

Portland State University

PDXScholar

Community Health Faculty Publications and
Presentations

School of Community Health

2008

Physical Activity and Prostate Cancer Mortality in Puerto Rican Men

Carlos J. Crespo

Portland State University, ccrespo@pdx.edu

Mario R. Garcia-Palmieri

University of Puerto Rico

Ellen Smit

Portland State University

I-Min Lee

Harvard Medical School

Daniel Lee McGee

Florida State University

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: https://pdxscholar.library.pdx.edu/commhealth_fac



Part of the [Community Health and Preventive Medicine Commons](#)

Let us know how access to this document benefits you.

Citation Details

Crespo, C. J., Garcia-Palmieri, M. R., Smit, E., Lee, I., McGee, D., Muti, P., & ... Sorlie, P. (2008). Physical Activity and Prostate Cancer Mortality in Puerto Rican Men. *Journal Of Physical Activity & Health*, 5(6), 918-929.

This Article is brought to you for free and open access. It has been accepted for inclusion in Community Health Faculty Publications and Presentations by an authorized administrator of PDXScholar. Please contact us if we can make this document more accessible: pdxscholar@pdx.edu.

Authors

Carlos J. Crespo, Mario R. Garcia-Palmieri, Ellen Smit, I-Min Lee, Daniel Lee McGee, Paola Muti, Nayda R. Figueroa Valle, Farah A. Ramirez-Marrero, Jo L. Freudenheim, and Paul Sorlie

Physical Activity and Prostate Cancer Mortality in Puerto Rican Men

Carlos J. Crespo, Mario R. Garcia-Palmieri, Ellen Smit, I-Min Lee, Daniel McGee, Paola Muti, Nayda R. Figueroa Valle, Farah A. Ramirez-Marrero, Jo L. Freudenheim, and Paul Sorlie

Studies on the association between physical activity and fatal prostate cancer have produced inconclusive results. The Puerto Rico Heart Health Program was a cohort study of a randomly selected sample of 9824 men age 35 to 79 years at baseline who were followed for mortality until 2002. Multiple examinations collected information on lifestyle, diet, body composition, exercise, urban-rural residence, and smoking habits. Physical activity status was measured using the Framingham Physical Activity Index, an assessment of occupational, leisure-time, and other physical activities measured as usual activity over the course of a 24-hour day. Physical activity was stratified into quartiles. Multivariate logistic regression analysis was used to assess the association of physical activity with prostate cancer mortality. Other covariates included age, education, urban-rural residence, smoking, and body mass index. Compared with the lowest level of physical activity (Q1), the risk of prostate cancer mortality was OR = 0.99 (95% CI = 0.64–1.55) for Q2, OR = 1.34 (95% CI = 0.88–2.05) for Q3, and OR = 1.19 (95% CI = 0.75–1.90) for Q4. Further analyses by age group, overweight status, or vigorous physical activity also did not show a significant association between physical activity and prostate cancer mortality. Physical activity did not predict prostate cancer mortality in this group of Puerto Rican men.

Keywords: cancer, epidemiology, physical activity, mortality, chronic disease

Second to lung cancer, prostate cancer kills more men than any other cancer in the United States. A large number of deaths from prostate cancer is also observed among other Western societies.^{1,2} Although microscopic (latent) prostate tumors in most populations are similar, there are striking differences in the incidence rates among racial/ethnic groups.^{2,3} The incidence and mortality from cancer

Crespo and Smit are with the School of Community Health, Portland State University, Portland, OR 97207. Garcia-Palmieri, Figueroa Valle, and Ramirez-Marrero are with the University of Puerto Rico, San Juan, Puerto Rico. Lee and Muti are with Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02446. McGee is with the Dept of Statistics, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL 32306. Muti is also with the Italian National Cancer Institute, Roma, Italy. Freudenheim is with the Dept of Social and Preventive Medicine, University at Buffalo, Buffalo, NY 14260. Sorlie is with the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, Bethesda, MD 20892.

