

Impact of sex on response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy in patients with bladder cancer

David D'Andrea¹, Peter C Black², Homayoun Zargar^{2,3}, Kamran Zargar-Shoshtari^{4,5}, Sonja Zehetmayer⁶, Adrian S Fairey⁷, Laura S Mertens⁸, Colin P Dinney⁹, Maria C Mir^{10,11}, Laura-Maria Krabbe^{12,13}, Michael S Cookson¹⁴, Niels-Erik Jacobsen⁷, Jeffrey S Montgomery¹⁵, Nikhil Vasdev^{16,17}, Evan Y Yu¹⁸, Evangelos Xylinas¹⁹, Nicholas J Campain²⁰, Wassim Kassouf²¹, Marc A Dall'Era²², Jo-An Seah²³, Cesar E Ercole¹⁰, Simon Horenblas⁸, Srikala S Sridhar²³, John S McGrath²⁰, Jonathan Aning^{20,24}, Jonathan L Wright²⁵, Andrew C Thorpe¹⁷, Todd M Morgan¹⁵, Jeff M Holzbeierlein²⁶, Trinity J Bivalacqua²⁷, Scott North^{28,29}, Daniel A Barocas³⁰, Yair Lotan¹², Petros Grivas^{18,31}, Andrew J Stephenson¹⁰, Jay B Shah^{9,32}, Bas W van Rhijn⁸, Siamak Daneshmand³³, Philippe E Spiess⁴, Shahrokh F. Shariat^{1,12,34,35,36}

1. Department of Urology, Comprehensive Cancer Center, Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria
2. Department of Urologic Sciences, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada
3. Western Health, Melbourne, Australia
4. Department of Genitourinary Oncology, H Lee Moffitt Cancer Center and Research Institute, Tampa FL, USA
5. University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand
6. Center for Medical Statistics, Informatics, and Intelligent Systems, Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria
7. University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB, Canada
8. Department of Urology, The Netherlands Cancer Institute - Antoni van Leeuwenhoek Hospital, Amsterdam, The Netherlands
9. Department of Urology, MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX, USA
10. Glickman Urological and Kidney Institute, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, OH, USA
11. Department of Urology, Fundacion Instituto Valenciano de Oncologia, Valencia, Spain
12. Department of Urology, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA
13. Department of Urology, University of Münster, Münster, Germany
14. Department of Urology, University of Oklahoma College of Medicine, Oklahoma City, OK, USA
15. Department of Urology, University of Michigan Health System, Ann Arbor, MI
16. Hertfordshire and Bedfordshire Urological Cancer Centre, Department of Urology, Lister Hospital, Stevenage, UK
17. Department of Urology, Freeman Hospital, Newcastle Upon Tyne, UK
18. Department of Medicine, Division of Oncology, University of Washington School of Medicine and Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, WA, USA
19. Department of Urology, Cochin Hospital, APHP, Paris Descartes University, Paris, France
20. Department of Surgery, Exeter Surgical Health Services Research Unit, Royal Devon and Exeter NHS Trust, Exeter, UK
21. Department of Surgery (Division of Urology), McGill University Health Center, Montreal, Canada
22. Department of Urology, University of California at Davis, Davis Medical Center, Sacramento, CA, USA
23. Princess Margaret Hospital, Toronto, ON, Canada
24. Bristol Urological Institute, North Bristol NHS Trust, Bristol, UK
25. Department of Urology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA
26. Department of Urology, University of Kansas Medical Center, Kansas City, KS, USA
27. Department of Urology, The James Buchanan Brady Urological Institute, The Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA
28. Cross Cancer Institute, Edmonton, AB, Canada
29. Department of Oncology, University of Alberta, Edmonton AB, Canada
30. Department of Urology, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, TN, USA
31. Department of Hematology and Medical Oncology, Taussig Cancer Institute, Cleveland Clinic
32. Department of Urology, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, CA, USA
33. USC/Norris Comprehensive Cancer Center, Institute of Urology, University of Southern California, CA, USA
34. Departments of Urology, Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, New York, USA

35. Department of Urology, Second Faculty of Medicine, Charles University, Prag, Czech Republic
36. Institute for Urology and Reproductive Health, I.M. Sechenov First Moscow State Medical University, Moscow, Russia

Please direct correspondence to:

Shahrokh F. Shariat

Department of Urology, Medical University of Vienna

Währinger Gürtel 18-20

1090 Vienna

Austria

Tel +43 40400 26 150

sfshariat@gmail.com

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Objective:** To assess the effect of patient’s sex on response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) in
3 patients with clinically non-metastatic muscle-invasive bladder cancer (MIBC).

