TITLE: A patient-driven clinicogenomic partnership through the Metastatic Prostate Cancer Project

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ABSTRACT

Molecular profiling studies have enabled numerous discoveries for metastatic prostate

cancer (MPC), but they have mostly occurred in academic medical institutions focused on select

patient populations. We developed the Metastatic Prostate Cancer Project (MPCproject,

mpcproject.org), a patient-partnered initiative to empower MPC patients living anywhere in the

U.S. and Canada to participate in molecular research and contribute directly to translational

discovery. Here we present clinicogenomic results from our partnership with the first 706

MPCproject participants. We found that a patient-centered and remote research strategy

enhanced engagement with patients in rural and medically underserved areas. Furthermore,

patient-reported data achieved 90% consistency with abstracted health records for therapies and

provided a mechanism for patient-partners to share information about their cancer experience not

documented in medical records. Among the molecular profiling data from 333 patient-partners (n

= 573 samples), whole exome sequencing of 63 tumor samples obtained from hospitals across

the U.S. and Canada and 19 plasma cell-free DNA (cfDNA) samples from blood donated

remotely recapitulated known findings in MPC and enabled longitudinal study of prostate cancer

evolution. Inexpensive ultra-low coverage whole genome sequencing of 318 cfDNA samples

from donated blood revealed clinically relevant genomic changes like *AR* amplification, even in

the context of low tumor burden. Collectively, this study illustrates the power of a longitudinal

partnership with patients to generate a more representative clinical and molecular understanding

of MPC.

Note: To assist our patient-partners and the wider MPC community interpret the results of this

study, we have included a glossary of terms in the Supplementary Materials.

INTRODUCTION

Prostate cancer is the second most diagnosed cancer in men, with nearly 200,000 men

diagnosed in 2020 alone in the U.S.[1] Survival rates for localized disease are high, but the five-

year survival rate for the over 300,000 men currently living with metastatic prostate cancer

(MPC) is only 31%, representing the third leading cause of death for men[1,2]. Because prostate

cancer is largely driven by alterations to DNA, genomic sequencing studies have enabled

discoveries of its molecular drivers and new therapeutic targets in both primary and metastatic

clinical settings[3–6]. However, obtaining large cohorts of tumor biopsies from MPC patients for

molecular study has been challenging. MPC most commonly spreads to bone, and sampling

osseous lesions necessitates painful and technically challenging procedures that are not widely

accessible or feasible in clinical care. Because prostate cancer can shed cell-free DNA (cfDNA)

into the bloodstream, blood biopsies that sample this circulating tumor DNA have proven to be a

useful alternative for the study of MPC[7,8].

Historically, quaternary care academic medical institutions have had the necessary

infrastructure and expertise to lead clinically integrated MPC sequencing studies through clinical

trials. However, the resulting clinical and genomic data is often siloed within these institutions,

leading many to push for mandatory data sharing[9,10]. These efforts, while critical to

democratizing genomic research, do not directly improve access to molecular research programs

and do not address underlying ethnic, socioeconomic, and geographic patient disparities in such

studies, which threaten to bias findings and eventually care towards select patient populations[11–

14]. Commercial sequencing options for prostate cancer are emerging, but such approaches are

often proprietary, only available to patients with appropriate insurance, and regularly

inaccessible for wider research use[15–17]. Indeed, despite growing interest in clinical and research-

based genomic sequencing within the MPC patient community, there are only limited

mechanisms for these patients to participate in molecular profiling studies and partner with the

research community to accelerate discoveries[18–20].

We hypothesized that a patient-partnered framework that empowers MPC patients to

share their biological samples, clinical histories, and lived experiences directly with researchers

regardless of geographic location or hospital affiliation would lead to new clinicogenomic

discoveries and begin to address demographic inequities and data access barriers in molecular

studies for this disease. Thus, we established the Metastatic Prostate Cancer Project

(MPCproject, mpcproject.org), a research model that leverages patient advocacy and social

media to enable MPC patients to participate in genomic research remotely at no personal cost.

RESULTS

Development of a patient-partnered metastatic prostate cancer research model

Working with patients, loved ones, and advocates, we established an MPCproject

enrollment process for men living with MPC in the U.S. and Canada (Fig. 1a). The MPCproject

outreach model is community-centered and utilizes advocacy partnerships, social media

campaigns, and educational initiatives to engage patients (Supplementary Fig. 1). Should they

choose to register, patient-partners complete an online survey describing their experience with

MPC, followed by signing electronic consent and medical release forms, which allow the

MPCproject team to contact their hospitals to request medical records for abstraction and

optionally archival tumor tissue for research-grade genomic sequencing (Supplementary Fig. 2).

Additionally, enrolled patients can use a mailed kit to donate saliva and/or blood at routine blood

draws at no cost, and these samples are sequenced to assess germline DNA and cfDNA,

respectively (Supplementary Fig. 3, 4).

Our partnership with patients is reciprocal and continuous. Patient-partners and advocates

are involved in every step of the project's design and execution—we respond directly to their

feedback and keep them informed of our progress and findings (Supplementary Fig. 5). We work

with men who choose to continue donating blood to help the research community understand the

evolution of metastatic disease, and we regularly release prepublication, deidentified genomic

and clinical data in public repositories for research use.

Partnering with a demographically distinct patient population

To date, the MPCproject has partnered with over 1,000 patients in the U.S. and Canada

and has orchestrated three public data releases (Fig. 1b). The analyses presented here are based

on the 706 men from the U.S. and Canada who had enrolled (completed consent forms) as of

June 1, 2020 (Supplementary Fig. 6).

Using patient-reported survey data, we assessed the geographical diversity of our patient-

partners. Hailing from 49 U.S. states and 6 Canadian provinces, patient-partners reported

receiving care for their prostate cancer at over 1,000 distinct medical institutions, 91% of which

were reported by two or fewer patients (Fig. 1c). We found that 55% of patient-partners have

never received care at an NCI-designated cancer center, where genomic research is traditionally

conducted (Supplementary Table 1). These patient-partners were three times less likely to report

participating in a clinical trial, indicating the understudied nature of our cohort and barriers MPC

patients face in access to clinical trials (7% vs. 20%, $P = 1 \times 10^{-6}$, Fisher's exact test).

