

Preface

Mary Beth Martin

Published online: 12 February 2013
© Springer Science+Business Media New York 2013

Over the past several decades, the global incidence rate of breast cancer has increased continuously [1–4] with the most rapid increase occurring in economically developing countries [4]. In 2008, approximately 1.3 million new cases of breast cancer were diagnosed, accounting for 23 % of all cancers [3] and making breast cancer the most commonly diagnosed cancer in women [3, 5]. Approximately, 55 % of breast cancer cases were diagnosed in developed countries and the remaining 45 % of the cases were diagnosed in developing countries [3]. Although breast cancer is the most common cancer in women worldwide, developed countries have a higher overall incidence rate and a three-fold higher age-standardized rate [4]. In Western Europe, the incidence rate is 89.7 per 100,000 women while in Eastern Africa, the incidence rate is 19.3 per 100,000 women [3]. Although the global incidence rate of breast cancer is increasing, the underlying causes of the disease are still largely unknown. During the 1980s, screening practices, access to mammography, and the use of exogenous estrogens and progestins contributed to the high incidence rates in developed countries, but these factors do not explain the increase in these countries before the 1980s or the increase in countries with low rates of screening and use of hormones [6]. It has been suggested that the increasing incidence is due to a combination of an increase in the prevalence of known risk factors and to new unidentified risk factors [2, 7]. Family history is a risk factor for developing breast cancer (8), but only 5–10 % of breast cancers are associated with the highly penetrant BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes [8]. In contrast to family history, endocrine status is a prominent risk factor for developing breast cancer. Early age at menarche [9, 10], late age at menopause [11, 12], and later age at first full-term pregnancy [13] increase the risk of developing the disease. Exposure to exogenous estrogens and progestins after menopause [14–16]

and a history of benign breast disease also increase the risk of developing breast cancer. These well established risk factors, i.e., family history, reproductive and menstrual history, and history of benign breast disease, are estimated to account for only about 40 % of breast cancer cases [17]. Childhood exposure to ionizing radiation [18–20], adult alcohol consumption [21], and obesity [7, 22, 23] also increase the risk of developing breast cancer. However, these risk factors are unlikely to account for the remaining cases of the disease [2, 7, 24] suggesting that there are still unidentified causes of breast cancer.

There are many challenges to identifying risk factors for developing breast cancer including, but not limited to, the type of exposure, e.g., environmental estrogens, carcinogens, and mutagens; the influence of genetics on the response to the exposure, a.k.a., gene-environment interactions; and the timing of the exposure. The breast is unique and complex in that it grows and develops throughout the lifetime of a female [25] providing windows of susceptibility to exposures that may increase the risk of developing the disease. Development of the breast begins in fetal life and ends following the first full term pregnancy and lactation. During gestation, the gland develops into a small, branched ductal network with stem cells located at the end of the ducts [26] as well as along the ducts [27]. These stem cells have the potential to generate progenitor cells that proliferate and differentiate into the luminal and basal cells that are necessary for elongation and branching. From birth to the onset of puberty, there is allometric growth of the gland, but with the onset of puberty, there is exponential growth and development. In response to ovarian estrogens and progesterone and pituitary growth hormone, the ducts elongate and branches develop. With each successive menstrual cycle, the gland progressively differentiates. During pregnancy, there is a further increase in the growth and development of the gland and upon lactation, the gland terminally differentiates into a milk secreting organ. Following menopause, the gland regresses due to the absence of ovarian hormones. The central role of estrogens in the growth and

M. B. Martin (✉)
Departments of Oncology, Georgetown University Medical
Center, Research Building, Suite E501, 3970 Reservoir Rd NW,
Washington, DC 20057, USA
e-mail: martinmb@georgetown.edu

development of the breast may help us define the windows of susceptibility of the gland to specific environmental exposures. For example, environmental exposures that mimic the biological effects of estrogens may increase the risk of developing breast cancer if the exposure occurs during fetal development or following menopause when the gland is sensitive to small changes in the hormone. During fetal development, exposure to environmental estrogens may reprogram gene expression or alter the stem and/or progenitor cell population predisposing the gland to tumorigenesis, whereas following menopause, exposure to exogenous estrogens may increase the proliferation and expansion of cells that have cumulative DNA damage. In contrast to environmental estrogens, environmental exposures that induce DNA damage may increase the risk of developing breast cancer if the exposure occurs during puberty or pregnancy when the gland is growing and developing. Rapidly replicating cells may not have sufficient time to repair DNA damage leaving the gland vulnerable to carcinogens and mutagens that cause DNA damage. In addition to the timing of exposure, genetics influences the vulnerability of the gland to environmental carcinogens and mutagens. The inherited ability to metabolize carcinogens and mutagens to active and inactive metabolites, to control the progression through the cell cycle, and to repair DNA damage can influence the response of the gland to environmental insults.

As breast cancer is an increasing global health problem, it is important to identify the risk factors for developing the disease. In this issue, experts review our current understanding of suspected, but controversial, risk factors taking into account gene-environment interactions and windows of susceptibility while others review emerging evidence of new potential risk factors. The goal is to provide insight into suspected and potential risk factors for developing breast cancer and provide new testable hypotheses into the underlying causes of the disease.