4 **Methods:** Complete pathologic response, defined as ypT0N0 at radical cystectomy, and downstaging
5 were evaluated using sex-adjusted univariable and multivariable logistic regression modeling. We
6 used interaction terms to account for age of menopause and smoking status. The association of sex
7 with overall (OS) and cancer-specific survival (CSS) was evaluated using Cox regression analyses.

8 **Results:** A total of 1031 patients were included in the analysis, 227 (22%) of whom were female.
9 Female patients had a higher rate of extravesical disease extension ($p = 0.01$). After the
10 administration of NAC, ypT stage was equally distributed between sexes ($p = 0.39$). On multivariable
11 logistic regression analyses, there was no difference between the sexes or [age of menopause] with
12 regards to ypT0N0 rates or downstaging (all $p > 0.5$). On Cox regression analyses, sex was associated
13 with neither OS (1.04, 95%CI 0.75 – 1.45, $p = 0.81$) nor CSS (1.06, 95%CI 0.71 – 1.58, $p = 0.77$).

14 **Conclusion:** Our study generates the hypothesis that NAC may equalize the preoperative disparity in
15 clinical stage between men and women, suggesting a possible differential response between sexes.
16 ~~suggesting that females might respond better to NAC.~~ This might be the explanation underlying the
17 comparable pathologic stage and outcomes between sexes and needs to be tested prospectively.

18

19 **Introduction**

20 Patient sex (female vs male) has a differential effect on bladder cancer (BCa) presentation and
21 survival[1, 2]. While BCa incidence is three to four times higher in males compared to females, the
22 latter are more likely to be diagnosed with advanced disease and to suffer from worse survival
23 outcomes despite standard treatment[3–5]. Neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) is part of the standard
24 of care therapeutic modalities delivered in patients with clinically non-metastatic muscle-invasive BCa
25 (MIBC)[6, 7]. However, females are less likely to receive NAC which is partially explained by
26 differences in health care factors like time to diagnosis and treatment modality[8–11].

27 To the best of our knowledge, there is no data on a potentially differential response to NAC according
28 to sex in patients treated with radical cystectomy (RC). To fill this gap, we compared pathologic
29 response rates and survival outcomes between sexes adjusting for the effects of smoking and age
30 suggestive of menopause in a large multicenter dataset of patients treated with NAC followed by RC
31 for BCa.

32

33 **Material and methods**

34 **Study population**

35 We performed a retrospective analysis of our multi institutional database comprising 1474 patients
36 treated with NAC followed by RC for BCa from 2000 to 2013 [7].

37 Patients with clinically metastatic disease (N+ and/or M+) were excluded, leaving 1031 patients for
38 final analysis. A total of 313 patients were lost to follow-up, leaving 718 patients for survival analyses.
39 Clinical stage prior to the administration of chemotherapy was assigned by the treating physician
40 based on transurethral resection of the bladder, bimanual exam and/or cross-sectional imaging.

41

42 **Chemotherapy**

43 NAC regimens consisted of cisplatin-based combination chemotherapy, or other. Chemotherapy
44 regimen and number of cycles were administered at clinician discretion in accordance with
45 institutional standards and guidelines at that time.

46

47 **Radical cystectomy**

48 Patients were treated with RC and lymphadenectomy. All procedures were performed by an open
49 technique. The decision for the type of urinary diversions was based on patient and disease
50 characteristics, patient's and surgeon's preferences as well as patient's performance status. All
51 surgical specimens were processed according to standard pathologic procedures and staged according
52 to the 1998 TNM classification. All tumors were high-grade.

53

54 **Outcome measurement**

55 Response to NAC was assessed by yTNM stage at RC. Complete pathologic response was defined as
56 ypT0N0. Downstaging was defined as any stage migration from non-organ confined disease (NOC) to
57 ypT2-N0, ypNMIBC-N0 or ypT0-N0 or from cT2 to ypNMIBC-N0 or ypT0-N0. Overall survival (OS) and
58 cancer-specific survival (CSS) were calculated from the day of RC death of any cause for OS and death
59 due to bladder cancer for CSS, respectively. Patients were censored at the time of last follow up.
60 Cause of death was recorded through patients charts and/or death certificates [12].

61

62

63 **Molecular correlates of response to chemotherapy**

64 Since both RNA expression subtypes and mutations in specific DNA damage response (DDR) genes
65 have been shown to correlate with response to NAC in patients with MIBC, we investigated the
66 prevalence of subtypes and DDR gene alterations according to sex using data from 395 chemo-naïve
67 patients with MIBC from The Cancer Genome Atlas Program (TCGA)[13]. The TCGA subtypes (luminal
68 papillary, luminal infiltrated, luminal, basal squamous and neuronal) were used. We selected
69 ERCC2[14] as well as RB1, ATM and FANCC[15] as key DDR genes based on prior reports, but also
70 added ATR, BRCA1, BRCA2, ERCC5, RAD51C, and REQLC4 based on the list of DDR genes selected as
71 functionally important in three ongoing trials investigating bladder preservation (NCT03609216,
72 NCT03558087, NCT02710734)[16–18].

