ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Recreational physical activity and ovarian cancer risk in African American women

Sarah E. Abbott¹, Elisa V. Bandera², Bo Qin², Lauren C. Peres¹, Patricia G. Moorman³, Jill Barnholtz-Sloan⁴, Ann G. Schwartz⁵, Ellen Funkhouser⁶, Edward S. Peters⁷, Michele L. Cote⁵, Anthony J. Alberg⁸, Paul Terry⁹, Melissa Bondy¹⁰, Lisa E. Paddock¹¹, Sydnee Crankshaw³, Frances Wang¹², Fabian Camacho¹ & Joellen M. Schildkraut¹

¹Department of Public Health Sciences, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia

²Department of Population Science, Rutgers Cancer Institute of New Jersey, New Brunswick, New Jersey

³Department of Community and Family Medicine, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, North Carolina

⁴Case Comprehensive Cancer Center, Case Western Reserve University School of Medicine, Cleveland, Ohio

⁵Department of Oncology and the Karmanos Cancer Institute Population Studies and Disparities Research Program, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

⁶Division of Preventive Medicine, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, Alabama

⁷Epidemiology Program, Louisiana State University Health Sciences Center School of Public Health, New Orleans, Los Angeles

⁸Hollings Cancer Center and Department of Public Health Sciences, Medical University of South Carolina, Charleston, South Carolina

⁹Department of Medicine, University of Tennessee Medical Center-Knoxville, Knoxville, Tennessee

¹⁰Cancer Prevention and Population Sciences Program, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas

¹¹Cancer Research Program, New Jersey State Cancer Registry, Rutgers Cancer Institute of New Jersey, New Brunswick, New Jersey

¹²Duke Cancer Institute, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, North Carolina

Keywords

African American, ovarian cancer, physical activity

Correspondence

Sarah E. Abbott, Department of Public Health Sciences, University of Virginia, PO Box 800765, 560 Ray C. Hunt Drive, Charlottesville, VA 22903. Tel: +(434) 243 0424; Fax: +(434) 297 6485; E-mail: sea4ws@virginia.edu

Funding Information

This study was funded by the National Cancer Institute (grant number R01CA142081). Additional support was provided by the Metropolitan Detroit Cancer Surveillance System with funding from the National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, and the Department of Health and Human Services (contract number HHSN261201000028C), and the Epidemiology Research Core, supported in part by the National Cancer Institute Center (grant number P30CA22453) to the Karmanos Cancer Institute, Wayne State University School of Medicine.

Received: 24 November 2015; Revised: 21 January 2016; Accepted: 31 January 2016

Cancer Medicine 2016; 5(6):1319-1327

doi: 10.1002/cam4.677

Abstract

The literature on recreational physical activity (RPA) and ovarian cancer risk is inconclusive and most studies of RPA and ovarian cancer have been conducted in white populations. This study is the first to investigate the association between RPA and ovarian cancer in an exclusively African American (AA) population. We analyzed data from an ongoing U.S. population-based, case-control study of AA women, which included 393 women recently diagnosed with invasive epithelial ovarian cancer (IEOC) and 611 controls. A baseline interview assessed RPA frequency, intensity, and duration. Each RPA intensity was assigned a metabolic equivalent of task (MET) value and MET-min/week were calculated. Unconditional multivariable logistic regression was performed to investigate associations between RPA and IEOC risk. Compared with sedentary women, predominantly mild intensity RPA was significantly inversely associated with IEOC risk for women reporting above median (≥297) MET-min/week (odds ratio [OR] = 0.52; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.34, 0.78) and nonsignificantly for <297 MET-min/week (OR = 0.71; 95% CI: 0.44, 1.12). Predominantly moderate intensity RPA was associated with significantly increased risk for women reporting above median (≥540) MET-min/week (OR = 1.51; 95% CI: 1.03, 2.23). Predominantly strenuous intensity RPA was nonsignificantly associated with lower IEOC risk for women reporting above median (≥ 1800) MET-min/ week (OR = 0.72; 95% CI: 0.33, 1.57). The inverse associations for mild and strenuous intensity RPA were most pronounced in obese women (body mass index \geq 30 kg/m²). The findings that mild and strenuous RPA may reduce the risk of IEOC particularly among obese women are difficult to reconcile with the increased risk observed for moderate RPA. Further research is warranted to determine whether these findings are genuine and, if so, their mechanistic basis.

© 2016 The Authors. Cancer Medicine published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Introduction

An inverse association between physical activity and breast, colon, and endometrial cancers has been consistently observed in epidemiologic studies [1, 2]. The literature on the role of recreational physical activity (RPA) in relation to ovarian cancer risk, however, is inconclusive [2]. Seventeen studies have reported inverse associations for total RPA [3-19], although only six observed statistically significant associations [3, 8-10, 13, 17], while five have reported positive associations, one statistically significant [20] and the remainder nonsignificant [21-24]. The results have remained inconsistent even when RPA intensity has specifically been investigated. Several studies have reported increased risk associated with vigorous intensity RPA [6, 19, 21], whereas others observed decreased risk [5, 8, 17, 25]. Most studies [3, 5-8, 10, 14, 16, 19, 23, 25] have reported decreased risk associated with moderate intensity RPA, but a few studies [20, 21] have reported increased risk.

