# Association of Non-Genetic Risk Factors with Prostate Cancer in the Population of Jammu Region of J and K, India 

Sourabh Sharma ${ }^{1}$, Rahul Gupta ${ }^{2}$, Jyotdeep Kour Raina ${ }^{3}$, Ravi Sharma ${ }^{4}$, Parvinder Kumar ${ }^{4}$ and Rakesh Kumar Panjaliya ${ }^{4 *}$<br>${ }^{1}$ Department of Zoology, University of Jammu, J and K, India, 180006.<br>${ }^{2}$ Department of Urology, Govt. Super Speciality Hospital, Jammu, J and K, India, 180016. ${ }^{3}$ GGM Science College, Jammu, J and K, India, 180001.<br>${ }^{4}$ Department of Zoology, University of Jammu, J and K, India, 180006.<br>http://dx.doi.org/10.13005/bbra/3108

(Received: 10 March 2023; accepted: 08 April 2023)


#### Abstract

The rising incidence rates of prostate cancer (CAP) have become a global health disorder. It has a complex etiology and includes both potentially modifiable environmental factors and non-modifiable genetic components. In this study, we aimed to identify the potential and significant non-genetic risk factors associated with CAP in the population of Jammu and Kashmir. A total of 320 study subjects ( 120 clinically confirmed CAP patients and 200 healthy age-matched unrelated participants) were registered for this investigation after obtaining their prior consent. A predesigned health questionnaire and hospital-based patient history were used to collect data pertaining to clinical variables, sociodemographic characteristics, anthropometric parameters, and biochemical indices. The result revealed that diet patterns (non-vegetarianism, $p=0.01$ ), lack of physical activity ( $p=0.0007$ ), dwelling (urban residents, $p=0.0105$ ), higher levels of serum LDL-cholesterol ( $p=<0.0001$ ), triglyceride ( $p=0.01$ ), VLDL-cholesterol ( $p=0.02$ ), total cholesterol ( $p=0.0527$ ), creatinine ( $p=0.0006$ ), sodium ( $p=0.0429$ ), urea ( $p=0.0006$ ), and PSA  the extent/duration of diabetes mellitus ( DM ) $(\mathrm{p}=0.0007$ ), lack of physical activity $(\mathrm{p}=0.0007)$, high intake of red meat ( $p=0.0005$ ), LDL-Cholesterol ( $p=<0.0001$ ) and positive family history ( $\mathrm{p}=<\mathbf{0} \mathbf{0 0 0 1}$ ) were found to be the most significant risk factors for CAP. The study notably identified the most significant and novel (extent/duration of diabetes and serum levels of LDL, VLDL) non-genetic risk factors associated with prostate cancer in the population of the Jammu region thus helping to target the high-risk populations and informing preventive interventions.


Keywords: Cases; Controls; Clinical Variables; Prostate cancer (CAP); Risk Factors.

According to GLOBOCAN data, prostate cancer (CAP) is the second most prevalent and fourth most aggressive neoplasm among men globally ${ }^{1}$. The global CAP load is projected to increase to 1.7 million new patients and $4,99,000$ deaths annually past 20302 due to progressive
population ageing. In India, CAP was reported to be highly prevalent and second most common in cities such as Delhi, Pune, and Kolkata, and the third dominant site of cancer in the population of Mumbai and Bangalore. Moreover, CAP falls in the top ten prominent sites of cancers in the rest

[^0]of the Indian population ${ }^{3}$. In J\&K, the prevalence of CAP was reported to be $6.8 \%{ }^{4}$.

The etiology of CAP is complex and multifactorial, involving the interaction of nongenetic/environmental and genetic risk factors. However, the exact etiology of CAP is not clear ${ }^{5,6}$. Several potential non-genetic risk factors for CAP have been identified in different populations, such as age, smoking, family history, dwelling, diet pattern, elevated cholesterol, obesity, and physical activity ${ }^{7-13}$. However, there is not enough data available about the potential non-genetic risk factors for CAP among the residents of Jammu and Kashmir. Moreover, the UT of J\&K is the abode of heterogeneous populations in which the potential risk factors for CAP have yet to be explored. Therefore, in this study, we aimed to analyse several non-genetic/environmental risk factors linked with CAP in the population of Jammu and Kashmir.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

This was a hospital-based research investigation. The study participants comprised 120 cases with clinically confirmed CAP and 200 healthy age-matched unrelated controls) who were residents of J\&K. The subjects were recruited from the outpatient department of Urology, Government Super Specialty Hospital, Jammu, and Acharya Shri Chander College of Medical Sciences and Hospital (ASCOMS) over the period of one year from 2020 to 2021. The designed study was authorised by the Institutional Ethical Committee, University of Jammu (no. RA/19/3/21), and Government Medical College, Jammu (no. IEC/ GMC/Cat A/2020/155).

