1   Original Research

2   A comprehensive analysis of immune landscape of Indian triple negative breast cancer

3   Aruna Korlimarla[1,2,#], Hari PS[1,2,3], Jyoti Prabhu[1], Chanthirika Ragulan[3], Yatish Patil[3], Snijesh VP[1],
4   Krisha Desai[3], Aju Mathews[4], Sandhya Appachu[2], Ravi B. Diwakar[2], Srinath BS[2], Maggie Cheang[5],
5   Anguraj Sadanandam[3,6,#,*]
6
[1]St. John's Research Institute, St. John's National Academy of Health Sciences, Bangalore, India
[2]Sri Shankara Cancer Hospital and Research Centre, Bangalore, India
[3]Division of Molecular Pathology, The Institute of Cancer Research, London, UK
[4] MOSC Medical College, Kolenchery, Kerala, India
[5]Clinical Trials and Statistical Unit, The Institute of Cancer Research, London, UK
[6]Centre for Global Oncology, Division of Molecular Pathology, The Institute of Cancer Research,
London, UK
14
15   [#]These authors contributed equally as first authors
16   *Corresponding author: Anguraj Sadanandam, Ph.D., Centre for Global Oncology, Division of
17   Molecular Pathology, The Institute of Cancer Research (ICR), 15 Cotswold Road, Sutton, SM2 5NG,
18   United Kingdom; Anguraj.sadanandam@icr.ac.uk; +0044-2034376440.
19

20   Running title: Immune landscape of Indian TNBC

21   Word count: 4995

22
Abstract

Background: Triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) is a heterogeneous disease with a significant

clinical challenge. TNBC alarmingly comprises 25-30% of breast cancers in India compared with

only 10-15% in the West. However, immunotherapy was approved for high-risk early-stage TNBCs

in the West. Hence, a long-standing question is whether Indian TNBCs immunologically and

clinically resemble Western TNBCs such that they respond similarly to immunotherapies. Here we

sought to elucidate the immune landscape of Indian TNBCs for the first time, compare them to

Western disease and associate them with clinical parameters, cellular types/signaling, and

immunotherapy response.

Methods: We profiled 730 immune genes in 88 retrospective Indian TNBC samples using

NanoString platform, clustered them into subtypes using a machine-learning approach, and

compared them with Western TNBCs (n=422; public datasets). Subtype-specific gene signatures

were identified, followed by clinicopathological, immune cell type, and pathway (multiomics)

analyses. We also assessed responses to (cross-cancer) immunotherapy. Tumor-infiltrating

lymphocytes (TILs) and pan-macrophage marker were evaluated using hematoxilin-eosin staining

and immunohistochemistry, respectively.

Results: We identified three robust and similarly distributed TNBC immune transcriptome

subtypes (Subtypes-1-3) in Indian women, and they are represented correspondingly in Western

TNBCs and associated with well-known TNBC subtypes. Irrespective of the ethnicity, Subtype-1

harbored tumor microenvironmental and anti-tumor immune events associated with smaller

tumors, younger age, and a better prognosis. Subtype-1 mainly represented basal-like/claudin-low

breast cancer and immunomodulatory TNBC subtypes. Subtype-1 showed an increase in a cascade

of events, including damage-associated molecular patterns, acute inflammation, Th1 responses,

T-cell receptor-related and chemokine-specific signaling, antigen presentation, and viral-mimicry

pathways. Subtype-1 was significantly ($p<0.05$) associated with pre-menopausal women, dense

TILs and responses and/or improved prognosis to anti-PD-L1 and MAGEA3 immunotherapies.

Subtype-2 was enriched for Th2/Th17 responses, $CD4^+$ regulatory cells, basal-like/mesenchymal

subtypes, and an intermediate prognosis. Subtype-3 patients expressed innate immune

genes/proteins, including those representing macrophages and neutrophils, and had poor survival.

Conclusion: We identified three immune-specific TNBC subtypes in Indian patients with

differential clinical and immune behaviors, which largely overlapped with the Western TNBC

cohorts. This study suggests cancer immunotherapy in TNBC may work similarly in both

populations. Hence, this may expedite pharmaceutical adoption of immunotherapy to Indian TNBC

patients.

Keywords: Immunity; immunotherapy; India; molecular stratification; triple-negative breast

cancer; low-middle income countries; global oncology; DAMP; TCR signaling; immune landscape;

Western countries; health disparity

INTRODUCTION

Breast cancer is the foremost cause of cancer-related deaths in women worldwide.[1] Ten to fifteen percent of breast cancers in Western women are triple-negative breast cancers (TNBCs), which do not express the estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR), or human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2) and have a poor overall prognosis and high recurrence risk.[2] TNBCs remain a clinical management challenge due to their aggressive characteristics and lack of targeted therapies.[3] Chemotherapy is used to treat primary and metastatic diseases, and while targeted therapies, including immunotherapy, are slowly emerging to treat TNBCs in the West.[3]

The incidence of TNBC is 20-31% in India, which is classified as a middle-income country by The World Bank based on its per capita income, than in Western populations (high-income-countries (HIC); 10-15%).[4][5] In India, TNBC affects younger, pre-menopausal women; and has a five-year survival rate of <30% when metastatic.[4-6] Approximately 100,000 women are diagnosed with TNBC each year in India, with a case fatality rate of 40%, contributing to India having one of the highest breast cancer-related death rates worldwide.[4-6] One of the proposed hypotheses for these increased death rates in India is that these TNBC patients have more aggressive disease with different immune biology than those from the West.[4][5] However, to our knowledge, no study has explored to address this hypothesis of immune infiltration differences between Indian and Western populations. If geographically/ethnically these diseases are different, it warrants distinct treatment opportunities for TNBC in India compared to the West. Therefore, understanding the molecular heterogeneity of TNBC and the biology of its response to existing therapies in this population are essential for improving outcomes both in low-middle-income countries (LMIC) and HIC.

To characterize TNBC biology, multiple groups have defined TNBC subtypes in the West using gene expression or integrated molecular profiles.[7-9] Immune cell infiltration into tumors is now recognized as intrinsic to tumor biology and immunotherapy responses, so a more granular analysis of immunity in TNBC is required for prediction and prognostication, especially given recent data showing that a proportion of patients respond well to immunotherapy - atezolizumab in combination with nab-paclitaxel for advanced PD-L1$^+$ TNBCs (IMPassion130 study).[10] This combination therapy has been approved in India in 2020 based on IMPassion130 study,[11] which is

no longer an approved drug in the United States (US) after the outcomes from the follow-up trial

– IMPassion131 study.[12][13] Moreover, pembrolizumab (anti-PD1 immunotherapy), combined with

neoadjuvant chemotherapy, has been approved in the US for treating high-risk early-stage TNBCs

(based on KEYNOTE-522 study).[14] However, the unaddressed question is whether Indian and

Western TNBCs have similar biology and clinical outcomes; therefore, combination

immunotherapies from the West may benefit Indian TNBC women.

Hence, we sought to understand India-specific TNBC heterogeneity and functionally distinct

immune cell types infiltrating tumors in these patients using gene expression profiling and

compare this to Western TNBC patients and well-known TNBC subtypes[7-9]. The study goals were

to determine: (i) whether the immune composition and their clinical associations in Indian (LMIC)

TNBC women differed to that of TNBCs in Western populations (HIC); and (ii) whether differences

in the cellular composition of the immune infiltrate in TNBCs were associated with pathways,

immune signaling, patient survival and responses to therapy. We identified three robust immune

subtypes based on consensus clustering of the expression of immune-related genes in Indian TNBC

samples and found them to be represented similarly in two independent Western TNBC meta-

cohorts and associated with well-known TNBC subtypes from the West. Overall, our analysis

compared Indian TNBCs with those of the West at immune subtype levels (bi-directional) and

suggests avenues to rationally understand the immune and clinical landscapes to potentially

translate and personalize successful immunotherapy opportunities (from the West) to TNBC

patients in India.