among African American men is one of the highest in the world.^{4,5} Between 1988 and 1992, the highest reported rates (age-adjusted world standard), exceeding 30,000 per 100,000 man years, were observed among US Blacks. Rates in Black Caribbean men, especially from Jamaica, are also among the highest in the world. Prostate cancer mortality among all Hispanics in the US is considered lower than among non-Hispanic Whites. Differences among Hispanic subgroups support an increased burden of prostate cancer mortality among Puerto Ricans and other Caribbean men of different skin color.⁶⁻⁹

Prostate cancer rates in the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico are similar to those observed in the United States. The age-adjusted prostate cancer mortality rates among men from Puerto Rico and the United States are 16.1/100,000 and 15.7/100,000, respectively. However, prostate cancer kills more Puerto Rican men in Puerto Rico than any other cancer, including lung cancer. Puerto Ricans in the United States have prostate cancer mortality rates lower than those observed in Puerto Rico but higher than those among other Hispanic subgroups such as Mexican Americans or Cuban Americans.¹⁰⁻¹³ The fact that prostate cancer rates change in migrant populations and vary dramatically in ethnically similar populations residing in different geographic locations strongly suggests that environmental factors can greatly influence the risk of this cancer.¹⁴ Despite the large number of deaths from prostate cancer among men and minority men, there is little knowledge about lifestyle changes that can modify the risk.^{4,10-13,15-24}

One important lifestyle factor that has been studied in association with prostate cancer is physical activity. Results from these studies have not been consistent. Although some studies show a small benefit, there are several reports showing no relationship or an increased risk with physical activity. Moreover, the relationship between physical activity and prostate cancer among US Hispanic men has not been well characterized.²⁵⁻³⁸ We report here on the association of physical activity and prostate cancer mortality in a cohort of Puerto Rican men who took part in the Puerto Rico Heart Health Program (PRHHP).

Methods

Study Population

The Puerto Rico Heart Health Program is a prospective cohort study designed to examine morbidity and mortality from coronary heart disease in urban and rural Puerto Rican men.³⁹⁻⁴² Briefly, the original sampling was designed to recruit men age 45 to 64 years who were free from coronary heart disease at the time of the first examination in 1965. These men were sampled from 3 urban areas and 4 rural areas in the northeast part of Puerto Rico by the personnel who participated in the United States decennial census.⁴⁰ All of these men were encouraged to attend the baseline examination, and an 80% response rate was achieved. The original cohort consisted of men who were 45 to 64 years of age. Other participants age 35 to 44 years ($n = 348$) and 65 to 79 years ($n = 678$), who were not part of the original sampling frame, were also included in the current study. Thus, the total number of examined participants used in this analysis was 9824 men between the ages of 35 and 79 years.

All men completed an extensive self-report of demographic characteristics, personal and family health history, and health habits, including education, occupation, income, a history of smoking, and place of residence.

Assessment of Physical Activity and Other Characteristics

During the first examination, each participant provided sociodemographic information. A complete medical history was conducted with a physical examination that included laboratory determination and a resting 12-lead electrocardiogram. At this first examination, physical activity status was assessed using the Framingham Physical Activity Index.^{41,43} This questionnaire assessed occupational, leisure-time, and other physical activities measured as usual activity over the course of a 24-hour day and was interviewer administered. The interviewer asked the individual about the average hours of participation in sleep, rest, occupational, and extracurricular activities over a typical 24-hour period. The intensity of the activity was also inquired about according to the following categories: sedentary, slight activity, moderate activity, and heavy activity. Usual physical activity was determined by a review of the number of hours spent at various activities. The Framingham Physical Activity Index has Spearman correlation values of .36 for Paffenbarger's Harvard Alumni and .72 for Penn Alumni Questionnaires, .57 for the Baecke Questionnaire of Habitual Physical Activity, and .48 for the Lipid Research Clinics Questionnaire. For analysis, the number of hours at each activity was converted to an index of usual daily energy expenditure. This was accomplished by grading activities into different categories using estimated oxygen consumption per hour for each activity or metabolic equivalents (METs). One MET is equivalent to energy expenditure at rest, approximately 3.5 ml of O₂ per kilogram of body weight per minute. The usual activities were classified using the original scheme used in the Framingham Study as sedentary (MET = 1.0), light (MET = 1.1), lightly moderate to moderate (MET = 2.4), and strenuous (MET = 5.0). The product of this grade and duration in hours gave a score of a physical activity index. A score of 24 meant the individual slept or reclined for 24 hours in a day. Higher scores indicated either strenuous activity for shorter periods and/or moderate activity for a longer time. The questionnaire was used in subsequent follow-up examinations. Estimates of consistency of administration between the first test using the Framingham Physical Activity Index and 2- to 3-year posttest in this group of Puerto Rican men provided Pearson correlation coefficients of .30 to .59.^{41,44}