Prior to enrolment, written informed consent was obtained from all study subjects. A detailed pre-designed health questionnaire was used for data collection. All subjects were interviewed in a personal manner in the respective hospitals using the pre-designed and structured questionnaire. The questionnaire had information about sociodemographic parameters (dwelling, education level, marital status, and religion), clinical variables (age, age at diagnosis of CAP, duration of illness, family history, weight, height, haemoglobin [ Hb ], body mass index, blood pressure, pulse rate, urea, creatinine, sodium, potassium, uric acid, prostate-
specific antigen [PSA] level, prostate weight, blood group, diabetes, hypertension, thyroid, waist-hip ratio, and family history) and behavioural parameters (diet patterns, physical activity status, vegetarian or non-vegetarian, fluid intake, tobacco consumption, alcohol consumption, and smoking habits) were examined in detail. An ordinal variable was used for assessing the lifestyle of study participants and subsequently divided into three categories, sedentary, normal, and active (yoga, walking, and workout) lifestyles.

1. Sedentary lifestyle: no time for exercise, gymming, sports activities, and physically sporty hobbies.
2. Average/Normal lifestyle: up to 40 minutes daily spent in exercise or other agile activity.
3. Active lifestyle: $>40$ minutes daily for leisure time, gymming, sporty activities, and rigorous agile activities.

The inclusion criteria included patients with a confirmed clinical diagnosis of CAP (classified as per World Health Organization (WHO) 2008 categorisation), patients considered eligible for intensive chemotherapy, age e" 20 years and d" 85 years, signed written informed consent, and no prior chemotherapy for prostate cancer whereas the exclusion criteria included, people with organ insufficiency, unconstrained infection, severe psychiatric or neurological condition obstructing with their ability to provide informed consent, patients with a "currently active" another malignancy in the body and known positive for HIV or any Hepatitis infection.

BMI was calculated based on height and weight as weight $/$ height ${ }^{2}\left(\mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$. Other related issues, such as frequent urination, back pain, hematuria, dysuria, and difficulty while sitting, were also noted.

## Statistical analysis

Continuous variables expressed the mean and standard deviation, and the differences between the cases and controls were evaluated using the student $t$-test. The frequencies (percentages) were presented as categorical variables, and the Chisquared test was used to assess the differences between the cases and controls. Univariate analysis identified CAP risk factors, and the results were reported as odds ratio (OR). The statistical analyses were done using SPSS Software version 26.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). $P$
values $<0.05$ were observed as a typical indicator of statistical significance.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## Population-related or Socio-demographic characteristics of the study subjects

The population-related attributes of the study subjects are summarised in Table 1. Maximum research participants belonged to the Hindu religion (patients 59.7\%, controls $68.3 \%$ ), and the maximum disease load was reported from urban areas, which accounted for $44.3 \%$ of patients (Table 1). The majority of CAP patients were illiterate ( $43 \%$ ) and married (patients $95 \%$ and controls $80.5 \%$ ). However, the practice of consanguinity was mainly present in Muslim subjects.
Clinical variables (anthropometric, physiometric, and biochemical profiles)

Differences between the cases and controls concerning clinical variables are presented
in Tables 2 and 3. CAP patients were significantly older than controls ( $69.82 \pm 15.5$ years and $56.7 \pm 15.7$ respectively) (Table 2). Likewise, the systolic and diastolic blood pressure (SBP; DBP) in cases $(\mathrm{SBP}=127.89 \pm 18.52, \mathrm{DBP}=89.17 \pm 10.07)$ were significantly higher than those in controls ( $\mathrm{SBP}=124.04 \pm 7.53, \mathrm{DBP}=86.13 \pm 9.81$ ). There were significant differences found between cases and controls concerning the prevalence of DM ( $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ ), LDL-C ( $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ ), and PSA ( $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ ) levels. There was no significant between-group difference concerning uric acid, potassium levels, duration of tobacco consumption, and alcohol intake (Table 3). The difference was also observed in average weight among cases and controls ( $63.5 \pm 13.97 \mathrm{kgs}$ and 68.314 .3 kgs , respectively) (Table 2). Urea ( $\mathrm{p}=0.0006$ ), creatinine ( $\mathrm{p}=0.0006$ ), triglyceride (TG) ( $\mathrm{p}=$ 0.0121 ), duration/period of diabetes mellitus (DM) ( $\mathrm{p}=0.0007$ ), age of onset of diabetes mellitus (DM) ( $\mathrm{p}=0.0031$ ), body mass index (BMI) $(\mathrm{p}=0.0427)$, and very-low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol

Table 1. Population-Related Attributes of the Study Participants

| Parameters | Cases(\%)(n = 120) | Controls(\% (n=200) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Religion |  |  |
| Hindu | $72(59.7 \%)$ | $137(68.3 \%)$ |
| Muslim | $37(30.74 \%)$ | $51(25.6 \%)$ |
| Sikh | $9(7.9 \%)$ | $11(5.7 \%)$ |
| Christian | $2(1.66 \%)$ | $1(0.5 \%)$ |
| Dwelling | $53(44.3 \%)$ | $63(31.7 \%)$ |
| Urban | $31(25.6 \%)$ | $48(23.9 \%)$ |
| Sub-urban | $36(30.1 \%)$ | $89(44.4 \%)$ |
| Rural |  |  |
| Educational Status | $52(43 \%)$ | $88(44.1 \%)$ |
| Illiterate | $48(23.8 \%)$ |  |
| Primary or Elementary school | $21(17.4 \%)$ | $46(23.1 \%)$ |
| Secondary or High school | $27(22.8 \%)$ | $18(9 \%)$ |
| Higher Education | $20(16.8 \%)$ |  |
| Marital Status |  | $161(80.5 \%)$ |
| Married | $95(79.2 \%)$ | $22(11 \%)$ |
| Unmarried | $11(9.16 \%)$ | $17(8.5 \%)$ |
| Widower | $14(11.66 \%)$ | $6(3 \%)$ |
| Consanguinity (For married) | $4(3.33 \%)$ | $194(97 \%)$ |
| Yes | $116(96.66 \%)$ |  |
| No | $98(81.6 \%)$ | $181(90.5 \%)$ |
| Region | $19(15.8 \%)$ | $18(9 \%)$ |
| Jammu | $3(2.5 \%)$ | $1(0.5 \%)$ |
| Kashmir |  |  |
| Other states* |  |  |
|  |  |  |

(VLDL-C) ( $\mathrm{p}=0.0212$ ) also showed significant differences as given in (Table 3). Prostate weight was significantly higher in cases $(30.06 \pm 12.6 \mathrm{~g})$ than in controls $(27.90 \pm 2.3 \mathrm{~g})$.

## Lifestyle and behavioural characteristics of study subjects

Data about behavioural or lifestyle factors are presented in Table 4. The diet pattern of cases

Table 2. Anthropometric variables of the study participants

| Parameters | Cases(\%) | Controls(\%) <br> $(\mathrm{n}=120)$ | P-value <br> $(\mathrm{n}=200)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age (yrs.) | $69.82 \pm 15.5$ | $56.7 \pm 15.7$ | $<0.0001^{* * *}$ |
| Average Height (in cms.) | $165.1 \pm 25.7$ | $167.64 \pm 28.3$ | 0.4219 |
| Average Weight (in Kgs.) | $63.5 \pm 13.97$ | $68.3 \pm 14.3$ | $0.0036^{* *}$ |
| BMI | $23.5 \pm 6.1$ | $24.7 \pm 4.41$ | $0.0427^{*}$ |
| WHR | $0.99 \pm 0.07$ | $0.98 \pm 0.06$ | 0.1765 |
| BMR | $1473.17 \pm 299.13$ | $1470.33 \pm 287.65$ | 0.9329 |

cms: centimeters; BMI: Body Mass Index; yrs: years ; WHR: Waist-Hip Ratio; Kgs: Kilograms;
BMR: Basal Metabolic RateP $<0.05^{*}, \mathrm{P}<0.001^{* *}, \mathrm{P}<0.0001^{* * *}$
Table 3. Clinical and metabolic variables in the study participants

