

POSTPRINT VERSION

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# 1 Dairy foods and health: an umbrella review of observational studies

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33 **Dairy foods and health: an umbrella review of observational studies**

34

35 **Keywords:** dairy products; milk; cheese; yogurt; butter; evidence; prospective; cohort; meta-  
36 analysis; umbrella review

37

38 **Abstract**

39 Evidence on consumption of dairy foods and human health is mixed. This study aimed to  
40 summarize the level of evidence of dairy consumption on various health outcomes. A systematic  
41 search for meta-analyses was performed: study design, dose-response relationship, heterogeneity  
42 and agreement of results over time, and identification of potential confounding factors were  
43 considered to assess the level of evidence. Convincing and probable evidence of decreased risk of  
44 colorectal cancer, hypertension, and cardiovascular disease, elevated blood pressure and fatal  
45 stroke, respectively, was found for total dairy consumption; possible decreased risk of breast  
46 cancer, metabolic syndrome, stroke, and type-2 diabetes, and increased risk of prostate cancer and  
47 Parkinson's disease was also found. Similar, yet not entirely consistent evidence for individual  
48 dairy products was reported. Among potential confounding factors, geographical localization and  
49 fat content of dairy have been detected. In conclusions, dairy may be part of a healthy diet;  
50 however, additional studies exploring confounding factors are needed to ascertain the potential  
51 detrimental effects suspected.

## 52 **Introduction**

53 Over the last decades, the role of dairy foods in relation to chronic-degenerative non-communicable  
54 diseases, including cardiovascular disease (CVD) (Huth and Park 2012), metabolic disorders  
55 (Abedini et al. 2015, Rice Bradley 2018), bone health (Giganti et al. 2014), and various types of  
56 cancer (Abid et al. 2014), has been investigated in several epidemiological studies and led to the  
57 hypothesis that they might have a positive impact on health (Pereira 2014). However, concerns  
58 regarding their potential harms have been often raised, especially in relation to their content in  
59 saturated fats, which has been the focus of major attentions because of the detrimental effect on  
60 serum lipids, a well-known major cardiovascular risk factor, and hormone dysregulation (i.e.,  
61 effects on growth factors that may increase the risk of certain cancers) (Lin et al. 2018, Siri-Tarino  
62 et al. 2010, Touvier et al. 2015, YuPeng et al. 2015). Despite plenty of studies have been conducted  
63 on this matter, a comprehensive systematic evaluation of the evidence on the association between  
64 dairy products and human health might be useful to provide an overview with consistent and  
65 univocal methodology. Thus, in this study we aimed to investigate the level of evidence for the  
66 association between consumption of total dairy products, as well as individual selected dairy food  
67 groups, on various health outcomes.

## 69 **Methods**

### 70 *Study selection*

71 In order to evaluate the level of evidence on consumption of major food sources of vitamin D, an  
72 umbrella review of existing prospective cohort studies was performed. A systematic search for  
73 research syntheses of different outcomes investigating the association with exposure of fish, dairy  
74 products, and egg intake was conducted in Medline and Embase electronic databases up to January  
75 2017. The search was independently performed by two authors (GG and JG) and any discrepancies  
76 were solved with discussion. Inclusion criterion was meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies or  
77 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) considering dairy product consumption as variable of exposure  
78 and any disease condition as outcome. Exclusion criteria were the following: RCTs exploring the  
79 relation between the aforementioned exposures and intermediary biomarkers of disease (i.e., blood  
80 lipids, blood pressure, etc.) or intermediary clinical conditions (i.e., variation in body weight/BMI,  
81 etc.); and systematic review without quantitative evaluation of the association between exposure  
82 and outcome.

### 84 *Data extraction*

85 From each meta-analysis included, the following information was abstracted: name of the first

86 author and year of publication, outcome, number of studies included in the meta-analysis, study  
87 design of included studies (i.e., case-control/cross-sectional and prospective), total number of  
88 population exposed, number of cases, type of exposure, measure of exposure [including highest  
89 versus lowest (reference) category of exposure or dose-response incremental servings per day  
90 (linear)], effect sizes [risk ratio (RR), odds ratio (OR), or hazard ratio (HR)].

#### 91 *Data evaluation and evidence synthesis*

92 Whenever more than one meta-analysis was conducted on the same outcome, included the same  
93 study design, and the same type of population, concordance for the main outcome of interest,  
94 including direction and magnitude (overlapping confidence interval) of the association was  
95 evaluated. For further analyses, the most recent/exhaustive study was considered. The pooled  
96 analyses of the highest vs. the lowest (reference) category of exposure and dose-response analyses  
97 were evaluated. Direction, magnitude, heterogeneity ( $I^2$ ), and subgroup/stratified analyses for  
98 potential confounding factors were considered to have indication of level of evidence. Criteria used  
99 for evidence categorization were modified from the Joint WHO/FAO Expert Consultation  
100 (Paganoni and Schwarzschild 2017) as shown in Table 1. Briefly, the relation between exposure  
101 and outcomes was categorized as following: suggestive/limited/contrasting evidence, when there  
102 was availability of solely meta-analysis of case-control studies, limited prospective cohort studies  
103 included in meta-analyses ( $n < 3$ ), or evident contrasting results from meta-analyses with the same  
104 level of evidence; possible evidence, when there was availability of meta-analyses with lack of  
105 information on/significant heterogeneity ( $I^2 > 50\%$ ) or identification of potential confounding factors  
106 (i.e., different findings in subgroups); probable association, when there was availability of meta-  
107 analyses of prospective cohort studies with no heterogeneity, no potential confounding factors  
108 identified, and eventual disagreement of results over time reasonably explained (and evidence of  
109 dose-response relation further investigated); convincing association, when there was concordance  
110 between meta-analyses of RCTs and observational studies.

