

# Relationships Between Percentage of Forest Coverage and Standardized Mortality Ratios (SMR) of Cancers in all Prefectures in Japan

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**Abstract:** *Objectives:* To explore whether forest coverage affects the rate of deaths due to cancers in Japan, we investigated the relationships between the percentage of forest coverage and standardized mortality ratios due to cancers in all prefectures in Japan.

*Methods:* Data on the percentage of forest coverage in all prefectures in Japan were collected from the database of the Forestry Agency of Japan. Data on standardized mortality ratios (SMR) due to lung, stomach, kidney, and colon cancers in males and females, breast and uterine cancers in females, and prostate cancer in males, and data of smoking status of males and females in all prefectures in Japan were collected from the database of the Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare of Japan. Human development index (HDI) was used as a parameter of the socioeconomic status of each prefecture. The correlation and partial correlation coefficients between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of cancers, after controlling for the effects of smoking and the socioeconomic status, were calculated.

*Results:* People living in areas with lower forest coverage had significantly higher SMR of cancers compared with the people living in areas with higher forest coverage. There were significant inverse correlations between the percentage of forest coverage and the SMR of lung, breast, and uterine cancers in females, and the SMR of prostate, kidney, and colon cancers in males in all prefectures in Japan, even after the effects of smoking and socioeconomic status were factored in.

*Conclusions:* These findings indicate that increased forest coverage may partially contribute to a decrease in mortality due to cancers in Japan.

**Keywords:** Breast cancer, colon cancer, HDI, kidney cancer, percentage of forest coverage, prostate cancer, SMR, uterine cancer.

## INTRODUCTION

A forest bathing trip, called “Shinrin-yoku” in Japanese, involves a visit to a forest area for the purpose of relaxation and recreation by breathing in volatile substances, called phytoncides, released from the trees (Li *et al.*, 2007; 2008a; 2008b). These trips were first proposed in the 1980s and have become a recognized relaxation activity in Japan (Ohtsuka *et al.*, 1998; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2007; 2008a; 2008b; Morita *et al.*, 2007; Park *et al.*, 2007). Since forests occupy 67% of the land in Japan (Forestry Agency of Japan, 2002), forest bathing is easily accessible. According to a public opinion poll conducted in Japan in 2003, 25.6% of respondents had participated in a forest bathing trip, indicating its popularity in Japan (Morita *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, forest bathing is possible in similar environments throughout the world. We reported previously that phytoncides such as alpha-pinene, 1,8-cineole, and d-limonene extracted from trees significantly enhanced human natural killer (NK) activity and intracellular levels of perforin, granulysin (GRN), and granzyme A (GrA) in human NK cells *in vitro* (Li *et al.*, 2006). (Komori *et al.*, 1995) also reported that citrus fragrance found in forests affects the human endocrine and immune systems as analyzed by the measurement of urinary cortisol and dopamine levels, NK

activity, and CD4/8 ratios. These findings suggest that forest bathing may have beneficial effects on human immune function. Thus, we previously investigated the effect of forest bathing trips on human NK activity, and found increased human NK activity, NK cell numbers, and intracellular levels of perforin, GRN, and GrA/B in peripheral blood lymphocytes (Li *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, we also found that the increased NK activity, number of NK cells, and intracellular anti-cancer proteins induced by a forest bathing trip lasted more than 7 days, even 30 days, after the trip both in males (Li *et al.*, 2008a) and females (Li *et al.*, 2008b). Cytolytic molecules such as perforin, GRN, and GrA/B contribute to anti-tumor activity (Krensky and Clayberger, 2005; Huang *et al.*, 2007). These findings suggest that forests may have anti-cancer effects by enhancing human NK activity and partially contribute to decreased rates of death due to cancers. These findings also encouraged us to propose a hypothesis that people living in areas with higher forest coverage may show lower mortality due to cancers; thus, we investigated the relationship between the percentage of forest coverage and standardized mortality ratios (SMR) due to cancers in all prefectures in Japan to verify this hypothesis in the present study. SMR measures the level of excess or deficit in mortality in a study population compared with the expected level based on the mortality of a standard population. SMR is computed as the ratio of the observed deaths to the expected deaths in the study population. The expected deaths are obtained by multiplying the age-specific mortality rate of a chosen standard population by the age-specific population

