ORIGINAL ARTICLE



∂ Open Access

Socio-demographic indices and frequency of consumption of vegetables and red meat in Nigerian women with breast cancer

Olulope O. Ajayi¹, Mabel A. Charles-Davies¹, John I. Anetor¹, Adeyinka F. Ademola², Ayodeji M. Adebayo³ ¹Department of Chemical Pathology, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria ²Division of Oncology, Department of Surgery, University College Hospital, Ibadan, Nigeria ³Department of Community Medicine and Primary Health Care, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

Aim: Breast cancer is a chronic disease with diverse risk factors. Studies on the involvement of socio-demography and diet in breast cancer etiology are inconclusive. The contribution of socio-demography and selected diets to breast carcinogenesis was thus determined in this study.

Methods: A comparative cross-sectional design was used among 169 non-pregnant women. This comprised 85 drug-naive women with breast cancer and 84 apparently healthy women without breast cancer (controls). The cases and controls were matched for age and menstrual status. Semi-structured questionnaire was used to obtain information on socio-demography, diet, and reproductive history. Data were analyzed using Chi-square and binary logistic regression. *p*-values less than 0.05 were considered as statistically significant.

Results: Daily consumers of red meat were more likely to have breast cancer compared with weekly consumers [odds ratio (OR) = 27.728, 95% confidence interval (CI), 8.874–86.638]. Daily and weekly consumers of vegetables were less likely to have breast cancer compared with occasional consumers (OR = 0.263, 95% CI, 0.081–0.859; OR = 0.268, 95% CI, 0.081–0.885, respectively). Moreover, weekly consumers of dairy products were less likely to have breast cancer compared with non-consumers (OR = 0.080, 95% CI, 0.020–0.324).

Conclusion: Red meat consumption was a predictor of breast cancer. However, regular consumption of vegetables, fruits, and dairy products protects against breast cancer.

Introduction

Breast cancer is the commonest malignancy in women, worldwide [1,2]. Non-modifiable risk factors such as the family history of breast cancer, parity, lactation, and menstrual history have been extensively studied [3,4]. However, studies on the influence of modifiable risk factors such as diet, lifestyle, socio-demographic and socioeconomic status on breast cancer risk are inconclusive [5–8].

Dietary factors account for approximately 30% and 20% of cancers in industrialized and developing countries, respectively [9]. Intake of fruit and vegetable has been reported to reduce breast cancer risk; however, with inconclusive evidence [10].

The consumption of red meat has been associated with increased risk of breast cancer in some studies, while the association of dairy product intake with breast cancer risk has not been established [11,12]. Some studies observed that processed carbohydrates increase breast cancer risk. They have a high glycemic load; hence, predispose to obesity which increases endogenous estrogen level [9,13].

Socioeconomic status measured by occupation and educational status has been associated with breast cancer incidence and survival [14]. Women of high socioeconomic position appear to have a higher risk of developing breast cancer as a result of exposure to reproductive factors and hormone

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received March 11, 2019 Accepted October 19, 2019 Published November 08, 2019

KEYWORDS

Socio-demography; breast cancer; trading; diet; vegetable intake

Contact Olulope O. Ajayi 🖂 olufema01@yahoo.co.uk 🗔 Department of Biochemistry, Edo University Iyamho, Edo State, Nigeria.

^{© 2019} The Authors. This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution NonCommercial ShareAlike 4.0 (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/).

replacement therapy [15]. However, an inverse relationship was reported between high educational status and clinicopathological characteristics of breast cancer [16]. Studies on the relationship between marital status and the risk of breast cancer are controversial. There are reports that being married at the time of diagnosis of breast cancer improves survival. This is attributed to increased social, emotional, and economic support married women enjoyed from their spouses [17].

There are currently conflicting reports on the association of contraceptive use and breast cancer risk. It has been reported that oral contraceptive use increased breast cancer risk. Estrogen and/or progesterone contained in oral contraceptive pills could induce the proliferation of breast cancer cells [18].

Studies on the association of socio-demographic factors, diet, and breast cancer risk are currently inconclusive. This study was designed to determine the contribution of socio-demography and selected diets to breast carcinogenesis.