Patients in rural and medically underserved areas face unique obstacles and disparities in

clinical cancer care[21,22]. To better understand the challenges faced by our patient-partners, we

identified the census tracts of patient-reported U.S. home addresses and examined their

geographic characteristics (n = 628/706 participants provided U.S. addresses, Methods). We

found that 13% of patient-partners live in rural areas defined by the USDA, a proportion

consistent with MPC patients in the U.S. generally (11%)[23]. We then examined primary care

health physician shortage areas (HPSAs) and medically underserved areas (MUAs) defined by

the Health Resources and Services Administration (Methods). We found that 38% of patient-

partners live in HPSAs (29%) or MUAs (23%) (Fig. 1d)[24]. These proportions could not be

compared with MPC patients in the U.S. due to a lack of published data, but they are

significantly enriched compared to the general U.S. population (25% HPSA, 5% MUA, $P = 0.03$

and 1×10^{-82} respectively, Fisher's exact test)[25,26]. While living in a rural area was associated

with being in a MUA or HPSA, 23% of MPCproject patient-partners live in urban primary care

MUAs or HPSAs ($P = 5.7 \times 10^{-13}$, Fisher's exact test).

We found that home addresses in rural areas were a median of 160 km farther from

institutions where those patients reported receiving treatment, compared to home addresses in

urban areas ($P < 10^{-11}$, Mann-Whitney U test) (Methods, Fig. 1e). Although we cannot determine

if home addresses changed during treatment, this suggests that patient-partners in rural areas

travel significantly farther for cancer care. We did not observe significant differences in baseline

clinical factors, therapies received, or likelihood to participate in a clinical trial across patients in

rural areas, MUAs, or HPSAs.

The combination of the MPCproject's online enrollment and patient-centered outreach

through advocacy partnerships enabled the creation of a geographically distinct prostate cancer

research program. Despite the project's geographical diversity, however, fewer than 10% of

patient-partners self-identify as non-white. While similar to existing studies, this representation

remains below the proportion of minority prostate cancer patients generally (20%), a racial

imbalance that has spurred new MPCproject initiatives to connect with patients of color

(Supplementary Table 2, Discussion)[23].

Patient-reported data augment medical records to amplify patient stories

Through the patient-reported data, we sought to understand the experiences of those

living with MPC. 45% of patient-partners report being diagnosed with *de novo* metastatic

disease, with bone (48%) and lymph node (39%) lesions as the most common metastatic sites

(Fig. 2a, b). 48% of patient-partners reported a family history of prostate or breast cancer, while

24% reported having at least one other cancer diagnosis in their lifetime, 30% of which was a

non-skin form of cancer (Fig. 2c, d). The average age at diagnosis was significantly younger than

the national average (61 vs. 65 years old, $P < 10^{-39}$, t-test), and 24% of participants were

diagnosed with early-onset prostate cancer (≤ 55 years at diagnosis, Supplementary Table 2)[27].

We used the MPCproject's comprehensive abstracted medical records taken from

medical documentation together with patient-reported data to evaluate the treatments received in

this real-world cohort (Methods, Fig. 2e). Patient-partners reported taking an average of 2.8

therapies (range 1-13) to treat their prostate cancer. 119 (17%) patient-partners had abstracted

medical records at the time of writing, and there was 90% concordance between therapies noted

in formal medical records and therapies reported by patients. The overlap was lowest for

treatments typically given earlier in the therapeutic timeline (first line androgen deprivation

therapy, 83%), supportive care therapies (64%), or treatments abandoned quickly due to side-

effects (Fig. 2e). This finding illustrates the value of patient-reported data obtained via surveys

for MPC, particularly in the absence of a complete medical record.

We also used the patient-reported data to assess how living with prostate cancer has

changed the daily lives of our patient-partners. For example, in the survey, we asked participants

to list additional medications, alternative medications, or lifestyle changes since their diagnosis

of prostate cancer. 56% of patient-partners reported a lifestyle change because of living with

their cancer, with the most common being a change in diet or exercise (Fig. 2f). Common

nutritional supplements reported include Vitamin D and antioxidant-based supplements, while

common non-cancer medications included metformin and statins. Collectively, these results

demonstrate the impact of metastatic prostate cancer on patient lifestyles and that patients often

pursue supplemental therapies that are not regularly documented in the medical record.

Whole exome sequencing of a real-world MPC patient cohort

To date, we have completed molecular profiling of 573 samples from 333 patient-

partners, including: ultra-low pass whole genome sequencing (ULP-WGS, average depth of

0.1x) of cfDNA from 319 donated blood samples; whole exome sequencing (WES) of cfDNA

from 47 of those blood samples; WES of 106 tumor samples; and WES of 148 germline samples

from donated saliva or blood buffy coat. cfDNA samples underwent WES if ULP-WGS detected

a tumor fraction above 0.03 (Methods). In total, 82 exome-sequenced samples (63 tumor and 19

cfDNA) from 79 patient-partners enrolled before June 1, 2020 were included in downstream

genomic analyses after assessment of sufficient tumor purity ($\geq$10%) and coverage (Methods).

Exome sequencing from the tumor and cfDNA samples recapitulated known genomic

patterns in metastatic prostate cancer (Fig. 3a). *TP53* and *SPOP* were recurrently altered,

consistent with previous studies of both metastatic and primary prostate cancer (q < 0.1 via

MutSig2CV)[3,4,6]. In primary tumor samples from this cohort, the mutation frequency of *TP53*

(30%) was more consistent with metastatic cohorts than those of primary prostate cancer[3,6]. 17

(27%) primary tumor samples were from men diagnosed with *de novo* metastatic disease, and

samples from these patient-partners were more likely to carry *TP53* mutations (P = 0.04, Fisher's

exact test). We also observed known patterns of copy number alteration in prostate cancer (Fig.

3a). Analysis of gene copy number alterations using GISTIC2.0 revealed recurrent

amplifications of *AR* and *FOXA1*, as well as recurrent deletions of *PTEN* ($q < 0.1$)[28]. Whole-

genome doubling was present in 5/63 tumor samples and 3/19 cfDNA samples, including in two

tumor samples from patient-partners initially diagnosed with localized prostate cancer. In both

cases, the patients were diagnosed with metastatic disease within a few months of their initial

diagnosis.

