

Alcohol and cancer: a position statement from Cancer Council Australia

Margaret H Winstanley, Iain S Pratt, Kathryn Chapman, Hayley J Griffin, Emma J Croager, Ian N Olver, Craig Sinclair and Terry J Slevin

Alcohol use is widespread in Australia and has had a dominant role in defining Australian culture for more than 200 years.^{1,2} However, it is also an important cause of illness, injury and death, whether resulting from short-term episodes of intoxication or from long-term, chronic use.³

Addressing the health and social damage resulting from risky drinking is one of the three key priority areas identified by the Australian National Preventative Health Taskforce.⁴ Levels of harm from alcohol use are increasing, and a range of policy measures have been proposed to address the current drinking “culture” in Australia.⁴

In this article, we provide a brief overview of the evidence concerning alcohol use and cancer, and outline the current Cancer Council Australia (CCA) recommendations on alcohol consumption. The consensus process for developing this position statement is described in Box 1, and a summary of the key evidence-based points is provided in Box 2.

Evidence linking alcohol use and cancer

It has been known for more than 20 years that long-term chronic use of alcohol can cause cancer. In 1988, the International Agency for Research on Cancer stated that the “occurrence of malignant tumours of the oral cavity, pharynx, larynx, oesophagus and liver is causally related to the consumption of alcoholic beverages” and classified alcoholic beverages as Group 1 carcinogens — known to cause cancer in humans.⁵ Ethanol, the chemical present in all alcoholic beverages that induces the altered physical and mental responses experienced with alcohol use, has also been listed as a Group 1 carcinogen.⁶

The most recent comprehensive review of the scientific evidence by the World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF) and the American Institute for Cancer Research (AICR) concluded that there is convincing evidence that alcohol is a cause of cancer of the mouth, pharynx, larynx, oesophagus, bowel (in men) and breast (in women), and probable evidence that alcohol increases the risk of bowel cancer (in women) and liver cancer.⁷ Convincing and probable are the two highest levels of evidence set by the WCRF and AICR, which identify a causal relationship between a particu-

ABSTRACT

- The Cancer Council Australia (CCA) Alcohol Working Group has prepared a position statement on alcohol use and cancer. The statement has been reviewed by external experts and endorsed by the CCA Board.
- Alcohol use is a cause of cancer. Any level of alcohol consumption increases the risk of developing an alcohol-related cancer; the level of risk increases in line with the level of consumption.
- It is estimated that 5070 cases of cancer (or 5% of all cancers) are attributable to long-term chronic use of alcohol each year in Australia.
- Together, smoking and alcohol have a synergistic effect on cancer risk, meaning the combined effects of use are significantly greater than the sum of individual risks.
- Alcohol use may contribute to weight (fat) gain, and greater body fatness is a convincing cause of cancers of the oesophagus, pancreas, bowel, endometrium, kidney and breast (in postmenopausal women).
- The existing evidence does not justify the promotion of alcohol use to prevent coronary heart disease, as the previously reported role of alcohol in reducing heart disease risk in light-to-moderate drinkers appears to have been overestimated.
- CCA recommends that to reduce their risk of cancer, people limit their consumption of alcohol, or better still avoid alcohol altogether.
- For individuals who choose to drink alcohol, CCA recommends that they drink only within the National Health and Medical Research Council guidelines for alcohol consumption.

MJA 2011; 194: 479–482

1 Consensus process used to develop the Cancer Council Australia (CCA) position statement

The position statement was developed by a writing group established under the CCA Public Health Committee. The writing group prepared an initial evidence-based draft statement that was circulated for comment to the Alcohol Working Group, Nutrition and Physical Activity Committee, and Public Health Committee. Based on feedback, the statement was revised and sent for peer review before being endorsed by the Public Health Committee and, finally, the CCA Board. The position statement is available in full at <http://www.cancer.org.au/Healthprofessionals/PositionStatements/alcohol.htm>.

lar aspect of food, nutrition, physical activity or body composition, and cancer.⁷ Scientific research is continuing to identify other cancers that could be associated with alcohol use. For example, there is some evidence that heavy alcohol consumption may be associated with a higher risk of prostate cancer.^{8,9}

