Molecular comparison of interval and screen-detected breast cancers

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Conflict of interest statements

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Abstract

Breast cancer (BC) diagnosed after a negative mammogram but prior to the next screening episode is termed an “interval breast cancer” (IBC). Understanding the molecular differences between IBC and screen-detected breast cancers (SDBC) could improve mammographic screening and management options. Therefore, we assessed both germline and somatic genomic aberrations in a prospective cohort. Utilizing the Lifepool cohort of >54,000 women attending mammographic screening programs, 930 BC cases with screening status were identified (726 SDBC and 204 IBC). Clinico-pathological and family history information were recorded. Germline and tumour DNA were collected where available and sequenced for BC predisposition and driver gene mutations. Compared to SDBC, IBCs were significantly associated with a younger age at diagnosis and tumour characteristics associated with worse prognosis. Germline DNA assessment of BC cases that developed post-enrolment (276 SDBCs and 77 IBCs) for pathogenic mutations in 12 hereditary BC predisposition genes identified 8 carriers (2.27%). The germline mutation frequency was higher in IBC versus SDBC, although not statistically significant (3.90% versus 1.81%, $p=0.174$). Comparing somatic genetic features of IBC and SDBC matched for grade, histological subtype and hormone receptor revealed no significant differences, with the exception of higher homologous recombination deficiency scores in IBC, and copy number changes on chromosome Xq in TN SDBCs. Our data demonstrates that while IBCs are clinically more aggressive than SDBC, when matched for confounding clinico-pathological features

they do not represent a unique molecular class of invasive BC, but could be a consequence of timing of tumour initiation and mammographic screening.

Keywords

Breast cancer, interval breast cancer, screen-detected breast cancer, mammographic screening, next generation sequencing, mammographic density, genomics, somatic mutation, genetic predisposition, copy number alteration

Introduction

Interval breast cancers (IBC) are defined as those that arise in the interval between a confirmed negative mammogram and the next scheduled screening episode. IBC can account for ~25% of invasive breast cancer diagnoses in women participating in population-based mammographic screening [1–3] and this rate is therefore a crucial determinant of the effectiveness of screening. IBCs are typically larger in size, higher grade, frequently node-positive at diagnosis, negative for oestrogen and progesterone hormone receptors and associated with a triple-negative phenotype. IBC occur more frequently in younger women, women with high mammographic density and some studies report an association with a family history of breast cancer [3-25]. IBCs have a worse average prognosis compared to screen-detected breast cancers (SDBC) suggesting they may be biologically distinct [26-28].

It is unclear whether IBCs represent a distinct molecular subtype of breast cancer (BC) or are identical to SDBC and simply a consequence of the timing of tumour initiation and/or mammographic density. Whilst large repositories of genomic data are available for BC in general, this data is seldom linked to mammographic screening status and consequently there is a critical knowledge gap in our understanding of the biology and genomics of IBCs. If IBCs represent a distinct biological subclass of BC when compared to the SDBC matched intrinsic subtype, this information might identify novel therapeutic targets or opportunities to devise effective management strategies to reduce the interval cancer rate. Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine the biological relationship of IBC and SDBC

through germline and somatic genomic analyses of a large cohort of well annotated BC for which screening status was known.

Materials and Methods

Study cohort

Subjects were recruited from the prospective Lifepool study (www.lifepool.org) and a schematic of the study cohort is presented in **Figure 1**. Epidemiological and mammographic screening data were available for all study subjects and cancer incidence was determined by linkage to the Victorian Cancer Registry and BreastScreen Victoria. SDBC's were recorded by BreastScreen and IBC's were identified by linking Lifepool participant identities with the Victorian Cancer Registry and BreastScreen records, following the standard protocol used by BreastScreen [29]. IBC's in Australia were defined as a diagnosis (invasive breast cancer or *in situ* disease) diagnosed within the 27 month interval after a negative mammogram but prior to the next scheduled screening [29]. Additionally, the prior mammogram was re-reviewed by a radiologist through BreastScreen for those cases diagnosed as an IBC in order to exclude a false-negative examination. Pathology assessment such as hormone status, Ki67 and tumour grade was performed by the local pathologist/s and the treating hospital. All research pertaining to the Lifepool cohort was approved by the Peter MacCallum Cancer Centre Human Ethics Committee under ethics approval #0966.

