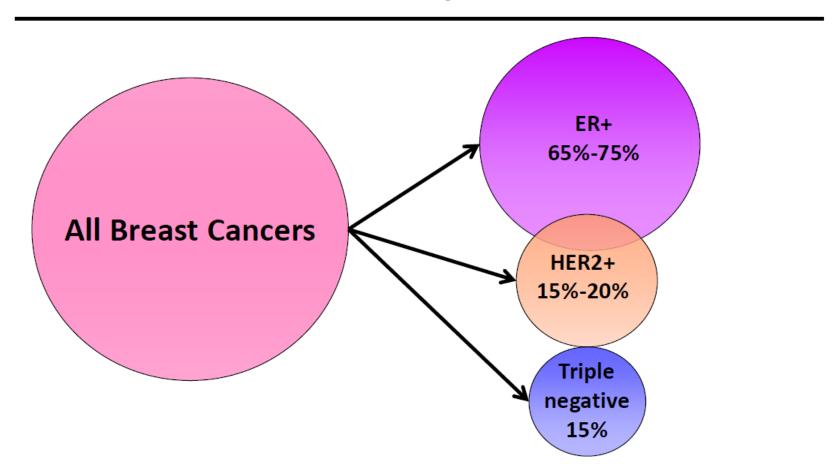
Invasive Breast Cancer Subsets Defined by IHC



Hormone receptor status

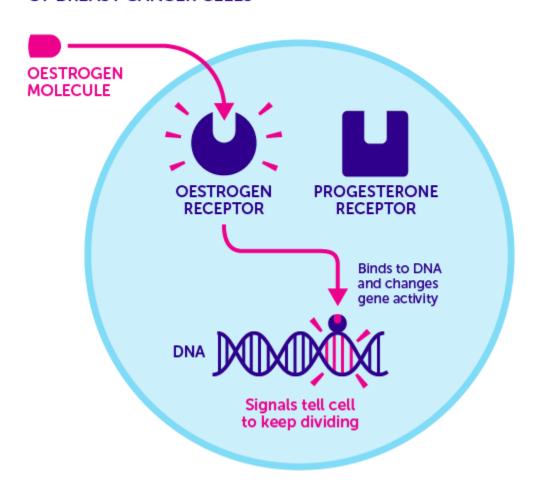
Some breast cancer cells need estrogen and/or progesterone (hormones produced in the body) to grow. These cancer cells have special proteins inside, called hormone receptors.

When hormones attach to hormone receptors, the cancer cells with these receptors grow.

A pathologist determines the hormone receptor status by testing the tumor tissue removed during a biopsy.

- Hormone receptor-positive tumors are estrogen receptor-positive (ER-positive) and progesterone receptor-positive (PR-positive). These tumors express (have a lot of) hormone receptors.
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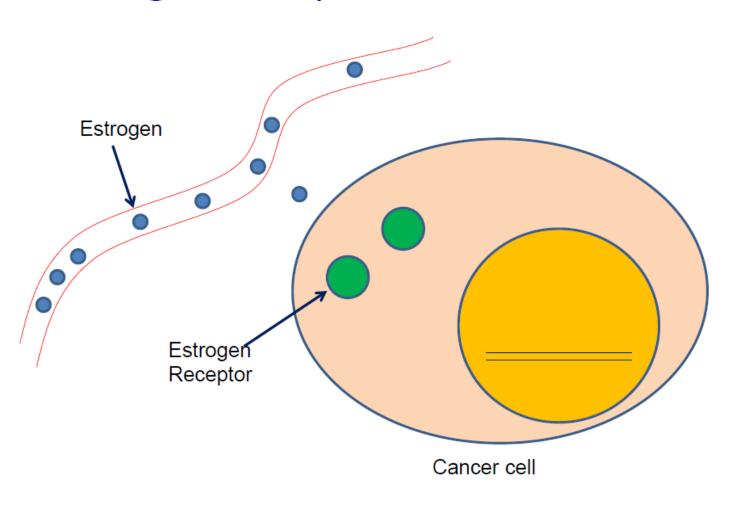
OESTROGEN FUELS THE GROWTH AND DIVISION OF BREAST CANCER CELLS

