

1 **Title: Reconstructing tumor trajectories during therapy through integration of multiple**
2 **measurement modalities.**

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35

36 **Abstract**

37 ***Background***

38 Accurately determining changes in tumor size during therapy is essential to evaluating
39 response or progression. However, individual imaging methodologies often poorly reflect
40 pathologic response and long-term treatment efficacy in patients with estrogen receptor
41 positive (ER+) early-stage breast cancer. Mathematical models that measure tumor
42 progression over time by integrating diverse imaging and tumor measurement modalities are
43 not currently used but could increase accuracy in measuring response and provide biological
44 insights into cancer evolution.

45 ***Methods***

46 For ER+ breast cancer patients enrolled on a neoadjuvant clinical trial, we reconstructed
47 their tumor size trajectories during therapy by combining all available information on tumor
48 size, including different imaging modalities, physical examinations and pathological
49 assessment data. Tumor trajectories during six months of treatment were generated, using a
50 Gaussian process and the most probable trajectories were evaluated, based on clinical data,
51 using measurement models that account for biases and differences in precision between
52 tumor measurement methods, such as MRI, ultrasound and mammograms.

53 ***Results***

54 Reconstruction of tumor trajectories during treatment identified five distinct patterns of tumor
55 size changes, including rebound growth not evident from any single modality. These results
56 increase specificity to distinguish innate or acquired resistance compared to using any single
57 measurement alone. The speed of therapeutic response and extent of subsequent rebound
58 tumor growth quantify sensitivity or resistance in this patient population.

59 ***Conclusions***

60 Tumor trajectory reconstruction integrating multiple modalities of tumor measurement
61 accurately describes tumor progression on therapy and reveals various patterns of patient
62 responses. Mathematical models can integrate diverse response assessments and account for
63 biases in tumor measurement, thereby providing insights into the timing and rate at which
64 resistance emerges.

65

66 **Introduction**

67 Cancer patients' response to a therapy is highly variable, with some tumors responding
68 slowly or rapidly, others progressing on therapy, and some exhibiting rapid early response
69 followed by rebound regrowth (1, 2). Despite this known diversity of patient tumor
70 trajectories (3, 4) the treatment response of most solid tumors during trials is evaluated by
71 comparing baseline and end point measurements. Patients are then grouped into a small
72 number of response categories based on the best response. Therefore, a tumor that rapidly
73 shrinks by 50% and then rapidly grows back and another tumor that slowly shrinks by 50%
74 are both called partial responses (PR) (5-7). This end-point focused approach overlooks the
75 diversity of tumor responses during a given trial, including what happens in between time
76 points, and fails to distinguish different outcomes such as patients with stable disease versus
77 those with an initial response followed by subsequent disease rebound (8). Due to different
78 intrinsic biases between assessment modalities, inconsistent response classifications can be
79 determined depending on the assessment modality used: mammogram (MG), magnetic
80 resonance imaging (MRI), ultrasound (US), physical examination (PE), computed
81 tomography (CT), blood biomarkers and others.

82

83 Accurately classifying tumors with distinct trajectories is necessary to identify biomarkers
84 specific for one of these outcomes (9, 10). Further, assessing the tumor trajectory during the

85 course of therapy can provide accurate real-time assessments to guide adaptive treatment
86 strategies (4) (for current perspective see (11)). A more dynamical approach to measuring
87 changes in tumor size could also capture the evolution of resistance during treatment.

88

89 The heterogeneity of solid tumors, such as breast cancer, can also obstruct the accurate
90 measurement of tumor size when using a single imaging method alone. Physicians thus rely
91 on a combination of imaging and physical examination modalities during the course of
92 therapy to understand a tumor's characteristics and to increase accuracy compared to using a
93 single methodology (12, 13). The accuracy of each modality depends on patient specific
94 factors, such as the level of inflammation or cancer subtype, and in clinical practice patients
95 may be assessed by different modalities at different time points (14-16). However, when
96 using a range of methodologies, it is challenging to combine information to a consensus
97 reading or to integrate data sources across time points and methodologies.

98

99 For early-stage ER+ breast cancers, tumor diameter on clinical physical examination,
100 ultrasound, mammogram, and MRI can be used to assess response to neoadjuvant therapy.
101 However, the use of a single imaging modality less accurately reflects surgical pathologic
102 response or long-term treatment efficacy (17-21). Among the various imaging modalities,
103 MRI appears the most accurate for predicting pathologic response in breast cancer (21).
104 However, MRI accuracy is still below 80% for predicting pathologic response, and MRI use
105 in earlier stage breast cancer is variable across treatment centers (22). Further, the use of
106 MRI in early-stage breast cancer remains controversial because of unclear effects on long
107 term outcomes and concerns about over diagnosis of incidental indolent lesions (23, 24).

108

109 Here we provide a general approach to reconstruct the trajectories of patient tumors during
110 treatment. The approach starts by generating a diversity of possible trajectories of tumor size
111 over time using a Gaussian process model (25). To reconstruct the most likely tumor
112 trajectory, we apply a Bayesian probabilistic framework to integrate all available
113 measurements of tumor size during treatment and account for biases and differences in
114 precision of each method (26). We test the power of the trajectory reconstruction approach to
115 accurately recovers the underlying dynamics of tumor progression using *in silico* simulations.
116 We then apply the model to reconstruct tumor trajectories using imaging data from a
117 randomized clinical trial of ER+ breast cancer patients during neoadjuvant treatment with an
118 aromatase inhibitor combined with a cell cycle inhibitor or placebo. From these data, we
119 identify five distinct trajectories of tumor progression in this cohort, including a group of
120 patients with a rapid rebound of disease after an initial response. The model also reveals the
121 speed of growth changes during treatment, including shrinkage of tumor size in sensitive
122 tumors and increased growth in resistant tumors. Applying this model to patients across
123 treatments, we show that combination endocrine and cell cycle inhibitor therapy increases the
124 frequency of resistance-related tumor trajectories compared to endocrine therapy alone.
125 Further, high dose combination therapy increases the frequency of rebound disease outcomes.
126 In summary, tumor trajectory reconstruction integrates multiple modalities of tumor
127 measurement to describe the diversity of tumor response to therapy with increased resolution
128 and dynamical precision.

129

130 **Methods**

131 ***Trial overview***

132 Tumor diameter (mm) was monitored over six months during a multi-institutional phase 2
133 trial of women with early-stage ER+, HER2- breast cancer (27) which evaluated whether the

134 addition of CDK inhibition to endocrine therapy in the neo-adjuvant setting promotes
135 complete cell cycle arrest and improves the preoperative endocrine prognostic index (PEPI)
136 (27) (28). Post-menopausal women with node positive or >2 cm ER+ and/or PR+, HER2
137 negative breast cancer (n=120) were randomized equally between three treatment arms,
138 receiving: A) endocrine therapy alone (letrozole plus placebo), B) intermittent high dose
139 combination therapy (letrozole plus ribociclib: 600 mg/day, three weeks on/ one off), or C)
140 continuous lower dose combination therapy (letrozole plus ribociclib: 400 mg/d).

141

142 *Measurements of tumor size*

143 To assess each patient's tumor progression, a range of standard imaging and physical
144 examination assessments were used at different time points throughout the trial. Large
145 discrepancies were observed between the estimates of tumor size from each of these
146 measurement approaches (Fig S1), motivating the application of our tumor trajectory
147 reconstruction approach. As is normal in the clinical setting, each patient had a unique
148 combination of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), ultrasound (US), mammogram (MG),
149 clinical physical examination (PE), and surgical pathology (SP) observations. Imaging and
150 physical examination assessments were made repeatedly during the 180-day period of neo-
151 adjuvant therapy (mean= 6.8 tumor measurements per patient). Of the 120 patients, 91% had
152 sufficient clinical observations to reconstruct their tumor burden trajectory.