| Parameters | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Cases(\%) } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=120) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Controls(\%) } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=200) \end{aligned}$ | P -value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SBP (mmHg) | $127.89 \pm 18.52$ | $124.04 \pm 7.53$ | 0.0096** |
| DBP (mmHg) | $89.17 \pm 10.07$ | $86.13 \pm 9.81$ | 0.0083** |
| PR (BPM) | $75.81 \pm 13.07$ | $73.17 \pm 4.13$ | 0.0261* |
| DM (mg/dl) | $167.73 \pm 54.3$ | $83.7 \pm 7.4$ | $<0.0001^{* * *}$ |
| TC ( $m g / d l$ ) | $176.57 \pm 25.33$ | $170.67 \pm 16.43$ | 0.0527* |
| TG (mg/dl) | $151.23 \pm 34.32$ | $142.77 \pm 31.32$ | 0.0121* |
| HDL-C ( $\mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dl}$ ) | $41.33 \pm 6.32$ | $43.89 \pm 23.2$ | 0.2440 |
| LDL-C ( $m \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{dl}$ ) | $131.58 \pm 35.75$ | $101.54 \pm 23.51$ | $<0.0001^{* * *}$ |
| VLDL-C ( $\mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dl}$ ) | $44.67 \pm 24.47$ | $39.32 \pm 16.78$ | 0.0212* |
| Creatinine ( $\mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dl}$ ) | $1.75 \pm 1$ | $1.1 \pm 1.9$ | 0.0006** |
| Sodium (mg/dl) | $138.87 \pm 3.48$ | $140.12 \pm 6.17$ | 0.0429* |
| Potassium ( $\mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dl}$ ) | $4.1 \pm 1.7$ | $3.9 \pm 1.6$ | 0.2912 |
| Hemoglobin (g/dl) | $11.7 \pm 3.7$ | $12.6 \pm 3.1$ | 0.0201* |
| Uric Acid (mg/dl) | $5.65 \pm 1.3$ | $5.7 \pm 1.05$ | 0.7068 |
| PSA level (Free, $n \mathrm{ng} / \mathrm{ml}$ ) | $32.55 \pm 17.6$ | $3.9 \pm 1.9$ | $<0.0001^{* * *}$ |
| Prostate Weight (in grams) | $30.06 \pm 12.6$ | $27.90 \pm 2.3$ | 0.0188* |
| Duration of Smoking (years) | $24.01 \pm 13.7$ | $19.7 \pm 17.3$ | 0.0207* |
| Duration of Tobacco Consumption (years) | $18.4 \pm 17.07$ | $19.63 \pm 19.67$ | 0.5701 |
| Duration of alcohol Intake (years) | $19.52 \pm 13.7$ | $17.7 \pm 12.1$ | 0.2163 |
| Duration of HTN (years) | $10.19 \pm 6.9$ | $8.7 \pm 3.7$ | 0.0125* |
| Age of Onset of HTN (years) | $52.7 \pm 7.9$ | $51.6 \pm 8.1$ | 0.2361 |
| Duration of DM (years) | $9.1 \pm 8.87$ | $6.7 \pm 3.5$ | 0.0007** |
| Age of Onset of DM (years) | $51.83 \pm 9.7$ | $54.3 \pm 8.6$ | 0.0031** |
| Group Grade | $3.75 \pm 1.25$ | NA | NA |
| Gleason Score | $7.3 \pm 1.7$ | NA | NA |

[^1]and controls showed a striking difference; 73.9\% of CAP patients were keen on a non-vegetarian diet compared to $54.6 \%$ of controls. The prevalence of a sedentary lifestyle is higher in CAP patients
(56.7\%) than in controls ( $36.8 \%$ ). Moreover, the routine of vigorous walking for a minimum of 40 minutes was higher among controls (patients $27.1 \%$ and controls $49.2 \%$ ). Consumption and

Table 4. Lifestyle risk factors in the study participants

| Parameters | Cases(\%) <br> $(\mathrm{n}=120)$ | Controls(\%) <br> $(\mathrm{n}=200)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Diet Pattern |  |  |
| Vegetarian | $31(26.1 \%)$ | $91(45.4 \%)$ |
| Non Vegetarian | $89(73.9 \%)$ | $109(54.6 \%)$ |
| Physical Activity | $6(5 \%)$ | $16(7.9 \%)$ |
| Yoga | $46(38.3 \%)$ | $110(55.3 \%)$ |
| Walk | $68(56.7 \%)$ | $74(36.8 \%)$ |
| Sedentary |  |  |
| High Intake of Fat, dairy, and eggs | $84(69.8 \%)$ | $105(52.3 \%)$ |
| Yes | $36(30.2 \%)$ | $95(47.7 \%)$ |
| No | $37(30.6 \%)$ | $65(32.7 \%)$ |
| Smoking habits | $64(53.2 \%)$ | $103(51.5 \%)$ |
| Never | $19(16.4 \%)$ | $32(16 \%)$ |
| Former | $61(50.8 \%)$ | $113(56.5 \%)$ |
| Current | $37(30.8 \%)$ | $46(23 \%)$ |
| Tobacco Chewing | $22(18.3 \%)$ | $51(25.5 \%)$ |
| Never | $77(64.16 \%)$ |  |
| Former | $43(35.8 \%)$ | $123(61.5 \%)$ |
| Current |  | $77(38.5 \%)$ |
| Alcohol drinking | $39(32.3 \%)$ | $60(29.9 \%)$ |
| Yes | $81(67.7 \%)$ | $140(70.1 \%)$ |
| No | $50(41.4 \%)$ |  |
| History of HTN | $70(58.7 \%)$ | NA |

CAP: Prostate Cancer; HTN: Hypertension; DM: Diabetes Mellitus*CAP is staged using TNM (tumour, nodes, metastases) classification (1997-American Joint Committee for Cancer)- (T1-T2Localized), (T3-Locally advanced), (T4-Metastatic) †Assigning a score (Gleason Score) to the biopsied tissue samples by pathologists on the basis of tissue differentiation. Two grades (Primary and secondary) combined to give the final score. (Low grade; $£ 6$ - well differentiated), (Low grade; 7- moderately differentiated), (High grade; ${ }^{37}$ - Poor differentiated).

