

populations, what are the plausible explanations? Japanese have a high prevalence of the slow-metabolizing variant of the aldehyde dehydrogenase gene (8). The variant induces increased and persisting blood levels of acetaldehyde after alcohol ingestion (10). The modifying effect of the aldehyde dehydrogenase variant on the association between alcohol drinking and colorectal cancer risk was suggested in an earlier Japanese study (32); however, it has recently been challenged by large-scale studies (33, 34). Therefore, it remains unclear whether the seemingly stronger association among Japanese is explained by a genetic difference in the efficiency of metabolizing alcohol among regular drinkers. Alternatively, the clearer contrast in risk between drinkers and nondrinkers in Japanese may be ascribed to more precise classification of the nonexposure reference group, which presumably included a higher proportion of lifetime abstainers who were genetically unable to metabolize acetaldehyde.

Nongenetic factors may contribute to the heterogeneity in risk among populations. Folate deficiency is hypothesized to enhance the adverse effect of alcohol (35), and if Japanese alcohol drinkers have a higher prevalence of folate deficiency than their Western counterparts, a stronger association may emerge. However, in the present study as well as the pooled analysis of Western studies (22), there was only limited evidence suggesting a modifying effect of dietary folate on the alcohol-colorectal cancer association. Thus, folate probably does not explain the difference in the strength of association between the Japanese and Western studies. Instead, we found a pronounced association with alcohol intake in men with the lowest body mass indices, a finding compatible with results from the pooled analysis of Western studies (22).

This differential association by body composition has been interpreted on the basis of the insulin hypothesis: Alcohol drinking improves insulin resistance (36), which is increased in obese people (37) and may be related to increased risk of colorectal cancer (38) or colon cancer (39); thus, the carcinogenic potential of alcohol could be partially cancelled through its favorable effects on insulin resistance among obese persons. However, such a favorable action of alcohol may not benefit lean persons, whose risk of developing cancer through an insulin-mediated pathway may be minimal. The apparently stronger alcohol-colorectal cancer association in Japanese is thus attributable, at least in part, to their lower body mass index relative to that of Westerners. Nevertheless, our finding for obese men, showing a significant increase in risk with alcohol intake—a finding that was not observed in the pooled analysis among Western populations (22)—suggests that other characteristics of Japanese may intensify the effects of alcohol in colorectal carcinogenesis.

We also found a significant association with an alcohol intake of ≥ 23 g/day in women. Although the data did not allow us to assess risk for specific categories of greater alcohol intake, the hazard ratio associated with a 15-g/day increase in alcohol consumption in women was comparable to that for men (HRs were 1.13 for women and 1.11 for men). As previously suggested (22, 31), the effects of alcohol drinking on colorectal cancer risk may be similar in magnitude for men and women.

There were several strengths in the present study. First, we analyzed data from cohort studies that used validated questionnaires to collect data on alcohol consumption. Second, each study controlled for a common set of variables that are known or suggested to cause or prevent colorectal cancer, and all investigators confirmed that additional adjustment for physical activity did not alter their results. Third, with a large number of habitual drinkers in men, we were able to examine the risk of moderate drinking with reasonable statistical power. This point should be important from a public-health point of view; even a small increase in risk for an exposure category with a large number of drinkers leads to a considerable increase in the total number of cases, as for the present case in men (but not in women). Lastly, we estimated hazard ratios with and without exclusion of ex-drinkers from the reference category, by which we could infer the influence of ex-drinking on the association between alcohol drinking and colorectal cancer.

Our study also had some limitations. First, we used only baseline information on alcohol drinking, and thus we could not assess the effects of lifetime alcohol consumption or changes in drinking habits during follow-up on colorectal cancer risk. Second, random variation related to exposure measurement might have attenuated the associations. Third, although investigators in each study adjusted their results extensively for factors associated with colorectal cancer risk, we cannot exclude the possibility that our estimates were distorted because of residual confounding.

In summary, this pooled analysis of data from large prospective studies carried out in Japan confirmed that alcohol drinking is associated with increased risk of colorectal cancer in a dose-response manner in men and women. Although moderate drinking is associated with decreased risk of overall mortality (40), the present finding in men, showing a statistically significant 42 percent increase in colorectal cancer risk with an alcohol intake of 23–45.9 g/day, calls for attention. If the present association is causal, one fourth of all cases of colorectal cancer among Japanese men are attributable to an alcohol intake of ≥ 23 g/day. Moderation of alcohol drinking is an important aspect of the prevention of colorectal cancer. Further research is required to elucidate the roles of genetic and environmental factors that modify the alcohol-colorectal cancer association.

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