Materials and Methods

Study design and participants

This study was a comparative cross-sectional design that comprised 169 non-pregnant women aged 28–80 years. Eighty-five (85) were newly diagnosed women with breast cancer who were yet to commence treatment (cases). They were recruited from the Surgical Oncology Clinic, Department of Surgery, University College Hospital, Ibadan, Nigeria. Eighty-four (84) apparently healthy non-pregnant women without breast cancer were recruited as control.

The cases were age-matched individually, i.e., for every case, a control of the same age was recruited. Study participants were also matched on menstrual status, i.e., 30 cases in the follicular phase were matched with 30 controls, 24 cases in the luteal phase were matched with 23 controls, and 31 cases in the postmenopausal phase were matched with 31 controls. Women who reported being on hormonal drugs, who had other types of cancer were excluded from the study.

Ethical considerations

The study protocol was approved by the University of Ibadan and University College Hospital Joint Ethical Review Committee (UI/EC/10/0193). Informed consent was obtained from the participants after the details of the study were explained to them before recruitment into the study.

Study instrument

Semi-structured pre-test questionnaire was administered to each participant to obtain information on socio-demography, diet, and reproductive history.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 18.0) SPP, Inc., Richmond, CA. Chi-square and Fischer's exact tests were used to test the association between categorical independent variables and the outcome variable of interest. Binary logistic regression analysis was used to determine the predictors of breast carcinogenesis and p < 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

Results

Table 1 shows socio-demographic indices, family history of breast cancer, and history of contraceptive use in women with and without breast cancer. There was an association between occupation, ethnic group, and breast cancer (p < 0.05). There was no difference in age, marital status, educational status, family history of breast cancer, contraceptive use, type of contraceptive, and breast cancer (p > 0.05).

Table 2 shows diet history in women with and without breast cancer. There was an association between consumption of vegetables, fruit, red meat, dairy product, and breast cancer (p < 0.05). There was no association between beans/beans product, refined carbohydrate, and breast cancer

Table 3 shows the odds ratio (OR) of predicting factors of breast cancer in women with breast cancer. Patients of Yoruba ethnicity were less likely to have breast cancer compared with women of other ethnicities (OR = 0.117, p = 0.001). Daily and weekly consumers of vegetable were less likely to have breast cancer compared with cases who consume vegetable occasionally (OR = 0.263, p = 0.027; OR = 0.268, p = 0.031, respectively). Daily consumers of red meat were more likely to have breast cancer compared with those who consume red meat occasionally (OR = 27.728, p = 0.000). Weekly consumers of the dairy product were less likely to have breast cancer compared with non-consumers (OR = 0.080, p = 0.000)

Discussion

Breast cancer is a multi-factorial disease [19]. The impact of lifestyle, environmental factors, and diet on breast carcinogenesis has not been completely established [7,20].

Variable	Cases (<i>n</i> = 85)%	Controls (<i>n</i> = 84)%	χ ²	р
Age (years)	48.3 ± 1.3	48.5 ± (1.3)	<i>t</i> = -0.07	0.941
Marital status			1.497	0.221
Married	63 (53.4%)	55 (46.6%)		
Single	22 (43.1%)	29 (56.9%)		
Educational status			3.640	0.303
None	16 (45.7%)	19 (54.3%)		
Primary	21 (61.8%)	13 (38.2%)		
Secondary	24 (54.5%)	20 (45.5%)		
Tertiary	24 (42.9%)	32 (57.1%)		
Occupation			8.101	0.017*
Trading	59 (59.0%)	41 (41.0%)		
Civil servants	13 (33.3%)	26 (66.7%)		
Others (Housewife, farmers, clergy)	13 (43.3%)	17 (56.7%)		
Ethnic group			9.637	0.002*
Yoruba	61 (44.5%)	76 (55.5%)		
Others	24 (75.0%)	8 (25.0%)		
Family history of breast cancer			0.137	0.711
			Fishers = 1.000	
Yes	4 (57.1%)	3 (42.9%)		
No	81 (50.0%)	81 (50.0%)		
Contraceptive use			1.201	0.273
Yes	31 (56.4%)	24(43.6%)		
No	54 (47.4%)	60(52.6%)		
Contraceptive type			1.920	0.166
Hormonal	20 (64.5%) °	11 (35.5%) ^b		
Non-hormonal	11 (45.8%) ª	13 (54.2%) ^b		

Table 1. Socio-demographic indices and some reproductive factors in women with and without breast cancer.

n = number of participants, χ^2 = Chi-Squared test, *p* = probability value, * = significant at *p* < 0.05, *t* = Student's *t*-test, Cases = Women with breast cancer. Controls = Apparently healthy women without breast cancer. ^a*n* = 31, ^b*n* = 24.