To understand the mutational processes in this cohort's exome-sequenced samples, we

used a mutation-based method (deconstructSigs) to determine the contribution of COSMIC v2.0

signatures to each sample[29,30] (Fig. 3b, Methods). We detected the presence of aging-associated

clock-like signature 1 in all samples and the presence of signature 3 (associated with homologous

recombination deficiency, HRD) and signature 6 (associated with mismatch repair deficiency,

MMR) in a subset of samples. These results are consistent with previous studies implicating

these signatures in prostate cancer, although they likely overestimate the prevalence of signature

6 in tumor samples due to formalin-induced deamination artifacts[31,32]. We found that the

presence of signature 3 was enriched in metastasis-associated samples (cfDNA and primary

tumors obtained in the metastatic setting) relative to tumor tissue from patients with strictly

localized tumors at time of resection ($P < 0.02$, Fisher's exact test). While some samples with

signature 3 had alterations in *BRCA1*, *BRCA2*, or another DNA repair gene, this association was

not statistically significant, potentially highlighting the presence of HRD-positive tumors without

a causative molecular alteration as previously reported in studies of prostate and breast

cancer[5,33–36].

In 10% of samples (8/82), we observed contributions from COSMIC signatures 2 and 13,

which are driven by APOBEC cytidine deaminases and known to operate at a baseline level in

prostate cancer[31,37]. APOBEC-driven mutagenesis has been implicated in kataegis—rare,

localized hypermutation in specific nucleotide contexts that is associated with genomic

instability and increased Gleason score in prostate cancer[38,39]. In a cfDNA sample donated by

one patient-partner (patient-partner 0203), we detected eight distinct mutations within a 2 kB

window in *KMT2C*, a known driver of prostate cancer (Fig. 3c)[3]. Six of these mutations were in a

T(C>T)A nucleotide context, and this sample had a detectable contribution from COSMIC

signature 13. We found that two pairs of the mutations, p.S1947F/p.S1954F and

p.Q2325*/p.S2337Y, were each present on individual sequencing reads, confirming that these

mutations existed within the same cell and strongly implicating *KMT2C* disruption through

kataegis (Supplementary Fig. 7). These findings illustrate the ability to detect both frequent and

rare clinically relevant molecular events in MPC across diverse contexts using a patient-

partnered model.

Given the strong heritability of prostate cancer, we also sought to assess inherited

germline alterations and their overlap with self-reported family history of cancer[40]. We found

that among the 132 patient-partners (19%) with WES of donated saliva or blood buffy coat, 15

had pathogenic germline alterations in select genes implicated in prostate cancer heritability (Fig.

3d, Supplementary Table 3)[41]. 14% of men that reported a family history of prostate or breast

cancer had at least one pathogenic germline alteration, compared to 7% of men that reported no

family history, although this difference was not statistically significant ($P = 0.38$, Fisher's exact

test). The most mutated gene was *CHEK2* (8 patient-partners), followed by *BRCA2* (4 patient-

partners). In three cases, we detected an accompanying somatic loss of a germline-mutated gene

(Fig. 3d). These results emphasize the need to further characterize the drivers of germline

susceptibility in men with MPC and to expand clinical germline testing beyond *BRCA2* in

diverse clinical settings.

Longitudinal blood biopsies enable study of tumor evolution in a patient-partnered model

Ten patient-partners had WES from both tumor tissue and cfDNA, and three patient-

partners had both samples pass quality control metrics. Using the molecular data and abstracted

medical records, we sought to explore the evolutionary relationships between these longitudinal

samples in the context of patient clinical trajectories. Like most men with MPC, one participant,

patient-partner 0495, received a diverse range of treatments between biopsy timepoints (Fig. 4a).

After responding to first line anti-androgen therapy (leuprolide + bicalutamide), they took

second-generation anti-androgen inhibitors (abiraterone, enzalutamide), as well as experimental

radiotherapy and immunotherapy. To explore the relationship between samples, we utilized

PhylogicNDT, an algorithm that clusters mutations based on their prevalence in the tumor

(cancer cell fraction) into evolutionarily related subclones (Methods)[42]. In the cfDNA sample of

patient-partner 0495 but not the primary tumor, we observed two distinct frameshift mutations in

ASXL2, a gene implicated in castration-resistant metastatic prostate cancer, as well as an

amplification of *AR*, a known resistance mechanism to abiraterone and enzalutamide[43,44]. Patient-

partner 0093's tumor had clonal mutations in *TP53* and *KMT2D* but harbored an *NF2* mutation

solely in the cfDNA sample. Patient-partner 0213's tumor had a *TP53* mutation and APOBEC-

associated COSMIC signature 13 detected exclusively in the cfDNA sample.

Two of these patient-partners, 0495 and 0093, were initially diagnosed with primary

prostate cancer (Gleason score 4 + 3 and 5 + 4, respectively), while patient-partner 0213 was

diagnosed with *de novo* metastatic disease. The primary tumor tissues of these participants were

obtained at the time of diagnosis and separated from their donated blood samples by a range of

years, ranging from 2 to 10 years. Despite these varied disease presentations, clinical trajectories,

and biopsy timelines, we observed similar patterns of a "clonal switch" between the primary

tumor and cfDNA, wherein different subclones were dominant each sample (Fig. 4b,

Supplementary Fig. 8). We did not, however, observe primary tumor-specific copy number

alterations, bolstering previous claims that subclonal diversification in MPC via mutations may

happen after acquisition of ancestral copy number alterations (Supplementary Fig. 9)[45].

Furthermore, we observed primary tumor-specific mutations across all seven other patient-

partners with both tumor and cfDNA samples, although their exact clonal structure could not be

resolved due to low purity (Supplementary Fig. 10). While we cannot account for the sampling

bias of tumor biopsies, these results suggest that such clonal switches may be common in the

development of metastatic disease.