METHODS

Patient samples, clinical characteristics and RNA isolation

TNBC patient samples were retrospectively collected as two independent cohorts from different

tertiary cancer care hospitals in Bangalore, India. Fifty out of 92 TNBC samples from one hospital,

St. John's Research Institute, were identified to be qualified for the study (**Figure 1A**). Similarly, 38

out of 48 TNBC samples were qualified for the study from Shri Shankara Cancer Hospital and

Research Centre. Both the studies were approved by the respective institutional ethics review

board and informed consent was obtained from the subjects.

Tumor tissue samples were collected at the time of surgery (before treatment), fixed in buffered

neutral formalin and processed as paraffin embedded blocks. Sections were cut from these blocks,

stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and examined by a pathologist to confirm the presence

of tumor. Immunohistochemistry for ER, PR and HER2 were done for determining receptor status

by standard procedures[15]. Only formalin-fixed paraffin embedded (FFPE) blocks containing pre-

treatment tissue with greater than 50% cancer epithelial cells were used for molecular analysis.

All clinical, histopathological and demographic details were collected from the hospital medical

records (**Figure 1B**). Radiologically recorded distant metastases or histologically confirmed local

recurrence and death related to disease had been documented.

RNA from all FFPE specimens was extracted by the Trizol method according to the manufacturer's

instructions and as described.[16] Briefly, 2x20 um sections were deparaffinized using xylene,

washed in absolute ethanol and overnight digested with Proteinase K. Lysate was taken for

extraction and RNA recovered from the aqueous phase.

nCounter profiling and subtype analysis

nCounter Immune profiling (NanoString Technologies)[17], subtype analysis[18] and the PPCCA

machine learning (ML) method[19] were performed as described. A detailed description has been

provided in Supplementary Methods.

TIL Scoring

Assessment of the TILs was done according to guidelines established by the International TIL

working group.[20] Large areas of central necrosis or fibrosis are not included for evaluation, tumor

was focused only on tumor-stroma at low magnification. Only mononuclear infiltrate of

lymphocytes and plasma cells were included and granulocytic infiltrate in areas of tumor necrosis

was not included. Based on the percentage of stromal TILs present, they were grouped into mild

(no or minimal immune cells), moderate (tumor with intermediate/heterogenous infiltrate) and

dense (tumor with high immune infiltrate) infiltrates.

Immunohistochemistry and scoring

IHC was done for CD68 according to standard procedures as described in Supplementary Methods.

RESULTS

Clinical characteristics of the Indian TNBC cohort

To our knowledge, this is the first comprehensive immune gene, cell type, signaling and

therapeutic analysis of retrospectively collected Indian TNBCs (n=88). A study flow chart and

collection source are shown in **Figure 1A**. The median age of the study population was 51 years,

with half ≤50 years of age and 44% pre-menopausal (**Figure 1B**). Most patients (77.3%) had grade-

3 tumors, the median tumor size was 2-5 cm (77.2%), 67% had stage II disease, and 60% were

lymph-node (LN) negative. Forty-two percent of samples had mild, 25% moderate, and 28% dense

TILs.

Indian TNBCs are heterogenous but can be divided into distinct subtypes with different prognoses

To characterize immune-based gene expression profiles of TNBCs in Indian women, 88 TNBC

samples were profiled for 730 immune genes using the PanCancer Immune gene panel

(NanoString Technologies). Batch effects in gene expression profiles between cohorts were

diagnosed and corrected using our exploBATCH[19] machine-learning (ML) tool (see Methods;

Supplementary Figure 1A-D). After selecting 392 variable genes (standard deviation ≥1), three

distinct TNBC immune gene expression subtypes were defined using unsupervised nonnegative

matrix factorization (NMF)-based consensus clustering (**Figure 2A).** The robustness of the clusters

and samples (or the likelihood of samples staying in the same cluster with re-iterative/consensus

clustering analysis) were defined by cophenetic coefficient and silhouette statistical metrics, as

previously described[18] (**Supplementary Methods; Supplementary Figure 1E-G and Supplementary**

Table 1A). The three subtypes were present in approximately equal proportions (27-38%; **Figure**

2B). 281 genes were significantly differentially expressed across the three subtypes according to

supervised significance analysis of microarrays (SAM) analysis (**Supplementary Table 1B**; see

Methods). Furthermore, prediction analysis for microarrays (PAM) statistical tool was used to

define summary statistics for each gene per subtype (centroids; **Supplementary Table 1C; see**

Supplementary Methods). Based on PAM centroids, we derived subtype-specific genes and

derived scores (mean expression of genes across samples; **Figures 2C-E**). Among the 281 SAM

genes, 204 were subtype-specific (non-zero) highest PAM centroid scores (**Supplementary Table**

1D; Figure 2F). A majority (79% and 19%) of 204 subtype-specific genes belonged to Subtype-1

and -2, respectively, whereas only 2% genes belonged to Subtype-3 (**Figure 2C**). Accordingly,

Subtype-1/-2 showed significantly (p<0.001) higher gene diversity as measured using the Shannon

Entropy method, as previously described[21]; **Figure 2G**), an index assessing immune gene

expression patterns. Hence, Subtype-1 shows immune-high gene expression patterns, whereas

Subtype-3 shows an immune-dormant or -exclusion pattern.

Subtype-3 patients had significantly (p<0.05; log-rank test) poorer overall survival (OS) and

disease-free survival (DFS; **Figures 2H-I**) than Subtype-1 (favorable prognosis) and Subtype-2

(intermediate prognosis) patients. In a multivariate analysis of tumor-infiltrating-lymphocyte (TIL)

groups, tumor size, menopausal status, stage, and molecular subtypes, Subtype-3 and stage-3

were independently associated with DFS (**Figure 2J**).

Next, we investigated whether these subtypes were present in TNBC samples from two Western

cohorts - The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA, n=123)[22] and Molecular Taxonomy of Breast Cancer

International Consortium (METABRIC; n=299)[23], which mainly represent Caucasian ethnic group

from HIC. There was no significant difference in the distribution of subtypes in the Indian TNBC

cohort compared with the Western cohorts, suggesting that the Indian and Western TNBCs are

similar (**Figure 2K, Supplementary Table 1E-F**). There was also a similar trend in OS according to

subtype in the METABRIC data as in the Indian cohort (**Figure 2L**).

Since the incidence of TNBC is reported to be higher in pre-menopausal women world-wide,

including in India[2 6], we sought to further understand the association between TNBC subtypes and

menopausal status. Subtype-1 TNBCs were more common in pre-menopausal patients and

Subtype-3 TNBCs were more common in post-menopausal patients (**Figure 2M**; p<0.16). A similar,

but not-significant, trend of menopausal status was observed in the TCGA (p<0.16) and METABRIC

(p<0.28) data (**Supplementary Figures 2A-B**).

Related to these data and as expected, Subtype-1 patients were younger (median age 44) than

Subtype-2 (median age 50) and Subtype-3 (median age 54) patients (**Supplementary Figures 2C;**

$p<0.05$, Chi-square test), and this trend (not statistically significant) was similar in TCGA and

METABRIC data (**Supplementary Figures 2D-E)**. Interestingly, Subtype-1 tumors were smaller than

Subtype-2 and -3 tumors (**Figure 2N**), and Subtypes-1 and -3 were associated with a greater

number of involved LNs (from METABRIC data) than Subtype-2 tumors (**Figure 2O**). With respect

to intrinsic subtypes, Subtype-1 shows a similar distribution of claudin-low and basal-like subtypes,

whereas Subtypes-2 and -3 predominantly show basal-like. Among the subtypes, Subtype-3

reveals increased HER2-like subtype, as assessed using METABRIC data (**Figure 2P**). There was no

significant association between METABRIC[23] and our subtypes (**Supplementary Figure 2F**).