There is a dose–response relationship between alcohol and cancer risk for men and women, with studies showing that the risk of cancer increases with increasing consumption of alcohol on a regular basis.^{7,10–12}

There are a number of biological mechanisms that may explain alcohol’s contribution to cancer development. Ethanol may cause cancer through the formation of acetaldehyde, its most toxic metabolite. Acetaldehyde has mutagenic and carcinogenic properties, and bonds with DNA to increase the risk of DNA mutations and impaired cell replication.^{13,14} Ethanol may also cause direct tissue damage by irritating the epithelium and increasing the

2 Key evidence-based points on alcohol use and cancer

- Alcohol use is a cause of cancer in humans (Group 1 carcinogen, highest level of evidence, classified by the International Agency for Research on Cancer [IARC]).⁵
- Ethanol, the chemical present in all alcoholic beverages, is also a cause of cancer in humans (IARC Group 1 carcinogen).⁶
- There is **convincing** evidence that alcohol use increases the risk of cancers of the mouth, pharynx, larynx, oesophagus, bowel (in men) and breast (in women).⁷ Convincing evidence, as classified by the World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF) and the American Institute for Cancer Research (AICR), is the strongest level of evidence and denotes a causal relationship.⁵
- Alcohol use **probably** increases the risk of bowel cancer (in women) and liver cancer. A probable relationship, as classified by the WCRF and the AICR, is the second highest level of evidence and denotes that the relationship is probably causal in nature.⁵
- Alcohol use may contribute to weight (fat) gain and may therefore contribute indirectly to cancers associated with overweight and obesity.
- Greater body fatness is a **convincing** cause of cancers of the oesophagus, pancreas, bowel, endometrium, kidney and breast (in postmenopausal women).⁷ ◆

absorption of carcinogens through its effects as a solvent.⁷ In addition, alcohol can increase the level of hormones such as oestrogen, thereby increasing breast cancer risk,⁷ and increase the risk of liver cancer by causing cirrhosis of the liver, increased oxidative stress, altered methylation and reduced levels of retinoic acid.¹³ Lifestyle factors such as smoking, poor oral hygiene, and certain nutrient deficiencies (folate, vitamin B6, methyl donors) or excesses (vitamin A/ β -carotene) owing to poor diet or self-medication may also increase the risk for alcohol-associated tumours.¹³

Combined effects of drinking and smoking

For some cancers, the combined effects of drinking alcohol and smoking tobacco greatly exceed the risk from either factor alone. Smoking and alcohol together have a synergistic effect on upper gastrointestinal and aerodigestive tract cancer risk.¹⁵ Compared with non-smoking non-drinkers, the approximate relative risks for developing mouth and throat cancers are up to seven times greater for people who smoke tobacco, up to six times greater for those who drink alcohol, but more than 35 times greater for those who are regular heavy users of both substances (consuming more than four alcoholic drinks and smoking 40 or more cigarettes daily).¹⁶ The synergistic effect of alcohol and smoking has been estimated to be responsible for more than 75% of cancers of the upper aerodigestive tract in developed countries.¹⁶

Alcohol use and weight gain

The relationship between alcohol consumption and body weight and fat is complex and appears to vary with sex and drinking pattern.¹⁷ From a nutritional viewpoint, alcoholic drinks represent “empty kilojoules” — that is, alcoholic drinks are high in kilojoules but low in nutritional value, especially when added to sugary mixer drinks. Alcohol itself has a comparatively high energy content (29 kJ/g) compared with other macronutrients.¹⁸

If people drink alcohol in addition to their normal dietary intake — that is, without a compensatory reduction in energy intake —

they are liable to gain weight. Alcohol provides extra kilojoules, and slows fat and carbohydrate oxidation. On the other hand, if drinking replaces healthy eating patterns, it can lead to nutritional deficiencies and serious illness.^{17,19}

Therefore, as well as being a direct cause of several cancers, alcohol might also contribute indirectly to those cancers associated with excess body fatness. There is convincing evidence that body fatness increases the risk of cancers of the oesophagus, pancreas, bowel, breast (in postmenopausal women), endometrium and kidney, and probable evidence that body fatness increases the risk of gallbladder cancer.⁷

