

1 **BREAST CANCER DIAGNOSED IN THE POST-WEANING PERIOD IS INDICATIVE FOR A POOR OUTCOME**

2 Hanne Lefrère;^{1,2} Giuseppe Floris;^{3,4,5} Marjanka K. Schmidt;^{6,7} Patrick Neven;^{1,5,8} Ellen Warner;⁹ Elyce
3 Cardonick;¹⁰ Fedro Alessandro Peccatori;¹¹ Sibylle Loibl;¹² Charlotte Maggen;^{1,8} Hanne De Mulder;⁸
4 Katarzyna J. Jerzak;⁹ Diether Lambrechts;^{13,14} Liesbeth Lenaerts;¹ Frédéric Amant^{1,2,8,15}

5 ¹Department of Oncology, Laboratory of Gynecological Oncology, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium;

6 ²Department of Gynecology, The Netherlands Cancer Institute – Antoni van Leeuwenhoek Hospital, Amsterdam,
7 The Netherlands;

8 ³Department of Imaging and Pathology, Unit of Translational Cell & Tissue Research, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium;

9 ⁴Department of Pathology, Unit of Translational Cell & Tissue Research, University Hospitals Leuven, Leuven,
10 Belgium;

11 ⁵Multidisciplinary Breast Centre, UZ-KU Leuven Cancer Institute (LKI), University Hospitals Leuven, Leuven,
12 Belgium;

13 ⁶Division of Molecular Pathology, The Netherlands Cancer Institute – Antoni van Leeuwenhoek Hospital,
14 Amsterdam, the Netherlands;

15 ⁷Division of Physiological Research and Epidemiology, The Netherlands Cancer Institute – Antoni van
16 Leeuwenhoek Hospital, Amsterdam, the Netherlands;

17 ⁸Department of Gynecology and Obstetrics, University Hospitals Leuven, Leuven, Belgium;

18 ⁹Division of Medical Oncology, Department of Medicine, Sunnybrook Odette Cancer Centre, University of
19 Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada;

20 ¹⁰Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Cooper University Health Care, Camden, New Jersey, USA;

21 ¹¹Division of Gynecological Oncology, Department of Gynecology, IEO European Institute of Oncology IRCCS,
22 Milan, Italy;

23 ¹²German Breast Group, Neu-Isenburg, Hessen, Germany, Centre for Haematology and Oncology Bethanien,
24 Frankfurt, Germany;

25 ¹³Center for Cancer Biology, VIB, Leuven, Belgium;

26 ¹⁴Laboratory of Translational Genetics, Department of Human Genetics, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium;

27 ¹⁵Department of Gynecological Oncology, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

28 **Corresponding author**

29 Professor Frédéric Amant, Department of Oncology, Laboratory of Gynecological Oncology, KU Leuven,
30 Herestraat 49, 3000 Leuven, Belgium, telephone number: +32 16 34 42 73, email address:
31 frederic.amant@uzleuven.be

32 **ABSTRACT**

33 **Background:** In young women, a breast cancer diagnosis after childbirth increases the risk for
34 metastasis and death. Studies in rodents suggest that post-weaning mammary gland involution
35 contributes to the poor prognosis of postpartum breast cancers. However, this association has not been
36 investigated in humans, mainly due to missing information on the patient's lactation status at diagnosis.

37 **Patients and methods:** Clinicopathological data of 1,180 young women with primary invasive breast
38 cancer, diagnosed within two years postpartum (PP-BC), during pregnancy (Pr-BC) or nulliparous (NP-
39 BC), were collected. For PP-BC patients, breastfeeding history was retrieved to differentiate breast
40 cancers identified during lactation (PP-BC_{DL}) from those diagnosed post-weaning (PP-BC_{PW}).
41 Differences in prognostic parameters, first site of distant metastasis and risks for metastasis and death
42 were determined between patient groups.

43 **Results:** Cox proportional hazard models pointed to a 2-fold increased risk of metastasis and death in
44 PP-BC_{PW} patients compared to PP-BC_{DL} (HR 2.1 [$P_{DRS}=0.021$] and 2.9 [$P_{OS}=0.004$]), Pr-BC (HR 2.1
45 [$P_{DRS}<0.001$] and 2.3 [$P_{OS}<0.001$]) and NP-BC (HR 2.1 [$P_{DRS}<0.001$] and 2.0 [$P_{OS}<0.001$]) patients.
46 Prognosis was poorest for PP-BC_{PW} patients who did not breastfeed or only for ≤ 3 months prior to
47 diagnosis. This could not fully be attributed to differences in standard prognostic characteristics. In
48 addition, PP-BC_{PW} tumors showed a 3- to 8-fold increased risk to metastasize to the liver, yet this did
49 not correlate with the poor outcome of this patient cohort.

50 **Conclusions:** Breast cancer diagnosed shortly after weaning specifically adds to the poor prognosis in
51 women diagnosed with PP-BC. Apart from the importance of an increased awareness, these data show
52 that detailed lactation data need to be registered when breast cancer outcome in young women is
53 investigated.

54 **Key words:** postpartum breast cancer, involution, post-weaning, lactation, metastasis, prognosis

55 **1. INTRODUCTION**

56 A postpartum breast cancer (PP-BC) diagnosis is associated with a significant increased risk for
57 metastasis and death compared with breast cancers diagnosed in young premenopausal women
58 beyond the postpartum window.¹⁻⁵ Though this effect is most pronounced when the cancer diagnosis
59 is made in the first two years postpartum,⁶⁻⁸ it may extend up to 10 years.^{2,3,9} Most studies show that
60 the poor prognosis of PP-BC is independent of standard prognostic factors, like maternal age, molecular
61 cancer subtype, tumour size, lymph node status or grade.^{2,3,6,10,11} The exact mechanisms underlying this
62 high risk of recurrence remain however under investigation.

63 It has been hypothesized that postpartum mammary gland involution, being a unique biological process
64 in post-weaning breast tissue, may account for the increased metastatic risk and poor survival among
65 PP-BC patients.^{12,13} During pregnancy, the mammary gland epithelium undergoes proliferation and
66 differentiation in order to prepare for lactation. After parturition in the absence of lactation, or at
67 weaning, the gland remodels to a state morphologically and functionally similar to pre-pregnancy, a
68 process called postpartum involution.¹⁴ Animal studies revealed that the involution process resembled
69 tissue-remodelling programs that are activate during wound healing, with a characteristic initial
70 inflammatory response followed by an immunosuppressive phase^{12,15-17} and that this process could
71 stimulate tumour growth, motility and invasion.¹⁸⁻²¹ Although it has been shown in humans that normal
72 postpartum breast tissue is also characterized by an increased immune cell influx,^{22,23} a wound-healing-
73 like immune pattern^{19,24} and mammary and lymphatic remodelling as seen in rodents,^{21,25,26} it has never
74 been explored whether the process of mammary gland involution is effectively associated with a poor
75 prognosis in PP-BC patients. One major limiting factor is the lack of detailed data on lactation status at
76 the time of cancer diagnosis, necessary to define the post-weaning period as a surrogate for mammary
77 gland involution. To this end, we initiated this retrospective study in a large cohort of 1,180 young
78 breast cancer patients with unique breastfeeding information. We compared the outcome of breast
79 cancer patients specifically diagnosed during the post-weaning period with that of patients diagnosed
80 outside this specific window.