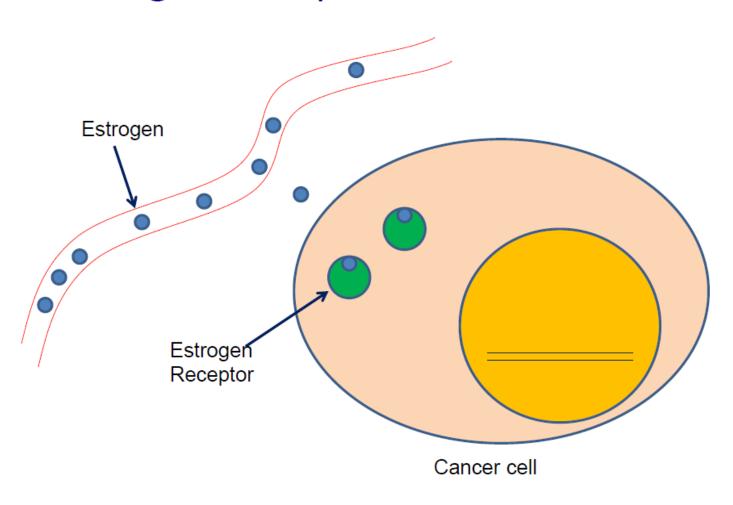


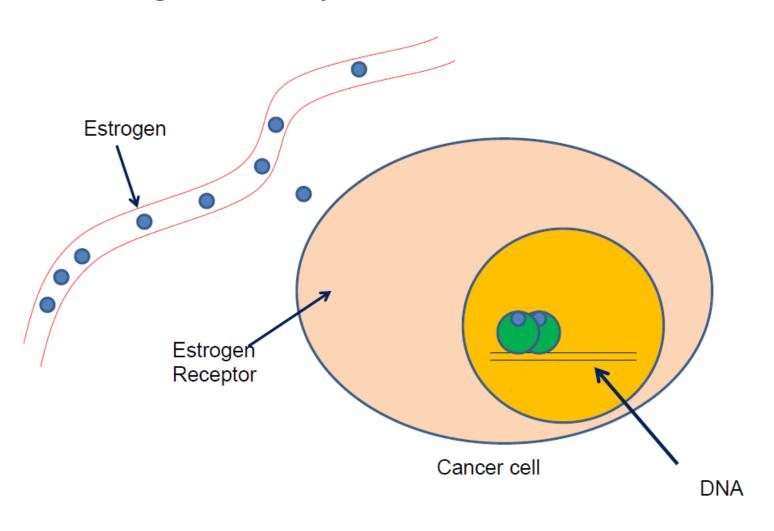
"Targeted" therapy

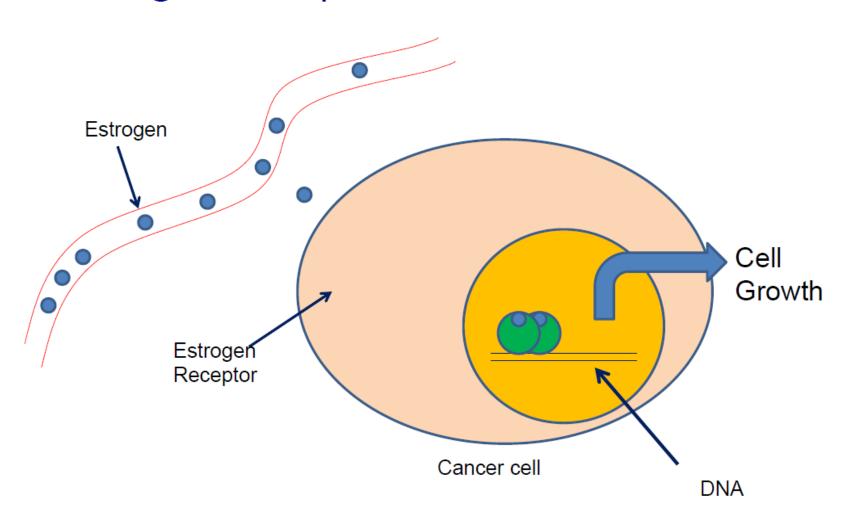
 Drug which inhibits a protein or molecule that is only expressed in cancer or which only the cancer is dependent

 Offer the promise of reduced side effects compared to less targeted drugs









How do hormone therapies work?

Hormone therapies slow or stop the growth of hormone receptor-positive tumors by preventing the cancer cells from getting the hormones they need to grow.

