



Review

Metformin and risk of cancer among patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: A systematic review and meta-analysis



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ABSTRACT

Aim: We carried out this meta-analysis on all published studies to estimate the overall cancer risk of the use of metformin in T2DM patients.

Methods: We searched the PubMed, Embase and CNKI databases for all articles within a range of published years from 2007 to 2019 on the association between the use of metformin and cancer risk in T2DM patients. The odds ratio (OR) corresponding to the 95% confidence interval (95% CI) was used to assess the association using a random-effect meta-analysis.

Results: Finally, 67 studies met the inclusion criteria for this study, with 10,695,875 T2DM patients and 145,108 cancer cases. Overall, For T2DM patients of ever vs. never metformin users, there was statistical evidence of significantly decreased cancer risk was found to be associated with ever metformin users (OR = 0.70, 95% CI = 0.65–0.76). Considering T2DM may be a specific and independent risk factor for various forms of cancer, due to its particular metabolic characteristics of glucose intolerance and hyperinsulinemia, we performed a comparison to estimate the effects of metformin on cancer risk with other anti-diabetes medications (ADMs), our results found significantly decreased cancer risk to be associated with the use of metformin (OR = 0.80, 95% CI = 0.73–0.87).

Conclusion: Our meta-analysis indicated that metformin may be a independent protective factor for cancer risk in T2DM patients.

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1. Introduction

Diabetes is a group of metabolic diseases characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insulin action, or both. It is emerging as one of the most prevalent human ailments next to cardiovascular diseases and is the sixth leading cause of death worldwide (WHO), and the prevalence of T2DM is rapidly increasing worldwide [1]. The chronic hyperglycemia of diabetes is associated with long-term damage, dysfunction, and failure of different organs, especially the eyes, kidneys, nerves, heart, and blood vessels [2].

Cancer is a leading cause of death worldwide, particularly in less developed countries, in which about 82% of the world's population resides [3]. There is strong evidence to suggest that cancer incidence is increased in patients with DM [4]. The pathophysiological hypotheses to explain the link between diabetes or hyperglycaemia and cancer rely on biological, particularly hormonal, mechanisms involving insulin-resistance [5]. Indeed, in the genesis of type 2 diabetes, reduced insulin sensitivity plays a key role, inducing compensatory hyperinsulinaemia with an increased level of circulating Insulin-like Growth Factors (IGF), well-known to stimulate cell proliferation in many organs, including the liver, pancreas, colon, ovary, breast, the most frequent sites with an increased risk of cancer in type 2 diabetic patients [6].

Metformin is one of the most used oral glucose-lowering drugs for the treatment of T2DM [7]. The two main biguanides, metformin and phenformin were introduced for the first time in the late 1950s, but phenformin had to be withdrawn because of a strong association with lactic acidosis. So actually, although there are many different medications to treat T2DM, metformin is still a cornerstone in the T2DM therapy. In fact, a consensus statement of the American Diabetes Association and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes, recommend metformin as the first step in T2DM treatment, if there is not a contraindication [8]. Despite the length of its use, continuing research on metformin's mechanisms of action and particularly its potential role in cancer has restored its popularity [9]. Recently, the associations of risk relating to cancer with the use of metformin in T2DM patients have already been widely studied [10–76]. However, the results remained inconsistent.

Considering a single study might have been underpowered to detect the overall effects, a quantitative synthesis of the accumulated data from different studies was deemed important to provide evidence on the association between the use of metformin in T2DM patients and cancer risk. So, we carried out this meta-analysis on all published studies to estimate the overall cancer risk of the use of metformin in T2DM patients. Furthermore, T2DM may be considered as a specific and independent risk factor for various forms of cancer, due to its particular metabolic characteristics of glucose intolerance and hyperinsulinemia [77]. We performed a comparison to estimate the effects of metformin on cancer risk with other ADMs.

