Review Article



In-Vitro Fertilization Impact on the Risk of Breast Cancer: A Review Article

*Dariush D. FARHUD^{1,2}, Shaghayegh ZOKAEI³, Mohammad KEYKHAEI⁴, Mehdi HEDAYATI⁵, Marjan ZARIF YEGANEH⁵

1. School of Public Health, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

2. Department of Basic Sciences, Iranian Academy of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

3. School of Advanced Medical Sciences, Tehran Medical Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

4. Non-Communicable Diseases Research Center, Endocrinology and Metabolism Research Institute, Tehran University of Medical

Sciences, Tehran, Iran

5. Cellular and Molecular Endocrine Research Center, Research Institute for Endocrine Sciences, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

*Corresponding Author: Email: farhud@sina.tums.ac.ir

(Received 16 Jul 2020; accepted 12 Sep 2020)

Abstract

Background: Due to the increasing prevalence of infertility, the number of referrals to infertility treatment centers has also increased. Nowadays, assisted reproductive technology (ART), including in vitro fertilization (IVF), is a treatment for infertility or genetic problems. Considering the possible consequences of this method among women undergoing in vitro fertilization (IVF) and kids conceived by IVF, extensive research has been conducted in this regard.

Methods: Overall, 100 articles were entered into the study, and relevant articles were searched and extracted from PubMed, Springer, and Google Scholar databases. In IVF procedure, medications such as Clomiphene citrate and gonadotropins are used to stimulate and mature follicles and thus increase ovulation.

Results: There are conflicting opinions on this issue. Some findings report a slight increase in cancer risk for hormone-sensitive cancers including breast cancer. The long-term use of IVF medications can increase estrogen hormones and cause excessive expression of genes, resulting in an increased risk of breast cancer, which is one of the most frequent cancers among women.

Conclusion: There are some risks to be aware of, which followed the hypothesis that long IVF treatment process may lead to breast cancer among IVF candidates. Furthermore, the risk of breast cancer may be increased in those women with a positive family history and related inherited genes. Therefore, women candidates for IVF should be informed of the probable implications of the reproductive therapy techniques.

Keywords: Breast cancer; In vitro fertilization (IVF); Clomiphene citrate; Gonadotropins; Infertility; Personalized medicine

Introduction

Since the birth of the first 'test-tube' baby in the early 1980s, in-vitro fertilization (IVF) has been used as a method for solving infertility problems

including ovulation disorders, fallopian tube damage or blockage, endometriosis, uterine fibroids, impaired sperm production or function, unex-



Copyright © 2021 Farhud et al. Published by Tehran University of Medical Sciences. This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International license (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/). Non-commercial uses of the work are permitted, provided the original work is properly cited.

Available at: http://ijph.tums.ac.ir



plained infertility, and a genetic disorder (1, 2). According to global statistics, a large number of couples annually visit IVF centers to carry out infertility treatment due to the fertility problems. Moreover, ovulation-inducing drugs have been used for various types of infertility (3-9).

Infertility problems can be cured through use of several methods including assisted reproductive technology (ART), surgery and medication, or intrauterine insemination (IUI) (10). Studies conducted in the Netherlands and the United States showed a high consumption of fertility drugs and a sudden increase in referrals of patients to fertility health care centers between the 1980s and 90s (11, 12). Many studies, especially retrospective cohorts, have long focused on the future effects of ART in women undergoing these treatments and their offspring (13). Parity and increased breastfeeding may reduce some subtypes of breast and gynecologic cancers (14-16), but with regard to research on the effects of IVF treatment, this method can increase the risk of developing breast cancer (17). Contrary to the result of studies with small sample sizes (18-20), there are speculations that the risk of cancer in women has increased after IVF (21, 22). In particular, an association has been found between ovulation induction and a significant increase in the risk of breast cancer, which appears to be stronger among women waiting more than one year to conceive (14, 23-29).