There was an association between occupation and breast cancer in this study (p < 0.05). Traders accounted for 59.2% of our study population. Ndikom and Ofi [21] had a similar observation in their study in Nigerian women with cervical cancer. The association of trading with breast carcinogenesis has been attributed to a sedentary lifestyle coupled with long working hours (>55 hours/week) [22,23]. Sedentary lifestyle leads to high energy intake resulting in overweight/obesity which has been implicated in breast carcinogenesis [24,25]. It is known that overweight and obesity increase levels of inflammatory factors such as tumor necrosis factor- α , interleukin-6, and leptin which are known risk predictors of cancer [26,27].

Geographic variation in breast cancer incidence within a country can be influenced by population

www.ajpmph.com

risk factor differences [28]. In this study, there was an association between ethnicity and breast cancer. The Yoruba ethnic group was less likely to have breast cancer when compared with other ethnic groups (p < 0.05). It is possible that the geographical location of the study participants' enrollment could be the reason for this observation.

The emerging report indicates that diet plays a significant role in breast carcinogenesis [29]. In this study, regular red meat consumption predicted breast cancer (p < 0.05). Similar observation was reported by Guo et al. [30]. Red meat contains fat with a high proportion of saturated fatty acids which has been implicated in breast carcinogenesis [31]. The consumption of red meat enhances the metabolic activation of heterocyclic amines (HCAs) which involves cytochrome P-450-mediated N-hy-

Variable	Cases (n = 85)%	Controls (<i>n</i> = 84)%	χ ²	р
Beans/Beans product intake			0.528	0.768
Daily	10 (43.5%)	13 (56.5%)		
Weekly	20 (52.6%)	18 (47.4%)		
Non-consumers	55 (50.9%)	53 (49.1%)		
Vegetable intake			6.933	0.031*
Daily	23 (50.0%)	23 (50.0%)		
Weekly	43 (60.6%)	28 (39.4%)		
Occasionally	19 (36.5%)	33 (63.5%)		
Fruit intake			7.687	0.021*
Daily	17 (45.9%)	20 (54.1%)		
Weekly	32 (41.6%)	45 (58.4%)		
Occasionally	36 (65.5%)	19 (34.5%)		
Red meat intake			54.471	<0.001*
Daily	70 (76.1%)	22 (23.9%)		
Weekly	4 (13.3%)	26 (86.7%)		
Occasionally	11 (23.4%)	36 (76.6%)		
Dairy product intake			10.669	0.005*
Daily	2 (50.0%)	2 (50.0%)		
Weekly	7 (23.3%)	23 (76.7%)		
Non-consumers	76 (56.3%)	59 (43.7%)		
Refined carbohydrate intake			0.080 Fishers = 0.868	0.778
Yes	58 (49.6%)	59 (50.4%)		
No	27 (51.9%)	25 (48.1%)		

Table 2. Diet History in women with and without breast cancer.

n = number of participants, χ^2 = Chi-Squared test, *p* = Probability value, * significant at *p* < 0.05,

Cases = Women with breast cancer. Controls = Apparently healthy women without breast cancer.

droxylation in the liver. HCA metabolites are transported to the breast where N-acetyl transferase activity makes HCAs most reactive. DNA adduct formation that emerged from the binding of these highly reactive metabolites is capable of inducing genetic mutations which results in mammary gland carcinogenesis [32]. The contribution of heme content of red meat to increased oxidative stress further supports the association of red meat with breast carcinogenesis [31,33].

