Risk Factors of Gynecological Malignancies

Woong Ju, M.D., Ph.D.

Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology Cancer Center for Women School of Medicine, Ewha Womans University Seoul, Korea





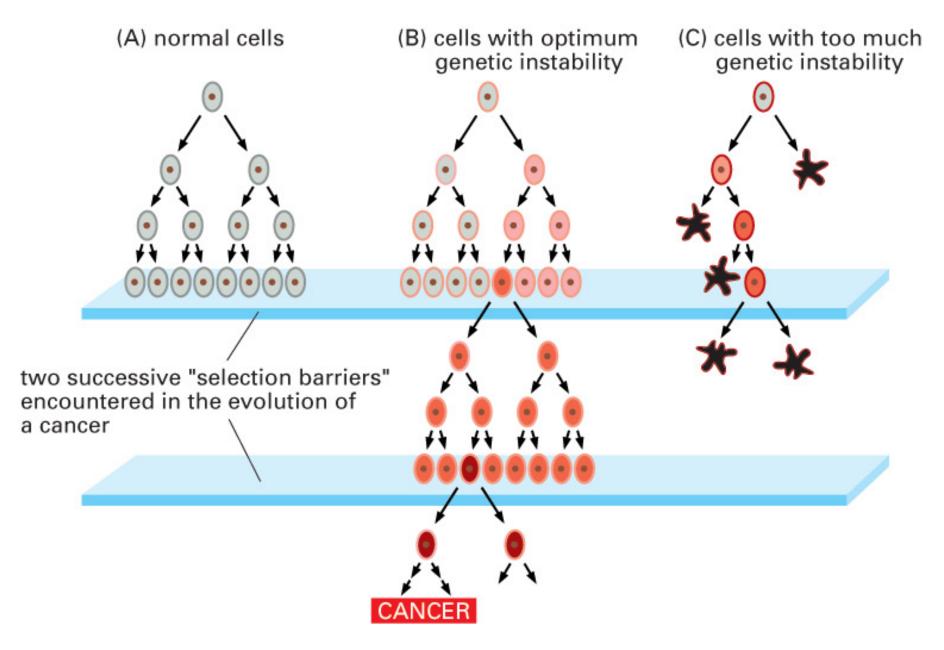


Figure 23–13. Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th Edition.

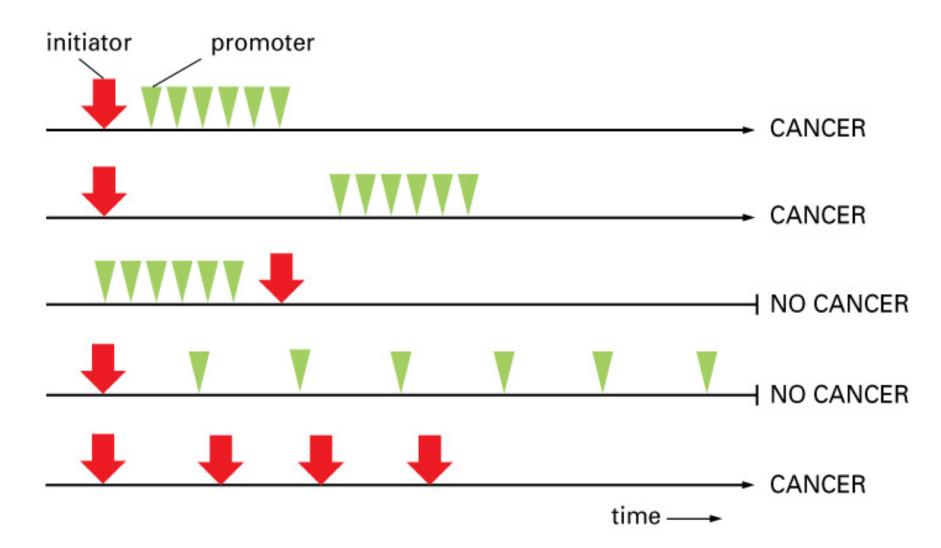


Figure 23–19. Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th Edition.

