

agent of liver cancer, particularly in high prevalence areas for liver cancer, while HCC is one the five major cancers globally. The world first universal HBV vaccination program was launched in Taiwan in 1984. The prevalence of HBV infection has been reduced remarkably to approximately one tenth of the original prevalence after the vaccination program. Further more, reduction of the HCC incidence in children aged 6–14 years have been demonstrated in the vaccinated birth cohorts. Recently we have further provided evidence that the effect of HCC prevention by universal HBV immunization program has been extended from childhood to early adulthood. The risk of developing HCC in HBV vaccinees was associated with incomplete HBV vaccination; prenatal maternal HBsAg seropositivity and HBeAg seropositivity. Failure to prevent HCC results mostly from unsuccessful control of HBV infection by highly infectious mothers. Future strategies to increase the global coverage rate of HBV immunization and to interrupt mother-to-infant transmission may further enhance the cancer prevention effect of HBV immunization. Successful prevention of chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection can reduce the incidence of liver cancer. It is the first example of cancer preventive vaccine in human, which proves that prevention of the infection of an infectious agent can prevent its related cancer.

S9

Prevention of hepatocellular carcinoma in chronic hepatitis C infection

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Chronic infection with the hepatitis C virus (HCV) can lead to cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). HCV infection is found worldwide, with a prevalence of approximately 1–3% and an estimated total disease burden of more than 150 million persons. Studies in Asia, Europe and North America report a 1–4% annual incidence of HCC among subjects with HCV cirrhosis. In the USA, the incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma has doubled in the past 30 years and is expected to increase further in the next decade. Progression of liver disease among subjects infected with HCV in the 1960s to 1990s as a result of percutaneous exposure is the leading reason for the increase in HCC. Prevention of HCV-induced HCC could occur by: (1) prevention of HCV infection, (2) curative treatment of patients infected with HCV, and (3) chemoprevention among patients in whom HCV infection could not be cured. At present, there is no vaccine to prevent HCV infection. Fortunately, the incidence of HCV in the United States has decreased by more than 90% over the past 2 decades. Also, during the past 20 years scientists have found treatments to cure chronic hepatitis C infection. Studies in Japan, Europe and North America have reported that curing HCV infection through treatment with interferon and ribavirin reduces the risk of HCC by 70–90%. Regrettably, many patients with HCV infection are not candidates for treatment, or have failed to be cured with interferon/ribavirin. Several large clinical trials have tested the efficacy of chronic, low-dose interferon treatment in the prevention of HCC in the belief that suppression of HCV may reduce HCC risk; unfortunately, the results of these studies have been negative. Non-antiviral chemopreventive trials are in progress. Based on animal studies showing efficacy in preventing chemical hepatocarcinogenesis, the National Cancer Institute (USA) has funded a Phase IIa trial to determine whether S-adenosylmethionine (SAMe, AdoMet) is effective in reducing alpha fetoprotein (AFP; a tumor marker for HCC) in patients with HCV cirrhosis. The future of HCC prevention in HCV will likely test HCV protease inhibitors and HCV polymerase inhibitors, two classes of drugs which are remarkably effective in curing HCV infection in Phase II trials. Because of the cost and potential

side effects of HCV protease and polymerase inhibitors, it is hoped that non-antiviral drugs which are safe, inexpensive and effective in preventing HCC can be found.

S10

Studies on *H. pylori* infection and risk for gastric cancer in Latin-American countries

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Inflammation as a driving force for the development of pre-neoplastic lesion is clearly exemplified in the case of gastric cancer and infection with *Helicobacter pylori*. *H. pylori* colonizes the gastric mucosa of humans early in life establishing an unusual long-lasting chronic inflammation of the mucosa. After decades of continuous dialogue bacteria-host, in some cases balance is broken leading to diseases, the more severe being gastric cancer. Aggressive bacterial products add to the potentially harmful uncontrolled inflammatory mediators to damage epithelia. Reactive oxygen and nitrate compounds produced by activated inflammatory cells would also threaten DNA stability. Risk to develop gastric cancer is multifactorial and genetics of both, the host and the bacteria are important, as are other environmental factors such as diet or habits. All this factors vary from country to country and between different ethnic groups. Latin-American countries constitute a mosaic of humans groups with different genetic background and in consequence a mosaic of genetically diverse *H. pylori* strains. Thus, it is not surprising to observe Latin-American countries with the highest world mortality rates like Chile or Colombia and countries with low rates such as Mexico or Argentina. Differences in rates of *H. pylori* infection does not explain the differences in GC mortality as in most Latin-American countries prevalence in adults is over 80%, including Mexico or Colombia. We have found sequence differences in genes associated with virulence such as *cagA* or *vacA* that may partially explain their differential carcinogenic potential. Regarding areas of high risk (mountains) versus low risk (coasts) in countries such as Colombia, the presence of *cagA* gene and of the *vacA* s1m1 isotype have been found more frequently in areas with high GC risk. *H. pylori* strains from high risk areas have also shown to induce higher levels of oxidative and nitrosative reactive compounds from inflammatory cells. Regarding human genetics, our studies in Mexico and Paraguay suggest polymorphisms in genes of the innate and inflammatory responses such TLRs, HLA or TNF may increase the risk for gastric cancer. Polymorphisms in IL-1 have been reported associated with GC in some Latin-American countries but not in others. As for environmental factors, whereas consumption of cola-soda and smoking increase risk, eating vegetables or fruits rich in antioxidants have shown some protection and regression of early precancerous lesions. Whereas *H. pylori* infection is considered the principal cause for GC, this infection is not enough to cause disease and studies on the host and his environment are also necessary to better define groups at risk for GC.

