

Faculty of Health Sciences

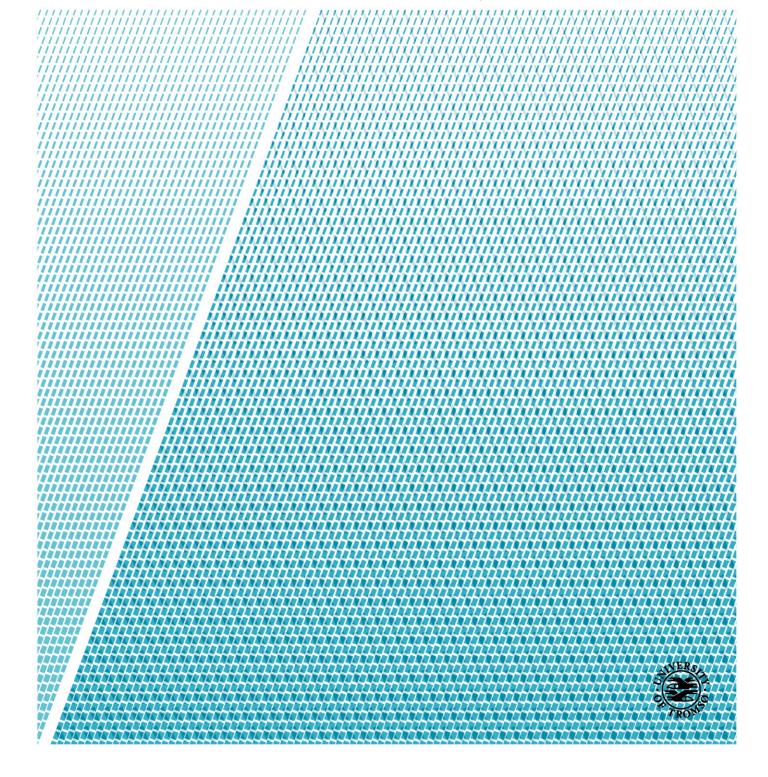
Advantages and limitations of molecular genetic prognostic tests for breast cancer

A systematic literature review

André Berli Delgado

Supervisor: Line Leonore Haugan Moi and Lill-Tove Rasmussen Busund

MED-3950 Master's thesis in Medicine, September 2020



Preface

The purpose of this thesis was to investigate the prognostic and economic aspects of

molecular-genetic assays in breast cancer and gather the newest research literature on this

topic, and I conducted a systematic literature search to gather an overview on the latest

research on this field.

The fields of medical oncology and pathology has been an interest of mine since I started

studying medicine, and I have always been interested in scientific research. I therefor applied

for the integrated research program for medical students October 2016 and got accepted in

May 2017. I joined the Translational Cancer Research Group at the Department of Medical

Biology at the University of Tromsø and started my PhD-project on the Norwegian Women

and Cancer Study Cohort, researching immunological markers in invasive breast cancer.

Through working with my PhD-project I had a growing interest in the genetic aspects of

breast cancer.

The project required no extra funding or REK-approval. The literature search and all writing

were conducted solely by me. I want to thank my supervisors, postdoc Line Leonore Haugan

Moi and professor Lill-Tove Rasmussen Busund, who had the idea for the thesis and have

always been very helpful and given excellent counseling and advice.

Tromsø, 30.08.20

André Berli Delgado

Antic Delado

I

Table of contents

| PREFACE | l |
|---|-----|
| TABLE OF CONTENTS | |
| SUMMARY | III |
| ABBREVIATIONS | IV |
| 1 BACKGROUND | 1 |
| 1.1 Breast cancer epidemiology | 1 |
| 1.1.1 Possible causes for increasing incidence in breast cancer | 2 |
| 1.2 Breast cancer classification | |
| 1.2.1 Histopathological classification | 3 |
| 1.2.2 Immunohistochemical classification | 5 |
| 1.2.3 TNM classification | 6 |
| 1.2.4 Molecular classification | 6 |
| 1.2.5 Breast cancer classification today | 7 |
| 1.3 PROGNOSTIC FACTORS IN BREAST CANCER | 8 |
| 1.4 ECONOMICS OF BREAST CANCER | 9 |
| 1.5 MOLECULAR-GENETIC PROFILING | 10 |
| 1.5.1 MammaPrint | 10 |
| 1.5.2 Oncotype DX | 11 |
| 1.5.3 Prosigna | 11 |
| 1.5.4 EndoPredict | 12 |
| 1.6 AIMS OF THE THESIS | 12 |
| 2 METHODS | 13 |
| 2.1 DATA SOURCE AND SEARCH STRATEGY | 13 |
| 2.2 SELECTION CRITERIA | 13 |
| 2.3 LITERATURE SEARCH AND DATA EXTRACTION | 13 |
| 2.4 DATA ANALYSIS | 14 |
| 2.5 GRADE | 14 |
| 3 RESULTS | 14 |
| 3.1 ONCOTYPE DX | 15 |
| 3.2 MAMMAPRINT, PROSIGNA AND ENDOPREDICT | 16 |
| 4 DISCUSSION | 16 |
| 4.1 Limitations | 17 |
| 4.2 IMPLICATIONS | |
| 5 CONCLUSION | 18 |
| 6 REFERENCES | 19 |
| 7 FIGURES AND TABLES | 25 |
| 8 CRADE TABLES | 30 |

Summary

Background: Breast cancer is the most commonly diagnosed cancer in women internationally, and the most common cause of cancer related death among women. There are many ways to classify breast cancer, and breast cancer can be divided into several subgroups depending on which classification system is used. Pathological reports of breast carcinoma not only depend on one of these systems but include histopathological classification, grade of the tumor, and immunohistochemical (IHC) parameters like estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR), HER2- and Ki67-status. With the development of microarrays, it is now possible to analyze the genes of the cells, and with gene expression profiling (GEP) we have been able to evaluate breast cancer prognosis based on the gene expression of the cancer cells. Different genetic signatures of breast cancer have been obtained through DNA microarray technology, RNA sequencing and bioinformatic models. Some of these signatures have been validated through clinical studies and been translated into commercial prognostic assays. Four such commercial prognostic assays are Oncotype DX, MammaPrint, EndoPredict and PAM5-ROR.

Methods: A literature search were conducted on the databases Medline and Embase. The inclusion criteria of the search were based on the Population, Intervention, Comparison and Outcome (PICO) framework. The search included terms to identify studies assessing the prognostic or economic aspects of Oncotype DX, MammaPrint, EndoPredict or Prosigna. Out of a total of 290 identified studies, 5 were included in this thesis.

Results: Through the systematic literature search only studies focusing on Oncotype DX were included. The litterateur search disclosed that the Oncotype DX recurrence score (RS) is significantly associated with worse prognosis. The Oncotype DX RS were associated with both overall survival, disease free survival and local recurrence. The literature search also disclosed that Oncotype DX may be cost effective, especially in the high-risk RS group, were chemotherapy seemed to be clearly cost-effective because of the gain of additional quality-adjusted life-years (QUALY) at a low cost.

Conclusion: The findings of this thesis suggest that Oncotype DX have an independent prognostic significance and is significantly associated with survival and risk of recurrence and may be helpful to guide treatment. Studies also show that Oncotype DX may be a cost effective alternative when used to guide adjuvant chemotherapy treatment.

Abbreviations

AO Adjuvant!Online

BCSS Breast cancer-specific survival

BMI Body mass index

CI Confidence interval

DCIS Ductal carcinoma in situ

DFS Disease-free survival

DR Distant recurrence

ER Estrogen receptor

EUR Euro

FFPE Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded

GBP Great British Pound

GDP Gross domestic product

GEP Gene expression profiling

GRADE Grades of Recommendation, Assessment, Development and Evaluation

HER2 Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2

HR Hazard ratio

ICER Incremental cost-effectiveness ratios

ILC Invasive lobular carcinomaLCIS Lobular carcinoma in cituLRR locoregional recurrence

LY Life years

MeSH Medical Subject Headings
NGS Nottingham grading system

NOK Norwegian kroner

NST No special type

OR Odds ratio

OS Overall survival

PICO Population, Intervention, Comparison and Outcome

PR Progesterone receptor

PRISMA Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses

QUALY Quality-adjusted-life years

RR Relative risk

RS Recurrence score

TNM Tumor Node Metastasis

USD United States Dollar

WHO World Health Organization

YLL Years of Life Lost

1 Background

1.1 Breast cancer epidemiology

Breast cancer is the most commonly diagnosed cancer in women, both in Norway and internationally, and the most common cause of cancer related death among women (1, 2). It makes up for 22 % of cancer cases among women in Norway, and in 2018 3568 women were diagnosed with breast cancer in Norway, compared to 1235 women in 1970 (3). The prevalence of breast cancer in Norway was 49 314 in 2018, an increase from 34 749 in 2008 (4). Figure 1 demonstrates the trends in breast cancer incidence in Norway from 1980 to 2018 by age groups. In the United States approximately 182 000 women are diagnosed with breast cancer each year, which makes up about 26 % of cancer in women in the US (1). For women in the age group 50 to 74 years the incidence of breast cancer in the UK has increased from 150/100000 to approximately 275/100000 from 1960 to 1990, while in Japan the increase has been from 30/100000 to 60/100000 in the same period of time (5). Since the early 90s the incidence of breast cancer in females has further increased by about 23 % in the UK (6).

Of the 9.6 million registered cancer deaths worldwide in 2018, breast cancer stood for 2.09 million deaths (7). Even though the survival rate of breast cancer is improving with a 5-year survival of 90.7 %, 594 people died from breast cancer in Norway in 2017, of which 586 were women (4). This accounted for 20.0 % of cancer-related deaths in women in Norway in 2017. In stage IV the 5-year survival is decreased to 29.2 % (4). The survival of breast cancer has increased over the last 40 years, from a total survival around 70 to 80 % in the early 80s to almost 91 % today (4). In summary, the mortality of breast cancer has decreased whereas the incidence has increased globally. Figure 2 shows relative survival up to 15 years after diagnosis by age, from 2014 to 2018.

Hormonal factors have been established as key factors in the development of breast cancer through epidemiological studies of the disease. Many of the known risk factors for breast cancer increase the exposure to estrogens in breast tissue, like obesity, early menarche, late menopause, oral contraception, hormonal therapies and alcohol (5, 8, 9).

1.1.1 Possible causes for increasing incidence in breast cancer

The increase in incidence can in part be attributed to breast cancer screening programs introduced in many countries over the last decades (10). The Norwegian Breast Cancer Screening Program started in 1995/96 and included women in the age group 50 to 69 years, and from 1996 to 2007 the screening program detected 67 % of all breast cancers which were diagnosed in this time period (11). An increasing number of women participating in the screening program will most likely lead to an increased incidence, since the screening program can detect tumors that otherwise would go undetected (10, 11). Another possible reason to the increased incidence is the western lifestyle, with high fat consumption, high consumption of alcohol and low physical activity, which are factors associated with increased risk of developing breast cancer. An example of this is the increase in incidence and mortality of breast cancer in Japan, which may be attributed to changes in eating habits to a more western diet with high fat content and low content of fiber (9). Also, in many western countries and Japan, women wait longer to get their first child and also get fewer children than before (9, 12, 13). Low parity is associated with increased risk of breast cancer, probably due to factors such as longer exposure to estrogen and less breastfeeding (5, 6, 8, 9, 14). Another explanation for the increased incidence of breast cancer is younger age at onset of puberty, and thereby earlier menarche and earlier breast development, which in part is caused by increased body mass index (BMI) among children and environmental factors (15-18). As for most types of cancer, one of the most important causes for the increase in breast cancer incidence is increasing age and an older population (10).