We categorized our analytic sample by quartiles of physical activity. The physical activity index ranged from 24 to 71. We further examined patterns of physical activity within quartiles by hours spent doing no activity such as sleeping or resting; sedentary or very light activities such as sitting; light activities such as walking at level; moderate physical activity such as brisk walking, climbing stairs, or walking uphill; and vigorous physical activity such as cutting sugar cane or other strenuous activities. The cutoff point for quartile 1 was a physical activity index of 27 or less, which represents the group that is most inactive. To assure quartile 1 reflects only those who are sedentary, we reclassified 18 participants (out of 2401) from quartile 1 into quartile 2 (N = 2277). These participants had a physical activity index of less than 27 but reported participating in some type of

moderate physical activity. Thus, quartile 1 of physical activity includes participants who only engaged in no physical activities, sedentary activities, or very light physical activities. The physical activity index range for quartile 2 was greater than 27 but less than 30, for quartile 3 the range was greater than or equal to 30 but less than 37 (N = 2171), and for quartile 4, scores were greater than or equal to 37 (N = 2287).

Obesity Classification

We used the guidelines released by the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Obesity Education Initiative to classify our participants based on body mass index (BMI).⁴⁵ Briefly, underweight individuals are those whose BMI is less than 18.5, normal or healthy-weight persons have a BMI between 18.5 and 24.9, overweight individuals are those with a BMI between 25 and 29.9, and the obese are persons with a BMI of 30 and above.

Other Covariates

Education level was determined from the interview by ascertaining the highest grade completed in school. For our analysis, participants were grouped into 5 categories: no formal schooling, and those who attended or completed grades 1 to 4, grades 5 to 8, high school, or college. The detailed smoking history provided the basis to classify participants into nonsmokers, previous smokers, and smokers. Rural-urban residence was determined based on place of residence at baseline. Characterization of rural areas was composed primarily of small farms located on very hilly terrain, and urban areas consisted of a denser cluster of houses, many of which housed residents who worked in the business and industry around San Juan.

Ascertainment of Fatal Prostate Cancer

Prostate cancer mortality was assessed throughout the active phase of the study, and 35 men had died of prostate cancer by 1980. An additional 88 prostate cancer deaths between 1981 and 2002 were ascertained using passive follow-up by matching participants in the PRHHP with the Puerto Rico Cancer Registry and Puerto Rico Vital Statistics Registry. Cases were matched on the basis of a full match with first name, maternal and paternal last names, date of birth, place of birth, and gender. Validity of matched cases was assessed by obtaining copies of the death certificate. A recent update (2003–2005) from the Puerto Rico Cancer Registry identified an additional 44 prostate cancer deaths. In total, there were 167 prostate cancer deaths in the study population.

Statistical Analysis

The outcome variable of interest was mortality from prostate cancer. The multivariate logistic function model was used to analyze relationships between known risk factors and prostate cancer mortality. We examined the potential contribution of the following variables in the model: age (years), education (no formal schooling, grades 1 to 4, grades 5 to 8, attended or completed high school, attended or

completed college), body weight classification (underweight, healthy weight, overweight, obesity), baseline smoking status (nonsmokers, former smokers, current smokers), and urban-rural residence (urban, rural).^{43,46-48}

Results

The analytic sample consisted of 9780 participants with complete data (44 of the 9824 men who participated in the PRHHP study had missing or incomplete data on physical activity). Prostate cancer deaths are referred to as cases and the remainder of the cohort is referred to as noncases. Selected baseline characteristics of the study population are shown in Table 1. Cases were older and somewhat more educated than noncases. Smoking, body mass index, and physical activity were similar between cases and noncases. The percent distribution in different quartiles of physical activity ranged from 22.8% to 27.5%, showing little variability among both cases and noncases.

