

Dietary zinc intake and brain cancer in adults: a case–control study

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Little is known about the aetiology of brain tumours. One putative factor suggested from animal models is a protective effect of dietary Zn. We tested the hypothesis that increased compared with low dietary Zn intake is protective against brain tumour development. We conducted a population-based case–control study in the UK, of adults aged 18–69 years, between 2001 and 2004 aiming to identify possible risk factors. Dietary information was collected from 637 cases diagnosed with a glioma or meningioma, and 876 controls. Data were obtained from a self-completed FFQ. Multivariate logistic regression analysis was conducted, adjusting for socio-demographic factors, season of questionnaire return, multivitamin supplementation and energy intake. Although a weak protective effect was observed for the third quartile of intake (normal compared with low intake) in the meningioma group, this was limited to the specific brain tumour subtype and quartile, and was not significant after also adjusting for intake of other elements. Overall there was no significant effect of Zn intake. No association or dose–response relationship was observed between increased compared with low Zn intake and risk of glioma or meningioma.

Brain tumours: Zinc: British adults: Gliomas: Meningiomas: Blood–brain barrier

About 50% of all primary brain tumours are gliomas and 25% are meningiomas. Gliomas are of three main types (astrocytoma, ependymoma, oligodendroglioma) and are often associated with poor prognosis. Meningiomas are a usually benign type of brain tumour, but some can be 'atypical' and behave more aggressively¹. A variety of risk factors for brain cancer have been investigated in epidemiological studies, but the evidence for environmental causation is inconsistent. Associations observed include certain medical conditions, exposures to radiation, viruses and chemicals^{2,3}. The relationship between dietary trace elements and adult brain tumour aetiology has not yet been fully investigated, as few studies involving trace elements have been conducted².

Zn is a trace element with antioxidant properties; such elements have been suggested⁴ to be protective against brain tumour development. The main role of Zn is the maintenance of a healthy central nervous system. Zn is also important for DNA replication, protein synthesis and metabolism⁵ and oxidative stress protection⁶. The present study was prompted by an a priori hypothesis suggested by animal models. In rat models, Zn is essential for good neuronal function^{7–9}. It has been shown that, in rat glioma cells¹⁰, increased oxidative stress occurs during Zn deficiency. Ho & Ames¹⁰ also reported

that, under low intracellular Zn status, proper DNA repair could not be achieved, and after Zn repletion DNA damage was reversed. Yousef *et al.* reported a significant increase in the levels of free radicals with Zn deficiency in the rat brain¹¹. In addition, some human case–control studies have yielded inverse associations between Zn consumption and various cancers, such as oesophageal squamous cell carcinoma¹² and lung cancer¹³. Zn adjusted for Fe intake was inversely associated with upper digestive tract cancer in the follow-up Iowa Women's Health Study¹⁴. In contrast, a recent case–control study found that excessive Zn intake (≥ 15.7 mg/d) increases prostate cancer risk in humans¹⁵.

The concentration of Zn in the brain is higher than elsewhere in the body (about 150 $\mu\text{mol/l}$)¹⁶. Zn is most concentrated in neuron-abundant forebrain regions (for example, hippocampus) serving as an endogenous modulator in neurotransmission¹⁷. Excess excitation of Zn-containing neurons causes Zn decrease and neuronal damage. Dietary Zn deprivation may influence Zn balance in the brain, resulting in brain dysfunction¹⁸. Other dietary nutrients affect Zn concentrations in the brain and blood and, possibly, Zn availability for transport into the brain through the blood–brain barrier¹⁹. A number of nutrient elements, such as Ca, Fe, Cu and P, act

Abbreviations: EPIC, European Prospective Investigation into Cancer; UKABTS, United Kingdom Adult Brain Tumour Study.

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as antagonists to Zn²⁰, while other nutrients such as PUFA, fibre and protein facilitate Zn absorption^{21,22}, and some are able to cross the blood–brain barrier *via* different transport systems.

The present study investigated the *a priori* hypothesis that higher dietary Zn levels may be associated with a decreased risk of brain tumour development in a large population-based case–control study²³.