1.2 Breast cancer classification

Breast cancer comprises a group of diseases with specific clinical, histopathological and molecular properties. There are many ways to classify breast cancer, and breast cancer can be divided into several subgroups depending on which classification system is used. Pathological reports of breast carcinoma should not only depend on one of these systems, but should include histopathological classification and grade of the tumor, and immunohistochemical (IHC) parameters like estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR), human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)- and Ki67-status (19). Together with clinical variables such as tumor staging, these factors are conventionally used as prognostic and predictive markers (20). More recently, new molecular approaches, named intrinsic subtype classification, have been tested. These approaches focus on the gene expression profiles of the cancer cells. These

molecular approaches are not yet used in routine clinical practice or in treatment guidance, but promising results on the prognostic and predictive importance of molecular subtyping are emerging.

1.2.1 Histopathological classification

The histopathological classification of breast carcinomas is based on the morphological features of the tumors, and is an essential component of the pathological reports of breast cancers (19). Breast carcinomas can broadly be classified into two main groups; invasive carcinoma and carcinoma *in situ*, where carcinoma *in situ* can further be divided into ductal carcinoma *in situ* (DCIS) and lobular carcinoma *in situ* (LCIS). DCIS can be further divided into other groups. Invasive breast carcinomas can also be divided into a number of subclasses, where invasive ductal carcinoma, now referred to as invasive carcinoma of no special type (NST), is by far the most common, accounting for about 70 to 80% of all invasive breast lesions (21). Invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC) is another type of invasive breast cancer, which accounts for 5 to 15 % of invasive breast cancers (22). WHO has made a histopathological classification system for breast tumors, which in its' current version includes about 20 major tumor types and 18 minor subtypes (19).

Since histopathological classification is solely based on the morphological appearance of the cancer cells, this classification system is unable to mirror the heterogeneity of breast cancer because different cells within the same group, and even tumor, has different biological and clinical profiles. Alone, histopathological classification has not sufficient prognostic and predictive implication (19).

Histological tumor grading is a grading system that evaluates the degree of differentiation in the tumor tissue. Today histological grading is one of the best-established prognostic factors for breast cancer, and the Nottingham Grading system (NGS) is the grading system for breast cancer that is recommended by various professional international bodies, like WHO and the EU. NGS is based on the evaluation of the degree of tubular or gland formation, the degree of nuclear pleomorphism (variability in the size and shape of the nuclei), and the mitotic count. Combined with lymph node evaluation and the tumor size, together with the Kalmar Prognostic Index, they constitute the Nottingham Prognostic index (23).

In the NSG, based on the evaluation of the degree of tubular or gland formation, the degree of nuclear pleomorphism, and the mitotic count, each of these features is given a score of either one, two or three points, where 1 point is closest to normal and three points is the least normal. For example, when evaluating the degree of glandular/tubular formation, 1 point is given when >75 % of the tumor area is forming glandular/tubular structures, while 3 points are given when <10 % of the tumor area is forming these structures. Based on the overall score the tumor is graded into grade 1, 2 or 3, where grade 3 has the worst prognosis (24).

1.2.1.1 Carcinoma in situ

Ductal carcinoma *in situ* (DCIS) is a non-invasive intraductal epithelial proliferation that do not infiltrate the basal membrane, hence the term "*in situ*" ("in place"), and is often considered a pre-malignant lesion of the breast (22). The epithelial cells are characterized by cellular and nuclear atypia such as increase in nuclear-cytoplasmic ratio and hyperchromasia (an increase in chromatin content in the nuclei, and thereby increased staining capacity). Women with DCIS have an increased risk of local recurrence of DCIS after resection, and an increased risk of developing invasive breast cancer (25). Lobular carcinoma *in situ* (LCIS) describes an intralobular proliferation of epithelial cells that do not infiltrate the basal membrane. These cells are often small, uniform and loosely cohesive. There are rarely atypical changes like nuclear pleomorphism and/or necrosis like in DCIS (22). The lobular architecture is usually intact, and mitoses are rarely observed. Women with LCIS also have an increased risk of developing invasive breast cancer (26).

1.2.1.2 Invasive carcinoma

No special type (NST) is the most common form of breast cancer and constitutes about 55 % of the incidence of newly diagnosed breast cancer (22), and 80 % of all infiltrative breast cancers (25). NST consists of malignant ductal cells that have broken through the basal membrane and invaded the surrounding tissue and can develop both with and without previous DCIS. The morphology of NST is highly variable, and the tumor can be of varying size. The tumor often shows diffuse sheets of nests of cells and variable degrees of differentiation. Breast cancer that stems from the mammary ducts can also be divided into other different subclasses based on a wide range of criteria (22, 25). Tubular carcinoma is another rare subgroup of breast cancer that is well differentiated. This subgroup is characterized by proliferation of oval elongated tubules with an open lumen. This subgroup

usually has a good prognosis and rarely metastasizes. Invasive cribriform carcinoma is another rare subgroup of ductal cancer that is often associated with a good prognosis and is characterized morphologically by islands of uniform tumor cells. These cells present little morphological atypia and there is no clear invasion of surrounding tissue. Invasive cribriform carcinoma can in some cases be difficult to separate from DCIS, and immunohistochemical staining for myoepithelial cells is necessary. Mucinous carcinomas are tumors that typically consist of small clusters of uniform epithelial cells with mild atypia. These cells secrete mucus. Medullary carcinoma are tumors consisting of poorly differentiated cells with pushing borders. These tumors are associated with prominent lymphoid infiltration, and are associated with good prognosis. In addition to these subgroups there are numerous of very rare subgroups of ductal cancer, like invasive papillary and micropapillary carcinoma, apocrine carcinoma, neuroendocrine carcinoma and metaplastic carcinoma (22, 26).

Invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC) represents 5 to 15 % of all invasive breast tumors. ILC is characterized by small, round, uniform and non-cohesive cells. There are usually only small amounts of cytoplasm. These cells usually infiltrate the stroma in a single-file matter. ILC usually affects older women than NST. ILC can be further divided into subgroups. The most common subgroup of ILC is called "classic type" and is characterized by small uniform cells singly distributed in the stroma, without glandular differentiation. Whether or not the prognosis of ILC is better or worse than NST is not yet determined (22, 26). These carcinomas usually present diffuse infiltration and are often found to be larger than first expected from mammographic imaging and clinical examination and have a tendency to be multifocal.

1.2.2 Immunohistochemical classification

Immunohistochemistry (IHC) is a method used in histopathological diagnostics where antibodies are used to mark and visualize specific molecules/antigens. In the case of breast cancer IHC is routinely used to test for specific receptors. Tissue is harvested and prepared through a process of formalin-fixation, paraffin embedding, sectioning of the tissue blocks, de-paraffinization and blocking of specific and non-specific sites to prevent false positive detection. The stains used can either be chromogenic or fluorescent, and the antigen-detection can be either direct, where the primary antibodies is conjugated to a chromogen or fluorophore, or indirect, where a secondary antibody conjugated to a reporter dye is used (27, 28).

Breast cancer tumor cells are routinely tested for expression of ER, PR and HER2 with IHC in the diagnostic process of breast cancer. Breast tumors are divided into subgroups based on their expression of these receptor proteins; (ER+, PR+) HER2+, which are tumors with either ER or PR positivity and HER2 positivity, (ER+, PR+) HER2-, which are tumors with either ER or PR positivity and HER2 negativity, ER-,PR-, HER2-, which are triple-negative tumors, and ER-, PR-, HER2+, which are tumors with ER and PR negativity and HER2 positivity (29).

The receptor status of the breast cancer has important prognostic and predictive value. The subgroups have different prognosis, as hormone-receptor positive breast cancer tends to grow more slowly, and triple negative breast cancer tend to be more aggressive and spread faster. Further, receptor status also guides targeted treatment, and hormone-receptor positive breast cancer allows for more treatment options. ER-positive breast cancer can be treated with estrogen-receptor blocker or aromatase inhibitors (30, 31), while triple-negative breast cancer does not allow for targeted endocrine treatment.

1.2.3 TNM classification

Tumor Nodal Metastasis (TNM)is the most widely used system for classification of cancer in the world. The TNM-classification is based on the size of the tumor (T), the number of lymph nodes involved (N) and the presence of metastases or not (M). The system used to day is the TNM7-classification (32). Each of these main variables (T, N and M) is further divided into subgroups. T is divided into Tmi, T1, T2, T3 and T4 depending on the size of the main tumor, N is divided into Nx, N1, N2 and N3 depending on the number of lymph nodes that present with metastases, and M is divided into M0 and M1 depending on whether there are distant metastases or not (33). For example, a patient that presents with a primary tumor of 1.5 cm (T1c), has metastasis in 4 lymph nodes in the armpit (N2a), and has no sign of distant metastasis (M0), has a T1cN2aM0 breast cancer, corresponding to a stage IIIA cancer.

1.2.4 Molecular classification

The development of gene technology and microarrays has enabled analyzes of genes of the cells, and gene expression profiling (GEP) has made it possible to evaluate breast cancer prognosis based on gene expression of the cancer cells (20). In 2000 Perou et al. proposed the existence of four molecular-genetic subgroups of breast cancer through high profile molecular

profiling studies of tumor cells; luminal, basal-like, normal breast-like and HER2-enriched breast cancer. These groups were distinguished by differences in their gene expression pattern (34). In a follow-up study in 2001 by Sorlie et al. six intrinsic subgroups of breast cancer were identified (35). Today we classify breast cancer into the 4 intrinsic subgroups luminal A, luminal B, basal-like and HER2-positive. These subgroups have been shown to correspond well with the histopathological classification and receptor-expression measurements of breast cancer, with for example the luminal A usually being ER and PR positive and HER2 negative with a low Ki67, while the HER2-enriched subgroup usually is ER and PR negative and HER2 positive with a high Ki67 (36). Since Perou et al. published their work in 2000 there have been many gene-expression profiling studies on breast cancer, many of them targeted at gaining the ability to better identify patients who will, and will not, benefit from chemotherapy and endocrine therapy (37).

Recent studies have also shown epigenetic modifications, such as DNA methylation in cancer cells, and compared this to the gene expression to investigate the role of the methylation in the prognosis of the patient (38). Gene expression data appears to be superior to e.g. DNA-methylation data for breast cancer subtype classification, but DNA-methylation models may provide addition candidate genes for complementing existing therapy.

1.2.5 Breast cancer classification today

Today, breast cancer patient management still rely on pathology assessment (histologic type, histologic grade and ER/PR/HER2-status) supplemented with a few validated assays testing for biomarkers, even though more clinically relevant intrinsic subtypes are being identified (20, 22). The usefulness of current methods for classification of breast cancer into the intrinsic molecular subtypes (luminal A, luminal B, HER2 and basal-like) were evaluated by a panel of breast cancer and gene expression profiling experts through the 2012 IMPACT task force. The panel concluded that the classification based on ER, PR, HER2 and Ki67 through IHC is not sufficient to modify systemic treatment decisions alone, but the panel still recommends using IHC for ER and HER2 for identification of clinically relevant subgroups of breast cancer as a part of the diagnostic and prognostic evaluation of the disease (39).

There are several limitations with the clinicopathological classification system used today. Nodal status is one of the main deciding factors for using chemotherapy, and women with breast cancer, particularly women with hormone receptor positive, HER2-negative breast

cancer, is at risk of overtreatment. It is important to develop test that objectively stratify patients into risk category. This way treatment can be tailored based on the individual patient prognosis, and not on a standard treatment regimen based on the nodal status of the patient (40).

1.3 Prognostic factors in breast cancer

Prognostic factors estimate clinical outcome and risk of tumor relapse independent of treatment, and help making the decision of which patients are candidates for adjuvant treatment. Predictive factors estimate the likelihood of response to specific treatments, and help making the decision of which type of treatment the patient should be given (41, 42).

