# Anthropometric factors and risk of endometrial cancer: the European prospective investigation into cancer and nutrition

Christine Friedenreich · Anne Cust · Petra H. Lahmann · Karen Steindorf ·

Marie-Christine Boutron-Ruault · Françoise Clavel-Chapelon ·

Sylvie Mesrine · Jakob Linseisen · Sabine Rohrmann · Heiner Boeing ·

Tobias Pischon · Anne Tjønneland · Jytte Halkjær · Kim Overvad ·

Michelle Mendez · M. L. Redondo · Carmen Martinez Garcia ·

Nerea Larrañaga · María-José Tormo · Aurelio Barricarte Gurrea ·

Sheila Bingham · Kay-Tee Khaw · Naomi Allen · Tim Key · Antonia Trichopoulou ·

Effie Vasilopoulou · Dimitrios Trichopoulos · Valeria Pala · Domenico Palli ·

Rosario Tumino · Amalia Mattiello · Paolo Vineis · H. Bas Bueno-de-Mesquita ·

Petra H. M. Peeters · Göran Berglund · Jonas Manjer · Eva Lundin ·

Annekatrin Lukanova · Nadia Slimani · Mazda Jenab · Rudolf Kaaks ·

Elio Riboli

# **Abstract**

Objective To examine the association between anthropometry and endometrial cancer, particularly by menopausal status and exogenous hormone use subgroups.

Methods Among 223,008 women in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition

(EPIC) study, there were 567 incident endometrial cancer cases during 6.4 years of follow-up. The analysis was performed with Cox proportional hazards modeling. *Results* Weight, body mass index (BMI), waist and hip

Results Weight, body mass index (BMI), waist and hip circumferences and waist-hip ratio (WHR) were strongly associated with increased risk of endometrial cancer. The relative risk (RR) for obese (BMI 30–

C. Friedenreich (⋈)

Division of Population Health and Information, Alberta Cancer Board, T2N 4N2 Calgary, Alberta, Canada e-mail: chrisf@cancerboard.ab.ca

A. Cust · N. Slimani · M. Jenab · R. Kaaks ·

E. Riboli

Nutrition and Hormones Unit, International Agency for Research on Cancer, Lyon, France

A. Cust

School of Public Health, University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia

A. Cust

Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, Lyon, France

P. H. Lahmann · H. Boeing · T. Pischon Department of Epidemiology, German Institute of Human Nutrition Potsdam-Rehbruecke, Nuthetal, Germany

K. Steindorf

Unit of Environmental Epidemiology, German Cancer Research Centre, Heidelberg, Germany M.-C. Boutron-Ruault  $\cdot$  F. Clavel-Chapelon  $\cdot$  S. Mesrine INSERM U ERI20, Institut Gustave Roussy, Villejuif, France

J. Linseisen · S. Rohrmann · R. Kaaks Division of Clinical Epidemiology, German Cancer Research Centre, Heidelberg, Germany

A. Tjønneland · J. Halkjær Institute of Cancer Epidemiology, Danish Cancer Society, Copenhagen, Denmark

K. Overvad

Department of Clinical Epidemiology, Aalborg Hospital, Aarhus University Hospital, Aalborg, Denmark

M. Mendez

Department of Epidemiology, Catalan Institute of Oncology, IDIBELL, Barcelona, Spain

M. L. Redondo

Public Health and Health Planning Directorate, Asturias, Spain

< 40 kg/m²) compared to normal weight (BMI < 25) women was 1.78, 95% CI = 1.41–2.26, and for morbidly obese women (BMI  $\geq$  40) was 3.02, 95% CI = 1.66–5.52. The RR for women with a waist circumference of  $\geq$ 88 cm vs. <80 cm was 1.76, 95% CI = 1.42–2.19. Adult weight gain of  $\geq$ 20 kg compared with stable weight (±3 kg) increased risk independent of body weight at age 20 (RR = 1.75, 95% CI = 1.11–2.77). These associations were generally stronger for postmenopausal than premenopausal women, and oral contraceptives neverusers than ever-users, and much stronger among neverusers of hormone replacement therapy compared to ever-users.

Conclusion Obesity, abdominal adiposity, and adult weight gain were strongly associated with endometrial cancer risk. These associations were particularly evident among never-users of hormone replacement therapy.

**Keywords** Anthropometry · Endometrial cancer · Etiology · Risk factors · Obesity · Adiposity · Mechanisms · Hormone replacement therapy

#### C. M. Garcia

Escuela Andaluza de Salud Publica, Granada, Spain

#### N. Larrañaga

Department of Public Health of Guipuzkoa, San Sebastian, Spain

#### M.-J. Tormo

Department of Epidemiology, Health Council of Murcia, Murcia, Spain

#### A. B. Gurrea

Public Health Institute of Navarra, Pamplona, Spain

#### S. Bingham

MRC Centre for Nutrition and Cancer Prevention and Survival, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

#### K.-T. Khaw

Department of Public Health and Primary Care, School of Clinical Medicine, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

#### N. Allen · T. Key

Cancer Research UK Epidemiology Unit, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

# A. Trichopoulou · E. Vasilopoulou

Department of Hygiene and Epidemiology, School of Medicine, University of Athens, Athens, Greece

# D. Trichopoulos

Hellenic Health Foundation, Athens, Greece

#### V Pala

Epidemiology Unit, National Cancer Institute, Milan, Italy

#### Introduction

The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) classified the evidence on the association of obesity and endometrial cancer risk as 'convincing' in 2002 [1] stating that the relative risk of obese (body mass index (BMI)  $\geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) compared to normal weight (BMI < 25) women is two- to three-fold. It was unclear at that time whether there was a linear increase in risk with increasing BMI or if the risk existed for the highest category of BMI only. It was hypothesized that the inconsistency between studies in the shape of the relation between BMI and endometrial cancer risk might be attributable to misclassification from the use of weight or BMI as a measure of obesity, because they are imperfect measures of adiposity [1]. Alternatively, the inconsistencies in study results could be due to differences in the underlying biologic mechanisms in premenopausal versus postmenopausal women [2], or due to body fat distributions that may vary between populations or by ethnicity [1].

Few studies have examined the association between body measures and endometrial cancer risk by

#### D. Palli

Molecular and Nutritional Epidemiology Unit, CSPO-Scientific Institute of Tuscany, Florence, Italy

#### R. Tumino

Cancer Registry, Azienda Ospedaliera "Civile M.P. Arezzo", Ragusa, Italy

# A. Mattiello

Dipartimento di Medicina Clinica e Sperimentale, Università di Napoli, Naples, Italy

#### P. Vineis

University of Torino, Turin, Italy

#### P. Vineis · E. Riboli

Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, Imperial College, London, UK

## H. B. Bueno-de-Mesquita

National Institute of Public Health and the Environment, Bilthoven, The Netherlands

## P. H. M. Peeters

Julius Centre for Health Sciences and Primary Care, University Medical Centre, Utrecht, The Netherlands

# G. Berglund

Department of Clinical Sciences, Malmö University Hospital, Lund University, Malmo, Sweden

# J. Manjer

Department of Surgery, Malmö University Hospital, Lund University, Malmo, Sweden

menopausal status or by age group and the numbers of premenopausal women have been small in previous studies [1]. Adult weight gain per se has been found to be linearly associated with endometrial cancer risk in some studies but the results are inconsistent [3–13]. Adiposity and fat distribution has been assessed in previous studies using BMI, waist-hip ratio (WHR), waist-to-thigh ratio, subscapular skinfold and subscapular-to-thigh skinfold ratio [4, 5, 14-19]. It is unclear which of these measures is the most etiologically relevant to endometrial cancer development, as results from previous studies have also been inconsistent [1]. The use of exogenous hormones such as oral contraceptives (OC) and hormone replacement therapy (HRT) influence circulating estrogen and progesterone levels and may modify the effect of obesity on endometrial cancer risk [20], yet few studies [8, 21] have examined interactions between general and central adiposity and exogenous hormones. We conducted an analysis in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC), a heterogeneous and large cohort, to examine the association between anthropometric factors and endometrial cancer risk, particularly by menopausal status and exogenous hormone use subgroups.

# Methods

Study cohort

EPIC is an ongoing multi-center, prospective cohort study, designed primarily to investigate the associations between dietary and lifestyle factors and cancer risk. The design, study population, and baseline data collection methods have been previously described in detail [22, 23]. In brief, standardized questionnaire data on dietary and lifestyle factors were collected from approximately 370,000 women and 150,000 men, enrolled between 1992 and 2000 in 23 centers throughout 10 western European countries (Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Norway, Spain, Sweden, The Netherlands, and United Kingdom) [23]. Participants

E. Lundin

Department of Medical Biosciences, Pathology, University of Umeå, Umea, Sweden

## A. Lukanova

Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, NYU School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA

## A. Lukanova

Department of Public Health and Clinical Medicine/ Nutritional Research, University of Umeå, Umea, Sweden were mainly between 35 and 70 years of age at enrollment, and were recruited from the general population residing within defined geographic areas (i.e., town or province), with some exceptions: women who were members of a health insurance scheme for state school employees (France); women attending breast cancer screening (Utrecht, The Netherlands); blood donors (some centers in Italy and Spain) and a cohort with about half the participants who were vegetarians (Oxford 'health conscious' cohort). Approval for this study was obtained from the ethical review boards of the International Agency for Research on Cancer and from all local recruiting institutions. All participants provided written informed consent.

