#### **ORIGINAL CONTRIBUTION**



# **Associations of dietary and lifestyle oxidative balance scores with mortality risk among older women: the Iowa Women's Health Study**

ZilingMao<sup>1</sup><sup>®</sup> · Anna E. Prizment<sup>2,3</sup> · DeAnn Lazovich<sup>3,4</sup> · Roberd M. Bostick<sup>1,[5](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8626-4186)</sup><sup>®</sup>

Received: 9 November 2020 / Accepted: 3 April 2021 / Published online: 21 April 2021 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2021

# **Abstract**

**Purpose** Substantial basic science evidence suggests that oxidative stress may play a role in aging-related health outcomes, including cardiovascular diseases (CVD) and cancer, and oxidative stress markers were linked with all-cause and causespecifc mortality in epidemiologic studies. However, the associations of many individual dietary and lifestyle anti-/prooxidant exposures with mortality are inconsistent. Oxidative balance scores (OBS) that incorporated multiple dietary and lifestyle factors were previously developed and reported to refect the collective oxidative efects of multiple exposures.

**Methods** We investigated associations of 11-component dietary and 4-component (physical activity, adiposity, alcohol, and smoking) lifestyle OBS (higher scores were considered more anti-oxidative) with all-cause and cause-specific mortality among women 55–69 years of age at baseline in the prospective Iowa Women's Health Study (1986–2012). We assessed OBS-mortality associations using multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression.

**Results** Of the 34,137 cancer-free women included in the analytic cohort, 18,058 died (4521 from cancer, and 6825 from CVD) during a mean/median 22.0/26.1 person-years of follow-up. Among participants in the highest relative to the lowest lifestyle OBS quintiles, the adjusted hazards ratios and their 95% confdence intervals for all-cause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality were 0.50 (0.48, 0.53), 0.47 (0.43, 0.52), and 0.54 (0.50, 0.58) (all  $P_{\text{trend}}$  < 0.001), respectively. The associations of the dietary OBS with mortality were close to null.

**Conclusion** Our fndings, combined with results from previous studies, suggest that a predominance of antioxidant over pro-oxidant lifestyle exposures may be associated with lower all-cause, all-CVD, and all-cancer mortality risk.

**Keywords** Diet · Lifestyle · Mortality · Oxidative stress · Cohort studies

 $\boxtimes$  Roberd M. Bostick rmbosti@emory.edu

- <sup>1</sup> Department of Epidemiology, Rollins School of Public Health, Emory University, Mailstop 1518-002-3BB, 1518 Clifton Road NE, Atlanta, GA 30322, USA
- <sup>2</sup> Division of Haematology, Oncology and Transplantation, Medical School, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, USA
- Masonic Cancer Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, USA
- <sup>4</sup> Division of Epidemiology and Community Health, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, USA
- <sup>5</sup> Winship Cancer Institute, Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA

# **Introduction**

Chronic diseases, including cancer and cardiovascular diseases (CVD), are the leading causes of death worldwide [[1\]](#page-11-0). Multiple dietary and lifestyle factors, such as smoking and obesity, have been linked to the incidence of and mortality from several chronic diseases, especially cancer and CVD. Oxidative stress has also been implicated in the etiology of multiple chronic diseases  $[2-4]$  $[2-4]$  $[2-4]$ . Oxidative stress was defned as an imbalance of pro-oxidants to antioxidants [[5](#page-11-3), [6\]](#page-11-4). A predominance of pro-oxidant exposures leads to excess reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (RONS) production, leading to cellular and DNA damage [[5,](#page-11-3) [6\]](#page-11-4). Substantial basic science evidence suggested that oxidative stress may play a role in accelerating the aging of cells, and was associated with risk for chronic diseases, including CVD and multiple types of cancer [[2–](#page-11-1)[4](#page-11-2)].

Although oxidative stress has also been linked to all-cause and cause-specifc mortality in epidemiologic studies [\[4,](#page-11-2) [7](#page-11-5)–[10\]](#page-11-6) through investigations of oxidative stress markers and mortality, the results in the epidemiologic literature regarding the associations of many specifc dietary and lifestyle anti-/pro-oxidant exposures with mortality are inconsistent  $[11]$ . On the other hand, there are some suggestions that the anti-/pro-oxidative efects of individual dietary and lifestyle exposures on risk and mortality may be small, but collectively may be substantial [[12\]](#page-12-0). To address this, oxidative balance scores (OBS) were developed and reported  $[12-15]$  $[12-15]$  $[12-15]$  to reflect the collective oxidative efects of multiple dietary and lifestyle exposures. The rationale for creating a comprehensive score incorporating multiple dietary and lifestyle exposures to refect oxidative balance was previously described  $[14, 15]$  $[14, 15]$  $[14, 15]$ , and the associations of OBS with various outcomes reviewed [[16\]](#page-12-3). OBS were reported to be associated with multiple health outcomes, such as colorectal neoplasms [[12](#page-12-0)[–15\]](#page-12-1) and cancers of the esophagus [[17\]](#page-12-4), lung [[18](#page-12-5)], breast [[19](#page-12-6)], and prostate [[14\]](#page-12-2). However, reported investigations of OBS-mortality risk associations were limited to only two epidemiologic studies [[20](#page-12-7), [21\]](#page-12-8); one [\[21\]](#page-12-8) included only dietary exposures in the score, and neither study reported separate dietary and lifestyle OBS.

Therefore, to clarify associations of the OBS with allcause and cause-specifc mortality, we investigated separate and joint associations of the dietary and lifestyle OBS with all-cause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality risk in the prospective Iowa Women's Health Study (IWHS). We hypothesized that more anti-oxidant relative to pro-oxidant dietary and lifestyle exposures would be associated with lower all-cause and cause-specifc mortality risk. To our knowledge, this is the largest prospective cohort study so far to investigate OBS-mortality associations.

# **Methods**

#### **Study population**

Details of the IWHS were previously reported [[22\]](#page-12-9). Briefy, the IWHS is a prospective cohort study initiated in 1986, with follow-up for the present analysis through 2012. A total of 41,836 Iowa women aged 55–69 years completed mailed questionnaires to self-report information on demographics, diet, lifestyle, anthropometrics, and medical and reproductive history at baseline. Follow-up questionnaires were mailed in 1987, 1989, 1992, 1997, and 2004. The study was approved by the Minnesota Institutional Review Board (IRB), the current analysis was approved by the Emory University IRB, and all

participants provided informed consent prior to inclusion in the study.

#### **Collection of exposure and outcome information**

A Willett 127-item food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) was used to measure dietary, supplement, and alcohol intakes over the previous 12 months; the validity and reliability in the study population were previously reported [[23\]](#page-12-10). Total nutrient and energy intakes were calculated by adding energy and nutrients from all food and supplement sources using Willett's dietary database [\[23](#page-12-10)]. Physical activity was assessed via two questions regarding participants' usual frequencies of moderate and vigorous activity, and then categorized into three levels: high (vigorous activity twice a week or moderate activity>4 times/week), medium (vigorous activity once a week plus moderate activity once a week, or moderate activity 2–4 times/week), and low [\[24](#page-12-11)]. Anthropometrics were self-measured; the reliability and validity of self-measurement in the study population were previously reported [\[23](#page-12-10)]. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight divided by height squared  $(kg/m<sup>2</sup>)$ . Waist and hip circumferences were used to calculate a waist: hip ratio (WHR). Information on diet and physical activity were not comprehensively reassessed until 2004, at which time only 68.3% of participants remained alive. Therefore, for our primary analyses, we used only baseline (1986) exposure information, but included 2004 exposure information in one of two sensitivity analyses (described further below) that supported the validity of this choice.

Information on deaths was collected from the State Health Registry of Iowa and the National Death Index. Cause of death was assigned and coded by state vital registries according to the International Classifcation of Diseases (ICD). Cancer mortality was defned according to ICD-9 codes 140–239 and ICD-10 codes C00–D48; CVD mortality was defned according to ICD-9 codes 390–459 and ICD-10 codes I00–I99. Follow-up time was calculated as the time between the date of baseline questionnaire completion and the date of death or the end of the last follow-up (December 31, 2012), whichever was frst.

#### **OBS components and calculations**

Details of the creation of the questionnaire-based, multicomponent OBS were previously published [\[12,](#page-12-0) [13\]](#page-12-12) and are summarized below. The OBS was previously validated via its association with circulating  $F_2$ -isoprostanes concentrations—the most reliably measured, valid in vivo biomarker of systemic oxidative stress currently used in epidemiologic studies [[25](#page-12-13)[–28\]](#page-12-14). In previous studies, associations of OBS with health outcomes were comparable regardless of the diferent weighting methods used for OBS creation (equal-weight, literature review-derived, study data-based, and Bayesian method) [[12](#page-12-0), [13](#page-12-12)]. In the present study, we used the more straightforward equalweight OBS, which incorporates 11 dietary and 4 lifestyle OBS components. The 15 OBS components were determined a priori based on their literature-supported physiological efects on oxidative processes as previously reported in detail [[12](#page-12-0), [13\]](#page-12-12) (also see a referenced summary in Supplemental Table 1). The dietary OBS components included carotene (α and β), favonoids, lutein/zeaxanthin, lycopene, selenium, omega-3 fatty acids, vitamin C, and vitamin E as antioxidants; and iron, omega-6 fatty acids, and saturated fats as pro-oxidants. The lifestyle OBS components included physical activity as having indirect antioxidant efects; and adiposity, alcohol intake, and smoking as having pro-oxidant efects.