Women who have infertility problems and are undergoing hormone therapy are more likely to have dense breasts, a factor that may raise the risk of developing breast cancer. In a study of 43,313 women, the association between ovulation stimulant drugs and mammographic breast density was investigated. Women reporting infertility had more dense tissue in the breast as a result of controlled ovarian stimulation, which can affect the risk of getting breast cancer (17). Some important risk factors for breast cancer such as age are beyond control. Thus, there may be a possible association between the age of IVF-treated women and breast cancer development. Women over 30 yr old are increasingly at risk for breast cancer by initiating IVF cycles (30). Moreover, I Pappo et al. demonstrated the incidence of breast cancer in women age >or=40 yr after controlled ovarian stimulation in their retrospective cohort study (31). In Western Australia, a different outcome was reported. Young IVF-treated women were more likely to have an increased risk of breast cancer compared to those who did not perform IVF, as well as those of other ages (32).

Breast cancer is strongly influenced by hormonal factors (25, 33-38). As the ovary affects the breast function by producing steroid hormones, any dose of gonadotropin hormones and fertility drugs that affect ovaries to multiply ovulation can also affect the breast (5). In a typical IVF procedure, clomiphene citrate and gonadotropins, including human chorionic gonadotropin (HCG) and human menopausal gonadotropin (HMG), are used to stimulate the growth of multiple follicles and induce ovulation (39). Ovarian stimulation can affect the levels of endogenous estrogen, which may cause cancer risk (13, 22, 40, 41). The probability of this cancer is also greater in women who have previously used IVF several times but did not get pregnant, usually more than six months, because of persistent exposure to HMG (20).

Breast Cancer

Female breast cancer is an invasive malignancy that is highly influenced by female steroids. It is the most common cancer in women worldwide, particularly in middle-aged and older women and the rate of new cases of female with breast cancer is 128.5 per 100,000 women per year (42, 43) (Fig. 1) (44). In some countries such as Iran, the extent of cancer and its spread has increased, although the age of breast cancer incidence has sharply decreased. Breast cancer death rate is about 20.1 per 100,000 women in the United States, with an average age of 69 yr (Fig. 2) (44). The mortality of breast cancer declined due to improvements in screening and effective treatments (45). Known and suspected factors such as lifestyle, age, race, geographical location, and exposure to ionizing radiation are effective in developing breast cancer (46). According to studies, null parity (47), advanced maternal age (AMA) (48), early menarche (49), late menopause (50), and longtime hormone therapy are risk factors of breast cancers (51-53), which are probably to be affected by progesterone and estrogen hormones secretion (38, 54). At the same age, the risk of breast cancer is higher in premenopausal women than postmenopausal women (55, 56).



Fig. 1: New cases of female with breast cancer of all races, 2013–2017. Breast cancer is most frequently diagnosed among females aged 55–64 (median age at diagnosis = 62 years) (44)

Besides, lactation in parous women for a longer duration can be associated with a lower risk of breast cancer (57). This cancer may also be inherited (58). However, family history plays a minor role in most cases. Hereditary mutations in the BRCA1 or BRCA2 gene, play the most important role in hereditary breast cancer occurrence (59, 60). In addition, mutations in several other genes, including CDH1, PTEN, TP53, STK11, MLH1 and MLH2 have been associated with hereditary breast cancer (61). Women with the mutation in the BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes, located on the long arms of chromosomes 17 and 13 respectively, are especially susceptible to the breast cancer but represent only 5% to 10% of cases (62). Another important consideration is the genetic polymorphism

(63) associated with the synthesis and metabolism of estrogen on the risk of developing breast cancer that is under investigation (64). Polymorphisms in the cytochrome P450 family (CYPs) and in the glutathione S-transferase (GSTs) enzymes are associated with breast cancer, because of their effect on the metabolism of environmental carcinogens and estrogen (62, 65-69). Therefore, hormones play a key role in the development of this cancer by influencing the proliferation of breast epithelial cells (70). Early menarche and late menopause affect the risk of breast cancer, because, during the reproductive period, secretion of ovarian steroid hormones affects breast function (56).