In two of the three patient-partners with tumor and cfDNA samples that passed quality

control, we detected the emergence of an amplification in the androgen receptor (*AR*) between

the initial diagnosis and metastatic blood sample that was accurately captured using ULP-WGS

of cfDNA (example patient-partner shown in Fig. 4c). This led us to examine *AR* copy number

using ULP-WGS of cfDNA samples across the entire cohort, including those that did not have

exome sequencing (n = 300 patient-partners, 318 samples, Fig. 4d). We found that patient-

partners who reported taking enzalutamide or abiraterone had significantly higher *AR* log copy-

ratios across a range of tumor fractions ($P < 0.001$, linear regression). Men who had taken

enzalutamide or abiraterone also had significantly higher tumor fractions, likely reflecting a

more advanced disease state and subsequent higher tumor burden in blood ($P < 0.001$, Mann-

Whitney U test)[46]. We observed that *AR* amplifications are often detectable in ULP-WGS of

cfDNA even when the tumor fraction is below 0.03 (Fig. 4e, f). For one patient-partner, the

tumor fraction within their donated blood was inferred as undetectable, but we nevertheless

observed a clear *AR* amplification (Fig. 4e). This highlights the potential efficacy of cfDNA to

reveal clinically relevant changes in MPC, even in cases of very low or undetectable tumor

burden. Broadly, these sequencing results illustrate the feasibility of identifying relevant

genomic and evolutionary alterations from both archival tumor tissue and donated blood samples

irrespective of geographical source site, enabling patient-partners to participate in genomic

research at no cost and with little effort.

DISCUSSION

Here we describe the MPCproject, a patient-driven framework for partnering with MPC

patients in the U.S. and Canada to increase access to genomics research and strengthen our

understanding of this disease. The online enrollment process was jointly created with patient-

partners to emphasize simplicity, requiring only the completion of basic online consent and

survey forms, along with optional mailed saliva and blood kits. To our knowledge, no previous

effort in MPC has used patient partnership to integrated demographic, clinical, patient-reported,

and genomic data from patients at a national level.

To that end, we demonstrated the feasibility of working with over 700 patient-partners,

41% of whom live in rural, medically underserved, or health physician shortage areas. We found

that patient-partners living in rural areas in this study likely travel significantly farther for their

cancer care, which has been shown to independently predict worse outcomes and mortality for

cancer patients[47]. Furthermore, a recent study found that incomplete medical records are

associated with shorter overall survival for MPC patients, particularly for those with complicated

clinical histories or whose care is fragmented between institutions[48]. Our analysis of abstracted

medical record data revealed a strong overlap between clinical histories represented in medical

records and patient-reported data, even for patient-partners with complex treatment trajectories

or who had received treatment at multiple hospitals, supporting the use of patient surveys to

improve care in this disease.

We also demonstrated that tumor tissue collected from paraffin-embedded archival

samples and cfDNA from donated blood samples from across the U.S. and Canada, enriched for

samples not obtained from NCI cancer centers, accurately recapitulate known genomic findings

in MPC, including somatic alterations, mutational signatures, germline pathogenic variants, and

a rare kataegis event. There has been substantial effort in the field to identify molecular features

associated with selective response to therapies like PARP inhibition and immunotherapy,

including the use of mutational signatures to assess targetable HRD, MMR, and APOBEC

deficiencies in cases without a causative molecular alteration[33,49]. Our results strengthen previous

findings that such signatures can be detected using cfDNA and, combined with our ability to

obtain cfDNA from participants nationwide, demonstrate the scalability of a patient-partnered

approach to identify and validate such genomic findings within a 'real world' cohort[50,51].

Moreover, we used archival tumor tissue and cfDNA from donated blood to reconstruct

tumor phylogenetic profiles, revealing polyclonality between primary and metastatic diagnosis.

Despite well-known findings of heterogeneity in both primary and metastatic prostate cancer,

there is a paucity of matched primary-metastatic studies, owing mostly to the invasiveness and

logistical challenges of longitudinal biopsy studies[31,52]. Our project enables such studies paired

with comprehensive clinical histories with minimal patient effort. To that end, we also found

clinically relevant *AR* amplifications via low-pass WGS of cfDNA from donated blood, even at

very low or undetectable tumor fractions. This result provides additional inexpensive utility to

294   the suggested use of cfDNA tumor fraction as a clinically relevant biomarker in metastatic

295   prostate cancer[50,46]. We are working with patient-partners who continue to donate blood and have

296   been able to collect multiple secondary blood biopsy kits for future longitudinal analysis.

297   Through feedback from patient-partners and advocates, we continue to improve the

MPCproject's design and outreach. Despite the geographic diversity of our patient-partners, we

recognize that they do not reflect the racial diversity of MPC patients, a critical issue given

substantial disparities in both cancer care and genomics research by race and ethnicity[11,53,54]. In

light of structural racism and a well-founded mistrust of medical research by patients of color,

this unmet disparity demands that we rethink our models of outreach and patient engagement[55].

We continue to work with community-based advocacy partners to involve communities of color,

and we are building a campaign to amplify Black cancer patient voices and their lived

experiences. We are also working to translate enrollment and educational materials into Spanish.

In addition, a common request by our patient-partners is to enable return of clinically relevant

results to participants and their physicians. While the regulatory hurdles to accomplish this are

large, we recognize its importance to our patient-partners and are striving to institute return of

results under this project model prospectively.

310   Paired with open-access clinical trials, patient-driven studies hold great promise to

achieve equity and accelerate discovery in genomic research[56]. The MPCproject is part of a

wider 'Count Me In' patient-partnered initiative (joincountmein.org) that has already yielded

new findings in angiosarcoma and has expanded to metastatic breast cancer and osteosarcoma,

among others[57–59]. The success of the MPCproject is based entirely on the courage and altruism

of the men with whom we partner, who, in the words of one participant, hope that their

"participation will help other men… and lead eventually to a cure".

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

N.W., C.A.P. and E.M.V.A. conceived and designed the MPCproject with support from

E.S.L. J.C., S.B., L.S., and E.M.V.A. designed and prepared the study and interpreted the data.

J.C. wrote the manuscript and performed the analyses. S.B. and L.S. led study operations

including tumor sample and medical record acquisition, sample sequencing, and patient

coordination. L.S., B.S.T., M.D., E.A., S.S., A.L.D., R.R., D.M.S., I.K.S. oversaw medical

record abstraction. S.Y.C. provided feedback on various analyses of the study and completed

germline variant calling with oversight from S.H.A. S.B., L.S., J.C., B.T., M.D., M.M., and

P.S.C. coordinated data releases. M.M., P.S.C., A.D., B.Z. led recent project operations. M.D.

supervised early project operations. C.M.N. and E.A. led patient advocacy and outreach efforts.

