

# 1 **A framework to predict the molecular classification and** 2 **prognosis of breast cancer patients and characterize the** 3 **landscape of immune cell infiltration**

4 Kun Zheng<sup>1†</sup>, Zhiyong Luo<sup>2†</sup>, Yilu Zhou<sup>3,4†</sup>, Lili Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Yali Wang<sup>1</sup>, Xiuqiong Chen<sup>1</sup>, Shuo  
5 Yao<sup>1</sup>, Huihua Xiong<sup>1</sup>, Xianglin Yuan<sup>1</sup>, Yanmei Zou<sup>1</sup>, Yihua Wang<sup>3,4\*</sup> and Hua Xiong<sup>1\*</sup>

6 <sup>1</sup> Department of Oncology, Tongji Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University  
7 of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430030, China.

8 <sup>2</sup> Department of Thyroid and Breast Surgery, Tongji Hospital, Tongji Medical College,  
9 Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430030, China.

10 <sup>3</sup> Biological Sciences, Faculty of Environmental and Life Sciences, University of  
11 Southampton, Southampton SO17 1BJ, UK.

12 <sup>4</sup> Institute for Life Sciences, University of Southampton, Southampton SO17 1BJ, UK.

13 Correspondence should be addressed to Yihua Wang [yihua.wang@soton.ac.uk](mailto:yihua.wang@soton.ac.uk) and Hua  
14 Xiong [cnhxiong@tjh.tjmu.edu.cn](mailto:cnhxiong@tjh.tjmu.edu.cn).

15 <sup>†</sup> These authors have contributed equally to this work and share first authorship.

## 16 **Abstract**

17 It is known that all current cancer therapies can only benefit a limited proportion of patients,  
18 thus molecular classification and prognosis evaluation are critical for correctly classifying  
19 breast cancer patients and selecting the best treatment strategy. These processes usually  
20 involve the disclosure of molecular information like mutation, expression, and immune  
21 microenvironment of a breast cancer patient, which are **not been fully studied** until now.  
22 Therefore, there is an urgent clinical need to identify potential markers to enhance molecular  
23 classification, precision prognosis and therapy stratification for breast cancer patients. In this  
24 study, we explored the gene expression profiles of 1,721 breast cancer patients through  
25 CIBERSORT and ESTIMATE algorithms, then we obtained a comprehensive intra-tumoral  
26 immune landscape. The **immune cell infiltration** (ICI) patterns of breast cancer were  
27 classified into 3 separate subtypes according to the infiltration levels of 22 immune cells. The  
28 differentially expressed genes between these subtypes were further identified and ICI scores  
29 were calculated to assess the immune landscape of BRCA patients. Importantly, we  
30 demonstrated that ICI scores correlate with patients' survival, tumor mutation burden,  
31 neoantigens, and sensitivity to specific drugs. Based on these ICI scores, we were able to  
32 predict the prognosis of patients and their response to immunotherapy. Together, these  
33 findings provide a realistic scenario to stratify breast cancer patients for precision medicine.

## 34 **Introduction**

35 Breast cancer (BRCA) has now risen to become the most common malignant tumor  
36 throughout the world and the second leading cause of cancer-related death in women. The US  
37 added 270,000 new diagnosed cases and more than 40,000 deaths in 2020 [1, 2]. Due to its  
38 considerable influence on public health worldwide, the molecular mechanisms of breast  
39 cancer-like associated genes and pathways [3], metastasis [4], and drug responses [5, 6] have

40 been widely studied. Over recent years, there have been great advances in treatment strategies  
41 for BRCA including surgical resection, chemotherapy, radiotherapy, targeted therapy, and  
42 endocrine therapy. However, due to factors such as local recurrence, distant metastasis, and  
43 high tumor heterogeneity, the prognosis of BRCA patients is still unsatisfactory [7, 8].

44 **The** tumor microenvironment (TME) includes tumor cells, tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes  
45 (TILs), and stromal components, which can serve as a key mediator of cancer progression  
46 and treatment outcome [9, 10]. Over the past few years, **numerous studies have shown that**  
47 **TILs play key roles in** tumor extension, recurrence, metastasis, and therapeutic response to  
48 cancer immunotherapy [11, 13]. For example, naive CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells, when bound and activated  
49 by antigen-presenting dendritic cells, would become effector T cells, which could then  
50 recognize and kill tumor cells by releasing granzymes to induce apoptosis [14]. Chemokines  
51 secreted by tumor cells, such as C-C Motif Chemokine Ligand 2, C-C Motif Chemokine  
52 Ligand 5, and colony stimulating factor 1, can recruit M2-type tumor-associated  
53 macrophages, and their abundance in TME correlates with a poor prognosis [15].

54 Cancer immunotherapy, including immune checkpoint inhibitors, has provided clinical  
55 benefit to the treatment of many BRCA patients through direct or indirect effects on TILs,  
56 reversing the TMEs to immune-permitted environments from immunosuppressive ones [16].  
57 Promising outcomes in response to antibodies to programmed cell death 1 (PD-1) or  
58 antibodies to programmed cell death ligand 1 (PD-L1) therapy for BRCA have been reported  
59 in recent years [17]-[19]. However, the immune microenvironment of BRCA remains poorly  
60 understood and this treatment can only benefit a limited proportion of patients [20],[21].  
61 Therefore, identification of potential biomarkers is **in urgent clinical need** to enhance  
62 precision prognosis and therapy stratification for BRCA patients.

63 In our study, the gene expression profiles of 1,721 BRCA patients were analyzed by  
64 CIBERSORT and ESTIMATE algorithm, by which we obtained a comprehensive intra-  
65 tumoral immune landscape. The immune cell infiltration (ICI) patterns of BRCA were  
66 classified into 3 separate subtypes according to the infiltration levels of 22 immune cells. The  
67 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between these subtypes were further identified and ICI  
68 scores were calculated to assess the immune landscape of BRCA patients. Importantly, we  
69 demonstrated that ICI scores correlate with patients' survival, tumor mutation burden (TMB),  
70 neoantigens, and sensitivity to specific drugs. Based on these ICI scores, we were able to  
71 predict the prognosis of patients and their response to immunotherapy. Together, these  
72 findings provide a realistic scenario to stratify BRCA patients for precision medicine.

## 73 **Materials and Methods**

### 74 **Source of cohort datasets and immune-related data and preprocessing**

75 The training datasets of BRCA for this study were integrated from two separate cohorts  
76 (TCGA-BRCA and Yau-cohort), with only tumor samples retained. The expression profile  
77 data of TCGA-BRCA cohort (considering only protein-coding mRNA) were downloaded  
78 from the Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) database by Genomic Data tools  
79 (<https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/projects/TCGA-BRCA>). The fragments per kilobase million  
80 values were downloaded via TCGAbiolinks [22] package and transformed to transcripts per  
81 million, with the ensemble id matrix converted to a gene symbol matrix and other forms for  
82 subsequent analysis. The Yau-cohort dataset [23], integrated by Dr. Yau from four studies  
83 (GSE2034, GSE5327, GSE7390, and NKI295), was downloaded from the online database

84 University of California Santa Cruz (UCSC) Xena browser (<https://xenabrowser.net/>). It  
85 contains the gene expression matrix along with clinical information of 682 breast cancer  
86 patients. At last, the batch effects caused by nonbiological technical bias were reduced  
87 through "Combat" algorithm [24].

88 The clinical information for the TCGA-BRCA cohort was extracted from the pan-cancer  
89 data, which included age, sex, clinicopathological stage, TNM stage, and PAM50 subtype,  
90 and only overall survival (OS) was considered. The Yau-cohort cohort considered OS, age,  
91 and PAM50 subtype. A total of 1721 breast cancer samples were generated after kicking out  
92 the samples with incomplete clinical information and survival time and male breast cancer  
93 samples. To analyze the efficiency of immunotherapy, the R package  
94 *IMvigor210CoreBiologies* [25] obtained from the work of Snyder *et al.* was used as a  
95 validation dataset, which included expression profiles, survival outcomes and immunotherapy  
96 response results in metastatic uroepithelial cancer patients treated with anti-PD-L1 agents  
97 atezolizumab.

### 98 **Consensus clustering of TME immune cell infiltration**

99 The CIBERSORT and ESTIMATE algorithms were combined to reckon the abundance and  
100 infiltration levels of 22 immune cell species of the integrated BRCA cohort [26, 27]. LM22  
101 signature matrix, which provided a gene expression signature set of 22 immune cell subtypes  
102 and CIBERSORT source code were downloaded from the CIBERSORT website  
103 (<https://cibersortx.stanford.edu/>). Unsupervised clustering analysis of ICI of each sample was  
104 performed using R package "ConsensusClusterPlus" [28], which classified the tumor ICI  
105 pattern of BRCA patients into different subtypes (maxK, the maximum number of  
106 classifications  $K = 3$ ). 90% of the samples have been repeated 500 times, ensuring stability of  
107 the classification. Calculation of distances using Spearman's distance measure and Ward's  
108 linkage.

### 109 **Identification of DEGs between ICI subtypes and gene signature generation**

110 To identify genes associated with ICI patterns, we applied the R package "limma" [29] to  
111 determine the DEGs between different ICI subtypes and plotted the DEGs heatmap using the  
112 "ComplexHeatmap" R package [30]. The significance cutoff criteria used to distinguish  
113 DEGs were set as fold-change (FC) > 1.5, adjusted false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05.