There are a lot of different prognostic factors, but the prognostic value of each individual factor varies greatly. Age is observed to be an independent prognostic factor in most types of cancer, and in breast cancer younger age is considered to be unfavorable to the prognosis. Lower age at disease-onset is shown to correlate with higher TNM-stage, high grade tumors, hormone-receptor negativity and HER2-overexpression (43, 44).

Tumor size is another important independent prognostic factor, and larger size of the tumor indicates worse prognosis. Tumors larger than 2 cm are considered intermediate/high-risk cancers, while patients with a tumor <1 cm are reported to have close to 100 % 5-year survival (45). Nodal status is considered to be the most important independent prognostic factor in breast cancer. Studies have found that local lymph node status is a significant predictor for tumor recurrence, distant metastasis and overall survival. Tumor grade is also used to determine the patient's prognosis, and studies have shown that patients with grade 1 tumors have significantly better survival than those with grade 2 and 3 lesions (41, 45).

HER2 status has also been used to determine the patients' prognosis, and studies have generally found that patients with overexpression of HER2 have a worse prognosis. Some studies have shown that patient with HER2 overexpression have twice the mortality rate of women without detectable HER2. ER and PR have also been associated with the patients' prognosis, where high expression of especially ER is associated with a better prognosis (41, 45-47). The fact that some studies have found a better response to hormonal therapy in ER+ patient with the presence of PR indicates a prognostic factor for PR expression as well (42). Measurement of Ki67, a cell proliferation marker, is widely used in many countries to

determine the prognosis of the breast cancer patient, but the use of this marker is controversial, and the results of studies of Ki67 are conflicting. Some studies though conclude that post-chemotherapy Ki67 is a strong predictor for clinical outcome for the patient (47). Some expert panels suggest that Ki67 can be used in combination with other established prognostic factors, while other expert panels are against the use of Ki67 (45).

Today the most widely used prognostic markers are lymph node status, tumor size, tumor grade, and peritumoural lymphovascular invasion (41, 45, 46). These markers also have important predictive value together with hormone receptor status. Lymph node metastases, large tumor size, high tumor grade and infiltrative growth indicates poorer prognosis, and also indicates the need for more aggressive treatment with cytotoxic chemotherapy. For example, in Norway, all patients with lymph node stage 1 to 3 are candidates for systemic treatment with chemotherapeutic drugs. Also, the presence of hotspot Ki67 > 30 % in the tumor tissue provides basis for adjuvant chemotherapeutic treatment. Hormone receptor status also have an important predictive value. Today, endocrine treatment is the main treatment for ER- and PR-positive breast cancer patients. ER-antagonists and aromatase inhibitors are the two main treatment options for ER-positive patients. Also, targeted therapy with the monoclonal antibody against HER2 has greatly increased the prognosis in HER2-positive breast cancer patients, and studies shows up to 50 % reduction in risk of relapse (48).

1.4 Economics of breast cancer

In 2018 approximately 360 billion Norwegian Kroner (NOK) were spent on health in Norway, approximately 10,18 % of the gross domestic product (GDP) (49), a rise from 342 billion NOK in 2017 (50). The total yearly cost of cancer in the Norwegian society is around 40 billion NOK, where 17,5 billion NOK goes to the health care sector and 18 billion comes from lost earnings from the patients. If one includes Years of Life Lost (YLL) the estimated economic burden of cancer in Norway is 100 billion NOK per year (51). The total health costs of breast cancer is estimated to be approximately 1,7 billion NOK, making it the second most expensive form of cancer in Norway, only exceeded by colorectal cancer which has a total health cost of around 2 billion NOK (52).

In 2018 the European average expenditure on health, as well as the expenditure of UK, was 9,6 % of GDP, while Germany used 11,3 % (53) and 17.1 % were used in the USA (49). The estimated total cost of cancer in the USA is estimated to be more than 180 billion United States Dollar (USD) and in 2010 the total cost of treating breast cancer was 16.5 billion USD

(54). The total estimated cost of cancer in the UK is estimated to be 18.3 billion Great British Pounds (GBP) (55).

1.5 Molecular-genetic profiling

As mentioned earlier it is possible to analyze the genes of cancer cells through GEP and been able to evaluate breast cancer prognosis based on their gene expression. Different genetic signatures of breast cancer have been obtained through DNA microarray technology, RNA sequencing and bioinformatic models. Some of these signatures have been validated through clinical studies and been translated into commercial prognostic assays. These tests can stratify patients into different risk categories based on their expression of specific gene signatures and can help guide treatment together with other clinco-pathological factors such as lymph-node status (56). Four such commercial prognostic assays are Oncotype DX, MammaPrint, EndoPredict and PAM50-ROR.

1.5.1 MammaPrint

The Amsterdam 70-gene profile is a prognostic gene signature identified by the Netherlands Cancer Institute. This gene signature was developed through analysis of 78 frozen, nodenegative breast cancer tumors in women younger than 55 years. Through comparisons in this cohort, the research group ended up with 70 genes to predict clinical outcome. This prognostic profile has since then been validated in other studies, for example MINDACT (36), and is now available for commercial use as MammaPrint to predict the risk of distant metastasis in T1-2 N0-1, ER-positive/negative and HER2-positive/negative, and to select patients who would benefit from chemotherapy (57, 58). MammaPrint is a microarray prognostic score which measures the mRNA expression of the 70 genes included in the profile in frozen tissue and stratifies the patients' score into a low-risk or a high-risk group (59). Patients with low genomic risk are unlikely to develop distant metastasis and are therefore unlikely to benefit from adjuvant chemotherapy, while high-risk groups most likely will benefit from adjuvant chemotherapy. This test requires either formalin-fixed paraffinembedded (FFPE) tissue for clinical purpose, or fresh specimens usually for research purpose. All the tests are analyzed in central laboratories in Netherlands and USA (60).

1.5.2 Oncotype DX

The 21-gene recurrence score is a gene-assay test commercially known as Oncotype DX. This test is a RT-PCR-based signature that measures 21 genes. It was developed through the evaluation of 250 genes which correlates to recurrence. Oncotype DX can be used on FFPE tissue samples and gives a score on a scale from 0 to 100, where <18 is defined as low risk, 18-30 as intermediate risk and >30 as high risk of recurrence. The tissue has to be sent to a clinical reference laboratory of Genomic Health, Inc. in Redwood, California in USA, to be analyzed. Oncotype DX can be used to measure the risk of recurrence in women with nodenegative, hormone receptor positive breast cancer or with DCIS, and it can be used to identify who would benefit from chemotherapy and/or endocrine therapy. In women with breast cancer with intermediate or high risk of recurrence, the benefits of chemotherapy will likely outweigh the risks of side effects, and in women with high risk of recurrence DCIS the benefits of radiotherapy will likely outweigh the risks of side effects. The test has been validated in many studies, for example TAILORx, and is one of the most used prognostic gene-signature tests in clinical practice (36, 37, 57-59, 61-64).

1.5.3 Prosigna

PAM50-ROR (Prosigna) is a RT-PCR test used on FFPE tissue. It measures the risk of recurrence by using the 50-gene profile from PAM50 classifier, which was originally designed to be a tool to classify the intrinsic subgroups of breast cancer. The score is reported on a scale from 0 to 100, and the patients are divided into low, intermediate or high risk. This test is used to measure the probability of recurrence in hormone receptor positive, early-stage breast cancer patients with 0 to 3 positive nodes. PAM50-ROR has been validated in several studies (36, 37, 59). Prosigna can be used on FFPE-tissue, and is analyzed in specialized molecular pathology laboratories, and is used to guide treatment. These tests may be performed locally, given the laboratories have the right specialized equipment. The test measures the risk of recurrence from 5 to 10 years after being diagnosed with breast cancer in postmenopausal women, after 5 years of therapy. Node-negative cancers are classified as low (risk score 0-40), intermediate (41-60) and high-risk (61-100). Node-positive cancer are classified as low (0-40) or high (41-100) (65, 66). This test has shown to be prognostic for ER-positive, post-menopausal women treated with endocrine therapy alone, and to be both prognostic and predictive of endocrine therapy in pre-menopausal women treated with

adjuvant endocrine therapy. High risk patients have a higher risk of metastasis and may have more benefit for adjuvant treatment (67).

1.5.4 EndoPredict

EndoPredict is a RT-PCR-based assay that measures the RNA of 12 genes, 8 cancer genes and 3 housekeeping genes and 1 control gene. It is used to measure the risk of recurrence in estrogen receptor positive, HER2 receptor negative and node-negative breast cancer patient treated with adjuvant endocrine therapy alone. The prognostic value of EndoPredict has been validated in several studies. EndoPredict stratifies the patient score into two groups; a low risk and a high-risk group. This score is usually combined with other prognostic factors, such as tumor size and node-status, to compute a more comprehensive score, named EPclin (36, 37, 59). This assay can be performed on FFPE-tissue, and can be analyzed in diagnostic molecular pathology laboratories that has established the EndoPredict assay in their routine diagnostics (68). The EPclin score is used to predict the 10-year distant recurrence (DR) rate and is further used to guide treatment decision. High risk patients are more eligible for adjuvant chemotherapy (69). The EPclin Risk Score is given as a number between 1.1 and 6.2, that indicates the risk of recurrence, and the score is separated in two one out of two groups; low-risk score and high-risk score. An EPclin score > 3.3287 indicates high risk of recurrence, > 10%. A score < 3.3287 indicates low risk of recurrence, < 10 %. The EPclinscore is illustrated on a curve (70).

1.6 Aims of the thesis

In this literature review I have looked at the four prognostic gene-signature tests

MammaPrint, Oncogene DX, PAM50-ROR and EndoPredict. Through the literature analysis

I have looked at the advantages and the limitations of each of these tests, with focus on 2

main aspects, and presented a brief overview:

1. Prognostic information – What are the advantages of molecular-genetic prognostic tests in breast cancer for the individual patient and for the health-care providers? Do they provide any prognostic information outside of the standard classification of breast cancer?

2. Economics – Are there conducted any studies on the cost-effectiveness of the use of these gene-signature tests? Are the tests affordable, and can they be implemented in routine practice, or are they too expensive?

2 Methods

2.1 Data source and search strategy

A systematic literature search was performed to assess the prognostic and economic aspects of molecular-genetic profiling of female breast cancer patients. To perform the literature search I followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA). The literature search was conducted May 13. 2020 in Medline and EMbase using the search engine Ovid. The search consisted of a combination of Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) terms and Emtree terms, and highly relevant terms from keywords, title and abstract. The search terms were allocated in three groups: 1. Breast cancer; 2. Molecular-genetic tests; 3. Outcome. The different search terms within each group were combined with "OR", and the categories were combined with "AND". The reference list of the included articles from the literature search were also screened for relevant articles. Figure 3 shows the search terms included in this thesis.

2.2 Selection criteria

The inclusion criteria of this literature review were based on the PICOS-framework: (i) population: Human breast cancer patients; (ii) intervention: either of the molecular genetic tests: MammaPrint, Oncotype DX, Prosigna or EndoPredict; (iii) comparison: not relevant in this thesis; (iv) outcome: direct health care costs of the use, or the prognostic value, of at least one of the molecular genetic tests; (v) study design: costing studies or prognostic studies. Furthermore, the studies had to be human studies, be of English language, full-text and published from year 2016 to present to be included in the search.

I excluded any studies with the following characteristics: studies involving male subjects, studies involving CIS and not invasive carcinoma, non-scientific studies, reviews, studies were there were no full-text article available, and studies with topics irrelevant to this thesis.

2.3 Literature search and data extraction

Through the literature search a total of 290 records were found, 136 in Medline and 154 in Embase. The records were exported to EndNote X9. Here further steps in the selection procedure were carried out. 35 duplicates were identified and removed, and 255 records were

screened in the title and abstract for eligibility. After screening the title and the abstracts, 221 records were excluded due to not matching the inclusion criteria, or due to matching one or more of the exclusion criteria presented in this thesis. The 34 remaining articles were analyzed full text. After reviewing the articles, five articles were chosen as eligible based on the inclusion criteria and included in this thesis. The process of the literature search and data extraction is shown in figure 4.