Mutations accumulate over time

 Cancer incidence increases sharply with age

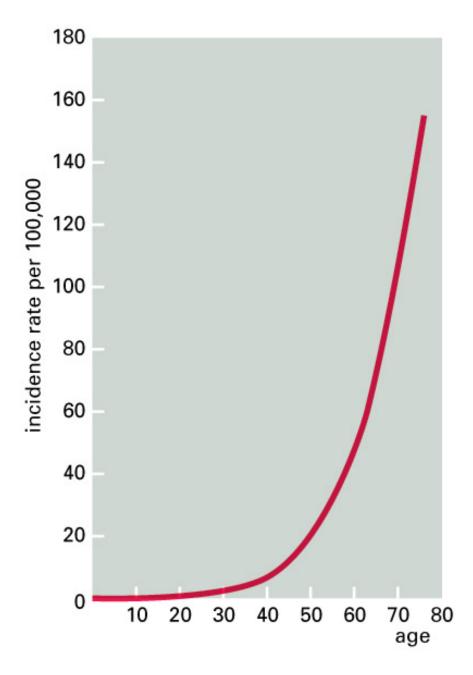


Figure 23–7. Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th Edition.



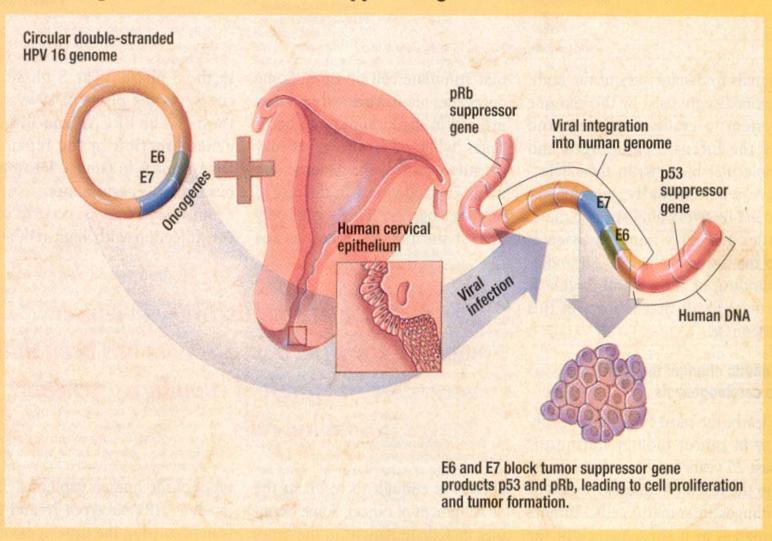
Cervical Cancer

Cervical Cancer: Risk Factors

•Persistent infection with high risk human papilloma virus (HPV)

Three or more lifetime sexual partners.
First sexual intercourse before age of 18
Smoking

A previous abnormal Pap smear
Never having had a Pap or not having one in the previous 5-10 years



Viral oncogenes and cellular tumor suppressor genes in cervical cancer

Tewari et al Contemporary OB/GYN Feb, 2001.