## 111 **Results**

### 112 *Study selection*

113 Out of 894 articles identified through the search strategy and a first selection based on title and  
114 abstract, 101 articles were investigated for further consideration: the exclusion list included 28  
115 articles because including meta-analyses of RCTs ( $n = 8$ ), had different design ( $n = 15$ ), different  
116 exposure ( $n = 2$ ), or different outcomes ( $n = 3$ ). The final selection of articles included 53 studies  
117 (Alexander et al. 2016, Aune et al. 2012, Aune et al. 2015, Aune et al. 2013, Bandera et al. 2007,

118 Bischoff-Ferrari et al. 2011, Boyd et al. 1993, Boyd et al. 2003, Caini et al. 2016, Chen et al. 2015,  
119 Chen et al. 2017, Chen et al. 2007, Chen et al. 2014, de Goede et al. 2015, de Goede et al. 2016,  
120 Dong et al. 2011, Elwood et al. 2004, Gao et al. 2013, Gao et al. 2005, Gijsbers et al. 2016, Guo et  
121 al. 2015, Hu et al. 2014, Huncharek et al. 2008, Huncharek et al. 2009, Jiang et al. 2014, Kim and  
122 Je 2016, Larsson et al. 2006, Li et al. 2016, Li et al. 2011, Liu et al. 2015, Lu et al. 2016, Mao et al.  
123 2011, Mullie et al. 2016, O'Sullivan et al. 2013, Pimpin et al. 2016, Qin et al. 2015, Qin et al. 2005,  
124 Qin et al. 2004, Qin et al. 2007, Ralston et al. 2012, Ralston et al. 2014, Soedamah-Muthu et al.  
125 2011, Soedamah-Muthu et al. 2012, Sun et al. 2014, Tian et al. 2014, Tong et al. 2011, Wang et al.  
126 2016, Wu et al. 2016, Wu and Sun 2016, Xu, Zhang, et al. 2015, Yang et al. 2016, Yu et al. 2016,  
127 Zang et al. 2015) on dairy product.

128

129 *Meta-analyses on dairy product consumption and health outcomes*

130 The characteristics and summary risk estimates for the highest versus the lowest category of total  
131 dairy, milk, cheese, butter, and yogurt on unique outcomes of non-overlapping meta-analyses  
132 including  $\geq 3$  prospective cohort studies are presented in Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4, Figure 5, and  
133 Figure 6, respectively. The characteristics and summary risk estimates by dose of dairy product  
134 consumption evaluated in non-overlapping meta-analyses on total dairy ( $n = 7$ ) (Alexander et al.  
135 2016, Aune et al. 2012, Aune et al. 2015, de Goede et al. 2016, Gijsbers et al. 2016, Soedamah-  
136 Muthu et al. 2012, Zang et al. 2015), milk ( $n = 9$ ) (Aune et al. 2012, Aune et al. 2015, Bischoff-  
137 Ferrari et al. 2011, de Goede et al. 2016, Gijsbers et al. 2016, Jiang et al. 2014, Mullie et al. 2016,  
138 O'Sullivan et al. 2013, Xu, Zhang, et al. 2015), cheese ( $n = 6$ ) (Aune et al. 2012, Aune et al. 2015,  
139 Chen et al. 2014, Gijsbers et al. 2016, Jiang et al. 2014, O'Sullivan et al. 2013), butter ( $n = 1$ )  
140 (Pimpin et al. 2016), and yogurt ( $n = 2$ ) (Aune et al. 2015, Gijsbers et al. 2016) testing for linear  
141 association with unique outcomes are reported in Supplementary Table 1. Meta-analyses on total  
142 dairy consumption and stroke mortality, colorectal cancer, metabolic syndrome, elevated blood  
143 pressure, stroke, CVD, T2DM, and breast cancer reported a statistically significant association with  
144 reduced risk for the highest versus the lowest category of consumption, while those on prostate  
145 cancer and Parkinson's disease reported a significant increased risk (Figure 2); meta-analyses on  
146 milk consumption showed significant decreased risk of cognitive disorders, metabolic syndrome,  
147 colon and colorectal cancer, and elevated blood pressure, while increased risk of prostate and  
148 Parkinson's disease (Figure 3); meta-analyses on cheese consumption showed significant decreased  
149 risk of T2DM, CHD, CVD, and stroke, while increased risk of prostate cancer (Figure 4); meta-  
150 analyses on butter showed no significant results (Figure 5); meta-analyses on yoghurt showed  
151 significant decreased risk of T2DM (Figure 6). Among studies reporting a dose-response analysis,