This remains a topic of considerable importance as ovarian cancer survival rates are poor [26] and the role of modifiable lifestyle factors such as physical activity in ovarian cancer prevention is key but is not well understood. At least some of the inconsistency in the evidence may be overcome by improving measurement of physical activity to include the frequency, intensity, and duration of physical activity. More refined measurement of physical activity could lead to new insights as many of the prior studies of this topic have not collected information on all three domains of physical activity [2]. Additionally, many studies have used referent groups that included women reporting low amounts of RPA instead of restricting the referent to sedentary women [2]; this would bias results toward the null. Furthermore, the majority of studies on physical activity and ovarian cancer have been conducted in white populations, although African Americans (AA) exhibit lower levels of physical activity [27] and worse 5-year ovarian cancer survival [28]. The present study uses data from a large population-based case-control study of invasive epithelial ovarian cancer (IEOC) in AA women to examine associations between RPA and risk of IEOC for the first time in an exclusively AA population.

Methods

Study population

The African American Cancer Epidemiology Study (AACES) is an ongoing, population-based case–control study of IEOC in AA women in 11 geographic locations (Alabama, Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Michigan, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas). Institutional review board approval was

obtained from Duke University (the lead institution for the study) and all participating institutions, and informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study. Methods have been described in detail elsewhere [29]. Briefly, eligible cases include AA women between 20 and 79 years of age with newly diagnosed IEOC. Controls are AA women with at least one intact ovary and no history of ovarian cancer, frequency matched to cases on state of residence and 5-year age categories. Participants completed a baseline computerassisted telephone interview, administered by a trained interviewer, which includes detailed questions on demographic characteristics; reproductive, gynecologic and medical history; exogenous hormone use including hormone therapy (HT) and oral contraceptives (OC); family history; and lifestyle characteristics including smoking, alcohol consumption, body size, and physical activity. Food frequency questionnaires, annual follow-up surveys, biospecimens, and medical records are also obtained. Recruitment began in December 2010; as of January 2015, 469 cases and 705 controls completed the full questionnaire. Eligibility was restricted to participants for whom physical activity data and all covariates were available, resulting in a final sample size of 393 cases and 611 controls.

Recreational physical activity

In the baseline interview, participants were asked to selfreport the usual amount of RPA they engaged in each week. Participants were asked to recall their average weekly physical activity 1 year prior to their diagnosis (cases) or during the past year (controls). They were instructed to include only exercise sessions that lasted 10 min or longer which were completed during free time, excluding occupational activity and housework. The interview questions (provided in Table 1), adapted from the International

Table 1. Physical activity questions included in the African American

 Cancer Epidemiology Study questionnaire.

Considering a typical week, how many times on average did you perform the following kinds of exercise?	Examples
Strenuous-intensity exercise where your heart beats rapidly and you sweat	Running, aerobics class, cross-country skiing, vigorous swimming, vigorous bicycling
Moderate-intensity exercise which is not exhausting and you may perspire lightly	Fast walking, tennis, easy bicycling, easy swimming, dancing
Mild-intensity exercise which requires minimal effort and does not make you sweat	Easy walking, yoga, bowling, shuffleboard, golf

Physical Activity Questionnaire [30], asked about strenuous, moderate, and mild intensity exercise, and included examples of each type of activity. Participants reported the times per week they engaged in each type of exercise and the average length of each exercise session. This information was used to calculate total weekly minutes of RPA for each intensity level.

Each intensity level was assigned a metabolic equivalent of task (MET) score according to the International Physical Activity Questionnaire guidelines [30]. METs are a method of expressing the energy costs of different activities as a multiple of resting metabolic rate [31]. MET-min per week [32] were calculated for each participant using the following equation:

MET-min/week = 3.3 METs* (min/week mild intensity RPA)

- + 4.0 METs*(min/week moderate intensity RPA)
- + 8.0 METs*(min/week strenuous intensity RPA).

Statistical analysis

The prevalence of demographic characteristics was calculated and chi-square tests (for categorical variables) and *t*-tests (for continuous variables) were performed to compare the distributions and mean values between cases and controls. Unconditional multivariable logistic regression was employed to estimate the odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) for the association between MET-min/week of RPA and the risk of ovarian cancer. Sedentary participants (0 MET-min/week) were used as the referent group and those reporting any regular weekly physical activity were divided into tertiles according to the distribution of MET-min/week among the controls.

In addition, unconditional multivariable logistic regression was performed to estimate ORs for IEOC risk according to participants' predominant RPA intensity. For this analysis, participants were classified according to the intensity for which they reported the greatest min/week. The majority of participants reported spending at least 50% of their total activity time at one intensity; in the event of a tie between two or more intensities (n = 24), participants were classified according to the higher intensity.

Finally, unconditional multivariable logistic regression was performed to estimate ORs for IEOC risk according to MET-min/week by participants' predominant RPA intensity category, with sedentary participants as the referent for each analysis. For these analyses, participants are categorized according to their predominant RPA intensity but their MET-min/week reflect all reported intensities, thus adjusting for frequency and duration by intensity. MET-min were dichotomized based on the median MET-min/week reported by controls (297 for mild, 540 for moderate, and 1800 for strenuous).