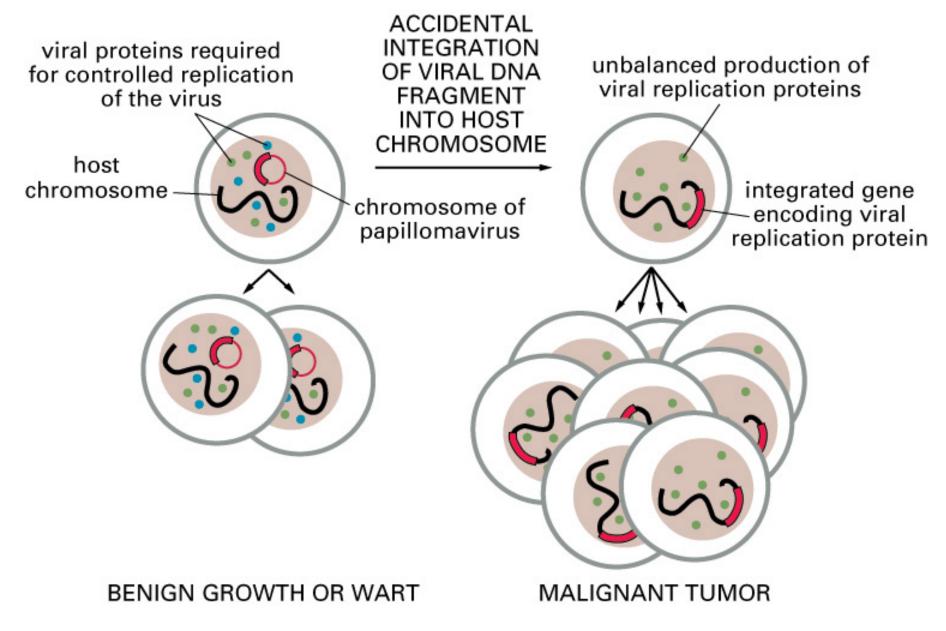


Figure 23–34. Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th Edition.

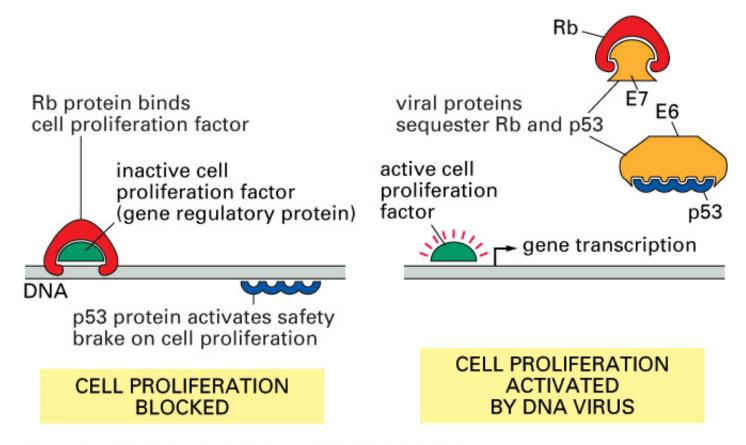


Figure 23–35. Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th Edition.

Cervical cancer development

÷

HPV infection (necessary cause) Co factors

(contributing factors)

- Viral load
- Smoking
- Genetic susceptibility

etc.

HPV and Cervical Cancer

- Risk depending on HPV detection technique
 - Schiffman et al.
 - : lower estimate of the relative risk in Southern blot than the more sensitive PCR approach.
 - Bosch et al.
 - : using Virapap; OR, 6.3; 95% CI, 3.4–11.6), using Southern hybridization; OR, 16.3, 95% CI, 7.7– 34.4 using PCR; OR, 24.3, 95% CI, 14.4–41.0

HPV and Cervical Cancer

 Importance of using the most sensitive molecular analysis in molecular epidemiology

• The more sensitive, the more accurate estimation is possible for relative risk and attributable risk fractions are to be made

HPV viral load and CIS

 Viral load of human papilloma virus 16 as a determinant for development of cervical carcinoma in situ: a nested case-control study.
 Josefsson AM et al. Lancet. 2000;355(9222)

Categories*	Mean HPV C,				
	Cases/controls	Odds ratio (95% CI)†			
HPV negative	212/464	1.0			
HPV positive, C, 44.8-50.0	27/32	2.0 (1.1-3.8)			
HPV positive, C, 41.25-44.8	41/18	4.4 (2.3-8.3)			
HPV positive, C, 38-99-41-25	48/12	8.1 (3.8-17.3)			
HPV positive, C, 36-66-38-99	52/7	18.7 (7.1-49.5)			
HPV positive, C, <36.66	58/2	68.8 (15.8-299.6)			

*Calculated on each 20th percentile of distribution of mean HPV 16 C, value for each woman. †Adjusted for β-actin.

HPV viral load and CIS

Interpretation

• Analysis of the amount of HPV DNA can predict cancer risk at a stage when current screening methods are uninformative.

 Testing for the amount of HPV 16 DNA might improve our ability to distinguish between infections that have a high or low risk of progressing into cervical cancer.

Smoking and CIN

• Cigarette Smoking, Oncogenic Human Papillomavirus, Ki-67 Antigen, and Cervical Intraepithelial Neoplasia.

