Coffee consumption and risk of prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis

Xiaonan Chen, Yiqiao Zhao, Zijia Tao, Kefeng Wang

ABSTRACT

Objectives To conduct a systematic review with meta-analysis of cohort studies to evaluate the association of coffee consumption with the risk of prostate cancer.

Data sources PubMed, Web of Science and Embase were searched for eligible studies up to September 2020.

Study selection Cohort studies were included.

Data extraction and synthesis Two researchers independently reviewed the studies and extracted the data. Data synthesis was performed via systematic review and meta-analysis of eligible cohort studies. Meta-analysis was performed with the “metan” and “glsf” commands in Stata 14.0.

Main outcomes and measures Prostate cancer was the main outcome. It was classified as localised or non-aggressive cancers; advanced prostate cancer which included advanced or aggressive cancers; or fatal prostate cancer which included fatal/lethal cancers or prostate cancer-specific deaths.

Results Sixteen prospective cohort studies were finally included, with 57732 cases of prostate cancer and 1 081 586 total cohort members. Higher coffee consumption was significantly associated with a lower risk of prostate cancer. Compared with the lowest category of coffee consumption, the pooled relative risk (RR) was 0.91 (95% CI 0.84 to 0.98), $I^2 = 53.2\%$ for the highest category of coffee consumption. There was a significant linear trend for the association (p=0.006 for linear trend), with a pooled RR of 0.988 (95% CI 0.981 to 0.995) for each increment of one cup of coffee per day. For localised, advanced and fatal prostate cancer, the pooled RRs were 0.93 (95% CI 0.87 to 0.99), 0.88 (95% CI 0.71 to 1.09) and 0.84 (95% CI 0.66 to 1.08), respectively. No evidence of publication bias was indicated in this meta-analysis.

Conclusions This study suggests that a higher intake of coffee may be associated with a lower risk of prostate cancer.

INTRODUCTION

Prostate cancer is the second most frequently diagnosed cancer and the sixth leading cause of cancer death in men. There were 1 276 000 new cancer cases and 359 000 cancer deaths in 2018.1 It is estimated that nearly three-quarters of prostate cancer cases occur in developed countries.1 Since the 1970s, the incidence of prostate cancer has also increased rapidly in some Asian countries such as China, Singapore and Japan, where the incidence has always been much lower than in some Western countries.1,2 Therefore, primary prevention of prostate cancer is a significant public health problem worldwide.

Coffee is one of the most popular beverages. Since its popularity continues to increase worldwide, even a small effect on individual health may exert a substantial public health impact. Coffee is known to be a major source of dietary caffeine, cafestol and anti-oxidants in industrialised nations.3 Its various constituents such as caffeine, caffeic acid and chlorogenic acid can potentially impact the development of cancer through multiple carcinogenesis pathways.4,5 Inverse associations were observed between coffee consumption and the risk of cancer in sites such as the liver, colorectum and breast.6 However, previous studies have reported inconsistent results on the association of coffee consumption with the risk of prostate cancer. Although earlier cohort studies did not detect an association,7–15 more recent studies conducted in major Western countries such as the USA, Sweden and the UK reported that coffee consumption was associated with a lower risk of localised and advanced prostate cancer.16–20 In Japan, a country with increasing popularity of coffee, a cohort study also found a
significant inverse association between coffee consumption and the risk of prostate cancer.21

Previous meta-analyses of cohort studies up to 2015 reported a significant positive association for coffee consumption on total prostate cancer risk, with highly variable results in different subgroups.22 23 Since then, five cohort studies have explored the association but still reported inconsistent results.24–28 It was hypothesised that higher coffee consumption was associated with an increased risk of prostate cancer. Thus, the objective of this updated meta-analysis was to explore and evaluate the association of coffee intake with the risk of prostate cancer in adult men, and to direct the future primary prevention strategy on prostate cancer.

METHODS

This systematic review was conducted and reported in adherence to the PRISMA and MOOSE guidelines29; the corresponding checklists are shown in online supplemental table 1 and online supplemental file 1. Two researchers (YZ and ZT) independently conducted the literature search, study selection, data extraction and study quality assessment. Any discrepancies were resolved by discussion, but whenever consensus could not be reached between the two reviewers, a third reviewer (KW) acted as arbitrator.

Patient and public involvement

This is a meta-analysis based on study-level data and no individual-level data were involved in the study or in defining the research question or outcome measures.

Inclusion criteria

The eligibility criteria of the studies were as follows: (1) The study should use a longitudinal cohort design or case–control design nested within a cohort study. (2) The study should present information on coffee consumption as the exposure of interest. Coffee consumption was ascertained by self-reported dietary records or food diaries on the intake levels (highest intake category vs lowest intake category) or frequency measures (eg, per unit/cups/mL per day/week). Since the intake levels were classified and defined differently in each study, the absolute coffee consumption in the highest and lowest intake categories varied across the included studies. (3) The study should report prostate cancer as the outcome of interest. Prostate cancer was defined by clinical diagnosis, physician diagnosis, medical records, self-reports or data linkage to a registry system such as a cancer registry. Based on definitions in each original study, the prostate cancer categories were classified as follows: (a) localised prostate cancer, which included localised or non-aggressive cancers; (b) advanced prostate cancer, which included advanced or aggressive cancers; and (c) fatal prostate cancer, which included fatal/lethal cancers or prostate cancer-specific deaths. (4) The study should provide relative risk (RR), HR, risk ratio, rate ratio or OR estimates with confidence intervals (CIs) or standard errors for the association of coffee consumption with the risk of prostate cancer. If multiple estimates were provided, priority was given to the multivariable-adjusted risk estimates. If more than one study was conducted in the same population, the earlier reports or reports with less applicable information were excluded.