Covariates included in the multivariable analyses as confounders were reference age, defined as age at diagnosis for cases and age at baseline interview for controls (<40, 40-59, >60); study site (Alabama, Louisiana, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Texas, Michigan and Illinois [combined due to sample size and regional similarities], Georgia, and Tennessee [combined due to sample size and regional similarities]); education (high school or less, some post-high school training, college or graduate degree); smoking status (never, current, former); parity (0, 1, 2, 3+); duration of OC use (never, <60 months, 60+ months), ever use of HT (yes/no), body mass index (BMI) (<25, 25–29.9, >30 kg/m²), history of tubal ligation (yes/no); family history of breast or ovarian cancer in a first-degree relative (yes/no); occupational physical activity (mainly sitting, mainly standing/walking, mainly active, do not work outside home), total energy intake (kcal/day), and total RPA (min/week). BMI (<30 and >30 kg/m²) and menopausal status (pre/postmenopausal) were examined as effect modifiers. A sensitivity analysis of serous only cases was conducted. All analyses were performed using SAS version 9.4 (Cary, NC, USA).

Results

Table 2 presents demographic and descriptive characteristics of the study participants. On average, compared to controls, cases were statistically significantly older (mean age 57.3 vs. 54.5 years), had lower parity, were more likely to have a first-degree family history of breast or ovarian cancer and to be former smokers, had fewer months of OC use, and had a higher mean BMI. Cases were also less likely to have had a tubal ligation compared to controls (P = 0.06) and less likely to have received post-high school education (P = 0.06). Total energy intake, occupational physical activity level, and menopausal status did not differ significantly between cases and controls.

Compared with sedentary women, the OR for any RPA in relation to IEOC was 0.79 (95% CI: 0.57, 1.11), and the ORs for tertiles of total RPA in relation to IEOC were 0.78 (95% CI: 0.53, 1.14), 0.80 (95% CI: 0.52, 1.21), and 1.00 (95% CI: 0.58, 1.74) for 1 to <320, 320 to <720, and \geq 720 MET-min/week, respectively (Table 3). A significant inverse association was observed for women who engaged in mild intensity RPA only (OR = 0.60; 95% CI: 0.41, 0.88) and a nonsignificant inverse association was observed for women reporting any strenuous RPA (OR = 0.82; 95% CI: 0.41, 1.64), while a nonsignificant, positive association was observed for women reporting any moderate but no strenuous intensity RPA (OR = 1.08; 95% CI: 0.73, 1.60).

 Table 2. Demographic characteristics of African American women with and without invasive epithelial ovarian cancer, African American Cancer Epidemiology Study 2010–January 2015.

	Cases	Controls	
	n = 393	n = 611	P-
	n (%)	n (%)	value
Mean age (years) (SD) Age (years)	57.3 (10.6)	54.5 (11.6)	<0.01 <0.01
<40	18 (4.6)	69 (11.3)	
40–59	212 (53.9)	336 (55.0)	
60+	163 (41.5)	206 (33.7)	
Education			0.06
High school or less	175 (44.5)	226 (37.0)	
Some post-high school training	103 (26.2)	176 (28.8)	
College or graduate degree	115 (29.3)	209 (34.2)	
Mean body mass index (BMI, kg/m ²) (SD)	33.3 (8.8)	32.2 (8.1)	0.04
BMI (kg/m ²)			0.44
<18.5 (underweight)	5 (1.3)	9 (1.5)	
18.5–24.9 (normal weight)	51 (13.0)	102 (16.7)	
25–29.9 (overweight)	104 (26.5)	152 (24.9)	
≥30 (obese)	233 (59.3)	348 (57.0)	
Parity (no. of live births)			<0.01
0	81 (20.6)	81 (13.3)	
1	80 (20.4)	108 (17.7)	
2	89 (22.7)	165 (27.0)	
3+	143 (36.4)	257 (42.1)	
Tubal ligation			0.06
Yes	136 (34.6)	247 (40.4)	
	257 (65.4)	364 (59.6)	.0.01
Never	112/20.0	122 (20.0)	<0.01
<60 months	115 (20.0)	122 (20.0) 275 (45 0)	
60+ months	120 (30.5)	214 (35.0)	
Ever use of hormone therapy	120 (30.3)	214 (55.0)	0.22
Yes	79 (20,1)	104 (17.0)	0.22
No	314 (79.9)	507 (83.0)	
Family history of breast or ovari relative)	an cancer (first-	degree	0.02
Yes	96 (24.4)	111 (18.2)	
No	297 (75.6)	500 (81.8)	
Menopausal status ¹			0.21
Premenopausal	108 (27.5)	190 (31.2)	
Postmenopausal	285 (72.5)	419 (68.8)	
Smoking status			<0.01
Never	221 (56.2)	350 (57.3)	
Current	42 (10.7)	121 (19.8)	
Former	130 (33.1)	140 (22.9)	
Occupational physical activity			0.30
Mainly sitting	66 (16.8)	118 (19.3)	
Mainly standing or walking	68 (17.3)	81 (13.3)	
Mainly active	63 (16.0)	95 (15.6)	
Do not work outside the	196 (49.9)	317 (51.9)	_
Mean total energy intake (kcal/day) (SD)	1813 (1487)	1756 (1135)	0.52

¹Missing data on menopausal status for two controls.

