Proteogenomic heterogeneity of localized human prostate cancer progression

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Abstract

Tumor-specific genomic aberrations are routinely determined by high throughput genomic

measurements. However, it is unclear how complex genome alterations affect molecular networks

through changing protein levels, and consequently biochemical states of tumor tissues. Here, we

investigated how tumor heterogeneity evolves during prostate cancer progression. In this study, we

performed proteogenomic analyses of 105 prostate samples, consisting of both benign prostatic

hyperplasia regions and malignant tumors, from 39 prostate cancer (PCa) patients. Exome sequencing,

copy number analysis, RNA sequencing and quantitative proteomic data were integrated using a network-

based approach and related to clinical and histopathological features. In general, the number and

magnitude of alterations (DNA, RNA and protein) correlated with histopathological tumor grades.

Although common sets of proteins were affected in high-grade tumors, the extent to which these proteins

changed their concentrations varied considerably across tumors. Our multi-layer network integration

identified a sub-network consisting of nine genes whose activity positively correlated with increasingly

aggressive tumor phenotypes. Importantly, although the effects on individual gene members were barely

detectable, together the perturbation of this sub-network was predictive for recurrence-free survival time.

The multi-omics profiling of multiple tumor sites from the same patients revealed cases of likely shared

clonal origins as well as the occasional co-existence of multiple clonally independent tumors in the same

prostate. Overall, this study revealed molecular networks with remarkably convergent alterations across

tumor sites and patients, but it also exposed a diversity of network effects: we could not identify a single

sub-network that was perturbed in all high-grade tumor regions.

Introduction

Prostate cancer (PCa) represents one of the most common neoplasm among men with almost 1,300,000 new cases and 360,000 deaths in 2018 [1] accounting for 15% of all cancers diagnosed. PCa is the fifth leading cause of cancer death in men and represents 6.6% of total cancer mortality in men[1]. Despite earlier detection and new treatments, the lifetime risk to die of PCa has remained stable at approximately 3% since 1980. (National Cancer Institute SEER data: https://seer.cancer.gov/statfacts/html/prost.html). In many patients, PCa is indolent and slow growing. The challenge is to identify those patients who are unlikely to experience significant progression while offering radical therapy to those who are at risk. Current risk stratification models are based on clinicopathological variables including histomorphologically defined grade groups, prostate-specific antigen (PSA) levels and clinical stage. Although those variables provide important information for clinical risk assessment and treatment planning[2,3], they do not sufficiently predict the course of the disease.

Extensive genomic profiling efforts have provided important insights into the common genomic alterations in primary and metastatic PCa [4-9]. Interestingly, PCa genomes show a high frequency of recurrent large-scale chromosomal rearrangements such as TMPRSS2-ERG [10]. In addition, extensive copy number alterations (CNAs) are common in PCa, yet point mutations are relatively infrequent in primary PCa compared to other cancers [6,11]. A major complicating factor is that around 80% of PCas are multifocal and harbor multiple spatially and often morphologically distinct tumor foci[12,13]. Several recent studies have suggested that the majority of topographically distinct tumor foci appear to arise independently and show few or no overlap in driver gene alterations[14-16]. Therefore, a given prostate gland can harbor clonally independent PCas.

To allow for a more functional assessment of the biochemical state of PCa, it is necessary to go beyond genomic alterations and comprehensively catalogue cancer specific genomic, transcriptomic and proteomic alterations in an integrated manner[17-19]. Such an approach will provide critical information for basic and translational research and could result into clinically relevant markers. While hundreds of PCa genomes and transcriptomes have been profiled to date [20], little is known about the PCa proteome. Although recent work has emphasized the need for integrated multi-omics profiling of PCa, we still lack understanding about how genomic changes impact on mRNA and protein levels[17-19]. Especially the complex relationship between tumor grade, tumor progression and multi-layered molecular network changes remains largely elusive.

For example, previous work has shown that copy number changes may alter transcript levels of many genes, whereas the respective protein levels remain relatively stable [21]. Indeed, there is compelling

evidence across multiple tumor types that many genomic alterations are 'buffered' at the protein level

and are hence mostly clinically inconsequential [22,23]. To better understand the evolution of PCa and to

identify core networks perturbed by genomic alterations and thus central for the tumor phenotype, it is

therefore essential to investigate the transmission of CNAs to the transcriptomic and proteomic level.

To this end, it is important to decipher which genomic alterations impact PCa proteomes, which

of those proteomic alterations are functionally relevant, and how molecular networks are perturbed at

the protein level across tumors.

To address these open questions, we performed a multi-omics profiling of radical prostatectomy

(RP) specimens at the level of the genome, transcriptome and proteome from adjacent biopsy-level

samples, using state-of-the-art technologies. Unique features of this study are (1) the utilization of PCT

(pressure cycling technology)-SWATH (Sequential Window Acquisition of all THeoretical Mass Spectra)

mass spectrometry [24,25], allowing rapid and reproducible quantification of thousands of proteins from

biopsy-level tissue samples collected in clinical cohorts; (2) the simultaneous profiling of all omics layers

from the same tissue regions; (3) inclusion and full profiling of benign regions, which provides a matching

control for each tumor; and (4) the full multi-omics characterization of multiple tumor regions from the

same patients, thus enabling the detailed investigation of tumor heterogeneity. This design resulted in the

multi-layered analyses of 105 samples from 39 PCa patients, as well as of the exome of corresponding

peripheral blood cells yielding a comprehensive molecular profile for each patient and identified molecular

networks that are commonly altered in multiple patients. Importantly, some of the affected

genes/proteins exhibited very small individual effect sizes, suggesting that combined network effects of

multiple genes may significantly contribute to determining PCa phenotypes.

Results

Proteogenomic analysis of the sample cohort identifies known PCa biomarkers.

In this study, we analyzed 39 PCa patients (**Supplementary Fig. 1**) belonging to three groups who

underwent laparoscopic robotic-assisted RP. The patients were from the PCa Outcomes Cohort (ProCOC)

study [26] [27]. Tumor areas were graded using the ISUP (International Society of Urological Pathology) grade

groups[28], which range from ISUP grade group G1 (least aggressive) to G5 (most aggressive). The more

advanced grade groups G4 and G5 are considered jointly (G4/5). The cohort tested included 12 low-grade

(G1), 17 intermediate- (G2 and G3), and 10 high-grade (G4/5) patients (**Fig. 1a**, **Supplementary Fig. 1**,

Supplementary Table 1). For low-grade PCa patients, we selected two representative regions, one of

benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH) and one of malignant tumor (TA). Since PCa often presents as a

multifocal disease with heterogeneous grading within each prostate specimen[25] we analyzed two different

tumor regions from the 27 intermediate- and high-grade patients. In those cases three representative

regions, including BPH, the most aggressive tumor (TA1) and a secondary, lower-grade tumor (TA2)[2] were

analyzed. Thus, TA1 always represented the higher-grade nodule compared to TA2. Note, whereas each

patient was assigned a patient-specific overall grade (*i.e.* 'low', 'intermediate' or 'high'), each tumor area

was additionally assigned an individual grade group based on its histological appearance. According to

current ISUP guidelines, the grading of the entire prostate specimen depends on the size and grade of

individual nodules[29]. Thus, it is possible that the patient grading is lower than the grading of the most

aggressive nodule, if another lower-grade nodule is larger. Tumor regions contained at least 70% tumor

cellularity and the distance between the analyzed areas (TA1 versus TA2) was at least 5 mm. Altogether,

we obtained 105 prostate tissue specimens (**Supplementary Table 1**). Three adjacent tissue biopsies of

the dimensions 0.6 x 0.6 x 3.0 mm were punched from each representative region for exome sequencing,

CNA (derived from the exome sequencing data), RNA sequencing (RNA-seq), and quantitative proteomic

analysis using the PCT-SWATH technology [24] respectively. Proteomic analysis was performed in duplicates

for each tissue sample. Peripheral blood samples from each patient were also subjected to exome

sequencing and served as the genomic wild-type reference (**Fig. 1**). All three types of grading (*i.e.* patient-

specific overall grading, TA1 grading and TA2 grading) were predictive of the recurrence-free survival (RFS)

in our study.

