



Race, Gene Expression Signatures, and Clinical Outcomes of Patients With High-Risk Early Breast Cancer

Beverly Kyalwazi, MD; Christina Yau, PhD; Michael J. Campbell, PhD; Toshio F. Yoshimatsu, MS; A. Jo Chien, MD; Anne M. Wallace, MD; Andres Forero-Torres, MD; Lajos Pusztai, MD, DPhil; Erin D. Ellis, MD; Kathy S. Albain, MD; Anne H. Blaes, MD; Barbara B. Haley, MD; Judy C. Boughey, MD; Anthony D. Elias, MD; Amy S. Clark, MD, MSCE; Claudine J. Isaacs, MD; Rita Nanda, MD; Hyo S. Han, MD; Rachel L. Yung, MD; Debasish Tripathy, MD; Kristen K. Edmiston, MD; Rebecca K. Viscusi, MD; Donald W. Northfelt, MD; Qamar J. Khan, MD; Smita M. Asare, BS; Amy Wilson, BS; Gillian L. Hirst, PhD; Ruixiao Lu, PhD; William Fraser Symmans, MBChB; Douglas Yee, MD; Angela M. DeMichele, MD; Laura J. van 't Veer, PhD; Laura J. Esserman, MD, MBA; Olufunmilayo I. Olopade, MD

Abstract

IMPORTANCE There has been little consideration of genomic risk of recurrence by breast cancer subtype despite evidence of racial disparities in breast cancer outcomes.

OBJECTIVE To evaluate associations between clinical trial end points, namely pathologic complete response (pCR) and distant recurrence-free survival (DRFS), and race and examine whether gene expression signatures are associated with outcomes by race.

DESIGN, SETTING, AND PARTICIPANTS This retrospective cohort study used data from the Investigation of Serial Studies to Predict Your Therapeutic Response With Imaging and Molecular Analysis 2 (I-SPY 2) multicenter clinical trial of neoadjuvant chemotherapy with novel agents and combinations for patients with previously untreated stage II/III breast cancer. Analyses were conducted of associations between race and short- and long-term outcomes, overall and by receptor subtypes, and their association with 28 expression biomarkers. The trial enrolled 990 female patients between March 30, 2010, and November 5, 2016, with a primary tumor size of 2.5 cm or greater and clinical or molecular high risk based on MammaPrint or hormone receptor (HR)-negative/*ERBB2* (formerly *HER2* or *HER2/neu*)-positive subtyping across 9 arms. This data analysis was performed between June 10, 2021, and October 20, 2022.

EXPOSURE Race, tumor receptor subtypes, and genomic biomarker expression of early breast cancer.

MAIN OUTCOMES AND MEASURES The primary outcomes were pCR and DRFS assessed by race, overall, and by tumor subtype using logistic regression and Cox proportional hazards regression models. The interaction between 28 expression biomarkers and race, considering pCR and DRFS overall and within subtypes, was also evaluated.

RESULTS The analytic sample included 974 participants (excluding 16 self-reporting as American Indian or Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, or multiple races due to small sample sizes), including 68 Asian (7%), 120 Black (12%), and 786 White (81%) patients. Median (range) age at diagnosis was 47 (25-71) years for Asian, 49 (25-77) for Black, and 49 (23-73) years for White patients. The pCR rates were 32% (n = 22) for Asian, 30% for Black (n = 36), and 32% for White (n = 255) patients (P = .87). Black patients with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors not achieving pCR had significantly worse DRFS than their White counterparts (hazard ratio, 2.28; 95% CI, 1.24-4.21; P = .01), with 5-year DRFS rates of 55% (n = 32) and 77% (n = 247), respectively. Black patients with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors, compared with White patients, had higher

(continued)

Key Points

Question Are racial disparities observed in pathologic complete response (pCR) and distant recurrence-free survival (DRFS) in a trial of neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NACT) for patients with breast cancer at high risk of early recurrence?

Findings In a cohort study of 974 NACT trial patients, no significant differences in pCR or DRFS rates were found among Asian, Black, and White women. Black women with hormone receptor (HR)-positive/*ERBB2* (formerly *HER2* or *HER2/neu*)-negative tumors without pCR had a higher recurrence risk than their White counterparts.

Meaning These findings suggest that although there is a survival benefit to achieving pCR after NACT across all races, Black women with HR-positive, molecularly high-risk tumors, in the absence of pCR, may fare worse, underscoring the need to better understand heterogeneity in diverse populations.

+ Supplemental content

Author affiliations and article information are listed at the end of this article.

Open Access. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the CC-BY License.

Abstract (continued)

expression of an interferon signature (mean [SD], 0.39 [0.87] and -0.10 [0.99]; $P = .007$) and, compared with Asian patients, had a higher mitotic score (mean [SD], 0.07 [1.08] and -0.69 [1.06]; $P = .01$) and lower estrogen receptor/progesterone receptor signature (mean [SD], 0.31 [0.90] and 1.08 [0.95]; $P = .008$). A transforming growth factor β signature had a significant association with race relative to pCR and DRFS, with a higher signature associated with lower pCR and worse DRFS outcomes among Black patients only.

CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE The findings show that women with early high-risk breast cancer who achieve pCR have similarly good outcomes regardless of race, but Black women with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors without pCR may have worse DRFS than White women, highlighting the need to develop and test novel biomarker-informed therapies in diverse populations.

JAMA Network Open. 2023;6(12):e2349646.doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2023.49646

Introduction

Despite advances in breast cancer treatment with the evolution of immunotherapy and precision oncology, their benefits have not been shared equally. Racial disparities in breast cancer mortality remain a persistent challenge. Black women experience a 40% higher mortality rate than White women.¹ Such disparities in mortality and clinical outcomes have been attributed to both socioeconomic and genetic risk factors, including limited access to screening and treatment, more advanced-stage breast cancers at the time of diagnosis, and aggressive tumor subtypes observed more often in Black women.²⁻⁷ Despite efforts to identify contributing factors, studies of racial disparities in the clinical trial setting with eyes on differences in tumor biology are limited.^{8,9}

The Investigation of Serial Studies to Predict Your Therapeutic Response With Imaging and Molecular Analysis 2 (I-SPY 2) trial is a biomarker-rich, neoadjuvant, adaptively randomized, multicenter, phase 2 platform trial designed for the treatment of locally advanced breast cancer.¹⁰ Women enrolled in the trial have clinically hormone receptor (HR)-negative/*ERBB2* (formerly *HER2* or *HER2/neu*)-positive or genomically (based on molecular subtyping) high-risk breast cancers and are adaptively randomized to different treatment arms based on their tumor subtype. Notably, this trial currently has 26 active sites across the US with approximately 12% of women enrolled identifying as Black or African American. To further investigate racial disparities in treatment outcomes and their potential causes, we performed a comparative analysis of clinical trial outcomes (pathologic complete response [pCR] and distant recurrence-free survival [DRFS]) by race and assessed differences in gene expression signatures among racial groups and their interactions with outcomes.

