

microcancer) is present in over 6% of autopsy specimens (Lang *et al.*, 1988; Roti *et al.*, 2008), it would be reasonable to hypothesize that exposure to diagnostic radiography is a confounder and potentially reflects the influence of other diseases (requiring increased diagnostic radiography).

Acknowledgements

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

References

- Coughlin SS (1990). Recall bias in epidemiologic studies. *J Clin Epidemiol* **43**:87–91.
- Kilfoy BA, Zheng T, Holford TR, Han X, Ward MH, *et al.* (2009). International patterns and trends in thyroid cancer incidence, 1973–2002. *Cancer Causes Control* **20**:525–531.
- Lang W, Borrusch H, Bauer L (1988). Occult carcinomas of the thyroid. Evaluation of 1020 sequential autopsies. *Am J Clin Pathol* **90**:72–76.
- Lee TJ, Kim S, Cho HJ, Lee JH (2012). The incidence of thyroid cancer is affected by the characteristics of a healthcare system. *J Korean Med Sci* **27**:1491–1498.
- Morris LG, Sikora AG, Tosteson TD, Davies L (2013). The increasing incidence of thyroid cancer: the influence of access to care. *Thyroid* **23**:885–891.
- Moylich KB, Menezes RJ, Michalek AM (2002). Chernobyl-related ionising radiation exposure and cancer risk: an epidemiological review. *Lancet Oncol* **3**:269–279.
- Roti E, degli Uberti EC, Bondanelli M, Braverman LE (2008). Thyroid papillary microcarcinoma: a descriptive and meta-analysis study. *Eur J Endocrinol* **159**:659–673.
- Seaberg RM, Eski S, Freeman JL (2009). Influence of previous radiation exposure on pathologic features and clinical outcome in patients with thyroid cancer. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* **135**:355–359.
- Urbach DR, Cohen MM (1999). Is perforation of the appendix a risk factor for tubal infertility and ectopic pregnancy? An appraisal of the evidence. *Can J Surg* **42**:101–108.
- Zhang Y, Chen Y, Huang H, Sandler J, Dai M, Ma S, Udelsman R (2015). Diagnostic radiography exposure increases the risk for thyroid microcarcinoma: a population-based case–control study. *Eur J Cancer Prev* [Epub ahead of print].

DOI: 10.1097/CEJ.0000000000000182

Finasteride for postmenopausal breast cancer prevention

Steven Lehrer, Fermata Pharma Inc, New York, New York, USA

Correspondence to Steven Lehrer, MD, 30 West 60th Street, New York, New York 10023 USA

Tel: +212 765 7132; fax: +212 245 9708; e-mail: steven@fermatapharma.com

Received 17 August 2013 Accepted 10 March 2015

A recent report has indicated that exemestane could be one part of the chemopreventive spectrum for estrogen-receptor-positive breast cancer (Dunn *et al.*, 2013). Finasteride is another drug that might be used for the same purpose.

Finasteride is a 5 α -reductase inhibitor for the treatment of benign prostatic hypertrophy and male pattern baldness. 5 α -Reductase is an enzyme that converts testosterone to the highly active dihydrotestosterone. Finasteride can prevent prostate cancer (Lucia *et al.*, 2007).

Finasteride has been used in women to reduce hirsutism and acne (Fruzzetti *et al.*, 1994; Kohler *et al.*, 2007). It significantly decreases dihydrotestosterone levels and hair growth in hirsute women or in women with acne, without negatively affecting gonadotropin secretion.

Increased concentrations of endogenous sex steroids, both estrogens and androgens, are associated with an increased risk of estrogen receptor+/progesterone receptor+ breast cancers in postmenopausal women (Missmer *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, hirsutism and acne increase the risk of female breast cancer (Baron *et al.*, 2001).

