

ISSN: 2306-6091

# International Journal of Pharmaceuticals and Health care Research (IJPHR)

IJPHR | Vol.13 | Issue 4 | Oct - Dec -2025 www.ijphr.com

DOI: https://doi.org/10.61096/ijphr.v13.iss4.2025.441-448

Review

# Breast Cancer Management: Integrating Genomics, Targeted Therapy, and Immuno-Oncology

Shaktiprasad Pradhan<sup>1\*</sup>, Minakshi Kumari Panda<sup>2</sup>, Pradyumna Kumar Behera<sup>3</sup>, Dibya Ritika Manjari<sup>4</sup>, Ankita Moharana<sup>5</sup>

Email: shakti.pharma16@gmail.com

Check for updates	Abstract
Published on: 16 Oct 2025	Breast cancer remains one of the most prevalent malignancies worldwide, contributing substantially to cancer-related morbidity and mortality among women. Over the past two decades, advances in genomics, molecular
Published by: Futuristic Publications	profiling, and translational oncology have transformed breast cancer management from a conventional, histology-driven approach to one increasingly guided by precision medicine. The integration of genomic technologies has enabled the identification of actionable mutations, predictive
2025  All rights reserved.  Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.	biomarkers, and molecular subtypes that inform both prognosis and therapeutic decision-making. Targeted therapies, particularly those directed against HER2, PI3K/AKT/mTOR signaling, and cyclin-dependent kinases, have reshaped the therapeutic landscape by improving survival outcomes and minimizing systemic toxicity. More recently, immuno-oncology strategies, including immune checkpoint inhibitors, tumor-infiltrating lymphocyte therapies, and cancer vaccines, have expanded therapeutic possibilities, especially in triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC), a traditionally hard-to-treat subtype. This manuscript provides a comprehensive review of breast cancer management, focusing on the integration of genomics, targeted therapy, and immuno-oncology within clinical practice. It highlights current standards of care, key molecular insights, translational research, and ongoing clinical trials while also emphasizing future perspectives for achieving durable responses and personalized cancer therapy.  Keywords: Breast cancer, Genomics, Targeted therapy, Immuno-oncology, Precision medicine.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Koustuv Research Institute of Medical Science, Koustuv Technical Campus, Bhubaneswar, Odisha, India

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Department of Pharmaceutical Analysis, Koustuv Research Institute of Medical Science, Koustuv Technical Campus, Bhubaneswar, Odisha, India

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Department of CM & FM, AIIMS, Bhubaneswar, Odisha, India

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4,5</sup>Department of Pharmacology, Koustuv Research Institute of Medical Science, Koustuv Technical Campus, Bhubaneswar, Odisha, India

<sup>\*</sup>Author for Correspondence: Shaktiprasad Pradhan

#### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

Breast cancer is the most frequently diagnosed malignancy among women globally and ranks second only to lung cancer in overall cancer incidence. In 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimated over 2.3 million new cases of breast cancer and more than 685,000 related deaths worldwide, reflecting its significant burden on public health [1]. Traditionally, breast cancer management has relied on surgery, radiation therapy, chemotherapy, and endocrine therapy. While these approaches remain central, the field has undergone a paradigm shift towards precision oncology, driven by advances in high-throughput genomic sequencing, proteomics, and immuno-oncological strategies [2].

Breast cancer is recognized as a heterogeneous disease comprising several molecular subtypes, including hormone receptor-positive (HR+), human epidermal growth factor receptor 2-positive (HER2+), and triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC). These subtypes exhibit distinct biological behaviors, prognoses, and therapeutic responses, necessitating tailored treatment strategies [3]. Genomic insights have facilitated the development of gene expression profiling assays, such as Oncotype DX, MammaPrint, and Prosigna, which predict recurrence risk and chemotherapy benefit [4].

Simultaneously, targeted therapies have emerged as a cornerstone of breast cancer treatment. Agents directed at HER2, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K), and cyclin-dependent kinases 4 and 6 (CDK4/6) have demonstrated significant efficacy in improving survival outcomes, particularly in HR+ and HER2+ subtypes [5]. Furthermore, the introduction of poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors has provided a new therapeutic avenue for BRCA1/2 mutation-associated breast cancers [6].