For the present analysis, we excluded a priori the following women: 19,953 with prevalent cancer at enrollment, 1,293 with missing follow-up data, 35,444 with a hysterectomy at baseline, 6,091 women who were in the top or bottom 1% of the distribution of the ratio of energy intake to estimated energy requirement [24], and 3,586 members with no dietary or lifestyle data. We further restricted the analysis to women who had their baseline anthropometric measurements taken by trained observers at study centers (n = 191,623) or women with self-reported measurements that could be corrected for reporting error using age- and sex-specific linear regression model prediction equations (Oxford 'health conscious' cohort, n = 31,385) [25, 26]. Thus, 78,635 women with missing height and weight measurements were excluded, comprising all study subjects from Norway, about 71% of French participants, 3% of participants in the UK Oxford 'health conscious' cohort, and less than 1% in other centers. A total of 223,008 women were included in this analysis. Of these women, waist and hip circumference measurements were missing for 14,610 (6.6%) and 14,988 (6.7%) women, respectively, including all 12,187 women from Umeå, Sweden.

Measurement of anthropometric characteristics and other predictor variables

Details on the standardized procedures for taking anthropometric measurements in the EPIC study centers have been previously described in detail [25]. Briefly, weight was measured to the nearest 0.1 kg and height was measured to the nearest 0.1, 0.5, or 1.0 cm depending on the study center, in subjects wearing no shoes. Waist circumference was measured either at the narrowest torso circumference or at the midpoint between the lower ribs and iliac crest. Hip circumference was measured at the widest circumference or over the buttocks. Weight, waist, and hip measurements were corrected to account for protocol differences between

centers in clothing worn by participants during body measurements [25]. Adult weight change was estimated as the difference between measured weight at study enrollment and recalled weight at age 20 (25 years in one center). However, data on recalled weight were not available for all centers [27], thus the weight change analyses were limited to a sub-cohort of 264 cases and 106,272 non-cases.

The baseline assessment of physical activity, including occupational, household and recreational activities, has been previously described in detail [28]. A summary index of total physical activity (inactive, moderately inactive, moderately active, active) was calculated by cross-tabulating the level of occupational activity (non-worker, sedentary, standing, manual, heavy manual, and unknown) with quartiles of combined recreational and household activities calculated in MET-hours/week [29, 30]. Diet over the previous 12 months was assessed at the time of enrollment using country-specific, validated dietary instruments [23, 31]. Data on lifestyle, health, and socio-demographic characteristics were collected via standardized questionnaires that included menstrual and reproductive history, use of OCs and postmenopausal HRT, medical history, lifetime history of tobacco smoking and alcohol consumption, brief occupational history and level of education. Women who were currently using HRT or OCs at baseline or who had previously used HRT or OCs prior to study entry were classified as 'ever-users' of HRT or OCs, respectively. Women who, at study entry, had never used and were not currently using HRT or OCs were classified as 'never-users' of HRT or OCs, respectively. Menopausal status at enrollment was defined as follows: women were 'premenopausal' if they reported having had regular menses over the past 12 months; 'postmenopausal' if they reported not having had any menses over the past 12 months, or if they had a bilateral ovariectomy; and 'perimenopausal/unknown' if they reported irregular menses over the past 12 months (1–9 cycles) or if they indicated having had menses over the past 12 months but were no longer menstruating at the time of recruitment. Women with incomplete or missing questionnaire data, or who reported current use of exogenous hormones, were classified as premenopausal if they were less than 46 years of age, perimenopausal/unknown if they were between 46 and 55 years of age, and postmenopausal if they were older than 55 years. All women were included in all of the analyses, except for the subgroup analysis by menopausal status that excluded perimenopausal/unknown women, and the subgroup analysis by ever HRT use that was among postmenopausal women only.

Follow-up for cancer incidence and vital status

Incident cases were identified through populationbased cancer registries, except in France, Germany, and Greece, where a combination of methods, including health insurance records, cancer and pathology registries, and active follow-up through study subjects and their next-of-kin was used. Data on vital status in most EPIC study centers were collected from mortality registries at the regional or national level, in combination with data collected by active follow-up (Greece). Vital status was known for 98.4% of all EPIC participants as of April 2004. Women were followed from the date of enrollment until endometrial cancer diagnosis, death, emigration, or end of the follow-up period. The closure date for this study period for each EPIC center was the date of the last complete follow-up for both cancer incidence and vital status, which varied between December 1999 and March 2004 between EPIC centers. A total of 567 incident cases of endometrial cancer were diagnosed during the followup period. The cancer diagnosis was confirmed by histology for 86% of cases, by clinical examination for 11%, and the remaining 3% by self-report, tomography scan, surgery, autopsy, or by death certificate. Detailed morphology was specified for 223 (39%) cases, of which 203 (91%) were endometrioid, 8 (4%) serous, 5 (2%) mucinous, 5 (2%) clear cell, and 2 (1%) undifferentiated [32].

# Statistical analyses

Descriptive statistics were calculated as age- and center-adjusted means for continuous variables, or as percentages for categorical variables. All analyses were performed using SAS Statistical Software, version 9.1 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA), and all statistical tests were two-sided. We analyzed the association between anthropometric variables and risk of endometrial cancer by calculating incidence rate ratios as estimates of relative risks (RR) using Cox proportional hazard models. Age was used as the underlying time variable, with entry and exit time defined as the subject's age at recruitment and age at endometrial cancer diagnosis or censoring (death, lost to follow-up, end of follow-up), respectively. Models were stratified by study center to account for center effects such as follow-up procedures and questionnaire design, and by age at recruitment (in one-year categories), to be less sensitive to violations of the proportional hazards assumption.

Weight, height, hip, and WHR were categorized into quartiles, and BMI and waist were categorized into pre-defined, internationally standardized categories: BMI < 25 [normal weight], ≥25 to < 30 [overweight], ≥30 to <40 kg/m² [obese], ≥40 kg/m² [morbid obese]; waist circumference <80, 80 to <88, ≥88 cm [1]. Cutpoints were based on the overall cohort distribution for all centers combined. Trend tests were estimated on integer scores applied to the anthropometric categories or quartiles, and entered as a continuous term in the regression models. In addition, we examined the anthropometric measures as continuous variables in the models, to estimate the relative risk per unit change in the variable.

Two sets of models are presented: the 'crude' model stratified by age and center; and the fully adjusted multivariate model stratified by age and center and adjusted for potential confounders: total physical activity level (inactive, moderately inactive, moderately active and active, missing), age at menarche (<12, 12, 13, 14, ≥15, missing), menopausal status (premenopausal, perimenopausal, postmenopausal), age at menopause (<43, 43-46, 47-49, 50-51, 52-53,  $\geq 54$ , missing), number of full-term pregnancies  $(0, 1, 2, 3, \ge 4, \text{missing})$ , age at birth of last child ( $<27, 27-29, 30-32, \ge 33$ , missing), use of OCs (ever, never, missing), use of HRT (ever, never, missing), education (none, primary school completed, technical/professional school, secondary school, university degree, missing), cigarette smoking status (never, former, current, unknown), hypertension (yes, no, unknown), diabetes (yes, no, unknown), fruit and vegetable intake (grams/day in quartiles), fiber intake (grams/day in quartiles), carbohydrate intake (grams/ day in quartiles), energy intake (grams/day in quartiles). All potential confounders were retained in the multivariate models, as the exclusion of single or multiple factors did not result in more precise estimates for the effects of anthropometric measures, thus, there was no advantage in using more parsimonious models [33]. In addition, we examined the effect of mutual adjustment of body measures to determine whether fat distribution or general obesity were determinants of risk.

We examined whether or not the association between anthropometric factors and endometrial cancer risk differed according to specific subgroups, by adding subgroup interaction terms to the multivariate models. The following subgroups were examined: menopausal status, use of OCs, use of HRT, total physical activity level, quartiles of energy intake, and age groups by decade year and country. Heterogeneity of BMI (continuous variable) by country was explored by meta-regression using the Genmod procedure. The data satisfied the proportional hazards assumption that was checked by adding interaction terms for BMI and waist circumference (separately) with follow-up time (years) to the models.