153

154 *Reconstructing tumor burden trajectories: Probabilistically combining tumor estimates* 155 *from different measurement methods*

156 To reconstruct patient's tumor trajectories during treatment, we developed a dynamic
157 response evaluation approach (Fig.1 and below). Tumor trajectories were reconstructed by
158 combining all available sources of clinical imaging, physical examinations and pathological

159 data, using a Gaussian Process Latent Variable Model (GPLVM) (29, 30). Potential tumor
160 size trajectories were probabilistically evaluated, based on clinical data and known biases and
161 differences in accuracy of different clinical measurement modalities, and the most likely
162 tumor burden trajectories were learned using Bayesian statistical inference.

163

164 *1) Generating proposal tumor trajectories*

165 Potential tumor size trajectories were generated using a multidimensional Gaussian
166 distribution (\vec{f}) (Fig.1a). Each dimension ($1:n$) describes the log tumor size on an
167 occasion (i) when the tumor was measured:

$$168 \quad \vec{f}_i \sim N(\mu_i, \Sigma_{ij}), \{indices\ i = 1 \dots n\},$$

169 with μ_i reflecting the expected tumor size (log mean during treatment) and Σ_{ij} capturing the
170 covariance of tumor size between occasions.

171 Smoothly varying tumor trajectories are generated when ordering the dimension indexes by
172 time. The resulting Gaussian process ($f(t)$) is a probability distribution describing the
173 potential state of the tumor over time (31). Possible tumor trajectories were generated by
174 sampling nonlinear functions from this Gaussian process:

$$175 \quad f(t) \sim GP(\mu, k(t, t')), \{indices\ t\}.$$

176 Here, μ scales the average tumor size and the covariance matrix $k(t, t')$ encodes how the
177 tumor size changes between observation times. For example, a high correlation in tumor size
178 between two time points yields little change in tumor size and produces a stable disease
179 dynamic over this time frame (Fig.1a). The covariance structure was calculated using the
180 squared exponential covariance function:

$$181 \quad k(t_i, t_j) = \eta^2 \exp\left(-\rho^2 \sum_{d=1}^n (t_{i,d} - t_{j,d})^2\right) + \delta_{i,j} \sigma^2.$$

182 The length scale (η), controls the timescale at which the tumor burden fluctuates, whilst the
183 signal variance (ρ) determines the amount of tumor size variation during treatment. Together
184 these estimated parameters of the covariance function describe the smoothness of a tumor
185 burden trajectory. Finally, a viable positive definite covariance matrix was ensured by adding
186 $\delta_{i,j}\sigma^2$ to the diagonal covariance elements ($\delta_{i,j}$ = Kronecker delta function: 1 if $i = j$, else
187 0; $\sigma^2=1 \times 10^{-8}$).

188

189 2) *Evaluating the likelihood of a tumor burden trajectory*

190 To determine the probability of a proposed tumor trajectory, measurement models were used
191 to describe the accuracy and precision of each tumor measurement method (m) (Fig.1b) (32).
192 The measurement models then evaluate the likelihood of each tumor observation ($Y_{P,m}(t)$;
193 method m , patient P at time t), given the tumor size followed the trajectory proposed by the
194 Gaussian process ($f(t)$). Observations were described as lognormally distributed
195 measurements of a patient's true tumor size, with the addition of a censoring threshold of less
196 than the minimal measurable size ($\varphi = 0.1 \text{ mm}$):

$$197 \quad Y_{P,m}(t) + \varphi \sim \text{LogNormal}(\beta_{P,m} + f_P(t), \sigma^2_{Y_{P,m}}).$$

198 Each measurement methods' bias ($\beta_{P,m}$) and inaccuracy ($\sigma^2_{Y_{P,m}}$) was estimated on a patient
199 specific basis.

200

201 3) *Incorporating prior information about measurement precision and bias*

202 Knowledge about the rank precision of different measurement methods was encoded into the
203 measurement models (Fig.1c) using conclusions of four recently published comparative
204 studies examining the agreement between surgical pathology measurements of tumor size and

205 MRI, ultrasound, mammogram or clinical examinations (12, 14-16). The four key
206 conclusions across these studies were that: i) MRI is the most accurate imaging method to
207 estimate tumor burden, with little or no systematic bias compared to the observation made at
208 pathology. ii) Ultrasound provides similar measurements, but potentially with greater bias
209 and variability, iii) Mammograms results are significantly more variable and also potentially
210 biased iv) Clinical physical examinations provide the least accurate estimates of tumor size,
211 as they systematically underestimate tumor size.

212

213 Reflecting these conclusions, we constrained the variance parameter of more precise
214 measurement modalities to be lower ($\sigma^2_{PE} > \sigma^2_{MG} > \sigma^2_{US} > \sigma^2_{MRI} > \sigma^2_{SP}$) and estimated
215 bias in clinical assessment, mammogram and ultrasound measurements ($\beta_{P,SP} \& \beta_{P,MRI} =$
216 $0; \beta_{P,PE}, \beta_{P,MG} \& \beta_{P,US} \neq 0$; sign of bias not constrained). Along with the biological
217 requirement that tumor size changes gradually over time, we constrained the tumor size not to
218 fluctuate at timescales shorter than one month.

219

220 *Inferring tumor burden trajectories*

221 The most probable tumor trajectories during the trial were identified using Bayesian
222 inference to combine prior information about methodological biases with the likelihood
223 assessment of trajectories made by the measurement model (Fig.1d) (33). The Gaussian
224 process generated proposal trajectories, the measurement model quantifying the consistency
225 of observations with the proposed trajectory, and current clinical knowledge of the accuracy
226 and precision of measurement methods were all encoded in the Bayesian priors.

227

228 The fitted GPLVM tumor reconstruction provides patient specific estimates (with
229 uncertainty) of: i) the tumor size throughout the trial ($f(t)$), the speed and extent of tumor
230 size fluctuations (η and ρ) and the bias and precision of each measurement method.
231 The confidence in the patients' tumor trajectory is also captured in the Bayesian posterior
232 distributions of the sampled Gaussian process. All parameters were inferred simultaneously
233 using Hamiltonian Monte Carlo in Stan (34).

234

235 *Validating tumor trajectory reconstruction*

236 To verify the reliability of the GPLVM tumor reconstructions, we generated hypothetical
237 tumor trajectories using a theoretical model of tumor growth and subclonal evolution (35).
238 We then simulated the process of measuring this *in silico* tumor using measurement methods
239 with differing precision and accuracy. Finally, we assessed how well our dynamics response
240 evaluation approach could reconstruct the trajectory of the simulated tumors, based on the
241 measurement observations that were produced (Fig.2). We compared the GPLVM tumor
242 reconstruction with RECIST response category and naive smoothing of tumor measurement
243 data (using generalized additive models) (36).

244 We simulated tumor size trajectories over time, using a subclonal model of tumor growth and

245 evolution: $\frac{dN_i}{dt} = \left(\frac{r_i}{1+\beta_i x} \left(1 - \sum_j \frac{N_j}{K_j} \right) - \delta \right) N_i$. In this model we described the interaction

246 between resistant and sensitive cells competing for limited resources. The tumor is initially
247 dominated by sensitive cells, but a small subpopulation of resistant cells was allowed to pre-
248 exist. Cell proliferation (r_i) is reduced by the cell cycle inhibitory effects of treatment (x).

249 Resistant cell proliferation is assumed to be less sensitive to the impacts of therapy ($\beta_R =$

250 $\beta_S/10$). For simplicity, similar death rates (δ) and competitive abilities ($\frac{1}{K_j}$) are assumed for

251 the two cell types, as these assumptions do not influence conclusions of the simulation study.

252 We generated a range of different tumor trajectories by varying the initial percentage of
253 resistant cells between 0.01 and 0.4% (n=6 resistance levels) and varying the drug dosage
254 from 33% to 100% of the maximum dose that would cause shrinkage of a completely
255 sensitive tumor within 50 days (n=7 dosage levels). A broad range of tumor trajectories were
256 generated (n=42), based on simulations with each combination of drug dosage and initial
257 resistance levels (Fig S2).

