

Integration of a Cross-Ancestry Polygenic Model With Clinical Risk Factors Improves Breast Cancer Risk Stratification

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PURPOSE To develop and validate a cross-ancestry integrated risk score (caIRS) that combines a cross-ancestry polygenic risk score (caPRS) with a clinical estimator for breast cancer (BC) risk. We hypothesized that the caIRS is a better predictor of BC risk than clinical risk factors across diverse ancestry groups.

METHODS We used diverse retrospective cohort data with longitudinal follow-up to develop a caPRS and integrate it with the Tyrer-Cuzick (T-C) clinical model. We tested the association between the caIRS and BC risk in two validation cohorts including > 130,000 women. We compared model discrimination for 5-year and remaining lifetime BC risk between the caIRS and T-C and assessed how the caIRS would affect screening in the clinic.

RESULTS The caIRS outperformed T-C alone for all populations tested in both validation cohorts and contributed significantly to risk prediction beyond T-C. The area under the receiver operating characteristic curve improved from 0.57 to 0.65, and the odds ratio per standard deviation increased from 1.35 (95% CI, 1.27 to 1.43) to 1.79 (95% CI, 1.70 to 1.88) in validation cohort 1 with similar improvements observed in validation cohort 2. We observed the largest gain in positive predictive value using the caIRS in Black/African American women across both validation cohorts, with an approximately two-fold increase and an equivalent negative predictive value as the T-C. In a multivariate, age-adjusted logistic regression model including both caIRS and T-C, caIRS remained significant, indicating that caIRS provides information over T-C alone.

CONCLUSION Adding a caPRS to the T-C model improves BC risk stratification for women of multiple ancestries, which could have implications for screening recommendations and prevention.

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INTRODUCTION

Accurate individualized breast cancer (BC) risk estimates are critical for identifying women eligible for preventive and early detection interventions. BC risk estimates are based on combinations of clinical and epidemiologic risk factors, such as age, family history (FH) of cancer, age at menarche, and body mass index.^{1,2} Some models also account for genetic risk factors, typically pathogenic variants (PVs) in high-risk (including *BRCA1*, *BRCA2*, and *PALB2*) and moderate-risk genes (such as *ATM* and *CHEK2*).³⁻⁸ However, these variants are rare in the general population and only account for approximately 6% of all BCs and 2.6% when considering only *BRCA1* and *BRCA2*.^{5,9} To more adequately evaluate the contribution of genetic factors to BC risk, polygenic risk scores (PRSs) have been developed on the basis of common variants associated with BC in genome-wide association studies (GWASs). Individually, each of these variants confers only a small increase in risk,

but collectively, as a PRS, they account for considerable BC susceptibility.¹⁰⁻¹⁵

Recent studies have demonstrated that use of PRSs enables more effective risk stratification and improves the risk-benefit ratio in population-wide BC screening.^{16,17} Wolfson et al¹⁷ showed that PRS information more effectively stratified women for BC risk than BC FH or PV alone. PRSs can be integrated with traditional clinical risk models, which include cancer FH, to potentially improve BC risk assessment. To date, studies have consistently demonstrated improved BC risk stratification with integrated models versus clinical models alone.^{2,18-25}

However, most polygenic models have been developed and validated in women of European ancestry.^{2,12,18,21,22,26-34} When they have been generalized to non-European populations, these PRSs typically do not provide comparable risk stratification.^{34,35} These findings highlight the need

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Data Supplement

Author affiliations and support information (if applicable) appear at the end of this article.

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CONTEXT

Key Objective

To develop a risk prediction model using polygenic risk scores that improves breast cancer (BC) risk stratification over a standard-of-care tool, the Tyrer-Cuzick (T-C) clinical model, that can be applied to women of diverse ancestries.

Knowledge Generated

The cross-ancestry integrated risk score is significantly associated with BC risk and is well-calibrated in a validation set consisting of women of European and non-European ancestries. Relative to the T-C model alone, the cross-ancestry integrated risk score improved risk stratification for women of diverse ancestries.

