

# Tobacco and Alcohol in Relation to Male Breast Cancer: An Analysis of the Male Breast Cancer Pooling Project Consortium

Michael B. Cook<sup>1</sup>, Pascal Guénel<sup>2,3</sup>, Susan M. Gapstur<sup>4</sup>, Piet A. van den Brandt<sup>5</sup>, Karin B. Michels<sup>6</sup>, John T. Casagrande<sup>7</sup>, Rosie Cooke<sup>8</sup>, Stephen K. Van Den Eeden<sup>9</sup>, Marianne Ewertz<sup>10</sup>, Roni T. Falk<sup>1</sup>, Mia M. Gaudet<sup>4</sup>, George Gkiokas<sup>11</sup>, Laurel A. Habel<sup>9</sup>, Ann W. Hsing<sup>12,13</sup>, Kenneth Johnson<sup>14</sup>, Laurence N. Kolonel<sup>15</sup>, Carlo La Vecchia<sup>16</sup>, Elsebeth Lynge<sup>17</sup>, Jay H. Lubin<sup>1</sup>, Valerie A. McCormack<sup>18</sup>, Eva Negri<sup>19</sup>, Håkan Olsson<sup>20</sup>, Dominick Parisi<sup>21</sup>, Eleni Th. Petridou<sup>22</sup>, Elio Riboli<sup>23</sup>, Howard D. Sesso<sup>24</sup>, Anthony Swerdlow<sup>8,25</sup>, David B. Thomas<sup>26</sup>, Walter C. Willett<sup>27,28</sup>, and Louise A. Brinton<sup>1</sup>

## Abstract

**Background:** The etiology of male breast cancer is poorly understood, partly due to its relative rarity. Although tobacco and alcohol exposures are known carcinogens, their association with male breast cancer risk remains ill-defined.

**Methods:** The Male Breast Cancer Pooling Project consortium provided 2,378 cases and 51,959 controls for analysis from 10 case-control and 10 cohort studies. Individual participant data were harmonized and pooled. Unconditional logistic regression was used to estimate study design-specific (case-control/cohort) ORs and 95% confidence intervals (CI), which were then combined using fixed-effects meta-analysis.

**Results:** Cigarette smoking status, smoking pack-years, duration, intensity, and age at initiation were not associated with male breast cancer risk. Relations with cigar and pipe smoking, tobacco chewing, and snuff use were also null. Recent alcohol consump-

tion and average grams of alcohol consumed per day were also not associated with risk; only one subanalysis of very high recent alcohol consumption (>60 g/day) was tentatively associated with male breast cancer (OR<sub>unexposed referent</sub> = 1.29; 95% CI, 0.97–1.71; OR<sub>>0- $<$ 7 g/day referent</sub> = 1.36; 95% CI, 1.04–1.77). Specific alcoholic beverage types were not associated with male breast cancer. Relations were not altered when stratified by age or body mass index.

**Conclusions:** In this analysis of the Male Breast Cancer Pooling Project, we found little evidence that tobacco and alcohol exposures were associated with risk of male breast cancer.

**Impact:** Tobacco and alcohol do not appear to be carcinogenic for male breast cancer. Future studies should aim to assess these exposures in relation to subtypes of male breast cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*; 24(3): 520–31. ©2014 AACR.

<sup>1</sup>Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, Maryland. <sup>2</sup>Inserm, CESP Center for Research in Epidemiology and Population Health, Environmental Epidemiology of Cancer, Villejuif, France. <sup>3</sup>Université Paris-Sud, UMRS 1018, Villejuif, France. <sup>4</sup>Epidemiology Research Program, American Cancer Society, Atlanta, Georgia. <sup>5</sup>Department of Epidemiology, Maastricht University, Maastricht, the Netherlands. <sup>6</sup>Obstetrics and Gynecology Epidemiology Center, Department of Obstetrics, Gynecology, and Reproductive Biology, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts. <sup>7</sup>Department of Preventive Medicine, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California. <sup>8</sup>Division of Genetics and Epidemiology, The Institute of Cancer Research, Sutton, Surrey, United Kingdom. <sup>9</sup>Division of Research, Kaiser Permanente Northern California, Oakland, California. <sup>10</sup>Department of Oncology, Odense University Hospital, Institute of Clinical Research, University of Southern Denmark, Odense, Denmark. <sup>11</sup>Department of Surgery, Aretaieon University Hospital, Athens, Greece. <sup>12</sup>Cancer Prevention Institute of California, Fremont, California. <sup>13</sup>Stanford Cancer Institute, Stanford, California. <sup>14</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Community Medicine, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. <sup>15</sup>Cancer Epidemiology Program, University of Hawaii Cancer Center, Honolulu, Hawaii. <sup>16</sup>Department of Clinical Science and Community Health, University of Milan, Milan, Italy. <sup>17</sup>Institute of Public Health, University of Copenhagen, Denmark. <sup>18</sup>Section on Environment and Radiation, International Agency for Research on Cancer, Lyon, France. <sup>19</sup>Istituto di Ricerche Farmacologiche "Mario Negri," Milan, Italy. <sup>20</sup>Department of Oncology,

Lund University, Lund, Sweden. <sup>21</sup>Information Management Services, Inc., Rockville, Maryland. <sup>22</sup>Department of Hygiene, Epidemiology, and Medical Statistics, Athens University Medical School, Athens, Greece. <sup>23</sup>School of Public Health, Imperial College, London, United Kingdom. <sup>24</sup>Divisions of Preventive Medicine and Aging, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts. <sup>25</sup>Division of Breast Cancer Research, Institute of Cancer Research, London, United Kingdom. <sup>26</sup>Program in Epidemiology, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, Washington. <sup>27</sup>Departments of Nutrition and Epidemiology, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts. <sup>28</sup>Division of Preventive Medicine, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts.

**Note:** Supplementary data for this article are available at Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers & Prevention Online (<http://cebp.aacrjournals.org/>).

**Corresponding Author:** Michael B. Cook, Hormonal and Reproductive Epidemiology Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, NCI, NIH, DHHS, 9609 Medical Center Drive, Room 7-E106, MSC 9774, Bethesda, MD 20892-9774. Phone: 240-276-7298; Fax: 240-276-7838; E-mail: [cook.mich@mail.nih.gov](mailto:cook.mich@mail.nih.gov)

**doi:** 10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-14-1009

©2014 American Association for Cancer Research.

## Introduction

Male breast cancer is a rare malignancy with an age-adjusted incidence of less than 1 per 100,000 man-years in a vast majority of countries (1). This is in stark contrast to female breast cancer, which is much more common as evidenced by a female-to-male incidence rate ratio of 122 (1). Reasons for this sex disparity are likely related to differences in the numbers and types of cells available for carcinogenic transformation (2), menstrual cycle- and pregnancy-associated morphologic changes in the breast tissue (3, 4), hormonal differences between women and men, and sex differences in breast cancer pathogenesis. Analysis of incidence rates (1) and risk factors (5–9) indicate some similarities between male and female breast cancer, yet the risk profile in men remains poorly elucidated, largely due to the paucity of studies each with a limited number of cases.

Tobacco smoking and alcohol consumption are each classified as a Group 1 carcinogen by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (10). Although the weak and inconsistent associations between tobacco smoking and female breast cancer risk have led most consensus panels to conclude a noncausal association, alcohol consumption has consistently shown a positive linear association with risk. However, the relations of these exposures with male breast cancer risk remain unknown. A number of individual studies of these associations were conducted, but most have been limited in their statistical power to elucidate these associations (5–8, 11–21). To overcome these limitations, we conducted an in-depth analysis of tobacco and alcohol exposures in relation to the risk of male breast cancer in the Male Breast Cancer Pooling Project (MBCPP)—an international consortium of case-control and cohort studies.