A.T.M.C. and S.W. oversaw early project sequencing analyses. M.X.H. provided feedback of

study analyses. A.K.T. provided feedback on medical record abstractions and tissue sample

collection. D.K. enabled electronic medical record searching. J.N., J.M., Major I.H.G., B.O.

contributed to survey design, project development, assessment of patient criteria, and outreach

strategy.

COMPETING INTERESTS

M.X.H. has been a consultant to Amplify Medicines and Ikena Oncology. E.S.L. is

currently in the process of divesting any relevant holdings. N.W. reports advisory relationships

and consulting with Eli Lilly and Co.; advising and stockholding interest in Relay Therapeutics;

and grant support from Puma Biotechnology. E.M.V.A. reports advisory relationships and

consulting with Tango Therapeutics, Genome Medical, Invitae, Illumina, Enara Bio, Manifold

Bio and Janssen; research support from Novartis and BMS; equity in Tango Therapeutics,

Genome Medical, Syapse, Manifold Bio and Enara Bio; and travel reimbursement from Roche

and Genentech, outside the submitted work.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Processed, deidentified data is available on cbioportal.org

(https://www.cbioportal.org/study/summary?id=prad_mpcproject_2018). Raw sequencing files

are available at the Genomic Data Commons (https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/projects/CMI-MPC).

Please note that data is regularly being updated within these repositories and may not currently

reflect all data generated from the project to date.

Figure 1. Partnering with diverse patients to enhance our understanding of metastatic

prostate cancer

a) Summary of MPCproject enrollment process. Patients learn about the project primarily

through outreach and partnered advocacy groups. If they register, patient-partners complete

online intake, consent, and medical release forms, then can opt into donating saliva via a mailed

kit and/or blood at routine blood draws at no charge. In parallel, MPCproject staff request

medical records and archival tumor samples from patients' medical institutions, then abstract

medical information from obtained records and sequence archival tumor tissue and/or donated

blood and saliva (Methods). Deidentified clinical, genomic, and patient-reported data are

released on a continual, prepublication basis and deposited in public repositories.

b) Enrollment statistics and timeline for the MPCproject. Depicted are the cumulative number of

patients that began the registration process (registered), patients that completed the survey and

consent forms (enrolled), patients with at least one medical record received (medical records),

and blood kits, saliva kits, and archival tumor tissue received at the Broad Institute for

sequencing (blood kits, saliva kits, tumor tissue, respectively). 706 patient-partners enrolled

before "Study cutoff", June 1, 2020, and are included in this study's analyses. cBioPortal

(cbioportal.org) releases include summary abstracted medical, genomic, and patient-reported

data; Genomic Data Commons (GDC) releases include raw sequencing files and demographic

data.

c) Represented medical institutions among patient-partners living in the U.S. and Canada. Shown

are the 1049 unique institutions (x-axis) where patient-partners report receiving care for their

prostate cancer, with the number of distinct patients at each institution (y-axis). NCI-designated

cancer centers are shown in green. Patient-partners that did not complete this survey question (n

= 36) and institutions outside the U.S. and Canada (n = 56) are not shown.

d) Access to medical care among patient-partners living in the U.S. Patient-reported U.S.

addresses were overlapped with primary care health physician shortage areas (HPSAs) and

medically underserved population/areas obtained from the Health Resources and Services

Administration (HRSA.gov). Patient-partners that live in Canada (n = 30), did not provide an

address (n = 40), or provided only a P.O. box (n = 8) are not shown.

e) Patient-partners in rural areas travel farther for clinical care. Using geographic census tract

information of self-reported home addresses along with USDA rural-urban continuum codes,

patient-partners were categorized as living in urban or rural areas. For each patient-partner, the

median Haversine round-trip distance between the zip code of their home address and that of

institutions they visited was calculated (Methods). Patient-partners that live in Canada (n = 30),

did not provide an address (n = 40), or provided only a P.O. box (n = 8) are not shown. *P*-value

calculated via two sided Mann-Whitney U test.

Figure 2. Patient voices reveal the landscape of living with metastatic prostate cancer

a-d) Self-reported data of 706 patient-partners related to their prostate cancer. In **a**, patient-partners were asked for the current location of their cancer. Participants were free to choose multiple if their cancer had metastasized to multiple locations. In **b-d**, responses were tabulated from questions asking patient-partners if their initial prostate cancer diagnosis was metastatic (**b**), if they have a family history of prostate/breast cancer (**c**), or if they have ever had another cancer diagnosis (**d**). Patient-partners who did not complete these questions (n < 5) are not shown.

e) Self-reported therapies show strong overlap with medical records. Drug categories are shown on the y-axis, with the proportion of patient-partners from each data type (patient surveys and medical records) receiving therapies of that category shown on the x-axis. In the online survey, patient-partners selected therapies they received for their metastatic prostate cancer from a list. 639/706 patient-partners reported at least one therapy and are shown. 119 of these participants also had abstracted therapy data from medical records. Report overlap refers to how often patient-partners report receiving a therapy when their medical records show that they have received that therapy, as a percentage. Only drugs available for selection in the patient survey were used in this comparison (Supplementary Table 4).

f) Landscape of lifestyle changes for patient-partners. Participants were asked to list additional medications, alternative medications, or lifestyle changes since their diagnosis of prostate cancer. Free-text responses were manually abstracted and categorized into diet/lifestyle changes, supplements, and non-cancer medications. The y-axis shows individual instances of diet/lifestyle changes, supplements, or medications. The x-axis shows the percentage of patient-partners with that lifestyle change or taking that supplement/drug out of all patient-partners that responded to

the lifestyle question (n = 456). CBD/THC: Cannabidiol/Tetrahydrocannabinol (oils, medical

marijuana, etc).