Tumour/normal DNA extraction

For germline analysis, DNA was extracted from peripheral blood lymphocytes or saliva using the Chemagen DNA isolation kit coupled with a Hamilton Robotics liquid handling workstation. For formalin-fixed paraffin embedded tumours, a representative haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stained section was prepared and used as a template to needle-microdissect cancer cells from H&E stained 10 µm thick sections. DNA was extracted using the QIAamp DNA FFPE Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) and quantified using the Qubit dsDNA high-sensitivity assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Australia Pty Ltd) as described previously [30].

Targeted sequencing

Targeted sequencing of germline DNA was performed using a custom-designed HaloPlex Targeted Enrichment Assay (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) as described previously [31-33]. The custom panel included all exons and intron-exon boundaries of 12 hereditary breast and ovarian cancer (HBOC) genes, and a panel of low penetrance breast cancer risk single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (**supplementary material, Table S1**). Indexed, 96-sample pooled libraries were analysed using a HiSeq2500 Genome Analyzer (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) to generate paired-end 100 bp sequencing reads.

Targeted sequencing of tumour DNA was performed using a SureSelect XT Custom Panel (Agilent Technologies), targeting all 12 HBOC genes included in the germline panel and 27 genes commonly somatically mutated in breast cancer [34] (**supplementary material, Table S1**). Library preparation was performed on an

input of 300 ng of tumour DNA using the KAPA Hyper system (Agilent). Sequencing of target-enriched DNA libraries was performed using an Illumina NextSeq500 that generated paired-end 75 bp sequence reads.

Germline and somatic mutation detection

Paired-end sequence reads were aligned to the GRCh37 human reference genome using BWA-MEM [35]. Optical and PCR duplicate reads were removed using Picard (<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>), then local realignment around indels and base quality score recalibration were performed using the Genome Analysis Tool Kit (GATK) in accordance with their recommended best practice workflow [36]. SNP and indel variants were called using GATK UnifiedGenotyper, Platypus [37] and Varscan 2 [38] and annotated using the Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor [39].

The germline variant calling pipeline has been described previously [40–42]. The variant data were filtered for loss-of-function mutations (defined as nonsense or frameshift or essential splice site mutations) and missense mutations that were classified as known pathogenic in ClinVar [43]. Somatic mutations in the tumour sequencing data were identified by removing previously available germline variant data for HBOC panel genes, and where this information was not available, by applying the following filters: canonical transcript; quality ≥ 100 ; variants identified by at least two variant callers; minimum variant allele proportion ≥ 0.2 ; minor allele frequency present at ≤ 0.0001 in ExAc (Version 0.3.1, excluding TCGA data,

released March 14 2016) [44], GnomAD (Version 2.0, released 27 February 2017) [44], EVS (Version ESP6500SI-V2-SSA137) [45] and 1000 Genomes database [46].

Genome-wide copy number analysis

Off-target sequencing reads from the tumour sequencing data were used to generate genome-wide copy number (CN) data for 46 IBCs and 64 SDBCes using CopywriteR [47] utilising a normal lymphocyte DNA control run in the same sequencing batch for the normalisation baseline (NA12878, Coriell Institute). An additional 9 SDBCes were analysed for genomic CN using the Affymetrix Molecular Inversion Probe 330K array. Data were imported into NEXUS Copy NumberTM (software v8.0 with build version 9169, BioDiscovery Inc., El Segundo, CA, USA), segmented using a FASST2 segmentation algorithm and visualised. Comparisons between groups were made using Nexus, applying thresholds of $p < 0.05$ and at least 25% frequency difference. Within the Nexus software package, gains were $\log_2$ ratio defined as > 0.3 and losses at ≤ -0.3 . High copy number gains were called if the $\log_2$ ratio was > 1.2 and homozygous deletions ≤ -1.2 .

Polygenic risk score

To analyse the association of the risk conferred by low penetrance breast cancer SNPs between SDBC and IBC, a polygenic risk score (PRS) was generated using data for 69 BC risk SNPs. A PRS was derived for each individual using the process reported previously [48]. The PRS generated for the IBC and SDBC was normalized to the PRS generated using the same SNPs for 4,857 cancer-free

women from Lifepool.