Alcohol use and heart disease

Earlier research reporting that low-to-moderate levels of alcohol consumption might reduce the incidence of coronary heart disease may be flawed.²⁰ For example, misclassification error may be a factor in studies in which the category of non-drinkers includes former drinkers who might have stopped drinking for reasons such as ill health or becoming older.²¹ It might reasonably be assumed that this population would be more likely to have coronary heart disease.²¹ Other reviews have suggested that unmeasured confounding in epidemiological studies of alcohol and heart disease is likely to be widespread, and that it is almost impossible to account for this confounding without randomised controlled trials.²²⁻²⁴

The putative benefits of moderate alcohol consumption on heart disease appear to be confined to middle-aged and older people.²⁵ However, the ongoing debate over the potential impact of uncontrolled confounders on estimates of the size of the cardioprotective

3 Estimated cancer incidence caused by alcohol use in Australia, applying population attributable fractions (PAFs) for the United Kingdom to Australian cancer incidence data for 2005

Cancer site	UK PAF*	Australian incidence [†]	
		Overall	Attributable to alcohol use
Convincing evidence that alcohol use increases risk*			
Mouth, pharynx, larynx	41%	3161	1296
Oesophagus	51%	1165	594
Bowel (men)	7%	7181	503
Breast (women)	22%	12 170	2677
Subtotal			5070
Proportion of all cancers			5.0%
Probable evidence that alcohol use increases risk*			
Bowel (women)	7%	5895	413
Liver	17%	1060	180
Subtotal			593
Proportion of all cancers			0.6%
Total			5663
Total proportion of all cancers			5.6%

* Source: World Cancer Research Fund and the American Institute for Cancer Research.^{7,31} † Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare.³⁰ ◆

effect, and whether or not moderate alcohol consumption should be recommended for protection against heart disease, is difficult to resolve in the absence of randomised controlled trials. Acknowledging these issues, the World Health Organization stated in 2007 that “from both the public health and clinical viewpoints, there is no merit in promoting alcohol consumption as a preventive strategy”.²⁰ In Australia, the National Heart Foundation explicitly advises against the consumption of red wine and other types of alcoholic drinks for the prevention or treatment of heart disease.²⁶

Estimates of cancer incidence attributable to alcohol use in Australia

Several estimates of the numbers of cases of cancer attributable to alcohol use in Australia have been calculated using different methods.^{4,27-29} However, these calculations predate the confirmation of alcohol use as a convincing cause of bowel cancer in men. Because the incidence of bowel cancer in Australia is high,³⁰ calculations which exclude bowel cancer are likely to lead to a substantial underestimate of the true burden of alcohol-caused cancer in Australia.

In order to estimate cancer incidence attributable to alcohol use in Australia, a set of attributable fractions developed by the WCRF and AICR for cancers (including bowel cancer) associated with alcohol for the United Kingdom³¹ was applied to Australian cancer incidence data for 2005²⁸ (Box 3). Of the four preventability estimates calculated (United States, UK, Brazil and China), exposure data for Australia (39%) most closely matched the UK estimates (24%). The other countries had a substantially higher proportion of the population who did not drink alcohol (US, 63%; Brazil, 79%; China, 91%).^{31,32}

Using this method, it is estimated that 5070 cases of cancer (or 5% of all cancers) are attributable to long-term chronic use of alcohol each year in Australia. This figure includes cancers for which there is convincing evidence that alcohol use increases the risk of disease. When cancers for which the risk is probably increased by alcohol use are included, the tally rises to 5663 (or 5.6% of all cancers).

CCA recommendations on alcohol use

Alcoholic drinks and ethanol are carcinogenic to humans.^{5,6} There is no evidence that there is a safe threshold of alcohol consumption for avoiding cancer, or that cancer risk varies between the type of alcoholic beverage consumed.⁷

CCA recommends that to reduce their risk of cancer, people limit their consumption of alcohol, or better still avoid alcohol altogether. For individuals who choose to drink alcohol, consumption should occur within the National Health and Medical Research Council guidelines.³³ CCA's key recommendations are outlined in Box 4.

