

# Mechanism of Action, Clinical Efficacy, and Biomarker-Driven Decisions for Use of Emerging Therapeutics in Breast Cancer

Strategies for mitigating therapy resistance and improving the patient management

## Emerging therapeutics for breast cancer (BC)



BC is broadly categorised<sup>1</sup> into:

Human epidermal growth factor receptor (HER2)-positive: 15–20%

HER2-negative, oestrogen receptor (ER), and/or progesterone receptor (PR)-positive: 70%

Triple negative BC (TNBC): ~15%

Endocrine therapy (ET) targeting the ER signalling pathways is a major component of BC therapeutics

## ETs<sup>1</sup>

Mechanisms of action<sup>1</sup>



### Selective ER modulators (SERMs)

Block oestrogen production (oral tamoxifen)



### Aromatase inhibitors (AIs)

- Competitive inhibitor of oestrogen binding to ER
- Engage co-repressors to inhibit ER transcriptional activity (oral anastrozole, letrozole, and exemestane)



### Selective ER degraders

Prevents nuclear translocation of ER, targets for proteasomal degradation

## New-generation anti-oestrogen therapies to circumvent therapy resistance<sup>1</sup>

### Complete ER antagonists

Recruit co-repressors to block transcriptional activation of ER

### Proteolysis targeting chimeric

Bifunctional molecules that bind to ER and the E3 ubiquitin ligase, leading to proteasomal degradation of ER

### Selective ER covalent antagonists

Covalently binds to inactivate ER, resulting in inhibition of gene transcription

## Key clinical trials<sup>1</sup>

### EMERALD

Elacestrant vs. standard of care ET

Median progression-free survival (PFS) in overall population: 2.8 vs. 1.9 months

12-month PFS in patients with oestrogen receptor 1 mutation:



The newer ETs are in early stages of development or clinical evaluation

## Cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) 4 and 6 inhibitors

### Abemaciclib, ribociclib, and palbociclib<sup>2</sup>

Approved in combination with ET for hormone receptor (HR)-positive/HER-negative BC<sup>2</sup>



### Mechanisms of action<sup>2</sup>

- Inhibitors of cell cycle progression
- Prevents phosphorylation of retinoblastoma (Rb) protein and induces G1-phase arrest in the cell cycle

## Key clinical trials

### PALOMA-2<sup>2</sup>

Palbociclib + letrozole vs. placebo + letrozole

Median PFS: 38.8 months vs. 28.8 months

### MONALEESA-2<sup>2</sup>

Ribociclib + letrozole vs. placebo + letrozole

Median PFS: 25.3 months vs. 16.0 months

### MONARCH E<sup>2</sup>

Abemaciclib + ET vs. ET

4-year invasive disease-free survival: 85.8% vs. 79.4%

### MONARCH 2

Abemaciclib + fulvestrant (ER antagonist) vs. placebo + fulvestrant

Median PFS: 16.4 months vs. 9.3 months



Manageable adverse events (AEs) like neutropenia, QTc prolongation, and gastrointestinal toxicity noted<sup>3</sup>

## Resistance to therapy is often acquired by activation of PI3K signalling

### INAVO120 trial<sup>4</sup>

Inavolisib (PI3Ka\* inhibitor) + palbociclib + fulvestrant vs. placebo + palbociclib + fulvestrant  
Extended PFS: 15 vs. 7.3 months\*

\*Phosphoinositide 3-kinase a [PI3Ka]

\*In PIK3CA HR-positive, HER-negative locally advanced, or MBC who relapsed within 12 months of adjuvant ET\*

### CAPitello-291 trial<sup>5</sup>

Capivasertib (AKT inhibitor) + fulvestrant vs. placebo + fulvestrant  
Median PFS in AKT-altered population\*: 7.3 vs. 3.1 months

\*In patients who relapsed after AI therapy  
Protein Kinase B (AKT)

## Antibody drug conjugates (ADC)

### Trastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1)<sup>6</sup>

T-DM1 is trastuzumab, the antibody targeting HER2 linked to microtubule inhibitory agent DM1

### Mechanisms of action<sup>6</sup>

- Trastuzumab binding to HER2
- Internalisation of ADC increases intracellular levels of DM1  
→ mitotic arrest and apoptosis