Relevance

Addition of a cross-ancestry polygenic risk score to the T-C clinical model provides more accurate, individualized BC risk estimates for unaffected women of multiple ancestries for screening and prevention.

to develop and validate PRSs on the basis of variants identified in women of diverse ancestries.^{20,23,24,35,36}

Recently, we described a method to generate a cross-ancestry PRS (caPRS) that improved risk stratification among women of five ancestries.³⁷ Here, we improved on our previous caPRS and integrated the caPRS with the Tyrer-Cuzick (T-C) clinical risk model to generate a cross-ancestry integrated risk score (caIRS). We hypothesized that the caIRS would be a better predictor of BC than the T-C score alone.

METHODS

Study Populations

We used genotype and phenotype data from multiple cohorts to develop and validate the caIRS. These cohorts included the UK Biobank (UKB),³⁸ the Women's Health Initiative (WHI, dbGAP study phs000200.v12.p3),³⁹ the GWAS of Breast Cancer in the African Diaspora (ROOT, dbGAP study phs000383.v1.p1),⁴⁰ and the Multiethnic Cohort (dbGAP study phs000517.v3.p1).⁴¹ See the Data Supplement for more details on the inclusion/exclusion criteria.

We divided the cohorts into four study cohorts for development and validation of the caIRS (Data Supplement). Development cohorts 1 and 2 comprised 10,927 women with BC (cases) and 114,390 women unaffected by BC (controls) from the UKB (a subset), Multiethnic Cohort, and ROOT (Data Supplement). Validation cohort 1 comprised 25,284 women from the WHI, and validation cohort 2 comprised the remaining 119,187 women in the UKB who were not included in the development cohorts (Table 1). BC cases in the validation cohorts were diagnosed after initial assessment. Women diagnosed with BC within 5 years of initial assessment in the prospective validation cohorts were used to assess 5-year risk performance.

Genotype Imputation

We prephased genotype data from microarrays in each study using SHAPEIT2 and imputed unobserved genotypes

using IMPUTE2 using either the 1000 Genomes Project phase III reference or UK10K reference^{42,43} (further details are provided in the Data Supplement). For sites that could not be imputed in this way, we obtained a population-specific allele frequency from gnomAD v3.1.1 to estimate the average contribution of the variant.

Clinical Risk

We obtained cancer FH and risk factor information for participants in each study and then calculated absolute risk (5-year and remaining lifetime risk) estimates using T-C version 8.⁴⁴ We coded missing data according to the specifications of the model.

Statistical Methods

Cross-ancestry PRS. We evaluated the performance of multiple BC polygenic models across individuals in each of five ancestry groups (European, African, South Asian, East Asian, and Admixed American) using multivariate logistic regression models adjusted for age at assessment/diagnosis, first-degree FH of BC, and personal history of ovarian cancer (when available). To examine the performance of each model, we estimated the odds ratio (OR) per standard deviation (SD) and area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) in development cohort 1 and included the best performing model for each ancestry in the caPRS (Data Supplement).

We defined the caPRS as a linear combination of the best performing PRS model for each ancestry group weighted by the effect size and fractional ancestry. We evaluated the impact of FH of BC in first-degree relatives on caPRS by fitting an additional interaction term to the models. Further details can be found in the Data Supplement.

Associations between caPRS and T-C variables. We assessed the association between the caPRS and T-C variables in development cohort 2 using a linear regression model in which we predicted caPRS as a function of each of the T-C variables. We examined the regression coefficients and *P* values associated with the *F* statistic in these models.