We further analyzed MET-min/week for above and below the median by participants' predominant RPA intensity (Table 4). Generally, our results do not suggest a doseresponse association. Among participants who performed predominantly mild intensity RPA, we observed inverse associations for <297 and ≥297 MET-min/week (OR = 0.71; 95% CI: 0.44, 1.12 and OR = 0.52; 95% CI: 0.34, 0.78, respectively) versus sedentary women. Of those reporting predominantly strenuous intensity RPA, a nonsignificant inverse association of similar magnitude was observed for those reporting \geq 1800 MET-min/week (OR = 0.72; 95%) CI: 0.33, 1.57) while the association for <1800 MET-min/ week was positive and nonsignificant (OR = 1.09; 95% CI: 0.49, 2.41). ORs greater than 1 were observed for participants reporting predominantly moderate intensity RPA for <540 MET-min/week (OR = 1.22; 95% CI: 0.82, 1.81) and for >540 MET-min/week (OR = 1.51; 95% CI: 1.03, 2.23).

As BMI is a potential effect modifier for the association between RPA and cancer [2], we also stratified analyses by BMI (<30 and \geq 30 kg/m²). Any regular RPA was nonsignificantly inversely associated with IEOC for obese (BMI $>30 \text{ kg/m}^2$) women (OR = 0.79; 95% CI: 0.51, 1.21) but not for women with a BMI $<30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ (OR = 0.99; 95%) CI: 0.54, 1.81) (Table 5). Among obese women, those in the lowest tertile of RPA had the strongest inverse association with IEOC (OR = 0.69; 95% CI: 0.42, 1.13), while the second tertile had a weaker inverse association (OR = 0.91; 95% CI: 0.52, 1.58) and the third tertile had a weak positive association (OR = 1.06; 95% CI: 0.52, 2.19). No trend was observed among women with BMI <30 kg/m² (ORs from 0.83 to 1.04, all nonsignificant). Predominantly mild intensity RPA was significantly inversely associated with IEOC among obese women (OR = 0.53; 95% CI: 0.33, 0.87) and nonsignificantly among nonobese women (OR = 0.87; 95% CI: 0.44, 1.75). Predominantly strenuous intensity RPA was nonsignificantly inversely associated with IEOC among obese women (OR = 0.45; 95% CI: 0.14, 1.51), but not nonobese women (OR = 1.04; 95% CI: 0.39, 2.82). ORs for predominantly moderate intensity RPA were >1 for both obese (OR = 1.35; 95%) CI: 0.80, 2.27) and nonobese women (OR = 1.10; 95%) CI: 0.57, 2.13). Tests for interaction between BMI and RPA were not significant. We conducted analyses stratified by menopausal status but did not observe any substantial differences between pre- and postmenopausal women (data not shown). Analyses restricted to serous only cases (n = 271) were not substantially different from the analyses of all subtypes (data not shown).

Discussion

The present study observed a statistically significant inverse association between predominantly mild-intensity RPA and

	Cases	Controls		
	n (%)	n (%)	OR ¹	95% CI
Any RPA				
Sedentary (0 MET-min/week)	142 (36.1)	198 (32.4)	1.00	Referent
Any RPA (>0 MET-min/week)	251 (63.9)	413 (67.6)	0.79	(0.57, 1.11)
Total RPA, MET-min/week				
Sedentary (0 MET-min/week)	142 (36.1)	198 (32.4)	1.00	Referent
T1 (<320 MET-min/week)	77 (19.6)	136 (22.3)	0.78	(0.53, 1.14)
T2 (320 to <720 MET-min/week)	69 (17.6)	127 (20.8)	0.80	(0.52, 1.22)
T3 (≥720 MET-min/week)	105 (26.7)	150 (24.6)	1.00	(0.58, 1.74)
Predominant RPA intensity				
Sedentary	142 (36.1)	198 (32.4)	1.00	Referent
Mild	79 (20.1)	171 (28.0)	0.60	(0.41, 0.88)
Moderate	147 (37.4)	193 (31.6)	1.08	(0.73, 1.60)
Strenuous	25 (6.4)	49 (8.0)	0.82	(0.41, 1.64)

 Table 3. Odds ratios for the association between MET-min/week and highest reported intensity of RPA and invasive epithelial ovarian cancer, African

 American Cancer Epidemiology Study 2010–January 2015.

RPA, recreational physical activity; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; MET, metabolic equivalent of task.

¹Adjusted for age, study site, education, smoking, tubal ligation, parity, oral contraceptive use, hormone therapy use, body mass index, total energy intake, occupational physical activity, family history of breast or ovarian cancer, and total RPA (min/week).

Table 4. Odds ratios for the assoc	iation between MET-min/week of	RPA by intensity and	invasive epithelial ovariar	n cancer, African Ai	merican Cancer
Epidemiology Study 2010–January	y 2015.				

	Cases	Controls		
MET-min/week	n (%)	n (%)	OR ¹	95% CI
Predominant RPA intensity ²				
Mild				
Sedentary (0 MET-min/week)	142 (64.3)	198 (53.7)	1.00	Referent
<297 MET-min/week	35 (15.8)	65 (17.6)	0.71	(0.44, 1.12)
≥297 MET-min/week	44 (19.9)	106 (28.7)	0.52	(0.34, 0.78)
Moderate				
Sedentary (0 MET-min/week)	142 (49.5)	198 (50.6)	1.00	Referent
<540 MET-min/week	60 (20.9)	91 (23.3)	1.22	(0.82, 1.81)
≥540 MET-min/week	85 (29.6)	102 (26.1)	1.51	(1.03, 2.23)
Strenuous				
Sedentary (0 MET-min/week)	142 (85.5)	198 (80.2)	1.00	Referent
<1800 MET-min/week	11 (6.6)	22 (8.9)	1.09	(0.49, 2.41)
≥1800 MET-min/week	13 (7.8)	27 (10.9)	0.72	(0.33, 1.57)

MET, metabolic equivalent of task; RPA, recreational physical activity; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval.