In agreement with prior reports, we observed relatively few recurrent point mutations across

patients (**Supplementary Fig. 2**, **Supplementary Table 2**), but substantial CNAs (**Supplementary Figs. 3**

and **4**, **Supplementary Table 3**). In total, 1,110 genes showed copy number gains in at least five samples

or copy number losses in at least five samples (see **Supplementary Text** for details). Likewise, our data

confirmed the differential expression of several transcripts/proteins that had previously been suggested

as PCa biomarkers or which are known oncogenes in other tumor types (**Supplementary Fig. 5**,

Supplementary Tables 4 and **5**) (see **Supplementary Text** for details). This consistency with previously

published results confirmed the quality of our data and motivated us to go beyond previous work by

performing a network-based multi-omics multi-gene analysis.

Molecular perturbations correlate with tumor grade.

As a first step towards a cross-layer analysis, we asked if high-grade PCa would be generally

affected by stronger alterations (compared to low-grade PCa) at the genome, transcriptome, and

proteome layer[30]. Thus, we devised molecular perturbation scores that quantified the number of affected

genes/proteins and the extent to which these genes/proteins were altered in the tumor specimens

compared to their benign controls (see **Methods** for details). Higher-grade tumors (G3 and G4/5) exhibited

significantly higher molecular perturbation scores than lower-grade tumors (G1 and G2). Those differences

were statistically significant in all but one case (*P* value < 0.05, one-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test, **Fig. 2**).

The CNA perturbation magnitude exhibited the highest correlation with the PCa grading, confirming prior

studies documenting the tight association between CNA, histopathological grade and risk of

progression[4,5,31]. Previous work suggested that copy number changes are to some extent buffered at the

protein level [32]. Interestingly, we observed that proteins known to be part of protein complexes were

significantly less strongly correlated with the fold changes (FCs) of their coding mRNAs than proteins not

known to be part of protein complexes (*P* value < 2.6e-11, one-sided t-test, **Supplementary Fig. 6**). This

result is consistent with the concept that protein complex stoichiometry contributes to the buffering of

mRNA changes at the level of proteins[22,33-35]. Thus, molecular patterns in high-grade PCa are more strongly

perturbed at all layers and the effects of genomic variation are progressively but non-uniformly attenuated

along the axis of gene expression.

Inter-patient heterogeneity decreases along protein biosynthesis.

Our analysis of CNA profiles (above and **Supplementary Text**) already revealed many shared CNAs

across patients, suggesting that such common CNAs might represent genomic driver changes. We

therefore investigated if such a convergence towards common molecular endpoints could also be

observed at the transcript and protein level. To address this question, we first computed a reference

molecular signature that is characteristic of the molecular perturbations of tumors in a given grade group.

These 'centroid vectors' were obtained by computing the average tumor-to-benign FCs across all samples

within a grade group. Consistent with the observation above, we found that the average effect sizes

(averaged absolute centroid FCs) were increasing with the grade group for all three layers (CNA, mRNA,

and protein; **Supplementary Table 6**). Next, we compared each individual sample within a group against

the matching centroid of the same group. For the quantification of the similarity between a tumor sample

and the corresponding centroid we used four similarity/distance measures: Pearson correlation, Mutual

Information (MI)[36], Manhattan distance and Euclidean distance. While the first two measures (*i.e.* Pearson

correlation and MI) quantify the degree to which the tumor sample and centroid vector co-vary, the other

two measures (*i.e.* Manhattan and Euclidean distance) also take into account the magnitude of the FCs in

the two vectors. To illustrate this difference, imagine two patients having perturbations of the same

genes/proteins, but one of them exhibiting overall two-fold greater FCs (*i.e.* all FCs are increased by a

factor of two compared to the other patient). In such a scenario Pearson correlation and MI would yield

identical results for the two patients when compared to the centroid, whereas Manhattan and Euclidean

distance would identify them as different. Using the Pearson correlation and MI, we found that high-grade

PCa (G4/5) were more similar to their respective centroid than low-grade PCa (G1) to their centroid (**Fig.**

3). This effect was particularly pronounced for protein-level changes. This is consistent with the notion

that protein levels (and not mRNA levels) are subjected to stronger selection. Interestingly, when the

Euclidean distance and the Manhattan distance were used to characterize tumor similarity, we found that

the high-grade tumors were more *dissimilar* to each other than the low-grade tumors (**Supplementary**

Fig. 7), in sharp contrast to the Pearson correlation and MI. Based on the nature of the different similarity

measures tested, we hypothesized that there is a set of proteins commonly affected in their abundance

by oncogenic alterations in high-grade tumors. This would increase the similarity using the Pearson

correlation or MI. However, although the same proteins are affected, they are affected to a different

extent in different high-grade tumors, *i.e.* the FCs exhibited a high degree of variability (**Supplementary**

Fig. 7), which would increase the dissimilarity based on the Euclidean distance or Manhattan distance (see

Supplementary Fig. 7 for a schematic explanation).

To further corroborate the notion of common endpoints, we identified the 10 proteins with the

largest average absolute FCs across all tumor specimens (**Supplementary Table 6**). Among them was PSA

(KLK3), and several other well established PCa-associated proteins like AGR2[37], MDH2[38], MFAP4[39] and

FABP5[40]. We observed that for some of these top 10 proteins, FCs were more extreme in the higher-grade

tumors (G3 and G4/5) compared to lower-grade tumors (G1 and G2), such as MDH2 and SEPHS1 (up-

regulation; **Fig. 3c**). RABL3 was one of the most strongly down-regulated proteins (**Fig. 3c**), which is a

surprising finding as RABL3 is known to be up-regulated in other solid tumors[41,42]. Interestingly, in most

cases these proteins were from loci that were not subject to CNAs (**Supplementary Fig. 7**, **Supplementary**

Table 6). Taken together, these findings suggest that tumor mechanisms in different patients converged

on common protein endpoints and that the expression levels of these proteins were progressively more

strongly affected during tumor evolution. Thus, we next aimed to identify molecular networks that

underlie these alterations and thus indicate altered biochemical states of the respective tissues.

Gene networks are regulated on CNA, mRNA and protein level.

Although the analyses described above suggested convergent proteomic changes, we did not

detect a single mutation that was common to all high-grade tumors, let alone common to all 39 PCa cases

tested. It has previously been suggested that mutations affecting different genes could impact common

molecular networks if the respective gene products interact at the molecular level[43]. However, previous

analyses were mostly restricted to individual molecular layers. For example, it was shown that genes

mutated in different patients often cluster together in molecular interaction networks [43]. But, effects of

these mutations on transcript and protein levels remained unexplored in this case. Here, we aimed at a

multi-layer network analysis, involving the genome, transcriptome and proteome. We applied network

analysis at each layer separately and the layers were combined afterwards. To identify sub-networks

commonly perturbed, we mapped our data onto the STRING gene interaction network [44], and employed

network propagation [45,46] separately to the CNA, transcriptome and proteome data for each of the tumor

samples. We excluded point mutations from this analysis as their frequency was too low in our cohort. By

combining published molecular interactome data with a network propagation algorithm[43,46], we aimed to

'enrich' network regions with many perturbed genes/proteins. We reasoned that the convergent

consequences of genomic variants on common network regions would be indicative of specific

biochemical functions that are important for the tumor biology. We therefore identified genes/proteins

in network regions that showed a higher score (or a lower score) in high-grade (G4/5) relative to lower-

grade (G1) tumor groups at all three levels (**Fig. 4a**, **b**; **Methods**). This analysis identified sub-networks

consisting of over- and under-expressed genes (relative to the benign controls). We found 57 amplified

genes (**Supplementary Table 6**) for which transcripts and proteins were often over-expressed in high-

grade PCa (**Fig. 4a**) and 21 genes with copy number loss (**Supplementary Table 6**) for which transcripts

and proteins were often down-regulated compared to lower-grade tumors (**Fig. 4b**).

