

*Original Article*

**RISK FACTORS OF OVARIAN CANCER AMONG THE POSTMENOPAUSAL WOMEN**

*Mosfika Rahman<sup>1</sup>, Parveen Shahida Akhtar<sup>2</sup>, Nazrina Khatun<sup>3</sup>, Md Mahmudul Hasan<sup>4</sup>, ANM Shamsul Islam<sup>5</sup>, Fatima Sarker<sup>6</sup>, Narita Khurshid<sup>7</sup>, Tanzina Hossain<sup>8</sup>, Md Nahid Hossen<sup>9</sup>, Mahfuza Rahman<sup>10</sup>*

**ABSTRACT**

**Background:** Ovarian cancer ranks 5<sup>th</sup> in cancer deaths among women. A woman's risk of getting ovarian cancer during her lifetime is about 1 in 75. Cancer mainly develops in older women.

**Methods:** The case control study was carried out among 154 respondents in medical oncology department, NIRCH, Dhaka from July 2016 to June 2017. Among the participants, 77 were cases who had ovarian cancer and another 77 were controls who had no ovarian cancer. Convenient sampling technique was used and data were collected by face-to-face interview using a pretested semi-structured questionnaire. Data were entered on to the template of SPSS and analysis was done.

**Results:** The mean age of case and control group were 60.06±7.00 and 59.89±6.96 years respectively. Highest number of respondents were illiterate. Majority came from rural area and had no personal monthly income. Most of them were taken high fiber diet, 83.1% in case and 77.9% in control group. About 80.5% in case and 66.2% in control group had BMI ≥25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>. Sedentary workers 40.3% in case and 13.0% in control group; moderate workers were 31.2% in case and 20.8% in control group and hard workers were 28.5% and 66.2% in case and control group respectively. The mean age of menarche 12.02±1.19 years and 12.87±1.30 years in case and control group respectively and mean age of menopause in case and in control groups respectively 51.54±2.39 and 49.61±1.29 years. In case group 49.3% had early term pregnancy whereas in control group 9.5% had early term pregnancy; in case group 82.1% and in control group 86.5% had breast feeding history. Around 16.9% in case group and 27.3% in control group used to take OCP. Significantly more respondents 6.5% in case group had personal H/O breast cancer than control group. Positive family history of breast and ovarian cancer was found 16.9% in case group and 2.6% in control group. In binary logistic regression analysis for risk factors of OC was found that sedentary activity was associated with increased risk, increased BMI (≥25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), early age of menarche (≤12 years), late age of menopause (>51 years), nullipara and early term pregnancy. Family H/O breast or ovarian cancer significantly associated with development of ovarian cancer.

**Conclusion:** Ovarian cancer observed more in older age group (≥60 years) among sedentary worker with high body mass index (≥25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>). Early age of menarche (≤12 years), late menopause (>50 years), never having given birth to a child in life time, early term of pregnancy and family history of breast and ovarian cancer were significantly associated with ovarian cancer among post-menopausal women.

**Key Words:** Ovarian Cancer (OC), post-menopausal women, risk factors.

**JOPSOM 2022; 41(2): 28-35**

<https://doi.org/10.3329/jopsom.v41i2.69544>

- 1.
2. Assistant Registrar, Department of Medical Oncology, National Institute of Cancer Research and Hospital, Dhaka
3. Former Professor & Head, Department of Medical Oncology, National Institute of Cancer Research and Hospital, Dhaka
4. Professor (CC) & Head, Department of Medical Oncology, National Institute of Cancer Research and Hospital, Dhaka
5. Consultant – Pediatrics, Sher-E-Bangla Medical College & Hospital, Barisal
6. Associate Professor & Head, Department of Public Health & Hospital Administration, NIPSOM, Dhaka
7. Department of Medical Oncology, Combined Military Hospital, Dhaka
8. Registrar, Department of Medical Oncology, Evercare Hospital, Dhaka
9. Registrar, Department of Medical Oncology, Delta Hospital, Dhaka
10. Registrar, Department of Medical Oncology, National Institute of Cancer Research and Hospital, Dhaka
11. Mahfuza Rahman, OSD, DGHS, Dhaka