Tiffany et al. Am J Epidemiol 2004

TABLE 2. Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for the associations between smoking history and CIN1* and between smoking history and ≥CIN2–3,* Planned Parenthood of Western Washington and Harborview Medical Center Women's Research Clinic, December 1997–December 2001

	Negative (n = 181)		CIN1 (n = 137)		≥CIN2–3 (n = 143)		CIN1 vs. negative		≥CIN2–3 vs. negative	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	Adjusted OR*,†	95% CI*	Adjusted OR†	95% CI
Smoking status										
Never	90	50	54	39	57	40	1.0		1.0	
Former	22	12	18	13	24	17	1.7	0.8, 3.6	2.0	0.9, 4.1
Current	69	38	65	48	62	43	1.8	1.1, 3.1	1.6	1.0, 2.7
No. of cigarette pack-years										
<0.1	90	50	54	39	57	40	1.0		1.0	
0.1–5	66	36	63	46	53	37	1.7	1.0, 2.8	1.4	0.8, 2.4
>5	25	14	20	15	33	23	2.1	1.0, 4.5	2.6	1.3, 5.2
No. of cigarettes/day										
0	97	54	60	44	62	43	1.0		1.0	
1–10	62	34	54	39	55	39	1.4	0.9, 2.5	1.4	0.8, 2.4
>10	22	12	23	17	26	18	2.5	1.2, 5.3	2.6	1.3, 5.5

Smoking and CIN

 Smoking : confounded by smokers having more or different sexual partners ?

 Smoking increased the risk of subsequent detection of cervical intraepithelial neoplasia in women with HPV infection.

• These findings strengthen the evidence that smoking may be one of causes cervical cancer.

Cervical cancer Candidate SNPs

- p53 Codon 72 Polymorphism
- interleukin-18 gene promoter polymorphism
- Fas-670 gene
- human leukocyte antigen polymorphism
- CD83 gene polymorphism
- cyclooxygenase-2 and inducible nitric oxide synthase gene polymorphism
- matrix metalloproteinase(MMP)-1 promoter polymorphism

TP53 codon 72 SNP and cervical cancer

- pooled analysis of individual data from 49 studies
- No association was found between cervical cancer and TP53 codon 72 polymorphism when the analysis was restricted to methodologically sound studies

Lancet Oncol. 2009;10(8):772-84.

Nutrition and cervical cancer

- Vitamin or anti-oxidant intake and risk of cervical neoplasm: a meta-analysis (in preparation for submission)
- This study was aimed at investigating those quantitative effects on cervical neoplasm using meta-analysis.
- Methods: We searched MEDLINE (PubMed), EMBASE, and the Cochrane Review in November 2008

Identified studies from the databases using the keywords and the bibliographies of relevant articles (n=274): PubMed (n=222), EMBASE (n=34), Cochrane Library (n=18) Excluded with duplicates (n=34) Articles after excluded duplicates (n=240) Excluded according to selection criteria during 1st screening (n=193) Articles reviewed including the full text (n=47)Excluded articles (n=25): Insufficient data (n=11) Not relevant (n=8) Shared an identical population (n=4)

Not all cases confirmed by biopsy (n=2)

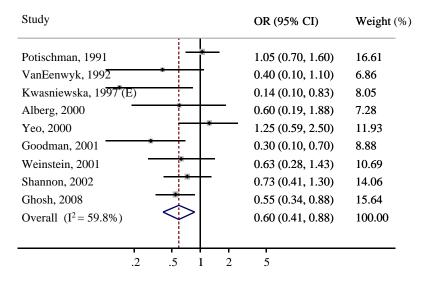
Case-control studies included in the final analysis (n=22): Hospital-based (n=16), population-based (n=3), and nested (n=3)

Figure 1. Flow diagram of identification of relevant studies.