Homologous recombination deficiency scoring

Using the genome-wide CN data, a homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) score [49] was calculated for each tumour by summing the individual scores for telomeric allelic imbalances, large-scale state transitions, and homologous recombination deficiency-loss-of-heterozygosity following methods previously described [50–52].

Statistical analysis

Fisher's exact test was used to examine frequency differences in germline mutations between SDBC and IBC. A two-tailed *t*-test (1x1 table), Fisher's exact test (2x2 tables) or Chi-square test (3x2 or greater tables) was applied to compare clinic-pathological differences between SDBC and IBC. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was performed to compare cumulative PRS differences in cancer free controls, IBCs and SDBCs.

Results

Interval cancers exhibit a more aggressive phenotype

A total of 1146 Lifepool participants were identified from 2010 to 2018 as having being diagnosed with a breast malignancy where screening detection status was known (**Table 1**), and comprised 930 invasive breast carcinomas [726 (78.1%) screen-detected and 204 (21.9%) interval] and 216 *in situ* cancers [189 (87.5%) screen-detected and 27 (12.5%) interval]. Women diagnosed with an invasive IBC had a significantly lower mean age (61.1 [range 44–80]) compared with SDBC (63.1 [range 40–89]) ($p=0.0009$). Invasive IBCs were significantly associated with larger tumour size ($p<0.0001$), higher grade ($p<0.0001$), higher proliferation index ($p<0.0001$), and nodal involvement ($p=0.0003$) (**Table 1**).

The intrinsic subtype distribution (according to St Gallen classification) [53]) but not histological subtype differed significantly between SDBC and IBC ($p<0.0001$) (**Table 1, supplementary material, Table S2**). Luminal type cancers were more frequent in SDBC and subtypes associated with worse prognosis (ER-, Her2+ and TNBC) were more frequent among IBCs (**Table 1, supplementary material, Table S3**). The number of women diagnosed with either a SDBC or IBC with a self-reported strong family history of breast/ovarian cancer (28.4% versus 26.5%) or reporting a first degree relative with breast cancer (12% versus 15.7%) was not statistically different ($p=0.659$ and 0.1913 , respectively).

Frequency of pathogenic germline mutations in *HBOC* genes

Germline DNA was available from 442 participants diagnosed with BC (353 invasive and 89 *in situ*) and these were sequenced for pathogenic mutations in 12 HBOC genes (*BRCA1*, *BRCA2*, *PALB2*, *ATM*, *CHEK2*, *BRIP1*, *RAD51C*, *RAD51D*, *CDH1*, *PTEN*, *STK11* and *TP53*). Eight pathogenic mutations were identified among the invasive BCs (2.27%; 4 *BRCA2*, 1 *PALB2*, 1 *ATM* and 2 *CHEK2*) (**Table 2**) and four among *in situ* BCs (4.5%, 3 *BRCA2* and 1 *CHEK2*) (**supplementary material, Table S4**). The mutation carrier frequency was higher among the invasive IBC cases compared with the SDBC (3.90% versus 1.81%) but was not statistically significant ($p=0.278$). Details of all germline mutations identified and associated clinicopathological data are described in **supplementary material, Table S5**.

PRS scores were generated for SDBC ($n = 268$) and IBC ($n = 76$) using 69 breast cancer SNPs and normalized against cancer-free controls ($n = 4857$). As expected, the combined BC cases (SDBC and IBC) showed a significantly higher PRS compared with cancer-free controls ($p<0.0001$). In a case-only analysis, IBCs were found to be associated with lower PRS than the SDBC, which was not significantly divergent from the control cohort ($p = 0.1057$); whilst the SDBC cohort PRS was significantly higher than controls ($p<0.0001$) (**supplementary material, Figure S1**).

