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A multinational cohort study

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Association of Physical Activity and Risk of Hepatobiliary Cancers: A Multinational Cohort Study

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Background & Aims:** Evidence on the association between physical activity and risk of
3 hepatobiliary cancers is inconclusive. We examined this association in the European Prospective
4 Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition cohort (EPIC).

5 **Methods:** We identified 275 hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) cases, 93 intrahepatic bile duct
6 cancers (IHBC), and 164 non-gallbladder extrahepatic bile duct cancers (NGBC) among 467,336
7 EPIC participants (median follow-up 14.9 years). We estimated cause-specific hazard ratios
8 (HRs) for total physical activity and vigorous physical activity, performed mediation analysis, and
9 secondary analyses to assess robustness to confounding (e.g., due to hepatitis virus infection).

10 **Results:** In the EPIC cohort, the multivariable-adjusted HR of HCC was 0.55 (95% confidence
11 intervals (CI) 0.38-0.80) comparing active and inactive individuals. Regarding vigorous physical
12 activity, for those reporting >2 hours/week compared to those with no vigorous activity, the HR
13 for HCC was 0.50 (0.33-0.76). Estimates were similar in sensitivity analyses for confounding.
14 Total and vigorous physical activity were unrelated to IHBC and NGBC. In mediation analysis,
15 waist circumference explained about 40% and body mass index 30% of the overall association
16 of total physical activity and HCC.

17 **Conclusions:** Findings suggest an inverse association between physical activity and risk of
18 HCC, which is potentially mediated by obesity.

19 **Lay summary:** In a pan-European study of 467,336 men and women, we found that physical
20 activity is associated with a reduced risk of developing liver cancers over the next decade. This
21 risk was independent of other liver cancer risk factors, and did not vary by age, gender, smoking
22 status, body weight, and alcohol consumption.

23

1 **Graphical abstract**

2 >

3 **Highlights**

- 4 • Liver cancer rates are increasing in Western countries, possibly due to increases in
5 obesity, diabetes, and physical inactivity.
- 6 • Previous evidence was not convincing to support an effect of physical activity on liver
7 cancer.
- 8 • We found that physical activity reduced the risk of hepatocellular carcinoma by about
9 45%.

10

11 **Abbreviations:** BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; DNA, deoxyribonucleic acid;
12 EPIC, European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition cohort; EPIC-PAQ,
13 European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition cohort physical activity
14 questionnaire; g/d, grams per day; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; HCC,
15 hepatocellular carcinoma; HR, hazard ratio; IHBC, intrahepatic bile duct cancers; MEDLINE,
16 Medical Literature Analysis and Retrieval System Online; NGBC, non-gallbladder extrahepatic
17 bile duct cancers; RR, relative risk; SD, standard deviation; US, United States of America; WCRF,
18 World Cancer Research Fund International.

1 **Introduction**

2 Liver cancer was the fourth leading cause of cancer death in 2015 [1]. Liver cancer is responsible
3 for around 47,000 deaths per year in the European Union [2]. Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)
4 is the most common type of primary liver cancer derived from hepatocytes and it accounts for
5 85-90% of all primary liver cancers worldwide. It is the fifth most common cancer in men and the
6 seventh most common cancer in women [1]. The distribution of HCC varies greatly according to
7 geographic location and it is more common in low- and middle-income countries than in
8 developed countries. HCC more frequently occurs in Asia and Africa than in Europe and the US.
9 The strongest risk factor for HCC is cirrhosis, a condition that is related to Hepatitis B virus (HBV),
10 Hepatitis C virus (HCV), excessive consumption of alcohol, and exposure to aflatoxin B1 [1]. The
11 geographic variability of HCC incidence has been widely associated to the different distribution
12 of HBV and HCV infections [1, 3]. In high-income countries, the main risk factors for HCC are
13 smoking, alcoholic cirrhosis, diabetes, obesity, and non-alcoholic hepatic steatosis [1, 4, 5]. The
14 recent increase in HCC incidence is thought to be caused by increases in obesity, diabetes, and
15 physical inactivity [6, 7]. The Physical Activity Collaboration of the National Cancer Institute's
16 Cohort Consortium performed a pooled analysis of 10 prospective US and European cohorts and
17 found that high compared to low leisure-time physical activity was associated with a 27% lower
18 risk of liver cancer incidence [8]. Other prospective studies from the US and East Asian countries
19 support an association of physical activity and lower risk of hepatobiliary cancers [8-13].
20 However, the World Cancer Research Fund International judged that the evidence was not
21 convincing to support an effect of physical activity on liver cancer [14]. Similarly, an umbrella
22 review provided limited evidence for an association with liver cancer [15]. We report results from
23 the EPIC (European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition) cohort to provide
24 additional evidence on the relationship between physical activity and HCC and other
25 hepatobiliary cancers.