After adjustment for age and BMI, we found that physical activity was not associated with prostate cancer mortality in this group of Puerto Rican men (Table 2). Adjustments for other confounders outlined in Table 1 did not modify the relationship; these other confounders were not significantly related to prostate cancer either.

To better understand if the relationship of physical activity differed by categories of body mass index and age, we stratified our cohort among those who were overweight or obese (BMI ≥ 25) and those who were not overweight (BMI < 25). Physical activity was not associated with prostate cancer within these strata. Similarly, in strata defined by those who were younger than 55 years of age at baseline and among those who were 55 years of age or older, there was no association of physical activity and prostate cancer mortality.

We further examined participation in vigorous physical activity and risk of prostate cancer mortality. Participants in the cohort were grouped based on their baseline participation in vigorous physical activity (MET ≥ 5) for 1 hour or more a day. The age-adjusted odd ratios among those reporting participating in vigorous physical activity for 1 or more hours a day was 0.96 (95% CI = 0.68-1.34). Adjustment for education, body mass index, and smoking did not alter the results. Stratifying the analysis among those younger than 55 years of age (OR = 0.70, 95% CI = 0.456-1.21) or 55 years or older (OR = 1.17, 95% CI = 0.76-1.80) did not yield a significant relationship between vigorous physical activity and fatal prostate cancer.

Discussion

Results of studies on the relationship between physical activity and prostate cancer risk across studies have not been consistent. Although some longitudinal studies have shown a protective association of physical activity with prostate cancer risk,^{28,34,38,49-56} others have found no association or positive association.^{31,35,37,57-62} Several comprehensive reviews of the literature have concluded that the data regarding physical activity and prostate cancer is inconsistent.^{32,63} Our results are in accordance with those previous studies showing no association between

Table 1 Baseline Characteristics of the Puerto Rico Heart Health Program Participants According to Prostate Cancer Mortality

	Prostate cancer deaths (n = 167)		Noncases (n = 9613)		Chi-square P
	n	%	n	%	
Age, y					.04
35-44	3	1.8	345	3.6	
45-54	69	41.3	4840	50.4	
55-64	82	49.1	3763	39.2	
65+	13	7.8	665	6.9	
Education					.09
no formal schooling	16	9.6	975	10.1	
grades 1-4	51	30.5	3392	35.3	
grades 5-8	58	34.7	2754	28.7	
attended/completed high school	22	13.2	1700	17.7	
more than high school	20	12.0	786	8.2	
Living					.52
urban	47	28.1	2928	30.5	
rural	120	71.9	6685	69.5	
Smoking					.53
none	51	30.5	3237	33.7	
past	73	43.7	4208	43.8	
current	43	25.8	2159	22.5	
BMI (weight (kg)/height (m) ²)					.89

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

	Prostate cancer deaths (n = 167)		Noncases (n = 9613)		Chi-square P
	n	%	n	%	
underweight (<18.5)	4	2.4	310	3.2	
normal weight (18.5–24.9)	76	45.5	4530	47.1	
overweight (25–29.9)	66	39.5	3609	37.5	
obese (30+)	21	12.6	1164	12.1	
Physical activity					.64
quartile 1 (low)	43	25.8	2621	27.3	
quartile 2	38	22.8	2381	24.8	
quartile 3	46	27.5	2240	23.3	
quartile 4 (high)	40	24.0	2371	24.7	

Abbreviation: BMI, body mass index.