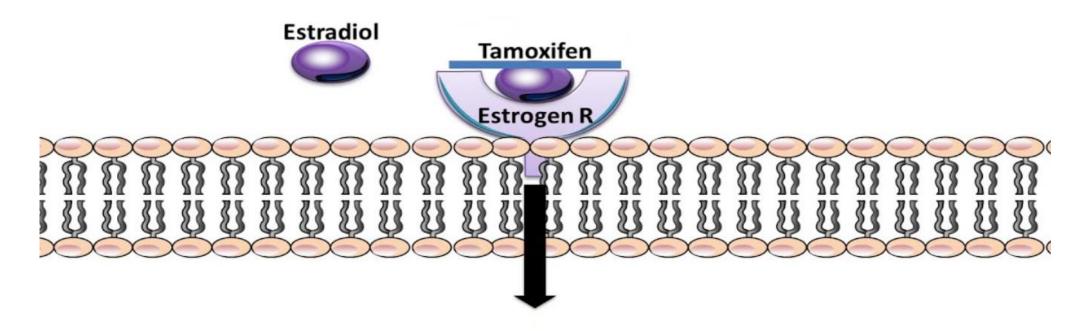
They do this in a few ways:

- Some hormone therapies, like tamoxifen, attach to the receptor in the cancer cell and block estrogen from attaching to the receptor.
- Some hormone therapies, like aromatase inhibitors and ovarian suppression, lower the level of estrogen in the body so the cancer cells can't get the estrogen they need to grow.

Hormonal therapy

The original targeted therapy

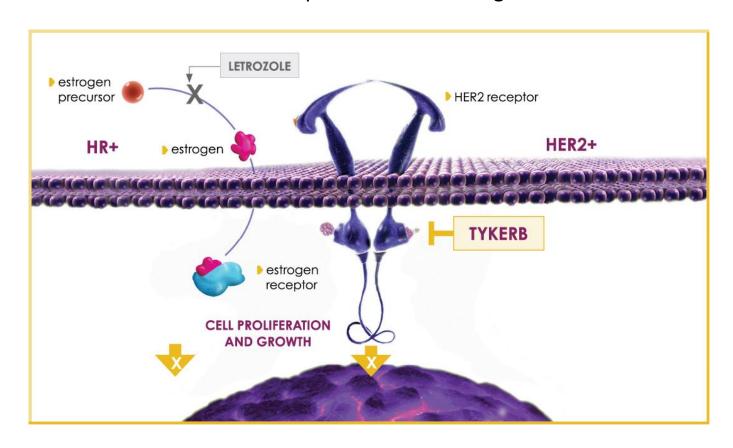
- Several types:
 - Tamoxifen
 - Blocks estrogen from binding to ER
 - Aromatase inhibitors (anastrozole, letrozole, exemestane)
 - Blocks production of estrogen
 - Fulvestrant (Faslodex)
 - Blocks estrogen from binding to ER and helps degrade ER

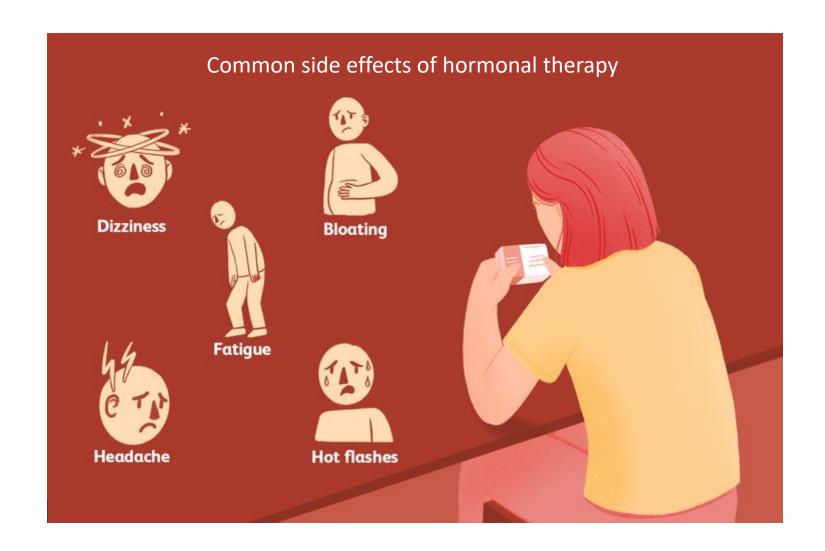


Gene transcription (Risk of breast cancer)

