

TNBC vs Non-TNBC: A Retrospective Review of Differences in Mean Age, Family History, Smoking History, and Stage at Diagnosis

Khurram Tariq, MD, Arezo Farhangi, MD, and Fauzia Rana, MD

The authors are affiliated with the Division of Hematology and Medical Oncology at the University of Florida College of Medicine in Jacksonville, Florida. Dr Tariq is a second-year resident physician in internal medicine, Dr Farhangi assisted with the writing of the manuscript and with statistical analysis, and Dr Rana is chief of the Division of Hematology and Medical Oncology and associate program director of the Medical Oncology Fellowship, as well as an associate professor.

Address correspondence to:
Khurram Bilal Tariq, MD
University of Florida
Department of Internal Medicine
653 West 8th Street, Box L 18
Jacksonville, FL 32209
Phone: 904-244-3093
E-mail: Khurram.Tariq@jax.ufl.edu

Abstract: *Purpose:* This study was designed to compare mean age, ethnicity, smoking history, family history of breast cancer, and stage at diagnosis in patients with triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) vs non-TNBC at an inner city university program. *Methods:* We reviewed data in our tumor registry on patients seen between January 2000 and December 2005, and identified a total of 445 patients with various subtypes of breast cancers. Of these, 342 patients met our study criteria. Thirty-nine patients had TNBC and 303 had non-TNBC. *Results:* The mean age at diagnosis was 59.87 ± 15.67 years for TNBC and 60.09 ± 13.98 years for non-TNBC ($P = .9272$). TNBC was more common in black than in white patients (58.97% vs 35.90%; OR, 2.755; $P = .004$), and non-TNBC was more common in white than in black patients (57.76% vs 39.27%). There was not a statistically significant difference in past or present smoking between the TNBC and non-TNBC patients (20.51% vs 27.72%; $P = .4385$). Family history of breast cancer was not statistically related to TNBC status: a positive family history was reported in 30.77% of TNBC patients vs 33.33% of non-TNBC patients ($P = .8384$), no family history was reported in 51.28% of TNBC patients vs 51.82% of non-TNBC patients, and family history was unknown in 17.95% of TNBC patients vs 14.85% of non-TNBC patients. Pathologic stage at the time of diagnosis was as follows for TNBC vs non-TNBC patients: stage 0, 15.79% vs 11.37% ($P = .4332$); stage I, 34.21% vs 30.98% ($P = .6890$); stage II, 28.98% vs 37.25% ($P = .3205$); stage III, 18.42% vs 17.25% ($P = .8591$); and stage IV, 3.63% vs 3.14% ($P = .8651$). *Conclusion:* We found that in our patient population, black women were significantly more likely to have TNBC than non-TNBC, and white women were more likely to have non-TNBC than TNBC.

Introduction

Breast cancer is one of the most common forms of cancer in women, representing approximately one-quarter of the 1.1 million malignancies newly diagnosed in women per year.^{1,2} Breast cancer is also the leading cause of cancer-related deaths throughout the world,

Keywords

Family history, smoking, triple-negative breast cancer

Table. Comparison of Demographics and Clinicopathologic Characteristics in TNBC and Non-TNBC Patients

Possible Risk Factors		TNBC (n=39)	Non-TNBC (n=303)	
Mean age at diagnosis, years		59.87±15.67	60.09±13.98	<i>P</i> =.9272
Ethnicity	Black	58.97%	39.27%	OR, 2.755; <i>P</i> =.004 ^a
	White	35.90%	57.76%	
	Asian	2.56%	0.99%	
	Other	2.57%	1.98%	
Smoking history (past or present)	Yes	20.51% ^b	27.72% ^b	<i>P</i> =.4385
	No	71.79% ^b	61.72% ^b	
Family history of breast cancer	Yes	30.77%	33.33%	<i>P</i> =.8384
	No	51.28%	51.82%	
	Unknown	17.95%	14.85%	
Stage at diagnosis	Stage 0	15.79%	11.37%	<i>P</i> =.4332
	Stage I	34.21%	30.98%	<i>P</i> =.6890
	Stage II	28.98%	37.25%	<i>P</i> =.3205
	Stage III	18.42%	17.25%	<i>P</i> =.8591
	Stage IV	3.63%	3.14%	<i>P</i> =.8651

OR, odds ratio; TNBC, triple-negative breast cancer.