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Table 1a. Rate of Forest Coverage, SMR of Cancers, and Smoking Rate in Females in Each Prefecture of Japan

Prefecture	Forest coverage (%)	Lung Cancer	Breast Cancer	Uterine Cancer	Stomach Cancer	Colon Cancer	Kidney Cancer	Smoking rate (%)	HDI*
Hokkaido	71	109.3	105.8	97.3	89.9	106.8	116.5	12.1	0.93
Aomori	66	93.6	100.8	89.8	101.1	112.1	139.4	5.4	0.913
Iwate	77	83.7	88.8	88.3	83.9	108.7	81	3.7	0.925
Miyagi	57	95.3	98.4	86.4	92.1	107.7	104.7	5.1	0.931
Akita	72	87.9	80.7	77.3	118.3	113.2	114.2	3.3	0.92
Yamagata	72	89.3	79.2	82.2	122.5	108.8	98.5	4.5	0.927
Fukushima	71	91	79.8	86.2	100.7	99.9	101.8	5.5	0.928
Ibaraki	31	82.9	95	105.7	108.9	96.3	124.7	5.3	0.931
Tochigi	55	89.6	96.5	99.7	115.4	92.9	85.9	6.4	0.935
Gunma	67	80.3	92.5	84.5	102	89.2	88.9	7.1	0.935
Saitama	32	96.7	104.2	101	108.4	101.8	98.6	7.7	0.919
Chiba	32	95.8	107.1	100.7	102.9	101.7	88.9	6.7	0.926
Tokyo	36	110	132	114	102	111.7	111.8	9.6	0.972
Kanagawa	39	105.4	117.4	97.5	101.4	106	87.8	8.8	0.935
Niigata	69	86.2	86.9	65.4	112.9	105.8	68.1	4	0.935
Toyama	67	87.3	90.9	71.3	125.5	102.2	114.2	3.6	0.943
Ishikawa	69	97	96	97.7	106	94.4	67.6	6.9	0.94
Fukui	75	83.6	91	82.2	100.9	84.8	110.3	3	0.944
Yamanashi	78	77.3	100.2	88.3	88.9	85.7	116.5	5.9	0.937
Nagano	78	72.9	88.7	81.3	94.3	98.8	61.6	3.1	0.941
Gifu	82	87.2	93.7	109.7	110.9	108.8	147.2	4.7	0.931
Shizuoka	64	83.2	91.9	93.2	89	91	108.3	5.2	0.944
Aichi	43	105.8	101.4	102.5	109.3	108.8	95.6	7.3	0.949
Mie	65	90	95.1	94.1	99.6	88.3	88.1	3.5	0.935
Shiga	51	97.6	88.7	85.4	110.1	95.2	102.9	4.5	0.946
Kyoto	75	108.9	99.4	91	105.4	102.5	79.3	7.3	0.939
Osaka	31	127.1	110	115	108	105.5	113.1	11	0.944
Hyogo	67	110.5	101.3	112.4	103.6	99.8	110.2	4.2	0.933
Nara	77	107	92.1	109.3	117	93	84.2	5.3	0.92
Wakayama	77	97.7	81.3	102.4	109.3	90.8	89.6	5.7	0.921
Tottori	74	94.3	88.4	105.8	110	92.3	111.2	2.4	0.931
Shimane	79	84.6	77.6	84.9	99.7	95.4	61.8	2.5	0.928
Okayama	68	90.9	74.2	84.6	89	90.2	118.6	3.3	0.936
Hiroshima	72	97.1	94	107.7	92.6	94.1	122.2	2.9	0.94
Yamaguchi	71	105.9	93	94.4	92.8	89.6	112.3	3.5	0.931
Tokushima	75	97.7	86.5	113.5	93.5	84.7	83.1	5.1	0.928
Kagawa	47	90.2	78.4	101.9	103.1	84.4	125.2	4	0.936
Ehime	71	92	88.3	101.5	98.4	79.9	68.6	2.7	0.927
Kochi	84	88	79.5	106.6	91.1	84.5	52.2	3.7	0.921
Fukuoka	45	120	104	109.4	98.5	104	104.9	5.9	0.928
Saga	45	100.9	87	111.8	98.1	101.5	109.6	3.1	0.924
Nagasaki	60	107.3	90.1	100.1	90.6	101.5	101	4.1	0.918
Kumamoto	63	98.3	85.9	96.1	71.7	83.1	138.7	4.5	0.928
Oita	72	94.3	82.2	106.4	88.9	86.7	58.2	4.3	0.935
Miyazaki	76	87.3	82.2	108.4	78.3	82.2	105.4	3.8	0.92
Kagoshima	64	96.9	75.5	107.3	68.3	87	49.7	2.1	0.919
Okinawa	46	125.1	80.9	122.6	47.4	83.6	34.6	4.6	0.914