All dietary OBS components were continuous variables derived from the FFQ. For all nutrients except selenium, we used total (i.e., from foods plus supplements) nutrient values; we used only supplement values for selenium since selenium intake from foods depends on the soils in which selenium's plant sources are grown. Prior to inclusion in the score, macronutrients were energy-adjusted as a percentage of total energy contributed by the macronutrient, and micronutrients were energy-adjusted using the density method (i.e., mg of vitamin C/1000 kcal of total energy intake). Lifestyle OBS components were obtained from the lifestyle questionnaire. All were initially 3-level categorical variables as follows: adiposity (low: BMI<30 and WHR < 0.8; moderate: either BMI $\geq$  30 or WHR  $\geq$  0.8; or high: BMI  $\geq$  30 and WHR  $\geq$  0.8), alcohol intake (<1 drinks/week,  $1 - 7$  drinks/week, or  $\geq 7$  drinks/week), smoking status (non-smoker, former smoker, or current smoker), and physical activity (low, medium, or high; described in the data collection sub-section above). We then assigned the lifestyle OBS categories initial values of 0, 1, or 2 for each category from the lowest to the highest level.

Next, we standardized all components' values to a mean of zero and standard deviation of one by subtracting a participant's value from the study population mean, and dividing it by the population standard deviation. The assumption for the equal-weight OBS is that all components are equally important and should contribute similar weights to the score, so we then multiplied these values by  $+1$  or  $-1$  for antioxidants or pro-oxidants, respectively. We then summed the resulting values for each of the dietary and lifestyle OBS to constitute an individual's dietary and lifestyle OBS. A higher score would be considered more anti-oxidative. We also calculated a total OBS by summing all the components of the dietary and lifestyle OBS. For subsequent analyses, we categorized all three OBS according to quintiles of their distributions in the analytic population at baseline.

#### **Statistical analyses**

#### **Exclusion criteria**

Prior to the scores' calculations and statistical analyses, we excluded participants who had a history of cancer (other than non-melanoma skin cancer) at baseline  $(n = 3830)$ , left>10% of the FFQ items blank (*n*=2499), self-reported implausible energy intakes  $(< 600$  or  $> 5000$  kcal/day;  $n = 286$ ), had an invalid contributed person-time  $(n = 2)$ , or were missing data on any lifestyle OBS component  $(n=1082)$ , leaving an analytic cohort of 34,137.

#### **Main analyses**

We categorized participants' dietary and lifestyle OBS according to quintiles of their distributions in the entire analytic population at baseline, and summarized selected participant characteristics by lifestyle and dietary OBS quintiles, using descriptive statistics. To investigate associations of the dietary, lifestyle, and total OBS with allcause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality risk, we used multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression models to calculate adjusted hazards ratios (HR) and their corresponding 95% confdence intervals (CI). We included the median values of lifestyle, dietary, and total OBS quintiles as continuous variables in models to test for trend. We chose the covariates in the models a priori based on biological plausibility and previous literature. We included only baseline age (years) and total energy intake (kcal/ day) as covariates in minimally adjusted models. Fully adjusted models for all three OBS included baseline age (years), total energy intake (kcal/day), education (< high school, high school,  $>$  high school and  $<$  college,  $\ge$  college), current use of hormone replacement therapy (HRT) (yes/no), marital status (yes/no), and comorbidity status (defned as having one or more chronic diseases [diabetes, heart disease, and cirrhosis]) (yes/no). The lifestyle OBS models additionally included the dietary OBS, and the dietary OBS models additionally included physical activity, alcohol intake, smoking status, and our abovedescribed adiposity variable. We tested the proportional hazards assumptions using Schoenfeld residuals for each exposure and covariate.

We assessed correlation between the lifestyle and dietary OBS via a Spearman correlation coefficient. We also estimated the cumulative incidence of mortality due to all causes, CVD, and cancer using methods for competing risks analysis in all models [[29\]](#page-12-15), and reported it within quintiles of the dietary, lifestyle, and total OBS.

#### **Joint/combined (cross‑classifcation) analyses**

To examine potential interaction between the lifestyle and dietary OBS in relation to all-cause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality risk, we conducted joint/combined analyses, considering the lowest joint quintile of the two scores as the reference category. We calculated  $P_{\text{interaction}}$  using the Wald test by including a lifestyle times dietary OBS interaction term in the multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression model.

#### **Stratifed analyses**

We conducted stratifed analyses to assess whether the associations difered by categories of selected participants' baseline characteristics. We stratified on age  $(\leq/$  median age of 61 years), current HRT use (yes/no), and comorbidity (yes/ no). We categorized all three OBS according to tertiles for the stratifed analyses due to sample size constraints. We calculated  $P_{\text{interaction}}$  by including an interaction term of the stratifcation factor times the OBS in the multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression models.

#### **Sensitivity analyses**

We also conducted several sensitivity analyses to assess the robustness of our a priori planned analyses to alternative considerations. Since our primary analyses were based on baseline data for the OBS calculations, and some participants could have changed their exposures during follow-up, we conducted two sensitivity analyses. First, we assessed OBS-mortality risk associations considering study end dates of 5, 10, 15, 20, and 25 years after baseline. Second, we assessed the associations after incorporating exposure data from the 2004 follow-up questionnaire two ways: among those who were not censored prior to 2004, we used (i) the average of their baseline (1986) and 2004 follow-up OBS, and (ii) their 2004 OBS only. Other sensitivity analyses included, frst, censoring participants when they reached 75 years of age (to assess a potential attenuating efect of chance due to aging). Second, we excluded participants who died within the frst two years of follow-up (to rule out reverse causality within early follow-up afecting the estimated associations). Third, some evidence suggested a *U*-shaped alcohol-mortality association [[30\]](#page-12-16), so we repeated our primary analysis using the following alternative alcohol intake scoring: <1 drinks/week was assigned value of 2; alcohol intake 1–7 drinks/week was assigned value of 0, and alcohol intake  $\geq$  7 drinks/week was assigned value of 2. Fourth, to assess whether the lifestyle OBS-mortality risk associations were driven by any particularly infuential component, we removed individual components from the lifestyle OBS, with replacement, one at a time, and then examined the associations of the remaining 3-component lifestyle OBS with mortality risk separately, adjusted for the removed component as a covariate.

We conducted all analyses using SAS statistical software, version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC). All *P*-values were two-sided. We considered *P* values  $\leq 0.05$  or 95% CIs that excluded 1.0 statistically signifcant.

### **Results**

Of the 34,137 cancer-free women included in the analytic cohort, over a mean/median 22.0/26.1 person-years of follow-up, 18,058 died (4521 from cancer, and 6825 from CVD). The Spearman correlation between the dietary and lifestyle OBS was *r*=0.10.

#### **Participant characteristics**

Selected baseline characteristics of the participants according to dietary and lifestyle OBS quintiles are summarized in Table [1](#page-4-0). Study participants were 61 years of age, on average, and>99% were white. Participants in the upper relative to the lower quintiles of both the dietary and lifestyle scores were slightly more likely to take HRT, and had higher mean total vegetables and fruit and total calcium intakes, and lower mean red and processed meat intakes. Women in the higher dietary OBS quintiles, aside from dietary OBS components, also were slightly less likely to be a current smoker, and more likely to have a high physical activity level. Exclusive of lifestyle OBS components, those in the upper lifestyle OBS quintiles had, on average, higher total vitamin A, vitamin C, and vitamin E intakes.

#### **OBS and mortality risk**

Associations of the lifestyle, dietary, and total OBS with allcause and cause-specifc mortality are presented in Table [2.](#page-5-0) For the lifestyle and total OBS, the estimated associations from the minimally and fully adjusted models differed minimally; for the dietary OBS, full adjustment attenuated all estimated associations. In the fully-adjusted analyses, OBS-mortality associations tended to statistically signifcantly decrease with higher lifestyle and total OBS. Among women in the highest relative to the lowest lifestyle OBS quintiles, all-cause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality risks were statistically signifcantly 50%, 53%, and 46% lower, respectively; among those in the highest relative to the lowest total OBS quintiles, all-cause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality risks were statistically signifcantly 34%, 39%, and 29% lower, respectively. For the dietary OBS, all fully adjusted associations with mortality risks were close to null.