73

74 **Statistical analysis**

75 We performed a stepwise approach to the statistical analyses. First, we performed multiple
76 imputation by using chained equations to handle missing data that were assumed to be missing at
77 random. Fifteen imputed data sets were generated using predictive mean matching for numeric
78 variables, logistic regression for binary variables and Bayesian polytomous regression for factor
79 variables. Second, we compared the distribution of patients' clinicopathologic features according to
80 sex. Third, we evaluated the association of sex with pathologic response using univariable and
81 multivariable logistic regression modeling. Due to the even distribution of the data between groups,
82 adjustments using propensity score were not performed. Fourth, as pre-planned analysis, we
83 introduced interaction terms in the logistic models to evaluate the synergistic effect of sex and
84 smoking status or menopausal status. As the age of menopause was not available, we arbitrarily
85 assigned the age of 50 as cut-off for menopause. Fifth, we investigated the association of sex with OS
86 and CSS using Cox regression analyses and plotted survival curves using the Kaplan-Meier method.
87 Sixth, we tested the validity of the Cox model assumption using Shoenfeld residuals. Due to the
88 exploratory character of the study, statistical significance was considered at $p < 0.05$, but not in a
89 confirmatory manner. Therefore, no adjustment for multiplicity was performed. All tests were
90 performed with R (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, v3.5.1).

91

92 **Results**

93 Clinico-pathologic features of the population are shown in Table 1. Overall, 804 (78%) patients were
94 of male sex and 227 (22%) were of female sex. Females had more advanced clinical stage at
95 presentation than their male counterparts (NOC disease 36.6 vs 32.6%

96

97 We observed an equal distribution of ypT stage between sexes after NAC (Figure 1). On univariable
98 logistic regression analyses, we could not identify an association of sex with downstaging or complete
99 pathologic response to NAC (all $p > 0.5$). Multivariable analyses which adjusted for the effects of
100 clinical stage, administered NAC regimen, number of cycles, and smoking status, failed to identify a
101 significant difference between females and males in downstaging or complete pathologic response to
102 NAC when comparing the means between the two populations in the overall model (all $p > 0.5$) (Table
103 2).

104

105 Overall, 207 (91%) female patients were 50 years or older. Of these, 91 (44%) were never smokers,
106 109 (53%) former smokers and 7 (3%) current smokers. On univariable and multivariable logistic
107 regression analyses, we could not identify an association of menopausal status with complete
108 response to NAC or downstaging (all $p > 0.5$) (Table 3).

109

110 Within a median follow-up of 17 months (IQR 7 – 37), 297 (41%) patients died and 206 (29%) died of
111 their BCa. On Cox regression analyses, female sex was neither associated with OS (HR 0.98, 95%CI
112 0.69 – 1.38, $p = 0.89$) nor CSS (HR 1.03, 95%CI 0.69 – 1.55, $p = 0.88$) (Figure 2). The validity of the
113 proportional hazard assumption was supported by a non-significant relationship between residuals
114 and time ($p = 0.99$).

115

116 In a final step, we extracted TCGA data[13] and analyzed the prevalence of ten DDR genes (ATM, ATR,
117 BRCA1, BRCA2, ERCC2, ERCC5, FANCC, RAD51C, RB1 and REQLC4) between males and females. We
118 found that females have fewer DDR gene mutations overall compared to males (28.3% vs 44.6%, $p <$
119 0.001). However, there was no difference in the rate of single DDR gene mutations between sexes
120 (supplementary Figure S1). With respect to RNA-based subtypes, basal-squamous was more frequent

121 in females (43.4% vs 37.7%) and luminal papillary in males (37.7% vs 28.3%). However, these
122 differences were not statistically significant (all $p \geq 0.05$, Supplementary figure S2).

123 **Discussion**

124 In a retrospective analysis of a large multicenter cohort of patients treated with NAC followed by RC
125 for non-metastatic BCa, we could not observe any association of sex with pathologic complete
126 response to NAC. While there was a small but statistically significant difference in clinical T stage at
127 diagnosis, this difference between sexes could no longer be observed after NAC.