\*: HDI: Human Development Index.

Table 1b. Rate of Forest Coverage, SMR of Cancers, and Smoking Rate in Males in Each Prefecture of Japan

Prefectures	Forest coverage (%)	Lung cancer	Stomach cancer	Colon cancer	Prostate cancer	Kidney cancer	Smoking rate (%)	HDI*
Hokkaido	71	109.2	93.6	107.8	91.5	101.8	36.2	0.93
Aomori	66	110.7	111.1	116.6	119.1	149.4	47.7	0.913
Iwate	77	96.7	86.4	104	118.7	109.4	31.8	0.925
Miyagi	57	103	97.2	100.7	107.8	87.5	37.7	0.931
Akita	72	97.2	128.8	108.3	95.5	94.2	38.7	0.92
Yamagata	72	99.4	114.3	103.3	102	112.8	35.3	0.927
Fukushima	71	95.8	107.9	99.7	109.9	94.8	33.6	0.928
Ibaraki	31	93.3	111	98.4	108.3	111.3	36.4	0.931
Tochigi	55	94.1	117.7	98.4	101.7	96.8	39.3	0.935
Gunma	67	89.2	99.5	89.8	99.1	113.1	35.6	0.935
Saitama	32	96.5	106.7	102.5	104	109.3	31	0.919
Chiba	32	90.2	107.9	103.3	109.3	98.6	31.9	0.926
Tokyo	36	96.4	101.7	112.9	109.5	121.8	31.1	0.972
Kanagawa	39	92.5	101.6	108.5	112.3	105.1	33.4	0.935
Niigata	69	102.2	115.8	103.4	86.7	106.4	33.2	0.935
Toyama	67	96.2	111.8	96.1	84.5	114.7	29	0.943
Ishikawa	69	103.6	106.4	97.9	87.9	92.7	47.5	0.94
Fukui	75	100.6	89.6	86	92.5	114.1	32.8	0.944
Yamanashi	78	86.3	91.3	81.4	102.1	39	44.7	0.937
Nagano	78	72.4	92.7	90.2	109.1	84	29.4	0.941
Gifu	82	91.8	100.1	93.7	101.5	71.4	34.8	0.931
Shizuoka	64	86.1	89.7	92.7	113.1	92.1	29.3	0.944
Aichi	43	104.5	100.9	99.7	96.5	89.7	29.1	0.949
Mie	65	101.6	95.3	90.4	67.4	118.5	29.9	0.935
Shiga	51	113.8	99.3	89.7	106.6	113.5	32.6	0.946
Kyoto	75	111.9	100.7	103.2	95.1	94.9	33.3	0.939
Osaka	31	117.3	109.5	103.4	90.9	106.3	42.6	0.944
Hyogo	67	111.3	104	103.8	89.6	107.9	31.4	0.933
Nara	77	106.3	107.5	91.6	93.9	86	31.7	0.92
Wakayama	77	115.7	104	92.6	83.2	90.2	34.6	0.921
Tottori	74	99.4	101.1	106.8	83.2	61	30	0.931
Shimane	79	91.2	94.3	98.8	92.3	57.2	25	0.928
Okayama	68	96.7	88.5	81.2	94.6	72.7	30.3	0.936
Hiroshima	72	97.3	93.3	95.1	91.5	91.8	22.7	0.94
Yamaguchi	71	104.5	98.2	94.5	67.2	96.6	25.7	0.931
Tokushima	75	99.2	94.5	84.7	69.8	88.5	30.1	0.924
Kagawa	47	100.4	102.3	78.5	88.7	93.3	29.7	0.936
Ehime	71	100	96.7	84.2	69.6	77.1	33	0.927
Kochi	84	86.2	90.3	97.5	99.8	86.1	28.6	0.921
Fukuoka	45	108	100.3	101.5	98.9	106.6	31.8	0.928
Saga	45	104.8	101.1	106.6	148.5	80.6	34.1	0.924
Nagasaki	60	112.5	89.1	106.3	113.8	106.4	35.2	0.918
Kumamoto	63	90.2	70	83.8	110.1	91.5	32.4	0.928
Oita	72	97.5	82	87.5	101	74.4	37.2	0.935
Miyazaki	76	92.3	84.5	89.6	104.6	86.3	26.7	0.92
Kagoshima	64	99	71.3	89	113.8	80.8	27	0.919
Okinawa	46	123.1	56.9	96.2	104.9	80.5	25.7	0.914