81 2. METHODS

82 2.1 Patient data collection

83 Patient data were retrospectively collected from University Hospitals Leuven and 13 centres
84 participating in the International Network on Cancer, Infertility and Pregnancy (INCIP) (eFig. 1 in the
85 data article). Given the prognostic association between age and breast cancer outcome, which may
86 vary for different breast cancer subtypes²⁷, we only included premenopausal women diagnosed with
87 primary invasive breast cancer, aged 25-40 years. All women were diagnosed between January 1995
88 and December 2017 (Fig. 1A). Due to an equal distribution of patients across different time frames of
89 diagnosis (1995-1999; 2000-2004; 2005-2009; 2010-2014; 2015-2017), we could eliminate major bias,
90 such as treatment advances, related to period of enrollment (Table 1). The following data were
91 retrieved: (a) therapy-related characteristics: surgery; radiotherapy (RT); chemotherapy (CT); hormonal
92 therapy (HT) and/or anti-HER-2 treatment, (b) patient-related characteristics (if applicable): age at
93 diagnosis; year of diagnosis; date of most recent delivery; gravidity; parity; number of miscarriages;
94 lactation history; date of distant recurrence; site of distant recurrence and clinical outcome, and (c)
95 tumour-related characteristics: clinical stage; tumour size; lymph node (LN) infiltration; pN subtype (N0,
96 N1, N2, N3); grade; histological type and surrogate molecular subtype. ER, PR and HER-2 status were
97 evaluated using immunohistochemistry according to ASCO/CAP guidelines.^{28,29} Additional *in situ*
98 hybridization techniques were used to confirm *HER-2* gene amplification according to each
99 participating centre's guidelines. Tumours were classified as Luminal A-like (ER positive, HER-2 negative,
100 grade 1-2), Luminal B-like (ER positive, HER-2 negative, grade 3), Luminal HER-2 (ER positive, HER-2
101 positive, any grade), HER-2-like (ER negative, HER-2 positive, any grade) or triple-negative breast cancer
102 (TNBC: ER negative, PR negative, HER-2 negative, any grade). Follow-up data were obtained by medical
103 record review. For PP-BC patients specifically, patient files were reviewed thoroughly to assess, for each
104 parity, if and for how long breastfeeding was given. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee
105 Research UZ/KU Leuven (study number: S25470).

106 2.2 Patient classification according to timing of diagnosis

107 Based on breastfeeding history prior to the breast cancer diagnosis, patients were classified as (i) PP-
108 BC_{PW}, if diagnosed within two years Post-Weaning, (ii) PP-BC_{DL}, if diagnosed During Lactation, (iii) Pr-
109 BC, if diagnosed during PRegnancy or (iv) NP-BC, if never been pregnant (NulliParous patients) (Fig. 1B).
110 Delineating the post-weaning period at 2 years after cessation of lactation, enabled us to collect
111 sufficient patient numbers whilst preserving homogeneity with regard to the postpartum time frame.
112 PP-BC_{PW} cases were further subdivided in (i) PPBC_{PW/NL}, if patients Never Lactated, (ii) PP-BC_{PW/Lshort},

113 when lactating ≤ 3 months, and (iii) PP-BC_{PW/Llong}, when lactating >3 months prior to the cancer
114 diagnosis. No patient breastfed for >24 months.

115 **2.3 Statistical analyses**

116 *A priori* power calculations indicated that small clinicopathological (10%-15%) and prognostic
117 differences (Hazard Ratio, HR 2.0) between PP-BC_{PW} subgroups and Pr-BC and NP-BC groups, and larger
118 differences (HR ≥ 3.0) within the PP-BC subgroups could be identified with sufficient power ($>70\%$).
119 Frequencies of prognostic categorical variables were evaluated using Chi-Square testing. Continuous
120 variables were compared via One-Way ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis analyses. Odds Ratios (OR) with 95%
121 Confidence Interval (CI) were determined using multinomial logistic regression.

122 The risk of distant recurrence and death of any cause was determined using Kaplan-Meier analyses.
123 Log-rank tests assessed differences between distant recurrence and survival probabilities across
124 groups. Distant recurrence-free survival (DRS) was calculated from the date of diagnosis to first
125 systemic metastasis; overall survival (OS) from the date of diagnosis to death from any cause. Since
126 exclusion of cases with stage IV disease did not influence the outcome of regression modelling (eFig. 5-
127 6 in the data article), cases with stage IV cancer at diagnosis were included in OS analyses to reflect true
128 population outcomes. To determine which prognostic parameters affected DRS and/or OS, univariate
129 Cox regression analyses were performed. Variables that significantly differed between patient groups
130 or that were associated with OS and/or DRS were used in multivariate Cox proportional hazards
131 regression models to assess the association between patient group and prognosis. For each parameter
132 proportional hazards assumptions were examined graphically using residual analyses. The influence of
133 centre of diagnosis on prognostic differences was ruled out using Cox regression analyses (eFig. 4 in the
134 data article).

135 Binary logistic regression was used to assess the effect of patient group on the frequency of metastasis
136 to different organs. To avoid potential confounding due to multi-site metastasis, we only took into
137 account the primary site of metastatic disease. Patients with multi-site metastatic disease or unknown
138 site of first metastatic recurrence were excluded. The association between site of metastasis and study
139 group was assessed using two-sided Fisher's Exact tests. The association between metastatic site and
140 OS probability was determined using Cox regression analyses. Statistical analyses were performed using
141 R v3.4.4. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

142 **3. RESULTS**

143 **3.1 PP-BC_{PW} had different clinicopathological characteristics than PP-BC_{DL}**

144 Based on the timing of their breast cancer diagnosis relative to their pregnancy history and lactation
145 status at diagnosis, 189 women in our cohort were assigned to the PP-BC_{PW} group, 53 to PP-BC_{DL}, 492
146 to Pr-BC and 446 to NP-BC (Fig. 1). We then assessed whether host- and tumour-related prognostic
147 parameters differed among these groups (Table 1 and eFig. 2 in the data article). Compared to NP-BC
148 patients, PP-BC_{PW} cases were significantly more often diagnosed with (i) stage IIIC disease, (ii) more LN
149 infiltration and (iii) higher graded disease. When comparing to PP-BC_{DL} and Pr-BC patients, significantly
150 more early stage and luminal-A-like tumours were found in PP-BC_{PW} patients. Strikingly, tumour
151 characteristics of PP-BC_{DL} were resembling those of Pr-BC (eTable 1 in the data article).

152 When assessing treatment modalities, PP-BC_{PW} patients were found to be significantly more often
153 treated with RT than other patient groups (Table 1). PP-BC_{PW} patients were also more likely to receive
154 adjuvant CT and less HT than NP-BC cases, concurring with observed differences in surrogate molecular
155 subtype and grade between these groups. PP-BC_{PW} cases received less often CT than Pr-BC patients.

156 **3.2 PP-BC_{PW} patients showed a two-fold increased risk for metastasis and death**

157 To investigate whether a post-weaning diagnosis in PP-BC patients was associated with a poor
158 prognosis, we assessed whether the risk of metastasis and death in PP-BC_{PW} patients differed from that
159 in PP-BC_{DL}, Pr-BC and NP-BC patients. PP-BC_{PW} cases demonstrated a higher five-year probability for
160 death and metastases (25% and 34%, respectively) compared to PP-BC_{DL} (16% and 30%), Pr-BC (13%
161 and 18%) and NP-BC (11% and 15%) patients. Unadjusted Kaplan-Meier survival analyses confirmed
162 that PP-BC_{PW} patients had an approximate 2-fold increased risk of metastasis and death ($P<0.001$) (Fig.
163 2A and B). Only for PP-BC_{DL} cases the observed differences in OS ($P=0.303$) and DRS ($P=0.381$) did not
164 reach statistical significance.

165 After adjustment for prognostic host- and tumour-related variables that (i) significantly differed
166 between patients groups (Table 1 and eTable 1 in the data article) and/or (ii) were significantly
167 correlated to OS and/or DRS (eTable 2 in the data article), PP-BC_{PW} cases still displayed significantly
168 decreased survival rates compared to PP-BC_{DL}, Pr-BC and NP-BC patients (P -values ranging from 0.021
169 to <0.001) (Fig. 2C and D). Remarkably, outcome PP-BC_{DL} patients was similar to that of Pr-BC and NP-
170 BC cases and seemed to be mainly driven by poor prognostic characteristics.

171 **3.3 No or short prior breastfeeding correlated with the poorest outcomes in PP-BC_{PW}**

172 Detailed breastfeeding data were originally obtained to differentiate PP-BC_{PW} patients, diagnosed post-
173 weaning, from PP-BC_{DL} patients, diagnosed during lactation. This information also allowed us to assess
174 the influence of prior breastfeeding duration on breast cancer outcome. Among PP-BC_{PW} cases, there
175 were 69 PP-BC_{PW/NL} patients who never lactated, 72 PP-BC_{PW/Lshort} cases who lactated ≤ 3 months and
176 48 PP-BC_{PW/Llong} case who lactated > 3 months prior to their breast cancer diagnosis (Fig. 1). Due to small
177 numbers, PP-BC_{DL} patients, still lactating at diagnosis, were not further subdivided.

