87062 (28.7)	401 (15.5)
Energy intake, kcal/day (SD)	2460 (650)	2436 (636)	1949 (536)	1878 (505)
Percent energy from sugars (SD)	17.3 (6.0)	17.7 (6.1)	19.4 (5.8)	20.5 (6.0)
Cereal fibre, g/day (SD)	10.3 (5.7)	10.4 (6.0)	7.8 (4.4)	7.9 (4.6)
Fruit and vegetables, g/day (SD)	455 (292)	387 (255)	484 (267)	423 (243)
Foods, g/day, medians (lower and upper				
quartiles)				
Red and processed meat	92 (54, 132)	101 (66, 142)	61 (35, 91)	66 (42, 95)
Red meat (g/day)	58 (30, 87)	60 (33, 89)	34 (16, 59)	40 (21, 62)
Processed meat	27 (11, 49)	35 (18, 58)	20 (8, 36)	21 (10, 37)
Poultry meat	16 (8, 33)	16 (6, 31)	14 (5, 23)	13 (4, 24)
White fish	12 (3, 23)	14 (2, 25)	11 (2, 23)	10 (1, 20)
Fatty fish	8 (2, 16)	8 (1, 17)	8 (2, 16)	7 (1, 16)
Milk	171 (38, 321)	216 (55, 432)	148 (19, 294)	218 (70, 387)
Yogurt	13 (0, 55)	8 (0, 61)	36 (3, 97)	27 (2, 94)
Cheese	29 (15, 55)	25 (13, 51)	30 (16, 55)	23 (12, 42)
Eggs	16 (7, 27)	17 (8, 29)	15 (7, 24)	14 (7, 23)

* Value or category unknown for some participants.
 [&] Northern Europe: Denmark, Norway, Sweden (Malmö); Central Europe: France excepting Provence and SW France, Netherlands, UK; Southern Europe: Greece, Italy, Spain, Provence, SW France.

Food	No. of		P for trend [#]			
	cases	2	3	4	5	
Red and processed meat	7198	1.03 (0.93-1.13)	1.05 (0.95-1.15)	1.06 (0.96-1.17)	1.13 (1.02-1.26)	0.014
Red meat	7198	0.98 (0.89-1.08)	1.05 (0.96-1.15)	1.06 (0.97-1.17)	1.10 (0.99-1.21)	0.016
Processed meat	7198	0.98 (0.89-1.09)	1.03 (0.93-1.14)	1.07 (0.97-1.18)	1.10 (0.99-1.22)	0.007
Poultry meat	7198	1.00 (0.92-1.09)	0.99 (0.92-1.08)	1.00 (0.92-1.09)	1.01 (0.94-1.10)	0.77
White fish	7198	0.98 (0.90-1.07)	1.00 (0.92-1.08)	0.96 (0.89-1.04)	1.02 (0.94-1.11)	0.93
Fatty fish	7198	0.96 (0.88-1.03)	0.94 (0.88-1.02)	0.95 (0.88-1.03)	0.92 (0.86-0.99)	0.054
Milk	7198	0.91 (0.83-1.00)	0.97 (0.89-1.06)	0.97 (0.89-1.06)	0.97 (0.88-1.06)	0.66
Yogurt	7198	1.05 (0.97-1.14)	0.99 (0.92-1.07)	0.94 (0.87-1.02)	0.90 (0.84-0.97)	0.0004
Cheese	7198	0.95 (0.88-1.01)	0.90 (0.83-0.97)	0.91 (0.84-0.98)	0.88 (0.80-0.96)	0.003
Eggs	7198	0.96 (0.89-1.04)	0.97 (0.90-1.05)	1.02 (0.94-1.09)	0.93 (0.86-1.01)	0.37

Table 2Hazard ratios* (95% confidence intervals) for first non-fatal MI or fatal IHD in 409,885 participants by overall fifths of observed
(self-reported) intake of selected animal foods, relative to the bottom fifth of intake – EPIC Study

* Hazard ratios are adjusted for age (continuous), smoking status and number of cigarettes per day, history of diabetes, previous hypertension, prior hyperlipidemia, Cambridge physical activity index, employment status, level of education completed, BMI (all categorical, with 'unknown' categories added), current alcohol consumption (non-drinkers and sex-specific fifths of intake among drinkers), and observed intakes of energy, fruit and vegetables combined, sugars (as % energy) and fibre from cereals (each continuous), and stratified by sex and EPIC centre.