\*: HDI: Human Development Index.

size of the study population and then adding terms to get the total expected number of deaths (Lai *et al.*, 2000).

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

As shown in Tables 1a and 1b, data of the percentage of forest coverage in all prefectures in Japan in 2002 were collected from the database of the Forestry Agency of Japan (Forestry Agency of Japan, 2002). Data of standardized mortality ratios (SMR) of lung, stomach, kidney, and colon cancers in males and females, and SMR of breast and uterine cancers in females and prostate cancer in males in all prefectures in Japan in 1998 and 1999 were collected from the database of the Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare of Japan (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan, 2001). We used the mean SMR of cancers in 1998 and 1999 for all cancers in the present study. Since smoking status influences the SMR of cancers (Mellemgard *et al.*, 1994; Mizoue *et al.*, 2000; Minami and Tateno, 2003; Bjartveit and Tverdal, 2005; Toh *et al.*, 2007; Ambrosone *et al.*, 2008; Gong *et al.*, 2008), especially for lung cancer (Minami and Tateno, 2003; Bjartveit and Tverdal, 2005; Toh *et al.*, 2007), data on the smoking status in males and females in 2003 were also collected from the database of the Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare of Japan (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan, 2003). Since socioeconomic status is also a risk factor for cancers (Datta *et al.*, 2006;

Fagundes *et al.*, 2006; Goy *et al.*, 2008; Menvielle *et al.*, 2008) we have to take it into account. The human development index (HDI) is a composite score used by the United Nations Development Programme to rank countries in terms of their human socioeconomic development status (Landry and Raman, 2007), which is a composite index of life expectancy, literacy, and per capita gross domestic product that measures the socioeconomic status of a country (Lee *et al.*, 1997). HDI has been used to estimate infant and maternal mortality rates around the world and assessed how well the HDI and its individual components predicted infant and maternal mortality rates for individual countries (Lee *et al.*, 1997). In the present study, we used HDI as a parameter of socioeconomic status in each prefecture (Umemura, 2001). We first calculated the correlation coefficients between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of cancers. Then, if the correlations were significant, the partial correlation coefficients between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of cancers after factoring in the effects of smoking and socioeconomic status were also calculated.

## Statistical Analysis

The correlation and partial correlation coefficients were calculated and an unpaired t-test was performed using the SPSS 14.0 software package for Windows. The significance level for p values was set at < 0.05.