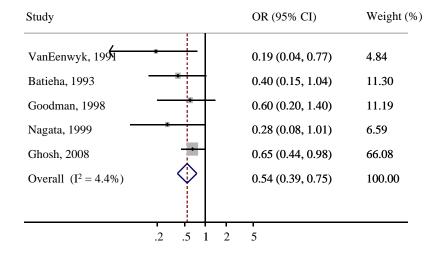
A. Beta-carotene $(n = 9)^*$

Study				OR (95% CI)	Weight (%
Harris, 1986	•			0.29 (0.09, 1.00)	3.07
Slattery, 1990				0.99 (0.56, 1.76)	13.57
Herrero, 1991		•••	•	0.89 (0.60, 1.30)	29.78
Batieha, 1993		•		0.33 (0.12, 0.86)	4.59
Goodman, 1998 (C)	•	1		0.70 (0.30, 1.70)	5.92
Nagata, 1999				0.65 (0.22, 1.92)	3.79
Shannon, 2002				0.95 (0.51, 1.75)	11.71
Ghosh, 2008	-	•		0.44 (0.29, 0.68)	24.51
VanEenwyk, 1991			_	0.50 (0.15, 1.67)	3.06
Overall $(I^2 = 38.0\%)$		\diamond		0.68 (0.55, 0.84)	100.00
	.2	.5 1	2	5	

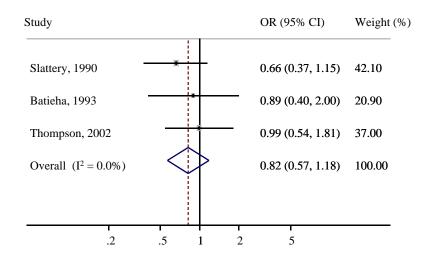
B. Folate $(n = 9)^{\dagger}$



C. Lycopene $(n = 5)^*$



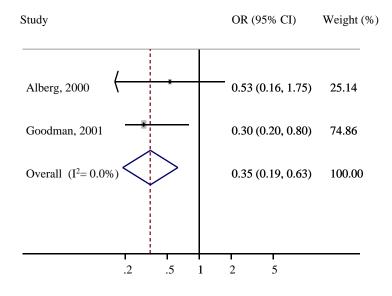
D. Selenium $(n = 3)^*$



E. Vitamin A $(n = 12)^{\dagger}$

Study						OR (95% CI)	Weight (%)
Harris, 1986						0.91 (0.33, 2.50)	7.00
Cuzick, 1990						1.85 (0.21, 16.51)	2.40
Slattery, 1990			Ť.	_		0.93 (0.53, 1.64)	10.97
Herrero, 1991			Ť	-		1.13 (0.80, 1.50)	13.33
Batieha, 1993	-		•			0.82 (0.29, 2.27)	6.88
Shimizu, 1996			1-	٠		2.45 (1.11, 5.38)	8.82
Goodman, 1998		-		•	-	1.60 (0.70, 3.70)	8.44
Lehtinen, 1999				•		1.67 (0.59, 5.00)	6.61
Nagata, 1999		-				2.02 (0.62, 6.60)	5.88
Yeo, 2000			1			0.91 (0.43, 2.00)	9.01
Shannon, 2002	•					0.23 (0.10, 0.52)	8.51
Ghosh, 2008	-	•				0.47 (0.30, 0.73)	12.16
Overall $(I^2 = 65.9\%)$		<	φ	>		0.97 (0.67, 1.41)	100.00
	.2	.5	1	2	5		

F. Vitamin B12 (n = 2)*

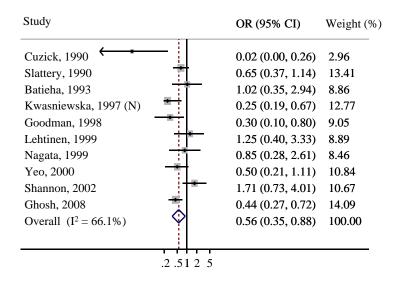


G. Vitamin C (n = 8)*

Study		OR (95% CI)	Weight (%)
Slattery, 1990	÷	0.68 (0.39, 1.17)	13.02
Herrero, 1991	-	0.71 (0.50, 1.00)	32.71
VanEenwyk, 1992		0.20 (0.00, 0.70)	0.46
Goodman, 1998		0.60 (0.30, 1.40)	6.62
Но, 1998		0.46 (0.25, 0.84)	10.70
Yeo, 2000		0.91 (0.43, 2.00)	6.65
Shannon, 2002		1.27 (0.67, 2.38)	9.78
Ghosh, 2008	- - -	0.52 (0.33, 0.80)	20.04
Overall $(I^2 = 13.6\%)$	Ŷ	0.67 (0.55, 0.82)	100.00
	2 5 1 2 5		