258 To assess the performance of the tumor reconstructions, we compared how well the known
259 dynamics of tumor growth were recovered and compared this to trajectories predicted by: i)
260 midpoint or end of treatment RECIST assessment and ii) a naive smoothing of all the clinical
261 measurements using a generalized additive model. The performance of each approach was
262 measured by the root mean-square-error (RMSE) between recovered trajectories and the
263 known true tumor trajectory (RMSE closer to zero indicate less error in tumor trajectory
264 reconstruction).

265

266 *Identifying distinct dynamic response classes in clinical trial patients*

267 To compare tumor trajectories between patients, we standardized each trajectory, scaling by
268 the tumor size at baseline. We utilized the patient's tumor trajectory to quantify each tumor's
269 growth during the first phase (day 0-90) and second phase (day 90-180) of the trial. We
270 calculated the tumor growth rate during each phase as well as the proportion of tumor
271 remaining at end of treatment (relative to baseline). Based on these summary statistics,
272 patients with similar overall tumor response trajectories were categorized into dynamic
273 response classes, using a Gaussian mixture model (37).

274

275 The relative frequency of each dynamic response was calculated for tumors in each treatment
276 arm. We examined whether certain dynamic responses were associated with a specific
277 treatment regimen, using a chi-squared test. Pearson residuals were examined to identify
278 which dynamic responses were strongly associated with a given treatment. All statistical
279 analyses were conducted in R 3.5.1 (R Core Team 2018), using the RStan interface to
280 perform Bayesian inference in Stan (34, 38). The code to implement the tumor reconstruction
281 is provided along with the ER+ breast cancer patient clinical data (Supplemental data=
282 Online Data Supplement 1; Supplemental code= Online Data Supplement 2).

283

284

285 **Results**

286 ***Tumor trajectory reconstruction and validation***

287 To test that our approach allows the reconstruction of tumor shrinkage and/or growth during
288 treatment, we used a theoretical model of the subclonal evolution to a resistant state to
289 generate trajectories of *in silico* tumors during treatment (Fig.2a). Initially drug sensitive *in*
290 *silico* tumors develop resistance, as the composition becomes dominated by the initially rare
291 resistant subclone, following drug-induced evolutionary selection. We next generated
292 observations representing serial measurements of the tumor using methods differing in
293 accuracy (bias) and precision (noisiness) (Fig.2b). We then compared our ability to
294 reconstruct the underlying tumor trajectories using the GPLV model against predictions made
295 using naïve smoothing of the observation data or using RECIST assessments of tumor size
296 change comparing baseline to either midpoint or endpoint measurements (Fig.2c). Using
297 tumor observations taken throughout the trial allows the identification of the emergence of
298 resistance and the rebound of tumor growth, something not possible using the RECIST

299 assessment (Fig.2c left vs center and right panels). When a naïve smoothing approach was
300 used, assuming all measurements were equally reliable, the general trend of the trajectory
301 was recovered; however, the size of the tumor could be poorly measured due to the biases of
302 frequently used measurement techniques (such as clinical physical examinations) (Fig.2c
303 center vs right panel). Our approach allowed a description the smooth changes in tumor size
304 over time, using the Gaussian process, and to correct for method specific biases using the
305 method specific measurement models (Fig.2c right panel). This approach allowed a
306 quantitatively accurate reconstruction of the tumor trajectory that captures: i) the initial rate
307 of decline in tumor size upon initiation of therapy and ii) the timing and speed of tumor
308 rebound growth following the emergence of resistance.

309 The approach was applied to reconstruct a broad range of tumor dynamics, generated by
310 modelling tumors with differing initial frequencies of resistant subclones and by varying the
311 drug dose (Fig.2d). Across all tumor reconstructions, the GPLVM approach more accurately
312 recovered the underlying tumor trajectories, having 87% less prediction error compared to
313 midpoint RECIST assessments, 85% less than endpoint RECIST assessments, and 78% less
314 than the naive smoothing approach.

315

316 ***Reconstructing tumor trajectories: Probabilistically combining tumor estimates from*** 317 ***different measurement methods***

318 Reconstruction of patient tumor trajectories provides a dynamic evaluation of response
319 during treatment (Fig.3). Here we show the inferences that are obtained for each patient's
320 tumor by first presenting results of a representative tumor. All patients' tumor reconstructions
321 are provided in the supplement (SI Figure= Online Data Supplement 3). Figure 3a shows the
322 tumor size estimated throughout treatment, including at time points in between observations

323 and the overall average tumor size during the trial. The fitted model also measures the speed
324 at which tumor size fluctuates and also the magnitude of those changes relative to the tumors
325 initial size (Fig.3b). For this specific patient, tumor responded over a timeframe of around 70
326 days (lengthscale \approx 70), indicating a gradual reduction in tumor size rather than a rapid
327 decline as may be expected under cytotoxic therapies. Furthermore, the signal variance
328 measured the limited extent of tumor response during the trial, indicating that the reduction in
329 tumor size was limited to only 16% of the baseline size (Signal variance \approx 0.15).

330 Measurements of the over/underestimation bias of each tumor measurement method were
331 obtained, showing that for this patient, clinical physical examinations were overestimating
332 tumor burden, whereas mammogram and ultrasound provided underestimates (Fig.3c). These
333 biases can be visualized in Figure 3d where the clinical measurements are overlaid onto the
334 reconstructed tumor trajectory. The surgical pathology measurement, which measures actual
335 tumor size at time of surgical removal of the tumor, provides validation that the final tumor
336 size was substantially higher than was estimated by ultrasound. Similarly, the baseline MRI
337 tumor measurement was substantially larger than ultrasound and mammogram assessments,
338 indicating an initial size of around 49 mm. As the model describes smooth tumor size
339 transitions over time, we can reconstruct the most likely tumor size trajectory (solid black
340 line), and the Bayesian inference approach allows assessment of the range of tumor
341 trajectories that are consistent with the data, quantifying the extent of our uncertainty in
342 tumor trajectories (shaded region=high probability credible interval).

343

344 *Insights into the diversity of tumor response trajectories*

345 The trajectory of each patient's tumor size during the trial was reconstructed, probabilistically
346 combining information from all available sources of clinical imaging, physical examination
347 and pathological data, which together captures the most probable tumor burden fluctuation

348 over time. Inferred tumor size at end of trial closely mirrored pathological observations (Fig
349 S3) and frequently corrected for the underestimation of tumor size that previous studies have
350 revealed (16) (Fig S4) (Strong underestimation through physical examination in 60% of
351 patient's tumors).

352

353 Five distinct dynamic classes of tumor trajectories were identified (Fig.4a-b). These
354 categories corresponded to: i) sustained shrinkage (continued decline during trial; final size
355 $\leq 25\%$ baseline), ii) partial shrinkage (initial velocity of decline slowed in second half of trial
356 and final size between 30% and 75% baseline), iii) stable disease (minor tumor size change
357 and final size $>70\%$ and $<150\%$ baseline), iv) rebound disease (initial decline to size $<70\%$
358 baseline and rapid tumor regrowth during the trial), and v) progressive disease (increasing
359 tumor size throughout trial despite treatment; final size $>150\%$ baseline). Figure 4c shows
360 that the tumor response categories are distinct by comparing the overall reduction in tumor
361 size during the trial and the initial rate of tumor size decline in the first phase of treatment.
362 Similarly, by examining the change in tumor size continually during treatment, the five
363 categories of tumor response show different trajectories (Fig.4c). For example, patient tumors
364 exhibiting rebound disease had significantly more rapid reductions in tumor size during the
365 first 100 days of treatment than patient tumors exhibiting partial or sustained response (lower
366 tumor growth rate in days 0-100: versus sustained response $t=-2.159$, $p<0.05$; versus partial
367 response $t=-3.921$, $p<0.001$). However, the subsequent regrowth after around 120 days of
368 treatment contrasts the slower but more durable decreases in tumor size observed in sustained
369 response tumors throughout the trial. Patients classified as non-responders using an MRI
370 RECIST 1.1 assessment (Baseline versus day 90) were distributed between the residual
371 disease categories, but reassuringly none were classified as sustained responders.