Table 5. Univariate association examination of various non-genetic risk factors for CAP

| Parameters | $\begin{gathered} \text { Cases(\%) } \\ (\mathrm{n}=120) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Controls(\%) } \\ (\mathrm{n}=200) \end{gathered}$ | Odds Ratio (95\% CI) | P -value | Z-statistics |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dwelling |  |  |  |  |  |
| Urban | 84(44.3\%) | 111 (31.7\%) | 1.87 (1.15-3.02) | 0.0105* | 2.559 |
| Rural | 31(25.6\%) | 48 (23.9\%) |  |  |  |
| Diet Pattern |  |  |  |  |  |
| Non Vegetarian | 89(73.9\%) | 109 (54.6\%) | 2.39 (1.46-3.93) | 0.0005** | 3.46 |
| Vegetarian | 31 (26.1\%) | 91 (45.4\%) |  |  |  |
| Physical Activity |  |  |  |  |  |
| No | 68 (56.7\%) | 74 (36.8\%) | 2.26 (1.40-3.53) | 0.0007** | 3.401 |
| Yes | 52 (5\%) | 126 (63\%) |  |  |  |
| High Intake of Fat, dairy, and eggs |  |  |  |  |  |
| Yes | 84 (69.8\%) | 105 (52.3\%) | 2.11 (1.3-3.40) | 0.0022* | 3.057 |
| No | 36(30.2\%) | 95 (47.7\%) |  |  |  |
| Family History of CAP |  |  |  |  |  |
| Yes | 42 (34.8\%) | 6 (3.2\%) | 18.04(7.34-44.29) | $<0.0001^{* * *}$ | 6.312 |
| No | 71 (59.4\%) | 183 (91.5\%) |  |  |  |
| No data | 7 (5.8\%) | 11 (5.5\%) |  |  |  |
| Diabetes |  |  |  |  |  |
| Yes | 50 (41.4\%) | 47 (23.6\%) | 2.32 (1.42-3.78) | 0.0007** | 3.386 |
| No | 70 (58.7\%) | 153 (76.4\%) |  |  |  |

CAP: Prostate Cancer
$\mathrm{P}<0.0001^{* * *}, \mathrm{P}<0.001^{* *}, \mathrm{P}<0.05^{*}$
high intake of fats were more prevalent in cases ( $69.8 \%$ ) than in controls ( $52.3 \%$ ). The prevalence of smoking between-group differences showed no statistical significance. However, the duration of smoking was significantly longer among cases ( $24.01 \pm 13.7$ ) compared to controls ( $19.7 \pm 17.3$; $\mathrm{p}=0.0207$ ). A greater proportion of patients consumed alcohol than controls ( $64.16 \%$ and $61.5 \%$, respectively). Most CAP patients had elevated cholesterol (48.6\%) compared to controls (39.6\%). CAP patients had a higher prevalence of comorbid conditions such as hypertension (patients $32.3 \%$, controls $29.9 \%$ ) and diabetes (patients $41.4 \%$, controls $23.6 \%$ ). Positive family history of hypertension, diabetes mellitus, and CAP were identified as risk factors for prostate cancer (Table 4). Moreover, the majority of the cases had $>3$ (3.75 $\pm 1.25$ ) grade prostate cancer (TNM classification) and $>7$ (7.3 $\pm 1.7$ ) Gleason score, which depicts the level of tissue differentiation in prostate cancer.

The findings of the logistic regression analysis are presented in Table 5. In the population of the Jammu region of J\&K, there is a significant
link found between prostate cancer and several factors, including residential settings, dietary habits, lack of physical activity, high intake of fats, dairy, and eggs, and a family history of CAP and diabetes.

## DISCUSSION

As per recent GLOBOCAN data, there were an estimated $1,414,259$ cases of prostate cancer worldwide in 2020 , which makes the prostate the second-most common and fourth-most aggressive neoplasm among men worldwide ${ }^{1}$. In addition, International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), in its 2020 cancer statistics, reported that out of 19.3 million newly diagnosed cancers among both sexes, prostate cancer is classified as the third most frequently occurring cancer (accounting for $7.1 \%$ of the overall cases) ${ }^{14}$. Prostate cancer is estimated to be the seventh most common cancer in males accounting for $4.75 \%$ of subjects in the Jammu region ${ }^{15}$. Owing to the high load of CAP patients in $\mathrm{J} \& \mathrm{~K}^{16}$, identifying the anthropometric, behavioural, biochemical,
and socio-demographic risk factors for CAP in the population of Jammu and Kashmir is a crucial imperative. In this research investigation, various potential non-genetic risk factors such as age, family history, HTN, smoking, diabetes, alcohol intake, lifestyle, dietary pattern, etc.) were assessed, and comparisons were drawn with other studies from all over the globe.