114 To quantify the ICI pattern of a single tumor patient, we established a scoring system, ICI  
115 gene signature, to confirm the ICI pattern for each BRCA patient, and we termed it ICI score.  
116 The steps to establish an ICI gene signature are as follows: Firstly, the DEGs were analyzed  
117 by unsupervised cluster analysis using the R package "ConsensusClusterPlus". The maximum  
118 number of classifications is 3 and the distances were calculated using the Pearson distance  
119 measure and complete linkage, which divided the TCGA-BRCA cohort into 3 genomic  
120 clusters, namely, *ICI gene clusters* A, B, and C. And then, Pearson correlation analysis was  
121 done on the mRNA expression values of all TCGA samples with the three gene clusters, and  
122 the DEGs with positive and negative correlation with clustering features were, respectively,  
123 defined as ICI signature genes A and B. Then Boruta algorithm was used to reduce the  
124 dimensionality of different ICI signature genes. Finally, two total scores were calculated  
125 using single sample gene set enrichment analysis (ssGSEA): (1) ICI score A which is from  
126 ICI signature gene A; (2) ICI score B which is from ICI signature gene B. ***ICI score*** =  
127 ***ICI score A*** – ***ICI score B***, with median as cutoff value to determine high ICI group and

128 low ICI group. When survival analyses were performed with ICI score groups, we only  
129 picked out genes whose **P-value** < 0.05 in the univariate survival analysis. Principal  
130 component analysis (PCA) was used to calculate the ICI score for each patient, and PCA1  
131 was calculated as the signature score using PCA: **ICI score** = **|PCA1 positive|** +  
132 **|PCA1 negative|**. Patients were reclassified as high and low ICI score groups using  
133 median as the cutoff value.

#### 134 **Collection and analysis of somatic mutation data**

135 **The copy number variant (CNV) data of TCGA-BRCA cohort were obtained from the**  
136 **firehose database** (<http://gdac.broadinstitute.org/>), and **mutant annotation format (MAF) files**  
137 **downloaded from the cBioportal database** (<http://www.cbioportal.org/>). To determine the  
138 TMB of BRCA, we matched TCGA-BRCA MAF files with ICI-related expression profiles  
139 and used the R package "maftools" to calculate the TMB [31]. Based on the  
140 OncodriveCLUST algorithm [32], we used the positional information of the somatic mutation  
141 sites to cluster the driver genes from different ICI score groups, and used the "maftools"  
142 package to draw a waterfall map of the top 25 driver genes in the two groups. The CNV  
143 analysis was performed with the GenePattern online analysis tool  
144 (<https://www.genepattern.org/>) and visualized with the "maftools" package.

#### 145 **Identification of sensitive drugs and other biological processes correlated with ICI gene** 146 **signatures**

147 The drug.txt is a dataset for the sensitivity and response of cancer cells to therapeutic drugs  
148 obtained from the online database **Genomics of Drug Sensitivity in Cancer (GDSC)**, used to  
149 predict IC50 with R package "pRRophetic" [33, 34]. We assessed the IC50 values in both ICI  
150 score groups using Wilcoxon test, then compared the differences in sensitivity between ICI  
151 score groups on more than 100 drugs, and graphed the top 12 (according to **P-value**)  
152 differentially response drugs. Wilcoxon test was also used to compare the differential  
153 expression of neoantigen between ICI score groups. **Sample data used for predicting**  
154 **neoantigen number in the TCGA-BRCA cohort were from a research already published in**  
155 **2015 by Rooney MS et al.** [35].

156 Additionally, we separately performed Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of ICI gene  
157 signatures A and B via the "org.Hs.eg.db" R package to explore the biological process,  
158 cellular composition and molecular function that they may participate in. After differential  
159 expression analysis with the "limma" package for high or low ICI score groups, the  
160 differentially expressed genes were subjected to Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA), and  
161 the gene sets "h.all.v7.2.symbol" were downloaded from the Molecular Signatures Database  
162 (MSigDB) (<http://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb>) for running GSEA analysis. To  
163 confirm the difference in the efficacy of anti-PD-L1 immunotherapy between the two ICI  
164 score groups in the validation cohort, IMvigor210, objective remission rate bar graphs were  
165 plotted for the ICI score groups using "GSVA" R package [36].

#### 166 **Statistical analysis**

167 **All statistical analyses** were performed using R software (version 3.6.2). The Wilcoxon test  
168 was used to compare the differences between two groups and the Kruskal-Wallis test was  
169 used to compare the differences between more than two groups. The Kaplan-Meier survival  
170 curves were plotted using the R package "survminer" for different subgroups, such as ICI

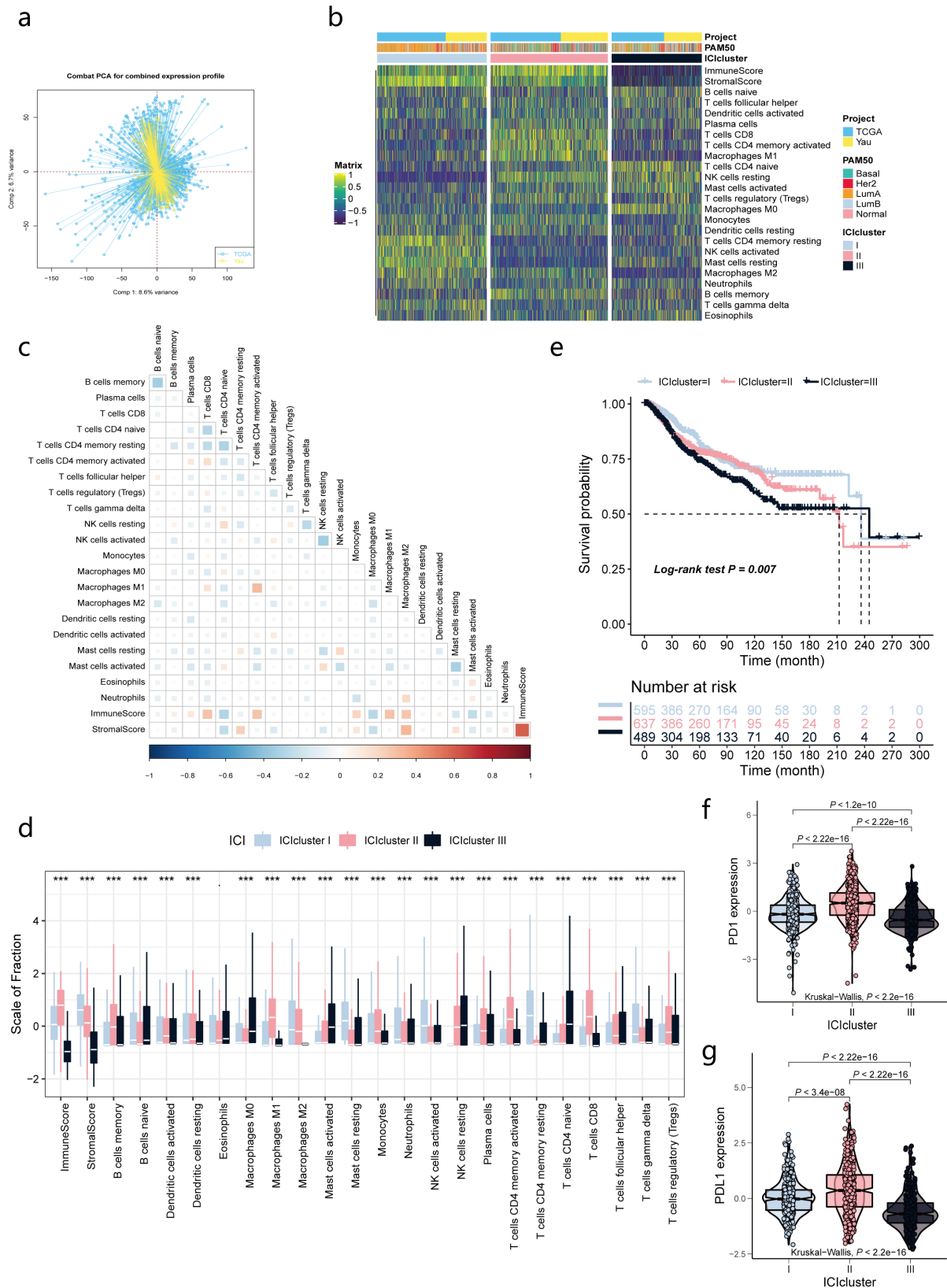
171 clusters, ICI gene clusters, ICI gene signatures, and TMB subgroups, in relation to survival.  
172 Log-rank test was used for statistically significant differences. The R packages  
173 “ComplexHeatmap” and “ggplot” were used to draw heatmaps, scatter plots, violin plots, and  
174 other plots. Correlation coefficients were calculated by using Spearman analysis. Two-tailed  
175  $P < 0.05$  was considered a statistically significant difference.

## 176 **Results**

### 177 **The immune cell infiltration (ICI) landscape in BRCA immune microenvironment**

178 We first performed PCA of **integrated** gene expression profiles of 1,721 BRCA patients from  
179 the training cohort consisting of the TCGA-BRCA and Yau cohorts by using Combat  
180 algorithm to eliminate batch effects across cohorts (Figure 1a). Subsequently, we performed  
181 the CIBERSORT algorithm combined with ESTIMATE algorithm to determine the  
182 abundances of 22 immune cells as well as the enrichment scores of stromal cells (Stromal  
183 Score) and immune cells (Immune Score) in BRCA patients in this cohort (Supplementary  
184 Table 1). We performed an unsupervised cluster analysis of this cohort by  
185 ConsensusClusterPlus R package to divide BRCA patients into 3 separate subtypes based on  
186 ICI patterns, referred to as ICI clusters I, II and III, respectively (Figure 1b). A hotspot matrix  
187 of correlation coefficients was created to demonstrate the overall landscape of interactions  
188 among immune cells in the TME of BRCA patients, including their immune scores and  
189 stromal scores (Figure 1c).