1 **Methods**

2 *Study Population and Data Collection*

3 The EPIC is a multinational prospective cohort study designed to investigate the link between
4 diet, lifestyle and environmental factors with cancer risk and other chronic diseases. Detailed
5 information on the study design, rationale, and methods of the EPIC cohort has been described
6 previously [16]. Briefly, between 1992 and 2000, >520 thousand men and women, aged 25-70
7 years, were recruited from 23 centers throughout 10 countries (Denmark, France, Germany,
8 Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom). Data on
9 physical activity, education, smoking, alcohol consumption, coffee intake, anthropometric
10 measurements and medical history were collected at baseline, before disease onset or diagnosis.
11 All cohort members provided written informed consent. Ethics approval was obtained from the
12 International Agency for Research on Cancer review board (Lyon, France) and participating
13 centers. A total of 467,336 participants were included in the main analyses for total physical
14 activity and hepatobiliary cancer risk after the following exclusions: 25,184 participants with
15 prevalent cancer other than non-melanoma skin cancer; 20 subjects with missing date of
16 diagnosis; and 4,128 individuals without follow-up. Four EPIC study centers (Naples, Umea,
17 South-East of Norway, North-West of Norway) did not measure vigorous physical activity. Thus,
18 the analysis of vigorous physical activity and hepatobiliary cancer risk was limited to 341,533
19 participants for whom data on this exposure were available.

20 In a subset [17] of the EPIC cohort as of 2006, sera samples for HBV (ARCHITECT HBsAg,
21 Abbott Diagnostics, France) and HCV (anti-HCV chemiluminescent microparticle immunoassays,
22 Abbott Diagnostics, France) serologic tests were available: 115 HCC cases were matched using
23 incidence density sampling to 230 controls based on age at blood collection, sex, study center,
24 time of the day at blood collection, fasting status at blood collection; among women, additionally
25 by menopausal status, and hormone replacement therapy use at time of blood collection. These
26 data were used in nested case-control analyses to examine potential confounding by viral
27 hepatitis status for the association of physical activity and HCC.

1 *Follow-up of Study Population and Case Ascertainment*

2 Incident first primary hepatobiliary cancer cases and vital status were ascertained through record
3 linkage with cancer and death registries in most centers [16]. In France, Germany and Greece,
4 ascertainment was done using a combination of methods including health insurance records,
5 pathology registries and active follow-up through mailed questionnaires/telephone interviews
6 [16]. Incident cancers were subsequently verified through medical records, pathology reports and
7 discharge diagnosis [16]. In all centers, cancer diagnosis required confirmation through
8 comprehensive pathology review [16]. A detailed protocol entitled 'Guidelines for Collection of
9 End-point Data in the EPIC study' for the collection and standardization of clinical and
10 pathological data for each cancer site was prepared by a special EPIC working group [16].
11 Cancer incidence was coded according to the International Classification of Diseases-Oncology-
12 2. HCC was defined as C22.0. Cancer of the intrahepatic bile duct (IHBC) was defined as C22.1.
13 Non-gallbladder extrahepatic bile duct tract cancer (NGBC) was defined as tumors in the
14 extrahepatic bile duct (C24.0), Ampulla of Vater (C24.1) or overlapping lesions of the biliary tract
15 (C24.8), and the biliary tract not specified (C24.9). We did not consider cancers of the gallbladder
16 (C23.9) as an endpoint because we assumed different underlying mechanisms [10].

