

Editorial

What Is the Main Cause of Cancer?

Miguel López-Lázaro

Department of Pharmacology, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Seville, C/ Profesor Garcia Gonzalez 2, 41012 Sevilla, Spain; mlopezlazaro@us.es; Tel: +34 954 55 63 48. Fax: + 34 954 55 60 74.

Tobacco use, most people would say. Smoking tobacco increases the risk of developing many types of cancer and is responsible for approximately one-third of all cancer deaths. The association between tobacco use and lung cancer is well known; lung cancer occurs about 20 times more often in heavy smokers than in nonsmokers [1]. However, many lung cancers are diagnosed in never smokers [2], and most smokers do not develop lung cancer [3,4].

Aging, many epidemiologists would probably say. According to SEER cancer statistics review, 1975-2012, cancer incidence increases dramatically with age [5]. The risk of being diagnosed with cancer is 1 in 128 in people under 30 years old, 1 in 10 in people between 30 and 60, and 1 in 3 in people over 60. The rise is more pronounced for the most common cancers. Breast, colon, lung and prostate cancers are over 150 times, 180 times, 600 times and 2,800 times more frequently diagnosed in people over 60 years old than in people under 30. However, cancer incidence decreases late in life for most cancers; men in their 80s have approximately half the risk of developing prostate cancer than men in their 70s. In addition, the risk of some cancers does not correlate well with age; brain cancer and leukemia are more frequently diagnosed in the first decade of life than in one of the following three decades [5].

The self-renewal capacity of the body tissues, some researchers might say. Tissues with a high self-renewal capacity give rise to cancer almost a million times more often than tissues without this capacity. The incidence of breast, prostate or lung cancer is approximately seven cases per 100 people [5], whereas the incidence of heart cancer is 34 cases per 100 million people [6]. Lung cancer in nonsmokers is about 10,000 times more common than heart cancer in smokers [5,6]. However, some tissues with similar self-renewal capacities have different cancer risks [7].

The accumulation of mutations in oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes, many cancer researchers would conclude [8-10]. However, other cancer researchers would present evidence challenging this theory, e.g., sequencing studies showing zero genetic mutations in human tumor samples, and human studies linking non-mutagenic agents with increased cancer risks [11-16]. It has repeatedly been shown that the risk of developing cancer is increased by a variety of non-mutagenic factors, including hormone therapy (several cancer types) [17-19], drinking very hot beverages (esophageal cancer) [20-22], shift work that involves circadian disruption (breast cancer) [23-25], and exposure to non-ionizing electromagnetic fields (childhood leukemia) [26-31]. Carcinogenesis experiments in laboratory rodents have also shown that non-mutagenic factors can have a major impact on cancer incidence. Implanting foreign bodies of different materials under the skin of rodents leads to the formation of tumors; the shape of the implanted material, but not the composition, determines tumorigenesis [11,32-34]. For example, all mice implanted with Millipore filters with a pore size of 0.025 micrometers developed tumors, whereas none of the animals implanted with filters with pore sizes equal or higher than 0.22 micrometers developed any malignancy [32]. There is also consistent evidence that interruption of nerve connections alters cancer incidence and tumor growth. For example, the early phases of prostate tumor development are prevented by surgical interruption of the sympathetic nervous system [35]. Denervation of the stomach also suppresses gastric tumorigenesis [36].

It is known that cancer is ultimately caused by an uncontrolled cell proliferation that threatens life. The uncontrolled cell division of some cells leads to the accumulation of abnormal cell populations that threaten life by interfering with vital body functions [16]. However, despite decades of research, the main biological cause of such an uncontrolled proliferation remains to be elucidated. Not having the answer to the question raised in this Editorial is a major barrier to reducing the

burden of the disease [37]. To be widely accepted, the answer should explain the striking differences in cancer risk by age and among tissues. It should also explain why non-mutagenic agents increase the risk of developing the disease. *Cancer Research-Open Journal* welcomes submissions addressing this key question.

Conflict of interests: The author declares no conflict of interest.