128

129 Although the incidence of BCa in females is lower than in males, female patients often present with
130 more advanced disease and suffer from worse prognosis [1, 2, 19]. In this context, genetic,
131 environmental, hormonal and health care differences are known to play a role in response to
132 standard therapies and oncologic outcomes[8, 20]. However, a definitive and satisfactory explanation
133 for these sex-based differences is still missing. We tried to shed light on this, by investigating the
134 synergistic effect of smoking and cut-off age of 50, as surrogate for menopause[21], on response to
135 NAC. We found no association of either age or smoking status with response to NAC. Notably, a meta-
136 analysis showed that the magnitude of benefit to immune checkpoint inhibitors may be higher in men than
137 women, but only one trial of patients with advanced urothelial carcinoma was included in that [22]. However,
138 less than 10% of the women in this cohort were under age 50 and a difference may be difficult to
139 identify.

140

141 Smoking is a well-known risk factor for BCa[23, 24]. Population-based studies have shown that among
142 smokers, females have a higher risk of developing BCa compared to males (HR 2.75 for female vs 2.32
143 for male)[25]. However, the synergistic effect of smoking and sex is not consistent in the literature
144 [26, 27]. In pre-clinical studies, smoking has been linked to chemo-resistance in human BCa cell
145 line[28]. However, the clinical literature presents controversial results regarding smoking status as
146 predictor of chemo-resistance, even when stratified by sex [29–32].

147

148 In our study, we expanded upon previous findings by investigating the synergistic effect of smoking
149 and sex on the response to NAC in a large population with clinically non-metastatic MIBC. We could
150 not identify a statistically significant association of smoking status with downstaging or complete
151 response to NAC. This effect can partially be explained by the low patient number in relation to the
152 difference between groups. Indeed, if we look at the reported effect in population-based studies[25,

153 33], a larger cohort would, probably, be needed to show a statistically significant difference between
154 males and females.

155

156 Preclinical studies have shown that the modulation of circulating estrogen levels through the
157 menopausal status leads to structural changes in the murine bladder [30, 31]. In clinical studies, sex-
158 based differences in hormonal status have been linked to the development and progression of BCa
159 [34, 35].

160 We investigated the association of age, using the cut-off of 50 years as surrogate for menopause, with
161 pathological response to NAC. We, indeed, found no significant association with any of the outcomes.
162 These findings are in line with the current literature. For example, in a case-control-study with a
163 meta-analysis, Dietrich et al. found that postmenopausal females were at higher risk for developing a
164 BCa, but this association was not statistically significant (OR 1.30, 95%CI 0.45 – 3.77). Those authors
165 also reported that the OR increased with the age of menopause of <45 years (OR 1.33, 95%CI 0.72 –
166 2.47)[36]; but again, this association was not significant. Differences in tumor biology, change in sex
167 steroid receptor after menopause and the potential association of BCa with sex steroid hormones
168 may explain this phenomenon[37].

169

170 Somatic genetic alterations in DDR genes and molecular subtypes have been linked to clinical
171 response to cisplatin-based NAC[14, 15, 38]. Choi et al. have also reported that tumors of the basal
172 subtype, which appear to benefit most from NAC, are enriched in women[38]. In order to evaluate
173 whether differences in these two molecular parameters could explain the differential response to
174 NAC in female, we analyzed the TCGA data. We found that men had overall more DDR gene mutations
175 than females; however, it can be hard to ascertain the functional impact of each mutation..

176 Moreover, we could not identify a significant difference in the rate of single DDR gene mutations or
177 prevalence of mRNA cluster between sexes. Altogether, these molecular findings do not clearly
178 explain the modest differential response rate to NAC between males and females.

179

180 Complete pathologic response after NAC has been correlated with improved OS and RFS [39, 40]. We
181 investigated the association of sex with survival and found no statistical difference in OS and CSS. In
182 contrast to our findings, in a retrospective analysis of 4,216 patients treated with RC without NAC,

183 Messer et al. found a significant association of female sex with recurrence ($p = 0.039$) and CSS ($p =$
184 0.001) [41]. The explanation for these disparities is likely multifactorial[1, 2, 42]. In our study, all
185 patients were treated with NAC, which might have potentially abrogated clinical differences in
186 survival. Indeed, we observed no difference in pathologic T or N stage between sexes after NAC. This
187 is an important finding which generates the hypothesis that sex-based differences in clinical and
188 pathologic features in BCa might be potentially equalized through the administration of NAC, leading
189 to comparable oncologic outcomes.