Interestingly, a majority of Subtype-1 is associated with Vanderbilt's immune TNBC subtype[7] and

Subtype-2 with mesenchymal. In contrast, Subtype-3 was a mixture of all Vanderbilt's subtypes

(**Figure 2Q**). Although TCGA immune subtypes[24] show a significant association with our immune

subtypes, there is no specific association of each subtype with TCGA subtypes. Intriguingly,

Subtype-2 has more than 50% samples representing wounding healing C1 TCGA immune subtypes

(**Supplementary Figure 2F**). Overall, we identified three immune-specific TNBC subtypes in the

Indian cohort with different immune gene expression, prognoses, and menopausal status, which

largely overlapped with Western TNBC and certain molecular classifications.

Subtype-1 is enriched for TILs, Th1 cellular immunity and a cascade of immune changes

We next investigated whether our subtypes from the Indian cohort, representing the overall TNBC

immune profiles, were associated with histological assessment of TILs. In our cohort, 44% had

mild, 30% had dense, and 26% had moderate TILs. Most tumors with dense TILs were Subtype-1

tumors (68%; n=25), and those with moderate (82%; n=22) and mild (81%; n=37) TIL infiltrates

were mainly Subtype-2 and -3 tumors (**Figure 3A**). With respect to immune gene and cellular

composition, Subtype-1 had higher expression of Th1-specific genes (*IFNG* and *IL12A*; **Figure 3B-**

C), reflecting increased cellular immunity. Interestingly, most chemokines represented in the 204

subtype-specific genes were only highly expressed in Subtype-1 (**Figures 3D**). These patterns

apparent in the Indian cohort were also seen in TCGA data, with increased Th1 cell, leukocyte,

stromal, and TIL regional fractions and lymphocyte infiltration signature scores in Subtype-1

(**Figure 3E**). Hence, Subtype-1 appears to have a gene expression profile balanced in favor of Th1

responses and chemokine expression (**Figures 3F**).

We next explored the proportion and types of different immune cells within the three subtypes

using single-sample geneset enrichment analysis (ssGSEA)[25] and the entire 730 genes. The geneset

distribution in the three subtypes and the inferred cell populations significantly associated (FDR

<0.2) with the three subtypes are shown in **Figure 3G-K**. Subtype-1 showed increased CD8+

effector T-cells (and their genes *CD8A/CD8B*) and the cytolytic activity genes *GZMA and PRF1*, as

assessed using cytolytic scores and ssGSEA (see Methods; **Figures 3G-I**). This increase in CD8+

effector T-cell activity was also associated with patterns representing increased plasmacytoid

dendritic cells, major histocompatibility class (MHC) class-I, and co-stimulation of APC and T-cells

and associated antigen processing and presentation (APP) genes, including genes representing

transporters (TAP), immunoproteases, MHC class-II, and human leukocyte antigen (HLA) (**Figure**

3I-K). Subtype-1 also showed increased expression of immune checkpoint and T-cell exhaustion

genes such as PD-1 (*PDCD1*), PD-L1 (*CD274*), *CTLA4*, and *LAG3* (**Figure 3L**), suggesting that

persistent stimulation of T-cells potentially promoted T-cell exhaustion through increased

expression of these genes in Subtype-1 tumors, as described[26]. Further interrogation of TCGA data

showed increased INF-γ response genes and macrophage regulation, specifically anti-tumor M1

macrophages, in Subtype-1 samples (**Figure 3M**). We also examined T-cell receptor (TCR) and B

cell receptor (BCR) repertoires in our subtypes using TCGA data. As expected, TCR and BCR

Shannon indices and richness scores were significantly higher in Subtype-1 tumors, which might

represent a highly reactive immune-associated stroma in the tumor (**Figure 3E and M**). Our

subtypes capture an immune landscape and heterogeneity in TNBC beyond those represented by

TIL grouping alone.

Subtype-1 immune changes are associated with DAMPs, acute inflammation, and viral-mimicry

The cascade of adaptive immune responses and activation of dendritic cells is known to be

associated with damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), which are molecules released by

acute inflammatory, hypoxic, or stressed cells linked to tumor progression or treatment.[27] Hence,

we examined a score derived from the average of 15 genes representing various processes

involved in DAMPs.[28] Interestingly, the DAMP gene score was significantly (p<0.05) higher in

Subtype-1 tumors compared with other subtypes (**Figure 4A**). Unlike DAMPs linked to hypoxia and

adaptive immunity in our previous study of pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors,[21] DAMPs were not

linked to hypoxia in Subtype-1 TNBCs, which had significantly lower hypoxia scores than Subtypes-

2 and -3 as assessed using ssGSEA and the hypoxia signature from MSigDB (**Figure 4B**). Hence, we

hypothesized that these significant increases in DAMP scores and Th1 responses are associated

with acute inflammation[27] in Subtype-1 tumors. As predicted, the acute inflammation gene score

(mean expression of *IL15*, *IL21*, and *LTA* in each sample) was significantly ($p<0.05$) higher in

Subtype-1 tumors compared with the other subtypes (**Figure 4C**).

To further explore if enrichment of DAMP genes is associated with (statistically dependent on)

acute inflammation and Subtype-1, we applied our previously described ML approach,

probabilistic principal component and covariate analysis (PPCCA),[19] to the Indian TNBC cohort. This

method combines probabilistic principal component and multivariate regression analyses to infer

statistical associations or dependencies between three parameters (subtypes, acute

inflammation, and DAMP gene expression), which cannot be assessed by Pearson or other

correlation analyses. For this purpose, we categorized the severity of acute inflammation into high

and low based on the median acute inflammation score as a cut-off. Then, we removed the

expression differences in 15 DAMP genes between the high and low acute inflammation samples

by statistically adjusting or normalizing the expression data using PPCCA. This adjusted data led to

the loss of association or dependency of Subtype-1 on DAMP expression in TNBCs ($p<0.05$;

modified negative $\log_{10}$ p-value > 0 in **Figure 4D**), as assessed using the first probabilistic principal

component (pPC1; with higher proportion of variability) and linear regression analysis with the

PPCCA model. Before adjustment of acute inflammation by group, both acute inflammation

groups and subtypes were significantly (modified negative $\log_{10}$ p-value > 0 in **Figure 4D**)

associated with DAMP expression. This was also reflected as a partial change in DAMP gene

expression between Subtype-1 vs. Subtypes-2 and -3 after adjusting the acute inflammation

dependency in DAMP genes (**Figure 4F**). Conversely, there was no loss of a significant association

between acute inflammation and DAMP gene expression in pPC1 in the reverse analysis of

adjusting subtype dependency on DAMP gene expression, followed by regression analysis of acute

inflammation groups in pPC1 (**Figure 4E and G**). Moreover, we observed enrichment of host viral-

infection mimicry pathways and genes in Subtype-1 (**Figure 4H**), in a similar way to our rectal

cancer study[29]. These results demonstrate partial dependency of Subtype-1 on acute

inflammation for DAMP enrichment and provide clues that the progression of Subtype-1 is related

to viral-mimicry during infection.