2.4 Data analysis

Relevant data from the five selected articles included in the thesis were extracted from EndNote X9 to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The excel spreadsheet included author name, journal name, study design, study population, results and conclusion. The results from the articles were divided in prognostic information and/or health costs information. Findings from the prognostic studies were considered significant if the corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CI) for their risk estimates (i.e. odds ratio (OR), hazard ratio (HR) or relative risk (RR)) did not include a point estimate of 1.00, and p-values were less than 0.05.

2.5 GRADE

The GRADE-guidelines (Grades of Recommendation, Assessment, Development and Evaluation) is a method created for appraising controlled studies and make recommendations for systematic reviews and guidelines. The method is used to assess the quality of evidence in controlled studies. This system classifies research articles into four different ranks; Very low, Low, Moderate and High, based on the study design, risk of bias and the size of the effect among other things (71). In this review I have evaluated the five articles from the literature search for quality of evidence, based on the GRADE-method. The GRADE-tables are listed in the end of this thesis.

3 Results

Five articles out of the 290 articles identified in the systematic literature search were included in this thesis. All of the articles were cohort studies, three retrospective cohort studies (72-74), one prospective cohort study (75), and one hypothetical cohort study/modeling study (76). All of the studies were prognostic studies except for the hypothetical cohort study which was an economic study. A complete list of all the studies included in this thesis, including their results, is shown in Table 1. The risk estimate and specific effect size of the prognostic studies is not mentioned in the text but is shown in Table 1. The risk estimates and effect size of the

economic study is discussed in the text. Through the systematic literature search only studies focusing on Oncotype DX were identified. No studies researching MammaPrint, EndoPredict or PAM50-ROR were included in the thesis due to either not fulfilling the inclusion criteria or having one or more exclusion criteria. Many of the studies involving MammaPrint, EndoPredict or PAM50-ROR first identified in the initial search were predictive studies, not prognostic studies. Many were also correlational studies, and not looking at specific endpoints.

3.1 Oncotype DX

All five of the articles selected from the systematic literature search studied Oncotype DX (72-76). All of the prognostic studies found that the Oncotype DX recurrence score (RS) were significantly associated with prognosis, although the studies had different endpoints. All of the studies found that high RS reduced the prognosis. The study by Turashvili et al. (72) found that the risk of locoregional recurrence (LRR) increased more than 4-fold in high RS patients compared to low RS patients. All of the prognostic studies evaluated ER-positive and HER2 negative breast cancer, except for Kizy et al.(73), where they studied the impact of Oncotype DX RS on ILC. Since ILC is mostly HER2-negative they only assume the patients are HER2-negative and did not include HER2 status in the analysis. Kizy et al. is also the only article that studies the impact of Oncotype DX RS on ILC, and found that a high-risk RS is independently associated with increased hazard of death when compared with low-risk RS. Turashvili et al. (72) was the only article that excluded lymph node-positive breast cancer, while the other articles either included pN₀₋₁- or pN₁ breast cancer. None of the articles included breast cancer with distant metastasis.

One article conducted a risk-group specific cost-effectiveness analysis of adjuvant chemotherapy accounting for companion prognostic tests Oncotype DX and Adjuvant!Online (AO) (76). Here they applied a computer simulation model and conducted a hypothetical cohort study of 100000 50-year-old women diagnosed with ER- and/or PR-positive, HER2-negative and lymph node-negative breast cancer. Their outcome of interest included quality-adjusted-life years (QUALY) and number of life years (LY). They also measured incremental cost-effectiveness ratios (ICER; EUR/QUALY). The research group compared their results to a Canadian study conducted by Paulden et al. (77) in a cross-country comparison. They found that in the high-risk RS group, chemotherapy seemed to be clearly cost-effective because of

the gain of additional QUALY at a low cost and found an ICER less than 3500 EUR/QUALY. Chemotherapy was also cost-effective in the RS-group and AO group.

3.2 MammaPrint, Prosigna and EndoPredict

None of the studies included in this systematic literature review studied MammaPrint, Prosigna or EndoPredict. Many of the articles in the initial search focused on these three molecular-genetic profiling tests, but these studies were excluded from the review due to being predictive studies, correlational studies or including male breast cancer. Many of the studies from the initial search investigated the prognostic value of the PAM50 intrinsic subgroups, but not the PAM50-ROR. For this reason, I am not able to evaluate the prognostic or economic aspects of MammaPrint, Prosigna or PAM50 in this thesis.

4 Discussion

In this systematic review, the goal was to evaluate the prognostic and economic impact of the four well known genomic profiles Oncotype DX, MammaPrint, Prosigna and EndoPredict. Only five studies focusing on Oncotype DX fulfilled the inclusion criteria and were included in this thesis. Four of these articles were prognostic studies, and all of them found that Oncotype DX RS is significantly associated with survival outcome in breast cancer, and the RS result provided an independent value in staging of breast cancer. All of the studies showed that a high RS is significantly associated with higher risk of LRR and mortality, while low RS is significantly associated with higher breast cancer-specific survival (BCSS), disease-free survival (DFS) and overall survival (OS).

One article studied the cost effectiveness of the use of Oncotype DX and compared it with AO and found that in intermediate and high-risk RS-groups chemotherapy was effective and potentially cost effective. This is similar to the findings of Blok et al. (78). Blok et al conducted a systematic literature review on the clinical and economical value of gene the expression profiles Oncotype DX, MammaPrint, EndoPredict and Prosigna, and found that most evaluations estimated that genomic testing is cost-effective, with costs that are acceptable in relation to patient outcome.

With regard to MammaPrint, EndoPredict and Prosigna, this systematic review found no studies eligible for inclusion. This is commonly known as "empty review", and the issues of empty reviews was introduced to the literature by Lang et al. in 2007 (79), and proposed that the authors of empty reviews should note observations from ineligible studies that were

found. This may be problematic, as noted by Green et al. (80), since conclusions based upon studies which do not meet inclusion criteria specified in the review protocol increases the risk of bias and may be misleading. Both Lang et al. and Green et al. outline the benefits and importance of publishing empty reviews as they tell us who is undertaking the reviews and thus who is interested in the topic. Further, they highlight major research gaps, indicate the current state of research evidence and they play an important role in highlighting areas requiring further research.

4.1 Limitations

This thesis has several limitations. First, even though the systematic literature search also included MammaPrint, Prosigna and Endopredict, only studies focusing on Oncotype DX were included in the thesis. There may be several reasons for this. First, the research question we propose may be too specific with overly strict methodological criteria. This secures more relevant articles and higher quality evidence but may result in many articles of interest not being included in the search. Also, MammaPrint, Prosigna and EndoPredict are relatively new tests compared to Oncotype DX, which have already been validated in many studies.

Second, the definition of tumor subtypes varies across the included studies. All of the included studies evaluate the prognostic value of Oncotype DX RS in ER-positive breast cancer, but the TNM-classification and tumor grade vary across the studies. Also, the accepted clinicopathological definition elaborated by the St. Gallen International Breast Cancer Conference Expert Panel recommended implementing Ki67 to the subtype definition (81). Even though this thesis did not aim to evaluate the relation between the molecular-genetic assays and Ki67, one of the included studies did evaluate the impact of RS on DFS within Ki67 subgroups and found a significant correlation.

Third, this thesis only includes one economic study on the cost-effectiveness of Oncotype DX, performed in Austria. This study showed the cost-effectiveness of Oncotype DX in intermediate and high-risk RS groups, and the possible value of implementation of Oncotype DX in the decision making of possible adjuvant chemotherapy. These results are based on Austrian economy and health care system and is not directly transferable to other countries. However, their results were comparable to a Canadian study (77).

4.2 Implications

In this thesis we have disclosed the prognostic and economic value of Oncotype DX in breast cancer. Given the high mortality in late-stage breast cancer and high morbidity associated with adjuvant chemotherapy, it is important to identify which patients are at high risk and which patients are at low risk of advanced disease. Oncotype DX may be able to assist in differentiating between high risk and low risk patients, and who will benefit from adjuvant treatment.

5 Conclusion

The findings of this thesis suggest that Oncotype DX have an independent prognostic significance and is significantly associated with survival and risk of recurrence and may be used to help guide treatment. Studies also show that Oncotype DX may be a cost effective alternative when used to guide adjuvant chemotherapy treatment. This thesis is in agreement with a growing amount of research suggesting that molecular genetic profiling tests have a distinct prognostic value. No information is available from the current systematic literature search regarding the prognostic and economic aspects of MammaPrint, Prosigna and EndoPredict.

6 References

- 1. Colditz G. Breast Cancer Epidemiology and Risk Factors Medcape2015 [updated Dec 26, 2019; cited 2020 May 14.]. Available from: https://emedicine.medscape.com/article/1697353-overview.
- 2. Torre L, Islami F, Siegel R, Ward E, Jemal A. Global Cancer in Women: Burden and Trends. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkes Prev. 2017;26(4):444-57.
- 3. The Norwegian Directorate of Health. National action program with guidelines for diagnostics, treatment and follow-up of patients with breast cancer, 2019. 2019 [cited 2020 May 14.].
- 4. Cancer Registry of Norway. Cancer in Norway 2018 Cancer incidence, mortality, survival, and prevalence in Norway. Oslo; 2019.
- 5. Kay TJ, Verkasalo PK, Banks E. Epidemiology of breast cancer. The Lancet. 2001;2(3):133-40.
- 6. Cancer Research UK. Breast cancer statistics. Cancer Research UK [cited 2020 May 14.]. Available from: https://www.cancerresearchuk.org/health-professional/cancer-statistics/statistics-by-cancer-type/breast-cancer#heading-Zero.
- 7. WHO. Fact sheet Cancer: WHO; 2018. [cited 2020 May 14]. Available from: https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/cancer.
- 8. Breastcancer.org. Breast Cancer Risk Factors. Breastcancer.org. [cited 2020 May 14]. Available from: https://www.breastcancer.org/risk/factors.
- 9. Saika K, Sobue T. Epidemiology of breast cancer in Japan and the US. JMAJ. 2009;52(1):39-44.
- 10. Scowcroft H. Why are breast cancer rates increasing?. Cancer Research UK; 2011 [cited 2020 May 14.]. Available from: https://scienceblog.cancerresearchuk.org/2011/02/04/why-are-breast-cancer-rates-increasing/.
- 11. The Division of Society and Health. Research-based evaluation of the Norwegian Breast Cancer Screening Program. The Research Council of Norway. Lysaker; 2015.
- 12. Skaar KM. Overvurderer evne til å få barn i høy alder. Forskning.no: Kjønnsforskning.no; 2014 [cited 2020 May 14.].
- 13. Matthews TJ, Hammilton BE. Mean Age Mothers is on the Rise: United States, 2000-2014. NCHS data brief. 2016(232).
- 14. Holford TR, Cronin KA, Mariotto AB, Feuer EJ. Changing Patterns in Breast Cancer Incidence Trends. Journal of the National Cancer Institute Monograms. 2006(36).
- 15. Colaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer. Menarche, menopause, and breast cancer risk individual participant meta-analysis, including 118 964 women with breast cancer from 117 epidemiological studies. Lancet Oncol. 2012;13(11):1141-51.

