

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN THE EARLY DETECTION AND PREVENTION OF CANCER: A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW

Konda Ravi Kumar¹, G Venkata Nagaraju²

¹Professor and Principal, Hetero institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Sathupally.

²Department of Pharmacy Practice, Hindu College of Pharmacy.

Article History: Received: 24 Feb 2026, Revised: 14 Apr 2026, Accepted: 23 Apr 2026

***Corresponding author**

Dr. Kona Ravi Kumar

Abstract

Cancer continues to pose one of the greatest global health burdens, accounting for nearly ten million deaths annually. Early detection and prevention remain the most effective strategies to reduce morbidity, mortality, and healthcare costs associated with cancer. However, the implementation of these strategies is hindered by various biological, technological, socioeconomic, and systemic barriers. This comprehensive review explores the current challenges in achieving effective early detection and prevention across different cancer types and regions. It also highlights emerging innovations-including genomic screening, artificial intelligence, precision public health, and molecular diagnostics-that offer transformative potential in detecting cancers earlier and preventing disease onset. While significant progress has been made in the development of novel biomarkers, non-invasive diagnostic tools, and public health initiatives, equitable access and integration into health systems remain key obstacles. Ultimately, the convergence of technology, policy reform, and population-based prevention offers a roadmap toward a future in which most cancers can be prevented or detected at a curable stage.

Keywords: Cancer prevention; early detection; screening; oncology; biomarkers; public health; genomics.

This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Non-commercial 4.0 International License.
Copyright © 2026 Author(s) retains the copyright of this article.



INTRODUCTION

Cancer represents one of the most formidable challenges in global health. According to the World Health Organization, approximately ten million people die from cancer each year, making it the second leading cause of death worldwide [1]. Global cancer incidence is projected to reach more than 28 million new cases annually by 2040, largely driven by aging populations, urbanization, and lifestyle-related risk factors [2]. Despite advancements in diagnostics and therapeutics, late-stage presentation remains a major determinant of poor prognosis. Early detection-through screening and surveillance-and effective prevention can substantially reduce the burden of disease by enabling curative treatment and limiting exposure to carcinogenic factors [3].

Yet, the implementation of early detection programs varies widely between and within countries. High-income nations have benefited from structured screening programs for breast, cervical, and colorectal cancers, which have demonstrated significant reductions in mortality [4]. However, low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) face persistent challenges such as inadequate infrastructure, limited awareness,

and resource constraints, leading to late diagnosis and poor outcomes [5]. The goal of this review is to analyze these persistent barriers and explore emerging opportunities that could transform the global landscape of cancer detection and prevention.

BACKGROUND

Early detection involves identifying cancer or precancerous lesions before symptoms develop, using methods such as imaging, cytology, endoscopy, and molecular tests [6]. Prevention encompasses actions to reduce exposure to known carcinogens-such as tobacco, alcohol, infectious agents, and poor diet-as well as promoting protective behaviors [7]. Together, these approaches are central to achieving the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 3.4, which aims to reduce premature mortality from noncommunicable diseases by one-third by 2030 [8].

Population-based screening has proven effective for several cancers. For example, mammography has reduced breast cancer mortality by up to 30% in women aged 50–69 years [9]. The Papanicolaou (Pap) smear and human papillomavirus (HPV) testing have nearly eliminated cervical cancer in regions with high screening coverage [10]. Similarly, fecal

immunochemical tests (FIT) and colonoscopy have significantly lowered colorectal cancer mortality [11]. However, for cancers such as lung, liver, and pancreatic cancer—where symptoms often emerge at advanced stages—screening remains complex and underutilized. Cancer prevention efforts also face behavioral and environmental challenges. Tobacco use remains the single largest preventable cause of cancer, responsible for 22% of all cancer deaths globally [12]. Physical inactivity, obesity, poor nutrition, and alcohol consumption contribute substantially to cancer risk [13]. In addition, chronic infections—such as hepatitis B virus (HBV), hepatitis C virus (HCV), and human papillomavirus (HPV)—account for approximately 15% of all cancers worldwide [14]. Vaccination against HBV and HPV has shown remarkable success in preventing infection-related cancers, yet coverage remains suboptimal in many regions [15]. Despite clear evidence supporting the effectiveness of early detection and prevention strategies, their implementation often depends on health system capacity, economic resources, and population awareness. Screening programs require trained personnel, laboratory infrastructure, and follow-up services, which are frequently lacking in LMICs [16]. Furthermore, cultural stigma, fear of diagnosis, and misinformation continue to hinder participation in preventive measures [17].