Subtype-1-specific pathways and associated immunotherapies

Pathway analysis showed enrichment of Th1, IL2, IL12, T-cell receptor (TCR), B cell receptor (BCR),

cytolytic activity, PD-1, NFκB, chemokine/cytokine signaling and other related immune pathways

in Subtype-1 tumors using Indian samples (**Figure 5A-B; Supplementary Table 1G-H**). These

analyses allowed us to postulate a Subtype-1-specific pathway in $CD4^+$ Th1 lymphocytes (based on

Figures 5A-B and published studies[30][31]), where MEF2D pathway genes are activated through the

TCR and LCK/FYN signaling (**Figure 5C**). In this pathway, $CD4^+$ T-cell co-stimulation, potentially via

increased chemokines/cytokines and IL2, IL12/STAT4, and LCK/FYN signaling, further triggers

TNFR2-specific NFκB signaling to increase interferon-γ signaling, connecting multiple studies[32-36].

To further validate this $CD4^+$ Th1 lymphocyte signaling independently, we used TCGA multi-omics

profiles, including RNA-seq-based gene expression and mass spectrometry- and reverse phase

protein array (RPPA)-based protein expression, and associated them with our subtypes. These

independent analyses showed significant enrichment of all genes and majority of (total and/or

phosphorylated) proteins from these representative pathways, suggesting activation of this

pathway in Subtype-1 samples (**Figure 5D**).

Based on the above data and immune checkpoint gene expression (**Figure 3L**), we hypothesized

that Subtype-1 tumors might be amenable to targeting with immune checkpoint inhibitors. Hence,

we applied the expanded interferon-γ response gene signature from Ayers, et al. to our data,

which has been shown to be associated with responses to anti-PD-1 therapy in multiple cancer

types.[37] We detected a significant association between the Ayers, et al., signature and Subtype-1,

suggesting that Subtype-1 may respond to anti-PD-1 immunotherapy (**Figure 5E**). Moreover, we

applied Subtype-1 scores to Mariathasan *et al*., gene expression profiles, where melanoma

patients were treated with anti-PD-L1 therapy.[38] Despite the difference in cancer types, we

observed that melanoma patients with high Subtype-1 scores had a better prognosis and enriched

significantly (p<0.05) for compete response and stable disease than patients with low scores

(**Figure 5F-G**).

Similarly, a signature derived from MAGE-A3 vaccination therapy[39] was significantly associated

with Subtype-1 tumors (**Figure 5H-I**) and, correspondingly, a majority of samples from melanoma

patients responding to MAGE-A3 vaccination were significantly enriched for the Subtype-1

signature as assessed using our PAM centroids. These results suggest mechanisms of immune

evasion in Subtype-1 breast tumors that may be targeted by anti-checkpoint therapy or MAGE-A3

vaccination, which warrants further assessment in TNBCs.

Subtype-2 is associated with Th2-based humoral and Th-17 immunity

In contrast to Subtype-1, the characteristics of Subtype-2 included Th2 and Th17 gene expression,

representing a shift towards humoral and Th17 immunity (**Figures 6A-E**). As expected, this Th2

response was associated with an increased proportion of $CD4^+$ regulatory cells in Subtype-2

tumors (**Figure 6F**). When the tumor cell fraction was evaluated using TCGA data, Subtype-2

showed increased tumor purity (enriched for cancer cells rather than stroma) compared with the

other two subtypes, opposite to Subtype-1 (**Figure 6G** and **Figure 3E**).

Next, we evaluated pathway regulation in Subtype-2 in the Indian cohort. Subtype-2 was enriched

for cytokine signaling, specifically via IL17 (Th17) and lectin via the ficolin-based complement and

coagulation cascade pathways (**Figure 6H-J, Supplementary Table 1I**). Also, the data suggests a

balance tipping towards GATA3-induced Th2 cytokines in this subtype (**Figure 6J**). Overall, the Th2

response in Subtype-2 differs from Subtype-1.

Subtype-3 is an immune desert subtype but enriched for innate immune cells

Subtype-3 samples significantly expressed only five subtype-specific immune genes and therefore,

represents an immune desert subtype. However, there was high expression of five innate immune

genes and cell types, specifically macrophage and neutrophil genes (**Figure 7A-B**). Interestingly,

Subtype-3, along with Subtype-2, was relatively hypoxic compared with Subtype-1 (**Figure 4B**). We

confirmed the presence of macrophages using the pan-macrophage marker CD68 in subtype-

specific samples (n=39), which were indeed significantly more numerous in Subtype-3 samples

(**Figure 7C-D**). CD68 positivity was confined to the tumor stroma and not epithelial nests. There

was also a strong correlation between Subtype-3 and CD68-positive macrophages, with 31% of

the >50% positively stained tumors belonging to Subtype-3 (p<0.05). As opposed to Subtype-1,

there is an increased chronic inflammation signature in Subtype-3 patients (**Figure 7E**). The

Subtype-3 signature was associated with a worse prognosis (borderline significance) in melanoma

patients in Mariathasan et al. dataset[38] (**Figure 7F**). The overall summary of all the subtypes is

provided in **Figures 7G-H**.

DISCUSSION

Approximately 20-31% of all breast cancers in Indian women are TNBCs[4] [5] compared with

approximately 15% in Western populations,[2] and the incidence of TNBC is higher in pre-

menopausal and young women in India.[5] Ethnic differences in cancer prevalence and type are

known to exist.[40] For instance, about 40% of breast cancers in African American women in the US

are TNBCs, a much higher prevalence than in the White ethnic groups.[41] A better understanding

of ethnicity-related disparities in cancer between Indian and Western populations would be useful

for developing diagnosis and management guidelines tailored to specific populations. Given the

increased prevalence of TNBC in India, there is a particular need to better understand the

molecular characteristics of TNBCs in the Indian context to improve clinical outcomes by

identifying potential population-specific biomarkers (if they exist) and personalizing affordable

treatment regimens. Suppose the differences between Indian and Western TNBCs are minor,

which is the case here, it will make it easy to adapt existing therapies, including potential

immunotherapy options tailored towards TNBC, in India.

In this study, we investigated the immune landscapes of 88 breast cancer samples from South

Indian women. To our knowledge, this is the first comprehensive analysis of immune

transcriptome analysis of Indian TNBCs. To avoid bias, we retrospectively analyzed two distinct

cohorts of retrospective samples from two different hospitals. Although these samples were

collected from one major metropolitan city in South India (Bangalore), the clinical parameters

were comparable to other Indian breast cancer studies, in that half of patients were aged 50 or

under and over two-fifths were premenopausal.[5] [6] The age and menopausal symptom

characteristics more closely resembled an African and African-American populations but were

distinct from those usually seen in Western populations.[41][42]

TNBC is increasingly recognized as a heterogeneous disease with high recurrence and mortality

rates that more often displays aggressive clinical features such as high grade and lymph node

positivity.[2] Despite international efforts to identify effective therapeutic targets in TNBCs by

employing multi-omics strategies including proteomics, genomics, transcriptomics, and

methylomics, only a handful of targeted therapies exist or under consideration for this subgroup.[3]

Breast cancer was one of the first cancer types to undergo molecular classification.[43] Multiple

groups have defined subtypes in Western TNBCs,[7-9] and here, using Indian samples, we define

three immune TNBC subtypes with distinct gene and cell type profiles and prognoses (**Figures 7G-**

H). These immune subtypes defined in an Indian population were also present in Western TNBC

samples and in approximately the same proportions. There is an association between our's and

Vanderbilt's subtypes, however, our subtypes are specifically defined based on gene expression

representing immune cell infiltrations that display different characteristics from Vanderbilt's

subtypes. Nevertheless, the observed geographic differences are probably less to do with the

intrinsic immune biology of TNBC.

