

Dairy products, dietary calcium and the risk of inflammatory bowel disease: results from a European prospective cohort investigation

Jorrit L Opstelten (MD, MSc)¹, Max Leenders (PhD)¹, Vincent K Dik (MD, PhD)¹, Simon SM Chan (MB BChir, PhD)^{2,3}, Fiona DM van Schaik (MD, PhD)¹, Kay-Tee Khaw (MB BChir)⁴, Robert Luben (Bsc)⁴, Göran Hallmans (MD, PhD)⁵, Pontus Karling (PhD)⁶, Stefan Lindgren (MD, PhD)^{7,8}, Olof Grip (MD, PhD)⁷, Timothy J Key (DPhil)⁹, Francesca L Crowe (PhD)⁹, Heiner Boeing (PhD)¹⁰, Manuela M Bergmann (PhD)¹⁰, Kim Overvad (MD, PhD)¹¹, Domenico Palli (MD, MPH)¹², Giovanna Masala (MD, MPH)¹², Antoine Racine (MD, PhD)^{13,14,15}, Franck Carbonnel (MD, PhD)^{13,14,15}, Marie-Christine Boutron-Ruault (MD, PhD)^{13,14}, Anne Tjønneland (MD, PhD, DMSc)¹⁶, Anja Olsen (PhD)¹⁶, Vibeke Andersen (MD, PhD)¹⁷, Rudolf Kaaks (PhD)¹⁸, Verena A Katzke (PhD)¹⁸, Rosario Tumino (MD, MSc)¹⁹, Antonia Trichopoulou (MD, PhD)²⁰, Peter D Siersema (MD, PhD)¹, H Bas Bueno-de-Mesquita (MD, MPH, PhD)^{1,21,22,23}, Andrew R Hart (MB ChB, MD)^{2,3}, Bas Oldenburg (MD, PhD)¹

Affiliations:

1. Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, the Netherlands
2. Department of Medicine, Norwich Medical School, University of East Anglia, Norwich, United Kingdom
3. Department of Gastroenterology, Norfolk and Norwich University Hospital NHS Trust, Norwich, United Kingdom

4. Strangeways Research Laboratory, Institute of Public Health, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom
5. Department of Public Health and Clinical Medicine, Nutritional Research, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden
6. Department of Public Health and Clinical Medicine, GI Unit, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden
7. Department of Clinical Sciences, Lund University, Malmö, Sweden
8. Gastroenterology-Hepatology Division, University Hospital Skane, Malmö, Sweden
9. Cancer Epidemiology Unit, Nuffield Department of Population Health, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom
10. Department of Epidemiology, German Institute of Human Nutrition Potsdam-Rehbruecke (DIfE), Potsdam, Germany
11. Department of Public Health, Section for Epidemiology, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark
12. Molecular and Nutritional Epidemiology Unit, ISPO Cancer Research and Prevention Center, Florence, Italy
13. French Institute of Health and Medical Research (INSERM), Centre for Research in Epidemiology and Population Health, Institut Gustave Roussy, Paris, France
14. Université Paris Sud, UMRS 1018, Paris, France
15. Department of Gastroenterology, Bicêtre University Hospital, Assistance Publique des Hôpitaux de Paris, Paris, France

16. Diet, Genes and Environment, Danish Cancer Society Research Center, Copenhagen, Denmark
17. Institute of Regional Research - Center Sønderjylland, University of Southern Denmark, Odense, Denmark
18. Division of Cancer Epidemiology, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Heidelberg, Germany
19. Cancer Registry and Histopathology Unit, "Civic - M.P. Arezzo" Hospital, Ragusa, Italy
20. Department of Hygiene and Epidemiology, WHO Collaborating Center for Food and Nutrition Policies, University of Athens, Athens, Greece
21. Department for Determinants of Chronic Diseases, National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), Bilthoven, the Netherlands
22. Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, London, United Kingdom
23. Department of Social and Preventive Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Corresponding author:

B Oldenburg, MD, PhD

Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology

University Medical Center Utrecht

P.O. Box 85500

3508 GA Utrecht, the Netherlands

E-mail: boldenbu@umcutrecht.nl

Conflicts of Interest and Source of Funding:

Jorrit L Opstelten is financially supported by an unrestricted grant from Dr. Falk Pharma. The coordination of the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) study is financially supported by the European Commission (DG-SANCO) and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC). The national cohorts are supported by the Danish Cancer Society (Denmark); Ligue contre le Cancer, Institut Gustave Roussy, Mutuelle Générale de l'Éducation Nationale, French Institute of Health and Medical Research (INSERM) (France); German Cancer Aid, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) (Germany); Hellenic Health Foundation (Greece); the Italian Association for Research on Cancer, Compagnia San Paolo (Italy); Dutch Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sports, Dutch Prevention Funds, LK Research Funds, Dutch ZON (Zorg Onderzoek Nederland), World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF), Statistics Netherlands (the Netherlands); Swedish Cancer Society, Swedish Scientific Council and Regional Government of Skane and Västerbotten (Sweden); Cancer Research United Kingdom C8221/A19170, Medical Research Council MR/M012190/1 (United Kingdom).

ABSTRACT

Background: Dairy products may be involved in the etiology of inflammatory bowel disease by modulating gut microbiota and immune responses, but data from epidemiological studies examining this relationship are limited. We investigated the association between prediagnostic intake of these foods and dietary calcium and the subsequent development of Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC).