Subjects and methods

The UK Adult Brain Tumour Study (UKABTS) is a population-based case–control study conducted in the Trent, West Midlands, West Yorkshire and central Scotland regions of the UK. A common protocol was followed with identical methods for case ascertainment, control selection and data collection²³.

Cases were ascertained from hospital departments (for example, neurosurgery, neuro-oncology, neuropathology). Study subjects were aged 18–69 years, resident in the study areas and first diagnosed between 1 December 2000 and 30 June 2003 with a glioma (International Classification of Diseases (ICD)-O-3, topography: C71, morphology: 9380–9411, 9420–9451, 9480, 9505) or meningioma (ICD-O-3, topography: C70, morphology: 9530–9539). Controls were randomly sampled from general practitioner lists and individually matched to cases on age and sex. Non-participating controls were replaced. Eligible subjects were approached by their treating consultant or general practitioner either personally or by letter.

Participants were interviewed using a computer-assisted personal interview system, and then given a FFQ to complete and return by post. Information was collected on dietary intake and use of vitamin, mineral and other dietary supplements. The FFQ includes questions on the average consumption frequency of a medium portion of 132 food items (the most commonly consumed in this population). The subjects were asked about their usual diet during the 2 years preceding diagnosis, to reduce the possibility of reverse causation. Consumption frequency categories varied from ‘six or more per day to ‘never or less than once per month’.

Data analysis

Average daily nutrient intake was calculated by multiplying the daily consumption frequency of each food item by the content of the examined nutrient in the respective food item obtained from food composition tables²⁴. Data were then processed by the nutritional software based on the program used for the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer (EPIC) study.

Dietary Zn intake was adjusted for energy intake using the residual method^{25,26} and intake levels were defined by quartiles of the control distribution (lowest category used as the reference group).

Standard unconditional logistic regression was used to estimate OR and 95% CI in univariate and multivariate analyses, for gliomas and meningiomas separately. All controls were used in the analyses, as in a previous analysis from the UKABTS on the association between the use of mobile phones and risk of developing brain tumours²³. In addition

to sex, age (in 5-year groups) and region, the multivariate standard logistic regression adjusted simultaneously for the following variables: deprivation category (Townsend score reflecting social class)²⁷, season of dietary questionnaire return, multivitamin supplement use and energy intake²⁸ (pp. 288–291). Because energy intake may be an important disease predictor, it was included in the regression model together with the nutrient energy-adjusted term²⁸ (pp. 288–291).

Subjects’ intake of other nutrients besides Zn was also assessed and included as terms in the regression analysis. The literature suggests that nutrients having a biological relevance to Zn are the following: Ca, Fe, Cu, P (the main Zn antagonists), PUFA, protein and dietary fibre (the last three are thought to affect Zn absorption and amounts in the body, for example, protein promotes Zn absorption). These were tested for interaction with Zn, by including interaction terms in the model. Nutrients were also assessed for confounding. In the regression analysis, non-significant nutrient terms were taken out of the model, also provided that excluding them did not largely inflate the standard error while changing very little the corresponding effect size of the examined variable (Zn intake). Presented results are those obtained with inclusion of only those nutrients that remained significant.

Data analysis was carried out using the SPSS statistical package (version 11.5; SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). All presented *P* values are two-sided.

Ethical approval

Approval has been obtained from multi-centre research ethics committees (MREC/99/0/77) and all relevant local research ethics committees.

Results

Of those who returned an FFQ, 637 cases (436 gliomas, 201 meningiomas) and 876 controls were included in the analyses, after fifteen subjects (eleven cases, four controls) were excluded as their energy intake and BMI were incompatible.

Table 1 gives the response rates – for the dietary FFQ – of cases and controls grouped by tumour type. Table 2 presents the demographic and social characteristics of subjects who returned the dietary FFQ. Table 3 shows the results of analysis by brain tumour subtype. For glioma, no association was seen with Zn before or after adjustment for confounders. A statistically significant risk reduction for meningioma was observed only in the 3rd quartile of dietary Zn intake (adjusted OR 0.62 (95%CI: 0.39, 0.99); *P*=0.048). The crude results were not significant.