¹Adjusted for age, study site, education, smoking, tubal ligation, parity, oral contraceptives use, hormone therapy use, body mass index, total energy intake, occupational physical activity, family history of breast or ovarian cancer, and total RPA (min/week).

²A separate regression model was used for each intensity.

IEOC as well as a nonsignificant inverse association for predominantly strenuous intensity. Conversely, a positive association was observed between moderate-intensity RPA and IEOC, which was significant for women reporting above median (\geq 540) MET-min/week. Subgroup analyses revealed that the inverse associations for mild, strenuous, and total RPA were largely concentrated among women with BMI \geq 30 kg/m².

Various biological mechanisms for an association between physical activity and IEOC have been proposed. Physical activity may reduce IEOC risk by reducing BMI; there is evidence of an inverse association between RPA and BMI [2] and studies have observed a direct association between BMI and IEOC risk [2, 33]. However, associations between BMI and IEOC risk differ by histologic subtype and a pooled analysis by the Ovarian Cancer Association Consortium did not find an association with high-grade serous invasive tumors, the most common IEOC subtype [34]. Several hormonal mechanisms have also been hypothesized. Vigorous physical activity has been suggested to reduce IEOC risk by suppressing ovulation in premenopausal women [33]. Some investigators have suggested that

 Table 5. Odds ratios for the association between MET-min/week of RPA and invasive epithelial ovarian cancer stratified by body mass index, African

 American Cancer Epidemiology Study 2010–January 2015.

Body mass index (BMI)									
	<30 kg/m ²			≥30 kg/m ²					
	Cases n (%)	Controls n (%)	OR ¹	95% CI	Cases n (%)	Controls n (%)	OR ¹	95% CI	Interaction <i>P</i> -value ²
Any RPA									
Sedentary (0 MET-min/week)	46 (28.9)	76 (28.9)	1.00	Referent	96 (41.2)	122 (35.1)	1.00	Referent	
Any RPA (>0 MET-min/week)	114 (71.3)	187 (71.1)	0.99	(0.54, 1.81)	137 (58.8)	226 (64.9)	0.79	(0.51, 1.21)	0.35
Tertiles of RPA									
Sedentary (0 MET-min/week)	46 (28.8)	76 (28.9)	1.00	Referent	96 (41.2)	122 (35.1)	1.00	Referent	
T1 (<320 MET-min/ week)	30 (18.8)	56 (21.3)	1.10	(0.57, 2.16)	47 (20.2)	80 (23.0)	0.69	(0.42, 1.13)	0.40
T2 (320 to <720 MET-min/week)	25 (15.6)	53 (21.2)	0.83	(0.39, 1.77)	44 (18.9)	74 (21.3)	0.91	(0.52, 1.58)	0.35
T3 (≥720 MET-min/ week)	59 (36.9)	78 (29.7)	1.04	(0.39, 2.73)	46 (19.7)	72 (20.7)	1.06	(0.52, 2.19)	0.32
Predominant RPA inten	Predominant RPA intensity								
Sedentary	46 (28.8)	76 (28.9)	1.00	Referent	96 (41.2)	122 (35.1)	1.00	Referent	
Mild	31 (19.4)	61 (23.2)	0.87	(0.44, 1.75)	48 (20.6)	110 (31.6)	0.53	(0.33, 0.87)	0.18
Moderate	63 (39.4)	96 (36.5)	1.10	(0.57, 2.13)	84 (36.1)	97 (27.9)	1.35	(0.80, 2.27)	0.22
Strenuous	20 (12.5)	30 (11.4)	1.04	(0.39, 2.82)	5 (2.2)	19 (5.5)	0.45	(0.14, 1.51)	0.12

MET, metabolic equivalent of task; RPA, recreational physical activity; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval.

¹Adjusted for age, study site, education, smoking, tubal ligation, parity, oral contraceptive use, hormone therapy use, BMI, total energy intake, occupational physical activity, family history of breast or ovarian cancer, and total RPA (min/week).

²Test of interaction *P*-value based on pooled analysis.

physical activity reduces the risk of IEOC by reducing endogenous estrogen levels [2, 19]. Conversely, it has been suggested that gonadotropin production is increased in response to reduced circulating estrogens, increasing IEOC risk [2]. Further, Risch [35] has hypothesized that physical activity increases IEOC risk through reduced progesterone levels and increased androgen levels.

Differences in the associations with physical activity have been observed between case–control and prospective studies of physical activity and ovarian cancer, with case– control studies more likely to observe inverse associations and cohort studies more likely to observe null or positive associations [2, 36].

Additional differences in exposure classification across studies make comparison of our results for RPA intensity with prior studies difficult. While AACES distinguished between three levels of intensity, the majority of studies have classified intensity as either moderate or vigorous, with one cohort study additionally assessing nonoccupational walking as a distinct exposure [20]. Many studies have classified all walking as moderate intensity, whereas AACES distinguishes between easy walking (mild intensity) and fast walking (moderate intensity). A recent study of physical activity and IEOC in the Nurses' Health Study and Nurses' Health Study II cohorts by Huang et al. [33] found no association with postmenopausal RPA but found increased risk associated with low and high levels of premenopausal RPA. Huang et al. hypothesized that moderate activity may increase IEOC risk by increasing ovulation in premenopausal women; if true, this could provide support for our observation of increased risk associated with predominantly moderate RPA. The present study's finding of no difference by menopausal status is inconsistent with these results, but due to limitations in sample size it may have been underpowered to detect an association.