TABLE 1. Validation Cohort Characteristics

Self-Reported Ethnicity	Total, No. (%)	5-Year Cases, No. (%)	5-Year Controls, No. (%)	Lifetime Cases, No. (%)	Lifetime Controls, No. (%)
Validation cohort 1	25,284 (100.0)	538 (2.1)	24,746 (97.8)	1,997 (7.9)	23,287 (92.1)
African American/Black	7,650 (30.3)	146 (27.1)	7,504 (30.3)	612 (30.6)	7,038 (30.2)
White	14,426 (57.1)	334 (62.1)	14,092 (56.9)	1,192 (59.7)	13,234 (56.8)
Hispanic/Latino	3,208 (12.7)	58 (10.8)	3,150 (12.7)	193 (9.7)	3,015 (12.9)
Age range, years	49-81	50-79	49-81	50-79	49-81
Median age, years	64	65	64	63	65
≥ 1 FDR with BC	3,748 (14.8)	98 (18.2)	3,650 (14.7)	387 (19.4)	3,361 (14.4)
caPRS range	-1.7 to 1.7	-1.1 to 1.7	-1.7 to 1.7	-1.3 to 1.7	-1.7 to 1.7
caPRS median	0.41	0.39	0.41	0.40	0.41
Validation cohort 2	119,187 (100.0)	3,628 (3.0)	115,559 (97.0)	8,115 (6.8)	111,072 (93.2)
Black	1,239 (1.0)	19 (0.5)	1,220 (1.1)	56 (0.7)	1,183 (1.1)
Chinese	468 (0.4)	6 (0.2)	462 (0.4)	16 (0.2)	452 (0.4)
White/White British	104,661 (87.8)	3,242 (89.4)	101,419 (87.8)	7,255 (89.4)	97,406 (87.7)
(South)Asian or Asian British	1,327 (1.1)	29 (0.8)	1,298 (1.1)	75 (0.9)	1,252 (1.1)
Others	11,492 (9.6)	332 (9.2)	11,160 (9.7)	713 (8.8)	10,779 (9.7)
Age range, years	40-70	40-70	40-70	40-70	40-70
Median age, years	57	59	57	59	57
≥ 1 FDR with BC	13,095 (11.0)	588 (16.2)	12,507 (10.8)	1,290 (15.9)	11,805 (10.6)
caPRS range	-4.3 to 4.6	-3.2 to 4.6	-4.3 to 4.4	-3.5 to 4.6	-4.3 to 3.8
caPRS median	-0.12	0.37	-0.13	0.33	-0.15

NOTE. The validation cohorts consisted of women from the Women's Health Initiative (validation cohort 1) and the UK Biobank (validation cohort 2).

Abbreviations: BC, breast cancer; caPRS, cross-ancestry polygenic risk score; FDR, first-degree relative.

Cross-ancestry integrated risk score. We estimated the effect size associated with the caPRS in development cohort 2 using a multivariate logistic regression that included caPRS, age at assessment/diagnosis, FH of BC, personal and FH of ovarian cancer (when available), and cohort. We separated data from the women unaffected by BC into 12 groups on the basis of age and first-degree FH of BC and calculated an adjustment constant for each group. We then calculated the 5-year and remaining lifetime risks on the basis of the T-C clinical model and caIRS (T-C combined with the caPRS). Further details are provided in the Data Supplement.

Validation studies. We evaluated the performance of the caIRS in two independent validation cohorts of women who were not used for model development. Associations with BC risk were evaluated in terms of *P* values and OR per SD from multivariate logistic regression models adjusted for age. The AUC was used to assess model discrimination. All analyses were performed using R Statistical Software (v4.1.0 or higher). Two-sided *P* values were calculated from likelihood ratio chi-square test statistics and reported at a significance level of .05. All analyses were performed for 5-year and remaining lifetime BC risk.

Reclassification of risk. To assess how the caIRS would affect screening in the clinic, we examined sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value (PPV), and negative predictive value (NPV) for 5-year risk using ≥ 3% as the high-risk threshold on the basis of the US Preventive Services Task Force recommendation for risk-lowering medications⁴⁵ and remaining lifetime risk using ≥ 20% as the high-risk threshold. No adjustments were made for competing mortality in our analysis.

RESULTS

Cross-Ancestry PRS

We built multiple polygenic models by training on multiple external GWAS sources (Data Supplement) and compared their performances against several published models. To ensure uniformity of evaluation, the performance of each PRS was evaluated on the same group of testing individuals (see the Data Supplement for cohort information). For each ancestral group, we selected the model that showed the best performance (Data Supplement). The AUC ranged from 0.636 to 0.684 for women of European descent and from 0.568 to 0.591 for women of African descent (Data Supplement). The scores for each ancestral model were