Methods: In total, 401,326 participants were enrolled in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition cohort. At recruitment, consumption of total and specific dairy products (milk, yogurt, cheese) and dietary calcium was measured using validated food frequency questionnaires. Cases developing incident CD (n=110) or UC (n=244) during follow-up were matched with four controls. Conditional logistic regression analyses were used to calculate odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs), adjusted for total energy intake and smoking.

Results: Compared with the lowest quartile, the ORs for the highest quartile of total dairy products and dietary calcium intake were 0.61 (95% CI 0.32-1.19, $p_{\text{trend}}=0.19$) and 0.63 (95% CI 0.28-1.42, $p_{\text{trend}}=0.23$) for CD and 0.80 (95% CI 0.50-1.30, $p_{\text{trend}}=0.40$) and 0.81 (95% CI 0.49-1.34, $p_{\text{trend}}=0.60$) for UC. Compared with nonconsumers, individuals consuming milk had significantly reduced odds of CD (OR 0.30, 95% CI 0.13-0.65) and nonsignificantly reduced odds of UC (OR 0.85, 95% CI 0.49-1.47).

Conclusions: Milk consumption may be associated with a decreased risk of developing CD, although a clear dose-response relationship was not established. Further studies are warranted to confirm this possible protective effect.

Keywords: dairy products, calcium, etiology, Crohn's disease, ulcerative colitis

Introduction

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is characterized by recurrent inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract and comprises two main conditions: Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC). Both chronic disorders are considered to result from an impaired immune response to gut microbiota in genetically predisposed individuals, but the exact etiology remains unclear.^{1,2} Although over 160 susceptibility loci for IBD have been identified,³ the limited concordance rates in identical twins highlight the importance of environmental risk factors.⁴⁻⁶ The changing epidemiology of IBD, with both a rise in the incidence in industrialized countries over the last century and the recent disease emergence in developing countries,^{7,8} suggests that westernization of lifestyle, including dietary changes, may contribute to the etiology of CD and UC.^{9,10}

Dairy products are common components of a western diet and are being increasingly consumed in developing nations.¹¹ These milk-based foods constitute an important source of fats, proteins and dietary calcium,¹² and could be implicated in the development of IBD by modulating effects on intestinal microbiota and immune responses. Both molecular and clinical studies suggest that dairy nutrients are inversely associated with low-grade inflammation and affect key cytokines in the pathogenesis of IBD, such as tumor necrosis factor alpha.^{13,14} However, milk-derived saturated fats may promote a rise in inflammatory markers by influencing cytokine gene expression.¹³ Alternatively, consumption of (fermented) milk products may have a significant impact on the composition of gut microbes, such as lactic acid bacteria, which may result in disparate effects on intestinal inflammation.¹⁵⁻¹⁸

Despite plausible biological mechanisms linking dairy products to the etiology of IBD, there are few epidemiological studies which have examined the relationship between these foods and the development of either CD or UC.¹⁹ An ecological study has reported a strong positive association between the intake of milk proteins and the incidence of CD in Japan.²⁰ However, several retrospective case-control studies have documented either no or small inverse associations between dairy products and IBD, but may have been subject to selection bias and recall bias in the assessment of presymptomatic diet.²¹⁻²⁴ A single prospective study in a French cohort of women has reported no association, although the sample size was relatively small and the risks for CD and UC were not separately assessed.²⁵ In view of the inconsistent findings of previous investigations and the lack of large prospective studies, we aimed to explore the association between the intake of total and individual dairy products and dietary calcium and incident CD and UC in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) cohort.

Materials and Methods

Study population

The EPIC cohort study was designed to investigate the relationship between diet and the incidence of cancer and chronic diseases, the methods of which have been previously described.²⁶ In this study, participants were from a subcohort (EPIC-IBD study), namely 401,326 initially healthy men and women (aged 20-80 years) recruited from twelve centers in Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (UK) and Sweden between 1991 and 1998.²⁷ Participants were selected from the general population in all centers, apart from France (women in a health insurance scheme for teachers), Utrecht, the Netherlands (women in a breast cancer screening program) and Oxford, UK (nationwide members of vegetarian societies and readers of health food magazines). At baseline, information on age, gender, diet, smoking and physical activity was collected in self-administered questionnaires. Anthropometric measurements were mainly taken by qualified health professionals or in few centers obtained through participants' self-reports.

Dietary assessment

The habitual diet of participants, during the year before recruitment, was assessed by self-completion of validated country-specific food frequency questionnaires (FFQs), composed of approximately 200 food items and nine frequency categories of intake (never to several times per day). The FFQs were validated against a standard 24-hour recall questionnaire in all centers and a Spearman correlation coefficient of 0.68 was documented for the intake of dairy products.²⁸ National databases of food composition were used to calculate the daily intakes of

specific dairy foods (in grams) and total energy (in kilocalories). Subjects with a reported total energy intake in either the lowest or highest 1% values across the distribution of the whole cohort were excluded, as these values were considered implausible.