## Materials and Methods

### Study population

For the MBCPP, we identified all case-control studies as well as cohort studies with 10 or more cases of this rare malignancy. Studies were identified from literature searches in PubMed, citations within published manuscripts, and advertisement at the NCI Cohort Consortium meetings (<http://epi.grants.cancer.gov/Consortia/cohort.html>). Although two case-control studies (16, 22) could not be included because data were no longer available, we secured the contribution of data from 11 case-control (5, 6, 12, 14, 15, 17, 21, 23–26) and 10 cohort (7, 8, 27–34) investigations. These studies contributed deidentified data following approved data sharing agreements, as well as NCI and study center institutional review board clearances. The case definition was any male breast cancer (ICD 10: C50; ref. 35) reported via a cancer registry, medical record, death certificate, or self-report. Cancers were required to be incident (i.e., diagnosed after exposure ascertainment) for cohort studies, and with exposure ascertainment near cancer ascertainment for case-control studies. To maximize the number of cases, we included all male breast cancers, regardless of whether they were diagnosed as a first cancer or not. For cohort studies, we attempted to create nested case-control datasets with a 40:1 control-to-case ratio using incidence-density matching to retain balance between analytic efficiency and strong statistical power, especially for analyses of less common exposures (36). For these selected sets, controls were matched to cases on sex (male), race (study-specific categories), study center (for multicenter cohorts), date of birth ( $\pm 1$  year), date of entry ( $\pm 1$  year), and exit date [date last known alive and free of cancer

(excluding nonmelanoma skin cancer)]  $\geq$  date of diagnosis of case. When matching controls to male breast cancer cases that were not first cancers, potential controls were not right censored at diagnosis of cancer, as per the above exit date criterion. Matching for date of entry and of birth was relaxed in increments of  $\pm 1$  year until  $\pm 3$  years was reached. These methods were used for all cohort studies, with the only deviation being a 10:1 control-to-case ratio for the Kaiser Permanente Multiphasic Health Checkup Cohort (30).

### Exposures

Cigarette smoking status (dichotomous: ever/never; categorical: current/former/never), duration (continuous and tertiles), intensity (cigarettes per day; continuous and tertiles), pack-years [continuous and quartiles (cigarettes per day / 20 \* duration in years)], and age at initiation (continuous and tertiles) were harmonized and each assessed for their association with breast cancer. Harmonization means to standardize exposure variables across studies so that they are inferentially equivalent and conducive to a valid combined analysis (37). Having ever smoked cigars or pipes, chewed tobacco, or used snuff were each assessed as dichotomous exposures in relation to cancer risk. Cigarette smoking intensity, duration, and age at initiation were additionally analyzed with adjustment for total exposure (pack-years) in an attempt to help discern whether these variables affect risk of cancer once the estimated effect of total exposure has been taken into account (38, 39).

Recent total alcohol consumption (per day) was assessed in grams using: a continuous metric; a categorical metric based on tertiles of the control distribution of exposed [0 g (referent),  $>0$ – $\leq 5.73$ ,  $>5.73$ – $\leq 21.65$ , and  $>21.65$ ]; "high exposure" categorical metrics [0 g (referent),  $>0$ – $<7$ , 7–40/60/90, and  $>40/60/90$ ]; and these same categorical metrics with exclusion of unexposed individuals and use of the lowest exposed group as the referent. If average grams of alcohol consumed per day was not provided, we estimated this using the following drink-specific grams of alcohol per drink: light beer (2% abv) 5.18 g; ordinary beer (5% abv) 12.96 g; strong beer (7% abv) 18.14 g; wine 13.72 g; spirits 13.93 g. We also assessed whether recent beer, wine, or liquor exposure (each dichotomous) were associated with breast cancer. "Recent" was during the past year for most studies, but longer for a few other studies; for example, the European Multicenter Study (21) asked about alcohol consumption five years ago, whereas the U.S. National Follow-up Back Survey (14) and U.S. Multicenter Study (5) only had average consumption across the lifetime. All cutoff points for categorization of exposures and covariates were based on the exposure distribution of control subjects combined across studies that were included in the analytic dataset for this study, except for the "high exposure" alcohol categorization.

### Statistical analysis

To standardize the methods and models for separate pooled analyses of case-control studies and cohort studies (nested case-control studies), we utilized unconditional logistic regression with adjustment for age (in tertiles) and study (categorical) to generate study design-specific ORs and 95% confidence intervals (CI). The study design-specific ORs and 95% CIs were combined using fixed-effects meta-analysis to generate overall summary estimates of association (40). We assessed whether estimates (betas) deviated by more than 10% when individually adjusted for race, education, marital status, body mass index (BMI; kg/m<sup>2</sup>),

Cook et al.

diabetes, family history of breast cancer, and ever having had children, as we considered these variables to be possible confounding factors of associations with tobacco and alcohol exposures and they were widely available from the studies included for analysis. We assessed whether tobacco smoking adjusted or stratified for alcohol consumption, and vice versa, affected the estimates attained. Using a pooled dataset that included both studies of case-control and cohort designs, we tested for interaction between tobacco smoking status (never/former/current) and recent alcohol consumption (categorical) in relation to male breast cancer risk.

*P* values for heterogeneity were estimated using the likelihood ratio test comparing a base model to the same model with inclusion of a cross-product interaction term of exposure by study, within each of the pooled analyses of case-control studies and of cohort studies. Additional sensitivity analyses included stratification of the main results by median age of diagnosis; stratification of the main results by BMI (tertiles and WHO categories); reanalysis of all exposures with exclusion of the National Mortality Follow-back Survey (NMFS; ref. 14), since age was age at death rather than at breast cancer diagnosis; and analyses focusing only on male breast cancers occurring as a first primary cancer. All analyses were performed using SAS 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc.) and STATA 13.1 (StataCorp LP). All statistical tests were two-sided. *P* values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

## Results

The 21 participating studies that comprise the MBCPP are shown in Supplementary Table S1 and were described previously (9). In brief, 11 case-control studies (5, 6, 12, 14, 15, 17, 21, 23-26) collectively contributed 1,190 cases and 4,531 controls, and 10 cohort studies (7, 8, 27-34) collectively contributed 1,215 cases and 47,482 controls. Combined, this provided a total of 2,405 male breast cancers and 52,013 controls for analysis. Three studies did not have information on tobacco or alcohol exposures (7, 24, 26) which precluded their inclusion in any of the analyses presented here. Thus, there were 2,378 cases and 51,959 controls for analysis from 10 case-control and 10 cohort studies. Of this analytic population, the mean ages of cases and controls were 65.6 years (SD = 10.8) and 66.8 (10.5), respectively. The majority (85.7%) of subjects were white.

None of the individual covariates of race, education, marital status, BMI, diabetes, family history of breast cancer, and ever having had children altered beta coefficients to any appreciable extent. In addition, adjustment of alcohol grams in the smoking status model, and adjustment of smoking status in the alcohol dichotomous and alcohol grams analyses had negligible effects on effect estimates. Therefore, the main results presented herein are adjusted only for age and study. Modeling age as a continuous, instead of categorical, variable did not materially affect the risk estimates.

Table 1 shows the summary estimates as well as study design-specific results. Ever (OR = 0.99; 95% CI, 0.86-1.13), former (1.07; 0.92-1.24), and current (0.86, 0.71-1.05) cigarette smoking were not associated with altered risks of male breast cancer. Although the case-control estimate for current vs. never cigarette smoking was statistically significantly reduced (OR = 0.75; 95% CI, 0.58-0.97), the estimate from the cohort studies did not support this association (1.08; 0.79-1.48), leading to a summary estimate that supported the null hypothesis. Similarly there were

no associations with cancer risk observed for other metrics of cigarette smoking, including pack-years, duration, intensity, and age at initiation. When we additionally adjusted the latter three models for pack-years, the estimates were not materially altered (Supplementary Table S2). Analyses of ever having smoked cigars or pipes in relation to male breast cancer risk were, as per the above analyses, extremely well powered with ten studies and 600 cases. Yet these associations also indicated a lack of association with cancer risk. For the exposures tobacco chewing and snuff use, data were only available from case-control studies, yet they still provided close to 400 cases of this rare malignancy. The pooled case-control estimates for tobacco chewing (OR = 1.10; 95% CI, 0.72-1.68) and snuff use (0.97; 0.55-1.71) showed no association with male breast cancer risk.