190 To explore the inherent biological differences between the different ICI subtypes, we  
191 compared the composition of immune cells in the 3 ICI clusters. As shown in Figure 1d, ICI  
192 cluster I was characterized by high level M2 macrophages, neutrophils, resting mast cells,  
193 activated natural killer (NK) cells, resting CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells and gamma delta T cells infiltration;  
194 patients from ICI cluster II had a higher density of memory B cells, activated dendritic cells,  
195 resting dendritic cells, M1 macrophages, monocytes, memory activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, CD8<sup>+</sup>  
196 T cell, , follicular helper T cells, plasma cells and regulatory T cells; while ICI cluster III  
197 displayed an increase in naïve B cells, naïve CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, resting NK cells, M0 macrophages  
198 and activated mast cells infiltration. Survival analysis conducted on these 3 ICI subtypes  
199 showed significant differences among them, with ICI clusters I and II being associated with  
200 better prognosis and patients in ICI cluster III having a poorer OS (**log-rank test,  $P = 0.007$** ;  
201 Figure 1e). In addition, we analyzed the expression of PD-1 and PD-L1 in each ICI subtype  
202 (**Figures 1f and 1g**). The results of Kruskal-Wallis test showed higher expression of PD-1 and  
203 PD-L1 in ICI cluster II, while their expressions were lowest in ICI cluster III.



204

205  
206  
207  
208  
209

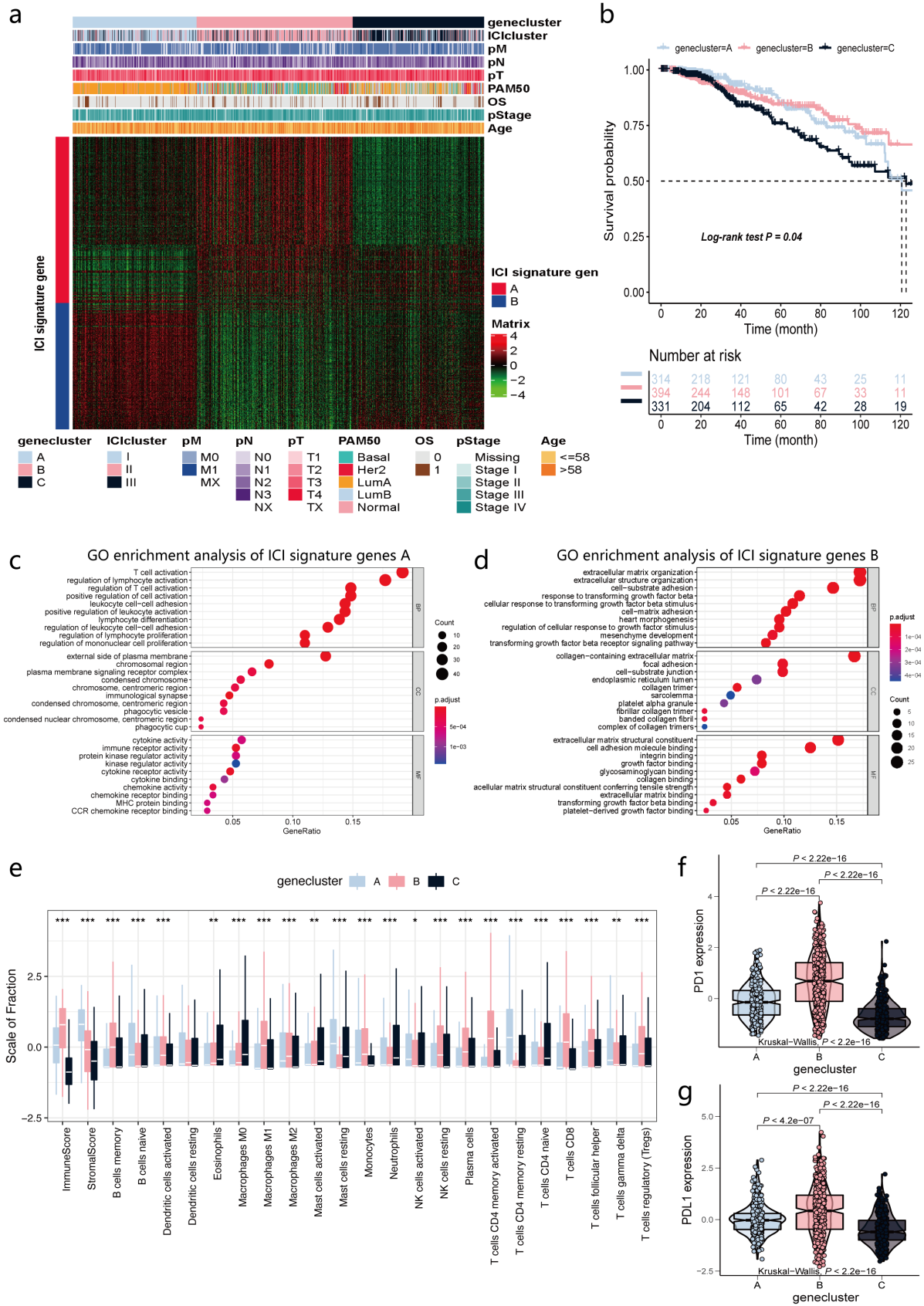
Figure 1: The immune-cell infiltration (ICI) landscape in BRCA immune microenvironment. (a) PCA of integration of expression profiles of TCGA-BRCA and Yau cohorts by Combat algorithm to eliminate batch effects of different cohorts. (b) Heatmap with unsupervised clustering analysis of tumor-infiltrating immune cells in TCGA-BRCA and Yau cohorts. (c) Hotspot plot for correlation matrix of immune cells in three ICI clusters, including their immune scores and stromal scores. Red indicates positive correlation and blue indicates

210 negative correlation. (d) Box plot for abundance of each immune infiltrating cells in the three ICI clusters. The  
211 asterisks represented the statistical **P-value** (Kruskal-Wallis test, \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ ). (e)  
212 Survival analysis for three ICI clusters of 1721 breast cancer patients from TCGA-BRCA and Yau cohorts using  
213 Kaplan-Meier curves. The **log-rank test** showed that  $P = 0.007$ . (f and g) Violin plots of the differential  
214 expression of PD1 (f) and PD-L1 (g) (only for TCGA-BRCA cohort) among the three ICI clusters. The  
215 statistical differences among ICI clusters were compared by Kruskal-Wallis test ( $P < 0.001$ ).

## 216 **Identification and comprehensive analysis of immunogenic gene clusters**

217 To elucidate the potential characteristics of the different immunophenotypes, we conducted  
218 the limma package to identify DEGs among ICI clusters I, II, and III (FC = 1.5, FDR = 0.05).  
219 Based on the above cutoffs, we identified 665 DEGs (213 in ICI cluster I; 239 in ICI cluster  
220 II; and 213 in ICI cluster III; Supplementary Table 2) and used the ComplexHeatmap  
221 package to generate a heat map of all DEGs. **Hereafter, we focused our analysis on the**  
222 **TCGA-BACR cohort as it had comprehensive information on clinical aspects.** We performed  
223 an unsupervised clustering analysis of these DEGs and divided the TCGA-BRCA cohort into  
224 3 distinct ICI genomic phenotypes, named ICI gene cluster A, B and C, respectively (Figure  
225 2a). We defined all above DEGs with positive association with these 3 ICI gene clusters as  
226 ICI signature genes A, while the rest DEGs were termed as ICI signature genes B. By down-  
227 dimensioning the ICI signature genes using Boruta algorithm to reduce redundant genes, we  
228 finally obtained 216 genes in ICI signature gene A and 164 in ICI signature gene B  
229 (Supplementary Table 3).

230 In Figure 2b, we figured out the prognostic differences among these ICI gene clusters, and we  
231 confirmed that ICI gene clusters A and B had a better prognosis, and the prognosis of ICI  
232 gene cluster C was poorer (**log-rank test**,  $P = 0.04$ ). **Figures 2c and 2d** showed the results of  
233 gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of both ICI signature gene groups in the 3 functional  
234 groups, biological process, cellular component, and molecular function, respectively, which  
235 were significantly enriched in items related to immunity. Given that the immune system can  
236 exert both antitumor and protumor activities [37,38], we next explored the level of immune  
237 infiltration cells among different gene clusters, and the box plot showed that gene clusters A  
238 and B with favorable prognosis had higher immune and stromal scores (Figure 2e). Besides,  
239 there were the highest infiltrations of M1 macrophages, CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells, memory activated  
240 CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, memory B cells, activated dendritic cells, and plasma cells *etc.* within ICI gene  
241 cluster B, showing the active immune phenotype. In contrast, the level of infiltration of these  
242 TILs was very low in the poorly prognosed ICI gene cluster C. The three ICI gene clusters  
243 also showed significant differences in the expression levels of PD-1 and PD-L1. There were  
244 relatively high expression levels of PD-1 and PD-L1 in ICI gene clusters A and B, while they  
245 had the lowest expression levels in ICI gene cluster C (**Figures 2f and 2g**). From the above  
246 comprehensive analysis of immunogenic gene clusters, we demonstrated that there is a  
247 significant correlation between the level of ICI and prognosis in different gene clusters.