.2 .5 1 2 5

H. Vitamin E $(n = 10)^{\dagger}$





Ovarian Cancer

Risk Factors for Ovarian Cancer

Increased Risk	Decreased Risk
Age	Oral Contraceptive Use
Family history	Pregnancy and Breastfeeding
Infertility/low parity	Tubal ligation
Personal cancer history	Hysterectomy/Removal of Both Ovaries

Gynecologic Cancer Foundation

Ovarian cancer

Decreasing Risk=Prevention Effect of Parity **Term Pregnancies** RR 0.6 1 2 or 3 0.5 4 or more 0.33

Ovarian cancer

Decreasing Risk=Prevention Effect of OCPs Duration of use RR Never 1 3mos-4yrs 0.655-9 yrs 0.4 10 yrs or more 0.2

Ovarian cancer

Increase Risk Factor BRCA1 35-45% BRCA2 15-25%

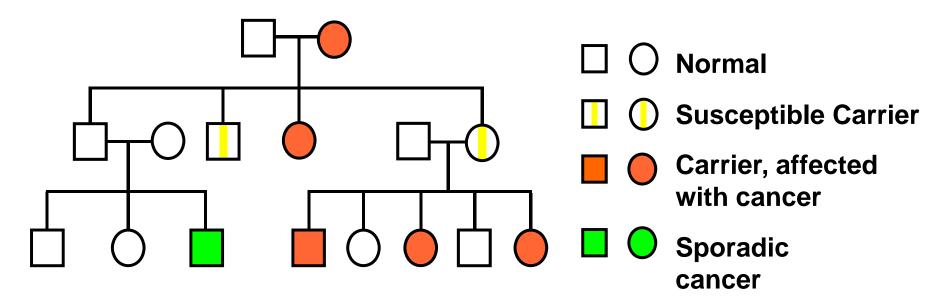
If reproduction is not an issue, offer BSO.

Hereditary Ovarian Cancer

Familial breast cancer, type 1	Breast cancer	Ovarian cancer	BRCA1	17q21	Repair of double- strand DNA breaks?
Familial breast cancer, type 2	Breast cancer	Pancreatic cancer, breast cancer in males, Ovarian cancer	BRCA2	13q12	Repair of double- strand DNA breaks?
Hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer	Colorectal cancer	Endometrial, Ovarian, hepato- biliary, and bladder cancer, glioblastoma (Turcot syndrome)	MSH2 MLH1 PMSL1 PMSL2 MSH6	2p22-p21 3p21 2q31.1 7p22 2p16	Repair of DNA base- pair mismatches. Maintains stability of simple tandem repeats of DNA

From Thompson & Thompson, 6th edition, Table 16-1, page 314

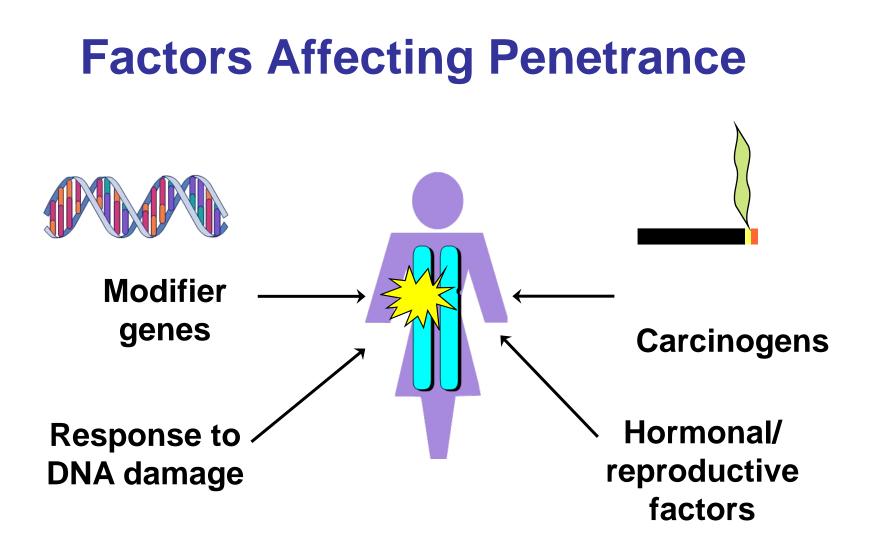
Most Cancer Susceptibility Genes: Dominant With Incomplete Penetrance