The summary estimates for alcohol exposures are presented in Table 2. Having recently consumed alcohol was not associated with cancer risk (OR = 0.93; 95% CI, 0.79-1.11) as was average alcohol consumption per 10 g per day (OR<sub>continuous</sub> = 1.02; 95% CI, 1.00-1.04). When analyzed as a categorical variable with cutpoints based on quartiles of the control population, consuming more than 21.65 g/day gave an OR of 1.09 (0.88-1.34; Table 2), which increased to 1.16 (0.96-1.41) when using the lowest exposed group (>0-≤5.73 g/day) as the referent instead of the unexposed (Supplementary Table S3). A similar, albeit stronger, association was observed when we assessed other high recent alcohol consumption groups such as >45 g/day (OR<sub>unexposed referent</sub> = 1.16; 95% CI, 0.90-1.49; OR<sub>>0-<7 g/day referent</sub> = 1.21; 95% CI, 0.97-1.52), >60 g/day (OR<sub>unexposed referent</sub> = 1.29; 95% CI, 0.97-1.71; OR<sub>>0-<7 g/day referent</sub> = 1.36; 95% CI, 1.04-1.77), and >90 g/day (OR<sub>unexposed referent</sub> = 1.08; 95% CI, 0.74-1.58; OR<sub>>0-<7 g/day referent</sub> = 1.12; 95% CI, 0.78-1.61; Supplementary Table S3). However, none of the alcohol analyses provided evidence of dose-response and only one point estimate was statistically significant at  $\alpha = 0.05$  (>60 g/day vs. 0-<7 g/day). Recent beer (OR = 0.95; 95% CI, 0.79-1.13), wine (1.06; 0.89-1.26), and liquor (0.89; 0.75-1.05) consumption were not associated with male breast cancer risk. Finally, none of the *P* values for heterogeneity by study were deemed to be statistically significant (*P* = 0.05) after false discovery rate adjustment (41).

The age-stratified analyses did not provide evidence for any overt effect modification by age (Table 3). There were tentative inverse associations of recent alcohol consumption and recent beer consumption with risk of male breast cancer in younger males, but confidence intervals were wide and considerably overlapping with those of the estimates for older males. Similar observations were seen for average grams of alcohol consumed per day. Analyses stratified by BMI (Table 4) did not provide evidence for effect modification; although estimates for tobacco chewing and recent liquor consumption appeared to differ by BMI tertile, confidence intervals were wide and considerably overlapped. Estimates for alcohol consumption did not vary across strata of tobacco smoking, although there was tentative evidence that current tobacco smoking was inversely associated with male breast cancer (OR = 0.49; 95% CI, 0.26-0.96) in those who reported no recent alcohol consumption. However, there was no evidence for an interaction between tobacco smoking status and alcohol consumption in relation to male breast cancer (*P* = 0.58).

Sensitivity analyses that separately excluded the National Mortality Follow-back Survey (14) and male breast cancers that were not first cancers did not materially alter the results (not shown).

**Table 1.** Associations between tobacco exposures and male breast cancer risk

Exposure	Meta-analysis				Case-control studies				Cohort studies						
	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P
Cigarette smoking status															
Never	18	414	6,236	Referent	0.85	9	282	980	Referent	0.57	9	132	5,256	Referent	0.69
Ever	18	1,012	13,227	0.99 (0.86-1.13)		9	734	2,784	0.95 (0.80-1.13)	0.27	9	278	10,443	1.05 (0.84-1.29)	0.77
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>															
Cigarette smoking status															
Never	16	341	6,155	Referent	0.40	7	209	899	Referent	0.40	9	132	5,256	Referent	0.75
Former	16	576	9,722	1.07 (0.92-1.24)		7	364	1,471	1.09 (0.89-1.34)	0.40	9	212	8,251	1.04 (0.83-1.30)	0.64
Current	16	205	3,192	0.86 (0.71-1.05)	0.15	7	139	1,009	0.75 (0.58-0.97)	0.03	9	66	2,183	1.08 (0.79-1.48)	0.68
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.41					
Cigarette smoking pack-years															
0	18	414	6,236	Referent	0.93	9	282	980	Referent	0.75	9	132	5,256	Referent	0.88
>0-≤10	18	103	1,690	0.92 (0.71-1.19)	0.52	9	65	436	0.84 (0.60-1.17)	0.29	9	38	1,254	1.06 (0.70-1.61)	0.77
>10-≤30	18	165	2,518	0.92 (0.74-1.15)	0.48	9	112	737	0.84 (0.64-1.11)	0.22	9	53	1,781	1.10 (0.75-1.60)	0.63
>30	18	198	2,492	0.95 (0.77-1.18)	0.65	9	154	833	0.95 (0.73-1.23)	0.68	9	44	1,659	0.96 (0.65-1.43)	0.85
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.002					0.88
Continuous	12	466	6,700	1.00 (1.00-1.00)	0.93	6	331	2,006	1.00 (1.00-1.01)	0.75	6	135	4,694	1.00 (0.99-1.01)	0.69
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.02					0.70
Cigarette smoking duration															
>0-≤20	12	165	2,432	Referent	0.61	6	110	647	Referent	0.72	6	55	1,785	Referent	0.71
>20-≤35.5	12	177	2,556	0.94 (0.74-1.19)	0.61	6	128	824	0.95 (0.71-1.27)	0.72	6	49	1,732	0.93 (0.63-1.38)	0.76
>35.5	12	182	2,251	0.90 (0.70-1.16)	0.42	6	146	827	0.89 (0.66-1.20)	0.44	6	36	1,424	0.93 (0.59-1.47)	0.55
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.07					0.61
Continuous	12	524	7,239	0.99 (0.99-1.00)	0.16	6	384	2,298	0.99 (0.99-1.00)	0.18	6	140	4,941	1.00 (0.98-1.01)	0.88
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.03					0.88
Cigarette smoking intensity															
>0-≤15.5	14	251	5,855	Referent	0.17	6	118	806	Referent	0.07	8	133	5,049	Referent	0.73
>15.5-≤25.4	14	165	1,920	1.19 (0.93-1.52)	0.32	6	138	743	1.31 (0.98-1.74)	0.07	8	27	1,177	0.92 (0.57-1.47)	0.49
>25.4	14	186	3,881	1.11 (0.90-1.37)	0.32	6	87	505	1.13 (0.81-1.58)	0.46	8	99	3,376	1.10 (0.84-1.44)	0.15
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.09					0.97
Continuous	14	602	11,656	1.00 (1.00-1.01)	0.53	6	343	2,054	1.00 (1.00-1.01)	0.39	8	259	9,602	1.00 (0.99-1.01)	0.81
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.34					0.81
Age of smoking initiation															
>0-≤16	12	186	2,717	Referent	0.47	6	146	922	Referent	0.84	6	40	1,795	Referent	0.31
>16-≤20	12	194	2,933	1.09 (0.87-1.36)	0.79	6	140	888	1.03 (0.79-1.35)	0.84	6	54	2,045	1.24 (0.82-1.89)	0.42
>20	12	140	2,179	1.04 (0.80-1.35)	0.79	6	97	483	0.97 (0.71-1.32)	0.85	6	43	1,696	1.22 (0.75-2.00)	0.30
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.17					0.31
Continuous	12	520	7,829	1.01 (0.99-1.02)	0.48	6	383	2,293	1.00 (0.99-1.02)	0.85	6	137	5,536	1.01 (0.99-1.04)	0.78
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.18					0.78
Cigar smoking status															
Never	10	475	9,470	Referent	0.70	4	236	688	Referent	0.27	6	239	8,782	Referent	0.65
Ever	10	131	2,395	1.05 (0.84-1.31)	0.70	4	75	231	1.21 (0.86-1.69)	0.27	6	56	2,164	0.93 (0.69-1.26)	0.65

(Continued on the following page)



Table 1. Associations between tobacco exposures and male breast cancer risk (Cont'd)

Exposure	Meta-analysis				Case-control studies				Cohort studies				P		
	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases		Controls	OR (95% CI)
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>					0.05										0.38
Pipe smoking status	10	457	9,089	Referent	0.77	4	223	690	Referent		6	234	8,399	Referent	
Never				0.97 (0.78-1.20)		4	93	237	1.12 (0.80-1.55)	0.52	6	60	2,566	0.87 (0.65-1.16)	0.34
Ever										0.09					0.67
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>															
Tobacco chewing status						3	369	1,252	Referent						
Never						3	32	92	1.10 (0.72-1.68)	0.67					
Ever										0.35					
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>															
Snuff status						2	376	762	Referent						
Never						2	21	34	0.97 (0.55-1.71)	0.91					
Ever										0.85					
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>															

## Discussion

International collaboration through the MBCPP has provided the opportunity for an in-depth and statistically well-powered assessment of tobacco and alcohol exposures in relation to the risk of male breast cancer. After pooling, harmonization and analysis of individual participant data from 20 studies, we find little evidence that these exposures are associated with the risk of developing male breast cancer.