Fig. 2: Mortality rate in women with breast cancer by age group, U.S, 2014–2018. The breast cancer deaths is highest among women aged 65–74 (median age at death = 69 years) (44)

Estradiol hormone and its mechanism of action

Estradiol hormone is an estrogen steroid hormone that prepares the body for reproductive cycles. (71), stimulates the proliferation of mammary gland (72), and it can be synthesized in the breast, ovary, and extraglandular tissues. Estradiol affects the breast cells with paracrine, autocrine, and intracrine mechanisms. Moreover, this hormone can cause various chromosomal and genetic lesions, including aneuploidy (73), and more exposure to Estradiol (E2) or other estrogenic compounds can accelerate the development of breast carcinomas from early mutation to tumor metastasis, by increasing cell proliferation or genotoxic effects (42, 69). The estradiol hormone interacts with two nuclear receptors and crucial transcriptional regulators in breast called ER α (estrogen receptor α) and ER β (estrogen receptor β), to affect its target tissue. The binding of estrogen to the nuclear estrogen receptor α promotes breast cancer growth (74). The complexation of these receptors and their attachment to a specific DNA sequence require the binding of estradiol to the ERs, but this connection can cause damage to the DNA, followed by increased DNA replication and cell division (75, 76).

Fertility Stimulant Drugs

In general, this study aimed to evaluate the effects of drugs used in IVF, clomiphene citrate and gonadotropins on breast cancer risk, and several studies have been conducted on its potential risk (18, 41, 77, 78). However, these drugs are not reviewed alone and the effect of medication dosing and duration and family history of the individuals should also be considered (80).

Clomiphene citrate (CC) or clomifene is an ovulatory stimulant drug and its action in women leads to multiple ovulation to cure unexplained subfertility, polycystic ovary syndrome, or oligo-ovulatory infertility (80-82). Clomiphene citrate along with IUI (Intrauterine insemination) has been determined an effective treatment for infertility (83). CC contains a mixture of enclomiphene and zuclomiphene isomers. Zuclomiphene is much more effective for induction of ovulation. The exact

mechanism of this drug is unknownbut it has been determined with both estrogenic and anti-estrogenic attributes. It competes with estrogen to bind to estrogen receptors in cells containing these receptors, including the ovaries, pituitary, and hypothalamus. By affecting these organs, such as the hypothalamus, it increases the GnRH secretion, thus acting as a selective estrogen receptor modulator. In contrast to estrogen, clomiphene citrate binds nuclear ER for a longer time. By stimulating the release of gonadotropins, like luteinizing hormone (LH), and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), it helps to develop the maturation of follicles, induces ovulation, and thus pregnancy (84-88). Therefore, clomiphene citrate is an estrogenic agonist and increases ovulation. When it binds to estrogen receptors in breast cells, it increases the expression of the relevant genes, cell proliferation, and ultimately breast cancer. Probable side effects of taking CC include hot flashes, mood swings, headaches, abnormal vaginal/uterine bleeding, vaginal dryness or thick cervical mucus, breast tenderness or discomfort, ovarian enlargement and visual disturbances. But there are concerns about the potential risks of taking clomiphene citrate on the ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome, and both ovarian and breast cancer (89, 90).

Gonadotropins, including LH, FSH, and HCG (91, 92), are made in the gonadotropic cells in the anterior pituitary gland, and this action is stimulated by Gonadotropin-releasing hormones (GnRH), secreted from the hypothalamus (93). Gonadotropins are essential for reproduction, sexual development, and also ovarian stimulation in women undergoing ART.

To stimulate ovary, an injectable medication containing a FSH, a LH, or a combination of both might be used, which stimulate more than one egg to develop at a time. Excessive use of gonadotropins in this procedure can suddenly increase the level of FSH and LH hormones, stimulate and mature follicles, and can also increase estrogen secretion, which in turn increases gene expression and possibly the risk of breast cancer (94), as was mentioned before.

During the oocyte maturation phase, when the follicles are ready for egg retrieval, HCG or other medications are applied to help the egg mature. Most women who had received more than 6 cycles of HCG or HMG) in IVF process, are generally at an estimated 40% risk of developing breast cancer, especially those with positive family history of breast cancer (20, 31, 95). HCG, a peptide hormone, is found physiologically in both female and male sexes. It is specially produced during pregnancy by the embryo (92), and not only plays an important role in pregnancy but also affects tumor formation and stimulation in the presence of estrogen and estrogen response elements (ERE) (96). Malignant breast cancer cells produce HCG, especially its β -subunit (97), and also contain a relatively high level of the HCG receptors (98), therefore, it can be recognized as a tumor marker in breast (99, 100). In brief, in the absence of pregnancy, increasing the presence of this molecule in the body can increase the growth of cancer cells.

