



## International Journal of Allied Medical Sciences and Clinical Research (IJAMSCR)

IJAMSCR | Volume 2 | Issue 3 | July-Sep - 2014  
[www.ijamscr.com](http://www.ijamscr.com)

Review article

### Hepatocellular carcinoma: An overview of disease epidemiology and risk factors

\*Ahmed Abdalla<sup>1</sup>, Al-shaymaa Darwish<sup>2</sup>, Rehab Elbanhawy<sup>3</sup>, Amal Ghouraba<sup>4</sup>,  
Samah Shehata<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>MSc of drug discovery and development, Faculty of applied science, University of Sunderland, United Kingdom.

<sup>2,3,4,5</sup>Biochemistry Department, Faculty of Pharmacy (girls), Al-Azhar University, Egypt.

#### ABSTRACT

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the most common type of liver cancer. Consequently, the epidemiology of this fatal disease is well considered and studied. Although hepatitis B virus (HBV) and hepatitis C virus (HCV) are amongst the most prominent risk factors for this cancer, there are some other factors participating in the high incidence of HCC such as cirrhosis, cigarette smoking, alcohol drinking, obesity and metabolic disorders.

**Keywords:** Hepatocellular carcinoma, Hepatitis C virus, Risk factors.

#### Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), also called malignant hepatoma is a primary malignancy of the hepatocyte, the major cell type in the liver[1]. HCC accounts for 85-90% of all primary liver cancers with a survival range 6-20 months[2].

#### Incidence

In terms of global prevalence, HCC ranks as the eighth most common cancer[3]. It is often clinically silent until it is well advanced or tumor diameter exceeds 10 cm. HCC has a poor prognosis with shorter survival, high recurrence rates after treatment[4]. HCC is the third leading cause of cancer-related mortality, responsible for about 600,000 deaths annually[5].

#### Epidemiology

##### A-Geographic Distribution

HCC burden is not distributed evenly throughout the world[6]. The geographic distribution of HCC is highly uneven: three geographic areas with

different incidence rates (low, intermediate and high) have been recognized[7]. More than 80% of HCC cases occurs in sub-Saharan Africa and Eastern Asia where the highest incidence rate has been reported[6][8]. Areas with intermediate risk include France, United Kingdom and Germany[9], whereas a much lower HCC incidence characterizes North and South America, Northern Europe and Oceania[6]. Strong geographic correlations have been found between the incidence of HCC and the prevalence of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) or antibody to HCV[10].

##### B- Age

The incidence of HCC increases with age[9]. The mean age of onset of HCC increased from 43.7 to 49.1[11].

##### C-Sex

This malignancy occurs more often among men than women[8]. The male to female ratio in liver cancer incidence is about 2:4[12]. HCC is the sixth

\* Corresponding author: Ahmed Abdalla

E-mail address: [bg29lj@student.sunderland.ac.uk](mailto:bg29lj@student.sunderland.ac.uk)

[www.ijamscr.com](http://www.ijamscr.com)

most common cancer among men and the eleventh among women[3].

### **D-Race / Ethnicity**

HCC incidence rate also varies greatly among different populations living in the same region[2]. HCC rates are two times higher in Asian than African Americans, whose rates are two times higher than those are in whites. The reasons for this ethnic variability likely include difference in the prevalence and acquisition time of major risk factors for liver diseases and HCC[2][9].

### **Risk factors**

HCC is a complex disease associated with many risk factors and cofactors[5]. HCC is one of the few cancers with clearly defined major risk factors[3]. Any agent leading to chronic injury and eventually cirrhosis constitutes an oncogenic agent[13]. The chronic infection with HCV and HBV developed cirrhosis, which is the major risk factor for HCC[9][14]. The fraction of HCC estimated to HBV and HCV in 2002 to be 23% and 20% in developed countries, respectively and 59% and 33% in developing countries[15].

### **HBV infection**

In patients with active HBV viral replication, cirrhosis will develop and the incidence of HCC is greatly increased, HBV can cause HCC also in the absence of cirrhosis[16][17]. The risk of HCC in patients with chronic HBV infection is increased in male or elderly, a long time infection, having a family history of HCC, exposed to the mycotoxin aflatoxin (AF), used alcohol or tobacco, co-infected with HCV or hepatitis Delta Virus and have high levels of HBV hepatocellular replication[18].

The role of HBV in tumor formation remains unclear. There is a good evidence that the virus itself exerts a direct hepatocarcinogenic effect and it may have an indirect effect, through the process of the inflammation, regeneration and fibrosis associated with cirrhosis[19].