Methods

Study Design

We performed a retrospective cohort analysis of clinical outcomes data by race in the I-SPY 2 trial. The I-SPY 2 uses adaptive randomization to assign patients to control or experimental arms (1:4) based on molecular subtype, as described in prior work.^{11,12} Molecular subtypes were defined by HR status, *ERBB2* status, and risk of recurrence based on a 70-gene assay (MammaPrint; Agendia). Control arm participants received 12 cycles of paclitaxel (in combination with trastuzumab for those with *ERBB2*-positive tumors), followed by 4 cycles of doxorubicin and cyclophosphamide. Experimental arm participants received 1 of 9 experimental agents (neratinib,¹¹ veliparib and carboplatin,¹² trebananib,¹³ ganitumab,¹⁴ MK-2206,¹⁵ pertuzumab,¹⁶ TDM-1 and pertuzumab,¹⁶ ganetespib,¹⁷ or a PD-1 inhibitor¹⁸) in addition to paclitaxel. The primary end point of I-SPY 2 was pCR,

defined by the absence of invasive disease in breast and axillary nodes (ypTO/is, ypNO) at the time of surgery. Secondary I-SPY 2 end points were residual cancer burden, event-free survival, and 5-year DRFS. The DRFS was calculated as the time from treatment consent to distant recurrence or death of any cause; patients without events are censored at last known follow-up. All I-SPY 2 participants eligible for analysis had previously signed informed consent for research use of data and specimens. I-SPY 2 was approved by the institutional review boards of all 22 participating sites. The current analysis was approved by the I-SPY 2 Data Access and Publication Committee. This study followed the Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) reporting guideline.¹⁹

Participants

The I-SPY 2 cohort consists of 990 women aged 18 years or older with high-risk clinical stage II or III breast cancer and a tumor size of 2.5 cm or larger in diameter who were enrolled between March 30, 2010, and November 5, 2016, at 1 of the 22 clinical sites.^{20,21} Race was self-reported, as collected from case report forms, as American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, White, or multiple races. Racial groups with fewer than 10 patients (American Indian or Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, and multiple races) were excluded from the analysis. Ethnicity was self-reported as Hispanic or Latino or as not Hispanic or Latino. The present analysis was limited to Asian, Black, and White participants due to the small number of individuals within the other racial groups.

Gene Expression Analysis

An exploratory, hypothesis-generating analysis was conducted using 28 previously published gene expression biomarkers, including 15 immune cell type-related signatures, 7 immune signaling-related signatures, 1 proliferation signature, estrogen receptor (ER)/progesterone receptor (PR) and *ERBB2* signatures, and mRNA expression of single genes *CD274* (PD-L1), *CD279* (PD-1), and *CD68* (macrophage marker) (eTable 1 in Supplement 1). Signature scores were computed from platform-corrected normalized gene expression data obtained from the National Center for Biotechnology Information Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE194040).²¹ Their association and interaction with race in relation to pCR and DRFS was assessed.

Statistical Analysis

This data analysis was performed between June 10, 2021, and October 20, 2022. Patient baseline clinical characteristics and demographics were compared using a χ^2 test for categorical variables and analysis of variance for continuous variables. Logistic regression with significance assessment by the likelihood ratio test was used to assess the association between race and pCR overall and within receptor subtypes. A Cox proportional hazards regression model was used to estimate the hazard ratios and 95% CIs among racial groups (White as reference) overall, within pCR vs non-pCR subsets, and within tumor subtypes by pCR status; significance was assessed using the Wald test. Five-year DRFS among racial groups stratified by pCR status and subtype was estimated using the Kaplan-Meier method. We did not adjust for multiplicities in our analyses within subsets defined by receptor status and pCR. The association between racial groups and expression of 28 gene signatures (related to immune cells, proliferation markers, ER, and *ERBB2* expression) was analyzed using analysis of variance with post hoc Tukey test (using the Tukey-Cramer variation that incorporates adjustments for uneven group sizes) in the overall population and in each receptor subtype without adjustment for multiple hypothesis testing. A 2-sided $P < .05$ was considered statistically significant. Additionally, the interaction between these signatures (dichotomized into the top one-third vs lower two-thirds expression groups) and race in association with pCR and DRFS was assessed using logistic regression and Cox proportional hazards regression models, respectively, with significance assessment using the likelihood ratio test. Analysis was performed using R, version 4.0.2 software (R Project for Statistical Computing).

Results

Patient Population

Of the 990 patients in the cohort, 974 were included in the association analysis of the primary end point pCR, with 68 (7%) identifying as Asian, 120 (12%) as Black, and 786 (81%) as White (**Figure 1**). The median age at diagnosis was similar across racial groups (Asian patients: 47 years [range, 25-71 years]; Black patients: 49 [range, 25-77] years; White patients: 49 years [range, 23-73 years]). The 16 excluded patients were from racial groups with fewer than 10 identified patients. When we compared patient race vs ethnicity, 118 Black patients (98%) identified as non-Hispanic, and 669 White patients (85%) identified as non-Hispanic. No statistically significant differences were observed in patient or tumor characteristics (clinical T and N stage, receptor subtype, and Blueprint molecular subtype) among racial groups (**Table 1**).

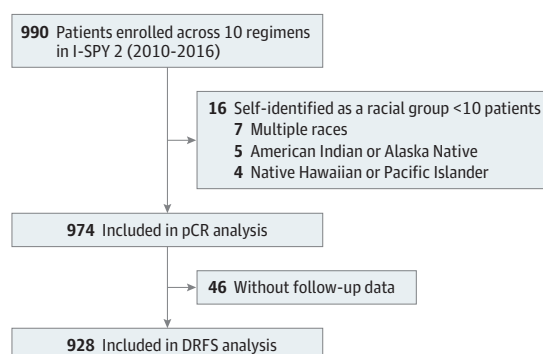
Clinical Outcomes by Race

Of 974 patients, 313 (32%) achieved pCR. The pCR rate was, 32% for Asian (n = 22), 30% for Black (n = 36), and 32% for White (n = 255) patients ($P = .87$) (**Table 2**). We found no association between race and pCR among any of the receptor subtypes (**Table 2**). As of October 28, 2021, follow-up data were available for 928 patients (**Figure 1**). There were 177 DRFS events, and median follow-up was 5.0 years (range, 0.0-10.2 years). There was no significant difference in DRFS among racial groups, with a hazard ratio of 1.37 (95% CI, 0.90-2.06) and 1.06 (95% CI, 0.60-1.88) between Black and Asian patients, respectively, relative to White patients (**Figure 2A**). No significant DRFS differences were observed among racial groups within patient subsets stratified by pCR status (**Figure 2B and C**). Within receptor subtype, we observed a significant difference in DRFS by race (hazard ratio, 2.28; 95% CI, 1.24-4.21; $P = .01$), where White patients with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors who did not achieve pCR had a 77% 5-year DRFS rate (n = 247) compared with 55% (n = 32) for similar Black patients (**Figure 2D**; eTable 2 in **Supplement 1**). No other significant differences in DRFS by racial groups were observed in subgroup analyses among the other tumor receptor subtypes (including triple-negative breast cancer) by pCR status (eTable 2 and eFigure 1 in **Supplement 1**).