^a OR refers to odds of black vs white patients having TNBC.

^b Numbers do not add up to 100% because data were missing for some patients.

with case fatality rates highest in developing countries.³ Despite the increased educational and monetary investments by various public and private sector interest groups to improve outcomes, breast cancer remains the second most important cause of cancer-related mortality in the US population.⁴ Per the 2002 National Cancer Control Programme guidelines set forth by the World Health Organization, early detection and adequate therapy have been singled out as the most important factors in the fight for reduction in breast cancer mortality.⁵

In recent years, breast cancer has been classified on the basis of estrogen receptor (ER) or progesterone receptor (PR) status, and whether the human epidermal growth factor 2 receptor (HER2/neu) protein is overexpressed. Breast cancer that is negative for ER, PR, and HER2/neu is considered to be triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC). This type of breast cancer is noted for its propensity to metastasize earlier and display a more aggressive course than its non-TNBC counterpart.

Methods

For this 5-year retrospective cohort study, we reviewed data from the tumor registry at the University of Florida at Jacksonville from January 2000 through December 2005. Charts were reviewed with particular attention to patient characteristics, including mean age at diagnosis,

ethnicity, past or present smoking, family history of breast cancer, and stage at diagnosis. We identified a total of 445 patients with various subtypes of breast cancers. The analysis included only those patients in whom the status of ER, PR, and HER2/neu protein overexpression was recorded. Our selection criteria led to the exclusion of 103 patients. Of the remaining 342 patients, 39 had TNBC and 303 had non-TNBC.

Results

The mean age at diagnosis was 59.87±15.67 years for TNBC patients vs 60.09±13.98 years for non-TNBC patients (*P*=.9272). In terms of ethnicity, TNBC vs non-TNBC patients had the following racial backgrounds: black, 58.97% vs 39.27%; white, 35.90% vs 57.76%; Asian, 2.56% vs 0.99%; and other, 2.57% vs 1.98%. TNBC was more common in black than in white patients (58.97% vs 35.90%; OR, 2.755; *P*=.004). Regarding smoking in TNBC vs non-TNBC patients, there was a positive smoking history in 20.51% vs 27.72% of the patients (*P*=.4385) and no smoking history in 71.79% vs 61.72% of the patients. Regarding family history of breast cancer in TNBC vs non-TNBC patients, there was a positive family history of breast cancer in 30.77% vs 33.33% of patients (*P*=.8384), no family history in 51.28% vs 51.82% of patients, and an unknown family history in

17.95% vs 14.85% of patients. The pathologic stage at the time of diagnosis for TNBC vs non-TNBC patients was as follows: stage 0, 15.79% vs 11.37% ($P=.4332$); stage I, 34.21% vs 30.98% ($P=.6890$); stage II, 28.98% vs 37.25% ($P=.3205$); stage III, 18.42% vs 17.25% ($P=.8591$); and stage IV, 3.63% vs 3.14% ($P=.8651$). These findings are summarized in the table.

Discussion

The World Health Organization classifies breast cancer according to histopathologic characteristics.⁶ While this method successfully separates breast cancer into several invasive subtypes, it fails to predict prognosis and does not provide information to guide the selection of targeted treatment options.⁷ Recent advances in the techniques used for immunohistochemical and gene expression studies have led to a distinct subdivision of breast cancer on the basis of protein expression and molecular subtypes, respectively.⁸⁻¹¹ These newer techniques have resulted in the classification of breast cancer on the basis of expression of HER2/neu proteins and estrogen and progesterone receptors.¹² This classification scheme has led to the recognition of TNBC, which refers to breast cancer that lacks expression of estrogen and progesterone receptors and does not overexpress HER2/neu proteins.¹³⁻¹⁵