**Table 2a. Correlation and Partial Correlation Coefficients Between the Rate of Forest Coverage and SMR of Cancers in all Prefectures of Japan Corrected by Smoking Rate and HDI in Females**

Female	Correlation coefficients	Partial correlation coefficients1#	Partial correlation coefficients2#	Partial correlation coefficients3#
Lung Cancer	-0.455**	-0.304*	-0.468**	-0.325*
Breast Cancer	-0.530**	-0.312*	-0.501**	-0.308*
Uterine Cancer	-0.328*	-0.269	-0.377*	-0.293*
Stomach cancer	-0.050	0.027	0.008	0.048
Colon Cancer	-0.271	-0.101	-0.247	-0.099
Kidney cancer	-0.136	-0.078	-0.102	-0.068

\*, p<0.05, \*\*, p<0.001.

1#: corrected by smoking rate, 2# corrected by HDI, 3#: corrected by both smoking rate and HDI.

**Table 2b. Correlation and Partial Correlation Coefficients Between the Rate of Forest Coverage and SMR of Cancers in all Prefectures of Japan Corrected by Smoking Rate and HDI in Males**

Male	Correlation coefficients	Partial correlation coefficients1#	Partial correlation coefficients2#	Partial correlation coefficients3#
Lung Cancer	-0.214	-0.207	-0.258	-0.251
Stomach cancer	-0.146	-0.131	-0.120	-0.100
Prostate cancer	-0.315*	-0.309*	-0.351*	-0.345*
Kidney cancer	-0.348*	-0.342*	-0.334*	-0.327*
Colon Cancer	-0.299*	-0.293*	-0.312*	-0.311*

\*, p<0.05.

1#: corrected by smoking rate, 2# corrected by HDI, 3#: corrected by both smoking rate and HDI.

## RESULTS

### Correlation Between the Percentage of Forest Coverage and SMR of Cancers

As shown in Tables 2a and b, there were significant inverse correlations between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of lung ( $r=-0.455$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), breast ( $r=-0.530$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), and uterine cancers ( $r=-0.328$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in females, and SMR of prostate ( $r=-0.315$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), kidney ( $r=-0.348$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and colon cancers ( $r=-0.299$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in males. On the other hand, there was no significant correlation between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of stomach, kidney, and colon cancers in females and lung and stomach cancers in males.

As shown in Fig. (1), we further grouped the SMR of breast cancer in females and the SMR of prostate cancer in males by forest coverage in all prefectures in Japan and found that people living in areas with lower forest coverage had significantly higher SMR of breast and prostate cancers compared with the people living in areas with higher forest coverage.

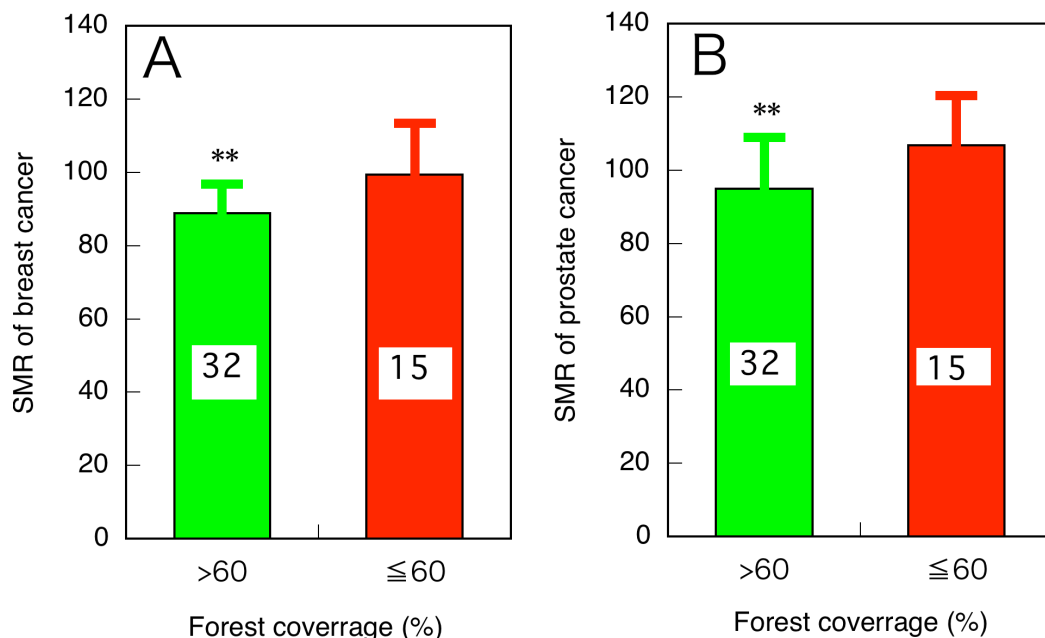
### Partial Correlation Coefficients Between the Percentage of Forest Coverage and SMR of Cancers after the Effects of Smoking and Socioeconomic Status were Factored in