**Correspondence:** Mosfika Rahman; email:mosfika36@gmail.com

## INTRODUCTION

Cancer is the rapid creation of abnormal cells which grows beyond their usual boundaries and which can invade adjoining parts of the body and spread to other organs, the process is called metastasis. Metastases are the major cause of death from cancer. Cancer intrudes one and all in the rich and poor, the men, women and children, the young and old and represents a huge burden on patients' families and societies. Cancer is one of the top causes of death in the world, particularly in developing countries. Ovarian cancer (OC) remains primarily a cancer in women account for an estimated 239,000 new cases and 152,000 deaths worldwide annually [1]. OC is the 10<sup>th</sup> most common cancer and the 5<sup>th</sup> leading causes of cancer death. OC causes more deaths than any other cancer in female reproductive system but it accounts of 3% of all cancers in women [2]. Nearly, all benign and malignant ovarian tumors originate from one of three cell types: epithelial cells, stromal cells, and germ cells. In developed countries, more than 90% of malignant ovarian tumors are epithelial in origin [3].

Risk factors are anything that changes the chance of getting a disease like cancer. A woman's risk of getting OC during her life time is about 1 in 75. Her life time chance of dying from OC is about 1 in 100 [6]. The risk of developing OC gets higher with increasing age and most ovarian cancer developed after menopause. Half of all OCs are found in women 63 years of age or older. One of the most significant risk factors for OC is a family history of disease [7]. First-degree relatives of probands have a 3-7-fold increased risk, especially if multiple relatives are affected, and at an early age of onset [8]. Another risk factor, pregnancy causes anovulation and suppresses secretion of pituitary gonadotropins and is thus consistent with both the 'incessant ovulation' and the 'gonadotropin' hypotheses. Indeed, parous women have a 30-60% lower risk than nulliparous women [9,10] and each additional full-term pregnancy lowers risk by approximately 15% [11]. Lactation suppresses secretion of pituitary gonadotropins and leads to anovulation, particularly in the initial months after delivery [12] and reduces the risk of OC. Several gynecologic conditions have been examined as risk factors for OC, including PCOS, endometriosis, and pelvic inflammatory disease (PID) [13]. It is well established that among high-risk women bilateral prophylactic oophorectomy decreases risk by at least 90% [14].

Use of oral contraceptive is inversely associated with the risk factor of OC. The protective effect increases with longer duration of use [15,13]. Post-menopausal HRT may enhance estrogen induced proliferation of ovarian cells and therefore increase risk [16]. Elevated BMI appear to increase risk of OC. Physical activity and exercise estimated a nearly 20% lower risk for the most active women compared with the least active [17]. Smoking, alcohol consumption, exposure to the asbestos and talcum powder increase the risk of OC where as several studies have observed an inverse association between aspirin and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and OC incidence [18-19].

Bangladesh is a low-income country with Gross National Income (GNI) is less than US \$2020 per capital (World Bank 2018). Approximately 40% of the population is unemployed, 60% of women are illiterate [20]. Cancer is predicted to be increasingly important cause of morbidity and mortality in few decades. The estimated incidence of 12.7 million new cases will rises to 21.4 million by 2030. In a survey of 117 cancer patients in Dhaka, 81% had ovarian cancer. The annual mortality rate per 100,000 people from ovarian cancer in Bangladesh has increased by 40.3% since 1990, an average of 1.8% a year [21]. OC is a killer of women in high-income countries also. For instance, in 2015 in the United States, a 66% death rate is predicted with an estimated 21,290 new cases of OC and an anticipated 14,080 deaths [22]. Conversely, in low-income countries, breast and cervical cancer are the leading causes of cancer-related deaths of women [1]. The aim of the study was to find the risk factors for ovarian cancer among the postmenopausal women in Bangladesh perspective so that effective preventive measures can be undertaken.