Owing to its unique pathologic and clinical features, including younger age at diagnosis, higher propensity for distant visceral metastasis, poor outcomes, and a more aggressive overall presentation, TNBC has recently become the focus of intense research.¹⁶ The TNBC subtype generally carries a worse prognosis than its non-TNBC counterpart; however, it carries a much more favorable response to neoadjuvant and adjuvant chemotherapies.¹⁷ TNBC has a higher predilection for certain ethnicities, which is why its incidence has ranged from 11.2% in studies with a predominantly white patient population to as high as 39% in studies with a larger proportion of black patients.^{18,19} In the Western world, the prevalence of TNBC is considered to be approximately 15% to 20% of cases.^{20,21} Based on our research, the prevalence of TNBC at our institution is 12.87%. While this percentage is lower than the generally agreed-upon frequency, we can attribute our lower prevalence to the diverse demographics in our sample population.

Another important prognostic factor is the median age of patients at the time of breast cancer diagnosis.²² Differences exist in age at diagnosis for the various breast cancer subtypes. TNBCs tend to occur at an earlier age than non-TNBCs.²³ Because TNBC subtype has only recently been recognized as a distinct entity, it is not well understood whether the prognosis differs between patients who develop TNBC at a younger age vs those who develop it at an older age.²³ Similarly, the available research data are

not conclusive enough to make a convincing argument for or against a biological or clinical difference in TNBC patients based on age at diagnosis.²³ The sparse research data available on breast cancer in general have shown variable results, with some making a strong case for age as a distinct prognostic factor in younger patients and others failing to support this relationship.^{24,25} Our research study adds further statistical analysis to this growing body of evidence. We found that in our inner city university program, there was no difference in mean age at the time of diagnosis between TNBC and non-TNBC patients.

Breast cancer subtypes also have a strong association with certain ethnic backgrounds. Data pooled from several research studies have indicated that black women are more likely to have TNBC than white women.²⁶⁻³¹ At our inner city institute, we found a significant statistical difference between the various ethnicities and their rates of the 2 breast cancer subtypes. We found that TNBC was more prevalent in black women, whereas non-TNBC was more prevalent in white women.

Several in vivo and in vitro studies have shown that cigarette smoke has carcinogenic properties, and that breast tissue is a potential target for these carcinogens.³² Although the mechanism of action is not entirely understood, it is believed that the carcinogens in cigarette smoke are transported by plasma lipoproteins from the alveoli to the breast tissue.^{33,34} Because of cigarette smoke's strong affinity for these lipoproteins, it is more likely to be stored in adipocytes in the breast tissue, and later be activated by the human mammary epithelial cells to unleash its carcinogenic effect.³⁵ The number of cigarette smoke-based DNA adducts is significantly higher in smokers than in nonsmokers.³⁶⁻³⁸ Furthermore, researchers point to the higher accumulation of *P53* gene mutations in breast cancer tumors of smokers than in those of nonsmokers, which is comparable to the mutational spectrum seen in lung cancer patients.³⁹

In addition to the aforementioned biological explanations, cigarette smoke is thought to have an antiestrogenic effect. This is supported by the observation that smokers have lower bone density, earlier age at menopause, decreased urinary levels of estrogens, and an attenuated response to hormone therapy compared with nonsmokers.⁴⁰⁻⁴³ Ironically, although cigarette smoke is considered a risk factor for breast cancer, it can also play a protective role against breast cancer owing to its antiestrogenic effect.⁴⁴ With both a detrimental as well as a beneficial profile, it is not difficult to imagine why several previously published research studies have shown inconsistent results about the relationship between cigarette smoking and breast cancer.⁴⁵ More recent research studies, however, have suggested a strong correlation between breast cancer and smoking in long-term cigarettes smokers and in those who smoked before the birth of their first child.⁴⁶⁻⁵⁰ In our research, there

was no significant association between smoking status and breast cancer subtypes, which is in agreement with some of the earlier studies mentioned above.