152 increasing consumption of total dairy was linearly associated with significant decreased risk of  
153 metabolic syndrome, hypertension, breast and colorectal cancers; milk with decreased risk of  
154 colorectal cancer and stroke; cheese with decreased risk of CHD; butter and yoghurt with decreased  
155 risk of T2DM (Supplementary Table 1). However, meta-analyses on stroke risk reported evidence  
156 of significant heterogeneity of results between studies. Furthermore, some studies showed potential  
157 confounding factors that may affect the level of evidence (Supplementary Table 2): total dairy  
158 consumption was associated with decreased risk of stroke (Hu et al. 2014), T2DM (Aune et al.  
159 2013), and breast cancer (Zang et al. 2015) only in women and studies conducted in the US, while  
160 increased risk of Parkinson's disease was reported only in men (Jiang et al. 2014); total dairy and  
161 milk consumption were associated with increased risk of prostate cancer only in studies conducted  
162 in the US (Aune et al. 2015); milk was associated with decreased risk of colorectal cancer only in  
163 men and studies conducted in Europe and US (Aune et al. 2012); cheese was associated with  
164 decreased risk of CVD, CHD and stroke only in women and studies conducted in the US (Chen et  
165 al. 2017); cheese was associated with decreased risk of T2DM only in studies conducted in the US  
166 (Aune et al. 2013). Moreover, meta-analyses on total dairy consumption and T2DM risk, and milk  
167 and colorectal cancer risk showed non-significant associations when the analyses were restricted to  
168 studies adjusting for smoking status. Similarly, meta-analyses on total dairy consumption and  
169 prostate cancer showed non-significant associations when the analyses were restricted to studies  
170 adjusting for alcohol consumption. Among other potential confounding, fat content of dairy foods  
171 has been taken into account in several studies: only the analyses restricted to low-fat dairy showed  
172 significant decreased risk of breast cancer (RR = 0.85, 95% CI: 0.75, 0.96; I2 = 43%) (Zang et al.  
173 2015), CHD (RR = 0.90, 95% CI: 0.82, 0.98; I2 = 0%) (Alexander et al. 2016), elevated blood  
174 pressure (RR = 0.84, 95% CI: 0.74, 0.95; I2 = 38%) (Ralston et al. 2012) and hypertension (RR =  
175 0.96, 95% CI: 0.93, 0.99; I2 = 25%) (Soedamah-Muthu et al. 2012), stroke (RR = 0.90, 95% CI:  
176 0.83, 0.96; I2 = 0%) (Alexander et al. 2016), T2DM (RR = 0.83, 95% CI: 0.76, 0.90; I2 = 0%)  
177 (Aune et al. 2013), while no significant associations were reported for whole/full-fat dairy products.  
178 In contrast, the association between milk consumption and prostate cancer risk showed increased  
179 risk for consumption of low-fat milk (RR = 1.14, 95% CI: 1.05, 1.25; I2 = 51%) and decreased risk  
180 for consumption of whole milk (RR = 0.92, 95% CI: 0.85, 0.99; I2 = 0%) (Aune et al. 2015);  
181 similarly, an increased risk of ovarian cancer has been also detected for consumption of low-fat  
182 milk (RR = 1.35, 95% CI: 1.09, 1.68; I2 = 0%) (Larsson et al. 2006).

183

184 The list and main findings of meta-analyses for outcomes with more than one meta-analysis showed  
185 substantial consistency between results for most of the outcomes. In contrast, a meta-analysis on

186 yoghurt reported decreased risk of breast cancer; two meta-analyses showed decreased risk and null  
187 association of CVD for total dairy and milk consumption (Alexander et al. 2016, Elwood et al.  
188 2004); also a previous study on prostate cancer risk showed null results for total dairy, milk, and  
189 cheese consumption (Huncharek et al. 2008); in contrast, a previous study on stroke (ischaemic)  
190 showed decreased risk for milk consumption (Elwood et al. 2004). We did not detect any particular  
191 flaws or mistakes among meta-analyses and differences are ascribable to updated results.

192

### 193 *Summary of evidence*

194 A summary of variables investigated to assess the strength of the evidence relating dairy products  
195 consumption with various health outcomes is presented in Supplementary Table 4: the summary  
196 evidence is showed in Table 1. There is convincing evidence of association between total dairy  
197 consumption and decreased risk of colorectal cancer and hypertension, probable association with  
198 decreased risk of CVD, elevated blood pressure, and fatal stroke, and possible association with  
199 decreased risk of breast cancer, metabolic syndrome, stroke, and T2DM, while increased risk of  
200 prostate cancer and Parkinson's disease. Among specific types of dairy foods, the strongest  
201 evidence (probable) for decreased risk of elevated blood pressure and metabolic syndrome and  
202 increased risk of Parkinson's disease was associated with milk consumption, while cheese and  
203 butter consumption were associated with possible decreased risk of T2DM; other possible  
204 associations were found for milk and decreased risk of colorectal cancer and cognitive  
205 disorders/increased risk of prostate cancer, yoghurt and decreased risk of T2DM, cheese and  
206 decreased risk of CVD, CHD, and stroke.

207

### 208 **Discussion**

209 In this umbrella review, the existing evidence on dairy foods consumption and various health  
210 outcomes was investigated. Overall, the strongest evidence interested an association with decreased  
211 risk of cardiovascular-related diseases for higher consumption of total dairy foods compared to low;  
212 moreover, a decreased risk of colorectal cancer was also observed. Among the outcomes that  
213 showed potential confounding factors, type of dairy (low-fat vs. whole) may affect T2DM, elevated  
214 blood pressure/hypertension, breast, ovarian, and prostate cancer risk. Some concerns aroused  
215 concerning specific dairy foods, such as milk and cheese, and increased risk of prostate cancer and  
216 Parkinson's disease, respectively.