Reports on the intake of dairy products and breast cancer risk are equivocal [34]. In this study, regular consumption of dairy products was observed to be protective against breast cancer (p < 0.05). Dairy products are good sources of calcium, vitamin D, butyrate, lactoferrin, and conjugated linoleic acid, which reduce the risk of breast cancer [35–37]. Moreover, *lactobacillus acidophilus*, a probiotic present in yogurt may modulate the immune response against breast cancer [38]. Insulin-like growth factor-1 content, a pro-carcinogenic

factor, is significantly reduced in processed dairy products by heat treatment or fermentation [39].

The possible reduction of breast cancer risk by fruit and vegetables has been studied for over 30 years; however, no protective effects have been firmly established [40]. In this study, regular consumption of fruit and vegetable was associated with reduced breast cancer risk (p < 0.05). Observations in this study are in tandem with some studies that reported an inverse association between fruit and vegetable intake and the risk of breast cancer [41]. Fruits and vegetables contain phytochemicals such as carotenoids, phytosterols, flavonoids, and fiber which protect against carcinogenesis. These phytochemicals reduce oxidative stress by inducing DNA repair enzymes [42]. Moreover, fruits and vegetables contain protease inhibitors that are effective in the prevention of DNA damage and decrease mutation rate [10].

Studies on the association of oral contraceptive pills and breast cancer are controversial [18]. In this

Variable	OR	95% CI	p
Ethnicity			
Yoruba	0.117	0.034-0.411	0.001*
Others (ref)	1.000		
Occupation			
Trading	2.163	0.593–7.891	0.243
Civil servants	0.778	0.176-3.432	0.740
Others (ref)	1.000		
Vegetable intake			
Daily	0.263	0.081-0.859	0.027*
Weekly	0.268	0.081-0.885	0.031*
Occasionally (ref)	1.000		
Fruit intake			
Daily	0.379	0.110-1.301	0.123
Weekly	2.656	0.869-8.113	0.086
Occasionally (ref)	1.000		
Red meat intake			
Daily	27.728	8.874–86.638	0.000*
Weekly	1.196	0.264-5.407	0.817
Occasionally (ref)	1.000		
Dairy product intake			
Daily	0.233	0.015-3.507	0.292
Weekly	0.080	0.020-0.324	0.000*
Non-consumers (ref)	1.000		

Table 3. Predictors of breast cancer in Nigerian womenwith breast cancer.

OR = Odds ratio, CI = Confidence interval at 95%, p = probability. *significant at p < 0.05.

study, there was no association between contraceptive use and breast cancer risk. This observation is consistent with other studies that did not find an association [43,44]. This could be attributed to the prevalence of triple-negative breast cancer subtype which lacks estrogen receptor, progesterone receptor, and human epithelial receptor 2, which is prevalent in African women [45].

Conclusion

It could be concluded from this study that daily consumption of red meat is a risk factor of breast cancer, while regular consumption of fruits and vegetables reduces the risk of breast cancer. Therefore, regular intake of fruit and vegetable, as well as healthy choice of meat, is recommended.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that no conflict of interest exists.