In our research study, we also looked into family history and its relationship with TNBC and non-TNBC. About 10% of women with breast cancer have a positive family history of breast cancer.⁵¹ A history of breast cancer in a first-degree relative increases the risk for breast cancer by as much as 2-fold.⁵¹⁻⁵³ Both breast and ovarian cancers in first-degree relatives are considered established risk factors for the development of breast cancer.^{51,54} In addition to its prognostic significance, a positive family history is associated with improved adherence to early detection strategies, such as regular screening mammography.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁸ Women with a positive family history are less likely to have false beliefs about breast cancer and more likely to receive early breast cancer screenings and comprehensive breast cancer treatment.^{59,60} This might explain why we had a high prevalence of breast cancer patients with a positive family history of breast cancer. Published studies have noted elevated breast cancer mortality in women who have low participation rates in mammography screening programs.⁶¹ This further underscores the importance of mammography and future implications for patients who have a family history of breast cancer. In our study, we found no significant association between a positive family history of breast cancer and TNBC vs non-TNBC subtypes. It is important to note that based on several published studies, a positive family history of breast cancer does not impact all-cause mortality.⁶²⁻⁷¹ Furthermore, *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* germline mutations account for only one-quarter of the total breast cancer cases, and a significant portion of women with breast cancer acquire the disease in the absence of this familial link.⁷²

Stage at diagnosis likely plays the most significant role in breast cancer mortality. Published research data by the National Cancer Institute have shown that the 5-year survival rate among women diagnosed with breast cancer at stage I is as high as 88%, whereas those whose disease is diagnosed at stage IV have a survival rate of approximately 15%.^{73,74} Non-Hispanic white and Asian women are more likely to be diagnosed at an early stage, whereas Hispanic and black women are likely to be diagnosed at an advanced stage.^{73,74} In our retrospective cohort research study, when we accounted for stage at the time of diagnosis, TNBC was as prevalent as non-TNBC at all stages. We found no significant difference in the stage at diagnosis between TNBC and non-TNBC patients in our patient population.

Conclusion

Our findings further contribute to the growing body of evidence pertaining to the association of certain demographic and clinicopathologic characteristics with TNBC

and non-TNBC. We found a statistically significant ethnic predisposition for these 2 subtypes of breast cancers in our patient population. Black women were more likely to have TNBC, whereas white women were more likely to have non-TNBC. We did not find a significant difference in mean age, cigarette smoking, family history of breast cancer, and stage at diagnosis between the TNBC and non-TNBC patients. These findings are consistent with those from previously published research studies.

Disclosures

The authors have declared no relevant conflicts of interest.

References

- Parkin DM, Fernández LM. Use of statistics to assess the global burden of breast cancer. *Breast J*. 2006;12(1)(suppl 1):S70-S80.
- Parkin DM, Bray F, Ferlay J, Pisani P. Global cancer statistics, 2002. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2005;55(2):74-108.
- Anderson BO, Yip CH, Smith RA, et al. Guideline implementation for breast healthcare in low-income and middle-income countries: overview of the Breast Health Global Initiative Global Summit 2007. *Cancer*. 2008;113(8)(suppl):2221-2243.
- Siegel R, Ward E, Brawley O, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2011: the impact of eliminating socioeconomic and racial disparities on premature cancer deaths. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2011;61(4):212-236.
- World Health Organization. *National Cancer Control Programmes: Policies and Managerial Guidelines*. 2nd ed. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2002.
- Tavassoli FA, Devilee P, eds. *World Health Organization Classification of Tumours. Pathology and Genetics of Tumours of the Breast and Female Genital Organs*. Lyon, France: IARC press; 2003.
- de Ruijter TC, Veek J, de Hoon JJP, van Engeland M, Tjan-Heijnen VC. Characteristics of triple-negative breast cancer. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol*. 2011;137(2):183-192.
- Perou CM, Sorlie T, Eisen MB, et al. Molecular portraits of human breast tumours. *Nature*. 2000;406(6797):747-752.
- Sorlie T, Perou CM, Tibshirani R, et al. Gene expression patterns of breast carcinomas distinguish tumor subclasses with clinical implications. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2001;98(19):10869-10874.
- Callagy G, Cattaneo E, Daigo Y, et al. Molecular classification of breast carcinomas using tissue microarrays. *Diagn Mol Pathol*. 2003;12(1):27-34.
- Abd El-Rehim DM, Ball G, Pinder SE, et al. High-throughput protein expression analysis using tissue microarray technology of a large well-characterised series identifies biologically distinct classes of breast cancer confirming recent cDNA expression analyses. *Int J Cancer*. 2005;116(3):340-350.
- Ismail-Khan R, Bui MM. A review of triple-negative breast cancer. *Cancer Control*. 2010;17(3):173-176.
- van 't Veer LJ, Dai H, van de Vijver MJ, et al. Gene expression profiling predicts clinical outcome of breast cancer. *Nature*. 2002;415(6871):530-536.
- Sorlie T, Tibshirani R, Parker J, et al. Repeated observation of breast tumor subtypes in independent gene expression data sets. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2003;100(14):8418-8423.
- Paik S, Tang G, Shak S, et al. Gene expression and benefit of chemotherapy in women with node-negative, estrogen receptor-positive breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2006;24(23):3726-3734.
- Anders C, Carey LA. Understanding and treating triple-negative breast cancer. *Oncology (Williston Park)*. 2008;22(11):1233-1239.
- Liedtke C, Mazouzi C, Hess KR, et al. Response to neoadjuvant therapy and long-term survival in patients with triple-negative breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2008;26(8):1275-1281.
- Carey LA, Perou CM, Livasy CA, et al. Race, breast cancer subtypes, and survival in the Carolina Breast Cancer Study. *JAMA*. 2006;295(21):2492-2502.
- Dent R, Trudeau M, Pritchard KI, et al. Triple-negative breast cancer: clinical features and patterns of recurrence. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2007;13(15 pt 1):4429-4434.
- Silver DP, Richardson AL, Eklund AC, et al. Efficacy of neoadjuvant cisplatin in triple-negative breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2010;28(7):1145-1153.
- Kaplan HG, Malmgren JA. Impact of triple negative phenotype on breast cancer prognosis. *Breast J*. 2008;14(5):456-463.