Literature search

A literature search was performed using PubMed, Web of Science and Embase up to September 2020 with the following keywords: coffee and prostate and (cancer or carcinoma or neoplasm or tumour). The full search strategy is shown in online supplemental file 2 The reference lists of relevant publications were also manually searched for identification of additional eligible studies. No language limitation was imposed.

When data or information in the publication were insufficient, we attempted to contact the corresponding authors of the original study to request the relevant data. Then two authors (Russnes and Nilsson) provided us with the relevant information about the person-years of follow-up for specific categories of coffee intake to facilitate the dose-response analyses.15 20 Of note, we finally did not include the study by Russnes et al21 in the current meta-analysis because the study population is the same as another included cohort study by Wilson et al22 which reported more applicable information.

Data extraction

We extracted the following information from each eligible study: first author’s name, year of publication, study country, follow-up time, number of participants in the cohort, number of prostate cancer cases, assessment of coffee consumption, primary study outcome, definitions and categories of coffee consumption, RRs and 95% CIs for all prostate cancer outcomes associated with coffee consumption, and the potential confounders considered or adjusted in the analysis.

Study quality assessment

The 9-star Newcastle–Ottawa Scale tool was used to assess study quality.30 The quality of each cohort study was judged on three broad categories—namely, selection of the study population, comparability of groups and ascertainment of either the exposure or outcome of interest.

Statistical analysis

In the meta-analysis, the RR estimate was used to measure the association between coffee consumption and the risk of prostate cancer in this meta-analysis. We pooled the study-specific RR estimates for the highest versus the lowest category of coffee consumption. A fixed effects model was used to pool the study-specific estimates; whenever significant heterogeneity was detected, the random effect model was used to address the heterogeneity across studies.30 Subgroup analyses were conducted stratified by study location, prostate cancer stage and potential confounder adjustments including a history of
prostate-specific antigen (PSA) testing, a family history of prostate cancer, total energy intake, cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity, body mass index (BMI) or history of diabetes. Since PSA testing was generally introduced after 1986,32 studies with follow-up periods that ended before 1986 were classified in the PSA-adjusted group. To explore the influence of each study on the pooled results, sensitivity analyses were also performed by excluding one study at a time and then repeating the meta-analysed approach.

We further examined the potential dose–response relationship between coffee consumption and the risk of prostate cancer. When the mean coffee intakes in each category were not reported, the midpoint values in each category were used instead; when the upper boundary of the highest intake category was not presented, we calculated the midpoint value assuming that the highest category had the same magnitude of intake as the preceding category.33 34 The pooled RR for each increment of one cup of coffee per day was estimated using the method proposed by Orsini and Greenland.35 We examined a potential non-linear relation between coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk by modelling coffee consumption using restricted cubic splines for non-linear trends with 4 knots at fixed percentiles (5%, 35%, 65% and 95%) of the distribution.36 Non-linearity of the association was explored by testing the null hypothesis that the coefficients of the second and third splines were equal to zero.

We assessed the heterogeneity by using the Q and the I² statistic. A p value <0.10 or an I² >50% suggest that statistical heterogeneity may exist.37 Small study effects such as publication bias were evaluated by funnel plots, as well as Begg's test and Egger's test.38 39 Meta-analysis was conducted using the "metan" and "glst" commands in Stata version 14.0 (StataCorp, College Station, Texas, USA). Two-sided p values <0.05 were considered statistically significant in the meta-analysis.

RESULTS

Literature search

We identified 497 records after searching the three databases. After 217 duplicate records were removed, 280 records remained for screening of titles and abstracts, and after screening the titles and abstracts, 254 irrelevant records were excluded. Following a further full-text review of the 26 remaining studies, 10 studies were excluded because of no useful risk estimates or 95% CIs; two studies were excluded as newer data or more informative data were available. Fourteen studies were obtained from full-text screening and a further two studies were identified by checking the reference lists of retrieved articles.9 11 Thus, 16 studies were included in the final analysis,9–11 13–19 21 24–28 of which 15 reported on the risk of prostate cancer associated with the highest versus the lowest coffee consumption.9–11 13–19 21 24–27; 13 studies reported the risk associated with an increase of one cup of coffee per day or provided sufficient data to estimate the dose–response risk3 13–19 21 24 25 27 28 (figure 1).

Study characteristics and quality assessment

The characteristics of the eligible cohort studies are shown in online supplemental file 3. The included studies were conducted in North America (n=7), Europe (n=7) and Japan (n=2). There was a total of 1081586 men in the 16 cohort studies, of whom 57732 developed prostate cancer. To measure coffee consumption, 11 studies used food-frequency questionnaires and five used a self-administered dietary questionnaire. Most studies considered or adjusted for the most potential confounders in the analysis, such as age at baseline, family history of prostate cancer, race, cigarette smoking, alcohol drinking, total energy intake, BMI and physical activity. The results of study quality assessment are presented in online supplemental file 4. The total scores for each cohort study ranged from 6 to 9. Fourteen studies awarded a total score of ≥7, which were considered as relatively high-quality studies with a low risk of bias.