## METHODS

The case-control study was carried out in NIRCH, Mohakhali, Dhaka, Bangladesh from July 2016 to June 2017 to find out the risk factors of OC among the postmenopausal women. A total 154 respondents, out of them 77 patients were included as case and another 77 healthy persons were

## Risk factors of ovarian cancer

included as controls were selected conveniently as sample in the study. Cases were the postmenopausal female patients with histologically confirmed ovarian cancer attending department of medical oncology, NICRH, Dhaka. Controls were the postmenopausal healthy female attendants of concerned patients or other patients without OC present during the time of data collection. Relevant data were collected by face-to-face interview using pre tested semi-structured questionnaire. Before starting data collection, institutional permission from concerned authority of NICRH was taken. A written informed consent was taken from each of the respondents, in maintaining full autonomy of the participants. After collection, data were checked, verified, coded and edited. Data processing and analysis were done using SPSS.

## RESULTS

The study showed the mean age of case and control group were 60.06( $\pm$ 7.00) and 59.89( $\pm$ 6.96) years respectively. The highest number of the respondents were illiterate. Majority came from rural area and had no personal monthly income. No significant difference ( $p > 0.05$ ) was found between two groups (Table-1).

**Table-1: Distribution of respondents by Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents**

Characteristics	Case (n-77)		Control (n-77)		P value
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
Age group in years	n	%	n	%	
50-59	31	40.3		42.9	
60-69	41	53.2	37	48.0	
$\geq 70$	5	6.5	7	9.1	
<b>Mean <math>\pm</math> SD</b>	<b>60.06<math>\pm</math>7.00 years</b>		<b>59.89<math>\pm</math>6.96 years</b>		<b>0.88</b>
<b>Education</b>					
Illiterate	66	85.7	59	76.6	
Primary	7	9.1	13	16.9	0.495
Secondary	2	2.6	3	3.9	
> Secondary	2	2.6	2	2.6	
<b>Resident</b>					
Rural	61	79.2	67	87.0	
Urban	16	20.8	10	13.0	
<b>Income – Monthly in Taka</b>					
No income	51	66.2	59	76.6	
5000-10000	22	28.6	12	15.6	0.140
>10000	4	5.2	6	7.8	
5000-10000	10	13.0	19	24.7	
10001-15000	48	62.3	37	48.1	0.115
>15000	19	24.7	21	27.3	

The study showed that the difference was not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) between two groups in dietary habit. It was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) between two groups in BMI. The difference was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) between two groups on basis of physical activity (Table-2).

**Table-2: Distribution of respondents by dietary habit, body mass index and physical activity**

Characteristics	Case (n-77)		Control (n-77)		X <sup>2</sup>	P value
	n	%	n	%		
<b>Dietary habit</b>						
High fiber diet	64	83.1	60	77.9	0.662	0.415 <sup>ns</sup>
Low fiber diet	13	16.9	17	22.1		

<b>Body Mass Index (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>						
<25	15	19.5	26	33.8	4.022	<b>0.044<sup>s</sup></b>
≥25	62	80.5	51	66.2		
<b>Physical activity</b>						
Sedentary	31	40.3	10	13.0	7.166	<b>0.001<sup>s</sup></b>
Moderate	24	31.2	16	20.8		
Hard worker	22	28.5	51	66.2		

The mean age of menarche between two groups was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). Mean age of menopause in case and in control groups respectively  $51.54 \pm 2.39$  and  $49.61 \pm 1.29$  years. The difference was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) between two groups (Table-3).

**Table-3: Distribution of respondents by age of menarche and menopause (n=154, Case-77 & Control-77)**

Characteristics	Case (n-77)		Control (n-77)		X <sup>2</sup>	P value
	n	%	n	%		
<b>Age of menarche</b>						
10-12	48	62.3	32	41.6	10.81	0.001 <sup>s</sup>
13-15	29	37.7	45	58.4		
<b>Mean (±SD)</b>	<b>12.02±1.19 years</b>		<b>12.87±1.30 years</b>			
<b>Age of menopause</b>						
45-50	33	42.9	59	76.6	38.75	0.001 <sup>s</sup>
51-55	44	57.1	18	23.4		
<b>Mean (±SD)</b>	<b>51.54±2.39 years</b>		<b>49.61±1.29 years</b>			

The difference between two groups was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) on basis of gestational age. The difference was not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) between two groups in breast feeding (Table-4).