CAP is deemed a disease of the elderly as the age of $>60$ years is a well-known risk factor for this disease ${ }^{17,18}$. The higher mean age of cases in our study is consistent with previous studies ${ }^{18-20}$. In the present study, positive family history was a significant risk factor for CAP which is also consistent with other studies ${ }^{20-22}$. In an earlier study, men with a positive family history of CAP compared to those without a family history showed a 1.5 to 4 times higher risk of prostate cancer ${ }^{23}$. In urban areas, people are more aware and educated and have greater access to healthcare facilities. Nonetheless, CAP is generally perceived as a disease of urban dwellings. A lower prevalence of CAP in rural areas than in urban areas was also reported by a maximum number of epidemiological studies conducted in India by the present investigation ${ }^{3}$.

Obesity (BMI>25) and high intake of red meat, fats, and dairy products are considered substantial risk factors for $\mathrm{CAP}^{8,24-28}$. In the present investigation, a high-fat diet and red meat consumption were associated with CAP risk, and the results are consistent with other studies ${ }^{29}$. Sonoda et al. (2004) also reported that the risk of CAP is positively correlated and associated with the consumption of red meat. The present study also showed a direct link between obesity and CAP, which aligns with another study that showed higher BMI (obese men) and taller height were positively associated with lethal CAP ${ }^{30-32}$.

Smoking and alcohol intake were found to be nonsignificant in this study. The findings are inconsistent with a previous study ${ }^{33,34}$. However, in the present investigation, the duration of smoking was associated with CAP. Many other studies have also reported a positive association between the duration of smoking and the risk of developing prostate cancer ${ }^{35-38}$.

A physically active lifestyle reduces the risk of fat-associated abnormalities, hypertension
(HT), and diabetes mellitus (DM), and the present investigation also revealed that regular physical activity reduces substantially reduces the risk of CAP. These findings are in accordance with another study by Friedenreich and Thune, 2001 who found an inverse association between a physically active lifestyle and CAP risk ${ }^{39,40}$. The results are also consistent with the findings of Torti and Matheson (2004), who reported that exercise and normally active lifestyles reduced $10-30 \%$ the average risk of developing CAP ${ }^{41}$. A higher regularity of lazy/ sedentary lifestyle is observed in the cases, while the controls showed a higher frequency of regular workouts in the style of yoga and walking. The present study also reported a substantial association of diabetes mellitus with CAP as a more significant proportion of participants in the cases had diabetes compared to the control group. The findings are consistent with other studies ${ }^{42-44}$. However, the results are inconsistent and at odds with the findings reported by another study ${ }^{45}$.

## CONCLUSION

The present study was the first approach for carrying out a non-genetic risk factor analysis for prostate cancer in the population of the Jammu region of J\&K, India. Many non-genetic factors were for the first time identified as potential risk factors in the inhabitants of the Jammu region, such as higher levels of serum low-density lipoproteincholesterol ( $\mathrm{p}=<0.0001$ ) and very low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol ( $p=0.02$ ). Similarly, the extent/duration of diabetes in the population of the Jammu region was also reported for the first time as a potential and significant risk factor for CAP.

Moreover, factors such as age, family history, lack of active lifestyles, and non-vegetarian diet were also identified as significant risk factors for CAP in the inhabitants of J\&K. Additionally, patients with CAP had higher serum levels of LDL, VLDL, and TG, and low levels of HDL, indicating that increased intake of fat and red meat are potent risk factors for CAP. A better lifestyle and regular physical activity were found to have a protective effect against CAP. Our findings will be helpful for both health professionals and the general public. The results help inform preventive interventions and target high-risk populations for CAP screening.

## Limitations

Some limitations of our study should be considered while interpreting the results. The cases were enrolled from only two medical college hospitals in Jammu City. This may limit the generalizability of our findings. Moreover, our results may have been affected by selection bias.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The researchers are grateful to the study subjects for giving their data, medical history, and blood sample. The authors are grateful to the Head, Department of Zoology, the University of Jammu, for providing necessary facilities and equipment availability (purchased out of RUSA/ PURSE/ FIST grants). One of the authors, Sourabh, also acknowledges the financial support from CSIRUGC NET-SRF Fellowship.

## Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of Interest.

## Funding Sources

There are no funding sources.