Differences in somatic aberrations

Targeted full-exon sequencing of known breast cancer driver genes was performed on tumour DNA from all available IBC (n=46) and selected SDBC (n=64) that were matched for age, grade, intrinsic subtype and histological subtype (**Table 3**) with the exception of a numerically higher number of TN and lobular breast cancers in the IBC cohort (although not statistically significant). Collectively, there were no significant differences in the average number of somatic coding mutations per tumour in IBC compared with SDBC (8.7 [range 1–42] versus 8.5 [range 1–15], $p = 0.1605$), and this was not different when comparing within the luminal ($p=0.9797$) or TN ($p=0.2473$) subtypes (**supplementary material, Figure S2**). One IBC carried a large number of somatic mutations (42 mutations detected), which may be attributed to the occurrence of a somatic frameshift mutation in *MLH3* (p.Pro1292Glnfs*32) that was accompanied by loss of the wild-type allele. The most commonly mutated breast cancer driver genes included *PIK3CA*, *TP53*, *KMT2C*, *CBFB*, *GATA3*, *CDH1*, *MAP3K1* and *TBX4* (**Table 4**). There were no significant differences in the frequency of mutations in individual genes between IBC and SDBC either as a whole or when analysed according to intrinsic (TN and luminal subtype) and histological subtypes (ductal and lobular).

Analysis of genome-wide CN changes did not identify any significant differences between IBCs and SDBCs with the exception of a higher frequency of loss of chromosome Xq in the TN SDBCs (**Figure 2A–C**), although the number of cases was small. The HRD sum score was significantly higher in the IBC cohort compared to the SDBC cohort (mean score 37.5 versus 28.2, $p=0.0211$, **Figure 2D**).

The HRD sum score was significantly higher when analysed as luminal (mean score 34.1 versus 25.8, $p=0.0374$, **Figure 2E**) but not TN (mean score 59.3 versus 60.0, $p=0.9433$, **Figure 2F**) subtype

Additionally, the frequency of IBC and SDBC with either a clinically high (≥ 42) or low (< 42) HRD sum score showed no significant differences when comparing the entire cohort, luminal and TN subtypes (**Figure 2G–I**).

Discussion

While there have been numerous studies comparing the clinicopathological characteristics of SDBC and IBC, few have explored the molecular landscape of these cancers. In this study we report the largest and most detailed germline and somatic genetic analysis of IBC and SDBC. The proportion of cases and clinical features of IBCs compared with SDBC within Lifepool is broadly consistent with data reported in other studies (**Table 5**). Specifically, IBC represented 21.9% of invasive BC diagnoses (and 12.5% with *in situ* diagnoses), and cancers had clinical features associated with more aggressive disease, such as higher grade, more node positivity and a higher rate of TN and Her2+ intrinsic subtypes diagnosis when compared with SDBC.

While we performed radiological review of the prior mammograms to exclude missed cancers, some cases remaining in our analysis may have been occult on the screening mammogram due to dense tissue, and this is more likely for younger women who on average have higher mammographic density. This may have contributed to our finding that the average age at diagnosis was lower for IBCs than SDBC.

The lack of family history of BC association was consistent with most studies (**Table 5**) and this persisted when using only the number of first degree relatives with BC. Contrary to these findings, the largest familial study comparing IBC and SDBC to date (family history of BC in mother and sister in 538 IBCs and 1263 SDBC)

found a small but statistically significant association of family history with IBC after applying an age-adjusted model [4]. The lack of consistency in the various studies could be due to differing definitions of family history, a lack of accurate family history data or might reflect statistical variance around a small effect size.

Among the entire cohort with invasive BC, 2.27% carried actionable *HBOC* mutations that would initiate an offer of referral to a specialised familial cancer centre. This number is lower, although not statistically different from the 4.6% described by Tung *et al* (2016) in women >60 years of age from a hospital-based study of BC unselected for family history [54]. The higher frequency of *HBOC* mutations reported by Tung *et al* (2016) could be partly explained as they obtained samples through a specialist cancer hospital-based cohort. This is reflective in their data, as compared to our cohort, they report a higher proportion of TNBCs (17.8% compared to 7%), and a larger proportion of patients with a strong family history of breast cancer (18.6% compared to 12.8%).

It has been documented that *BRCA1/2* carriers who are part of a screening program are highly prone to developing an IBC [55–59], and while a higher frequency of *HBOC* mutations was observed in IBC versus SDBC in our study (3.90% versus 1.81%) this was not statistically significant. However, since the peak breast cancer incidence for *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* carriers occurs in the 41–50 and 51–60 age group respectively [60], carriers of these mutations will have been depleted from the Lifepool study cohort given the median age at recruitment is 60.63.