Figure 3. Donated tumor and cell-free DNA samples obtained through patient partnership

recapitulate known genomic findings in metastatic prostate cancer

a) Genomic and clinical landscape of 82 sequenced samples. Columns represent samples,

separated into tumor (prostate, left) and cfDNA (donated blood, right) samples, while rows

represent select clinical and genomic features. Gleason scores for tumor samples are taken from

the pathology report received with the sample (n = 58) or the patient-partner's medical records (n

= 5) if Gleason scores were not provided in the report. Gleason scores for cfDNA were taken

from pathology reports in the medical record, with NR representing cases where a Gleason score

was not reported in the medical record. Diagnosis refers to whether the initial diagnosis of

prostate cancer was localized or metastatic. Multiple mutations in the same gene are represented

as triangles. WGD refers to whole genome doubling. Copy number calls are allelic and defined

with respect to baseline allelic ploidy (2 for samples with WGD, 1 for those without), with calls

for the two alleles indicated by two triangles (except for *AR*, which has only one allele in men

and so is shown as a single box). Allelic CN = 0 refers to complete allelic deletions. Allelic

deletions that are not complete deletions are possible in samples with WGD. Figure created with

CoMut[60].

b) Mutational signature analysis of sequenced samples. The relative contribution of select

COSMIC v2.0 mutational signatures are shown, separated by tumor and cfDNA (donated blood)

sample type[30]. APOBEC refers to signatures associated with activity of APOBEC family of

cytidine deaminases (signature 2 and 13); MMR to the signature associated with deficient DNA

mismatch repair (signature 6); HRD to the signature associated with homologous recombination

deficiency (signature 3). Samples with too few mutations for signature analysis (< 50 mutations,

n = 5 samples) are not shown.

c) Instance of localized hypermutation (kataegis) of *KMT2C* in cfDNA from a donated blood

sample. The y-axis shows the cancer cell fraction of each mutation while the x-axis shows their

amino acid within *KMT2C*. Domains taken from Pfam[61]. The dotted line connects to this

sample's mutational signature profile.

d) Germline pathogenic DNA repair alterations and their overlap with patient reported family

history. Pathogenic germline alterations (as annotated by ClinVar) in genes from a select panel

of DNA repair genes implicated in prostate cancer were detected in patient-partners with

sequenced saliva or blood buffy coat (n = 132) (Methods; Supplementary Table 3)[62]. Survey

responses to a question asking about a family history of prostate or breast cancer were tabulated

and overlapped with this genomic data. Stars indicate instances where a somatic deletion also

affected that gene in a tumor or cfDNA sample from that patient-partner.

Figure 4. cfDNA from donated blood reveals patterns of clonal dynamics and clinically relevant genomic changes

a) Clinical trajectory of patient-partner 0495. This patient-partner's prostate specific antigen (PSA) trajectory is shown on the y-axis, time in years since initial diagnosis is shown on the x-axis, and bars denote the beginning and end of therapies. EBRT—external beam radiation therapy; 1st line androgen deprivation therapy (ADT)—leuprolide and bicalutamide; immunotherapy—nivolumab; chemotherapy—cisplatin and etoposide.

b) Tumor evolution from primary tumor to metastatic cfDNA samples. The y-axis shows the cancer cell fraction (CCF) of clonal clusters identified between tumor and cfDNA samples (x-axis). Time between samples shown on the x-axis. Colors indicate how many mutations were identified in each clone, with a 95% confidence interval around the estimated CCF. Purple represents the truncal/ancestral clone. Clusters with CCF < 0.10 across all biopsies are omitted. The clinical trajectory of patient-partner 0495 (left) is shown in **a**, while the trajectory of patient-partner 0093 (right) is shown in **c**.

c) Emergence of *AR* amplification in patient-partner 0093 induced by anti-androgen therapy. The timeline depicts this patient's clinical trajectory, while the plots show the absolute copy number (y-axis) of the genomic region around *AR* (x-axis, gene body shown in grey). The first plot depicts exome sequencing from the patient's archival tumor tissue; the second and third plots depict ultra-low pass whole-genome sequencing (ULP-WGS) and exome sequencing of cfDNA from the patient's donated blood, respectively. Individual points represent copy number of target regions (exome) or copy number of 1 Mb genomic windows (ULP-WGS). Black lines represent discrete copy number segments.

d – f) ULP-WGS reveals clinically relevant *AR* amplifications even at low tumor fraction. Tumor

fraction of 318 cfDNA samples from donated blood of 300 patient-partners with ULP-WGS

sequencing is shown on the x-axis, while the log copy-ratio (logR) of the genomic interval

containing *AR* is shown on the y-axis. Points are colored by whether patient-partners self-

reported taking enzalutamide or abiraterone. 89 samples are shown with tumor fraction of 0

(undetectable), while 229 have nonzero tumor fractions. Two samples, one at a tumor fraction of

0 and another at a tumor fraction of 0.023, have chromosome X log copy-ratio profiles shown in

e and **f**, respectively. The green points represent the values shown in **d,** with the genomic interval

containing *AR* highlighted in grey.

METHODS

Statistical computing

Except where otherwise specified, analysis and data visualization were performed with

Python 3.8, SciPy v.1.5.2, Matplotlib v.3.3.2, seaborn v.0.11.0 and R v.3.5.1. All statistical tests

were two-sided unless otherwise specified. The code used to generate the main figures can be

found at https://github.com/vanallenlab/mpcproject-paper.

MPCproject website

The MPCproject utilizes a website (https://mpcproject.org/) to enroll patients through an

online consent and release form. The website provides information about the project and

advocacy groups that have partnered with the study. The website design, messaging, and

workflow were developed with direct input from patient-partners and advocates.

Informed consent

Patients who chose to enroll in this research study are provided informed consent using a

web-based consent form approved by the Dana-Farber/Harvard Cancer Center Institutional

Review Board (DF/HCC Protocol 15-057B). A link to the electronic informed consent document

for formal enrollment in the study (https://mpcproject.org/ConsentAndRelease.pdf) was sent to

registrant emails, and upon signing, a copy of the completed form was shared. At minimum,

informed consent enabled study staff to request and abstract medical records, send a saliva kit

directly to patients, perform sequencing on any returned saliva samples, and release de-identified

integrated clinical, genomic, and patient-reported data for research use. Patient-partners had the

additional option to consent to study staff obtaining a portion of archived tumor tissue and/or a

blood sample for further sequencing analysis.