Individual dairy products consisted of milk, yogurt and cheese. Milk included all the subtypes (whole fat, skimmed, semi-skimmed and unspecified). Yogurt comprised natural and flavored products, and fermented milk in Denmark and Sweden. Cheese was either fresh, fermented or matured cheese products. Other types of dairy products, including milk containing beverages, curd, cream desserts and milk-based puddings, dairy creams and milk for coffee and creamers, were not analyzed individually, as for these there were relatively low intakes and incomplete measurements across centers. The total dairy products intake was recorded as the sum of all types of dairy products. The standardized EPIC Nutrient Database was used to calculate the daily consumption of dietary calcium (in milligrams), which did not consider the use of calcium supplements.²⁹

Follow-up & identification of cases and controls

After recruitment, participants were followed up until at least June 2004 and in some centers until December 2010. Individuals who developed a new diagnosis of CD or UC were identified using population-based disease registries (Denmark, Italy, the Netherlands and Sweden) or follow-up questionnaires (France, Germany, Greece and the Oxford cohort (UK)). Incident IBD cases within the Norfolk cohort (UK) were identified by several methods, including follow-up questionnaires, inpatient records and histology databases. The medical notes of all potential cases were reviewed by local physicians to confirm the diagnoses and to provide information on

the diagnostic examinations and disease extent. Individuals with prevalent CD or UC at enrolment were excluded, as were those diagnosed with IBD less than 18 months after recruitment to minimize the risk of reverse causation. In this case-control study nested within a prospective cohort, each case was matched with four randomly selected unique controls for gender, age at recruitment (± 6 months), date of recruitment (± 3 months) and center. Controls were selected by incidence density matching to ensure a similar duration of follow-up for all individuals. None of the controls had CD, UC, indeterminate or microscopic colitis.

Statistical analysis

The dietary items of interest were compared between cases and controls using the appropriate statistical test according to the nature of their distributions. The intakes of total and individual dairy products and dietary calcium were divided into quartiles based on the distribution across the matched controls. Conditional logistic regression analyses were performed to assess the associations between the intake of dairy products and dietary calcium and the development of CD and UC separately by calculating odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs). In the multivariable analysis, total energy intake and smoking status (categorized into never smoked, past smoker and current smoker) were added to the model. Energy adjustment was included to adjust for factors affecting dietary intake, namely body size, metabolic rate and physical activity,³⁰ whereas adjustment for smoking status was included because previous epidemiological studies consistently demonstrated associations between this factor and IBD.³¹ Trends across quartiles were computed using the median value of each as a continuous variable. The analyses were repeated, including additional adjustment for socioeconomic status using

educational level (categorized into none, primary school, technical school, secondary school and higher education), as this factor has been associated with both IBD and the consumption of dairy products.³²⁻³⁵ Excluding adjustment for energy intake was performed to assess whether the effects of dairy products or dietary calcium intake might be due to substitution for consumption of other food items. When possible, the risk of CD or UC was evaluated for consumers as compared to nonconsumers of dairy products. Stratified analyses were performed to assess whether associations differed according to disease site (ileal or colonic CD, left sided or extensive UC). In further analyses, cases diagnosed within 3 years or more than 5 years after enrolment respectively were excluded to further reduce the possibility of reverse causation and to evaluate if the intake of these dietary items may be related more closely to the development of IBD and time of diagnosis. Two-sided p-values below 0.05 were considered statistically significant. All analyses were performed using SPSS version 21 (IBM Corp., Armonk, New York, United States).

Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was obtained at each center and all participants gave written informed consent.

Results

During follow-up, 110 participants (72.7% female) developed CD at a mean age of 55.4 years and 244 participants (57.4% female) developed UC at a mean age of 57.5 years (Table 1). The median time between recruitment and diagnosis was 5.1 years (range 1.5-14.3 years) and 4.8 years (range 1.5-15.7 years) for CD and UC, respectively. Colonic disease was the commonest disease site in CD (32.7%), whereas left-sided colitis (involvement limited up to the splenic flexure) was the commonest phenotype in UC (35.2%). The completeness of the dietary data was 100.0% for CD cases, 98.0% for UC cases and 99.5% for each matched control group. The median intakes of total and specific dairy products and dietary calcium were similar between CD or UC cases and their controls.

There were no statistically significant associations according to quartiles or trends between the intake of total or individual dairy products or dietary calcium and the development of either CD or UC in the univariable analysis (Tables 2 and 3). In the multivariable analysis, adjusted for total energy intake and smoking status, the effect sizes were similar and no significant associations were observed. However, compared with nonconsumers, individuals consuming milk had significantly decreased odds of developing CD (OR 0.30, 95% CI 0.13-0.65) but did not have significantly reduced odds of developing UC (OR 0.85, 95% CI 0.49-1.47) (Table 4). Additional adjustment for educational level or excluding adjustment for total energy intake did not alter the magnitude of any effect sizes (data not shown). There was a significant inverse association according to quartiles between milk intake and colonic CD ($p_{\text{trend}}=0.07$) in the multivariable analysis, whereas no associations according to disease localization were observed for UC or other dairy products for CD (Table 5). The analyses in cases diagnosed within 5 years of

recruitment (CD: n=53; UC: n=127) showed significant inverse associations according to quartiles between total dairy products and milk intake and CD (median time between recruitment and diagnosis 3.2 years), with adjusted ORs for the highest versus lowest quartile of 0.36 (95% CI 0.15-0.90, $p_{\text{trend}}=0.03$) and 0.33 (95% CI 0.14-0.80, $p_{\text{trend}}=0.07$), respectively (Table 6). No associations were detected in UC or for other dietary items in CD. When including only those who were diagnosed more than 3 years after recruitment (CD: n=85; UC: n=199), there was a significant inverse association of milk intake with UC (median time between recruitment and diagnosis 5.6 years) (adjusted OR for the highest versus lowest quartile 0.64, 95% CI 0.38-1.07, $p_{\text{trend}}=0.04$) and inverse but nonsignificant associations for other dietary items in UC or CD (Table 6).