Table 2 Odds Ratios for Prostate Cancer Mortality in Relation to Baseline Physical Activity (167 Cases Among 9613 Men)

	Quartiles of physical activity			
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Overall, Range				
OR (95% CI) ^a	1.0	1.01 (0.65–1.58)	1.32 (0.87–2.02)	1.10 (0.71–1.71)
OR (95% CI) ^b	1.0	0.99 (0.64–1.55)	1.34 (0.88–2.05)	1.19 (0.75–1.90)
BMI: underweight or normal weight				
OR (95% CI) ^c	1.0	1.22 (0.62–2.41)	1.64 (0.87–3.09)	1.07 (0.55–2.11)
BMI: overweight or obese				
OR (95% CI) ^c	1.0	0.87 (0.49–1.56)	1.22 (0.68–2.18)	1.53 (0.81–2.91)
Age: <55 years				
OR (95% CI) ^d	1.0	1.35 (0.67–2.73)	1.63 (0.82–3.24)	1.03 (0.47–2.25)
Age: 55+ years				
OR (95% CI) ^d	1.0	0.78 (0.43–1.41)	1.20 (0.69–2.09)	1.34 (0.75–2.38)

Abbreviation: BMI, body mass index.

^a Adjusted for age (35–44, 45–54, 55–64, 65+ years) and BMI (underweight, normal weight, overweight, obese).

^b Adjusted for age, education (no formal schooling, grades 1–4, grades 5–8, attended/completed high school, more than high school), BMI, living (urban, rural), and smoking (never smoker, current smoker, past smoker).

^c Adjusted for age (continuous years), education, living, and smoking.

^d Adjusted for age (continuous years), education, BMI, living, and smoking.

physical activity and prostate cancer. We did not observe a dose-response trend either, and adjustment for age, BMI, smoking, or education did not change the association.

Most of the studies to date have been of men of European ancestry. One study was from Shanghai, another from Hawaii, and another had data on African Americans.^{49,50,64} Severson et al⁵⁵ used the same physical activity index from the Framingham study and heart rate (as a marker of physical fitness) in a cohort of 7925 Japanese men in Hawaii age 46 to 65 years to examine their associations with prostate cancer incidence. After adjustment for age and BMI, they found no association when comparing the most active relative to the least active men, no protective effect of occupational physical activity, and heart rate was not related to prostate cancer incidence either. Our findings are the first longitudinal study of physical activity and prostate cancer in a large group of Hispanic men.

In our study we had data on prostate cancer mortality and not incidence. Prostate cancer mortality might be a reflection of the most aggressive prostate cancer cases and, therefore, is of great public health significance. By using fatal prostate cancer we also avoided the possibility of increased prostate cancer incidence owing to secular trends in incidence due to screening. Active men might be

more likely to undergo screening and might have higher rates of incidence of prostate cancer, especially at the early stage. By concentrating our efforts on prostate cancer mortality, we reduced this bias. Prostate cancer ascertainment was conducted in conjunction between the Puerto Rico Cancer Registry and the Puerto Rico Office of Vital Statistics. The Puerto Rico Cancer Registry is a full member of the North American Association of Central Cancer Registry and adheres to Data Standards for Cancer Registry established by this organization. Our reliance on prostate cancer mortality allowed us to also validate our mortality cases by obtaining death certificates on a subset of 88 cases. Of these 88 requests for death certificates, we received 87 death certificates with prostate cancer mortality as the underlying cause of death. Thus, we believe our ascertainment of fatal prostate cancer using the two registries is valid.

Our exposure variable, physical activity, has been used in other studies; however, one potential limitation of our study is that it might not be specific enough to differentiate lifetime or usual levels of physical activity. This is not a unique problem of this study because objective measures of physical activity for use in large epidemiological studies are not yet feasible. We further studied participation in vigorous physical activity to examine if the intensity of participation in physical activity is important for prostate cancer. One hypothesis was that changes in testosterone levels associated with participation in aerobic compared with anaerobic physical activity might have a differential effect on prostate cancer. Our findings failed to observe an association between vigorous physical activity and prostate cancer in contrast to results from Giovannucci et al (2005).^{36,38}

In summary, physical inactivity was not a risk factor for fatal prostate cancer in this group of Puerto Rican men. Most studies of prostate cancer and physical activity have been among European Whites; ours is the first to examine this relationship longitudinally in a well-characterized subgroup of Hispanics. Further studies should examine the role of lifetime physical activity and incorporation of more valid objective measures of physical activity to examine the role of physical activity in the prevention of prostate cancer.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by grants from the Department of Defense (DAMD17-02-1-0252) and the National Institutes of Health (1P20CA96256-01A1, 1R03 CA103475-01).