190

191 We acknowledge the limitations of our study, which are mainly inherent to its retrospective design
192 and the short follow-up. Staging and the administration of NAC were not standardized. Moreover, we
193 could not account for the quality of surgical techniques. Indeed, the extent of the resection may have
194 possibly influenced outcomes. Previous reports could not show a significant difference between sexes
195 in patients treated with incomplete or complete TURB before NAC. For example, James et al.
196 investigated the association of maximal TURB with complete pathologic response to NAC. Among 81
197 patients who received NAC, those treated with maximal TURB were more likely to achieve complete
198 pathologic response (OR 3.17, 95%CI 1.02 – 9.83). Stratified by sex, females were more likely to
199 achieve complete pathologic response. However, this association was statistically not significant [43].
200 In addition, the anatomic difference in bladder wall thickness between males and females could also
201 have influenced outcomes by allowing a more radical resection in females.

202

203 In this context, it can be argued that nodal staging could be a more accurate end-point to assess
204 response to NAC, as lymph nodes are not affected by any surgical intervention prior to NAC
205 administration. In a previous retrospective analysis of 304 patients with clinically N+ treated with
206 induction chemotherapy followed by RC, we found that a complete pathological response can be
207 achieved in 14.5% of the patients. However, the authors could not detect any differences in response
208 to chemotherapy between sexes[44]. Finally, this study did not evaluate the association of sex with
209 NAC related toxicity, morbidity and mortality.

210

211 Despite these limitations, our study provides clinically relevant information and generates the
212 hypothesis that NAC could reduce the survival gap between males and females by equalizing sex-

213 specific differences in clinical stage emphasizing the adoption of multimodal treatment modalities in
214 the era of personalized medicine[45].
215

216 **Conclusion**

217 We found that, in patients planned for NAC and RC, females have worse clinico-pathologic features
218 compared to males at the time of diagnosis. After the administration of NAC there was no difference
219 in pathologic stage. Our analyses generate the hypothesis of a differential response to NAC between
220 sexes which could potentially equalize the clinical outcomes of patients with different prognosis.
221 Further research should focus on testing that hypothesis, as well as on sex-based differences in
222 response to novel systemic agents, such as immune checkpoint and FGFR inhibitors , as well as
223 trimodality therapy[46].

224

225

226 **Aknowledgment**

227 We would like to thank Kenichiro Ikeda for the data extraction form The Cancer Genome Atlas
228 Program

Table 1. Clinicopathologic features of 1031 patients treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy and radical cystectomy for clinically non-metastatic muscle-invasive bladder cancer, stratified by sex

	Male	female	p
n (%)	804 (78)	227 (22)	
Age, median (IQR)	63 (57 – 71)	65 (58 – 72)	0.11
Smoking, n (%)			0.02
Never	292 (36.3)	100 (44.1)	
Former	451 (56.1)	119 (52.4)	
Current	61 (7.6)	8 (3.5)	
Histology, n (%)			0.98
Urothelial	705 (87.7)	201 (88.5)	
Mixed histological variant*	99 (12.3)	26 (11.5)	
Chemotherapy regimen, n (%)			0.73
Cisplatin-based	670 (83.3)	192 (84.6)	
Other	134 (16.7)	35 (15.4)	
Chemotherapy cycles, n (%)			0.13
1 to 2	76 (9.5)	32 (14.1)	
3 to 4	679 (84.5)	182 (80.2)	
5 to 8	49 (6.1)	13 (5.7)	
cT, n (%)			0.01
cT2	510 (63.4)	131 (57.7)	
cT3	195 (24.3)	77 (33.9)	
cT4	99 (12.3)	19 (8.4)	
ypT, n (%)			0.39
ypT0	190 (23.6)	48 (21.1)	
ypNMIBC	164 (20.4)	46 (20.3)	
ypT2	160 (19.9)	38 (16.7)	
ypT3/T4	290 (36.1)	95 (41.9)	
ypN, n (%)			0.76
ypN0	642 (79.9)	174 (76.7)	
ypN1	64 (8.0)	20 (8.8)	
ypN2	85 (10.6)	29 (12.8)	
ypN3	13 (1.6)	4 (1.8)	
Nodes removed, median (IQR)	18 (11 – 27)	16 (11 – 25)	0.11
Positive STSM, n (%)	65 (8.1)	16 (7.0)	0.71

IQR = interquartile range; GEM-CIS = gemcitabine cisplatin; DD-MVAC = dose-dense methotrexate, vinblastine, doxorubicin, cisplatin; GEM-CARBO = gemcitabine carboplatin; MVAC = methotrexate, vinblastine, doxorubicin, cisplatin; NMIBC = non-muscle invasive bladder cancer; STSM = soft tissue surgical margin

* Mixed histological variant includes adenocarcinoma, neuroendocrine carcinoma and squamous carcinoma