Among the up-regulated network nodes, we observed genes modulating the stability of

chromatin, such as chromatin-binding protein Chromobox 1 (CBX1) [47], SET Domain Bifurcated 1

(SETDB1)[48], a function linking to H3K27me3 and H3K9me3 in chromatin, and CBX3 (known as HP1-γ)[49].

SETDB1 is an oncogene in melanoma[50] and has also been found to be over-expressed in PCa and cell lines

[51]. Further, we found genes involved in DNA damage repair, such as SMG7[52] and ATR[53], and PRKCZ[54], which

had already been suggested as a biomarker prognostic for survival in PCa [55]. Multiple actin related proteins

including ARPC1B[56], ARPC5[57], ACTL6A[58], and CFL1[59], which are markers for aggressive cancers, were part

of the up-regulated network nodes. Moreover, the up-regulated genes contained proteins related to the

cell cycle like BANF1 and proteins interacting with the centrosome including LAMTOR1 and RAB7A that

had already been associated with PCa[60]. Finally, several signaling molecules with known roles in PCa were

up-regulated, such as the transcription factor Yin Yang 1 (YY1) [61], the TGF-β receptor TGFBR1 [62], and KPNA4,

which promotes metastasis through activation of NF-κB and Notch signaling [63]. Thus, up-regulated

network nodes are involved in DNA/chromatin integrity and growth control.

Likewise, several of the down-regulated genes had functions associated with PCa. For example,

the oxidative stress related gene MGST1, which is recurrently deleted in PCa [64]. ALDH1A3 is a direct

androgen-responsive gene, which encodes NAD-dependent aldehyde dehydrogenase[65]. DHCR24 is

involved in cholesterol biosynthesis and regulated by the androgen receptor[66]. Polymorphisms in CYP1A1

are associated with PCa risk in several meta-analyses among different ethnicities [67-69].

Further, our network analysis is suggesting tumor mechanisms converging on genes that are

known contributors to PCa tumor biology. For example, the PCa-associated gene SF3B2[70,71] was only

weakly amplified in some of the high-grade tumors (average $\log_2 FC = 0.016$) and mRNA levels showed

similarly small changes (average $\log_2 FC = 0.024$). On the other hand, the SF3B2 protein levels were

consistently and more strongly up-regulated across tumors (average $\log_2 FC = 0.31$), especially within the

high-grade tumors (**Supplementary Fig. 8**). Another example is UBE2T whose over-expression is known to

be associated with PCa[72]. Unfortunately, we could not quantify the corresponding protein levels. However,

we observed a strong and consistent mRNA over-expression across several tumors (average $\log_2 FC = 0.73$),

even though at the DNA level the gene was only weakly amplified (average $\log_2 FC = 0.023$; **Supplementary**

Fig. 8). Our findings of more heterogeneous CNAs, but more uniform mRNA and protein alterations point

on convergent evolutionary mechanisms, as we move along the axis of gene expression.

Next, we analyzed the largest connected component with genes up-regulated in advanced disease

in more detail (see **Methods**). It consists of the nine nodes EMD, BANF1, ACTL6A, YY1, RUVBL1, KANSL1,

MRGBP, VPS72 and ZNHIT1 (**Fig. 4a**), and is referred to in the following as Network Component 1

(**Supplementary Table 6**). Seven of these proteins are involved in chromosome organization which may

induce genomic alterations and influence the outcome of multiple cancers including PCa[73]. For example,

the actin-related protein ACTL6A is a member of the SWI/SNF (BAF) chromatin remodeling complex[74], and

a known oncogene and a prognostic biomarker for PCa[75]. Likewise, KANSL1 is involved in histone post-

translation modifications, while VPS72 is a member of histone- and chromatin remodeling complexes[76].

Several samples were characterized by a small, but consistent DNA amplification of multiple

members of Network Component 1 (**Fig. 4c**). Out of the 66 tumor samples, there were 30 samples –

belonging to all grade groups – with a weak but consistent DNA amplification of Network Component 1

members, while the high-grade samples had stronger amplifications on average (*i.e.* larger effect sizes).

Importantly, gene members of Network Component 1 were dispersed across eight chromosomes

(**Supplementary Table 6**). The parallel DNA amplification of these genes is therefore the result of multiple

independent CNA events, while the signal on any single gene alone was too weak to be significant in

isolation. In some but not all cases, the amplifications led to a small, but consistent increase in mRNA

expression of the amplified gene loci (**Fig. 4d**). Unfortunately, only three out of the nine proteins were

detected in our proteomics experiments (**Fig. 4e**). Interestingly, patients where the DNA amplifications led

to transcript over-expression were almost always high-grade patients, whereas patients where the

amplification affected gene expression to a smaller extent were low- or intermediate-grade patients (**Fig.**

4c, **d**). Further, we noticed that TA2 samples graded as G3 from high-grade patients carried amplifications

of Network Component 1, whereas tumor areas graded as G3 from intermediate-grade patients did not

have amplifications of this network component (**Fig. 4c**, **d**). Thus, although the tumor areas were

histologically equally classified, tumor areas from high-grade patients carried a CNA signature and

expression patterns reminiscent of the high-grade areas from the same patients. Therefore, within the

cohort tested the joint DNA amplification of this network component along with RNA up-regulation is a

signature of high-grade tumors. Curiously, the higher-grade tumor areas of those high-grades patients

(TA1) carried stronger DNA amplifications than the respective lower-grade areas (TA2), which implies that

the progressive amplification of Network Component 1 during tumor evolution may contribute to an

increasingly aggressive phenotype. In order to further corroborate the clinical relevance of this network

perturbation we analyzed published datasets of three additional PCa cohorts (TCGA[8], MSKCC[31], and

Aarhus[77]), together comprising a total of 513 patients with known clinical outcome. We found, that over-

expression of genes from Network Component 1 was a significant predictor of reduced RFS in the TCGA

cohort (P value = 8.8e-4, log-rank test), which was the cohort with the largest number of patients. In the

other two cohorts we observed the same trend, although the difference in RFS was not statistically

significant (P value = 0.11 and 0.093 for MSKCC, and Aarhus; **Fig. 4f**).

In conclusion, our findings suggest that relatively weak but broad CNAs of entire network

components are associated with high-grade tumors and that the presence of some of these perturbations

in lower-grade tumors may be predictive of the future development of a more aggressive phenotype.

Analysis of distinct tumor nodules defines intra-patient heterogeneity (TA1 versus TA2

comparison).