References

1. Lund Nilsson TI, Johnsen R, Vatten LJ. Socio-economic and lifestyle factors associated with the risk of prostate cancer. *Br J Cancer*. 2000;82(7):1358–1363.
2. Howe HL, Wu X, Ries LA, et al. Annual report to the nation on the status of cancer, 1975–2003, featuring cancer among U.S. Hispanic/Latino populations. *Cancer*. 2006;107(8):1711–1742.
3. Edwards BK, Brown ML, Wingo PA, et al. Annual report to the nation on the status of cancer, 1975–2002, featuring population-based trends in cancer treatment. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2005;97(19):1407–1427.
4. Hsing AW, Devesa SS. Trends and patterns of prostate cancer: what do they suggest? *Epidemiol Rev*. 2001;23(1):3–13.

5. Powell IJ. Epidemiology and pathophysiology of prostate cancer in African-American men. *J Urol*. 2007;177(2):444–449.
6. Hsing AW, Tsao L, Devesa SS. International trends and patterns of prostate cancer incidence and mortality. *Int J Cancer*. 2000;85(1):60–67.
7. Rose D, Boyar A, Wynder E. International comparisons of mortality rates for cancer of the breast, ovary, prostate and colon and per capita food consumption. *Cancer*. 1986;58:2363–2371.
8. Rosenwaike I. Cancer mortality among Puerto Rican-born residents in New York City. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1984;119:177–185.
9. Villar H, Menck H. The national cancer data base report on cancer in Hispanics. *Cancer*. 1994;74:2386–2395.
10. Miller B, Kolonel L, Bernstein L, et al. *Racial/Ethnic Patterns of Cancer in the US 1988–1992*. Bethesda, MD: National Cancer Institute; 1996. NIH Pub: 69-4104.
11. Peters K, Kochanek K, Murphy S. Deaths: final data for 1996. *Natl Vital Stat Rep*. 1998;47(9).
12. Rosenwaike I, Hempstead K. Mortality among three Puerto Rican populations: residents of Puerto Rico and migrants in New York City and in the balance of the United States, 1979–81. *Int Migr Rev*. 1990;24(4):684–702.
13. PAHO. Language barriers contribute to health care disparities for Latinos in the United States of America. *Rev Panam Salud Publica*. 2002;11(1):56–58.
14. Scardino P, Tindall D, Prostate Cancer Progress Review Group. Defeating prostate cancer: crucial directions for research. Report presented to the National Cancer Institute; August 1998.
15. Chan JM, Giovannucci EL. Vegetables, fruits, associated micronutrients, and risk of prostate cancer. *Epidemiol Rev*. 2001;23(1):82–86.
16. Chan JM, Giovannucci EL. Dairy products, calcium, and vitamin D and risk of prostate cancer. *Epidemiol Rev*. 2001;23(1):87–92.
17. Chan JM, Stampfer MJ, Ma J, Gann PH, Gaziano JM, Giovannucci EL. Dairy products, calcium, and prostate cancer risk in the Physicians' Health Study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2001;74(4):549–554.
18. Platz E, Giovannucci E. Vitamin D and calcium in colorectal and prostate cancers. In: D Heber, GL Blackburn, VLW Go, eds. *Nutritional Oncology*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier; 1999:223–252.
19. Blanton JH, Rodriguez M, Costas R Jr, et al. A dietary study of men residing in urban and rural areas of Puerto Rico. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1966;18(3):169–175.
20. Baquet CR, Hammond C, Commiskey P, Brooks S, Mullins CD. Health disparities research—a model for conducting research on cancer disparities: characterization and reduction. *J Assoc Acad Minor Phys*. 2002;13(2):33–40.
21. Gordon T, Kagan A, Garcia-Palmieri M, et al. Diet and its relation to coronary heart disease and death in three populations. *Circulation*. 1981;63(3):500–515.
22. Platz EA, Rimm EB, Willett WC, Kantoff PW, Giovannucci E. Racial variation in prostate cancer incidence and in hormonal system markers among male health professionals. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2000;92(24):2009–2017.
23. Roberts WW, Platz EA, Walsh PC. Association of cigarette smoking with extraprostatic prostate cancer in young men. *J Urol*. 2003;169(2):512–516.
24. Tande AJ, Platz EA, Folsom AR. The metabolic syndrome is associated with reduced risk of prostate cancer. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2006;164(11):1094–1102.
25. Dagnelie PC, Schuurman AG, Goldbohm RA, van den Brandt PA. Diet, anthropometric measures and prostate cancer risk: a review of prospective cohort and intervention studies. *BJU Int*. 2004;93(8):1139–1150.
26. Giovannucci E, Rimm EB, Liu Y, Willett WC. Height, predictors of C-peptide and cancer risk in men. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2004;33(1):217–225.