Duration and Dose Effects

Overall, the medication dose and duration of use are considered to have an impact on breast cancer which is noteworthy. The highest rate of cancer incidence has been among women with an average of more than three cycles who were exposed to drugs or treated for more than a year and were unable to conceive (77, 78, 101). Studies with greater years of follow-up have provided better results on the effects of these drugs on breast cancer (31). For instance, in a study with more than 10 years of follow up, the potential impact of clomiphene citrate on breast cancer has been cited among cohort studies (41).

Conclusion

IVF is a treatment for infertility or genetic problems. The breast cancer risk in women receiving fertility treatment is increased especially among those older than age 40. Some breast cancer cases are thought to be hereditary and some develop due to a problem involving hormones. Medications used in IVF including clomiphene citrate and gonadotropins, increase the level of LH and FSH, which in turn raises estrogen levels. This sudden increase in estrogen level, an important female sex hormone, can increase the expression of genes and follow that the risk of breast cancer. Findings from studies with large sample size show that women who had received fertility therapy for a long time, especially more than a year, are more prone to the disadvantages of fertility drugs. Thus, the repeated therapeutic cycles can probably raise the development of breast cancer in the next future. Women with a family history of breast cancer or those with first-degree female relatives who have been diagnosed with breast cancer are more susceptible to develop breast cancer after IVF procedure than others. Therefore, breast cancer family history risk assessment should also be considered in this process. Hence, the awareness surrounding the treatment process is incredibly important, and women candidates for IVF should be informed of the probable implications of the association between breast cancer and reproductive therapy techniques.

Ethical considerations

Ethical issues (Including plagiarism, informed consent, misconduct, data fabrication and/or falsification, double publication and/or submission, redundancy, etc.) have been completely observed by the authors.

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

- 1. Steptoe PC, Edwards RG (1978). Birth after the reimplantation of a human embryo. *Lancet*, 2(8085):366.
- Sutcliffe AG, Ludwig M (2007). Outcome of assisted reproduction. *Lancet*, 370(9584):351-9.
- 3. Boivin J, Bunting L, Collins JA, Nygren KG (2007). International estimates of infertility prevalence and treatment-seeking: potential

need and demand for infertility medical care. *Hum Reprod*, 22(6):1506-12.

- Mosher WD (1982). Infertility trends among U.S. couples: 1965-1976. Fam Plann Perspect, 14(1):22-7.
- Klip H, Burger CW, de Kraker J, van Leeuwen FE (2001). Risk of cancer in the offspring of women who underwent ovarian stimulation for IVF. *Hum Reprod*, 16(11):2451-8.
- Gauthier E, Paoletti X, Clavel-Chapelon F (2004). Breast cancer risk associated with being treated for infertility: results from the French E3N cohort study. *Hum Reprod*, 19(10):2216-21.
- Brown J, Farquhar C, Beck J, Boothroyd C, Hughes E (2009). Clomiphene and antioestrogens for ovulation induction in PCOS. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 7;(4):CD002249.
- National Collaborating Centre for Ws, Children's H (2004). National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence: Guidance. In: *Fertility:* Assessment and Treatment for People with Fertility Problems. Ed(s). London (UK): RCOG Press. Copyright © 2004, National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health.
- Ayhan A, Salman MC, Celik H, et al (2004). Association between fertility drugs and gynecologic cancers, breast cancer, and childhood cancers. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*, 83(12):1104-11.
- Mneimneh AS, Boulet SL, Sunderam S, et al (2013). States Monitoring Assisted Reproductive Technology (SMART) Collaborative: data collection, linkage, dissemination, and use. J Womens Health (Larchmt), 22(7):571-7.
- Beurskens MP, Maas JW, Evers JL (1995). [Subfertility in South Limburg: calculation of incidence and appeal for specialist care]. Ned Tijdschr Geneeskd, 139(5):235-8.
- Wysowski DK (1993). Use of fertility drugs in the United States, 1973 through 1991. *Fertil Steril*, 60(6):1096-8.
- de Jong-van den Berg LT, Cornel MC, van den Berg PB, et al (1992). Ovulation-inducing drugs: a drug utilization and risk study in the Dutch population. *Int J Risk Saf Med*, 3(2):99-111.
- Jensen A, Sharif H, Olsen JH, Kjaer SK (2008). Risk of breast cancer and gynecologic cancers in a large population of nearly 50,000 infertile Danish women. *Am J Epidemiol*, 168(1):49-57.

