

Physical activity and risks of breast and colorectal cancer: a Mendelian randomisation analysis

Nikos Papadimitriou, Niki Dimou, Konstantinos Tsilidis, Barbara Banbury, Richard Martin, Sarah Lewis, Nabila Kazmi, Timothy Robinson, Demetrius Albanes, Krasimira Aleksandrova, et al.

To cite this version:

Nikos Papadimitriou, Niki Dimou, Konstantinos Tsilidis, Barbara Banbury, Richard Martin, et al.. Physical activity and risks of breast and colorectal cancer: a Mendelian randomisation analysis. Nature Communications, 2020, 11 (1), 10.1038/s41467-020-14389-8 hal-02872359

HAL Id: hal-02872359 <https://u-paris.hal.science/hal-02872359v1>

Submitted on 27 Jan 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

ARTICLE

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-14389-8 **OPEN**

Physical activity and risks of breast and colorectal cancer: a Mendelian randomisation analysis

Nikos Papadimitriou et al.#

Physical activity has been associated with lower risks of breast and colorectal cancer in epidemiological studies; however, it is unknown if these associations are causal or confounded. In two-sample Mendelian randomisation analyses, using summary genetic data from the UK Biobank and GWA consortia, we found that a one standard deviation increment in average acceleration was associated with lower risks of breast cancer (odds ratio [OR]: 0.51, 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.27 to 0.98, P-value $= 0.04$) and colorectal cancer (OR: 0.66, 95% CI: 0.48 to 0.90, P-value $= 0.01$). We found similar magnitude inverse associations for estrogen positive (ER^{+ve}) breast cancer and for colon cancer. Our results support a potentially causal relationship between higher physical activity levels and lower risks of breast cancer and colorectal cancer. Based on these data, the promotion of physical activity is probably an effective strategy in the primary prevention of these commonly diagnosed cancers.

A full list of authors and their affiliations appears at the end of the paper.

reast and colorectal cancer are two of the most common cancers globally with a combined estimated number of 4 million new cases and 1.5 million deaths in 2018¹. Physical activity is widely promoted along with good nutrition, maintaining a healthy weight, and refraining from smoking, as key components of a healthy lifestyle that contribute to lower risks of several non-communicable diseases such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and cancer².

Epidemiological studies have consistently observed inverse relationships between physical activity and risks of breast and colorectal cancer^{3–5}. The World Cancer Research Fund/American Institute for Cancer Research (WCRF/AICR) Continuous Update Project classified the evidence linking physical activity to lower risks of breast (postmenopausal) and colorectal cancer as 'strong' 6. However, previous epidemiological studies have generally relied on self-report measures of physical activity which are prone to recall and response biases and may attenuate 'true' associations with disease risk⁷. More objective methods to measure physical activity, such as accelerometry, have seldom been used in large-scale epidemiological studies, with the UK Biobank being a recent exception in which ~100,000 participants wore a wrist accelerometer for 7-days to measure total activity levels⁸. Epidemiological analyses of these data will provide important new evidence on the link between physical activity and cancer, but these analyses remain vulnerable to other biases of observational epidemiology such as residual confounding (e.g. low physical activity levels may be correlated with other unfavourable health behaviours) and reverse causality (e.g. preclinical cancer symptoms may have resulted in low physical activity levels).

Mendelian randomisation (MR) is an increasingly used tool that uses germline genetic variants as proxies (or instrumental variables) for exposures of interest to enable causal inferences to be made between a potentially modifiable exposure and an outcome9. Unlike traditional observational epidemiology, MR analyses should be largely free of conventional confounding owing to the random independent assignment of alleles during meiosis¹⁰. In addition, there should be no reverse causation, as germline genetic variants are fixed at conception and are consequently unaffected by the disease process 10 .

We used a two-sample MR framework to examine potential causal associations between objective accelerometer-measured physical activity and risks of breast and colorectal cancer using genetic variants associated with accelerometer-measured physical activity identified from two recent genome-wide association studies $(GWAS)^{11,12}$. We examined the associations of these genetic variants with risks of breast cancer¹³ and colorectal cancer¹⁴.

Results

MR estimates for breast cancer. We estimated that a 1 standard deviation (SD) (8.14 milligravities) increment in the genetically predicted levels of accelerometer-measured physical activity was associated with a 49% lower risk of breast cancer for the instrument using the 5 genome-wide-significant SNP instrument (odds ratio [OR]: 0.51, 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.27 to 0.98, P-value $= 0.04$, Q-value $= 0.062$) (Table 1), and a 41% lower risk for the extended 10 SNP instrument (OR: 0.59, 95% CI: 0.42 to 0.84, P-value = 0.003, Q-value = 0.012). An inverse association was only found for estrogen receptor positive breast cancer (ER⁺ve) (5 SNP instrument, OR: 0.45, 95% CI: 0.20 to 1.01, P -value = 0.054, Q -value = 0.077; extended 10 SNP instrument, OR: 0.53, 95% CI: 0.35 to 0.82, *P*-value = 0.004, *Q*-value = 0.004), and not estrogen receptor negative (ER-ve) breast cancer (Table 1); although this heterogeneity by subtype was not statistically different $(I^2 = 16\%;$ P-heterogeneity by subtype = 0.27). There was some evidence of heterogeneity based on Cochran's Q (P-value < 0.05) for the breast cancer analyses; consequently, for these models random effects MR estimates were used (Table 1). MR estimates for each of the SNPs associated with accelerometermeasured physical activity in relation to breast cancer risk are presented in Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig. 1. Scatter plots (with coloured lines representing the slopes of the different regression analyses) and funnel plots of the accelerometer-measured physical activity and breast cancer risk association for the extended 10 SNP instrument are presented in Supplementary Figs. 2 and 3.