Session 4. Prevention of Prostate Cancer: PSA-Screening and beyond

S11

Nutritional aspects of primary prostate cancer prevention

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There are three well-known and indisputable risk factors for development of prostate cancer, namely heredity, ethnic origin and increasing age. Geographic variations in incidence rates are considerable and, therefore, it has been suggested that environmental factors may also play a role. Data from

migration studies clearly show that men with the same genetic background raised in different environments present the risk of the disease associated with their country of residency. Prostate cancer is a good candidate for studies on primary prevention due to several specific features like high prevalence, long latency, hormonal dependency, serum markers for monitoring (prostate specific antigen) and histological precursor lesions (prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia). Nutritional factors that may influence the disease include total energy intake (as reflected by body mass index), dietary fat, cooked meat, micronutrients and vitamins (carotenoids, retinoids, vitamins C, D, and E), fruit and vegetable intake, minerals (calcium, selenium), and phytoestrogens (isoflavonoids, flavonoids, lignans). Most studies reported to date are case-control analysis. The selenium and vitamin E cancer prevention trial (SELECT), however, is a population-based, prospective, randomized clinical trial to examine the effect of selenium and vitamin E alone or in combination on prostate cancer risk reduction. Final results are to be expected in a few years. Until then, lifestyle changes should be recommended to men at risk for developing clinical prostate cancer.

S12

Chemoprevention of prostate cancer – the role of 5 alpha reductase inhibitors

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To date, the Prostate Cancer Prevention trial (PCPT) is the only reported phase III randomized clinical trial to evaluate the role of 5-[alpha] reductase inhibitors in the prevention and treatment of prostate cancer. The original PCPT data revealed that finasteride reduced the risk of prostate cancer by approximately 25% in comparison with placebo. However, patients who received finasteride had a greater incidence of high-grade tumors, which prohibited acceptance of finasteride as a chemopreventive agent by most urologists. Another major concern about the PCPT trial was prevention by finasteride of biologically inconsequential tumors that may otherwise remain undetected during a man's lifetime. Recent updates of the PCPT findings confirmed that finasteride reduces the risk of clinically significant prostate cancer, including high-grade tumors, primarily due to its effects on improving the performance characteristics of prostate-specific antigen and prostate biopsy. There was no increase in high-grade prostate cancer. Rather, there was improved detection of high-grade prostate cancer due to decreased prostate volume. It has been shown that sexual dysfunction with finasteride is not clinically significant and should minimally influence the decision to treat with finasteride. The decision of whether or not to use finasteride in individual cases requires an informed decision that balances the potential benefits of finasteride against the known potential side-effects of prolonged treatment. Patients must weigh the established benefits of a 25–30% reduction in prostate cancer, decreased urinary symptoms, and decreased complications of an enlarged prostate against the established side-effects, which include clinically insignificant reduced sexual function and expense of medication. The results of the REDUCE trial evaluating the role of Dutasteride for chemoprevention of prostate cancer have not been published to date.

S13

PSA screening in early detection of prostate cancer

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Abstract not available at time of printing.

Keynote Lecture: WHO's Cancer Prevention Policies, Partnerships and Actions

S14

WHO's cancer prevention policies, partnerships and actions

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The known cancer risks such as tobacco, infections, carcinogens which explain more than one third of the global cancer burden are determined by social, cultural and economic factors. There is sufficient knowledge about how to change the level of cancer risk in the population. Examples for effective interventions are vaccination against HBV and HPV, as well as tobacco control as included in the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control, promotion of a healthy lifestyle and avoiding of harmful use of alcohol. There is increasing awareness among WHO Member States to develop national programmes of cancer prevention and control based on evidence based strategies developed by WHO. The medical community including professional organization in cancer play a crucial role in supporting national efforts in implementing prevention strategies. Oncologists in their clinical practice can contribute substantially to cancer prevention by being involved in tobacco cessation, dietary counselling and alcohol control. According to WHO guidance, prevention is part of a comprehensive approach to control cancer which offers the greatest public health potential and most cost-effective long-term method of cancer control.

Session 5. HRT, Lifestyle and Breast Cancer Prevention

S15

Hormone replacement therapy (HRT) and breast cancer risk

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It is clear that administration of estrogen-progestin (E-P) and estrogen alone (E) HRT is sufficient to stimulate the growth of breast tumours in women since withdrawal of HRT results in reduction of proliferation of primary tumours and withdrawal responses in metastatic tumours. E-P, E and tibolone are associated with increased local and distant relapse when given post-operatively. The only large randomised trial (WHI) of E-P or E versus placebo has produced expected and paradoxical results. E-P increases breast cancer risk as previously shown in many observational studies. Risk is increased, particularly in women previously given HRT and known to be compliant. Conversely E either has no effect or reduces breast cancer incidence consistent with some but not all observational studies. Two observational studies report a decrease or at least no increase in risk when E-P or E are given after oophorectomy in young women with BRCA1/2 mutations. Early oophorectomy increases deaths from cardiovascular disease in particular. Thus, HRT may be indicated in young women but, in view of increased cardiovascular disease and breast cancer risk, may be contraindicated in older women particularly taking E-P. Recently progestin treatment has been shown to expand putative tumour stem cell numbers in in-vitro assays by a paracrine effect and this may be one explanation of the apparent differential effects of E-P and E on the breast and breast tumours.