Gene Expression Signatures by Race

Among the 28 expression signatures evaluated, 4 were differentially expressed among racial groups within the overall population (F test $P < .05$): interferon (IFN) module,²² B-cell signature,²³ dendritic cell signature,²³ and mitotic score²⁴ (eTable 3 in **Supplement 2**). Among patients with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors, 3 signatures (IFN module, mitotic score, and ER/PR module) were differentially expressed among the racial groups (**Figure 3A-C**; eTable 3 in **Supplement 2**). Black patients, compared with White patients, had significantly higher expression of the IFN module signature (mean [SD], 0.39 [0.87] and -0.10 [0.99]; $P = .007$); Black patients had a significantly higher expression of mitotic score signature (mean [SD], 0.07 [1.08] and -0.69 [1.06]; $P = .01$) and a

Figure 1. Study Flow Diagram



DRFS indicates distant recurrence-free survival; I-SPY 2, Investigation of Serial Studies to Predict Your Therapeutic Response With Imaging and Molecular Analysis 2; pCR, pathologic complete response.

lower expression of ER/PR module signature (mean [SD], 0.31 [0.90] and 1.08 [0.95]; $P = .008$) than Asian patients. While higher expression levels of both IFN module and mitotic score signatures were not associated with worse survival outcomes among patients with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors (eFigure 2 in Supplement 1), higher expression of the ER/PR module signature was associated with better survival outcomes (hazard ratio, 0.77; 0.60-0.98; $P = .03$). Among the 28 signatures, only the transforming growth factor β (TGF- β) signature²⁵ had a significant interaction with race relative to pCR (ratio of ORs associated with TGF- β expression between Black and White patients, 0.32; 95% CI, 0.11-0.84; $P = .04$) and DRFS outcomes (ratio of HRs, 2.73; 95% CI, 1.16-6.41; $P = .02$) when we dichotomized the population by expression of the TGF- β signature (top one-third vs lower two-thirds) (eTable 4 in Supplement 2). While higher or lower expression of TGF- β was not associated with pCR or DRFS outcomes in White and Asian patients, Black patients with a higher TGF- β signature had significantly worse pCR and DRFS outcomes (pCR rate, 7 of 43 vs 29 of 77 [$\chi^2 P = .02$]; high relative to low group: HR, 3.22 [95% CI, 1.47-7.04; log-rank $P = .002$]) (eFigure 2 in Supplement 1).

Table 1. Patient Demographics

Characteristic	No. (%)			P value ^a
	Asian patients (n = 68)	Black patients (n = 120)	White patients (n = 786)	
Ethnicity				
Hispanic or Latino	1 (1)	2 (2)	117 (15)	<.001
Not Hispanic or Latino	67 (99)	118 (98)	669 (85)	
Age, median (range), y	47 (25-71)	49 (25-77)	49 (23-73)	.87
Menopausal status				
Peri or pre	41 (60)	63 (53)	450 (57)	.81
Post	25 (37)	47 (39)	305 (39)	
Unknown	2 (3)	10 (8)	31 (4)	
Longest tumor diameter by MRI, median (range), cm	3.5 (0.4-9.5)	3.7 (1.3-16)	3.7 (0.8-15)	.37
Clinical T stage				
T2 ^b	50 (74)	72 (60)	518 (66)	.22
T3/4	15 (22)	40 (33)	238 (30)	
Unknown	3 (4)	8 (7)	30 (4)	
Clinical N status				
LN-negative	37 (54)	46 (38)	361 (46)	.12
LN-positive	27 (40)	64 (53)	384 (49)	
Unknown	4 (6)	10 (8)	41 (5)	
Receptor subtype				
HR-positive/ <i>ERBB2</i> -negative	21 (31)	44 (37)	310 (39)	.09
HR-negative/ <i>ERBB2</i> -negative	26 (38)	51 (43)	281 (36)	
HR-positive/ <i>ERBB2</i> -positive	10 (15)	12 (10)	132 (17)	
HR-negative/ <i>ERBB2</i> -positive	11 (16)	13 (11)	63 (8)	
BluePrint molecular subtype				
Luminal	22 (32)	33 (28)	266 (34)	.25
Basal	30 (44)	69 (58)	382 (49)	
<i>ERBB2</i>	15 (22)	16 (13)	132 (17)	
Unknown	1 (1)	2 (2)	6 (1)	
pCR	22 (32)	36 (30)	255 (32)	.87
Non-pCR ^c	46 (68)	84 (70)	531 (68)	
Residual cancer burden class				
0	22 (32)	36 (30)	261 (33)	.88
1	7 (10)	19 (16)	107 (14)	
2	25 (37)	42 (35)	265 (34)	
3	11 (16)	14 (12)	120 (15)	
Unknown	3 (4)	9 (8)	33 (4)	

Abbreviations: HR, hormone receptor; LN, lymph node; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; pCR, pathologic complete response.

^a P value from χ^2 test for categorical variables and F test for continuous variables; unknown values were excluded.

^b Includes a small number of patients with T1 tumors who met eligibility criteria by MRI.

^c Patients who did not undergo surgery, left their treating institution, or received nonprotocol therapy were considered not to have achieved pCR per protocol.

Discussion

In this retrospective cohort study, we compared clinical outcomes in the I-SPY 2 trial across patient racial groups among women with clinically (*ERBB2*-positive or HR-negative) or genomically (based on MammaPrint molecular subtyping) high-risk breast cancer. Our findings suggest that there is no association between race and pCR when patients have early access to clinical trials. Consistent with findings that pCR is strongly associated with event-free survival and DRFS,²⁰ our analysis supports that women with high-risk breast cancers who receive biomarker-informed neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NACT) and achieve pCR may experience a survival benefit independent of their self-identified race.

Residual Disease in HR-Positive/*ERBB2*-Negative Subtypes and Differences in DRFS by Race

Strikingly, we found that among women who did not achieve pCR, statistically significant differences in DRFS were observed only among women with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors. Within this subtype, Black women experience more than double the risk of recurrence compared with White women. This finding supports the growing literature on racial disparities in breast cancer outcomes, particularly among women with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors, and warrants further investigation into the heterogeneity in the biology within this receptor subtype to elucidate this disparity.^{5,26-32} Recent results from a 690-patient, single-institution study at The University of Chicago, replicated in the larger National Cancer Database, suggested that tumor grade may be the factor accounting most for racial disparities in overall survival among women with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors.^{33,34} These findings align with our observations of racial disparities in survival among women with high-risk HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors. Interestingly, despite that Black women have higher rates of triple-negative breast cancer,² we did not observe significant racial disparities in outcomes within this subtype of nonresponders.