CCA is a strong advocate for evidence-based action to reshape social attitudes concerning drinking, and to reduce the burden of morbidity and mortality caused by alcohol use. These issues are addressed in policy statements adopted by CCA, available from <http://www.cancer.org.au/Healthprofessionals/PositionStatements/alcohol.htm>.

4 Key recommendations on alcohol use

Cancer Council Australia (CCA) recommends that to reduce their risk of cancer, people limit their consumption of alcohol, or better still avoid alcohol altogether.

CCA bases its recommendations regarding alcohol use on the weight of scientific evidence that has accumulated on the relationship between alcohol consumption and cancer.

For individuals who choose to drink alcohol, CCA supports drinking only within the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) guidelines to reduce health risks from drinking alcohol.³³ The guidelines are summarised below; full text is available at <http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/publications/synopses/ds10syn.htm>.

Guideline 1: Reducing the risk of alcohol-related harm over a lifetime

The lifetime risk of harm from drinking alcohol increases with the amount consumed. For healthy men and women, drinking no more than two standard drinks[†] on any day reduces the lifetime risk of harm from alcohol-related disease or injury.

Guideline 2: Reducing the risk of injury on a single occasion of drinking

On a single occasion of drinking, the risk of alcohol-related injury increases with the amount consumed. For healthy men and women, drinking no more than four standard drinks on a single occasion reduces the risk of alcohol-related injury arising from that occasion.

Guideline 3: Children and young people under 18 years of age

For children and young people under 18 years of age, not drinking alcohol is the safest option.

Guideline 4: Pregnancy and breastfeeding

Maternal alcohol consumption can harm the developing fetus or breastfeeding baby:

- for women who are pregnant or planning a pregnancy, not drinking is the safest option
- for women who are breastfeeding, not drinking is the safest option.

* The NHMRC states that, “the advice in the guidelines cannot be ascribed levels of evidence ratings as occurs with other NHMRC guidelines, due to the analytic approach taken in their development”. Guidelines 1 and 4, however, are underpinned by evidence equivalent to NHMRC level III-1. † The Australian standard drink contains 10 g of alcohol (equivalent to 12.5 mL of pure alcohol). In Australia, a standard drink is a 100 mL glass of wine (13.5% alcohol), a 285 mL glass of beer (about 5% alcohol) or a 30 mL nip of spirits (about 40% alcohol). ♦

Acknowledgements

We thank Tanya Chikritzhs, who assisted in drafting the section on alcohol and heart disease, and Dallas English, who kindly reviewed an earlier draft of the full position statement.

Competing interests

None identified.

Author details

Margaret H Winstanley, BA, Public Health Consultant¹
Iain S Pratt, GradDip(Diet), APD, AEP, Nutrition and Physical Activity Manager,¹ and Research Fellow²
Kathryn Chapman, BSc, MNutrDiet, Director, Health Strategies³
Hayley J Griffin, BMedSc, MNutrDiet, PhD, Nutrition Project Officer³
Emma J Croager, PhD, MBA, Education Services Manager¹
Ian N Olver, MD, PhD, FRACP, Chief Executive Officer⁴
Craig Sinclair, MPubPolMgt, GradDipOrgBehav, BEd(Sec), Director⁵
Terry J Slewin, MPH, FPHAA, Education and Research Director,¹ and Senior Research Fellow²

- 1 Education and Research, Cancer Council WA, Perth, WA.
 - 2 Centre for Behavioural Research in Cancer Control, Curtin University of Technology, Perth, WA.
 - 3 Cancer Council NSW, Sydney, NSW.
 - 4 Cancer Council Australia, Sydney, NSW
 - 5 Cancer Prevention Centre, Cancer Council Vic, Melbourne, VIC.
- Correspondence: spratt@cancerwa.asn.au