Patient-reported data

After registering, patient-partners completed a 17-question survey asking them about

themselves and their disease (https://mpcproject.org/AboutYouSurvey.pdf). All questions were

optional. Information on how question responses were standardized and categorized can be

found in the Supplementary Methods.

Acquisition of medical records

Medical records were obtained for patient-partners from the U.S. and Canada who

completed the consent and medical release forms. Later in project development, a donated saliva

or blood sample was also required. Study staff submitted medical record requests to all

institutions and physician offices at which the patient reported receiving clinical care for their

prostate cancer. A detailed medical record request form, along with the consent and release

forms, were electronically faxed to each facility listed in a patient's release form. Medical

records were returned to the project via mail, fax, or secure online portals. If a record request was

not fulfilled in six months, study staff called the hospital, and a second request was submitted,

with up to three requests made. Patient-partners that communicated with study staff about

changes in their treatment could request a medical record update, in which case their current

hospital was again contacted for medical records. All medical records were saved in an

electronic format to a secure drive at the Broad Institute.

Acquisition of patient samples

All consented patient-partners living in the United States or Canada were mailed saliva

kits with appropriate instructions, a sample tube labeled with a unique barcode, and a prepaid

return box to send back the saliva sample. Samples were returned to the Broad Institute

Genomics Platform, logged, and stored at room temperature (25 °C) until further sequencing.

If a consented patient-partner opted into the blood biopsy component of the study, they

were sent a blood kit with instructions (https://mpcproject.org/BloodSampleInstructions.pdf,

Supplementary Figure 4). Participants could take this kit to their next blood draw and request a

courtesy draw by their medical provider; if a courtesy draw was not possible, patients could go to

Quest Diagnostics with a complimentary voucher to have their blood drawn. Blood kits were

returned free of charge to the Broad Institute Genomics Platform where they were fractionated

into plasma and buffy coats and stored at -80°C. If a patient-partner did not provide a saliva

sample, buffy coats were used to extract germline DNA for WES. Plasma samples continued to

WES if ultra-low pass WGS detected a tumor fraction of circulating tumor DNA greater than

0.03. Some patient-partners were selected to provide additional blood samples and were sent a

new consent form. If they agreed to submit another blood sample, a new blood kit was shipped.

For patient-partners that provided a germline sample and consented to the acquisition of

some of their archival tumor tissue, study staff reviewed each patient's medical records and

identified available tissue (Supplementary Methods). Patient-partners were screened by the study

staff to determine if they had metastatic or advanced prostate cancer based on the definition by

our study. If a patient-partner had a sample that met the project's strict requesting criteria, study

staff coordinated with that hospital's pathology department to fax a request for one H&E-stained

slide as well as either 5-20 5-μm unstained slides or one formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissue

block. Requests explicitly asked that the pathology department should not exhaust a sample to

fulfill the request. Samples were sent to the MPCproject by mail. Tissue samples received as

slides were labeled with unique barcode identifiers and submitted for whole exome sequencing.

Tissue samples received as blocks were cut into three 30-μm scrolls per block, labeled with

unique barcode identifiers, and then submitted for whole exome sequencing.

Medical record abstraction

A data dictionary comprising 60 clinical fields with possible options was curated by

trained study staff working with prostate oncologists. Electronic health records were converted to

searchable PDF files using the Optical Character Recognition (OCR) engine known as

Tesseract[63]. Three study staff abstractors were involved in the abstraction and QC process for

each record (Supplementary Methods). If a field had lack of concordance between abstractors or

there were outstanding questions, a prostate cancer oncologist reviewed the content. Whenever

possible, clinical data was abstracted directly from the records. For information that's not found,

it was abstracted as 'NOT FOUND IN RECORD'. In instances where ambiguity or incomplete

data was present, inferences were made considering the whole narrative of the medical record.

Incomplete dates missing the day or month are abstracted as the first day of the month or first

month of the year, respectively. While all medical records will eventually be abstracted, medical

records from patient-partners that received molecular sequencing of some form were prioritized

for this study, resulting in 125 patient-partners with medical record abstractions, 119 of which

had at least one therapy noted. In examining the overlap between patient surveys and medical

record therapies, we only considered therapies that were given for metastatic prostate cancer at

least one week before the patient enrolled.

Geographic analysis

Using secure Census Bureau geocoding, we identified the census tracts of patient

reported home addresses[64]. To identify patient-partners living in rural areas, this information was

overlapped with rural-area continuum (RUCA) codes from the United States Department of

Agriculture (USDA)[65]. Addresses with a secondary RUCA code greater than 3 were designated

as rural. For comparison, the proportion of metastatic prostate cancer patients within each RUCA

code from 2004 – 2017 was taken from Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER)

using SEER*stat with the following selection table: {Site and Morphology.Site recode ICD-O-

3/WHO 2008} = 'Prostate' AND {Stage - Summary/Historic.SEER Combined Summary Stage

2000 (2004-2017)} != 'In situ', 'Localized only', 'Not applicable',

'Unknown/unstaged/unspecified/DCO', 'Blank(s)'[23]. To identify patient-partners living in

medical shortage areas, the census tracts of home addresses were overlapped with primary care

health physician shortage areas (HPSA) and medically underserved areas (MUA) defined by the

Health Resources and Services Administration (HRSA)[25]. Addresses were labelled as existing

within a MUA if they were designated as within a medically underserved area or population and

as existing within a HPSA if they were designated as within a primary care HPSA. Published

geographic datasets of cancer patients (e.g., SEER, NPCR) do not contain census-tract resolved

data or summary results of MUA/HPSA status, so for comparison we instead used the total U.S.

population living in HPSAs and MUAs, taken from HRSA, divided by the entire U.S. population

taken from the U.S. Census[25,26]. To calculate appointment distances, we calculated the round-trip

Haversine distances between the zip code of home addresses and the zip code of reported

institutions.