372

373 The frequency of patient tumors within each classification differed between the treatment
374 arms ($\chi^2=25.909$, $p<0.005$) (Fig.4d), despite the average end of treatment tumor burden not
375 differing between arms (39) (Fig S5). Therefore, tumor trajectory reconstruction reveals
376 additional information about the time during which a treatment is effective and how rapidly
377 resistance is emerging in a tumor. The use of combination therapy reduced the frequency of
378 sustained response compared to endocrine therapy alone ($z=3.040$, $p<0.005$) and instead
379 increased the frequency of stable disease trajectories under continuous low dose treatment
380 ($z=-3.221$, $p<0.005$). The frequency of rebound disease trajectory was higher in the
381 intermittent standard dose group than in the continuous low dose group ($z=5.148$, $p<0.01$).
382 There were also more variable patient outcomes, as measured by an F-test of variance in final
383 size ($F=32.94$, $p<0.001$; $2.7 \times$ variability in final tumor size following intermittent vs
384 continuous dosing) (Fig S5). Tumors exposed to intermittent high dose combination therapy
385 decreased more rapidly during the first phase (day 0-90) of the trial, but this decrease was
386 correlated with faster rebound growth in the second phase (day 90-180) ($r=-0.76$, $F=16.87$,
387 $p<0.0001$) (Fig.4e). These added insights from the tumor reconstruction analysis suggests
388 that combination therapy in this earlier stage ER+ breast cancer population, especially at
389 higher doses, may potentially accelerate the evolution of endocrine resistance.

390

391 **Discussion**

392 Reconstruction of tumor trajectories of early-stage ER+ HER2- breast cancers during
393 neoadjuvant treatment provides a detailed assessment of the impacts of combining endocrine
394 therapy with targeted cell cycle inhibition therapy. Although combination treatment had no
395 significant impact on average tumor size by time of surgery (39), the assessment of tumor
396 trajectories reveals that combination therapy produced more highly variable tumor responses
397 with an increased frequency of rebound disease, especially under high dose intermittent

398 treatment. Longer follow-up of the FELINE trial will inform if responses assessed by tumor
399 trajectory reconstruction is prognostic. Further studies are needed to evaluate the role of drug
400 dosage and timing on the evolution to a resistant tumor state.

401

402 Using reconstructed tumor trajectories to distinguish patients with these distinct evolutionary
403 resistance backgrounds (innate vs acquired) is essential for effectively implementing system
404 biology based targeted therapeutic strategies (40). Endpoint focused response assessments
405 are unable to distinguish these diverse tumor trajectories or differentiate rebound disease
406 reflecting acquired resistance from stable disease indicative of weak innate resistance. For
407 patients exhibiting a rebound disease trajectory, continued treatment permits rapid tumor
408 growth once resistance is acquired. Because the mechanisms of innate and acquired
409 resistance may be different, the classification of tumors into groups with distinct trajectories,
410 rather than clinical outcomes may enable development of treatment approaches that target
411 innate and acquired resistance.

412

413 Another opportunity for improved patient care exists by using tumor trajectories to estimate
414 the amount of bias for individual assessment modalities in individual patients. These
415 estimates can be used when clinical circumstances require comparing one modality to a
416 different modality at a previous time point. The weak correlation of tumor size estimates
417 from surgical pathology with estimates from physical examination, and to a lesser extent
418 ultrasound and mammograms, shows that single modality-based approaches are limited in
419 accuracy. This reinforces the need to synthesize all available tumor measurements carefully,
420 to account for the discrepancy in measurement accuracy across modalities.

421

422 Knowledge of the tumor trajectory, correcting for these biases, can guide adaptive therapy
423 strategies, which work by initiating and ceasing therapy when the tumor reaches a critical
424 size (11). As new data become available allowing the tracking of patient progress, the model
425 can estimate how likely it is that the threshold size will be passed before the next assessment,
426 allowing the application of adaptive therapies as threshold sizes are passed. Furthermore,
427 there is no limitation to the number of measurement data types that can be used to inform the
428 tumor trajectories. Other frequently monitored peripheral blood biomarkers of tumor burden
429 can easily be integrated into the tumor reconstruction framework if sufficiently reliable
430 markers are available.

431

432 These added insights from the tumor reconstruction analysis suggests that combination
433 endocrine therapy and cell cycle inhibitors in this early-stage ER+ breast cancer population,
434 especially at higher doses of the cell cycle inhibitor, may potentially accelerate the evolution
435 of endocrine resistance. Interestingly, in the adjuvant treatment of early stage breast cancer,
436 the MonarchE trial of abemaciclib, which is continuously dosed, showed an improvement in
437 invasive disease free survival (41) while the PALLAS trial of palbociclib, which is
438 intermittently dosed like ribociclib, did not (42). Further research is needed determine
439 whether the different results of these studies is related to the differences in dosing. Our
440 results might inform the design of future neoadjuvant and adjuvant clinical trials by adopting
441 continuous rather than intermittent dosing of the CDK4/6 inhibitors in combination with
442 endocrine therapy. Furthermore, in early stage ER+ breast cancer, biological response to a
443 neoadjuvant therapy is more prognostic than initial presentation factors (43). Hence, the
444 adoption of a neoadjuvant strategy to help define tumor trajectories may add prognostic and
445 predictive information to the ones currently available and allow us to change the treatment
446 accordingly.

447

448 Reconstruction of patient tumor trajectories allows assessment of response throughout
449 treatment based on multiple different assessment modalities instead of relying on just the start
450 and endpoint measurements. This dynamic approach enables refined description of the
451 diversity of tumor response to therapy and enables identification of personalized tumor
452 trajectories not usually captured such as rebound disease dynamics. All available
453 observations of tumor size progression can be combined with existing knowledge of method
454 specific biases and precision to recover the most probable trajectories and to quantify
455 uncertainty. Our tumor reconstruction approach could assist with treatment decisions based
456 on interim imaging changes in neoadjuvant trials using adaptive therapy approaches.

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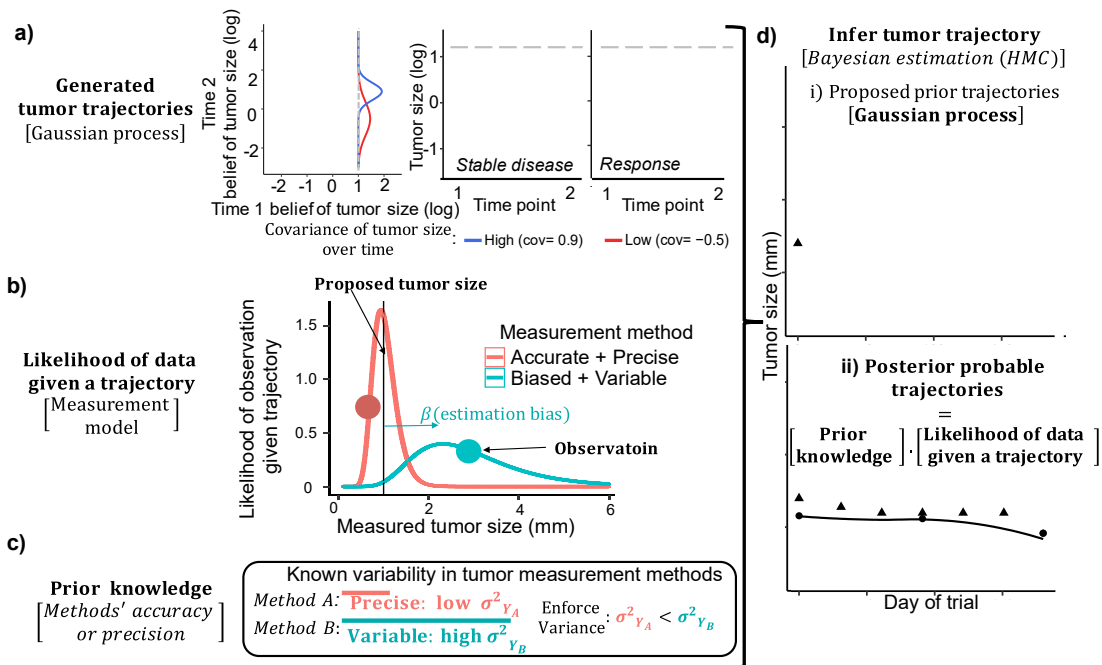
687