Overall analyses and dose–response analyses

The reported RRs for the original cohort studies ranged from 0.47 (95% CI 0.25 to 0.87) in the study by Pounis et al to 1.42 (95% CI 0.77 to 2.61) in the study by Ellison et al (figure 2). Compared with the lowest coffee intake category, there was a 9% reduction in the risk of prostate cancer for the highest category (RR=0.91; 95% CI 0.84 to 0.98). Statistically significant heterogeneity was detected across the studies (p=0.008, I²=53.2%). In dose–response analyses, we found evidence of a linear inverse association between coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk (p=0.006 for linear trend) (figure 3). The pooled RR of prostate cancer was 0.988 (95% CI 0.981 to 0.995) for an increase of one cup of coffee per day. No evidence of a non-linear relationship was observed between coffee consumption and risk of prostate cancer (p=0.193 for non-linearity). Moreover, there was no indication of small study effects such as publication bias from the results of the Egger’s test (p=0.409), Begg’s test (p=0.843) as well as the funnel plot. The funnel plot and Egger’s publication bias plot are shown in online supplemental file 5.

Subgroup and sensitivity analyses

As shown in table 1, compared with the lowest coffee intake category there was a 7% reduction in risk for the highest intake category (RR=0.93; 95% CI 0.87 to 0.99) for localised prostate cancer. For advanced and fatal prostate cancer, the corresponding pooled RRs were 0.88 (95% CI 0.71 to 1.09) and 0.84 (95% CI 0.66 to 1.08) (figure 4). When stratified by study location, the pooled RRs were 0.96 (95% CI 0.90 to 1.03), 0.85 (95% CI 0.74 to 0.98) and 0.85 (95% CI 0.48 to 1.51) for studies conducted in North America (six in the USA and one in Canada), European countries and Japan. Furthermore, significant inverse associations were observed in all of the confounder adjusted subgroups.
In sensitivity analyses, we sequentially excluded one study at a time and recalculated the pooled RRs of the remaining studies. The pooled RRs did not change substantially, ranging from 0.89 (95% CI 0.82 to 0.97) to 0.93 (95% CI 0.86 to 1.00) after omission of the studies by Hashibe et al and Terdal et al, respectively.

**DISCUSSION**

**Summary of the findings**

In this meta-analysis, higher coffee consumption was significantly associated with a reduced risk of prostate cancer in men. In the dose–response analysis, a reduction in the risk of prostate cancer of nearly 1% was observed for each increment of one cup of coffee per day. The combined estimate for prostate cancer was robust across subgroup and sensitivity analyses.

**Comparison with other studies**

The previous meta-analysis detected a statistically significant positive association between coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk (RR=1.16; 95% CI 1.01 to 1.33).\(^2^2\) However, this observed effect was confined to case–control studies (RR=1.21; 95% CI 1.03 to 1.43), with no significant association in cohort studies (RR=1.06; 95% CI 0.83 to 1.35) when stratified by study design.\(^2^2\) Considering the case–control design, patients with prostate cancer might differentially recall their past coffee consumption habits compared with healthy controls, which might generally lead to biased estimates. This potential recall bias could generate a spurious positive association between coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk. Additionally, selection bias, which can occur in case–control studies, may distort the association between coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk.

In another meta-analysis of cohort studies with 539,577 participants and 34,105 prostate cancer cases, the pooled RR for the highest category of coffee intake was 0.90 (95% CI 0.85 to 0.95) for total prostate cancer compared with the lowest intake category. In this updated meta-analysis of 1,081,586 cohort members and 57,732 incident cases, the overall result was similar to the previous one. However, for subgroups of localised, advanced and fatal prostate cancers, the strength of associations tended to be weaker compared with the previous study.

**Possible biological mechanisms**

It is biologically plausible that coffee may reduce the risk of prostate cancer in men. Coffee improves...
glucose metabolism, decreases concentrations of plasma insulin and insulin-like growth factor-1, has anti-inflammatory and antioxidant effects, and affects sex hormone levels, all of which may play roles in the initiation, development and progression of prostate cancer.\textsuperscript{3,18,20,40} Coffee is also a major source of chlorogenic acids; intake of quinides, the degradation products of chlorogenic acids, has been observed to increase insulin sensitivity and lower blood glucose levels.\textsuperscript{3} Moreover, coffee intake may be associated

| Study                | RR (95% CI)         |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| Severson (1989)      | 0.92 (0.59, 1.44)   |
| Hsing (1990)         | 1.00 (0.60, 1.60)   |
| Le Marchand (1994)   | 1.10 (0.70, 1.70)   |
| Ellison (2000)       | 1.42 (0.77, 2.61)   |
| Iso (2007)           | 1.13 (0.73, 1.75)   |
| Nilsson (2010)       | 1.03 (0.77, 1.38)   |
| Wilson (2011)        | 0.82 (0.68, 0.98)   |
| Shafique (2012)      | 0.93 (0.66, 1.31)   |
| Bosire (2013)        | 0.94 (0.87, 1.02)   |
| Discacciati (2013)   | 0.76 (0.62, 0.92)   |
| Li (2013)            | 0.63 (0.39, 1.00)   |
| Terdal (2015)        | 0.78 (0.69, 0.89)   |
| Hashibe (2015)       | 1.02 (0.94, 1.10)   |
| Pounis (2017)        | 0.47 (0.25, 0.87)   |
| Sen (2019)           | 0.96 (0.87, 1.06)   |
| Overall (I-squared = 53.2%, p = 0.008) | 0.91 (0.84, 0.98) |

Figure 2 Forest plot for the association between coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk.