### **HCV infection**

The prevalence of HCV-infection has been accepted to be a horrible morbidifying factor in hepatic carcinogenesis[20]. The estimated risk of HCC is 15 to 20 times as high among persons infected with HCV as it is among those who are not infected[21]. HCV genomes can be detected in the tumor and surrounding liver tissue[22]. There are several risk factors for developing HCC in HCV infected individuals. These include advanced hepatic fibrosis (including cirrhosis), heavy alcohol

use, diabetes mellitus, obesity, low platelets count, elevated alpha fetoprotein (AFP) level, male sex, older age and increased hepatic iron stores[23]. Also cirrhotic patients infected with HCV subtype 1b carry a significantly higher risk of developing HCC than patients infected by other HCV types[24].

Hepatocarcinogenesis is mainly through indirect pathways: chronic inflammation cell deaths, proliferation and cirrhosis. The Direct pathway result of oncogenic potential of core protein[25]. The core protein is capable of inducing this active production of free radicals per se[26]. Its expression would be inducted HCC, even in the absence of a complete set of genetic aberrations, required for carcinogenesis[22].

### **Cirrhosis**

Cirrhosis is an end stage of chronic diffuse liver disease[27]. A 5% of cirrhotic patients developed HCC[28]. Main causes of liver cirrhosis are alcohol use, chronic hepatitis B, C and nonalcoholic steatohepatitis[29]. Cirrhosis occurs in 80–90% of HCC patients[30].

### **Aflatoxin (AF)**

AF is a group of mycotoxins produced by the fungi *Aspergillus Flavus* and *Parasiticus*[12]. Storage of crops in hot humid conditions can promote growth of the AF-producing fungi[31]. AF is a group of approximately 20 related fungal metabolites. The four major AF are known as B1, B2, G1 and G2[32]. AF B1 (AF B1), the most abundant form, is metabolized by liver enzymes to generate an epoxide which is highly reactive with DNA, forming adducts at N7 position of guanine. Lack of repair of this lesion may lead to permanent DNA mutations[33]. AF exposure in food is a significant risk factor for HCC[34]. The risk of liver cancer in individuals exposed to chronic HBV infection and AF has up to 30 times greater than the risk in individuals exposed to AF only[35]. AF also appears to have a synergistic effect on HCV-induced liver cancer[32].

### **Pesticides**

Occupational exposure pesticides may have a contributory role in the etiology or progression of HCC[36]. Pesticides have been considered possible epigenetic carcinogens through one or several mechanisms. Some of these mechanisms are spontaneous initiation of genetic changes, cytotoxicity with persistence cell proliferation, oxidative stress, inhibition of apoptosis,

suppression of intracellular communication and construction of activated receptors[37].

### **Alcohol drinking**

Alcohol consumption is an important risk factor for numerous cancers worldwide[38]. Its first metabolite (acetaldehyde) is a local carcinogen in humans[39]. There are synergistic interactions between alcohol intake and smoking[12].

### **Tobacco Smoking**

It is causally associated with liver cancer[12]. An Italian study reported that an interaction between tobacco smoking and infection with HBV and HCV could increase the risk of HCC[40].

### **Obesity**

Several large-scale epidemiological studies have associated the increasingly prevalent overweight and obesity with a higher risk of HCC[41].

### **Diabetes mellitus**

Diabetes mellitus has been associated with increased risk of several cancers[42]. Diabetes mellitus was also shown to increase the risk of primary liver cancers only in the presence of other

risk factors such as hepatitis C or B or alcoholic cirrhosis[43].

### **Metabolic and hereditary diseases**

Other hepatic disease as autoimmune hepatitis, hemochromatosis, Wilson disease, alpha-1 antitrypsin deficiency and primary biliary cirrhosis may be associated with HCC development when in cirrhosis stage[44].

### **Risk factors and pathogenesis**

Although the major risk factors have been identified, the molecular pathogenesis of HCC remains largely unknown. It is presumed that the progression of HCC is the consequence of cumulative genetic and epigenetic events similar to those described in other solid tumors[45]. This initiates chronic liver injury, increased liver cell turnover, triggering oxidative DNA damage and inflammatory events. This leads to the formation of dysplastic and macroregenerative nodules that are considered neoplastic nodules[20].

Finally, HCC is the most common primary liver cancer that has various risk factors, however its molecular pathogenesis is still unknown.