#### **Results**

There were 567 endometrial cancer cases diagnosed in this cohort of 223,008 women from EPIC during an average 6.4 (SD 1.7) years of follow-up (Table 1). The women were 50.2 (SD 10.9) years on average and 30.6% of the cohort were classified as overweight (BMI >25-<30) and 14.5% were obese (BMI  $\geq 30$ ). The prevalence of overweight ranged from 18.7% in the health conscious cohort in the United Kingdom to 41.8% in Spain. Obesity prevalence ranged from 5.4% in the French women to 35.5% in Greece. Women who developed endometrial cancer during follow-up were fairly comparable to those who did not develop endometrial cancer in this cohort with the exception of anthropometric measurements, age, use of exogenous hormones, education, and self-reported hypertension (Table 2).

Body weight and BMI were statistically significantly associated with risk of endometrial cancer (Table 3). Women in the highest quartile of weight versus those in the lowest quartile (>72.4 kg vs. <58 kg) had a relative risk of 1.74, 95% CI = 1.35–2.23,  $p_{\text{trend}} < 0.0001$ . Overweight participants (BMI  $\geq 25 - \langle 30 \rangle$ ) did not have a statistically significant increased risk. The multivariate risk for obese women was 1.78, 95% CI = 1.41-2.26 and for morbidly obese women the risk was 3.02, 95% CI = 1.66–5.52 ( $p_{\text{trend}} = < 0.0001$ ). The associations for weight and BMI were slightly attenuated after additional adjustment for WHR. No association between height and endometrial cancer risk was found. After adjustment for BMI, associations between measures of fat distribution (waist and hip circumferences and WHR) and endometrial cancer risk were confined to a statistically significant increased risk with higher waist circumference (Table 3). Women with a waist circumference of ≥88 cm compared to those in the referent category (<80 cm) had a relative risk of 1.50, 95% CI = 1.10–2.04 after adjustment for BMI. A statistically significant association between hip circumference quartiles and endometrial cancer risk was noted only in the multivariate model without adjustment for BMI for which the risk for the highest compared to the lowest quartile was 1.51, 95% CI = 1.17-1.94, ( $p_{\text{trend}} = 0.0002$ ). A similar pattern of associations was noted for WHR.

Within a sub-cohort of 264 cases and 106,272 non-cases for whom data on recalled weight at age 20 had been collected, an elevated risk of 1.75, 95% CI = 1.11-2.77 was found among women who had gained  $\geq 20$  kg or more between age 20 and time of enrollment compared to women who stayed within  $\pm 3$  kg of their weight at age 20 for both multivariate models with and without

**Table 1** Size of the EPIC cohort for the analyses of anthropometry and endometrial cancer, by country

Country	Cohort size	Age at recruitment (mean, SD)	Number of years of follow-up (mean, SD)	Person-years	Number of endometrial cancer cases	% Overweight BMI 25-<30 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	% Obese BMI ≥30 kg/m <sup>2</sup>
France	17,725	52.5 (6.4)	8.5 (0.8)	150,443	65	20.0	5.4
Italy	27,576	50.3 (8.1)	6.2 (1.5)	170,351	73	34.7	14.2
Spain	22,568	47.9 (8.4)	$6.6\ (1.0)$	148,832	56	41.8	29.8
United Kingdom		, ,	` '				
<ul><li>health conscious</li></ul>	31,385	42.0 (13.8)	5.3 (1.2)	167,734	22	18.7	5.6
<ul><li>general</li><li>population</li></ul>	13,167	56.6 (9.4)	5.6 (1.4)	74,292	49	33.5	14.2
The Netherlands	22,670	49.7 (12.0)	6.5 (1.9)	146,954	54	31.4	10.9
Greece	13,687	52.8 (12.6)	3.7 (0.7)	50,953	11	37.0	35.5
Germany	23,546	48.1 (9.0)	5.9 (1.4)	137,821	33	29.8	14.7
Sweden	26,197	52.0 (10.7)	7.8 (1.6)	203,870	90	30.0	11.1
Denmark	24,487	56.7 (4.4)	6.7 (1.0)	165,213	114	33.7	13.5
Total	223,008	50.2 (10.9)	6.4 (1.7)	1,416,463	567	30.6	14.5

adjustment for weight at age 20 (Table 3). When stratified by menopausal status at baseline, the association between adult weight gain and cancer risk was stronger among postmenopausal women than premenopausal women (data not shown). Weight loss was not associated with endometrial cancer risk in this cohort, although this analysis was limited by a small number of cases since only a few women had lost weight.

The interactions between these anthropometric factors and endometrial cancer risk by menopausal status at baseline were not statistically significant ( $p_{\text{interaction}}$  all  $\geq 0.10$ ). However, we observed stronger associations and trends for postmenopausal than premenopausal women for weight, BMI, and hip circumference while for waist circumference and WHR, we found somewhat greater risks among premenopausal than postmenopausal women (Table 4).

Evidence for effect modification of the association between anthropometry and endometrial cancer risk by HRT use at baseline was observed (Table 5) ( $p_{\text{interaction}}$  for weight, BMI, waist and hip circumference all <0.05, and for waist–hip ratio = 0.08). Women who never used HRT had an approximate doubling in risk in the highest quantile of weight, BMI, waist and hip circumferences and WHR compared to the referent categories. No statistically significant associations were observed among ever HRT users for any of the body measures tested. We also considered effect modification of this association by current HRT use (data not shown) and found similar or stronger associations among women not currently using HRT as observed with never-users. We also examined the risk

of endometrial cancer associated with each combined BMI–HRT category against the reference category of normal weight, never HRT users (data not shown). Compared to the referent group, overweight never HRT users had no increased risk, but normal weight and overweight ever HRT users had a 70% higher risk, reflecting the increased exposure to estrogens in many HRT formulations. However, this higher underlying risk among ever HRT users than never HRT users was not observed among obese women (BMI  $\geq$  30), for whom both never-users and ever-users had a 2.3-fold increased risk compared to the referent group. Thus, obesity increased risk to a greater extent among never-users than ever-users.

The possibility of effect modification by ever use of OCs reported at baseline was also examined (Table 6). The associations were generally stronger in never OC users compared to ever OC users, although the tests for interaction were not statistically significant ( $p_{interaction}$ all  $\geq 0.05$ ). The tests for linear trend were highly statistically significant among never OC users but only marginally statistically significant among ever OC users. There were no statistically significant interactions for the other possible effect modifiers considered in this analysis including physical activity, energy intake, length of follow-up, or age. The relative risk estimates were generally slightly stronger when we restricted the analysis to known Type I tumors (generally estrogen-dependent endometrioid adenocarcinomas; data not shown) [32].

We found statistically significant heterogeneity by country for BMI ( $p_{\text{heterogeneity}} = 0.03$ ), but not for waist

**Table 2** Demographic and lifestyle characteristics of the incident endometrial cancer cases and women who did not develop endometrial cancer in the EPIC cohort, n = 223,008

Characteristic	Endometrial cancer incident cases $(n = 567)$	Women without endometrial cancer $(n = 222,441)$		
Age at recruitment (years) (mean, SD)	54.4 (9.4)	50.5 (11.4)		
Education (%)	` '	·		
None	4.5	5.5		
Primary school completed	30.1	24.1		
Technical/professional school	25.7	24.5		
Secondary school	22.7	22.2		
University degree	17.1	23.8		
Menopausal status (%)				
Premenopausal	16.1	40.3		
Perimenopausal	17.6	14.3		
Postmenopausal	66.3	45.5		
Reproductive and hormone factors (mean, SD)	33.0			
Age at menarche (years)	12.8 (1.5)	13.0 (1.9)		
Age at menopause (years)	51.0 (4.3)	49.5 (5.9)		
Age at first full-term pregnancy <sup>a</sup> (years)	25.0 (4.3)	25.1 (5.1)		
Number of full-term pregnancies <sup>a</sup>	2.2 (1.0)	2.4 (1.2)		
Age at birth of last child <sup>a</sup> (years)	29.3 (4.8)	29.9 (5.7)		
Hormone replacement therapy (ever used; %) <sup>b</sup>	44.8	36.9		
Oral contraceptives (ever used; %)	40.6	58.5		
Nulliparous	17.6	18.7		
Dietary intake (mean, SD)	17.0	10.7		
	1,999.2 (512.7)	2.020.8 (625.0)		
Energy intake (kcal/day)	, ,	2,020.8 (625.9)		
Fruits and vegetables (g/day)	520.3 (243.1)	504.2 (296.8)		
Fiber (g/day)	22.8 (7.1)	22.4 (8.6)		
Carbohydrate (g/day)	232.8 (68.4)	232.5 (83.5)		
Smoking status (%)	61.0	57.0		
Never smoker	61.9	57.0		
Ex-smoker	21.2	22.7		
Current smoker	16.9	20.3		
Hypertension (%)	30.3	20.4		
Diabetes (%)	3.5	2.3		
Anthropometric factors (mean, SD)				
Body Mass Index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	26.8 (4.2)	25.5 (5.1)		
% Obese (BMI $\geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ )	24.2	14.4		
Weight at study entry (kg)	69.1 (11.4)	65.8 (14.0)		
Weight <sup>c</sup> at age 20 (kg)	56.9 (8.0)	56.6 (9.6)		
Weight <sup>c</sup> change since age 20 (kg)	12.6 (9.9)	10.0 (11.8)		
Waist–hip ratio	0.802 (0.1)	0.796 (0.1)		
Waist circumference (cm)	83.5 (10.1)	80.8 (12.3)		
Hip circumference (cm)	103.9 (8.6)	101.3 (10.5)		
Height (cm)	160.8 (5.9)	160.7 (7.2)		
Total physical activity (%)				
Inactive	17.4	18.2		
Moderately inactive	36.9	33.9		
Moderately active	39.4	40.0		
Active	6.4	7.9		