Figure 3 Dose–response relationship of coffee consumption with prostate cancer risk.
Table 1  Summary risk estimates and corresponding 95% CIs for prostate cancer associated with the highest versus the lowest coffee consumption

| No of studies | Summary RR | 95% CI       | I² (%) | P value* |
|---------------|------------|--------------|--------|----------|
| Overall       | 15         | 0.91 (0.84 to 0.98) | 53.2   | 0.008    |
| Prostate cancer category † |             |              |        |          |
| Localised     | 6          | 0.93 (0.87 to 0.99) | 37.0   | 0.159    |
| Advanced      | 8          | 0.88 (0.71 to 1.09) | 52.7   | 0.039    |
| Fatal         | 6          | 0.84 (0.66 to 1.08) | 46.3   | 0.097    |
| Study location|             |              |        |          |
| North America | 7          | 0.96 (0.90 to 1.03) | 17.7   | 0.295    |
| Europe        | 6          | 0.85 (0.74 to 0.98) | 63.3   | 0.018    |
| Japan         | 2          | 0.85 (0.48 to 1.51) | 68.5   | 0.075    |
| NOS score     |             |              |        |          |
| 6             | 2          | 1.20 (0.84 to 1.72) | 0      | 0.507    |
| 7             | 3          | 1.02 (0.78 to 1.32) | 0      | 0.810    |
| 8 or 9        | 10         | 0.88 (0.81 to 0.96) | 66.2   | 0.002    |

**Adjustment for confounders**

| PSA testing ‡ |             |              |        |          |
| Yes           | 6          | 0.86 (0.77 to 0.96) | 31.8   | 0.197    |
| No            | 9          | 0.94 (0.84 to 1.06) | 60.5   | 0.009    |
| Family history of prostate cancer |             |              |        |          |
| Yes           | 4          | 0.83 (0.72 to 0.96) | 57.8   | 0.068    |
| No            | 11         | 0.95 (0.85 to 1.05) | 50.8   | 0.026    |
| Total energy intake |             |              |        |          |
| Yes           | 6          | 0.85 (0.76 to 0.96) | 61.1   | 0.025    |
| No            | 9          | 0.97 (0.85 to 1.09) | 47.7   | 0.053    |
| Smoking status |             |              |        |          |
| Yes           | 10         | 0.86 (0.79 to 0.94) | 52.0   | 0.027    |
| No            | 5          | 1.03 (0.95 to 1.11) | 0      | 0.805    |
| Alcohol consumption |             |              |        |          |
| Yes           | 6          | 0.87 (0.84 to 0.98) | 49.2   | 0.008    |
| No            | 9          | 0.93 (0.84 to 1.03) | 57.2   | 0.017    |
| Physical activity |             |              |        |          |
| Yes           | 7          | 0.87 (0.79 to 0.95) | 58.4   | 0.025    |
| No            | 8          | 1.00 (0.90 to 1.12) | 10.5   | 0.348    |
| BMI |             |              |        |          |
| Yes           | 9          | 0.86 (0.78 to 0.94) | 56.9   | 0.017    |
| No            | 6          | 1.03 (0.95 to 1.11) | 0      | 0.897    |
| Diabetes      |             |              |        |          |
| Yes           | 5          | 0.87 (0.84 to 0.98) | 64.9   | 0.022    |
| No            | 10         | 0.97 (0.86 to 1.10) | 22.8   | 0.233    |

*P value for heterogeneity within each subgroup.
†Based on definition in each original study, the prostate cancer categories were classified as follows: (a) localised prostate cancer which included localised or non-aggressive cancers, (b) advanced prostate cancer which included advanced or aggressive cancers, (c) fatal prostate cancer which included fatal/lethal cancers or prostate cancer-specific deaths.
‡Since PSA testing was generally introduced after 1986, studies with follow-up periods that ended before 1986 were classified in the PSA-adjusted group.
BMI, body mass index; NOS, Newcastle–Ottawa Scale; PSA, prostate-specific antigen; RR, relative risk.
with increased levels of adiponectin plasma,\textsuperscript{41, 42} which may act as an endogenous insulin sensitiser.\textsuperscript{43} Higher adiponectin levels in plasma are supposed to relate to lower concentrations of plasma insulin.\textsuperscript{43} In two prospective studies, insulin levels were observed to be directly associated with prostate cancer-specific mortality.\textsuperscript{44, 45}