Mendelian randomisation estimates for colorectal cancer. For colorectal cancer, a 1 SD increment in accelerometer-measured physical activity level was associated with a 34% lower risk (OR: 0.66, 95% CI: 0.48 to 0.90, *P*-value = 0.01, *Q*-value = 0.022) for the 5 SNP instrument, and a 40% lower risk for the extended 10 SNP instrument (OR: 0.60, 95% CI: 0.47 to 0.76, P-value = 2.4×10^{-5} , Q-value = 0.0002) (Table 1). The inverse effect estimate was stronger for women (OR: 0.57, 95% CI: 0.36 to 0.90, P-value $= 0.02$, Q-value $= 0.036$), while there was weak evidence for an inverse association for men (OR: 0.79, 95% CI: 0.50 to 1.23, *P*-value = 0.29, *Q*-value = 0.31); this heterogeneity did not meet the threshold of significance ($I^2 = 0\%$; P-heterogeneity by $sex = 0.34$). For colorectal subsite analyses, accelerometer-measured physical activity levels were inversely associated with risks of colon cancer (OR per 1 SD increment OR: 0.64, 95% CI: 0.44 to 0.94, P-value = 0.02, Q-value = 0.036); while there was weak evidence for an inverse association between accelerometer-measured physical activity levels and rectal cancer (OR: 0.70, 95% CI: 0.43 to 1.14, P-value = 0.15, O $value = 0.18$). Similar results by sex and subsite for colorectal cancer were found for the extended 10 SNP instrument (Table 1). MR estimates for each individual SNP associated with accelerometer-measured physical activity in relation to colorectal cancer risk are presented in Fig. 2 and Supplementary Figs. 4–6. Scatter plots (with coloured lines representing the slopes of the different regression analyses) and funnel plots of the accelerometer-measured physical activity and colorectal cancer risk association for the extended 10 SNP instrument are presented in Supplementary Figs. 7 and 8.

Evaluation of assumptions and sensitivity analyses. The strength of the genetic instruments denoted by the F-statistic was \geq 10 for all the accelerometer-measured physical activity variants and ranged between 27 and 56 (Table 2). Little evidence of directional pleiotropy was found for all models that used the extended 10 SNP instrument (MR-Egger intercept P-values > 0.06) (Table 1). The estimates from the weighted-median approach for the extended 10 SNP instrument were consistent with those of inverse-variance weighted (IVW) models (Table 1). The MR pleiotropy residual sum and outlier test (MR-PRESSO) method identified the SNPs rs11012732 and rs55657917 contained within the extended 10 SNP instrument as pleiotropic for breast cancer, but similar magnitude associations were observed when these variants were excluded from the analyses (Supplementary Table 10). After examining Phenoscanner and GWAS catalogue, we found that several of the accelerometer-measured physical activity genetic variants were also associated with adiposity-related phenotypes (Supplementary Tables 11, 12). However, the results from the leave-one-SNP out analysis did not reveal any influential SNPs driving the associations (Supplementary Tables 13–18). Additionally, similar results were found when the 5 adiposity-related SNPs were excluded from the extended 10 SNP genetic instrument (Supplementary Table 19). Further, the results from the multivariable MR analyses adjusting for BMI using the extended 10 SNP instrument were largely

Table 1 Mendelian Randomisation estimates between accelerometer-measured physical activity and cancer risk.

CI confidence intervals, MR Mendelian randomisation, OR odds ratio, SNPs Single nucleotide polymorphisms

^aThe estimates correspond to a standard deviation increase in physical activity

Q-value: False discovery rate (FDR) correction performed using the Benjamini–Hochberg method

b_P-value or pleiotropy based on MR-Egger intercept ^cP-value for heterogeneity based on Q statistic

dThe estimates were derived from a random effects model due to the presence of heterogeneity based on Cochran's Q statistic

unchanged from the main IVW results (Supplementary Table 20). Finally, a similar pattern of results was found when GWAS effect estimates adjusted for BMI were used for 5 SNP genetic instrument¹¹ (Supplementary Table 21).

Discussion

In this MR analysis, higher levels of genetically predicted accelerometer-measured physical activity were associated with lower risks of breast cancer and colorectal cancer, with similar magnitude inverse associations found for ER+ve and for colon cancer. These findings indicate that population-level increases in physical activity may lower the incidence of these two commonly diagnosed cancers, and support the promotion of physical activity for cancer prevention.

A large body of observational studies has investigated how physical activity relates to risk of breast and colorectal cancer^{15,16}. In a participant-level pooled analysis of 12 prospective studies, when the 90th and 10th percentile of leisure-time physical activity were compared, lower risks of breast cancer (hazard ratio [HR]: 0.90, 95% CI: 0.87 to 0.93), colon cancer (HR: 0.84, 95% CI: 0.77 to 0.91), and rectal cancer (HR: 0.87, 95% CI: 0.80 to 0.95) were found³. Similarly, inverse associations between total physical activity and risks of postmenopausal breast and colorectal cancer were recently reported in meta-analyses of all published prospective cohort data by the WCRF/AICR Continuous Update Project $15,16$.

These observational studies relied on self-report physical activity assessment methods that are prone to measurement error, which may attenuate associations towards the null. In addition, causality cannot be ascertained from such observational analyses as they are vulnerable to residual confounding and reverse causality. Further, logistical and financial challenges prohibit

Fig. 1 Mendelian randomisation analysis for individual SNPs associated with accelerometer-measured physical activity in relation to breast cancer risk using the genetic instrument from the GWAS by Doherty et al.¹¹. The x axis corresponds to a log OR per one unit increase in the physical activity based on the average acceleration (milligravities). The Mendelian randomisation (MR) result corresponds to a random effects model due to heterogeneity across the genetic instruments. logOR = log odds ratio (black filled circle). 95% CI = 95% confidence interval (black line). SNP single nucleotide polymorphism.

randomised controlled trials of physical activity and cancer development. For example, it has been estimated that in order to detect a 20% breast cancer risk reduction, between 26,000 to 36,000 healthy middle-aged women would need to be randomised to a 5 year exercise intervention¹⁷. Several trials on cancer survivors are registered and underway, and these may provide evidence of potential causal associations between physical activity and disease free survival and cancer recurrence;¹⁸ however, these interventions will not inform causal inference of the relationship between physical activity and cancer development. We therefore conducted MR analyses to allow causal inference between accelerometer-measured physical activity and risks of developing breast and colorectal cancer. The inverse associations we found were stronger for ER^{+ve} breast cancer and colon cancer, and are highly concordant with prior observational epidemiological evidence.

There is currently no standard method in translating accelerometer data into energy expenditure values, such as metabolic equivalent of tasks (METs). However, using an accepted threshold for moderate activity (e.g. fast walking) of 100 milligravity^{19,20}, 1-SD higher mean acceleration $(\sim8 \text{ milli-gravity})$ equates to approximately 50 min extra moderate activity per week. Similarly, using an accepted threshold of 425 milli-gravity for vigorous activity (e.g. running)^{19,20}, a 1-SD higher mean acceleration equates to approximately 8 min of extra vigorous activity per week. In our study, we found that such an increase in

weekly activity translates to a 49 and 34% lower risks of developing breast and colorectal cancer, respectively.