<span id="page-4-0"></span>Table 1 Selected baseline participant characteristics<sup>a</sup> according to dietary and lifestyle oxidative balance score quintiles; the Iowa Women's Health Study (*n* =34,137), 1986–2012

Characteristics		Dietary oxidative balance score quintiles <sup>b</sup>		Lifestyle oxidative balance score quintiles <sup>b</sup>				
	$1(n=6827)$	$3(n=6827)$	$5(n=6827)$	$1(n=6923)$	$3(n=7019)$	$5(n=7683)$		
				Mean $\pm$ SD or %				
Age, years	$61.0 \pm 4.1$	$61.6 \pm 4.2$	$61.7 \pm 4.2$	$61.1 \pm 4.1$	$61.7 \pm 4.2$	$61.7 \pm 4.2$		
High school graduate or higher, %	79.0	83.6	83.1	80.1	81.4	83.8		
Currently use hormone therapy, %	9.7	11.7	13.3	10.1	11.1	12.3		
Currently married, %	78.3	77.3	75.3	73.0	77.3	79.9		
Have a comorbidity <sup>c</sup> $%$	13.2	14.2	17.0	15.8	15.8	11.2		
Dietary intakes								
Total energy, kcal/day	$1911 \pm 665$	$1837 + 587$	$1743 \pm 553$	$1825 \pm 625$	$1794 \pm 603$	$1800 \pm 583$		
Total vegetables and fruit, serv- ings/week	$32.4 \pm 15.2$	$44.2 \pm 18.2$	$54.7 \pm 28.2$	$40.7 \pm 20.8$	$42.8 \pm 20.8$	$47.2 \pm 21.9$		
Red and processed meats, serv- ings/week	$10.8 \pm 6.5$	$7.8 \pm 4.3$	$5.2 \pm 3.7$	$8.3 \pm 5.3$	$8.1 \pm 5.4$	$7.3 \pm 4.9$		
Total calcium <sup>d</sup> mg/ $(10^3 \text{ kcal-day})$	$379 \pm 264$	$400 + 289$	$791 \pm 410$	$585 \pm 322$	$621 \pm 325$	$683 \pm 344$		
Total vitamin $A^d$ IU/(10 <sup>3</sup> kcal·day)	$4594 \pm 2422$	$7336 \pm 2809$	$14,459 \pm 8197$	$7373 \pm 4823$	$7999 \pm 5539$	$8967 \pm 6063$		
Total vitamin $C^d$ mg/(10 <sup>3</sup> kcal·day)	$88 + 93$	$143 \pm 122$	$352 \pm 314$	$164 \pm 190$	$169 \pm 189$	$186 + 206$		
Total vitamin $E^d$ mg/(10 <sup>3</sup> kcal·day)	$22 \pm 45$	$31 \pm 60$	$119 \pm 165$	$43 + 90$	$46 + 93$	$54 \pm 106$		
Take multivitamin, %	26.3	32.2	45.8	30.2	31.5	36.3		
Lifestyle characteristics								
High physical activity <sup>e</sup> $%$	16.4	24.7	35.3	7.9	5.1	56.5		
Current smoker, %	19.6	14.3	13.1	51.3	5.7	$0.0\,$		
>7 alcoholic drinks/week, %	6.4	8.3	7.8	32.4	0.0	0.0		
High adiposity $\%$	20.8	20.3	18.3	34.2	15.4	0.0		

Abbreviations: *IU* international units, *SD* standard deviation

a Continuous variables presented as means (standard deviation); categorical variables presented as percentages

<sup>b</sup>Oxidative balance scores (OBS) composed of the dietary or lifestyle exposures listed in Supplemental Table 1; see the text for construction of the 'equal-weight' scores; a higher score represents a higher balance of antioxidant relative to pro-oxidant exposures

c Self-reported history of diabetes mellitus, heart disease, and/or cirrhosis

 $d$ Total = diet plus supplements

e Physical activity level derived from two questions regarding the frequency of moderate and vigorous physical activity, and categorized as high (vigorous activity twice a week or moderate activity>4 times/week), medium (vigorous activity once a week plus moderate activity once a week, or moderate activity 2–4 times/week), and low

f Adiposity defned as high if body mass index (BMI; weight [kg]/height [m2 ])≥30 and waist:hip ratio (WHR)≥0.8; medium if either BMI≥30 or WHR  $\geq$  0.8; and low if BMI <30 and WHR <0.8

The cumulative incidences of all-cause and cause-specifc mortality by OBS quintiles, summarized in Supplemental Figs. 1, 2, 3 and Supplemental Table 2, were consistent with the estimated HRs in Table [2.](#page-5-0) Throughout the study followup period, participants in the highest relative to the lowest lifestyle and total OBS quintiles appeared to have a lower cumulative incidence of all mortality types; for the dietary OBS, there were no diferences in the cumulative incidences of any of the three mortality types across dietary OBS quintiles. The 25-year cumulative mortality incidence was lower among participants in the highest relative to the lowest lifestyle OBS quintiles (all-cause mortality [57.8% vs. 36.8%], all-cancer mortality [21.2% vs. 10.8%], and all-CVD mortality risks [25.9% vs. 16.1%], respectively) and the total OBS

(all-cause mortality [46.7% vs. 43.2%], all-cancer mortality [18.3% vs. 12.3%], and all-CVD mortality risk [23.6% vs. 19.8%], respectively).

#### **Joint/combined (cross‑classifcation) analyses**

The joint/combined (cross-classifcation) associations of the dietary and lifestyle OBS with all-cause and cause-specifc mortality risk are shown in Table [3](#page-6-0). There were patterns of decreasing risk with an increasing lifestyle OBS among women in the lowest dietary OBS quintile for all mortality types. On the other hand, there were no defnitive patterns of decreasing risk with an increasing dietary OBS among women in the lowest lifestyle OBS quintile. However, those



<span id="page-5-0"></span>

Abbreviations: *CI* confdence interval, *CVD* cardiovascular disease, *HR* hazard ratio, *OBS* oxidative balance score

a HRs and 95% CIs from Cox proportional hazards models

<sup>b</sup>Oxidative balance scores (OBS) composed of the dietary or lifestyle exposures listed in Supplemental Table 1; see the text for construction of the 'equal-weight' scores; a higher score represents a higher balance of antioxidant relative to pro-oxidant exposures

c Minimally-adjusted models: adjusted for age (years; continuous) and total energy intake (kcal/day; continuous)

<sup>d</sup>Model for dietary OBS adjusted for age (years; continuous), total energy intake (kcal/day; continuous), education (<high school, high school,>high school and<college,≥college), current use of hormone replacement therapy (yes/no), marital status (yes/no), comorbidity (yes/ no), physical activity (low/medium/high; see text and Table [1](#page-4-0) footnote 'e' for defnitions), smoking status (current/former/non-smoker), alcohol consumption (drinks/week; continuous), and adiposity (low/medium/high; see text and Table [1](#page-4-0) footnote 'f' for defnitions)

eModel for lifestyle OBS adjusted for age (years; continuous), total energy intake (kcal/day; continuous), education (<high school, high school, > high school and < college, ≥college), current use of hormone replacement therapy (yes/no), marital status (yes/no), comorbidity (yes/ no; see text for defnition), and the equal-weight dietary OBS

<sup>f</sup>Model for total OBS adjusted for age (years; continuous), total energy intake (kcal/day; continuous), education (<high school, high school, > high school and < college, ≥college), current use of hormone replacement therapy (yes/no), marital status (yes/no), and comorbidity (yes/no; see text for defnition)

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Table 3 Multivariable-adjusted joint/combined associations<sup>a</sup> of the dietary and lifestyle oxidative balance scores<sup>b</sup> with all-cause, all-cancer, and all-cardiovascular disease mortality risk; the Iowa Women's Health Study (*n*=34,137), 1986–2012

style OBS quintiles	Mortality type/life- Dietary OBS quintiles														
				$\overline{c}$		3			4			5			
	$\boldsymbol{n}$		HR 95% CI	$\boldsymbol{n}$		HR 95% CI	$\boldsymbol{n}$		HR 95% CI	$\boldsymbol{n}$	HR	95% CI	$\boldsymbol{n}$		HR 95% CI
All causes $c$															
1			1604 1.00 Referent			1440 0.90 0.82, 0.98 1371 0.91 0.83, 1.00 1328 0.83 0.75, 0.91 1180 0.93 0.84, 1.03									
$\overline{c}$						1470 0.72 0.66, 0.79 1400 0.66 0.60, 0.73 1301 0.67 0.60, 0.73 1289 0.72 0.65, 0.80 1283 0.73 0.65, 0.80									
3						1485 0.55 0.50, 0.61 1502 0.55 0.50, 0.60 1459 0.56 0.51, 0.62 1353 0.58 0.53, 0.65 1220 0.59 0.53, 0.65									
4	929					0.58 0.52, 0.65 1100 0.52 0.47, 0.58 1154 0.49 0.44, 0.55 1246 0.53 0.48, 0.59 1340 0.56 0.50, 0.62									
5						1339 0.50 0.45, 0.55 1386 0.45 0.40, 0.50 1542 0.48 0.43, 0.53 1612 0.45 0.40, 0.50 1804 0.44 0.39, 0.49									
Cancer <sup>d</sup>															
$\mathbf{1}$			1604 1.00 Referent			1440 0.93 0.79, 1.10 1440 0.96 0.81, 1.15 1328 0.94 0.79, 1.13 1180 0.90 0.73, 1.09									
2						1470 0.73 0.61, 0.86 1400 0.66 0.55, 0.79 1400 0.65 0.54, 0.79 1289 0.70 0.58, 0.85 1283 0.64 0.52, 0.78									
3						1485 0.44 0.36, 0.54 1502 0.55 0.46, 0.67 1502 0.52 0.42, 0.63 1353 0.58 0.47, 0.70 1220 0.53 0.42, 0.65									
4	929					0.58 0.47, 0.72 1100 0.54 0.44, 0.67 1100 0.41 0.32, 0.51 1246 0.52 0.42, 0.64 1340 0.51 0.41, 0.64									
5						1339 0.44 0.36, 0.54 1386 0.41 0.34, 0.51 1386 0.50 0.41, 0.60 1612 0.44 0.35, 0.53 1804 0.46 0.38, 0.57									
$CVD^e$															
$\mathbf{1}$			1604 1.00 Referent			1440 0.85 0.72, 0.99 1440 0.94 0.81, 1.11 1328 0.82 0.69, 0.96 1180 1.04 0.87, 1.24									
2						1470 0.77 0.66, 0.90 1400 0.72 0.62, 0.85 1400 0.71 0.60, 0.84 1289 0.76 0.64, 0.89 1283 0.79 0.66, 0.94									
3						1485 0.62 0.53, 0.73 1502 0.58 0.50, 0.69 1502 0.59 0.50, 0.70 1353 0.67 0.57, 0.80 1220 0.66 0.55, 0.79									
4	929					0.66 0.55, 0.79 1100 0.61 0.51, 0.72 1100 0.60 0.51, 0.72 1246 0.62 0.52, 0.74 1340 0.63 0.53, 0.75									
5						1339 0.57 0.48, 0.67 1386 0.49 0.41, 0.58 1386 0.51 0.43, 0.61 1612 0.46 0.39, 0.55 1804 0.47 0.39, 0.56									