248

249

250

251

252

Figure 2. Identification and comprehensive analysis of immunogenic gene clusters. (a) Heat map with unsupervised clustering analysis of all DEGs in the three ICI patterns, dividing TCGA-BRCA patients into three genomic clusters, defined as ICI gene clusters A-C. Rows represent genes and columns represent samples. (b) Survival analysis for the three ICI gene clusters in TCGA-BRCA patients using Kaplan-Meier curves. The log-

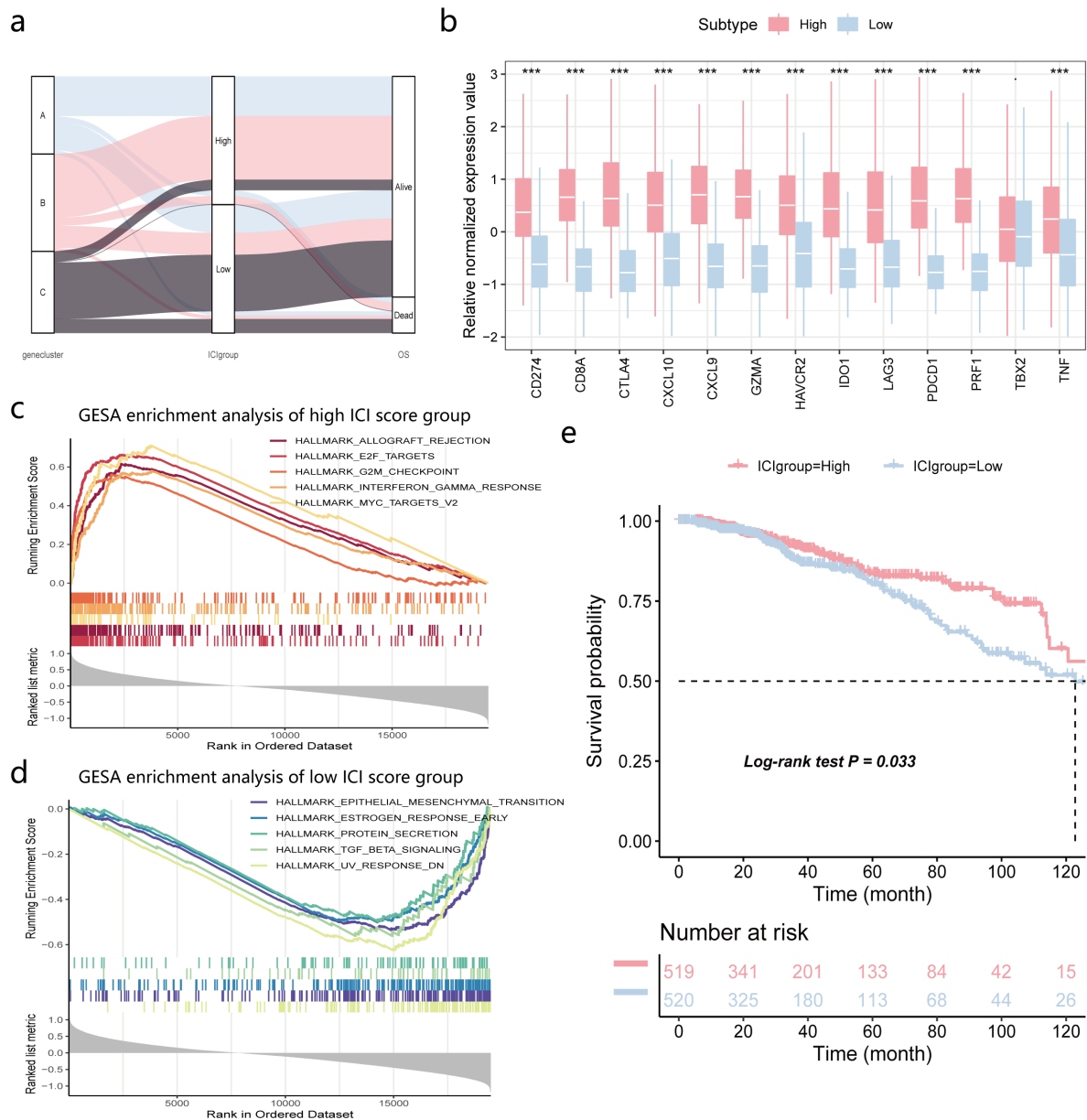


253 **rank test** showed that  $P = 0.04$ . (c and d) Functional annotation of ICI gene clusters A (c) and B (d) using GO  
254 enrichment analysis. The circle size of the bubble plots represented the number of enriched genes. (e) Box plot  
255 for abundance of each immune infiltrating cells in the three ICI gene clusters. The asterisks represented the  
256 statistical **P-value** (Kruskal-Wallis test,  $*P < 0.05$ ,  $**P < 0.01$ ,  $***P < 0.001$ ). (f and g) Violin plots of the  
257 differential expression of PD1 (f) and PD-L1 (g) among the three ICI gene clusters. The statistical differences  
258 among ICI gene clusters were compared by Kruskal-Wallis test ( $P < 0.001$ ).

## 259 **Immune-cell infiltration (ICI) score construction**

260 Given the individual heterogeneity of the TME, we quantified the ICI pattern of BRCA  
261 patients. We calculated 2 summary scores, that is, ICI score A from ICI signature gene A and  
262 ICI score B from ICI signature gene B, using ssGSEA. The ICI score of each patient of  
263 TCGA-BRCA cohort was determined using the difference between ICI scores A and B. The  
264 high ICI score group and low ICI score group were defined using median as the cutoff value.  
265 The distribution of ICI scores and survival of patients in ICI gene clusters were shown in  
266 Figure 3a and Supplementary Table 4.

267 We further analyzed the differences in the expression of immunoreactive-related genes in the  
268 high or low ICI score groups to determine the status of immune activity or tolerance in each  
269 group. Among them, *CD274*, *HAVCR2*, *CTLA4*, *LAG3*, *PDCD1*, and *IDO1* were chosen as  
270 immune inhibitory genes [39], while *CD8A*, *GZMA*, *PRF1*, *CXCL10*, *CXCL9*, *TNF* and *TBX2*  
271 as immune stimulatory genes [40]. As we can observe in Figure 3b, the expression levels of  
272 all immunoreactive-related genes were significantly elevated in the high ICI score group. We  
273 performed the differential expression analysis of genes in the high or low ICI score groups  
274 using the limma package ( $FC = 1.5$ ,  $FDR = 0.05$ ) and obtained 890 DEGs. Our subsequent  
275 GSEA analysis of these DEGs showed that the high ICI score group was significantly  
276 enriched in allograft rejection, E2F targets, G2M checkpoint, interferon gamma response and  
277 MYC targets V2 pathways; while the low ICI score group was mainly enriched in epithelial  
278 mesenchymal transition, estrogen response early, protein secretion, TGF- $\beta$  signaling and UV  
279 response pathways. (Figures 3c and 3d and Supplementary Table 5). In addition, when we  
280 compared the relationship between ICI scores and prognosis, we only selected genes with **P-**  
281 **value**  $< 0.05$  in the univariate survival analysis. We then used PCA to calculate the ICI score  
282 for each patient. Patients were redivided into high and low ICI score groups using the median  
283 value as the cutoff. The Kaplan-Meier curves in Figure 3e indicated that patients of the high  
284 ICI score group have significantly longer survival than those of the low ICI score group (**log-**  
285 **rank test**,  $P = 0.033$ ).