# SD = standard deviation

Missing values were excluded from percentage calculations. Continuous variables are presented as means and standard deviations and are adjusted by age and center, except age that is adjusted by center only

circumference or WHR ( $p_{\rm heterogeneity} = 0.09$  and 0.50, respectively). The multivariate hazards ratios per 1-unit increase in BMI ranged from 1.02, 95% CI = 0.97–1.07 (Sweden) to 1.13, 95% CI = 1.07–1.19 (The Netherlands) with the pooled estimate for all

EPIC centers at 1.06, 95% CI = 1.04–1.08. In the metaregression analyses used to explore possible sources of the heterogeneity of the association of BMI with endometrial cancer risk, the following variables did not independently explain the heterogeneity: geographic

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Among parous women

b Among postmenopausal women only (337 cases and 92,310 non-cases)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Limited to a sub-cohort of 264 cases and 106,272 non-cases with complete data on recalled weight at age 20

Table 3 Hazard ratio estimates of endometrial cancer by anthropometric factors

Anthropometric factor	Number of cases <sup>a</sup>	Number of person-years	Hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval  Adjustment factors			
			Age and center	Multivariate <sup>b</sup>	Multivariate <sup>b</sup> and other body measure <sup>c</sup>	
Weight (kg) in quartiles	1					
≤58.0	103	353,899	1.00	1.00	1.00	
>58.0-<64.5	120	359,657	1.08 (0.82–1.40)	1.08 (0.82–1.41)	1.00 (0.75–1.31)	
≥64.5–72.4	128	354,619	1.06 (0.81–1.38)	1.06 (0.81–1.38)	0.95 (0.72–1.27)	
>72.4	216	348,288	1.76 (1.38–2.24)	1.74 (1.35–2.23)	1.61 (1.23–2.12)	
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$			<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0003	
HR per 5 kg			1.11 (1.08–1.15)	1.11 (1.08–1.15)	1.11 (1.07–1.15)	
Height (cm) in quartiles	3					
≤157.0	150	345,636	1.00	1.00	1.00	
>157.0-162.0	147	343,113	1.07 (0.85–1.36)	1.09 (0.86–1.38)	1.02 (0.81–1.30)	
>162.0-166.5	147	375,224	1.02 (0.80–1.31)	1.03 (0.81–1.32)	0.92 (0.72–1.18)	
>166.5	123	352,489	1.06 (0.81–1.38)	1.09 (0.83–1.42)	0.90 (0.68–1.19)	
$p_{ m trend}$		,	0.77	0.64	0.34	
HR per 5 cm			1.01 (0.94–1.08)	1.01 (0.94–1.09)	0.95 (0.89–1.03)	
Body mass index (BMI,	$k_0/m^2$		,	,	,	
<25	247	789,410	1.00	1.00	1.00	
≥25-<30	183	431,811	1.11 (0.91–1.35)	1.11 (0.91–1.36)	1.05 (0.85–1.31)	
≥30 <b>-&lt;</b> 40	125	183,777	1.80 (1.43–2.25)	1.78 (1.41–2.26)	1.72 (1.32–2.23)	
≥40	123	11,465	3.06 (1.70–5.52)	3.02 (1.66–5.52)	2.97 (1.61–5.48)	
$p_{\text{trend}}$	12	11,403	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	
HR per 1 kg/m <sup>2</sup>			1.06 (1.04–1.08)	1.06 (1.04–1.08)	1.06 (1.04–1.08)	
Waist circumference <sup>a</sup> (c	m)					
<80	224	734,164	1.00	1.00	1.00	
80-<88	115	285,531	1.06 (0.85–1.34)	1.08 (0.86–1.36)	1.08 (0.83–1.40)	
≥88	191	286,150	1.73 (1.40–2.13)	1.76 (1.42–2.19)	1.50 (1.10–2.04)	
$p_{ m trend}$		,	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	0.02	
HR per 5 cm			1.12 (1.08–1.17)	1.13 (1.09–1.17)	1.10 (1.04–1.17)	
Hip circumference <sup>a</sup> (cm	) in quartiles					
≤94.5	109 <sup>1</sup>	329,105	1.00	1.00	1.00	
>94.5-<100.0	98	322,116	0.83 (0.63–1.09)	0.82 (0.62–1.08)	0.82 (0.62–1.08)	
≥100.0-<106.0	117	327,268	0.89 (0.68–1.16)	0.87 (0.67–1.14)	0.87 (0.64–1.18)	
≥106.0	207	326,051	1.54 (1.21–1.96)	1.51 (1.17–1.94)	1.27 (0.89–1.83)	
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$		,	< 0.0001	0.0002	0.28	
HR per 5 cm			1.16 (1.11–1.21)	1.15 (1.10–1.21)	1.13 (1.05–1.21)	
Waist-hip ratio <sup>a</sup> (WHR)	) in quartiles				()	
≤0.742	78	321,535	1.00	1.00	1.00	
>0.742-<0.785	131	330,561	1.32 (0.99–1.75)	1.34 (1.01–1.78)	1.32 (0.99–1.75)	
≥0.785–0.831	147	331,564	1.35 (1.02–1.79)	1.39 (1.05–1.85)	1.31 (0.98–1.75)	
>0.831	174	320,183	1.52 (1.15–2.01)	1.58 (1.19–2.10)	1.33 (0.98–1.80)	
$p_{\text{trend}}$	1/4	320,163	0.007	0.003	0.13	
HR per 0.1 unit			1.15 (1.02–1.30)	1.17 (1.03–1.32)	1.06 (0.92–1.22)	
Weight change (kg) sind	ce age 20 in subcoh	ort <sup>d</sup>	()	( :== =:3 <b>=</b> )	·/	
<-3	12	47,058	0.92 (0.47–1.82)	1.00 (0.51–1.98)	1.01 (0.51–1.99)	
-3 to <3	28	120,745	1.00	1.00 (0.51 1.56)	1.00	
(reference)	20	120,740	1.00	1.00	1.00	
3–<10	70	198,448	1.13 (0.73–1.76)	1.12 (0.72–1.74)	1.12 (0.72–1.75)	
10-<15	46	109,618	1.08 (0.68–1.74)	1.07 (0.67–1.72)	1.07 (0.67–1.73)	
15-<20	42	71,449	1.41 (0.87–2.29)	1.39 (0.86–2.26)	1.40 (0.86–2.27)	
15-\40	<b>7</b> ∠	/ 1, <del>111</del> 2	1.41 (0.07-2.29)	1.39 (0.00-2.20)	1.40 (0.00-2.27)	

Table 3 Hazard ratio estimates of endometrial cancer by anthropometric factors

Anthropometric factor	Number of cases <sup>a</sup>	Number of person-years	Hazard ratio and 95% confidence interval			
			Adjustment factors			
			Age and center	Multivariate <sup>b</sup>	Multivariate <sup>b</sup> and other body measure <sup>c</sup>	
≥20 p <sub>trend</sub> HR per 5 kg	66	89,368	1.71 (1.10–2.68) 0.003 1.12 (1.06–1.18)	1.75 (1.11–2.77) 0.004 1.13 (1.06–1.19)	0.004	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Some data are unknown for waist circumference (37 cases and 14,573 non-cases), hip circumference (36 cases and 14,819 non-cases), and WHR (37 cases and 14,951 non-cases). The totals and tests for trend for these variables exclude the unknown values

region (southern, western, northern Europe) based on UN geographical classification of countries, dietary patterns across EPIC countries (general consumption of plant, animal, and processed foods [34]), mean BMI, mean age at recruitment, percent 60 years or older at recruitment and percent ever HRT users among postmenopausal women.

#### Discussion

In this large prospective cohort study that had standardized direct measurements of anthropometry from over 220,000 women in nine European countries, we found very strong associations with endometrial cancer risk for both general obesity and fat distribution. Increased weight, BMI, waist circumference, WHR and adult weight gain were clearly associated with an increased risk of endometrial cancer. Of interest are the sub-group analyses that provided evidence for a particularly strong association among postmenopausal women, never HRT users and never OC users.