Since smoking status influences the SMR of cancers (Mellemgaard *et al.*, 1994; Mizoue *et al.*, 2000; Minami and Tateno, 2003; Bjartveit and Tverdal, 2005; Toh *et al.*, 2007; Ambrosone *et al.*, 2008; Gong *et al.*, 2008), and there was a significant positive correlation between the SMR of lung cancer and smoking rates in each prefecture in females, we further calculated the partial correlation coefficients between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of cancers after the effect of smoking was factored in. As shown in Tables 2a and b, there were still significant inverse relationships between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of lung

( $r=-0.304$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and breast ( $r=-0.312$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) cancers in females, and SMR of prostate ( $r=-0.309$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), kidney ( $r=-0.342$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and colon cancers ( $r=-0.293$ ,  $p=0.05$ ) in males after the effect of smoking was factored in. Socioeconomic status also affects the mortality rate due to cancers (Datta *et al.*, 2006; Fagundes *et al.*, 2006; Goy *et al.*, 2008; Menvielle *et al.*, 2008), and HDI has been used to evaluate the socioeconomic status of countries (Landry and Raman, 2007). We further calculated the partial correlation coefficients between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of cancers after the effect of socioeconomic status (HDI) was factored in. As shown in Tables 2a and b, there were still significant inverse relationships between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of lung ( $r=-0.468$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), breast ( $r=-0.501$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), and uterine ( $r=-0.377$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) cancers in females, and SMR of prostate ( $r=-0.351$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), kidney ( $r=-0.334$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and colon cancers ( $r=-0.312$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in males after the effect of socioeconomic status was factored in. Moreover, there were still significant inverse relationships between the percentage of forest coverage and SMR of lung ( $r=-0.325$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), breast ( $r=-0.308$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and uterine ( $r=-0.293$ ,  $p=0.05$ ) cancers in females, and SMR of prostate ( $r=-0.345$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), kidney ( $r=-0.327$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and colon cancers ( $r=-0.311$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in males after the effects of smoking and socioeconomic status were factored in, suggesting that forest coverage indeed affects the SMR of cancers.

## DISCUSSION

We found previously that a forest bathing trip increased human NK activity, number of NK cells, and intracellular levels of perforin, GRN, and GrA/B in PBL (Li *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, we also found that the increased NK activity, number of NK cells, and intracellular anti-cancer proteins induced by a forest bathing trip lasted more than 7 days, even 30 days, after the trip (Li *et al.*, 2008a; 2008b). On the other hand, a city tourist visit to an area without forests did



**Fig. (1).** The SMR of breast cancer in females (A) and the SMR of prostate cancer in males (B) grouped by percentage of forest coverage of each prefecture in Japan. Data are presented as the mean+SD, the numbers in columns indicate the number of prefectures. \*\*:  $p<0.001$ , significantly different from the percentage of forest coverage of  $\leq 60\%$ , respectively, by unpaired t-test.

not affect human NK activity (Li *et al.*, 2008a). Increased NK activity and intracellular anti-cancer proteins contribute to anti-tumor activity (Krensky and Clayberger, 2005; Huang *et al.*, 2007). This suggests that forests may have a preventive effect on cancer development and contribute to a decreased rate of death due to cancers. These findings also encouraged us to propose a hypothesis that people living in areas with higher forest coverage may show lower mortality due to cancers. The present study indicated that there is a significant inverse correlation between forest coverage and SMR of cancers, and that people living in areas with higher forest coverage show a significantly lower SMR of cancers compared with people living in areas with lower forest coverage. This may be important in health promotion and preventive medicine.

