

# BRCA and Breast Cancer Risk: A Bio-Environmental Susceptibility Study, India

**Abhishikta Ghosh Roy<sup>1\*</sup>, Sarkar BN<sup>1</sup> and Bandyopadhyay AR<sup>2</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>DNA Laboratory, Anthropological Survey of India, India

<sup>2</sup>Human Genetics Laboratory, Department of Anthropology, University of Calcutta, India

**\*Corresponding author:** Abhishikta Ghosh Roy, Human Genetics Laboratory, Department of Anthropology, University of Calcutta, Kolkata, India, Email: abhishikta.gr@gmail.com

## Research Article

Volume 4 Issue 2

**Received Date:** May 02, 2019

**Published Date:** July 05, 2019

**DOI:** 10.23880/cclsj-16000143

## Abstract

Breast cancer is considered to be the most frequent malignancy among women all over the world. The present study attempts to understand the molecular heterogeneity of BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes, as well as to understand the association of various lifestyle and reproductive variables for the risk of the disease. The study was conducted in a total of 110 patients and 128 controls that revealed DNA sequencing of ten Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) (6 novel). Significant ( $p < 0.005$ ) molecular heterogeneity is revealed in terms of SNPs in BRCA1 (4 exonic & 1 intronic variants) and BRCA2 (2exonic and 3 intronic variants) genes. The augmentation study revealed significant ( $p < 0.005$ ) association with positive family history, early age at menarche, irregular menstrual periods, menopause, prolong contraceptive use, nulliparity, history of abortions, consumption of alcohol and smoking towards disease risk. This study being the first of its kind, envisaged that the identification of the SNPs and modification of the lifestyle factors might aid to minimize the risk among the Bengalee Hindu females.

**Keywords:** BRCA1; BRCA2; Breast Cancer Risk; Bengalee Hindu Females; Lifestyle and Reproductive Variables; Snps

## Introduction

Breast cancer, a complex multifactorial disease, is one of the most common malignancies among women worldwide. Breast cancer is the most common form of cancer and the second most common cause of death from a neoplastic disease affecting women. Breast cancer is a disease in which breast cells become abnormal and multiply to form a malignant tumor. One in eight women will develop breast cancer in her lifetime [1,2]. Breast cancer is now the most common cancer in both developed and developing countries. The disease ranks as the fifth

cause of death from cancer, but it is still the most frequent cause of cancer death in women in both developing countries and developed regions [3]. Most malignancies are not due to the heredity. In general, about 10% of breast cancer and 5% of ovarian cancer cases are contracted by carriers of defective genes [4].

There are several ways that trigger the genetic susceptibility to cancer; the best understood cause is the inactivating germline mutations in tumor suppressor and DNA repair genes, which leads to an accumulation of mutations in oncogenes and cell-cycle checkpoints that

are required for uncontrolled cell division [5]. Germline mutations of the BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes represent the most significant and thus so far the best characterized genetic risk factors for breast cancer development [6]. Most of the reported mutations in tumor suppressor genes are characterized by deletions, insertions, nonsense mutations and splice variants that result in a truncated protein [7]. Nevertheless, human breast cancer results from a number of genetic and environmental interaction, and genes, which interacts with environmental carcinogens and lifestyle factors [8]. Therefore, breast cancer eventually demonstrated uneven spatial distribution in occurrence reflecting the influence of local environmental conditions, lifestyle, hormonal, reproductive pattern and genetic predisposition in the development of the condition [9,10]. A number of studies have attempted to understand the possible association between certain lifestyle variables and risk for breast cancer. Women, who underwent more menstrual cycles having early age at menarche or underwent late menopause were found to have elevated risk of breast cancer [11]. Similarly, nulliparous women were also found to have increased risk of the disease, might be due to nulliparous women have undifferentiated cells without differentiation, that retains high concentration of epithelial cells that are targets for carcinogens and therefore undergoes neoplastic transformation [12-15]. However, studies also reported that breast feeding reduces breast cancer risk regulated by hormonal mechanisms [12,16,17].

Effect of Mutations in the genes leading to breast cancer from India remains relatively unexplored apart from a few small studies [18-23]. However, mutations in susceptible BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes for breast cancer among Bengalee population are yet to be carried out.

## Objectives

The present study aims to study the polymorphisms in BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes and their association with certain lifestyle variables that modify the risk of Breast cancer and susceptibility.