Prevents breast cancer

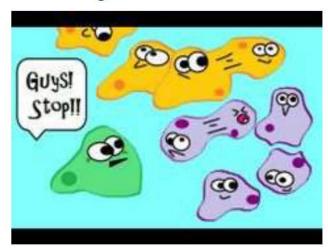
Letrozole blocks production of estrogen



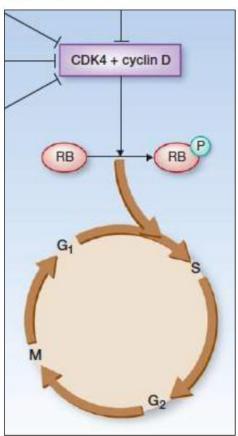


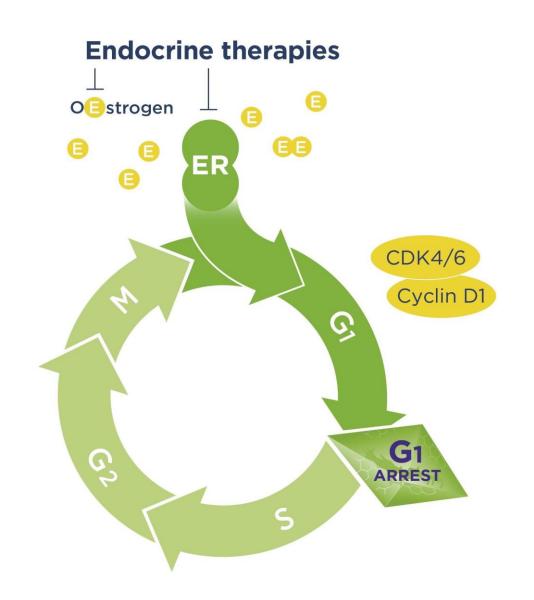
Blocking cancer cell growth: Cyclin Dependent Kinase (CDK 4/6) inhibition

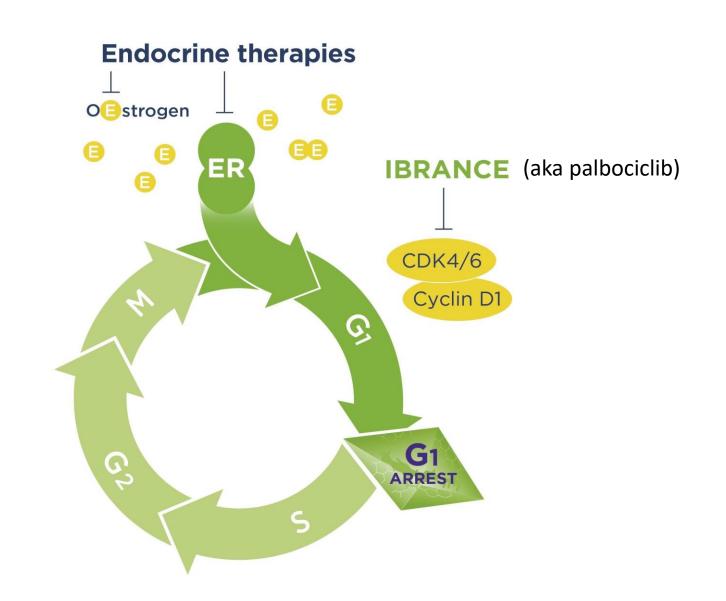
 A classic feature of breast cancer is uncontrolled growth



 In ER+ breast cancer, out-of-control growth may be due to a failure in the braking system: overactive CDK4/6







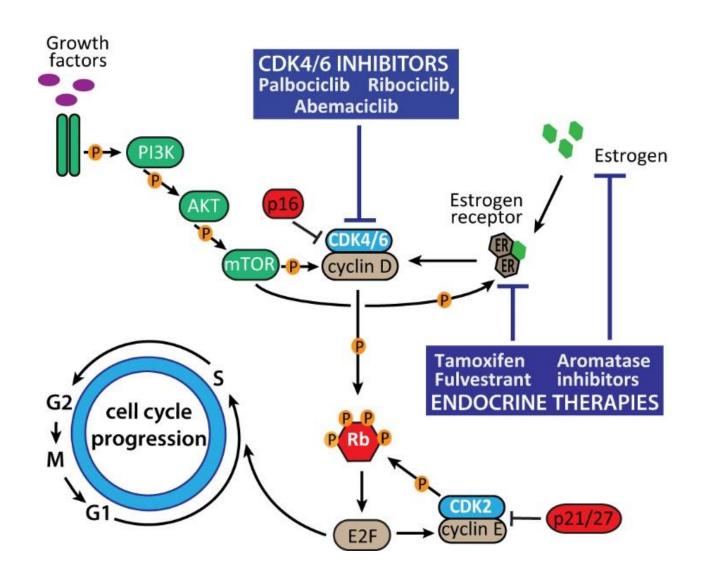
CDK4/6 kinase inhibitors are used in combination with endocrine therapy, and they significantly increase the progression-free survival of patients with advanced estrogen receptor-positive (ER+) breast cancer in the first-line treatment setting.