Being physically active is associated with less weight gain and body fatness, and lower adiposity is associated with lower risks of breast and colorectal cancer^{15,16}. Since body size/adiposity is likely on the causal pathway linking physical activity and breast and colorectal cancer, it is challenging to disentangle independent effects of physical activity on cancer development. The close inter-relation between adiposity and physical activity is evident from 5 of the 10 SNPs in the extended genetic instrument for accelerometer-measured physical activity being previously associated with adiposity/body size traits. However, it is noteworthy that our results were unchanged when we excluded adiposityrelated SNPs from this genetic instrument, and when we conducted multivariable MR analyses adjusting for body mass index (BMI). These results would therefore suggest that physical activity is also associated with breast and colorectal cancer independently of adiposity.

Multiple biological mechanisms are hypothesised to mediate the potential beneficial role of physical activity on cancer devel $opment^{21,22}$. Greater physical activity has been associated with lower circulating levels of insulin and insulin-like growth factors, which promote cellular proliferation in breast and colorectal tissue and have also been linked to development of cancers at these sites $21,23-27$. Higher levels of physical activity have also been associated with lower circulating concentrations of estradiol,

Fig. 2 Mendelian randomisation analysis for individual SNPs associated with accelerometer-measured physical activity in relation to colorectal cancer risk (overall, colon, rectal) using the genetic instrument from the GWAS by Doherty et al.¹¹. The x axis corresponds to a log OR per one unit increase in the physical activity based on the average acceleration (milli-gravities). The Mendelian randomisation (MR) result corresponds to a random effects model due to heterogeneity across the genetic instruments. $logOR = log$ odds ratio (black filled circle). 95% CI = 95% confidence interval (black line). SNP single nucleotide polymorphism.

estrone, and higher levels of sex hormone binding globulin²⁸⁻³⁰ which are themselves risk factors for breast cancer development^{31,32}. Physical activity has also been associated with improvements in the immune response with increased surveillance and elimination of cancerous cells $33,34$. Higher levels of physical activity may also reduce systemic inflammation by lowering the levels of pro-inflammatory factors, such as Creactive protein (CRP), interleukin-6 (IL-6) and tumour necrosis factor-alpha $(TNF-a)^{33,35,36}$. Finally, emerging evidence suggests that the gut microbiome may play an important role in the physical activity and cancer relationship. Dysbiosis of the gut microbiome has been associated with increased risks of several malignancies, including breast and colorectal cancer³⁷. Changes in gut microbiome composition and derived metabolic products have been found following endurance exercise training with short-chain fatty acid concentrations increased in lean, but not obese, subjects^{38,39}.

A fundamental assumption of MR is that the genetic variants do not influence the outcome via a different biological pathway from the exposure of interest (horizontal pleiotropy). We conducted multiple sensitivity analyses using an extended 10 SNP genetic instrument for accelerometer-measured physical activity to test for the influence of pleiotropy on our causal estimates, and our results were robust according to these various tests. A potential limitation of our analysis is that the genetic variants explained a small fraction of the variability of accelerometer-

measured physical activity, which may have resulted in some of the breast cancer subtype and colorectal subsite analyses being underpowered. In addition, our use of summary-level data precluded subgroup analyses by other cancer risk factors (e.g. BMI, exogenous hormone use). We were also unable to stratify breast cancer analyses by menopausal status; however, the majority of women in the source GWAS had postmenopausal breast can $cer¹³$. Finally, 7-day accelerometer-measured physical activity levels of UK Biobank participants may not have been representative of usual behavioural patterns.

In conclusion, we found that genetically elevated levels of accelerometer-measured physical activity were associated with lower risks of breast and colorectal cancer. These findings strongly support the promotion of physical activity as an effective strategy in the primary prevention of these commonly diagnosed cancers.

Methods

Data on physical activity. Summary-level data were obtained from two recently published GWAS on accelerometer-measured physical activity conducted in ~91,000 participants from the UK Biobank^{11,12}. In the GWAS by Doherty et al.¹¹, BOLT-LMM was used to perform linear mixed models analyses that were adjusted for assessment centre, genotyping array, age, age², and season. This GWAS identified 5 genome-wide-significant SNPs (P-value < 5 × 10[−]8) associated with accelerometer-measured physical activity. The estimated SNP-based heritability for accelerometer-measured physical activity in the UK Biobank is 14%12, suggesting that additional SNPs contributed to its variation. Consequently, we also used an accelerometer-measured physical activity instrument with an expanded number

Table 2 Summary information on accelerometer-measured physical activity SNPs used as genetic instruments used for the Mendelian randomisation analyses.

BMI body mass index, Chr chromosome, EAF effect allele frequency, NA not available, PA physical activity, se standard error, SNP single nucleotide polymorphism

aPosition based on GRCh38.p12 b_{The beta coefficients are expressed in milligravities}

cN refers to the sample size of the initial GWAS from which the genetic variants were selected

of SNPs ($n = 10$; associated with accelerometer-measured physical activity at P-value < 1 × 10[−]7) identified by another UK Biobank GWAS by Klimentidis et al.12. The extended number of SNPs in the accelerometer-measured physical activity instrument allowed us to conduct more robust sensitivity analyses to check for the influence of horizontal pleiotropy on the results. Data for the associations between the 10 SNPs and physical activity were obtained from a recent MR study on physical activity and depression that used the data from the same UK Biobank GWAS40. Detailed information on the genetic variants used in the 5 genome-wide significant SNP instrument and the extended 10 SNP instrument is provided in Table 2.

Data on breast cancer and colorectal cancer. Summary data for the associations of the accelerometer-measured genetic variants with breast cancer (overall and by estrogen receptor status: ER positive $[ER^{+ve}]$ and ER negative $[ER^{ve}]$) were obtained from a GWAS of 228,951 women (122,977 breast cancer [69,501 ER positive, 21,468 ER negative] cases and 105,974 controls) of European ancestry from the Breast Cancer Association Consortium (BCAC)¹³. Genotyping data were imputed using the program IMPUTE214 with the 1000 Genomes Project Phase III integrated variant set as the reference panel. Single nucleotide polymorphisms
(SNPs) with low imputation quality (imputation $r^2 < 0.5$) were excluded. Top principal components (PCs) were included as covariates in regression analysis to address potential population substructure (iCOGS: top eight PCs; OncoArray: top 15 PCs) (Supplementary Tables 1, 2)^{13,41}. For colorectal cancer, summary data from 98,715 participants (52,775 colorectal cancer cases and 45,940 controls) were drawn from a meta-analysis within the ColoRectal Transdisciplinary Study (CORECT), the Colon Cancer Family Registry (CCFR), and the Genetics and Epidemiology of Colorectal Cancer (GECCO) consortia14. Imputation was performed using the Haplotype Reference Consortium (HRC) r1.0 reference panel and the regression models were further adjusted for age, sex, genotyping platform (whenever appropriate), and genomic PCs (from 3 to 13, whenever appropriate) (Supplementary Tables 3–6).