## Materials and Methods

**Collection of samples:** The study includes 110 patients with histopathologically confirmed Breast Carcinoma visiting the Cancer Centre Welfare Home and Research Institute, Kolkata, India and National Medical College and Hospital, Kolkata. Ethical approval of the research project using human subjects was obtained from the Institutional Ethical Committee. The socio-demographic data (age,

caste, origin, occupation, family history, educational status, etc) , reproductive (age at menarche, regularity of menstrual periods, age at menopause, parity, number of issues) and lifestyle (post-menopausal hormone therapy, abortions, use of oral contraceptives, alcohol consumption and smoking practices) data were collected using specially prepared pre tested schedule. Age at menarche was defined as the chronological age when the women first had her menses; age at menopause was defined as the chronological age when the natural period ceases without any effect of medical or pathological interference. Apart from the patients age, sex and ethnic matched 128 controls were collected without any family history of breast cancer for the present study.

**DNA Isolation:** Genomic DNA was prepared from fresh whole blood (5ml) by using the conventional phenol-chloroform method [24].

**PCR Amplification:** Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was carried out to amplify exons and flanking regions in a Thermocycler (GeneAmp-9700; PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). PCR amplified DNA fragments were analyzed on 2% agarose gel and then visualized by ethidium bromide staining.

**Mutation and Polymorphism Detection:** The amplified products were directly sequenced in forward and reverse direction in DNA Analyzer 3730 (Applied Biosystems, USA). Nucleotide changes were detected by comparing sequence obtained in chromatogram with the normal gene sequences using pair-wise BLAST and SeqScape software v2.5

Descriptive and inferential statistics has been applied in appropriate places for analyzing the data using the statistical software SPSS 17.0 version. Cut off was set as  $p=0.005$ .

## Results

A total of 238 participants (110 histopathologically confirmed breast cancer patients and another 128 age, sex and ethnic group matched controls, without any personal and family history of breast cancer) were included in the present study and presented in table 1.

	Mean $\pm$ SD	Range (Years)	Total
Patients	54.037 $\pm$ 0.383	30 – 78	110
Controls	54.609 $\pm$ 8.005	38 – 72	128

**Table 1:** Present study of participants.

The molecular sequencing of BRCA2 gene identifies 3 intronic variants and two exonic variants (Table 2). 19.4% of the patients and 1.57% of the controls is analyzed with exon 2 mutation (rs1799943) with significant association ( $p < 0.005$ ), which changes the amino acid from Serine to Asparagine. Whereas the variation in the coding region of exon 9 changes the amino acid from Proline to Leucine among 7.05% of the patients only. The intronic variants doesn't exhibit any amino acid changes as they are present in the non-coding region of the DNA, but all of them have significant associations ( $p < 0.005$ ) for Breast cancer in the studied cohort. Intron 9 (rs2126042) mutations is present among 22.2% of the patients and 6.29% of the controls. Two

novel variants are identified in Intron 9, one (IVS9+139 T>C) is present among 8.33% of the patients and 0.787% of the controls, another (IVS9+145 T>C) is present among only 11.1% of the patients.

The function of the non-coding regions of the DNA is less understood than that of the coding DNA, researchers are left to speculate the functional effect of non-synonymous polymorphisms. Since polymorphism and variations are the themes in anthropology, therefore, the present study certainly possess anthropological interest with regard to the significance of both synonymous and non-synonymous variants for breast cancer risk among the studied cohort.

Exon/ Intron	Nucleotide Change	Amino Acid Change	Patient (%) N=108	Control (%) N=127	SNP Status	P Value
Exon 2	AGC>AAC	Ser> Asn	21 (19.4)	2 (1.57)	Reported (rs1799943)	0.0001
Intron 9	CCT>CTT	NA	24 (22.2)	8 (6.29)	Reported (rs2126042)	0.0002
Exon 9	CCT>CTT	Pro>Leu	8 (7.407)	0	Reported (rs80359633)	0.0001
Intron 9	IVS9+139 T>C	NA	9 (8.33)	1 (0.787)	NOVEL (rs04)	0.0001
Intron 9	IVS9+145 T>C	NA	12(11.1)	0	NOVEL (rs05)	0.0001

**Table 2:** Identifies of three Intronic variants and two Exonic Variants.

Socio demographic characteristics (Table 3) revealed significant differences in occupation ( $p < 0.005$ ), family history ( $p < 0.005$ ) and marital status ( $p < 0.005$ ) among the breast cancer patients in comparison to controls.