Cigarette smoking is an important risk factor for lung (Minami and Tateno, 2003; Bjartveit and Tverdal, 2005; Toh *et al.*, 2007) and stomach cancers (Mizoue *et al.*, 2000; Minami and Tateno, 2003) and smoking increases the risk of breast cancer among women (Ambrosone *et al.*, 2008). Gong *et al.* (2008) also reported that smoking at the time of diagnosis, independent of key clinical prognostic factors, is associated with an increased risk of prostate cancer death. Both cigarette smoking and socioeconomic status are risk factors for kidney cancer (Mellemegaard *et al.*, 1994). Socioeconomic status is a risk factor for uterine cancer by affecting the utilization of efficacious screening tools in the early detection of the disease (Datta *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, the effects of smoking and socioeconomic status have also to be factored in. Thus, we further analyzed the partial correlation between forest coverage and SMR of cancers and found significant inverse correlations between forest coverage and SMR of cancers even after the effects of smoking and the socioeconomic status was factored in, suggesting that forests indeed decrease the mortality due to cancers in Japan.

The percentage of forest coverage correlated significantly with the SMR of lung cancer in females, but not in males, whereas, the forest coverage correlated significantly with the SMR of kidney and colon cancers in males, but not in females. Although we can not exactly explain the difference between genders, the higher average smoking rate in males (33.1%) than in females (6.4%) (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan, 2003) may have a larger influence on the SMR of lung cancer than the effect of forest coverage, and the effect of forest coverage on lung cancer was less significant than the effect of smoking. It is well known that smoking increases the risk of lung cancer (Minami and Tateno, 2003; Bjartveit and Tverdal, 2005; Toh *et al.*, 2007). However, there was no association between cigarette smoking and the risk of colon cancer (Minami and Tateno, 2003). It is still difficult to explain the difference in the effect of forest coverage on kidney and colon cancers between genders. The percentage of forest coverage correlated significantly with the SMR of breast and uterine cancers in females, and the SMR of prostate cancer in males. Although we can not exactly explain the mechanism, sex hormones may partially contribute to this difference.

The percentage of forest coverage had no effect on the SMR of stomach cancer in either males or females. It is well known that certain bacteria increase the risk of stomach cancer (IARC, 1994). In areas where gastric cancer is highly

prevalent, such as Japan, Korea, and China, the great majority of gastric cancers are *Helicobacter pylori*-related. In Japan, the cumulative gastric cancer incidence rate of 0–84-year-olds was estimated to be 21.2% for infected males and 8.0% for infected females, under the conditions that half of the population is infected and infected people have a five-times higher risk of gastric cancer than uninfected people (Hamajima *et al.*, 2004). These findings suggest that *H. pylori* infection (IARC, 1994) and dietary habits (Tsugane, 2004) have more effect on stomach cancer than the effect of forest coverage, and the effect of forest coverage on stomach cancer was less significant than the effect of other factors such as *H. pylori* infection and dietary habits.

There are several limitations in the present study. One is the use of information on smoking in 2003, whereas the data of SMR of cancers refer to 1998–99. Unfortunately, we could not obtain the data of SMR of cancers and the smoking rates for the same year; therefore, the use of 2003-related information on smoking as an adjusting factor for the correlations currently assessed should be an approximate indication of the smoking rate. However, the smoking rate should not change much during 1998–2003 in Japan. Many factors could influence SMR of cancers, and we only calculated the confounding effects of smoking and socioeconomic status in the present study. Other confounding factors should also be considered; therefore, further studies are necessary to assess more specific information.

In summary, the present findings suggest that forests may partially contribute to decreased SMR of some cancers in Japan.

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