References

1. Doll R, Peto R, Wheatley K, Gray R, Sutherland I. Mortality in relation to smoking: 40 years' observations on male British doctors. *BMJ*. 1994; 309(6959): 901-911.
2. Sun S, Schiller JH, Gazdar AF. Lung cancer in never smokers--a different disease. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2007; 7(10): 778-790.
3. Villeneuve PJ, Mao Y. Lifetime probability of developing lung cancer, by smoking status, Canada. *Can. J. Public Health*. 1994; 85(6): 385-388.
4. Bach PB, Kattan MW, Thornquist MD, Kris MG, Tate RC, Barnett MJ, Hsieh LJ, Begg CB. Variations in lung cancer risk among smokers. *J. Natl. Cancer Inst*. 2003; 95(6): 470-478.
5. SEER Cancer Statistics Review, 1975-2012.
http://seer.cancer.gov/archive/csr/1975_2012/results_merged/topic_lifetime_risk.pdf
6. Oliveira GH, Al Kindi SG, Hoimes C, Park SJ. Characteristics and Survival of Malignant Cardiac Tumors: A 40-Year Analysis of >500 Patients. *Circulation*. 2015; 132(25): 2395-2402.
7. Tomasetti C, Vogelstein B. Cancer etiology. Variation in cancer risk among tissues can be explained by the number of stem cell divisions. *Science*. 2015; 347(6217): 78-81.
8. Vogelstein B, Kinzler KW. Cancer genes and the pathways they control. *Nat. Med*. 2004; 10(8): 789-799.
9. Vaux DL. In defense of the somatic mutation theory of cancer. *Bioessays*. 2011; 33(5): 341-343.
10. Vogelstein B, Kinzler KW. The Path to Cancer --Three Strikes and You're Out. *N. Engl. J. Med*. 2015; 373(20): 1895-1898.
11. Baker SG. A cancer theory kerfuffle can lead to new lines of research. *J. Natl. Cancer Inst*. 2014; 107(2): dju405.
12. Mack SC, Witt H, Piro RM, Gu L, Zuyderduyn S, Stutz AM, Wang X, Gallo M, Garzia L, Zayne K, Zhang X, Ramaswamy V, Jager N et al. Epigenomic alterations define lethal CIMP-positive ependymomas of infancy. *Nature*. 2014; 506(7489): 445-450.
13. Versteeg R. Cancer: Tumours outside the mutation box. *Nature*. 2014; 506(7489): 438-439.
14. Soto AM, Sonnenschein C. The somatic mutation theory of cancer: growing problems with the paradigm? *Bioessays*. 2004; 26(10): 1097-1107.
15. Lopez-Lazaro M. Stem cell division theory of cancer. *Cell Cycle*. 2015; 14(16): 2547-2548.
16. Lopez-Lazaro M. Understanding cancer: 15 questions and answers. ResearchGate, 2016; DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.1.4180.6323: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.4180.6323>.