Interestingly, 66.7% of the patients had positive family history of breast cancer, whereas no controls had any family history of cancer.

Characters	Status (Patients)
Education (Graduate)	NS
<b>Occupation</b> (Service)	0.30** (0.129 - 0.682)
Marital Status (Unmarried)	NS
<b>Family History</b> (No)	0.028*** (0.0009 - 0.092)
Age at Menarche (Below 12 years)	NS
<b>Regularity of Menstrual Periods</b> (Irregular)	9.40*** (2.092 - 42.22)
<b>Use of Oral Contraceptive Pills</b> (Yes)	2.578*** (1.00 - 6.65)
<b>Abortions</b> (Yes)	17.02*** (2.03 - 143.15)
Parity (Nulliparity)	NS

Number of Issues	NS
(Only One)	
<b>Breast Feeding Duration</b>	0.261**
(>3months)	(0.09 – 0.690)
Which Breast Fed	NS
(Only one)	
Menopausal Status	NS
(Post-menopause)	
Age at Menopause	NS
(Below 50 years)	
<b>Post Menopausal Therapy</b>	0.191*
(No)	(0.034 – 1.07)
<b>Hysterectomy</b>	6.03**
(Yes)	(1.426 – 25.48)
<b>Smoking/Alcohol</b>	0.31*
(No)	(0.141 – 0.669)

**Table 3:** Socio demographic characteristics among the breast cancer patients.

Stepwise logistic regression (backward conditional) analysis revealed that there are some lifestyle and reproductive variables, which can significantly predict a person's risk of developing the disease. A person in service as means of occupation is 0.3 times less likely to have breast cancer (OR-0.30, 95% CI=0.129 – 0.682,  $p<0.001$ ), likewise having no family history of breast cancer reduces the risk of developing the disease by 0.028 times (OR-0.028, 95% CI=0.0009 – 0.092,  $p<0.0001$ ). Irregular menstrual periods are seen to increase the risk of breast cancer by 9.40 times (OR-9.40, 95% CI= 2.092 – 42.22,  $p<0.0001$ ). Prolonged used of oral contraceptives is likely to elevate the breast cancer risk by 2.59 times (OR-2.578, 95% CI= 1.0 – 6.65,  $p<0.0001$ ). A women's risk of having breast cancer gets 17.02 times increased if she has history of abortions (OR-17.02, 95% CI= 2.3 – 143.15,  $p<0.0001$ ). The potential risk of breast cancer gets increased to 0.26 times if a woman feed her breast for less than 3 months (OR- 0.26, 95% CI= 0.09 – 0.69,  $p<0.001$ ). Likewise, the risk is modified to 0.19 times (OR- 0.19, 95% CI=0.034 – 1.07,  $p<0.01$ ) if a woman undergoes post menopausal hormone therapy and 6.03 times if she has been operated with hysterectomy (OR-6.03, 95% CI=1.43 – 25.48,  $p<0.001$ ). Consumption of alcohol and smoking increases the risk of developing breast cancer by 0.31 times (OR-0.31, 95% CI=0.141 – 0.669,  $p<0.01$ ).

## Discussion

The present study revealed substantial variation in breast cancer risk among the mutation carriers, particularly in terms of age variation and cancer type

which basically envisaged that the concomitant effect of genetic variability and environmental factors which eventually modify the expression of the status.

The human genome has millions of SNPs, but relatively few have been shown to have functional significance. In cancer genomics, numerous SNPs have been reported, with synonymous and non-synonymous changes. A striking feature of the newly associated variants is that the top signals often occur at DNA sites (Splice, UTR, Introns, IVS) that do not encode amino acids [24].

Nevertheless, the effect of mutations in BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes to the incidence and prevalence of breast cancer (BC) has been well established worldwide. In other word, BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes are well established Breast Cancer susceptibility gene, which when mutated are inherited and strongly predisposes to breast cancer. Some of them directly influence breast cancer risk, whereas others are involved in the general process of cancer growth and metastasis. However, the role of these genes in pre-disposing Bengalee Hindus to breast cancer has not been explored and there is no reported study till date.