22. Aleskandarany MA, Green AR, Benhasouna AA, et al. Prognostic value of proliferation assay in the luminal, HER2-positive, and triple-negative biologic classes of breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res.* 2012;14(1):R3.
23. Fredholm H, Eaker S, Frisell J, Holmberg L, Fredriksson I, Lindman H. Breast cancer in young women: poor survival despite intensive treatment. *PLoS ONE.* 2009;4(11):e7695.
24. Azim HA Jr, Michiels S, Bedard PL, et al. Elucidating prognosis and biology of breast cancer arising in young women using gene expression profiling. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2012;18(5):1341-1351.
25. Kim EK, Noh WC, Han W, Noh DY. Prognostic significance of young age (<35 years) by subtype based on ER, PR, and HER2 status in breast cancer: a nationwide registry-based study. *World J Surg.* 2011;35(6):1244-1253.
26. Menashe I, Anderson WF, Jatoti I, Rosenberg PS. Underlying causes of the black-white racial disparity in breast cancer mortality: a population-based analysis. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 2009;101(14):993-1000.
27. Dignam JJ. Efficacy of systemic adjuvant therapy for breast cancer in African-American and Caucasian women. *J Natl Cancer Inst Monogr.* 2001;2001(30):36-43.
28. Ayanian JZ, Kohler BA, Abe T, Epstein AM. The relation between health insurance coverage and clinical outcomes among women with breast cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 1993;329(5):326-331.
29. Bradley CJ, Given CW, Roberts C. Race, socioeconomic status, and breast cancer treatment and survival. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 2002;94(7):490-496.
30. Jatoti I, Becher H, Leake CR. Widening disparity in survival between white and African-American patients with breast carcinoma treated in the U. S. Department of Defense healthcare system. *Cancer.* 2003;98(5):894-899.
31. McPherson K, Steel CM, Dixon JM. ABC of breast diseases. Breast cancer-epidemiology, risk factors, and genetics. *BMJ.* 2000;321(7261):624-628.
32. Conway K, Edmiston SN, Cui L, et al. Prevalence and spectrum of p53 mutations associated with smoking in breast cancer. *Cancer Res.* 2002;62(7):1987-1995.
33. Yamasaki E, Ames BN. Concentration of mutagens from urine by absorption with the nonpolar resin XAD-2: cigarette smokers have mutagenic urine. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 1977;74(8):3555-3559.
34. Shu HP, Bymun EN. Systemic excretion of benzo(a)pyrene in the control and microsomally induced rat: the influence of plasma lipoproteins and albumin as carrier molecules. *Cancer Res.* 1983;43(2):485-490.
35. MacNicol AD, Easty GC, Neville AM, Grover PL, Sims P. Metabolism and activation of carcinogenic polycyclic hydrocarbons by human mammary cells. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun.* 1980;95(4):1599-1606.
36. Faraglia B, Chen SY, Gammon MD, et al. Evaluation of 4-aminobiphenyl-DNA adducts in human breast cancer: the influence of tobacco smoke. *Carcinogenesis.* 2003;24(4):719-725.
37. Firozi PF, Bondy ML, Sahin AA, et al. Aromatic DNA adducts and polymorphisms of CYP1A1, NAT2, and GSTM1 in breast cancer. *Carcinogenesis.* 2002;23(2):301-306.
38. Perera FP, Estabrook A, Hewer A, et al. Carcinogen-DNA adducts in human breast tissue. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 1995;4(3):233-238.