2. Methods

2.1. Publication search and inclusion criteria

We searched the PubMed, Embase and CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure) databases for all articles within a range of published years from 2007 to 2019 on the association between the use of metformin and cancer risk (last search was update Nov. 23 2019) in T2DM patients. The following terms were used in this search: 'metformin' and 'cancer' and 'type 2 diabetes mellitus or T2DM'. In order to identify the relevant publications, the references cited in the research papers were also scanned. Combining searches

resulted in 684 abstracts (Supplementary figure 1). An additional 13 studies were identified through review articles and meta-analysis, for a total of 693 studies were screened after duplicated records removed. After screening the titles and abstracts, 97 were retrieved for more detailed evaluation.

We evaluated the eligible studies if all the following conditions were met: (1) evaluation of the association of metformin usage and cancer risk; (2) including data for analysis between ever and never metformin usage patients or metformin usage compared with other anti-diabetes medications (ADMs); (3) inclusion of sufficient data or the data can be acquired from the manuscript or Supplementary materials to calculate ORs and 95% CIs; (4) the publication was a cohort study or case-control study; and (5) the study was published in English.

2.2. Data extraction

Two authors (Kui Zhang and Peng Bai) independently reviewed and extracted the data needed. Disagreements were resolved through discussion among the authors to achieve a consensus. The following information was recorded for each study: first author, year of publication, region, study type, follow-up period, cancer type, sex, number of cases, number of controls (all of the data are shown in Table 1).

2.3. Statistical analysis

The odds ratio (OR) corresponding to the 95% confidence interval (95% CI) was used to assess the association between metformin usage (ever vs. never and compared with other ADMs). To minimize the influence of recall and selection bias that occur in studies, we performed stratified analyses to assess the association in different study type. In addition to the above comparison, we also performed analyses stratified by different cancer type. The statistical heterogeneity among studies was assessed with the Q -test and I^2 statistics [78]. If there was no obvious heterogeneity, the fixed-effects model (the Mantel-Haenszel method) was used to estimate the summary OR [79]; otherwise, the random-effects model (the DerSimonian and Laird method) was used [80]. Finally, random effects models were used to calculate the overall RR estimates and 95% CIs. To explore sources of heterogeneity across studies, we did logistic meta-regression analyses. We examined the following study characteristics: publication year, region, study type, follow-up period, cancer type, number of cases, number of controls, morbidity of cases, and morbidity of controls. Publication bias was evaluated with funnel plot and Begg's rank correlation method [81]. The statistical analyses were performed by STATA 12.0 software (Stata Corp., College Station, TX).

3. Results

3.1. Characteristics of studies

Out of a total of 693 titles and abstracts were screened, 97 were retrieved for more detailed evaluation. Among the 30 excluded studies, 14 papers were reviews, 6 papers were not associated with the topic, and 10 papers lacked sufficient data (shown in Supplementary figure 1). Finally, 67 studies including 80 comparisons met the inclusion criteria for this study [10–76], with 10,695,875 T2DM patients and 145,108 cancer cases. Among them, 65 prospective cohort studies with 135,184 cancer cases and 10,132,888 T2DM patients were included. The details of including first author, year of publication, region, study type, follow-up period, cancer type, gender (male, female, or both), number of cases, and number of controls in the selected studies were listed in Table 1.

Table 1
Characteristics of literatures included in the meta-analysis.