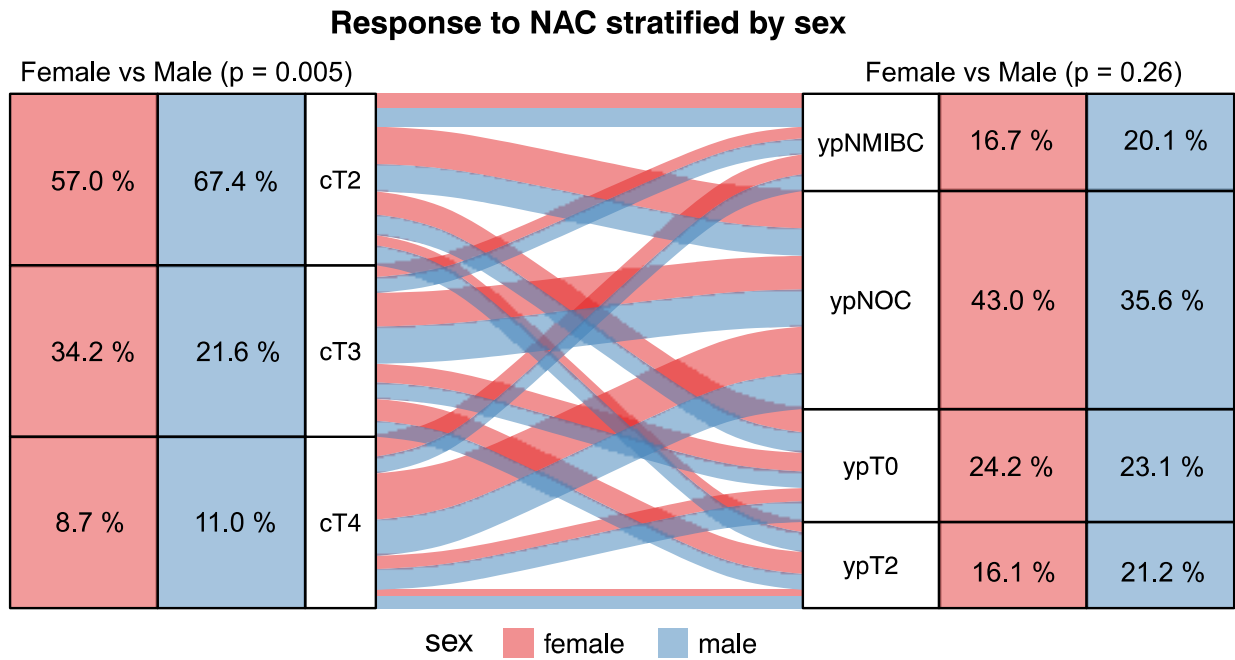
Table 2. Logistic regression analyses for the association of sex and smoking with downstaging and ypT0N0 status in 1031 patients treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy and radical cystectomy for clinically non-metastatic muscle-invasive bladder cancer

Univariable analysis				
	Downstaging		ypT0N0	
	OR (95%CI)	P	OR (95%CI)	p
Female vs male sex	0.92 (0.68 – 1.24)	0.59	0.87 (0.60 – 1.23)	0.44
Smoker				
Never	Ref		ref	
Former	1.06 (0.82 – 1.38)	0.63	0.90 (0.66 – 1.22)	0.49
Current	0.74 (0.44 – 1.24)	0.25	0.73 (0.37 – 1.37)	0.35
Multivariable analysis				
	Downstaging		ypT0N0	
	OR (95%CI)	P	OR (95%CI)	p
Female vs male sex	0.82 (0.51 – 1.31)	0.40	1.18 (0.69 – 1.98)	0.54
Smoking status				
Never	Ref		ref	
Former	1.01 (0.75 – 1.36)	0.96	1.01 (0.72 – 1.45)	0.93
Current	0.77 (0.43 – 1.36)	0.37	0.75 (0.36 – 1.46)	0.41
Clinical T stage				
cT2	Ref		ref	
cT3	1.31 (0.98 – 1.75)	0.07	0.73 (0.51 – 1.03)	0.08
cT4	1.29 (0.86 – 1.93)	0.21	0.89 (0.54 – 1.41)	0.63
Cisplatin-based chemotherapy	2.09 (1.48 – 2.99)	<0.01	1.46 (0.96 – 2.28)	0.08
Chemotherapy cycles				
1 to 2	Ref		ref	
3 to 4	1.28 (0.85 – 1.94)	0.23	1.18 (0.73 – 1.98)	0.52
5 to 8	0.84 (0.43 – 1.60)	0.59	0.84 (0.36 – 1.87)	0.68
sexfemale:smokeformer	1.16 (0.62 – 2.15)	0.64	0.57 (0.27 – 1.21)	0.15
sexfemale:smokecurrent	1.41 (0.29 – 6.97)	0.66	0.50 (0.02 – 3.55)	0.55
	F-statistics 2.79, p = 0.002		F-statistics 1.12, p = 0.34	
OR = odds ratio; CI = confidence interval				