217

218 There is evidence that consumption of dairy foods may affect long-term cardio-metabolic health:  
219 results from pooled analyses of cohort studies are in line with those reported in this umbrella review

220 (Sluijs et al. 2012). A possible explanation could be the potential effect toward blood pressure, but  
221 this association was significant in particular for milk, rather than other dairy foods. Some key  
222 components such as fats [including mono-unsaturated fatty acids (MUFA)] and proteins (including  
223 casein and whey protein) may play a role in cardiovascular prevention. Among proteins, whey  
224 protein has been associated with several metabolic benefits, including improved blood pressure  
225 control, serum lipid profile, body composition, insulin sensitivity and glucose regulation  
226 (Bjornshave and Hermansen 2014). Dairy products are also a rich source of calcium: there is  
227 evidence associating dietary calcium intake with several metabolic benefits, including regulation of  
228 serum lipids, weight maintenance and body composition, blood pressure regulation, and insulin  
229 sensitivity and glucose metabolism (Muldowney and Kiely 2011). Together with calcium, also  
230 vitamin D (and its active form 1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol) has been shown to play a role in  
231 shaping body composition through regulation of energy metabolism by controlling the expression  
232 of uncoupling proteins, down-regulating leptin, the appetite regulating hormone, and through  
233 inhibition of adipogenic transcription factors and lipid accumulation during adipocyte  
234 differentiation (Abbas 2016). Furthermore, there is mechanistic evidence that vitamin D might  
235 affect blood pressure through regulation of the rennin-angiotensin-aldosterone system and  
236 suppression of parathyroid hormone, which are known mechanisms regulating blood pressure (Min  
237 2013). Finally, its effect in regulating parathyroid hormone and intracellular calcium has been also  
238 associated with modulation of insulin production and release through effects in pancreatic beta cells  
239 and adipocytes (Palomer et al. 2008). An indirect potential effect of vitamin D that may decrease  
240 the metabolic risk is its antioxidant action (Pannu et al. 2016) through inflammatory cytokine gene  
241 expression and secretion from adipocytes and macrophages (Sun and Zemel 2008), regulation of  
242 nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells inhibition, and increased production  
243 of endothelial prostaciline, a prostaglandin with anti-inflammatory activities (Okajima and Harada  
244 2006).

245

246 The risk of another outcome significantly decreased by consumption of dairy foods was colorectal  
247 cancer (especially colon). This finding is in line with previous literature based on a pooled analysis  
248 of ten prospective cohorts (Cho et al. 2004). Protection toward cancer may depend on the effect of  
249 vitamin D and its influence on calcium metabolism. In fact, 1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol directly  
250 regulates multiple signaling pathways involved in cell proliferation, apoptosis, differentiation,  
251 inflammation, invasion, angiogenesis and metastasis (Feldman et al. 2014). Moreover, intracellular  
252 calcium has been shown to influence cell growth and apoptosis of cells (Whitfield 2009) and it has  
253 been demonstrated to bind bile acids and fatty acids with an overall protective effect toward colon



254 cells (Bernstein et al. 2005). Another proposed mechanism of protection against colorectal cancer  
255 associated with dairy consumption is modulation of gut microbiota (Davoodi et al. 2013): in fact,  
256 bacterial translocation and consequent increase of inflammation and production of bacterial  
257 genotoxins have been hypothesized to be potential risk factors for colorectal cancer initiation and  
258 development by inducing DNA damage and producing metabolites that can active carcinogens  
259 (Riaz Rajoka et al. 2017). In this context, consumption of dairy foods may have an impact on the  
260 balance between microbial production of health-beneficial metabolites, such as butyrate, and  
261 potentially tumorigenic metabolites, such as secondary bile acids (Yang and Yu 2018).

262  
263 Regarding potentially detrimental associations found in this study, there is evidence of increased  
264 risk of Parkinson's disease and prostate cancer related to consumption of milk and cheese,  
265 respectively. Regarding Parkinson's disease, it has been shown that milk proteins (casein and  
266 lactalbumin) reduce serum urate levels, which has been hypothesized to be protective against  
267 Parkinson's disease (Crotty et al. 2017, Paganoni and Schwarzschild 2017). Another potential  
268 explanation is related to the content in pesticides of dairy foods: specifically, it has been  
269 hypothesized that a genetic susceptibility either in metabolism, elimination and transport of  
270 pesticides or in the extent of mitochondrial dysfunction, oxidative stress and neuronal loss may play  
271 a role in Parkinson's disease risk (Dardiotis et al. 2013). However, both potential mechanisms are  
272 rather weak and merely speculative. Thus, a stronger rationale is needed to explain such association.  
273 Regarding prostate cancer risk, earlier hypotheses speculated on the potential role of calcium as risk  
274 factor, but such hypothesis is jeopardized by the results of a subgroup analysis provided in one of  
275 the meta-analyses reviewed showing that there was no association with intake of non-dairy calcium  
276 (Aune et al. 2015). Alternatively, dairy products may play a role toward prostate cancer risk via the  
277 insulin-like growth factor (IGF) pathway (including IGF-I, IGF-II, IGFBP-1, IGFBP-2, and IGFBP-  
278 3), which has been related to cell proliferation promotion and apoptosis inhibition (Harrison et al.  
279 2017) and, definitely, an increased risk of prostate cancer (Roddam et al. 2008). All hypotheses  
280 presented are mere speculation and further research is needed to provide a stronger rationale for the  
281 retrieved results.