688 **Author contributions:** J.I.G. developed the tumor reconstruction approach, performed
689 mathematical modeling and simulation studies and conducted patient analyses. J.I.G., F.R.A.,

690 A.L.C., A.H.B., contributed to study design, processed data and wrote the manuscript. A.L.C.
 691 contributed to data analysis and study design, provided clinical insight, and contributed to
 692 writing the manuscript. Q.K., conceived and coordinated the clinical trial, supervised
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 694 as well as contributed to writing the manuscript. OW was responsible for imaging assessment
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 697

698 **Data availability:** The data underlying this article are available in the article and in its online
 699 supplementary material. Clinical time course measurement are provided in Supplemental
 700 data= Online Data Supplement 1. Code to implement tumor reconstruction and to run the
 701 methodological validation simulations is also included in Supplemental code= Online Data
 702 Supplement 2.

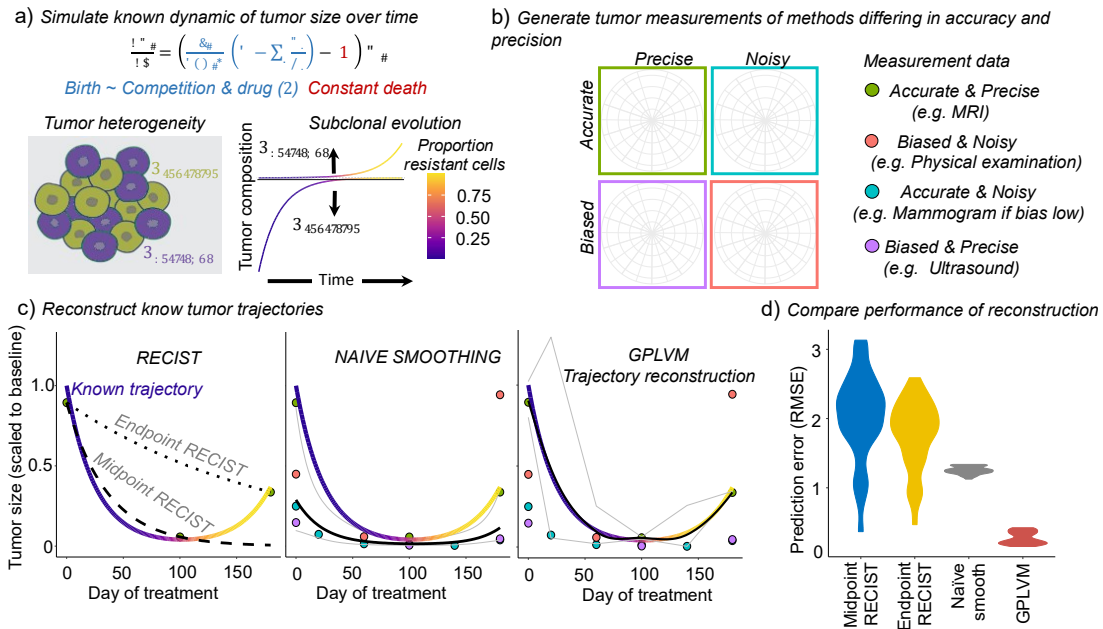
703 **Figures:**



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705 **Fig.1. Overview of tumor reconstruction approach. a)** The Gaussian Process model
706 generates a wide range of potential tumor size trajectories by flexibly describing the
707 correlation (covariance; left panel) between the tumor size at different time points. High
708 covariance between time points (blue) generates stable tumor size during that timeframe
709 (center panel), while low covariance (red) produces fluctuations in tumor size (right panel).
710 **b)** Trajectories proposed by the GP are evaluated for consistency with clinical data. For each
711 observation (point) made under each measurement method (color), the measurement model
712 calculates the probability of the data, given the tumor is the size proposed by the Gaussian
713 process. Combining these probabilities, information from multiple measurement methods is
714 combined, allowing all available clinical data can be used to reconstruct tumor trajectories.
715 Comparing observations across different measurement methods, the accuracy of specific
716 methods is quantified (biases measured by β) as well as differences in precision
717 (measurement noise measured by σ). **c)** Existing knowledge about the differing precision (σ)
718 and bias (β ; tumor size over/underestimation) of measurement techniques is incorporated into
719 Bayesian priors put on the measurement model parameters. **d)** Tumor trajectories are learned
720 using a Bayesian inference approach, by combining parts A-C. The Gaussian process
721 proposes tumor trajectories (i) and the product of the prior knowledge and the likelihood of
722 the clinical observations determines whether the trajectory should be accepted (ii). By
723 iteratively proposing new and trajectories and accepting improvements, the model converges
724 on the tumor size trajectories that are most likely to have occurred, as well as capturing our
725 uncertainty in the trajectory (red lines=possible trajectories, black line =expectation). Biased
726 clinical estimates (triangles) inform about the shape of the trajectory, whilst unbiased
727 measurement modalities (circles) provide information to determine the size of the tumor
728 more accurately at a given time.
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Fig.2. Validation of the performance of the tumor trajectory reconstruction approach, using simulated tumor trajectories and measurement observations to test the ability to recover known dynamics. a) Schematic and equation for the theoretical model of subclonal evolution of tumor resistance, used to generate *in silico* tumor trajectories. Subclonal tumor population (*i*) changes in size (*N*) following cell death and proliferation which depends of drug dose and the density of competing resistant and sensitive cells. Under drug selection, the tumor composition shifts from being dominated by sensitive (purple) to resistant (orange) subclones. Black line subdivides resistant and sensitive cells and distance to the colored line above and below indicates the abundance of resistant and sensitive cells respectively. Coloration of line signifies the proportion of resistant cells. **b)** Tumor observations are next generated by simulating the observation process for measurement methods with different

746 levels of bias/accuracy and precision/noise. **c)** *In silico* tumor observations are used to
747 reconstruct the known tumor trajectory (colored line signifies tumor resistance). Three
748 methods to assess tumor trajectories are assessed: i) RECIST assessments (either comparing
749 baseline with midpoint or endpoint tumor size), ii) naïve smoothing of the tumor observations
750 from different measurement methods or iii) our GPLVM approach. Black lines indicate the
751 predicted tumor trajectory and shaded regions indicate confidence intervals. RECIST
752 assessment does not provide a measure of uncertainty, so we use dashed black and grey lines.
753 Colored points indicate the data used by each approach. **d)** Comparison of the performance of
754 the tumor reconstruction approaches as measured by the amount of prediction error between
755 the known and predicted tumor trajectories (RMSE=residual mean square error of
756 predictions). Violin plots show the distribution of prediction error for each approach, across
757 42 *in silico* tumor trajectory simulations varying the subclonal tumor composition and drug
758 dose. Lower RMSE values indicate better performance.