In parallel, immuno-oncology has transformed the therapeutic landscape, particularly in TNBC, where immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) targeting PD-1/PD-L1 and CTLA-4 have shown promise. Recent studies suggest that integrating immune-based therapies with chemotherapy or targeted therapy enhances response durability and clinical benefit [7].

This review explores the integration of genomics, targeted therapy, and immuno-oncology in breast cancer management. It discusses molecular mechanisms, clinical applications, limitations, and future perspectives for optimizing personalized therapy.

#### 2.0 Genomics in Breast Cancer: Foundation for Precision Medicine

The advent of next-generation sequencing (NGS) and high-throughput molecular assays has unraveled the genomic complexity of breast cancer, enabling the identification of driver mutations, clonal evolution, and potential therapeutic vulnerabilities [8]. Comprehensive genomic profiling has revealed frequent alterations in genes such as TP53, PIK3CA, ESR1, BRCA1/2, and GATA3, which serve as critical determinants of disease progression and treatment response [9].

Gene expression assays, including Oncotype DX (21-gene recurrence score), MammaPrint (70-gene signature), and EndoPredict, have been widely adopted to guide adjuvant therapy decisions in early-stage breast cancer. These tests provide prognostic and predictive information, helping clinicians identify patients who may benefit from chemotherapy versus those suitable for endocrine therapy alone [10].

In HR+ breast cancers, ESR1 mutations, commonly acquired during endocrine therapy, confer resistance to aromatase inhibitors and selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs). Genomic analysis enables early detection of such mutations, allowing a switch to selective estrogen receptor degraders (SERDs) or combination regimens with targeted inhibitors [11].

For HER2+ cancers, amplification of the ERBB2 gene underpins sensitivity to HER2-directed monoclonal antibodies, antibody—drug conjugates, and tyrosine kinase inhibitors. Beyond HER2 amplification, co-alterations in the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway may influence treatment resistance, underscoring the value of multi-gene profiling [12].

In TNBC, characterized by the absence of HR and HER2 expression, genomic analysis reveals high genomic instability, frequent TP53 mutations, and enrichment of DNA damage repair deficiencies. These insights support the use of PARP inhibitors in BRCA-mutated TNBC and immuno-oncology approaches in PD-L1+ subgroups [13].

Furthermore, liquid biopsy technologies, including circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA) and circulating tumor cells (CTCs), are gaining traction as non-invasive tools for real-time genomic monitoring. These methods provide insights into minimal residual disease, treatment resistance, and disease relapse, offering opportunities for dynamic and adaptive treatment strategies [14].

# 3.0 Targeted Therapies in Breast Cancer Management

The introduction of targeted therapies has significantly improved breast cancer outcomes, particularly by reducing systemic toxicity and enhancing efficacy in biomarker-defined populations. Among these, HER2-targeted therapies represent a landmark advancement. Trastuzumab, the first HER2-directed monoclonal antibody, revolutionized treatment by improving survival in HER2+ breast cancer. Subsequent agents, including

pertuzumab, trastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1), and trastuzumab deruxtecan (T-DXd), have further extended survival in both early and metastatic disease [15].

In HR+/HER2- advanced breast cancer, the approval of CDK4/6 inhibitors such as palbociclib, ribociclib, and abemaciclib has reshaped first-line therapy in combination with endocrine agents. These inhibitors delay disease progression and improve overall survival while maintaining quality of life [16].

The PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway represents another crucial therapeutic target, with alpelisib (a PI3K $\alpha$  inhibitor) demonstrating clinical benefit in patients with PIK3CA-mutated HR+ breast cancer. Similarly, everolimus, an mTOR inhibitor, provides benefit in endocrine-resistant settings, although toxicity remains a limiting factor [17].

For BRCA1/2-mutated breast cancers, PARP inhibitors such as olaparib and talazoparib have shown efficacy by exploiting synthetic lethality, particularly in TNBC. These agents represent a significant step toward personalized therapy in hereditary breast cancers [18].

Despite these advances, acquired resistance remains a challenge. Mechanisms of resistance include secondary mutations, activation of compensatory signaling pathways, and intratumoral heterogeneity. Combination strategies, biomarker-driven therapy sequencing, and novel antibody—drug conjugates are being actively investigated to overcome resistance [19].