Palbociclib (Ibrance)

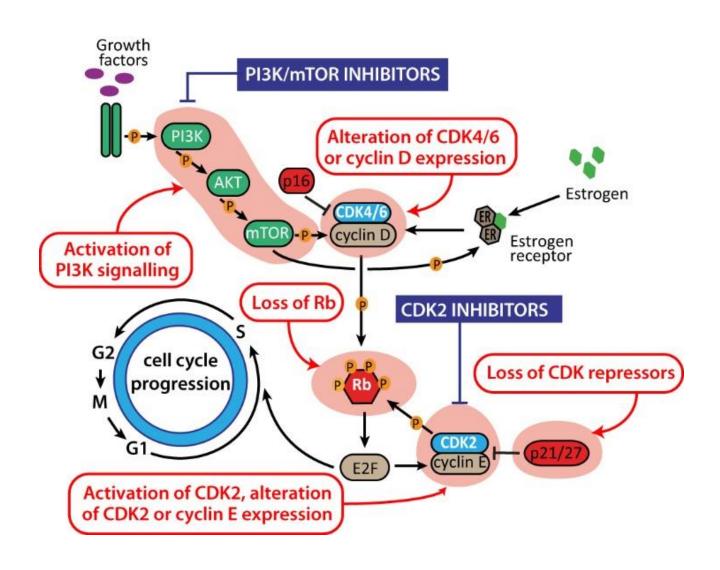
- Palbociclib: oral inhibitor of CDK 4/6
- Taken daily, 3 weeks on, 1 week off
- Most common toxicities: low white blood cell count (but no infections), fatigue, mild hair thinning



Regulation of cell cycle in ER+ breast cancer. Key pathways in promoting entry into the cell cycle in ER+ breast cancer and the nodes to which current therapies are targeted.



As the new standard of care in some countries, there is the clinical emergence of patients with breast cancer that is both CDK4/6 inhibitor and endocrine therapy resistant.

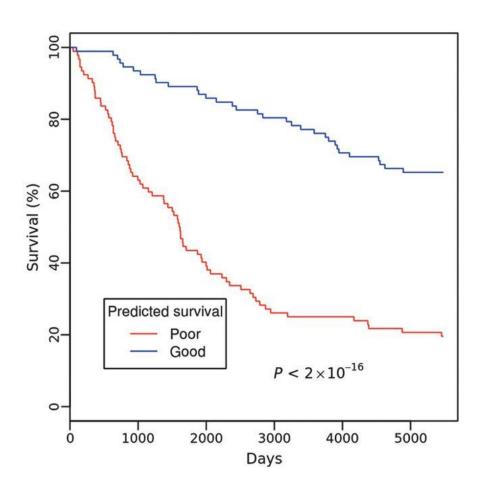


Clinical Trials for drugs

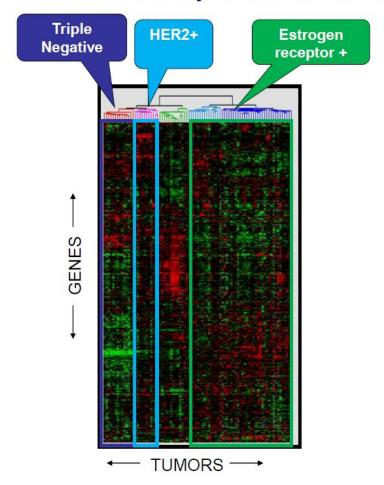
		Phase III	Phase IV
Phase I	Phase II		Thousands of
20-80 participants	100-300 participants	1,000-3,000 participants	participants
Up to several months	Up to (2) years	One (1) - Four (4) years	One (1) year +
Studies the safety of medication/treatment	Studies the efficacy	Studies the safety, efficacy and dosing	Studies the long-term effectiveness; cost effectiveness
70% success rate	33% success rate	25-30% success rate	70-90% success rate



Efficacy in Phases II-III



Breast cancer is family of different cancers



Accurate grouping of breast cancers into clinically relevant subtypes is of particular importance for therapeutic decision making and thus urgently called for.