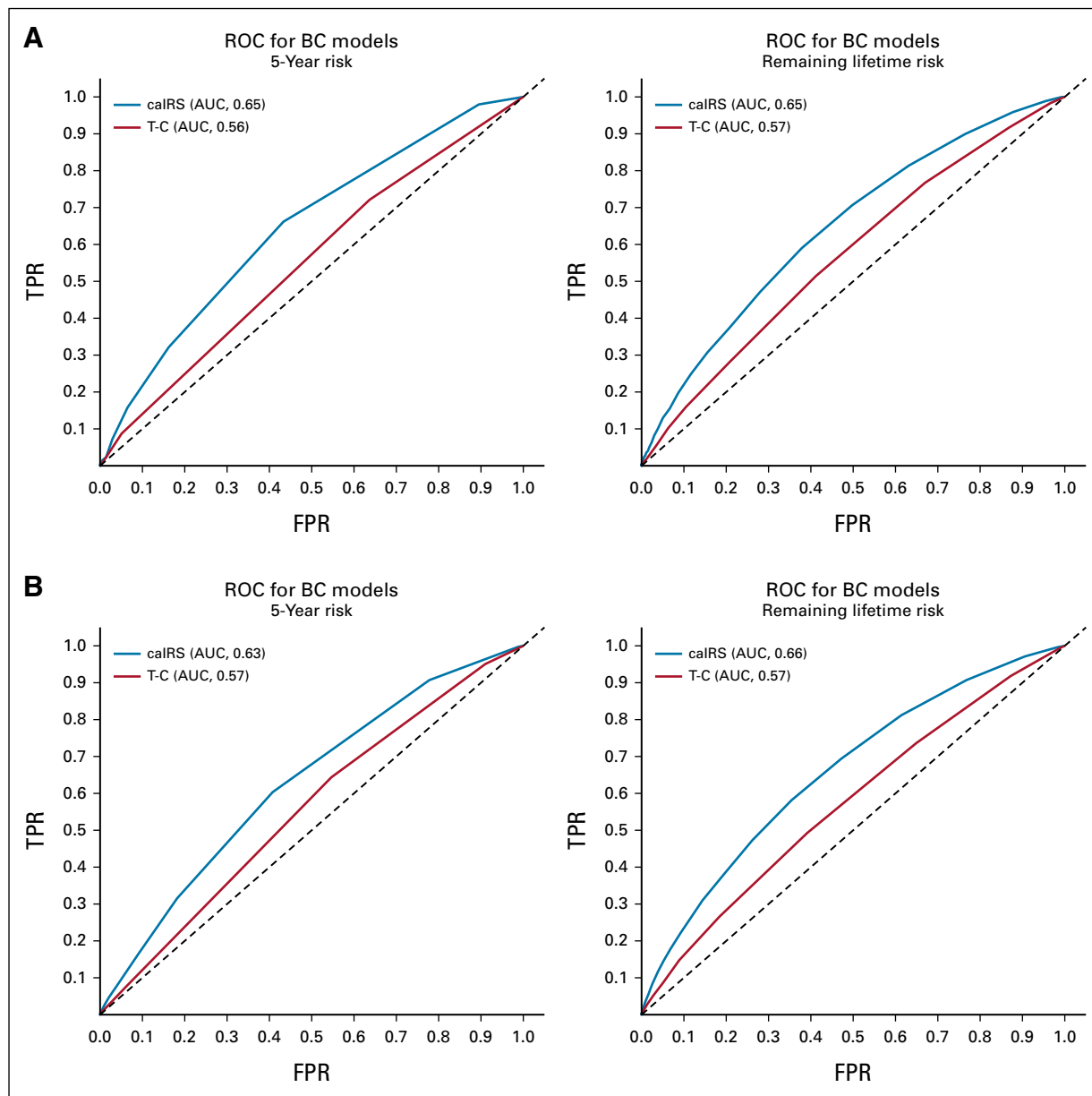


FIG 1. Performance of caIRS compared with T-C alone in predicting 5-year and remaining lifetime risk of BC for women in the validation cohorts. AUC, area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; BC, breast cancer; caIRS, cross-ancestry integrated risk score; FPR, false-positive rate; ROC, receiver operating characteristic curve; T-C, Tyrer-Cuzick; TPR, true-positive rate.

combined and weighted by fraction ancestry and effect size into a single caPRS. We evaluated the performance of the caPRS in development cohort 2. The caPRS was significantly associated with BC ($P = 2.3 \times 10^{-143}$), and the caPRS quantile was correlated with odds of BC (Data Supplement).