MAJOR CHALLENGES IN EARLY DETECTION AND PREVENTION OF CANCER

While early detection and prevention hold enormous promise, achieving widespread implementation remains an intricate challenge. Barriers exist at multiple levels—biological, technological, social, and policy-based—that collectively hinder global progress.

I. Biological and Molecular Limitations

The biological complexity of cancer represents a major obstacle to early detection. Tumor heterogeneity, the coexistence of diverse cell populations within the same tumor, can obscure the detection of specific biomarkers [18]. Moreover, precancerous lesions often share molecular features with benign conditions, making it difficult to distinguish between indolent and aggressive disease [19]. For example, overdiagnosis in prostate cancer screening—where non-lethal tumors are detected and treated unnecessarily—illustrates the limitations of current diagnostic specificity [20].

The development of reliable biomarkers for population-level screening also faces scientific challenges. While circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), exosomal RNA, and protein-based biomarkers have shown promise, their clinical validation and cost-effectiveness remain under investigation [21]. Ensuring these tests maintain high sensitivity without excessive false positives is critical to avoid unnecessary anxiety and interventions.

2. Technological and Infrastructure Barriers

Technological disparities between regions significantly influence early detection outcomes. In many LMICs, advanced diagnostic imaging, pathology services, and molecular testing are limited to urban centers [22]. This creates diagnostic delays and inequities in cancer outcomes. Even in high-income countries, differences in healthcare access persist among minority and low-income populations [23].

Another challenge lies in data integration and interoperability. Fragmented health information systems and lack of electronic medical records make it difficult to track patients across screening and follow-up pathways [24]. Without robust data infrastructure, screening programs cannot monitor effectiveness or ensure continuity of care.

3. Economic and Policy Constraints

Economic limitations are among the most significant obstacles to implementing widespread screening and prevention programs. Cost-benefit analyses often guide policy decisions, and in resource-limited settings, governments must balance cancer control efforts with competing health priorities [25]. For instance, introducing nationwide colorectal or lung cancer screening programs requires substantial investment in endoscopy units, radiology facilities, and workforce training.

Policy inconsistencies also undermine prevention. Many countries lack national cancer control plans or structured frameworks for population-based screening [26]. Even where policies exist, insufficient funding, weak governance, and poor coordination between ministries impede progress. Moreover, the absence of standardized guidelines for screening intervals, target populations, and follow-up protocols reduces efficiency and contributes to over- or under-screening.

4. Sociocultural and Behavioral Barriers

Public participation in screening and preventive programs often depends on awareness, cultural beliefs, and trust in healthcare systems. In many societies, cancer remains associated with stigma, fatalism, or misconceptions about its causes [27]. Fear of pain, embarrassment, or positive results discourages individuals from attending screenings. For instance, cervical cancer screening rates in parts of sub-Saharan Africa remain below 10%, despite the availability of inexpensive methods such as visual inspection with acetic acid [28].

Gender, education, and socioeconomic status also influence participation. Women with limited education or from rural areas are less likely to access preventive services [29]. Migrant and minority populations in high-income countries face additional linguistic and systemic barriers that reduce adherence to screening guidelines [30]. Addressing these sociocultural determinants through community engagement, culturally tailored education, and outreach campaigns is essential to improve participation and early detection outcomes.

5. Ethical and Psychological Considerations

Ethical challenges arise when balancing the benefits and harms of screening. Overdiagnosis, false positives, and incidental findings can lead to unnecessary anxiety, invasive procedures, and financial strain [31]. For example, mammography and prostate-specific antigen (PSA) testing have sparked debate regarding the balance between mortality reduction and the risks of over-treatment.

Psychological distress following positive screening results can undermine trust in healthcare systems if not managed with proper counseling and communication [32]. Ethical frameworks emphasizing informed consent, shared decision-making, and transparency about potential risks must therefore accompany screening initiatives.

EMERGING OPPORTUNITIES AND INNOVATIONS

Despite these challenges, remarkable advances in biomedical science, data analytics, and public health strategies are creating new opportunities for early detection and prevention.