Molecular Target	Subtype/ Indication	Approved Agents	Mechanism of Action	Key Clinical Outcomes
HER2 (ERBB2 amplification)	HER2+ breast cancer	Trastuzumab, Pertuzumab, T-DM1, T-DXd, Lapatinib, Neratinib	Monoclonal antibodies, antibody- drug conjugates, TKIs	Improved OS and PFS in early and metastatic HER2+ disease
CDK4/6	HR+/HER2- breast cancer	Palbociclib, Ribociclib, Abemaciclib	Inhibit cell cycle progression (G1-S checkpoint)	Significant PFS/OS improvement with endocrine therapy
PI3K/AKT/mTOR	HR+/HER2- with PIK3CA mutation	Alpelisib, Everolimus	Block PI3K/AKT/mTOR signaling	Prolonged PFS in resistant settings
BRCA1/2 (DNA repair deficiency)	Germline BRCA-mutated TNBC/HR+	Olaparib, Talazoparib	PARP inhibition exploiting synthetic lethality	Enhanced PFS in metastatic BRCA-mutated disease
PD-1/PD-L1	PD-L1+ TNBC	Pembrolizumab, Atezolizumab	Checkpoint blockade restores T-cell activity	Durable responses, KEYNOTE-355 and IMpassion130
ESR1 mutations	Endocrine- resistant HR+	Fulvestrant, investigational SERDs	Degradation of mutant estrogen receptors	Restores sensitivity, delays resistance progression

Table 1: Molecular Targets and Approved Therapies in Breast Cancer

### 4.0 Immuno-Oncology in Breast Cancer

The emergence of immuno-oncology has introduced a paradigm shift in the management of breast cancer, particularly in subtypes with historically limited therapeutic options such as triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC). Unlike HER2-positive and hormone receptor-positive subtypes, TNBC is characterized by an immunologically "hot" tumor microenvironment, with increased infiltration of tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs), higher tumor mutational burden (TMB), and elevated expression of immune checkpoint molecules, making it a suitable candidate for immune-based therapies [20].

One of the most significant advances has been the development of immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs). Agents targeting the PD-1/PD-L1 axis, including pembrolizumab and atezolizumab, have demonstrated durable responses in subsets of patients with PD-L1-positive TNBC. The KEYNOTE-355 trial established pembrolizumab combined with chemotherapy as a new standard of care in metastatic PD-L1+ TNBC, while the IMpassion130 trial supported atezolizumab plus nab-paclitaxel, although regulatory status has varied across regions [21,22]. Beyond PD-1/PD-L1, CTLA-4 blockade is being explored in combination strategies, although clinical benefits in breast cancer have been modest compared to melanoma or lung cancer [23].

Tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) have emerged as both prognostic and predictive biomarkers in breast cancer immunotherapy. High TIL density in TNBC and HER2+ subtypes is associated with improved

survival and response to chemotherapy and immunotherapy. These observations suggest that immune contexture may influence treatment outcomes and justify immunotherapy integration into early-stage disease settings [24]. Cancer vaccines represent another approach, aiming to elicit antigen-specific immune responses against breast tumor antigens such as HER2, MUC1, and NY-ESO-1. While early clinical results have been modest, advances in neoantigen prediction, dendritic cell-based vaccination, and RNA-based vaccine platforms are being investigated to enhance efficacy [25].

Adoptive cell therapies, including tumor-infiltrating lymphocyte therapy, CAR-T cell therapy, and TCR-engineered T cells, are gaining traction in breast cancer research. Although technical challenges exist, such as antigen heterogeneity and the immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment, preclinical studies and early clinical trials show potential, particularly for HER2- and MUC1-targeted CAR-T cells [26].

Despite these advancements, immuno-oncology in breast cancer faces several challenges. Not all patients respond to ICIs, with resistance mechanisms including low PD-L1 expression, exclusion of T cells from the tumor microenvironment, and activation of immunosuppressive cells such as regulatory T cells and myeloid-derived suppressor cells. Furthermore, immune-related adverse events (irAEs), including thyroiditis, pneumonitis, and colitis, require vigilant monitoring and multidisciplinary management [27].

Recent efforts focus on combination therapies to enhance immunotherapy efficacy. Strategies include combining ICIs with chemotherapy, targeted therapies (such as PARP inhibitors and CDK4/6 inhibitors), radiotherapy, or novel immunomodulators such as STING agonists and oncolytic viruses. These approaches aim to convert "cold" tumors into "hot" ones, thereby expanding the benefit of immunotherapy to a broader patient population [28].