282  
283 Results generated from meta-analyses are promising, but some concerns regarding the consistence  
284 of such evidence still remains. Specifically, results on total dairy products and metabolic syndrome,  
285 stroke, breast cancer and T2DM (all outcomes somehow related to the potential effects of dairy on  
286 metabolic pathways) are affected by potential confounding related to sex and geographical location  
287 that should be further investigated. The mechanisms contributing to sex-related differences among

288 individuals exposed to dairy consumption have not yet been entirely identified, although it may be  
289 hypothesized that sex hormones might be involved. In pre-menopausal women, estrogens levels are  
290 generally protecting against cardiovascular and other diseases compared to men of the same age;  
291 dairy consumption may somehow interact with hormonal levels and affect the overall risk  
292 (Mirmiran et al. 2016).

293  
294 Regarding geographical location, there is no specific hypothesis previously formulated and any  
295 potential reason is merely speculative. European and US milk undergoes different processing  
296 methods: despite nearly all commercial milk is pasteurized (meaning it undergoes extreme heat in  
297 order to kill illness-causing bacteria), the US and Canada use the high-temperature short-time  
298 pasteurization (HTST), which is cheaper and more efficient but milk has a shorter shelf life (around  
299 seven to 10 days) and must be refrigerated; while Europe uses ultra-heat-treated pasteurization  
300 (UHT), which heats the milk to an even higher temperature than HTST and lead to a longer shelf  
301 life of the milk. Some differences have been accounted between the two methods (i.e., total viable  
302 counts are lower in UHT compared to HTST milk (Lorenzen et al. 2011); the denatured proteins in  
303 UHT processing may be more accessible to the digestive enzymes than after HTST (Tunick et al.  
304 2016)), but, definitely, there is no data supporting any substantial difference in different effects on  
305 health of these two pasteurization techniques; however, we cannot exclude that, if any, they might  
306 depend on that. Despite it has been reported that dairy products has generally low content of  
307 phthalates, some differences between countries might occur (Serrano et al. 2014). Another  
308 difference between US and European milk relies on the type of casein (the main milk protein):  
309 digestion of bovine A1 beta-casein (particularly present in Europe), but not the alternative A2 beta-  
310 casein, releases beta-casomorphin-7, which activates  $\mu$ -opioid receptors expressed throughout the  
311 gastrointestinal tract resulting in increased gastrointestinal transit time, production of dipeptidyl  
312 peptidase-4 and the inflammatory marker myeloperoxidase (Pal et al. 2015). Finally, genetic  
313 variants (i.e., mutations in the lactase gene resulting in lactase persistence) have shown to  
314 potentially play a role between dairy consumption and cardio-metabolic diseases, certain types of  
315 cancer and bone health, as well as lipid metabolism, hormone receptor function, and vitamin D  
316 receptor function, but current research has produced mixed results and the potential for differential  
317 sensitivity between genotypes to the health effects of dairy food intake has to be further investigated  
318 (Comerford and Pasin 2017).

319  
320 Among other potential confounding/modifying/mediating factors, the fat content of dairy has been  
321 called out as potential explanation for the association with some health outcomes; in fact, dairy

322 products, especially butter, has been under investigation due to the high content in saturated fats.  
323 However, recent meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies showed a relatively small impact of  
324 saturated fats on CVD risk and other outcomes (Chowdhury et al. 2014, de Souza et al. 2015).  
325 Equally, overall evidence of dietary fat intake and cancer risk is weak (Xu, Han, et al. 2015).  
326 Moreover, there is no consistency in the direction of the association stratified by fat content of  
327 dairy, as low-fat dairy consumption was associated with both decreased risk of several cardio-  
328 metabolic conditions but also increased risk of prostate and ovarian cancers, while high-fat dairy  
329 consumption was associated with decreased risk of prostate cancer. Finally, the retrieved  
330 association with decreased risk of CVD is inconsistent with the lack of association with risk of  
331 CVD mortality (it would be expected that the associations would agree on the same direction of the  
332 risk). These contrasting results need to be further addressed with ad hoc investigations aiming to  
333 better define the role of total dietary fats in relation to dairy foods.

334  
335 Regarding other limitations to be taken into account when interpreting the results presented in this  
336 umbrella review, it must be noted that grouping individual foods in major food groups is  
337 comfortable and perhaps necessary for certain analyses interesting population studies, but there  
338 might be considerable differences in nutrients and compounds content among different type of dairy  
339 products. Other potential confounding factors, such as physical activity, smoking, alcohol, or more  
340 specifically related to the outcomes investigated (i.e., prostate specific antigen testing) may have  
341 also been associated to dairy product consumption. Regarding meta-analyses included, publication  
342 bias or small study effects may lead to exaggerated summary estimates. Regarding cohort studies  
343 included in the meta-analyses, measurement errors in the dietary assessment is another potential  
344 limitation to be taken into account.

345  
346 In conclusions, consumption of dairy products showed a probable association with CVD and xxx,  
347 despite consistence of results is partially debatable.