Tobacco smoking, and cigarette smoking in particular, has been associated with increased risk of various cancers including lung, bladder, liver, various upper respiratory sites, myeloid leukemia, stomach, and colorectal (10, 42-44). Tobacco smoke contains several carcinogens (45, 46) and is classified by the International Agency for Research on Cancer as carcinogenic to humans (Group 1; refs. 10, 43). With regard to female breast cancer, tobacco smoking has often been associated with very slight increases in risk (risk ratios between 1.1 and 1.3), but the inconsistent and weak associations have led most (10, 43, 44, 47, 48), but not all (49, 50), consensus summary reports to conclude that the evidence is insufficient to support a causal relationship. The principal concerns of most positive prior studies are residual confounding leading to false positive results, and the inability to test effect modification, whereby subpopulations at risk cannot be identified. Suspected effect modifiers that might define these subpopulations include carcinogenic susceptibility (e.g., germline genetic, oxidative stress capacity), hormonal status (e.g., menopause, parity), and heterogeneous disease (e.g., tumor subtype; ref. 10). There is evidence that supports the plausibility of causality, such as detection of tobacco smoke constituents in breast tissue, fluid, and milk, and *in vitro* carcinogenic transformation of human breast epithelial cells, but the epidemiologic evidence has been typically adjudged to be too weak to endorse causality (10). It is possible that reduced circulating estradiol concentrations caused by tobacco smoking in premenopausal women (51, 52) could counteract the known carcinogenic effects of tobacco smoke. It is of interest that male tobacco smokers have higher circulating concentrations of estradiol (53-55), akin to a similar phenomenon observed for postmenopausal women even after adjustment for BMI (56).

Historically, men have smoked more than women in the United States, yet since 1965 the prevalence of smoking has been declining and converging between the sexes (57). However, any effect conferred by cigarette smoking on breast cancer risk is likely to be modified by sex, given that sex steroid hormones are central to the etiopathogenesis of this malignancy and that circulating concentrations differ greatly between men and premenopausal women. Moreover, incidence rates of female breast cancer are universally much greater than equivalent rates for males, with the average incidence rate ratio being 122 female breast cancers for every male breast cancer (1). Although there are various factors that cause this imbalance, the most obvious are the sex differences in breast tissue in terms of amount, type, and temporal changes, and differences in sex hormone levels. Indeed, it appears that tobacco smoking might primarily be associated with female breast cancer when exposure is during breast development, given findings of stronger associations in women who smoked prior to menarche or 11 or more years before first birth (58). Given these sex differences, we may not expect the strength, or even presence, of an exposure-breast cancer association to be the same in men as

**Table 2.** Associations between alcohol consumption exposures and male breast cancer risk

Exposure	Meta-analysis				Case-control studies				Cohort studies							
	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P	
Alcohol, recent consumption	17	211	3,497	Referent	0.43	9	131	416	Referent	0.23	8	80	3,081	Referent	0.87	
Yes	17	1,221	14,653	0.93 (0.79-1.11)		9	921	3,544	0.87 (0.69-1.09)	0.87	8	300	11,109	1.02 (0.79-1.32)	0.77	
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>																
Alcohol, average consumption (g/day)	14	180	3,339	Referent		7	101	392	Referent		7	79	2,947	Referent		
0	14	294	4,415	0.94 (0.76-1.16)	0.57	7	203	574	0.95 (0.71-1.27)	0.72	7	91	3,841	0.93 (0.68-1.27)	0.65	
>0-≤5.73	14	306	4,430	0.91 (0.74-1.13)	0.41	7	210	832	0.94 (0.70-1.25)	0.66	7	96	3,598	0.89 (0.65-1.21)	0.46	
>5.73-≤21.65	14	327	4,413	1.09 (0.88-1.34)	0.44	7	241	1,676	1.02 (0.77-1.36)	0.88	7	86	2,737	1.17 (0.85-1.60)	0.33	
>21.65										0.38					0.90	
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>																
Continuous per 10 g	14	1,107	16,597	1.017 (0.998-1.037)	0.09	7	755	3,474	1.020 (0.990-1.041)	0.20	7	352	13,123	1.020 (0.990-1.051)	0.26	
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>										0.19						0.58
Beer, recent consumption	10	236	5,254	Referent		5	131	793	Referent		5	105	4,461	Referent		
No	10	483	9,368	0.95 (0.79-1.13)	0.55	5	294	2,082	0.81 (0.63-1.04)	0.09	5	189	7,286	1.11 (0.87-1.42)	0.42	
Yes										0.83					0.21	
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>																
Wine, recent consumption	10	250	5,782	Referent		5	131	769	Referent		5	119	5,013	Referent		
No	10	463	8,804	1.06 (0.89-1.26)	0.49	5	287	2,067	1.02 (0.80-1.30)	0.88	5	176	6,737	1.11 (0.87-1.41)	0.42	
Yes										0.91					0.11	
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>																
Liquor, recent consumption	10	300	6,523	Referent		5	160	1,084	Referent		5	140	5,439	Referent		
No	10	412	8,081	0.89 (0.75-1.05)	0.16	5	258	1,767	0.84 (0.67-1.06)	0.14	5	154	6,314	0.94 (0.74-1.20)	0.63	
Yes										0.12					0.08	
<i>P</i> <sub>heterogeneity</sub>																

Cook et al.

**Table 3.** Associations between tobacco and alcohol exposures and male breast cancer risk stratified by median age at diagnosis

Exposure	Age < median (<66 years)					Age ≥ median (≥66 years)				
	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases	Controls	OR (95% CI)	P
Cigarette smoking status										
Never	18	226	2,531			18	188	3,705		
Ever	18	529	5,330	0.93 (0.77-1.12)	0.42	18	483	7,897	1.04 (0.86-1.26)	0.67
Cigarette smoking status										
Never	16	178	2,487			16	163	3,668		
Former	16	263	3,392	1.05 (0.85-1.31)	0.64	16	313	6,330	1.07 (0.86-1.32)	0.54
Current	16	133	1,757	0.84 (0.65-1.09)	0.18	16	72	1,435	0.89 (0.65-1.21)	0.45
Cigarette smoking pack-years										
0	18	226	2,531			18	188	3,705		
>0-≤10	18	57	781	0.79 (0.56-1.12)	0.19	18	46	909	1.12 (0.76-1.65)	0.57
>10-≤30	18	93	1,166	0.84 (0.62-1.13)	0.25	18	72	1,352	1.06 (0.75-1.48)	0.76
>30	18	113	1,038	0.96 (0.71-1.28)	0.76	18	85	1,454	0.95 (0.69-1.33)	0.78
Continuous	12	263	2,985	1.00 (1.00-1.01)	0.39	12	203	3,715	1.00 (0.99-1.00)	0.41
Cigarette smoking duration										
>0-≤20	12	102	1,181			12	63	1,251		
>20-≤35.5	12	102	1,272	0.89 (0.66-1.22)	0.48	12	75	1,284	0.98 (0.68-1.42)	0.92
>35.5	12	86	809	1.04 (0.74-1.46)	0.81	12	96	1,442	0.77 (0.53-1.12)	0.18
Continuous	12	290	3,262	1.00 (0.99-1.01)	0.73	12	234	3,977	0.99 (0.98-1.00)	0.02
Cigarette smoking intensity										
>0-≤15.5	14	119	2,201			14	132	3,654		
>15.5-≤25.4	14	102	892	1.32 (0.94-1.84)	0.11	14	63	1,028	1.06 (0.74-1.53)	0.76
>25.4	14	94	1,467	1.09 (0.80-1.48)	0.58	14	92	2,414	1.14 (0.85-1.52)	0.38
Continuous	14	315	4,560	1.00 (0.99-1.01)	0.56	14	287	7,096	1.00 (0.99-1.01)	0.79
Age of smoking initiation										
>0-≤16	12	119	1,310			12	67	1,407		
>16-≤20	12	97	1,300	0.95 (0.70-1.29)	0.75	12	97	1,633	1.29 (0.91-1.82)	0.15
>20	12	71	778	0.94 (0.67-1.34)	0.75	12	69	1,401	1.17 (0.79-1.76)	0.43
Continuous	12	287	3,388	1.00 (0.98-1.02)	0.88	12	233	4,441	1.01 (0.99-1.03)	0.25
Cigar smoking status										
Never	10	225	3,305			10	250	6,165		
Ever	10	54	767	1.08 (0.76-1.56)	0.66	10	77	1,628	1.04 (0.78-1.38)	0.79
Pipe smoking status										
Never	10	215	3,159			10	242	5,930		
Ever	10	64	937	0.90 (0.64-1.26)	0.54	10	89	1,866	1.04 (0.79-1.38)	0.77
Tobacco chewing status										
Never	3	223	770			3	146	482		
Ever	3	18	51	1.15 (0.66-2.03)	0.62	3	14	41	1.03 (0.54-1.96)	0.93
Snuff status										
Never	2	230	477			2	146	285		
Ever	2	11	18	1.05 (0.48-2.28)	0.91	2	10	16	0.91 (0.40-2.10)	0.83
Alcohol, recent consumption										
No	17	98	1,186			17	113	2,311		
Yes	17	672	6,424	0.77 (0.60-0.99)	0.04	17	549	8,229	1.09 (0.86-1.37)	0.46
Alcohol, average consumption (g/day)										
0	14	86	1,136			14	94	2,203		
>0-≤5.73	14	146	1,626	0.80 (0.58-1.09)	0.16	14	148	2,789	1.08 (0.81-1.44)	0.62
>5.73-≤21.65	14	165	1,843	0.79 (0.59-1.08)	0.14	14	141	2,587	1.05 (0.78-1.41)	0.76
>21.65	14	199	2,293	0.90 (0.67-1.22)	0.50	14	128	2,120	1.29 (0.95-1.73)	0.10
Continuous	14	596	6,898	1.00 (1.00-1.00)	0.26	14	511	9,699	1.00 (1.00-1.01)	0.16
Beer, recent consumption										
No	10	120	1,880			10	116	3,374		
Yes	10	255	4,291	0.79 (0.61-1.01)	0.06	10	228	5,077	1.13 (0.88-1.44)	0.35
Wine, recent consumption										
No	10	116	2,115			10	134	3,667		
Yes	10	260	4,042	1.03 (0.80-1.32)	0.84	10	203	4,762	1.10 (0.87-1.40)	0.43
Liquor, recent consumption										
No	10	146	2,573			10	154	3,950		
Yes	10	230	3,589	0.85 (0.67-1.07)	0.17	10	182	4,492	0.93 (0.74-1.18)	0.56