178 Unadjusted regression analyses indicated that PP-BC_{PW/NL} patients had the poorest prognosis, with an
179 almost 2-fold increased risk for death and metastasis compared to PP-BC_{PW/Llong} ($P_{OS}=0.035$,
180 $P_{DRS}=0.030$), Pr-BC ($P_{OS/DRS}<0.001$), NP-PB ($P_{OS/DRS}<0.001$) and PP-BC_{DL} ($P_{OS}=0.078$, $P_{DRS}=0.082$) patients,
181 although for PP-BC_{DL} the difference was borderline non-significant (Fig. 3A and B). Similarly, PP-
182 BC_{PW/Lshort} patients also had a significantly poorer prognosis than Pr-BC ($P_{OS}=0.022$, $P_{DRS}=0.006$) and NP-
183 BC ($P_{OS}=0.001$, $P_{DRS}<0.001$) patients (eTable 3 in the data article). Prognosis did not significantly differ
184 between PP-BC_{PW/NL} and PP-BC_{PW/Lshort} patients ($P_{OS}=0.179$, $P_{DRS}=0.164$). Prognosis of PP-BC_{PW/Llong} and
185 PP-BC_{DL} patients was found to be comparable. When adjusting for the same confounding parameters
186 as before, the observed differences in risks for death and metastasis in PP-BC_{PW/NL} compared to all
187 other patient groups, including PP-BC_{PW/Lshort}, increased to up to 5-fold (P -values ranging from 0.011 to
188 <0.001) (Fig. 3C and D). Prognosis of PP-BC_{PW/Lshort} patients also remained poorer than that of Pr-BC
189 ($P_{OS}=0.036$, $P_{DRS}=0.038$) and NP-BC ($P_{OS}=0.044$, $P_{DRS}=0.035$) patients (eTable 3 in the data article). Since
190 there was no significant difference in the length of the period between delivery or cessation of lactation
191 and the time of the cancer diagnosis when comparing the different PP-BC_{PW} subgroups (eFig. 3 in the
192 data article), it could be excluded that PP-BC_{PW/NL} and PP-BC_{PW/Lshort} patients were not in the ability to
193 lactate (extensively) because of their poor prognosis.

194 **3.4 The poor prognosis of PP-BC_{PW} was not associated with a preferential site of first metastasis**

195 As the site of distant breast cancer metastasis is known to influence prognosis,^{30,31} we investigated
196 whether PP-BC_{PW} patients had any particular preferential metastatic site that could underlie their poor
197 prognosis. Overall, 47% of PP-BC_{PW}, 30% of PP-BC_{DL}, 28% of Pr-BC and 26% of NP-BC cases presented
198 with metastatic disease, either at diagnosis or during follow-up. Binary logistic regression models,
199 adjusted for the same confounding variables as before, indicated a significant 3- to 8-fold increased
200 frequency of liver metastases in PP-BC_{PW} patients compared to all other patients (eTable 4 in the data
201 article). To more accurately evaluate the influence of metastatic site on prognosis, analyses were
202 restricted to the first site of metastasis. Fisher's Exact testing showed that PP-BC_{PW/NL}, PP-BC_{PW/Lshort}
203 and PP-BC_{PW/Llong} patients had a significant increased risk for primary liver metastasis compared to the
204 PP-BC_{DL}, Pr-BC and NP-BC patients (Fig. 4). We then investigated the association between primary

205 metastatic site and prognosis. Patients with brain metastases were found to have the highest risk for
206 death ($P=0.0032$) (eFig. 7-8 in the data article). Preferential metastasis to liver, as observed in PP-
207 BCPW/NL and PP-BCPW/Lshort, did not seem to correlate with the poorer outcomes of these patient
208 subgroups.

209

4. DISCUSSION

210 The exact window of risk and prognostic factors associated with the poor outcome typically observed
211 in PP-BC patients are unidentified. We here show for the first time that women with PP-BC, specifically
212 diagnosed during the first two years post-weaning (PP-BC_{PW}), have a particular poor prognosis
213 compared to lactating (PP-BC_{DL}), pregnant (Pr-BC) and nulliparous (NP-BC) patients, irrespective of
214 standard prognostic characteristics. This poor prognosis was not associated with the unique preference
215 of PP-BC_{PW} cancers to metastasize to the liver. When considering the post-weaning period as a
216 surrogate for the postpartum mammary gland involution window, these data suggest that processes
217 unique to the involuting microenvironment may underlie the poor prognosis of PP-BC_{PW}. So far, this
218 hypothesis has only been validated in preclinical models.^{18-21,32} In women, the wound-healing like tissue
219 remodelling phase of involution has been found to occur within 18 months after delivery²² and distinct
220 immune signatures have been found to persist up to 10 years after delivery.²³ Recent examinations in
221 healthy involuting breast tissue discovered mammary gland remodelling mechanisms with tumour
222 promotional potential.²⁶ In addition, molecular analyses of epithelial and stromal compartments from
223 pregnancy-associated breast cancer patients indicated aberrant expression of several oncogenes,
224 tumour suppressor genes, apoptosis regulators, transcription regulators and genes involved in DNA
225 repair mechanisms, in cell proliferation and the immune response.^{33,34} Although evidence in human
226 tissue is sparse, these alterations may be related to prognostic differences in pregnant, postpartum and
227 nulliparous breast cancer patients. It is important to note that these gene expression studies lack
228 detailed data on lactation - thus the key window of weaning-induced involuting has yet to be defined
229 in healthy women.

230 Next to identifying a post-weaning diagnosis as a negative prognostic factor, we found that no or short
231 breastfeeding prior to diagnosis was associated with the poorest outcome in PP-BC_{PW} patients. In pre-
232 menopausal women, childbearing is known to have a dual effect on breast cancer risk, being associated
233 with long-term risk reductions, following a transiently increased risk in the early postpartum period that
234 can last up to 10 years.³⁵ In addition, it is well documented that prolonged breastfeeding decreases the
235 relative risk of breast cancer, especially for TNBC.³⁶⁻³⁹ However, the link between breastfeeding and
236 breast cancer prognosis has been scarcely explored, with conflicting results. A large-scale study in
237 92,794 Mexican women investigating breast cancer mortality rates and duration of breastfeeding
238 (never, <6 months, 6-11 months, 12-23 months or ≥24 months) found that longer periods of
239 breastfeeding were associated with lower mortality.⁴⁰ Yet, the timing of breast cancer diagnosis in
240 relation to the patients' breastfeeding history was not considered. Stensheim *et al.* compared cause-
241 specific survival between 59 pregnant, 138 non-pregnant and 46 lactating breast cancer patients and
242 found a significantly increased risk for death in patients diagnosed during the lactation period, being

243 defined as the first 6 months following delivery.¹⁰ Whether or not these patients were still breastfeeding
244 or already weaned at time of diagnosis was not investigated. Elshmay postulated that duration of
245 lactation is inversely correlated to the incidence of aggressive breast tumours in young women.⁴¹
246 Applying this hypothesis, it could be speculated that, in our PP-BC_{PW/Llong} patients who breastfed for
247 longer periods, terminal differentiation of mammary epithelial cells was facilitated. After weaning,
248 these fully differentiated mammary epithelial cells would be removed by programmed cell death
249 occurring during normal postpartum involution.^{16,42,43} In contrast, in PP-BC_{PW} patients with no (PP-
250 BC_{PW/NL}) or short prior breastfeeding (PP-BC_{PW/Lshort}) before weaning, less differentiated cells with
251 concomitant immunosuppressive features would remain present and could escape cell-clearing
252 programs.²⁶ This in turn could lead to the formation of aggressive tumours with increased invasiveness.
253 Further research into molecular and cellular changes in the involution mammary gland in healthy
254 women and cancer patients is needed to validate this hypothesis.