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352 and results (J.G., L.T., M.T., F.G., G.G.), manuscript drafting (J.G.), critical review of the  
353 manuscript (E.A., S.S., S.B., S.R., D.DR.). All authors revised and approved the final version of the  
354 manuscript.

355

356 **Declaration of interests**

357 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

358

359 **Reference**

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POSTPRINT VERSION

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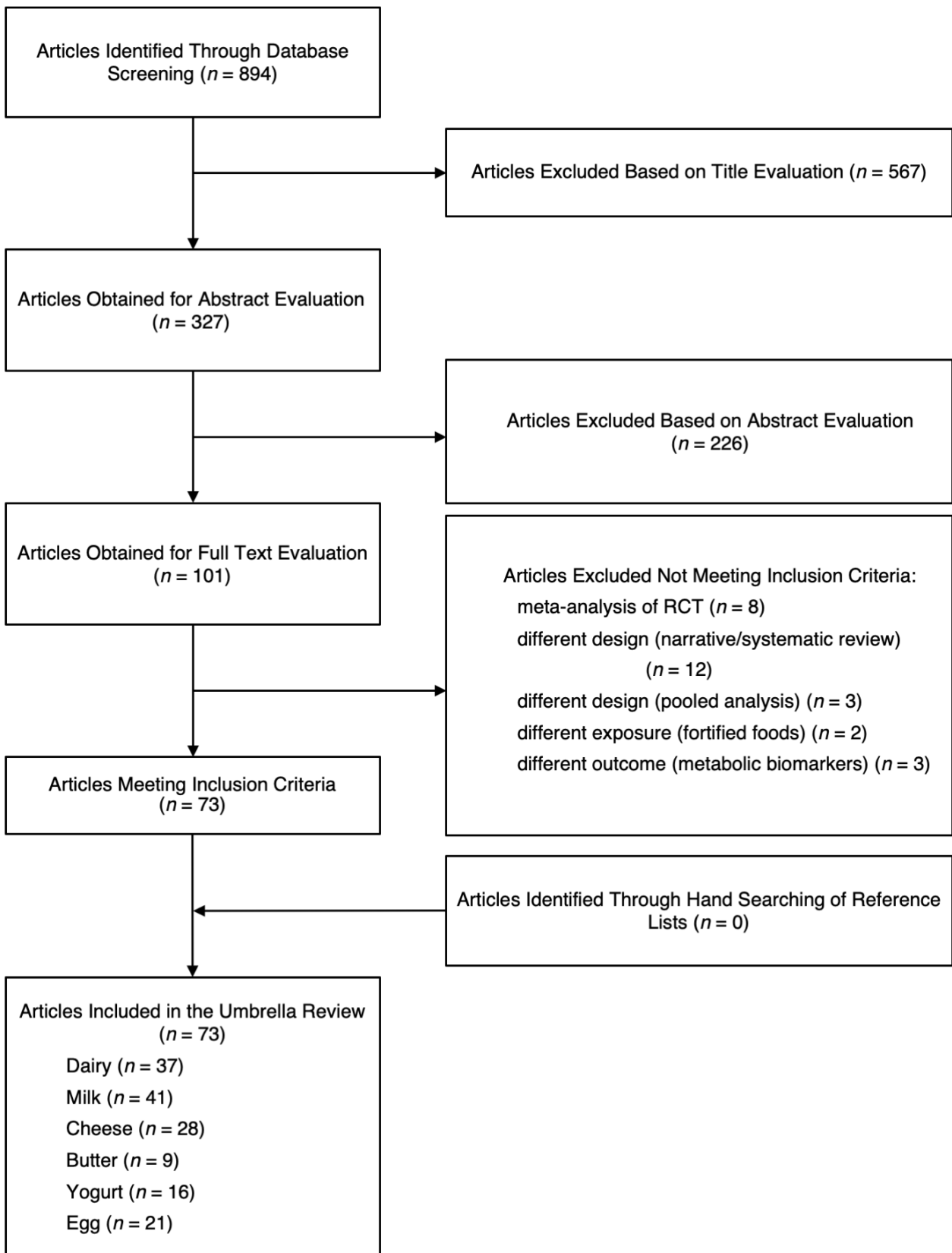
594 Table 1. Level of evidence for the association between dairy (total and individual foods) consumption and health outcomes.