Abbreviations: *CI* confdence interval, *CVD* cardiovascular disease, *HR* hazards ratio, *OBS* oxidative balance scores

a HRs and 95% CIs from Cox proportional hazards models; covariates included age (years; continuous), education (</≥high school), current hormone replacement therapy use (yes/no), marital status (yes/no), comorbidity (includes sum of yes/no for diabetes, heart disease, or cirrhosis), and total energy intake (kcal/day; continuous)

<sup>b</sup>For construction of the "equal-weight" scores, see text and Supplemental Table 1; a higher score represent a higher balance of antioxidant over pro-oxidant exposures

 ${}^cP_{\text{interaction}} = 0.52$ ; from Wald test

 ${}^{d}P_{\text{interaction}}$  = 0.17; from Wald test

 ${}^eP_{\text{interaction}} = 0.29$ ; from Wald test

in the highest relative to the lowest joint lifestyle/dietary OBS quintile were at the lowest all-cause mortality risk; risk was statistically signifcantly 56%, 54%, and 53% lower for all-cause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality, respectively  $(P_{\text{interaction}}=0.52, 0.17, \text{ and } 0.29, \text{ respectively}).$ 

#### **Stratifed analyses**

The multivariable-adjusted associations of the OBS with all-cause and cause-specifc mortality risk according to selected participant characteristics are summarized in Table [4](#page-7-0). The lifestyle OBS-CVD mortality risk association was more strongly inverse among those who were younger  $(< 61$  years): for those in the highest relative to the lowest lifestyle OBS quintiles, the HRs (95% CIs) among those who were younger and older were 0.43 (0.37, 0.49) and 0.64 (0.59, 0.71), respectively ( $P_{\text{interaction}}$  < 0.001). These findings were refected, to a lesser degree, in the total OBS-CVD

mortality and the lifestyle- and total OBS-all-cause mortality risk associations. The lifestyle OBS-cancer mortality risk association was more strongly inverse among those who did not take HRT and among those with a co-morbidity at baseline (both  $P_{\text{interaction}} = 0.04$ ); for those in the highest relative to the lowest lifestyle OBS quintile, the HRs—all statistically signifcant—among those who did/did not take HRT and those with/without a comorbidity were, respectively, 0.45/0.64 and 0.37/0.49. Although the  $P_{\text{interaction}}$  for diferences in the total OBS-all-cause mortality risk association according to co-morbidity status was statistically signifcant, the magnitude of the diference appeared modest and driven by the lifestyle OBS-all-cancer mortality risk association. The estimated dietary OBS-mortality associations were close to null within all strata and none of the point estimates was statistically significant, although the  $P_{\text{interaction}}$ for the dietary OBS and comorbidity in relation to all-cause mortality was 0.02.

Stratification variables, OBS quintiles	Causes of death												
	All-causes			Cancer			<b>CVD</b>						
	Dietary <sup>c</sup>	Lifestyle <sup>d</sup>	Total <sup>e</sup>	Dietary <sup>c</sup>	Lifestyle <sup>d</sup>	Total <sup>e</sup>	Dietary <sup>c</sup>	Lifestyle <sup>d</sup>	Total <sup>e</sup>				
	HR $(95\% \text{ CI})$	HR (95% CI)	HR $(95\% \text{ CI})$	HR (95% CI)	HR $(95\% \text{ CI})$	HR $(95\% \text{ CI})$	HR $(95\% \text{ CI})$	HR (95% CI)	HR $(95\% \text{ CI})$				
Age, years													
$\leq 61 (n = 17,764)$ 1	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00				
	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)				
2	0.97	0.72	0.76	0.98	0.68	0.79	0.91	0.76	0.82				
	(0.91, 1.05)	(0.68, 0.77)	(0.71, 0.82)	(0.86, 1.12)	(0.60, 0.76)	(0.70, 0.89)	(0.80, 1.04)	(0.68, 0.86)	(0.72, 0.92)				
3	0.99 (0.90, 1.07)	0.58 (0.54, 0.62)	0.70 (0.65, 0.75)	1.02 (0.89, 1.16)	0.52 (0.46, 0.59)	0.72 (0.64, 0.82)	0.99 (0.87, 1.13)	0.65 (0.57, 0.73)	0.70 (0.62, 0.80)				
4	0.98	0.54	0.67	0.99	0.51	0.65	0.95	0.60	0.74				
	(0.91, 1.06)	(0.50, 0.58)	(0.63, 0.72)	(0.86, 1.13)	(0.45, 0.59)	(0.57, 0.74)	(0.83, 1.09)	(0.53, 0.69)	(0.65, 0.84)				
5	1.03 (0.95, 1.11)	0.43 (0.40, 0.47)	0.62 (0.58, 0.67)	0.99 (0.86, 1.14)	0.45 (0.40, 0.51)	0.60 (0.52, 0.69)	1.04 (0.91, 1.19)	0.43 (0.37, 0.49)	0.64 (0.56, 0.73)				
$P_{\text{trend}}$ $>61 (n=16,374)$	0.41	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.94	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.4	< 0.001	< 0.001				
$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00				
	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)	(referent)				
2	0.94 (0.88, 0.99)	0.83 (0.78, 0.88)	0.85 (0.80, 0.90)	0.98 (0.87, 1.02)	0.77 (0.68, 0.86)	0.76 (0.67, 0.87)	0.96 (0.88, 1.06)	0.87 (0.79, 0.96)	0.89 (0.81, 0.98)				
3	0.96 (0.90, 1.02)	0.68 (0.65, 0.73)	0.79 (0.74, 0.83)	0.93 (0.81, 1.06)	0.60 (0.53, 0.68)	0.73 (0.64, 0.83)	0.98 (0.89, 1.08)	0.73 (0.67, 0.80)	0.83 (0.76, 0.91)				
4	0.97	0.67	0.75	1.03	0.58	0.70	1.01	0.76	0.84				
	(0.92, 1.04)	(0.63, 0.71)	(0.71, 0.80)	(0.90, 1.17)	(0.51, 0.66)	(0.62, 0.80)	(0.92, 1.11)	(0.69, 0.84)	(0.77, 0.92)				
5	0.99 (0.93, 1.05)	0.58 (0.55, 0.62)	0.72 (0.68, 0.86)	0.94 (0.82, 1.08)	0.51 (0.45, 0.58)	0.63 (0.55, 0.72)	1.04 (0.95, 1.15)	0.64 (0.59, 0.71)	0.79 (0.72, 0.87)				
$P_{\rm trend}$	0.63	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.56	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.17	< 0.001	< 0.001				
$P_{\text{interaction}}$ Current HRT use	0.97	< 0.001	0.002	0.74	0.12	0.35	0.64	< 0.001	< 0.001				
No $(n=30,225)$													
1	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)				
$\mathfrak{2}$	0.93 (0.89, 0.98)	0.76 (0.73, 0.80)	0.79 (0.75, 0.82)	0.99 (0.90, 1.09)	0.69 (0.63, 0.76)	0.76 (0.70, 0.84)	0.91 (0.84, 0.99)	0.82 (0.76, 0.89)	0.84 (0.77, 0.90)				
3	0.95 (0.90, 0.99)	0.61 (0.58, 0.64)	0.72 (0.69, 0.76)	0.98 (0.88, 1.08)	0.55 (0.50, 0.60)	0.72 (0.65, 0.79)	0.93 (0.86, 1.01)	0.67 (0.62, 0.72)	0.74 (0.69, 0.80)				
4	0.96 (0.91, 1.01)	0.58 <sub>0</sub> 0.56, 0.61)	0.69 (0.66, 0.73)	1.03 (0.93, 1.14)	0.53 (0.48, 0.58)	0.68 (0.61, 0.74)	0.95 (0.88, 1.03)	0.68 (0.63, 0.74)	0.76 (0.70, 0.82)				
5	1.00 (0.95, 1.05)	0.50 (0.48, 0.53)	0.66 (0.63, 0.69)	0.98 (0.88, 1.09)	0.45 (0.41, 0.50)	0.61 (0.55, 0.67)	1.00 (0.92, 1.09)	0.55 (0.51, 0.60)	0.71 (0.65, 0.77)				
$P_{\text{trend}}$	0.49	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.88	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.40	< 0.001	< 0.001				
Yes $(n=3913)$													
$\mathbf{1}$	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)	1.00 (referent)				
2	0.92 (0.79, 1.08)	0.74 (0.64, 0.85)	0.93 (0.80, 1.09)	0.87 (0.65, 1.15)	0.90 (0.69, 1.18)	0.86 (0.65, 1.13)	1.00 (0.75, 1.32)	0.63 (0.49, 0.81)	0.96 (0.73, 1.26)				
3	1.02 (0.87, 1.18)	0.65 (0.57, 0.76)	0.84 (0.73, 0.98)	0.86 (065, 1.14)	0.58 (0.44, 0.78)	0.74 (0.57, 0.97)	1.26 (0.96, 1.65)	0.60 (0.47, 0.76)	0.98 (0.76, 1.27)				
4	0.99 (0.84, 1.16)	0.60 (0.52, 0.70)	0.72 (0.62, 0.84)	0.82 (0.61, 1.10)	0.60 (0.45, 0.80)	0.63 (0.48, 0.83)	1.14 (0.86, 1.51)	0.55 (0.43, 0.71)	0.84 (0.64, 1.10)				