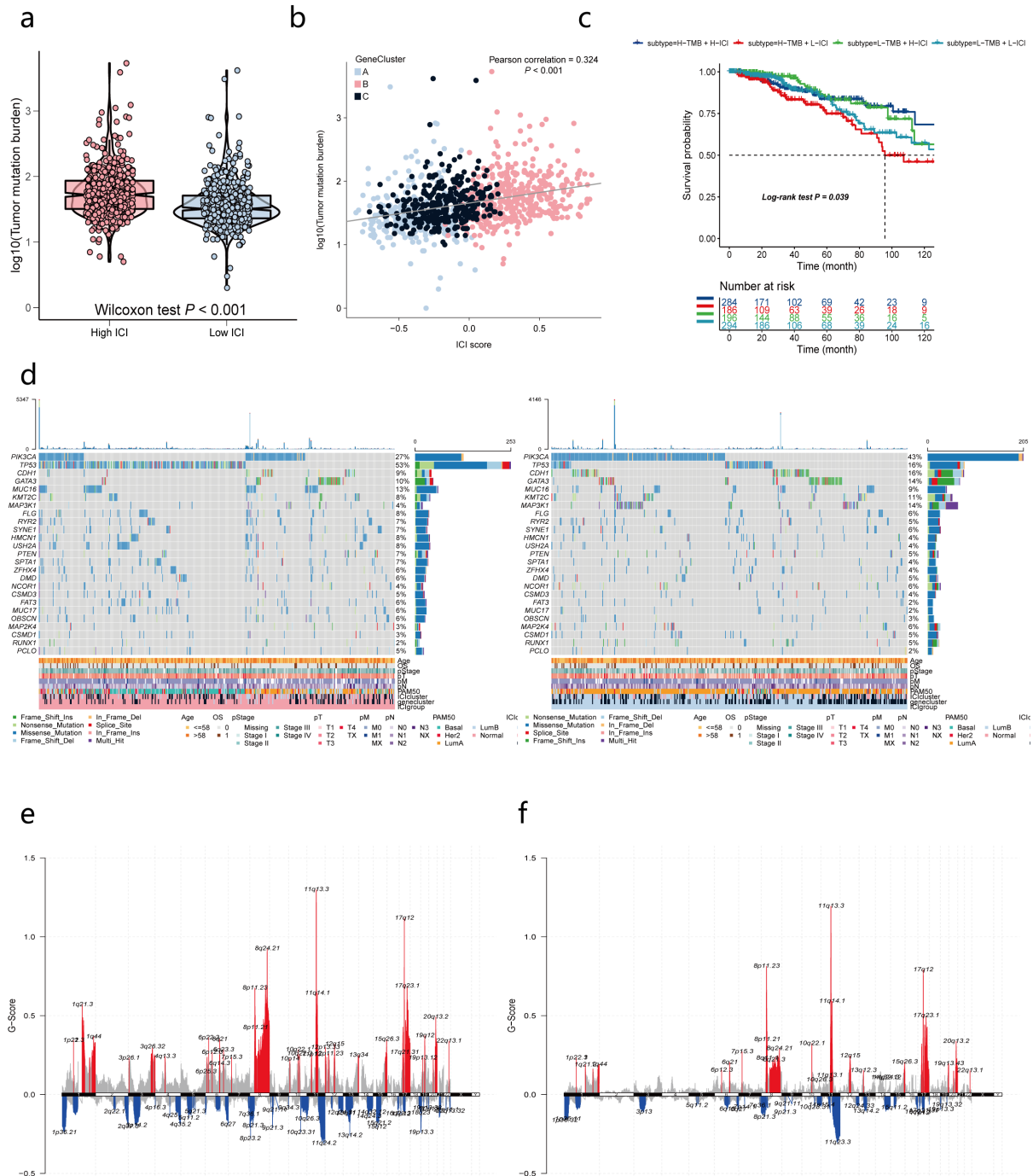
286

287 Figure 3. Immune-cell infiltration (ICI) scores construction. (a) Alluvial diagram showing the distribution of ICI  
 288 gene clusters in different ICI score groups and survival status of TCGA-BRCA patients. (b) Box plot for the  
 289 relative expression of immune checkpoint-associated genes in different ICI score groups. Among them, *CD274*,  
 290 *HAVCR2*, *CTLA4*, *LAG3*, *PDCD1* and *IDO1* are inhibitory genes, *CD8A*, *GZMA*, *PRF1*, *CXCL10*, *CXCL9*, *TNF*  
 291 and *TBX2* are stimulatory genes. The asterisks represented the statistical **P-value** (Kruskal-Wallis test,  $*P <$   
 292  $0.05$ ,  $**P < 0.01$ ,  $***P < 0.001$ ). (c and d) GESA enrichment maps for high (c) and low (d) ICI score groups.  
 293 Allograft rejection, E2F targets, G2M checkpoint, interferon gamma response and MYC targets V2 pathways  
 294 were enriched in the high ICI score group. Epithelial mesenchymal transition, estrogen response early,  
 295 protein secretion, TGF- $\beta$  signaling and UV response pathways were enriched in the low ICI score group. (e)  
 296 Survival analysis for high or low ICI score groups (calculated by using PCA) in TCGA-BRCA patients using  
 297 Kaplan-Meier curves. The **log-rank test** showed that  $P = 0.033$ .

298 **Correlation between immune cell infiltration (ICI) scores and tumor mutation burden**  
 299 **(TMB)**

300 Numerous studies have suggested that the immune phenotype may be associated with  
 301 alterations in the tumor genome [41, 42]. To validate this hypothesis, we tested the

302 relationship between TMB and ICI scores in the TCGA-BRCA cohort and found that patients  
303 in the high ICI score group had more TMB (Kruskal test,  $P = 0.002$ ; Figure 4a). Besides, the  
304 scatter plot of the association between TMB and ICI scores also showed a positive  
305 association (Pearson correlation = 0.324,  $P < 0.001$ ; Figure 4b). In our stratified survival  
306 analysis, which divided patients into different subgroups according to TMB and ICI scores  
307 (calculated by using PCA), we found that patients with high level of TMB and low ICI scores  
308 had the worst prognosis (**log-rank test**,  $P = 0.039$ ; Figure 4c). We also performed clustering  
309 analysis by using the position information of somatic mutations to identify mutation driver  
310 genes in different ICI score subgroups, and mapped the waterfall of the top 25 most  
311 significant mutation driver genes using the maftools package (Figure 4d). Expression profiles  
312 of patients in distinct ICI score groups in the TCGA-BRCA cohort were matched with CNV  
313 data downloaded from the firehose database, and the GISTIC2.0 module of the GenePattern  
314 online tool was used to analyze the status of CNV in different groups. The results from the  
315 analysis were visualized using the maftools package and are presented in **Figures 4e** (high ICI  
316 score group) **and 4f** (low ICI score group). We found that both high and low ICI score groups  
317 **had many copy number variations**, but high ICI score groups had more CNVs. The regions  
318 significantly amplified in the high ICI score group of patients involved 11q13.3, 17q12 and  
319 8q24.21, while 11q13.3 spanned the *CCND1* gene. Significantly deleted regions in the high  
320 ICI score group included 9p21.3, which spans the tumor suppressor genes *CDKN2A* and  
321 *CDKN2B*.



322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

Figure 4. Correlations between immune-cell infiltration (ICI) scores and tumor mutation burden (TMB). (a) Differences in TMB between high or low ICI score groups (Kruskal test,  $P < 0.001$ ). (b) Scatter plot of correlation between ICI scores and the mutational burden in the TCGA-BRCA cohort (Pearson correlation = 0.133,  $P < 0.001$ ). (c) Stratified survival analysis of TCGA-BRCA patients stratified by both TMB and ICI scores (calculated by using PCA) using Kaplan Meier curves. The **log-rank test** showed that  $P = 0.039$  (d) Waterfall plots of the top 25 significantly driver mutated genes in the high (left) or low (right) ICI score groups. Each column represented for individual patients, and the bar plot on top showed the TMB. (e and f) GISTIC2.0-based copy number variant (CNV) analysis of high (e) or low (f) ICI score groups visualized by maftools.

331

### Integrative analysis of immune cell infiltration (ICI) scores on drug response

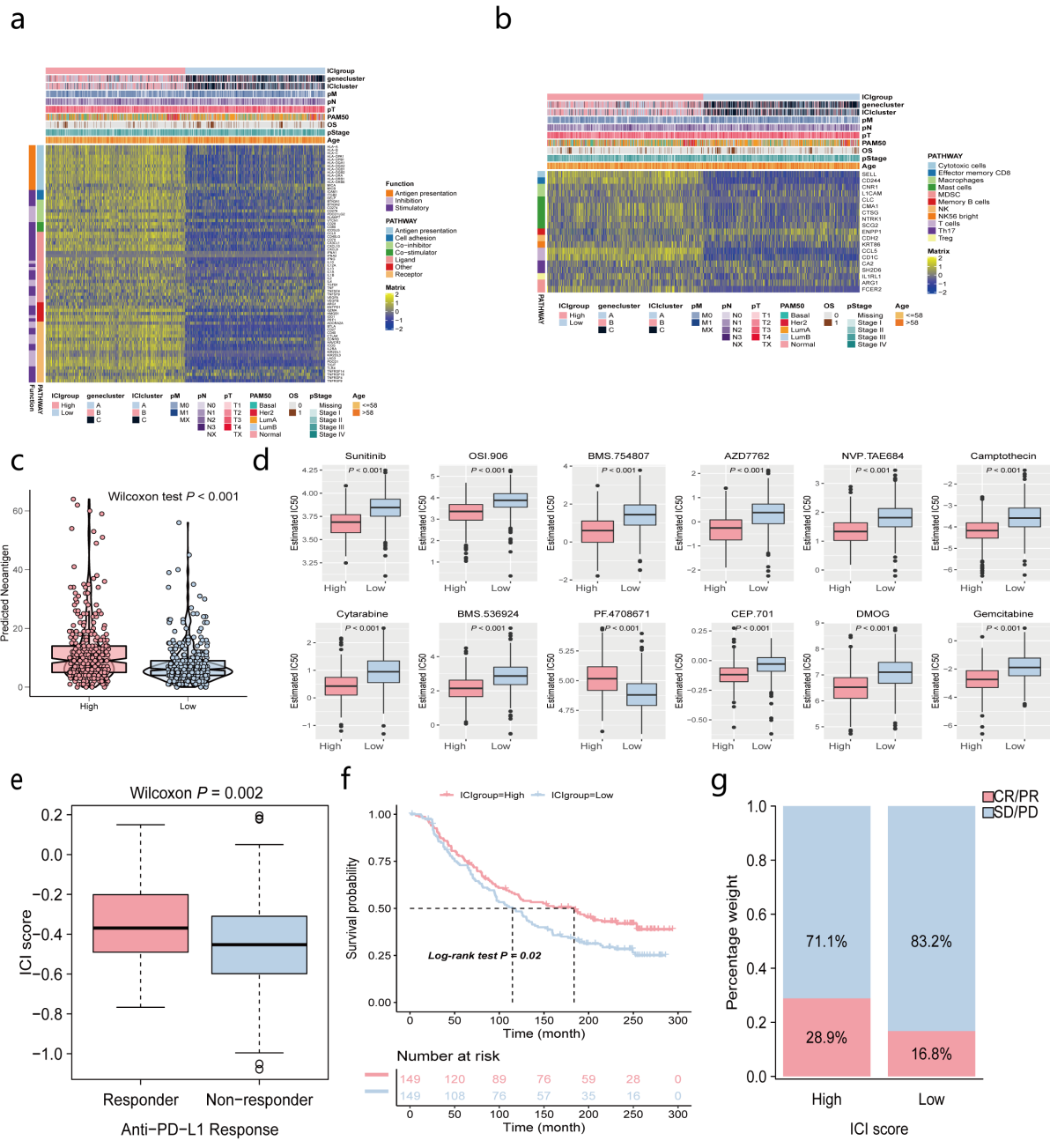
332

333

Furthermore, we selected genes from various pathways related to tumor immune processes and classified the immune-related **genes of our interest** into gene set 1 (Figure 5a) and gene