255 A major strength of our study is the delineation of the post-weaning window based on unique data on
256 the patients' lactation status at diagnosis. Large patient numbers allowed us to define with high power
257 significant small outcome differences between post-weaning (sub)group(s) and control cohorts. In the
258 smaller patient subgroups, we still had significant power (>70%) to detect larger differences (HR≥3.0).
259 Also, internationally collected data enabled accounting for variations associated with ethnic
260 background. At the same time, local differences in staging and treatment methods might have
261 introduced some heterogeneity among patients diagnosed at different centres. Also due to the
262 retrospective nature of the present study, there might be some bias in the recollection of lactation
263 history. Finally, we lacked complete family history data. For a subset of patients (n=528), *BRCA*-status
264 was known. Primary cox regression analyses did not indicate significant outcome differences between
265 *BRCA*-positive and *BRCA*-negative patients in each patient group.

266 **5. CONCLUSION**

267 We identified the post-weaning period as an independent negative prognostic marker in PP-BC
268 patients. Therefore, the importance of a patient's breastfeeding history with regard to the prognosis of
269 a breast cancer diagnosis during the post-weaning window should not be ignored. Our results may pave
270 the way for future prospective validation studies in larger patients cohorts with known parity and
271 lactation information. Finally, these data call for increased awareness and close surveillance of potential
272 breast cancer symptoms shortly after weaning.

273 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS SECTION**

274 HL, DL, LL and FA conceived and designed the study. PN, EW, EC, FAP, SL, CM, HDM, KJJ provided clinical
275 data. GF conducted IHC and FISH of Belgian patients and assisted in interpretation of data analyses.
276 HL and MJ performed statistical analyses. HL and LL wrote the manuscript in consultation with FA.
277 All authors provided critical feedback and approved the final version of the manuscript.

278 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

279 The authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

280 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

281 We thank all participating patients and all (para-)medical staff involved in registering cases in the INCIP
282 database (see www.cancerinpregnancy.org). We also thank Prof. Flora van der Leeuwen for providing
283 additional Dutch patient data.

284 **FUNDING**

285 This work was supported by the European Research Council (ERC) under the European Union's Horizon
286 2020 research and innovation programme '[647047 to F.A.]'; the KWF kankerbestrijding, the Dutch
287 Cancer Society '[11132 to F.A.]'; the Fonds Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek, the Flemish Research
288 Foundation or 'FWO' '[G0A9219N to F.A.]' and the Kom op tegen Kanker (Stand up to Cancer), the
289 Flemish cancer society '[3M150537 to H.L.]'. Prof. Frederic Amant is senior investigator for the FWO.
290 Prof. Giuseppe Floris is recipient of a post-doctoral mandate from KOOR in UZ-Leuven.

291 REFERENCES

- 292 1. Van den Rul N, Han SN, Van Calsteren K, et al. Postpartum breast cancer behaves differently.
293 *Facts Views Vis Obgyn*. 2011;3(3):183-188.
- 294 2. Callihan EB, Gao D, Jindal S, et al. Postpartum diagnosis demonstrates a high risk for metastasis
295 and merits an expanded definition of pregnancy-associated breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res*
296 *Treat*. Apr 2013;138(2):549-559.
- 297 3. Goddard ET, Bassale S, Schedin T, et al. Association Between Postpartum Breast Cancer
298 Diagnosis and Metastasis and the Clinical Features Underlying Risk. *JAMA network open*.
299 2019;2(1):e186997.
- 300 4. Whiteman MK, Hillis SD, Curtis KM, et al. Reproductive history and mortality after breast cancer
301 diagnosis. *Obstet Gynecol*. Jul 2004;104(1):146-154.
- 302 5. Strasser-Weippl K, Ramchandani R, Fan L, et al. Pregnancy-associated breast cancer in women
303 from Shanghai: risk and prognosis. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. Jan 2015;149(1):255-261.
- 304 6. Johansson AL, Andersson TM, Hsieh CC, et al. Increased mortality in women with breast cancer
305 detected during pregnancy and different periods postpartum. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers*
306 *Prev*. Sep 2011;20(9):1865-1872.
- 307 7. Johansson ALV, Andersson TM, Hsieh CC, et al. Tumor characteristics and prognosis in women
308 with pregnancy-associated breast cancer. *Int J Cancer*. Apr 1 2018;142(7):1343-1354.
- 309 8. Hartman EK, Eslick GD. The prognosis of women diagnosed with breast cancer before, during
310 and after pregnancy: a meta-analysis. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. Nov 2016;160(2):347-360.
- 311 9. Borges VF, Lyons TR, Germain D, et al. Postpartum Involution and Cancer: An Opportunity for
312 Targeted Breast Cancer Prevention and Treatments? *Cancer Res*. May 1 2020;80(9):1790-1798.
- 313 10. Stensheim H, Moller B, van Dijk T, et al. Cause-specific survival for women diagnosed with
314 cancer during pregnancy or lactation: a registry-based cohort study. *J Clin Oncol*. Jan 1
315 2009;27(1):45-51.
- 316 11. Daling JR, Malone KE, Doody DR, et al. The relation of reproductive factors to mortality from
317 breast cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. Mar 2002;11(3):235-241.
- 318 12. Schedin P. Pregnancy-associated breast cancer and metastasis. *Nat Rev Cancer*. Apr
319 2006;6(4):281-291.
- 320 13. Borges VF. Management of the patient with postpartum breast cancer. *Oncology (Williston*
321 *Park)*. Sep 2014;28(9):768-770.
- 322 14. Macias H, Hinck L. Mammary gland development. *Wiley Interdiscip Rev Dev Biol*. Jul-Aug
323 2012;1(4):533-557.
- 324 15. Oskarsson T. Extracellular matrix components in breast cancer progression and metastasis.
325 *Breast*. Aug 2013;22 Suppl 2:S66-72.
- 326 16. Clarkson RW, Wayland MT, Lee J, et al. Gene expression profiling of mammary gland
327 development reveals putative roles for death receptors and immune mediators in post-
328 lactational regression. *Breast Cancer Res*. 2004;6(2):R92-109.
- 329 17. Stein T, Morris JS, Davies CR, et al. Involution of the mouse mammary gland is associated with
330 an immune cascade and an acute-phase response, involving LBP, CD14 and STAT3. *Breast*
331 *Cancer Res*. 2004;6(2):R75-91.
- 332 18. McDaniel SM, Rumer KK, Biroc SL, et al. Remodeling of the mammary microenvironment after
333 lactation promotes breast tumor cell metastasis. *Am J Pathol*. Feb 2006;168(2):608-620.
- 334 19. Lyons TR, O'Brien J, Borges VF, et al. Postpartum mammary gland involution drives progression
335 of ductal carcinoma in situ through collagen and COX-2. *Nat Med*. Sep 2011;17(9):1109-1115.
- 336 20. Schedin P, O'Brien J, Rudolph M, et al. Microenvironment of the involuting mammary gland
337 mediates mammary cancer progression. *J Mammary Gland Biol Neoplasia*. Mar 2007;12(1):71-
338 82.
- 339 21. Lyons TR, Borges VF, Betts CB, et al. Cyclooxygenase-2-dependent lymphangiogenesis
340 promotes nodal metastasis of postpartum breast cancer. *J Clin Invest*. Sep 2014;124(9):3901-
341 3912.