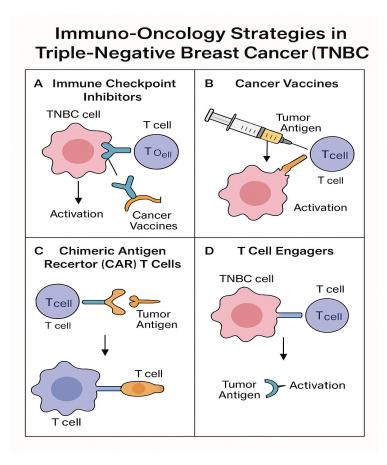


Figure 1: Immuno-Oncology Strategies in Triple-Negative Breast Cancer (TNBC)

# Description

- (A) PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint inhibition with pembrolizumab or atezolizumab restoring T-cell cytotoxicity.
- (B) Cancer vaccine platforms targeting HER2, MUC1, and neoantigens with dendritic cell activation.
- (C) CAR-T cell therapy engineered to target MUC1 and HER2 expressing breast cancer cells.
- (D) Combination immunotherapy approaches: checkpoint blockade + chemotherapy, PARP inhibitors + ICIs, and radiotherapy-induced immunogenic cell death enhancing immune infiltration.

# 5.0 Integration of Genomics, Targeted Therapy, and Immunotherapy in Clinical Practice

The integration of genomics, targeted therapy, and immuno-oncology represents the cornerstone of precision medicine in breast cancer management. Genomic profiling identifies actionable alterations, which not only guide targeted therapy but also inform immunotherapeutic responsiveness. For instance, BRCA1/2 mutations not only justify PARP inhibitor use but also enhance neoantigen load, potentially synergizing with immune checkpoint blockade [29].

Clinical practice increasingly relies on molecular tumor boards to interpret genomic data and integrate it into therapeutic decision-making. These boards combine expertise from oncology, pathology, genomics, and immunology to provide personalized recommendations based on mutational status, biomarker expression, and clinical context. Gene panels including PIK3CA, ESR1, ERBB2, and BRCA1/2 are now routinely incorporated into clinical guidelines for therapeutic stratification [30].

A notable example of integration is observed in TNBC, where PD-L1 expression, BRCA mutation status, and tumor mutational burden collectively inform therapy choice. Patients with PD-L1-positive tumors may receive pembrolizumab plus chemotherapy, those with BRCA mutations may receive PARP inhibitors, while others may benefit from clinical trial enrollment exploring novel targeted-immunotherapy combinations [31].

In HR+ breast cancers, the combination of CDK4/6 inhibitors with endocrine therapy remains the backbone of treatment. However, ongoing studies are assessing whether adding immunotherapy could improve durability of response, particularly in tumors with immune-infiltrated microenvironments. Similarly, in HER2+ disease, the synergistic potential of HER2-directed therapy with ICIs is under investigation, based on preclinical evidence that HER2 signaling may influence immune evasion [32].

Another key integration lies in the use of liquid biopsy for real-time monitoring. Detection of ESR1 mutations in circulating tumor DNA may indicate endocrine resistance, prompting a switch to novel SERDs, while ctDNA dynamics in PD-L1-positive disease may help assess immunotherapy response. Such adaptive strategies exemplify the move towards dynamic, genomically informed treatment [33].

Nevertheless, integration faces barriers, including limited access to comprehensive genomic testing in resource-constrained settings, heterogeneity in biomarker assays, and financial toxicity of novel therapeutics. To address these challenges, global oncology initiatives are promoting cost-effective genomic testing, biomarker harmonization, and equitable access to novel agents [34].

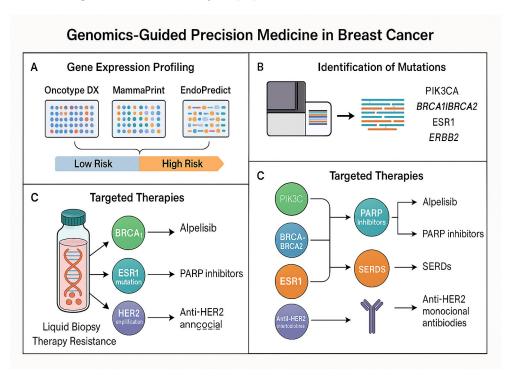


Fig 2: Genomics-Guided Precision Medicine in Breast Cancer

#### **Description:**

(A) Gene expression profiling assays (Oncotype DX, MammaPrint, EndoPredict) stratifying patients into low-vs. high-risk recurrence groups.