Level of evidence*	Criteria§	Total dairy	Milk	Yogurt	Cheese	Butter
Convincing	Meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies with evidence of dose-response relation, no heterogeneity, no potential confounding factors identified, and eventual disagreement of results over time reasonably explained [otherwise declassified as possible].	Association with decreased risk of cancer (colorectum), hypertension.	None.	None.	Association with increased risk of cancer (prostate).	None.
Probable	Meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies with no heterogeneity, no potential confounding factors identified, and eventual disagreement of results over time reasonably explained [otherwise declassified as possible].	None.	None.	None.	None.	None.
Possible	Meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies with no heterogeneity and lack of information on potential confounding factors.	Association with decreased risk of CVD (any), elevated blood pressure, stroke (fatal).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Association with decreased risk of elevated blood pressure, metabolic syndrome</li> <li>• Association with increased risk of Parkinson's disease.</li> </ul>	None.	Association with decreased risk of T2DM.	Association with decreased risk of T2DM.
Limited	Meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies with presence of significant heterogeneity ( $I^2 > 50\%$ ) or identification of potential confounding factors (i.e., different findings in subgroups).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Association with decreased risk of cancer (breast)#, metabolic syndrome#, stroke (total), T2DM#.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Association with decreased risk of cancer (colorectum)#, cognitive disorders.</li> <li>• Association with increased risk of</li> </ul>	Association with decreased risk of T2DM#	Association with decreased risk of CHD (any)#, CVD (any)#, stroke (total)#.	None.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Association with increased risk of cancer (prostate) #, Parkinson's disease#.</li> </ul>	cancer (prostate)#.			
Insufficient	Meta-analysis of case-control studies, limited prospective cohort studies included in meta-analyses (n <3), or evident contrasting results from meta-analyses with the same level of evidence.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Association with decreased odds of cancer (bladder)</li> <li>• Association with increased odds of cancer (diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, ovarian)</li> </ul>	Association with increased odds of cancer (diffuse large B-cell lymphoma).	None.	None.	None.
No evidence	Non-significant results from meta-analyses of either prospective or case-control studies.	No association with risk of cancer (chronic lymphocytic leukaemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma, endometrial, esophagus, lung, NHL, stomach), CHD, mortality (CVD, cancer), stroke (hemorrhagic, ischaemic).	No association with risk of cancer (bladder, breast, colon, chronic lymphocytic leukaemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma, esophagus, lung#, myeloma, ovarian, stomach), CHD (any)#, CVD, hip fracture, mortality (all-cause, CVD), stroke (hemorrhagic, ischaemic, fatal, total), kidney stones, T2DM.	No association with risk of cancer (breast, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, ovarian, prostate), CHD (any), CVD (any), Parkinson's disease, stroke (total).	No association with risk of cancer (bladder, breast, colorectum, chronic lymphocytic leukaemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, myeloma, ovarian, stomach), mortality (all-cause, CVD), elevated blood pressure, Parkinson's disease.	No association with risk of cancer (bladder), CHD (any), CVD (any), mortality (all-cause), stroke (total).
<p>*all the associations should be biologically plausible; potential confounding factors should be taken into account.                  § modified from the Joint WHO/FAO Expert Consultation                  # presence of potential confounding factors</p>						

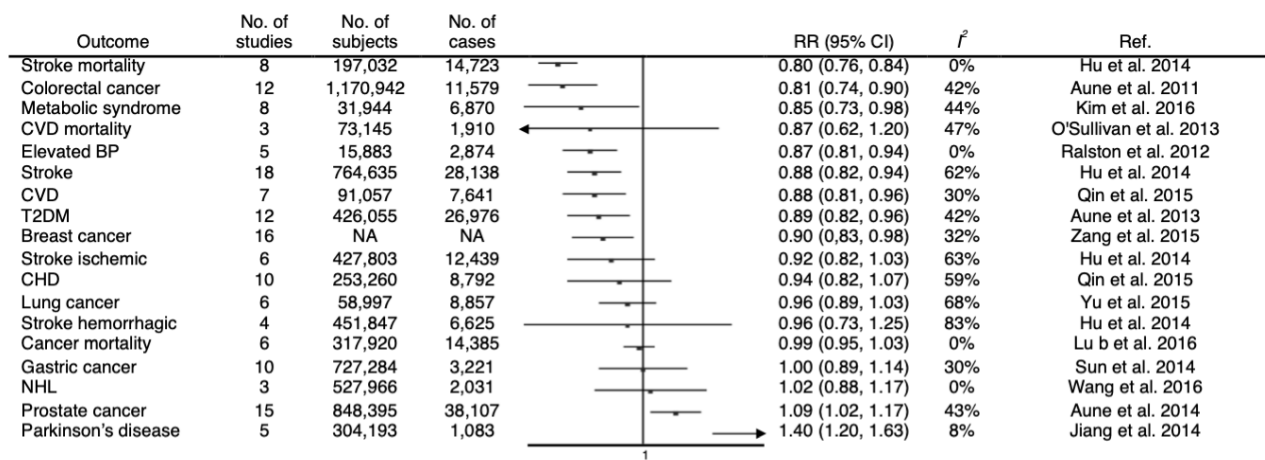
596 **Figure legend**

597 Figure 1. Flow chart for study selection.



598

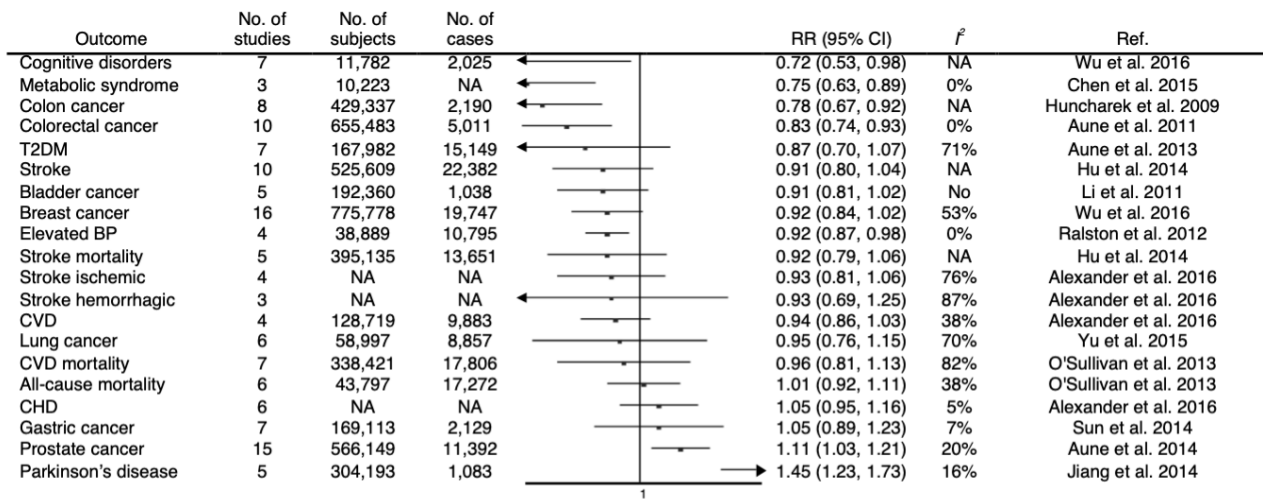
599 Figure 2. Summary results from meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies on total dairy  
600 consumption on various health outcomes included in umbrella review.