The CNA patterns (**Supplementary Fig. 4**) and the Network Component 1 analysis (**Fig. 4c**, **d**)

suggest that different tumor areas from the same patient shared several mutations. Such common

signatures are expected if different tumor nodules originate from a common clone. If this was true, we

would expect mutational signatures to be more similar between different nodules from the same patient

than between patients, even though mutated genes may be shared across patients. To compare the intra-

and inter-patient molecular heterogeneity at the levels of CNAs, transcript, and protein FCs, we computed

the Pearson correlation between tumor area 1 (TA1) and its paired tumor area 2 (TA2) for each layer and

all of the 27 patients with two characterized tumor areas (25 for the mRNA, see **Methods** and

Supplementary Text). As a control, we also computed all pairwise Pearson correlations between the

samples within each of the grade groups (*i.e.* inter-patient correlation). As expected, paired TA1 and TA2

from the same patient were on average more strongly correlated to each other compared to samples from

different patients within the same grade group. This finding was consistent for all omics layers (**Fig. 5a**),

and was more pronounced at the CNA and mRNA layers compared to the protein layer.

Next, we tested whether a high correlation at the level of CNA also implies a high correlation at

the level of mRNA and proteins. We tested this idea by 'correlating the correlations', *i.e.* we correlated the

TA1-TA2 correlation of CNA profiles with the correlation between the mRNA and protein profiles of the

same tumor areas (**Fig. 5b**). Indeed, a higher correlation of two tumor areas at the level of CNA correlated

significantly with a higher correlation at the level of mRNA (r=0.49, *P* value=0.014). In other words,

knowing how similar two tumor areas of a patient are at the CNA level supports a prediction of their

similarity at the mRNA level (and conversely). Although the correlation between protein and CNA was not

statistically significant, it followed the same trend (r=0.35, *P* value=0.076).

Comparing molecular similarity across omics layers allowed us to identify specific types of patients.

The patients H2, H4, M13 had highly correlated tumor areas at all three layers (upper right corner in all

scatterplots of **Fig. 5b**). Likely, the tumor areas of these patients have a common clonal origin

(**Supplementary Fig. 3**). In contrast, patients M12 and M14 had weakly correlated tumor areas at all levels

(bottom left corner in all scatterplots of **Fig. 5b**). These tumor nodules either have independent clonal

origins or they diverged at an earlier stage during tumor evolution (**Supplementary Fig. 3**)[16]. For example,

in the case of patient M12 large parts of the genome were not affected by CNAs in the benign sample as

well as in TA1 and TA2. However, as shown on **Supplementary Fig. 3**, a large region was amplified in TA1,

whereas the same region was deleted in TA2. This is consistent with a scenario in which TA1 and TA2 show

parallel evolution. A third class of patients is exemplified by the patients M9 and M17, who showed a high

correlation between their tumor areas on the CNA and mRNA levels, but not on the protein level. Yet other

patterns were apparent in patients M6 and H3. They showed very similar protein patterns in the two

tumor areas, but not on the other two layers. We confirmed that protein-level similarity correlated with

similar histological characteristics of the tumor areas. **Supplementary Fig. 9** shows formalin-fixed paraffin-

embedded (FFPE) tissue microarray images (duplicates) from the analyzed tumor nodules (TA1 and TA2,

diameter 0.6 mm), further underlining the hypothesis that ultimately protein-level alterations are

responsible for common cellular phenotypes. Although we cannot fully exclude the possibility that some

of these results were affected by technical noise in the data, our findings suggest that transcript alterations

can frequently be buffered at the level of proteins (patients M9, M17, **Supplementary Fig. 6**) and that

convergent evolutionary processes may lead to the alteration of common proteins (patients M6, H3). We

also note that our findings are specific to the two tumor areas available in this study and could be different

if other nodules had been sampled for each of the patients. However, our findings on patients with weakly

correlated tumor areas at all levels like M12 and M14 suggest that these patients might carry more than

one disease[16].

Discussion

Despite twenty years of oncological research involving genome-scale (omics) technologies, we

know remarkably little about how the discovered genomic alterations affect the biochemical state of a cell

and consequently the disease phenotype. In particular, little is known about how genomic alterations

propagate along the axis of gene expression[17,18]. Here, we have exploited recent technological advances

in data acquisition that made it possible to characterize small samples of the same tumor specimens at

the level of genomes, transcriptomes, and proteomes and advances in computational strategies towards

the network-based integration of multi-omics data.

In our study, samples were generated from small, less than 1 mm diameter punches in immediate

spatial proximity in the tumor and subsequently profiled at all three 'omics layers' (DNA, RNA, proteome).

Due to the large spatial heterogeneity of PCa[14,25], this design - which is so far uncommon for studies

profiling multiple layers from tumor specimens - was instrumental for increasing the comparability of the

various omics layers and thus facilitated the analysis of molecular mechanisms. Our key findings are: (1)

we confirmed the importance of CNAs for PCa biology and the alteration of many known PCa-associated

genes at the transcript- and protein-level; (2) we revealed a generally elevated molecular alteration of

high-grade tumors compared to lower-grade tumors; (3) although our study confirmed large within- and

between-patient genomic heterogeneity, (4) we detected molecular networks that were commonly

altered at the mRNA and protein-level. The fact that many of those target molecules are known drivers of

PCa tumorigenesis, supports the notion that these proteins/transcripts are subject to convergent

evolutionary mechanisms.

We integrated the three omics layers using a network-based approach as opposed to directly

comparing gene perturbations (mutations) to gene products (transcripts and proteins). Using genome data

only, it had previously been hypothesized that whereas the identity of specific mutated genes may differ

between tumors, those mutations might still affect common molecular networks[43]. In other words, tumor

phenotypes are more dependent on which network regions are perturbed rather than which individual

genes are mutated. Our study provides experimental evidence that such network effects are indeed

propagated to subsequent molecular layers and that this effect propagation may be clinically relevant.

Our multi-omics network analysis revealed that high-grade PCa tumors distinguished themselves

from low-grade tumors in two aspects. The first is a generally higher heterogeneity and loss of controlled

gene regulation, which increased the molecular differences among high-grade tumors. It had previously

been shown that gene expression in tumors is often less coordinated than in normal samples[30]. The

increasing heterogeneity of protein concentrations suggests that this loss of coordinated expression also

affects protein levels. The second aspect is the convergence of molecular alterations towards a consistent

set of perturbed specific molecular sub-networks at the genomic, transcriptomic and proteomic layer

along the progression from low-grade to high-grade tumors. Thus, although we observed globally a higher

degree of variability in gene expression and proteome control among high-grade specimens, a specific

subset of the observed alterations appeared crucial for determining the aggressive tumor phenotype.

Tumors are under selective pressure acting on the biochemical function of the cells. It is generally believed

that proteins are a closer reflection of the functional state of a cell than the mRNA. Here we could show

that the fold changes of proteins like RABL3, MFAP4, and SF3B2 were more pronounced and/or uniform

across high-grade tumors than either their coding mRNAs or the underlying CNAs.

Specifically, our analysis led to the identification of Network Component 1, a sub-network involved

in chromatin remodeling and consisting of genes that were weakly amplified in intermediate-grade (G3)

tumor specimens. Signals of individual gene members of this component were virtually indistinguishable

from noise in our cohort. However, their consistent alterations across the network region, across

molecular layers and the fact that the same genes showed enhanced signals in high-grade specimens,

rendered this component highly interesting. The fact that expression changes of Network Component 1

members were predictive for survival in independent cohorts further supports the potential clinical

relevance of this sub-network. Our network-based cross-omics analysis identified nine other network

components (**Fig. 4**) successfully capturing several known and potentially new PCa-associated genes.