- (B) Identification of key mutations (PIK3CA, BRCA1/2, ESR1, ERBB2) from next-generation sequencing.
- (C) Therapeutic decision tree linking genomic alterations to targeted therapies (e.g., PIK3CA  $\rightarrow$  alpelisib; BRCA1/2  $\rightarrow$  PARP inhibitors; ESR1 mutations  $\rightarrow$  SERDs; HER2 amplification  $\rightarrow$  anti-HER2 monoclonal antibodies).
- (D) Incorporation of liquid biopsy (ctDNA and CTCs) for real-time monitoring of therapy resistance and minimal residual disease.

## **6.0 Future Directions and Challenges**

The future of breast cancer management lies in achieving deeper integration of genomics, targeted therapy, and immuno-oncology through multi-omics, artificial intelligence (AI), and systems biology. Multi-omics approaches, combining genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics, will provide a holistic understanding of tumor biology, enabling identification of novel biomarkers and therapeutic vulnerabilities [35]. Artificial intelligence and machine learning are increasingly applied to analyze complex molecular datasets, predict drug response, and optimize clinical trial design. For example, AI-driven algorithms can identify molecular signatures predictive of immunotherapy response or resistance to targeted therapy, facilitating personalized treatment sequencing [36].

Novel immunotherapeutic strategies, including bispecific antibodies, personalized neoantigen vaccines, and engineered cell therapies, are anticipated to broaden the scope of immuno-oncology in breast cancer. Furthermore, the development of combination regimens, such as PARP inhibitors with ICIs, or CDK4/6 inhibitors with immune modulators, may address resistance and extend benefit across subtypes [37].

Challenges remain significant. Tumor heterogeneity, both inter- and intratumoral, continues to undermine durable responses. Adaptive resistance mechanisms necessitate longitudinal monitoring, which requires widespread adoption of liquid biopsy and advanced imaging technologies. Moreover, the cost and accessibility of cutting-edge therapies present ethical and socioeconomic barriers, particularly in low- and middle-income countries [38].

Another critical area is survivorship and quality of life. As therapies extend survival, long-term toxicities, fertility preservation, cardiotoxicity from HER2-targeted therapies, and immune-related adverse events require proactive management. Integration of supportive oncology, digital health tools, and patient-reported outcome measures will be essential in holistic breast cancer care [39].

Finally, global collaboration through large-scale consortia and adaptive clinical trials will accelerate progress. Basket and umbrella trials exploring targeted and immunotherapy combinations across molecularly defined cohorts exemplify the future of clinical research. These innovative trial designs will facilitate rapid evaluation of novel therapeutics while accommodating the heterogeneity inherent in breast cancer [40].

# 7.0 CONCLUSION

Breast cancer management has entered a transformative era driven by advances in genomics, targeted therapies, and immuno-oncology. The integration of genomic profiling has enabled precise molecular stratification, guiding the use of endocrine agents, PARP inhibitors, PI3K inhibitors, and CDK4/6 inhibitors, while targeted therapies against HER2 have dramatically improved survival in both early-stage and metastatic disease. Immuno-oncology has further expanded therapeutic possibilities, particularly in triple-negative breast cancer, where immune checkpoint blockade has demonstrated durable benefit in selected patients.

The convergence of these therapeutic strategies highlights the importance of precision medicine in tailoring treatment to the molecular and immunological landscape of each patient's tumor. Yet, persistent challenges such as tumor heterogeneity, acquired resistance, cost barriers, and inequitable access to biomarker-driven therapies remain critical obstacles. Future progress will depend on integrating multi-omics platforms, artificial intelligence, liquid biopsy-based monitoring, and adaptive clinical trial designs to achieve durable responses and global accessibility.

Ultimately, the future of breast cancer care will be defined not only by innovations in genomics and immunology but also by the capacity to harmonize these advances into patient-centered, equitable treatment models. By bridging molecular insights with clinical practice, breast cancer management is steadily progressing toward the long-sought goal of precision oncology delivering the right therapy, to the right patient, at the right time.