| Reference | Year | Region | Study type | Follow up time (year) | Cancer type | Sex | No. of cases | No. of subjects |
|---------------------|------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|--------|--------------|-----------------|
| Bradley MC [14] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 15.5 | Colorectal cancer | Both | 812 | 47,351 |
| Lai SW [37] | 2012 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 9 | Lung cancer | Both | 129 | 19,624 |
| Haring A [28] | 2017 | Finland | Cohort study | 15 | Prostate cancer | Male | 767 | 78,615 |
| Arima R [10] | 2017 | Finland | Cohort study | 16 | Endometrial cancer | Female | 590 | 92,366 |
| Hagberg KW [26] | 2014 | USA | Case control study | | Liver cancer | Both | 305 | 1151 |
| Li D [41] | 2009 | USA | Case control study | | Pancreatic cancer | both | 255 | 106 |
| Kowall B [33] | 2015 | Germany | Cohort study | 4.8 | Any cancer | Both | 1446 | 22,556 |
| Ye JH [74] | 2019 | China | Cohort study | 5 | Any cancer | Both | 94 | 2353 |
| Hosio M [29] | 2019 | Finland | Cohort study | 16 | Breast cancer | Female | 2300 | 141,194 |
| Chen YC [20] | 2015 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 2.5 | Any cancer | Both | 549 | 7272 |
| Chen HH [19] | 2015 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 5 | Liver cancer | Both | 340 | 1360 |
| Calip GS [15] | 2016 | USA | Cohort study | 6.7 | Breast cancer | Female | 301 | 10,050 |
| Tseng CH [56] | 2012 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 3 | Colorectal cancer | Both | 678 | 87,991 |
| Chlebowski RT [21] | 2012 | USA | Cohort study | 11.8 | Breast cancer | Female | 444 | 3401 |
| Chang YT [17] | 2018 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 7.17 | Colorectal cancer | Both | 914 | 47,597 |
| Vicentini M [72] | 2018 | Italy | Cohort study | 3 | Any cancer | Both | 531 | 11,520 |
| Yen YC [75] | 2015 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 17 | Head and neck cancer | Both | 485 | 66,600 |
| Kim G [30] | 2017 | Korea | Case control study | | Liver cancer | Both | 229 | 1145 |
| Lin HC [43] | 2014 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 6 | Any cancer | Both | 5221 | 32,877 |
| Simo R [51] | 2013 | Spain | Case control study | | Any cancer | Both | 609 | 1829 |
| Mamtani R [44] | 2014 | U.K | Cohort study | 10 | Bladder cancer | Both | 262 | 87,600 |
| Goossens ME [25] | 2015 | U.K | Cohort study | 5 | Bladder cancer | Both | 693 | 165,398 |
| Qiu H [47] | 2013 | U.K | Cohort study | 14 | Any cancer | Both | 2554 | 56,844 |
| Kim YI [32] | 2014 | Korea | Cohort study | 7 | Gastric cancer | Both | 318 | 39,989 |
| Yang X [73] | 2011 | Hong Kong | Cohort study | 5.51 | Any cancer | Both | 129 | 2529 |
| Lai SW [36] | 2012 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 9 | Liver cancer | Both | 224 | 19,349 |
| Ruiter R [48] | 2012 | Netherlands | Cohort study | 11 | Any cancer | Both | 2036 | 85,289 |
| Soffer D [54] | 2015 | USA | Cohort study | 12 | Breast cancer | Female | 852 | 66,778 |
| Soffer D [54] | 2015 | USA | Cohort study | 12 | Endometrial cancer | Female | 852 | 66,778 |
| Soffer D [54] | 2015 | USA | Cohort study | 12 | Ovarian cancer | Female | 852 | 66,778 |
| Monami M [45] | 2011 | Italy | Case control study | | Any cancer | Both | 112 | 370 |
| Tseng CH [60] | 2015 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 11 | Endometrial cancer | Female | 2885 | 478,921 |
| Tseng CH [66] | 2017 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 13 | Esophageal cancer | Both | 381 | 304,229 |
| Tseng CH [67] | 2017 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 13 | Lung cancer | Both | 2576 | 295,573 |
| Tseng CH [68] | 2018 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 5.5 | Head and neck cancer | Both | 98 | 30,972 |