- Anstey EH, Shoemaker ML, Barrera CM, et al (2017). Breastfeeding and Breast Cancer Risk Reduction: Implications for Black Mothers. *Am J Prev Med*, 53(3S1):S40-S46.
- Palmer JR, Boggs DA, Wise LA, et al (2011). Parity and lactation in relation to estrogen receptor negative breast cancer in African American women. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*, 20(9): 1883–1891.
- 17. Lundberg FE, Johansson AL, Rodriguez-Wallberg K, et al (2016). Association of infertility and fertility treatment with mammographic density in a large screeningbased cohort of women: a cross-sectional study. *Breast Cancer Res*, 18(1):36.
- Ron E, Lunenfeld B, Menczer J, et al (1987). Cancer incidence in a cohort of infertile women. *Am J Epidemiol*, 125(5):780-90.
- Modan B, Ron E, Lerner-Geva L, Blumstein T, et al (1998). Cancer incidence in a cohort of infertile women. *Am J Epidemiol*, 147(11):1038-42.
- 20. Burkman RT, Tang MT, Malone KE, et al (2003). Infertility drugs and the risk of breast cancer: findings from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Women's Contraceptive and Reproductive Experiences Study. *Fertil Steril*, 79(4):844-51.
- Kroener L, Dumesic D, Al-Safi Z (2017). Use of fertility medications and cancer risk: a review and update. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol*, 29(4):195-201.
- 22. Farhud D, Zokaei S, Keykhaei M, et al (2019). Strong Evidences of the Ovarian Carcinoma Risk in Women after IVF Treatment: A Review Article. *Iran J Public Health*, 48(12):2124-2132.
- 23. Calderon-Margalit R, Friedlander Y, Yanetz R, et al (2009). Cancer risk after exposure to treatments for ovulation induction. *Am J Epidemiol*, 169(3):365-75.
- Reigstad MM, Larsen IK, Myklebust T, et al (2015). Risk of breast cancer following fertility treatment--a registry based cohort study of parous women in Norway. *Int J Cancer*, 136(5):1140-8.
- 25. Brinton L (2007). Long-term effects of ovulationstimulating drugs on cancer risk. *Reprod Biomed Online*, 15(1):38-44.

- Venn A, Watson L, Bruinsma F, et al (1999). Risk of cancer after use of fertility drugs with invitro fertilisation. *Lancet*, 354(9190):1586-90.
- 27. Kristiansson P, Björ O, Wramsby H (2007). Tumour incidence in Swedish women who gave birth following IVF treatment. *Hum Reprod*, 22(2):421-6.
- Petrangelo A, Czuzoj-Shulman N, Tulandi T, et al (2018). Ovulation Induction for Infertility the Risk of Breast Cancer: A Population-Based Case-Control Study [11B]. *bstetrics and Gynecology*, 131(1):22S.
- Williams CL, Jones ME, Swerdlow AJ, et al (2018). Risks of ovarian, breast, and corpus uteri cancer in women treated with assisted reproductive technology in Great Britain, 1991-2010: data linkage study including 2.2 million person years of observation. *BMJ*, 362:k2644.
- 30. Katz D, Paltiel O, Peretz T, et al (2008). Beginning IVF treatments after age 30 increases the risk of breast cancer: results of a case-control study. *Breast J*, 14(6):517-22.
- Pappo I, Lerner-Geva L, Halevy A, et al (2008). The possible association between IVF and breast cancer incidence. *Ann Surg Oncol*, 15(4):1048-55.
- 32. Stewart LM, Holman CD, Hart R, et al (2012). In vitro fertilization and breast cancer: is there cause for concern? *Fertil Steril*, 98(2):334-40.
- Travis RC, Key TJ (2003). Oestrogen exposure and breast cancer risk. *Breast Cancer Res*, 5(5): 239–247.
- Brekelmans CT (2003). Risk factors and risk reduction of breast and ovarian cancer. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol*, 15(1):63-8.
- Dumitrescu RG, Cotarla I (2005). Understanding breast cancer risk -- where do we stand in 2005? J Cell Mol Med, 9(1): 208–221.
- Nelson HD, Zakher B, Cantor A, Fu R, et al (2012). Risk factors for breast cancer for women aged 40 to 49 years: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann Intern Med*, 156(9):635-48.
- Brinton LA, Moghissi KS, Scoccia B, et al (2005). Ovulation induction and cancer risk. *Fertil Steril*, 83(2):261-74.
- Pike MC, Spicer DV, Dahmoush L, Press MF (1993). Estrogens, progestogens, normal

breast cell proliferation, and breast cancer risk. *Epidemiol Rev*, 15(1):17-35.