Our results of a two-fold increased risk, particularly among postmenopausal women, for a BMI greater than 30 and a three-fold risk increase for morbid obese women compared to normal weight women is corroborated by recently published studies that have shown risk increases ranging from 2 to up to 4.5 for women with a BMI over 30 [8, 10, 35–41]. In conjunction with the studies previously reviewed [1], there is now strong and consistent evidence that obesity increases risk of endometrial cancer. Our overall results support the possibility of a threshold effect of obesity, because the risk estimates were only slightly increased among

overweight women (BMI  $\geq 25- < 30$  or waist circumference  $\geq 80- < 88$ cm) but were substantially elevated among obese women (BMI  $\geq 30$  or waist circumference  $\geq 88$  cm). In younger women, it has been proposed that the influence of obesity on hormonal levels may occur only at higher levels of overweight [2], whereas among postmenopausal women, a more linear trend in risk may occur because adipose tissue directly influences estrogen levels [2]. In our investigation, we found evidence for a threshold effect in the postmenopausal women only; however, the small sample size of premenopausal women may have precluded observing this effect among these women. Most of these recent studies [8, 10, 35, 38, 41], but not all [36, 37], have found an increased risk among overweight women.

Height was not found to be a risk factor for endometrial cancer in our study. Only one [10] of the previous studies [8, 10, 35, 36, 39, 40] found height to increase risk. In that study, women over 175 cm had a 2.5-fold increased endometrial cancer risk as compared to women under 160 cm but no statistically significant trend across quintiles was observed [10].

Relatively few studies have examined the association of body fat distribution, as reflected by WHR and waist and hip circumference, and endometrial cancer risk and the results have been inconsistent. After adjustment for BMI, we found that waist but not hip circumference was associated with endometrial cancer risk in the total study population suggesting that upper body or abdominal fat is more etiologically relevant than lower body fat. WHR had an association independent of general obesity in five [4, 18, 19, 40, 42] of 10 [4, 5, 14–19, 40, 42] previous studies.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Stratified by age and center, and adjusted for total physical activity level, age at menarche, menopausal status, age at menopause, number of full-term pregnancies, age at birth of last child, ever use of oral contraceptives, ever use of hormone replacement therapy, education, smoking status, hypertension, diabetes, fruit and vegetable intake, fiber intake, carbohydrate intake, and energy intake

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> The models for BMI and weight were additionally adjusted for WHR (quartiles); the models for waist, hip and WHR were adjusted for BMI (four WHO categories); the model for height was adjusted for weight (quartiles); the model for weight change was adjusted for weight at age 20 (quartiles)

d Limited to a sub-cohort of 264 cases and 106,272 non-cases with complete data on recalled weight at age 20

Table 4 Hazard ratio estimates of endometrial cancer by anthropometric factors, according to baseline menopausal status<sup>a</sup>

Anthropometric factor	Premenopa	susal $(n = 91)$		Postmenopausal $(n = 376)$			
	Number of cases <sup>b</sup>	Age- and center-stratified hazard ratios and 95% CI	Multivariate <sup>c</sup> hazard ratios and 95% CI	Number of cases <sup>b</sup>	Age- and center-stratified hazard ratios and 95% CI	Multivariate <sup>c</sup> hazard ratios and 95% CI	
Weight (kg) in quart	tiles						
≤58.0	21	1.00	1.00	62	1.00	1.00	
>58.0-<64.5	18	0.93 (0.49–1.76)	0.95 (0.50–1.81)	78	1.10 (0.79–1.54)	1.09 (0.78–1.53)	
≥64.5–72.4	24	1.30 (0.71–2.38)	1.34 (0.72–2.48)	85	1.07 (0.76–1.49)	1.05 (0.75–1.48)	
>72.4	28	1.63 (0.89–2.97)	1.57 (0.84–2.94)	151	1.82 (1.34–2.47)	1.81 (1.32–2.48)	
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$		0.07	0.10		< 0.0001	< 0.0001	
dHR per 5 kg	91	1.09 (1.01–1.19)	1.08 (0.99-1.18)	376	1.13 (1.08–1.17)	1.13 (1.08–1.17)	
BMI categories (kg/i	$m^2$ )	,	,		,	,	
<25	41	1.00	1.00	155	1.00	1.00	
≥25-<30	33	1.49 (0.92–2.42)	1.53 (0.93-2.51)	120	1.04 (0.81–1.32)	1.04 (0.81–1.33)	
≥30	17	1.61 (0.87–3.00)	1.55 (0.80–2.98)	101	1.95 (1.50–2.54)	1.96 (1.48–2.58)	
Ptrend		0.08	0.11		< 0.0001	< 0.0001	
dHR per 1 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	91	1.04 (1.00–1.09)	1.04 (0.99–1.09)	376	1.07 (1.05–1.09)	1.07 (1.05–1.10)	
Waist circumference		()				()	
<80	39	1.00	1.00	139	1.00	1.00	
80-<88	23	1.64 (0.96–2.79)	1.73 (1.00–2.98)	77	1.02 (0.77–1.35)	1.04 (0.78–1.38)	
≥88	26	2.06 (1.18–3.57)	2.09 (1.17–3.72)	145	1.83 (1.43–2.34)	1.90 (1.47–2.46)	
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$		0.008	0.009		<0.0001	<0.0001	
dHR per 5 cm	88	1.10 (1.00–1.22)	1.10 (0.99–1.22)	361	0.15 (1.10–1.20)	1.16 (1.11–1.22)	
Hip circumference <sup>b</sup>		1110 (1100 1122)	1110 (0133 1122)	201	0.12 (1.15 1.25)	1110 (1111 1122)	
≤94.5	23	1.00	1.00	64	1.00	1.00	
>94.5-<100.0	10	0.40 (0.19–0.85)	0.41 (0.19–0.86)	71	0.98 (0.70–1.38)	0.97 (0.69–1.36)	
≥100.0-<106.0	27	1.09 (0.61–1.95)	1.11 (0.62–1.99)	73	0.87 (0.62–1.23)	0.84 (0.60–1.19)	
≥106.0	28	1.12 (0.62–2.02)	1.09 (0.59–2.03)	154	1.78 (1.31–2.40)	1.75 (1.29–2.39)	
$p_{\text{trend}}$	20	0.24	0.28	10.	<0.0001	0.0001	
dHR per 5 cm	88	1.10 (0.98–1.24)	1.09 (0.97–1.24)	362	1.18 (1.12–1.24)	1.18 (1.12–1.24)	
Waist-hip ratio <sup>b</sup> in a		1110 (0190 1121)	1103 (0137 1121)	202	1110 (1112 1121)	1110 (1112 1121)	
≤0.742	12	1.00	1.00	51	1.00	1.00	
>0.742-<0.785	30	2.61 (1.33–5.15)	2.68 (1.35–5.31)	77	1.06 (0.74–1.52)	1.09 (0.76–1.56)	
≥0.785–0.831	24	2.14 (1.04–4.38)	2.21 (1.07–4.56)	97	1.15 (0.81–1.62)	1.22 (0.86–1.72)	
>0.831	22	2.25 (1.06–4.78)	2.13 (0.98–4.63)	136	1.43 (1.02–2.00)	1.55 (1.10–2.18)	
$p_{\text{trend}}$	22	0.10	0.14	150	0.02	0.005	
dHR per 0.1 unit	88	1.19 (0.88–1.60)	1.17 (0.86–1.60)	361	1.21 (1.05–1.40)	1.26 (1.09–1.46)	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Excludes 100 cases and 31,720 non-cases who were perimenopausal or with unknown menopausal status at baseline

We found elevated risks of endometrial cancer with increasing general and abdominal obesity among both pre- and post-menopausal women, but the risk estimates for general obesity (weight and BMI) were greater and trends uniformly statistically significant for postmenopausal women. However, the sample size for premenopausal women was quite small (n = 91 cases) making it difficult to conclude with confidence that there are true differences in risks among pre- and postmenopausal women. Very few studies have examined the association between anthropometry and endome-

trial cancer risk separately for pre- and post-menopausal women. A few studies have found a somewhat stronger association among postmenopausal or older women [3, 43, 44] but one study noted a stronger association among younger women [35]. In pre-menopausal women, obesity may increase endometrial cancer risk by inducing chronic anovulation and progesterone deficiency [2]. At the time of menopause, when ovarian estrogen production ceases and the conversion of androgens to estrogens in adipose tissue becomes a major source of endogenous estrogens,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Totals and tests for trend exclude unknown values

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Stratified by age and center, and adjusted for total physical activity level, age at menarche, age at menopause (postmenopausal women), number of full-term pregnancies, age at birth of last child, ever use of oral contraceptives, ever use of hormone replacement therapy, education, smoking status, hypertension, diabetes, fruit and vegetable intake, fiber intake, carbohydrate intake, and energy intake

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> p-Values for interaction based on continuous measures in multivariate models were: 0.43 for weight, 0.29 for BMI, 0.12 for waist circumference, 0.47 for hip circumference, and 0.10 for waist–hip ratio

Table 5 Hazard ratio estimates of endometrial cancer by anthropometric factors, according to ever-use of hormone replacement therapy in postmenopausal women<sup>a</sup>