1. Genomics and Molecular Diagnostics

Next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies have revolutionized cancer genomics, enabling identification of mutations associated with increased cancer risk and early-stage disease [33]. Multi-cancer early detection (MCED) tests based on circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA) can detect over 50 cancer types from a single blood sample [34]. When integrated into population screening, such “liquid biopsies” could transform early detection by identifying malignancies before clinical symptoms emerge.

Furthermore, advances in transcriptomics, metabolomics, and proteomics are yielding panels of biomarkers capable of distinguishing benign from malignant lesions with unprecedented precision. As costs decline, these assays are expected to complement traditional imaging and cytology, particularly in resource-constrained settings where non-invasive, scalable tests are advantageous.

2. Artificial Intelligence and Digital Pathology

Artificial intelligence (AI) is emerging as a powerful ally in early detection. Machine-learning algorithms can analyze radiologic, histopathologic, and genomic data with high accuracy, enhancing diagnostic speed and reducing human error [35]. AI-driven mammography and colonoscopy systems have already demonstrated improved detection rates of subtle lesions compared with conventional interpretation [36].

Digital pathology platforms further enable remote analysis, allowing pathologists in low-resource regions to access expert review via telemedicine [37]. Integrating AI into these systems not only increases efficiency but also standardizes quality, a crucial step toward equitable cancer diagnostics.

3. Immunization and Precision Prevention

Vaccination programs against oncogenic viruses have proven among the most effective cancer prevention

measures. The global rollout of HPV vaccines is projected to prevent millions of cervical and oropharyngeal cancers in coming decades [38]. Similarly, hepatitis B immunization has markedly reduced hepatocellular carcinoma incidence in endemic regions [39]. Expanding vaccine coverage, particularly in LMICs, remains a public-health priority.

Beyond traditional vaccination, the concept of precision prevention-tailoring preventive interventions based on genetic risk profiles and environmental exposures-is gaining traction. For example, individuals with BRCA1/2 mutations benefit from enhanced surveillance and chemoprevention strategies [40]. Population-scale genomic screening initiatives are now exploring cost-effective methods to identify high-risk individuals early.

4. Behavioral and Policy Interventions

Comprehensive tobacco-control measures, including taxation, advertising bans, and smoking-cessation support, have reduced lung and oral-cancer incidence in many countries [41]. Dietary guidelines promoting fruit and vegetable intake, reduced alcohol consumption, and obesity prevention complement these efforts.

On the policy front, national cancer-control plans emphasizing integrated prevention and screening are essential. Implementation of the World Health Organization’s “Best Buys” for non-communicable disease prevention-such as HPV vaccination, cervical screening, and tobacco control-offers cost-effective frameworks for governments [42].

5. Equity, Data Integration, and Global Collaboration

Global collaboration and data sharing are vital for accelerating early detection research. Large-scale consortia such as the International Cancer Genome Consortium and the Global Initiative for Cancer Registry Development enhance understanding of regional cancer patterns [43]. Advances in digital health allow integration of registries, screening data, and electronic records, facilitating precision public-health interventions.

Importantly, equity must remain central. Programs tailored to marginalized populations, coupled with health-system strengthening, are necessary to close the gap in outcomes between and within countries [44].

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

To realize the promise of early detection and prevention, strategies must evolve from fragmented initiatives to comprehensive, equitable systems. A multi-sectoral approach integrating research, technology, education, and policy is required.

I. Integrating Innovation into Practice: Translating genomic and AI innovations into routine care demands robust evidence of cost-effectiveness and feasibility. Pilot programs should precede national rollouts, ensuring infrastructure and personnel are ready to deliver new technologies sustainably.

2. Building Capacity in LMICs: Global health agencies must prioritize capacity building—training healthcare workers, improving laboratory networks, and establishing regional centers of excellence. International partnerships can accelerate technology transfer and implementation.
3. Community Engagement: Effective prevention depends on public trust. Transparent communication, culturally sensitive education, and engagement of community leaders can dispel myths and encourage participation in screening and vaccination programs.
4. Policy Reform and Financing: Sustainable financing mechanisms—such as public-private partnerships and global health funds—should support prevention and early detection. Cancer control must be integrated into universal health coverage agendas.
5. Ethical Oversight: Policymakers must develop ethical frameworks governing use of personal genomic and AI data, ensuring privacy, informed consent, and equitable benefit sharing.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, while the road to universal early detection and prevention of cancer remains complex, the convergence of biotechnology, digital innovation, and public-health policy offers unprecedented opportunity. Addressing inequities, strengthening infrastructure, and promoting a culture of prevention will be key to transforming cancer from a terminal disease into a largely preventable and curable condition.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