Hormone receptor status

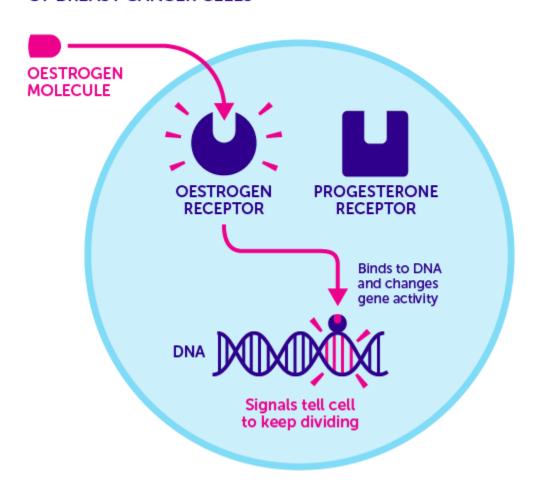
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OESTROGEN FUELS THE GROWTH AND DIVISION OF BREAST CANCER CELLS



HER2 status

HER2 (human epidermal growth factor receptor 2) is a protein that appears on the surface of some breast cancer cells. It may also be called HER2/neu or ErbB2.

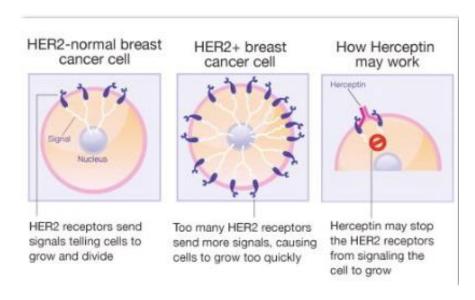
The HER2 protein is an important part of the pathway for cell growth and survival.

- HER2-positive breast cancers have a lot of HER2 protein. You also may hear the term HER2 over-expression.
- HER2-negative breast cancers have little or no HER2 protein.

About 10-20 percent of newly diagnosed breast cancers are HER2-positive [20,41].

HER2 status is part of breast cancer staging and helps guide your treatment.

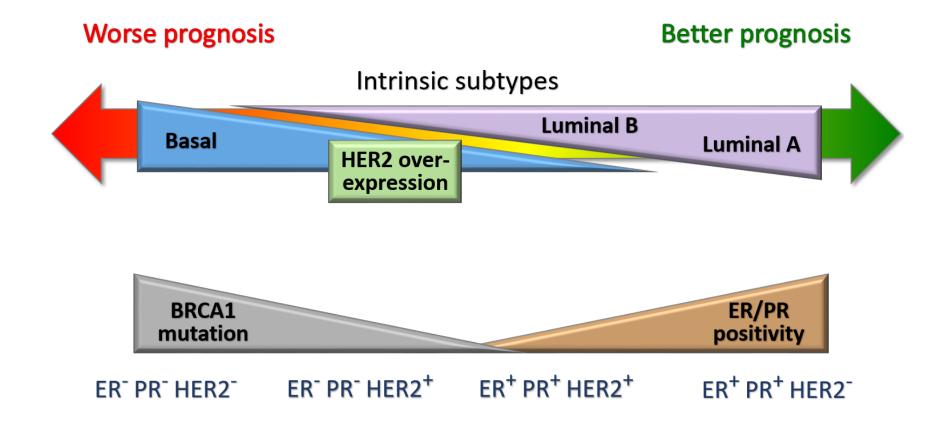
Herceptin (aka trastuzumab)



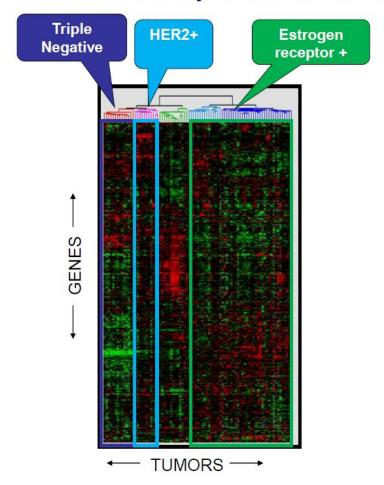
Patient outcomes based on breast cancer intrinsic (molecular) subtypes