A cohort study by Chionh et al. [20] reported nonsignificant increases in ovarian cancer risk for women who reported walking once a week compared with women who reported no walking, a finding that is inconsistent with our statistically significant observation of a 40% lower IEOC risk associated with predominantly mild intensity RPA. However, the study also reported significantly increased risk for those performing "less vigorous" intensity activity one to two times per week (OR = 1.58; 95% CI: 1.01, 2.48) and three or more times per week (OR = 1.62; 95% CI: 1.01, 2.61), comparable with our statistically significant OR of 1.51 for the predominantly moderate intensity group with \geq 540 MET-min/week. A cohort study by Anderson et al. [21] also reported a positive association for women performing moderate-intensity RPA more than four times per week, which was not statistically significant (OR = 1.17; 95% CI: 0.78, 1.75). In contrast, six case–control studies [3, 5–8, 10] and five cohort studies [14, 16, 19, 23, 25] have reported ORs less than 1.0 for moderate intensity RPA, although only two case–control studies [8, 10] and one cohort study [16] were statistically significant.

Our finding of reduced IEOC risk associated with strenuous-intensity RPA is consistent with five case–control studies [3, 5, 8, 10, 19] and one cohort study [18] which have reported reduced risk associated with vigorous-intensity RPA, although only two [5, 10] found statistically significant associations. Conversely, seven cohort studies have reported ORs greater than 1.0 [14, 16, 19–21, 23, 25], although only one [21] was statistically significant.

Given this background of inconsistent evidence, a clearcut explanation is not forthcoming for our observation of reduced IEOC risk associated with mild- and strenuousintensity RPA in obese but not nonobese women. Replication will be needed to determine if these are chance findings, especially with the lack of a monotonic trend as indicated by the differences in ORs for moderate RPA compared with the mild and strenuous categories. If the associations observed in the present study prove to be true, then interventions designed to target RPA in obese AA women may be a valuable preventive strategy as the prevalence of obesity is higher among AA women than among white women [37].

This study has several limitations. Although the baseline questionnaire included examples of each exercise intensity, the intensity categories were not mutually exclusive and it is possible that participants reported exercise intensity inaccurately. The self-reported, retrospective nature of the physical activity data also introduced the possibility of recall bias. To reduce the concern that physical activity habits were influenced by undetected disease, however, the baseline questionnaire asked cases about their physical activity habits 1 year prior to their diagnosis. The lack of more specific information about types of physical activity, which would allow for more precise assignment of MET values, is another limitation. Additionally, the casecontrol design also introduces the possibility of selection bias. It is possible that controls were healthier and more active than the general population, which could bias effect estimates away from the null; it is also likely that participating cases felt better and were therefore more likely to exercise than those who declined to participate.

Despite these limitations, this study has several strengths. AACES is the largest study of IEOC in AA women to

date and this is the first assessment of RPA and IEOC in an exclusively AA population. Another strength is the restriction of referent groups to sedentary participants. Many previous studies have used referent groups combining women reporting low levels of RPA with sedentary participants, which would bias a potential association toward the null [2]. Our study is also among the first to evaluate mild intensity as a distinct intensity category in addition to moderate and vigorous.

We found that mild and strenuous RPA may be associated with reduced risk of IEOC. Furthermore, our data suggest that the inverse associations for mild and strenuous RPA may be more pronounced in obese women. Further research is warranted to determine whether these findings can be consistently replicated, with attention to the physiologic basis for the impact of physical activity on ovarian carcinogenesis.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the AACES interviewers, Christine Bard, LaTonda Briggs, Whitney Franz (North Carolina), and Robin Gold (Detroit). We also acknowledge the individuals responsible for facilitating case ascertainment across the 10 sites including: Jennifer Burczyk-Brown (Alabama); Rana Bayakly and Vicki Bennett (Georgia); the Louisiana Tumor Registry; Natalia Herman and Manisha Narang (New Jersey); Diana Slone, Yingli Wolinsky, Steven Waggoner, Anne Heugel, Nancy Fusco, Kelly Ferguson, Peter Rose, Deb Strater, Taryn Ferber, Donna White, Lynn Borzi, Eric Jenison, Nairmeen Haller, Debbie Thomas, Vivian von Gruenigen, Michele McCarroll, Joyce Neading, John Geisler, Stephanie Smiddy, David Cohn, Michele Vaughan, Luis Vaccarello, Elayna Freese, James Pavelka, Pam Plummer, William Nahhas, Ellen Cato, John Moroney, Mark Wysong, Tonia Combs, Marci Bowling, Brandon Fletcher, (Ohio); Susan Bolick, Donna Acosta, Catherine Flanagan (South Carolina); Martin Whiteside (Tennessee) and Georgina Armstrong and the Texas Registry, Cancer Epidemiology and Surveillance Branch, Department of State Health Services.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

- Friedenreich, C. M., H. K. Neilson, and B. M. Lynch. 2010. State of the epidemiological evidence on physical activity and cancer prevention. Eur J Cancer 46:2593– 2604. Available at: 10.1016/j.ejca.2010.07.028
- 2. Cannioto, R. A., and K. B. Moysich. 2015. Epithelial ovarian cancer and recreational physical activity:

a review of the epidemiological literature and implications for exercise prescription. Gynecol Oncol. 137:559–573. Available at: 10.1016/j.ygyno.2015.03.016