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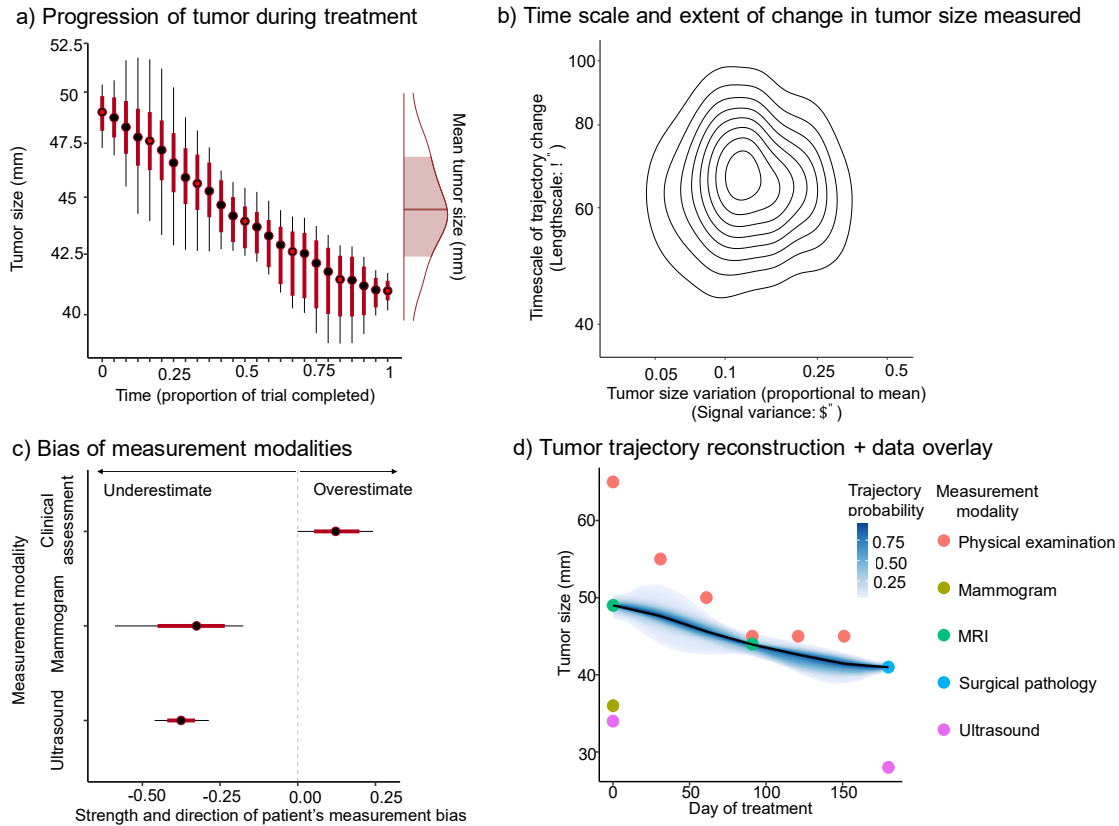
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767 **Fig.3. Inferences from tumor trajectory reconstruction applied to a representative**
 768 **patient. a)** Throughout the trial, tumor size is estimated (points) and uncertainty measured
 769 (box and whiskers=95 and 99% posterior interval). Tumor size can be measured at time
 770 points when tumor is measured (red filled points), but can also be inferred at intermediate
 771 times between measurements (solid black points), due to the reconstruction of smooth tumor
 772 size transition. The average tumor size (with uncertainty:95% credible interval) is shown by
 773 the right hand density plot. **b)** Scatterplot of Bayesian estimates of the timeframe and extent
 774 of tumor response to therapy that are consistent with the clinical observations of that patient's
 775 tumor. The speed change in tumor size is measured by the lengthscale parameter, indicating
 776 the timeframe over which the tumor response occurred and the Extent of tumor response to
 777 therapy is measured by the signal variance parameter, indicating the proportional change in
 778 tumor size relative to baseline. Each point indicates the timescale and extent of tumor change
 779 in a trajectory that is consistent with the data. The highest density of estimates indicates the

780 most probable value of the parameters and the distribution of estimates measures uncertainty.
781 Contour lines highlight the most probable regions (contours indicate 10% reductions in
782 probability). **c)** Box and whisker plot showing the bias of tumor size estimates provided by
783 different measurement methods. Negative values indicate underestimation of tumor size and
784 positive values show overestimation (box and whiskers=95 and 99% posterior interval).
785 Unbiased estimate indicated by dashed grey line. **d)** Reconstruction of the smooth tumor
786 trajectory (black line) with uncertainty (shaded region= high probability density credible
787 interval, shade indicates trajectory probability). Clinical measurements obtained by different
788 measurement modalities are overlaid (colored points).

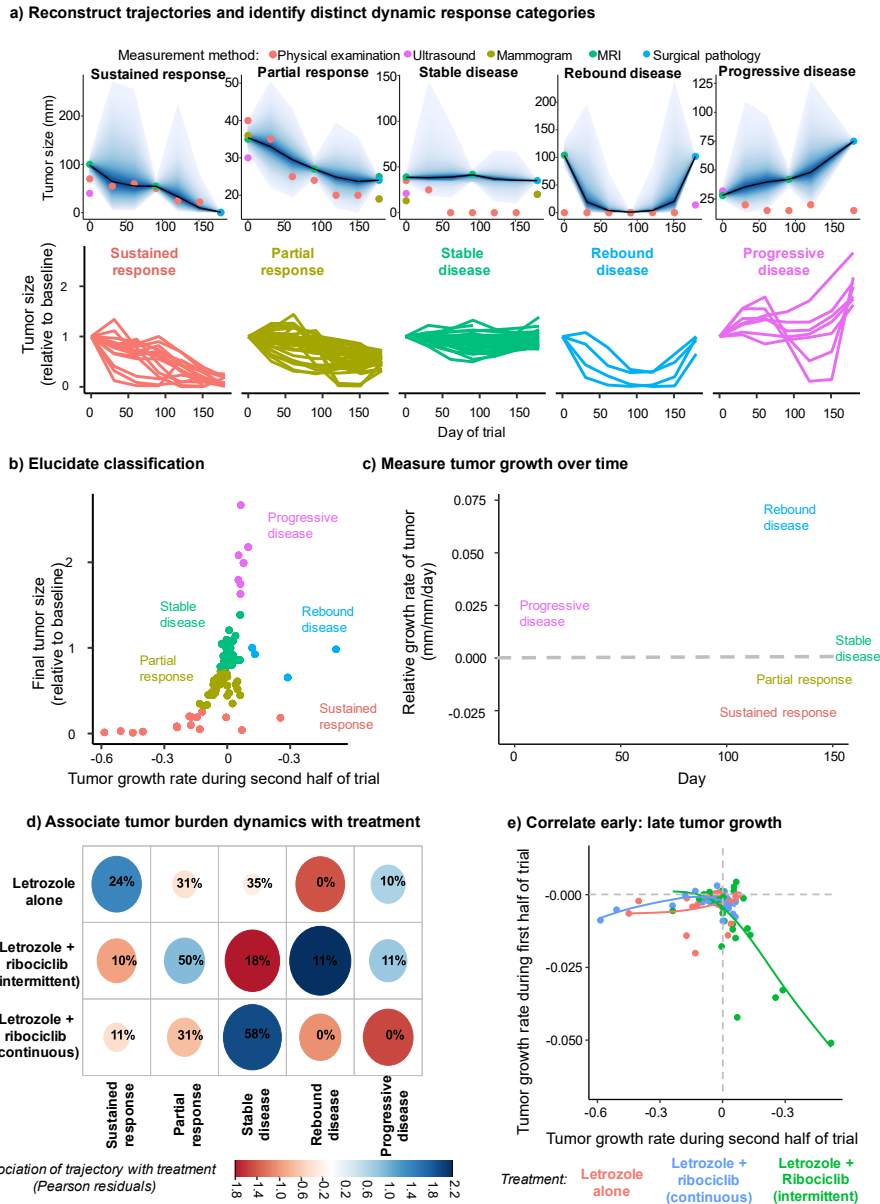
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795 **Fig.4: Distinct tumor trajectories associated with endocrine and combination endocrine**

796 **and cell cycle inhibitor therapy. a) Five distinct response dynamics (columns) observed**

797 across clinical trial treatment arms: sustained response (continued decline to near complete

798 response), partial response (initial response saturating, fraction tumor remaining > 40%),

799 stable disease (little change during trial, tumor remaining > 70%), rebound disease (initial

800 response, subsequent regrowth) and progressive disease (continued growth despite

801 treatment). Top panel: example tumors reconstructed and assigned to each category. Tumor