In an attempt to screen the BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes in Bengalee population, 10 Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms has been identified; out of which 5 were novel variants, and has already been submitted to GenBank (NCBI). The present study also revealed that the mutations in BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes were apparently low among the studied population which is contrary to the earlier studies reported from Southern and Northern

India. This might be due to ethnic differences vis-à-vis the genetic structure [19-21,25]. The present study demonstrated a significant association ( $p<0.005$ ) of breast cancer among the BRCA1 mutation carriers, similarly BRCA2 and breast cancer revealed also significant association ( $p<0.005$ ) for the disease.

Nevertheless, the implication of natural hormones specially the sex hormones on developing cancers such as endometrial cancer, breast and prostate cancer (among sex organ related neoplasm) or colon cancer, gall bladder cancer, kidney cancer etc. (non sex organ related neoplasm) have been reported globally [26-30]. Furthermore, breast cancer risk is enhanced by increasing the duration of exposure to endogenous hormones (Endogenous Hormones and Breast Cancer Collaborative Group, 2011). It has also been reported that age at menarche, parity and age at first full-term pregnancy are risk factors for breast cancer [31,32]. In addition to that cancer risk breast is associated with several reproductive factors. It is well established that breast cancer risk increases with early age at menarche [33]. This association is consistent with the hypothesis that breast cancer risk is related to the extent of breast mitotic activity. This activity is driven by estrogen and progesterone exposure during the luteal phase of the menstrual cycle, which determines the probability of tumorigenic somatic events [34,35]. Therefore, an early age at menarche increases the period during which the breast is mitotically active and subsequently increases breast cancer. Therefore, early menarche or late menopause increases the risk of breast cancer. In this context, the present study also observed that an early age at menarche (Table 4) is significantly associated ( $p<0.005$ ) with an elevated risk of breast cancer in Bengalee population. Irregularity of menstrual periods was also seen to be significantly ( $p<0.0002$ ) associated with breast cancer risk. Similarly many studies also reported the increased risk associated with irregular menstrual cycles [36-39]. However, a number of studies have reported little association with irregularity and increased breast cancer risk [40-43].

Menopausal status and characteristics are known to be induced by hormonal factors, which are the key factors for breast cancer and may synergistically interact with genetic factors in triggering the development and progression of breast cancer through estrogen synthesis, metabolism and signal transduction [44]. The present finding demonstrated no significant association of menopausal status and characters with breast cancer risk, which is contrary to the result from Pakistan [44].

Induced and spontaneous abortion increases the risk of developing breast cancer. In early pregnancy, levels of estrogen increase, leading to breast growth in preparation for lactation. The hypothesis proposes that if this process is interrupted by an abortion before full maturity in the third trimester then more relatively vulnerable immature cells could be left than there were prior to the pregnancy, resulting in a greater potential risk of breast cancer over time. Though many studies have reported association between abortion and breast cancer risk, the exact influence is still unclear. Abortions increases the risk of having breast cancer (Table 4), which is significantly ( $p<0.005$ ) demonstrated in the present study. There are a very few studies on abortions and breast cancer risk from India, but the few available reports also showed similar finding [45].

It has been known for decades that nulliparity is associated with an increased risk for certain reproductive malignancies, including breast, ovarian and uterine cancers. A recent commentary in *The Lancet* summarized the available evidence based on data in nulliparous women and concluded that the risk of nulliparity was related to the increased number of ovulatory cycles, and so might be preventable by utilization of oral contraceptives [46]. Furthermore, long-term users of Oral Contraceptives (OCs) were at a higher risk of breast cancer than never users. Current/recent use of OCs is associated with an increased breast cancer risk. [47-51]. In contrary studies also reported no or weak association of OCs use among BRCA1 mutation carrier in Breast Cancer [52-55]. In this context, the present study revealed significant association ( $p<0.005$ ) of prolong use (more than six months) of OCs and breast cancer in comparison to the controls [56-61].

Because hormones are considered to play a role in the etiology of breast cancer, it seems likely that BRCA1 may be important regulators of growth and differentiation in hormonally responsive epithelial cells [62-67]. Breast and ovary being the main estrogen receptor sites, the increased levels of the estrogen due to prolonged consumption of oral contraceptives gets accumulated in these sites [68-72].