## **REFERENCES**

- [1] Motola-Kuba D, Zamora-Valdés D, Uribe M and Méndez-Sánchez N. Hepatocellular carcinoma. An overview. *Ann Hepatol.*, 2006; 5(1):16-24.
- [2] El-Serag HB and Rudolph KL. Hepatocellular carcinoma: epidemiology and molecular carcinogenesis. *Gastroenterology*, 2007; 132(7):2557-2576.
- [3] Poustchi H, Sepanlou S, Esmaili S, Mehrabi M and Ansary moghadam A. Hepatocellular Carcinoma in the World and the Middle East. *Middle East Journal of Digestive Diseases*. 2010; 2 (1):31-41.
- [4] Silva M and Sherman M. Criteria for liver transplantation for HCC: What should the limits be?. *Journal of Hepatology*. 2011; 55(5):1137-1147.
- [5] Venook A, Papandreou C, Furuse J and de Guevara L. The Incidence and Epidemiology of Hepatocellular Carcinoma: A Global and Regional Perspective. *The Oncologist*. 2010;15(4):5-13.
- [6] Calvisi D, Evert M and Dombrowski F. Review Article Pathogenetic and Prognostic Significance of Inactivation of RASSF Proteins in Human Hepatocellular Carcinoma. *Molecular Biology International*. 2012;Vol (2012):1-9.
- [7] Cabibbo G and Craxi A. Epidemiology, risk factors and surveillance of hepatocellular carcinoma. *European Review for Medical and Pharmacological Sciences*, 2010; 14:352-355.
- [8] Altekruse SF, Mcglynn KA and Reichman ME. Hepatocellular carcinoma incidence, mortality, and survival trends in the United States from 1975 to 2005. *Journal of clinical oncology*. 2009; 27(9): 1485-1491.
- [9] Gomaa A, Khan S, Toledano M, Waked I and Taylor-Robinson S. Hepatocellular carcinoma: Epidemiology, risk factors and pathogenesis. *World Journal Gastroenterology*. 2008; 14(27): 4300–4308.
- [10] Liu CJ and Kao JH. Hepatitis B Virus-related Hepatocellular Carcinoma: Epidemiology and Pathogenic Role of Viral Factors. *J Chin Med Assoc*. 2007; 70(4):141- 145.
- [11] Jing-Lin X, Sharma D, Bing-Hui Y, Bo-Heng Z, Zeng-Chen M, Zhi-Quan W, Jia F, Xin Z, Lun-Xiu Q and Zhao-You X. Analysis of the Clinicopathological Features of Hepatocellular Carcinoma in Elderly Patients. *JNMA*. 2008; 47(171):132-135.

- [12] Chuang SC, La Vecchia C and Boffetta P. Liver cancer: Descriptive epidemiology and risk factors other than HBV and HCV infection. *Cancer Lett.* 2009; 286(1):9-14.
- [13] Bruix J, Boix L, Sala M and Llovet J. Focus on hepatocellular carcinoma. *Cancer Cell*, 2004; 5(3):215-219.
- [14] Franceschi S and Raza S. Epidemiology and prevention of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Cancer Lett.*, 2009; 286(1):5-8.
- [15] Parkin DM. The global health burden of infection-associated cancers in the year 2002. *Int J Cancer*, 2006; 118(12):3030–3044.
- [16] Liaw Y, Sung J, Chow W, Farrell G, Lee C, Yuen H, Tanwandee T, Tao Q, Shue K, Keene O, Dixon J, Gray D and Sabbat J. Lamivudine for patients with chronic hepatitis B and advanced liver disease. *N Engl J Med.*, 2004; 351(15):1521–1531.
- [17] El-Serag H, Marrero J, Rudolph L and Reddy K. Diagnosis and treatment of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Gastroenterology*. 2008; 134:1752–1763.
- [18] Chen E, Wang L, Lei J, Xu L and Tang H. Meta-analysis: Adefovir dipivoxil in combination with lamivudine in patients with lamivudine-resistant hepatitis B virus. *Virology*, 2009;6:163-172.
- [19] Gao J, Xie L, Yang W, Zhang W, Gao S, Wang J and Xiang Y. Risk Factors of Hepatocellular Carcinoma - Current Status and Perspectives. *Asian Pacific J Cancer Prev.*, 2012; 13(3):743-752.
- [20] Abdel-Hamid NM. Review Update to risk factors for hepatocellular carcinoma. *International Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences*, 2009;1(3): 038-043.
- [21] El-Serag HB. Hepatocellular Carcinoma. *N Engl J Med.*, 2011; 365:1118-1127.
- [22] Andrade L, D'Oliveira A, Melo R, De Souza E, Silva C and Paraná R. Association between Hepatitis C and Hepatocellular Carcinoma. *Journal Global Infectious Diseases*. 2009; 1(1): 33–37.
- [23] Ohki T, Tateishi R, Sato T, Masuzaki R, Imamura J, Goto T, Yamashiki N, Yoshida H, Kanai F, Kato N, Shiina S, Yoshida H, Kawabe T and Omata M. Obesity is an independent risk factor for HCC development in CHC patient. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol.*, 2008; 6(4):459-464.
- [24] Bruno S, Crosignani A, Maisonneuve P, Rossi S, Silini E and Mondelli M. Hepatitis C virus genotype 1b as a major risk factor associated with hepatocellular carcinoma in patients with cirrhosis: a seventeen-year prospective cohort study. *Journal of Hepatology*, 2007; 46(5): 1350-1356.
- [25] Koike K. Hepatitis C virus contributes to hepatocarcinogenesis by modulating metabolic and intracellular signaling pathways. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol.*, 2007; 22(1):108-111.
- [26] Farinati F, Cardin R, Bortolami M, Burra P, Russo F, Rugge M, Guido M, Sergio A and Naccarato R. Hepatitis C virus: From oxygen free radicals to hepatocellular carcinoma. *Journal Viral Hepatology*, 2007; 14(12):821-830.
- [27] Jelic S and Sotiropoulos G. clinical practice guidelines Hepatocellular carcinoma: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up. *Annals of Oncology*, 2010; 21 (5): 59–64.
- [28] Bailey MA and Brunt EM. Hepatocellular carcinoma: predisposing conditions and precursor lesions. *Gastroenterology Clinics of North America*, 2002; 31(2):641-662.
- [29] Raphael S, Yangde Z and YuXiang C. Hepatocellular Carcinoma: Focus on Different Aspects of Management. *ISRN Oncology*, 2012; 2012: 1-12.
- [30] Nordenstedt H, White DL and El-Serag HB. The changing pattern of epidemiology in hepatocellular carcinoma. *Digestive and Liver Disease*, 2010; 42(3): 206–214.
- [31] Villar S, Ortiz-Cuaran S, Abedi-Ardekani B, Gouas D, Nogueira da Costa A, Plymoth A, Khuhaprema T, Kalalak A, Sangrajrang S, Friesen M, Groopman J and Hainaut P. Aflatoxin-Induced TP53 R249S Mutation in Hepatocellular Carcinoma in Thailand: *PLoS ONE*, 2012; 7(6):1-7.
- [32] Liu Y and Wu F (2010): Global Burden of Aflatoxin-Induced Hepatocellular Carcinoma: A Risk Assessment. *Environ Health Perspect*, 2010; 118(6): 818–824.
- [33] Besaratinia A, Kim S, Hainaut P and Pfeifer G. In vitro recapitulating of TP53 mutagenesis in hepatocellular carcinoma associated with dietary aflatoxin B1 exposure. *Gastroenterology*, 2009; 137(3):1127-1137.
- [34] Wild CP and Gong YY. Mycotoxins and human disease: a largely ignored global health issue. *Carcinogenesis*, 2010; 31(1):71-82.
- [35] Groopman JD, Kensler TW and Wild CP. Protective interventions to prevent aflatoxin-induced carcinogenesis in developing countries. *Annu Rev Public Health*, 2008; 29:187-203.