- 16. Biro FM, Greenspan LC, Galvez MP. Onset of breast development in a longitudinal cohort. Pediatrics. 2013;132(6):1019-27.
- 17. Teilmann G, Pedersen CB, Skakkebaek NE, Jensen TK. Increased risk of precocious puberty in internationally adopted children in Denmark. Pediatrics. 2006;118(2):391-9.
- 18. Aksglaede L, Juul A, Olsen LW, Sørensen TI. Age at puberty and the emerging obesity epidemic. PLoS ONE. 2009;4(12):e8450.
- 19. Viale G. The current state of breast cancer classification. Annals of Oncology. 2012;23(10):107-210.
- 20. Dai X, Li T, Bai Z, Yang Y, Liu X, Zhan J, et al. Breast cancer instrinsic subtype classification, clinical use and future trends. Am J Cancer Res. 2015;5(10):2929-43.
- 21. Malhotra GK, Zhao X, Band H, Band V. Histological, molecular and functional subtypes of breast cancer. Cancer Biol Ther. 2010;10(10):955-60.
- 22. Makki J. Diversity of Breast Carcinoma: Histological Subtypes and Clinical Relevance. Clinical Medicine Insights: Pathology. 2015;8:23-31.
- 23. Rakha EA, Reis-Filho JS, Baehner F. Breast cancer prognostic classification in the molecular era: the role of histological grade. Breast cancer research. 2010;12:207.
- 24. Pathology JH. Overview of histologic grade: Nottingham Histologic Score ("Elston Grade"): Johns Hopkins Medicine; [cited 2020 May 14.]. Available from: https://pathology.jhu.edu/breast/staging-grade/.
- 25. Bøhler PJ. Histology of Breast Cancer: Oncolex; 2014 [cited 2020 May 14]. Available from: http://oncolex.org/Breast-cancer/Background/Histology.
- 26. Tse G, Tan PH, Schmitt F. Basic Histopathology of Breast Lesions. Fine Needle Aspiration Cytology of the Breast. Berlin: Springer; 2013.
- 27. Cell SignalingTechnology. What Is Immunohistochemistry (IHC) Staining?: Cell Signaling Technologies; [cited 2020 May 15.]. Available from: https://www.cellsignal.com/contents/research/what-is-immunohistochemistry-(ihc)-staining/what-is-ihc-staining.
- 28. ThermoFisher Scientific. Overview of Immunohistochemistry (IHC): ThermoFisher Scientific; [cited 2020 May 15.]. Available from: https://www.thermofisher.com/no/en/home/life-science/protein-biology/protein-biology-learning-center/protein-biology-resource-library/pierce-protein-methods/overview-immunohistochemistry.html.
- 29. Dai X, Xiang L, Li T, Bai Z. Cancer Hallmarks, Biomarkers and Breast Cancer Molecular Subtypes. Journal of Cancer. 2016;7(10):1281-94.
- 30. The American Cancer Society. Breast Cancer Hormone Receptor Status: American Cancer Society; 2019 [cited 2020 august 10.].
- 31. Bulut N, Altundag K. Does estrogen receptor determination affect prognosis in early stage breast cancers? Int J Clin Exp Med. 2015;8(11):21454-9.

- 32. Cserni G. The current TNM classification of breast carcinomas: Controversial issues in early breast cancer. Memo. 2011;4:144-8.
- 33. Cancer Research UK. TNM-staging: Cancer Reaserch UK; [cited 2020 May 14.]. Available from: https://www.cancerresearchuk.org/about-cancer/breast-cancer/stages-types-grades/tnm-staging.
- 34. Perou C, Sorlie T, Eisen M, Van der Rijn M, Jeffrey S, Rees C. Molecular portraits of human breast tumours. Nature. 2000;406:747-52.
- 35. Sorlie T, Perou C, Tibshirani R, Aas T, Geisler S, Johnsen H. Gene expression patterns of breast carcinomas distinguish tumor subclasses with clinical implication. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2001;98(19).
- 36. Kos Z, Dabbs D. Biomarkers assessment and molecular testing for prognostification in breast cance. Histopathology. 2016;68:70-85.
- 37. Guler N. Gene Expression Profiling in Breast Cancer and Its Effect on Therapy Selection in Early-Stage Breast Cancer. Eur J Breast Health. 2017;13:168-74.
- 38. List M, Hauschild A, Tan Q, Kruse TA, Mollenhauer J, Baumbach J, et al. Classificatin of Breast Cancer Subtypes by combining Gene Expression and DNA Methylation Data. Journal of investigative Bioinformatics. 2014;11(2):236.
- 39. Guiu S, Michiels F, André F, Cortes J, Denkert C, Di Leo A, et al. Molecular subclasses of breast cancer: how we define them? The IMPACT 2012 Working Group Statement. Annals of Oncology. 2012;23:2997-3006.
- 40. Kittaneh M, Montero A, Glück S. Molecular Profiling for Breast Cancer: A Comprehensive Review. Biomarkers Cancer. 2013;5:61-70.
- 41. Biganzoli L. Prognostic and Predictive Factors. In: Castiglione M, Piccart M, editors. Adjuvant Therapy for Breast cancer. 151. Boston: Springer; 2009.
- 42. Weigel MT, Dowsett M. Current and emerging biomarkers in breast cancer: prognosis and prediction. Endocr Relat Cancer. 2010;17:245-62.
- 43. Assi H, Khoury K, Dbouk H, Khalil L, Mouhieddine T, El-Saghir N. Epidemiology and prognosis of breast cancer in young women. J Thorac Dis. 2013;5(1):2-8.
- 44. Kataoka A, Iwamoto T, Tokunaga E, Tomotaki A, Kumamaru H, Miyata H, et al. Young adult breast cancer patients have a poor prognosis independent of prognostic clinicopathological factors a study from the Japanese Breast Cancer Registry. Breast Cancer Res Treat. 2016;160:163-72.
- 45. Nicolini A, Ferrari P, Duffy MJ. Prognostic and Predictive Biomarkers in Breast Cancer: Past, Present and Future. Semin Cancer Biol. 2018;52(1):56-73.
- 46. Stickeler E. Prognostic and Predictive Markers for Treatment Decisions in Early Breast Cancer. Breast Care (Basel). 2011;6:193-8.
- 47. Taneja P, Maglic D, Kai F, Zhu S, Kendig RD, Fry EA, et al. Classical and Novel Prognostic Markers for Breast Cancer and their Clinical Significance. Clin Med Insights Oncol. 2010;4:14-34.

- 48. Oncolex. Adjuvant behandling ved brystkreft Oncolex: Oncolex; [updated 2014; cited 2020. Available from: http://oncolex.no/Bryst/Prosedyrekatalog/BEHANDLING/Medikamentell-behandling/Adjuvant-behandling-bryst?lg=procedure.
- 49. Statistics Norway. 68 000 per innbygger til helse: Statistics Norway 2019 [cited 2020 May 15.]. Available from: https://www.ssb.no/nasjonalregnskap-og-konjunkturer/artikler-og-publikasjoner/68-000-per-innbygger-til-helse.
- 50. Statistics Norway. 65 000 per innbygger til helse: Statistics Norway 2018 [cited 2020 May 15.]. Available from: https://www.ssb.no/nasjonalregnskap-og-konjunkturer/artikler-og-publikasjoner/65-000-per-innbygger-til-helse.
- 51. Bordvik M. Kreft koster 40 milliarder årlig Dagens Medisin2016 [cited 2020 May 15.]. Available from: https://www.dagensmedisin.no/artikler/2016/10/11/kreft-koster-40-milliarder/.
- 52. Bordvik M. Dette er de dyreste kreftformene: Dagens Medisin; 2016 [cited 2020 May 15.]. Available from: https://www.dagensmedisin.no/artikler/2016/10/11/dette-er-de-dyreste-kreftformene/.
- 53. OECD/EU. Health at a Glance: Europe 2018: State of Health in the EU Cycle. Paris; 2018.
- 54. Ryan S. The Cost of Breast Cancer in the U.S.: Costs of Care; 2015 [cited 2020 May 15.]. Available from: https://costsofcare.org/the-costs-of-breast-cancer-in-the-u-s/.
- 55. Department of Health and Social Care. 2010 to 2015 government policy: cancer research and treatment. In: Department of Health and Social Care, editor. www.gov.uk: Government of the United Kingdom; 2015.
- 56. Vieira AF, Schmitt F. An Update on Breast Cancer Multigene Prognostic Tests-Emergent Clinical Biomarkers. Front Med (Lausanne). 2018;5:248.
- 57. Cheang M, Van der Rijn M, Nielsen T. Gene Expression Profiling of Breast Cancer. Anu Rev Pathol Mech dis. 2008;3:67-97.
- 58. Bao T, Davidson N. Gene Expression Profiling of Breast Cancer. Advances in Surgery. 2008;42:249-60.
- 59. Gyorffy B, Hatzis C, Sanft T, Hofstatter E, Aktas B, Pusztai L. Multigene prognostic tests in breast cancer: past, present, future. Breast Cancer Research. 2015;17:11-7.
- 60. Mittempergher L, Delahaye LJMJ, Witteveen A, Spangler JB, Hassenmahomed F, Mee S, et al. MammaPrint and BluePrint Molecular Diagnostics Using Targeted RNA Next-Generation Sequencing Technology. Journal of Molecular Diagnostics. 2019;21(5):808-23.
- 61. Reis-Filho J, Pusztai L. Gene expression profiling in breast cancer: classification, prognostication, and prediction. Lancet. 2011;378:1812-23.
- 62. Breastcancer.org. Oncotype DX Test Breastcancer.org: Breastcancer.org; [updated July 2020; cited 2020 August 2020]. Available from:

 $\underline{https://www.breastcancer.org/symptoms/testing/types/oncotype_dx}.$

- 63. OncotypeIQ. About the Oncotype DX Breast Recurrence Score® Test OncotypeIQ: OncotypeIQ; [cited 2020 August 2020]. Available from: https://www.oncotypeiq.com/en-US/breast-cancer/healthcare-professionals/oncotype-dx-breast-recurrence-score/about-the-test.
- 64. McVeigh TP, Kerin MJ. Clinical use of the Oncotype DX genomic test to guide treatment decisions for patients with invasive breast cancer. Breast Cancer Target and Therapy. 2017;9:393-400.
- 65. Breastcancer.org. Prosigna Breast Cancer Prognostic Gene Signature Assay Breastcancer.org: Breastcancer.org; [updated July 1, 2020; cited 2020 august 2020]. Available from: https://www.breastcancer.org/symptoms/testing/types/prosigna.
- 66. NanoString. Overview NanoString: NanoString; [cited 2020 August 2020]. Available from: https://www.nanostring.com/diagnostics/prosigna-uk/overview.
- 67. Wallden B, Storhoff J, Nielsen T, Dowidar N, Schaper C, Ferree S, et al. Development and verification of the PAM50-based Prosigna breast cancer gene signature assay. BMC Med Genomics. 2015:8:54.
- 68. Müller BM, Keil E, Lehmann A, Winzer KJ, Richter-Ehrenstein C, Prinzler J, et al. The EndoPredict Gene-Expression Assay in Clinical Practice Performance and Impact on Clinical Decisions. PLoS ONE. 2013;8(6).
- 69. Myriad Genetics INC. EndoPredict Executive Summary Myriad Genetics INC: Myriad Genetics INC; [cited 2020 aug 24.]. Available from: https://myriad.com/managed-care/endopredict/.
- 70. Breastcancer.org. EndoPredict Test Breastcancer.org: Breastcancer.org; [updated July 1, 2020. Available from: https://www.breastcancer.org/symptoms/testing/types/endopredict-test.
- 71. Goldet G, Howick J. Understanding GRADE an inroduction. Journal of Evidence-Based Medicine. 2013:50-4.
- 72. Turashvili G, Chou JF, Brogi E, Morrow M, Dickler M, Norton L, et al. 21-Gene recurrence score and locoregional recurrence in lymph node-negative, estrogen receptor-positive breast cancer. Breast Cancer Res Treat. 2017;166(1):69-76.
- 73. Kizy S, Huang JL, Marmor S, Tuttle TM, Hui JYC. Impact of the 21-gene recurrence score on outcome in patients with invasive lobular carcinoma of the breast. Breast Cancer Res Treat. 2017;165(3):757-63.
- 74. Wang M, Wu K, Zhang P, Zhang M, Ding A, Chen H. The Prognostic Significance of the Oncotype DX Recurrence Score in T1-2 N1 M0 Estrogen Receptor-Positive HER2-Negative Breast Cancer Based on the Prognostic Stage in the Updated AJCC 8th Edition. Ann Surg Oncol. 2019;26(5):1227-35.
- 75. Nitz U, Gluz O, Christgen M, Kates RE, Clemens M, Malter W, et al. Reducing chemotherapy use in clinically high-risk, genomically low-risk pN0 and pN1 early breast cancer patients: five-year