However, neither Network Component 1 nor any of the other network components was uniformly subject

to CNAs across all high-grade patients. Instead, we found different network components modified in

different patients and these sub-networks were involved in cellular processes as diverse as actin
remodeling, DNA damage response, and metabolic functions, all of which are known contributors to PCa
biology. This further underlines the large patient-to-patient variability of PCa and it demonstrates the
diversity of molecular mechanisms leading to histologically similar phenotypes. Future prediction models
of PCa including the ISUP grade groups, PSA levels and clinical stage might be improved by exploiting multi-
omics network analyses. Detecting more or less aggressive networks in prostate biopsies would help
clinicians to advice either active surveillance or active therapy. However, the development of such multi-
dimensional biomarkers would require much larger patient cohorts.

Another distinguishing feature of this study was the simultaneous profiling of two different tumor
regions in 27 out of the 39 patients. The profiling of multiple tumor regions from the same prostate helped
to further highlight the enormous heterogeneity of PCa within and between patients and provided
important insights into PCa evolution. The fact that Network Component 1 was more strongly affected in
the paired higher-grade nodules of high-grade patients suggests that at least certain sub-networks are
subject to an evolutionary process, that progressively 'moves' protein levels towards a more aggressive
state. Generally, and at all molecular layers tested, the two paired tumor areas were more similar to each
other compared to two samples from the same grade group but different patients, suggesting common
evolutionary origins. Although the two tumor areas seemed to mostly originate from the same clone, this
was not always the case. In some patients, different nodules exhibited different molecular patterns at all
omics layers, suggesting early evolutionary separation. Thus, for the first time, current diagnostic, expert-
level consensus guidelines[29] are supported by detailed proteogenomic data. Our findings support earlier
claims that clonality itself might be a prognostic marker with implications for future, more tumor-specific
treatment when targeted therapies become available also for PCa[16,78].

Our study shows that all three molecular layers (genome, transcriptome and proteome)
contributed valuable information for understanding the biology of PCa. In particular the DNA layer
informed about causal events, clonality, and genomic similarity between tumors. The transcriptome was
relevant for understanding the transmission of CNA effects to proteins and served as a surrogate in cases
where protein levels remained undetected. The proteome was crucial for revealing protein-level buffering
of CNA effects as well as for indicating convergent evolution on functional endpoints. In a routine
diagnostic context though, measuring all three layers may not be feasible for the near future due to
resource and time limitations. Thus, the identification of improved, routine-usable molecular markers for
PCa diagnostics and prognosis remains an open problem[17].

Materials and methods

Patients and samples

A total of 39 men with localized PCa who were scheduled for RP were selected from a cohort of 1,200 patients within the ProCOC study and processed at the Department of Pathology and Molecular Pathology, University Hospital Zurich, Switzerland [26]. Each of the selected intermediate- and high-grade patients had two different tumor nodules with different ISUP grade groups. H&E (Hematoxylin and Eosin)-stained fresh frozen tissue sections of 105 selected BPH and tumor regions were evaluated by two experienced pathologists (PJW, NJR) to assign malignancy, tumor stage, and Grade Group according to the International Union Against Cancer (UICC) and WHO/ISUP criteria. This study was approved by the Cantonal Ethics Committee of Zurich (KEK-ZH-No. 2008-0040), the associated methods were carried out in accordance with the approved guidelines, and each patient has signed an informed consent form. Patients were followed up on a regular basis (every three months in the first year and at least annually thereafter) or on an individual basis depending on the disease course in the following years. The RFS was calculated with a biochemical recurrence (BCR) defined as a PSA ≥0.1 ng/ml. Patients were censored if lost to follow-up or event-free at their most recent clinic visit. Patients with a postoperative PSA persistence or without distinct follow-up data for the endpoint BCR were excluded from the analysis of BCR.

Exome sequencing and somatic variant analysis

The exome sequencing (exome-seq) was performed using the Agilent Sure Select Exome platform for library construction and Illumina HiSeq 2500 for sequencing read generation. We mapped and processed the reads using a pipeline based on bowtie2 [79] (1.1.1) and the Genome Analysis Tools Kit (GATK) [80] (3.2-2). We detected and reported nonsynonymous variants or variants causing splicing changes using Strelka (1.0.14) and Mutect (1.1.7) combined with post-processing by the CLC Genomics Workbench (8.0.3). In this process, all tissue samples of a patient were compared to the respective blood sample.

Trimmomatic [81] (0.36) was used for adaptor clipping and low-quality subsequence trimming of the FASTQ files. Subsequently, single reads were aligned to the hg19 reference genome with bowtie2 with options "--very-sensitive -k 20". We applied samtools [82] (0.1.19) and picard-tools (1.119) to sort the resulting bam files in coordinate order, merge different lanes, filter out all non-primary alignments, and remove PCR duplicates. Quality of the runs was checked using a combination of BEDtools [83] (2.21), samtools, R (3.1) and FastQC (0.11.2).

Bam files containing the mapped reads were preprocessed in the following way: indel information

was used to realign individual reads using the RealignerTargetCreator and IndelRealigner option of the

GATK. Mate-pair information between mates was verified and fixed using Picard tools and single bases

were recalibrated using GATK's BaseRecalibrator. After preprocessing, variant calling was carried out by

comparing benign or tumor prostate tissue samples with matched blood samples using the programs

MuTect [84] and Strelka[85] independently. Somatic variants that were only detected by one of the two

programs were filtered out using CLC Genomics Workbench. So were those that had an entry in the dbSNP

[86] common database and those that represented synonymous variants without predicted effects on

splicing.

CNA analysis of exome-seq data

The Bam files generated during the process of somatic variant calling were processed with the

CopywriteR package (v.2.2.0) for the R software [87]. CopywriteR makes use of so-called "off-target" reads,

i.e. reads that cover areas outside of the exon amplicons. "Off-target" reads are produced due to

inefficient enrichment strategies. In our case on average 28.5% of the total reads were not on target.

Briefly, CopywriteR removes low quality and anomalous read pairs, then peaks are called in the respective

blood reference, and all reads in this region are discarded. After mapping the reads into bins, those peak

regions, in which reads had been removed, were compensated for. Additionally, read counts are corrected

based on mappability and GC-content. Finally, a circular binary segmentation is carried out and for each

segment the log count ratios between tissue samples and the respective blood sample are reported as

copy number gain or loss. The copy number of each gene in each sample was reported based on the log

count ratio of the respective segment in which the gene was located. The overall performance of this

CNA-calling approach was evaluated by comparing the results of the TA1 (and TA) samples with CNA

results obtained by applying the OncoScan Microarray pipeline to FFPE samples from the same tumors

(**Supplementary Fig. 10**).

OncoScan Microarrays

OncoScan copy number assays were carried out and analyzed as described previously [88]. Briefly,

DNA was extracted from punches of FFPE cancer tissue blocks. Locus-specific molecular inversion probes

were hybridized to complementary DNA and gaps were filled in a nucleotide-specific manner. After

amplification and cleavage of the probes, the probes were hybridized to the OncoScan assay arrays.

Scanning the fluorescence intensity and subsequent data processing using the Affymetrix® GeneChip®

Command Console and BioDiscovery Nexus express resulted in log intensity ratio data (sample versus

Affymetrix reference) and virtual segmentation of the genome into areas with copy number gain, loss or

stability.

RNA Sequencing

RNA sequencing was performed at the Functional Genomics Center Zurich. RNA-seq libraries were

generated using the TruSeq RNA stranded kit with PolyA enrichment (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

Libraries were sequenced with 2x126bp paired-end on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 with an average of 105.2

mio reads per sample.