The present study being the first report from the Bengalee Hindu Caste Females of West Bengal revealed that the spectrum and prevalence of the BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes in the Bengalee Hindu Caste Females were found to be variable compared to other populations. It is evident from the above findings that having a mutation in tumor suppressor genes cannot solely trigger a person's risk of developing the disease during the lifetime. Certain

other environmental factors modify the risk for the same [72-75].

This study also emphasizes the importance of a positive family history and other lifestyle factors for the breast cancer predisposition [76]. Therefore, the present study envisaged that appropriate genetic counseling and modification of lifestyle factors, symptomatic mutation carriers would be able to minimize the risk for disease susceptibility among the Bengalee Hindu Caste Females of West Bengal, India [77-79].

## References

1. Ferlay J, Héry C, Autier P, Sankaranarayanan R (2010) Global Burden of Breast Cancer. *Breast Cancer Epidemiology* 1: 1-19.
2. Lalloo F, Evans DG (2012) Familial breast cancer. *Clinical Genetics* 82(2): 105-114.
3. Yanhua C, Geater A, You J, Li L, Shaoqiang Z, et al. (2012) Reproductive variables and risk of breast malignant and benign tumours in Yunnan Province, China. *Asian Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention* 13(5): 2179-2184.
4. Itzkovich-Siegel J (2010) Bad genes do not inevitably bring on disease 03: 29.
5. Saxena S, Chakraborty A, Kaushal M, Kotwal S, Bhatnager D, et al. (2006) Contribution of germline BRCA1 and BRCA2 sequence alterations to breast cancer in Northern India. *BMC Medical Genetics* 7: 75.
6. Mavaddat N, Antoniou AC, Easton DF, Garcia-Closas M (2010) Genetic Susceptibility to Breast Cancer. *Molecular Oncology* 4(3): 174-191.
7. Sluiter MD, Van Rensburg EJ (2011) Large genomic rearrangements of the BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes: review of the literature and report of a novel BRCA1 mutation. *Breast Cancer Research Treatment*. 125(2): 325-349.
8. Samson M, Swaminathan R, Rama R, Sridevi V, Nancy KN, et al. (2007) Role of GSTM1 (Null/Present), GSTP1 (Ile105Val) and P53 (Arg72Pro) genetic polymorphisms and the risk of breast cancer: a case control study from South India. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev* 8(2): 253-257.
9. Mcpherson K, Steel CM, Dixon JM (2000) ABC of breast diseases. Breast cancer epidemiology, risk factors and genetics. *Br Med J* 321: 624-628.
10. Parkin DM, Bray F, Ferlay J, Pisani P (2001) Estimating the world cancer burden: GLOBOCAN 2000. *Int J Cancer* 94(2): 153-156.
11. Winer EP, Morrow M, Osborne CK, Harris JR (2000) Cancer of the breast; Section 2, Malignant tumors of the breast. In: Devita TV, (Ed.), *Cancer: Principles & practice of oncology*, 6<sup>th</sup> (Edn.), J.B. Lippcott, Philadelphia, pp: 1651-1659.
12. Huo D, Adebamowo CA, Ogundiran TO, Akang EE, Campbell O, et al. (2008) Parity and breastfeeding are protective against breast cancer in Nigerian women. *Br J Cancer* 98(5): 992-996.
13. Boulanger CA, Wagner KU, Smith GH (2005) Parity-induced mouse mammary epithelial cells pluripotent, self-renewing and sensitive to TGF-beta1 expression. *Oncogene* 24(4): 552-560.
14. Henry MD, Triplett AA, Oh KB, Smith GH, Wagner KU (2004) Parity induced mammary epithelial cells facilitate tumorigenesis in MMTV-neu transgenic mice. *Oncogene* 23(41): 6980-6985.
15. Wagner JE, Huff JL, Rust WL, Kingsley K, Plopper GE (2002) Perillyl Alcohol Inhibits Breast Cell Migration without Affecting Cell Adhesion. *J Biomed Biotechnol* 2(3): 136-140.
16. Lord SJ, Bernstein L, Johnson KA, Malone KE, McDonald JA, et al. (2008) Breast Cancer risk and hormone receptor status in older women by parity, age of first birth, and breastfeeding: a case-control study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 17(7): 1723-1730.
17. Zheng T, Holford TR, Mayne ST, Owens P, Zhang Y, et al. (2010) Lactation and breast cancer risk: a case-control study in Connecticut. *Br J Cancer* 84(11): 1472-1476.
18. Kumar BV, Lakhota S, Ankathil R, Madhavan J, Jayaprakash PG, et al. (2002) Germline BRCA1 mutation Analysis in Indian Breast/ Ovarian Cancer Families. *Cancer Biol Ther* 1(1): 18-21.
19. Saxena S, Szabo CI, Chopin S, Barjhoux L, Sinilnikova O, et al. (2002) BRCA1 and BRCA2 in Indian breast cancer patients. *Hum Mutat* 20(6): 473-474.