- Penetrance is often incomplete
- May appear to "skip" generations
- Individuals inherit altered cancer susceptibility gene, not cancer

Knudson Two-Hit Hypothesis

First hit First hit in **Second hit** germline of No. N. (tumor) child



Not everyone with an altered gene develops cancer

Soy intake and risk of endocrine-related gynaecological cancer: a meta-analysis

Identified studies from the databases using keywords and bibliographies of relevant articles (*n* = 477): PubMed (*n* = 219), FMBASE (*n* = 254), Cochrane library (*n* = 3), and bibliographies (*n* = 1)

Exclude duplicate articles (n = 165)

Articles remaining after excluding duplicates (n = 312)

Exclude according to selection criteria (n = 295)

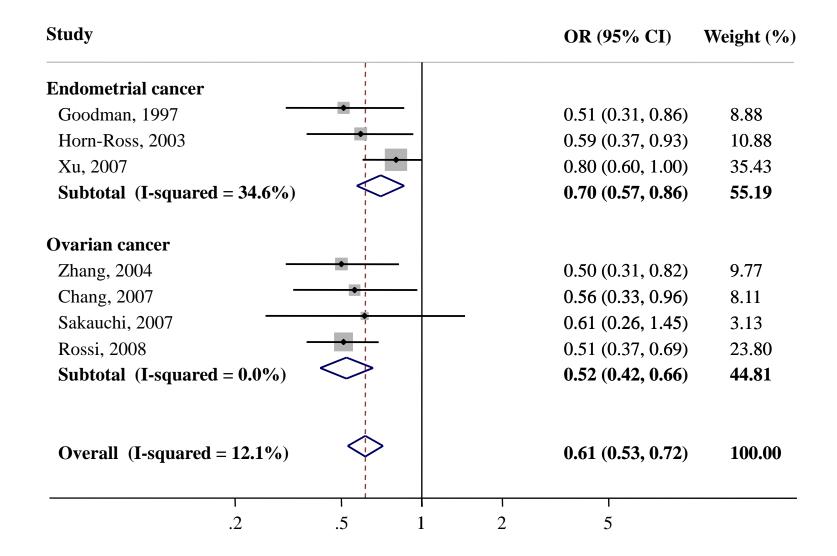
Remaining articles (n = 17), full text review

Excluded articles (n = 10): Not relevant (n = 5) Included totally in another article (2) Shared an identical studoulation (2) Insufficient data (1)

BJOG, 2009

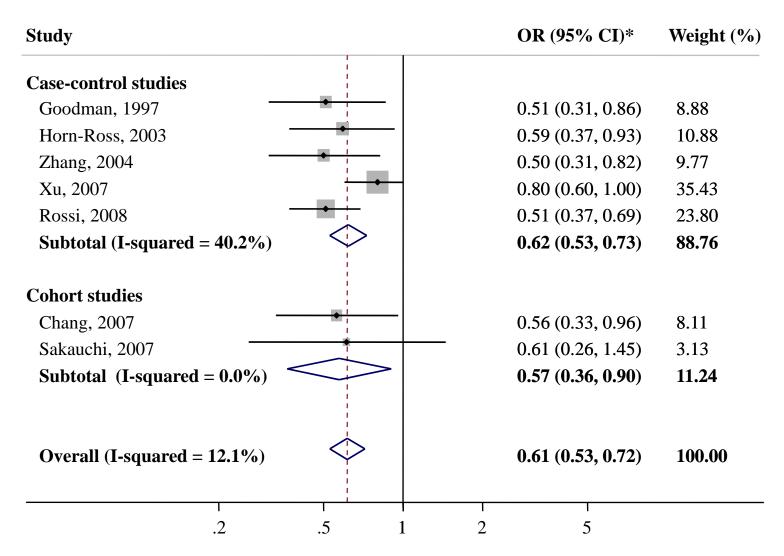
5 case-control studies and 2 cohort studies included in the final analysis (n = 7)

FIGURE 2. Soy intake and the risk of endocrine-related gynecological cancers by type of cancer in a meta-analysis of epidemiologic studies (n=7)



* Fixed-Effects Model. OR, Odd Ratio; CI, Confidence Interval.