334 set 2 (Figure 5b), and then created a heat map of these genes in the high or low ICI score  
335 groups. From Figure 5a, we found that most of the genes related to diverse immune pathways  
336 were upregulated in the high ICI score group and downregulated in the low ICI score group.  
337 Figure 5b showed a significant increase of genes related to pathways such as cytotoxic cells,  
338 effector memory CD8, macrophages, and T cells in the high ICI score group. Both **Figures 5a**  
339 **and 5b** showed that patients with Luminal A BRCA are mostly enriched in the low ICI score  
340 group. In addition to TMB, we also noted the **positive correlation** between ICI scores and  
341 neoantigens (Wilcoxon test,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Figure 5c). We downloaded a dataset of drugs  
342 sensitive to the treatment of cancer from the GDSC website, from which we compared the  
343 differences in the sensitivity of high or low ICI groups to more than 100 drugs used to treat  
344 tumors (Supplementary Table 6). The top 12 drugs with **differential treatment responses**  
345 according to **P-value** ranking were illustrated in Figure 5d, from which it was clear that high  
346 ICI scores may lead to increased sensitivity of BRCA to drugs such as imatinib, CCT007093,  
347 MK-2206, CHIR-99021, FH535 and KIN001-135 and so on. All above results may provide  
348 new perspectives for investigating the role of individual gene mutations in the immune  
349 microenvironment and immunotherapy of cancer.

350 In recent years, blockade therapy targeting immune checkpoints has emerged as a mainstream  
351 immunotherapy with the potential to significantly improve the survival of cancer patients, but  
352 only small numbers of patients have responded to this treatment [17, 18]. Markers that can  
353 effectively predict the effect of immunotherapy are limited; therefore, to validate the role of  
354 ICI scores constructed in BRCA patients in predicting patients' response to immunotherapy,  
355 we selected the IMvigor210 cohort of metastatic uroepithelial cancer patients with  
356 immunotherapy received as a validation cohort to test the potential to forecast  
357 immunotherapy benefit of the ICI scores we established. Encouragingly, in the IMvigor210  
358 cohort, we found that ICI scores were in **a** significantly positive correlation with the objective  
359 response rate (ORR) for anti-PD-L1 therapy (Wilcoxon test,  $P = 0.002$ ; Figure 5e).  
360 Moreover, in this cohort, patients with high ICI scores had significantly longer survival (**log-**  
361 **rank test**,  $P = 0.02$ ; Figure 5f). What is more, we found the high ICI score group had a higher  
362 ORR after anti-PD-L1 treatment (Figure 5g). In conclusion, these data suggest that the ICI  
363 scores **can** predict the responses to immunotherapy.



364

365  
 366  
 367  
 368  
 369  
 370  
 371  
 372  
 373  
 374  
 375  
 376

Figure 5. Integrative analysis of immune-cell infiltration (ICI) scores on drug response. (a and b) Heatmap of immune-related genes in different ICI score groups. The immune-related genes were divided into two groups: gene set 1 (a) and gene set 2 (b). The ICI cluster, ICI gene cluster, PAM50 subtype, age, tumor stage and survival status were used as patient annotations. (c) Differences in neoantigen between high or low ICI score groups. (d) Comparison of drug sensitivity in high or low ICI score groups (Wilcoxon test,  $P < 0.001$ ). The box plots show the differences in IC50 values for the top 12 drugs sorted by  $P$ -value. (e) Boxplot for the distribution of ICI scores of patients in different anti-PD-L1 therapeutic responses in IMvigor210 cohort (Wilcoxon test,  $P = 0.002$ ). (f) Survival analysis for high or low ICI score groups in IMvigor210 cohort patients using Kaplan-Meier curves. The log-rank test showed that  $P = 0.02$ . (g) Bar graph showing the proportion of patients with various clinical responses (responder: complete response (CR)/ partial response (PR); non-responder: stable disease (SD)/progressive disease (PD)) to anti-PD-L1 immunotherapy in the high or low ICI score groups of the IMvigor210 cohort.

## 377 Discussion

378 Immunotherapy has changed the treatment and prognosis for many malignancies. In recent  
379 years, immunotherapy using checkpoint blockades have proven to generate unprecedented  
380 and durable responses in patients suffering from diverse cancers [43, 45]. In BRCA, building  
381 on the favorable results of the Phase III IMpassion130 trial [46] and the Phase III  
382 KEYNOTE-355 trial [47], the U.S. FDA has accelerated approval for the PD-L1 inhibitor  
383 atezolizumab as well as the PD-1 inhibitor pembrolizumab, combined with chemotherapy, for  
384 the treatment of locally advanced or metastatic PD-L1-positive triple-negative BRCA  
385 (TNBC) patients in 2019 and 2020, respectively [48]. In recent years, there has been  
386 increasing evidence that patterns of the immune system play a key role in determining both  
387 the response to treatment and survival of BRCA patients [49]. These data and the clinical use  
388 of immune checkpoint blockers in a variety of solid tumors have also demonstrated striking  
389 success [50, 51]. Stromal TILs concentration shows a linear relationship with clinical  
390 outcome in different clinical subtypes of BRCA [49]. For example, it has been shown that  
391 HER-2+ BRCA and TNBC have higher levels of TILs and PD-L1 expression in TME at  
392 diagnosis than luminal BRCA, which can be predicted to benefit more from adjuvant and  
393 neoadjuvant chemotherapy, are more likely to respond to PD-1/PD-L1 blockade and have  
394 longer survival [52-54]. However, the use of immunotherapy in BRCA remains limited and  
395 only a minority of patients would benefit from it. Poor immunogenicity, T-cell infiltration in  
396 TME, and enhanced immunosuppression have been identified as potential challenges to  
397 successful immunotherapy for BRCA [55]. Therefore, the development of more efficient  
398 biomarkers for predicting response and resistance to therapy, as well as the recognition of  
399 environmental modifiers to immunity (mutational load, neoantigens, and sensitive  
400 combination therapeutics) is important to improve the efficacy of immunotherapy. It will be  
401 of great help to choose the appropriate timing and patients for immunotherapy, patients  
402 should be detected markers of immunotherapy response when initial diagnosis and  
403 immunotherapy should be used in treatment as early as possible [56]. In this study, we  
404 developed a method to quantify ICI in TME of BRCA patients - ICI score, and our results  
405 demonstrated that this score can be used as a predictor to assess the effectiveness and  
406 prognosis of immunotherapy.

407 Many studies have demonstrated the importance of an abundant and active BRCA TME in  
408 forecasting the response of tumor patients to immunotherapy [57, 58]. For example, tumors  
409 with increased TILs, positive PD-L1, and elevated tumor-infiltrating CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells exhibit a  
410 higher response rate to immunotherapy. Such tumors are considered "inflamed" or "hot"  
411 tumors. In contrast, "non-inflamed" or "cold" tumors with lower TILs, PD-L1 expression, and  
412 CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell infiltration are less likely to respond to immunotherapy [56]. In this study, we  
413 analyzed the ICI patterns of 1721 BRCA samples from the integrated cohort and classified  
414 BRCA into three separate immune subtypes, ICI clusters I, II, and III. The results of our  
415 analysis suggested that patients in ICI clusters I and II with higher TILs infiltration, PD-L1  
416 expression, and high immune scores had longer survival. This is consistent with previous  
417 studies [59, 60]. These findings illustrated that the preexistent immune responses in TME can  
418 have an impact on the prognosis of BRCA patients as well as on the degree of benefit from  
419 immunotherapy. However, it is not sufficient to rely solely on the immune phenotype of the  
420 tumor to project the response to immunotherapy. Alterations of certain molecules during  
421 tumor progression may also interfere with the interaction between immune cells or between  
422 immune cells and tumor cells, thereby disrupting the balance of immune resistance and  
423 activation in tumors [38]. However, how the genomic landscape in BRCA shapes and  
424 influences antitumor immunity is not yet clear.

425 Systematic analysis of tumor immune-related gene expression profiles can shed further light  
426 on the relationship between tumor genetics and TME. Genetic characterization may also  
427 assist in identifying suitable BRCA patients for immunotherapy. We clustered the cohort  
428 again based on DEGs between the previous ICI clusters, divided TCGA-BRCA patients into  
429 new ICI gene clusters, and defined ICI signature genes. Among these different ICI gene  
430 clusters, we discovered that ICI gene cluster C with the lowest levels of activated TILs,  
431 immune score, stromal score, exhibited an immune exhausted phenotype. On the contrary,  
432 ICI gene clusters A and B had higher inflammatory cell infiltration, immune scores, and  
433 stromal scores. And we also observed that ICI gene cluster B had a promising immune  
434 activation phenotype because of the highest content of macrophages, resting NK cells,  
435 memory activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, plasma cells, CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells, *etc.* [61,62]. Meanwhile,  
436 patients in ICI gene cluster B had the highest expression of PD-1 and PD-L1 and a more  
437 optimistic prognosis. We speculated that patients with ICI gene cluster B may be more likely  
438 to benefit from immunotherapy. The opposite is the case for patients with ICI gene cluster C,  
439 probably because their immune exhausted phenotype may lead to tumor cells evading the  
440 immune system and not responding to immunotherapy. Our study is **following previous**  
441 **studies** [63]. These findings suggested that combining the synthetic features of ICI profiles  
442 with expression patterns of immune-related genes in TME may become a promising approach  
443 to developing more precise immunotherapy regimens for BRCA patients.