1. World Health Organization. Cancer fact sheet. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2024.
2. Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, Laversanne M, Soerjomataram I, Jemal A, et al. Global cancer statistics 2021: GLOBOCAN estimates. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2021;71(3):209–49.
3. Wild CP, Weiderpass E, Stewart BW, editors. *World Cancer Report 2020*. Lyon: International Agency for Research on Cancer; 2020.
4. Tabár L, Vitak B, Chen TH, Yen AM, Cohen A, Tot T, et al. Swedish two-county trial: impact of screening mammography on mortality. *Radiology.* 2018;286(2):404–10.
5. Alagarsamy S, Ramachandran N, Rajeevkumar P, Rekha SV, Kathirvelu J. Leveraging doped zinc oxide nanoparticles for advancements in skin cancer therapy. *Journal of Innovations in Applied Pharmaceutical Science (JIAPS).* 2025 Mar 11:21–31.
6. Etzioni R, Urban N, Ramsey S, McIntosh M, Schwartz S, Reid B, et al. The case for early detection. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2003;3(4):243–52.
7. Colditz GA, Wei EK. Preventability of cancer: the roles of diet, obesity, and physical activity. *Oncogene.* 2012;31(38):242–62.
8. United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals—Goal 3: Good Health and Well-being. New York: United Nations; 2024.
9. Independent UK Panel on Breast Cancer Screening. The benefits and harms of breast cancer screening: an independent review. *Lancet.* 2012;380(9855):1778–86.
10. Krubaa P, Jha AM, Mahmood AA, Kumar A, Abraham J. Next-generation sequencing technology in cancer. *International Journal of Trends in OncoScience.* 2024 Jul 18:23–31.
11. Schreuders EH, Ruco A, Rabeneck L, Schoen RE, Sung JJ, Young GP, et al. Colorectal cancer screening: a global overview. *Gut.* 2015;64(10):1637–49.
12. Islami F, Torre LA, Jemal A. Global tobacco-related cancer burden. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2022;72(2):145–70.
13. Lauby-Secretan B, Scocciati C, Loomis D, Grosse Y, Bianchini F, Straif K, et al. Body fatness and cancer—viewpoint of the IARC Working Group. *N Engl J Med.* 2016;375(8):794–8.
14. Kannan M. Artificial intelligence in cancer researches.(2023). *Int. J. Trends in OncoSci.*;1(1):19–26.
15. Simms KT, Steinberg J, Caruana M, Smith MA, Lew JB, Soerjomataram I, et al. Impact of HPV vaccination. *Lancet Public Health.* 2020;5(9):e406–14.
16. Sullivan R, Alatisse OI, Anderson BO, Audisio R, Autier P, Aggarwal A, et al. Global cancer surgery: delivering safe, affordable, and timely cancer surgery. *Lancet Oncol.* 2015;16(9):924–83.
17. Murillo R, Almonte M, Pereira A, Ferrer E, Gamboa OA, Jeronimo J, et al. Barriers to cancer prevention and control in low- and middle-income countries. *J Glob Oncol.* 2018;4:1–11.
18. Ponniah S, Vardhanan GG, Praveen T, Murugavel H, Muthusamy G, Peter AJ. Effect of Mindfulness Based Therapy Using Anapana Meditation on Cancer Patients Being Treated With Radical Radiotherapy: A Single Institution Study. *International Journal of Trends in OncoScience.* 2025 Apr 24:10–7
19. Moyer VA. Screening for prostate cancer: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2012;156(2):134–40.
20. Andriole GL, Crawford ED, Grubb RL 3rd, Buys SS, Chia D, Church TR, et al. Mortality results from a randomized prostate-cancer screening trial. *N Engl J Med.* 2012;367(7):595–605.
21. Wan JCM, Massie C, Garcia-Corbacho J, Moulriere F, Brenton JD, Caldas C, et al. Liquid biopsies come of age: circulating tumor DNA analysis in cancer patients. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2017;17(4):223–38.