References

- [1] Ferlay J, Shin HR, Bray F, Forman D, Mathers C, Parkin DM. Estimates of worldwide burden of cancer in 2008: GLOBOCAN 2008. Int J Cancer 2010; 127(12):2893–917.
- [2] Mishra AP, Salehi B, Sharifi-Rad M, Pezzani R, Kobarfard F, Sharifi-Rad J, et al. Programmed cell death, from a cancer perspective: an overview. Mol Diagn Ther 2018; 22(3):281–95.
- [3] Brennan SF, Cantwell MM, Cardwell CR, Velentzis LS, Woodside JV. Dietary pattern and breast cancer risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Am J Clin Nutr 2010; 91(5):1294–302.
- [4] Nindrea RD, Aryandono T, Lazuardi L. Breast cancer risk from modifiable and non-modifiable risk factors among women in Southeast Asia: a meta-analysis. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev 2017; 18(12):3201–6.
- [5] McPherson K, Steel CM and Dixon JM. ABC of breast diseases. Breast cancer-epidemiology, risk factors and genetics. BMJ 2000; 321(7261):624–8.
- [6] Miller BA, Hankey BF, Thomas TL. Impact of sociodemographic factors, hormone receptor status and tumour grade on ethnic differences in tumour stage and size for breast cancer in US women. Am J Epidemiol 2002; 155(6):534–45.
- [7] Wakai K, Tamakoshi K, Date C, Fukui M, Suzuki S, Lin Y, et al. Dietary intake of fat and fatty acids and risk of breast cancer; a prospective study in Japan. Cancer Sci 2005; 96(9):590–9.
- [8] Assari S, Khoshpouri P, Chalian H. Combined effects of race and socioeconomic status on cancer beliefs, cognitions, and emotions. Healthcare 2019; 7:17. doi:10.3390/healthcare7010017
- [9] Key TJ, Spencer EA. Carbohydrates and cancer: an overview of the epidemiological evidence. Eur J Clin Nutr 2007; 61(suppl 1):S112–21.
- [10] Jung S, Spiegelman D, Baglietto L, Bernstein L, Boggs DA, van den Bradt PA, et al. Fruit and vegetable intake and risk of breast cancer by hormone receptor status. J Natl Cancer Inst 2013; 105(3):219–36.
- [11] Moorman PG, Terry PD. Consumption of dairy products and the risk of breast cancer; a review of the literature. Am J Clin Nutr 2004; 80(1):5–14.
- [12] Taylor EF, Burley VJ, Greenwood DC, Cade JE. Meat consumption and risk of breast cancer in the UK women's cohort study. Br J Cancer 2007; 96(7):1139–46.
- [13] Van Dam RM, Seidell JC. Carbohydrate intake and obesity. Eur J Clin Nutr 2007; 61(suppl 1):S75–99.
- [14] Goldberg M, Calderon-Margalit R, Paltiel O, Ahmad WA, Friedlander Y, Harlap S, et al. Socioeconomic disparities in breast cancer incidence and survival among parous women; findings from a population-based cohort 1964–2008. BMC Cancer 2015; 15:921.
- [15] Larsen SB, Olsen A, Lynch J, Christensen J, Overvad K, Tjonneland A, et al. Socio-economic position and lifestyle in relation to breast cancer incidence

among postmenopausal women: a prospective cohort study, Denmark 1993–2006. Cancer Epidemiol 2011; 35(5):438–41.

- [16] Sarici F, Babacan T, Buyukhatipoglu H, Balakan O, Sever AR, Kertmen N, et al. Correlation of educational status and clinicopathological characteristics of breast cancer: a single center experience. JBUON 2016; 21(4):826–31.
- [17] Dawood SS, Lei X, Dent R, Mainwaring PN, Gupta S, Cortes J, et al. Impact of marital status on prognostic outcome of women with breast cancer. J Clin Oncol 2014; 32(5 suppl):594.
- [18] Soroush A, Farshchian N, Komasi S, Izadi N, Amirifard N, Shahmohammadi A. The role of oral contraceptive pills on increased risk of breast cancer in Iranian populations: a meta-analysis. J Cancer Prev 2016; 21(4):294–301.
- [19] Fenga C. Occupational exposure and risk of breast cancer. Biomed Rep 2016; 4(3):282–92.
- [20] Cauchi JP, Camilleri L, Scerri C. Environmental and lifestyle risk factors of breast cancer in Malta-a retrospective case-control study. EPMA J 2016; 7:20.
- [21] Ndikom CM, Ofi BA. Awareness, perception and factors affecting utilization of cervical cancer screening services among women in Ibadan, Nigeria: a qualitative study. Reprod Health 2012; 9:11.
- [22] Schmid D, Leitzmann MF. Television viewing and time spent sedentary in relation to cancer risk: a meta analysis. J Natl Cancer Inst 2014; 106(7):dju098.
- [23] Heikkila K, Nyberg ST, Madsen IEH, de Vroome E, Alfredsson L, Bjorner JJ, et al. IPD-work consortium. Long working hours and cancer risk: a multi-cohort study. Br J Cancer 2016; 114(7):813–8.
- [24] Ligibel J. Obesity and breast cancer. Oncology (Williston Park) 2011; 25(11):994–1000.
- [25] Wijndaele K, Brage S, Besson H, Khaw KT, Sharp SJ, Luben R, et al. Television viewing time independently predicts all cause and cardiovascular mortality; the EPIC Norfolk study. Int J Epidemiol 2011; 40(1):150–9.
- [26] van Kruijsdijk RC, van der Wall E, Visseren FL. Obesity and cancer: the role of dysfunctional adipose tissue. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2009; 18(10):2569–78.
- [27] Kern L, Mittenbühler MJ, Vesting AJ, Ostermann AL, Wunderlich CM, Wunderlich FT. Obesity-induced TNF α and IL-6 Signaling: the missing link between obesity and inflammation—driven liver and colorectal cancers. Cancers (Basel) 2019; 11(1):24.
- [28] Robbins AS, Brescianini S, Kelsey JL. Regional differences in known risk factors and the higher incidence of breast cancer in San Francisco. J Natl Cancer Inst 1997; 89(13):960–5.
- [29] Kotepui M. Diet and risk of breast cancer. Contemp Oncolol (pozn) 2016; 20(1):13–9.
- [30] Guo J, Wei W, Zhan L. Red and processed meat intake and risk of breast cancer: a meta-analysis of