444 Due to the high individual heterogeneity of TME, we used the ssGSEA method to establish  
445 ICI scores for patients in the TCGA-BRCA cohort and to quantify the ICI pattern for each  
446 patient. We found that the expression of most of the immune-related genes was higher in the  
447 group that had high ICI scores. GSEA analysis of the low ICI score group showed  
448 significantly enriched in TGF- $\beta$  signaling pathway, epithelial mesenchymal transition, *etc.*  
449 Notably, TGF- $\beta$  is a gene that is known to be involved in immunosuppressive pathways [37].  
450 In addition, we found that our constructed ICI scores also correlated with TMB and  
451 neoantigens that **also could predict response to immunotherapy** [42, 64]. TMB levels and the  
452 number of neoantigens were significantly higher in the high ICI score group. Both Survival  
453 analysis and stratified analysis indicated that higher ICI scores conferred a better prognosis  
454 for patients. Moreover, patients with high TMB and low ICI scores had the shortest survival.  
455 We also observed that different ICI score groups were associated with altered tumor driver  
456 genes (*e.g.*, *PI3KCA*, *TP53*, *CDH1*) and gene copy number. High or low ICI scores also  
457 showed significant differences in sensitivity to certain other target drugs.

458 The ability of our established ICI score to predict response to immunotherapy in tumor  
459 patients was validated in a cohort of metastatic uroepithelial cancer patients treated with anti-  
460 PD-L1 agents (IMvigor210) [65]. Our results showed that ICI scores were significantly  
461 higher in patients who had a response to immunotherapy than in those who did not. Patients  
462 from the high ICI score group had longer survival and higher ORR. However, lacking data  
463 from a cohort of BRCA patients receiving immunotherapy, additional prospective trials are  
464 needed to validate these predictors that we constructed in the TCGA-BRCA cohort. In  
465 summary, our analysis has revealed environmental and genetic mechanisms affecting tumor-  
466 immune interactions in BRCA, and our constructed ICI score may serve as a powerful marker  
467 for predicting patient prognosis and the extent of benefit from immunotherapy.



## 468 **Conclusions**

469 In summary, our analysis has revealed environmental and genetic mechanisms affecting  
470 tumor-immune interactions in BRCA, and our constructed ICI score may serve as a powerful  
471 marker for predicting patient prognosis and the extent of benefit from immunotherapy.

## 472 **Data Availability**

473 The datasets and original contributions used to support the findings of this study are included  
474 within the article and supplementary information files. Further inquiries can be directed to the  
475 corresponding author.

## 476 **Conflicts of Interest**

477 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

## 478 **Funding Statement**

479 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China [grant number  
480 81772827].

## 481 **Supplementary Materials**

482 Supplementary Table 1. Relative Fractions of tumor-infiltrating immune cells of 1721 BRCA  
483 patients.

484 Supplementary Table 2. Differentially expressed genes of ICI clusters in the TCGA-BRCA  
485 cohort.

486 Supplementary Table 3. ICI signature genes A and B.

487 Supplementary Table 4. Clinical and survival information with ICI cluster and ICI gene  
488 cluster and ICI score of TCGA-BRCA patients.

489 Supplementary Table 5. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of differentially expressed  
490 genes of ICI score groups.

491 Supplementary Table 6. Drug estimated IC50 between high or low ICI score groups.

## 492 **References**

- 493 1. Siegel, R.L., K.D. Miller, and A. Jemal, *Cancer statistics, 2020*. CA Cancer J Clin, 2020. **70**(1): p. 7-30.
- 494 2. Liu, H., et al., *Evaluating DNA Methylation, Gene Expression, Somatic Mutation, and Their Combinations*  
495 *in Inferring Tumor Tissue-of-Origin*. Front Cell Dev Biol, 2021. **9**: p. 619330.
- 496 3. Zhang, Y., et al., *Identifying breast cancer-related genes based on a novel computational framework*  
497 *involving KEGG pathways and PPI network modularity*. Frontiers in Genetics, 2021. **12**: p. 876.
- 498 4. He, B., et al., *TOOme: A Novel Computational Framework to Infer Cancer Tissue-of-Origin by Integrating*  
499 *Both Gene Mutation and Expression*. Front Bioeng Biotechnol, 2020. **8**: p. 394.
- 500 5. Liu, C., et al., *An Improved Anticancer Drug-Response Prediction Based on an Ensemble Method*  
501 *Integrating Matrix Completion and Ridge Regression*. Mol Ther Nucleic Acids, 2020. **21**: p. 676-686.

- 502 6. Liu, X., et al., *A systematic study on drug-response associated genes using baseline gene expressions of the*  
503 *Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia*. Sci Rep, 2016. **6**: p. 22811.
- 504 7. Gonzalez-Angulo, A.M., F. Morales-Vasquez, and G.N. Hortobagyi, *Overview of resistance to systemic*  
505 *therapy in patients with breast cancer*. Adv Exp Med Biol, 2007. **608**: p. 1-22.
- 506 8. Wang, X., et al., *Exploring the concepts and practices of advanced breast cancer treatment: a narrative*  
507 *review*. Ann Transl Med, 2021. **9**(8): p. 721.
- 508 9. Puram, S.V., et al., *Single-Cell Transcriptomic Analysis of Primary and Metastatic Tumor Ecosystems in*  
509 *Head and Neck Cancer*. Cell, 2017. **171**(7): p. 1611-1624.e24.
- 510 10. Song, Z., et al., *Evaluating the Potential of T Cell Receptor Repertoires in Predicting the Prognosis of*  
511 *Resectable Non-Small Cell Lung Cancers*. Mol Ther Methods Clin Dev, 2020. **18**: p. 73-83.
- 512 11. Yang, L., et al., *Clinical significance of the immune microenvironment in ovarian cancer patients*. Mol  
513 Omics, 2018. **14**(5): p. 341-351.
- 514 12. Erdag, G., et al., *Immunotype and immunohistologic characteristics of tumor-infiltrating immune cells are*  
515 *associated with clinical outcome in metastatic melanoma*. Cancer Res, 2012. **72**(5): p. 1070-80.
- 516 13. Galon, J., et al., *Type, density, and location of immune cells within human colorectal tumors predict*  
517 *clinical outcome*. Science, 2006. **313**(5795): p. 1960-4.
- 518 14. Banchereau, J. and R.M. Steinman, *Dendritic cells and the control of immunity*. Nature, 1998. **392**(6673):  
519 p. 245-52.
- 520 15. Chen, Y., et al., *Tumor-associated macrophages: an accomplice in solid tumor progression*. J Biomed Sci,  
521 2019. **26**(1): p. 78.
- 522 16. Nelson, M.A., et al., *Prognostic and therapeutic role of tumor-infiltrating lymphocyte subtypes in breast*  
523 *cancer*. Cancer Metastasis Rev, 2021.
- 524 17. Domchek, S.M., et al., *Olaparib and durvalumab in patients with germline BRCA-mutated metastatic*  
525 *breast cancer (MEDIOLA): an open-label, multicentre, phase 1/2, basket study*. Lancet Oncol, 2020. **21**(9):  
526 p. 1155-1164.
- 527 18. Tolaney, S.M., et al., *Effect of Eribulin With or Without Pembrolizumab on Progression-Free Survival for*  
528 *Patients With Hormone Receptor-Positive, ERBB2-Negative Metastatic Breast Cancer: A Randomized*  
529 *Clinical Trial*. JAMA Oncol, 2020. **6**(10): p. 1598-1605.
- 530 19. Brufsky, A., et al., *A phase II randomized trial of cobimetinib plus chemotherapy, with or without*  
531 *atezolizumab, as first-line treatment for patients with locally advanced or metastatic triple-negative breast*  
532 *cancer (COLET): primary analysis*. Ann Oncol, 2021. **32**(5): p. 652-660.
- 533 20. Rugo, H.S., et al., *Safety and Antitumor Activity of Pembrolizumab in Patients with Estrogen Receptor-*  
534 *Positive/Human Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor 2-Negative Advanced Breast Cancer*. Clin Cancer  
535 Res, 2018. **24**(12): p. 2804-2811.
- 536 21. Zou, W., J.D. Wolchok, and L. Chen, *PD-L1 (B7-H1) and PD-1 pathway blockade for cancer therapy:*  
537 *Mechanisms, response biomarkers, and combinations*. Sci Transl Med, 2016. **8**(328): p. 328rv4.
- 538 22. Colaprico, A., et al., *TCGAbiolinks: An R/Bioconductor package for integrative analysis of TCGA data*.  
539 Nucleic Acids Research, 2015. **44**(8).
- 540 23. Yau, C., et al., *A multigene predictor of metastatic outcome in early stage hormone receptor-negative and*  
541 *triple-negative breast cancer*. Breast Cancer Res, 2010. **12**(5): p. R85.
- 542 24. Newman, A.M., et al., *Robust enumeration of cell subsets from tissue expression profiles*. Nature Methods,  
543 2015. **12**(5): p. 453-457.
- 544 25. Alexandra, S., et al., *Contribution of systemic and somatic factors to clinical response and resistance to*  
545 *PD-L1 blockade in urothelial cancer: An exploratory multi-omic analysis*. PLOS Medicine, 2017. **14**(5).
- 546 26. Chao, C., et al., *Removing batch effects in analysis of expression microarray data: an evaluation of six*  
547 *batch adjustment methods*. PLoS ONE, 2011. **6**(2): p. e17238.
- 548 27. Yoshihara, K., et al., *Inferring tumour purity and stromal and immune cell admixture from expression data*.  
549 Nature Communications, 2013. **4**.
- 550 28. Hayes, D.N., *ConsensusClusterPlus: a class discovery tool with confidence assessments and item tracking*.  
551 Bioinformatics, 2010. **26**(12): p. 1572-1573.
- 552 29. Ritchie, M.E., et al., *limma powers differential expression analyses for RNA-sequencing and microarray*  
553 *studies*. Nucleic acids research, 2015. **43**(7): p. e47.
- 554 30. Gu, Z., E. Roland, and S. Matthias, *Complex heatmaps reveal patterns and correlations in*  
555 *multidimensional genomic data*. Bioinformatics, 2016. **32**(18): p. 2847.
- 556 31. Mayakonda, A., et al., *Maftools: efficient and comprehensive analysis of somatic variants in cancer*.  
557 Genome Research, 2018. **28**(11).
- 558 32. David, T., G.P. Abel, and L.B. Nuria, *OncodriveCLUST: exploiting the positional clustering of somatic*  
559 *mutations to identify cancer genes*. Bioinformatics, 2013(18): p. 2238-2244.
- 560 33. Yang, W., et al., *Genomics of Drug Sensitivity in Cancer (GDSC): a resource for therapeutic biomarker*  
561 *discovery in cancer cells*. Nucleic Acids Research, 2013(D1): p. D955.