- Lee, A. H., D. Su, M. Pasalich, Y. L. Wong, and C. W. Binns. 2013. Habitual physical activity reduces risk of ovarian cancer: a case–control study in southern China. Prev. Med. 57(Suppl):S31–S33. Available at: http://www. sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0091743512005865 (accessed August 27, 2015).
- Moorman, P. G., L. W. Jones, L. Akushevich, and J. M. Schildkraut. 2011. Recreational physical activity and ovarian cancer risk and survival. Ann. Epidemiol. 21:178–187.
- Rossing, M. A., K. L. Cushing-Haugen, K. G. Wicklund, J. A. Doherty, and N. S. Weiss. 2010. Recreational physical activity and risk of epithelial ovarian cancer. Cancer Causes Control 21:485–491. Available at: http:// www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=28400 64&tool=pmcentrez&rendertype=abstract (accessed August 27, 2015).
- Carnide, N., N. Kreiger, and M. Cotterchio. 2009. Association between frequency and intensity of recreational physical activity and epithelial cancer risk by age period. Eur. J. Cancer Prev. 18:322–330. Available at: http://journals.lww.com/eurjcancerprev/ Abstract/2009/08000/Association_between_frequency_and_ intensity_of.9.aspx (accessed August 27, 2015)
- Olsen, C. M., C. J. Bain, S. J. Jordan, C. M. Nagle, A. C. Green, D. C. Whiteman, et al. 2007. Recreational physical activity and epithelial ovarian cancer: a case-control study, systematic review, and meta-analysis. Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev. 16:2321–2330.
- Pan, S. Y., A.-M. Ugnat, and Y. Mao. 2005. Physical activity and the risk of ovarian cancer: a case-control study in Canada. Int. J. Cancer 117:300–307. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/15898119(accessed August 27, 2015).
- Riman, T., P. Dickman, S. Nilsson, H. Nordlinder, C. M. Magnusson, and I. R. Persson. 2004. Some life-style factors and the risk of invasive epithelial ovarian cancer in Swedish women. Eur. J. Epidemiol. 19:1011–1019. Available at: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10654-004-1633-8 (accessed July 1, 2015).
- Zhang, M., A. H. Lee, and C. W. Binns. 2003. Physical activity and epithelial ovarian cancer risk: a case–control study in China. Int. J. Cancer 105:838–843. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12767071(accessed August 27, 2015).
- Bertone, E. R., P. A. Newcomb, W. C. Willett, M. J. Stampfer, and K. M. Egan. 2002. Recreational physical activity and ovarian cancer in a population-based case-control study. Int. J. Cancer 99:431–436. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11992414 (accessed 27 August 2015).

- Tavani, A., S. Gallus, C. La Vecchia, L. Dal Maso, E. Negri, C. Pelucchi, et al. 2001. Physical activity and risk of ovarian cancer: an Italian case-control study. Int. J. Cancer 91:407–411. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm. nih.gov/pubmed/11169967 (accessed October 29, 2015).
- Cottreau, C. 2000. Physical activity and reduced risk of ovarian cancer. Obstet. Gynecol. 96:609–614. Available at: http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/ S0029784400009728 (accessed August 27, 2015).
- 14. Xiao, Q., H. P. Yang, N. Wentzensen, A. Hollenbeck, and C. E. Matthews. 2013. Physical activity in different periods of life, sedentary behavior, and the risk of ovarian cancer in the NIH-AARP diet and health study. Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev. 22:2000–2008. Available at: http://cebp.aacrjournals.org/ content/22/11/2000 (accessed August 27, 2015).
- Patel, A. V., C. Rodriguez, A. L. Pavluck, M. J. Thun, and E. E. Calle. 2006. Recreational physical activity and sedentary behavior in relation to ovarian cancer risk in a large cohort of US women. Am. J. Epidemiol. 163:709–716. Available at: http://aje. oxfordjournals.org/content/163/8/709.short (accessed August 27, 2015).
- 16. Biesma, R. G., L. J. Schouten, M. J. M. Dirx, R. A. Goldbohm, and P. A. van den Brandt. 2006. Physical activity and risk of ovarian cancer: results from the Netherlands Cohort Study (The Netherlands). Cancer Causes Control 17:109–115. Available at: http://www. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16411060 (accessed August 27, 2015).
- Schnohr, P., M. Grønbaek, L. Petersen, H. O. Hein, and T. I. a. Sørensen. 2005. Physical activity in leisure-time and risk of cancer: 14-year follow-up of 28,000 Danish men and women. Scand. J. Public Health 33:244–249.
- Hannan, L. M., M. F. Leitzmann, James V. J. Lacey, L. H. Colbert, D. Albanes, A. Schatzkin, et al. 2004. Physical activity and risk of ovarian cancer: a prospective cohort study in the United States. Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev. 13:765–770. Available at: http://cebp.aacrjournals.org/content/13/5/765.short (accessed August 27, 2015).
- Bertone, E. R., W. C. Willett, B. A. Rosner, D. Hunter, C. S. Fuchs, F. Speizer, et al. 2001. Prospective study of recreational physical activity and ovarian cancer. J. Natl Cancer Inst. 93:942–948.
- Chionh, F., L. Baglietto, K. Krishnan, D. R. English, R. J. MacInnis, D. M. Gertig, et al. 2010. Physical activity, body size and composition, and risk of ovarian cancer. Cancer Causes Control 21:2183–2194.
- 21. Anderson JP, Ross J a., and Folsom AR. 2004. Anthropometric variables, physical activity, and incidence of ovarian cancer: the Iowa Women's Health Study. Cancer 100:1515–1521.