Paired-end reads were mapped to the human reference genome (GRCh37) using the STAR aligner

(version 2.4.2a) [89]. Quality control of the resulting bam files using QoRTs [90] and mRIN [91] showed strong

RNA degradation[92] in a significant fraction of the samples: mRIN classified 31 samples as highly degraded

(**Supplementary Fig. 11**, **Supplementary Table 4**). In order to correct for this 3' bias, 3 tag counting was

performed as described by Sigurgeirsson et al [93] using a tag length of 1,000. After 3' bias correction, three

samples still showed a clear 3' bias: the two tumor regions (TA1 and TA2) of the patient M5 and TA2 from

patient M8 (**Supplementary Fig. 11**). These samples were excluded from subsequent analyses.

Additionally, the BPH region of the patient M5 was excluded due to the exclusion of both its tumor regions.

FeatureCounts [94] was used to determine read counts for all genes annotated in ENSEMBL v75.

Genes for which no read was observed in any of the samples in the original data were excluded from the

analysis. Further, after 3 tag counting, all genes with without at least 1 read per million in N of the samples

were removed. We chose N to be 10 which corresponds to the size of the smallest grade group (G2). In a

last reduction step, all genes with more than one transcript were excluded, yielding a final set of 14,281

genes.

Read count normalization and differential gene expression analysis was performed using the R

packages sva [95] and DESeq2 [96]. All benign tissues were considered biological replicates and differential

gene expression for the individual tumor samples was determined against all benign tissues. Gene

expression changes with an adjusted *P* value < 0.1 were considered significant.

RNA-seq - 3' bias correction

The 3 tag counting approach for 3' bias correction was used on the RNA-seq dataset [93]. This

approach requires changing of the annotation file in two steps: 1) isoform filtering and 2) transcript length

restriction. As proposed in [93] for each gene we determined the highest expressed isoform within a set of

high quality samples. As high quality samples we used all samples with an mRIN score greater than or

equal to 0.02. This set contains 7 benign and 15 tumor samples. Isoform expression was determined using

cufflinks [97]. As transcript length we chose 1,000bp.

Gene fusions

526   FusionCatcher (version 0.99.5a beta) was used to determine gene fusions for all samples. Fusions

527   classified as "probably false positive" are discarded unless they are also classified as "known fusion".

PCT assisted sample preparation for SWATH-MS

We first washed each tissue sample to remove O.C.T., followed by PCT-assisted tissue lysis and

protein digestion, and SWATH-MS analysis, as described previously[24]   Briefly, a series of ethanol solutions

were used to wash the tissues each tissue, including 70% ethanol / 30% water (30 s), water (30 s), 70%

ethanol / 30% water (5 min, twice), 85% ethanol / 15% water (5 min, twice), and 100% ethanol (5 min,

twice). Subsequently, the tissue punches were lysed in PCT-MicroTubes with PCT-MicroPestle [98] with 30

µl lysis buffer containing 8 M urea, 0.1 M ammonium bicarbonate, Complete protease inhibitor cocktail

(Roche) and PhosSTOP phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Roche) using a barocycler (model NEP2320-45k,

PressureBioSciences, South Easton, MA). The lysis was performed with 60 cycles of high pressure (45,000

p.s.i., 50 s per cycle) and ambient pressure (14.7 p.s.i., 10 s per cycle). The extracted proteins were then

reduced and alkylated prior to lys-C and trypsin-mediated proteolysis under pressure cycling. Lys-C (Wako;

enzyme-to-substrate ratio, 1:40) -mediated proteolysis was performed using 45 cycles of pressure

alternation (20,000 p.s.i. for 50 s per cycle and 14.7 p.s.i. for 10 s per cycle), followed by trypsin (Promega;

enzyme-to-substrate ratio, 1:20)-mediated proteolysis using the same cycling scheme for 90 cycles. The

resultant peptides were cleaned using SEP-PAC C18 (Waters Corp., Milford, MA) and analyzed, after spike-

in 10% iRT peptides [51], using SWATH-MS following the 32-fixed-size-window scheme as described

previously [19, 21] using a 5600 TripleTOF mass spectrometer (Sciex) and a 1D+ Nano LC system (Eksigent,

Dublin, CA). The LC gradient was formulated with buffer A (2% acetonitrile and 0.1% formic acid in HPLC

water) and buffer B (2% water and 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile) through an analytical column (75 µm

× 20 cm) and a fused silica PicoTip emitter (New Objective, Woburn, MA, USA) with 3-µm 200 Å Magic C18

AQ resin (Michrom BioResources, Auburn, CA, USA). Peptide samples were separated with a linear

gradient of 2% to 35% buffer B over 120 min at a flow rate of 0.3 µl min^{-1}. Ion accumulation time for MS1

and MS2 was set at 100 ms, leading to a total cycle time of 3.3 s.

SWATH assay query library for prostate tissue proteome

To build a comprehensive library for SWATH data analysis, we analyzed unfractionated prostate

tissue digests prepared by the PCT method using Data Dependent Acquisition (DDA) mode in a tripleTOF

mass spectrometer over a gradient of 2 hours as described previously [19]. We spiked iRT peptides [51] into

each sample to enable retention time calibration among different samples. We then combined these data

with the DDA files from the pan-human library project [99]. All together we analyzed 422 DDA files using

X!Tandem [52] and OMSSA [53] against three protein sequence databases downloaded on Oct 21, 2016 from

UniProt, including the SwissProt database of curated protein sequences (n=20,160), the splicing variant

database (n=21,970), and the trembl database (n=135,369). Using each database, we built target-decoy

protein sequence database by reversing the target protein sequences. We allowed maximal two missed

cleavages for fully tryptic peptides, and 50 p.p.m. for peptide precursor mass error, and 0.1 Da for peptide

fragment mass error. Static modification included carbamidomethyl at cysteine, while variable

modification included oxidation at methionine. Search results from X!Tandem and OMSSA were further

analyzed through Trans-Proteomic Pipeline (TPP, version 4.6.0) [54] using PeptideProphet and iProphet,

followed by SWATH assay library building procedures as detailed previously [19,55]. Altogether, we identified

167,402 peptide precursors, from which we selected the proteins detected in prostate tissue samples, and

built a sample-specific library. SWATH wiff files were converted into mzXML files using ProteoWizard [56]

msconvert v.3.0.3316, and then mzML files using OpenMS [57] tool FileConverter. OpenSWATH[100] was

performed using the tool OpenSWATHWorkflow with input files including the mzXML file, the TraML

library file, and TraML file for iRT peptides.

Peptide quantification using OpenSWATH

To obtain consistent quantification of the SWATH files, we obtained the all annotated b and y

fragments from the sp, sv and tr libraries. About ten thousand redundant and low-quality assays were

removed. Then we extracted the chromatography of these fragments and MS1 signals using

OpenSWATHWorkflow, followed by curation using DIA-expert[101]. Briefly, the chromatography of all

fragments and MS1 signals were subject to scrutiny by empirically developed expert rules. A reference

sample with best q value by pyprophet was picked up to refined fragments. The peptide precursors are

further filtered based on the following criteria: i) remove peptide precursors with a q value higher than

1.7783e-06 to achieve a false discovery rate of 0.00977 at peptide level using SWATH2stats [102]; ii) peptides

with a FC higher than 2 between the reference sample and its technical replicate were removed; iii)

peptides matching to multiple SwissProt protein sequences were removed. The data matrix was first

quantile normalized, log$_2$ transformed, followed by batch correction using the ComBat R package [103].

Finally, for each protein and pair of technical replicates the average value was computed.

Statistical analysis

585   All plots were produced with R. Kaplan-Meier estimators were used for RFS analysis. Differences

586   between survival estimates were evaluated by the log-rank test.