References

- 1 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. 2007 National Drug Strategy household survey: detailed findings. Canberra: AIHW, 2008. (AIHW Cat. No. PHE 107; Drug Statistics Series No. 22.) <http://www.aihw.gov.au/publications/phe/ndshs07-df/ndshs07-df.pdf> (accessed May 2010).
- 2 Lewis MJ. A rum state: alcohol and state policy in Australia, 1788-1988. Canberra: Australian Government Printing Service, 1992.
- 3 Begg S, Vos T, Barker B, et al. The burden of disease and injury in Australia 2003. Canberra: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2007. (AIHW Cat. No. PHE 82.) <http://www.aihw.gov.au/publications/index.cfm/title/10317> (accessed May 2010).
- 4 National Preventative Health Taskforce. Australia: the healthiest country by 2020. National Preventative Health Strategy — the roadmap for action. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia, 2009. <http://www.health.gov.au/internet/preventativehealth/publishing.nsf/Content/national-preventative-health-strategy-11p> (accessed May 2010).
- 5 World Health Organization; International Agency for Research on Cancer. IARC monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans. Vol. 44. Alcohol drinking. Summary of data reported and evaluation. Lyon: IARC, 1988. <http://monographs.iarc.fr/ENG/Monographs/vol44/volume44.pdf> (accessed May 2010).
- 6 International Agency for Research on Cancer. IARC monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans. Vol. 96. Alcoholic beverage consumption and ethyl carbamate (urethane). Lyon: IARC, 2007.
- 7 World Cancer Research Fund; American Institute for Cancer Research. Food, nutrition, physical activity, and the prevention of cancer: a global perspective. London: WCRF International, 2007. <http://www.dietandcancerreport.org/> (accessed May 2010).
- 8 Gong Z, Kristal AR, Schenk JM, et al. Alcohol consumption, finasteride, and prostate cancer risk: results from the Prostate Cancer Prevention Trial. *Cancer* 2009; 115: 3661-3669.
- 9 Fillmore KM, Chikritzhs T, Stockwell T, et al. Alcohol use and prostate cancer: a meta-analysis. *Mol Nutr Food Res* 2009; 53: 240-255.
- 10 Corrao G, Bagnardi V, Zambon A, La Vecchia C. A meta-analysis of alcohol consumption and the risk of 15 diseases. *Prev Med* 2004; 38: 613-619.
- 11 Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer. Alcohol, tobacco and breast cancer — collaborative reanalysis of individual data from 53 epidemiological studies, including 58,515 women with breast cancer and 95,067 women without the disease. *Br J Cancer* 2002; 87: 1234-1245.
- 12 Allen NE, Beral V, Casabonne D, et al. Moderate alcohol intake and cancer incidence in women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2009; 101: 296-305.
- 13 Seitz HK, Stickel F. Molecular mechanisms of alcohol-mediated carcinogenesis. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2007; 7: 599-612.
- 14 Druesne-Pecollo N, Tehard B, Mallet Y, et al. Alcohol and genetic polymorphisms: effect on risk of alcohol-related cancer. *Lancet Oncol* 2009; 10: 173-180.
- 15 US Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Office on Smoking and Health. The health consequences of smoking. Cancer. A report of the US Surgeon General. Rockville, Md: DHHS, 1982. http://profiles.nlm.nih.gov/NN/B/C/D/W/_/nnbcdw.pdf (accessed May 2010).
- 16 Blot WJ, McLaughlin JK, Winn DM, et al. Smoking and drinking in relation to oral and pharyngeal cancer. *Cancer Res* 1988; 48: 3282-3287.
- 17 Wannamethee SG, Shaper AG, Whincup PH. Alcohol and adiposity: effects of quantity and type of drink and time relation with meals. *Int J Obes* 2005; 12: 1436-1444.
- 18 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Food energy — methods of analysis and conversion factors. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper 77. Rome: FAO, 2003.
- 19 Tolstrup JS, Halkjaer J, Heitmann BL, et al. Alcohol drinking frequency in relation to subsequent changes in waist circumference. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2008; 87: 957-963.
- 20 World Health Organization. Prevention of cardiovascular disease. Guidelines for assessment and management of cardiovascular risk. Geneva:

- WHO, 2007. http://www.who.int/cardiovascular_diseases/guidelines/Full%20text.pdf (accessed May 2010).
- 21 Fillmore KM, Stockwell T, Chikritzhs T, et al. Moderate alcohol use and reduced mortality risk: systematic error in prospective studies and new hypotheses. *Ann Epidemiol* 2007; 17: S16-S23.
- 22 Naimi T, Brown D, Brewer R, et al. Cardiovascular risk factors and confounders among nondrinking and moderate-drinking US adults. *Am J Prev Med* 2005; 28: 369-373.
- 23 Jackson R, Broad J, Connor J, Wells S. Alcohol and ischaemic heart disease: probably no free lunch. *Lancet* 2005; 366: 1911-1912.
- 24 Fuchs F, Chambless L. Is the cardioprotective effect of alcohol real? *Alcohol* 2007; 41: 399-402.
- 25 Hvidtfeldt UA, Tolstrup JS, Jakobsen MU, et al. Alcohol intake and risk of coronary heart disease in younger, middle-aged, and older adults. *Circulation* 2010; 121: 1589-1597.
- 26 National Heart Foundation of Australia. Position statement. Antioxidants in food, drinks and supplements for cardiovascular health. Canberra: NHF, 2010. <http://www.heartfoundation.org.au/antioxidants> (accessed May 2010).
- 27 English D, Holman CDJ, Milne E, et al. The quantification of drug caused morbidity and mortality in Australia. Canberra: Commonwealth Department of Human Services and Health, 1995.
- 28 Ridolfo B, Stevenson C. The quantification of drug-caused mortality and morbidity in Australia, 1998. Canberra: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2001. (AIHW Cat. No. PHE 29; Drug Statistics Series No. 7.) <http://www.aihw.gov.au/publications/phe/qdcmma98/qdcmma98-c00.pdf> (accessed May 2010).
- 29 Collins DJ, Lapsley HM. The costs of tobacco, alcohol and illicit drug abuse to Australian society in 2004/05. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia, 2008. [http://www.nationaldrugstrategy.gov.au/internet/drugstrategy/publishing.nsf/Content/mono64/\\$File/mono64.pdf](http://www.nationaldrugstrategy.gov.au/internet/drugstrategy/publishing.nsf/Content/mono64/$File/mono64.pdf) (accessed May 2010).
- 30 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare; Australasian Association of Cancer Registries. Cancer in Australia: an overview, 2008. Canberra: AIHW, 2008. (AIHW Cat. No. CAN 42; Cancer Series No. 46.) <http://www.aihw.gov.au/publications/index.cfm/title/10607> (accessed May 2010).
- 31 World Cancer Research Fund; American Institute for Cancer Research. Policy and action for cancer prevention. Food, nutrition and physical activity: a global perspective. London: WCRF International, 2009. <http://www.dietandcancerreport.org/> (accessed May 2010).
- 32 Australian Bureau of Statistics. 4364.0 — National Health Survey: summary of results, 2007–2008 (reissue). Canberra: ABS, 2009. [http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Lookup/4364.0Explanatory%20Notes%202007-2008%20\(Reissue\)](http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Lookup/4364.0Explanatory%20Notes%202007-2008%20(Reissue)) (accessed September 2010).
- 33 National Health and Medical Research Council. Australian guidelines to reduce health risks from drinking alcohol. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia, 2009. http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/publications/synopses/ds10_syn.htm (accessed May 2010).

Provenance: Not commissioned; externally peer reviewed.

(Received 17 Jun 2010, accepted 24 Nov 2010)



Recognising and remembering . . .

The *MJA* would like to encourage its readers to submit obituaries of doctors who have died within the past 6 months so that we can acknowledge their contribution to the medical community. The obituaries should consist of approximately 350 words and include biographical details such as last position held, place and date of birth, place of qualification and date (if possible), postgraduate qualifications and personal interests.

An electronic photograph should accompany the obituary, preferably 300 dpi, jpeg or tiff file. The obituary may be published in print and online, or online only. The article may be truncated in the print version.

If you wish to submit an obituary, upload it to <http://www.editorialmanager.com/mja>