Statistical power. The a priori statistical power was calculated using an online tool
at <http://cnsgenomics.com/shiny/mRnd/>⁴². The 5 and 10 SNP accelerometermeasured physical activity instruments explained an estimated 0.2% and 0.4% of phenotypic variability, respectively. Given a type 1 error of 5%, for the 5 SNP instrument identified from the GWAS by Doherty et al.¹¹ we had sufficient power (> 80%) when the expected OR per 1 SD was ≤ 0.77 and ≤ 0.67 for overall breast cancer (122,977 cases and 105,974 controls) and colorectal cancer (52,775 colorectal cancer cases and 45,940 controls), respectively. Power estimates for the 5 genome-wide significant SNP and the extended 10 SNP instruments by subtypes of breast cancer and subsites of colorectal cancer are presented in Supplementary Tables 7 and 8.

Statistical analysis. A two-sample MR approach using summary data and the fixed-effect IVW method was implemented. All accelerometer-measured physical activity and cancer results correspond to an OR per 1 SD increment (8.14 milligravities) in the genetically predicted overall average acceleration. The

heterogeneity of causal effects by cancer subtype and sex was investigated by estimating the I^2 statistic assuming a fixed-effects model⁴³.

For causal estimates from MR studies to be valid, three main assumptions must be met: 1) the genetic instrument is strongly associated with the level of accelerometermeasured physical activity; 2) the genetic instrument is not associated with any potential confounder of the physical activity—cancer association; and 3) the genetic instrument does not affect cancer independently of physical activity (i.e. horizontal pleiotropy should not be present)44. The strength of each instrument was measured by calculating the F-statistic using the following formula: $F = R^2(N-2)/(1 - R^2)$. where R^2 is the proportion of the variability of the physical activity explained by each instrument and N the sample size of the GWAS for the SNP-physical activity association⁴⁵. To calculate R^2 for the 5 genome-wide significant SNP instrument we used the following formula: $2 \times EAF \times (1 - EAF) \times \beta$ whereas for the extended 10 SNP instrument we used: $(2 \times EAF \times (1 - EAF) \times beta^2) / [(2 \times EAF \times (1 - EAF) \times$ beta²) + $(2 \times EAF \times (1 - EAF) \times N \times SE(beta)^{2})$, where EAF is the effect allele frequency, beta is the estimated genetic effect on physical activity, Ν is the sample size of the GWAS for the SNP-physical activity association and SE (beta) is the standard error of the genetic effect⁴⁶. FDR correction (Q-value) was performed using the Benjamini-Hochberg method⁴⁷.

Sensitivity analyses. Several sensitivity analyses were used to check and correct for the presence of pleiotropy in the causal estimates. Cochran's Q was computed to quantify heterogeneity across the individual causal effects, with a P -value ≤ 0.05 indicating the presence of pleiotropy, and that consequently, a random effects IVW MR analysis should be used^{43,48}. We also assessed the potential presence of horizontal pleiotropy using MR-Egger regression based on its intercept term, where deviation from zero denotes the presence of directional pleiotropy. Additionally, the slope of the MR-Egger regression provides valid MR estimates in the presence of horizontal pleiotropy when the pleiotropic effects of the genetic variants are independent from the genetic associations with the exposure^{49,50}. We also computed OR estimates using the complementary weighted-median method that can give valid MR estimates under the presence of horizontal pleiotropy when up to 50% of the included instruments are invalid⁴⁴. The presence of pleiotropy was also assessed using the MR-PRESSO. In this, outlying SNPs are excluded from the accelerometer-measured physical activity instrument and the effect estimates are reassessed 51 . For all of the aforementioned sensitivity analyses to identify possible pleiotropy, we considered the estimates from the extended 10 SNP instrument as the primary results due to unstable estimates from the 5 SNP instrument. A leaveone-SNP out analysis was also conducted to assess the influence of individual variants on the observed associations. We also examined the selected genetic instruments and their proxies ($r^2 > 0.8$) and their associations with secondary phenotypes (P-value < 5 × 10[−]8) in Phenoscanner [\(http://www.phenoscanner.](http://www.phenoscanner.medschl.cam.ac.uk/) [medschl.cam.ac.uk/\)](http://www.phenoscanner.medschl.cam.ac.uk/) and GWAS catalog (date checked April 2019).

For the extended 10 SNP instrument, we also conducted multivariable MR analyses to adjust for potential pleiotropy due to BMI because the initial GWAS on physical activity reported several strong associations (P-value < 10[−]5) between the identified SNPs and BMI⁵². The new estimates correspond to the direct causal effect of physical activity with the BMI being fixed. The genetic data on BMI were obtained from a GWAS study published by The Genetic Investigation of ANthropometric Traits (GIANT) consortium⁵³ (Supplementary Table 9). Additionally, for the extended 10 SNP instrument, we also conducted analyses with adiposity-related SNPs (i.e. those previously associated with BMI, waist circumference, weight, or body/trunk fat percentage in GWAS studies at P-value < 10[−]8) excluded (n = 5; rs34517439, rs6775319, rs11012732, rs1550435, rs59499656). Finally, we conducted two-sample MR analyses using BMI adjusted GWAS estimates for the 5 SNP accelerometer-measured physical activity $instrument¹¹$. However, the MR results using the BMI adjusted GWAS estimates should be interpreted cautiously due to the potential for collider bias¹¹

All the analyses were conducted using the MendelianRandomisation 54 and TwoSampleMR⁵⁵ packages, and the R programming language.

Reporting summary. Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability

Data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper and its supplementary information files.