- 342 22. Jindal S, Gao D, Bell P, et al. Postpartum breast involution reveals regression of secretory
343 lobules mediated by tissue-remodeling. *Breast Cancer Res.* Mar 28 2014;16(2):R31.
- 344 23. Asztalos S, Pham TN, Gann PH, et al. High incidence of triple negative breast cancers following
345 pregnancy and an associated gene expression signature. *Springerplus.* 2015;4:710.
- 346 24. Martinson HA, Jindal S, Durand-Rougely C, et al. Wound healing-like immune program
347 facilitates postpartum mammary gland involution and tumor progression. *Int J Cancer.* Apr 15
348 2015;136(8):1803-1813.
- 349 25. Elder AM, Tamburini BAJ, Crump LS, et al. Semaphorin 7A promotes macrophage-mediated
350 lymphatic remodeling during postpartum mammary gland involution and in breast cancer.
351 *Cancer Research.* 2018;78(22):6473-6485.
- 352 26. Jindal S, Narasimhan J, Borges VF, et al. Characterization of weaning-induced breast involution
353 in women: implications for young women's breast cancer. *NPJ Breast Cancer.* 2020;6:55.
- 354 27. Dai D, Zhong Y, Wang Z, et al. The prognostic impact of age in different molecular subtypes of
355 breast cancer: a population-based study. *PeerJ.* 2019;7:e7252.
- 356 28. Hammond ME, Hayes DF, Wolff AC, et al. American society of clinical oncology/college of
357 american pathologists guideline recommendations for immunohistochemical testing of
358 estrogen and progesterone receptors in breast cancer. *J Oncol Pract.* Jul 2010;6(4):195-197.
- 359 29. Wolff AC, Hammond ME, Hicks DG, et al. Recommendations for human epidermal growth
360 factor receptor 2 testing in breast cancer: American Society of Clinical Oncology/College of
361 American Pathologists clinical practice guideline update. *J Clin Oncol.* Nov 1 2013;31(31):3997-
362 4013.
- 363 30. Xiao W, Zheng S, Yang A, et al. Breast cancer subtypes and the risk of distant metastasis at initial
364 diagnosis: a population-based study. *Cancer Manag Res.* 2018;10:5329-5338.
- 365 31. Patanaphan V, Salazar OM, Risco R. Breast cancer: metastatic patterns and their prognosis.
366 *South Med J.* Sep 1988;81(9):1109-1112.
- 367 32. Asztalos S, Gann PH, Hayes MK, et al. Gene expression patterns in the human breast after
368 pregnancy. *Cancer Prev Res (Phila).* Mar 2010;3(3):301-311.
- 369 33. Korakiti AM, Moutafi M, Zografos E, et al. The Genomic Profile of Pregnancy-Associated Breast
370 Cancer: A Systematic Review. *Front Oncol.* 2020;10:1773.
- 371 34. Cereser B, Tabassum N, Del Bel Belluz L, et al. Mutational landscapes of normal breast during
372 age and pregnancy determine cancer risk. *bioRxiv [Unpublished manuscript].* 2020.
- 373 35. Nguyen B, Venet D, Lambertini M, et al. Imprint of parity and age at first pregnancy on the
374 genomic landscape of subsequent breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Research.* 2019;21(1).
- 375 36. Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast C. Breast cancer and breastfeeding:
376 collaborative reanalysis of individual data from 47 epidemiological studies in 30 countries,
377 including 50302 women with breast cancer and 96973 women without the disease. *Lancet.* Jul
378 20 2002;360(9328):187-195.
- 379 37. Anstey EH, Shoemaker ML, Barrera CM, et al. Breastfeeding and Breast Cancer Risk Reduction:
380 Implications for Black Mothers. *Am J Prev Med.* Sep 2017;53(3S1):S40-S46.
- 381 38. Fortner RT, Sisti J, Chai B, et al. Parity, breastfeeding, and breast cancer risk by hormone
382 receptor status and molecular phenotype: results from the Nurses' Health Studies. *Breast
383 Cancer Res.* Mar 12 2019;21(1):40.
- 384 39. Hoyt-Austin A, Dove MS, Abrahao R, et al. Awareness That Breastfeeding Reduces Breast
385 Cancer Risk: 2015-2017 National Survey of Family Growth. *Obstet Gynecol.* Dec
386 2020;136(6):1154-1156.
- 387 40. Munguía MU, Lozano Esparza S, Stern DF, et al. Breastfeeding Duration and the Risk of All-
388 Cause and Breast Cancer Mortality Among Parous Women From the Mexican Teachers' Cohort.
389 *Journal of Global Oncology.* 2018.
- 390 41. ElShmay WM. The protective effect of longer duration of breastfeeding against pregnancy-
391 associated triple negative breast cancer. *Oncotarget.* 2016;7(33):53941-53950.

- 392 **42.** Schedin P, Strange R, Mitrenga T, et al. Fibronectin fragments induce MMP activity in mouse
393 mammary epithelial cells: evidence for a role in mammary tissue remodeling. *J Cell Sci.* Mar
394 2000;113 (Pt 5):795-806.
- 395 **43.** Schedin P, Mitrenga T, McDaniel S, et al. Mammary ECM composition and function are altered
396 by reproductive state. *Mol Carcinog.* Dec 2004;41(4):207-220.
397

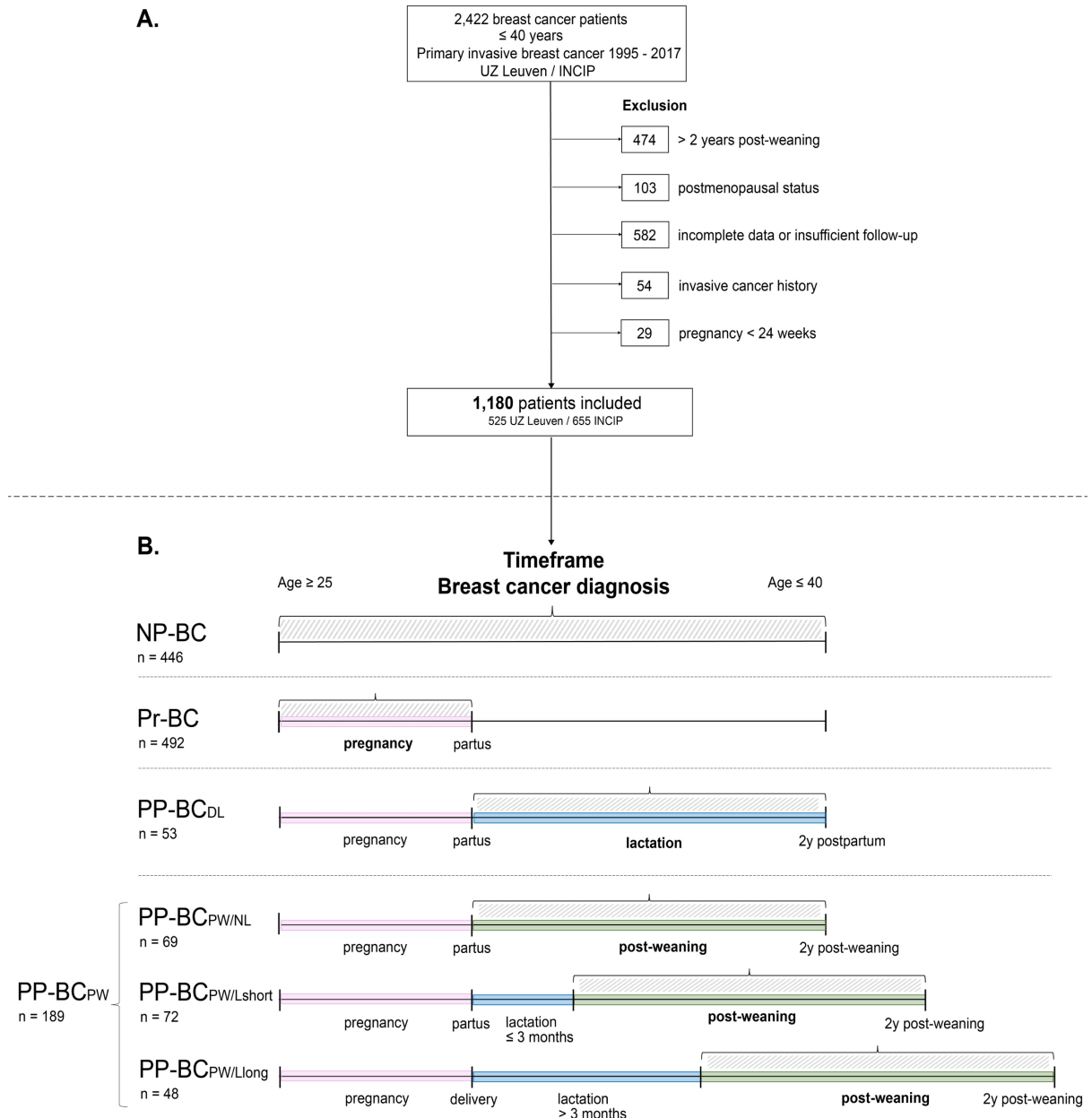
Table 1. Comparison of the frequencies of host- and tumour-related prognostic parameters in PP-BC_{PW} versus the other patient groups