NOTE: All models were adjusted for age (continuous) and study (categorical).

it is for women. In additional support of our null results are two further studies that were not included in the MBCPP but that also failed to find an association between tobacco smoking and male breast cancer risk (11, 16). Finally, other tobacco use, including cigar and pipe smoking, chewing, and snuff use, was also not associated with male breast cancer risk in our analysis. These

results further substantiate the null associations with cigarette smoking exposures.

Alcohol consumption was officially recognized to be carcinogenic to humans since an initial IARC Working Group review in 1987 (59). Alcohol consumption increases risk of many malignancies including liver, oropharyngeal, esophageal

**Table 4.** Associations between tobacco and alcohol exposures and male breast cancer risk stratified by body mass index (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)

Exposure	BMI tertile 1 (<24.56)			BMI tertile 2 (≥24.56-27.38)			BMI tertile 3 (≥27.38)			
	Studies	Cases	OR (95% CI)	Studies	Cases	OR (95% CI)	Studies	Cases	OR (95% CI)	
Cigarette smoking status										
Never	18	149	2,215	18	122	2,025	18	138	1,847	
Ever	18	317	4,085	18	330	4,319	18	330	4,461	
			0.89 (0.71-1.11)	0.31					1.16 (0.91-1.48)	0.22
Cigarette smoking status										
Never	16	120	2,176	16	104	2,005	16	112	1,827	
Former	16	160	2,708	16	189	3,238	16	206	3,530	
Current	16	72	1,244	16	66	992	16	60	846	
			0.97 (0.74-1.26)	0.80					1.22 (0.93-1.60)	0.15
			0.75 (0.54-1.05)	0.10					1.07 (0.76-1.52)	0.69
Cigarette smoking pack-years										
0	18	149	2,215	18	122	2,025	18	138	1,847	
>0-≤10	18	35	547	18	44	555	18	22	538	
>10-≤30	18	54	806	18	54	873	18	53	767	
>30	18	67	773	18	65	781	18	55	870	
Continuous	12	156	2,126	12	163	2,209	12	130	2,175	
			0.89 (0.57-1.38)	0.59					1.38 (0.89-2.13)	0.15
			0.94 (0.63-1.39)	0.76					0.97 (0.65-1.46)	0.90
			0.94 (0.64-1.40)	0.78					1.11 (0.75-1.64)	0.59
			1.00 (0.99-1.01)	0.94					1.00 (0.99-1.01)	0.54
Cigarette smoking duration										
>0-≤20	12	57	756	12	58	807	12	46	808	
>20-≤35.5	12	50	779	12	65	885	12	54	831	
>35.5	12	67	796	12	63	710	12	46	665	
Continuous	12	174	2,337	12	186	2,402	12	146	2,304	
			0.82 (0.54-1.25)	0.36					0.95 (0.63-1.43)	0.79
			0.88 (0.58-1.35)	0.57					0.88 (0.57-1.35)	0.55
			1.00 (0.98-1.01)	0.55					0.99 (0.98-1.00)	0.18
Cigarette smoking intensity										
>0-≤15.5	14	81	1,835	14	88	1,958	14	73	1,890	
>15.5-≤25.4	14	50	663	14	60	652	14	48	545	
>25.4	14	54	932	14	59	1,186	14	68	1,663	
Continuous	14	185	3,430	14	207	3,796	14	189	4,098	
			1.04 (0.66-1.63)	0.88					1.16 (0.76-1.77)	0.50
			1.14 (0.76-1.70)	0.53					1.14 (0.78-1.66)	0.51
			1.00 (0.99-1.02)	0.50					1.00 (0.99-1.02)	0.55
Age of smoking initiation										
>0-≤16	12	55	886	12	63	889	12	60	865	
>16-≤20	12	72	988	12	63	994	12	52	862	
>20	12	42	720	12	59	715	12	35	704	
Continuous	12	169	2,594	12	185	2,598	12	147	2,437	
			1.45 (0.97-2.17)	0.07					0.91 (0.61-1.37)	0.65
			1.01 (0.63-1.62)	0.96					1.32 (0.84-2.07)	0.23
			1.00 (0.98-1.03)	0.90					1.01 (0.99-1.03)	0.45
Cigar smoking status										
Never	10	171	2,896	10	140	3,041	10	151	3,310	
Ever	10	28	564	10	48	800	10	49	958	
			0.84 (0.53-1.32)	0.45					1.16 (0.80-1.69)	0.43
Pipe smoking status										
Never	10	154	2,654	10	138	2,946	10	152	3,254	
Ever	10	48	838	10	54	883	10	46	1,023	
			0.79 (0.53-1.16)	0.23					1.18 (0.81-1.71)	0.38
Tobacco chewing status										
Never	3	121	498	3	121	373	3	115	331	
Ever	3	11	35	3	14	23	3	5	33	
			1.15 (0.56-2.35)	0.70					1.83 (0.90-3.71)	0.10
Snuff status										
Never	2	137	338	2	111	207	2	116	183	
Ever	2	4	14	2	8	12	2	8	7	
			0.52 (0.16-1.67)	0.27					1.05 (0.41-2.71)	0.91
Alcohol, recent consumption										
No	17	66	1,124	17	65	1,074	17	73	1,207	
Yes	17	408	4,915	17	393	4,853	17	386	4,514	
			0.96 (0.71-1.30)	0.82					0.92 (0.67-1.25)	0.58

(Continued on the following page)



Table 4. Associations between tobacco and alcohol exposures and male breast cancer risk stratified by body mass index (kg/m<sup>2</sup>). (Cont'd)