| Tseng CH [69] | 2018 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 5.3 | Liver cancer | Both | 3261 | 195,817 |
| Azoulay L [11] | 2011 | U.K | Case control study | | Prostate cancer | Male | 739 | 7359 |
| Becker C [12] | 2014 | U.K | Case control study | | Head and neck cancer | Both | 2874 | 17,244 |
| Chen CB [18] | 2017 | U.K | Cohort study | 9 | Prostate cancer | Male | 3557 | 80,001 |
| Becker C [13] | 2017 | USA | Case control study | | Renal cancer | Both | 3506 | 21,038 |
| Tsai MJ [55] | 2014 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 11 | Lung cancer | Both | 673 | 47,356 |
| Tsilidis KK [70] | 2014 | U.K | Cohort study | 5.1 | Any cancer | Both | 3805 | 69,748 |
| Sehdev A [50] | 2015 | USA | Case control study | | Colorectal cancer | Both | 2682 | 5364 |
| Tseng CH [57] | 2014 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 7 | Breast cancer | Female | 11,734 | 476,282 |
| Tseng CH [62] | 2016 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 7 | Head and neck cancer | Both | 1392 | 304,461 |
| Tseng CH [63] | 2016 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 7 | Gastric cancer | Both | 848 | 304,188 |
| Tseng CH [61] | 2015 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 7 | Ovarian cancer | Female | 3201 | 640,193 |
| Kuo YJ [35] | 2019 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 5 | Prostate cancer | Male | 166 | 5812 |
| Kim HJ [31] | 2018 | Korea | Cohort study | 5.8 | Any cancer | Both | 164 | 1918 |
| Tseng CH [58] | 2014 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 4 | Head and neck cancer | Both | 2297 | 1,414,723 |
| Tseng CH [59] | 2014 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 8 | Prostate cancer | Male | 12,418 | 545,815 |
| Tseng CH [64] | 2016 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 7 | Cervical cancer | Female | 476 | 139,911 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Bladder cancer | Both | 219 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Breast cancer | Female | 22 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Colorectal cancer | Both | 307 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Esophageal cancer | Both | 77 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Gastric cancer | Both | 59 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Liver cancer | Both | 126 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Lung cancer | Both | 652 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Pancreatic cancer | Both | 96 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Prostate cancer | Male | 884 | 137,863 |
| Murff HJ [46] | 2018 | USA | Cohort study | 7 | Renal cancer | Both | 133 | 137,863 |
| Sakoda LC [49] | 2015 | USA | Cohort study | 15.5 | Lung cancer | Both | 747 | 47,351 |
| Zheng J [76] | 2019 | Sweden | Cohort study | 5.8 | Gastric cancer | both | 892 | 544,130 |
| Franchi M [24] | 2017 | Italy | Case control study | | Endometrial cancer | Female | 376 | 7485 |
| Libby G [42] | 2009 | U.K | Cohort study | 12 | Any cancer | Both | 771 | 8170 |
| Kowall B [34] | 2015 | Germany and U.K | Cohort study | 4.8 | Any cancer | Both | 4779 | 80,263 |
| Haggstrom C [27] | 2017 | Sweden | Cohort study | 5 | Prostate cancer | Male | 656 | 25,238 |
| Cho YY [22] | 2018 | Korea | Cohort study | 7.2 | Head and neck cancer | Both | 827 | 256,906 |
| Dabrowski M [23] | 2016 | Poland | Case control study | | Any cancer | Both | 203 | 203 |
| Chaiteerakij R [16] | 2013 | USA | Case control study | | Liver cancer | Both | 48 | 139 |
| Lehman DM [40] | 2012 | USA | Cohort study | 5 | Prostate cancer | Male | 360 | 5042 |
| Lee DY [38] | 2018 | Korea | Cohort study | 4.9 | Pancreatic cancer | Both | 2915 | 966,453 |
| Urpilainen E [71] | 2018 | Finland | Cohort study | 5.4 | Ovarian cancer | Female | 303 | 137,643 |
| Urpilainen E [71] | 2018 | Finland | Case control study | | Ovarian cancer | Female | 303 | 6060 |