**Table 4: Distribution of respondents by gestational age, breast feeding history of child**

Characteristics	Case (n-67)		Control (n-74)		X <sup>2</sup>	P value
	n	%	n	%		
<b>Gestational age</b>						
Early term	33	49.3	7	9.5	27.402	0.001 <sup>s</sup>
Full term	34	50.7	67	90.5		
<b>Breast feeding history</b>						
Yes	55	82.1	64	86.5	0.516	0.472 <sup>ns</sup>
No	12	17.9	10	13.5		

The difference was not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) between two groups of taking OCP. No significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) difference was noted regarding post-menopausal HRT between two groups. Significantly more respondents 6.5% in case group had personal H/O breast cancer than control group (0.0%). Significant difference was noted regarding positive family history of breast and ovarian cancer in these two groups (Table-5).

**Table-5: Distribution of respondents by use of OCP, personal and family history of breast and ovarian cancer**

Characteristics	Case (n-77)		Control (n-77)		X <sup>2</sup>	P value
	n	%	n	%		
<b>Use of OCP</b>						
Yes	13	16.9	21	27.3	2.416	0.120 <sup>ns</sup>
No	64	83.1	56	72.7		
<b>Personal history</b>						
<b>H/O post-menopausal HRT</b>						

### Risk factors of ovarian cancer

Yes	3	3.9	0	0.0	3.060	0.080 <sup>ns</sup>
No	74	96.1	77	100		
<b>Personal H/O breast cancer</b>						
Yes	5	6.5	0	0.0	5.168	0.023 <sup>s</sup>
No	72	93.5	77	100		
<b>Family history of breast and ovarian cancer</b>						
Positive	13	16.9	2	2.6	8.937	0.002 <sup>s</sup>
Negative	64	83.1	75	97.4		
<b>Relation with the respondents if family history positive</b>						
Mother	11	84.6	2	100.0		
Sister	2	15.4	0	0.0		

Sedentary activity was associated with increased risk of ovarian cancer. This was also true for increased BMI ( $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>), early age of menarche ( $\leq 12$  years), late age of menopause ( $> 51$  years), nulli para and early term pregnancy. Family H/O breast or ovarian cancer also significantly associated with development of ovarian cancer (Table-6).

**Table-6: Binary logistic regression analysis of risk for ovarian cancer**

Risk factors of ovarian cancer	Odds ratio (OR)	95% CI		P value
		Lower	Upper	
Dietary habit (Low fiber diet)	1.436	0.526	3.917	0.480 <sup>ns</sup>
Sedentary worker	1.507	2.018	10.105	0.001 <sup>s</sup>
High body mass index ( $\geq 25$ kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	2.107	1.010	4.397	0.047 <sup>s</sup>
Early age of menarche ( $\leq 12$ years)	2.328	1.219	4.443	0.010 <sup>s</sup>
Late age of menopause ( $> 51$ years)	2.497	1.205	5.174	0.014 <sup>s</sup>
Nullipara	1.303	1.009	13.946	0.048 <sup>s</sup>
Early term pregnancy	9.290	3.724	23.173	0.001 <sup>s</sup>
No child breast feeding	1.342	0.489	3.684	0.568 <sup>ns</sup>
Non user of OCP	2.001	0.751	5.329	0.165 <sup>ns</sup>
History of tubal ligation	0.563	0.237	1.337	0.193 <sup>ns</sup>
History of hysterectomy	0.617	0.236	1.615	0.326 <sup>ns</sup>
Family H/O breast or ovarian cancer	7.516	1.634	34.564	0.010 <sup>s</sup>

### DISCUSSION

The mean age of case was 60.06 $\pm$ 7.00 years and control were 59.89 $\pm$ 6.96) years. A study conducted in 2016 observed that mean age of the case was 48.31 $\pm$ 2.28) years and control was 48.03 $\pm$ 2.38) years. There was no age difference between the cases and the controls (t=0.84, p=0.934) reflecting a successful age frequency matching [23]. In present study, majority respondents were illiterate in both groups, which was 85.7% in case group and 76.6% in control group.