<span id="page-7-0"></span>**Table 4** Adjusted associations<sup>a</sup> of the oxidative balance scores<sup>b</sup> with all-cause, all-cancer and all-CVD mortality risk, according to categories of selected participant characteristics; the Iowa Women's Health Study (*n* =34,137), 1986–2012

#### **Table 4** (continued)



Abbreviations *CI* confdence interval, *CVD* cardiovascular disease, *HR* hazard ratio; *HRT* hormone replacement therapy, *OBS* oxidative balance score

a HRs and 95% CIs from Cox proportional hazards models

<sup>b</sup>Oxidative balance scores (OBS) composed of the dietary or lifestyle exposures listed in Supplemental Table 1; see the text for construction of the 'equal-weight' scores; a higher score represents a higher balance of antioxidant relative to pro-oxidant exposures

"Model for dietary OBS adjusted for age (years; continuous), total energy intake (kcal/day; continuous), education (<high school, high school,>high school and<college,≥college), current use of hormone replacement therapy (yes/no), marital status (yes/no), comorbidity (yes/ no), physical activity (low/medium/high; see text and Table [1](#page-4-0) footnote 'e' for defnitions), smoking status (current/former/non-smoker), alcohol consumption (drinks/week; continuous), and adiposity (low/medium/high; see text and Table [1](#page-4-0) footnote 'f' for defnitions)

<sup>d</sup>Model for lifestyle OBS adjusted for age (years; continuous), total energy intake (kcal/day; continuous), education (<high school, high school, > high school and < college, ≥college), current use of hormone replacement therapy (yes/no), marital status (yes/no), comorbidity (yes/ no; see text for defnition), and the equal-weight dietary OBS

<sup>e</sup>Model for total OBS adjusted for age (years; continuous), total energy intake (kcal/day; continuous), education (<high school, high school, > high school and < college, ≥college), current use of hormone replacement therapy (yes/no), marital status (yes/no), and comorbidity (yes/no; see text for defnition)

<sup>f</sup>P<sub>interaction</sub> from stratified risk factor\*score interaction term in Cox proportional hazards model

#### **Sensitivity analyses**

In the sensitivity analyses, the estimated OBS-mortality risk associations after 5, 10, 15, 20, and 25 years of followup (Supplemental Table 3) were similar to those from the primary analyses. In addition, when we incorporated 2004 exposure data from those who completed the 2004 follow-up questionnaire, the OBS-mortality risk associations estimated using the average of the baseline and 2004 exposures were similar to those from our primary analyses; however, using 2004 exposure only attenuated the lifestyle- and total OBSmortality risk associations modestly (Supplemental Table 4). In other sensitivity analyses, the estimated associations of the OBS with all-cause and cause-specifc mortality risk were modestly stronger after censoring participants when they reached the age of 75 years (Supplemental Table 5). Exclusion of participants who died within the frst two years after baseline (1986) (Supplemental Table 6) had minimal efects on our results. Using alternative alcohol intake scoring (Supplemental Table 7) tended to yield slightly stronger inverse associations of the lifestyle and total OBS with all-cause and all-CVD mortality risk. Finally, removal of any one component from the lifestyle OBS (Supplemental Table 8) tended to result in a slightly weaker inverse lifestyle OBS-mortality risk association. Removal of smoking status from the lifestyle OBS tended to attenuate the association the most: e.g., among those in the highest relative to the lowest lifestyle OBS quintiles, the HRs (which were all statistically signifcant) before/after removing smoking status were 0.50/0.76, 0.47/0.76, and 0.54/0.71, for all-cause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality, respectively.

## **Discussion**

Our fndings suggest that a predominance of antioxidant over pro-oxidant lifestyle exposures may be associated with lower all-cause, all-cancer, and all-CVD mortality risks. The associations of the dietary OBS with mortality in this study population of older, white, Iowa women were null, and the total OBS-mortality associations appeared largely driven by the lifestyle exposures; however, our joint/combined analysis fndings suggested that those who jointly had high dietary and lifestyle OBS may have been at particularly low allcause mortality risk.

A substantial literature supports the biological plausibility of multiple dietary and lifestyle exposures contributing to oxidative stress. Increasing evidence supports that higher intakes of certain nutrients, including carotenoids (e.g., lycopene,  $\beta$ -carotene, and lutein) [[31](#page-12-17), [32](#page-12-18)], vitamin C  $[33]$  $[33]$ , vitamin E  $[34]$ , selenium  $[35]$  $[35]$  $[35]$ , omega-3 fatty acids  $[36, 37]$  $[36, 37]$  $[36, 37]$  $[36, 37]$  $[36, 37]$ , and flavonoids  $[38-41]$  $[38-41]$  $[38-41]$ , and regular physical activity [[42\]](#page-12-26), may protect against oxidative stress.

Pro-oxidative factors, including iron [\[43\]](#page-12-27), omega-6 fatty acids [\[37,](#page-12-23) [44,](#page-12-28) [45](#page-12-29)], and saturated fats [\[46,](#page-12-30) [47\]](#page-12-31) intakes, obesity  $[48]$  $[48]$ , smoking  $[49, 50]$  $[49, 50]$  $[49, 50]$  $[49, 50]$  $[49, 50]$ , and alcohol intake  $[51, 52]$  $[51, 52]$  $[51, 52]$  $[51, 52]$ , increase RONS production and accelerate cellular damage caused by oxidative stress. The rationale for inclusion of each of the components of the dietary and lifestyle OBS was reported previously  $[12, 13]$  $[12, 13]$  $[12, 13]$  $[12, 13]$  $[12, 13]$  and is summarized in Supplemental Table [1](#page-4-0).

Dietary and lifestyle exposures that were mechanistically linked or associated with oxidative stress were also associated with risk for several chronic diseases and mortality. Antioxidant-related micronutrients, including vitamin C, vitamin E, the carotenoids (e.g., β-carotene, lycopene and lutein), selenium, and the favonoids, were suggested to protect against chronic diseases and mortality by reducing oxidative damage [[18\]](#page-12-5). A substantial previous literature also supported associations of lifestyle factors (e.g., physical activity, smoking, alcohol intake, and adiposity) with all-cause and cause-specifc mortality risk [\[53–](#page-13-4)[57\]](#page-13-5). In epidemiologic studies, multiple oxidative stress markers were also strongly linked to mortality risk, especially all-cause and all-CVD mortality risk. Urinary oxidative stress markers, such as 8-isoprostane and oxidized guanine/guanosine, were reported to be associated with all-cause [[7,](#page-11-5) [8,](#page-11-8) [10\]](#page-11-6) and CVD mortality [[8](#page-11-8), [10\]](#page-11-6). A nested case–control study found the oxidative stress biomarker plasma  $F_2$ -isoprostanes to be associated with all-cause mortality risk [\[9](#page-11-9)].

As reviewed elsewhere [[16](#page-12-3)], associations of OBS, comprising multiple anti- and pro-oxidative exposures, with various outcomes have been reported  $[16]$  $[16]$  $[16]$ , but only two such studies [\[20](#page-12-7), [21](#page-12-8)] focused on mortality. A prospective cohort study  $[21]$  $[21]$  of male smokers ( $n=2814$ ) reported statistically significant associations of a dietary OBS (comprising vitamin C, β-carotene, and iron; scored in the reverse direction from ours, such that a higher OBS was more pro-oxidant) with all-cause and all-cancer mortality risk. Men in the highest (most pro-oxidant) relative to the lowest (most antioxidant) dietary OBS group had higher relative risks (RR) for all-cause (RR = 1.44;  $95\%$  CI 1.13–1.82) and total cancer mortality (RR = 1.62; 95% CI 1.07–2.45). A populationbased cohort of male and female, black and white US adults  $[20]$  $[20]$   $(n=21,301)$  reported associations of an OBS similar to ours with mortality risk. Among participants in the highest relative to the lowest OBS quartile, risk was statistically signifcantly 30%, 50%, and 23% lower for all-cause, allcancer, and non-cancer mortality, respectively; the authors did not report fndings by sex. These fndings are consistent with those for our total OBS. Although the previous study did not report separate dietary or lifestyle OBS, it did report that removing smoking from the score attenuated the results, which might suggest that lifestyle exposures may have contributed more to the overall OBS-mortality associations than did the dietary exposures.