With the advent of breast cancer molecular subtyping, treatment guidance regarding who may benefit from chemotherapy has evolved.³⁵⁻³⁷ Several studies have assessed racial disparities in

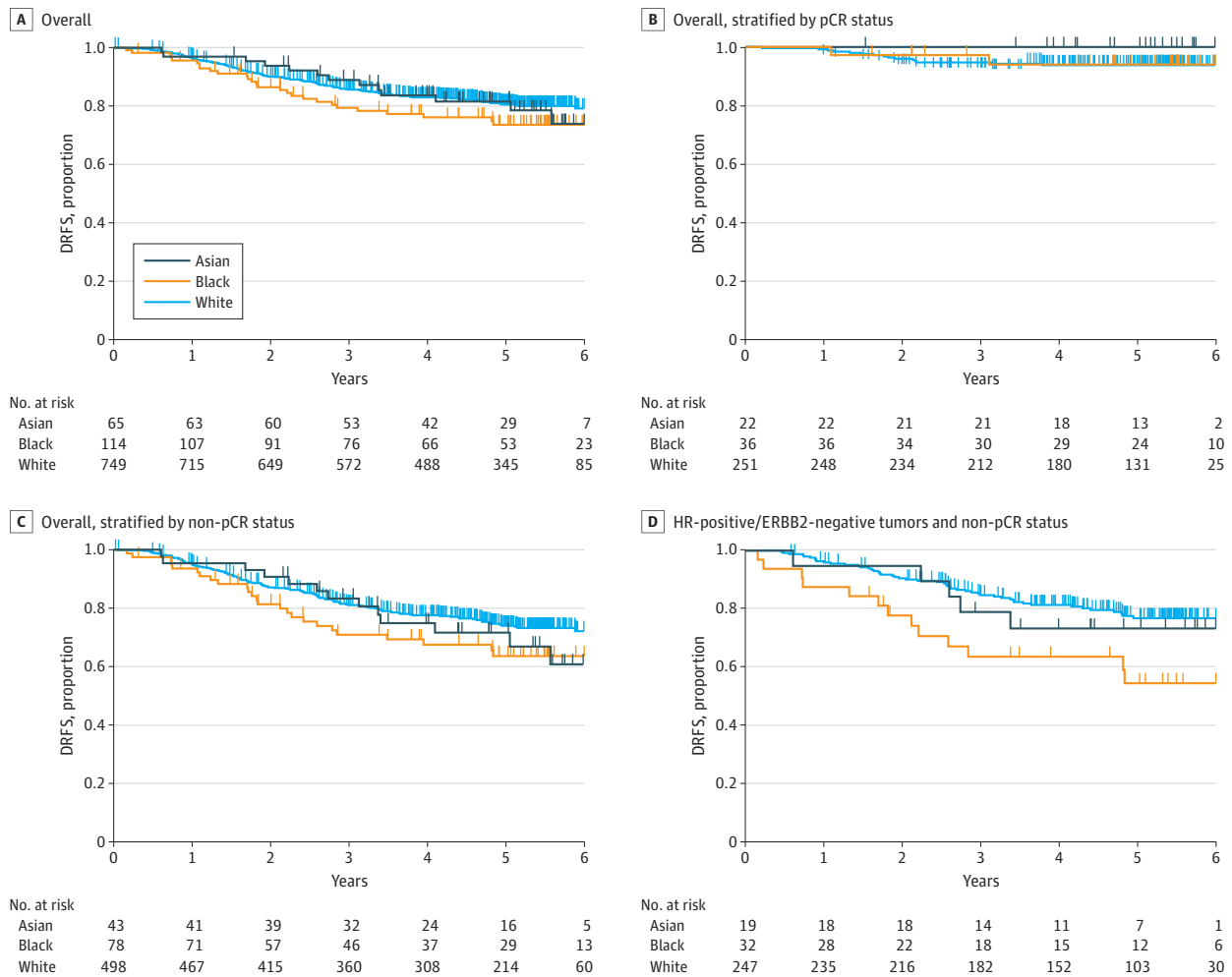
Table 2. Clinical Outcomes by Race and Receptor Status

Receptor status	No. of patients	No. (%)		P value
		pCR	No pCR	
All				
Asian	68	22 (32)	46 (68)	.87
Black	120	36 (30)	84 (70)	
White	786	255 (32)	531 (68)	
HR-positive/ <i>ERBB2</i> -negative				
Asian	21	2 (10)	19 (90)	.52
Black	44	9 (20)	35 (80)	
White	310	51 (16)	259 (84)	
HR-negative/ <i>ERBB2</i> -negative				
Asian	26	11 (42)	15 (58)	.48
Black	51	16 (31)	35 (69)	
White	281	112 (40)	169 (60)	
HR-positive/ <i>ERBB2</i> -positive				
Asian	10	4 (40)	6 (60)	.65
Black	12	3 (25)	9 (75)	
White	132	50 (38)	82 (62)	
HR-negative/ <i>ERBB2</i> -positive				
Asian	11	5 (45)	5 (55)	.41
Black	13	8 (62)	5 (38)	
White	63	42 (67)	21 (33)	

Abbreviations: HR, hormone receptor; pCR, pathologic complete response.

clinical outcomes for women with ER-positive breast cancers using the 21-gene Oncotype DX Breast Recurrence Score Test. Albain et al²⁶ evaluated data from the randomized Trial Assigning Individualized Options for Treatment (TAILORx) that included 9719 patients, of whom 693 were Black women with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative, axillary node-negative breast cancer. The investigators found that among women with intermediate recurrence risk based on recurrence scores (RSs), Black women had higher recurrence and mortality rates than White women after adjusting for RS and other comorbidities. A retrospective cohort study of patients with ER-positive breast cancer using the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results Oncotype DX database and the same RS categorizations from the TAILORx study showed that the mortality disparity between Black women (increased mortality) compared with White women persisted in all RS risk groups (low-risk group [RS 0-10]: subdistribution hazard ratio, 2.54 [95% CI, 1.44-4.50]; intermediate-risk group [RS 11-25]: 1.64 [95% CI, 1.23-2.18]; high-risk group [RS >25]: 1.48 [95% CI, 1.10-1.98]).²⁷ Although RS is associated with breast cancer-specific mortality in both racial groups, it has been shown to have less prognostic value for Black women than for White women, which may be in part because it was developed in a predominantly non-Hispanic White population.^{38,39} However, these studies are

Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier Curves of Distant Recurrence-Free Survival (DRFS) Differences by Race and Pathologic Complete Response (pCR) Status



A, Hazard ratios 1.06 (95% CI, 0.60-1.88; $P = .84$) and 1.37 (95% CI, 0.90-2.06; $P = .14$) for Asian and Black patients relative to White patients. B, Hazard ratios 0.00 and 0.93 (95% CI, 0.21-4.07; $P = .92$) for Asian and Black patients relative to White patients. C, Hazard ratios 1.23 (95% CI, 0.69-2.18; $P = .48$) and 1.45 (95% CI, 0.95-2.24; $P = .09$) for

Asian and Black patients relative to White patients. D, Hazard ratios 1.26 (95% CI, 0.50-3.17; $P = .62$) and 2.28 (95% CI, 1.24-4.21; $P = .01$) for Asian and Black patients relative to White patients. HR indicates hormone receptor.

limited to an analysis of clinical outcome differences among women with ER-positive breast cancer. In our study, we used data from the I-SPY 2 clinical trial to look at racial differences in clinical outcomes across multiple receptor subtypes among women considered to have high-risk breast cancers by MammaPrint subtyping.