In the study, in both groups' majority respondents taken high fiber diet, 83.1% in case and 77.9% in control group. In similar study by Shanmughapriya *et. al.*, in 2016 vegetarians were found 2.7% in case group and 14.9% in control group. No vegetarians were 97.3% in case and 85.1% in control group [23]. In current study, sedentary worker was found 40.3% in case and 13.0% in control group. Moderate worker was 31.2% in case and 20.8% in control group. Hard worker was 28.5% and 66.2% in case and control group respectively. Similar results were observed in the Iowa women's health study with highest category of physical activity had a two-fold increase in risk [25]. Recent studies conducted to understand the moderate to vigorous physical activity and leisure time sitting in relation to ovarian cancer risk, revealed no association between physical activity and ovarian cancer, whereas prolonged sitting was associated with higher risk [26-27].

Majority respondents had BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> in both groups, which was 80.5% in case and 66.2% in control group. In another study showed that body mass index  $< 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> was found 39.0% in case and 37.0% in control group. BMI 25-29.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup> was 29.0% and 33.0% in case and control group respectively. BMI  $\geq 30$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> was 32.0% in case and 29.0% in control group [24]. Regarding age of

menarche, mean age of menarche  $12.02 \pm 1.19$  years and  $12.87 \pm 1.30$  years in case and control group respectively. Study conducted by Shanmughapriya *et. al.*, in 2016 reported that age of menarche  $\leq 12$  years was found 43.2% in case and 5.4% in control group. Age of menarche 13-15 years was 45.9% in case and 62.2% in control group. Age of menarche 15-17 years was 10.8% and 29.7% in case and control group respectively. The difference was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the groups<sup>23</sup>. Similar observation was found in another study, they showed that the majority patients age of 12-13 years in both groups, 53.0% in case group and 56.0% in control group [24]. In the study, mean age of menopause in case and in control groups respectively  $51.54 \pm 2.39$  and  $49.61 \pm 1.29$ . Similar study was done in 2016 showed the age of menopause 45-50 was found 30.4% in case and 69.6% in control group. Age of menopause 51-55 was 69.6% and 30.4% in case and control group respectively [23]. Another study that the majority patients age of menopause were 50-54 years in both groups, 45.0% in case group and 43.0% in control group [24].

Nullipara was found 13.0% in case and 3.9% in control group. Primipara was 18.2% and 5.2% in case and control group respectively. Multipara was 68.8% in case and 90.9% in control group. Shanmughapriya *et. al.*, (2016) study found that nullipara was found 9.1% in case group and 2.9% in control group [23]. Parity 1-2 was 15.2% in case and 42.9% in control group. The difference was not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) between two groups. In both groups majority of the respondents had first child birth during 21-25 years, which was 49.3% in case and 55.4% in control group. Case-control studies with hospital controls have reported elevated risk with late age at first birth ( $> 30$  years of age) [28-29]. Use of oral contraceptive pill (OCP) was found 16.9% in case and 27.3% in control. Shanmughapriya *et. al.*, (2016) observed that use of contraceptive was found 12.1% in case group and 17.1% in control group [23]. The difference was not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) between the groups. Moorman *et al.* (2008) study showed that the use of OCP was found 60.0% in case and 61.0% in control group [24]. The difference was not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) between two groups. In present study, post-menopausal HRT was found 3.9% in case group and personal history of breast cancer was found 6.5% in case group. Personal history of breast cancer was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) between two groups. HRT reduces the secretion of gonadotropins and should therefore decrease risk, but the reduced levels are still higher than pre-menopausal women [30]. Conversely, postmenopausal HRT may enhance estrogen-induced proliferation of ovarian cells and therefore increase risk. In current study, positive family history of breast and ovarian cancer was found 16.9% in case and 2.6% in control group. Moorman *et al.* (2008) study revealed that family history of breast or ovarian cancer was found 15.0% in case and 10.0% in control group [24].