39. Conway K, Edmiston SN, Cui L, et al. Prevalence and spectrum of p53 mutations associated with smoking in breast cancer. *Cancer Res.* 2002;62(7):1987-1995.
40. Jensen J, Christiansen C, Rodbro P. Cigarette smoking, serum estrogens, and bone loss during hormone-replacement therapy early after menopause. *N Engl J Med.* 1985;313(16):973-975.
41. Jensen J, Christiansen C. Effects of smoking on serum lipoproteins and bone mineral content during postmenopausal hormone replacement therapy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1988;159(4):820-825.
42. Baron JA, La Vecchia C, Levi F. The antiestrogenic effect of cigarette smoking in women. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1990;162(2):502-514.
43. MacMahon B, Trichopoulos D, Cole P, Brown J. Cigarette smoking and urinary estrogens. *N Engl J Med.* 1982;307(17):1062-1065.
44. Clemons M, Goss P. Estrogen and the risk of breast cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 2001;344(4):276-285.
45. Terry PD, Rohan TE. Cigarette smoking and the risk of breast cancer in women: a review of the literature. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2002;11(10 pt 1):953-971.
46. Terry PD, Miller AB, Rohan TE. Cigarette smoking and breast cancer risk: a long latency period? *Int J Cancer.* 2002;100(6):723-728.
47. Olson JE, Vachon CM, Vierkant RA, et al. Prepregnancy exposure to cigarette smoking and subsequent risk of postmenopausal breast cancer. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2005;80(11):1423-1428.
48. Li CI, Malone KE, Daling JR. The relationship between various measures of cigarette smoking and risk of breast cancer among older women 65-79 years of age (United States). *Cancer Causes Control.* 2005;16(8):975-985.
49. Band PR, Le ND, Fang R, Deschamps M. Carcinogenic and endocrine disrupting effects of cigarette smoke and risk of breast cancer. *Lancet.* 2002;360(9339):1044-1049.
50. Gram IT, Braaten T, Terry PD, et al. Breast cancer risk among women who start smoking as teenagers. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2005;14(1):61-66.
51. Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer. Familial breast cancer: collaborative reanalysis of individual data from 52 epidemiological studies including 58,209 women with breast cancer and 101,986 women without the disease. *Lancet.* 2001;358(9291):1389-1399.
52. Pharoah PD, Day NE, Duffy S, Easton DF, Ponder BA. Family history and the risk of breast cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Cancer.* 1997;71(5):800-809.
53. Lux MP, Fasching PA, Beckmann MW. Hereditary breast and ovarian cancer: review and future perspectives. *J Mol Med (Berl).* 2006;84(1):16-28.
54. Pharoah PD, Day NE, Duffy S, Easton DF, Ponder BA. Family history and the risk of breast cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Cancer.* 1997;71(5):800-809.
55. Figueiredo JC, Ennis M, Knight JA, et al. Influence of young age at diagnosis and family history of breast or ovarian cancer on breast cancer outcomes in a population-based cohort study. *Breast Cancer Res Treat.* 2007;105(1):69-80.
56. Margolin S, Johansson H, Rutqvist LE, Lindblom A, Fornander T. Family history, and impact on clinical presentation and prognosis, in a population-based breast cancer cohort from the Stockholm County. *Fam Cancer.* 2006;5(4):309-321.