Whole exome sequencing analysis

Whole exome sequences were captured using Illumina technology and the sequence data

processing and analysis was performed using Picard and FireCloud pipelines on Terra

(https://terra.bio/) (Supplementary Methods). The Picard pipeline (http://picard.sourceforge.net)

was used to produce a BAM file with aligned reads. This includes alignment to the GRCh37

human reference sequence using BWA[66] and estimation and recalibration of base quality score

with the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK)[67]. Somatic alterations for tumor samples were called

using a customized version of the Getz Lab CGA WES Characterization pipeline

(https://portal.firecloud.org/#methods/getzlab/CGA_WES_Characterization_Pipeline_v0.1_Dec2

018/) developed at the Broad Institute. Briefly, MuTect v1.1.6 algorithm was used to identify

somatic mutations[68]. Somatic mutation calls were filtered using a panel of normals (PoN), oxoG

filter and an FFPE filter to remove artifacts introduced during the sequencing or formalin

fixation process[69]. Small somatic insertions and deletions were detected using the Strelka

algorithm[70]. Somatic mutations were annotated using Oncotator[71]. Recurrently altered mutations

were identified using MutSig2CV[72]. To define somatic copy ratio profiles, we used GATK

CNV[67]. To generate allele-specific copy number profiles and assess tumor purity and ploidy, we

used ABSOLUTE and FACETS[73,74]. Final segmentation calls were taken from ABSOLUTE,

except for the X chromosome, which was taken from FACETS. We utilized GISTIC2.0 to

identify significantly recurrent amplification and deletion peaks[28]. For determining allele-specific

copy number alterations, we assessed the absolute allelic copy numbers of the segment

containing each gene. Mutation burden was calculated as the total number of mutations (non-

synonymous + synonymous) detected for a given sample divided by the length of the total

genomic target region captured with appropriate coverage from whole exome sequencing.

Whole exome sequencing quality control

Samples with average coverage below 55x in the tumor sample or below 30x in the

normal sample were excluded. Samples with purity < 0.10 from both ABSOLUTE and FACETS

were excluded. DeTiN was applied to samples to estimate the amount of tumor contamination in

the normal samples; samples with TiN (tumor in normal) > 0.25 were excluded[75]. ContEst was

applied to measure the amount of cross-sample contamination in samples; samples with

contamination > 0.04 were excluded[76]. The Picard task CrossCheckFingerprints was applied to

determine sample mixups; samples with Fingerprints LOD value < 0 were excluded[77]. Samples

which passed quality control were submitted to cBioPortal and GDC.

Ultra-low pass whole genome sequencing analysis

ichorCNA was used to assess the tumor fraction in cfDNA samples that completed ultra-

low pass whole genome sequencing[50]. The log copy ratio of *AR* was assessed by the log copy

ratio of the genomic interval containing *AR.* This value could not consistently be converted to

absolute copy number due to the low tumor fractions of many samples.

Mutational signature analysis and kataegis

Mutational processes in our cohort were determined using deconstructSigs with default

parameters applying COSMIC v2 signatures as the reference with a maximum number of

signatures of 6[29,30]. A signature was assessed as present if the signature contribution was greater

than 6%. Because tumor samples were formalin-fixed and paraffin embedded (FFPE), a process

known to introduce stranded mutational artifacts in specific nucleotide contexts, we used a filter

to remove likely FFPE artifacts according to nucleotide context and strand bias before using

deconstructSigs[78]. We also tried to assess the colocalization of the kataegis event with structural

variant breakpoints but were limited by targeted sequencing in exomes and low coverage in

ULP-WGS. *KMT2C* and its surrounding region were not copy number altered in the sample with

kataegis. Kataegis was not identified in any other sample.

Association of DNA-repair alterations and presence of signature 3

Alterations in a select list of genes previously implicated in DNA-repair in prostate

cancer were examined (Supplementary Table 3). An alteration was considered if there was a

somatic single-copy deletion, double deletion, nonsense mutation, missense mutation, frameshift

indel, or splice site mutation. An alteration was also considered if there was a pathogenic

germline alteration, denoted by "Pathogenic" in ClinVar[62].

Germline variant discovery

To call short germline single-nucleotide polymorphisms, insertions, and deletions from

germline WES data, we used DeepVariant (v0.8.0)[79,80]. Specifically, we used the publicly-

released WES model

(https://console.cloud.google.com/storage/browser/deepvariant/models/DeepVariant/0.8.0/Deep

Variant-inception_v3-0.8.0+data-wes_standard/) to generate single-sample germline variant call

files using the human genome reference GRCh37(b37). We filtered variants with bcftools v1.9 to

only keep high-quality variants annotated as "PASS" in the "FILTER" column. The high-quality

variants were merged into single-sample Variant Call Format (VCF) files using

CombineVariants from GATK 3.7 (https://github.com/broadinstitute/gatk/releases). To

decompose multiallelic variants and normalize variants, we used the computational package vt

v3.13 (https://github.com/atks/vt). Lastly, germline variants were annotated using the VEP v92

with the publicly-released GRCh37 cache file (https://github.com/Ensembl/ensembl-vep)[81].

Germline variants were denoted as pathogenic if they appeared as "Pathogenic" in ClinVar (Dec

2019 version)[62].

Phylogenetic analysis

To compare mutations between distinct samples (tumor and cfDNA) from the same

patient, we used a previously described method designed to recover evidence for mutations

called in one sample in all other samples derived from the same individual[82]. In brief, the 'force-

calling' method uses the strong prior of the mutation being present in at least one sample in the

patient to more sensitively detect and recover mutations that might otherwise be missed. A

mutation was deemed tumor/cfDNA specific if there were no force-called reads that supported

the mutation in the other sample, although this process underestimates the proportion of shared

mutations in low purity tumors. The cancer cell fraction (CCF) of mutations were defined using

ABSOLUTE, which calculates the CCF based on variant allele frequency, purity, and local

allelic copy number[73]. To reconstruct tumor phylogenies, we used PhylogicNDT, which clusters

mutations into subclones across multiple samples based on their underlying similar CCFs[42].

Data releases

The MPCproject releases de-identified clinical, patient-reported and research-grade

genomic data into public repositories, such as cBioPortal

(https://www.cbioportal.org/study/summary?id=prad_mpcproject_2018) and the Genomic Data

Commons (https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/projects/CMI-MPC), at regular intervals and pre-

publication. Data is processed and formatted as required by each repository's guidelines. All

patient identifiers are stripped prior to data deposition to protect patient privacy. On the

MPCproject data release webpage (https://mpcproject.org/data-release), patients can access

project data, additional information about the data, list of common terms used in research,

methods used to generate the data, and an email address for any additional data-related questions.

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