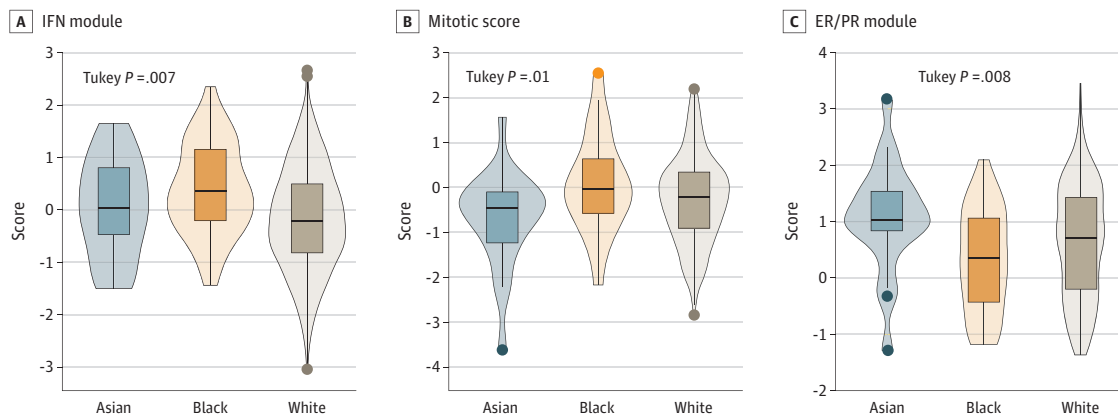
Exploratory Analysis of Gene Expression Signatures

Our exploratory analysis of gene expression signatures among women with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors revealed 3 differentially expressed gene signatures (IFN module, mitotic score, and ER/PR module) by race. Higher expression of the ER/PR module was associated with better outcomes for patients with the HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative subtype. Lower expression of this signature among Black compared with Asian patients may have implications when it comes to response to endocrine therapies among patients with this subtype. Though these findings are preliminary, they suggest a pathway for further study of racial disparities in pCR and DRFS among women with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors.

A study with molecular methods used in a report by Byun et al⁴⁰ suggested that differential expression of regulatory genes may account for some differences in clinical outcomes that are associated with race among homogeneous tumor receptor groups. In prior reports describing the evolutionary trajectory of breast cancer in the Nigerian Breast Cancer Study and The Cancer Genome Atlas, Black patients with HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors have higher rates of genomic instability, increased intratumoral heterogeneity, and higher rates of *GATA3* variations, with implications for precision therapeutics among populations of African ancestry.^{41,42} Additional studies that include data from gene expression profiling and assessment of the tumor immune microenvironment of HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors^{43,44} are promising avenues toward insight into the heterogeneity of this tumor subtype and consequential racial disparities in the survival outcomes observed.

Leveraging the expression data across all subtypes, we found a significant interaction between the TGF- β signature and pCR and DRFS outcomes among racial groups. This finding is remarkable given previous studies on the association between TGF- β signaling and racial disparities in prostate cancer.^{45,46} These studies suggest that higher TGF- β signaling may be associated with more aggressive prostate cancer in Black patients.^{38,39} In early breast cancer, we observed higher levels of expression of the TGF- β signature among Black patients that were associated with lower pCR and DRFS rates, where no association existed for Asian and White patients.

Figure 3. Gene Expression Signatures of Hormone Receptor (HR)-Positive/*ERBB*-Negative Tumors by Race



Boxes indicate the IQR, with the center line indicating the median and whiskers indicating the lower quartile minus 1.5 times the IQR and upper quartile plus 1.5 times the IQR. ER/PR indicates estrogen receptor/progesterone receptor; IFN, interferon.

Strengths and Limitations

Unique strengths of our analysis include a predefined population with a uniformly high risk for breast cancer recurrence; subgroup analyses that accounted for receptor subtype differences; and the use of data from a robust, adaptive clinical trial. Additionally, I-SPY 2 is a multicenter clinical trial that includes a diverse population. Previous reports on racial disparities in breast cancer survival have been observed for reasons that are poorly understood in part due to low enrollment of women who self-identify as part of a racial minority group.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ The percentage of Black women enrolled in the I-SPY 2 trial is 12%, which is proportional to the population of non-Hispanic Black individuals in the US (12.1% of the total US population of 331.9 million as of 2021),⁵⁰ reflecting an intentional selection of clinical sites in geographic areas with diverse populations and improving our ability to analyze clinical outcomes by race. While it has been an aspiration to implement this practice in the general clinical trial setting to reduce breast cancer disparities, more work needs to be done.^{51,52}

This study also had several limitations. Lack of sociodemographic and comorbidity data limited our ability to account for social determinants that contribute to racial disparities in clinical outcomes. However, prior studies examining socioeconomic factors contributing to the mortality disparity in breast cancer have found that when adjusting for indicators of social determinants of health (insurance and neighborhood deprivation), the association with self-reported race and disparity in outcomes is persistent.^{6,53} Although our study includes more than 900 patients, the considerable heterogeneity in the pattern of gene expression profiles among relatively smaller-sized subsets of race and breast cancer subtypes limits our ability to determine both statistically and clinically meaningful differences in outcomes by race. Further studies are underway, with additional investigation into biomarkers associated with worse outcomes to inform how we think about potential therapeutic targets and their possible contribution to reducing racial disparities in clinical outcomes.

Conclusions

In this retrospective cohort study of I-SPY 2 clinical outcomes data, no significant association was found between race and pCR. We conclude that when women with high-risk breast cancer are enrolled in biomarker-informed NACT trials, their survival outcomes can be estimated by achievement of pCR, regardless of race. Our findings reveal evidence of racial disparities in DRFS among women with early-stage, molecularly high-risk, HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors who do not achieve pCR, with Black women having a significantly higher recurrence risk than White women in this subgroup. This finding suggests a need for further investigation into the heterogeneity of HR-positive/*ERBB2*-negative tumors using gene expression analysis and into the tumor immune microenvironment to provide insight into racial disparities in breast cancer clinical outcomes. Ultimately, our findings underscore the importance of enrolling diverse patient populations in clinical trials to work toward advancing health equity and to better understand contributors to racial disparities in breast cancer mortality.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

Accepted for Publication: October 26, 2023.

Published: December 28, 2023. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2023.49646

Open Access: This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [CC-BY License](#). © 2023 Kyalwazi B et al. *JAMA Network Open*.

Corresponding Author: Laura J. Esserman, MD, MBA, University of California, San Francisco Breast Care Center, Precision Cancer Medicine Bldg, Third Floor, 1825 4th St, San Francisco, CA 94158 (laura.esserman@ucsf.edu).