### Key clinical trials

#### EMILIA study<sup>7</sup>

TDM1 vs. lapatinib plus capecitabine  
Median PFS: 9.6 vs. 6.4 months\*

\*Patients previously treated for locally advanced or MBC with trastuzumab and a taxane

### T-deruxtecan (T-DXd)

T-DXd, trastuzumab linked to topoisomerase I inhibitor

### Key clinical trials

#### Destiny Breast-03<sup>8</sup>

T-DM1 vs. T-DXd  
PFS: 12 months\* (34.1% vs. 75.8%)

#### DESTINY-Breast-09<sup>9</sup>

TDXd/pertuzumab vs. THP (taxane + trastuzumab + pertuzumab)  
Median PFS\*: 40.7 vs. 26.9 months

\*In HER2-positive MBC

### Sacituzumab govitecan

Anti-trophoblast cell surface antigen 2 (Trop-2) antibody coupled to a cytotoxic SN-38 payload

### Key clinical trials

#### ASCENT trial<sup>10</sup>

Median PFS\*: 4.8 vs. 1.7 months

\*For metastatic TNBC with >2 prior therapies

## Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors<sup>11</sup>



### Olaparib and talazoparib

- Approved in metastatic HER2-negative BC with germline breast cancer gene (*BRCA*) mutation (gBRCAm)



### Mechanism of action<sup>11</sup>

- Synthetic lethality due to lack of DNA single-strand break repair
- PARP1 trapping causing DNA damage and cell death

### Key clinical trials<sup>11</sup>

#### OlympiAD<sup>12</sup>

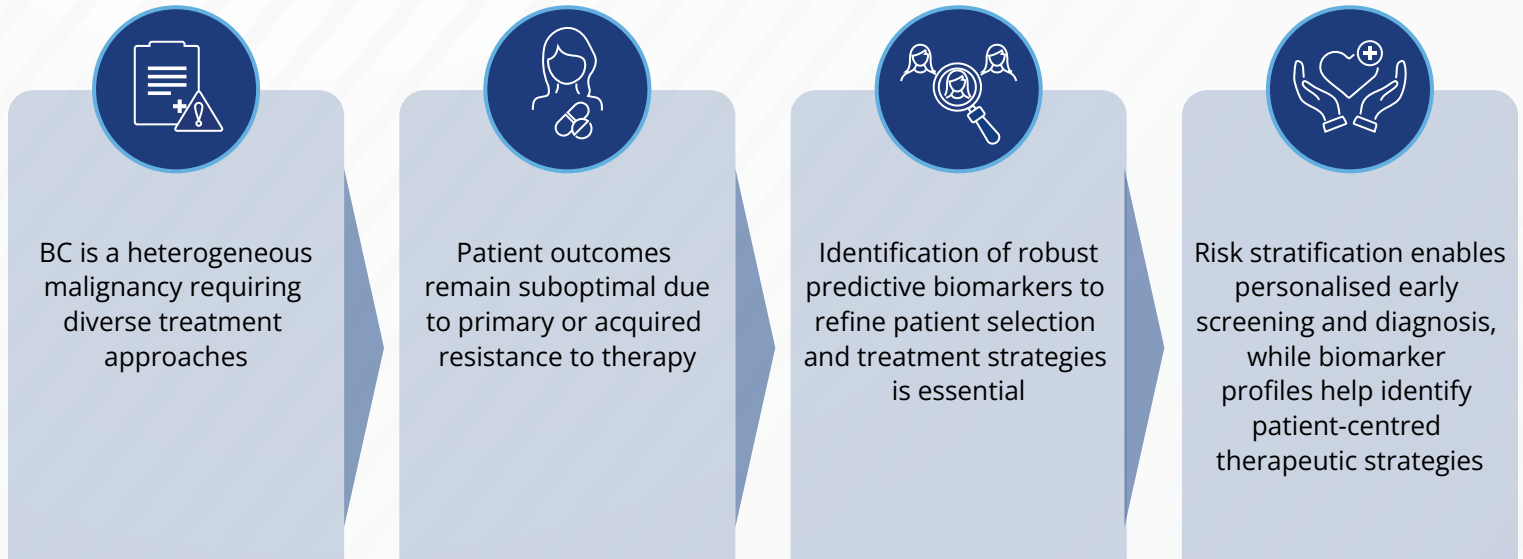
Olaparib vs. treatment of physician's choice (TPC)  
Median PFS: 2.8 months longer for olaparib  
42% lower risk of disease progression