Although the incidence of TNBC is higher in young, premenopausal women,[5] most of these women

with TNBC belonged to the good prognosis Subtype-1 with active Th1 responses. In contrast, most

post-menopausal women with TNBC had poor prognosis, immune desert Subtype-3 tumors. This

increased risk of poor prognostic Subtype-3 in this age group may be attributable to compromised

immune function, specifically dysregulated adaptive Th1 responses, with aging; the capacity to

develop memory T-cells against cancer antigens is reduced in older people, compromising the

ability of the immune system to reject cancer cells[44]. Therefore, subsets of pre-menopausal and

post-menopausal women with TNBC may require distinct immunotherapies depending on their

subtype.

Here, we have also attempted to understand the mechanistic insights of these immune subtypes

associated with different immune infiltrations. The cytolytic activity of CD8$^+$ T-cells seen in

Subtype-1 depends on dedicated APCs, i.e., dendritic cells and, consistent with this, there was

increased MHC-I expression and antigen processing and HLA genes in these tumors, which leads

to co-stimulation of T-cell genes via TCR signaling in CD4 T-helper cells. Using pathway and

literature[30-36] analysis, we found that Subtype-1 was enriched for DAMP and CD4 T-helper TCR

signaling, and we further validated TCR and related signaling pathways using multi-omic gene and

protein data. This pathway may be associated with increased cytolytic activity in CD8$^+$ T-cells,

potentially reducing tumor progression and contributing to the better prognosis seen in patients

with Subtype-1 TNBCs. There was also increased expression of MHC-II-associated HLA genes

representing potentially activation of CD4, dendritic cells and M1 macrophages in Subtype-1

tumors, which are known to be associated with a good prognosis in several tumor types.[45] In

contrast, Subtype-3, with its low proportion of M0 and M1 macrophages and higher proportion of

M2 macrophages (validated using CD68 IHC) and neutrophils, was associated with poorer

outcomes. This is consistent with a study by Gentles et al.[46], who found that macrophages,

neutrophils, and plasma cells are poor prognostic markers in both breast and lung cancer.

Collectively, our findings show that there is considerable immune infiltrate variability in TNBCs,

which is partly determined by the molecular characteristics of the primary tumor and that

influences clinical outcomes. For example, we found that Subtype-1 may be primarily associated

with an acute immune response, as described previously in other cancers[47]. Remarkably, using our

PPCCA ML approach[19], we demonstrated a significant multivariate association between acute

immunity and subtypes with DAMP gene expression, suggesting increased acute immunity may be

associated with or driving Th1-enriched Subtype-1 TNBCs, a hypothesis that requires validation.

On the other hand, Subtype-3 may be associated with chronic inflammation and hypoxia, leading

to a poorer prognosis. While the roles of Th1 responses in acute inflammation and Th2 and M2

macrophages in chronic inflammation during cancer development are well described,[47] here we

relate this to differential stratification, prognosis, signaling, and therapeutic responses. Our

findings show that there is a complex relationship between acute/chronic immunity, intratumoral

immune cell heterogeneity, molecular subtype, and disease progression in TNBC. Treatments that

aim to enhance Th1-based cellular immunity against tumors are only effective in a subset of

patients[48], and our findings may help to identify this population using our Indian TNBC signature

for specific targeting and further therapeutic development.

The success of immunotherapy in a subset of TNBC patients has raised hope of efficacy in TNBCs,[10]

[14] and TNBCs with dense TILs are expected to have a better prognosis.[49] Nevertheless, the

objective response rate (ORR) for immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICI) monotherapy in metastatic

TNBC is only modest, and the IMpassion130 trial for locally advanced and metastatic TNBC

demonstrated that combined atezolizumab and nab-paclitaxel was more effective than

monotherapy with nab-paclitaxel alone.[10] In contrast, a follow-up trial, IMPassion131 showed no

improvement in patient survival with the same therapy.[13] Furthermore, several small studies have

reported only marginal ORRs with ICIs, with poor responses likely to be multifactorial and include

molecular heterogeneity, the use of ICIs as monotherapy, and their use in non-first-line settings.[3]

This is likely to be due, at least in part, to overall low PD-L1 expression (biomarker) in TNBCs,[50] so

it is essential to develop robust biomarkers to select patients who respond to immunotherapy.

Our data suggest Subtype-1 TNBC is potentially targetable with immunotherapy based on cross-

cancer analysis using melanoma data. Specifically, Subtype-1 was associated with immune

checkpoint inhibitor (ICI) responses and prognosis, as assessed using the anti-PD-1 treatment

prediction signature from Ayers et al.[37] and prognosis analysis using an anti-PD-L1 treated

melanoma dataset.[39] Our study also suggests an association between MAGEA3 immunotherapy

and Subtype-1 tumors. Recently, a phase-III trial assessing MAGEA3 immunotherapy in stage III

melanoma patients in the adjuvant setting failed.[51] Although MAGEA3-positive cutaneous

melanoma patients were selected for this trial, they were not further selected based on immune

landscape such as those defined here. Similarly, a recent study has implicated the role of MAGEA3

in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) and suggested as a novel therapeutic avenue of targeting

MAGEA3 for HCC.[52] In contrast, It is currently uncertain what therapy would best suit patients with

Subtype-2 tumors characterized by Th2/Th17 responses, infrequent LN involvement, an

intermediate prognosis, and increased tumor purity; further investigation is required to identify

potential immunotherapy targets associated with the immune complement cascade and GATA3.

The increased wound healing response in Subtype-2 is congruent with the association of Th2

response with wound healing[53], which might qualify them for antiangiogenic immunotherapies as

described[54]. However, this subtype may benefit from bioengineered immunotherapy using

collagen-binding domain (CBD)-IL12 to reactivate Th1 pathways,[55] followed by treatment with an

ICI. Subtype-3 was also associated with increased poor prognostic basal-like and HER2-like intrinsic

subtypes compared with Subtype-1. Based on our data, Subtype-3 may not respond to first-line

ICI-based immunotherapy.

In conclusion, here we characterized the immune heterogeneity in TNBCs in Indian women. In

doing so, we identified three subtypes with distinct immune cell infiltrates, immune cell signaling,

and gene signatures associated with prognosis and responses to immunotherapy. Overall, immune

gene expression in Indian and Western TNBCs appears to be largely similar. This immune-

transcriptome study suggests that therapies targeting immune microenvironment in Western

populations may be as effective in Indian populations, however, genetic changes may need to be

considered for geography-specific personalized therapy. This may accelerate pharmaceutical

adoption to Indian TNBC patients.

CONTRIBUTIONS

AS conceived and developed the idea; AS and AK further developed this idea; AK, JP and SS

provided patient samples and clinical follow up data; AS, AK, HPS, CR, YP, and KD performed the

experiments; AK and JP performed histopathology and related data analysis; AS, MC and SS

supervised the study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the Centre for Global Oncology at the ICR for the support.

COMPETING INTERESTS

None

FUNDING

We thank Newton Fund and Global Challenge Research Fund (GCRF)-based funding provided

through Research England to the ICR, which partly supported this work related to molecular

profiling and data analysis. We thank Nadathur Holdings Pvt Ltd and Bagaria Trust whose

generous funding supported patient recruitment, clinical follow up and analysis.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) diagram and clinical

characteristics of Indian TNBC samples. A. Consort diagram showing workflow of samples selected

for the study. **B.** A table of clinical characteristics of samples.