Expand information used to stratify patients for prognosis:

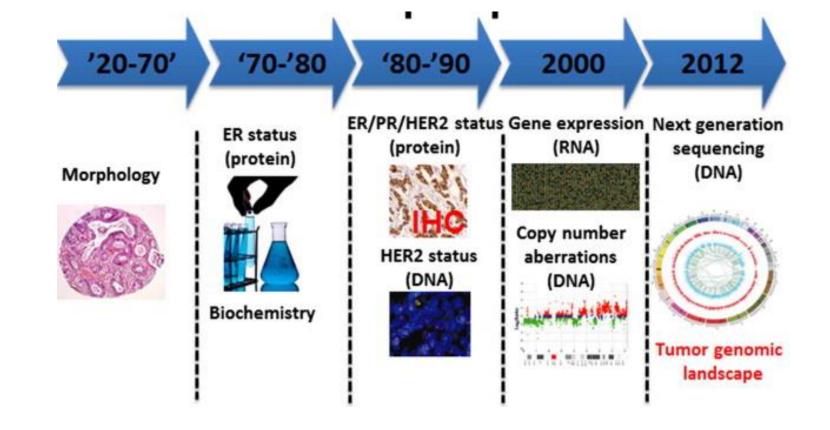
Classical clinical parameters age, node status, tumor size, histologic grade. **Pathologic markers** ER, PR, and HER2.



Breast cancer is family of different cancers



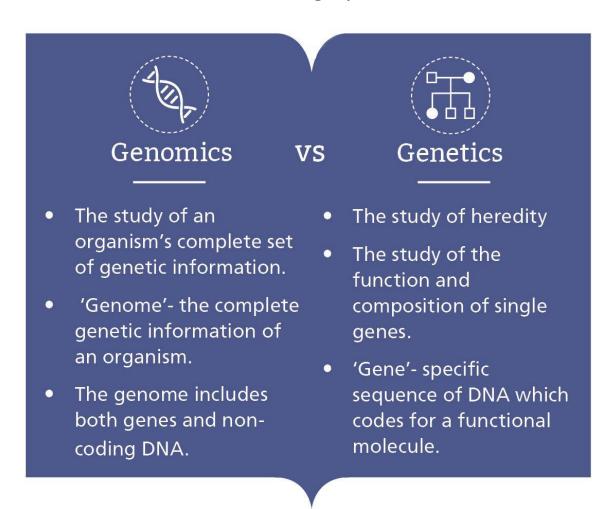
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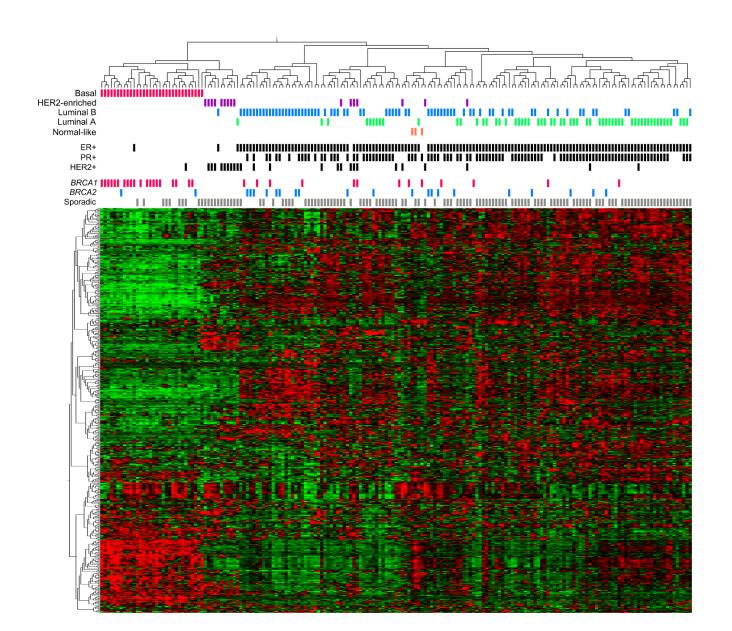
Classical immunohistochemistry (IHC) markers such as ER, PR and HER2, together with traditional clinicopathological variables including, e.g., tumor size, tumor grade and nodal involvement, are conventionally used for patient prognosis and management.