17. Beral V. Breast cancer and hormone-replacement therapy in the Million Women Study. *Lancet*. 2003; 362(9382): 419-427.
18. Grady D, Gebretsadik T, Kerlikowske K, Ernster V, Petitti D. Hormone replacement therapy and endometrial cancer risk: a meta-analysis. *Obstet. Gynecol.* 1995; 85(2): 304-313.
19. Morch LS, Lokkegaard E, Andreassen AH, Kruger-Kjaer S, Lidegaard O. Hormone therapy and ovarian cancer. *JAMA*. 2009; 302(3): 298-305.
20. Islami F, Pourshams A, Nasrollahzadeh D, Kamangar F, Fahimi S, Shakeri R, Abedi-Ardekani B, Merat S, Vahedi H, Semnani S, Abnet CC, Brennan P, Moller H et al. Tea drinking habits and oesophageal cancer in a high risk area in northern Iran: population based case-control study. *BMJ*. 2009; 338:b929.
21. Islami F, Boffetta P, Ren JS, Pedoeim L, Khatib D, Kamangar F. High-temperature beverages and foods and esophageal cancer risk--a systematic review. *Int. J. Cancer*. 2009; 125(3): 491-524.
22. Loomis D, Guyton KZ, Grosse Y, Lauby-Secretan B, El Ghissassi F, Bouvard V, Benbrahim-Tallaa L, Guha N, Mattock H, Straif K. Carcinogenicity of drinking coffee, mate, and very hot beverages. *Lancet Oncol.* 2016; 17(7): 877-878.
23. Schernhammer ES, Laden F, Speizer FE, Willett WC, Hunter DJ, Kawachi I, Colditz GA. Rotating night shifts and risk of breast cancer in women participating in the nurses' health study. *J. Natl. Cancer Inst.* 2001; 93(20): 1563-1568.
24. Hansen J. Increased breast cancer risk among women who work predominantly at night. *Epidemiology*. 2001; 12(1): 74-77.
25. Stevens RG, Brainard GC, Blask DE, Lockley SW, Motta ME. Breast cancer and circadian disruption from electric lighting in the modern world. *CA Cancer J. Clin.* 2014; 64(3): 207-218.
26. Ahlbom A, Day N, Feychting M, Roman E, Skinner J, Dockerty J, Linet M, McBride M, Michaelis J, Olsen JH, Tynes T, Verkasalo PK. A pooled analysis of magnetic fields and childhood leukaemia. *Br. J. Cancer*. 2000; 83(5): 692-698.
27. Greenland S, Sheppard AR, Kaune WT, Poole C, Kelsh MA. A pooled analysis of magnetic fields, wire codes, and childhood leukemia. Childhood Leukemia-EMF Study Group. *Epidemiology*. 2000; 11(6): 624-634.
28. Kheifets L, Ahlbom A, Crespi CM, Draper G, Hagihara J, Lowenthal RM, Mezei G, Oksuzyan S, Schuz J, Swanson J, Tittarelli A, Vinceti M, Wunsch F, V. Pooled analysis of recent studies on magnetic fields and childhood leukaemia. *Br. J. Cancer*. 2010; 103(7): 1128-1135.
29. Zhao L, Liu X, Wang C, Yan K, Lin X, Li S, Bao H, Liu X. Magnetic fields exposure and childhood leukemia risk: a meta-analysis based on 11,699 cases and 13,194 controls. *Leuk. Res.* 2014; 38(3): 269-274.
30. Grellier J, Ravazzani P, Cardis E. Potential health impacts of residential exposures to extremely low frequency magnetic fields in Europe. *Environ. Int.* 2014; 62: 55-63.
31. Schuz J, Dasenbrock C, Ravazzani P, Roosli M, Schar P, Bounds PL, Erdmann F, Borkhardt A, Cobaleda C, Fedrowitz M, Hamnerius Y, Sanchez-Garcia I, Seger R et al. Extremely low-frequency magnetic fields and risk of childhood leukemia: A risk assessment by the ARIMMORA consortium. *Bioelectromagnetics*. 2016; 10.
32. Karp RD, Johnson KH, Buoen LC, Ghobrial HK, Brand I, Brand KG. Tumorigenesis by Millipore filters in mice: histology and ultrastructure of tissue reactions as related to pore size. *J. Natl. Cancer Inst.* 1973; 51(4): 1275-1285.
33. Ferguson DJ. Cellular attachment to implanted foreign bodies in relation to tumorigenesis. *Cancer Res.* 1977; 37(12): 4367-4371.

34. Moizhess TG. Carcinogenesis induced by foreign bodies. *Biochemistry*. 2008; 73(7): 763-775.
35. Magnon C, Hall SJ, Lin J, Xue X, Gerber L, Freedland SJ, Frenette PS. Autonomic nerve development contributes to prostate cancer progression. *Science*. 2013; 341(6142): 1236361.
36. Zhao CM, Hayakawa Y, Kodama Y, Muthupalani S, Westphalen CB, Andersen GT, Flatberg A, Johannessen H, Friedman RA, Renz BW, Sandvik AK, Beisvag V, Tomita H et al. Denervation suppresses gastric tumorigenesis. *Sci. Transl. Med.* 2014; 6(250): 250ra115.
37. Fitzmaurice C, Dicker D, Pain A, Hamavid H, Moradi-Lakeh M, MacIntyre MF, Allen C, Hansen G, Woodbrook R, Wolfe C, Hamadeh RR, Moore A, Werdecker A et al. The Global Burden of Cancer 2013. *JAMA Oncol.* 2015; 1(4): 505-527.



© 2016 by the author; licensee *Preprints*, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons by Attribution (CC-BY) license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).