20. Rajkumar T, Soumitra N, Nancy NK, Swaminathan R, Sridevi V, et al. (2003) BRCA1, BRCA2 and CHEK2 (1100 del C) Germline Mutations in hereditary Breast and Ovarian Cancer Families in South India. *Asian Pacific J Cancer Prev* 4(3): 203-208.
21. Valarmathi MT, A A, Deo SS, Shukla NK, Das SN (2003) BRCA1 germline mutations in Indian familial breast cancer. *Hum Mutation* 21(1): 98-99.
22. Hedau S, Jain N, Hussain SA, Mandal AK, Ray G, et al. (2004) Novel Germline Mutations in breast cancer susceptibility genes BRCA1, BRCA2 and p53 gene in breast cancer patients from India. *Breast Cancer Research and Treatment* 88(2): 177-186.
23. Saxena S, Chakraborty A, Kaushal M, Kotwal S, Bhatanager D, et al. (2006) Contribution of germline BRCA1 and BRCA2 sequence alterations to breast cancer in Northern India. *BMC Medical Genetics* 7: 75.
24. Sambrook J, Russel DW (2000) Molecular cloning: A laboratory manual. In: Irwin N, (Ed.), Science, Cold Spring Harbor Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY.
25. Lomelin D, Jorgenson E, Risch N (2009) Human genetic variation recognizes functional elements in noncoding sequence. *Genome Research* 20(3): 311-319.
26. Key TJA, Beral, V (1992) Sex hormones and cancer. In: Mechanisms of Carcinogenesis in Risk Identification. Vainio H, Magee PN, McGregor DB, McMichael AJ (Eds.), IARC Scientific Publications, Lyon, pp: 116-255.
27. Sharma BK, Ray A (2000) Breast and prostate cancer. *Indian J Clin Biochem* 15S: 110-117.
28. English MA, Stewart PM, Hewison M (2001) Estrogen metabolism and malignancy: analysis of the expression and function of 17 beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenases in colonic cancer. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 171(1-2): 53-60.
29. Ray A, Gupta S (2001) Some facts about gall-bladder cancer. *ICPO Newsletter* 3: 6.
30. Li SA, Klicka JK, Li JJ (1985) Estrogen 2- and 4-hydroxylase activity, catechol estrogen formation, and implications for estrogen carcinogenesis in the hamster kidney. *Cancer Res* 45(1): 181-185.
31. Kelsey JL, Gammon D, John EM (1993) Reproductive factors and breast cancer. *Epidemiol Rev* 15(1): 36-47.
32. Russo J, Mailo D, Hu YF, Balogh G, Sheriff F, et al. (2005). Breast differentiation and its implication in cancer prevention. *Clinical Cancer Research* 11: S931-S936.
33. Dumitrescu RG, Cotarla I (2005) Understanding breast cancer risk - where do we stand in 2005? *J Cell Mol Med* 9(1): 208-221.
34. Ferguson DJ, Anderson TJ (1981) Morphological evaluation of cell turnover in relation to the menstrual cycle in the "resting" human breast. *Br J Cancer* 44(2): 177-181.
35. Pike MC, Spicer DV, Dahmouh L, Press MF (1993) Estrogens, progestogens, normal breast cell proliferation, and breast cancer risk. *Epidemiol Rev* 15(1): 17-35.
36. Wu AH, Ziegler RG, Pike MC, Nomura AM, West DW, et al. (1996) Menstrual and reproductive factors and risk of breast cancer in Asian-Americans. *Br J Cancer* 73(5): 680-686.
37. Whelan EA, Sandler DP, Root JL, Smith KR, Weinberg CR (1994) Menstrual cycle patterns and risk of breast cancer. *Am J Epidemiol* 140(12): 1081-1090.
38. den Tonkelaar I, de Waard F (1996) Regularity and length of menstrual cycles in women aged 41-46 in relation to breast cancer risk: results from the DOM-project. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 38(3): 253-258.
39. Yuan JM, Yu MC, Ross RK, Gao YT, Henderson BE (1988) Risk factors for breast cancer in Chinese women in Shanghai. *Cancer Res* 48(7): 1949-1953.
40. Clavel-Chapelon F (2002) Cumulative number of menstrual cycles and breast cancer risk: results from the E3N cohort study of French women. *Cancer Causes Control* 13(9): 831-838.
41. Grabrick DM, Vierkant RA, Anderson KE, Cerhan JR, Anderson VE, et al. (2002) Association of correlates of endogenous hormonal exposure with breast cancer risk in 426 families (United States). *Cancer Causes Control* 13(4): 333-341.
42. Titus-Ernstoff L, Longnecker MP, Newcomb PA, Dain B, Greenberg ER, et al. (1998) Menstrual factors in