Author Affiliations: Center for Clinical Cancer Genetics and Global Health, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois (Kyalwazi, Yoshimatsu, Olopade); Department of Internal Medicine, University of Texas Southwestern

Medical Center, Dallas (Kyalwazi); Department of Surgery, University of California, San Francisco (Yau, Campbell, Hirst, Esserman); Department of Medicine, Section of Hematology/Oncology, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois (Yoshimatsu, Nanda, Olopade); Department of Hematology Oncology and Surgery, University of California, San Francisco Helen Diller Comprehensive Cancer Center, San Francisco (Chien); Division of Breast Surgery and the Comprehensive Breast Health Center, University of California San Diego, La Jolla (Wallace); Division of Hematology/Oncology, The University of Alabama at Birmingham (Forero-Torres); Department of Medical Oncology, Yale School of Medicine, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut (Pusztai); Swedish Cancer Institute, Seattle, Washington (Ellis); Division of Hematology-Oncology, Department of Medicine, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis (Albain, Blaes, Yee); Division of Hematology-Oncology, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas (Haley); Department of Surgery, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minnesota (Boughey); University of Colorado Cancer Center, Aurora (Elias); Division of Hematology and Oncology, Department of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia (Clark, DeMichele); Department of Medicine, Georgetown University, Washington, DC (Isaacs); Department of Breast Oncology, Moffitt Cancer Center, Tampa, Florida (Han); Department of Medicine, School of Medicine, University of Washington, Seattle (Yung); Division of Cancer Medicine, Department of Breast Medical Oncology, The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston (Tripathy); Inova Health System, Fairfax, Virginia (Edmiston); Department of Surgery, University of Arizona College of Medicine, Tucson (Viscusi); Department of Medical Oncology, Mayo Clinic, Phoenix, Arizona (Northfelt); Division of Medical Oncology, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Kansas Medical Center, Kansas City (Khan); Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative, San Francisco, California (Asare, Wilson, Lu); Division of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Department of Pathology, The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston (Symmans); Department of Laboratory Medicine, University of California, San Francisco Helen Diller Family Comprehensive Cancer Center, San Francisco (van 't Veer).

Author Contributions: Drs Yau and Esserman had full access to all of the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Concept and design: Kyalwazi, Isaacs, Han, Tripathy, Khan, Yee, DeMichele, van 't Veer, Esserman, Olopade.

Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: Kyalwazi, Yau, Campbell, Yoshimatsu, Chien, Wallace, Forero-Torres, Pusztai, Ellis, Albain, Blaes, Haley, Boughey, Elias, Clark, Isaacs, Nanda, Han, Yung, Edmiston, Viscusi, Northfelt, Asare, Wilson, Hirst, Lu, Symmans, DeMichele, Esserman, Olopade.

Drafting of the manuscript: Kyalwazi, Yau, Campbell, Yoshimatsu, Ellis, Blaes, Viscusi, Esserman, Olopade.

Critical review of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Campbell, Yoshimatsu, Chien, Wallace, Forero-Torres, Pusztai, Albain, Blaes, Haley, Boughey, Elias, Clark, Isaacs, Nanda, Han, Yung, Tripathy, Edmiston, Northfelt, Khan, Asare, Wilson, Hirst, Lu, Symmans, Yee, DeMichele, van 't Veer, Esserman, Olopade.

Statistical analysis: Yau, Lu, Esserman.

Obtained funding: Olopade.

Administrative, technical, or material support: Yoshimatsu, Haley, Clark, Nanda, Asare, Wilson, Hirst, Yee, Esserman, Olopade.

Supervision: Wallace, Blaes, Nanda, Han, Viscusi, Lu, DeMichele, van 't Veer, Olopade.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: Dr Yau reported receiving US patent application No. 18/174,191 assigned to her institution. Dr Chien reported receiving research support from Puma, Seagen, Merck, and Amgen to her institution outside the submitted work, and a US patent pending. Dr Wallace reported receiving grants from I-SPY per contract with the University of California, San Francisco during the conduct of the study. Dr Forero-Torres reported employment since 2018 with Seagen outside the submitted work. Dr Albain reported receiving patient care costs to her institution and salary support from Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative during the conduct of the study and independent data monitoring committee membership with Seattle Genetics and research support paid to her institution from Seattle Genetics, Daiichi, and AstraZeneca outside the submitted work. Dr Boughey reported receiving grants paid to her institution from Eli Lilly and Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative to support I-SPY activities during the conduct of the study and grants paid to her institution from SimBioSys and data monitoring and safety board fees from CairnSurgical outside the submitted work. Dr Clark reported receiving grants paid to her institution from Eli Lilly and Novartis and personal fees from Siemens during the conduct of the study. Dr Isaacs reported receiving grants from Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative to support I-SPY activities during the conduct of the study and consulting fees from Genentech, PUMA, Seattle Genetics, AstraZeneca, Novartis, Pfizer, Gilead, and Biotheranostics; grants to her institution from Pfizer; and royalties from Wolters Kluwer and McGraw Hill outside the submitted work. Dr Nanda reported receiving personal fees from AstraZeneca, BeyondSpring, Daiichi Sankyo, Fujifilm, GE, Gilead, Infinity, iTeos, MacroGenics, Merck, Novartis, OBI Pharma, OncoSec, Pfizer, Sanofi, Seagen, and Stemline and grants from Arvinas, AstraZeneca, Celgene, Corcept Therapeutics, Genentech/Roche, Gilead/Immunomedics, Merck, Novartis, OBI Pharma, OncoSec, Pfizer, Relay, Seattle Genetics, Sun Pharma, and Taiho outside the submitted work. Dr Han reported receiving research funding paid to her institution

from Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative during the conduct of the study; grants from the US Department of Defense; and research funding paid to her institution from AbbVie, Seagen, G1 Therapeutics, Pfizer, Novartis, Marker Therapeutics, Zymeworks, Phoenix, Celcuity, Arvinas, Senhwa Biosciences, and Pionyr outside the submitted work. Dr Tripathy reported receiving research support to his institution from Novartis and Pfizer and personal fees from Novartis, Pfizer, AstraZeneca, AMBRX, Personalis, Roche, Sermonix, and Stemline-Menarini outside the submitted work. Ms Asare reported receiving research support from Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative during the conduct of the study. Dr Symmans reported receiving founder equity from Delphi Diagnostics outside the submitted work and a US patent No. 11,459,617 issued to Delphi Diagnostics. Dr Yee reported receiving advisor fees from Martell Diagnostics and clinical trial support from Boehringer Ingelheim and Fusion Pharmaceuticals outside the submitted work. Prof van 't Veer reported being a part-time employee of and stockholder in Agendia during the conduct of the study. Dr Esserman reported receiving grants from Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative during the conduct of the study and being an unpaid member of the board of directors of Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative, being a member of a medical advisory panel for and receiving reimbursement for time and travel from Blue Cross/Blue Shield, and receiving grant support from Merck outside the submitted work. Dr Olopade reported serving on the scientific advisory board for Tempus, receiving cofounder equity from CancerIQ, serving on the board of directors of 54gene, and receiving grants from Roche/Genentech and Color Genomics during the conduct of the study. No other disclosures were reported.

Funding/Support: This research was partially supported by grants P2OCA233307 (Dr Olopade) and P01CA210961 (Dr Esserman) from the National Cancer Institute, grant BCRF-21-071 from the Breast Cancer Research Foundation (Dr Olopade), grants SAC110026 and SAC210203 from Susan G. Komen for the CURE (Dr Olopade), professorship from the American Cancer Society (Dr Olopade), and Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative, the sponsor of I-SPY 2 (Dr Esserman, principal investigator). The I-SPY 2 trial is supported by the Safeway Foundation; the William K. Bowes, Jr Foundation; Give Breast Cancer the Boot; Quantum Leap Healthcare Collaborative; and the Breast Cancer Research Foundation.

Role of the Funder/Sponsor: The funders had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

Data Sharing Statement: See [Supplement 3](#).