Exposure	BMI tertile 1 (<24.56)				BMI tertile 2 (>24.56-<27.38)				BMI tertile 3 (>27.38)				P
	Studies	Cases	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases	OR (95% CI)	P	Studies	Cases	OR (95% CI)	P	
Alcohol, average consumption (g/day)													
0	14	1,045			14	1,014			14	1,189			
>0-≤5.73	14	1,332	1.02 (0.70-1.49)	0.91	14	1,413	0.86 (0.59-1.25)	0.42	14	1,563	0.95 (0.65-1.39)	0.80	
>5.73-≤21.65	14	1,543	0.80 (0.55-1.16)	0.24	14	1,473	0.90 (0.62-1.31)	0.60	14	1,294	1.04 (0.72-1.52)	0.82	
>21.65	14	1,408	1.02 (0.70-1.50)	0.90	14	1,508	1.04 (0.71-1.52)	0.85	14	1,379	1.26 (0.87-1.83)	0.22	
Continuous	14	5,328	1.00 (1.00-1.00)	0.87	14	5,408	1.00 (1.00-1.00)	0.98	14	5,425	1.00 (1.00-1.01)	0.01	
Beer, recent consumption													
No	10	1,642			10	1,645			10	1,830			
Yes	10	2,861	0.93 (0.68-1.28)	0.67	10	3,094	1.02 (0.75-1.39)	0.90	10	3,207	0.91 (0.67-1.24)	0.54	
Wine, recent consumption													
No	10	1,712			10	1,782			10	2,137			
Yes	10	2,770	0.98 (0.72-1.33)	0.88	10	2,956	1.14 (0.84-1.55)	0.41	10	2,886	1.10 (0.81-1.48)	0.54	
Liquor, recent consumption													
No	10	2,049			10	2,096			10	2,216			
Yes	10	2,444	0.70 (0.52-0.94)	0.02	10	2,640	1.16 (0.86-1.56)	0.33	10	2,818	0.86 (0.64-1.14)	0.30	

squamous cell carcinoma, and colorectal cancers (10). Alcohol consumption is also considered a Group 1 carcinogen for female breast cancer; the associated excess risk is modest, between 7 and 13% per 10 g alcohol increase per day (about one drink), but the trend is monotonic (60-62). This association does not differ by alcoholic beverage types, nor is it modified by folate intake, menopausal status, or BMI, there is insufficient and inconsistent evidence as to whether associations vary by menopausal hormone therapy, tumor receptor status, or histologic subtype (10).

There was little evidence that alcohol consumption was associated with male breast cancer in this analysis, and this is also true of two other studies that were not included in the MBCPP consortium (11, 18). High recent alcohol consumption (>60 g/day) provided the strongest estimate of association (OR = 1.36; 95% CI, 1.04-1.77, *P* = 0.02) when compared with a lower exposed group (>0-<7 g/day) but the lack of dose response may reduce the likelihood of this being a causal effect. On the other hand, one might expect that the weak, but well-established, effect of alcohol consumption on female breast cancer risk should also be observed in male breast cancer. The mechanism of the relationship between alcohol consumption and female breast cancer risk remains unknown, but the primary hypothesis is that ethanol increases estrogen concentrations, thereby activating cellular proliferation (10, 63, 64). In men, there is evidence both for (65, 66) and against (54) associations between alcohol consumption and circulating sex steroid hormone concentrations. Additional hypotheses surround local CYP2E1 metabolism of ethanol to acetaldehyde which is genotoxic and clastogenic and may also cause increased reactive oxygen species, altered epigenetic states, and modified cell cycling (10, 63, 64).

Strengths of this analysis include: the large number of male breast cancers available for analysis; use of individual participant data which permitted combined analyses with comparable variables, a feature not available in meta-analyses that use only published estimates of risk; and, no statistical evidence for heterogeneity after false discovery rate adjustment (41). Limitations of our study include: exposures being elicited through questionnaires and thus prone to recall and interviewer biases, although tobacco (67, 68) and alcohol (69) exposures have been shown to be reliably recalled and this was supported by similar estimates of risk from both cohort and case-control study designs; some of the exposures were worded slightly differently across studies and included slight variations in time, which could have impacted the results; data on passive tobacco smoking was not available across studies, thus we could not account for such in our analyses; and stratification by potential effect modifiers of germline genetic polymorphism, tumor receptor subtype, or tumor histology was not possible due to unavailability of this information.

In this large, pooled analysis of the MBCPP, we find little evidence that tobacco and alcohol exposures are associated with the risk of male breast cancer.

#### Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

No potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

#### Authors' Contributions

**Conception and design:** M.B. Cook, P. Guenel, M. Ewertz, A.W. Hsing, K. Johnson, H. Olsson, A. Swerdlow, W.C. Willett, L.A. Brinton

**Development of methodology:** M.B. Cook, P. Guenel, S.K. Van Den Eeden, A.W. Hsing, K. Johnson, L.A. Brinton

**Acquisition of data (provided animals, acquired and managed patients, provided facilities, etc.):** M.B. Cook, P. Guenel, S.M. Gapstur, P.A. van den Brandt, K.B. Michels, J.T. Casagrande, R. Cooke, S.K. Van Den Eeden, M. Ewertz, M.M. Gaudet, G. Gkiokas, L.A. Habel, A.W. Hsing, K. Johnson, L.N. Kolonel, C. La Vecchia, E. Lyng, V.A. McCormack, E. Negri, H. Olsson, H.D. Sesso, A. Swerdlow, D.B. Thomas, W.C. Willett, L.A. Brinton

**Analysis and interpretation of data (e.g., statistical analysis, biostatistics, computational analysis):** M.B. Cook, P. Guenel, P.A. van den Brandt, S.K. Van Den Eeden, R.T. Falk, M.M. Gaudet, A.W. Hsing, L.N. Kolonel, J.H. Lubin, D. Parisi, E.T. Petridou, H.D. Sesso, L.A. Brinton

**Writing, review, and/or revision of the manuscript:** M.B. Cook, P. Guenel, S.M. Gapstur, P.A. van den Brandt, K.B. Michels, S.K. Van Den Eeden, M. Ewertz, R.T. Falk, M.M. Gaudet, G. Gkiokas, L.A. Habel, A.W. Hsing, K. Johnson, L.N. Kolonel, C. La Vecchia, J.H. Lubin, E. Negri, H. Olsson, D. Parisi, E.T. Petridou, E. Riboli, H.D. Sesso, A. Swerdlow, D.B. Thomas, W.C. Willett, L.A. Brinton

**Administrative, technical, or material support (i.e., reporting or organizing data, constructing databases):** M.B. Cook, R. Cooke, S.K. Van Den Eeden, L.A. Habel, K. Johnson, D. Parisi, L.A. Brinton

**Study supervision:** L.A. Brinton

**Other (collection of the Greek dataset in the context of PhD):** G. Gkiokas

## Acknowledgments

The European Rare Cancer Study Group would like to thank Linda Kaerlev, Jørn Olsen, and Svend Sabroe (Aarhus, Denmark), Diane Cyr (Villejuif, France), Wolfgang Ahrens (Bremen, Germany), Franco Merletti (Turin, Italy), Aivar Stengrevics (Riga, Latvia), Noemia Afonso and Altamiro Costa-Pereira (Porto, Portugal), Maria Morales (Valencia, Spain), and Mikael Eriksson (Lund, Sweden), for their participation and data collection.

## Grant Support

This research was funded, in part, by the Intramural Program of the NCI, NIH, Department of Health and Human Services. J.H. Lubin, L.A. Brinton, M.B. Cook, and R.T. Falk were supported by the Intramural Program of the NCI, NIH, Department of Health and Human Services. S. Van Den Eeden and L.A. Habel were supported by the Kaiser Foundation Research Institute. Follow-up and maintenance of the Cancer Prevention Study-II was supported by the American Cancer Society.

Participants of the European Rare Cancer Study Group included Noemia Afonso, Wolfgang Ahrens, Diane Cyr, Linda Kaerlev, Mikael Eriksson, Elsebeth Lyng, Franco Merletti, Maria Morales, Jørn Olsen, Svend Sabroe, and Aivar Stengrevics.

The England and Wales Male Breast Cancer Case-Control Study was funded by Breakthrough Breast Cancer grant BBC066 awarded to A. Swerdlow and A. Ashworth. In addition, the Institute of Cancer Research acknowledges National Health Service funding to the National Institute for Health Research Biomedical Research Centre. The Health Professionals' Follow-up Study was supported by grants UM1CA167552 and P01CA 55075 from the National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health awarded to K.B. Michels and W.C. Willett. The Multiethnic Cohort Study was supported by grant #R37 CA54281 from the National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health awarded to L.N. Kolonel. The National Mortality Follow-back Study was supported by the Intramural Program of the National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Department of Health and Human Services. The Netherlands Cohort Study was supported by grants from the Dutch Cancer Society awarded to P.A. van den Brandt. The Physicians' Health Study was supported by grants CA 097193, CA 34944, CA 40360, HL 26490, and HL 34595 from the NIH.