17 *Assessment of Physical Activity*

18 The validated EPIC physical activity questionnaire (EPIC-PAQ) was used to assess recreational,
19 household and occupational physical activity during the past year in all EPIC centers, except in
20 the Norwegian centers [18-20]. Recreational physical activity was assessed by querying about
21 the amount of time in hours per week during the winter and summer spent with cycling and other
22 physical exercises (e.g., jogging, swimming) and was summarized into four groups: inactive,
23 moderately inactive, moderately active, and active [21, 22]. Participants reported their level of
24 occupational physical activity as either sedentary, standing, manual work or heavy manual work.
25 They were also asked whether engaging in household and recreational activities had caused
26 them to experience increases in sweating or heartbeat, and, if so, how many hours per week
27 they dedicated to these vigorous activities. We derived measures of total physical activity and
28 vigorous physical activity from the EPIC-PAQ. The Cambridge Index was used as a measure of

1 total physical activity by combining recreational physical activity and occupational physical
2 activity [20, 22]. The Cambridge Index was developed [22] and validated [19] by comparing the
3 EPIC-PAQ with objective measures of cardiorespiratory fitness and physical activity energy
4 expenditure. The Spearman correlation between the Cambridge Index and physical activity
5 energy expenditure was 0.33 (95% confidence interval: 0.28 to 0.38) [19]. The Norwegian EPIC
6 centers measured total physical activity using a scale that ranged from 1 to 10 [23]; and the
7 Cambridge Index for the Norwegian centers was derived as described previously [21]. Vigorous
8 physical activity was categorized into 0, ≤ 2 (below the median), or > 2 (above the median) hours
9 per week [21, 24].

10 *Statistical Analysis*

11 Hazard ratios (HR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were estimated using cause-specific Cox
12 proportional hazard models, with age as the underlying time metric. Time of study entry was age
13 at recruitment and exit time was age at cancer diagnosis or the last date at which follow-up was
14 considered complete in each center. Models were stratified by center and sex to minimize
15 departure from proportionality and to control for differences between centers, such as follow-up
16 procedures and questionnaire design. Trend tests across exposure groups were performed by
17 modeling the categorical physical activity variables as continuous covariables. We estimated
18 cumulative incidence functions, adjusted for baseline confounders, accounting for competing risk
19 of death from causes other than hepatobiliary cancer using a Fine-Gray subdistribution hazard
20 model. The basic multivariable models were adjusted for education (no school degree, primary
21 school, technical/professional/secondary, university), smoking status and intensity (never,
22 current [1 to 15, 16 to 25, or ≥ 26 cigarettes/day], or former [≤ 10 or > 10 years]; current pipe, cigar
23 or occasional smoking), current alcohol consumption (grams per day (g/d) modeled continuously
24 using restricted cubic splines), lifetime alcohol use patterns (never, former, $> 0 - 6$ [men]/ $> 0 - 3$
25 [women], $> 6-12$ [men]/ $> 3-12$ [women], $> 12-24$, $> 24 - 60$, > 60 g/d), and daily number of cups of
26 coffee (1 cup was defined as 150 mL). For covariates with missing data (see Table 1), multiple
27 imputation of covariates by fully conditional specification with accommodation of the substantive
28 model [25] and 25 sets of imputed data was used. We examined multiplicative effect modification

1 by testing interaction terms of physical activity variables with sex, age (continuous), waist
2 circumference (continuous), body mass index (continuous), baseline alcohol consumption
3 (continuous) and lifetime alcohol consumption (categorical) using likelihood ratio tests; for
4 continuous covariates a procedure based on fractional polynomials was used [26].

5 Because obesity and diabetes may be potential intermediates [4, 27, 28], our primary
6 multivariable model did not control for them. Causal mediation analysis methods, as described
7 for survival data [29], were used to examine the proportions of the association of physical activity
8 with hepatobiliary cancer risk that was mediated by waist circumference, body mass index, and
9 diabetes. These mediators were selected a priori based on subject knowledge [4, 27, 28] and
10 were assessed using multiple linear regression (waist circumference, body mass index) and
11 logistic regression (diabetes) for the mediator models and accelerated failure time models with
12 Weibull distribution for time to event [29, 30]. Proportion mediated was calculated as indirect
13 natural effect divided by the sum of the direct and indirect natural effect [29] and 500 simulations
14 were used to derive quasi-Bayesian CI [30]. To facilitate the interpretation of mediation analyses,
15 the categories 'active' vs. 'inactive' of the Cambridge Index and '>2 hours/week' vs. 'no' vigorous
16 physical activity were compared. The mediation method assumes no unmeasured confounding
17 in the exposure-outcome, mediator-outcome, and exposure-mediator relations, and no effect of
18 the exposure on confounders of the mediator-outcome relation. We did not detect any exposure-
19 mediator interactions.