# **REFERENCES**

- 1. Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, Laversanne M, Soerjomataram I, Jemal A, et al. Global cancer statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2021;71(3):209–49.
- 2. Waks AG, Winer EP. Breast cancer treatment: a review. JAMA. 2019;321(3):288–300.

- 3. Perou CM, Sørlie T, Eisen MB, van de Rijn M, Jeffrey SS, Rees CA, et al. Molecular portraits of human breast tumours. *Nature*. 2000;406(6797):747–52.
- 4. Sparano JA, Gray RJ, Makower DF, Pritchard KI, Albain KS, Hayes DF, et al. Adjuvant chemotherapy guided by a 21-gene expression assay in breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;379(2):111–21.
- 5. Swain SM, Baselga J, Kim SB, Ro J, Semiglazov V, Campone M, et al. Pertuzumab, trastuzumab, and docetaxel in HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;372(8):724–34.
- 6. Robson M, Im SA, Senkus E, Xu B, Domchek SM, Masuda N, et al. Olaparib for metastatic breast cancer in patients with a germline BRCA mutation. *N Engl J Med*. 2017;377(6):523–33.
- 7. Schmid P, Adams S, Rugo HS, Schneeweiss A, Barrios CH, Iwata H, et al. Atezolizumab and nab-paclitaxel in advanced triple-negative breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;379(22):2108–21.
- 8. Nik-Zainal S, Davies H, Staaf J, Ramakrishna M, Glodzik D, Zou X, et al. Landscape of somatic mutations in 560 breast cancer whole-genome sequences. *Nature*. 2016;534(7605):47–54.
- 9. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive molecular portraits of human breast tumours. *Nature*. 2012;490(7418):61–70.
- 10. Cardoso F, van't Veer LJ, Bogaerts J, Slaets L, Viale G, Delaloge S, et al. 70-gene signature as an aid to treatment decisions in early-stage breast cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 2016;375(8):717–29.
- 11. Jeselsohn R, Buchwalter G, De Angelis C, Brown M, Schiff R. ESR1 mutations a mechanism for acquired endocrine resistance in breast cancer. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol.* 2015;12(10):573–83.
- 12. Loibl S, Gianni L. HER2-positive breast cancer. Lancet. 2017;389(10087):2415–29.
- 13. Bianchini G, De Angelis C, Licata L, Gianni L. Treatment landscape of triple-negative breast cancer expanded options, evolving needs. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol*. 2022;19(2):91–113.
- 14. García-Murillas I, Schiavon G, Weigelt B, Ng C, Hrebien S, Cutts RJ, et al. Mutation tracking in circulating tumor DNA predicts relapse in early breast cancer. *Sci Transl Med*. 2015;7(302):302ra133.
- 15. Modi S, Saura C, Yamashita T, Park YH, Kim SB, Tamura K, et al. Trastuzumab deruxtecan in previously treated HER2-positive breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;382(7):610–21.
- 16. Turner NC, Slamon DJ, Ro J, Bondarenko I, Im SA, Masuda N, et al. Overall survival with palbociclib and fulvestrant in advanced breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;379(20):1926–36.
- 17. André F, Ciruelos E, Rubovszky G, Campone M, Loibl S, Rugo HS, et al. Alpelisib for PIK3CA-mutated, hormone receptor–positive advanced breast cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2019;380(20):1929–40.
- 18. Litton JK, Rugo HS, Ettl J, Hurvitz SA, Gonçalves A, Lee KH, et al. Talazoparib in patients with advanced breast cancer and a germline BRCA mutation. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;379(8):753–63.
- O'Leary B, Cutts RJ, Liu Y, Hrebien S, Huang X, Fenwick K, et al. The genetic landscape and clonal evolution of breast cancer resistance to palbociclib plus fulvestrant. *Cancer Discov.* 2018;8(11):1390– 403
- Denkert C, von Minckwitz G, Darb-Esfahani S, Lederer B, Heppner BI, Weber KE, et al. Tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes and prognosis in different subtypes of breast cancer: a pooled analysis of 3771 patients treated with neoadjuvant therapy. *Lancet Oncol*. 2018;19(1):40–50.
- 21. Cortes J, Cescon DW, Rugo HS, Nowecki Z, Im SA, Yusof MM, et al. Pembrolizumab plus chemotherapy versus placebo plus chemotherapy for previously untreated locally recurrent inoperable or metastatic triple-negative breast cancer (KEYNOTE-355): a randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind, phase 3 clinical trial. *Lancet*. 2020;396(10265):1817–28.
- 22. Emens LA, Adams S, Barrios CH, Dieras V, Iwata H, Loi S, et al. IMpassion130: efficacy and safety of atezolizumab plus nab-paclitaxel vs placebo plus nab-paclitaxel in previously untreated locally advanced or metastatic triple-negative breast cancer. *Ann Oncol.* 2019;30(11):1831–9.
- 23. Nanda R, Chow LQ, Dees EC, Berger R, Gupta S, Geva R, et al. Pembrolizumab in patients with advanced triple-negative breast cancer: phase Ib KEYNOTE-012 study. *J Clin Oncol*. 2016;34(21):2460–7.
- 24. Loi S, Drubay D, Adams S, Pruneri G, Francis PA, Lacroix-Triki M, et al. Tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes and prognosis: a pooled individual patient analysis of early-stage triple-negative breast cancers. *J Clin Oncol*. 2019;37(7):559–69.
- 25. Mittendorf EA, Lu B, Melisko M, Price Hiller J, Bondarenko I, Brunt AM, et al. Efficacy and safety analysis of nelipepimut-S vaccine to prevent breast cancer recurrence: a randomized, multicenter, phase III clinical trial. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2019;25(14):4248–54.
- 26. Majzner RG, Mackall CL. Tumor antigen escape from CAR T-cell therapy. *Cancer Discov*. 2018;8(10):1219–26.
- 27. Postow MA, Sidlow R, Hellmann MD. Immune-related adverse events associated with immune checkpoint blockade. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;378(2):158–68.
- 28. Voorwerk L, Slagter M, Horlings HM, Sikorska K, van de Vijver KK, de Maaker M, et al. Immune induction strategies in metastatic triple-negative breast cancer: results of the TONIC trial. *Nat Med*. 2019;25(6):920–8.