Anthropometric	Ever used l	hormone replacement	therapy $(n = 151)$	Never used hormone replacement therapy $(n = 186)$				
factor	Number of cases <sup>b</sup>	Age- and center-stratified hazard ratios and 95% CI	Multivariate <sup>c</sup> hazard ratios and 95% CI	Number of cases	Age- and center-stratified hazard ratios and 95% CI	Multivariate <sup>c</sup> hazard ratios and 95% CI		
Weight (kg) in que	artiles							
≤58.0	32	1.00	1.00	27	1.00	1.00		
>58.0-<64.5	37	1.06 (0.65–1.72)	1.08 (0.66–1.77)	33	1.06 (0.63–1.78)	1.06 (0.63–1.78)		
≥64.5–72.4	29	0.73 (0.43–1.23)	0.75 (0.45–1.28)	45	1.26 (0.77–2.04)	1.28 (0.78–2.09)		
>72.4	53	1.49 (0.94–2.38)	1.52 (0.94–2.45)	81	1.99 (1.27–3.12)	2.00 (1.25–3.18)		
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$		0.16	0.15		0.0004	0.0006		
<sup>d</sup> HR per 5 kg	151	1.05 (0.97–1.12)	1.04 (0.97–1.12)	186	1.18 (1.12–1.23)	1.18 (1.12–1.24)		
BMI categories (k	$g/m^2$ )	,	,		,	,		
<25	79	1.00	1.00	62	1.00	1.00		
≥25-<30	49	0.94 (0.65–1.36)	0.94 (0.64–1.37)	56	1.04 (0.72–1.50)	1.03 (0.71–1.51)		
≥30	23	1.41 (0.87–2.28)	1.39 (0.84–2.30)	68	2.41 (1.67–3.47)	2.39 (1.62–3.53)		
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$		0.35	0.38		<0.0001	<0.0001		
<sup>d</sup> HR per 1 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	151	1.02 (0.98–1.06)	1.02 (0.97–1.06)	186	1.10 (1.07–1.13)	1.10 (1.07–1.13)		
Waist circumferen	$ce^{\rm b}$ $(cm)$	,	,		,	,		
<80	77	1.00	1.00	52	1.00	1.00		
80-<88	35	0.92 (0.61–1.38)	0.92 (0.61–1.39)	36	1.11 (0.72–1.71)	1.15 (0.74–1.79)		
≥88	39	1.18 (0.78–1.78)	1.18 (0.77–1.80)	96	2.41 (1.68–3.45)	2.51 (1.72–3.64)		
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$		0.53	0.54		< 0.0001	< 0.0001		
<sup>d</sup> HR per 5 cm	151	1.05 (0.97–1.13)	1.05 (0.97–1.14)	184	1.22 (1.15–1.30)	1.23 (1.16–1.31)		
Hip circumference	<sup>b</sup> in quartiles	,	, ,		,	,		
≤94.5	36	1.00	1.00	24	1.00	1.00		
>94.5-<100.0	34	0.85 (0.53–1.36)	0.85 (0.52–1.37)	30	0.99 (0.58-1.70)	0.97 (0.56–1.66)		
≥100.0-<106.0	30	0.64 (0.39–1.05)	0.61 (0.37–1.00)	40	1.08 (0.65–1.81)	1.07 (0.64–1.80)		
≥106.0	51	1.32 (0.84–2.06)	1.29 (0.81–2.05)	91	2.10 (1.32–3.34)	2.04 (1.26–3.29)		
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$		0.34	0.44		0.0001	0.0003		
dHR per 5 cm	151	1.06 (0.97–1.17)	1.06 (0.96–1.17)	185	1.23 (1.15–1.32)	1.23 (1.15–1.32)		
Waist-hip ratio <sup>b</sup> in quartiles								
≤0.742	26	1.00	1.00	19	1.00	1.00		
>0.742-<0.785	40	1.13 (0.69–1.87)	1.20 (0.73–1.98)	32	1.16 (0.66–2.06)	1.17 (0.66–2.09)		
≥0.785–0.831	41	1.17 (0.71–1.93)	1.25 (0.75–2.07)	48	1.29 (0.75–2.22)	1.38 (0.80–2.39)		
>0.831	44	1.26 (0.76–2.09)	1.36 (0.81–2.29)	85	1.79 (1.07–2.99)	1.88 (1.11–3.19)		
$p_{\rm trend}$		0.38	0.25		0.008	0.005		
dHR per 0.1 unit	151	1.05 (0.83–1.34)	1.09 (0.85–1.40)	184	1.37 (1.14–1.66)	1.40 (1.15–1.70)		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Excludes 39 cases and 8,804 non-cases with missing hormone replacement therapy data

excess body fat can directly result in increased total and bioavailable estrogens [2]. In addition, decreased serum levels of sex hormone binding globulin occur with obesity, that result in increased levels of bioavailable estrogens that are unopposed by progesterones after menopause [2]. In this hormonal milieu, proliferation of epithelial tissue in the endometrium is increased, as are somatic mutations and replication errors that can result in endometrial cancer [45].

The subgroup analyses of effect modification by HRT and OC use provided interesting results that have

not been studied in detail previously. We observed 2- to 2.5-fold increased risks for all anthropometric factors considered among never HRT users, while ever-users had much lower and non-statistically significant increased risks for these factors. These results are consistent with a large cohort study of HRT use among postmenopausal women [20] that also found obesity increases endometrial cancer risk more strongly in never-users than in ever-users of HRT. In that study [20], obesity (BMI  $\geq$  30; compared to BMI < 25) was associated with a four-fold increase in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Totals and tests for trend exclude unknown values

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Stratified by age and center, and adjusted for total physical activity level, age at menarche, age at menopause, number of full-term pregnancies, age at birth of last child, ever use of oral contraceptives, education, smoking status, hypertension, diabetes, fruit and vegetable intake, fiber intake, carbohydrate intake, and energy intake

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> p-Values for interaction based on continuous measures in multivariate models were: 0.01 for weight, 0.002 for BMI, 0.004 for waist circumference, 0.02 for hip circumference, and 0.08 for waist–hip ratio

Table 6 Hazard ratio estimates of endometrial cancer by anthropometric factors, according to ever-use of oral contraceptives in all women<sup>a</sup>

Anthropometric	Ever used	oral contraceptives (n	= 215)	Never used oral contraceptives $(n = 315)$			
factor	Number of cases <sup>b</sup>	Age- and center-stratified hazard ratios and 95% CI	Multivariate <sup>c</sup> hazard ratios and 95% CI	Number of cases	Age- and center-stratified hazard ratios and 95% CI	Multivariate <sup>c</sup> hazard ratios and 95% CI	
Weight (kg) in quar	tiles						
≤58.0	49	1.00	1.00	51	1.00	1.00	
>58.0-<64.5	53	1.07 (0.72–1.59)	1.08 (0.72–1.60)	58	1.02 (0.70–1.49)	1.02 (0.70-1.50)	
≥64.5–72.4	40	0.80 (0.52–1.24)	0.80 (0.52–1.24)	76	1.17 (0.81–1.68)	1.19 (0.82–1.71)	
>72.4	73	1.59 (1.08–2.34)	1.56 (1.05–2.32)	130	1.80 (1.28–2.52)	1.83 (1.29–2.58)	
$p_{\rm trend}$		0.04	0.06		< 0.0001	< 0.0001	
<sup>d</sup> HR per 5 kg	215	1.08 (1.03–1.15)	1.08 (1.02–1.14)	315	1.12 (1.08–1.17)	1.13 (1.08–1.18)	
BMI categories (kg/	_		()		()		
<25	114	1.00	1.00	116	1.00	1.00	
≥25-<30	62	0.96 (0.70–1.33)	0.98 (0.70–1.35)	106	1.15 (0.88–1.51)	1.16 (0.88–1.53)	
≥30	39	1.74 (1.19–2.53)	1.71 (1.15–2.54)	93	1.90 (1.42–2.55)	1.94 (1.43–2.63)	
$p_{\mathrm{trend}}$		0.03	0.04		< 0.0001	< 0.0001	
dHR per 1 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	215	1.05 (1.02–1.08)	1.05 (1.01–1.08)	315	1.07 (1.04–1.09)	1.07 (1.05–1.09)	
Waist circumference		()	()		()	()	
<80	118	1.00	1.00	106	1.00	1.00	
80-<88	35	0.72 (0.49–1.06)	0.75 (0.51–1.10)	80	1.39 (1.03–1.87)	1.44 (1.07–1.94)	
≥88	61	1.44 (1.04–1.99)	1.47 (1.05–2.07)	128	1.90 (1.44–2.51)	1.97 (1.48–2.63)	
$p_{ m trend}$		0.09	0.08		< 0.0001	< 0.0001	
dHR per 5 cm	214	1.08 (1.01–1.15)	1.08 (1.01–1.16)	314	1.14 (1.08–1.19)	1.15 (1.09–1.21)	
Hip circumference <sup>b</sup>		1100 (1101 1110)	1100 (1101 1110)		111 (1100 1111)	1110 (1105 1121)	
≤94.5	54	1.00	1.00	55	1.00	1.00	
>94.5-<100.0	46	0.78 (0.52–1.16)	0.78 (0.52–1.16)	52	0.88 (0.60–1.29)	0.88 (0.60–1.29)	
≥100.0–<106.0	48	0.81 (0.55–1.21)	0.82 (0.54–1.22)	69	0.97 (0.68–1.40)	0.96 (0.67–1.39)	
≥106.0	66	1.28 (0.88–1.86)	1.27 (0.86–1.87)	139	1.67 (1.20–2.32)	1.69 (1.21–2.37)	
$p_{\rm trend}$		0.17	0.20	207	0.0002	0.0003	
dHR per 5 cm	214	1.10 (1.02–1.18)	1.09 (1.01–1.18)	315	1.17 (1.11–1.23)	1.18 (1.12–1.24)	
Waist-hip ratio <sup>b</sup> in a		1110 (1102 1110)	1105 (1101 1110)	010	1117 (1111 1120)	1.10 (1.12 1.21)	
≤0.742	35	1.00	1.00	43	1.00	1.00	
>0.742-<0.785	63	1.51 (1.00–2.30)	1.54 (1.01–2.35)	67	1.16 (0.79–1.71)	1.15 (0.78–1.70)	
≥0.785–0.831	62	1.46 (0.96–2.23)	1.51 (0.98–2.31)	84	1.21 (0.83–1.76)	1.23 (0.84–1.80)	
>0.831	54	1.45 (0.93–2.25)	1.52 (0.97–2.39)	120	1.49 (1.03–2.16)	1.54 (1.06–2.25)	
$p_{\text{trend}}$	٥.	0.18	0.12		0.02	0.02	
dHR per 0.1 unit	214	1.09 (0.90–1.32)	1.10 (0.91–1.33)	314	1.17 (1.00–1.38)	1.20 (1.01–1.42)	
per our anne		1.05 (0.50 1.02)	1.10 (0.51 1.00)	~	1.17 (1.00 1.50)	2.20 (1.01 1.12)	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Excludes 37 cases and 13,277 non-cases with missing oral contraceptive data