27. Sharpe CR, Siemiatycki J. Consumption of non-alcoholic beverages and prostate cancer risk. *Eur J Cancer Prev.* 2002;11(5):497–501.
28. Wannamethee SG, Shaper AG, Walker M. Physical activity and risk of cancer in middle-aged men. *Br J Cancer.* 2001;85(9):1311–1316.
29. Friedenreich CM, Orenstein MR. Physical activity and cancer prevention: etiologic evidence and biological mechanisms. *J Nutr.* 2002;132(11):3456S–3464S.
30. Friedenreich CM, McGregor SE, Courneya KS, Angyalfi SJ, Elliott FG. Case-control study of lifetime total physical activity and prostate cancer risk. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2004;159(8):740–749.
31. Platz EA, Leitzmann MF, Michaud DS, Willett WC, Giovannucci E. Interrelation of energy intake, body size, and physical activity with prostate cancer in a large prospective cohort study. *Cancer Res.* 2003;63(23):8542–8548.
32. Lee IM. Physical activity and cancer prevention: data from epidemiologic studies. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2003;35(11):1823–1827.
33. Platz EA. Energy imbalance and prostate cancer. *J Nutr.* 2002;132(11):3471S–3481S.
34. Nilsen TI, Romundstad PR, Vatten LJ. Recreational physical activity and risk of prostate cancer: a prospective population-based study in Norway (the HUNT study). *Int J Cancer.* 2006;119(12):2943–2947.
35. Littman AJ, Kristal AR, White E. Recreational physical activity and prostate cancer risk (United States). *Cancer Causes Control.* 2006;17(6):831–841.
36. Fulton JE, Kohl HW III. Vigorous physical activity and risk of prostate cancer. *Clin J Sport Med.* 2006;16(3):277–278.
37. Zeegers MP, Dirx MJ, van den Brandt PA. Physical activity and the risk of prostate cancer in the Netherlands cohort study, results after 9.3 years of follow-up. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2005;14(6):1490–1495.
38. Giovannucci EL, Liu Y, Leitzmann MF, Stampfer MJ, Willett WC. A prospective study of physical activity and incident and fatal prostate cancer. *Arch Intern Med.* 2005;165(9):1005–1010.
39. Garcia-Palmieri MR, Sorlie P, Costas R, Havlik R. An apparent inverse relationship between serum cholesterol and cancer mortality in Puerto Rico. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1981;114:29–40.
40. Garcia-Palmieri MR, Feliberti M, Costas R Jr, et al. An epidemiological study on coronary heart disease in Puerto Rico: the Puerto Rico Heart Health Program. *Bol Asoc Med P R.* 1969;61(6):174–179.
41. Garcia-Palmieri MR, Costas R Jr, Cruz-Vidal M, Sorlie PD, Havlik RJ. Increased physical activity: a protective factor against heart attacks in Puerto Rico. *Am J Cardiol.* 1982;50(4):749–755.
42. Garcia-Palmieri MR, Sorlie PD, Havlik RJ, Costas R Jr, Cruz-Vidal M. Urban-rural differences in 12 year coronary heart disease mortality: the Puerto Rico Heart Health Program. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 1988;41(3):285–292.
43. Crespo CJ, Palmieri MR, Perdomo RP, et al. The relationship of physical activity and body weight with all-cause mortality: results from the Puerto Rico Heart Health Program. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2002;12(8):543–552.
44. Kannel WB, Sorlie P. Some health benefits of physical activity: the Framingham Heart Study. *Arch Intern Med.* 1979;139:857–861.
45. National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. *Clinical Guidelines on the Identification, Evaluation, and Treatment of Overweight and Obesity in Adults: The Evidence Report.* Bethesda, MD: Government Printing Office; 1998.
46. Kahn H, Sempos CT. *Statistical Methods in Epidemiology. Monographs in Epidemiology and Biostatistics, 12.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 1989.
47. *SAS/STAT User's Guide. Version 8.* Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc; 2000.