Discussion

In this large European prospective cohort study, no associations according to quartiles or trends between the intake of either total or specific dairy products (milk, yogurt, cheese) or dietary calcium and the development of incident CD or UC were demonstrated. However, individuals consuming milk were found to have significantly decreased odds of developing CD as compared to nonconsumers. Milk intake was inversely associated with colonic CD. Furthermore, there was an inverse association with total dairy products and milk intake in those diagnosed with CD less than five years following recruitment and with milk consumption in those diagnosed with UC more than three years after enrolment.

Considering that ORs were less than one in most higher quartiles for both CD and UC, a protective threshold effect of dairy products and dietary calcium between the first and second quartile may exist. Accordingly, relatively low intakes of these dietary items might already have a beneficial effect, but the statistical power was insufficient to confirm this. The significant findings in CD cases diagnosed within five years of enrolment may suggest the influence of reverse causation. Information on the date of onset of symptoms attributed to IBD were not available. However, the median diagnostic delay for CD and UC is 5-9 months and 3-4 months, respectively.³⁶⁻³⁹ As individuals who developed IBD within 18 months after inclusion were excluded in this study, it seems unlikely that this affected our results importantly, although the possibility that individuals gave up milk products due to symptoms before diagnosis cannot be fully excluded. In those diagnosed more than three years following recruitment, nonsignificant but inverse associations were seen in CD and a significant inverse association between milk intake and UC was detected.

Evidence for a causal association are the plausible biological mechanisms, large effect sizes and temporality of the data collection. Several studies have reported that milk products potentially reduce intestinal inflammation, possibly by a direct modulation of inflammatory processes or by shaping of the gut microbiota.¹³⁻¹⁶ This may, for example, be related to vitamin D or result from an increased abundance of bacteria producing butyrate, an important colonic energy source, which is thought to interfere with the colitogenic environment.^{15,40,41} A recent experimental study in mice, however, demonstrated that consumption of milk-derived saturated fats results in the development of colitis through changes of the microbial community by altering the bile acid composition.¹⁷ This indicates that different dairy components, such as fats or proteins, may exert disparate effects, emphasizing that the exact mechanisms underlying these associations are still unclear. Overall, our findings suggest that milk consumption may have a predominantly protective effect in the etiology of CD, although an apparent dose-response relationship was not established.

Previous epidemiological studies examining foods produced from milk and the development of CD or UC are sparse and show conflicting results. Some investigations report that a higher intake of milk is associated with a moderately increased risk of IBD,^{20,42} but other studies find an inverse association or none.²¹⁻²⁵ These inconsistent findings could be explained by different study populations or by the different dietary items measured, such as milk proteins or unpasteurized milk, but might also have resulted from methodological limitations. Most investigations were retrospective case-control studies, which are prone to measurement bias for diet as these rely on patients recalling their diet before diagnosis, which may be many years previously.²¹⁻²⁴ The only prospective investigation published to date could not detect a clear

association between IBD and dairy products (milk and cheese), but included only women and had a small sample size with 77 IBD cases.²⁵

The strength of our study was the prospective design, which minimizes recall and selection bias as dietary intakes were measured prior to diagnoses and both cases and controls were drawn from the same baseline population. Furthermore, the habitual diet of participants was assessed using validated FFQs that reflected local dietary habits. To ensure the validity of cases, all diagnoses were confirmed by gastroenterologists and participants with indeterminate or microscopic colitis were excluded. Follow-up bias is likely to be negligible, because the number of cases identified was similar to that expected.⁴³ The odds of developing CD and UC were assessed separately with adjustments for covariates, such as smoking. Finally, the study population comprised both men and women from various European countries and the consumption of dairy products was in line with national surveys,⁴⁴ thereby increasing the generalizability of our results.

This study also had several limitations. FFQs may have a degree of misclassification and the assessment of the habitual diet of participants included just one measurement, which could have attenuated the effect sizes and possibly have masked small associations. Although participants may have altered their dietary habits during follow-up, previous studies demonstrated that general food patterns of adults remain relatively stable over time and we investigated categories (quartiles) of intake rather than specific amounts.^{45,46} Data on the intake of calcium supplements were not available, although in another investigation within EPIC regular use of such supplements was reported in less than 10% of German participants.⁴⁷ Most patients in our study had late-onset disease, with IBD being diagnosed at an age of 50 years or older.

This may explain the relative predominance of colonic involvement in CD and limited disease extent in UC and might hamper the generalizability of these data to the whole IBD population.^{48,49} Furthermore, despite the relatively large sample size, our study might lack statistical power for subgroup analyses or to detect small effect sizes. Lastly, residual confounding, namely other etiological factors related to dairy products intake and the true causal exposure, could not be excluded in this observational study.

In conclusion, although no clear dose-response relationship was observed, we found that individuals consuming milk have significantly reduced odds of developing CD as compared to nonconsumers with the effects occurring in those with colonic disease and diagnosed less than 5 years after recruitment. Further studies are needed to confirm these findings and to identify any underlying mechanisms.

Acknowledgments

Jorrit L Opstelten is financially supported by an unrestricted grant from Dr. Falk Pharma. The coordination of the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) study is financially supported by the European Commission (DG-SANCO) and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC). The national cohorts are supported by the Danish Cancer Society (Denmark); Ligue contre le Cancer, Institut Gustave Roussy, Mutuelle Générale de l'Éducation Nationale, French Institute of Health and Medical Research (INSERM) (France); German Cancer Aid, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) (Germany); Hellenic Health Foundation (Greece); The Italian Association for Research on Cancer, Compagnia San Paolo (Italy); Dutch Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sports, Dutch Prevention Funds, LK Research Funds, Dutch ZON (Zorg Onderzoek Nederland), World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF), Statistics Netherlands (the Netherlands); Swedish Cancer Society, Swedish Scientific Council and Regional Government of Skane and Västerbotten (Sweden); Cancer Research UK C8221/A19170, Medical Research Council MR/M012190/1 (United Kingdom).