Received: 23 August 2019; Accepted: 28 December 2019; Published online: 30 January 2020

References

- 1. Bray, F. et al. Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. CA: Cancer J. Clinicians 68, 394–424 (2018).
- 2. WHO. Global Status Report on Noncommunicable Diseases 2014 (WHO, 2014).
- 3. Moore, S. C. et al. Association of leisure-time physical activity with risk of 26 types of cancer in 1.44 million adults. JAMA Intern. Med. 176, 816–825 (2016).
- 4. Morris, J. S., Bradbury, K. E., Cross, A. J., Gunter, M. J. & Murphy, N. Physical activity, sedentary behaviour and colorectal cancer risk in the UK Biobank. Br. J. Cancer 118, 920 (2018).
- 5. Kyu, H. H. et al. Physical activity and risk of breast cancer, colon cancer, diabetes, ischemic heart disease, and ischemic stroke events: systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. BMJ 354, i3857 (2016).
- 6. WCRF-AICR. Physical Activity and the Risk of Cancer (World Cancer Research Fund/American Institute for Cancer Research, 2018).
- 7. Prince, S. A. et al. A comparison of direct versus self-report measures for assessing physical activity in adults: a systematic review. Int. J. Behav. Nutr. Phys. Act. 5, 56 (2008).
- 8. Doherty, A. et al. Large scale population assessment of physical activity using wrist worn accelerometers: The UK Biobank Study. PLoS ONE 12, e0169649 (2017).
- 9. Davey Smith, G. & Ebrahim, S. 'Mendelian randomization': can genetic epidemiology contribute to understanding environmental determinants of disease? Int. J. Epidemiol. 32, 1–22 (2003).
- 10. Lawlor, D. A., Harbord, R. M., Sterne, J. A. C., Timpson, N. & Davey Smith, G. Mendelian randomization: Using genes as instruments for making causal inferences in epidemiology. Stat. Med. 27, 1133–1163 (2008).
- 11. Doherty, A. et al. GWAS identifies 14 loci for device-measured physical activity and sleep duration. Nat. Commun. 9, 5257 (2018).
- 12. Klimentidis, Y. C. et al. Genome-wide association study of habitual physical activity in over 277,000 UK Biobank participants identifies novel variants and genetic correlations with chronotype and obesity-related traits. bioRxiv [https://](https://doi.org/10.1101/179317) doi.org/10.1101/179317 (2017).
- 13. Michailidou, K. et al. Association analysis identifies 65 new breast cancer risk loci. Nature 551, 92 [https://www.nature.com/articles/nature24284#supplementary](https://www.nature.com/articles/nature24284#supplementary-information)[information](https://www.nature.com/articles/nature24284#supplementary-information) (2017).
- 14. Huyghe, J. R. et al. Discovery of common and rare genetic risk variants for colorectal cancer. Nat. Genet. 51, 76–87 (2019).
- 15. WCRF-AICR. Diet, nutrition, physical activity and breast cancer. Continuous Update Project. [https://www.wcrf.org/sites/default/](https://www.wcrf.org/sites/default/files/Breast-cancer-report.pdf)files/Breast-cancer-report. [pdf](https://www.wcrf.org/sites/default/files/Breast-cancer-report.pdf) (2018).
- 16. WCRF-AICR. Diet, nutrition, physical activity and colorectal cancer. Continuous Update Project. [http://www.wcrf.org/sites/default/](http://www.wcrf.org/sites/default/files/CUP%20Colorectal%20Report_2017_Digital.pdf)files/CUP% [20Colorectal%20Report_2017_Digital.pdf](http://www.wcrf.org/sites/default/files/CUP%20Colorectal%20Report_2017_Digital.pdf) (2017).
- 17. Ballard-Barbash, R. et al. Physical activity, weight control, and breast cancer risk and survival: clinical trial rationale and design considerations. JNCI: J. Natl Cancer Inst. 101, 630–643 (2009).
- 18. Friedenreich, C. M., Shaw, E., Neilson, H. K. & Brenner, D. R. Epidemiology and biology of physical activity and cancer recurrence. J. Mol. Med. 95, 1029–1041 (2017).
- 19. Hildebrand, M., Van Hees, V. T., Hansen, B. H. & Ekelund, U. L. F. Age group comparability of raw accelerometer output from wrist- and hip-worn monitors. Medi. Sci. Sports Exercise 46, 1816–1824 (2014).
- 20. UK-Biobank. UK Biobank Data Showcase <http://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/>
- 21. Ulrich, C. M., Himbert, C., Holowatyj, A. N. & Hursting, S. D. Energy balance and gastrointestinal cancer: risk, interventions, outcomes and mechanisms. Nat. Rev. Gastroenterol. Hepatol. 15, 683–698 (2018).
- 22. Hojman, P., Gehl, J., Christensen, J. F. & Pedersen, B. K. Molecular mechanisms linking exercise to cancer prevention and treatment. Cell Metab. 27, 10–21 (2018).
- 23. Bowers, L. W., Rossi, E. L., O'Flanagan, C. H., deGraffenried, L. A. & Hursting, S. D. The role of the insulin/igf system in cancer: lessons learned from clinical trials and the energy balance-cancer link. Frontiers in Endocrinology 6, [https://](https://doi.org/10.3389/fendo.2015.00077) doi.org/10.3389/fendo.2015.00077 (2015).
- Pollak, M. Insulin and insulin-like growth factor signalling in neoplasia. Nat. Rev. Cancer 8, 915 (2008).
- 25. Shu, X. et al. Associations of obesity and circulating insulin and glucose with breast cancer risk: a Mendelian randomization analysis. Int. J. Epidemiol. 48, 795–806 (2018).
- 26. Murphy, N. et al. A nested case–control study of metabolically defined body size phenotypes and risk of colorectal cancer in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC). PLoS Med. 13, e1001988 (2016).
- 27. The Endogenous, H. & Breast Cancer Collaborative, G. Insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF1), IGF binding protein 3 (IGFBP3), and breast cancer risk: pooled individual data analysis of 17 prospective studies. Lancet Oncol. 11, 530–542 (2010).
- 28. McTiernan, A. et al. Effect of exercise on serum estrogens in postmenopausal women: a 12-month randomized clinical trial. Cancer Res. 64, 2923–2928 (2004).
- 29. Liedtke, S. et al. Physical activity and endogenous sex hormones in postmenopausal women: to what extent are observed associations confounded or modified by BMI? Cancer Causes Control 22, 81–89 (2011).
- 30. Bertone-Johnson, E. R., Tworoger, S. S. & Hankinson, S. E. Recreational physical activity and steroid hormone levels in postmenopausal women. Am. J. Epidemiol. 170, 1095–1104 (2009).
- 31. Endogenous Hormones and Breast Cancer Collaborative Group. Sex hormones and risk of breast cancer in premenopausal women: a collaborative reanalysis of individual participant data from seven prospective studies. Lancet Oncol. 14, 1009–1019 (2013).
- 32. The Endogenous Hormones Breast Cancer Collaborative Group. Endogenous sex hormones and breast cancer in postmenopausal women: reanalysis of nine prospective studies. JNCI: J. Natl Cancer Inst. 94, 606-616 (2002).
- 33. Friedenreich, C. M., Neilson, H. K. & Lynch, B. M. State of the epidemiological evidence on physical activity and cancer prevention. Eur. J. Cancer 46, 2593–2604 (2010).
- 34. Zhang, X., Ashcraft, K. A., Betof Warner, A., Nair, S. K. & Dewhirst, M. W. Can exercise-induced modulation of the tumor physiologic microenvironment improve antitumor immunity? Cancer Res. [https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.](https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.Can-18-2468) [Can-18-2468](https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.Can-18-2468) (2019).
- 35. McTiernan, A. Mechanisms linking physical activity with cancer. Nat. Rev. Cancer 8, 205–211 (2008).
- 36. Woods, J. A., Vieira, V. J. & Keylock, K. T. Exercise, inflammation, and innate immunity. Neurologic Clin. 24, 585–599 (2006).
- 37. Helmink, B. A., Khan, M. A. W., Hermann, A., Gopalakrishnan, V. & Wargo, J. A. The microbiome, cancer, and cancer therapy. Nat. Med. 25, 377–388 (2019).
- 38. Fernandez, D. M., Clemente, J. C. & Giannarelli, C. Physical activity, immune system, and the microbiome in cardiovascular disease. Front Physiol. 9, 763–763 (2018).
- 39. Allen, J. M. et al. Exercise alters gut microbiota composition and function in lean and obese humans. Med. Sci. sports Exerc. 50, 747–757 (2018).
- 40. Choi, K. W. et al. Assessment of bidirectional relationships between physical activity and depression among adults: a 2-sample Mendelian randomization study. JAMA. Psychiatry 76, 399–408 (2019).
- 41. Michailidou, K. et al. Large-scale genotyping identifies 41 new loci associated with breast cancer risk. Nat. Genet. 45, 353 (2013).
- 42. Brion, M.-J. A., Shakhbazov, K. & Visscher, P. M. Calculating statistical power in Mendelian randomization studies. Int. J. Epidemiol. 42, 1497–1501 (2013).
- 43. Higgins, J. P. T., Thompson, S. G., Deeks, J. J. & Altman, D. G. Measuring inconsistency in meta-analyses. BMJ 327, 557–560 (2003).
- 44. Bowden, J., Davey Smith, G., Haycock, P. C. & Burgess, S. Consistent estimation in Mendelian randomization with some invalid instruments using a weighted median estimator. Genet. Epidemiol. 40, 304–314 (2016).
- 45. Burgess, S., Thompson, S. G. & Collaboration, C. C. G. Avoiding bias from weak instruments in Mendelian randomization studies. Int. J. Epidemiol. 40, 755–764 (2011).