For nutrients biologically relevant to Zn as suggested from the literature (Ca, Fe, Cu, P, PUFA, protein and fibre), interaction terms were included in the analysis. However, all interaction terms were found to have non-significant overall *P* values. The above nutrients were also assessed for confounding, and those significant were entered in the regression analysis.

Confounders remaining significant when examining the Zn–disease association were Fe for gliomas and Cu for meningiomas (overall significance *P*=0.05 and *P*=0.02

Table 1. Interview and questionnaire response rate in the study (Frequencies and percentages)

	Glioma		Meningioma		Control	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Registered	946		310		2472	
Interviewed	599	63.3	250	80.6	1103	44.6
FFQ returned	436		201		876	
Of subjects interviewed		72.7		80.0		79.4
Of subjects registered		46.1		64.8		35.4
Reasons for refusal (of subjects registered)						
Subject refusal	103	10.9	32	10.3	534	21.6
No subject response (non-contactable)	22	2.3	8	2.6	644	26.1
Subject too ill or deceased	183	19.4	14	4.5	5	0.2
Other*	39	4.1	6	1.9	186	7.5

* Includes no permission by consultant or general practitioner, non-English speaking, mental impairment or institutionalised.

respectively). Results appear in Table 4. Zn intake was significantly correlated with both Cu intake and Fe intake at the $P < 0.01$ level (the Pearson correlation coefficient between Zn and Fe intake for gliomas was 0.25, and between Zn and Cu intake for meningiomas was 0.27). However, strong collinearity was not observed in the data, as collinearity tests conducted were not significant (gliomas R^2 0.05; meningiomas R^2 0.13). Note that, after taking account of Cu intake in the

analysis for meningiomas, the result for the 3rd quartile was no longer statistically significant (Tables 3 and 4).

We also obtained results for groupings of tertiles according to the RDA recommendations for Zn (8–11 mg/d). Results were similar to those already obtained (before adjustment, $P_{\text{gliomas}} = 0.561$, $P_{\text{meningiomas}} = 0.125$; after adjustment for Fe, Cu respectively, $P_{\text{gliomas}} = 0.577$, $P_{\text{meningiomas}} = 0.224$) and no significant associations were observed.

Table 2. Characteristics of cases and controls in the study (Frequencies and percentages)

	Glioma		Meningioma		Control	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Region						
Central Scotland	96	22.0	46	22.9	207	23.6
West Yorkshire	115	26.4	59	29.4	231	26.4
West Midlands	70	16.1	20	10.0	141	16.1
Trent	155	35.6	76	37.8	297	33.9
Sex						
Female	170	39.0	150	74.6	467	53.3
Male	266	61.0	51	25.4	409	46.7
Deprivation score						
1 (Least deprived)	129	29.6	53	26.4	267	30.5
2	107	24.5	50	24.9	202	23.1
3	75	17.2	32	15.9	156	17.8
4	74	17.0	35	17.4	145	16.6
5 (Most deprived)	51	11.7	31	15.4	105	12.0
Missing					1	0.1
Season of FFQ return						
Winter (December–February)	95	21.8	41	20.4	197	22.5
Spring (March–May)	80	18.3	53	26.4	191	21.8
Summer (June–August)	128	29.4	68	33.8	212	24.2
Autumn (September–November)	118	27.1	32	15.9	240	27.4
Missing	15	3.4	7	3.5	36	4.1
Multivitamin supplementation						
Yes	115	26.4	54	26.9	224	25.6
No	314	72.0	143	71.1	646	73.7
Missing	7	1.6	4	2.0	6	0.7
Age (years)						
18–29	28	6.4	6	3.0	43	4.9
30–39	61	14.0	20	10.0	129	14.7
40–49	93	21.4	46	22.9	190	21.6
50–59	163	37.4	75	37.3	307	35.1
60–70	91	20.8	54	26.8	207	23.7
Mean energy intake						
kJ	9681.4		8919.5		9164.6	
kcal	2313.9		2131.8		2190.4	

Table 3. Association between dietary zinc intake and gliomas and meningiomas (Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals)