601



602 Figure 3. Summary results from meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies on milk consumption  
 603 on various health outcomes included in umbrella review.



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606

607 Figure 4. Summary results from meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies on cheese consumption  
 608 on various health outcomes included in umbrella review.

Outcome	No. of studies	No. of subjects	No. of cases	RR (95% CI)	I <sup>2</sup>	Ref.
T2DM	7	178,429	14,810	0.82 (0.77, 0.87)	0%	Gao et al. 2013
CHD	8	NA	7,631	0.86 (0.77, 0.96)	14%	Chen et al. 2016
CVD	7	NA	8,076	0.90 (0.82, 0.99)	0%	Chen et al. 2016
Stroke	7	NA	10,449	0.90 (0.84, 0.97)	0%	Chen et al. 2016
Breast cancer	14	NA	NA	0.98 (0.89, 1.07)	43%	Zang et al. 2015
CVD mortality	4	33,716	4,777	1.00 (0.81, 1.24)	15%	O'Sullivan et al. 2013
Elevated BP	4	38,889	10,739	1.00 (0.89, 1.12)	11%	Ralston et al. 2012
All-cause mortality	4	23,076	17,753	1.03 (0.97, 1.09)	0%	O'Sullivan et al. 2013
Ovarian cancer	3	170,327	728	1.04 (0.60, 1.81)	70%	Larsson et al. 2006
Prostate cancer	11	887,759	22,950	1.07 (1.01, 1.13)	0%	Aune et al. 2014
Colorectal cancer	7	283,225	1,874	1.11 (0.90, 1.36)	16%	Ralston et al. 2013
Parkinson's disease	4	296,689	955	1.26 (0.99, 1.60)	29%	Jiang et al. 2014

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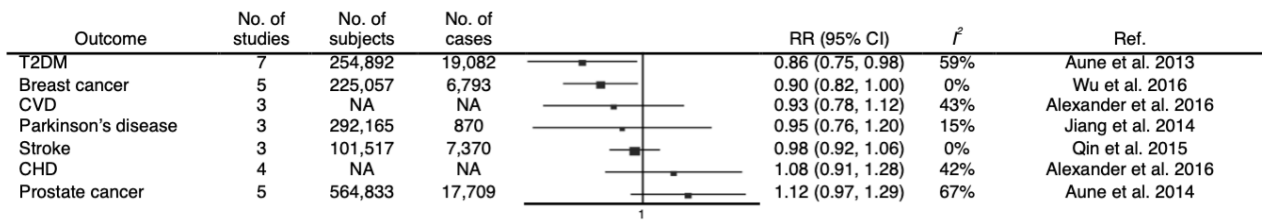
612 Figure 5. Summary results from meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies on butter consumption  
 613 on various health outcomes included in umbrella review.

Outcome	No. of studies	No. of subjects	No. of cases		RR (95% CI)	<i>I</i> <sup>2</sup>	Ref.
Stroke	3	147,408	4,123		0.94 (0.84, 1.06)	13%	Qin et al. 2015
All-cause mortality	3	31,466	16,703		0.96 (0.85, 1.08)	78%	O'Sullivan et al. 2013
CHD	5	182,692	7,055		1.02 (0.88, 1.20)	31%	Qin et al. 2015

614

615 Figure 6. Summary results from meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies on yogurt consumption  
 616 on various health outcomes included in umbrella review.

617



618 **Supplementary material**

619 Supplementary Table 1. Summary results from meta-analyses investigating continuous linear  
620 exposure to dairy (total and individual foods) consumption and health outcomes. NA, not available.

621

622 Supplementary Table 2. Significance and direction of results from selected meta-analyses on dairy  
623 (total and individual foods) consumption and health outcomes. “S” denotes significant results; NS  
624 denotes non-significant results; symbols “+” and “-“ denote direction of the association. NA, not  
625 available.

626

627 Supplementary Table 3. Results of meta-analyses (highest vs. lowest category of exposure) on dairy  
628 (total and individual foods) consumption and health outcomes with limited number of prospective  
629 cohort studies (<3) or case-control studies (either alone or mixed with prospective cohort studies).

630

631 Supplementary Table 4. Variables investigated to address the strength of evidence from selected  
632 meta-analyses on dairy (total and individual foods) consumption and health outcomes.