## REFERENCES

1. Sung H, Ferlay J, Seigel Rl et al. (2021) Global Cancer Statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN Estimates of Incidence and Mortality Worldwide for 36 Cancers in 185 Countries. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians vol. 71,3 (2021): 209-249.
2. Ferlay J, Shin Hr, Bray F et al. (2010). Estimates of worldwide burden of cancer in 2008. International Journal of Cancer. 127(12):2893917.
3. Jain S, Saxena S And Kumar A (2014). Epidemiology of prostate cancer in India. Meta Gene. 2:596-605.
4. Singh G, Mahajan S And Suri A (2016). Pattern of cancers in Jammu region. JK Science. 18(3):186189.
5. American Cancer Society (2018) Prostate cancer causes, risk factors, and prevention. Cancer. org;1.800.227.2345
6. Gann PH (2002) Risk factors for Prostate Cancer. Reviews in Urology. 4(5):S3-S10
7. Wilson, Rl, Taaffe, Dr, Newton. et al. (2022). Obesity and prostate cancer: a narrative review. Critical reviews in Oncology/Hematology, 169, 103543.
8. Izquierdo Mr , Peìrez De Rojas J, Ruiz Vm, et al. (2021). Obesity as a Risk Factor for Prostate Cancer Mortality:A Systematic Review and

Dose-Response Meta-Analysis of 280,199 Patients. Cancers 2021, 13, 4169.
9. Rawla, P (2019) Epidemiology of prostate cancer. World journal of oncology, 2019. 10(2): p. 63.
10. Barber L, Gerke T, Markt Sc, et al. (2018) Family History of Breast or Prostate Cancer and Prostate Cancer Risk. Clin Cancer Res. 2018;24(23):5910-5917.
11. Hariharan K, Padmanabha V (2016) Demography and disease characteristics of prostate cancer in India. Indian J Urol 2016;32:103-8
12. Rohrmann, $S$ et al. (2007) Smoking and risk of fatal prostate cancer in a prospective US study. Urology, 2007. 69(4): p. 721-725
13. Torti Dc, Matheson Go (2004) Exercise and prostate cancer Sports Med. 2004;34(6):363-9
14. International Agency For Research On Cancer, (2020) Latest global cancer data World Health Organisation, Press release N'292.
15. Gupta, A, Puri I and Gupta M (2021) Patterns of Cancer in Males and Females in Jammu Region. JK Science. Journal of Medical Education \& Research. 23, 1 (Mar. 2021), 47-51.
16. Singh G, Mahajan S and Suri A (2016). Pattern of cancers in Jammu region. JK Science. 18(3):186189.
17. Farmer, R. (2008) Prostate cancer: epidemiology and risk factors. Trends Urology, Gynecol. Sexual Health, 13: 32-34
18. Godtman Ra, Kollberg Ks, Pihl Cg et al. (2022) The Association Between Age, Prostate Cancer Risk, and Higher Gleason Score in a Long-term Screening Program: Results from the Göteborg-1 Prostate Cancer Screening Trial. European Urology 2022 Volume 82, Issue 3, Pages 311-317
19. Rawla, P (2019) Epidemiology of prostate cancer. World journal of oncology, 2019. 10(2): p. 63.
20. Ganesh B, Saoba Sl, Sarade Mn et al. (2011) Risk factors for prostate cancer: An hospitalbased case-control study from Mumbai, India. Indian Journal of Urology 2011, Vol 27, Issue 3, 345-350
21. Barber L, Gerke T, Markt Sc, et al. (2018) Family History of Breast or Prostate Cancer and Prostate Cancer Risk. Clin Cancer Res. 2018;24(23):5910-5917.
22. Giovannucci E, Liu Y, Platz Ea et al. (2007). Risk factors for prostate cancer incidence and progression in the health professionals follow-up study. Int J Cancer. 2007 Oct 1;121(7):1571-8
23. Kiciñski M, Vangronsveld J, Nawrot Ts (2011) An epidemiological reappraisal of the familial aggregation of prostate cancer: a meta-analysis. PLoS One. 2011;6(10):e27130
24. Wilson, R1, Taaffe Dr, Newton et al. (2022). Obesity and prostate cancer: a narrative review.