Table 1 (Continued)

| Reference | Year | Region | Study type | Follow up time (year) | Cancer type | Sex | No. of cases | No. of subjects |
|---------------------|------|--------|--------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|------|--------------|-----------------|
| Smiechowski B [52] | 2013 | U.K | Case control study | | Colorectal cancer | Both | 607 | 5837 |
| Smiechowski BB [53] | 2013 | U.K | Case control study | | Lung cancer | Both | 808 | 7764 |
| Lee MS [39] | 2011 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 3.52 | Any cancer | Both | 339 | 15,717 |
| Tseng CH [65] | 2016 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 4 | Any cancer | Both | 40,242 | 234,007 |
| Tseng CH [65] | 2016 | Taiwan | Cohort study | 4 | Renal cancer | Both | 1741 | 247,252 |

Table 2

Associations between metformin usage and risk of cancer.

| | Metformin(ever users vs. never users) | | | | Compare with other ADMs | | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|----------------|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| | N ^a | Case/control | OR (95%CI) | P ^b | N ^a | Case/control | OR (95%CI) | P ^b |
| Overall | 80 | 145,108/10,695,875 | 0.70 (0.65–0.76) | <0.001 | 53 | 56,815/5,254,835 | 0.80 (0.73–0.87) | <0.001 |
| Cohort study | 65 | 135,184/10,132,888 | 0.69 (0.63–0.75) | <0.001 | 42 | 45,336/5,192,832 | 0.78 (0.71–0.87) | <0.001 |
| Case control study | 15 | 9924/562,987 | 0.81 (0.70–0.93) | <0.001 | 11 | 11,479/62,003 | 0.88 (0.79–0.99) | 0.001 |
| Bladder cancer | 4 | 4979/460,609 | 0.76 (0.63–0.91) | 0.070 | 4 | 4979/460,609 | 0.76 (0.63–0.91) | 0.070 |
| Breast cancer | 11 | 27,575/1,090,558 | 0.78 (0.52–1.17) | <0.001 | 8 | 14,539/594,586 | 0.91 (0.77–1.09) | <0.001 |
| Colorectal Cancer | 12 | 18,261/602,710 | 0.73 (0.60–0.87) | <0.001 | 6 | 13,898/425,878 | 0.73 (0.57–0.93) | <0.001 |
| Esophageal cancer | 5 | 6638/612,846 | 0.72 (0.53–0.96) | 0.050 | 3 | 5918/292,900 | 0.75 (0.55–1.03) | 0.143 |
| Gastric cancer | 7 | 8297/1,196,924 | 0.72 (0.43–1.22) | <0.001 | 4 | 6748/597,088 | 0.53 (0.42–0.65) | 0.165 |
| Liver cancer | 11 | 11,244/539,098 | 0.61 (0.49–0.75) | <0.001 | 6 | 6725/314,545 | 0.62 (0.44–0.89) | <0.001 |
| Head and neck cancer | 6 | 7973/2,090,906 | 0.55 (0.38–0.79) | <0.001 | | | | |
| Lung cancer | 11 | 17,507/810,521 | 0.69 (0.60–0.80) | <0.001 | 6 | 14,183/688,360 | 0.63 (0.56–0.73) | 0.006 |
| Endometrial cancer | 5 | 8508/715,298 | 1.11 (0.65–1.88) | <0.001 | 6 | 7327/369,933 | 1.15 (0.92–1.44) | 0.001 |
| Ovarian cancer | 4 | 4659/850,674 | 0.78 (0.53–1.15) | <0.001 | 3 | 3807/783,896 | 1.20 (0.76–1.89) | <0.001 |
| Pancreatic cancer | 7 | 9977/1,286,696 | 0.62 (0.45–0.84) | <0.001 | 5 | 9132/1,259,467 | 0.57 (0.35–0.93) | <0.001 |
| Prostate cancer | 12 | 30,698/1,132,565 | 0.74 (0.63–0.86) | <0.001 | 7 | 13,716/482,058 | 0.76 (0.59–0.97) | <0.001 |
| Renal cancer | 3 | 5380/406,153 | 0.71 (0.34–1.45) | <0.001 | | | | |

Boldfaced values indicate a significant difference at the 5% level.

^a Number of comparisons.^b P value of Q-test for heterogeneity test.