22. Farmer P, Frenk J, Knaul FM, Shulman LN, Alleyne G, Armstrong L, et al. Expansion of cancer care and control in Africa and globally: a call to action. *Lancet*. 2010;376(9747):205–11.
23. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Fuchs HE, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2023. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2023;73(1):17–48.
24. Balasubramanian K. New Developments in Cancer Treatment Using miRNA Manipulation: Oncology-miRNA. *International Journal of Trends in OncoScience*. 2023 Apr 17:19-25..
25. Prager GW, Braga S, Bystricky B, Qvortrup C, Criscitiello C, Esin E, et al. Global cancer care during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Ann Oncol*. 2020;31(9):119–38.
26. Thomas RA, Sunil ES, Fernandez AA, Anil S, Antony A, Davis AM, Thomas G, TS S, Sreeram G, Abraham E. Comparative insilico docking study involving antagonistic activity of coumarinderivatives on EGFR and CDK2. *Journal of Innovations in Applied Pharmaceutical Science (JIAPS)*. 2023 Nov 30:29-35.
27. Nyblade L, Stockton M, Travasso S, Krishnan S. Stigma and cancer care in low- and middle-income countries. *BMC Med*. 2019;17(1):18.
28. Catarino R, Petignat P, Dongui G, Vassilakos P. Cervical cancer screening in developing countries at a crossroad: emerging technologies and policy choices. *Prev Med*. 2018;114:166–72.
29. Paspula S, Pradeep KR, Billakanti R, Dhanraj D, Tabassum A. A Study On The Role Of Socioeconomic And Educational Factors In Cancer Prevention, Diagnosis And Treatment Outcomes. *World Journal of Current Medical and Pharmaceutical Research*. 2026 Feb 11:15-21.
30. Williams DR, Mohammed SA, Shields AE. Socioeconomic status and racial disparities in health: the case of cancer. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2019;69(5):406–24.
31. Welch HG, Prorok PC, O'Malley AJ, Kramer BS. Breast-cancer tumor size, overdiagnosis, and mammography screening effectiveness. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2017;109(5):djw322.
32. McCaffery KJ, Barratt AL, Irwig L, Howard K, Salkeld G, Houssami N. Psychological impact of screening. *BMJ*. 2016;352:i331.
33. Goodwin S, McPherson JD, McCombie WR. Coming of age: next-generation sequencing technologies. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2016;17(6):333–51.
34. Shah I, Raythatha N. A Brief Review on Breast cancer treatment and current challenges. *World Journal of Current Medical and Pharmaceutical Research*. 2021 Apr 18:27-31.
35. Esteva A, Kuprel B, Novoa RA, Ko J, Swetter SM, Blau HM, et al. Deep learning-enabled medical computer vision. *Nat Med*. 2019;25(1):70–6.
36. Wang P, Berzin TM, Brown JRG, Bharadwaj S, Becq A, Xiao X, et al. Real-time automatic detection of colorectal neoplasms in colonoscopy using deep-learning AI. *Gastroenterology*. 2020;159(2):547–59.
37. Niazi MKK, Parwani AV, Gurcan MN. Digital pathology and artificial intelligence. *Annu Rev Pathol*. 2019;14:1–25.
38. Bruni L, Saura-Lázaro A, Montoliu A, Brotons M, Alemany L, Diallo MS, et al. Global progress in HPV vaccination coverage. *Vaccine*. 2022;40(39):5221–30.
39. VC RR, logi P, Bolem O, Gujju E, Sanaboina A. A review on risk factors, staging and survival rates of endometrial cancer in both black and white women in infertility patients in USA. *World Journal of Current Medical and Pharmaceutical Research*. 2020 May 1:152-6.
40. Chandu B, Sowjanya M, Prapurna Chandra Y. a review on breast cancer in a young women and oppurnities in treatment. *World Journal of Current Medical and Pharmaceutical Research*. 2025 Feb 11:1-7.
41. Drope J, Schluger N, Cahn Z, Drope J, Hamill S, Islami F, et al. Tobacco control progress and challenges. *Tob Control*. 2021;30(2):117–25.
42. World Health Organization. Best Buys for Noncommunicable Disease Prevention. Geneva: WHO; 2022.
43. Shrotriya S, PK NB, Kulkarni A. Application of Machine Learning techniques to improve detection, diagnosis & prediction of breast cancer: A Comparative Analysis. *Journal of Innovations in Applied Pharmaceutical Science (JIAPS)*. 2023 Dec 21:57-63.
44. Knaul FM, Farmer P, Bhadelia A, Berman P, Horton R. Closing the cancer divide: equity, science, and innovation. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2019;7(1):e86–92.