Computation of molecular perturbation scores

On the genomic level (mutation and CNA), we kept the tumor samples (66 in total) that contain

FCs with respect to the blood. The mutation matrix was further discretized by setting all non-zero events

to 1. At the transcriptomics level, the FCs for the 63 tumor samples were computed as described above

(see 'RNA Sequencing'). Finally, on the proteomics level, we computed the FCs for the tumor samples (66

in total) as follows: for each protein, its mean intensity over the normal samples was subtracted from the

intensities of the tumor samples. (We chose to compute the FCs for the tumor samples with respect to a

global reference (average of all normal samples) and not with respect to their paired benign sample in

order to achieve a higher consistency with the transcriptomics level.)

We assigned to each sample two molecular perturbation scores summarizing/quantifying the

magnitude of its FCs: DE_count counts the number of mutated/differentially expressed (DE) genes, while

the DE_sum score is the sum of absolute FCs of all genes. Thus, while the first score counts the number of

events (mutations/DE genes), the second one quantifies their magnitude. A gene is regarded as

mutated/DE if its value is 1 in the mutation layer and if its absolute value is above a threshold that has

been set to 1 for the mRNA and protein layer. For the CNA layer, the corresponding threshold was set to

0.5 because the range of FCs in the CNA matrix is smaller than the mRNA and protein matrices. Both types

of scores were computed for each molecular level, except for the point mutations where only DE_count

was computed. Afterwards, the 66 DE_count scores (63 for the mRNA) and the DE_sum scores at each

layer were divided into the four grade groups G1, G2, G3 and G4/5 respectively.

Network propagation/smoothing

As a network, the STRING gene interaction network (version 10)[104] was used, after removing all

edges with combined score smaller or equal to 900 and keeping subsequently the largest connected

component. The resulting network consisted of 10,729 nodes and 118,647 (high-confidence) edges. For

the network smoothing, the weight matrix was computed as described in Vanunu et al.[105] but for an

unweighted graph and the propagation parameter was set to 0.5. The propagation was iteratively

repeated 500 times to ensure convergence of the results. For the mapping from gene symbols to STRING

identifiers (**Supplementary Table 6**) we used the R/Bioconductor package STRINGdb [106]. The gene symbols

with no matching STRING identifier were removed, while for those that mapped to multiple STRING

identifiers, the first mapping was kept (default choice in the package). From the multiple gene symbols

that mapped to the same STRING identifier, the first mapping was kept. The genes that were not present

in the network were removed from the datasets, while those that were present in the network but not in

the corresponding dataset were initially filled in with 0's.

Genes with very small, 'smoothed' (absolute) FCs were filtered out as follows: after the network

propagation, only network nodes that had protein measurements themselves or at least one direct

neighbor (on the filtered STRING network) with protein measurements were considered in the next steps

of this analysis. *I.e.* network nodes without measured FCs at the protein layer that had no direct neighbor

with measured protein values were removed from the subsequent analyses.

For significance testing, the one-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test comparing the smoothed FCs

between the groups G4/5 and G1 was applied to each network node (after filtering) and layer, once for

up-regulation and once for down-regulation. The resulting sub-networks (up-regulated and down-

regulated) consisted of those genes that were significant (*P* value below 0.05) at all three layers and all of

the edges connecting them on the filtered STRING network.

Network Component 1 analysis

For each tumor sample at the CNA layer, a one-sided, one-sample t-test has been applied testing

if its average FC over the genes of the Network Component 1 (and in particular those that have been

measured at the CNA) is significantly greater than 0. Due to the presence of outliers in some samples, the

non-parametric, one-sided Wilcoxon signed-rank test has been applied as well yielding very similar results

(data not shown). A result is considered to be significant if the corresponding *P* value is below 0.05. The

analysis has been repeated for the mRNA and protein layer.

Independent cohorts validation

For the validation of Network Component 1, we used published datasets of three PCa cohorts:

TCGA, MSKCC, and Aarhus. For TCGA and MSKCC, we downloaded the mRNA data- consisting of 493 and

150 samples respectively- with precomputed z-scores per gene, and corresponding clinical data from

cBioPortal[107] (https://www.cbioportal.org/). There were 333 samples with available disease/progression-

free survival time in TCGA and 140 samples in MSKCC and only these were used in the subsequent survival

analysis.

644   For the Aarhus study (NCBI GEO dataset GSE46602), we downloaded the mRNA matrix and

645   corresponding clinical information as described in Ycart et al[108]. The resulting mRNA matrix consisted of

646   20,186 genes and 50 samples- 40 PCa samples with known RFS time and 10 benign samples. Once

647   excluding the benign samples, we computed z-scores per gene in order to have comparable values with

648   the other two studies. These 40 PCa samples were also considered in the subsequent survival analysis.

649   We reduced all three datasets to the nine genes of Network Component 1. In each of the datasets,

we computed for each sample an average z-score across the nine genes of Network Component 1

(combined risk score). Subsequently, we used these combined risk scores to split the samples of each

study into two groups: samples with a combined risk score larger or equal to the median combined risk

score of the study were considered as 'altered' and the rest as 'unaltered'. Kaplan-Meier curves were

generated for the two groups.

Mutual information

656   In order to compute the MI between each individual sample within a group against the matching

centroid   of   the   same   group,   the   R   package   infotheo   (http://cran.r-

project.org/web/packages/infotheo/index.html) has been used. For the MI, the data needs to be discrete.

For that, we discretize the tumor-to-benign FCs and centroids by setting 1, if the value is above a threshold

thr, -1, if the value is below *-thr* and 0 else. (*thr* is equal to 1 for the mRNA and proteins and 0.5 for the

CNAs.)

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Author contributions

A.B., T.G., P.J.W. and R.A. designed the project. P.J.W., T.G., Q.Z., C.E.F., N.J.R., A.C, D.R, J.H.R., C.F., K.S.,

C.P., T.H., A.L.M. and C.B. procured the samples and performed the experiments. K.C., T.G., Q.Z., U.W.,

R.S., N.C.T, K.O., L.C., L.M., M.R.M, M.M and A.B. designed and performed the statistical analyses with

critical inputs from C.Y., H.C., Q.Z., Y.Z., M.H. and other authors. K.C., A.B., T.G. and R.A. interpreted the

results. K.C., T.G., P.J.W., A.B. and R.A. wrote the manuscript with inputs from all co-authors. A.B., R.A.,

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Competing interests

R.A. holds shares of Biognosys AG, which operates in the field covered by the article. The research groups

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Proteogenomics analysis of 105 tissue regions from 39 PCa patients. a, Representative
immunohistochemistry images of prostate tissues and the selection of BPH and tumorous tissue regions
for genome, transcriptome and proteome analysis. **b,** Kaplan-Meier curves for our cohort when the
patients are stratified by the overall grade (left), the TA1 or TA grade group (middle) and the TA2 or TA
grade group (right). Point-wise 95% confidence bands are shown for the whole range of time values.

Figure 2. Molecular perturbation scores for point mutations, CNAs, transcriptome and proteome data.
a, Distributions of the first type of molecular perturbation scores (DE_count's) for the four grade groups
(visualized as violin plots) at the mutation layer (upper left), CNA layer (upper right), mRNA layer (lower
left) and protein layer (lower right). Points represent the actual values. The horizontal lines correspond to
the median value in each of the four grade groups. **b,** Distributions of the second type of molecular
perturbation scores (DE_sum's) for the four grade groups (visualized as violin plots) at the CNA layer
(upper left), mRNA layer (upper right) and protein layer (lower left). Points represent the actual values.
The horizontal lines correspond to the median value in each of the four grade groups. *P* values (in each of
the titles) show the significance of the one-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test where the values of G3 and G4/5
are gathered together and compared to the values of G1 and G2 (also gathered together).