In addition, we examined the performance of the caPRS in women with and without first-degree FH of BC. We found no significant interaction between the caPRS and first-degree FH of BC for all population groups (P values ranging from 0.068 to 0.91), indicating that the association between the caPRS and BC is independent of FH of BC and that the caPRS is associated with BC risk in women

with and without FH of BC. This is consistent with a recent publication that examined FH and PRS across > 20 diseases.⁴⁶

Associations Between caPRS and T-C Variables

We examined associations between the caPRS and T-C model clinical factors in development cohort 2 using a linear regression model. The caPRS was significantly associated with age ($P = 2.6 \times 10^{-38}$) and first-degree FH of BC ($P = 4 \times 10^{-49}$). After Bonferroni correction for multiple testing, the caPRS was not correlated with any other T-C model clinical factors (Data Supplement).

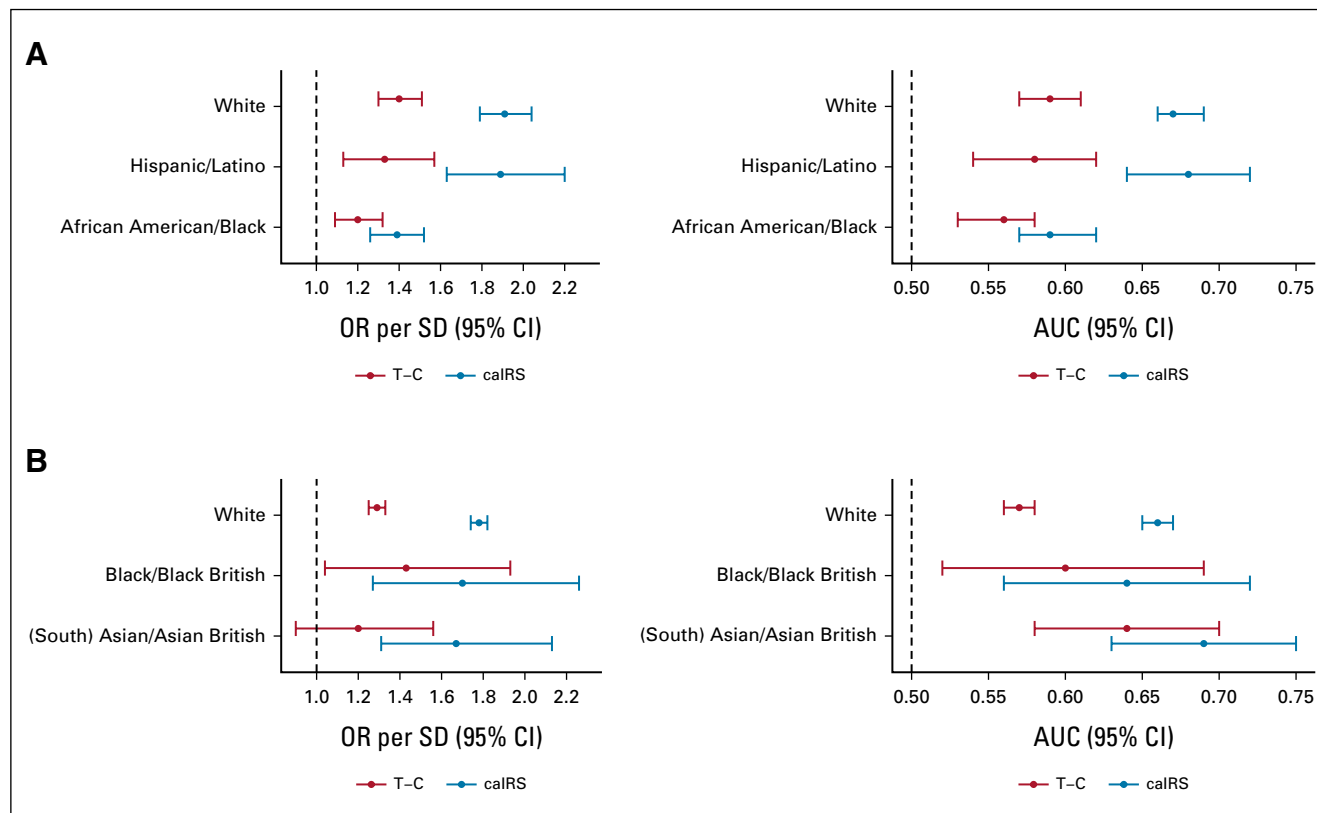


FIG 2. Performance of calRS compared with the T-C clinical model alone in predicting remaining lifetime risk of breast cancer across self-reported ethnicities in validation cohort 1 (A) and validation cohort 2 (B). Data for Chinese women in validation cohort 2 are not shown because of small sample size, but an improvement is observed (Data Supplement). AUC, area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; calRS, cross-ancestry integrated risk score; OR, odds ratio; SD, standard deviation; T-C, Tyrer-Cuzick.

Validation Studies

Validation cohort 1 comprised 25,284 women from the WHI, including 1,997 (7.9%) women diagnosed with BC after initial assessment, with a mean follow-up time of 17 years. Validation cohort 2 comprised the remaining 119,187 women in the UKB, including 8,115 (6.8%) diagnosed with BC, with a mean follow-up time of 6 years. Table 1 shows the subgroup sample sizes, after exclusions, in each validation cohort. The caPRS was significantly associated with 5-year and remaining lifetime risk in both validation cohorts (Data Supplement).

Figures 1 and 2 summarize relative performance improvements with the integrated risk score. The calRS was significantly associated with 5-year and remaining lifetime risk of BC (Data Supplement). In both validation cohorts, the calRS yielded significant improvements over the conventional T-C with an AUC of 0.65 (95% CI, 0.64 to 0.66) and an OR per SD of 1.79 (95% CI, 1.70 