References

1. Abraham C, Cho JH. Inflammatory bowel disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;361:2066-2078.
2. Scharl M, Rogler G. Inflammatory bowel disease pathogenesis: what is new? *Curr Opin Gastroenterol*. 2012;28:301-309.
3. Jostins L, Ripke S, Weersma RK, et al. Host-microbe interactions have shaped the genetic architecture of inflammatory bowel disease. *Nature*. 2012;491:119-124.
4. Halfvarson J, Bodin L, Tysk C, et al. Inflammatory bowel disease in a Swedish twin cohort: a longterm follow-up of concordance and clinical characteristics. *Gastroenterology*. 2003;124:1767-1773
5. Jess T, Riis L, Jespersgaard C, et al. Disease concordance, zygosity, and NOD2/CARD15 status: follow-up of a population-based cohort of Danish twins with inflammatory bowel disease. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2005;100:2486-2492.
6. Halfvarson J. Genetics in twins with Crohn's disease: less pronounced than previously believed? *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2011;17:6-12.
7. Thia KT, Loftus EV Jr, Sandborn WJ, et al. An update on the epidemiology of inflammatory bowel disease in Asia. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2008;103:3167-3182.
8. Molodecky NA, Soon IS, Rabi DM, et al. Increasing incidence and prevalence of the inflammatory bowel diseases with time, based on systematic review. *Gastroenterology*. 2012;142:46-54.
9. Bernstein CN, Shanahan F. Disorders of a modern lifestyle: reconciling the epidemiology of inflammatory bowel diseases. *Gut*. 2008;57:1185-1191.

10. Ng SC, Bernstein CN, Vatn MH, et al. Geographical variability and environmental risk factors in inflammatory bowel disease. *Gut*. 2013;62:630-649.
11. Milk and milk products. Website Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2015. Available at: <http://www.fao.org/agriculture/dairy-gateway/milk-and-milk-products/en/#.VOWh7PkrdcY>. Accessed February 2015.
12. Hjartåker A, Lagiou A, Slimani N, et al. Consumption of dairy products in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) cohort: data from 35 955 24-hour dietary recalls in 10 European countries. *Public Health Nutr*. 2002;5:1259-1271.
13. Da Silva MS, Rudkowska I. Dairy nutrients and their effect on inflammatory profile in molecular studies. *Mol Nutr Food Res*. 2015;59:1249-1263.
14. Labonté MÈ, Couture P, Richard C, et al. Impact of dairy products on biomarkers of inflammation: a systematic review of randomized controlled nutritional intervention studies in overweight and obese adults. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2013;97:706-717.
15. Veiga P, Gallini CA, Beal C, et al. Bifidobacterium animalis subsp. lactis fermented milk product reduces inflammation by altering a niche for colitogenic microbes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2010;107:18132-18137.
16. Santos Rocha C, Lakhdari O, Blottière HM, et al. Anti-inflammatory properties of dairy Lactobacilli. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2012;18:657-666.
17. Devkota S, Wang Y, Musch MW, et al. Dietary-fat-induced taurocholic acid promotes pathobiont expansion and colitis in Il10^{-/-} mice. *Nature*. 2012;5:487:104-108.

18. Ceapa C, Wopereis H, Rezaiki L, et al. Influence of fermented milk products, prebiotics and probiotics on microbiota composition and health. *Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol.* 2013;27:139-155.
19. Hou JK, Abraham B, El-Serag H. Dietary intake and risk of developing inflammatory bowel disease: a systematic review of the literature. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2011;106:563-573.
20. Shoda R, Matsueda K, Yamato S, et al. Epidemiologic analysis of Crohn disease in Japan: increased dietary intake of n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids and animal protein relates to the increased incidence of Crohn disease in Japan. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1996;63:741-745.
21. Sakamoto N, Kono S, Wakai K et al. Dietary risk factors for inflammatory bowel disease: a multicenter case-control study in Japan. *Inflamm Bowel Dis.* 2005;11:154-163.
22. Epidemiology Group of the Research Committee of Inflammatory Bowel Disease in Japan. Dietary and other risk factors of ulcerative colitis. A case-control study in Japan. *J Clin Gastroenterol.* 1994;19:166-171.
23. Bernstein CN, Rawsthorne P, Cheang M, Blanchard JF. A population-based case control study of potential risk factors for IBD. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2006;101:993-1002.
24. Abubakar I, Myhill DJ, Hart AR, et al. A case-control study of drinking water and dairy products in Crohn's disease—further investigation of the possible role of *Mycobacterium avium paratuberculosis*. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2007;165:776-783.
25. Jantchou P, Morois S, Clavel-Chapelon F et al. Animal protein intake and risk of inflammatory bowel disease: the E3N Prospective Study. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2010;105:2195-201.