- 46. Shim, H. et al. A multivariate genome-wide association analysis of 10 LDL subfractions, and their response to statin treatment, in 1868 caucasians. PLoS ONE 10, e0120758 (2015).
- 47. Benjamini, Y. & Hochberg, Y. Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. B (Methodol.) 57, 289–300 (1995).
- 48. Bowden, J. et al. A framework for the investigation of pleiotropy in twosample summary data Mendelian randomization. Stat. Med. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1002/sim.7221) [10.1002/sim.7221](https://doi.org/10.1002/sim.7221) (2017).
- 49. Bowden, J., Davey Smith, G. & Burgess, S. Mendelian randomization with invalid instruments: effect estimation and bias detection through Egger regression. Int. J. Epidemiol. 44, 512–525 (2015).
- 50. Burgess, S. & Thompson, S. G. Interpreting findings from Mendelian randomization using the MR-Egger method. Eur. J. Epidemiol. 32, 377–389 (2017).
- 51. Verbanck, M., Chen, C.-Y., Neale, B. & Do, R. Detection of widespread horizontal pleiotropy in causal relationships inferred from Mendelian randomization between complex traits and diseases. Nat. Genet. 50, 693–698 (2018).
- 52. Burgess, S. & Thompson, S. G. Multivariable Mendelian randomization: the use of pleiotropic genetic variants to estimate causal effects. Am. J. Epidemiol. 181, 251–260 (2015).
- 53. Locke, A. E. et al. Genetic studies of body mass index yield new insights for obesity biology. Nature 518, 197–206 (2015).
- 54. Yavorska, O. O. & Burgess, S. MendelianRandomization: an R package for performing Mendelian randomization analyses using summarized data. Int. J. Epidemiol. 46, 1734–1739 (2017).
- 55. Hemani, G. et al. The MR-Base platform supports systematic causal inference across the human phenome. eLife 7, e34408 (2018).

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Cancer Institute, the International Agency for Research on Cancer and a Cancer Research UK program grant (C18281/A19169 to RMM, SIL & NK). RMM was supported by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Bristol Biomedical Research Centre. The views expressed are those of the author (s) and not necessarily those of the NIHR or the Department of Health and Social Care. The funding sources for BCAC, CCFR, GECCO, and CORECT consortia are presented in detail in the appendix in the Supplementary material.

Author contributions

Study conception: M.J.G. and N.M. Data analysis: N.P. and N.M. Drafting of the manuscript: N.P., M.J.G., and N.M. All other authors (N.D., K.K.T., B.B., R.M.M., S.J.L., N.K., T.M.R., D.A., K.A., S.I.B., D.T.B., H.B., D.B.B., B.B.-d.-M., P.T.C., S.C.B., A.T.C., J.C.C., M.E.D., J.C.F., S.J.G., G.G.G., E.G., S.B.G., A.G., J.H., H.H., S.H., T.A.H., M.H.,

J.L.H., L.H., J.M.H., J.R.H., M.A.J., T.O.K., T.K., C.L.V., L.L.M., C.I.L., L.L., A.L., N.M.L., B.L., S.D.M., G.M., A.M.M., R.M., E.M., L.M., V.M., P.A.N., K.O., V.P., P.D.P.P., E.A.P., J.D.P., G.R., E.R., M.J.S., S.L.S., R.E.S., G.S., S.S., M.L.S., M.S., C.M.T., S.N.T., R.C.T., A.T., C.M.U., .F.J.B.v.D., B.V.G., P.V., E.W., A.W., M.O.W., A.H.W., U.P.) contributed to the interpretation of the results and critical revision of the manuscript.

Competing interests

Where authors are identified as personnel of the International Agency for Research on Cancer/World Health Organization, the authors alone are responsible for the views expressed in this article and they do not necessarily represent the decisions, policy or views of the International Agency for Research on Cancer / World Health Organization. The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary information is available for this paper at [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-14389-8) [020-14389-8.](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-14389-8)

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to N.M.

Peer review information Nature Communications thanks the anonymous reviewers for their contribution to the peer review of this work. Peer reviewer reports are available.