- Sovino H, Sir-Petermann T, Devoto L (2002). Clomiphene citrate and ovulation induction. *Reprod Biomed Online*, 4(3):303-10.
- 40. Klip H, Burger CW, Kenemans P, van Leeuwen FE (2000). Cancer risk associated with subfertility and ovulation induction: a review. *Cancer Causes Control*, 11(4):319-44.
- Lerner-Geva L, Keinan-Boker L, Blumstein T, et al (2006). Infertility, ovulation induction treatments and the incidence of breast cancer--a historical prospective cohort of Israeli women. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*, 100(2):201-12.
- Bernstein L (2002). Epidemiology of endocrinerelated risk factors for breast cancer. J Mammary Gland Biol Neoplasia, 7(1):3-15.
- 43. Parkin DM (2004). International variation. Oncogene, 23(38):6329-40.
- 44. NIH (2018). Cancer Stat Facts: Female Breast Cancer. (ed)^(eds), National Institutes of Health (NIH), https://seer.cancer.gov/statfacts/html/breast.html
- Stewart SL, King JB, Thompson TD, et al (2004). Cancer mortality surveillance--United States, 1990-2000. MMWR Surveill Summ, 53(3):1-108.
- Hankinson SE, Colditz GA, Willett WC (2004). Towards an integrated model for breast cancer etiology: the lifelong interplay of genes, lifestyle, and hormones. *Breast Cancer Res*, 6(5): 213–218.
- 47. Agrawal B, Reddish MA, Krantz MJ, Longenecker BM (1995). Does pregnancy immunize against breast cancer? *Cancer Res*, 55(11):2257-61.
- 48. Pathak DR, Osuch JR, He J (2000). Breast carcinoma etiology: current knowledge and new insights into the effects of reproductive and hormonal risk factors in black and white populations. *Cancer*, 88:1230-8.
- Berkey CS, Frazier AL, Gardner JD, Colditz GA (1999). Adolescence and breast carcinoma risk. *Cancer*, 85(11):2400-9.
- 50. No authors listed (1997). Breast cancer and hormone replacement therapy: collaborative reanalysis of data from 51 epidemiological studies of 52,705 women with breast cancer and 108,411 women without breast cancer. Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer. *Lancet*, 350(9084):1047-59.

- Kelsey JL, Gammon MD, John EM (1993). Reproductive factors and breast cancer. *Epidemiol Rev*, 15(1):36-47.
- 52. Titus-Ernstoff L, Longnecker MP, Newcomb PA, et al (1998). Menstrual factors in relation to breast cancer risk. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*, 7(9):783-9.
- 53. McPherson K, Steel CM, Dixon JM (2000). ABC of breast diseases. Breast cancer-epidemiology, risk factors, and genetics. *BMJ*, 321(7261):624-8.
- 54. Rossouw JE, Anderson GL, Prentice RL, et al (2002). Risks and benefits of estrogen plus progestin in healthy postmenopausal women: principal results From the Women's Health Initiative randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*, 288(3):321-33.
- 55. Surakasula A, Nagarjunapu GC, Raghavaiah KV (2014). A comparative study of pre- and postmenopausal breast cancer: Risk factors, presentation, characteristics and management. *J Res Pharm Pract*, 3(1):12-8.
- 56. Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer (2012). Menarche, menopause, and breast cancer risk: individual participant meta-analysis, including 118 964 women with breast cancer from 117 epidemiological studies. *Lancet Oncol*, 13(11):1141-51.
- 57. Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer (2002). Breast cancer and breastfeeding: collaborative reanalysis of individual data from 47 epidemiological studies in 30 countries, including 50302 women with breast cancer and 96973 women without the disease. *Lancet*, 360(9328):187-95.
- Nindrea RD, Aryandono T, Lazuardi L, Dwiprahasto I (2019). Family History of Breast Cancer and Breast Cancer Risk between Malays Ethnicity in Malaysia and Indonesia: A Meta-Analysis. *Iran J Public Health*, 48(2): 198– 205.
- Mehrgou A, Akouchekian M (2016). The importance of BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes mutations in breast cancer development. *Med J Islam Repub Iran*, 30:369.
- Godet I, Gilkes DM (2017). BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutations and treatment strategies for breast cancer. *Integr Cancer Sci Ther*, 4(1):10.15761/ICST.1000228.
- 61. Ripperger T, Gadzicki D, Meindl A, Schlegelberger B (2009). Breast cancer