References

1. Richie RC, Swanson JO. Breast cancer: a review of the literature. *J Insur Med*. 2003;35:85–101.
2. Althuis MD, Dozier JM, Anderson WF, Devesa SS, Brinton LA. Global trends in breast cancer incidence and mortality 1973–1997. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2005;34:405–12.
3. Ferlay J, Shin HR, Bray F, Forman D, Mathers C, Parkin DM. Estimates of worldwide burden of cancer in 2008: GLOBOCAN 2008. *Int J Cancer*. 2010;127:2893–917.
4. Bray F, McCarron P, Parkin DM. The changing global patterns of female breast cancer incidence and mortality. *Breast Canc Res*. 2004;6:229–39.
5. Jemal A, Bray F, Center MM, Ferlay J, Ward E, Forman D. Global cancer statistics. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2011;61:69–90.
6. Ursin G, Bernstein L, Pike MC. Breast cancer. In: Doll R, Fraumeni JF, Muir CS, editors. *Cancer surveys*. Plainview: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press; 1994. p. 241–64.
7. Feigelson HS, Jonas CR, Teras LR, Thun MJ, Calle EE. Weight gain, body mass index, hormone replacement therapy, and postmenopausal breast cancer in a large prospective study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2004;13:220–4.
8. Miki Y, Swensen J, Shattuck-Eidens D, Futreal PA, Harshman K, Tavtigian S, et al. A strong candidate for the breast and ovarian cancer susceptibility gene BRCA1. *Science*. 1994;266:66–71.
9. Kampert JB, Whittemore AS, Paffenbarger Jr RS. Combined effect of child-bearing, menstrual events, and body size on age-specific breast cancer risk. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1988;128:962–79.
10. Pike MC, Henderson BE, Casagrande JT, Rosario I, Gray GE. Oral contraceptive use and early abortion as risk factors for breast cancer in young women. *Br J Cancer*. 1981;43:72.
11. Lippman ME. Endocrine responsive cancers of man. In: Williams RH, editor. *Textbook of endocrinology*. Philadelphia: W.B.Saunders; 1985. p. 1309–26.
12. Henderson BE, Ross RK, Judd HL, Krailo MD, Pike MC. Do regular ovulatory cycles increase breast cancer risk? *Cancer*. 1985;56:1206.
13. MacMahon B, Cole P, Brown J. Etiology of human breast cancer: a review. *J Natl Canc Inst*. 1973;50:21.
14. Hoover R, Gray Sr LA, Cole P, MacMahon B. Menopausal estrogens and breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 1976;295:401–5.
15. Hankinson SE, Willett WC, Manson JE, Colditz GA, Hunter DJ, Spiegelman D, et al. Plasma sex steroid hormone levels and risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *J Natl Canc Inst*. 1998;90:1292–9.
16. Toniolo PG, Levitz M, Zeleniuch-Jacquotte A, Banerjee S, Koenig KL, Shore RE, et al. A prospective study of endogenous estrogens and breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *J Natl Canc Inst*. 1995;87:190–7.
17. Madigan MP, Ziegler RG, Benichou J, Byrne C, Hoover RN. Proportion of breast cancer cases in the United States explained by well-established risk factors. *J Natl Canc Inst*. 1995;87:1681–5.
18. Boice Jr JD, Miller RW. Childhood and adult cancer after intrauterine exposure to ionizing radiation. *Teratology*. 1999;59:227–33.
19. Land CE. Studies of cancer and radiation dose among atomic bomb survivors. The example of breast cancer. *JAMA*. 1995;274:402–7.
20. Tokunaga M, Land CE, Yamamoto T, Asano M, Tokuoka S, Ezaki H, et al. Incidence of female breast cancer among atomic bomb survivors, Hiroshima and Nagasaki, 1950–1980. *Radiat Res*. 1987;112:243–72.
21. Dorgan JF, Baer DJ, Albert PS, Judd JT, Brown ED, Corle DK, et al. Serum hormones and the alcohol-breast cancer association in postmenopausal women. *J Natl Canc Inst*. 2001;93:710–5.
22. Yong LC, Brown CC, Schatzkin A, Schairer C. Prospective study of relative weight and risk of breast cancer: the Breast Cancer Detection Demonstration Project follow-up study, 1979 to 1987–1989. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1996;143:985–95.
23. International Agency for Research on Cancer. *Weight control and physical activity*. Lyon: IARC Press; 2002.
24. Feuer EJ, Wun LM, Boring CC, Flanders WD, Timmel MJ, Tong T. The lifetime risk of developing breast cancer. *J Natl Canc Inst*. 1993;85:892–7.
25. Russo IH, Russo J. Mammary gland neoplasia in long-term rodent studies. *Environ Health Perspect*. 1996;104:938–67.
26. Daniel CW, Silberstein GB. Postnatal development of the rodent mammary gland. In: Neville MC, Daniel CW, editors. *The mammary gland*. New York: Plenum Press; 1987. p. 3–36.
27. Kenney NJ, Smith GH, Lawrence E, Barrett JC, Salomon DS. Identification of stem cell units in the terminal end bud and duct of the mouse mammary gland. *J Biomed Biotechnol*. 2001;1:133–43.