[&] The median observed intakes (g/day) within each fifth of intake were as follows: red and processed meat -12, 45, 67, 93, 138; red meat -3, 22, 39, 60, 94; processed meat -1, 11, 22, 35, 61; poultry meat -0, 7, 15, 22, 46; white fish -0, 4, 11, 20, 44; fatty fish -0, 3, 8, 14, 29; milk -0, 49, 150, 288, 470; yogurt -0, 7, 27, 71, 150; cheese -5, 18, 30, 50, 86; eggs -4, 9, 15, 22, 40; for any foods with more than 20% zero values the categories were approximate fifths. The mean 24-hour recall intakes (g/day) within each fifth of intake were as follows: red and processed meat -37, 61, 75, 93, 126; red meat -24, 33, 44, 54, 69; processed meat -10, 25, 34, 43, 60; poultry meat -11, 13, 17, 22, 27; white fish -11, 7, 13, 17, 31; fatty fish -8, 10, 12, 14, 21; milk -33, 79, 176, 240, 384; yogurt -15, 14, 34, 67, 122; cheese -15, 25, 33, 40, 54; eggs -8, 12, 14, 18, 26.

[#] Tests of trend were performed scoring the fifths of intake 1-5.

Table 3Mutually-adjusted hazard ratios* (95% confidence intervals) for first non-fatal MI or fatal IHD in 406,908 participants per
increment in calibrated intake of selected animal foods after excluding the first 4 years of follow-up – EPIC Study

Food	Increment	No. of cases	HR (95% CI),	P for trend [#]
	(g/day)		mutually adjusted	
Red and processed meat	100	5506	1.25 (1.09-1.42)	0.001
Poultry meat	20	5506	0.99 (0.94-1.05)	0.84
White fish	15	5506	1.02 (0.98-1.06)	0.39
Fatty fish	15	5506	0.96 (0.91-1.00)	0.072
Milk	200	5506	1.03 (0.99-1.07)	0.11
Yogurt	100	5506	0.97 (0.92-1.03)	0.28
Cheese	30	5506	0.93 (0.86-1.00)	0.055
Eggs	20	5506	0.96 (0.90-1.03)	0.28

* Hazard ratios are adjusted for age (continuous), smoking status and number of cigarettes per day, history of diabetes, previous hypertension, prior hyperlipidemia, Cambridge physical activity index, employment status, level of education completed, BMI (all categorical, with 'unknown' categories added), current alcohol consumption (non-drinkers and sex-specific fifths of intake among drinkers), and calibrated intakes of energy, fruit and vegetables combined, sugars (as % energy), fibre from cereals, and each other food (each continuous), and stratified by sex and EPIC centre.

[#] Tests of trend were performed using the calibrated intake (continuous).

 Table 4
 Hazard ratios* (95% confidence intervals) for first non-fatal MI or fatal IHD for substitution of 100 kcal/day increment in calibrated energy intake from each food for 100 kcal/day increment in calibrated energy intake from red and processed meat

Food	HR (95% CI), substituting 100 kcal/day of this food for			
	100 kcal/day red and processed meat			
Poultry meat	0.89 (0.76-1.04)			
White fish	<mark>1.00 (0.78-1.26)</mark>			
Fatty fish	<mark>0.81 (0.69-0.95)</mark>			
Milk	<mark>0.95 (0.90-1.00)</mark>			
Yogurt	<mark>0.84 (0.76-0.92)</mark>			
Cheese	<mark>0.85 (0.79-0.92)</mark>			
Eggs	<mark>0.76 (0.62-0.92)</mark>			

* Hazard ratios are adjusted for age (continuous), smoking status and number of cigarettes per day, history of diabetes, previous hypertension, prior hyperlipidaemia, Cambridge physical activity index, employment status, level of education completed, BMI (all categorical, with 'unknown' categories added), current alcohol consumption (non-drinkers and sex-specific fifths of intake among drinkers), and calibrated intakes of energy, fruit and vegetables combined, sugars (as % energy) and fibre from cereals (each continuous), and each other food, as appropriate (each continuous), and stratified by sex and EPIC centre. Results are based on 7198 cases among 409,885 participants with known values for all of the animal foods.

Figure 1.

Food	Increment (g/day)	No. of cases	HR (95% CI)	HR & 95% CI	P for trend
Red and processed meat	100	7198	1.19 (1.06-1.33)	│∎	0.003
Poultry meat	20	7198	0.99 (0.94-1.04)	-#-	0.68
White fish	15	7198	1.01 (0.97-1.04)	#	0.72
Fatty fish	15	7198	0.96 (0.92-1.01)	-88-	0.091
Milk	200	7198	1.02 (0.99-1.06)	.	0.18
Yogurt	100	7198	0.93 (0.89-0.98)	-8-	0.007
Cheese	30	7198	0.92 (0.86-0.98)		0.010
Eggs	20	7198	0.93 (0.88-0.99)		0.023
			_ 0.8	<u> </u>	 1.5

Footnote to Figure 1. Hazard ratios (HR) are adjusted for age (continuous), smoking status and number of cigarettes per day, history of diabetes, previous hypertension, prior hyperlipidemia, Cambridge physical activity index, employment status, level of education completed, BMI (all categorical, with 'unknown' categories added), current alcohol consumption (non-drinkers and sex-specific fifths of intake among drinkers), and calibrated intakes of energy, fruit and vegetables combined, sugars (as % energy), fibre from cereals, and each other food (each continuous), and stratified in the analysis by sex and EPIC centre.