48. *SUDAAN User's Manual. Release 7.5.* Research Triangle Park, NC: Research Triangle Institute; 1997.
49. Hsing AW, McLaughlin JK, Zheng W, Gao YT, Blot WJ. Occupation, physical activity, and risk of prostate cancer in Shanghai, People's Republic of China. *Cancer Causes Control.* 1994;5(2):136-140.
50. LeMarchand L, Kolonel LN, Yoshizawa CN. Lifetime occupational physical-activity and prostate-cancer risk. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1991;133(2):103-111.
51. Norman A, Moradi T, Gridley G, et al. Occupational physical activity and risk for prostate cancer in a nationwide cohort study in Sweden. *Br J Cancer.* 2002;86(1):70-75.
52. Bairati I, Larouche R, Meyer F, Moore L, Fradet Y. Lifetime occupational physical activity and incidental prostate cancer (Canada). *Cancer Causes Control.* 2000;11:759-764.
53. Thune I, Lund E. Physical activity and the risk of prostate and testicular cancer: a cohort study of 53,000 Norwegian men. *Cancer Causes Control.* 1994;5:549-556.
54. Oliveria SA, Kohl HW III, Trichopoulos D, Blair SN. The association between cardiorespiratory fitness and prostate cancer. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 1996;28(1):97-104.
55. Severson RK, Nomura AM, Grove JS, Stemmermann GN. A prospective study of demographics, diet, and prostate cancer among men of Japanese ancestry in Hawaii. *Cancer Res.* 1989;49(7):1857-1860.
56. Jian L, Shen ZJ, Lee AH, Binns CW. Moderate physical activity and prostate cancer risk: a case-control study in China. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2005;20(2):155-160.
57. Lee I, Sesso H, Paffenbarger R. A prospective cohort study of physical activity and body size in relation to prostate cancer risk (US). *Cancer Causes Control.* 2001;12:187-193.
58. Liu S, Lee I, Linson P, Anjani U, Buring J, Hennekens C. A prospective study of physical activity and risk of prostate cancer in US physicians. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2000;29:29-35.
59. Giovannucci E, Leitzmann M, Spiegelman D, et al. A prospective study of physical activity and prostate cancer in male health professionals. *Cancer Res.* 1998;58:5117-5122.
60. Polednak AP. College athletics, body size, and cancer mortality. *Cancer.* 1976;38(1):382-387.
61. Paffenbarger RS Jr, Hyde RT, Wing AL. Physical activity and incidence of cancer in diverse populations: a preliminary report. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1987;45(suppl 1):312-317.
62. Patel AV, Rodriguez C, Jacobs EJ, Solomon L, Thun MJ, Calle EE. Recreational physical activity and risk of prostate cancer in a large cohort of U.S. men. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2005;14(1):275-279.
63. Friedenreich CM. Physical activity and cancer prevention: from observational to intervention research. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2001;10(4):287-301.
64. Albanes D, Blair A, Taylor PR. Physical activity and risk of cancer in the NHANES I population. *Am J Public Health.* 1989;79(6):744-750.