Reprints and permission information is available at <http://www.nature.com/reprints>

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons $\left(\infty \right)$ \bigcirc Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit [http://creativecommons.org/](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/) [licenses/by/4.0/](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

© The Author(s) 2020

Niko[s](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8452-8472) Papadimitriou¹, Niki Dimou¹, Ko[n](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7992-7719)stantinos K. Tsilidis 2,3, Barbara Banbury⁴, Richard M. Martin 2,[5](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7992-7719)6,7, Sarah J. Lewi[s](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4311-6890) \mathbb{S}^6 , Nabila Kazmi⁵, Timothy M. Robinson⁶, Demetrius Albanes⁸, Krasimira Aleksandrova⁹, Sonja I. Berndt<su[p](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8752-8785)>8</sup>, D. Timothy Bishop ¹⁰, Herma[n](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-2225-6675)n Brenner^{11,12,13}, Daniel D. Buchanan ^{14,15,16}, Bas Bue[n](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7284-6767)o-de-Mesquita^{17,18,19,20}, Peter T. Campbell²¹, Sergi Castellví-Bel²², Andrew T. Chan ^{23,24}, Jenny Chang-Claude^{25,26}, Merete Ellingjord-Dale³, Jane C. Figueiredo^{27,28}, Steven J. Gallinger²⁹, Graham G. Gile[s](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4946-9099) \odot [1](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4946-9099)4,30, Edwa[r](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9795-1528)d Giovannucci^{[3](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2421-6127)1,32,33}, St[e](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2421-6127)phen B. Gruber³⁴, Andrea Gsur \odot ³⁵, Jochen Hampe \odot ³⁶, Heather Hampe[l](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7558-9794) \odot^{37} \odot^{37} \odot^{37} \odot^{37} \odot^{37} , Sophia Harlid \odot^{38} , Tabitha A. Harriso[n](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-4173-7530) \odot^{4} \odot^{4} \odot^{4} , Michael Hoffmeister¹¹, John L. Hopper^{14,39}, Li Hsu^{4,40}, José M[a](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9637-3869)ría Hu[e](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6027-9806)rta <[s](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8964-6160)up>41,42</sup>, Jeroen R. Huyghe ⁴, Mark A. Jenkins ¹⁴, Temitope O. Keku⁴³, Tilm[a](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1441-897X)n Kühn²⁵, Carlo La Vecchia ^{[4](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1441-897X)4,45}, Loic Le Marchand⁴⁶, Christopher I. Li⁴, Li Li⁴⁷, Annika Lindblom^{48,49}, Nor[a](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-5758-9069)lane M. Lindor⁵⁰, Brigid Lynch^{14,30,51}, Sanford D. Markowitz⁵², Giovanna Masala ⁵³, Anne M. May⁵⁴, Rog[e](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5764-7268)r Milne \odot \odot \odot [1](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5764-7268)4,30,55, Evelyn Monninkhof⁵⁴, Lorena Moreno²², Victor Moreno \odot ^{41,56,57} Polly A. Newcom[b](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8786-0043) ^{[4](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8786-0043),58}, Kenneth Offit^{59,60}, Vittorio Perduc[a](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0339-0473) ^{61,62,63}, Paul D.P. P[h](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8494-732X)aroah ⁶⁴, Elizabeth A. Platz⁶⁵, John D. Potte[r](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5439-1500) θ^4 θ^4 θ^4 , Gad Rennert $\theta^{66,67,68}$, Elio Riboli³, Maria-Jose Sánchez^{41,69}, S[t](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5931-1194)epha[n](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7153-2766)ie L. Schmit ^{34,70}, Robert E. Schoen ⁷¹, Gianluca Severi^{61,62}, Sabina Sieri⁷², Martha L. Slattery⁷³, Mingyang Song^{23,24,31,32}, Catherine M. Tangen⁷⁴, Stephen N. Thibodeau⁷⁵, Ruth C. Travis⁷⁶, A[n](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9692-101X)tonia Trichopoulou⁴⁴, Cornelia M. Ulrich^{[7](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9692-101X)7}, Franzel J.B. van Duijnhoven⁷⁸, Bethany Van Guelpen ^{79,80},

Pavel Vodic[k](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7387-6845)a^{[8](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7387-6845)1,82,83}, Emily White^{4,84}, Alicja Wolk \bullet^{85} , Michael O. Woods⁸⁶, Anna H. Wu⁸⁷, Ulrike Peter[s](http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5666-9318) $\bullet^{4,84}$, Marc J. Gunter^{1,88} & Neil Murph[y](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3347-8249) $\bullet^{1,88*}$ $\bullet^{1,88*}$ $\bullet^{1,88*}$