- relation to breast cancer risk. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 7(9): 783-789.
43. Gao YT, Shu XO, Dai Q, Potter JD, Brinton LA, et al. (2000) Association of menstrual and reproductive factors with breast cancer risk: results from the Shanghai Breast Cancer Study. *Int J Cancer* 87(2): 295-300.
  44. Butt Z, Haider SF, Arif S, Khan MR, Ashfaq U, et al. (2012) Breast cancer risk factors: a comparison between pre-menopausal and post-menopausal women. *J Pak Med Assoc* 62(2): 120-124.
  45. Brind J, Chinchilli VM, Severs WB, Summy-long J (1996) Induced abortion as an independent risk factor for breast cancer: a comprehensive review and meta- analysis. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 50(5): 481-496.
  46. Gleicher N (2013) Why are reproductive cancers more common in nulliparous women? *Reprod Biomed Online* 26(5): 416-419.
  47. Merethe K, Kumle M, Weiderpass E, Braaten T, Persson I, et al. (2002) Use of Oral Contraceptives and Breast Cancer Risk. The Norwegian-Swedish Women's Lifestyle and Health Cohort Study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 11(11): 1375-1381.
  48. Hadjisavvas A, Loizidou MA, Middleton N, Michael T, Papachristoforou R, et al. (2010) An investigation of breast cancer risk factors in Cyprus: a case control study. *BMC Cancer* 10: 447.
  49. Atkinson HG (2003) Alcohol's "darker side." A drink a day may raise a woman's risk of breast cancer. *Health News* 9(1): 4.
  50. Bernstein L, Pike MC, Ross RK, Judd HL, Brown JB, et al. (1985) Estrogen and Sex hormone-binding globulin levels in nulliparous and parous women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 74(4): 741-745.
  51. Bonnen PE, Story MD, Ashorn CL, Buchholz TA, Weil MM, et al. (2000) Haplotypes at ATM identifies coding-sequence variation and indicate a region of extensive linkage disequilibrium. *Am J Hum Genet* 67(6): 1437-1451.
  52. Britt K, Ashworth A, Smalley M (2007) Pregnancy and the risk of breast cancer. *Endocr Relat Cancer* 14(4): 907-933.
  53. American Cancer Society (2010) *Cancer Facts and Figures*.
  54. Endogenous Hormones and Breast Cancer Collaborative Group, Key TJ, Appleby PN, Reeves GK, Roddam AW, et al. (2011) Circulating sex hormones and breast cancer risk factors in postmenopausal women: reanalysis of 13 studies. *Br J Cancer* 105(5): 709-722.
  55. Chen WY, Colditz GA, Rosner B, Hankinson SE, Hunter DJ, et al. (2002) Use of postmenopausal hormones, alcohol, and risk for invasive breast cancer. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 137(10): 798-804.
  56. Consolidated Report of Population Based Cancer Registries (2001-2004) National Cancer registry Programme, Indian Council of Medical Research.
  57. Ebrahimi M, Vahdaninia M, Montazeri A (2002) Risk factors for breast cancer in Iran: a case-control study. *Breast Cancer Res* 4(5): R10.
  58. Erlandsson G, Montgomery SM, Cnattingius S, Ekblom (2003) Abortions and breast cancer: record-based case-control study. *International Journal Cancer* 103(5): 676-679.
  59. Excoffier L, Slatkin M (1995) Maximum-likelihood estimation of molecular haplotype frequencies in a diploid population. *Mol Biol Evol* 12(5): 921-927.
  60. (2009) *ICMR Bulletin*.
  61. Ferlay J, Parki DM, Steliarova-Foucher E (2008) Estimates of the cancer incidence and mortality in Europe in 2008. *Eur J Cancer* 46(4): 765-781.
  62. Goddard KA, Hopkins PJ, Hall JM, Witte JS (2000) Linkage disequilibrium and allele-frequency distributions for 114 single-nucleotide polymorphisms in five populations. *Am J Hum Genet* 66(1): 216-234.
  63. Hamajima N, Hirose K, Tajima K, Rohan T, Calle EE, et al. (2002) Alcohol, tobacco and breast cancer collaborative reanalysis of individual data from 53 epidemiological studies, including 58,515 women with breast cancer and 95,067 women without the disease. *Br J Cancer* 87(11): 1234-1245.
  64. Hassey ED, Dow K (2005) *Pocket Guide to breast cancer*. Jones and Bartlet, Boston, pp: 3-12.