susceptibility: current knowledge and implications for genetic counselling. *Eur J Hum Genet*, 17(6):722-31.

- Ramalhinho AC, Fonseca-Moutinho JA, Breitenfeld Granadeiro LA (2012). Positive association of polymorphisms in estrogen biosynthesis gene, CYP19A1, and metabolism, GST, in breast cancer susceptibility. DNA Cell Biol, 31(6):1100-6.
- 63. Ellisen LW, Haber DA (1998). Hereditary breast cancer. *Annu Rev Med*, 49:425-36.
- 64. Hulka BS, Moorman PG (2001). Breast cancer: hormones and other risk factors. *Maturitas*, 38(1):103-13.
- 65. Ghisari M, Long M, Røge DM, et al (2017). Polymorphism in xenobiotic and estrogen metabolizing genes, exposure to perfluorinated compounds and subsequent breast cancer risk: A nested case-control study in the Danish National Birth Cohort. *Environ Res*, 154:325-333.
- 66. Torresan C, Oliveira MM, Torrezan GT, et al (2008). Genetic polymorphisms in oestrogen metabolic pathway and breast cancer: a positive association with combined CYP/GST genotypes. *Clin Exp Med*, 8(2):65-71.
- 67. Dos Santos EVW, Alves LNR, Louro ID (2017). Steroid metabolism gene polymorphisms and their implications on breast and ovarian cancer prognosis. *Genet Mol Res*, 16(3): 10.4238/gmr16039691.
- 68. Antognelli Č, Del Buono C, Ludovini V, et al (2009). CYP17, GSTP1, PON1 and GLO1 gene polymorphisms as risk factors for breast cancer: an Italian case-control study. *BMC Cancer*, 9:115.
- 69. Key TJ, Verkasalo PK, Banks E (2001). Epidemiology of breast cancer. Lancet Oncol, 2(3):133-40.
- Preston-Martin S, Pike MC, Ross RK, et al (1990). Increased cell division as a cause of human cancer. *Cancer Res*, 50(23):7415-21.
- Miller WL, Auchus RJ (2011). The molecular biology, biochemistry, and physiology of human steroidogenesis and its disorders. *Endocr Rev*, 32(1):81-151.
- Koos RD (2011). Minireview: Putting physiology back into estrogens' mechanism of action. *Endocrinology*, 152(12):4481-8.

- 73. Liehr JG (2000). Is estradiol a genotoxic mutagenic carcinogen? *Endocr Rev*, 21(1):40-54.
- McGuire WL (1973). Estrogen receptors in human breast cancer. J Clin Invest, 52(1): 73–77.
- 75. Bulzomi P, Bolli A, Galluzzo P, et al (2010). Naringenin and 17beta-estradiol coadministration prevents hormone-induced human cancer cell growth. *IUBMB Life*, 62(1):51-60.
- 76. Sreeja S, Kumar TRS, Lakshmi BS, Sreeja S (2012). Pomegranate extract demonstrate a selective estrogen receptor modulator profile in human tumor cell lines and in vivo models of estrogen deprivation. J Nutr Biochem, 23(7):725-32.
- 77. Henderson BE, Ross RK, Judd HL, et al (1985). Do regular ovulatory cycles increase breast cancer risk? *Cancer*, 56(5):1206-8.
- La Vecchia C, Decarli A, di Pietro S, et al (1985). Menstrual cycle patterns and the risk of breast disease. *Eur J Cancer Clin Oncol*, 21(4):417-22.
- 79. Lerner-Geva L, Geva E, Lessing JB, et al (2003). The possible association between in vitro fertilization treatments and cancer development. *Int J Gynecol Cancer*, 13(1):23-7.
- Hughes E, Brown J, Collins JJ, Vanderkerchove P (2010). Clomiphene citrate for unexplained subfertility in women. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2010(1):CD000057.
- Hughes E, Collins J, Vandekerckhove P (1996). WITHDRAWN: Clomiphene citrate for ovulation induction in women with oligoamenorrhoea. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 22;(1):CD000056.
- Ghazeeri G, Kutteh WH, Bryer-Ash M, et al (2003). Effect of rosiglitazone on spontaneous and clomiphene citrate-induced ovulation in women with polycystic ovary syndrome. *Fertil Steril*, 79(3):562-6`.
- Guzick DS, Sullivan MW, Adamson GD, et al (1998). Efficacy of treatment for unexplained infertility. *Fertil Steril*, 70(2):207-13.
- Fritz MA, Holmes RT, Keenan EJ (1991). Effect of clomiphene citrate treatment on endometrial estrogen and progesterone receptor induction in women. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*, 165(1):177-85.
- Practice Committee of the American Society for Reproductive Medicine (2006). Use of clomiphene citrate in women. *Fertil Steril*, 86:S187-93.