- data from the prospective, randomised phase 3 West German Study Group (WSG) PlanB trial. Breast Cancer Res Treat. 2017;165(3):573-83.
- 76. Jahn B, Rochau U, Kurzthaler C, Hubalek M, Miksad R, Sroczynski G, et al. Personalized treatment of women with early breast cancer: a risk-group specific cost-effectiveness analysis of adjuvant chemotherapy accounting for companion prognostic tests OncotypeDX and Adjuvant!Online. BMC Cancer. 2017;17(1):685.
- 77. Paulden M, Fanek J, Pham B, Bedard P, Trudeau M, Khran M. Cost-effectiveness of the 21-gene assay for guiding adjuvant chemotherapy decisions in early breast cancer. Value in Health. 2013;16(5):729-39.
- 78. Blok EJ, Bastiaannet E, van den Hout WB, Liefers GJ, Smit VTHBM, Kroep JR, et al. Systematic review of the clinical and economic value of gene expression profiles for invasive early breast cancer available in Europe. Cancer Treat Rev. 2018;62:74-90.
- 79. Lang A, Edwards N, A. D. Empty systematic reviews: hidden perils and lessons learned. Journal of Clinical Epidemiology. 2007;60:595-7.
- 80. Green S, Higgins JPT, Schünemann HJ, Becker L. Response to paper by Lang A, Edwards N, and Fleiszer A. Journal of Clinical Epidemiology. 2007;60:598-9.
- 81. Goldhirsch A, Wood WC, Coates AS, Gelber RD, Thürlimann B, Senn HJ. Strategies for subtypes—dealing with the diversity of breast cancer: highlights of the St Gallen International Expert Consensus on the Primary Therapy of Early Breast Cancer 2011. Annals of Oncology. 2011;22:1736-47.

7 Figures and tables

Figure 1: The incidence of breast cancer in Norway by age, from 1980 to 2018 (4)

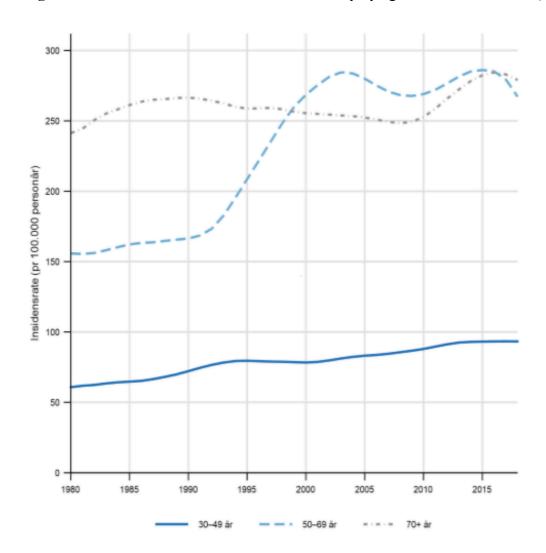
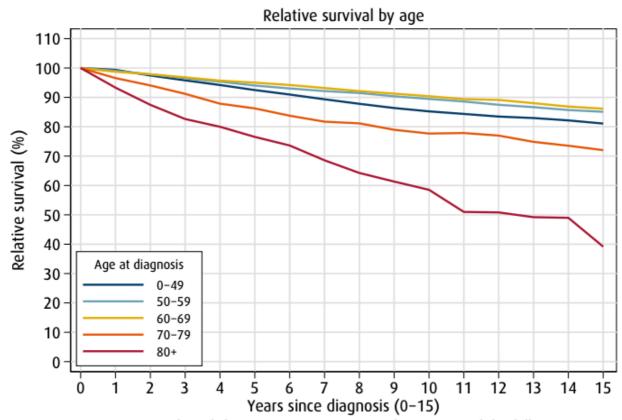


Figure 2: Relative survival of breast cancer in Norway, from 2014 to 2018 (4)

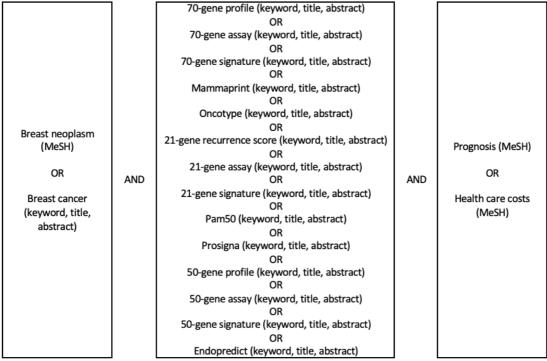


Estimates are plotted if 20 or more patients are alive at start of the follow-up year

Figure 3: Search terms used in Ovid MEDLINE and EMBASE

MEDLINE

Ovid MEDLINE and In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations and Daily (present)



Limits: English language, full-text, human, 2016 to present

EMBASE

Embase Classic 1947 to 2020 (present)

| Breast neoplasm (Emtree) OR Breast cancer (keyword, title, abstract) | AND | 70-gene profile (keyword, title, abstract) OR 70-gene assay (keyword, title, abstract) OR 70-gene signature (keyword, title, abstract) OR Mammaprint (keyword, title, abstract) OR Oncotype (keyword, title, abstract) OR 21-gene recurrence score (keyword, title, abstract) OR 21-gene assay (keyword, title, abstract) OR 21-gene signature (keyword, title, abstract) OR Pam50 (keyword, title, abstract) OR Prosigna (keyword, title, abstract) OR 50-gene profile (keyword, title, abstract) OR 50-gene assay (keyword, title, abstract) OR 50-gene signature (keyword, title, abstract) OR 50-gene signature (keyword, title, abstract) OR 50-gene signature (keyword, title, abstract) OR | AND | Prognosis (Emtree) OR Health care costs (MeSH) | |
|--|-----|---|-----|--|--|
|--|-----|---|-----|--|--|

Limits: English language, full-text, human, 2016 to present

Figure 4: Modified PRISMA flow diagram showing the process of the literature search.

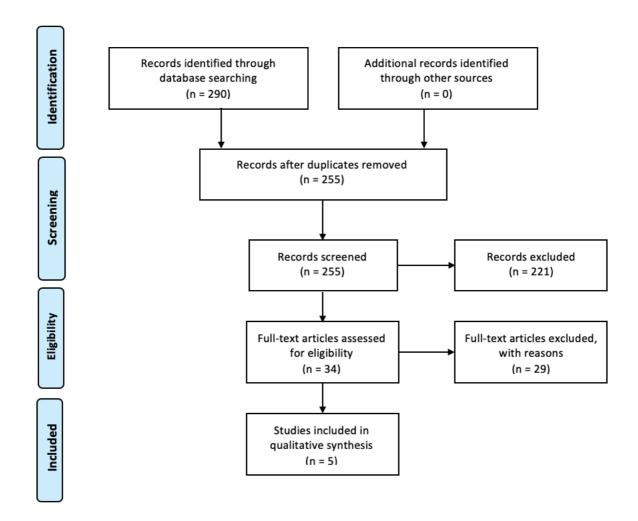


 Table 1: Included studies from the literature search

| First author | Journal, year | Article name | Study design | Study aims | Population | Results | Conclusion | Molecular test |
|------------------|----------------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|--|---|--|----------------|
| Turashvili (72) | Breast Cancer Res Treat, 2017 | 21-Gene recurrence score and locoregional recurrence in lymph node-negative, estrogen receptor-positive breast cancer | Retrospective cohort study | | 2326 women with node-negative, ER-positive, HER2- negative breast cancer, treated from 2008 to 2013. | Univariate analysis showed that the risk of LRR was associated with the RS categories (p<0.01), and RS remained significantly associated with LRR after adjusting for LVI and T stage. Compared to patients with low RS, the risk of LRR was increased more than 4-fold (hazard ratio: 4.61, 95% CI.1.90-11.1, p<0.01.3), and 3-fold (hazard ratio: 2.81, 95% CI 1.41-5.56, p<0.01) for high and intermediate risk categories, respectively. | The study confirms that RS is significantly associated with the risk of LRR in node-negative, ER+/ HER2- breast cancer patients. | Oncotype DX |
| Kizy (73) | Breast Cancer Res Treat, 2017 | Impact of the 21-gene recurrence score on outcome in patients with invasive lobular carcinoma of the breast | | to predict survival in ILC patients | 7316 women (18–74 years old) diagnosed with ER- positive ILC (stage I to III and grade I to III) and who had RS data available. | The 5-year BCSS was 99% in the low-risk, 99% in the intermediate-risk, and 96% in the high-risk groups. A high-risk RS was independently associated with increased mortality (hazard ratio : 2.37, 95% CI 1.14-4.95) when compared to a low-risk RS. In both the high-risk and intermediate-risk groups, adjuvant chemotherapy was not significantly associated with the hazard ratio (high-risk, hazard ratio 1.14, 95% CI 0.55-2.38; interme- diate-risk, hazard ratio 1.08, 95% CI 0.62-1.87). | This study shows that RS is significantly assosiated with survival outcomes in ILC. In the high-risk group, the RS predicted a lower 5-year RSS. Adjuvant chemotherapy did not seem to confer a survival benefit for either the intermediate- or the high-risk cohorts. | Oncotype DX |
| Wang (74) | Ann Surg Oncol, 2019 | | Retrospective cohort study | significance of Oncotype DX in a | | The RS risk groups differed significantly in terms of BCSS and OS (P < 0.001). Compared to high RS, the chance of BCSS was increased more than 13-fold (p<0.001 hazard ratio: 13.037, 95% CI 3.846-44.196) and chance of OS more than 3-fold (p<0.001, hazard ratio 3.825, 95% CI 2.2 6.65). Compared with intermediate RS chance of BCSS also increased (p=0.036, hazard ratio 3.516, 95% CI 1.082-11.423) as well as for OS (p=0.044, hazard ratio 1.680, 95% CI 1.015-2.779). | | Oncotype DX |
| Nitz (75) | Breast Cancer Res Treat, 2017 | Reducing chemotherapy use in clinically high-risk, genomically low-risk pNO and pN1 early breast cancer patients: five-year data from the prospective, randomised phase 3 West German Study Group (WSG) PlanB trial | Prospective cohort study | RS, Ki-67 and other traditional | 3198 female patients, 18–75 years, with histologically confirmed, unilateral primary invasive BC, adequate surgical treatment, without evidence of metastasis. | Five-year DFS in ET-treated RS 11 patients was 94% (in both pN0 and pN1) versus 94% (RS 12–25) and 84% (RS>25) in chemotherapy-treated patients (p \ 0.001). Consistent with DFS, among all locally HR+ patients with vauliable RS, better OS was observed in RS <11 or RS 12–25 patients than in RS >25 (p<0.001 for both comparisons). Hazard ratios of 6.46 [2.27–18.42] for RS>25 versus RS 11 and 3.26 [1.87–5.70] for RS>25 versus RS | for treatment decisions in HR+/HER2- EBC. | Oncotype DX |
| Jahn (76) | BMC Cancer, 2017 | Personalized treatment of women with early breast cancer: a risk-group specific cost-effectiveness analysis of adjuvant chemotherapy accounting for companion prognostic tests OncotypeDX and AdjuvantiOnline | Modeling study, hypothetical cohort study | effectiveness of adjuvant chemother | Hypothetical cohort of 100000 50-year-old women with breast cancer over a lifetime horizon. ER- and/or PR-positive, HER2-negative and lymph node-negative. | | The findings shows that in the Austrian setting, chemotherapy is usually effective and potentially cost effective for patients classified as intermediate or high risk according to Oncotype DX, independent from their Adjuvantionline risk classification, ruther, the alaysis suggests that risk-group specific cost-effectiveness analyses that include the costs of companion diagnostics, including prognostic tests, are important in PM. | Oncotype DX |