- [36] Anwar W, Khaled H, Amra H, El-Nezami H and Loffredo C. Changing pattern of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) and its risk factors in Egypt: possibilities for prevention. *Mutation Research*, 2008; 659: 176–184.
- [37] Ezzat S, Abdel-Hamid M, Eissa S, Mokhtar N, Labib N, El-Ghorory L, Mikhail N, Abdel-Hamid A, Hifnawy T, Strickland GT and Loffredo CA. Associations of pesticides, HCV, HBV and hepatocellular carcinoma in Egypt. *Int J Hyg Environ Health*, 2005; 208 (5): 329-339.
- [38] Boffetta P and Hashibe M. Alcohol and cancer. *Lancet Oncology*, 2006; 7(2):149-156.
- [39] Li Y, Yang H and Cao J. Association between Alcohol Consumption and Cancers in the Chinese Population—A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *PLoS ONE*, 2011; 6(4): 1-11.
- [40] Franceschi S, Montella M, Polesel J, La Vecchia C, Crispo A, Dal Maso L, Casarin P, Izzo F, Tommasi L, Chemin I, Trépo C, Crovatto M and Talamini R. Hepatitis viruses, alcohol, and tobacco in the etiology of hepatocellular carcinoma in Italy. *Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev.*, 2006; 15(4):683–689.
- [41] Baffy G, Brunt E and Caldwell S. Hepatocellular carcinoma in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: an emerging menace. *Journal of Hepatology*, 2012; 56(6):1384-1391.
- [42] Giovannucci E, Harlan D, Archer M, Bergenstal R, Gapstur S, Habel L, Pollak M, Regensteiner J and Yee D. Diabetes and cancer: a consensus report. *Diabetes Care*, 2010; 60(4):207-221.
- [43] Gao C, Zhao H, Li J and Yao S. Diabetes mellitus and hepatocellular carcinoma: Comparison of Chinese patients with and without HBV-related cirrhosis. *World Journal Gastroenterology*, 2010; 16(35): 4467-4475.
- [44] Paranda P and Almeida D. Epidemiology of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Iatreia*, 2007; 20(1): s25-s28.
- [45] Thorgeirsson SS and Grisham JW. Molecular pathogenesis of human hepatocellular carcinoma. *Nature Genetics*, 2002; 31(4): 339–346.

\*\*\*\*\*