20 We conducted several sensitivity analyses to test the robustness of our primary models. First, to
21 minimize the influence of reverse causation, we excluded hepatobiliary cancer events that
22 occurred during the first two years of follow-up. Second, although our primary analysis assumed
23 that obesity and diabetes mediate the association of physical activity and hepatobiliary cancer
24 risk, it is also plausible to hypothesize that overweight/obesity and diabetes render physical
25 activity difficult (i.e., confound the association) [31]. Accordingly, we performed secondary
26 analyses with additional adjustment for waist circumference and diabetes. Third, we assessed
27 the robustness of observed associations to unmeasured confounding. Specially, we calculated
28 E-Values [32], which indicate the minimum strength of association than an unmeasured

1 confounder would need to have with the exposure and the outcome on the risk ratio scale to fully
2 account for an observed exposure-outcome association, above and beyond the measured
3 covariates. Additionally, we used data from the EPIC nested case-control study [17] to adjust
4 associations for HBV/HCV status. Odds ratios (OR) for HCC were derived from multivariable
5 conditional logistic regression, adjusted for matching variables, age, sex, smoking status, current
6 alcohol use, and coffee intake. Analysis of the nested case-control subset was performed among
7 all subjects with additional adjustment for HBC/HCV; and among HBC/HCV negative individuals.
8 Fourth, as an alternative to the stratified Cox model, we modeled unobserved heterogeneity
9 across centers using a Cox model with a shared frailty. Fifth, due to different assessment of total
10 physical activity in the Norwegian centers, we re-estimated our Cox models for total physical
11 activity after excluding data from the Norwegian centers. Sixth, we performed complete cases
12 analysis when covariates had missing values. P values < 0.05 are reported as statistically
13 significant. Analyses were performed using R (version 3.5.1), SAS (version 9.4), and Stata
14 (version 15.1).

15 **Results**

16 *EPIC Study*

17 *Characteristics of Participants*

18 Among the 467,336 participants in the EPIC study, the mean (SD) age was 51.3 (9.9) years, and
19 70.2% were women. During a median follow-up time of 14.9 years, participants contributed
20 6,508,182 person years, and 275 HCC, 93 IHBC, and 164 NGBC cancer cases occurred. Age-
21 adjusted baseline characteristics of the analytical sample are provided in Table 1.

22 *Physical Activity and Hepatobiliary Cancer Risk*

23 Total physical activity and vigorous physical activity were inversely associated with HCC but not
24 with IHBC and NBGC. The adjusted HR for HCC comparing 'active' and 'inactive' individuals was
25 0.55 (95% CI: 0.38 to 0.80, P for Trend < 0.001) (Table 2). The adjusted HR of HCC for '>2
26 hours/week' of vigorous activity vs. no vigorous activity was 0.50 (95% CI: 0.33 to 0.76, P for

1 Trend <0.001) for HCC (Table 3). The adjusted cumulative incidence functions indicate that the
2 physically inactive group showed excess HCC incidence compared to more active groups (Figure
3 1). The relations of total physical activity and vigorous physical activity with outcomes were not
4 modified by sex, age, waist circumference, body mass index, smoking, current alcohol
5 consumption or lifetime alcohol consumption (all P for interaction >0.1).

6 *Mediation of the Association between Physical Activity and HCC Risk*

7 We used mediation analysis to estimate the proportions of the associations with HCC that were
8 mediated by waist circumference, body mass index, and diabetes (Table 4). Waist circumference
9 explained 40% and body mass index 30% of the overall association of total physical activity and
10 HCC. The proportions of the total effect of vigorous physical activity on HCC mediated by waist
11 circumference and body mass index were 17% and 12%, respectively. Diabetes did not seem to
12 mediate the observed associations.

13 *Sensitivity Analyses*

14 In sensitivity analyses, the associations of total physical activity and vigorous physical activity
15 with HCC, IHBC and NBGC were virtually unchanged when events occurring during the first two
16 years of follow-up were excluded (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2). In models additionally
17 adjusted for waist circumference and diabetes, the HR for HCC were attenuated but remained
18 statistically significant. In the Cox model for total physical activity and HCC, for an unmeasured
19 confounder to explain the HR estimate of 0.55, the unmeasured confounder would have to
20 increase the likelihood of physical activity and decrease the likelihood of HCC by 3.0-fold, above
21 and beyond the measured confounders. For an unmeasured confounder to bring up the upper
22 confidence limit of 0.80 for this estimate to above 1.0, the unmeasured confounder would still
23 have to both increase the likelihood of physical activity and decrease the likelihood of HCC by
24 1.8-fold, conditional on the measured covariates. Similarly, an unobserved confounder would
25 need to be associated with a RR of 3.4 with vigorous physical activity and HCC to explain the
26 estimated HR of 0.50 and a RR of 1.9 to move the upper confidence limit above 1.0, conditional
27 on the measured covariates. We used the EPIC nested case-control study to perform additional