Other studies reported investigations of other dietary and lifestyle scores that were similar to our OBS with mortality. Of the lifestyle scores, despite the heterogeneity in score components and construction, most had some common elements with our lifestyle OBS, such as physical activity, alcohol consumption, smoking, and adiposity; however, all included some dietary component. Overall, previous studies on lifestyle scores support our fndings of inverse associations of a lifestyle or total OBS with all-cause and cause-specific mortality risk  $[53-56, 58-61]$  $[53-56, 58-61]$  $[53-56, 58-61]$  $[53-56, 58-61]$ . Of the three studies  $[54, 54]$  $[54, 54]$  $[54, 54]$ [59](#page-13-10), [61](#page-13-8)] that reported sex-specifc results, two [\[59](#page-13-10), [61\]](#page-13-8) supported slightly stronger inverse associations of the lifestyle scores with all-cause mortality risk among women, while another [[54](#page-13-9)] reported stronger associations of the lifestyle score with all-cause and all-CVD mortality risk among men.

Other studies also investigated associations of other dietary scores that were similar to our dietary OBS (e.g., the dietary infammation score [DIS] and the dietary infammatory index [DII]) with mortality risk [[62](#page-13-11)[–65](#page-13-12)]. The DIS and DII were developed based on associations of their component food groups/nutrients with circulating infammation biomarker concentrations [\[66,](#page-13-13) [67\]](#page-13-14). Inconsistent with our results, most studies [[62](#page-13-11)[–65\]](#page-13-12) reported statistically signifcant associations of the dietary scores with all-cause and cause-specifc mortality. A meta-analysis of 12 prospective studies [\[63](#page-13-15)] found 23% higher all-cause mortality risk among those in the highest relative to lowest DII (a higher score is more pro-infammatory) category. Another metaanalysis of 14 studies (including 11 prospective studies) [[62\]](#page-13-11) found that individuals in the highest relative to the lowest DII category had 36% higher risk of CVD incidence and mortality ( $RR = 1.36$ ; 95% CI 1.19–1.57). The consistency of the fndings across these studies might be due less to the diferences between the scores and our dietary OBS than to the relative lack of heterogeneity of diets among IWHS participants. We note that in other study populations, dietary scores, such as the Mediterranean diet score [[58,](#page-13-7) [68](#page-13-16)[–71](#page-13-17)] and the evolutionary concordance diet score [[68\]](#page-13-16), were inversely associated with mortality risk, but were not in the IWHS [\[72\]](#page-13-18). An analysis to compare dietary heterogeneity within the IWHS with that within the REasons for Geographic and Racial Diferences in Stroke cohort of black and white men and women from the 48 contiguous US states [\[73](#page-13-19)], revealed that the diets across the IWHS participants were relatively homogeneous, thus possibly explaining the null associations of the various diet pattern scores with mortality risk in the IWHS.

We are the frst to report associations of dietary and lifestyle OBS with mortality risk separately, as well as in a joint/ combined (cross-classifcation) analysis to assess potential interaction between dietary and lifestyle OBS in relation to mortality risk. Our results suggested that dietary factors that may contribute to oxidative balance, collectively, were not associated with mortality risk in our study population. However, our joint/combined analyses of the dietary and lifestyle OBS suggested that those in the highest joint dietary/ lifestyle OBS quintile may have been at the lowest all-cause mortality risk. Our results also suggest that the total OBS, which includes (i) multiple dietary factors modestly associated with risk and (ii) a few lifestyle factors strongly associated with risk, may represent the average of the separate dietary and lifestyle OBS, rather than refecting synergistic efects of lifestyle and diet that is suggested from the joint/ combined analysis.

We also found that the associations of the lifestyle and total OBS with all-cause and all-CVD mortality risk tended to be stronger among those who were younger. The reason(s) is unclear. Participants who were older may have been less genetically susceptible to the efects of environmental exposures; specifc antioxidant enzyme, DNA repair enzyme, and other longevity-relevant genes could dominate over environmental efects in lifespan determination in some people [\[74](#page-13-20)]. This could also explain why our inverse OBS-mortality associations became modestly stronger after censoring participants when they reached 75 years of age. Further, our estimated associations of the lifestyle and total OBS with allcause and all-CVD mortality risk became modestly weaker with longer follow-up; this may also have reflected higher genetic-related resistance to oxidative stress or damage, but could also have been due to increasing exposure misclassifcation during follow-up. Our fndings also suggest that OBSmortality risk associations were modestly attenuated when we used exposure data only from 2004 from participants on whom they were available. This suggests that earlier lifestyle exposures may be more important than later ones in relation to mortality risk in an older population. However, given the multiple comparisons involved in the stratifed and other sensitivity analyses, we cannot rule out that some of these results may have been due to chance. Overall, it would appear that our secondary and sensitivity analyses support our main fndings, which if anything could have been under estimated.

Major strengths of this study include the prospective study design, large sample size and long follow-up, and comprehensive collection and assessment of multiple potential confounding/efect modifying risk factors. We also conducted a joint/combined (cross-classifcation) analysis to assess potential interaction between the dietary and lifestyle OBS in relation to mortality risk. Finally, to our knowledge, our study is the largest prospective cohort study to report OBS-mortality risk associations.

Our study also had several limitations. First, for our primary analyses, all OBS components were derived from information collected at baseline (1986). Some participants' diet and lifestyle exposures could have changed somewhat during follow-up. However, it is expected that in a prospective cohort study, changes occur before a participant has their outcome, thus resulting in non-diferential error that would be expected to attenuate associations. Consistent with expectations, in our sensitivity analyses, we found that the estimated OBS-mortality risk associations were similar (i) at follow-up intervals of 5, 10, 15, 20, and 25 years, and (ii) when the 2004 follow-up exposure data were incorporated two ways. Taken together, it would appear that changes in diet or lifestyle during follow-up likely would have afected our estimates only minimally. Second, food frequency questionnaires have known limitations (e.g., limited food choices and recall error); however, in a prospective study, these types of error are also considered non-diferential. Third, physical activity assessment in the IWHS was based on only two questions; however, physical activity alone was previously reported to be statistically signifcantly inversely associated with mortality risk [[24](#page-12-11)] and other outcomes in the IWHS [\[75,](#page-13-21) [76](#page-13-22)]. Finally, all participants in our study were older white Iowa women, which might limit the generalizability of our fndings.

In conclusion, the results from this prospective study, combined with those from previous studies, suggest that a predominance of antioxidant over pro-oxidant lifestyle exposures may be associated with lower all-cause, all-CVD, and all-cancer mortality risk. Although the associations of our dietary OBS with mortality in our study population of older, white, Iowa women were null, our fndings suggested that those who jointly had high dietary and lifestyle OBS may have been at particularly low risk for all-cause mortality, a fnding that needs to be investigated in other study populations. Other needed future research includes (i) the development of OBS comprising components weighted by their strengths of association with a panel of valid, reliably measured biomarkers of oxidative stress in a population with strong diversity of exposures, and (ii) more investigations of associations of OBS with mortality and various chronic disease outcomes in other populations.

**Supplementary Information** The online version contains supplementary material available at<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00394-021-02557-5>.

**Author contributions** All authors contributed to the study conception and design, data interpretation, and manuscript writing. R.M.B. and Z.M. were primarily responsible for the project conception and design. D.L. and A.E.P. collected the data. Z.M. and R.M.B. were primarily responsible for analyzing and interpreting the data and writing the manuscript. R.M.B. supervised the analysis project and manuscript writing. All authors read and approved the fnal manuscript.

**Funding** This work was supported by the National Cancer Institute at the National Institutes of Health under Grant R01 CA039742, and the Wilson P. and Anne W. Franklin Foundation. None of the funding agencies had any role in the conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, or interpretation of the data; or preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript.

**Availability of data and material** Data from this study are available upon application to DeAnn Lazovich, PhD, MPH, Division of Epidemiology and Community Health, University of Minnesota, 1300 S 2nd St., Room 300 West Bank Office Building, Minneapolis, MN 55,454.

#### **Declarations**

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare no confict of interest.

**Ethics approval** The study was approved by the Minnesota Institutional Review Board (IRB), and the current analysis was approved by the Emory University IRB.