The PIs and funders corresponding to each of the EPIC centers that contributed cases were Heiner Boeing, Rudolph Kaaks (Germany); Göran Hallmans, Jonas Manjer (Sweden); Timothy Key, Nick Wareham (UK); Kim Overvad, Anne Tjønneland (Denmark); Domenico Palli, Paolo Vineis, Rosario Tumino (Italy); Maria José Sánchez (Spain); Antonia Trichopoulou (Greece); from the Deutsche Krebshilfe, Deutsches Krebsforschungszentrum and the Federal Ministry of Education and Research Germany; the Swedish Cancer Society, Swedish Scientific Council and the Regional Government of Skåne and Västerbotten; Cancer Research UK and the UK Medical Research Council; Danish Cancer Society; Italian Association for Research on Cancer, National Research Council Italy, and HuGeF Foundation, Torino, Italy; ISCIII RTICC Red Temática de Investigación Cooperativa en Cáncer (R06/0020) Spain; Hellenic Health Foundation, the Stavros Niarchos Foundation, and the Hellenic Ministry of Health and Social Solidarity.

The Swedish Study of Male Breast Cancer conducted at Lund University was supported by European Research Council Advanced Grant ERC-2011-294576 awarded to H. Olsson. The U.S. Multicenter Study of Male Breast Cancer conducted through the SEER Program was funded by grant NCI R01 CA35653 awarded to D.B. Thomas.

The costs of publication of this article were defrayed in part by the payment of page charges. This article must therefore be hereby marked *advertisement* in accordance with 18 U.S.C. Section 1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Received September 4, 2014; revised November 21, 2014; accepted November 21, 2014; published OnlineFirst December 16, 2014.

## References

- Ly D, Forman D, Ferlay J, Brinton LA, Cook MB. An international comparison of male and female breast cancer incidence rates. *Int J Cancer* 2013;132:1918–26.
- Popli MB, Popli V, Bahl P, Solanki Y. Pictorial essay: mammography of the male breast. *Indian J Radiol Imaging* 2009;19:278–81.
- Ramakrishnan R, Khan SA, Badve S. Morphological changes in breast tissue with menstrual cycle. *Mod Pathol* 2002;15:1348–56.
- Vogel PM, Georgiade NG, Fetter BF, Vogel FS, McCarty KS, Jr. The correlation of histologic changes in the human breast with the menstrual cycle. *Am J Pathol* 1981;104:23–34.
- Thomas DB, Jimenez LM, McTiernan A, Rosenblatt K, Stalsberg H, Stemhagen A, et al. Breast cancer in men: risk factors with hormonal implications. *Am J Epidemiol* 1992;135:734–48.
- Ewertz M, Holmberg L, Tretli S, Pedersen BV, Kristensen A. Risk factors for male breast cancer—a case-control study from Scandinavia. *Acta Oncologica* 2001;40:467–71.
- Brinton LA, Carreon JD, Gierach GL, McGlynn KA, Gridley G. Etiologic factors for male breast cancer in the U.S. Veterans Affairs medical care system database. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2010;119:185–92.
- Brinton LA, Richesson DA, Gierach GL, Lacey JV Jr, Park Y, Hollenbeck AR, et al. Prospective evaluation of risk factors for male breast cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2008;100:1477–81.
- Brinton LA, Cook MB, McCormack V, Johnson KC, Olsson H, Casagrande JT, et al. Anthropometric and hormonal risk factors for male breast cancer: male breast cancer pooling project results. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2014;106:djt465.
- IARC Working Group on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. A review of human carcinogens. Lyon, France: International Agency for Research on Cancer; 2012.
- Andrykowski MA. Physical and mental health status and health behaviors in male breast cancer survivors: a national, population-based, case-control study. *Psychooncology* 2012;21:927–34.
- Casagrande JT, Hanisch R, Pike MC, Ross RK, Brown JB, Henderson BE. A case-control study of male breast cancer. *Cancer Res* 1988;48:1326–30.
- Guenel P, Cyr D, Sabroe S, Lyng E, Merletti F, Ahrens W, et al. Alcohol drinking may increase risk of breast cancer in men: a European population-based case-control study. *Cancer Causes Control* 2004;15:571–80.
- Hsing AW, McLaughlin JK, Cocco P, Co Chien HT, Fraumeni JF Jr. Risk factors for male breast cancer (United States). *Cancer Causes Control* 1998;9:269–75.
- Johnson KC, Pan S, Mao Y. Risk factors for male breast cancer in Canada, 1994–1998. *Eur J Cancer Prev* 2002;11:253–63.
- Mabuchi K, Bross DS, Kessler II. Risk factors for male breast cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1985;74:371–5.
- Petridou E, Giokas G, Kuper H, Mucci LA, Trichopoulos D. Endocrine correlates of male breast cancer risk: a case-control study in Athens, Greece. *Br J Cancer* 2000;83:1234–7.

Cook et al.