65. Garcia-Closas M, Herbstman J, Schiffman M, Glass A, Dorgan JF (2002) Relationship between serum hormone concentrations, reproductive history, alcohol consumption and genetic polymorphisms in premenopausal women. *Int J Cancer* 102: 172-178.
66. Hohenstein P, Giles RH (2003) BRCA1: a scaffold for p53 response? *Trends in Genetics* 19(9): 489-494.
67. Miki Y, Swensen J, Shattuck-Eidens D, Futreal PA, Harshman K, et al. (1994) A strong candidate for the breast and ovarian cancer susceptibility gene BRCA1. *Science* 266(5182): 66-71.
68. Pakseresht S, Ingle GK, Bahadur AK, Ramteke VK, Singh MM, et al. (2009) Risk factors with breast cancer among women in Delhi. *Indian Journal of Cancer* 46(2): 132-138.
69. Press DJ, Pharoah P (2010) Risk factors for breast cancer: a reanalysis of two case-control studies from 1926 and 1931. *Epidemiology* 21(4): 566-572.
70. Robson M, Gilewski T, Haas B, Levin D, Borgen P, et al. (1998) BRCA-associated breast cancer in young women. *J Clin Oncol* 16(5): 1642-1649.
71. Rookus MA, van Leeuwen Fe (1994) Oral contraceptives and risk of breast cancer in women aged 20-54 years. Netherlands Oral Contraceptives and Breast Cancer Study Group. *Lancet* 344: 844-851.
72. Rosner B, Colditz G, Willet W (1994) Reproductive Risk factors in a prospective study of breast cancer: the nurses health study. *Am J Epidemiol* 139(8): 819-835.
73. Niu T, Qin ZS, Xu X, Liu JS (2002) Bayesian haplotype inference for multiple linked single-nucleotide polymorphisms. *Am J Hum Genet* 70(1): 157-169.
74. Stratton MR, Rahman N (2008) The emerging landscape of breast cancer susceptibility. *Nat Genet* 40(1): 17-22.
75. Tishkoff SA, Pakstis AJ, Ruano G, Kidd KK (2000) The accuracy of statistical methods for estimation of haplotype frequencies: an example from the CD4 locus. *Am J Hum Genet* 67(2): 518-522.
76. Thompson D, Easton DF (2002) Cancer Incidence in BRCA1 Mutation Carriers. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute* 94(18): 1358-1365.
77. Verhoog LC, Brekelmans CT, Seynaeve C, Meijers-Heijboer EJ, Klijn JG (2000) Contralateral breast cancer risk is influenced by the age at onset in BRCA1-associated breast cancer. *Br J Cancer* 83(3): 384-386.
78. Wooster R, Bignell G, Lancaster J, Swift S, Seal S, et al. (1995) Identification of the breast cancer susceptibility gene BRCA2. *Nature* 378(6559): 789-792.
79. Zeleniuch JA, Roy ES (2005) Epidemiology of breast cancer. In: Roses FD, (Ed.), *Breast Cancer*, 2<sup>nd</sup> (Edn.), Elsevier, Philadelphia, pp: 3-14.