Additional Contributions: Sincere thanks to our Data and Safety Monitoring Board, Independent Agent Selection Committee, Biomarker Working Group, our advocates, and our investigators. The authors are grateful to the participants of the I-SPY 2 clinical trial.

REFERENCES

1. DeSantis CE, Ma J, Gaudet MM, et al. Breast cancer statistics, 2019. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2019;69(6):438-451. doi:10.3322/caac.21583
2. 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. doi:10.1001/jama.295.21.2492
3. Newman LA, Griffith KA, Jatoi I, Simon MS, Crowe JP, Colditz GA. Meta-analysis of survival in African American and White American patients with breast cancer: ethnicity compared with socioeconomic status. *J Clin Oncol*. 2006;24(9):1342-1349. doi:10.1200/JCO.2005.03.3472
4. Chatterjee NA, He Y, Keating NL. Racial differences in breast cancer stage at diagnosis in the mammography era. *Am J Public Health*. 2013;103(1):170-176. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2011.300550
5. Warner ET, Tamimi RM, Hughes ME, et al. Racial and ethnic differences in breast cancer survival: mediating effect of tumor characteristics and sociodemographic and treatment factors. *J Clin Oncol*. 2015;33(20):2254-2261. doi:10.1200/JCO.2014.571349
6. Sadigh G, Gray RJ, Sparano JA, et al. Assessment of racial disparity in survival outcomes for early hormone receptor-positive breast cancer after adjusting for insurance status and neighborhood deprivation: a post hoc analysis of a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Oncol*. 2022;8(4):579-586. doi:10.1001/jamaoncol.2021.7656
7. Silber JH, Rosenbaum PR, Clark AS, et al. Characteristics associated with differences in survival among Black and White women with breast cancer. *JAMA*. 2013;310(4):389-397. doi:10.1001/jama.2013.8272
8. Reeder-Hayes KE, Anderson BO. Breast cancer disparities at home and abroad: a review of the challenges and opportunities for system-level change. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2017;23(11):2655-2664. doi:10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-16-2630
9. Partridge AH, Carey LA. Unmet needs in clinical research in breast cancer: where do we need to go? *Clin Cancer Res*. 2017;23(11):2611-2616. doi:10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-16-2633

10. Barker AD, Sigman CC, Kelloff GJ, Hylton NM, Berry DA, Esserman LJ. I-SPY 2: an adaptive breast cancer trial design in the setting of neoadjuvant chemotherapy. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2009;86(1):97-100. doi:10.1038/clpt.2009.68
11. Park JW, Liu MC, Yee D, et al; I-SPY 2 Investigators. Adaptive randomization of neratinib in early breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2016;375(1):11-22. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1513750
12. Rugo HS, Olopade OI, DeMichele A, et al; I-SPY 2 Investigators. Adaptive randomization of veliparib-carboplatin treatment in breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2016;375(1):23-34. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1513749
13. Piawah S, Hyland C, Umetsu SE, Esserman LJ, Rugo HS, Chien AJ. A case report of vanishing bile duct syndrome after exposure to pexidartinib (PLX3397) and paclitaxel. *NPJ Breast Cancer*. 2019;5(1):17. doi:10.1038/s41523-019-0112-z
14. Yee D, Isaacs C, Wolf DM, et al. Ganitumab and metformin plus standard neoadjuvant therapy in stage 2/3 breast cancer. *NPJ Breast Cancer*. 2021;7(1):131. doi:10.1038/s41523-021-00337-2
15. Chien AJ, Tripathy D, Albain KS, et al; I-SPY 2 Consortium. MK-2206 and standard neoadjuvant chemotherapy improves response in patients with human epidermal growth factor receptor 2-positive and/or hormone receptor-negative breast cancers in the I-SPY 2 trial. *J Clin Oncol*. 2020;38(10):1059-1069. doi:10.1200/JCO.19.01027
16. Clark AS, Yau C, Wolf DM, et al. Neoadjuvant T-DM1/pertuzumab and paclitaxel/trastuzumab/pertuzumab for HER2⁺ breast cancer in the adaptively randomized I-SPY2 trial. *Nat Commun*. 2021;12(1):6428. doi:10.1038/s41467-021-26019-y
17. Lang JE, Forero-Torres A, Yee D, et al. Safety and efficacy of HSP90 inhibitor ganetespib for neoadjuvant treatment of stage II/III breast cancer. *NPJ Breast Cancer*. 2022;8(1):128. doi:10.1038/s41523-022-00493-z
18. Nanda R, Liu MC, Yau C, et al. Effect of pembrolizumab plus neoadjuvant chemotherapy on pathologic complete response in women with early-stage breast cancer: an analysis of the ongoing phase 2 adaptively randomized I-SPY2 trial. *JAMA Oncol*. 2020;6(5):676-684. doi:10.1001/jamaoncol.2019.6650
19. von Elm E, Altman DG, Egger M, Pocock SJ, Gøtzsche PC, Vandenbroucke JP; STROBE Initiative. The Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement: guidelines for reporting observational studies. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2008;61(4):344-349. doi:10.1016/j.jclinepi.2007.11.008
20. Yee D, DeMichele AM, Yau C, et al; I-SPY2 Trial Consortium. Association of event-free and distant recurrence-free survival with individual-level pathologic complete response in neoadjuvant treatment of stages 2 and 3 breast cancer: three-year follow-up analysis for the I-SPY2 adaptively randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Oncol*. 2020;6(9):1355-1362. doi:10.1001/jamaoncol.2020.2535
21. Wolf DM, Yau C, Wulfkühle J, et al; I-SPY2 Investigators. Redefining breast cancer subtypes to guide treatment prioritization and maximize response: predictive biomarkers across 10 cancer therapies. *Cancer Cell*. 2022;40(6):609-623.e6. doi:10.1016/j.ccell.2022.05.005
22. Wolf DM, Lenburg ME, Yau C, Boudreau A, van 't Veer LJ. Gene co-expression modules as clinically relevant hallmarks of breast cancer diversity. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(2):e88309. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0088309
23. Danaher P, Warren S, Dennis L, et al. Gene expression markers of tumor infiltrating leukocytes. *J Immunother Cancer*. 2017;5(1):18. doi:10.1186/s40425-017-0215-8
24. Bianchini G, Pusztai L, Karn T, et al. Proliferation and estrogen signaling can distinguish patients at risk for early versus late relapse among estrogen receptor positive breast cancers. *Breast Cancer Res*. 2013;15(5):R86. doi:10.1186/bcr3481
25. Teschendorff AE, Gomez S, Arenas A, et al. Improved prognostic classification of breast cancer defined by antagonistic activation patterns of immune response pathway modules. *BMC Cancer*. 2010;10(1):604. doi:10.1186/1471-2407-10-604
26. Albain KS, Gray RJ, Makower DF, et al. Race, ethnicity, and clinical outcomes in hormone receptor-positive, HER2-negative, node-negative breast cancer in the randomized TAILORx trial. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2021;113(4):390-399. doi:10.1093/jnci/djaa148
27. Hoskins KF, Danciu OC, Ko NY, Calip GS. Association of race/ethnicity and the 21-gene recurrence score with breast cancer-specific mortality among US women. *JAMA Oncol*. 2021;7(3):370-378. doi:10.1001/jamaoncol.2020.7320
28. Sparano JA, Wang M, Zhao F, et al. Race and hormone receptor-positive breast cancer outcomes in a randomized chemotherapy trial. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2012;104(5):406-414. doi:10.1093/jnci/djr543
29. Tichy JR, Deal AM, Anders CK, Reeder-Hayes K, Carey LA. Race, response to chemotherapy, and outcome within clinical breast cancer subtypes. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. 2015;150(3):667-674. doi:10.1007/s10549-015-3350-2