The advent of high-throughput platforms for gene expression analysis has shown that tumor cell response to treatment is not determined by anatomical prognostic factors but rather intrinsic molecular characteristics that can be probed using molecular method.

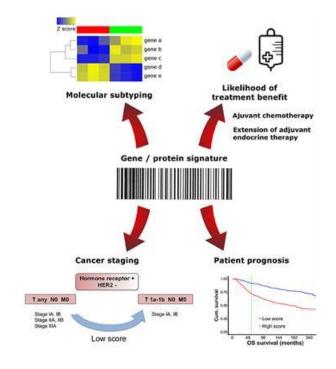
Genomic tests analyze a sample of a cancer tumor to see how active certain genes are. The activity level of these genes affects the behavior of the cancer, including how likely it is to grow and spread. Genomic tests are used to help make decisions about whether more treatments after surgery would be beneficial.



Subtypes of breast cancer, defined by differential expression of a panel of genes, have been shown to be predictive of risk of recurrence and benefit of hormonal therapy and chemotherapy.



Goal: Better inform treatment decisions



Oncotype Dx and Oncotype DCIS

Estrogen receptor: ESR1, PGR, BLC2, SCUBE2 Proliferation: Ki67, STK15, Survivin, CCNB1, MYBL2 Related: HER-2, GRB7, MMP11, CTSL2, GSTM1, CD68, BACG1 Reference Genes: ACTB, GAPDH, RPLPO, GUS, TFRC

Proliferation: Ki67, STK15, Survivin, CCNB1, MYBL2 Hormone Receptor Group: PR, GSTM1 Reference Genes: ACTB, GAPDH, RPLPO, GUS, TFRC

MammaPrint

AL0B005D, COMBIG63649RC, LOC5120CJ, COMBIG45216RC. COMBIG38288RC, AA555029RC. CONBIG2655, 26552RC, FLT9, MMP9, DC13, EXT1, AL137718, PK428, HEC, ECT2, GMPS, CONBIG22185RC, UCH37, CONBIG35251RC, DCK, CENPA, SM20, MCM6, AKAP2, CONBIG5645, TRC, RFC4. DKFZP584D062, SLC2A3, NP1, CONBIG46831RC, CONBIG24252RC, FLJ11180, CONBIG51464RC, IGFBPS, **IGFBPS** CCNE2, ESM1, COMBIG28217RC, DECI, AP2B1, CFFM4, PEC1, TOFB3, COMBIG45223RC, COMBIG55377RC, HSA250830, GSTM3, BBC3, CEGP1, COMBIG48328RC, WISP1, ALDH4, KAA1442, CONBIG32125RC, FGF10

Prosigna

PGR, NAT1, BCL2, ESR1, MAPT, MDM2, CXXC5, GPR160, FOXA1, MLPH, SLC39A6, ACTR3B, BLVRA, TMEM45B, CDH3, MMP11, SFRP1, FOXC1, MIA, KRT14, MYC, BAG1, ERBB2, GRB7, PHGDH, PTTG1, KRT5, KRT17, UBE2C, CDC6, ANLN, ORC6L, TYMS, BIRC5, CEP55, CENPF, CCNB1, RRM2, MK167, CCNE1, KIF2C, CDC20, UBE2T, MYBL2, EX2O1, MELK, EGFR, FGFR4

Breast Cancer Index

BUB1B, CENPA, NEK2, RACGAP1, RRM2 HOXB13:IL17BR (H/I or MGI ratio)

EndoPredict

Cancer genes: BIRC5, UBE2C, DHCR7, RBBP8, IL6ST, AZGP1, MGP, and STC2 House keeping genes: CALM2, OAZ1, and RPL37A

Videssa Breast

SPBs: IL-6, IL-8, TNF-α, INF-γ, CEA, ErbB2, OPN, HGF, FasL, VEGF-C, VEGF-D TaaBs: ALG10, ATF3, ATP6AP1, BAT4 (GPANK1), BDNF, BMX, C15orf48 (NMES1), CSNK1E, CTAG1A, CTAG2, CTBP1, DBT, EIF3E, FRS3, GPR157, HOXD1, IGFBP2, MUC1, MYOZ2, p53, PDCD6IP, RAB5A, RAC3, SELL, SERPINH1, SF3A1, SLC33A1, SOX2, TFCP2, TRIM32, UBAP1, ZMYM6, ZNF510

Working with genomics data Andrew Gentles Medicine (BMIR) and Biomedical Data Sciences