Coffee is a major contributor of dietary antioxidants such as caffeic acid and chlorogenic acid.\textsuperscript{20} A prospective cohort study from the USA found that dietary antioxidants from coffee (eg, caffeic acid) were inversely associated with the risk of total, advanced and lethal prostate cancer.\textsuperscript{20} It was suggested that antioxidants protect cells from damage caused by oxidative stress and inflammation, which may further lead to neoplastic transformation in the prostate.\textsuperscript{46} Additionally, dietary antioxidants may inhibit prostate cancer progression through suppression of oxidative stress, which might play a critical role during the progression of prostate cancer.\textsuperscript{46} Coffee intake was indicated to be related to increased levels in sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG), as well as total testosterone.\textsuperscript{47, 48} A pooled analysis of 18 prospective studies found that SHBG levels may be inversely associated with the risk of prostate cancer.\textsuperscript{48} Of note, a nested case–control study found that caffeine or caffeinated coffee intakes were suggested to be associated with an increased level of plasma SHBG. However, such an association was not observed between decaffeinated coffee and plasma SHBG levels. Thus, it was suggested that caffeine may be the key component in coffee, which may be responsible for determining plasma SHBG levels.\textsuperscript{48}

**Strengths and limitations**

A strength of this study was the inclusion of prospective cohort studies. Cohort studies could minimise the risk of selection and recall bias, which is a major concern for case–control design. Besides, large numbers of total cohort members and prostate cancer cases ensure adequate statistical power to detect even a small effect of interest. Furthermore, the dose–response analysis may further lend confidence to the study hypothesis that increased coffee consumption was linearly associated with a lower risk of prostate cancer. Besides,
most of the studies were of high quality with a low risk of bias, which could further lend confidence to the current pooled results.

This meta-analysis also has several limitations. First, one weakness is that only three databases were searched for eligible studies and other databases, especially non-English databases, were not considered in the literature search. Second, because of the observational design, unmeasured or uncontrolled confounders in the original studies may bias the pooled risk estimate; however, the residual confounding effects from the original studies were difficult to handle in a meta-analysis approach. For example, the inverse association between coffee consumption and prostate cancer could be attributed to risk factors related to coffee consumption, such as physical activity and healthy diet. However, most of the original studies have considered or adjusted for these major potential confounders in the analysis. In the sensitivity analysis of restricting the meta-analysis in studies considering most confounders, the strength of association tended to be larger in comparison with the overall association. Third, misclassification of coffee consumption may occur because of the self-reported nature of exposure measurement. However, validation studies by diet records indicated a relatively high validity of coffee consumption measured by food frequency questionnaire. The correlations between questionnaire and diet records were 0.80 in US men, 0.71 in Swedish men and 0.72 in Japanese men. Of note, misclassification of exposure would most likely be non-differential in cohort studies and bias the observed association toward the null. Therefore, the true association between coffee consumption and risk of prostate cancer may be even stronger. Fourth, since coffee intake and the incidence of prostate cancer in the USA and Europe are relatively high, most of the studies were conducted in these regions. Since the effect size is small, we should be cautious when generalising the results to other areas, especially where the incidence is relatively low. Last, significant between-study heterogeneity may limit interpretation of the results. The observed heterogeneity may come from various sources. For example, the highest and lowest categories of coffee intake are different in the original studies. Studies with a broader range between the highest and lowest categories were assumed to generate a higher risk estimate. Moreover, the type of coffee and different brewing methods included in the coffee consumption groups differed. The different cohort sizes and follow-up periods may also lead to heterogeneous results. Taken together, due to the significant heterogeneity in the current meta-analysis, the pooled results should be interpreted with caution.

CONCLUSIONS

This study suggests that increased coffee consumption may be associated with a reduced risk of prostate cancer. Further research is still warranted to explore the underlying mechanisms and active compounds in coffee. If the association is further proved to be a causal effect, men might be encouraged to increase their coffee consumption to potentially decrease the risk of prostate cancer.

Correction notice This article has been corrected since it first published. The provenance and peer review statement has been included.

Acknowledgements We would like to thank the authors of the original studies for their contribution to our meta-analysis, especially those authors who provided their raw data for the analysis.

Contributors KW obtained the funding, developed the research design, interpreted the results and also had primary responsibility for the final content. XC, YZ and ZT analysed the data and interpreted the results. XC and KW drafted manuscript. All authors critically reviewed and approved the manuscript.

Funding This work was supported by the Natural Science Foundation of Liaoning Province of China (Grant No 2019-MS-3608) for Kefeng Wang and 345 Talent Project of Shengjing Hospital of China Medical University for Kefeng Wang (Grant No MO122).

Competing interests None declared.

Patient consent for publication Not required.

Provenance and peer review Not commissioned; externally peer reviewed.