8 GRADE tables

| Reference: | | | Design: Prospective cohort study |
|---|---|---|---|
| | RE, Clemens M, Malter W, et al. Reducing chemotherapy use in clinically hove-year data from the prospective, randomised phase 3 West German Str | | Quality of evidence Moderate |
| Res Treat. 2017;165:573-583 | | | Recommendation None |
| Aim | Material and methods | Results | Discussion/comments |
| To evaluate the prognostic value | Data material: | From 2009 to 2011, PlanB enrolled 3198 | Is the aim of the study clearly formulate |
| of RS, Ki-67 and other | The trial included 3198 female patients, 18–75 years, with histologically | patients (central tumour bank, n = 3073) | Yes |
| traditional clinicopathological | confirmed, unilateral primary invasive BC, adequate surgical treatment | with the median age of 56 years, 41.1% | Were the groups recruited from the san population? Yes |
| parameters | (free margins, sentinel-node biopsy in node-negative, or axillary dissection in node- positive patients), without evidence of metastasis. | pN+, and 32.5% grade 3 EBC. Chemotherapy was omitted in 348/404 (86.1%) eligible RS =< 11 patients. After | Were the groups comparable with respect to underlying factors? Yes |
| Conclusion | Inclusion criteria: | 55 months of median follow-up, five-year | , , |
| The excellent five-year outcomes | HER2-negativity; pT1-T4c; pN+ [or pN0 with a risk factor (CpT2, grade | DFS in ET-treated RS =< 11 patients was | representative for a defined population |
| in clinically high-risk, genomically | 2/3, high uPA/PAI-1, <35 years, or HR-negative)]; ECOG performance | 94% (in both pN0 and pN1) versus 94% | Yes |
| low-risk (RS < 11) pN0-1 patients | status <2 or Karnofsky Index >= 80%; signed informed consent; and (if | (RS 12–25) and 84% (RS > 25) in | Were exposures and outcomes measure equally and in a reliable manner in all |
| without adjuvant chemotherapy support using RS with | >=4 positive LN, RS > 11, or HR-negative) willingness to participate in the adjuvant CT PlanB trial. | chemotherapy-treated patients (p < 0.001); five-year overall survival (OS) was | |
| standardised pathology for | the adjuvant CT Fland that. | 99 versus 97% and 93%, respectively (p < | |
| treatment decisions in HR+ HER2- | Exclusion criteria: | 0.001). Nodal status, central/local grade, | blinded? Not mentioned in the study |
| negative EBC. Ki-67 has the | Male gender, failure of the assay for any technical reasons and patients | tumour size, continuous Ki-67, | Was the study prospective? Yes |
| potential to support patient | receiving neoadjuvant therapy. | progesterone receptor (PR), IHC4, and RS | |
| selection for genomic testing. | Fuduciata | were univariate prognostic factors for | followed-up? Yes • Was the follow-up period sufficient to |
| Country | Endpoints The endpoints included prospective evaluation of RS prognostic impact | DFS. In a multivariate analysis including all univariate prognostic markers, only | measure significant results? Yes |
| Germany | at follow-up target of five years: Clinical outcomes (disease-free survival | | Were confounding factors adjusted for? |
| | [DFS], overall survival [OS]) in RS < 11 patients treated with ET alone, | size > 2 cm, and RS, but not IHC4 or Ki-67 | Not mentioned in the study |
| Year of data collection | and prospective evaluation of the prognostic value of other parameters | were independent adverse factors. If RS | Can these results be transferred to the |
| 2009 to 2011 | (Ki-67, IHC4 and histological grade [Elston- Ellis] by local/central | was excluded, IHC4 or both Ki-67 and PR | general population? To some degree, as |
| | assessment) | entered the model. The impact of RS was particularly pronounced in patients with | the participants were recruited from 93 different centers. |
| | Statistical methods | intermediate Ki-67 (>10%, < 40%) | Are these results supported by prior |
| | For DFS analysis, an event was defined as any invasive cancer event or | tumours. | literature? Yes, the findings are in |
| | death (with/without recurrence). Estimates of five-year DFS or OS with | | agreement with results from other |
| | approximate 95% confidence intervals [given in brackets] were obtained | | studies. |
| | by the Kaplan– Meier method. Comparisons of DFS or OS among sub- groups used | | Do these results have any clinical implication? Yes, the results indicate th |
| | pairwise log-rank tests (reported as significant for p < 0.05). | | RS may have prognostic and predictive |
| | Subgroup analyses were performed in RS < 11, RS 12–25, RS>25, and in | | value. |
| | Ki-67 subgroups. Univariate and multivariate (forward elimination) Cox | | |
| | proportional hazard models for DFS were estimated; RS, Ki-67, ER, PR, | | |
| | and IHC4 were coded as continuous variables using fractional ranks. For | | • Limitations: |
| | a realistic measure of effect sizes, hazard ratios of fractionally ranked variables are reported for 75th versus 25th percentile. | | Clinical consequences for CT omission can only be drawn for the relatively small grou |
| | variables are reported for 75th versus 25th percentile. | | of RS < 11, pN0-1 patients. |
| | | | or no 411, prio 1 patients. |

| Reference: | | | Design: Retrospective cohort st | udy |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|---|----------------------------|
| Wang M, Wu K, Zhang P, Zhang M, | Quality of evidence | Moderate | | |
| Estrogen Receptor-Positive HER2-N | | | | |
| 2019;26:1227-35 | Recommendation | None | | |
| | | | | |
| Aim | Material and methods | Results | Discussion/con | |
| We conducted a retrospective | Data material: | The study enrolled 4059 cases categorized into | Is the aim of the study clearly | |
| study to evaluate the prognostic | This population-based study used data derived | prognostic stages IA to IIB. The RS risk groups | Were the groups recruited from | m the same population? |
| significance of Oncotype DX in | from the National Cancer Institute's limited use | were positively correlated with pathological | Yes | |
| this subgroup of patients | SEER 18 registry databases released in November | prognostic stages (P < 0.001). The RS risk groups | Were the groups comparable v | with respect to |
| stratified into the T1-2N1M0 ER- | 2017. Cases in the SEER database were linked to RS | , | underlying factors? Yes | |
| positive, HER2- negative | results from assays performed by Genomic Health. | 0.001). According to the multivariate analysis, RS | Were the exposed individuals | representative for a |
| category based on the | The study enrolled 4059 patients who met the | risk group was an independent prognostic factor | defined population? Yes | |
| pathological prognostic stage in | inclusion criteria. All cases with RS had negative | for BCSS and OS together with the pathological | Were exposures and outcome | |
| the updated AJCC 8th edition | HER2 per Oncotype DX test via reverse | prognostic stage. The subgroup analysis showed | in a reliable manner in all grou | |
| using the Surveil- lance, | transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR). | similar survival rates across pathological prog- | Were those who evaluated out | |
| Epidemiology, and End Results | We identified female ER-positive invasive ductal | nostic stages in the RS low-risk group but | the pathologists who diagnos | |
| (SEER) 18 database. | carcinoma cases in T1-2N1M0 stage with Oncotype | 1 - | directly involved in this study | |
| Conclusion | RS results diagnosed between 2004 and 2012. | pathological prognostic stages in the RS | Was the study prospective? No | o, the study was |
| Conclusion | Patients with RS were categorized into low-risk (RS | intermediate-risk group. The survival rates among | retrospective | Carrielments falloused up? |
| Oncotype DX RS provided | < 11), intermediate-risk (RS 11–25), and high-risk (RS > 25) groups. | the RS risk groups also differed significantly in pathological prognostic stage IA. | Were a sufficient amount of particle Yes | articipants followed-up? |
| independent prognostic | (k3 > 25) groups. | patriological prognostic stage IA. | Was the follow-up period suffi | cient to measure |
| significance to complement the | Exclusions: | | significant results? Yes | cient to measure |
| prognostic staging system. | More than one primary cancer, diagnosis at death | | Were confounding factors adju- | isted for? Not |
| progressive stageing systems | or autopsy alone, unknown his- tologic grade or PR | | mentioned in the study | isted for: NOC |
| | status, no surgery performed or no record of | | Can these results be transferred to the general | |
| | surgery, or less than 6 months of follow-up | | population? Yes, to some degree, as the study used | |
| | evaluation. | | the SEER registries, which provide population-based | |
| | evaluation. | | cancer surveillance for 18 geo | |
| | Statistical methods | | representing about 28% of the | 0 1 |
| | Both BCSS and OS were estimated using the | | Are these results supported by | |
| | Kaplan- Meier method and compared across RS | | the findings are in agreement | with results from other |
| | groups using the log-rank statistic. Adjusted hazard | | studies. | |
| | ratios (HRs) with 95% confidence intervals (Cls) | | Do these results have any clini | cal implication? Yes, the |
| Country | were calculated using the Cox model to assess the | | results indicate that RS may h | ave independent |
| , | factors independently associated with survival. A | | prognostic value | |
| China, USA (used the SEERS | two-sided P value lower than 0.05 was con- | | | |
| database to collect data) | sidered statistically significant. | | Limitations: | |
| | | | - The retrospective design had a | n intrinsic bias despite a |
| Year of data collection | | | large sample size. | |
| 2004 to 2012 | | | - The median follow-up period of | |
| 2004 to 2012 | | | been relatively too short for the | |
| | | | outcome to be determined between | een pathological |
| | | | prognostic stages IA and IB. | ha undamonanta dia |
| | | | - Chemotherapy use is known to SEER. | be underreported in |
| | | | - The SEER database does not col | lact information on |
| | | | | |
| | | | distant recurrence, although it is | the main cause of breast |
| | | ,,, | cancer-specific death. | |