to 1.88) in validation cohort 1 and an AUC of 0.66 (95% CI, 0.65 to 0.66) and an OR per SD of 1.75 (95% CI, 1.71 to 1.79) in validation cohort 2 for remaining lifetime risk (Table 2 and Data Supplement). In addition, when both the T-C and calRS were included in a multivariate, age-adjusted logistic regression model, calRS remained significant, indicating that the calRS provides

information over the T-C alone ($P = 2.1 \times 10^{-92}$ and $< 10^{-324}$ for validation cohorts 1 and 2, respectively).

The calRS outperformed the T-C alone for all subgroups tested in both validation cohorts, with the largest improvement in remaining lifetime risk observed in Hispanic women in validation cohort 1 where the OR per SD increased from 1.31 (95% CI, 1.10 to 1.54) to 1.88 (95% CI, 1.62 to 2.19) and the AUC increased from 0.58 to 0.68 and in European women in validation cohort 2 where the OR per SD increased from 1.29 (95% CI, 1.25 to 1.33) to 1.78 (95% CI, 1.74 to 1.82) and the AUC increased from 0.57 to 0.66 (Fig 2 and Data Supplement).

Overall and for all self-reported ancestry groups, the calRS was well calibrated across all deciles (Data Supplement). Overall, in validation cohort 1, the P values associated with the Hosmer-Lemeshow test statistic were 0.16 and 0.44 for 5-year and remaining lifetime BC risk, respectively. In addition, the expected-to-observed ratio at the highest risk decile were 1.07 (95% CI, 0.89 to 1.29) and 1.06 (95% CI, 0.96 to 1.17) for calRS for 5-year and remaining lifetime BC risk, respectively.

Reclassification of Risk

Across all women and for women in each population group, we saw an increase in sensitivity and a slight decrease in

TABLE 2. Performance of T-C Alone and caIRS in Predicting 5-Year and Remaining Lifetime Risk of Breast Cancer Across All Women in the Validation Cohorts

Model	5-Year Risk			Remaining Lifetime Risk		
	OR Per SD (95% CI)	P	AUC (95% CI)	OR per SD (95% CI)	P	AUC (95% CI)
Validation cohort 1						
T-C	1.18 (1.08 to 1.28)	1.9×10^{-4}	0.56 (0.54 to 0.59)	1.35 (1.27 to 1.43)	2.8×10^{-24}	0.57 (0.56 to 0.59)
caIRS	1.62 (1.50 to 1.76)	1.8×10^{-30}	0.65 (0.62 to 0.67)	1.79 (1.70 to 1.88)	4.5×10^{-110}	0.65 (0.64 to 0.66)
Validation cohort 2						
T-C	1.11 (1.08 to 1.15)	2.3×10^{-10}	0.57 (0.56 to 0.58)	1.28 (1.25 to 1.32)	5.8×10^{-75}	0.57 (0.57 to 0.58)
caIRS	1.46 (1.42 to 1.51)	9.8×10^{-128}	0.63 (0.62 to 0.64)	1.75 (1.71 to 1.79)	$< 10^{-324}$	0.66 (0.65 to 0.66)