#### EMBRACA trial<sup>11</sup>

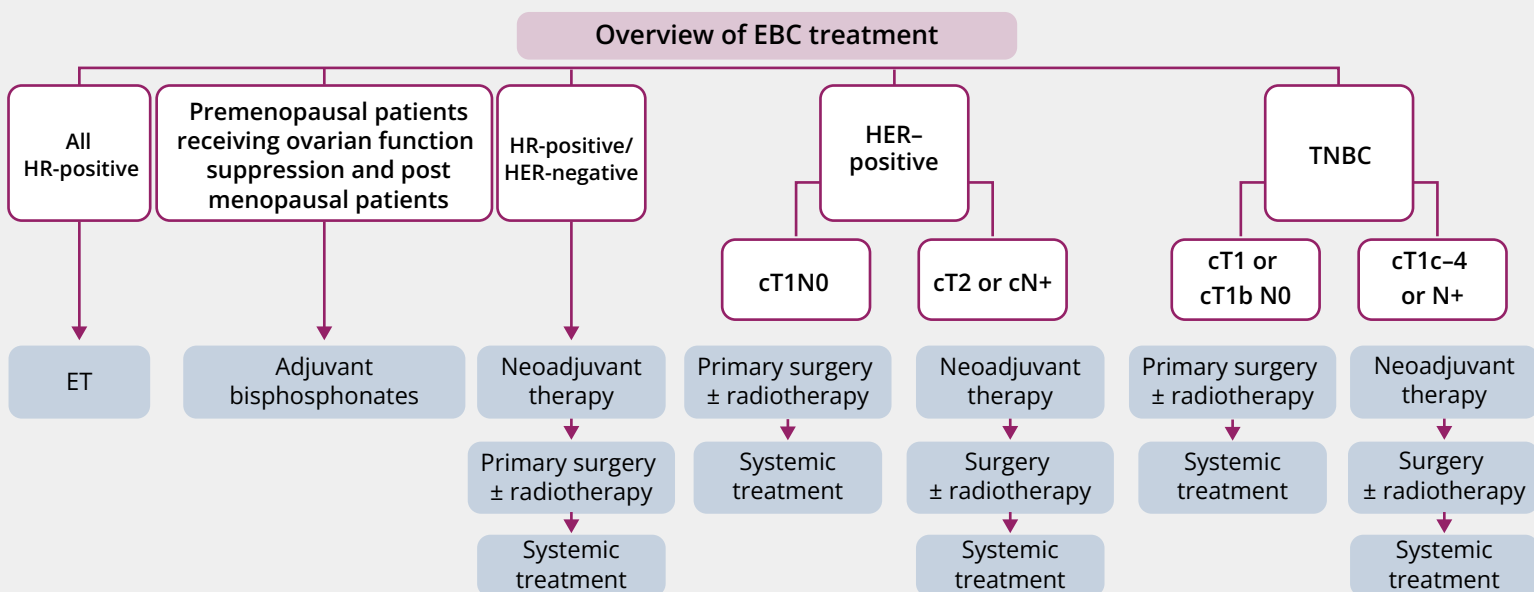
Talazoparib vs. TPC  
Median PFS: 3 months longer