Critical reviews in Oncology/Hematology, 169, 103543.
25. Vasconcelos A, Santos T, Ravasco P, et al. (2019). Dairy products: Is there an impact on promotion of prostate cancer? A review of the literature. Frontiers in Nutrition, 6, 62.
26. Fowke Jh, Motley Ss, Concepcion Rs et al. (2012) Obesity, body composition, and prostate cancer. BMC Cancer. 2012 Jan 18;12:23
27. Richman El, Kenfield Sa , Stampfer Mj et al. (2011). Egg, red meat, and poultry intake and risk of lethal prostate cancer in the prostate-specific antigen-era: incidence and survival. Cancer Prev Res (Phila). 4(12): 2110-2121
28. Lee, Mm, Wang Rt, Hsing Aw et al. (1998) Casecontrol study of diet and prostate cancer in China. Cancer Causes Control 9, 545-552 (1998)
29. Wolk A (2005). Diet, lifestyle and risk of prostate cancer. Acta Oncologica. 44(3):277-281.
30. Sonoda, Nagata Ty, Mori M et al. (2004) A case control study of diet and prostate cancer in Japan: possible protective effect of traditional Japanese diet. Cancer science 95.3 (2004): 238-242.
31. Tzenios N, Tazanios Me, Chahine M (2022). The impact of body mass index on prostate cancer: An updated systematic review and meta-analysis. Medicine (Baltimore), Nov 11;101(45):e30191.
32. Popovici D, Stanisav C, Pricop M, Dragomir R, Saftescu S, Ciurescu D (2023). Associations between Body Mass Index and Prostate Cancer: The Impact on Progression-Free Survival. Medicina. 2023; 59(2):289.
33. D'ecclesiis O, Pastore E, Gandini S, Caini S, Marvaso G, Jereczek-fossa Ba, Corrao G, Raimondi S, Bellerba F, Ciceri S, Latella M, Cavalcabò Ndb, Bendinelli B, Saieva C, Fontana M, Gnagnarella P (2023). Association between Alcohol Intake and Prostate Cancer Mortality and Survival. Nutrients. 2023; 15(4):925.
34. Tyagi, Brijbhushan, Manoharan et al. (2010) A Case-Control Study on Prostate Cancer in Delhi. Asian Pacific journal of cancer prevention: APJCP. 11. 397-401.
35. Jochems Shj, Fritz J, Haggstrom C, Jarvholm B, Stattin P, Stocks T. (2022). Smoking
and Risk of Prostate Cancer and Prostate Cancer Death: A Pooled Study. European Urology,2022,0302-2838.
36. Gong Z, Agalliu I, Lin DW et al. (2008) Cigarette smoking and prostate cancer-specific mortality following diagnosis in middle-aged men. Cancer Causes Control 19, 25-31.
37. Huncharek M, Haddock KS, Reid R et al. (2010) Smoking as a risk factor for prostate cancer: a meta-analysis of 24 prospective cohort studies. Am J Public Health. 2010 Apr; 100(4):693-701.
38. Algotar, Amit \& Stratton, Steven et al. (2011) Association of Obesity and Smoking With PSA and PSA Velocity in Men With Prostate Cancer. American journal of men's health. 5. 272-8.
39. Christine M. Friedenreich And Thune I (2001) A review of physical activity and prostate cancer risk. Cancer Causes and Control 12: 461 $\pm 475$, 2001.
40. Deb AA, Emmanuel O, Emara S, et al. (2019) Physical activity and prostate cancer: a systematic review. Urol Nephrol Open Access J. 2019;7(5):117-129.
41. Torti DC, Matheson Go (2004) Exercise and prostate cancer Sports Med. 2004;34(6):363-9
42. Chin-hsiaotseng, (2011) Diabetes and Risk of Prostate Cancer. Diabetes Care 2011, 34:616621.
43. Khan, Afreen \& Chandra, Anu \& Mahdi, Abbas Ali \& Sankhwar, S.N. (2019). Prostate cancer and diabetes link: role of insulin and insulin like growth factors. Era's Journal of Medical Research. 6. 147-151.
44. Feng X, Song M, Preston MA, Ma W, Hu Y, Pernar CH, Stopsack KH, Ebot EM, Fu BC, Zhang Y, Li N, Dai M, Liu L, Giovannucci El, \& Mucci LA (2020). The association of diabetes with risk of prostate cancer defined by clinical and molecular features. British Journal of Cancer, 123(4), 657-665.
45. Tsilidis KK, Allen NE, Appleby PN et al. (2015). Diabetes mellitus and risk of prostate cancer in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. Int. J. Cancer: 136, 372-381 (2015).


[^0]:    *Corresponding author E-mail: rakeshpanjaliya@jammuuniversity.ac.in

[^1]:    Systolic Blood Pressure (SBP); Diastolic Blood pressure (DBP); Triglyceride(TG); Heartbeat/Pulse Rate (PR); Diabetes Mellitus(DM); Total Cholesterol (TC); High-Density Lipoprotein-cholesterol (HDL-C); Low-Density Lipoprotein-cholesterol (LDL-C:); Very Low-Density Lipoprotein-cholesterol(LDL-C:); Hypertension (HTN); Diabetes Mellitus (DM). $P<0.0001$ ***, $P<0.001^{* *}, P<0.05^{*}$