- 22. Lahmann, P. H., C. Friedenreich, M. Schulz, A. E. Cust, A. Lukanova, R. Kaaks, et al. 2009. Physical activity and ovarian cancer risk: the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev. 18:351–354. Available at: http://cebp.aacrjournals.org/content/18/1/351 (accessed August 27, 2015).
- 23. Weiderpass, E., K. L. Margolis, S. Sandin, T. Braaten, M. Kumle, H.-O. Adami, et al. 2006. Prospective study of physical activity in different periods of life and the risk of ovarian cancer. Int. J. Cancer 118:3153–3160. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/16425259 (accessed August 27, 2015).
- 24. Weiderpass, E., S. Sandin, M. Inoue, T. Shimazu, M. Iwasaki, S. Sasazuki, et al. 2012. Risk factors for epithelial ovarian cancer in Japan - results from the Japan Public Health Center-based Prospective Study cohort. Int. J. Oncol. 40:21–30. Available at: http://www. spandidos-publications.com/ijo/40/1/21/abstract (accessed August 27, 2015).
- 25. Leitzmann, M. F., C. Koebnick, S. C. Moore, K. N. Danforth, L. A. Brinton, A. R. Hollenbeck, et al. 2009. Prospective study of physical activity and the risk of ovarian cancer. Cancer Causes Control 20:765–773. Available at: http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=3434951&tool=pmcentrez&rendert ype=abstract (accessed August 27, 2015).
- Siegel, R., D. Naishadham, and A. Jemal. 2013. Cancer statistics, 2013. CA Cancer J. Clin. 63:11–30. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23335087 (accessed July 11, 2014).
- Tucker, J. M., G. J. Welk, and N. K. Beyler. 2011. Physical activity in U.S.: adults compliance with the Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans. Am. J. Prev. Med. 40:454–461. Available at: http://www.sciencedirect. com/science/article/pii/S0749379711000122 (accessed August 27, 2015).
- Browse the SEER cancer statistics review 1975–2012 [Internet]. Available at: http://seer.cancer.gov/ csr/1975_2012/browse_csr.php?sectionSEL=21&pageSEL=s ect_21_table.08.html (accessed September 10, 2015).
- Schildkraut, J. M., A. J. Alberg, E. V. Bandera, J. Barnholtz-Sloan, M. Bondy, M. L. Cote, et al. 2014. A multi-center population-based case–control study of ovarian cancer in African-American women: the African

American Cancer Epidemiology Study (AACES). BMC Cancer 14:688. Available at: http://www.biomedcentral. com/1471-2407/14/688 (accessed October 19, 2015).

- International physical activity questionnaire[Internet]. Available at: https://sites.google.com/site/theipaq/ (accessed January 15, 2016).
- Jetté, M., K. Sidney, and G. Blümchen. 1990. Metabolic equivalents (METS) in exercise testing, exercise prescription, and evaluation of functional capacity. Clin. Cardiol. 13:555–565. Available at: http://doi.wiley. com/10.1002/clc.4960130809 (accessed October 13, 2015).
- IPAQ scoring protocol international physical activity questionnaire [Internet]. Available at: https://sites.google. com/site/theipaq/scoring-protocol (accessed October 19, 2015).
- 33. Huang, T., A. H. Eliassen, S. E. Hankinson, O. I. Okereke, L. D. Kubzansky, M. Wang, et al. 2015. A prospective study of leisure-time physical activity and risk of incident epithelial ovarian cancer: impact by menopausal status.Int. J. Cancer 138:843–852. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26335147 (accessed December 28, 2015).
- 34. Olsen, C. M., C. M. Nagle, D. C. Whiteman, R. Ness, C. L. Pearce, M. C. Pike, et al. 2013. Obesity and risk of ovarian cancer subtypes: evidence from the Ovarian Cancer Association Consortium. Endocr. Relat. Cancer 20:251–262. Available at: http://erc.endocrinologyjournals.org/content/20/2/251.short (accessed September 10, 2015).
- Risch, H. A. 1998. Hormonal etiology of epithelial ovarian cancer, with a hypothesis concerning the role of androgens and progesterone. J. Natl Cancer Inst. 90:1774–1786. Available at: http://jnci.oxfordjournals.org/ content/90/23/1774.short (accessed August 27, 2015).
- Zhong, S., L. Chen, M. Lv, T. Ma, X. Zhang, and J. Zhao. 2014. Nonoccupational physical activity and risk of ovarian cancer: a meta-analysis. Tumour Biol. 35:11065–11073. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih. gov/pubmed/25095977 (accessed December 30, 2015).
- 37. Flegal, K. M., M. D. Carroll, B. K. Kit, and C. L. Ogden. 2012. Prevalence of obesity and trends in the distribution of body mass index among US adults, 1999–2010. JAMA 307:491–497. Available at: http://jama. jamanetwork.com/article.aspx?articleid=1104933&resultcl ick=1 (accessed July 10, 2014).