**Consent to participate** All participants provided written informed consent.

**Code availability** The code supporting this current study is available from the corresponding author upon request.

## **References**

- <span id="page-11-0"></span>1. Global status report on noncommunicable diseases 2014 (2014) World Health Organization
- <span id="page-11-1"></span>2. Schottker B, Brenner H, Jansen EH et al (2015) Evidence for the free radical/oxidative stress theory of ageing from the CHANCES consortium: a meta-analysis of individual participant data. BMC Med 13:300.<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-015-0537-7>
- 3. Salminen A, Ojala J, Kaarniranta K et al (2012) Mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress activate infammasomes: impact on the aging process and age-related diseases. Cell Mol Life Sci 69:2999–3013.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00018-012-0962-0>
- <span id="page-11-2"></span>4. Schottker B, Saum KU, Jansen EH et al (2015) Oxidative stress markers and all-cause mortality at older age: a population-based cohort study. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 70:518–524. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1093/gerona/glu111) [doi.org/10.1093/gerona/glu111](https://doi.org/10.1093/gerona/glu111)
- <span id="page-11-3"></span>5. Storz G, Imlayt JA (1999) Oxidative stress. Curr Opin Microbiol 2:188–194
- <span id="page-11-4"></span>6. Sies H (1997) Oxidative stress: oxidants and antioxidants. Exp Physiol 82:291–295
- <span id="page-11-5"></span>7. Gao X, Gao X, Zhang Y et al (2019) Oxidative stress and epigenetic mortality risk score: associations with all-cause mortality among elderly people. Eur J Epidemiol 34:451–462. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-019-00493-7) [org/10.1007/s10654-019-00493-7](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-019-00493-7)
- <span id="page-11-8"></span>8. Kjaer LK, Cejvanovic V, Henriksen T et al (2017) Cardiovascular and all-cause mortality risk associated with urinary excretion of 8-oxoGuo, a biomarker for RNA oxidation, in patients with Type 2 Diabetes: A Prospective Cohort Study. Diabetes Care 40:1771– 1778. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc17-1150>
- <span id="page-11-9"></span>9. Masia M, Padilla S, Fernandez M et al (2016) Oxidative stress predicts all-cause mortality in HIV-infected patients. PLoS One 11:e0153456.<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0153456>
- <span id="page-11-6"></span>10. Xuan Y, Gao X, Holleczek B et al (2018) Prediction of myocardial infarction, stroke and cardiovascular mortality with urinary biomarkers of oxidative stress: Results from a large cohort study. Int J Cardiol 273:223–229. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2018.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2018.08.002) [08.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2018.08.002)
- <span id="page-11-7"></span>11. Aune D, Keum N, Giovannucci E et al (2018) Dietary intake and blood concentrations of antioxidants and the risk of cardiovascular disease, total cancer, and all-cause mortality: a systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis of prospective studies. Am J Clin Nutr 108:1069–1091.<https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/nqy097>
- <span id="page-12-0"></span>12. Dash C, Goodman M, Flanders WD et al (2013) Using pathway-specifc comprehensive exposure scores in epidemiology: application to oxidative balance in a pooled case-control study of incident, sporadic colorectal adenomas. Am J Epidemiol 178:610–624. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwt007>
- <span id="page-12-12"></span>13. Dash C, Bostick RM, Goodman M et al (2015) Oxidative balance scores and risk of incident colorectal cancer in a US prospective cohort study. Am J Epidemiol 181:584–594. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwu318) [1093/aje/kwu318](https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwu318)
- <span id="page-12-2"></span>14. Goodman M, Bostick RM, Dash C et al (2007) Hypothesis: oxidative stress score as a combined measure of pro-oxidant and antioxidant exposures. Ann Epidemiol 17:394–399. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annepidem.2007.01.034) [org/10.1016/j.annepidem.2007.01.034](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annepidem.2007.01.034)
- <span id="page-12-1"></span>15. Goodman M, Bostick RM, Dash C et al (2008) A summary measure of pro- and anti-oxidant exposures and risk of incident, sporadic, colorectal adenomas. Cancer Causes Control 19:1051– 1064.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-008-9169-y>
- <span id="page-12-3"></span>16. Hernandez-Ruiz A, Garcia-Villanova B, Guerra-Hernandez E et al (2019) A review of a priori defned oxidative balance scores relative to their components and impact on health outcomes. Nutrients.<https://doi.org/10.3390/nu11040774>
- <span id="page-12-4"></span>17. Terry P, Lagergren J, Ye W et al (2000) Antioxidants and cancers of the esophagus and gastric cardia. Int J Cancer 87:750–754
- <span id="page-12-5"></span>18. Wright ME, Mayne ST, Stolzenberg-Solomon RZ et al (2004) Development of a comprehensive dietary antioxidant index and application to lung cancer risk in a cohort of male smokers. Am J Epidemiol 160:68–76. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwh173>
- <span id="page-12-6"></span>19. Slattery ML, John EM, Torres-Mejia G et al (2014) Angiogenesis genes, dietary oxidative balance and breast cancer risk and progression: the Breast Cancer Health Disparities Study. Int J Cancer 134:629–644. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.28377>
- <span id="page-12-7"></span>20. Kong SY, Goodman M, Judd S et al (2015) Oxidative balance score as predictor of all-cause, cancer, and noncancer mortality in a biracial US cohort. Ann Epidemiol 25(256–262):e251. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annepidem.2015.01.004) [doi.org/10.1016/j.annepidem.2015.01.004](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annepidem.2015.01.004)
- <span id="page-12-8"></span>21. Van Hoydonck PG, Temme EH, Schouten EG (2002) A dietary oxidative balance score of vitamin C, β-Carotene and iron intakes and mortality risk in male smoking Belgians. Nutr J 132:756–761
- <span id="page-12-9"></span>22. Folsom A, Kaye S, Potter J et al (1989) Association of incident carcinoma of the endometrium with body weight and fat distribution in older women: early fndings of the Iowa Women's Health Study. Cancer Res 49:6828–6831
- <span id="page-12-10"></span>23. Munger R, Folsom A, Kushi L et al (1992) Dietary assessment of older Iowa women with a food frequency questionnaire: nutrient intake, reproducibility, and comparison with 24-hour dietary recall interviews. Am J Epidemiol 136:192–200
- <span id="page-12-11"></span>24. Kushi L, Fee R, Folsom A et al (1997) Physical activity and mortality in postmenopausal women. J Am Med Assoc 277:1287–1292
- <span id="page-12-13"></span>25. Kadiiska MB, Gladen BC, Baird DD et al (2005) Biomarkers of oxidative stress study II: are oxidation products of lipids, proteins, and DNA markers of CCl4 poisoning? Free Radic Biol Med 38:698–710.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2004.09.017>
- 26. Kadiiska MB, Gladen BC, Baird DD et al (2005) Biomarkers of oxidative stress study III. Efects of the nonsteroidal anti-infammatory agents indomethacin and meclofenamic acid on measurements of oxidative products of lipids in CCl4 poisoning. Free Radic Biol Med 38:711–718. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbio](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2004.10.024) [med.2004.10.024](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2004.10.024)
- 27. Milne GL, Musiek ES, Morrow JD (2008) F2-Isoprostanes as markers of oxidative stressin vivo: An overview. Biomarkers 10:10–23. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13547500500216546>
- <span id="page-12-14"></span>28. Czerska M, Zielinski M, Gromadzinska J (2016) Isoprostanes - A novel major group of oxidative stress markers. Int J Occup Med Environ Health 29:179–190. [https://doi.org/10.13075/ijomeh.](https://doi.org/10.13075/ijomeh.1896.00596) [1896.00596](https://doi.org/10.13075/ijomeh.1896.00596)
- <span id="page-12-15"></span>29. Gray R (1988) A class of K-sample tests for comparing the cumulative incidence of a competing risk. Ann Stat 16:1141–1154
- <span id="page-12-16"></span>30. Shaper AG, Wannamethee G, Walker M (1988) Alcohol and mortality in British men: explaining the U-shaped curve. The Lancet 332:1267–1273
- <span id="page-12-17"></span>31. Rao AV, Ray MR, Rao LG (2006) Lycopene. Adv Food Nutr Res. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1043-4526\(06\)51002-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1043-4526(06)51002-2)
- <span id="page-12-18"></span>32. Rao AV, Rao LG (2007) Carotenoids and human health. Pharmacol Res 55:207–216. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phrs.2007.01.012>
- <span id="page-12-19"></span>33. Kojo S (2004) Vitamin C: basic metabolism and its function as an index of oxidative stress. Curr Med Chem 11:1041–1064. [https://](https://doi.org/10.2174/0929867043455567) [doi.org/10.2174/0929867043455567](https://doi.org/10.2174/0929867043455567)
- <span id="page-12-20"></span>34. Burton G, Ingold K (1989) Vitamin E as an in vitro and in vivo antioxidant. Ann N Y Acad Sci 570:7–22
- <span id="page-12-21"></span>35. Rayman MP (2005) Selenium in cancer prevention: a review of the evidence and mechanism of action. Proc Nutr Soc 64:527–542. <https://doi.org/10.1079/pns2005467>
- <span id="page-12-22"></span>36. Takahashi M, Tsuboyama-Kasaoka N, Nakatani T et al (2002) Fish oil feeding alters liver gene expressions to defend against PPARα activation and ROS production. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 282:G338-348
- <span id="page-12-23"></span>37. van Beelen VA, Aarts JM, Reus A et al (2006) Diferential induction of electrophile-responsive element-regulated genes by n-3 and n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids. FEBS Lett 580:4587–4590. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.febslet.2006.07.028>
- <span id="page-12-24"></span>38. Fraga CG (2007) Plant polyphenols: how to translate their in vitro antioxidant actions to in vivo conditions. IUBMB Life 59:308– 315.<https://doi.org/10.1080/15216540701230529>
- 39. Silva MM, Santos MR, Caroço G et al (2009) Structure-antioxidant activity relationships of favonoids: A Re-examination. Free Radical Res 36:1219–1227. [https://doi.org/10.1080/198-10715](https://doi.org/10.1080/198-1071576021000016472) [76021000016472](https://doi.org/10.1080/198-1071576021000016472)