3.2. Quantitative synthesis

For T2DM patients of ever vs. never metformin users, there was statistical evidence of significantly decreased cancer risk was found to be associated with ever metformin users (OR=0.70, 95% CI=0.65–0.76) in the overall comparison. In stratified analysis by study type, significantly decreased cancer risk was found in the cohort studies (OR=0.69, 95% CI=0.63–0.75) and in the case control studies (OR=0.81, 95% CI=0.70–0.93) (shown in Table 2 and Supplementary figure 2). As shown in Table 2, in terms of subgroup analyses by cancer type, the use of metformin was significantly with decreased bladder cancer, colorectal cancer, esophageal cancer, liver cancer, head and neck cancer, lung cancer, pancreatic cancer and prostate cancer risk (OR=0.76, 95% CI=0.63–0.91 for bladder cancer, OR=0.73, 95% CI=0.60–0.87 for colorectal cancer, OR=0.72, 95% CI=0.53–0.96 for esophageal cancer, OR=0.61, 95% CI=0.49–0.75 for liver cancer, OR=0.55, 95% CI=0.38–0.79 for head and neck cancer, OR=0.69, 95% CI=0.60–0.80 for lung cancer, OR=0.62, 95% CI=0.45–0.84 for pancreatic cancer, and OR=0.74, 95% CI=0.63–0.86 for prostate cancer).

For comparison with other ADMs, there was statistical evidence of significantly decreased cancer risk was found to be associated with the use of metformin (OR=0.80, 95% CI=0.73–0.87) in the overall comparison. In stratified analysis by study type, significantly decreased cancer risk was found in the cohort studies (OR=0.78, 95% CI=0.71–0.87) and in the case control studies (OR=0.88, 95% CI=0.79–0.99) (shown in Table 2 and Supplementary figure 3). As shown in Table 2, in terms of subgroup analyses by cancer type, the use of metformin was significantly with decreased bladder cancer, colorectal cancer, gastric cancer, liver cancer, lung cancer, pancreatic cancer and prostate cancer risk (OR=0.76, 95% CI=0.63–0.91 for bladder cancer, OR=0.73, 95% CI=0.57–0.93 for colorectal cancer, OR=0.53, 95% CI=0.42–0.65 for gastric cancer, OR=0.62, 95% CI=0.44–0.89 for liver cancer, OR=0.63, 95% CI=0.56–0.73 for lung

cancer, OR=0.57, 95% CI=0.35–0.93 for pancreatic cancer, and OR=0.76, 95% CI=0.59–0.97 for prostate cancer).

3.3. Evaluation of heterogeneity

There was heterogeneity among studies in overall comparisons ($P_{\text{heterogeneity}} < 0.001$, $I^2 = 96.9\%$, $\text{Tau}^2 = 0.1026$). To explore sources of heterogeneity across studies, we perform stratified analysis by study type, there were high levels of heterogeneity between studies ($I^2 = 97.2\%$ for cohort studies, and $I^2 = 83.5\%$ for case control studies). Furthermore, stratified analysis was performed by cancer type, the heterogeneity was inconsistent ($I^2 = 91.5\%$ for colorectal cancer, $I^2 = 80.2\%$ for liver cancer, $I^2 = 80.4\%$ for pancreatic cancer, $I^2 = 98.8\%$ for breast cancer, $I^2 = 57.4\%$ for bladder cancer, $I^2 = 82.5\%$ for lung cancer, $I^2 = 57.9\%$ for esophageal cancer, $I^2 = 95.5\%$ for gastric cancer, $I^2 = 97.6\%$ for endometrial cancer, $I^2 = 96.6\%$ for head and neck cancer, $I^2 = 92.8\%$ for ovarian cancer, $I^2 = 93.8\%$ for prostate cancer, and $I^2 = 98.4\%$ for renal cancer). Finally, logistic meta-regression analyses revealed that morbidity of cases and morbidity of controls may substantially influence the initial heterogeneity.

3.4. Sensitivity analysis

The influence of a single study on the overall meta-analysis estimate was investigated by omitting one study at a time, and the omission of any study made no significant difference, indicating that our results were statistically reliable.

3.5. Publication bias

The Begg's test was performed to evaluate the publication bias of selected displays a funnel plot that examined the use of metformin and cancer risk included in the meta-analysis. No evidence of publication bias in our study was observed ($P = 0.584$).