- Vinayak S, Tolaney SM, Schwartzberg L, Mita M, McCann G, Tan AR, et al. Open-label clinical trial of niraparib combined with pembrolizumab for treatment of advanced or metastatic triple-negative breast cancer. *JAMA Oncol*. 2019;5(8):1132–40.
- 30. Andre F, Ismaila N, Henry NL, Somerfield MR, Bast RC Jr, Barlow W, et al. Use of biomarkers to guide decisions on adjuvant systemic therapy for women with early-stage invasive breast cancer: ASCO clinical practice guideline update. *J Clin Oncol*. 2022;40(16):1816–37.
- 31. Emens LA. Breast cancer immunotherapy: facts and hopes. Clin Cancer Res. 2018;24(3):511–20.
- 32. Stagg J, Loi S. Divining the best combination therapies with immune checkpoint inhibitors in breast cancer. *Ann Oncol*. 2021;32(5):559–61.
- 33. Coombes RC, Page K, Salari R, Hastings RK, Armstrong A, Ahmed S, et al. Personalized detection of circulating tumor DNA antedates breast cancer metastatic recurrence. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2019;25(14):4255–63.
- 34. Ginsburg O, Rositch AF, Conteh L, Mutebi M, Paskett ED, Subramanian S. Breast cancer disparities: pathways forward. *Cancer*. 2020;126(Suppl 17):4282–96.
- 35. Hasin Y, Seldin M, Lusis A. Multi-omics approaches to disease. Genome Biol. 2017;18(1):83.
- 36. Yu KH, Beam AL, Kohane IS. Artificial intelligence in healthcare. *Nat Biomed Eng.* 2018;2(10):719–31.
- 37. Telli ML, Timms KM, Reid J, Hennessy B, Mills GB, Jensen KC, et al. Homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) status predicts response to standard neoadjuvant chemotherapy in triple-negative breast cancer. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2016;22(15):3764–73.
- 38. Gyawali B, Sullivan R. Economics of cancer medicines: for whose benefit? *New Engl J Med*. 2017;376(9):861–4.
- 39. Runowicz CD, Leach CR, Henry NL, Henry KS, Mackey HT, Cowens-Alvarado RL, et al. American Cancer Society/American Society of Clinical Oncology breast cancer survivorship care guideline. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2016;66(1):43–73.
- 40. Woodcock J, LaVange LM. Master protocols to study multiple therapies, multiple diseases, or both. *N Engl J Med*. 2017;377(1):62–70.