1 adjustment for HBV/HCV. The results of these analyses were similar in direction and magnitude
2 to those reported for the entire cohort, but they were not statistically significant, due to small
3 sample size (Supplementary Table 3). However, the data from the case-control dataset provide
4 further support for the notion that additional confounding by HBV/HCV might not be sufficient to
5 explain away the observed association of physical activity and HCC. Estimates from frailty
6 models to account for between-center heterogeneity were similar those from the stratified Cox
7 models. After exclusion of Norwegian centers and in complete case analyses, HR were almost
8 identical to the primary analysis. The HR and CI from the complete case analyses were similar
9 to those from primary models employing multiple imputation (Supplement Tables 1 and 2).

10 **Discussion**

11 In this analysis of a multinational European cohort, higher total physical activity and vigorous
12 physical activity were associated with lower risk of HCC. We observed a 45% lower risk of HCC
13 when comparing high and low levels of total physical activity. The highest level of vigorous
14 physical activity was associated with a 50% lower risk for HCC. Moreover, we observed that
15 inverse associations of total physical activity and vigorous physical activity with HCC did not differ
16 substantially between subgroups based on gender, lifestyle, and anthropometric variables.
17 Findings from the sensitivities analyses suggest that the association of physical activity and HCC
18 might be robust to reverse causation and unobserved confounding (e.g., by hepatitis virus
19 infection). Our study also explored the roles of obesity and diabetes in physical activity's
20 association with HCC. Our findings indicate that waist circumference mediated about 40% and
21 BMI about 30% of the overall association of total physical activity and HCC. In contrast, diabetes
22 did not seem to play an important role as a mediating factor.

23 These findings are in line with a pooled analysis of 10 cohorts with a total of 1,384 cases that
24 reported a 27% lower risk of liver cancer comparing high and low levels of leisure time physical
25 activity [8]. In the NIH-AARP Diet and Health Study, high versus no vigorous physical activity was
26 related to a 44% lower risk of HCC [10]. Similar to our study, no association between physical
27 activity and biliary tract cancer was shown in a previous analysis of NIH-AARP Diet and Health
28 Study [10].

1 Several biological mechanisms might explain the inverse association between physical activity
2 and hepatobiliary cancer, including systemic and local effects [28, 33]. The interrelated
3 mechanisms most extensively studied are changes in whole-body and visceral fatness, metabolic
4 dysregulation (e.g., insulin, glucose, insulin-like growth factors), adipokines (e.g., leptin,
5 adiponectin), sex hormones (e.g., estrogen, testosterone), chronic low-grade inflammation,
6 oxidative stress causing DNA damage and gene mutations (e.g., tumor suppression genes),
7 impaired immune function, diluting effects on carcinogenic bile acids, and decreased intestinal
8 transit time [33-35]. Evidence from prospective observational studies and randomized controlled
9 trials suggests that the most relevant mechanism by which physical activity positively affects liver
10 cancer risk is lowering body weight [27, 36-38]. The present study systematically explored the
11 role of markers of overall adiposity (BMI), indirect measures of central obesity (waist
12 circumference) and metabolic dysregulation (diabetes) in the overall association between
13 physical activity and HCC. We found that central obesity might account for a large proportion of
14 the direct effect of physical activity on HCC. The mechanisms underlying the association between
15 central obesity and hepatobiliary cancer, particularly HCC, may occur through accumulation of
16 excessive liver fat that increases pro-inflammatory molecules, leptin, and adiponectin [27].