Figure 2. Identification and clinical characterization of immune subtypes using the Indian TNBC

samples and comparison with Western TNBC cohorts. A. Heatmap of immune subtypes from

Indian TNBC (n=88) identified by NMF clustering method. Subtypes are shown on the top bar. The

scales are shown at the bottom. **B.** Proportion of immune subtypes from 88 Indian TNBCs. **C-E.**

Subtype-specific scores. **F.** Proportion of subtype-specific genes out of 204 genes. **G.** Shannon

diversity index of three immune subtypes. **H-I.** Kaplan-Meier curves representing H) OS (n=83) and

I) DFS (n=79) from the Indian TNBC cohort. **J.** Multivariate analysis of DFS and other clinical

parameters. **K.** Proportion of three immune subtypes in different cohorts of samples from India

(n=88) and Western populations – TCGA (n=123) and METABRIC (n=299). **L.** Kaplan-Meier curve

representing OS from the METABRIC TNBC cohort (n=299). **M.** Proportion of pre- and post-

menopausal samples represented in three immune subtypes from the Indian TNBC cohort (n=81).

N. Tumor size differences in immune subtypes from the Indian TNBC cohort (n=86). **O.** Number

of LNs involved in different immune subtypes from the METABRIC cohort (n=299). **P-Q.** Proportion

of P) intrinsic and Q) Vanderbilt subtypes represented in immune subtypes from the METABRIC

cohort (n=299). Kruskal-Wallis statistical test was performed for most of the analysis, except for

survival analysis and proportion analysis, where the log-rank test was used for survival anlaysis and

chi-squared test was used for the proportions. p-value of <0.05 was considered significant.

Figure 3. Immune and clinical characteristics specific to Subtype-1. A. Proportion of dense,

moderate, and mild TILS represented in three immune subtypes from the Indian TNBC cohort

(n=84). Chi-squared test was used for p-value calculation. **B-C.** Gene expression of Th1 response

genes – B) *IFNG* and C) *IL12A* in immune subtypes from the Indian TNBC cohort (n=88). **D.** Heatmap

showing chemokine expression in immune subtypes. **E.** Heatmap validation of specific immune

characteristics in immune subtypes from TCGA data. **F.** Schematic representing balance in Th1

response and chemokine gene expression in subtypes. **G-L.** Heatmaps and boxplot showing

changes in G) CD8 T-cell-specific genes, H) cytolytic activity, I) T and B cell types and activities

based on ssGSEA analysis, J) antigen presenting and processing genes, K) MHC-I &II HLA genes, L)

T-cell exhaustion genes. **M.** Heatmap showing macrophages, IFNG response, TCR diversity and

intratumoral heterogeneity from TCGA data. All the figures used the Indian TNBC cohort (n=88),

except figures E) and M), where TCGA data was used. Kruskal-Wallis statistical test was performed

for p-value significance for those in boxplots.

Figure 4. Machine-learning based association analysis of acute inflammation, subtypes and DAMP

gene expression in the Indian cohort. A-C. Boxplots showing differential changes in DAMP, hypoxia

and acute inflammation scores from the Indian TNBC cohort (n=88). Kruskal-Wallis statistical test

was performed for p-value significance. **D-E.** Barplots showing significant (p<0.01; linear

regression) association of 15 DAMP genes with D) acute inflammation (high vs. low) and E)

subtypes (Subtype-1 vs. others) in principal component (PC1) as assessed by PPCCA method using

the Indian TNBC cohort (n=88). **F.** Heatmap showing change in 15 DAMP pathway genes (median

expression across samples from each subtype) in immune subtypes before and after statistically

adjusting acute inflammation using the *PPCCA* method using the Indian TNBC cohort (n=88). **G.**

Heatmap showing change in 15 DAMP pathway genes (median expression across samples from

each subtype) in acute inflammation low and high groups before and after statistically adjusting

subtypes using the *PPCCA* method using the Indian TNBC cohort (n=88). **H.** Dotplot showing

enrichment of anti-viral-mimicry pathways in Subtype-1 from hallmarks gene sets from the

Molecular Signature DataBase (MSigDB) database using Subtype-1-specific genes. False discovery

rate (FDR) was calculated from p-values from hypergeometric test using hypeR R package (see

methods).

Figure 5. Association of gene enrichment and therapy response to immune TNBC subtypes. A-B.

Barplot showing gene enrichment of A) BIOCARTA and B) Reactome pathways using Enrichr tool

(see Methods) in Subtype-1. **C.** Schematic showing TCR and downstream signalling that effects

immune cell types based on data from the Indian TNBC gene expression, pathway analysis in A-B)

and literature. **D.** Multiomics enrichment analysis validation specific pathways from C) using TCGA

TNBC samples (n=18). Kruskal-Wallis statistical test was performed for p-value significance. **E.**

Boxplot showing differential T-cell-inflamed GEP in subtypes in the Indian cohort (n=88). **F.**

Kaplan-Meier curve and median survival data showing differential OS in melanoma samples (pre-

treatment; Mariathasan et al.[38]; n=348) with high and low enrichment of Subtype-1 genes and

their association with immunotherapy response. Log-rank test was performed for p-value

significance. **G.** Barplot showing the association of immune subtypes with clinical RECIST response

to immunotherapy in melanoma (Mariathasan et al.[38]; n=298). * - represents a significant (p<0.05;

Kruskal-Wallis test) enrichment in samples with high Subtype-1 score compared to those with low

score. **H.** Boxplot showing differential MAGEA3 therapy response signature in subtypes in the

Indian cohort (n=88). **I.** Proportion of melanoma samples (n=56) showing immune TNBC subtypes

with differential MAGEA3 therapy response, as a cross-cancer comparison analysis. Kruskal-Wallis

statistical test was performed for p-value significance for E) and H). Chi-squared test was

performed for p-value calculations for G) and I).

Figure 6. Immune characteristics specific to Subtype-2. A-D. Gene expression of Th2 and Th17

response genes – A) *IL4,* B) *IL5,* C) *IL17B* and D) *IL17A* in immune subtypes using the Indian TNBC

cohort (n=88). **E.** Schematic representing balance in Th2 and Th17 response and chemokine gene

expression in immune subtypes. **F.** Boxplot showing changes in CD4+ T regulatory cells in immune

subtypes as assessed by ssGSEA analysis using the Indian TNBC cohort (n=88). **G.** Boxplot showing

changes in tumor purity in immune subtypes from the TCGA data (n=101). **H-I.** Barplot showing

enrichment of A) KEGG and B) Reactome pathways using Enrichr tool (see Methods) in subtype-2.

J. A table showing BIOCARTA enrichment analysis in Subtype-2. Kruskal-Wallis statistical test was

performed for p-value significance for A-G).

Figure 7. Immune characteristics and validation of macrophage markers in Subtype-3. A. Heatmap

showing Subtype-3 specific genes associated with macrophages and neutrophils. **B.** Boxplot

showing changes in macrophages in immune subtypes as assessed by ssGSEA analysis using the

Indian TNBC cohort (n=88). **C-D.** IHC and quantitation (n=39) of pan-macrophage marker – CD68

in immune subtype samples using the Indian cohort. **E.** Boxplot showing differential changes in

chronic inflammation scores in immune subtypes using the Indian cohort (n=88). **F.** Kaplan-Meier

curve and median survival data showing differential OS in samples with high and low enrichment

of immune TNBC Subtype-3 genes in melanoma samples (pre-treatment; Mariathasan et al.[38];

n=348). **G.** Molecular characteristics of subtypes. **H.** Clinical characteristics of subtypes. Kruskal-

Wallis statistical test was performed for p-value significance for A), D) and E). Log-rank test was

performed for p-value significance for F).