Study group	PP-BC _{PW} (n = 189)		PP-BC _{DL} (n = 53)		Pr-BC (n = 492)		NP-BC (n = 446)		PP-BC _{PW} VS		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	PP-BC _{DL} OR [95% CI] ♦	Pr-BC OR [95% CI] ♦	NP-BC OR [95% CI] ♦
Mean age diagnosis (SD)	33.3	SD 3.6	33.2	SD 3.6	33.7	SD 3.9	34.8	SD 4.3	1.0 [0.9 – 1.1]	1.0 [0.9 – 1.0]	0.9 [0.9 – 1.0]
Mean year diagnosis (SD)	2007	SD 6.0	2009	SD 4.6	2009	SD 5.1	2008	SD 5.7	0.9 [0.9 – 1.0]	0.9 [0.9 – 1.0]	1.0 [0.9 – 1.0]
Year diagnosis											
1995-1999	21	11.1%	1	1.9%	20	4.1%	36	8.1%	--	--	--
2000-2004	42	22.2%	6	11.3%	77	15.7%	78	17.5%	2.2 [0.9 – 6.8]	1.5 [0.9 – 2.4]	1.3 [0.9 – 2.1]
2005-2009	49	25.9%	19	35.8%	139	28.3%	115	25.8%	0.6 [0.3 – 1.3]	0.8 [0.6 – 1.2]	1.0 [0.7 – 1.5]
2010-2014	52	27.5%	20	37.8%	158	32.1%	152	34.1%	0.6 [0.3 – 1.3]	0.8 [0.5 – 1.1]	0.7 [0.5 – 1.1]
2015-2017	25	13.2%	7	13.2%	98	19.9%	65	14.6%	1.0 [0.4 – 2.9]	0.7 [0.4 – 1.2]	0.9 [0.5 – 1.5]
Missing											
Stage											
Stage IA	39	21.0%	4	7.5%	70	14.3%	103	23.3%	--	--	--
Stage IB	6	3.2%	1	1.9%	6	1.2%	28	6.3%	0.6 [0.1 – 6.5]	1.8 [0.5 – 6.0]	0.6 [0.2 – 1.5]
Stage IIA	56	30.1%	18	34.0%	169	34.6%	143	32.3%	0.3 [0.1 – 1.0]	0.6 [0.4 – 1.0]	1.0 [0.6 – 1.7]
Stage IIB	28	15.1%	12	22.6%	111	22.7%	75	16.9%	0.2 [0.1 – 0.8]	0.5 [0.3 – 0.8]	1.0 [0.6 – 1.7]
Stage IIIA	26	14.0%	4	7.5%	70	14.3%	48	10.8%	0.7 [0.2 – 2.9]	0.7 [0.4 – 1.2]	1.4 [0.8 – 2.6]
Stage IIIB	11	5.9%	6	11.3%	17	3.5%	18	4.1%	0.2 [0.1 – 0.8]	1.2 [0.5 – 2.7]	1.6 [0.7 – 3.7]
Stage IIIC	13	7.0%	4	7.5%	28	5.7%	14	3.2%	0.3 [0.1 – 1.5]	0.8 [0.4 – 1.8]	2.5 [1.1 – 5.7]
Stage IV	7	3.8%	4	7.5%	18	3.7%	14	3.2%	0.2 [0.1 – 0.9]	0.7 [0.3 – 1.8]	1.3 [0.5 – 3.5]
Missing	3		0		3		3				
LN involvement											
Negative	80	43.5%	21	39.6%	217	44.4%	226	51.1%	--	--	--
Positive	104	56.5%	32	60.4%	273	55.6%	215	48.9%	0.9 [0.5 – 1.7]	1.1 [0.8 – 1.6]	1.5 [1.1 – 2.1]
Missing	5		0		3		4				
pN status											
N0	80	43.5%	21	39.6%	217	44.4%	226	51.1%	--	--	--
N1	79	42.9%	25	47.2%	192	39.3%	154	34.8%	0.8 [0.4 – 1.6]	1.1 [0.8 – 1.6]	1.5 [0.9 – 2.1]
N2	15	8.2%	2	3.8%	46	9.4%	35	7.9%	2.0 [0.4 – 9.3]	0.9 [0.5 – 1.7]	1.2 [0.6 – 2.3]
N3	10	5.4%	5	9.4%	34	7.0%	27	6.1%	0.5 [0.2 – 1.7]	0.8 [0.4 – 1.7]	1.1 [0.5 – 2.3]
Missing	5		0		3		4				
Mean tumour size (mm) (SD)	33.9	SD 26.6	32.8	SD 21.4	32.6	SD 24.0	30.1	SD 23.4	1.0 [0.9 – 1.0]	1.0 [0.9 – 1.0]	1.0 [0.9 – 1.0]
Grade											
Grade I	7	3.8%	5	9.4%	15	3.1%	60	13.9%	--	--	--
Grade II	49	26.5%	9	17.0%	111	23.1%	161	37.3%	3.9 [0.9 – 15.0]	0.9 [0.4 – 2.5]	2.6 [1.1 – 6.1]
Grade III	129	69.7%	39	73.6%	354	73.8%	211	48.8%	2.4 [0.7 – 7.9]	0.8 [0.3 – 2.0]	5.2 [2.3 – 11.8]
Missing	4		0		12		14				
Surrogate											
Molecular Subtype											
Luminal A-like	36	19.6%	3	5.7%	35	8.1%	127	30.5%	--	--	--
Luminal B-like	47	25.5%	15	28.3%	115	26.6%	106	25.5%	0.3 [0.1 – 0.9]	0.4 [0.2 – 0.7]	1.6 [0.9 – 2.6]
Luminal HER-2	30	16.3%	10	18.9%	77	17.8%	70	16.8%	0.3 [0.1 – 0.9]	0.4 [0.2 – 0.7]	1.5 [0.9 – 2.7]
HER-2-like	19	10.3%	10	18.9%	52	12.0%	25	6.0%	0.2 [0.1 – 0.7]	0.4 [0.2 – 0.7]	1.8 [0.9 – 3.5]
Triple Negative	52	28.3%	15	28.3%	154	35.6%	88	21.2%	0.3 [0.1 – 1.1]	0.3 [0.2 – 0.6]	2.1 [0.9 – 3.2]
Missing	5		0		59		30				
Histological Subtype											
IDC	153	81.8%	41	77.4%	404	83.1%	351	79.1%	--	--	--
ILC	23	12.3%	5	9.4%	50	10.3%	67	15.1%	1.2 [0.4 – 3.4]	1.2 [0.7 – 2.1]	0.8 [0.5 – 1.3]
Other (Special)	11	5.9%	7	13.2%	32	6.6%	26	5.9%	0.4 [0.2 – 1.2]	0.9 [0.5 – 1.9]	0.9 [0.5 – 2.0]
Missing	2		0		6		2				
Chemotherapy											
No	29	15.4%	5	9.4%	27	5.5%	92	20.8%	--	--	--
Yes	159	84.6%	48	90.6%	463	94.4%	350	79.2%	0.6 [0.2 – 1.6]	0.3 [0.2 – 0.6]	1.4 [0.9 – 2.3]
Adjuvant	103	64.8%	25	52.1%	311	67.2%	252	72.0%	1.0 [0.3 – 3.3]	1.4 [0.8 – 2.6]	3.8 [1.7 – 8.4]
Neoadjuvant	39	24.5%	19	39.6%	115	24.8%	87	24.9%	0.5 [0.3 – 1.0]	1.0 [0.7 – 1.6]	1.1 [0.7 – 1.7]
Adj. + Neoadj.	17	10.7%	4	8.3%	37	8.0%	11	3.1%	1.4 [0.5 – 4.0]	3.2 [1.8 – 5.7]	0.8 [0.5 – 1.2]
Missing	1		0		2		4				
Surgery											
No	10	5.3%	4	7.5%	19	3.9%	12	2.7%	--	--	--
Yes	178	94.7%	49	92.5%	470	96.1%	430	97.3%	1.5 [0.4 – 4.8]	0.7 [0.3 – 1.6]	0.5 [0.2 – 1.2]
Missing	1		0		3		4				
Radiotherapy											
No	34	18.2%	17	32.1%	170	36.0%	119	26.9%	--	--	--
Yes	153	81.8%	36	67.9%	302	64.0%	323	73.1%	2.1 [1.1 – 4.2]	2.5 [1.7 – 3.8]	1.7 [1.1 – 2.5]
Missing	2		0		20		4				
Hormone therapy											
No	97	51.6%	35	66.0%	275	56.9%	172	39.0%	--	--	--
Yes	91	48.4%	18	34.0%	208	43.1%	269	61.0%	1.8 [0.9 – 3.5]	1.2 [0.9 – 1.7]	0.6 [0.4 – 0.9]
Missing	1		0		9		5				
Anti HER-2 therapy											