26. Riboli E, Hunt KJ, Slimani N, et al. European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC): study populations and data collection. *Public Health Nutr.* 2002;5:1113-1124.
27. Chan SS, Luben R, van Schaik F, et al. Carbohydrate intake in the etiology of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis. *Inflamm Bowel Dis.* 2014;20:2013-2021.
28. Kaaks R, Slimani N, Riboli E. Pilot phase studies on the accuracy of dietary intake measurements in the EPIC project: overall evaluation of results. *European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. Int J Epidemiol.* 1997;26 Suppl 1:S26-36.
29. Slimani N, Deharveng G, Unwin I, et al. The EPIC nutrient database project (ENDB): a first attempt to standardize nutrient databases across the 10 European countries participating in the EPIC study. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2007;61:1037-1056.
30. Willett WC, Howe GR, Kushi LH. Adjustment for total energy intake in epidemiologic studies. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1997;65 Suppl 4:1220S-1228S.
31. Mahid SS, Minor KS, Soto RE, et al. Smoking and inflammatory bowel disease: a meta-analysis. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2006;81:1462-1471.
32. Sonnenberg A. Disability from inflammatory bowel disease among employees in West Germany. *Gut.* 1989;30:367-370.
33. Aamodt G, Jahnsen J, Bengtson MB, et al. Geographic distribution and ecological studies of inflammatory bowel disease in southeastern Norway in 1990-1993. *Inflamm Bowel Dis.* 2008;14:984-991.

34. Prättälä RS, Groth MV, Oltersdorf US, et al. Use of butter and cheese in 10 European countries: a case of contrasting educational differences. *Eur J Public Health*. 2003;13:124-132.
35. Sanchez-Villegas A, Martínez JA, Prättälä R, et al. A systematic review of socioeconomic differences in food habits in Europe: consumption of cheese and milk. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2003;57:917-929.
36. Romberg-Camps MJ, Hesselink-van de Kruijs MA, Schouten LJ, et al. Inflammatory Bowel Disease in South Limburg (the Netherlands) 1991-2002: Incidence, diagnostic delay, and seasonal variations in onset of symptoms. *J Crohns Colitis*. 2009;3:115-124.
37. Vavricka SR, Spigaglia SM, Rogler G, et al. Systematic evaluation of risk factors for diagnostic delay in inflammatory bowel disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2012;18:496-505.
38. Nahon S, Lahmek P, Lesgourgues B, et al. Diagnostic delay in a French cohort of Crohn's disease patients. *J Crohns Colitis*. 2014;8:964-969.
39. Zaharie R, Tantau A, Zaharie F, et al. Diagnostic delay in Romanian patients with inflammatory bowel disease: risk factors and impact on the disease course and need for surgery. *J Crohns Colitis*. 2015 Nov 20. [Epub ahead of print]
40. Ananthkrishnan AN, Khalili H, Higuchi LM, et al. Higher predicted vitamin D status is associated with reduced risk of Crohn's disease. *Gastroenterology*. 2012;142:482-489.
41. Palmer MT, Weaver CT. Linking vitamin D deficiency to inflammatory bowel disease. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2013;19:2245-56.
42. Wang ZW, Ji F, Teng WJ, et al. Risk factors and gene polymorphisms of inflammatory bowel disease in population of Zhejiang, China. *World J Gastroenterol*. 2011;17:118-122.

43. Shivananda S, Lennard-Jones J, Logan R, et al. Incidence of inflammatory bowel disease across Europe: is there a difference between north and south? Results of the European Collaborative Study on Inflammatory Bowel Disease (EC-IBD). *Gut*. 1996;39:690-697.
44. The EFSA Comprehensive European Food Consumption Database. Website European Food Safety Authority. 2015. Available at:
<http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/datexfoodcdb/datexfooddb.htm>. Accessed June 2015.
45. Goldbohm RA, van 't Veer P, van den Brandt PA, et al. Reproducibility of a food frequency questionnaire and stability of dietary habits determined from five annually repeated measurements. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 1995;49:420-429.
46. Newby PK, Weismayer C, Akesson A, et al. Long-term stability of food patterns identified by use of factor analysis among Swedish women. *J Nutr*. 2006;136:626-633.
47. Li K, Kaaks R, Linseisen J, Rohrmann S. Dietary calcium and magnesium intake in relation to cancer incidence and mortality in a German prospective cohort (EPIC-Heidelberg). *Cancer Causes Control*. 2011;22:1375-1382.
48. Heresbach D , Alexandre JL , Bretagne JF et al. Crohn's disease in the over-60 age group: a population based study . *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2004 ;16:657–664.
49. Quezada SM , Cross RK . Association of age at diagnosis and ulcerative colitis phenotype. *Dig Dis Sci*. 2012;57:2402-2407.

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of CD and UC cases and their controls

	CD cases (n = 110)	Controls (n = 440)	UC cases (n = 244)	Controls (n = 976)
Female (n, %)	80 (72.7)	320 (72.7)	140 (57.4)	560 (57.4)
Age (years) at recruitment (mean, SD)	50.1 (10.8)	50.1 (10.7)	51.7 (10.5)	51.7 (10.5)
Age (years) at diagnosis (mean, SD)	55.4 (11.1)	-	57.5 (10.3)	-
Distribution of CD (n, %)				
L1, ileal	31 (28.1)	-	-	-
L2, colonic	36 (32.7)	-	-	-
L3, ileocolonic	28 (25.4)	-	-	-
L4, isolated upper GI disease	1 (1.0)	-	-	-
unknown	14 (12.7)	-	-	-
Distribution of UC (n, %)				
E1, ulcerative proctitis	-	-	55 (22.5)	-
E2, left sided colitis	-	-	86 (35.2)	-
E3, extensive colitis	-	-	63 (25.8)	-
extent not determined	-	-	40 (16.4)	-
Smoking status (n, %)				
never smoked	41 (37.3)	209 (47.5)	65 (26.6)	418 (42.8)
past smoker	28 (25.5)	121 (27.5)	91 (37.3)	281 (28.8)
current smoker	38 (34.5)	107 (24.3)	82 (33.6)	255 (26.1)
unknown	3 (2.7)	3 (0.7)	6 (2.5)	22 (2.3)