Abbreviations: AUC, area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; caIRS, cross-ancestry integrated risk score; OR, odds ratio; SD, standard deviation; T-C, Tyrer-Cuzick.

specificity for 5-year risk estimation. However, PPV and, to a lesser extent, NPV increased in all groups compared with the T-C (Data Supplement). The largest gain in PPV using the caIRS occurred in Hispanic women, where we observed a nearly three-fold increase relative to that of the T-C while having a similar NPV. Overall, 18.3% and 30.6% of women who developed BC within 5 years of initial assessment were predicted to be at high risk ($\geq 3\%$) by T-C and caIRS, respectively. Across the two methods, 8.8% of women had discordant classifications of risk.

We observed a similar trend for remaining lifetime risk for women in validation cohort 1 with a couple of exceptions. Despite an increase in AUC and sensitivity of the caIRS in Hispanic women, we observed a small drop in PPV across all age groups (Data Supplement). We observed the largest gain in PPV using the caIRS in African/African American women, an approximately two-fold increase, with an NPV equivalent to that of the T-C. The caIRS was able to correctly identify 6.2% of cases as high risk across all women age younger than 70 years in validation cohort 1, a 3-fold increase over the T-C alone. Both measures were able to identify more affected younger women (50-59 years) as being at high risk.

Overall, 8.8% and 6.7% of women across both validation cohorts were classified differently on the basis of 5-year and remaining lifetime risk, respectively, using the caIRS compared with the T-C alone (Figure 3 and Data Supplement).

DISCUSSION

Addition of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)-based PRSs to existing clinical BC risk prediction models has been shown to enhance discriminatory power.^{2,18,19,21,22,47-49} Most of these PRSs were developed in women of European ancestry; by contrast, our caPRS is informative for women of multiple ancestries.

This study built a framework to efficiently iterate over polygenic models and addressed the limitations of some previous studies. First, our approach does not rely on self-reported ancestry (which can be inaccurate) in normalizing

risk scores or a one-size-fits-all polygenic model. Second, our approach is not limited to a small set of SNPs, allowing us to add and remove variants as new data become available. Finally, both our development and validation cohorts were chosen to include minorities so that we could optimize risk stratification across women of diverse ancestries in parallel. Although our caIRS is significantly associated with risk of BC and improves on the performance of the T-C model in women of diverse ancestries, we see the best performance in women of European ancestry.

When developing a new method of assessing disease risk, maximizing sensitivity to identify women at higher risk of developing BC can lead to a loss of specificity. This tradeoff can be attenuated with proper calibration such that combining the PRS with the clinical model does not severely overestimate risk. In this study, we observed a small drop in specificity (1%-4% depending on the population) compared with the T-C when examining women of all ages. The small drop in PPV and NPV for remaining lifetime risk in Hispanic women despite an increase in AUC and OR could indicate that a 20% threshold is not optimal for the integrated risk in this population.

Here, we demonstrated that the caIRS, which combines a caPRS derived from five ancestry-specific polygenic models with the T-C risk model, significantly improved BC risk stratification across women of all ancestries tested relative to the T-C risk model alone. Overall, we found that approximately 8%-9% and 2%-6% of women would be reclassified as having a 3% or greater 5-year risk and 20% or greater remaining lifetime risk of BC, respectively, according to caIRS. If guidelines included the use of PRSs, these women would now qualify for consideration of risk-lowering medication and/or enhanced surveillance according to US Preventive Services Task Force and American Cancer Society recommendations.^{45,50} In addition, approximately 0.5%-1.5% would be reclassified as having $< 20\%$ remaining lifetime risk of BC.