No	158	83.6%	38	71.7%	379	78.5%	369	83.7%	--	--	--
Yes	31	16.4%	15	28.3%	104	21.5%	72	16.3%	0.5 [0.2 – 1.0]	0.7 [0.5 – 1.1]	1.0 [0.6 – 1.6]
Missing	0		0		9		5				

◆ Multinomial logistic regression model – 2-tailed Wald tests are used to determine Odds Ratio (OR) and 95% Confidence Intervals (95% CI). OR larger (lower) than 1 indicates increased (decreased) occurrence of that parameter in PP-BCPW compared to the reference type (either PP-BCDL, Pr-BC or NP-BC). IDC, invasive ductal adenocarcinoma; ILC, invasive lobular adenocarcinoma. Significant values are indicated in bold.

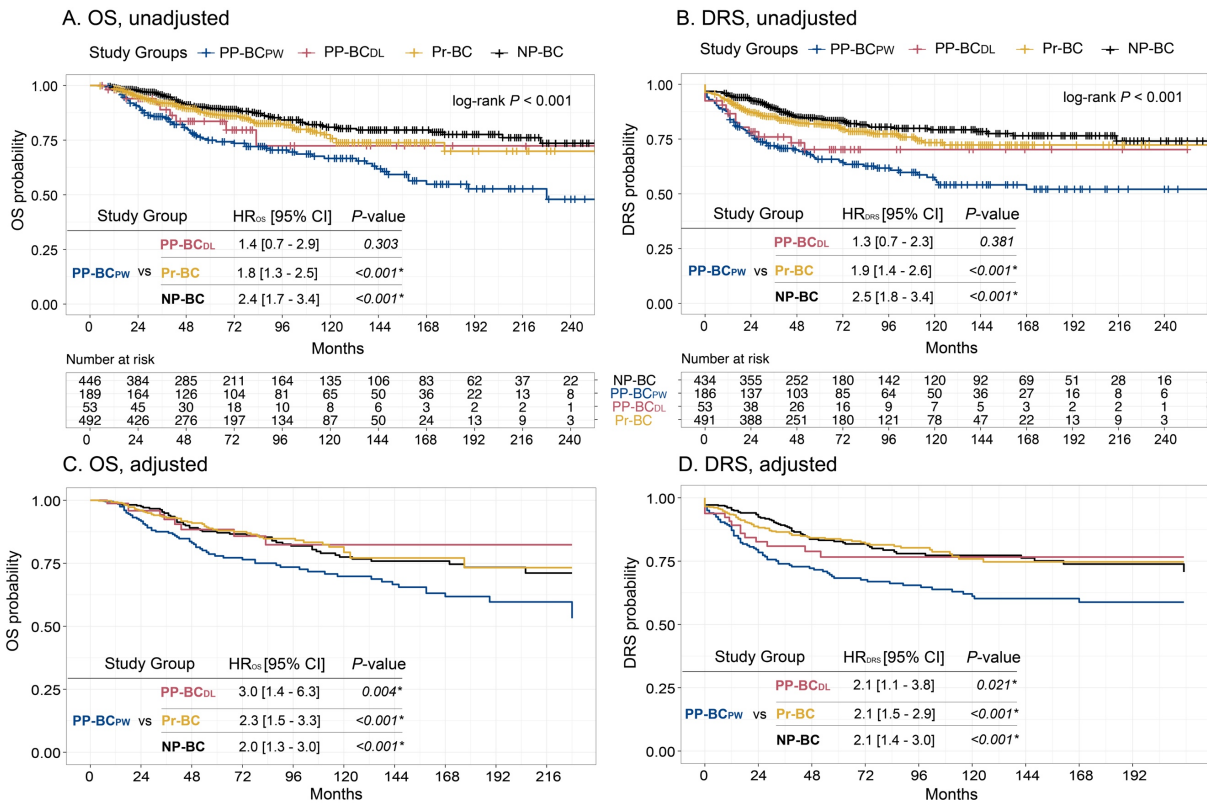
399 FIGURES



400 **Figure 1. A.** Flow chart depicting the number of breast cancer patients included in this study. Exclusion
 401 criteria were a diagnosis >2 years post-weaning, postmenopausal status, invasive cancer history,
 402 pregnancy lasting <24 weeks and insufficient data on 2 or more parameters or a lack of follow-up (<2
 403 years). Women who became pregnant again within 2 years after delivery were also excluded from these
 404 analyses. **B.** Included breast cancer patients were grouped based on pregnancy and lactation status.
 405

NP-BC are Nulliparous patients with no history of pregnancy; Pr-BC are women diagnosed during Pregnancy; PP-BC_{DL} are patients diagnosed During Lactation; PP-BC_{PW} are women diagnosed Post-Weaning. PP-BC_{PW/NL} are women diagnosed Post-Weaning who Never Lactated; PP-BC_{PW/Lshort} are women diagnosed Post-Weaning who breastfed for ≤ 3 months; PP-BC_{PW/Llong} are women diagnosed Post-Weaning who breastfed for >3 months prior to diagnosis.

411



412

413 **Figure 2.** Unadjusted probability of OS and DRS in PP-BC_{PW} (n=189), PP-BC_{DL} (n=53), Pr-BC (n=492) and

414 NP-BC (n=446) patients demonstrated an increased risk of death (A) and metastasis (B) in PP-BC_{PW}.

415 Univariate analyses in all patients (n=1,180) and patients with complete data only (n=1,045) showed

416 similar results, indicating no bias of removal of patients with missing data in the multivariate model.

417 Adjusted probability in PP-BC_{PW} (n=179), PP-BC_{DL} (n=53), Pr-BC (n=409) and NP-BC (n=404) patients

418 also indicates an increased risk of death (C) and metastasis (D) in PP-BC_{PW}. Multivariate Proportional

419 Hazards models were adjusted for age at diagnosis, year of diagnosis, stage (accounting for tumour size

420 and LN infiltration), grade, surrogate molecular subtype, surgery, and (neo-)adjuvant CT, RT, HT and