risk in never-users but only a slightly increased risk among ever-users of HRT. Conversely, one previous study reported a possible additive effect of estrogen replacement therapy and body weight on endometrial cancer risk, but this study had low power to detect interactions [21]. Another study [8], found a statistically significant interaction between HRT use and weight gain as a continuous linear variable, however they did not see a clear difference in the association of BMI or weight gain categories with endometrial cancer

risk when they stratified by never, former, and current HRT use. The biologic mechanism for an interaction between obesity, HRT, and endometrial cancer risk is unclear but may be related to the presence of progestins in the exogenous therapy that counterbalance the mitogenic effects of endogenous estrogens produced in the adipose tissue [2, 20]. It is also possible that exogenous estrogens in HRT elevate circulating estrogen levels to such an extent that increasing levels of endogenous estrogens due to obesity have little

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Totals and tests for trend exclude unknown values

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Stratified by age and center, and adjusted for total physical activity level, age at menarche, menopausal status, age at menopause, number of full-term pregnancies, age at birth of last child, ever use of hormone replacement therapy, education, smoking status, hypertension, diabetes, fruit and vegetable intake, fiber intake, carbohydrate intake, and energy intake

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> p-Values for interaction based on continuous measures in multivariate models were: 0.09 for weight, 0.16 for BMI, 0.17 for waist circumference, 0.09 for hip circumference, and 0.66 for waist–hip ratio

additional effect [20]. This hypothesis is supported by our results. The biologic plausibility of our findings is further supported by consistent reports that HRT use modifies the obesity–breast cancer association in a similar way [46]. Previous research has demonstrated markedly varying associations with endometrial cancer risk according to different formulations of HRT with endometrial cancer risk [2, 20]. We were unable, in this study, to examine the associations for specific types of HRT since this information is currently unavailable in EPIC. However, we found in our cohort that HRT use increased risk of endometrial cancer for all categories of BMI examined including normal weight women.

In a comparable analysis of effect modification by OC use, we also noted stronger associations of body measures among the never OC users than among the ever OC users. One other study has previously examined the interaction between BMI and OC use but did not find a statistically significant interaction [10]. The use of estrogen–progestin combination type of OCs has been shown to decrease risk of endometrial cancer or not to affect risk [2, 45]. Women who were currently using or had previously used OCs may have benefitted from the protective effect of progestins in the OCs especially when they were overweight or obese. Since no other studies have found an interaction between anthropometric factors and OC use, this finding needs further investigation.

There is mounting evidence that adult weight gain increases endometrial cancer risk. Our results of a 75% increase in risk for women who gained more than 20 kg since age 20 are supported by most [3–6, 8–10, 36, 40], though not all [7, 11–13], previous studies that have examined some aspect of lifetime weight changes. Moreover, recent BMI rather than BMI or weight at early adulthood was found to be predictive of risk in our study (data not shown) consistent with other investigations [3, 5, 8, 11, 12, 47]. Only three studies, thus far, have found an increased endometrial cancer risk for women who were overweight at young ages [7, 41, 48]. Xu and colleagues [41] proposed that adolescent adiposity is not a major risk factor unless it is combined with adult weight gain later in life. We examined this question and found that women who were overweight or obese at age 20 had an increased risk of endometrial cancer only if their adult weight gain exceeded 15 kg. Xu et al. [41] observed that weight gain particularly during the perimenopausal period was particularly predictive of an increased risk.

This study had several strengths and a few caveats that need to be considered. The cohort is heterogeneous, large, multinational, and representative of different regions of Europe. The study methods were standardized across the study centers with measurements of anthropometry taken directly by the study personnel on all participants with the exception of the health conscious UK cohort, but for this group the self-reported data were corrected for measurement error. A full investigation of confounding and effect modification was undertaken. Weight at age 20 was measured by recall only. Although past adult weight has been shown to be reliably recalled [8], the accuracy of recall may be influenced by other factors including current weight [49].

Although full data were available on baseline exposures, data on exposures during follow-up were unavailable, including change in menopausal status or subsequent use of HRT or OCs. Hence, we were unable to adjust for changes in exposures that may have occurred during the six-year follow-up period. For menopausal status, nearly 40% of the cohort in this analysis were premenopausal at baseline, therefore, some of these women were likely to be perimenopausal or postmenopausal at the time of diagnosis. Although some heterogeneity was found across the sub-cohorts for BMI, none of the country-related or individualrelated variables that were investigated explained the heterogeneity observed. Since the other anthropometric factors examined were not heterogeneous and the country-specific risk estimates were very similar and in the same direction, this heterogeneity for BMI may have occurred by chance.

In conclusion, we found clear evidence that increased general obesity, abdominal adiposity, and adult weight gain were strong risk factors for endometrial cancer. We also found that the association between body measures and risk may vary according to menopausal status, HRT and OC use, with the greatest risks for postmenopausal women, never HRT and never OC users. The findings of possible effect modification by these factors will require additional confirmation in future studies. This study provides strong evidence to support public health recommendations for weight control. Furthermore, it has highlighted population sub-groups who may be at particularly increased risk and for whom specific surveillance would be appropriate.

Acknowledgments The work described in this article was carried out with financial support of the "Europe Against Cancer Program" of the European Commission (SANCO); Danish Cancer Society; German Cancer Aid; Ligue Nationale contre le Cancer, 3M Company, INSERM Institut Gustave Roussy; German Cancer Research Center; German Federal Ministry of Education and Research; Dutch Ministry of Public Health, Welfare and Sports; National Cancer Registry and the Regional Cancer Registries Amsterdam, East and Maastricht of The Netherlands; Norwegian Cancer Society; Norwegian Research

Council; Health Research Fund (FIS) of the Spanish Ministry of Health; Greek Ministry of Health; Greek Ministry of Education; Italian Association for Research on Cancer; the ISCIII Network RCESP (C03/09) and RETICC C03/10, Spanish Regional Governments of Andalucia, Asturias, Basque Country, Murcia and Navarra and the Catalan Institute of Oncology; Swedish Cancer Society; Swedish Scientific Council; Regional Government of Skane, Sweden; Cancer Research UK; Medical Research Council, UK; Stroke Association, UK; British Heart Foundation; Department of Health, UK; Food Standards Agency, UK; Wellcome Trust, UK. This work was initiated while Christine Friedenreich was a Visiting Scientist at the International Agency for Research on Cancer. Christine Friedenreich is also supported by a Canadian Institute of Health Research New Investigator Award and an Alberta Heritage Foundation for Medical Research Health Scholar Award. Anne Cust is supported by a doctoral scholarship from the University of Sydney and a Research Scholar Award from the Cancer Institute NSW, Australia.