Data availability statement Data are available upon reasonable request. The data are available upon request from the corresponding author (wangkefenguro@sina.com)

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ORCID iD Kefeng Wang http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3134-356X

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## PRISMA 2009 Checklist

| Section/topic          | # | Checklist item                                                                                                                                                                                                 | Reported on page # |
|-----------------------|---|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|
| **TITLE**             |   |                                                                                                                                             |                   |
| Title                 | 1 | Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both.                                                                           | P1, L1-2          |
| **ABSTRACT**          |   |                                                                                                                                             |                   |
| Structured summary    | 2 | Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria, participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number. | P2, 3, L20-46     |
| **INTRODUCTION**      |   |                                                                                                                                             |                   |
| Rationale             | 3 | Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.                                                               | P5, L84-87        |
| Objectives            | 4 | Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS). | P5, L88-91        |
| **METHODS**           |   |                                                                                                                                             |                   |
| Protocol and registration | 5 | Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number. | NA                |
| Eligibility criteria  | 6 | Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale. | P6, L104-125     |
| Information sources   | 7 | Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched. | P7, L127-140     |
| Search                | 8 | Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.                     | P7, L127-13       |
| Study selection       | 9 | State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis). | P6, L105-124     |
| Data collection process | 10 | Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators. | P5, L97-98       |
| Data items            | 11 | List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.              | P7, 8, L142-148   |
| Risk of bias in individual studies | 12 | Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis. | P8, L150-153     |
| Summary measures      | 13 | State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means).                                                               | P8,               |
## PRISMA 2009 Checklist

| Section/topic                      | #  | Checklist item                                                                                                                                                                                                 | Reported on page # |
|-----------------------------------|----|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Synthesis of results              | 14 | Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., $I^2$) for each meta-analysis.                                                              | P8, 9, L156-188  |

### RESULTS

| Study selection                   | 17 | Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram.                                                   | P10, L192-204    |
| Study characteristics             | 18 | For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations.                                                                   | P10, 11, L206-216|
| Risk of bias within studies       | 19 | Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12).                                                                                                        | P11, L215-216    |
| Results of individual studies     | 20 | For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot. | P11, L218-219    |
| Synthesis of results              | 21 | Present results of each meta-analysis done, including confidence intervals and measures of consistency.                                                                                                         | P11, L220-227    |
| Risk of bias across studies       | 22 | Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see Item 15).                                                                                                                                  | P11, L227-230    |
| Additional analysis               | 23 | Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see Item 16]).                                                                                             | P11, 12, L232-244|

### DISCUSSION

| Summary of evidence               | 24 | Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers). | P14, L259-263    |
| Limitations                       | 25 | Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias).                                                  | P17, 18, L322-354|
| Conclusions                       | 26 | Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research.                                                                                         | P18,              |
# PRISMA 2009 Checklist

| FUNDING |  |
|---------|---|
| Funding | 27 | Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review. |
|         | P19, L364-366 |

*From: Mohr D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, The PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement. PLoS Med 6(7): e1000097. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed1000097. For more information, visit: [www.prisma-statement.org](http://www.prisma-statement.org).*

Page 2 of 2
MOOSE Guidelines for Meta-Analyses and Systematic Reviews of Observational Studies*

| Topic | Page |
|-------|------|
| **Title** | Identify the study as a meta-analysis (or systematic review) |
| **Abstract** | Use the journal’s structured format |
| **Introduction** | Present: |
| | The clinical problem |
| | The hypothesis |
| | A statement of objectives that includes the study population, the condition of interest, the exposure or intervention, and the outcome(s) considered |
| **Sources** | Describe: |
| | Qualifications of searchers (eg, librarians and investigators) |
| | Search strategy, including time period included in the synthesis and keywords |
| | Effort to include all available studies, including contact with authors |
| | Databases and registries searched |
| | Search software used, name and version, including special features used (e.g. explosion) |
| | Use of hand searching (e.g. reference lists of obtained articles) |
| | List of citations located and those excluded, including justification |
| | Method of addressing articles published in languages other than English |
| | Method of handling abstracts and unpublished studies |
| | Description of any contact with authors |
| **Study Selection** | Describe |
| | Types of study designs considered |
| | Relevance or appropriateness of studies gathered for assessing the hypothesis to be tested |
| | Rationale for the selection and coding of data (eg, sound clinical principles or convenience) |
| | Documentation of how data were classified and coded (eg, multiple raters, blinding, and inter-rater reliability) |
| | Assessment of confounding (e.g. comparability of cases and controls in studies where appropriate) |
| | Assessment of study quality, including blinding of quality assessors; stratification or regression on possible predictors of study results |
| | Assessment of heterogeneity |
| | Statistical methods (eg, complete description of fixed or random effects models, justification of whether the chosen models account for predictors of study results, dose-response models, or cumulative meta-analysis) in sufficient detail to be replicated |
| **Results** | Present |
| | A graph summarizing individual study estimates and the overall estimate |
| | A table giving descriptive information for each included study |
| | Results of sensitivity testing (eg, subgroup analysis) |
| | Indication of statistical uncertainty of findings |
| **Discussion** | Discuss |
| | Strengths and weaknesses |
| | Potential biases in the review process (eg, publication bias) |
| Assessment of quality of included studies | P17, L320-321 |
| Consideration of alternative explanations for observed results | P18, L344-346 |
| Generalization of the conclusions (ie, appropriate for the data presented and within the domain of the literature review) | P18, L346-354 |
| Guidelines for future research | P18, L358-361 |
| Disclosure of funding source | P19, L364-366 |