4. Discussion

As a major risk factor for type 2 diabetes, the inflammatory and endocrine effects of obesity have been proposed as central mechanisms explaining associations between diabetes and cancer. Metformin is one of the most used oral glucose-lowering drugs for the treatment of T2DM [7]. The glucose-lowering action is largely due to the improvement in hepatic insulin resistance leading to a reduction in hepatic glucose output, mainly as result of reduction in gluconeogenesis [82]. Metformin also increases glucose uptake in muscle, without extra lactate production, and raises insulin binding to insulin receptors (IR), while increasing the phosphorylation and tyrosine kinase activity of the IR [9]. In human hepatic cells, metformin increases insulin receptor activation independently of insulin, acting predominantly through insulin receptor substrate 2 [83]. Previous meta analysis indicated that metformin therapy can decrease the risk of gastric cancer [84], breast cancer [85], lung cancer [86,87], liver cancer [88], pancreatic cancer [89], and colorectal cancer in T2DM patients [90,91]. Considering the metformin of glucose-lowering effect, we performed a comparison of ever vs. never metformin users in T2DM patients, our results indicated that there was statistical evidence of significantly decreased cancer risk was found to be associated with ever metformin users in the overall comparison. In stratified analysis by study type, significantly decreased cancer risk was found in the cohort studies and in the case control studies. In terms of subgroup analyses by cancer type, the use of metformin was significantly with decreased bladder cancer, colorectal cancer, esophageal cancer, liver cancer, head and neck cancer, lung cancer, pancreatic cancer and prostate cancer risk.

Considering that T2DM may be a specific and independent risk factor for various forms of cancer, due to its particular metabolic characteristics of glucose intolerance and hyperinsulinemia. All ADMs may have the glucose-lowering effects, and previous meta-analysis does not support a protective or harmful association between ADMs use and risk of cancer [92,93] in patients with DM. We performed a comparison to estimate the effects of metformin on cancer risk with other ADMs, our results indicated that there was statistical evidence of significantly decreased cancer risk was found to be associated with the use of metformin in the overall comparison. In stratified analysis by study type, significantly decreased cancer risk was found in the cohort studies and in the case control studies. In terms of subgroup analyses by cancer type, the use of metformin was significantly with decreased bladder cancer, colorectal cancer, gastric cancer, liver cancer, lung cancer, pancreatic cancer and prostate cancer risk.

Metformin's mechanism of action is complex. The basic mechanism of metformin action involves AMP-activated serine/threonine kinase (AMPK), AMPK activation by metformin is mediated by liver kinase B1 (LKB1), which is a suppressor protein [94].

The major downstream target of AMPK is the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), a kinase whose activity is very important in cellular growth processes and is inhibited by AMPK, leading to reduction of protein synthesis [95]. The inhibiting effect of AMPK on mTOR results in blocking of the PI3K/PKB/Akt pathway, thus down-regulating the synthesis of many proteins which were responsible for mitotic promotion, which lead to the inhibition of cell division and/or promotion of apoptosis [96]. AMPK also promotes cellular autophagy through the phosphorylation of cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor protein, p27 [97]. Furthermore, the mechanism of metformin action involves down-regulation of circulating insulin and activation of the immune system [98]. These may be the potential mechanisms, and further efforts should be made to confirm these findings.

A few limitations of our study should be considered. Although we did not observe significant publication bias, publication bias

is possible in any meta-analysis. Moreover, original data were acquired to calculate ORs and 95% CIs that may omit some valuable studies and ignore potential adjusted risk factors. Finally, due to the lack of sufficient data, the dose and duration related effect of metformin cannot be analyzed.

In conclusion, our meta-analysis indicated that metformin may be a independent protective factor for cancer risk in T2DM patients. Moreover, further studies estimating the functional effect and side effects may eventually provide a better, comprehensive understanding.

Conflicts of interests

No conflicts of interests to declare.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pcd.2020.06.001>.

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