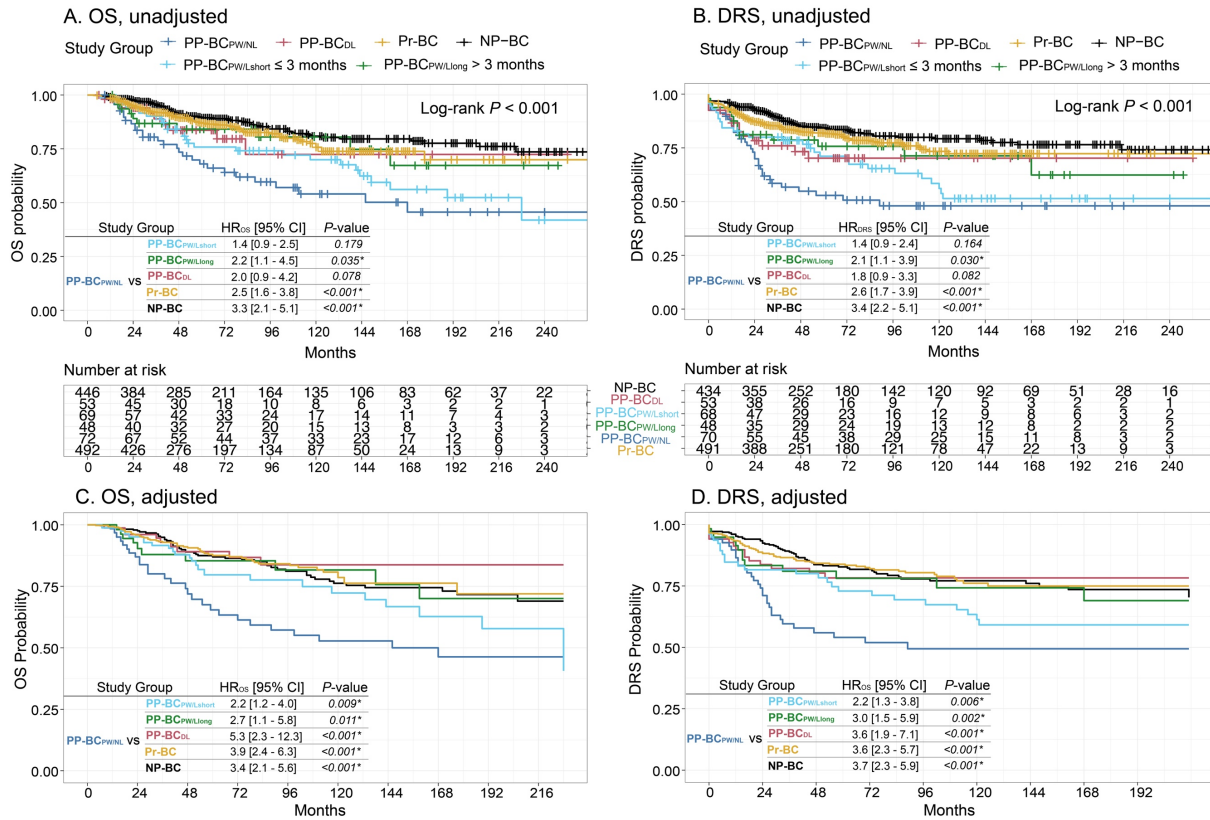
421 anti-HER-2 therapy. Grade, HT and surgery were stratified to comply with the proportional hazard's

422 assumption. Hazard Ratio (HR) and 95% Confidence Interval (CI) for the OS and DRS proportional

423 hazards models were determined using Cox regression analyses and Kaplan-Meier curves. HR of more

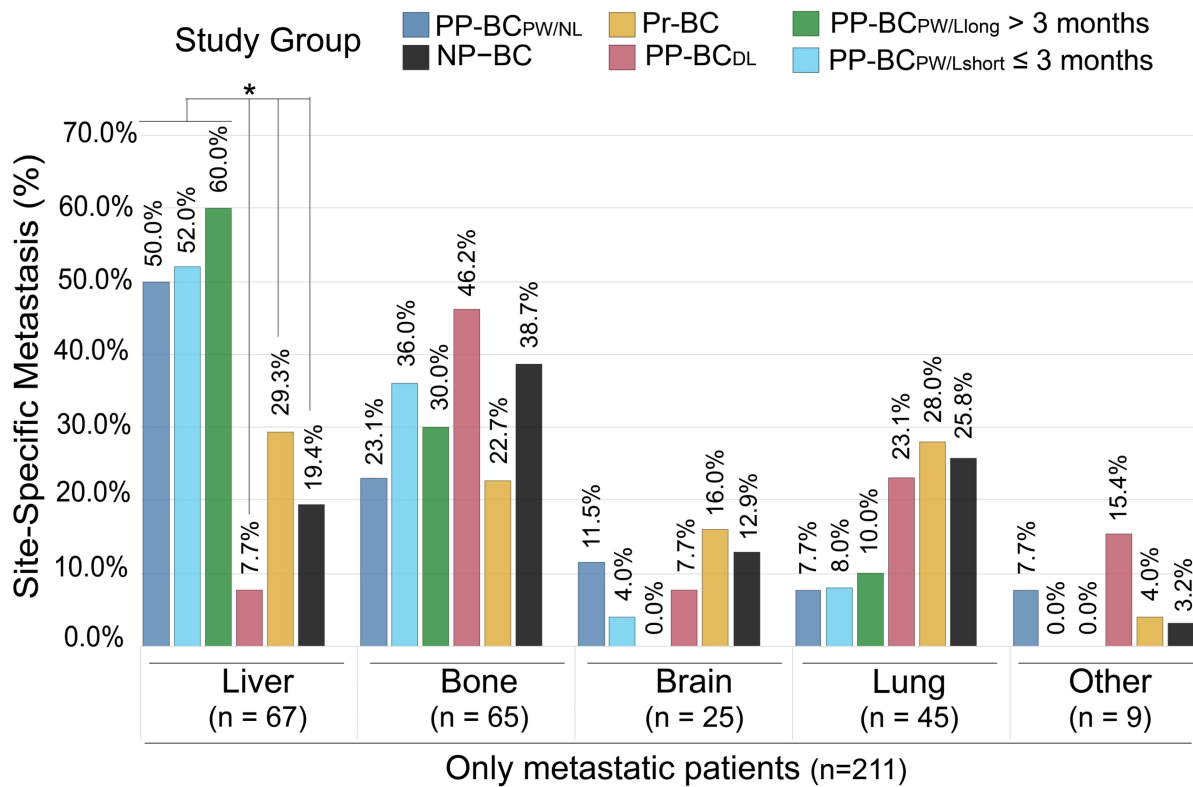
424 (less) than 1 indicates higher (lower) risk of death or metastasis. Significant values are indicated with

425 an asterisk (*).



427

428 **Figure 3.** Unadjusted probability of OS and DRS in PP-BC^{PW/NL} (n=72), PP-BC^{PW/Lshort} (n=69), PP-
 429 BC^{PW/Llong} (n=48), PP-BC^{DL} (n=53), Pr-BC (n=492) and NP-BC patients (n=446) demonstrated an
 430 increased risk of death (A) and metastasis (B) in PP-BC^{PW/NL} and PP-BC^{PW/Lshort} patients. Adjusted OS
 431 and DRS probability in PP-BC^{PW/NL} (n=67), PP-BC^{PW/Lshort} (n=64), PP-BC^{PW/Llong} (n=48), PP-BC^{DL} (n=53),
 432 Pr-BC (n=409) and NP-BC (n=404) patients indicated an increased risk of death (C) and metastasis (D)
 433 in both PP-BC^{PW/NL} and PP-BC^{PW/Lshort} patients. Multivariate Proportional Hazards models were adjusted
 434 for age at diagnosis, year of diagnosis, stage (accounting for tumour size and LN infiltration), grade,
 435 surrogate molecular subtype, surgery, and (neo-)adjuvant CT, RT, HT and anti-HER-2 therapy. Grade,
 436 HT and surgery were stratified to comply with the proportional hazard’s assumption. Hazard Ratio (HR)
 437 and 95% Confidence Interval (CI) for the OS and DRS proportional hazards models were determined
 438 using Cox regression analyses and Kaplan-Meier curves. HR of more (less) than 1 indicates higher
 439 (lower) risk of death or metastasis. Significant values are indicated with an asterisk (*).



440

441 **Figure 4.** Subset analysis of site-specific metastasis (liver, bone, brain, lung and other sites) in women
 442 with metastatic disease (at diagnosis or during follow-up) that presented with only one site of primary
 443 distant metastasis (n=211: PP-BCPW/NL (n=26), PP-BCPW/Lshort (n=25), PP-BCPW/Llong (n=10), PP-
 444 BCDL (n=13), Pr-BC (n=75) and NP-BC (n=62)). Other sites of metastasis mainly include skin and ovaries.
 445 PP-BCPW/NL patients had a significant increased risk in liver metastatic disease compared to PP-BCDL
 446 ($P=0.013$), Pr-BC ($P=0.049$) and NP-BC ($P=0.008$). PP-BCPW/Lshort patients also had a significant
 447 increased risk in liver metastatic disease compared to PP-BCDL ($P=0.012$), Pr-BC ($P=0.048$) and NP-BC
 448 ($P=0.004$). Finally, also PP-BCPW/Llong patients presented with significant increased liver metastases
 449 compared to PP-BCDL ($P=0.019$), Pr-BC ($P=0.049$) and NP-BC ($P=0.013$). No significant differences in
 450 frequencies of bone, brain, lung or other metastases were observed between our different study
 451 groups. All p-values were determined by means of two-sided Fisher's Exact testing. Significant values
 452 are indicated with an asterisk (*).