Table 1 (continued)

	CD cases (n = 110)	Controls (n = 440)	UC cases (n = 244)	Controls (n = 976)
Total energy intake (kcal/day) (median, range)	2117.4 (789.6-4312.4)	2071.7 (900.1-4795.4)	2151.7 (906.8-4866.2)	2075.3 (697.4-5789.6)
Total dairy products intake (g/day) (median, range)	280.9 (0.0-1131.4)	321.3 (18.6-1672.4)	290.6 (0.6-1729.4)	306.7 (6.4-2500.9)
Milk intake (g/day) (median, range)	102.2 (0.0-914.6)	137.6 (0.0-1524.9)	129.5 (0.0-1482.5)	158.3 (0.0-2341.1)
Yogurt intake (g/day) (median, range)	35.9 (0.0-480.0)	45.6 (0.0-455.1)	23.6 (0.0-452.6)	30.2 (0.0-615.3)
Cheese intake (g/day) (median, range)	30.6 (0.0-160.5)	31.0 (0.0-248.2)	30.0 (0.0-245.4)	30.0 (0.0-678.2)
Dietary calcium intake (mg/day) (median, range)	981.5 (273.1-4031.4)	959.1 (277.3-2852.9)	1000.8 (262.1-2572.1)	988.3 (214.5-4719.3)

CD: Crohn's disease; GI: gastrointestinal; UC: ulcerative colitis

There were no significant differences in the dietary variables between CD or UC cases and controls.

Table 2. Odds of CD according to quartiles of dairy product and dietary calcium intake

Dietary item	Quartile of intake (ranges)	Cases	Controls	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR* (95% CI)
Total dairy products (g/day)	1 (0.0-176.9)	36	109	1.00	1.00
	2 (177.0-321.3)	25	110	0.69 (0.38-1.21)	0.69 (0.38-1.24)
	3 (321.4-515.4)	23	110	0.61 (0.34-1.12)	0.55 (0.29-1.04)
	4 (515.5-1672.4)	26	109	0.69 (0.38-1.26)	0.61 (0.32-1.19)
				p trend = 0.30	p trend = 0.19
Milk (g/day)	1 (0.0-21.4)	38	109	1.00	1.00
	2 (21.5-137.6)	21	110	0.53 (0.28-0.98)	0.53 (0.28-1.00)
	3 (137.7-296.0)	23	110	0.55 (0.29-1.05)	0.53 (0.28-1.03)
	4 (296.1-1524.9)	28	109	0.69 (0.38-1.25)	0.61 (0.33-1.16)
				p trend = 0.55	p trend = 0.36
Yogurt (g/day)	1 (0.0-8.4)	31	109	1.00	1.00
	2 (8.5-45.6)	27	110	0.83 (0.44-1.56)	0.81 (0.42-1.56)
	3 (45.7-107.2)	30	110	0.92 (0.50-1.69)	0.97 (0.52-1.81)
	4 (107.3-480.0)	22	109	0.68 (0.36-1.30)	0.78 (0.40-1.52)
				p trend = 0.31	p trend = 0.62
Cheese (g/day)	1 (0.0-16.5)	28	109	1.00	1.00
	2 (16.6-31.0)	27	110	0.95 (0.52-1.73)	0.95 (0.52-1.76)
	3 (31.1-57.5)	29	110	1.03 (0.55-1.93)	0.95 (0.50-1.82)
	4 (57.6-248.2)	26	109	0.93 (0.48-1.80)	0.85 (0.42-1.72)
				p trend = 0.85	p trend = 0.64
Calcium (mg/day)	1 (273.1-730.4)	25	109	1.00	1.00
	2 (730.5-980.0)	30	110	1.20 (0.66-2.17)	1.12 (0.61-2.08)
	3 (980.1-1299.1)	33	110	1.31 (0.73-2.36)	0.97 (0.49-1.89)
	4 (1299.2-4031.4)	22	109	0.87 (0.46-1.65)	0.63 (0.28-1.42)
				p trend = 0.71	p trend = 0.23

CD: Crohn's disease; CI: confidence interval; OR: odds ratio

*adjusted for total energy intake and smoking status

Table 3. Odds of UC according to quartiles of dairy product and dietary calcium intake