Table 3. Logistic regression analyses for the association of menopausal status and smoking with downstaging and ypT0N0 status in 227 female patients treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy and radical cystectomy for clinically non-metastatic muscle-invasive bladder cancer

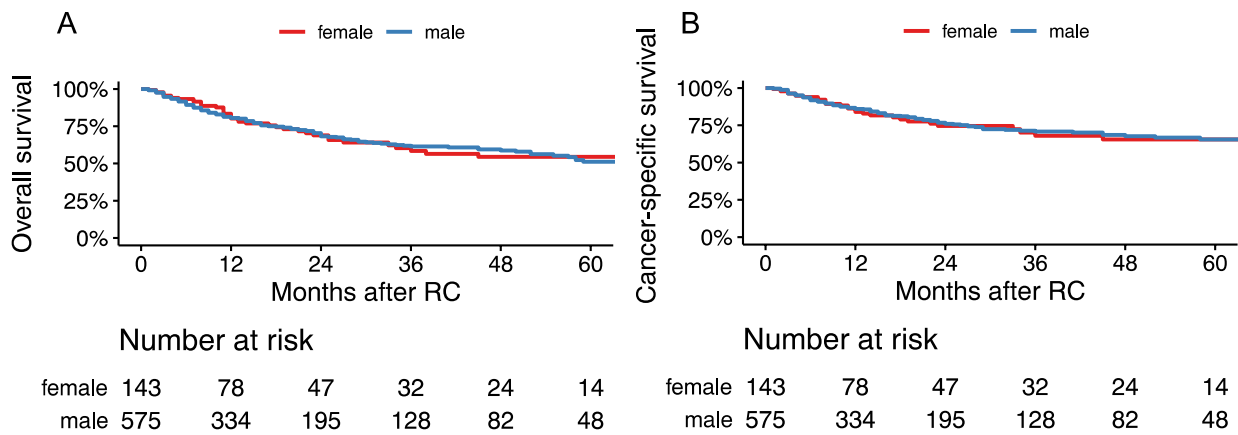
Univariable analysis				
	Downstaging		ypT0N0	
	OR (95%CI)	P	OR (95%CI)	p
Age ≥50 years*		0.88	1.05 (0.36 – 3.80)	0.93
Smoker				
Never	Ref		ref	
Former	1.19 (0.70 – 2.04)	0.51	0.57 (0.29 – 1.10)	0.09
Current	1.17 (0.26 – 5.21)	0.83	0.41 (0.02 – 2.44)	0.41
Multivariable analysis				
	Downstaging		ypT0N0	
	OR (95%CI)	P	OR (95%CI)	p
Age ≥50 years*	0.50 (0.11 – 2.11)	0.35	1.25 (0.27 – 9.02)	0.79
Smoking status				
Never	Ref		ref	
Former	0.37 (0.05 – 2.41)	0.30	0.88 (0.08 – 9.33)	0.91
Current	1.25e+06 (1.35e-72 – NA)	0.99	1.60e-06 (NA – 1.12e+72)	0.99
Clinical T stage				
cT2	Ref		ref	
cT3	1.20 (0.67 – 2.14)	0.54	0.85 (0.41 – 1.72)	0.67
cT4	0.55 (0.18 – 1.51)	0.26	0.34 (0.05 – 1.33)	0.17
Cisplatin-based chemotherapy	2.21 (1.02 – 5.08)	0.05	0.96 (0.40 – 2.51)	0.93
Chemotherapy cycles				
1 to 2	Ref		ref	
3 to 4	1.41 (0.65 – 3.19)	0.39	0.71 (0.29 – 1.83)	0.45
4 to 8	1.61 (0.41 – 6.35)	0.49	1.76 (0.38 – 7.73)	0.46
sexfemale:smokeformer	3.33 (0.47 – 25.6)	0.23	0.58 (0.05 – 6.79)	0.65
sexfemale:smokecurrent	7.07e-07 (NA – 4.28e+71)	0.99	3.37e+05 (7.43e-61 – NA)	0.99
	F-statistics 0.89, p = 0.54		F-statistics 0.71, p = 0.72	
OR = odds ratio; CI = confidence interval				