- 562 34. Paul, G., et al., *pRRophetic: An R Package for Prediction of Clinical Chemotherapeutic Response from*  
563 *Tumor Gene Expression Levels*. Plos One, 2014. **9**(9): p. e107468-e107468.
- 564 35. Rooney, M., et al., *Molecular and genetic properties of tumors associated with local immune cytolytic*  
565 *activity*. Cell, 2015. **160**(1-2): p. 48-61.
- 566 36. Hnzelmann, S., R. Castelo, and J. Guinney, *GSEA: gene set variation analysis for microarray and RNA-*  
567 *Seq data*. BMC Bioinformatics, 2013. **14**(1): p. 7-7.
- 568 37. Chen, Y.P., et al., *Identification and validation of novel microenvironment-based immune molecular*  
569 *subgroups of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma: implications for immunotherapy*. Ann Oncol, 2019.  
570 **30**(1): p. 68-75.
- 571 38. Chen, D.S. and I. Mellman, *Elements of cancer immunity and the cancer-immune set point*. Nature, 2017.  
572 **541**(7637): p. 321-330.
- 573 39. Ayers, M., et al., *IFN- $\gamma$ -related mRNA profile predicts clinical response to PD-1 blockade*. J Clin Invest,  
574 2017. **127**(8): p. 2930-2940.
- 575 40. Hugo, W., et al., *Genomic and Transcriptomic Features of Response to Anti-PD-1 Therapy in Metastatic*  
576 *Melanoma*. Cell, 2017. **168**(3): p. 542.
- 577 41. Rizvi, N.A., et al., *Cancer immunology. Mutational landscape determines sensitivity to PD-1 blockade in*  
578 *non-small cell lung cancer*. Science, 2015. **348**(6230): p. 124-8.
- 579 42. McGranahan, N., et al., *Clonal neoantigens elicit T cell immunoreactivity and sensitivity to immune*  
580 *checkpoint blockade*. Science, 2016. **351**(6280): p. 1463-9.
- 581 43. Pinato, D.J., et al., *PRIME-HCC: phase Ib study of neoadjuvant ipilimumab and nivolumab prior to liver*  
582 *resection for hepatocellular carcinoma*. BMC Cancer, 2021. **21**(1): p. 301.
- 583 44. Sacco, A.G., et al., *Pembrolizumab plus cetuximab in patients with recurrent or metastatic head and neck*  
584 *squamous cell carcinoma: an open-label, multi-arm, non-randomised, multicentre, phase 2 trial*. Lancet  
585 Oncol, 2021. **22**(6): p. 883-892.
- 586 45. Schmid, P., et al., *Pembrolizumab plus chemotherapy as neoadjuvant treatment of high-risk, early-stage*  
587 *triple-negative breast cancer: results from the phase Ib open-label, multicohort KEYNOTE-173 study*. Ann  
588 Oncol, 2020. **31**(5): p. 569-581.
- 589 46. Schmid, P., et al., *Atezolizumab and Nab-Paclitaxel in Advanced Triple-Negative Breast Cancer*. N Engl J  
590 Med, 2018. **379**(22): p. 2108-2121.
- 591 47. Cortes, J., et al., *Pembrolizumab plus chemotherapy versus placebo plus chemotherapy for previously*  
592 *untreated locally recurrent inoperable or metastatic triple-negative breast cancer (KEYNOTE-355): a*  
593 *randomised, placebo-controlled, double-blind, phase 3 clinical trial*. Lancet, 2020. **396**(10265): p. 1817-  
594 1828.
- 595 48. Lin, H., et al., *T Cell Receptor Repertoire Sequencing*. Methods Mol Biol, 2020. **2204**: p. 3-12.
- 596 49. Savas, P., et al., *Clinical relevance of host immunity in breast cancer: from TILs to the clinic*. Nat Rev Clin  
597 Oncol, 2016. **13**(4): p. 228-41.
- 598 50. Lipson, E.J., et al., *Antagonists of PD-1 and PD-L1 in Cancer Treatment*. Semin Oncol, 2015. **42**(4): p.  
599 587-600.
- 600 51. Emens, L.A., et al., *Cancer immunotherapy: Opportunities and challenges in the rapidly evolving clinical*  
601 *landscape*. Eur J Cancer, 2017. **81**: p. 116-129.
- 602 52. Cimino-Mathews, A., et al., *PD-L1 (B7-H1) expression and the immune tumor microenvironment in*  
603 *primary and metastatic breast carcinomas*. Hum Pathol, 2016. **47**(1): p. 52-63.
- 604 53. Li, X., et al., *Prognostic Role of Programmed Death Ligand-1 Expression in Breast Cancer: A Systematic*  
605 *Review and Meta-Analysis*. Target Oncol, 2016. **11**(6): p. 753-761.
- 606 54. Topalian, S.L., et al., *Mechanism-driven biomarkers to guide immune checkpoint blockade in cancer*  
607 *therapy*. Nat Rev Cancer, 2016. **16**(5): p. 275-87.
- 608 55. Basu, A., et al., *Immunotherapy in breast cancer: Current status and future directions*. Adv Cancer Res,  
609 2019. **143**: p. 295-349.
- 610 56. Heeke, A.L. and A.R. Tan, *Checkpoint inhibitor therapy for metastatic triple-negative breast cancer*.  
611 Cancer Metastasis Rev, 2021: p. 1-11.
- 612 57. Woo, S.R., L. Corrales, and T.F. Gajewski, *The STING pathway and the T cell-inflamed tumor*  
613 *microenvironment*. Trends Immunol, 2015. **36**(4): p. 250-6.
- 614 58. Loi, S., et al., *Tumor infiltrating lymphocytes are prognostic in triple negative breast cancer and predictive*  
615 *for trastuzumab benefit in early breast cancer: results from the FinHER trial*. Ann Oncol, 2014. **25**(8): p.  
616 1544-50.
- 617 59. Rooney, M.S., et al., *Molecular and genetic properties of tumors associated with local immune cytolytic*  
618 *activity*. Cell, 2015. **160**(1-2): p. 48-61.
- 619 60. He, Y., et al., *Classification of triple-negative breast cancers based on Immunogenomic profiling*. J Exp  
620 Clin Cancer Res, 2018. **37**(1): p. 327.

- 621 61. Biswas, S.K. and A. Mantovani, *Macrophage plasticity and interaction with lymphocyte subsets: cancer as*  
622 *a paradigm*. Nat Immunol, 2010. **11**(10): p. 889-96.
- 623 62. Hwang, M.L., J.R. Lukens, and T.N. Bullock, *Cognate memory CD4+ T cells generated with dendritic cell*  
624 *priming influence the expansion, trafficking, and differentiation of secondary CD8+ T cells and enhance*  
625 *tumor control*. J Immunol, 2007. **179**(9): p. 5829-38.
- 626 63. Zhang, X., et al., *Characterization of the Immune Cell Infiltration Landscape in Head and Neck Squamous*  
627 *Cell Carcinoma to Aid Immunotherapy*. Molecular Therapy - Nucleic Acids, 2020. **22**: p. 298-309.
- 628 64. Goodman, A.M., et al., *Tumor Mutational Burden as an Independent Predictor of Response to*  
629 *Immunotherapy in Diverse Cancers*. Mol Cancer Ther, 2017. **16**(11): p. 2598-2608.
- 630 65. Mariathasan, S., et al., *TGF $\beta$  attenuates tumour response to PD-L1 blockade by contributing to exclusion*  
631 *of T cells*. Nature, 2018. **554**(7693): p. 544-548.

632