¹Section of Nutrition and Metabolism, International Agency for Research on Cancer, Lyon, France. ²Department of Hygiene and Epidemiology, University of Ioannina School of Medicine, Ioannina, Greece. ³Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, London, UK. ⁴Public Health Sciences Division, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, WA, USA. ⁵MRC Integrative Epidemiology Unit (IEU), Population Health Sciences, Bristol Medical School, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK. ⁶Bristol Medical School, Department of Population Health Sciences, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK. ⁷National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Bristol Biomedical Research Centre, University Hospitals Bristol NHS Foundation Trust and the University of Bristol, Bristol, UK. ⁸Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MA, USA. ⁹German Institute of Human Nutrition Potsdam-Rehbruecke (DIfE), Arthur-Scheunert-Allee 114-116, 14558 Nuthetal, Germany. ¹⁰Leeds Institute of Cancer and Pathology, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK. ¹¹Division of Clinical Epidemiology and Aging Research, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Heidelberg, Germany. 12Division of Preventive Oncology, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ) and National Center for Tumor Diseases (NCT), Heidelberg, Germany. 13German Cancer Consortium (DKTK), German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Heidelberg, Germany. ¹⁴Centre for Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Melbourne School of Population and Global Health, The University of Melbourne, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. 15Colorectal Oncogenomics Group, Genetic Epidemiology Laboratory, Department of Pathology, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC, Australia.¹⁶Genetic Medicine and Family Cancer Clinic, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, VIC, Australia. ¹⁷Former senior scientist, Dept. for Determinants of Chronic Diseases (DCD), National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), PO Box 1, 3720 BA Bilthoven, Netherlands. 18Former associate professor, Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, University Medical Centre, Utrecht, Netherlands. 19Former visiting professor, Dept. of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, The School of Public Health, Imperial College London, St Mary's Campus, Norfolk Place, London, W2 1PG London, UK. ²⁰Former academic Icon / visiting professor, Dept. of Social & Preventive Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, University of Malaya, Pantai Valley, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. ²¹Behavioral and Epidemiology Research Group, American Cancer Society, Atlanta, GA, USA. ²²Gastroenterology Department, Hospital Clínic, Institut d'Investigacions Biomèdiques August Pi i Sunyer (IDIBAPS), Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Enfermedades Hepáticas y Digestivas (CIBEREHD), University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain. ²³Division of Gastroenterology, Massachusetts General Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA. ²⁴Clinical and Translational Epidemiology Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA. ²⁵Division of Cancer Epidemiology, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Heidelberg, Germany. ²⁶University Medical Centre Hamburg-Eppendorf, University Cancer Centre Hamburg (UCCH), Hamburg, Germany. ²⁷Department of Medicine, Samuel Oschin Comprehensive Cancer Institute, Cedars-Sinai Medical Center, Los Angeles, CA, USA. ²⁸Department of Preventive Medicine, Keck School of Medicine, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, USA. 29Lunenfeld Tanenbaum Research Institute, Mount Sinai Hospital, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada. ³⁰Cancer Epidemiology and Intelligence Division, Cancer Council Victoria, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ³¹Department of Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Harvard University, Boston, MA, USA. ³²Department of Nutrition, T.H. H, Chan School of Public Health,
Boston, MA, USA. ³³Channing Division of Network Medicine, Brigham and Wom 34 Department of Preventive Medicine, USC Norris Comprehensive Cancer Center, Keck School of Medicine, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, USA. 35Institute of Cancer Research, Department of Medicine I, Medical University Vienna, Vienna, Austria. 36Department of Medicine I, University Hospital Dresden, Technische Universität Dresden (TU Dresden), Dresden, Germany. ³⁷Division of Human Genetics, Department of Internal Medicine, The Ohio State University Comprehensive Cancer Center, Columbus, OH, USA. ³⁸Department of Radiation Sciences, Oncology, Umea University, 901 87 Umea, Sweden. ³⁹Department of Epidemiology, School of Public Health and Institute of Health and Environment, Seoul National University, Seoul, South Korea. ⁴⁰Department of Biostatistics, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA. ⁴¹CIBER de Epidemiología y Salud Pública (CIBERESP), Madrid, Spain. ⁴²Department of Epidemiology, Murcia Regional Health Council, IMIB-Arrixaca, Murcia, Spain. ⁴³Center for Gastrointestinal Biology and Disease, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, USA. ⁴⁴Hellenic Health Foundation, Athens, Greece. ⁴⁵Dept. of Clinical Sciences and Community Health, Università degli Studi di Milano, Milano, Italy. ⁴⁶University of Hawaii Cancer Center, Honolulu, HI, USA. ⁴⁷Department of Family Medicine, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA, USA. ⁴⁸Department of Clinical Genetics, Karolinska University Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden. ⁴⁹Department of Molecular Medicine and Surgery, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden.
⁵⁰Department of Health Science Research, Mayo Clinic, Scottsdale, AZ, USA. ⁵ Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ⁵²Departments of Medicine and Genetics, Case Comprehensive Cancer Center, Case Western Reserve University, and University Hospitals of Cleveland, Cleveland, OH, USA. ⁵³Cancer Risk Factors and Life-Style Epidemiology Unit, Institute for Cancer Research, Prevention and Clinical Network - ISPRO, Florence, Italy. 54Julius Center for Health Sciences and Primary Care, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht University, P.O. Box 85500, 3508 GA UTRECHT, Netherlands. ⁵⁵Genetic Epidemiology Laboratory, Department of Pathology, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC, Australia. ⁵⁶Cancer Prevention and Control Program, Catalan Institute of Oncology-IDIBELL, L'Hospitalet de Llobregat, Barcelona, Spain. ⁵⁷Department of Clinical Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain. ⁵⁸School of Public Health, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA. ⁵⁹Clinical Genetics Service, Department of Medicine, Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center, New York, NY, USA. ⁶⁰Department of Medicine, Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, NY, USA. ⁶¹CESP, Fac. de médecine - Univ. Paris-Sud, Fac. de médecine - UVSQ I, Université Paris-Saclay, 94805 Villejuif, France. ⁶²Gustave Roussy, F-94805 Villejuif, France. ⁶³Laboratoire de Mathématiques Appliquées MAP5 (UMR CNRS 8145), Université Paris Descartes, Paris, France. ⁶⁴Department of Public Health and Primary Care,
University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK. ⁶⁵Department of Epidemiology, Johns Hopk ⁶⁶Department of Community Medicine and Epidemiology, Lady Davis Carmel Medical Center, Haifa, Israel. ⁶⁷Ruth and Bruce Rappaport Faculty of Medicine, Technion-Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa, Israel. ⁶⁸Clalit National Cancer Control Center, Haifa, Israel. ⁶⁹Andalusian School of Public Health, Biomedical Research Institute ibs.GRANADA, University of Granada, Granada, Spain. 70Department of Cancer Epidemiology, H. Lee Moffitt Cancer Center and Research Institute, Tampa, FL, USA. ⁷¹Department of Medicine and Epidemiology, University of Pittsburgh Medical Center, Pittsburgh, PA, USA. ⁷²Epidemiology and Prevention Unit, Fondazione IRCCS Istituto Nazionale dei Tumori, Milan, Italy. ⁷³Department of Internal
Medicine, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT, USA. ⁷⁴SWOG Statistica ⁷⁵Division of Laboratory Genetics, Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA. ⁷⁶Cancer Epidemiology Unit, Nuffield Department of Population Health, University of Oxford, OX3 7LF Oxford, UK.⁷⁷Huntsman Cancer Institute and Department of Population Health Sciences, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT, USA. 78Division of Human Nutrition, Wageningen University and Research, Wageningen, Netherlands. ⁷⁹Department of Radiation Sciences, Oncology Unit, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden. ⁸⁰Wallenberg Centre for Molecular Medicine, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden. 81Department of Molecular Biology of Cancer, Institute of Experimental Medicine of the Czech Academy of Sciences, Prague, Czech Republic. ⁸²Faculty of Medicine and Biomedical Center in Pilsen, Charles University, Pilsen, Czech Republic. 83Institute of Biology and Medical Genetics, First Faculty of Medicine, Charles University, Prague, Czech Republic. 84Department of

Epidemiology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA. ⁸⁵Institute of Environmental Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden.
⁸⁶Memorial University of Newfoundland, Discipline of Genetics, St. John's, Cana Angeles, CA, USA. ⁸⁸These authors contributed equally: Marc J. Gunter, Neil Murphy. *email: MurphyN@iarc.fr