30. Buchman AL, Scolapio J, Fryer J. AGA technical review on short bowel syndrome and intestinal transplantation. *Gastroenterology*. 2003;124(4):1111-1134. doi:10.1016/S0016-5085(03)70064-X
31. Huo D, Hu H, Rhie SK, et al. Comparison of breast cancer molecular features and survival by African and European ancestry in The Cancer Genome Atlas. *JAMA Oncol*. 2017;3(12):1654-1662. doi:10.1001/jamaoncol.2017.0595
32. Zhao F, Copley B, Niu Q, et al. Racial disparities in survival outcomes among breast cancer patients by molecular subtypes. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. 2021;185(3):841-849. doi:10.1007/s10549-020-05984-w
33. Shubeck S, Zhao F, Howard FM, Olopade OI, Huo D. Response to treatment, racial and ethnic disparity, and survival in patients with breast cancer undergoing neoadjuvant chemotherapy in the US. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2023;6(3):e235834. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2023.5834
34. Zhao F, Miyashita M, Hattori M, et al. Racial disparities in pathological complete response among patients receiving neoadjuvant chemotherapy for early-stage breast cancer. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2023;6(3):e233329. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2023.3329
35. Glück S, de Snoo F, Peeters J, Stork-Sloots L, Somlo G. Molecular subtyping of early-stage breast cancer identifies a group of patients who do not benefit from neoadjuvant chemotherapy. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. 2013;139(3):759-767. doi:10.1007/s10549-013-2572-4
36. Cardoso F, van't Veer LJ, Bogaerts J, et al; MINDACT Investigators. 70-Gene signature as an aid to treatment decisions in early-stage breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2016;375(8):717-729. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1602253
37. Whitworth P, Beitsch PD, Pellicane JV, et al; NBRST Investigators Group. Age-independent preoperative chemosensitivity and 5-year outcome determined by combined 70- and 80-gene signature in a prospective trial in early-stage breast cancer. *Ann Surg Oncol*. 2022;29(7):4141-4152. doi:10.1245/s10434-022-11666-2
38. Ibraheem A, Olopade OI, Huo D. Propensity score analysis of the prognostic value of genomic assays for breast cancer in diverse populations using the National Cancer Data Base. *Cancer*. 2020;126(17):4013-4022. doi:10.1002/cncr.32956
39. Collin LJ, Yan M, Jiang R, et al. Oncotype DX recurrence score implications for disparities in chemotherapy and breast cancer mortality in Georgia. *NPJ Breast Cancer*. 2019;5(1):32. doi:10.1038/s41523-019-0129-3
40. Byun JS, Singhal SK, Park S, et al. Racial differences in the association between luminal master regulator gene expression levels and breast cancer survival. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2020;26(8):1905-1914. doi:10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-19-0875
41. Ansari-Pour N, Zheng Y, Yoshimatsu TF, et al. Whole-genome analysis of Nigerian patients with breast cancer reveals ethnic-driven somatic evolution and distinct genomic subtypes. *Nat Commun*. 2021;12(1):6946. doi:10.1038/s41467-021-27079-w
42. Pitt JJ, Riester M, Zheng Y, et al. Characterization of Nigerian breast cancer reveals prevalent homologous recombination deficiency and aggressive molecular features. *Nat Commun*. 2018;9(1):4181. doi:10.1038/s41467-018-06616-0
43. Griguolo G, Dieci MV, Paré L, et al. Immune microenvironment and intrinsic subtyping in hormone receptor-positive/HER2-negative breast cancer. *NPJ Breast Cancer*. 2021;7(1):12. doi:10.1038/s41523-021-00223-x
44. Denkert C, von Minckwitz G, Darb-Esfahani S, et al. Tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes and prognosis in different subtypes of breast cancer: a pooled analysis of 3771 patients treated with neoadjuvant therapy. *Lancet Oncol*. 2018;19(1):40-50. doi:10.1016/S1470-2045(17)30904-X
45. Elliott B, Zackery DL, Eaton VA, et al. Ethnic differences in TGF β -signaling pathway may contribute to prostate cancer health disparity. *Carcinogenesis*. 2018;39(4):546-555. doi:10.1093/carcin/bgy020
46. Bhardwaj A, Srivastava SK, Khan MA, et al. Racial disparities in prostate cancer: a molecular perspective. *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)*. 2017;22(5):772-782. doi:10.2741/4515
47. Ford JG, Howerton MW, Lai GY, et al. Barriers to recruiting underrepresented populations to cancer clinical trials: a systematic review. *Cancer*. 2008;112(2):228-242. doi:10.1002/cncr.23157
48. Awidi M, Al Hadidi S. Participation of Black Americans in cancer clinical trials: current challenges and proposed solutions. *JCO Oncol Pract*. 2021;17(5):265-271. doi:10.1200/OP.21.00001
49. Dignam JJ. Disparities in breast cancer: narrowing the gap. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2021;113(4):349-350. doi:10.1093/jnci/djaa150
50. Office of Minority Health. Black/African American health. US Dept of Health and Human Services; 2023. Accessed April 25, 2023. <https://minorityhealth.hhs.gov/blackafrican-american-health>
51. Chien AJ, Kyalwazi B, Esserman LJ. Optimizing hormone therapy for breast cancer: translating gains to the early-stage setting. *Cell Rep Med*. 2022;3(6):100664. doi:10.1016/j.xcrm.2022.100664

52. Chen A. This clinical trial wanted to end breast cancer disparities. but first it needed to enroll Black women. STAT; 2022. Accessed November 5, 2022. <https://www.statnews.com/2022/06/30/this-clinical-trial-wanted-to-end-breast-cancer-disparities-but-first-it-needed-to-enroll-black-women/>

53. Jemal A, Robbins AS, Lin CC, et al. Factors that contributed to Black-White disparities in survival among nonelderly women with breast cancer between 2004 and 2013. *J Clin Oncol*. 2018;36(1):14-24. doi:10.1200/JCO.2017.73.7932

SUPPLEMENT 1.

eFigure 1. DRFS Hazard Ratios

eFigure 2. Associations of Gene Expression Signatures by Race

eTable 1. Expression Biomarkers Evaluated

eTable 2. Five-Year Distance Recurrence-Free Survival by Race, pCR Status, and Receptor Subtypes

eReferences

SUPPLEMENT 2.

eTable 3. Association Between Expression Signatures Evaluated and Race, Overall and by Tumor Subtypes

eTable 4. Interaction Between High- vs Low-Signature Expression, Race, and Outcomes (Overall Population)

SUPPLEMENT 3.

Data Sharing Statement