*Modified from Stroup DF, Berlin JA, Morton SC, Olkin I, Williamson GD, Rennie D, et al. Meta-analysis of observational studies in epidemiology: a proposal for reporting. Meta-analysis Of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (MOOSE) group. JAMA 2000;283:2008–12. Copyrighted © 2000, American Medical Association. All rights reserved.
Table 1. Characteristics of cohort studies of coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk included in the meta-analysis

| Study          | Country | Study period | Age at baseline | Size of cohort/controls | No. of cases | Exposure assessment methods                  | Definition of coffee consumption | Outcome                  | Follow-up time | Confounder adjustments                                                                 | NOS total quality score; Risk of bias (Potential bias) |
|----------------|---------|--------------|-----------------|-------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|
| Ong et al. 2019 | UK      | 2006-2010    | 37-73 years     | 131834                  | 7532         | Self-reported diet survey                     | 1 cup/day increase; no information on the highest and lowest coffee intakes | Total prostate cancer           | <5 years       | Age, townsend deprivation index, top 10 ancestral principal components, smoking status, BMI, height, alcohol intake, drink temperature, overall health rating, highest qualification. Instrumental variable analyses (SNP instruments) were also used to control confounders | 7 stars; low risk of bias (exposure misclassification bias) |
| Sen et al. 2019 | Europe  | 1990s-2015   | Mean: 52 years. | 142196                  | 7036         | Validated FFQ                                 | The highest intake: median of 855 ml/day (no. of cases: 1271); The lowest intake: median of 0 ml/day (no. of cases: 396) | Total, Localized, advanced prostate cancer | Mean: 14 years | Stratified by center and age at recruitment in 5 years categories, and adjusted for smoking status, BMI, history of diabetes, alcohol intake, education, physical activity, energy intake, as well as calcium, fish, tea, fruit and vegetable intake. | 9 stars; low risk of bias                               |
| Pounis et al 2017 | Italy | 2005-2010    | ≥50 years;      | 6989                    | 100          | Validated FFQ                                 | The highest intake: >3 cups/day (>90) | Total prostate cancer           | Mean: 4.24 years | Age, energy intake, smoking habits and BMI                                              | 8 stars; low risk of bias                               |
| Study          | Country   | Year Range  | Age Range  | Cases | 1st Intake | 2nd Intake | 3rd Intake | Method              | Mean Intake | Cases | 1st Outcome          | 2nd Outcome | 3rd Outcome | Bias Risk   | Controls                                      |
|---------------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------|------------|------------|------------|---------------------|-------------|-------|----------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|------------------------------------------------|
| Hashibe et al. 2015 | USA      | 1992-2011   | 55-74 years | 46771 | 0-2 cups/day (0-55 g/day) | ≥2 cups/day (no. of cases: 1731) | <1 cups/day (no. of cases: 889) | Validated diet history questionnaire | Mean coffee intake is 1.9 cups/day; | Total prostate cancer | >10 years | Age, sex, race, and education. | 8 stars; low risk of bias (confounding bias) |
| Tverdal et al. 2015 | Norway  | 1974-1999   | 20-69 years | 224234 | ≥9 cups/day (no. of cases: 642); | None (no. of cases: 389); | | Questionnaire | Mean: 17.6 years | Total prostate cancer | Mean: 17.6 years | Age, smoking, BMI, height, physical activity, total cholesterol, triglycerides, systolic blood pressure, year of examination and diabetes | 8 stars; low risk of bias (exposure misclassification bias) |
| Li et al. 2013 | Japan    | 1995-2005   | 40-79 years | 18,853 | ≥3 | | Validated FFQ | The highest intake: | Total prostate | Mean: | Age, education, BMI, time engaging in sports or exercise, marital status, time spent walking, | 8 stars; low risk of bias |