| Reference: | ow M, Dickler M, Norton L, et al. 21-Gene recurrence | Design: Retrospective cohort study | | |
|------------------------------------|---|--|--|--------------------------|
| | receptor positive breast cancer. Breast Cancer Res Tr | Quality of evidence | Moderate | |
| | _ | Recommendation | None | |
| Aim | Material and methods | Discussion/comments | | |
| To evluate the value of the 21- | Data material: | Of 2326 patients, 60% (1394) were | Is the aim of the study clearly formulated? Ye | es . |
| gene RS assay for predicting the | 2326 consecutive female patients with lymph | in the low RS group, 33.4% (777) in | Were the groups recruited from the same por | pulation? Yes |
| risk of LRR in a cohort of lymph | node-negative (pN0 and pN0[i+]) ER+/HER2- | the intermediate RS group, and 6.6% | • Were the groups comparable with respect to | underlying factors? Yes |
| node-negative, ER+/HER2- | invasive breast carcinoma with known 21-gene RS | (155) in the high RS group. Median | Were the exposed individuals representative | for a defined |
| breast cancer patients treated | assay results treated at the researcher medical | follow-up was 53 months. A total of | population? Yes | |
| at a single institution. | center between September 2008 and August 2013. | 44 LRRs were observed, with a | Were exposures and outcomes measured equ | ually and in a reliable |
| | The institutional database and electronic medical | cumulative incidence of 0.17% at 12 | manner in all groups? Yes | |
| | records were reviewed to record date of last | months and 1.6% at 48 months. The | Were those who evaluated outcomes blinded | d? Yes, as the |
| Conclusion | follow-up, date of death, date and type of LRR, and | cumulative incidence of LRR at 48 | pathologists who diagnosed the cases were | not directly involved in |
| Our study confirms that RS is | distant recurrence. | months was 0.84%, 2.72% and | this study. | |
| significantly associated with the | Clinicopathologic variables included patient age at | 2.80% for low, intermediate, and | Was the study prospective? No, the study wa | |
| risk of LRR in node-negative, ER?/ | breast cancer diagnosis, tumor size, histologic type | high RS groups, respectively (p \ | Were a sufficient amount of participants follo | • |
| HER2- breast cancer patients. Our | of tumor, LVI, 21-gene RS result, local and systemic | 0.01). | Was the follow-up period sufficient to measu | re significant results? |
| findings suggest that in addition | treat- ment, and clinical outcome. | | Yes, in most cases. | |
| to its value for prognostic stage | | Univariate analysis showed that the | Were confounding factors adjusted for? Yes, t | the results were |
| grouping and decision-making | Exclusions: | risk of LRR was associated with the | adjusted for LVI and T-stage. | |
| regarding adjuvant systemic | Male gender, failure of the assay for any technical | RS categories (p<0.01), T stage | Can these results be transferred to the general | |
| therapy, the role of the RS in | reasons and patients recieving neoadjuvant | (p<0.01) and lympho- vascular | directly, as the population are predominantl | |
| identifying patients not requiring | therapy. | invasion (LVI) (p = 0.009). The RS | breast cancer and women from specific region | |
| radio- therapy should be studied. | | remained significantly associated | Are these results supported by prior literature | |
| Country | Statistical methods | with LRR after adjusting for LVI and T | in agreement with results from other studies | |
| | Multivariable competing risk regression was used | stage. Compared to patients with | Do these results have any clinical implication: | |
| USA | to examine the independent effect of RS on LRR, | low RS, the risk of LRR was increased | indicate that RS may have prognostic and pr | edictive value. |
| | adjusting for other factors that were significantly | more than 4-fold (hazard ratio: 4.61, | 6 1 | - letter - been BC |
| | associated with LRR from the univariate analysis. | 95% CI 1.90–11.19, p \ 0.01), and 3- | Strengths: Large, unselected consecutive pop | |
| | Univariate associ- ation of RS score on LRR was | fold (hazard ratio: 2.81, 95% CI 1.41– | results were prospectively included in the tre | |
| | also examined among the subset of women | 5.56, p \ 0.01) for high and | detailed knowledge of pathologic and treatm | |
| Year of data collection | treated with endocrine therapy and chemotherapy. | | Limitations: Retrospective study design, low if follows up time intervals of less than 5 years in fallows up time. | - |
| September 2008 to august 2013 | | respectively. | follow-up time intervals of less than 5 years in addition, the tertiary academic institution pre | |
| | | | patients with screen-detected breast cancer a | |
| | | | specific geographic regions. | and women nom |
| | | | Specific geographic regions. | |
| | | | | |

| Reference: | | | Design: Retrospective cohort study | | |
|--|--|--|--|---------------------------|--|
| | TM, Hui JYC. Impact of the 21-gene recurrence score reast. Breast Cancer Res Treat. 2017;165:757-763 | Quality of evidence | Moderate | | |
| | | Recommendation | None | | |
| Aim | Material and methods | Results | Discussion/comments | | |
| In this study, our objective was | Data material: | Of the 7316 women included, 21% | | | |
| to determine the ability of the | To identify women diagnosed with breast cancer | were in the low-risk; 71%, | Were the groups recruited from the same popular | | |
| RS to predict survival in ILC | during our 10-year study period (2004 through | intermediate-risk; and 8%, high- | Were the groups comparable with respect to un | | |
| patients and to predict the | 2013), we used an augmented version of the | risk groups as per TAILORx RS | Were the exposed individuals representative for | a defined population? | |
| benefit of adjuvant chemotherapy in those with | National Cancer Institute's Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) database. | cutoffs. The 5-year BCSS was 99% in the low-risk, 99% in the | Yes Were exposures and outcomes measured equal | ly and in a roliable | |
| high- risk disease. | The study included 7316 women (18–74 years old) | intermediate-risk, and 96% in the | manner in all groups? Yes | ly and in a reliable | |
| riigii- risk uisease. | who were diagnosed with ER-positive ILC (stage I | high-risk groups. A high-risk RS as | Were those who evaluated outcomes blinded? | es, as the nathologists | |
| Conclusion | to III and grade I to III) and who had RS data | per TAILORx cutoff was | who diagnosed the cases were not directly inv | | |
| | available. | independently associated with | Was the study prospective? No, the study was in | | |
| For patients with ER-positive ILC, | | increased mortality (hazard ratio | Were a sufficient amount of participants follows | | |
| 8% were in the high-risk and 72% were in the intermediate-risk | Exclusions: | [HR] of death 2.37, 95% | Was the follow-up period sufficient to measure | significant results? Yes | |
| groups as per the TAILORx RS | Negative or unknown ER status, unknown PR | confidence interval [CI] 1.14–4.95) | for patient and tumor characteristics • Can these results be transferred to the general population? Yes, to | | |
| cutoffs. In the high-risk group, the | status, unknown lymph node status, or stage IV | when compared to a low-risk RS. | | | |
| RS predicted a lower 5-year BCSS. | disease. | In both the high-risk and | | | |
| Adjuvant chemotherapy did not | Shekirkirdak - d- | intermediate-risk groups, adjuvant | | | |
| seem to confer a survival benefit | Statistical methods As per the traditional, as the well as TAILORx, RS | chemotherapy was not significantly associated with the | population-based cancer surveillance for 18 ge representing about 28% of the United States. | ographic areas | |
| for either the intermediate- or the | cutoffs, we stratified patients into low-, | HR of death (high-risk, HR 1.14, | Are these results supported by prior literature? | Yes, the findings are in | |
| high-risk cohorts. | intermediate-, and high-risk groups. To analyze | 95% CI 0.55–2.38; intermediate- | agreement with results from other studies. | res, the illiangs are ill | |
| | both overall survival (OS) and breast cancer- | risk, HR 1.08, 95% CI 0.62–1.87). | Do these results have any clinical implication? Y | es, the results indicate | |
| | specific survival (BCSS) rates, we used the Kaplan- | , | that RS may have prognostic and predictive val | | |
| | Meier method; to analyze factors associated with | | | | |
| | hazard ratio (HR) of death, we used Cox | | Limitations: | | |
| Country | proportional hazards models. Our Cox proportional | | The SEER database did not record HER2 status un | | |
| USA | hazards models included age at diagnosis, race, | | examination of that parameter in our survival analy | | |
| - Control of the cont | tumor size, tumor grade, PR status, lymph node | | - The degree of ER positivity, patient comorbidities | | |
| | status, use of adjuvant chemotherapy, and RS group. Results were considered statistically | | of endocrine therapy, adjuvant chemotherapy registrements is not recorded in the SEER date. | | |
| Year of data collection | significant only for a p value < 0.05 and a 95% | | - Information on use of chemotherapy is occasiona | | |
| | confidence interval (CI). | | - The SEER database relies on community patholog | | |
| 2004 to 2013 | , , | | diagnose distinct subtypes and does not perform of | | |
| | | | - Specific subtypes of ILC that may have affected su | ırvival, such as | |
| | | | pleomorphic lobular carcinoma, are not reported i | | |
| | | | - Short follow-up period, and only 5-year survival r | | |
| | | | which may not accurately reflect longer-term survi | | |
| | | | - Because of the retrospective nature of this regist | ry review, patients | |
| | | | were not randomly assigned to treatment arms. | | |

| Reference: | | | Design: Modeling study, hypothe | etical cohort study | |
|---|--|--|--|--------------------------|--|
| Jahn B, Rochau U, Kurtzhaler C, Hu risk-group specific cost-effectivene | Quality of evidence | Moderate | | | |
| Adjuvant!Online. BMC Cancer. 201 | Recommendation | None | | | |
| Aim | Material and methods | Results | Discussion/comments | | |
| The goal of the current study | Data material: | The results for the Austrian setting indicate that | Is the aim of the study clearly f | | |
| was to evaluate risk- group | A previously validated discrete event simulation | chemo- therapy is dominated in the risk groups L- | Were the groups recruited from | the same population? | |
| specific cost effectiveness of | model was applied to a hypothetical cohort of | L (low AO, low ODX), L-I (low AO, intermediate | Yes | | |
| adjuvant chemother- apy for | 100000 50-year-old women with ER- and/or PR- | ODX), I-L (intermediate AO, low ODX) and H-L | Were the groups comparable w | ith respect to | |
| Austrian women with resected | positive, HER2-negative and lymph node-negative | (high AO, low ODX). Patients in these risk groups | underlying factors? Yes | | |
| ER and/or PR positive, HER- | breast cancer over a lifetime horizon. | do not on average benefit from chemotherapy | Were the exposed individuals' r | epresentative for a | |
| 2/neu negative, and lymph node | | with respect to the clinical outcomes (LYs, QALYs). | defined population? Yes | | |
| negative early breast cancer. All | We simulated twelve risk groups derived from the | These results are consistent with the results for | Were exposures and outcomes | | |
| potential risk groups according | joint application of ODX and AO and included | the Canadian setting with the exception of the L-I | in a reliable manner in all group | | |
| to the joint application of AO | respective additional costs. The primary outcomes | risk group (low AO and intermediate ODX). | • Was the study prospective? No. | | |
| and ODX are considered. | of interest were life-years gained, quality-adjusted | In high risk ODX patients, chemotherapy seems to | cohort study / modelling study | -based om computer | |
| | life-years (QALYs), costs and incremental cost- | clearly be cost effective because an additional | simulations | -N-1 | |
| Conclusion | effectiveness (ICER). The robustness of results and | QALY can be gained at a low additional cost (ICER | Were a sufficient amount of par | rticipants followed-up? | |
| Our decision analysis shows that | decisions derived were tested in sensitivity | less than 3500 EUR/QALY). Chemotherapy is also | YesWere confounding factors adjust | stad fau? Nat | |
| in the Austrian setting, | analyses. A cross-country comparison of results was performed. | cost effective in patients with an inter- mediate ODX risk and an intermediate or high AO risk | mentioned in the study | sted for Not | |
| chemotherapy is usually effective | was performed. | chemotherapy with a WTP threshold of 15,000 | Can these results be transferred | to the general | |
| and potentially cost effective for | Model validation is a key modeling step for judging | | | | |
| patients classified as intermediate | a model's accuracy in making accurate predictions. | the results from the Canadian setting. For patients | population? Yes, to some degree, as the study use The Oncotyrol breast cancer model, which is divice | | |
| or high risk according to ODX, | Following the current ISPOR-SMDM best practice | in our model that are tested only with AO, | into different modules that de | | |
| independent from their AO risk | recommendations, the model was validated using | chemotherapy is mainly cost effective with the | treatment strategies and the re | | |
| classification. | face validation, internal validation and cross-model | exception of those who are AO low risk (L-N). | patients, their health states an | | |
| | validation | These results differ slightly to the Canadian setting | | - | |
| | validation | where chemo- therapy for L-N patients is cost | hospital prices. | e based on pharmacy | |
| | | effective. | • Are these results supported by | prior literature? Ves. | |
| | | Circuite. | the findings are in agreement | * | |
| | | | studies. | | |
| | | | Do these results have any clinic | al implication? Yes. the | |
| Country | | | results indicate that the use of | | |
| Country | | | cost effective in intermediate a | | |
| Austria | | | | | |
| | | | Limitations: | | |
| | | | - Due to a lack of information abou | ut utility parameters | |
| Year of data collection | | | and estimates for the risk of distar | nt recurrence, the group | |
| There were no data collection, | | | - The ability to compare these res | | |
| the research group used a | | | results is limited due to the differe | | |
| simulated model with a | | | and the difference of the difference | | |
| hypothetical cohort | | | | | |