Consistent with this we did not identify any *BRCA1* mutation carriers among either the SDBC or IBC. Furthermore, it has been noted in these studies that patients who went on to develop an IBC were younger than women detected by mammographic screening; and their breast tissue described as 'dense' [55–59]. This supports the observation that density limits the sensitivity of imaging, whereas these masking effects would be reduced in our older cohort.

It is possible that some IBC cases were identified through 'pseudo-screening', where women accessed screening services outside the BreastScreen program. This is known to occur in Australia [61,62] and would be expected to attenuate differences between our SDBC and IBC cases.

We explored whether the PRS could discriminate between SDBC and IBC, as this could potentially be used to identify sub-groups of women who would benefit from a tailored screening modality. As expected, the BC cases as a whole had significantly higher PRS than cancer-free controls. Interestingly, the IBCs had a lower PRS than the SDBC which is consistent with a previous report [25] and likely reflects the fact that the SNPs used to generate the PRS are more predictive for ER+ breast cancer [63], which were more prevalent in SDBC than IBC (92.8% versus 74%, $p < 0.0001$).

Because IBCs are generally more aggressive and associated with poorer outcome than SDBC, this may reflect a fundamental difference in molecular aetiology. Whilst the clinicopathological data confirmed that IBCs are enriched for

more aggressive phenotypes, when matched for age, grade, intrinsic subtypes and histological subtype there were no significant differences in the somatic genetic alterations between the two groups. Differences in IBCs reported by others, in particular a higher frequency of *TP53* mutations (**Table 5**), are largely explained by the higher proportion of TNBC and Her2+ tumours in which *TP53* mutations are more common. The only potential difference between the IBC and SDBC was more frequent loss of chr Xq in the TN SDBC (0/8 IBC versus 5/5 SDBC), but the numbers were small.

A limitation of the somatic analysis is the slightly higher proportion of TN and lobular BCs in the IBC cohort, due to the lack of suitable matching cases in the SDBC. Additionally, the number of Her2-type IBCs analysed was small, so the question as to whether they harbour unique copy number aberrations or somatic driver mutations compared to Her2-type SBDCs remains unanswered.

HRD scores ≥ 42 have shown clinical utility in predicting the likelihood of response to neoadjuvant platinum-containing therapy such as PARP inhibition [64,65]. Whilst IBC cases demonstrated a significantly higher mean HRD score, when categorised into the potentially clinically relevant high (≥ 42) or low HRD (< 42) categories there was no significant difference. This result indicates that treatment strategies for IBC and SDBC patients with DNA damaging therapeutics are likely to be similar.

Two scenarios of IBC development have been postulated when compared to SDBC of the same intrinsic subtype (**Figure 3**). Scenario 1 infers IBCs are a consequence of the convergence of tumour initiation timing and mammographic screening timing/technology; and Scenario 2 postulates that IBCs comprise a significantly different molecular class of BC. Our data is consistent with the former scenario, given our analysis revealed no major molecular divergence in the IBC cohort when matched for clinical features that include age at diagnosis, tumour grade, histological subtype and hormone status. While this study is the most comprehensive molecular analysis of IBC to date, the overall numbers are small and this data needs to be interpreted cautiously and will require validation in independent cohorts.

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Author contributions statement

DC, KLG and IGC contributed to the study design; DC, NL, SMR, KE, GBM, TK, TS, LD, GL, SH, HS, KMF, KK, JC, PAJ, and KLG contributed to data collection; DC, NL, SMR, KE, GBM, MZ, LD, KLG and IGC performed data analysis and interpretation; DC and KLG performed the literature search for the manuscript; DC generated the figures, tables and drafted the manuscript, which was then extensively edited by KLG and IGC. All other authors read and commented on the manuscript and approved the final version.

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Supplementary materials and methods NO

Supplementary figure legends NO because the legends are embedded in the Word file

Figure S1. Distribution of polygenic risk score

Figure S2. Spectrum of somatic mutations in IBC and SDBC according to subtype

Table S1. Genes analysed across somatic and germline sequencing panels

Table S2. Breast cancer subtypes diagnosed in the Lifepool cohort.