	Cases (n)	Controls (n)	Crude OR	95% CI	P	Adjusted OR†	95% CI	P
Glioma	436	876						
Zn (mg/d)					0.265			0.714
Q1: 2.2–9.1	129	219	1.00			1.00		
Q2: 9.2–10.3	101	219	0.78	0.57, 1.08	0.135	0.87	0.62, 1.22	0.416
Q3: 10.4–12.0	96	221	0.74	0.53, 1.02	0.065	0.82	0.58, 1.16	0.269
Q4: 12.1–21.9	110	217	0.86	0.63, 1.18	0.352	0.92	0.66, 1.28	0.613
P for trend								0.551
Meningioma	201	876						
Zn (mg/d)					0.475			0.231
Q1: 1.1–8.8	61	219	1.00			1.00		
Q2: 8.9–10.0	48	219	0.79	0.52, 1.20	0.266	0.81	0.51, 1.28	0.365
Q3: 10.1–11.6	45	219	0.74	0.48, 1.13	0.164	0.62	0.39, 0.99	0.048*
Q4: 11.7–21.4	47	219	0.28	0.50, 1.20	0.228	0.72	0.45, 1.13	0.152
P for trend								0.088

Q, quartile.

* Significant at $P < 0.05$ level; two-tailed P value.

† Adjusted for age (in 5-year groups), sex, study region, deprivation category (Townsend score), season of FFQ return and multivitamin supplementation.

Additional adjustment of Zn intake quartiles for dietary intake of vitamins A (carotene), B₁₂, B₆, C, D, E, biotin, niacin, retinol, riboflavin and thiamin did not alter any of the results.

Discussion

Zn is involved in cell division and differentiation, in tumour cell metabolism⁵, and in the normal development of natural killer cells²⁹. Normal Zn levels work against superoxide free radicals^{29,30}, and it is often suggested that free radical reduction

may help to lower cancer risk^{31,32}. Zn deficiency is prevalent in some cancers, and low Zn levels may reduce the number of helper T-cells and thymic hormone levels³³, thereby weakening immune function²⁹. Cancer, in general, arises more frequently against a background of immunodeficiency³³.

On the other hand, in animal models with existing tumours, depletion of dietary Zn has been proven to suppress tumour growth^{34,35}. Excess Zn intake has been linked to disease and toxicity³¹. Reduced immune function can result from both excessive Zn intake³⁶ and low Zn intake, as mentioned earlier. The above contradicting evidence shows that the mechanisms behind the Zn intake–brain tumour relationship are not yet fully comprehended; thus, a balanced intake is recommended³⁷.

Blood–brain barrier dysfunction has been linked to neurological conditions and brain tumour development, i.e. the barrier is usually non-existent in brain tumours³⁸. Intake of normal Zn levels is required for a healthy blood–brain barrier¹⁹, as enhanced dietary Zn consumption does not affect Zn concentration in the brain except for the case where Zn deprivation already exists¹⁸.

Results of a recent study show that Zn depletion damages non-brain endothelial cells; however, the brain endothelial cells respond by enhancing barrier property³⁹. Levels of other elements in the brain play an important role, as interaction with elements transported across the blood–brain barrier affects Zn absorption and its concentrations in the brain and, subsequently, its contribution to normal brain function. Fe and Cu are both elements that can pass through the blood–brain barrier and affect Zn levels²⁰. Fe is transported through the barrier by p97⁴⁰ and Cu *via* a Cu-transporting ATPase mechanism⁴¹.

Potential areas of bias

Participation levels were relatively low amongst cases. This was due mainly to disease severity; patients were very ill or died before being recruited. As reported previously²³, high-grade glioma cases were less likely to be interviewed than those diagnosed with a low-grade tumour. Control

Table 4. Association between dietary zinc intake and gliomas and meningiomas adjusted for iron and copper intake respectively (Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals)

	Cases (n)	Controls (n)†	Adjusted OR‡§	95% CI	P*
Glioma	436	876			
Zn (mg/d)					0.909
Q1: 2.2–9.1	129	219	1.00		
Q2: 9.2–10.3	101	219	0.92	0.65, 1.31	0.645
Q3: 10.4–12.0	96	221	0.88	0.62, 1.25	0.480
Q4: 12.1–21.9	110	217	0.96	0.68, 1.34	0.797
P for trend					0.749
Meningioma	201¶	876			
Zn (mg/d)					0.526
Q1: 1.1–8.8	61	219	1.00		
Q2: 8.9–10.0	48	219	0.88	0.55, 1.40	0.593
Q3: 10.1–11.6	45	219	0.70	0.43, 1.14	0.147
Q4: 11.7–21.4	47	219	0.79	0.48, 1.29	0.345
P for trend					0.242

Q, quartile.