1 **Figure 1** – Alluvial diagram for the changes of cT stage to ypT stage in 1031 patients treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) and radical cystectomy for clinically non-metastatic
 2 muscle-invasive bladder cancer, stratified by sex
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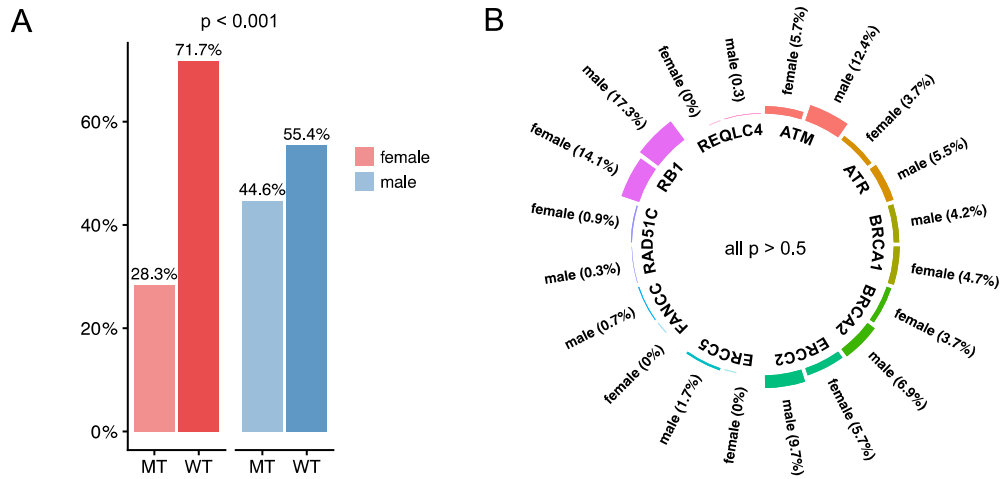


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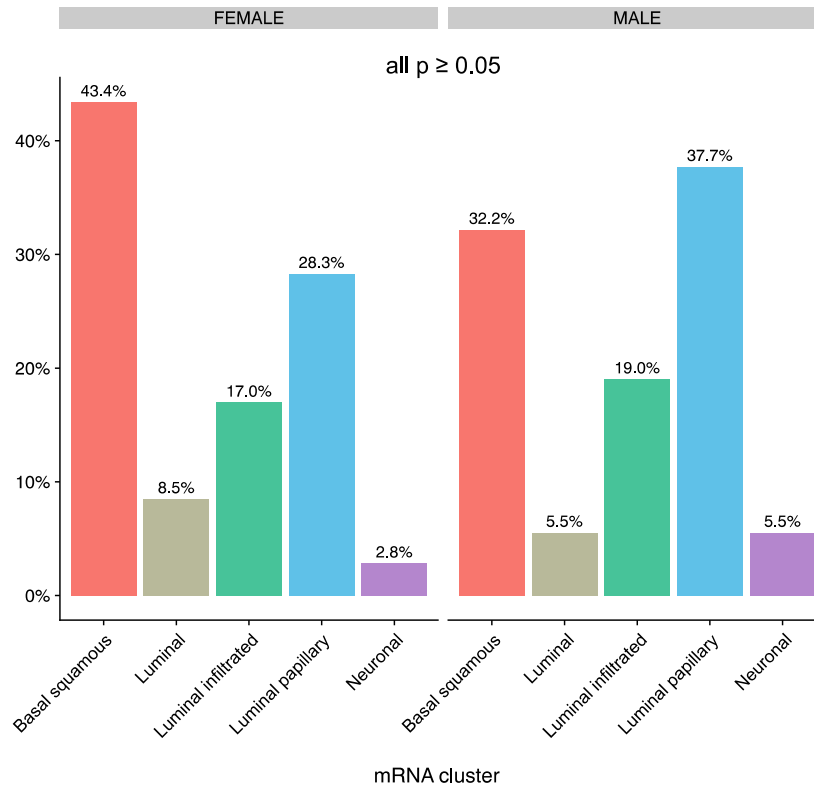
Figure 2 – Kaplan-Maier curves for the association of sex with overall (A) and cancer-specific survival (B) in 718 patients treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy and radical cystectomy for clinically non-metastatic bladder cancer



11 **Supplementary Figure S1** – Prevalence of mutated (MT) and wild-type (WT) DNA damage repair (DDR) genes in 106 female and 289 male patients with muscle-invasive bladder cancer. (A) Any
 12 DDR gene mutation stratified by sex. (B) Subanalysis of the single DDR genes stratified by sex.
 13 Data extracted from The Cancer Genome Atlas Program[13].
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 17 **Supplementary Figure S2** – Prevalence of mRNA cluster in 106 female and 289 male patients
 18 with muscle-invasive bladder cancer. Data extracted from The Cancer Genome Atlas
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