Table S3. Cancer subtype classification according to hormone and human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 status

Table S4. Germline mutations in Lifepool women diagnosed with in situ breast cancer

Table S5. Clinico-pathological and sequencing information for germline pathogenic mutations identified

Legends and Tables

Figure 1. Summary of the study cohort.

Figure 2. Copy number changes in interval and screen detected breast cancers.

Copy number aberrations are shown for 46 IBCs and 73 SDBC as the frequency of copy number changes in (A) entire cohort, (B) luminal subtype and (C) triple negative breast cancer subtype. The region highlighted with a dark black box represents a significant copy change between IBCs and SDBC (thresholds of $p < 0.05$ and at least 25% frequency difference). Copy number profiles were used to generate a HRD-sum score for (D) entire cohort, (E) luminal subtype and (F) triple negative breast cancer subtype. The frequency of IBC and SDBC with a clinically high HRD score (≥ 42) was also calculated for (G) entire cohort, (H) luminal subtype and (I) triple negative breast cancer subtype. Mann-Whitney tests were applied to HRD sum score calculations and Fisher's exact test was applied to HRD frequency plots.

Figure 3. Development of interval breast cancers compared to screen detected breast cancer.

Table 1. Clinicopathological features of invasive screen detected and interval breast cancers in the Lifepool dataset.

Characteristics	SDBC	IBC	p value
Behaviour			
Invasive	726 (78.1%)	204 (21.9%)	
<i>In situ</i>	189 (87.5%)	27 (12.5%)	
Invasive only			
Age at diagnosis			
Mean $\pm$ SD	63.1 $\pm$ 7.4	61.1 $\pm$ 7.4	0.0009 ^a
Median	63.3	60.8	
Range	40-89	44-80	
Tumour Size			
<20 mm	398 (61%)	65 (37.1%)	<0.0001 ^b
20-49 mm	220 (33.7%)	86 (49.1%)	
$\geq$ 50	34 (5.2%)	24 (13.7%)	
NA	74	29	
Intrinsic Subtype			
TNBC	34 (5.2%)	31 (16.9%)	<0.0001 ^b
ER-, Her2+	9 (1.4%)	14 (7.7%)	
Luminal Her2+	45 (6.9%)	17 (9.3%)	
Luminal	564 (86.5%)	121 (66.1%)	
NA	74	21	
Invasive cancer histology subtype			
Ductal	553 (76.2%)	160 (78.4%)	0.0615 ^b
Lobular	80 (11.%)	29 (14.2%)	
Other	93 (12.8%)	15 (7.4%)	
Tumour grade			
1	193 (29%)	21 (11.6%)	<0.0001 ^b
2	324 (48.6%)	77 (42.5%)	
3	149 (22.4%)	83 (45.9%)	
NA	60	23	
Nodal status			
Positive	117 (24.2%)	52 (40.6%)	0.0003 ^c
Negative	367 (75.6%)	76 (59.4%)	
NA	242	76	
Proliferation index (Ki67)			
High ($\geq$ 20%)	101 (26.2%)	45 (49.5%)	<0.0001 ^c
Low (<20%)	284 (73.8%)	46 (50.5%)	
NA	341	113	
Laterality			
Left	364 (52%)	103 (51.2%)	0.8729 ^c
Right	336 (48%)	98 (48.8%)	
NA	26	3	
1st degree relatives with breast cancer			
Yes	206 (28.4%)	54 (26.5%)	0.6590 ^c

No	520 (71.6%)	150 (73.5%)	
Strong family history of breast cancer			
Yes	87 (12%)	32 (15.7%)	0.1913 ^c
No	639 (88%)	172 (84.3%)	

Calculation of percentage within the cohort is shown within parentheses. Strong family history of breast cancer was defined as either three 1st or 2nd degree relatives with breast cancer; two 1st or 2nd degree relatives with breast cancer (one diagnosed <50 years); male breast cancer any age; or ovarian cancer any age. NA, data not available; a, two-tailed χ^2 -test was applied; b, Chi-square test was applied; c, Fisher's exact test.

Table 2. Contribution of germline mutations in Lifepool women diagnosed with an invasive breast cancer.