#### References

- 1. IARC Working Group (2002) IARC handbook of cancer prevention, volume 6: weight control and physical activity. IARC, Lyon, p 1
- Kaaks R, Lukanova A, Kurzer MS (2002) Obesity, endogenous hormones, and endometrial cancer risk: a synthetic review. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 11:1531–1531
- Le Marchand L., Wilkens LR, Mi MP (1991) Early-age body size, adult weight gain and endometrial cancer risk. Int J Cancer 48:807–811
- Shu XO, Brinton LA, Zheng W et al (1992) Relation of obesity and body fat distribution to endometrial cancer in Shanghai, China. Cancer Res 52:3865–3870
- 5. Swanson CA, Potischman N, Wilbanks GD et al (1993) Relation of endometrial cancer risk to past and contemporary body size and body fat distribution. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2:321–327
- Olson SH, Trevisan M, Marshall JR et al (1995) Body mass index, weight gain, and risk of endometrial cancer. Nutr Cancer 23:141–149
- Terry P, Baron JA, Weiderpass E, Yuen J, Lichtenstein P, Nyren O (1999) Lifestyle and endometrial cancer risk: a cohort study from the Swedish Twin Registry. Int J Cancer 82:38–42
- Trentham-Dietz A, Nichols HB, Hampton JM, Newcomb PA (2006) Weight change and risk of endometrial cancer .Int J Epidemiol 35:151–158
- Ballard-Barbash R, Swanson CA (1996) Body weight: estimation of risk for breast and endometrial cancers. Am J Clin Nutr 63:4378–41S
- Schouten LJ, Goldbohm RA, van den Brandt PA (2004) Anthropometry, physical activity, and endometrial cancer risk: results from the Netherlands Cohort Study. J Natl Cancer Inst 96:1635–1638
- Levi F, La Vecchia C, Negri E, Parazzini F, Franceschi S (1992) Body mass at different ages and subsequent endometrial cancer risk. Int J Cancer 50:567–571
- Weiderpass E, Persson I, Adami HO, Magnusson C, Lindgren A, Baron JA (2000) Body size in different periods of life, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, and risk of postmenopausal endometrial cancer (Sweden). Cancer Causes Control 11:185–192
- 13. French SA, Folsom AR, Jeffery RW, Zheng W, Mink PJ, Baxter JE (1997) Weight variability and incident disease in

- older women: the Iowa Women's Health Study. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 21:217–223
- 14. Folsom AR, Kaye SA, Potter JD, Prineas RJ (1989) Association of incident carcinoma of the endometrium with body weight and fat distribution in older women: early findings of the Iowa Women's Health Study. Cancer Res 49:6828–6831
- Lapidus L, Helgesson O, Merck C, Bjorntorp P (1988) Adipose tissue distribution and female carcinomas. A 12-year follow-up of participants in the population study of women in Gothenburg, Sweden. Int J Obes 12:361–368
- Elliott EA, Matanoski GM, Rosenshein NB, Grumbine FC, Diamond EL (1990) Body fat patterning in women with endometrial cancer. Gynecol Oncol 39:253–258
- 17. Schapira DV, Kumar NB, Lyman GH, Cavanagh D, Roberts WS, LaPolla J (1991) Upper-body fat distribution and endometrial cancer risk. JAMA 266:1808–1811
- 18. Austin H, Austin JM Jr, Partridge EE, Hatch KD, Shingleton HM (1991) Endometrial cancer, obesity, and body fat distribution. Cancer Res 51:568–572
- 19. Goodman MT, Hankin JH, Wilkens LR et al (1997) Diet, body size, physical activity, and the risk of endometrial cancer. Cancer Res 57:5077–5085
- Beral V, Bull D, Reeves G (2005) Endometrial cancer and hormone-replacement therapy in the Million Women Study. Lancet 365:1543–1551
- La Vecchia C., Franceschi S, Gallus G et al (1982) Oestrogens and obesity as risk factors for endometrial cancer in Italy. Int J Epidemiol 11:120–126
- 22. Riboli E, Kaaks R (1997) The EPIC Project: rationale and study design. European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. Int J Epidemiol 26 Suppl 1:S6–S14
- Riboli E, Hunt KJ, Slimani N et al (2002) European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC): study populations and data collection. Public Health Nutr 5:1113–1124
- 24. Bingham SA, Gill C, Welch A et al (1994) Comparison of dietary assessment methods in nutritional epidemiology: weighed records v. 24 h recalls, food-frequency questionnaires and estimated-diet records. Br J Nutr 72:619–643
- 25. Haftenberger M, Lahmann PH, Panico S et al (2002) Overweight, obesity and fat distribution in 50- to 64-year-old participants in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC). Public Health Nutr 5:1147–1162
- Spencer EA, Roddam AW, Key TJ (2004) Accuracy of selfreported waist and hip measurements in 4492 EPIC-Oxford participants. Public Health Nutr 7:723–727
- 27. Lahmann PH, Schulz M, Hoffmann K et al (2005) Long-term weight change and breast cancer risk: the European prospective investigation into cancer and nutrition (EPIC). Br J Cancer 93:582–589
- 28. Haftenberger M, Schuit AJ, Tormo MJ et al (2002) Physical activity of subjects aged 50–64 years involved in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC). Public Health Nutr 5:1163–1176
- Ainsworth BE, Haskell WL, Whitt MC et al (2000) Compendium of physical activities: an update of activity codes and MET intensities. Med Sci Sports Exerc 32:S498–S504
- Friedenreich CM, Novat T, Steindorf K et al (2006) Physical activity and risk of colon and rectal cancers: the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. Cancer Epid Biomark Prev 15:2398–2407
- 31. Margetts BM, Pietinen P (1997) European prospective investigation into cancer and nutrition: validity studies on dietary assessment methods. Int J Epidemiol 26 Suppl 1:S1–S5

- 32. Tavassoli FA, Devilee P (Eds) 2003 Pathology and genetics—tumours of the breast and female genital organs. World Health Organization classification of tumours. IARC Press, Lyon, pp 217–258
- 33. Kleinbaum DG, Klein M (2002) Logistic regression: a self learning text. Springer
- 34. Slimani N, Fahey M, Welch AA et al (2002) Diversity of dietary patterns observed in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) project. Public Health Nutr 5:1311–1328
- 35. Furberg AS, Thune I (2003) Metabolic abnormalities (hypertension, hyperglycemia and overweight), lifestyle (high energy intake and physical inactivity) and endometrial cancer risk in a Norwegian cohort. Int J Cancer 104:669–676
- Jonsson F, Wolk A, Pedersen NL et al (2003) Obesity and hormone-dependent tumors: cohort and co-twin control studies based on the Swedish Twin Registry. Int J Cancer 106:594–599
- 37. Kuriyama S, Tsubono Y, Hozawa A et al (2005) Obesity and risk of cancer in Japan. Int J Cancer 113:148–157
- 38. Lukanova A, Bjor O, Kaaks R et al (2006) Body mass index and cancer: results from the Northern Sweden Health and Disease Cohort. Int J Cancer 118:458–466
- 39. Petridou E, Koukoulomatis P, Dessypris N, Karalis D, Michalas S, Trichopoulos D (2002) Why is endometrial cancer less common in Greece than in other European Union countries?. Eur J Cancer Prev 11:427–432
- Xu WH, Matthews CE, Xiang YB et al (2005) Effect of adiposity and fat distribution on endometrial cancer risk in Shanghai women. Am J Epidemiol 161:939–947

- 41. Xu WH, Xiang YB, Zheng W et al (2006) Weight history and risk of endometrial cancer among Chinese women. Int J Epidemiol 35:159–166
- 42. Iemura A, Douchi T, Yamamoto S, Yoshimitsu N, Nagata Y (2000) Body fat distribution as a risk factor of endometrial cancer. J Obstet Gynaecol Res 26:421–425
- 43. La Vecchia C., Parazzini F, Negri E, Fasoli M, Gentile A, Franceschi S (1991) Anthropometric indicators of endometrial cancer risk. Eur J Cancer 27:487–490
- 44. Tornberg SA, Carstensen JM (1994) Relationship between Quetelet's index and cancer of breast and female genital tract in 47,000 women followed for 25 years. Br J Cancer 69:358–361
- 45. Akhmedkhanov A, Zeleniuch-Jacquotte A, Toniolo P (2001) Role of exogenous and endogenous hormones in endometrial cancer: review of the evidence and research perspectives. Ann N Y Acad Sci 943:296–315
- 46. Lahmann PH, Hoffmann K, Allen N et al (2004) Body size and breast cancer risk: findings from the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer And Nutrition (EPIC). Int J Cancer 111:762–771
- 47. Henderson BE, Casagrande JT, Pike MC, Mack T, Rosario I, Duke A (1983) The epidemiology of endometrial cancer in young women. Br J Cancer 47:749–756
- 48. Blitzer PH, Blitzer EC, Rimm AA (1976) Association between teen-age obesity and cancer in 56,111 women: all cancers and endometrial carcinoma. Prev Med 5:20–31
- Perry GS, Byers TE, Mokdad AH, Serdula MK, Williamson DF (1995) The validity of self-reports of past body weights by U.S. adults. Epidemiology 6:61–66