* Two-tailed P values; $P < 0.05$ significance level.

† Energy-adjusted mean intake of Fe and Cu was 28.82 and 2.42 mg respectively for controls.

‡ For glioma, adjusted for age (in 5-year groups), sex, study region, deprivation category (Townsend score), season of FFQ return, multivitamin supplementation and Fe intake.

§ For meningioma, adjusted for age (in 5-year groups), sex, study region, deprivation category (Townsend score), season of FFQ return, multivitamin supplementation and Cu intake.

|| Energy-adjusted mean Fe intake for glioma cases was 27.19 mg.

¶ Energy-adjusted mean Cu intake for meningioma cases was 2.46 mg.

participation was also low, a problem for many population-based studies²⁸ (pp. 9–11, 90–91). This may have introduced selection bias amongst controls, as previously reported controls taking part in the study tended to be more affluent than non-interviewed controls²³. Controls used may have better nutritional regimens than the general population. Deprivation category was adjusted for in the analysis, although the bias cannot be fully removed.

The FFQ method is cheap, easy to administer, and provides quick intake estimates²⁸ (pp. 74–91). Although extreme misclassification has been shown to be minimal⁴², another problem associated with use of FFQ in case–control studies is that questions may have been misinterpreted by some subjects²⁸ (pp. 101–124, 302–304).

Energy adjustment, as carried out in the present study, minimises errors resulting from general food consumption over- or under-reporting²⁵. The dietary FFQ used (based on the EPIC FFQ) containing questions on as many as 132 food items commonly consumed in the UK might also have reduced under-reporting of food consumption⁴².

In the study, the frequency question was combined with a specific ‘medium portion’ size and this can present cognitive challenges for subjects⁴³. However, several studies have found that consumption frequency is the main determinant of between-person variation in measured dietary intake levels and that it is positively correlated with portion size⁴³.

There is concern that cases will report on their diets differently to controls⁴⁴. Brain tumours are associated with impaired memory and concentration⁴⁵ and current dietary habits also considerably affect responses regarding previous diet⁴². However, recall bias is reduced by recruiting incident cases²⁸ (pp. 153–155), as has been done in the present study.

Missing values

The suggestive result before Cu inclusion could potentially be stronger, as dietary assessment through FFQ inherently produces measurement error and generally modest relative risks²⁸. In that respect, missing values are potentially a source of bias in the present study. Some foods (for example, cooked vegetables), tend to be more frequently omitted than others²⁸ (pp. 61–67) and respondents tend to selectively omit foods they never or seldom eat⁴⁶. After conducting a missing values analysis, we found that there were significantly more missing values for cases than controls. Also, responses on Zn-containing foods are different from those on food items containing Cu. Of missing values for Zn, 64% are for foods with zero Zn content; the respective percentage for Cu is 56%. Although Cu has 4% of its missing values for foods containing 5.8–9.9 mg Cu (the highest composition range), the highest percentage (22%) of missing values is accumulated in the 0.01–0.09 mg range (lowest). However, the highest percentage (31%) of missing values for Zn is found in the 0.1–1.0 mg range. Therefore, more of the missing values for Zn are for foods with a moderate composition of Zn, while more of the missing values for Cu are for foods low in Cu, indicating that Zn intake may have been underestimated. It would be interesting to see if Zn amounts greater than used here would yield an effect.

Conclusions

In this dietary investigation of the UKABTS, no associations were found between dietary Zn intake and risk of glioma or meningioma. Overall, our findings are non-significant. The specific hypothesis on a protective effect of increased compared with low levels of dietary Zn against glioma or meningioma formation is not supported.

There is no strong multi-collinearity in the data. Therefore, controlling for a confounding effect of Fe and Cu intake is helpful, as relationships of dietary elements are complex and it is difficult to separate the effects of one element alone from the effects of others.

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