17 The analysis of this large multinational European cohort provided sufficient events to examine
18 the association of physical activity with hepatobiliary cancers. The cohort study also provided first
19 insights into the relative importance of different intensities of physical activity. We performed
20 sensitivity analyses to address potential selection bias, differences in case ascertainment
21 between centers, and additional unobserved confounding. Although HBV and HCV are
22 considered among the strongest risk factors for HCC [3], previous studies [8-13, 37] were unable
23 to adjust for HBV and HCV. In the EPIC nested case control study the size and direction of the
24 effect size for the association of physical activity and HCC was similar to that of the entire EPIC
25 cohort; however, it was not statistically significant. Our sensitivity analyses for unobserved
26 confounding using E-Values [32] further support the notion that any unmeasured confounding
27 would need to be substantial to explain the inverse association of physical activity and HCC. The
28 study had additional limitations. We were not able to adjust for other potentially important
29 confounding factors (e.g., pleiotropic effects of statins) and to examine the role of intermediate

1 phenotypes (non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis, cirrhosis). Further,
2 compared to the general population, women were overrepresented in our sample, although men
3 have higher risk of HCC [39]. Another limitation is that we were not able to examine in detail the
4 type, intensity and amount of physical activity needed to reduce HCC risk. Physical activity and
5 anthropometric measures were assessed only once at baseline. Repeated measurements of
6 physical activity, anthropometric measures, and other potential biological intermediates over time
7 would have strengthened our understanding of the underlying mechanisms. A recent analysis of
8 the NIH-AARP Diet and Health Study [9] revealed that consistent participation in physical activity
9 throughout the life course might be needed to reduce the risk of liver cancer incidence. We
10 performed mediation analysis for indirect effects acting through general and central obesity, but
11 we were unable to study trajectories of physical activity and body weight that could help to better
12 separate the role of obesity as a confounder and mediator of the association of physical activity
13 and risk of hepatobiliary cancer [8].

14 In conclusion, our analysis suggests that physical activity reduces risk of HCC. Studies with more
15 detailed and objectively measured physical activity assessed at multiple time points throughout
16 the life course are warranted to confirm our findings and may help establish the optimal dose,
17 type, intensity, and timing of physical activity that is needed to prevent HCC.

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3 **Supplementary material**

4 Supplementary Tables can be found in the online version of the article.

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Table 1 Age-adjusted Baseline Characteristics of the EPIC Cohort by Total Physical Activity (n = 467,336)

	<i>Total N</i>	Total physical activity (Cambridge Physical Activity Index)			
		Inactive	Moderately inactive	Moderately active	Active
Vigorous Physical Activity (%)					
None	182,178	55.9	42.5	30.0	28.5
≤2 hours/week	88,245	18.1	19.9	19.0	18.7
>2 hours/week	71,110	11.2	14.6	17.0	17.1
Missing	125,803	14.8	23.0	34.0	35.7
Sex (%)					
Men	139,168	26.8	27.7	27.5	40.4
Women	328,168	73.2	72.3	72.5	59.6
Education (%)					
No school degree/ unknown	20,859	7.3	3.7	3.6	4.2
Primary school	120,284	35.7	23.1	23.1	25.8
Technical/professional/secondary	198,720	40.0	43.7	43.8	43.6
University	112,121	15.6	26.3	26.8	24.1
Missing	10,658	1.3	2.6	2.6	2.3
Smoking (%)					
Never	20,2567	48.6	43.5	40.9	40.5
Current					
<15 cigarettes/day	53,680	10.2	11.1	12.1	12.9
≥15 cigarettes/day	37,534	9.4	7.7	7.4	7.9
Current pipe, cigar or occasional smoking	40,040	7.3	9.6	9.4	6.8
Former					
<10 years	44,584	8.2	9.4	9.9	10.8
≥10 years	75,403	13.6	16.0	16.9	18.4
Missing	13,528	2.6	2.7	3.4	2.8

Baseline alcohol consumption (g/d)		3.1	5.8	5.4	7.3
Average Lifetime alcohol consumption (g/d)					
Non-drinkers	28,146	8.7	6.4	4.3	4.6
Former	17,026	5.1	3.9	2.7	2.9
>0 – 6 (M)/> 0 – 3 (W)	93,442	25.4	21.3	16.3	17.2
>6-12(M)/>3-12(W)	110,070	24.6	24.3	22.2	22.6
>12-24	63,487	12.0	13.4	14.3	14.2
>24 – 60	41,822	7.2	8.6	10.1	9.8
>60	8,977	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.2
Missing	104,366	15.4	20.2	27.8	26.4
Coffee (ml/d)		179.3	281.1	316.9	409.4
Waist circumference (cm)		87.2	83.3	82.9	84.2
Missing	108,439				
Body mass index (kg/m ²)					
Missing	82,692	26.4	25.1	24.8	24.9
Diabetes (%)		5.4	2.6	2.0	1.9
Missing	36,517				