**PARP inhibitors are well tolerated and AEs are manageable with supportive treatment or dose reduction**

## Personalised approach to therapy<sup>13</sup>

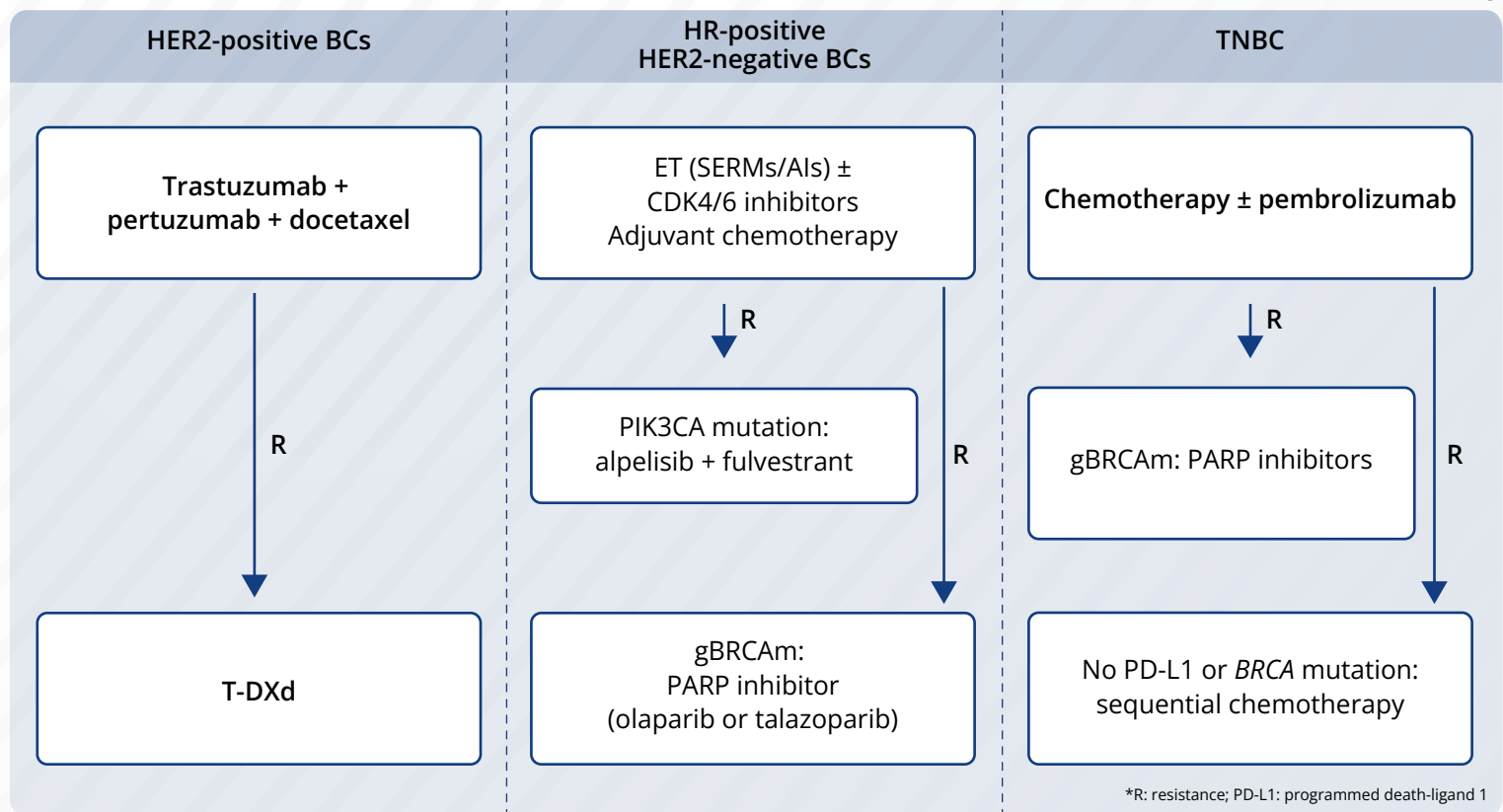


## Biomarker profiles and corresponding therapeutic strategies for early BC (EBC)<sup>15</sup>



Visit <https://breastcancer.apac.knowledgehub.wiley.com> for additional resources

# Strategies for optimising treatment for metastatic BC based on patient biomarker profiles<sup>13,14,18,19</sup>



## Integration of mechanism, evidence from clinical trials, and biomarkers enables optimal, personalised therapy<sup>18</sup>



### Key messages

- ✓ New-generation therapeutics have emerged to tackle various categories of BC
- ✓ Therapy resistance is a key challenge during the treatment of BC
- ✓ Integration of clinical trial evidence is essential for the optimal management of BC

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