802 trajectory reconstruction (solid black line) and uncertainty interval (shaded regions: high
803 probability credible interval) are overlaid with the clinical data used to inform the trajectory
804 (points: color indicates measurement method). Bottom panel: spiderplots of patient tumor
805 size trajectories classified into each response category. **b)** Patient tumor trajectories
806 summarized by measuring the reduction of tumor size (relative to baseline) and tumor decline
807 rate in second half of trial (points=summarized patient tumor trajectory). Distinct tumor
808 trajectory categories (colors) identified using a Gaussian mixture model. Confidence
809 ellipsoids show tumor trajectory characteristics leading to each categorization. **c)** Comparison
810 of the speed of tumor growth/decline (relative growth rate of the reconstructed tumor
811 between observations) across the trial for tumors in each response category (color).
812 Differences in timing and extent of initial tumor decline and extent of rebound growth when
813 resistance emerges evident. Solid lines show average trends in tumor growth and shaded
814 regions signify the heterogeneity of growth over time within a tumors response category
815 (confidence intervals). Dashed grey line indicates no tumor growth (negative=shrinkage,
816 positive=growing during time interval). **d)** Relative frequency of each trajectory (columns) in
817 patient tumors from each treatment arm (rows). The size of the ellipse indicates the absolute
818 value of the Pearson residuals, measuring how strongly a trajectory is associated with a given
819 treatment arm. The color indicates whether the dynamic occurs more (blue) or less (red)
820 frequently than expected in a given arm. **e)** Speed of growth of patients' tumor (points) from
821 each treatment arm (color) during first phase (day 0-90; y-axis) and second phase (day 90-
822 180; x-axis) of the trial, as measured by the tumor reconstruction. Dashed horizontal and
823 vertical lines indicate no net change in tumor size during the first and second phase of the
824 trial respectively (positive values = tumor increased in size, negative values= shrinkage of
825 tumor). Solid colored line shows the association between growth of the tumor during the first
826 and second phase under each treatment (shaded region = 95% confidence intervals)

827 **Supporting information for: Reconstructing tumor trajectories during therapy,**
828 **through integration of multiple measurement modalities.**

829

830 Despite clinical physical examinations suggesting complete response in 39% of patients, all
831 examined patients were found to have some residual disease at the end of therapy surgery.
832 MRI assessments could only be collected infrequently, but showed close agreement to the
833 pathology results, with only 4% of patients being predicted to have experienced complete
834 response. The inferred tumor burden trajectories, obtained from our mathematical model,
835 show a more complete picture. The model predicts that none of the patients experience
836 complete response, with the estimated tumor burden at the end of treatment correlating
837 strongly with pathological results (Fig S1). Rather than obtaining just a classification of
838 response at end of therapy, the model shows the most probably course of tumor size across
839 the trial period, allowing a distinction to be made between patients that showed no response
840 initially and those that experienced an initial response followed by relapse before the end of
841 the trial.

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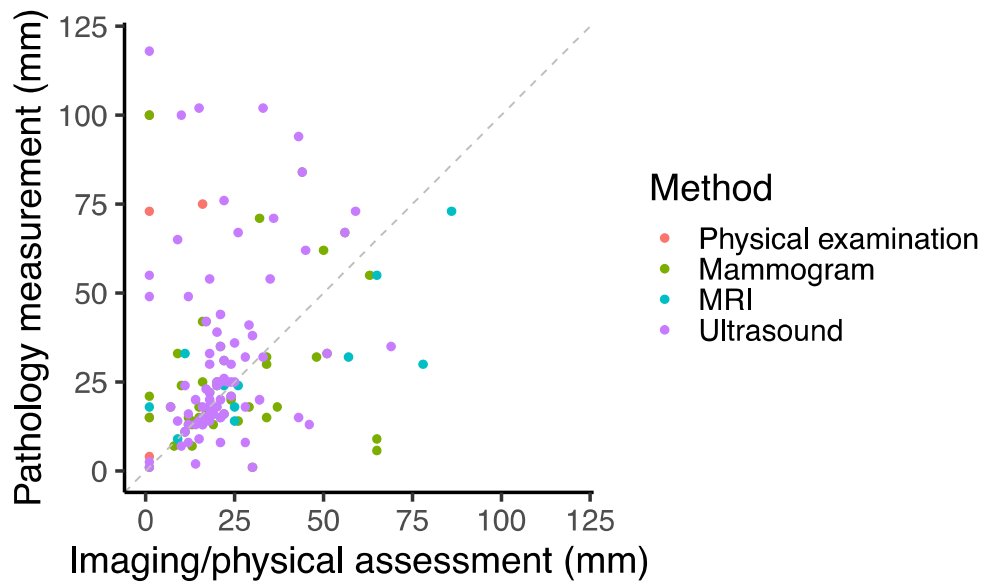
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853 **Fig S1: Large discrepancy (weak correlation) between surgical pathology observations**
854 **of tumor size (mm) and measurements obtained by different imaging and clinical**
855 **physical examination (colored points) just prior to surgery. Perfect agreement pathology**
856 **observations and imaging/physical examination is indicated by the diagonal grey dashed**
857 **line.**

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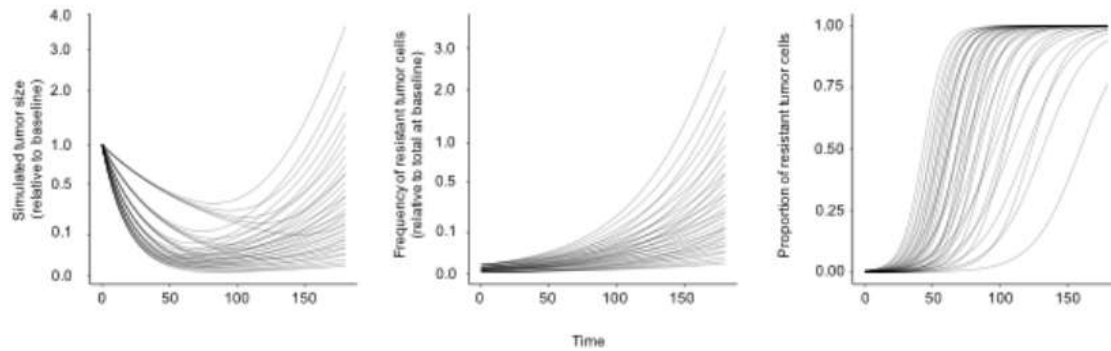
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869 **Fig S2: Diverse trajectories of in silico tumors generated by simulating the theoretical**
870 **model of subclonal evolution of tumor growth.** Left panel shows the diversity of changes
871 in tumor size during treatment across simulations. Middle panel shows the emergence of a
872 resistant subclone over time. The population size of the resistant subclone increases at
873 different speeds, depending on the dose of therapy that drives selection. The initial frequency
874 of this population also varies between simulations. Right panel shows the fraction of the total
875 tumor that is comprised of resistant cells during the timecourse of therapy, showing the
876 variation in the rate at which the resistant subclone becomes dominant.