In binary logistic regression analysis, sedentary activity ( $p = 0.001$ ), high ( $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) body mass index ( $p = 0.047$ ), early age ( $\leq 12$  years) of menarche ( $p = 0.010$ ), late age ( $> 51$  years) of menopause ( $p = 0.014$ ), nulli para ( $p = 0.048$ ), early term pregnancy ( $p = 0.001$ ) and family history breast or ovarian cancer ( $p = 0.010$ ) were significantly associated with the development of ovarian cancer. A meta-analysis estimated a nearly 20% lower risk for the most active women compared to the least active (pooled relative risk=0.81, 95% CI: 0.72–0.92) [17]. A meta-analysis of 28 population studies reported an increased risk of OC for overweight women (BMI of 25–29.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) and obese women (BMI  $\geq 30$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) compared with normal weight (BMI of 18.5–24.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), pooled RR=1.2 and 1.3, respectively [31]. Although a meta-analysis yielded an overall inverse association with age at menarche (RR=0.85, 95% CI: 0.75–0.97) [32]. Data on age at natural menopause and OC risk are also inconsistent. Case-control studies have reported odds ratios ranging from 1.4 to 4.6 in the highest category of age at menopause [33,34]. Indeed, parous women have a 30%-60% lower risk than nulliparous women [9,35] and each additional full-term pregnancy lowers risk by approximately 15% [28-29]. Studies in African American (Moorman *et al.* 2016) and Asian (Gay *et al.* 2015) populations have yielded similar results [24,36]. A recent meta-analysis indicates a significant protective effect (summary RR=0.68, 95% CI: 0.61–0.76) for breastfeeding that increased with longer duration (summary RR=0.85, 0.73, and 0.64 for  $< 6$  months, 6–12 months, and  $> 12$  months of total breastfeeding duration [37].

## CONCLUSION

Ovarian cancer observed more in older age group ( $\geq 60$  years) among sedentary worker with high body mass index ( $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>). Early age of menarche ( $\leq 12$  years), late menopause ( $> 50$  years), never having given birth to a child in life time, early term of pregnancy and family history of breast and ovarian cancer were significantly associated with ovarian cancer. For identification of risk factors and

to enhance prevention, knowledge and awareness on risk factors regarding ovarian cancer must be raised at the community level.