FIGURE 3. Soy intake and the risk of endocrine-related gynecological cancers by study design in a meta-analysis of epidemiologic studies (n=7)



* Fixed-Effects Model. OR, Odd Ratio; CI, Confidence Interval.

Table 3. Dose-response relationship between soy intake and the risk of endometrial cancer or ovarian cancer in subgroup meta-analyses*

Category of soy intake (vs lowest)	No. studies	Summary OR (95% Cl)	Heterogeneity, I ²	Model used	P for trend**
Lower	7	0.94 (0.83–1.06)	341%	Fixed-effects	0.025
Moderate	5	0.77 (0.65-0.91)	453%	Fixed-effects	
Highest	7	0.61 (0.53-0.72)	121%	Fixed-effects	

*Highest intake was defined as quintile 5, quartile 4 or tertile 3; moderate intake as quintile 4 or quartile 3; lower intake as quintile 2, quartile 2 or tertile 2, respectively, basec on each study's categorization. **A weighted linear regression was performed to model the natural logarithm of OR for the risk of endometrial cancer or ovarian cancer as a function of qualitatively described soy intake (lower = 1, moderate = 2 and highest = 3) using the inverse variance calculated from confidence intervals of each category; standard error = {LN(upper limit) – LN(lower limit)/ 2 × 1.96; inverse variance = 1/standard error x standard error).





声の出演:ペ・ヨンジュン チェ・ジウ



Increased risk factors

Age

Estrogen

- Obesity
- Diabetes (Type II)
- PCOS

Late menopause (>55yr) (Define menopause)

Nulliparity

Tamoxifen

Hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer

(HNPCC)

 Overweight 	10.0
 Nulliparity 	2.0
 Diabetic 	2.7
 Unopposed estrogen 	6.0
 Tamoxifen 	2.2
 Combined OCPs 	0.5

N Engl J Med. 1996 ;335(9):640-9

Decreased risk factors:

- --Add progestin to ERT (RR=1)
- --Use of OCPs for at least 12 mos
 - (RR=0.5). Effect lasts at least
 - 15 years.
- --Exercise—decreases obesity and favorable changes in immune function and sexual and metabolic hormone levels and growth factors
- --Diet of fresh fruit, vegetables, whole grain foods

Risk Factors

HNPCC (Lynch Syndrome II) is a mutation of "DNA mismatch repair" genes MLH1, MSH2 & 6, and PMS2 most often.

High risk for tumors of endometrium, ovary, stomach, small bowel, hepatobiliary system, urologic system.
In half of the women, endometrial and ovarian cancer PRECEDE colon cancer.



Cancer Genetics and Cytogenetics 172 (2007) 178-179

Cancer Genetics and Cytogenetics

Letter to the editor

Polymorphisms in CAG active allele length of the androgen receptor gene are not associated with increased risk of endometrial cancer

Table 1 Age at diagnosis of endometrial cancer according to the number of short alleles

Classified by the number of alleles with repeat length ≤ 22 0 (n = 9) 1 (n = 17) 2 (n = 17) 57.67 \pm 10.67 64.65 \pm 10.65 59.12 \pm 8.86 F = 1.94, P > 0.05* Linear -0.08 (-2.17, 2.01); P = 0.96**

Classified by the number of active alleles with repeat length ≤ 22 0 (n = 1) 1 (n = 19) 2 (n = 23) 57.00 \pm 0.00 62.53 \pm 10.32 59.91 \pm 10.37 F = 0.41, P > 0.05 Linear -1.64 (-4.52, 1.24); P = 0.57

* By analysis of variance.

Ju et al., 2007

** By linear regression. Numbers in parentheses show 95% confidence interval.

- HNPCC should be considered if hx of three relatives with colorectal, endometrial, small bowel, urologic system
- One first degree relative
- Two successive generations
- At least one under age 50.

• Women at risk for HNPCC

- Annual endometrial biopsy at age 35

Summary

- Risk factors of gynecologic cancer
 - Well-established risk factors : HPV, BRCA mutation, HNPCC etc.
 - Cofactors altering the penetrance, changing individual susceptibility : viral load, SNP?, smoking, diet, life style etc.



Thank You for attention!

ありがとうございます