- 40. Menaa F, Badole S, Menaa B et al (2012) Polyphenols, promising therapeutics for infammatory diseases. Bioactive food as dietary interventions for arthritis and related infammatory diseases, bioactive food in chronic disease states, 1st edn. Academic Press, Cambridge, pp 421-428.
- <span id="page-12-25"></span>41. Menaa F, Menaa A, Tréton J (2014) Polyphenols against skin aging. In; Polyphenols in Human Health and Disease. Elsevier, pp 819–830
- <span id="page-12-26"></span>42. Ji LL, Gomez-Cabrera MC, Vina J (2006) Exercise and hormesis: activation of cellular antioxidant signaling pathway. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1067:425–435.<https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1354.061>
- <span id="page-12-27"></span>Tappel A (2007) Heme of consumed red meat can act as a catalyst of oxidative damage and could initiate colon, breast and prostate cancers, heart disease and other diseases. Med Hypotheses 68:562–564.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mehy.2006.08.025>
- <span id="page-12-28"></span>44. Toborek M, Barger SW, Mattson MP et al (1996) Linoleic acid and TNF-alpha cross-amplify oxidative injury and dysfunction of endothelial cells. J Lipid Res 37:123–135
- <span id="page-12-29"></span>45. Ghosh S, Kewalramani G, Yuen G et al (2006) Induction of mitochondrial nitrative damage and cardiac dysfunction by chronic provision of dietary omega-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids. Free Radic Biol Med 41:1413–1424. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freer](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2006.07.021) [adbiomed.2006.07.021](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2006.07.021)
- <span id="page-12-30"></span>46. Venturi M, Hambly RJ, Glinghammar B et al (1997) Genotoxic activity in human faecal water and the role of bile acids: a study using the alkaline comet assay. Carcinogenesis 18:2353–2359
- <span id="page-12-31"></span>47. Rosignoli P, Fabiani R, De Bartolomeo A et al (2008) Genotoxic efect of bile acids on human normal and tumour colon cells and protection by dietary antioxidants and butyrate. Eur J Nutr 47:301–309.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00394-008-0725-8>
- <span id="page-12-32"></span>48. Furukawa S, Fujita T, Shimabukuro M et al (2004) Increased oxidative stress in obesity and its impact on metabolic syndrome. J Clin Investig 114:1752–1761.<https://doi.org/10.1172/jci21625>
- <span id="page-13-0"></span>49. Vaart HV, Postma DS, Timens W et al (2004) Acute efects of cigarette smoke on infammation and oxidative stress: a review. Thorax 59:713–721.<https://doi.org/10.1136/thx.2003.012468>
- <span id="page-13-1"></span>50. Thaiparambil JT, Vadhanam MV, Srinivasan C et al (2007) Time-dependent formation of 8-oxo-deoxyguanosine in the lungs of mice exposed to cigarette smoke. Chem Res Toxicol 20:1737–1740
- <span id="page-13-2"></span>51. Wu D, Zhai Q, Shi X (2006) Alcohol-induced oxidative stress and cell responses. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 21(Suppl 3):S26-29. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1746.2006.04589.x>
- <span id="page-13-3"></span>52. Das SK, Vasudevan DM (2007) Alcohol-induced oxidative stress. Life Sci 81:177–187.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lfs.2007.05.005>
- <span id="page-13-4"></span>53. Ford ES, Bergmann MM, Boeing H et al (2012) Healthy lifestyle behaviors and all-cause mortality among adults in the United States. Prev Med 55:23–27. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.04.016) [04.016](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.04.016)
- <span id="page-13-9"></span>54. Petersen KE, Johnsen NF, Olsen A et al (2015) The combined impact of adherence to fve lifestyle factors on all-cause, cancer and cardiovascular mortality: a prospective cohort study among Danish men and women. Br J Nutr 113:849–858. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114515000070) [10.1017/S0007114515000070](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114515000070)
- 55. Veronese N, Li Y, Manson JE et al (2016) Combined associations of body weight and lifestyle factors with all cause and cause specifc mortality in men and women: prospective cohort study. BMJ 355:i5855. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.i5855>
- <span id="page-13-6"></span>56. Lee I, Kim S, Kang H (2019) Lifestyle risk factors and all-cause and cardiovascular disease mortality: data from the korean longitudinal study of aging. Int J Environ Res Public Health. [https://](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16173040) [doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16173040](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16173040)
- <span id="page-13-5"></span>57. Loef M, Walach H (2012) The combined efects of healthy lifestyle behaviors on all cause mortality: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Prev Med 55:163–170. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.06.017) [ypmed.2012.06.017](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.06.017)
- <span id="page-13-7"></span>58. Knoops KTB, Groot LCPGMd, Kromhout D et al (2004) Mediterranean diet, lifestyle factors, and 10-year mortality in elderly european men and women. JAMA 294:1433–1439
- <span id="page-13-10"></span>59. Ding D, Rogers K, van der Ploeg H et al (2015) Traditional and emerging lifestyle risk behaviors and all-cause mortality in middle-aged and older adults: evidence from a large population-based Australian Cohort. PLoS Med 12:e1001917. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001917) [1371/journal.pmed.1001917](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001917)
- 60. Hulsegge G, Looman M, Smit HA et al (2016) Lifestyle changes in young adulthood and middle age and risk of cardiovascular disease and all-cause mortality: The Doetinchem Cohort Study. J Am Heart Assoc.<https://doi.org/10.1161/JAHA.115.002432>
- <span id="page-13-8"></span>61. Yun JE, Won S, Kimm H et al (2012) Efects of a combined lifestyle score on 10-year mortality in Korean men and women: a prospective cohort study. BMC Public Health 12:673
- <span id="page-13-11"></span>62. Shivappa N, Godos J, Hebert JR et al (2018) Dietary infammatory index and cardiovascular risk and mortality-a meta-analysis. Nutrients.<https://doi.org/10.3390/nu10020200>
- <span id="page-13-15"></span>63. Garcia-Arellano A, Martinez-Gonzalez MA, Ramallal R et al (2019) Dietary infammatory index and all-cause mortality in large cohorts: The SUN and PREDIMED studies. Clin Nutr 38:1221–1231. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2018.05.003>
- 64. Park SY, Kang M, Wilkens LR et al (2018) The dietary infammatory index and all-cause, cardiovascular disease, and cancer mortality in the multiethnic Cohort Study. Nutrients. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.3390/nu10121844) [org/10.3390/nu10121844](https://doi.org/10.3390/nu10121844)
- <span id="page-13-12"></span>65. Bonaccio M, Di Castelnuovo A, Pounis G et al (2016) A score of low-grade infammation and risk of mortality: prospective fndings from the Moli-sani study. Haematologica 101:1434–1441. <https://doi.org/10.3324/haematol.2016.144055>
- <span id="page-13-13"></span>66. Shivappa N, Steck SE, Hurley TG et al (2014) Designing and developing a literature-derived, population-based dietary infammatory index. Public Health Nutr 17:1689–1696. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980013002115) [10.1017/S1368980013002115](https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980013002115)
- <span id="page-13-14"></span>67. Byrd DA, Judd SE, Flanders WD et al (2019) Development and validation of novel dietary and lifestyle infammation scores. J Nutr 149:2206–2218.<https://doi.org/10.1093/jn/nxz165>
- <span id="page-13-16"></span>68. Whalen KA, Judd S, McCullough ML et al (2017) Paleolithic and mediterranean diet pattern scores are inversely associated with allcause and cause-specifc mortality in adults. J Nutr 147:612–620. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.116.241919>
- 69. Mitrou PN, Kipnis V, Thiébaut ACM et al (2007) Mediterranean dietary pattern and prediction of all-cause mortality in a US population: results from the NIH-AARP Diet and Health Study. Arch Intern Med 167:2461–2468. [https://doi.org/10.1001/archinte.167.](https://doi.org/10.1001/archinte.167.22.2461) [22.2461](https://doi.org/10.1001/archinte.167.22.2461)
- 70. Tognon G, Lissner L, Saebye D et al (2014) The Mediterranean diet in relation to mortality and CVD: a Danish cohort study. Br J Nutr 111:151–159.<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114513001931>
- <span id="page-13-17"></span>71. Tognon G, Nilsson LM, Lissner L et al (2012) The Mediterranean diet score and mortality are inversely associated in adults living in the subarctic region. J Nutr 142:1547–1553. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.112.160499) [3945/jn.112.160499](https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.112.160499)
- <span id="page-13-18"></span>72. Cheng E, Um CY, Prizment A et al (2018) Associations of evolutionary-concordance diet, Mediterranean diet and evolutionaryconcordance lifestyle pattern scores with all-cause and causespecifc mortality. Br J Nutr [https://doi.org/10.1017/S000711451](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114518003483) [8003483](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114518003483)
- <span id="page-13-19"></span>73. Cheng E, Um CY, Prizment AE et al (2018) Evolutionary-concordance lifestyle and diet and mediterranean diet pattern scores and risk of incident colorectal cancer in iowa women. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 27:1195–1202. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-17-1184) [1158/1055-9965.EPI-17-1184](https://doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-17-1184)
- <span id="page-13-20"></span>74. Morris BJ, Willcox BJ, Donlon TA (2019) Genetic and epigenetic regulation of human aging and longevity. Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Basis Dis 1865:1718–1744. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2018.08.039) [2018.08.039](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2018.08.039)
- <span id="page-13-21"></span>75. Sinner P, Folsom AR, Harnack L et al (2006) The association of physical activity with lung cancer incidence in a cohort of older women: the Iowa Women's Health Study. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 15:2359–2363. [https://doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.](https://doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-06-0251) [EPI-06-0251](https://doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-06-0251)
- <span id="page-13-22"></span>76. A B, LC H, CM V, et al (2006) Recreational physical activity and risk of postmenopausal breast cancer based on hormone receptor status. Arch Intern Med 166:2478–2483