## REFERENCES

1. 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 Dec; 127(12): 2893-2917. doi:10.1002/ijc.25516.
2. CDC 2017, Gynecologic Cancer Ovarian cancer statistic.
3. Sankaranarayanan R & Ferlay J. Worldwide burden of gynecological cancer: the size of the problem. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol*. 2006 April; 20(2): 207–25. doi:10.1016/j.bpobgyn.2005.10.007.
4. McCluggage WG. Morphological subtypes of ovarian carcinoma: a review with emphasis on new developments and pathogenesis. *Pathology*. 2011 Aug; 43(5): 420–32. doi:10.1097/PAT.0b013e328348a6e7.
5. Prat J. Ovarian carcinomas: five distinct diseases with different origins, genetic alterations, and clinicopathological features. *Virchows Archiv*. 2012; 460, 237–49.
6. American cancer society review 2017. Key statistics for ovarian cancer.
7. Negri E, Pelucchi C, Franceschi S, Montella M, Conti E, Dal Maso L, Parazzini F, Tavani A, Carbone A & La Vecchia C. Family history of cancer and risk of ovarian cancer. *Eur J Cancer*. 2003 March; 39(4): 505–10. doi: 10.1016/s0959-8049(02)00743-8
8. Lynch HT, Casey MJ, Snyder CL, Bewtra C, Lynch JF, Butts M & Godwin AK. Hereditary ovarian carcinoma: Heterogeneity, molecular genetics, pathology, and management. *Mol Oncol*. 2009 Apr; 3(2): 97–137. doi: 10.1016/j.molonc.2009.02.004
9. La Vecchia C. Epidemiology of ovarian cancer: a summary review. *Eur J Cancer Prev*. 2001 Apr; 10(2): 125–9. doi: 10.1097/00008469-200104000-00002.
10. Hartge P, Schiffman MH, Hoover R, McGowan L, Leshner L & Norris HJ. A case-control study of epithelial ovarian cancer. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1989; 161(1): 10–6. doi: 10.1016/0002-9378(89)90221-4.
11. Adami HO, Hsieh CC, Lambe M, Leon D, Persson I, Ekblom A & Janson PO. Parity, age at first childbirth, and risk of ovarian cancer. *Lancet*. 1994; 344(8932): 1250–4. doi: 10.1016/s0140-6736(94)90749-8.
12. Schottenfeld D & Fraumeni JF 1996. *Cancer Epidemiology and Prevention*. New York: Oxford University Press
13. Schildkraut JM, Schwingl PJ, Bastos E, Evanoff A & Hughes C. Epithelial ovarian cancer risk among women with polycystic ovary syndrome. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1996 Oct; 88(4 Pt 1): 554–9. doi: 10.1016/0029-7844(96)00226-8.
14. Domchek SM & Rebbeck TR. Prophylactic oophorectomy in women at increased cancer risk. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol*. 2007 Feb; 19(1): 27–30. doi: 10.1097/GCO.0b013e32801195da.
15. Risch HA, Marrett LD & Howe GR. Parity, contraception, infertility, and the risk of epithelial ovarian cancer. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1994 Oct; 140(7): 585–97. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a117296.
16. Ferris JS, Daly MB, Buys SS, Genkinger JM, Liao Y & Terry MB. Oral contraceptive and reproductive risk factors for ovarian cancer within sisters in the breast cancer family registry. 2014 Feb; 110(4): 1074–80. doi: 10.1038/bjc.2013.803.
17. Olsen CM, Bain CJ, Jordan SJ, Nagle CM, Green AC & Whiteman DC. Recreational physical activity and epithelial ovarian cancer: a case-control study, systematic review, and meta-analysis. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2007 Nov; 16(11): 2321–30. doi: 10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-07-0566.
18. Baandrup L, Kjaer SK, Olsen JH, Dehlendorff C & Friis S. Low-dose aspirin use and the risk of ovarian cancer in Denmark. *Ann Oncol*. 2015 Apr; 26(4): 787–92. doi: 10.1093/annonc/mdu578.
19. Peres LC, Camacho F, Abbott SE, Alberg AJ, Bandera EV & Barnholtz-Sloan J. Analgesic medication use and risk of epithelial ovarian cancer in African American women. *Br J Cancer*. 2016 Mar; 114(7): 819–25. doi: 10.1038/bjc.2016.39
20. CIA 2016. *The world fact book*. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/bg.html> accessed on June, 2016.
21. Hoque E, Karim S, Siddiqui MR & Ahmed T. Report on Three Cases of Advance Ovarian Cancer

Upon Bangladeshi Population: Successful Management with Bevacizumab Based Chemotherapy. Anwer Khan Modern Medical College Journal. 2017 Aug; 8(2): 157-61. <https://doi.org/10.3329/akmmcj.v8i2.33675>