57. McCaul KD, Branstetter AD, Schroeder DM, Glasgow RE. What is the relationship between breast cancer risk and mammography screening? A meta-analytic review. *Health Psychol.* 1996;15(6):423-429.
58. Cohen M. Breast cancer early detection, health beliefs, and cancer worries in randomly selected women with and without a family history of breast cancer. *Psychooncology.* 2006;15(10):873-883.
59. Gansler T, Henley SJ, Stein K, Nehl EJ, Smigal C, Slaughter E. Sociodemographic determinants of cancer treatment health literacy. *Cancer.* 2005;104(3):653-660.
60. Verkooijen HM, Chappuis PO, Rapiti E, et al. Impact of familial risk factors on management and survival of early-onset breast cancer: a population-based study. *Br J Cancer.* 2006;94(2):231-238.
61. Bouchardy C, Verkooijen HM, Fioretta G. Social class is an important and independent prognostic factor of breast cancer mortality. *Int J Cancer.* 2006;119(5):1145-1151.
62. Eerola H, Vahteristo P, Sarantaus L, et al. Survival of breast cancer patients in BRCA1, BRCA2, and non-BRCA1/2 breast cancer families: a relative survival analysis from Finland. *Int J Cancer.* 2001;93(3):368-372.
63. Russo A, Herd-Smith A, Gestri D, et al. Does family history influence survival in breast cancer cases? *Int J Cancer.* 2002;99(3):427-430.
64. Verkooijen HM, Chappuis PO, Rapiti E, et al. Impact of familial risk factors on management and survival of early-onset breast cancer: a population-based study. *Br J Cancer.* 2006;94(2):231-238.
65. Verhoog LC, Brekelmans CT, Seynaeve C, et al. Survival in hereditary breast cancer associated with germline mutations of BRCA2. *J Clin Oncol.* 1999;17(11):3396-3402.
66. Jobsen JJ, Meerwaldt JH, van der Palen J. Family history in breast cancer is not a prognostic factor? *Breast.* 2000;9(2):83-87.
67. Vlastos G, Mirza NQ, Meric F, et al. Breast-conservation therapy in early-stage breast cancer patients with a positive family history. *Ann Surg Oncol.* 2002;9(9):912-919.
68. Veronesi A, de Giacomi C, Magri MD, et al. Familial breast cancer: characteristics and outcome of BRCA 1-2 positive and negative cases. *BMC Cancer.* 2005;5(1):70.
69. Brekelmans CT, Tilanus-Linthorst MM, Seynaeve C, et al. Tumour characteristics, survival and prognostic factors of hereditary breast cancer from BRCA2-, BRCA1- and non-BRCA1/2 families as compared to sporadic breast cancer cases. *Eur J Cancer.* 2007;43(5):867-876.
70. Rennett G, Bisland-Naggan S, Barnett-Griness O, et al. Clinical outcomes of breast cancer in carriers of BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutations. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357(2):115-123.
71. Figueiredo JC, Ennis M, Knight JA, et al. Influence of young age at diagnosis and family history of breast or ovarian cancer on breast cancer outcomes in a population-based cohort study. *Breast Cancer Res Treat.* 2007;105(1):69-80.
72. Chappuis PO, Rosenblatt J, Foulkes WD. The influence of familial and hereditary factors on the prognosis of breast cancer. *Ann Oncol.* 1999;10(10):1163-1170.
73. Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) Program, National Cancer Institute. SEER*Stat Database: Populations - Total U.S. (1969-2011). <http://seer.cancer.gov/seerstat/>. Accessed August 15, 2013.
74. Li CI, Malone KE, Daling JR. Differences in breast cancer stage, treatment, and survival by race and ethnicity. *Arch Intern Med.* 2003;163(1):49-56.