Breast cancer panel genes	Total (n=353)	IBC (n=77)	SDBC (n=276)	p value	TNBC (n=23)
<i>BRCA2</i> LoF	4 (1.13%)	2 (2.6%)	2 (0.72%)	0.170	1 (4.35%)
<i>PALB2</i> LoF	1 (0.28%)	1 (1.3%)	-	-	1 (4.35%)
<i>ATM</i> LoF	1 (0.28%)		1 (0.36%)		
<i>CHEK2</i> c.1100delC	2 (0.57%)	-	2 (0.72%)	-	-
	8 (2.27%)	3 (3.90%)	5 (1.81%)	0.278	

Calculation of percentage within the cohort and screening group is shown within parentheses. Two-tailed Fisher's exact tests have been calculated for each gene comparing IBC to the SDBC. No pathogenic variants were observed in screened HBOC genes *BRCA1*, *BRIP1*, *RAD51C*, *RAD51D*, *CDH1*, *ATM* (c.7271T>G), *PTEN*, *STK11* and *TP53*. LoF, loss of function

Table 3. Breast tumours sequenced on the Agilent Sureselect panel compared for age, intrinsic subtype, grade and histological subtype .

Characteristics	SDBC (n=64)	IBC (n=46)	p value
Age at diagnosis			
Mean ± SD	61.9 ± 8	61.2 ± 8	0.8731 ^a
Median	60.9	60.1	
Range	42-80	45-80	
Intrinsic subtype			
ER-, Her2+	1 (1.6%)	0	0.3770 ^b
Luminal Her2+	4 (6.3%)	2 (4.3%)	
Luminal	54 (84.4%)	36 (78.3%)	
TNBC	5 (7.8%)	8 (17.4%)	
Tumour grade			
1	14 (21.9%)	8 (17.8%)	0.5606 ^b
2	32 (50%)	20 (44.4%)	
3	18 (28.1%)	17 (37.8%)	
NA	0	1	
Histological subtype			
Ductal	56 (87.5%)	36 (78.3%)	0.2749 ^b
Lobular	3 (4.7%)	6 (13%)	
Other	5 (7.8%)	4 (8.7%)	

NA, clinical data not available; a, two-tailed *t*-test was applied; b, Chi-square test was applied.

Table 4. Breast cancer somatic driver mutation profile in interval and screen-detected breast cancers