EPIC, European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. Entries are adjusted medians for continuous variables and adjusted percentages for categorical variables. Adjustment for age using median regression (continuous covariates), binary logistic regression (dichotomous covariates), ordinal logistic regression (ordered categorical covariates), multinomial logistic regression (unordered categorical covariates)

Table 2 Association of Total Physical Activity and Hepatocellular Carcinoma (HCC), Intrahepatic Bile Duct Cancers (IHBC) and Non-Gallbladder Biliary Tract Cancer (NGBC) Risk in the EPIC cohort (n = 467,336)

	Total Physical Activity (Cambridge Index)				<i>P</i> Value for Trend
	Inactive (Reference)	Moderately inactive	Moderately active	Active	
HCC (n)	91	83	48	53	
HR (95% CI)	1.00	0.65 (0.48-0.89)	0.49 (0.34-0.71)	0.55 (0.38-0.80)	<0.001
IHBC (n)	26	27	21	19	
HR (95% CI)	1.00	0.72 (0.41-1.26)	0.66 (0.36-1.21)	0.82 (0.43-1.53)	0.477
NGBC (n)	39	46	36	43	
HR (95% CI)	1.00	0.67 (0.43-1.05)	0.67 (0.42-1.08)	0.88 (0.55-1.39)	0.761

EPIC, European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma (C22.0). IHBC, intrahepatic bile duct cancers (C22.1). Non-gallbladder extrahepatic bile duct tract cancer (NGBC, C24.0, C24.1, C24.8, C24.9). HR (cause-specific hazard ratio) from center-and sex stratified Cox proportional hazards model, age as time metric, adjusted for education, smoking, baseline alcohol consumption, lifetime alcohol consumption, coffee. Missing covariate data was imputed using multiple imputation.

Table 3 Association of Vigorous Physical Activity and Hepatocellular Carcinoma (HCC), Intrahepatic Bile Duct Cancers (IHBC) and Non-Gallbladder Biliary Tract Cancer (NGBC) Risk in the EPIC cohort (n = 341,533)

HR (95% CI)	Vigorous Physical Activity			<i>P</i> Value for Trend
	None (Reference)	≤2 hours/week	>2 hours/week	
HCC (<i>n</i>)	122	33	32	
HR (95% CI)	1.00	0.50 (0.33-0.75)	0.50 (0.33-0.76)	<0.001
IHBC (<i>n</i>)	46	11	14	
HR (95% CI)	1.00	0.52 (0.26-1.06)	0.75 (0.39-1.44)	0.271
NGBC (<i>n</i>)	64	26	24	
HR (95% CI)	1.00	0.78 (0.47- 1.30)	0.80 (0.48-1.35)	0.368

EPIC, European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma (C22.0). IHBC, intrahepatic bile duct cancers (C22.1). Non-gallbladder extrahepatic bile duct tract cancer (NGBC, C24.0, C24.1, C24.8, C24.9). HR (cause-specific hazard ratio) from center-and sex stratified Cox proportional hazards model, age as time metric, adjusted for education, smoking, baseline alcohol consumption, lifetime alcohol consumption, coffee. Missing covariate data was imputed using multiple imputation.

Table 4 Mediation Analysis for the Association of Total Physical Activity and Vigorous Physical Activity and Hepatocellular Carcinoma (HCC) in the EPIC cohort

Mediator	Total Physical Activity (Cambridge Index) (n = 363,228)		Vigorous Physical Activity (n = 275,433)	
	Proportion Mediated, %	P Value for Indirect Effect	Proportion Mediated, %	P Value for Indirect Effect
Waist Circumference	40.0	0.02	16.7	0.01
Body Mass Index	29.7	0.02	11.9	<0.01
Diabetes	4.2	0.21	0.6	0.23

EPIC, European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma (C22.0). Adjusted for age, sex, education, smoking, baseline alcohol consumption, lifetime alcohol consumption, and coffee intake. Complete-case analysis was used for mediation analysis.

Figure 1 Cumulative Incidence of HCC according to Total Physical Activity and Vigorous Physical Activity

Adjusted cumulative incidence from a Fine-Gray model, with age as time metric, adjusted for education, smoking, baseline alcohol consumption, lifetime alcohol consumption, and coffee.