18. Weiderpass E, Ye W, Adami HO, Vainio H, Trichopoulos D, Nyren O. Breast cancer risk in male alcoholics in Sweden. *Cancer Causes Control* 2001;12:661-4.
19. Rosenblatt KA, Thomas DB, Jimenez LM, Fish B, McTiernan A, Stalsberg H, et al. The relationship between diet and breast cancer in men (United States). *Cancer Causes Control* 1999;10:107-13.
20. Satram-Hoang S, Moran EM, Anton-Culver H, Burras RW, Heimann TM, Boggio I, et al. A pilot study of male breast cancer in the Veterans Affairs healthcare system. *J Environ Pathol Toxicol Oncol* 2010;29:235-44.
21. Villeneuve S, Cyr D, Lynge E, Orsi L, Sabroe S, Merletti F, et al. Occupation and occupational exposure to endocrine disrupting chemicals in male breast cancer: a case-control study in Europe. *Occup Environ Med* 2010;67:837-44.
22. Lenfant-Pejovic MH, Mlika-Cabanne N, Bouchardy C, Auquier A. Risk factors for male breast cancer: a Franco-Swiss case-control study. *Int J Cancer* 1990;45:661-5.
23. D'Avanzo B, La Vecchia C. Risk factors for male breast cancer. *Br J Cancer* 1995;71:1359-62.
24. Olsson H, Ranstam J. Head trauma and exposure to prolactin-elevating drugs as risk factors for male breast cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1988;80:679-83.
25. Jacobs PA, Maloney V, Cooke R, Crolla JA, Ashworth A, Swerdlow AJ. Male breast cancer, age and sex chromosome aneuploidy. *Br J Cancer* 2013;108:959-63.
26. Jellum E, Andersen A, Lund-Larsen P, Theodorsen L, Orjasaeter H. The JANUS serum bank. *Sci Total Environ* 1993;139-140:527-35.
27. Calle EE, Rodriguez C, Jacobs EJ, Almon ML, Chao A, McCullough ML, et al. The American Cancer Society Cancer Prevention Study II Nutrition Cohort: rationale, study design, and baseline characteristics. *Cancer* 2002;94:500-11.
28. Riboli E, Hunt KJ, Slimani N, Ferrari P, Norat T, Fahey M, et al. European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC): study populations and data collection. *Public Health Nutr* 2002;5:1113-24.
29. Giovannucci E, Rimm EB, Liu Y, Leitzmann M, Wu K, Stampfer MJ, et al. Body mass index and risk of prostate cancer in U.S. health professionals. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2003;95:1240-4.
30. Cutler JL, Ramcharan S, Feldman R, Siegel AB, Campbell B, Friedman GD, et al. Multiphasic checkup evaluation study. 1. Methods and population. *Prev Med* 1973;2:197-206.
31. Kolonel LN, Henderson BE, Hankin JH, Nomura AM, Wilkens LR, Pike MC, et al. A multiethnic cohort in Hawaii and Los Angeles: baseline characteristics. *Am J Epidemiol* 2000;151:346-57.
32. van den Brandt PA, Goldbohm RA, van't Veer P, Volovics A, Hermus RJ, Sturmans F. A large-scale prospective cohort study on diet and cancer in The Netherlands. *J Clin Epidemiol* 1990;43:285-95.
33. Sesso HD, Gaziano JM, VanDenburgh M, Hennekens CH, Glynn RJ, Buring JE. Comparison of baseline characteristics and mortality experience of participants and nonparticipants in a randomized clinical trial: the Physicians' Health Study. *Control Clin Trials* 2002;23:686-702.
34. Prorok PC, Andriole GL, Bresalier RS, Buys SS, Chia D, Crawford ED, et al. Design of the prostate lung, colorectal and ovarian (PLCO) cancer screening trial. *Control Clin Trials* 2000;21:273S-309S.
35. World Health Organization. International statistical classification of diseases and related health problems. 10th revision ed: Geneva, Switzerland; 1992.
36. Hennessy S, Bilker WB, Berlin JA, Strom BL. Factors influencing the optimal control-to-case ratio in matched case-control studies. *Am J Epidemiol* 1999;149:195-7.
37. Fortier I, Doiron D, Burton P, Raina P. Invited commentary: consolidating data harmonization—how to obtain quality and applicability? *Am J Epidemiol* 2011;174:261-4; author reply 5-6.
38. Lubin JH, Alavanja MC, Caporaso N, Brown LM, Brownson RC, Field RW, et al. Cigarette smoking and cancer risk: modeling total exposure and intensity. *Am J Epidemiol* 2007;166:479-89.
39. Lubin JH, Caporaso NE. Cigarette smoking and lung cancer: modeling total exposure and intensity. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2006;15:517-23.
40. Smith-Warner SA, Spiegelman D, Ritz J, Albanes D, Beeson WL, Bernstein L, et al. Methods for pooling results of epidemiologic studies: the Pooling Project of Prospective Studies of Diet and Cancer. *Am J Epidemiol* 2006;163:1053-64.
41. Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. *J Royal Stat Soc B* 1995;57:289-300.
42. Batty GD, Kivimaki M, Gray L, Smith GD, Marmot MG, Shipley MJ. Cigarette smoking and site-specific cancer mortality: testing uncertain associations using extended follow-up of the original Whitehall study. *Ann Oncol* 2008;19:996-1002.
43. IARC Working Group on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. IARC monograph on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans. Lyon, France: International Agency for Research on Cancer; 2004.
44. United States. Public health service. Office of the Surgeon General. The Health Consequences of Smoking—50 Years of Progress: A Report of the Surgeon General; 2014.
45. Hecht SS. Tobacco carcinogens, their biomarkers and tobacco-induced cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2003;3:733-44.
46. United States Public Health Service. Office of the Surgeon General., United States. Office on Smoking and Health. How tobacco smoke causes disease: the biology and behavioral basis for smoking-attributable disease: a report of the Surgeon General. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service; 2010.
47. United States Public Health Service. Office of the Surgeon General., Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (U.S.), National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion (U.S.), United States. Office on Smoking and Health. Women and smoking: a report of the Surgeon General. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service; 2001.
48. United States. Public Health Service. Office of the Surgeon General., United States. Office on Smoking and Health. The health consequences of smoking: a report of the Surgeon General. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service; 2004.
49. Johnson KC, Miller AB, Collishaw NE, Palmer JR, Hammond SK, Salmon AG, et al. Active smoking and secondhand smoke increase breast cancer risk: the report of the Canadian Expert Panel on Tobacco Smoke and Breast Cancer Risk (2009). *Tobacco Control* 2011;20:e2.
50. Collishaw NE, Boyd NF, Cantor KP, Hammond SK, Johnson KC, Millar J, et al. Canadian expert panel on tobacco smoke and breast cancer risk. Toronto, Canada: Ontario Tobacco Research Unit, OTRU Special Report Series; 2009.
51. Westhoff C, Gentile G, Lee J, Zacur H, Helbig D. Predictors of ovarian steroid secretion in reproductive-age women. *Am J Epidemiol* 1996;144:381-8.
52. MacMahon B, Trichopoulos D, Cole P, Brown J. Cigarette smoking and urinary estrogens. *N Engl J Med* 1982;307:1062-5.
53. Wang W, Yang X, Liang J, Liao M, Zhang H, Qin X, et al. Cigarette smoking has a positive and independent effect on testosterone levels. *Hormones* 2013;12:567-77.
54. Shiels MS, Rohrmann S, Menke A, Selvin E, Crespo CJ, Rifai N, et al. Association of cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, and physical activity with sex steroid hormone levels in US men. *Cancer Causes Control* 2009;20:877-86.
55. Tamimi R, Mucci LA, Spanos E, Laggiou A, Benetou V, Trichopoulos D. Testosterone and oestradiol in relation to tobacco smoking, body mass index, energy consumption and nutrient intake among adult men. *Eur J Cancer Prev* 2001;10:275-80.
56. Endogenous HBreast Cancer Collaborative G. Circulating sex hormones and breast cancer risk factors in postmenopausal women: reanalysis of 13 studies. *Br J Cancer* 2011;105:709-22.
57. Rock VJ, Malarcher A, Kahende JW, Asman K, Husten C, Caraballo R. Cigarette smoking among adults—United States, 2006. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2007;56:1157-61.
58. 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;105:515-25.
59. IARC Working Group on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans., International Agency for Research on Cancer., National Cancer Institute (U. S.). Alcohol drinking. Lyon, France: World Health Organization, International Agency for Research on Cancer; 1988.
60. Allen NE, Beral V, Casabonne D, Kan SW, Reeves GK, Brown A, et al. Moderate alcohol intake and cancer incidence in women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2009;101:296-305.

61. Hamajima N, Hirose K, Tajima K, Rohan T, Calle EE, Heath CW Jr, et al. 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;87:1234–45.
62. Key J, Hodgson S, Omar RZ, Jensen TK, Thompson SG, Boobis AR, et al. Meta-analysis of studies of alcohol and breast cancer with consideration of the methodological issues. *Cancer Causes Control* 2006;17:759–70.
63. Fernandez SV. Estrogen, alcohol consumption, and breast cancer. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res* 2011;35:389–91.
64. Seitz HK, Pelucchi C, Bagnardi V, La Vecchia C. Epidemiology and pathophysiology of alcohol and breast cancer: Update 2012. *Alcohol Alcohol* 2012;47:204–12.
65. Hansen ML, Thulstrup AM, Bonde JP, Olsen J, Hakonsen LB, Ramlau-Hansen CH. Does last week's alcohol intake affect semen quality or reproductive hormones? A cross-sectional study among healthy young Danish men. *Reprod Toxicol* 2012;34:457–62.
66. Venkat KK, Arora MM, Singh P, Desai M, Khatkhatay I. Effect of alcohol consumption on bone mineral density and hormonal parameters in physically active male soldiers. *Bone* 2009;45:449–54.
67. Brigham J, Lessov-Schlaggar CN, Javitz HS, McElroy M, Krasnow R, Swan GE. Reliability of adult retrospective recall of lifetime tobacco use. *Nicotine Tob Res* 2008;10:287–99.
68. Brigham J, Lessov-Schlaggar CN, Javitz HS, Krasnow RE, Tildesley E, Andrews J, et al. Validity of recall of tobacco use in two prospective cohorts. *Am J Epidemiol* 2010;172:828–35.
69. Chu AY, Meoni LA, Wang NY, Liang KY, Ford DE, Klag MJ. Reliability of alcohol recall after 15 years and 23 years of follow-up in the Johns Hopkins Precursors Study. *J Stud Alcohol Drugs* 2010;71:143–9.

# Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers & Prevention

## Tobacco and Alcohol in Relation to Male Breast Cancer: An Analysis of the Male Breast Cancer Pooling Project Consortium

Michael B. Cook, Pascal Guénel, Susan M. Gapstur, et al.

*Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2015;24:520-531. Published OnlineFirst December 16, 2014.

**Updated version** Access the most recent version of this article at:  
doi:[10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-14-1009](https://doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-14-1009)

**Supplementary Material** Access the most recent supplemental material at:  
<http://cebp.aacrjournals.org/content/suppl/2014/12/17/1055-9965.EPI-14-1009.DC1>

**Cited articles** This article cites 59 articles, 4 of which you can access for free at:  
<http://cebp.aacrjournals.org/content/24/3/520.full#ref-list-1>

**E-mail alerts** [Sign up to receive free email-alerts](#) related to this article or journal.

**Reprints and Subscriptions** To order reprints of this article or to subscribe to the journal, contact the AACR Publications Department at [pubs@aacr.org](mailto:pubs@aacr.org).

**Permissions** To request permission to re-use all or part of this article, use this link  
<http://cebp.aacrjournals.org/content/24/3/520>.  
Click on "Request Permissions" which will take you to the Copyright Clearance Center's (CCC) Rightslink site.