Gene	Entire cohort (IBC n=46, SDBC n=64)			Luminal subtype (IBC n=38, SDBC n=58)			TNBC subtype (IBC n=8, SDBC n=5)			Ductal breast cancers (IBC n=36, SDBC n=56)			Lobular breast cancers (IBC n=6, SDBC n=3)		
	IBC n (%)	SDBC n (%)	p value	IBC n (%)	SDBC n (%)	p value	IBC n (%)	SDBC n (%)	p value	IBC n (%)	SDBC n (%)	p value	IBC n (%)	SDBC n (%)	p value
PIK3CA	21 (45.7%)	24 (37.5%)	0.393	18 (47.4%)	23 (39.7%)	0.457	3 (37.5%)	1 (20%)	0.523	15 (41.7%)	20 (35.7%)	0.568	5 (83.3%)	2 (66.7%)	<0.999
TP53	9 (19.6%)	14 (21.9%)	0.770	3 (7.9%)	10 (17.2%)	0.193	6 (75%)	4 (80%)	0.841	7 (19.4%)	13 (23.2%)	0.670	1 (16.7%)	0	<0.999
KMT2C	7 (15.2%)	13 (20.3%)	0.496	6 (15.8%)	13 (22.4%)	0.428	1 (12.5%)	0	<0.999	3 (8.3%)	12 (21.4%)	0.099	3 (50%)	0	0.464
CBFB	7 (15.2%)	10 (15.6%)	0.954	8 (21.1%)	10 (17.2%)	0.642	0	0	-	6 (16.7%)	9 (16.1%)	0.940	2 (33.3%)	0	0.500
GATA3	7 (15.2%)	8 (12.5%)	0.683	7 (8.4%)	8 (13.8%)	0.543	0	0	-	6 (16.7%)	6 (10.7%)	0.411	0	0	-
CDH1	7 (15.2%)	8 (12.5%)	0.683	6 (15.8%)	7 (12.1%)	0.604	1 (12.5%)	1 (20%)	<0.999	1 (2.8%)	5 (8.9%)	0.246	6 (100%)	3 (100%)	<0.999
MAP3K1	5 (10.9%)	8 (12.5%)	0.795	4 (10.5%)	8 (13.8%)	0.638	1 (12.5%)	0	<0.999	3 (8.3%)	7 (12.5%)	0.533	1 (16.7%)	0	<0.999
TBX3	3 (6.5%)	5 (7.8%)	0.798	3 (7.9%)	5 (8.6%)	0.900	0	0	-	2 (5.6%)	4 (7.1%)	0.765	1 (16.7%)	1 (33.3%)	<0.999
NCOR1	6 (13%)	3 (4.7%)	0.116	5 (13.2%)	3 (5.2%)	0.168	1 (12.5%)	0	<0.999	5 (13.9%)	2 (3.6%)	0.070	1 (16.7%)	1 (33.3%)	<0.999
PTEN	2 (4.3%)	5 (7.8%)	0.465	2 (5.3%)	5 (8.6%)	0.538	0	0	-	2 (5.6%)	5 (8.9%)	0.554	0	0	-
ARID1A	2 (4.3%)	6 (9.4%)	0.319	2 (5.3%)	6 (10.3%)	0.381	0	0	-	1 (2.8%)	4 (7.1%)	0.370	1 (16.7%)	1 (33.3%)	<0.999
AKT1	2 (4.3%)	3 (4.7%)	0.933	2 (5.3%)	3 (5.2%)	0.984	0	0	-	2 (5.6%)	3 (5.4%)	0.967	0	0	-
BRCA1	2 (4.3%)	2 (3.1%)	0.737	1 (2.6%)	1 (1.7%)	<0.999	1 (12.5%)	1 (20%)	<0.999	2 (5.6%)	2 (3.6%)	0.651	0	0	-
RUNX1	0	3 (4.7%)	0.138	0	3 (5.2%)	0.156	0	0	-	0	3 (5.4%)	0.160	0	0	-
BRCA2	0	3 (4.7%)	0.138	0	3 (5.2%)	0.156	0	0	-	0	3 (5.4%)	0.160	0	0	-
NF1	2 (4.3%)	1 (1.6%)	0.379	1 (2.6%)	1 (1.7%)	<0.999	1 (12.5%)	0	<0.999	2 (5.6%)	0	0.151	0	0	-
MAP2K4	2 (4.3%)	1 (1.6%)	0.379	2 (5.3%)	1 (1.7%)	0.332	0	0	-	2 (5.6%)	1 (1.8%)	0.323	0	0	-
PIK3R1	2 (4.3%)	0	-	1 (2.6%)	0	0.396	1 (12.5%)	0	<0.999	2 (5.6%)	0	0.151	0	0	-
SF3B1	0	1 (1.6%)	-	0	1 (1.7%)	<0.999	0	0	-	0	1 (1.8%)	<0.999	0	0	-
FOXP1	0	1 (1.6%)	-	0	1 (1.7%)	<0.999	0	0	-	0	1 (1.8%)	<0.999	0	0	-

MEN1	1 (2.2%)	0	-	1 (2.6%)	0	0.396	0	0	-	1 (2.8%)	0	0.391	0	0	-
CDKN2A	1 (2.2%)	0	-	1 (2.6%)	0	0.396	0	0	-	1 (2.8%)	0	0.391	0	0	-

Author	Year	Reference	ER-	PR-	HER2 +ve	Ki67 high	Higher grade	Larger size	Nodal status +ve	Young age	TP53 +ve	CNAs	Somatic mutations	Germline mutations	PRS	Family history	# of IBCs
Cheasley	2019	This report															201
Holm	2015	4															1247
Li	2015	25															782
Blanch	2014	5															484
Kirsh	2011	22															288
Eriksson	2013	3															285
Payne	2013	6															233
Porter	1999	7															150
Mandelson	2000	8															149
Li	2017	9															113
Brekelmans	1994	10															107
Bellio	2017	11															107
Collett	2005	12															95
Chen	2015	23															75
Meshkat	2015	13															71
Caldarella	2013	14															66
Gilliland	2000	24															64
Cowan	2000	15															57
Crosier	1999	16															51
Palka	2008	17															48
Musolino	2012	18															48
Lowery	2011	19															47
Anttinen	2003	20															39
Domingo	2010	21															34

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