REFERENCES

1. Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, 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. doi: 10.3322/caac.21660 [published Online First: 2021/02/05]

2. Boyle P. Triple-negative breast cancer: epidemiological considerations and recommendations. *Ann Oncol* 2012;23 Suppl 6:vi7-12. doi: 10.1093/annonc/mds187 [published Online First: 2012/10/04]

3. Bianchini G, De Angelis C, Licata L, et al. Treatment landscape of triple-negative breast cancer - expanded options, evolving needs. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol* 2021 doi: 10.1038/s41571-021-00565-2 [published Online First: 2021/11/11]

4. Sandhu GS, Erqou S, Patterson H, et al. Prevalence of Triple-Negative Breast Cancer in India: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Glob Oncol* 2016;2(6):412-21. doi: 10.1200/JGO.2016.005397 [published Online First: 2017/07/19]

5. Kulkarni A, Kelkar DA, Parikh N, et al. Meta-Analysis of Prevalence of Triple-Negative Breast Cancer and Its Clinical Features at Incidence in Indian Patients With Breast Cancer. *JCO Glob Oncol* 2020;6:1052-62. doi: 10.1200/GO.20.00054 [published Online First: 2020/07/09]

6. Akhtar M, Dasgupta S, Rangwala M. Triple negative breast cancer: an Indian perspective. *Breast Cancer (Dove Med Press)* 2015;7:239-43. doi: 10.2147/BCTT.S85442 [published Online First: 2015/09/01]

7. Lehmann BD, Bauer JA, Chen X, et al. Identification of human triple-negative breast cancer subtypes and preclinical models for selection of targeted therapies. *J Clin Invest* 2011;121(7):2750-67. doi: 10.1172/JCI45014 [published Online First: 2011/06/03]

8. Burstein MD, Tsimelzon A, Poage GM, et al. Comprehensive genomic analysis identifies novel subtypes and targets of triple-negative breast cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 2015;21(7):1688-98. doi: 10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-14-0432 [published Online First: 2014/09/12]

9. Jezequel P, Loussouarn D, Guerin-Charbonnel C, et al. Gene-expression molecular subtyping of triple-negative breast cancer tumours: importance of immune response. *Breast Cancer Res* 2015;17:43. doi: 10.1186/s13058-015-0550-y [published Online First: 2015/04/19]

10. Schmid P, Adams S, Rugo HS, et al. Atezolizumab and Nab-Paclitaxel in Advanced Triple-Negative Breast Cancer. *N Engl J Med* 2018;379(22):2108-21. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa1809615 [published Online First: 2018/10/23]

11. Roche's Atezolizumab receives DCGI approval for treatment of metastatic triple-negative breast cancer in India 2020 [Available from: https://www.rocheindia.com/en/media/Roche-metastatic-triple-negative-breast-cancer-in-India.html.

12. Correction: Society for Immunotherapy of Cancer (SITC) clinical practice guideline on immunotherapy for the treatment of breast cancer. *Journal for ImmunoTherapy of Cancer* 2021;9(12):e002597corr1. doi: 10.1136/jitc-2021-002597corr1

13. Miles D, Gligorov J, Andre F, et al. Primary results from IMpassion131, a double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomised phase III trial of first-line paclitaxel with or without atezolizumab for unresectable locally advanced/metastatic triple-negative breast cancer. *Ann Oncol*

2021;32(8):994-1004. doi: 10.1016/j.annonc.2021.05.801 [published Online First:
2021/07/06]
14. Schmid P, Cortes J, Pusztai L, et al. Pembrolizumab for Early Triple-Negative Breast Cancer. *N*
Engl J Med 2020;382(9):810-21. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa1910549 [published Online First:
2020/02/27]
15. Prabhu JS, Korlimarla A, Desai K, et al. A Majority of Low (1-10%) ER Positive Breast Cancers
Behave Like Hormone Receptor Negative Tumors. *Journal of Cancer* 2014;5(2):156-65. doi:
10.7150/jca.7668 [published Online First: 2014/02/25]
16. Korlimarla A, Prabhu JS, Anupama CE, et al. Separate quality-control measures are necessary
for estimation of RNA and methylated DNA from formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded
specimens by quantitative PCR. *J Mol Diagn* 2014;16(2):253-60. doi:
10.1016/j.jmoldx.2013.11.003 [published Online First: 2014/01/15]
17. Ragulan C, Eason K, Fontana E, et al. Analytical Validation of Multiplex Biomarker Assay to
Stratify Colorectal Cancer into Molecular Subtypes. *Sci Rep* 2019;9(1):7665. doi:
10.1038/s41598-019-43492-0 [published Online First: 2019/05/23]
18. Sadanandam A, Lyssiotis CA, Homicsko K, et al. A colorectal cancer classification system that
associates cellular phenotype and responses to therapy. *Nature Medicine* 2013;19:619-25.
doi: 10.1038/nm.3175
19. Nyamundanda G, Poudel P, Patil Y, et al. A Novel Statistical Method to Diagnose, Quantify and
Correct Batch Effects in Genomic Studies. *Sci Rep* 2017;7(1):10849. doi: 10.1038/s41598-
017-11110-6 [published Online First: 2017/09/09]
20. Salgado R, Denkert C, Demaria S, et al. The evaluation of tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs)
in breast cancer: recommendations by an International TILs Working Group 2014. *Ann*
Oncol 2015;26(2):259-71. doi: 10.1093/annonc/mdu450 [published Online First:
2014/09/13]
21. Young K, Lawlor RT, Ragulan C, et al. Immune landscape, evolution, hypoxia-mediated viral
mimicry pathways and therapeutic potential in molecular subtypes of pancreatic
neuroendocrine tumours. *Gut* 2020 doi: 10.1136/gutjnl-2020-321016 [published Online
First: 2020/09/05]
22. Ciriello G, Gatza ML, Beck AH, et al. Comprehensive Molecular Portraits of Invasive Lobular
Breast Cancer. *Cell* 2015;163(2):506-19. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2015.09.033 [published Online
First: 2015/10/10]
23. Curtis C, Shah SP, Chin SF, et al. The genomic and transcriptomic architecture of 2,000 breast
tumours reveals novel subgroups. *Nature* 2012;486(7403):346-52. doi:
10.1038/nature10983 [published Online First: 2012/04/24]
24. Thorsson V, Gibbs DL, Brown SD, et al. The Immune Landscape of Cancer. *Immunity*
2018;48(4):812-30 e14. doi: 10.1016/j.immuni.2018.03.023 [published Online First:
2018/04/10]
25. Subramanian A, Tamayo P, Mootha VK, et al. Gene set enrichment analysis: a knowledge-based
approach for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. *Proceedings of the National*
Academy of Sciences 2005;102:15545-50.
26. Jiang W, He Y, He W, et al. Exhausted CD8+T Cells in the Tumor Immune Microenvironment:
New Pathways to Therapy. *Front Immunol* 2020;11:622509. doi:
10.3389/fimmu.2020.622509 [published Online First: 2021/02/27]