Figure 3. **Within-group similarity at the different layers quantified by different similarity measures. a, b,**
Distributions of the similarity scores between the individual tumor samples and the centroid using the
Pearson correlation (**a**) and MI (**b**) for the four grade groups (visualized as violin plots) at the CNA (upper
left), mRNA (upper right) and protein (lower left) layers. Points represent the actual values. The horizontal
lines correspond to the median value in each of the four grade groups. *P* values from the one-sided
Wilcoxon rank sum test comparing G4/5 versus G1: 0.0014 for the CNA, 0.89 for the mRNA and 0.053 for
the protein layer with the Pearson correlation, and 0.027 for the CNA, 0.0052 for the mRNA and 0.0081
for the protein layer with the MI. **c,** Density plots of the FCs in the four grade groups for 3 selected proteins
among the 10 highest scoring (score: mean of the absolute FCs across all tumor samples) proteins. Vertical
lines correspond to the average FC in each of the four grade groups. The selected proteins have more
extreme FCs in the high-grade tumors (G3 and G4/5).

Figure 4. **Consistently dysregulated sub-networks, Network Component 1 heatmaps and validation in**
three independent cohorts. a, Sub-networks consistently dysregulated in the high-grade tumors
compared to the low-grade tumors. There is a significant up-regulation of the FCs of the depicted genes
(colored in red) after network smoothing in the group G4/5 compared to the group G1 in all three layers
(CNA, mRNA and protein). **b,** Sub-networks consistently dysregulated in the high-grade tumors compared
to the low-grade tumors. There is a significant down-regulation of the FCs of the depicted genes (colored
in blue) after network smoothing in the group G4/5 compared to the group G1 in all three layers (CNA,
mRNA and protein). Functional annotation of the sub-networks in (**a**) and (**b**) with more than one node is
given below. **c,** Heatmap of the CNA matrix reduced to the Network Component 1 genes. The
columns/samples are ordered based on the grade group. The bottom colorbar depicts the effect size of
each sample, *i.e.* its average FC across the genes of the Network Component 1. The next colorbar
represents the negative logarithm in base 10 of the *P* value from the t-test. The above colorbar shows
whether the result is significant: significant results are colored in black and the rest in white. The top

colorbar depicts the grade group of each sample. A black box has been drawn around the 'interesting' area
with amplification of Network Component 1. Gray rectangles at the bottom show the grade group of the
patients (low, intermediate, high) where the samples have (mainly) come from. **d,** Same as in (**c**) but for
the mRNA layer. The samples/columns that have been removed due to degradation are shown in gray. **e,**
Same as in (**c**) but for the protein layer. **f,** Kaplan-Meier curves for 'altered' and 'unaltered' samples in the
three independent studies, TCGA (left), MSKCC (middle) and Aarhus (right). A sample is considered to be
'altered' if its average z-score across the nine genes of Network Component 1 is not below the median
value (*i.e.* median average z-score) in the respective study.

Figure 5. Within-patient similarity at the different layers. a, Distributions of the within-group similarities
for the four grade groups (visualized as violin plots) based on the Pearson correlation at the CNA layer
(upper left), mRNA layer (upper right) and protein layer (lower left). A 'violin' with the correlations
between TA1 and paired TA2 for the different patients has been added to all three plots and colored in
purple. Points represent the actual values. The horizontal lines correspond to the median value in each of
the groups. This analysis is similar to **Fig. 3a** – but it is not identical. *P* values from the one-sided Wilcoxon
rank sum test comparing the within-patient to the within-group similarities (where all values from the four
groups are gathered together): 8.97e-09 for the CNA, 4.42e-08 for the mRNA and 6.27e-04 for the protein
layer. **b,** The correlations between TA1 and paired TA2 for the different patients at one layer are plotted
against the corresponding correlations at another layer for each pair of layers: mRNA versus CNA (upper
left), protein versus CNA (upper right) and protein versus mRNA (bottom left). The points are labeled and
colored based on the overall grade in all plots; r: Pearson correlation.

Supplementary Table 1. Clinicopathological, immunological and other molecular information of the 39
PCa patients. (a) Overall clinicopathological characteristics. (b) Detailed information for each patient. Pat:
numeric patient ID; Pat_id: patient ID grouped by the overall grade. L: low grade; M: intermediate grade;
H: high grade; Overall_Gleason_GrGp: overall ISUP grade group; pT: tumor stage; pN: nodal status; R:
surgical margin status; Age_at_OP: age at operation; PSA_at_Diag: blood PSA level at diagnosis; Time
(months): RFS time. A value of 0 corresponds to patients excluded for the reasons explained in **Methods**
(see 'Patients and samples'); Status: status indicator. 1 means recurrence; DX name: tissue region name;
ImageName: name of the scanned images; index_tumor_id: patient ID of TA1 (or TA); TA1_GrGp: grade
group for TA1; T_GrGp: grade group for TA2.

Supplementary Table 2. Exome analysis of the peripheral blood cells and 105 prostate tumor punches
in 39 patients. (a) Allele frequencies (AF) of somatic single nucleotide variants (SNVs) that were called by
our bioinformatics pipeline. Genes with called SNV are indicated by an AF > 0. A value of 0 indicates that
no SNV was found in the respective genes. In our data, no gene was found with more than one called
somatic SNV. (b) Number of samples per gene with called somatic SNV. (c) Protein domain analysis using
DAVID.

Supplementary Table 3. Copy number analysis of 105 PCa samples. (a) Log_2 ratios indicating the CNA
status are shown for all genes in all samples. Values were determined by overlapping gene locations with
CNA segments as calculated by CopywriteR. In case more than one segment overlapped with a gene,
number was chosen that had the highest absolute value. (b) Genes are shown with log_2 ratios higher than
0.5 or lower than -0.5 in at least one sample.

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1003   **Supplementary Table 4. RNA-seq analysis.** (a) Log$_2$FCs (relative to all benign samples) for all genes across
1004   the tumor samples. (b) mRIN score per sample generated using mRIN (v1.2.0). (c) ETS family gene fusions
1005   observed in tumor samples using FusionCatcher: a value of 1 means that the fusion was observed in the
1006   respective sample but not its corresponding benign sample, otherwise the value is 0.

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1008   **Supplementary Table 5. Proteomics data of 210 PCa samples with duplicates.** (a) Sample information
1009   includes patient ID, clinical diagnosis, sample ID and batch design. (b) Protein matrix of log$_2$ scaled intensity
1010   of 2,371 proteins quantified in 210 PCa samples.

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Supplementary Table 6. Integration analysis of 66 tumor samples. (a) L1-norm of the 'centroid vectors'
in the three layers (CNA, mRNA and protein) across the four grade groups. (b) Information (*i.e.* reference
linking them to PCa, consistency between observed and reported effect and number of tumor samples
with CNAs) for the 10 highest-scoring proteins (those with largest average absolute FCs across all tumor
specimens). (c) Consistently up-regulated genes in the high-grade tumors: for each of these genes, there
is a significant up-regulation of its FCs after network smoothing in the group G4/5 compared to the group
G1 in all three layers (CNA, mRNA and protein). (d) Consistently down-regulated genes in the high-grade
tumors: for each of these genes, there is a significant down-regulation of its FCs after network smoothing
in the group G4/5 compared to the group G1 in all three layers (CNA, mRNA and protein). (e) Chromosome
information for the gene members of Network Component 1. (f) Mapping from gene symbols to STRING
identifiers.

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1025   **Figure 1**

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1054   **Figure 5**

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