Dietary item	Quartile of intake (ranges)	Cases	Controls	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR* (95% CI)
Total dairy products (g/day)	1 (0.0-174.6)	64	243	1.00	1.00
	2 (174.7-306.7)	62	242	0.96 (0.64-1.44)	0.92 (0.60-1.40)
	3 (306.8-477.3)	61	243	0.94 (0.62-1.43)	0.95 (0.61-1.47)
	4 (477.4-2500.9)	52	243	0.80 (0.51-1.24)	0.80 (0.50-1.30)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.31$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.40$
Milk (g/day)	1 (0.0-28.3)	71	243	1.00	1.00
	2 (28.4-158.3)	66	242	0.94 (0.64-1.40)	0.93 (0.62-1.40)
	3 (158.4-294.6)	46	248	0.61 (0.40-0.95)	0.59 (0.37-0.93)
	4 (294.7-2341.1)	56	238	0.78 (0.51-1.20)	0.81 (0.51-1.29)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.22$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.32$
Yogurt (g/day)	1 (0.0-2.5)	63	243	1.00	1.00
	2 (2.6-30.2)	64	246	0.96 (0.63-1.47)	1.03 (0.67-1.59)
	3 (30.3-91.8)	55	240	0.85 (0.55-1.32)	0.88 (0.56-1.40)
	4 (91.9-615.3)	57	242	0.87 (0.57-1.35)	0.95 (0.60-1.48)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.55$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.74$
Cheese (g/day)	1 (0.0-15.8)	66	242	1.00	1.00
	2 (15.9-30.0)	55	244	0.80 (0.54-1.19)	0.78 (0.52-1.18)
	3 (30.1-52.4)	59	242	0.86 (0.57-1.29)	0.84 (0.54-1.29)
	4 (52.5-678.2)	59	243	0.85 (0.54-1.31)	0.83 (0.52-1.32)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.62$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.60$
Calcium (mg/day)	1 (214.5-751.5)	67	243	1.00	1.00
	2 (751.6-988.3)	51	243	0.76 (0.51-1.16)	0.77 (0.50-1.19)
	3 (988.4-1249.3)	66	243	0.99 (0.66-1.47)	1.00 (0.63-1.56)
	4 (1249.4-4719.3)	55	242	0.84 (0.56-1.26)	0.81 (0.49-1.34)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.63$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.60$

CI: confidence interval; OR: odds ratio; UC: ulcerative colitis

*adjusted for total energy intake and smoking status

Table 4. Odds of CD and UC according to milk consumption

Dietary item	Intake	Cases	Controls	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR* (95% CI)
<hr/>					
CD					
Milk	no consumption	20	44	1.00	1.00
	consumption	90	394	0.33 (0.15-0.72)	0.30 (0.13-0.65)
<hr/>					
UC					
Milk	no consumption	27	86	1.00	1.00
	consumption	212	885	0.72 (0.43-1.23)	0.85 (0.49-1.47)

CD: Crohn's disease; CI: confidence interval; OR: odds ratio; UC: ulcerative colitis

*adjusted for total energy intake and smoking status

Table 5. Odds of colonic and ileal CD according to quartiles of milk intake

Dietary item	Quartile of intake (ranges)	Cases	Controls	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR* (95% CI)
Colonic CD					
Milk (g/day)	1 (0.0-21.4)	13	30	1.00	1.00
	2 (21.5-137.6)	6	21	0.68 (0.22-2.13)	0.57 (0.16-2.01)
	3 (137.7-296.0)	8	54	0.26 (0.09-0.80)	0.16 (0.04-0.59)
	4 (296.1-1524.9)	9	38	0.43 (0.15-1.27)	0.23 (0.07-0.83)
			$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.22$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.07$	
Ileal CD					
Milk (g/day)	1 (0.0-21.4)	13	40	1.00	1.00
	2 (21.5-137.6)	3	38	0.24 (0.06-0.92)	0.23 (0.06-0.94)
	3 (137.7-296.0)	7	18	1.19 (0.39-3.59)	1.09 (0.34-3.47)
	4 (296.1-1524.9)	8	28	0.93 (0.32-2.67)	0.89 (0.28-2.82)
			$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.62$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.66$	

CD: Crohn's disease; CI: confidence interval; OR: odds ratio

*adjusted for total energy intake and smoking status

Table 6. Odds of CD in cases diagnosed more than 3 years or within 5 years after enrolment

Dietary item	Quartile of intake (ranges)	Cases	Controls	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR* (95% CI)
CD cases diagnosed >3 years after inclusion					
Total dairy products (g/day)	1 (0.0-176.9)	27	87	1.00	1.00
	2 (177.0-321.3)	16	83	0.62 (0.31-1.24)	0.63 (0.31-1.28)
	3 (321.4-515.4)	21	86	0.77 (0.40-1.50)	0.68 (0.32-1.40)
	4 (515.5-1672.4)	21	84	0.79 (0.40-1.56)	0.72 (0.34-1.53)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.72$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.54$
Milk (g/day)	1 (0.0-21.4)	26	88	1.00	1.00
	2 (21.5-137.6)	16	84	0.63 (0.31-1.29)	0.65 (0.31-1.34)
	3 (137.7-296.0)	21	87	0.82 (0.41-1.66)	0.80 (0.38-1.67)
	4 (296.1-1524.9)	22	81	0.92 (0.45-1.86)	0.84 (0.39-1.78)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.84$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.95$
CD cases diagnosed <5 years after inclusion					
Total dairy products (g/day)	1 (0.0-176.9)	23	53	1.00	1.00
	2 (177.0-321.3)	12	49	0.55 (0.24-1.25)	0.55 (0.24-1.29)
	3 (321.4-515.4)	6	50	0.26 (0.10-0.70)	0.27 (0.10-0.76)
	4 (515.5-1672.4)	12	58	0.44 (0.19-0.98)	0.36 (0.15-0.90)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.05$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.03$
Milk (g/day)	1 (0.0-21.4)	24	48	1.00	1.00
	2 (21.5-137.6)	8	52	0.27 (0.10-0.71)	0.28 (0.10-0.78)
	3 (137.7-296.0)	9	53	0.26 (0.10-0.69)	0.26 (0.09-0.71)
	4 (296.1-1524.9)	12	57	0.38 (0.17-0.86)	0.33 (0.14-0.80)
				$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.10$	$p_{\text{trend}} = 0.07$

CD: Crohn's disease; CI: confidence interval; OR: odds ratio

*adjusted for total energy intake and smoking status