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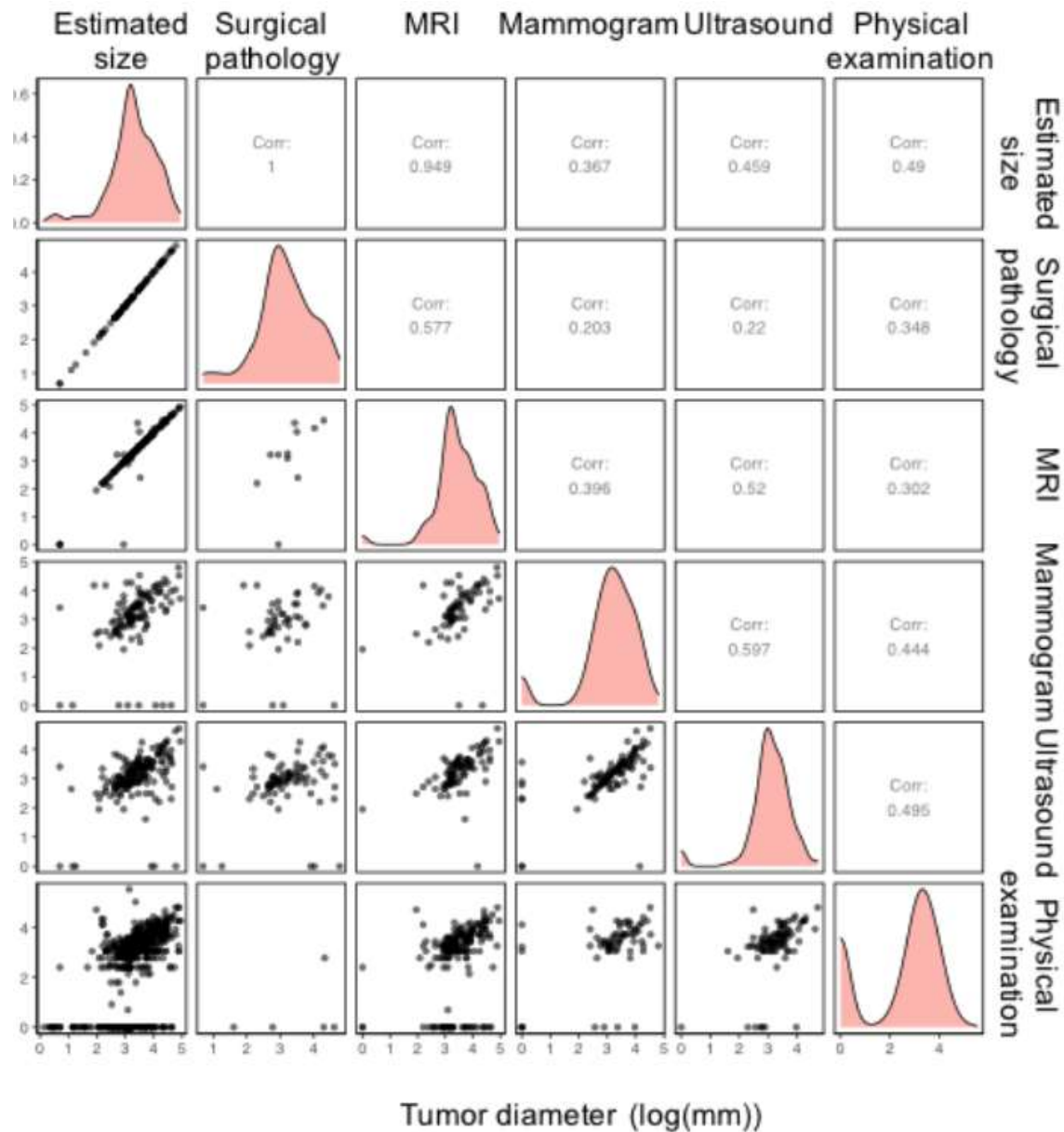
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887 **Fig S3: Strong agreement between tumor reconstructions and surgical and imaging**

888 **measurements.** Correlation of tumor size estimates from tumor trajectory reconstruction

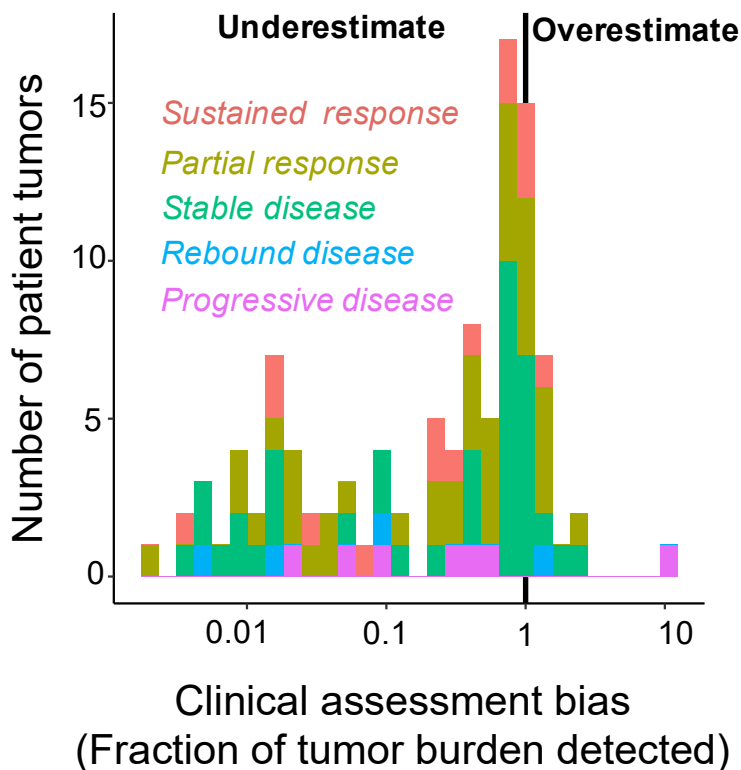
889 (first column/row) and surgical pathology observations (second column) and measurements

890 from other imaging and physical examination assessments. Pairwise scatterplots show the

891 agreement between each combination of methodologies (lower triangle of subplots). The

892 correlation between these pairs of measurements is shown in the mirroring upper triangle of

893 subplots. The overall distribution of tumor size estimates across patient tumors is shown by
894 the density plots in the diagonal subplots.



895

896 **Fig S4: The tumor size measured by physical examination was consistently an**
897 **underestimate of tumor size, independent of the tumor trajectory during therapy.**

898 Histogram shows the estimated fraction the tumor measured for patients with tumors
899 exhibiting each tumor trajectory (color). Biases are estimated individually for each patients'
900 tumor and no constraint is added to enforce that physical examination underestimates tumor
901 size. The bimodal distribution of measurement bias indicates that physical examinations were
902 unbiased for around 60% of the patients of the study but provided large underestimates of the
903 tumor size in the remaining 40%.

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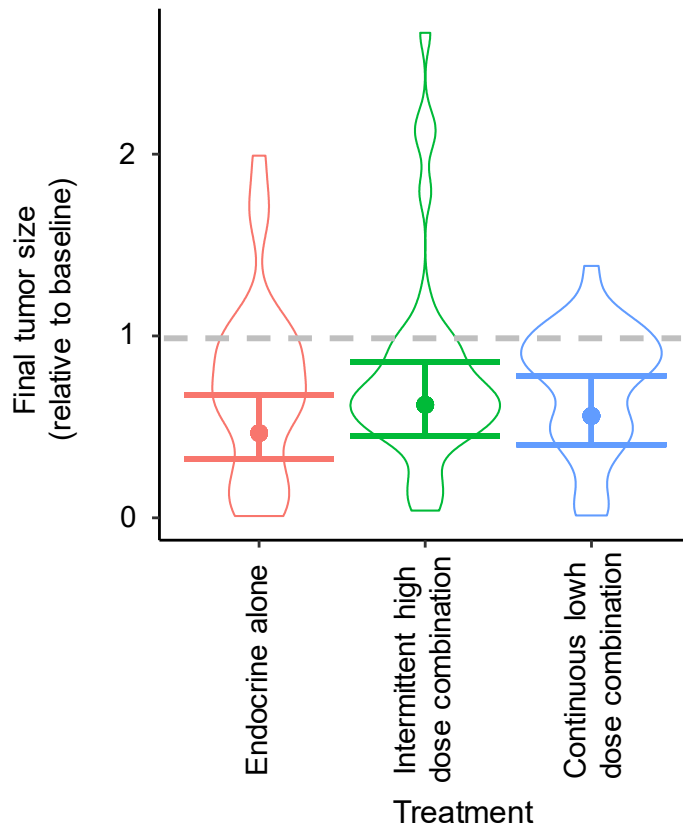
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911 **Fig S5: Combination therapy results in equal average reductions in tumor size**

912 **compared to endocrine therapy alone.** Violin curves show the distribution of final sizes of

913 patients' tumors (relative to baseline) in each treatment arm (color). Log linear regression

914 used to compare average final tumor size (points show the expected final tumor size for each

915 treatment. Overlapping confidence interval error bars shows that the final size did not

916 significantly differ between groups.

917