22. Siegel RL, Miller KD & Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2015. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2015 Jan-Feb; 65(1): 5-29. doi: 10.3322/caac.21254.
23. Shanmughapriya S, Senthilkumar G, Arun S, Das BC & Natarajaseenivasan K. Risk Factors for Epithelial Ovarian Carcinoma in India: A Case Control Study in Low-Incidence Population. *International Journal of Cancer Research.* 2016; 12(1): 61-8. doi: 10.3923/ijcr.2016.61.68.
24. Moorman PG, Calingaert B, Palmieri RT, Iversen ES, Bentley RC, Halabi S, Berchuck A & Schildkraut JM. Hormonal risk factors for ovarian cancer in premenopausal and postmenopausal women. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2008 May; 167(9): 1059-69. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwn006.
25. Bain C, Purdie D, Green A, Siskind V, Harvey P & Ambosini G. Exercise may protect against ovarian cancer. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1996; 143: S72.
26. Hildebrand JS, Gapstur SM, Gaudet MM, Campbell PT & Patel AV. Moderate-to-vigorous physical activity and leisure-time sitting in relation to ovarian cancer risk in a large prospective US cohort. *Cancer Causes Control.* 2015 Nov; 26(11): 1691-7. doi: 10.1007/s10552-015-0656-7
27. Huang T, Eliassen AH, Hankinson SE, Okereke OI, Kubzansky LD, Wang M. A prospective study of leisure-time physical activity and risk of incident epithelial ovarian cancer: Impact by menopausal status. *Int J Cancer.* 2016 Feb; 138(4): 843-52. doi: 10.1002/ijc.29834.
28. Tavani A, Negri E, Franceschi S, Parazzini F & La Vecchia C. Risk factors for epithelial ovarian cancer in women under age 45. *Eur J Cancer.* 1993; 29A(9): 1297-301. doi: 10.1016/0959-8049(93)90077-s.
29. Whittemore AS, Harris R & Itnyre J. Characteristics relating to ovarian cancer risk: collaborative analysis of 12 US case-control studies. II. Invasive epithelial ovarian cancers in white women. Collaborative Ovarian Cancer Group. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1992 Nov; 136(10): 1184-203. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a116427.
30. Mathur RS, Landgrebe SC, Moody LO, Semmens JP & Williamson HO. The effect of estrogen treatment on plasma concentrations of steroid hormones, gonadotropins, prolactin and sex hormone-binding globulin in post-menopausal women. *Maturitas.* 1985 Jul; 7(2): 129-33. doi: 10.1016/0378-5122(85)90018-0.
31. Olsen CM, Green AC, Whiteman DC, Sadeghi S, Kolahdooz F & Webb PM. Obesity and the risk of epithelial ovarian cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Cancer.* 2007 Mar; 43(4): 690-709. doi: 10.1016/j.ejca.2006.11.010.
32. Gong TT, Wu QJ, Vogtman E, Lin B & Wang YL. Age at menarche and risk of ovarian cancer: A meta-analysis of epidemiological studies. *Int J Cancer.* 2013 Jan; 132(12): 2894-900. doi:10.1002/ijc.27952
33. Wu ML, Whittemore AS, Paffenbarger RS, Sarles DL, Kampert JB & Grosser S. Personal and environmental characteristics related to epithelial ovarian cancer. I. Reproductive and menstrual events and oral contraceptive use. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1988 Dec; 128(6): 1216-27. doi:10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a115076
34. Polychronopoulou A, Tzonou A, Hsieh CC, Kaprinis G, Rebelakos A, Toupadaki N & Trichopoulos D. Reproductive variables, tobacco, ethanol, coffee and somatometry as risk factors for ovarian cancer. *Int J Cancer.* 1993 Sep; 55(3): 402-7. doi: 10.1002/ijc.2910550312.
35. Cramer DW, Hutchison GB, Welch WR, Scully RE & Ryan KJ. Determinants of ovarian cancer risk. I. Reproductive experiences and family history. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 1983 Oct; 71(4): 711-6.
36. Gay GMW, Lim JSP, Chay WY, Chow KY, Tan MH & Lim WY. Reproductive factors, adiposity, breastfeeding and their associations with ovarian cancer in an Asian cohort. *Cancer Causes Control.* 2015 Nov; 26(11): 1561-73. doi: 10.1007/s10552-015-0649-6.
37. Li DP, Du C, Zhang ZM, Li GX, Yu ZF & Wang X. Breastfeeding and ovarian cancer risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis of 40 epidemiological studies. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev.* 2014; 15(12): 4829-37. doi: 10.7314/apjcp.2014.15.12.4829.