This study has some limitations because of the cohorts used for development and validation. In all cohorts, the

FIG 3. Distribution of women with high ($\geq 20\%$) and average/low ($< 20\%$) remaining lifetime risk in validation cohort 1 and validation cohort 2 on the basis of the caIRS and T-C alone. See the Data Supplement for the distribution in individual populations. caIRS, cross-ancestry integrated risk score; T-C, Tyrer-Cuzick.

Validation cohort 1				Validation cohort 2			
		Remaining lifetime risk on the basis of caIRS, No. (%)				Remaining lifetime risk on the basis of caIRS, No. (%)	
		$< 20\%$	$\geq 20\%$			$< 20\%$	$\geq 20\%$
Remaining lifetime risk on the basis of T-C, No. (%)	$< 20\%$	24,584 (97.2)	448 (1.8)	Remaining lifetime risk on the basis of T-C, No. (%)	$< 20\%$	107,580 (90.3)	7,155 (6.0)
	$\geq 20\%$	126 (0.5)	126 (0.5)		$\geq 20\%$	1,925 (1.6)	2,527 (2.1)

representation of Asian women was much lower than other ancestral groups. We hope to address this by analyzing larger data sets from women of East and South Asian ancestries. Single gene variant information was not available for all cohorts. We do not expect this to significantly affect the results because the majority of women will not have PVs. We included White participants in the WHI in validation cohort 1; however, it should be noted that a subset of these women were part of a much larger GWAS study that was used in the development of models included in the caPRS. It may be expected that the performance of the caIRS would be elevated in this group; however, the performance of the self-reported White women in validation cohort 2 is similar to that of self-reported White women in validation cohort 1.

The clinical information available for women in validation cohort 2, particularly for FH, was less detailed than that expected for the T-C model. Thus, the improvement in the accuracy and predictive ability of the caIRS compared with that of the T-C may be somewhat inflated. However, the overall performance (AUC) of the caIRS remained consistent in both cohorts, suggesting that the caIRS is applicable even when detailed FH information is unavailable. In addition, the major change in v8 of the T-C model was the addition of breast density. We did not have that information for the women in our cohorts and

therefore relied on default values in the model. This can be addressed by testing the caIRS in a cohort of women with extremely detailed clinical records.

Finally, we validated our caIRS in population cohorts, not women receiving hereditary cancer screening. We found that the caPRS works equally well in women with ($n = 4,081$; OR per SD, 1.74 [95% CI, 1.57 to 1.93]; $P = 5.5 \times 10^{-27}$) and without FH of BC ($n = 32,678$; OR per SD, 1.73 [95% CI, 1.65 to 1.82]; $P = 9.1 \times 10^{-119}$) in development cohort 2. This suggests that the caIRS will perform as well in populations with higher percentages of FH. In addition, the women in validation cohort 1 are older, postmenopausal women, which likely does not represent the group of women for whom both measures are most effective at identifying those at high risk and who may benefit most from early/additional surveillance. To address both these limitations, we plan to test the caIRS in younger, unaffected women seeking hereditary cancer screening.

Implementation of a more comprehensive risk model, as discussed here, may enable personalized screening and risk reduction strategies for women who are at high risk of BC, regardless of ancestry.

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DISCLAIMER

This manuscript was not prepared in collaboration with investigators of the GWAS of Breast Cancer in the African Diaspora and does not

necessarily reflect the opinions or views of University of Chicago, or NCI. This manuscript was not prepared in collaboration with investigators of the WHI, has not been reviewed and/or approved by the Women's Health Initiative (WHI), and does not necessarily reflect the opinions of the WHI investigators or the NHLBI.

PRIOR PRESENTATION

A version of the caPRS was presented as a poster at the 2022 ASCO Annual Meeting, Chicago, IL, June 3-7, 2022. The caIRS was presented as a poster at the ASHG 2022 Annual Meeting, Los Angeles, CA, October 25-29, 2022.

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DATA SHARING STATEMENT

The data sets used for the analyses described in this manuscript were obtained from dbGaP at <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/entrez?db=gap> through dbGaP accessions phs000383.v1.p1, phs000200.v12.p3, and phs000517.v3.p1.

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AUTHORS' DISCLOSURES OF POTENTIAL CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

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