Finasteride induces gynecomastia. Gynecomastia is a well-documented, common complication of finasteride therapy in men (Volpi *et al.*, 1995; Green *et al.*, 1996; Carlin *et al.*, 1997). Moreover, gynecomastia doubles the risk of male breast cancer (Casagrande *et al.*, 1988). However, the overall incidence of male breast cancer in clinical trials for 5 mg finasteride was not significantly increased – 7.8/100 000 patient-years for patients exposed to more than 1 year of treatment versus 8/100 000 patient-years for patients not exposed to the drug – despite the gynecomastia produced by finasteride. As of November 2009, there were only 50 case reports worldwide of male breast cancer in benign prostatic hypertrophy patients aged between 54 and 88 years (mean age of 71 years) who received 5 mg finasteride, despite its very widespread use and the fact that finasteride became generic in 2006 (Shenoy and Prabhakar, 2010). In the Prostate Cancer Prevention Trial, with 141 009 person-years of follow-up, there were two cases of male breast cancer, one in the finasteride treatment group and another in the control group (Walsh, 2013). These data suggest that finasteride may reduce the risk of male breast cancer.

Male breast cancer most closely resembles postmenopausal female breast cancer. For example, low nuclear grade, and estrogen and progesterone receptor positivity are more common among men and postmenopausal women than among premenopausal women (Anderson *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, as 5 α -reductase inhibitors, such as finasteride, can prevent male breast cancer, they might be useful in preventing breast cancer in postmenopausal women.

Acknowledgements

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

References

- Anderson WF, Althuis MD, Brinton LA, Devesa SS (2004). Is male breast cancer similar or different than female breast cancer? *Breast Cancer Res Treat* **83**:77–86.
- Baron JA, Weiderpass E, Newcomb PA, Stampfer M, Titus-Ernstoff L, Egan KM, Greenberg ER (2001). Metabolic disorders and breast cancer risk (United States). *Cancer Causes Control* **12**:875–880.
- Carlin BI, Seftel AD, Resnick MI, Findlay J (1997). Finasteride induced gynecomastia. *J Urol* **158**:547.

- Casagrande JT, Hanisch R, Pike MC, Ross RK, Brown JB, Henderson BE (1988). A case-control study of male breast cancer. *Cancer Res* **48**:1326-1330.
- Dunn BK, Cazzaniga M, DeCensi A (2013). Exemestane: one part of the chemopreventive spectrum for ER-positive breast cancer. *Breast* **22**:225-237.
- Fruzzetti F, de Lorenzo D, Parrini D, Ricci C (1994). Effects of finasteride, a 5 alpha-reductase inhibitor, on circulating androgens and gonadotropin secretion in hirsute women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **79**:831-835.
- Green L, Wysowski DK, Fourcroy JL (1996). Gynecomastia and breast cancer during finasteride therapy. *N Engl J Med* **335**:823.
- Kohler C, Tschumi K, Bodmer C, Schneiter M, Birkhaeuser M (2007). Effect of finasteride 5 mg (Proscar) on acne and alopecia in female patients with normal serum levels of free testosterone. *Gynecol Endocrinol* **23**:142-145.
- Lucia MS, Epstein JI, Goodman PJ, Darke AK, Reuter VE, Civantos F, *et al.* (2007). Finasteride and high-grade prostate cancer in the Prostate Cancer Prevention Trial. *J Natl Cancer Inst* **99**:1375-1383.
- Missmer SA, Eliassen AH, Barbieri RL, Hankinson SE (2004). Endogenous estrogen, androgen, and progesterone concentrations and breast cancer risk among postmenopausal women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* **96**:1856-1865.
- Shenoy NK, Prabhakar SM (2010). Finasteride and male breast cancer: Does the MHRA report show a link? *J Cutan Aesthet Surg* **3**:102-105.
- Volpi R, Maccarini PA, Boni S, Chiodera P, Coiro V (1995). Case report: finasteride-induced gynecomastia in a 62-year-old man. *Am J Med Sci* **309**:322-325.
- Walsh PC (2013). Survival in the Prostate Cancer Prevention Trial. *N Engl J Med* **369**:1967-1968.

DOI: 10.1097/CEJ.0000000000000162