- Kerin JF, Liu JH, Phillipou G, Yen SS (1985). Evidence for a hypothalamic site of action of clomiphene citrate in women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*, 61(2):265-8.
- 87. Homburg R (2008). Oral agents for ovulation induction--clomiphene citrate versus aromatase inhibitors. *Hum Fertil (Camb)*, 11(1):17-22.
- Homburg R (2005). Clomiphene citrate--end of an era? A mini-review. *Hum Reprod*, 20(8):2043-51.
- Orgéas CC, Sanner K, Hall P, et al (2009). Breast cancer incidence after hormonal infertility treatment in Sweden: a cohort study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*, 200(1):72.e1-7.
- Petrangelo A, Abenhaim H, Czuzoj-Shulman N, et al (2018). Ovulation-Stimulating Fertility Treatments and the Long-Term Risk of Breast Cancer: a Case-Control Study Using the Clinical Practice Research Datalink. *Journal of obstetrics and gynaecology Canada: JOGC*, 40(6):849.
- Parhar IS (2002). Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone: Molecules and Receptors. 1st edn. Elsevier Science pp. 344.
- 92. Cole L (2014). *Human Chorionic Gonadotropin* (*bCG*). 2nd edn. Elsevier, pp. 446.
- 93. Huirne JA, Lambalk CB (2001). Gonadotropinreleasing-hormone-receptor antagonists. *Lancet*, 358(9295):1793-803.
- 94. Adonakis G, Deshpande N, Yates RW, Fleming R (1998). Luteinizing hormone increases estradiol secretion but has no effect on progesterone concentrations in the late

follicular phase of in vitro fertilization cycles in women treated with gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonist and follicle-stimulating hormone. *Fertil Steril*, 69(3):450-3.

- 95. Schüler-Toprak S, Treeck O, Ortmann O (2017). Human Chorionic Gonadotropin and Breast Cancer. Int J Mol Sci, 18(7): 1587.
- Kölbl AC, Schlenk K, Behrendt N, Andergassen U (2018). The importance of hCG in human endometrial adenocarcinoma and breast cancer. *Int J Biol Markers*, 33(1):33-39.
- Fournier T, Guibourdenche J, Evain-Brion D (2015). Review: hCGs: different sources of production, different glycoforms and functions. *Placenta*, 36 Suppl 1:S60-5.
- Pond-Tor S, Rhodes RG, Dahlberg PE, et al (2002). Enhancement of radiosensitivity of the MCF-7 breast cancer cell line with human chorionic gonadotropin. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*, 72(1):45-51.
- 99. Kardana A, Taylor ME, Southall PJ, et al (1988). Urinary gonadotrophin peptide--isolation and purification, and its immunohistochemical distribution in normal and neoplastic tissues. *Br J Cancer*, 58(3):281-6.
- 100. Castro A, Buschbaum P, Nadji M, et al (1980). Immunochemical demonstration of human chorionic gonadotrophin (hCG) in tissue of breast carcinoma. *Acta Endocrinol (Copenb)*, 94(4):511-6.
- 101. Taheripanah R, Balash F, Anbiaee R, et al (2018). Breast Cancer and Ovulation Induction Treatments. *Clin Breast Cancer*, 18(5):395-399.