27. Hernandez C, Huebener P, Schwabe RF. Damage-associated molecular patterns in cancer: a
double-edged sword. *Oncogene* 2016;35(46):5931-41. doi: 10.1038/onc.2016.104
[published Online First: 2016/04/19]
28. Tang D, Kang R, Coyne CB, et al. PAMPs and DAMPs: signal 0s that spur autophagy and
immunity. *Immunol Rev* 2012;249(1):158-75. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-065X.2012.01146.x
[published Online First: 2012/08/15]
29. Wilkins A, Fontana E, Nyamundanda G, et al. Differential and longitudinal immune gene
patterns associated with reprogrammed microenvironment and viral mimicry in response
to neoadjuvant radiotherapy in rectal cancer. *J Immunother Cancer* 2021;9(3) doi:
10.1136/jitc-2020-001717 [published Online First: 2021/03/09]
30. Potthoff MJ, Olson EN. MEF2: a central regulator of diverse developmental programs.
Development 2007;134(23):4131-40. doi: 10.1242/dev.008367 [published Online First:
2007/10/26]
31. Palacios EH, Weiss A. Function of the Src-family kinases, Lck and Fyn, in T-cell development
and activation. *Oncogene* 2004;23(48):7990-8000. doi: 10.1038/sj.onc.1208074
[published Online First: 2004/10/19]
32. Goplen NP, Saxena V, Knudson KM, et al. IL-12 Signals through the TCR To Support CD8 Innate
Immune Responses. *J Immunol* 2016;197(6):2434-43. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.1600037
[published Online First: 2016/08/16]
33. Miller PG, Bonn MB, McKarns SC. Transmembrane TNF-TNFR2 Impairs Th17 Differentiation by
Promoting Il2 Expression. *J Immunol* 2015;195(6):2633-47. doi:
10.4049/jimmunol.1500286 [published Online First: 2015/08/14]
34. Ridge JP, Di Rosa F, Matzinger P. A conditioned dendritic cell can be a temporal bridge between
a CD4+ T-helper and a T-killer cell. *Nature* 1998;393(6684):474-8. doi: 10.1038/30989
[published Online First: 1998/06/12]
35. Eisel D, Das K, Dickes E, et al. Cognate Interaction With CD4(+) T Cells Instructs Tumor-
Associated Macrophages to Acquire M1-Like Phenotype. *Front Immunol* 2019;10:219. doi:
10.3389/fimmu.2019.00219 [published Online First: 2019/03/12]
36. Hagn M, Sontheimer K, Dahlke K, et al. Human B cells differentiate into granzyme B-secreting
cytotoxic B lymphocytes upon incomplete T-cell help. *Immunol Cell Biol* 2012;90(4):457-
67. doi: 10.1038/icb.2011.64 [published Online First: 2011/08/03]
37. Ayers M, Lunceford J, Nebozhyn M, et al. IFN-gamma-related mRNA profile predicts clinical
response to PD-1 blockade. *J Clin Invest* 2017;127(8):2930-40. doi: 10.1172/JCI91190
[published Online First: 2017/06/27]
38. Mariathasan S, Turley SJ, Nickles D, et al. TGFbeta attenuates tumour response to PD-L1
blockade by contributing to exclusion of T cells. *Nature* 2018;554(7693):544-48. doi:
10.1038/nature25501 [published Online First: 2018/02/15]
39. Ulloa-Montoya F, Louahed J, Dizier B, et al. Predictive gene signature in MAGE-A3 antigen-
specific cancer immunotherapy. *J Clin Oncol* 2013;31(19):2388-95. doi:
10.1200/JCO.2012.44.3762 [published Online First: 2013/05/30]
40. Cho B, Han Y, Lian M, et al. Evaluation of Racial/Ethnic Differences in Treatment and Mortality
Among Women With Triple-Negative Breast Cancer. *JAMA Oncol* 2021;7(7):1016-23. doi:
10.1001/jamaoncol.2021.1254 [published Online First: 2021/05/14]

41. Dietze EC, Sistrunk C, Miranda-Carboni G, et al. Triple-negative breast cancer in African-
American women: disparities versus biology. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2015;15(4):248-54. doi:
10.1038/nrc3896 [published Online First: 2015/02/13]
42. Prakash O, Hossain F, Danos D, et al. Racial Disparities in Triple Negative Breast Cancer: A
Review of the Role of Biologic and Non-biologic Factors. *Front Public Health*
2020;8:576964. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2020.576964 [published Online First: 2021/01/09]
43. Perou CM, Sørlie T, Eisen MB, et al. Molecular portraits of human breast tumours. *Nature*
2000;406:747-52. doi: 10.1038/35021093
44. Derhovanessian E, Solana R, Larbi A, et al. Immunity, ageing and cancer. *Immun Ageing*
2008;5:11. doi: 10.1186/1742-4933-5-11 [published Online First: 2008/09/26]
45. Axelrod ML, Cook RS, Johnson DB, et al. Biological Consequences of MHC-II Expression by
Tumor Cells in Cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 2019;25(8):2392-402. doi: 10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-
18-3200 [published Online First: 2018/11/23]
46. Gentles AJ, Newman AM, Liu CL, et al. The prognostic landscape of genes and infiltrating
immune cells across human cancers. *Nature Medicine* 2015;21:938-45. doi:
10.1038/nm.3909
47. Grivennikov SI, Greten FR, Karin M. Immunity, inflammation, and cancer. *Cell* 2010;140(6):883-
99. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2010.01.025 [published Online First: 2010/03/23]
48. Xu HM. Th1 cytokine-based immunotherapy for cancer. *Hepatobiliary Pancreat Dis Int*
2014;13(5):482-94. doi: 10.1016/s1499-3872(14)60305-2 [published Online First:
2014/10/14]
49. Dieci MV, Criscitiello C, Goubar A, et al. Prognostic value of tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes on
residual disease after primary chemotherapy for triple-negative breast cancer: a
retrospective multicenter study. *Ann Oncol* 2014;25(3):611-18. doi:
10.1093/annonc/mdt556 [published Online First: 2014/01/10]
50. Bai X, Ni J, Beretov J, et al. Immunotherapy for triple-negative breast cancer: A molecular
insight into the microenvironment, treatment, and resistance. *Journal of the National*
Cancer Center 2021;1(3):75-87. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jncc.2021.06.001
51. Dreno B, Thompson JF, Smithers BM, et al. MAGE-A3 immunotherapeutic as adjuvant therapy
for patients with resected, MAGE-A3-positive, stage III melanoma (DERMA): a double-
blind, randomised, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol* 2018;19(7):916-29. doi:
10.1016/S1470-2045(18)30254-7 [published Online First: 2018/06/18]
52. Craig AJ, Garcia-Lezana T, Ruiz de Galarreta M, et al. Transcriptomic characterization of cancer-
testis antigens identifies MAGEA3 as a driver of tumor progression in hepatocellular
carcinoma. *PLoS Genet* 2021;17(6):e1009589. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1009589
[published Online First: 2021/06/25]
53. Gause WC, Wynn TA, Allen JE. Type 2 immunity and wound healing: evolutionary refinement
of adaptive immunity by helminths. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2013;13(8):607-14. doi:
10.1038/nri3476 [published Online First: 2013/07/06]
54. Hua Y, Bergers G. Tumors vs. Chronic Wounds: An Immune Cell's Perspective. *Front Immunol*
2019;10:2178. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2019.02178 [published Online First: 2019/10/02]
55. Ishihara J, Ishihara A, Sasaki K, et al. Targeted antibody and cytokine cancer immunotherapies
through collagen affinity. *Sci Transl Med* 2019;11(487) doi: 10.1126/scitranslmed.aau3259
[published Online First: 2019/04/12]

Figure 1

A

B

Clinical Table(N=88)		n(%)
Age(yrs)	Mean	50
	Median	51
	≤50	44(50)
	>50	44(50)
Menopausal status	Pre	39(44)
	Post	49(56)
Grade	2	17(19.3)
	3	68(77.3)
	NA	3(3.4)
Tumor Size	<2 cm	7(8)
	2-5 cm	68(77.2)
	>5 cm	11(12.5)
	NA	2(2.3)
Stage	I	9(10)
	II	59(67)
	III	20(23)
Lymph node status	Positive	33(38)
	Negative	53(60)
	NA	2(2)
Lymphocyte infiltrate groups	Dense	25(28)
	Mild	37(42)
	Moderate	22(25)
	NA	4(5)

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7