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| Study                | Country | Year Range | Age Range | Total | Number of Validated Cases | Assessment Tool | Highest Intake | Lowest Intake | Follow-up | Prostate Cancer Incidence | Risk of Bias |
|---------------------|---------|------------|-----------|-------|--------------------------|-----------------|----------------|--------------|-----------|--------------------------|--------------|
| Discacciati et al. 2013 | Sweden  | 1998-2010  | 45-79 years | 44,613 | 3801                      | Validated self-administered FFQ | The highest intake: ≥6 cups/day (median of 1484 g/day) (no. of cases: 173); | The lowest intake: none (median: 0 g/day) (no. of cases: 129); | 13 years | Localized and advanced prostate cancer incidence | 8 stars; low risk of bias |
| Bosire et al. 2013   | USA     | 1995-2008  | 50-71 years | 288,391 | 23335                     | Validated FFQ    | The highest intake: ≥6 cups/day (no. of cases: 787); | The lowest intake: none (no. of cases: 2136); | >11 years | Total prostate cancer incidence | 8 stars; low risk of bias |
| Shafique et al. 2012 | UK      | 1970-2007  | 21-75 years (median) | 6017  | 318                       | Self-administered questionnaire | The highest intake: ≥3 cups/day (no. of cases: 65); | Total prostate cancer incidence | 37 years (median: 28 years) | Age at screening, cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, BMI, alcohol intake, tea consumption, smoking status, social class. | 8 stars; low risk of bias |
| Study            | Country | Time Period | Age | Cases | FFQ Type             | Highest Intake | Lowest Intake | Total Prostate Cancer Incidence | Follow-up | Risk Factors                                                                 | Risk of Bias |
|------------------|---------|-------------|------|-------|----------------------|----------------|--------------|---------------------------------|------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------|
| Wilson et al. 2011 | USA     | 1986-2006   | 40-75 years | 47,911 | 5035 | Validated FFQ | ≥6 cups/day (no. of cases: 152); | none (no. of cases: 139) | 20 years | Age in months, calendar time, race, BMI at age 21, current BMI, vigorous physical activity, smoking, diabetes, family history of prostate cancer in father or brother, multivitamin use, intakes of processed meat, tomato sauce, calcium, alpha-linolenic acid, supplemental vitamin E, alcohol intake, energy intake, history of PSA testing. | 9 stars; low risk of bias |
| Nilsson et al. 2010 | Sweden  | 1985-2007   | 40-60 years (median: 50 years) | 30,930 | 653 | Validated Semi-quantitative FFQ | ≥4 cups/day (no. of cases: 209); | <1 cup/day (no. of cases: 60) | 15 years (median: 6 years) | Age, BMI, smoking, education, recreational physical activity. | 8 stars; low risk of bias |
| Iso et al. 2007 | Japan   | 1988-1997   | 40-79 years | 43,500 | 161 | Self-administrated questionnaire | ≥2 cups/day (no. of cases: 38); | | Mean: 8.15 years | Age, area of study | 7 stars; low risk of bias (exposure misclassification bias, confounding bias) |
| Study                  | Country | Period       | Age range | Cases | FFQ | Lowest intake | Highest intake | Total prostate cancer incidence | Mean years | Risk factors                                                                                   | Risk of bias                       |
|-----------------------|---------|--------------|-----------|-------|-----|---------------|----------------|-------------------------------|------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Ellison et al. (2000) | Canada  | 1970-1993    | 50-84 years | 3400  | 145 | ≤1-2 cup/month | ≥750 mg/day | (no. of cases: 47) | 11.6       | Age, wine consumption.                                                                       | 6 stars; medium risk of bias       |
| Le Marchand et al. (1994) | USA     | 1975-1989    | ≥45 years  | 20,316| 198 | none.         | ≥2.5 cups/day | (no. of cases: 23) | Median: 6 | Age, ethnicity, income.                                                                     | 6 stars; medium risk of bias       |
| Hsing et al. (1990)   | USA     | 1966-1986    | ≥35 years  | 17,633| 149 | none.         | ≥5 cups/day   | (Median: 51 years) | Mean: 15.6 | Age, tobacco use.                                                                            | 7 stars; low risk of bias          |
| Severson et al. (1989)| USA     | 1965-1986    | 46-68 years | 7998  | 174 | none.         | ≥5 cups/week   | (no. of cases: 146) | Mean: 17.4 | Age                                                                                         | 7 stars; low risk of bias          |
The lowest intake:
<1 cups/week (no. of cases: 22)

BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; FFQ, food frequency questionnaire; NA, not available; PSA, prostate-specific antigen; RR, relative risk;
## Supplementary Table S3 Quality of cohort studies included in the meta-analysis

| Study        | Representativeness of the exposed cohort | Selection of the non-exposed cohort | Ascertainment of exposure | Outcome of interest was not present at start of study | Controls for important risk factors | Assessment of outcome | Follow-up long enough for outcomes to occur | Adequacy of follow up of cohorts | Total quality score |
|--------------|----------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| Ong et al. 2019 | ☆                                     | ☆                                  | -                         | ☆                                                   | ☆☆                                | ☆                     | -                                          | ☆                            | 7                   |
| Sen et al. 2019  | ☆                                     | ☆                                  | ☆                         | ☆                                                   | ☆☆                                | ☆                     | ☆                                          | ☆                            | 9                   |
| Pounis et al. 2017 | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | ☆                         | ☆                                                   | ☆☆                                | ☆                     | -                                          | ☆                            | 8                   |
| Hashibe et al. 2015 | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | ☆                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | ☆                                          | ☆                            | 8                   |
| Terdal et al. 2015 | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | -                         | ☆                                                   | ☆☆                                | ☆                     | -                                          | ☆                            | 8                   |
| Li et al. 2013     | ☆                                     | ☆                                  | ☆                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | ☆                            | 8                   |
| Discacciati et al. 2013 | ☆                                  | ☆                                  | ☆                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | -                            | 8                   |
| Bosire et al. 2013  | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | -                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | -                            | 8                   |
| Shafique et al. 2012 | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | -                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | -                            | 8                   |
| Wilson et al. 2011  | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | ☆                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | ☆                            | 9                   |
| Nilsson et al. 2010 | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | ☆                         | -                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | -                            | 8                   |
| Iso et al. 2007     | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | -                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | ☆                            | 7                   |
| Ellison et al. 2000 | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | -                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | -                            | 6                   |
| Le Marchand et al. 1994 | ☆                                  | ☆                                  | -                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | -                            | 6                   |
| Hsing et al. 1990   | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | -                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          | -                            | 7                   |
| Severson et al. 1989 | ☆                                    | ☆                                  | ☆                         | ☆                                                   | ☆                                 | ☆                     | -                                          |    -                        | 7                   |

1. A maximum of 2 stars could be awarded for this item. Studies that included adjustment for age received one star, and studies that included most of the other important confounders such as ethnicity, dietary factors (energy intake, vitamin D, dietary fat etc.), physical activity, body mass index, type 2 diabetes mellitus, alcohol and smoking received an additional star.
Figure S1 Begg’s funnel plot of coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk

Figure S2 Egger’s publication bias plot of coffee consumption and prostate cancer risk