prospective studies. Breast Cancer Res Treat 2015; 151(1):191–8.

- [31] Singh PN, Sabate J, Fraser GE. Does low meat consumption increase life expectancy in Humans? Am J Clin Nutr 2003; 78(3 Suppl): 526s–32s.
- [32] Snyderwine EG, Venogopal M, Yu M. Mammary gland carcinogenesis by food-derived heterocyclic amine and studies on the mechanisms of carcinogenesis of 2-amino-1 methyl-6-phenylimidazo (4,5-b) pyridine(PhIP). Mutat Res 2002; 506– 507:145–52.
- [33] Singh PN. Does low meat consumption contribute to greater longevity? In: Sabate J. (ed.). Vegetarian nutrition, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, pp 135–70, 2001.
- [34] Thomssen C. Consumption of Cow's Milk and Possible Risk of Breast Cancer. Breast Care (Basel). 2010; 5(1):44–6.
- [35] Holick MF. Vitamin D deficiency. N Engl J Med 2007; 357:266–81.
- [36] Bialek A, Tokarz A. Conjugated linoleic acid as a potential protective factor in prevention of breast cancer. Postepy Hig Med Dosw (Online) 2013; 67:6–14.
- [37] Davoodi H, Esmaeili S, Mortazavian AM. Effects of milk and milk products consumption on cancer: a review. Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf 2013; 12(3):249–64.
- [38] Zhang J, Shen M, Du S, Chen T, Zou S. The association between dairy intake and breast cancer in western and asian populations; a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Breast Cancer 2015; 18(4):313–22.
- [39] Kang SH, Kim JU, Imm JY, Oh S, Kim SH. The effects of dairy processes and storage on insulin-like growth factor-1 content in milk and in model IGF-1- fortified dairy products. J Dairy Sci 89(2):402–9.
- [40] Key TJ. Fruit and vegetables and cancer risk. Br J Cancer 2011; 104(1):6–11.
- [41] Kruk J. Association between vegetables, fruits and carbohydrate intake and breast cancer risk in relation to physical activity. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev 2014; 15(11):4429–36.
- [42] Kooshki A, Moghaddam MY, Akbarzadeh R. Study of fruit and vegetable intake in breast cancer in the city of Sabzevar. Electron Physician 2016; 8(9):3011–4.
- [43] Cibula D, Gompel A, Mueck AO, La Vecchia C, Hannaford PC, Skouby SO, et al. Hormonal contraception and risk of cancer. Hum Reprod Update 2010; 16(6):631–50.
- [44] Westhoff CL, Pike MC. Hormonal contraception and breast cancer. Contraception 2018; 98(3):171–3.
- [45] Ajayi OO, Charles-Davies MA, Anetor JI, Ademola FA. Sex hormones, oestrogen receptor, progesterone receptor and human epithelial receptor 2 expressions in pre and postmenopausal sub-Saharan African women with breast cancer. JCTI 2016; 3(4):1–11.