Genomic and transcriptomic landscape of advanced renal cell cancer to
individualize treatment strategy

K. de Joode[¥1], W.S. van de Geer[¥1,2], G.J.L.H. van Leenders[3], P. Hamberg[4], H.M. Westgeest[5], A. Beeker[6], S.F.
Oosting[7], J.M. van Rooijen[8], L.V. Beerepoot[9], M. Labots[10], R.H.J. Mathijssen[1], M.P. Lolkema[1,11], E.
Cuppen[12,13], S. Sleijfer[1,11], H.J.G. van de Werken[ˣ*2,14,15], A.A.M. van der Veldt[ˣ*1,16]

¥Both authors contributed equally and are considered first author
ˣBoth authors contributed equally and are considered last author
Corresponding author

[1]Department of Medical Oncology, Erasmus MC Cancer Institute, University Medical Center, Rotterdam,
The Netherlands;
[2]Cancer Computational Biology Center, Erasmus MC Cancer Institute, University Medical Center,
Rotterdam, The Netherlands;
[3]Department of Pathology, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, the Netherlands;
[4]Department of Internal Medicine, Franciscus Gasthuis & Vlietland, Rotterdam, The Netherlands;
[5]Department of Internal Medicine, Amphia Hospital, Breda, The Netherlands;
[6]Department of Internal Medicine, Spaarne Gasthuis, Hoofddorp, The Netherlands;
[7]Department of Medical Oncology, University Medical Center Groningen, University of Groningen,
Groningen, The Netherlands;
[8]Department of Internal Medicine, Martini Hospital, Groningen, The Netherlands;
[9]Department of Internal Medicine, Elisabeth-Tweesteden hospital, Tilburg, The Netherlands;
[10]Department of Medical Oncology, Amsterdam UMC, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Department of
Medical Oncology, Cancer Center Amsterdam, The Netherlands;
[11]Center for Personalized Cancer Treatment, Rotterdam, The Netherlands;
[12]Center for Molecular Medicine and Oncode Institute, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The
Netherlands;
[13]Hartwig Medical Foundation, Amsterdam, The Netherlands;
[14]Department of Urology, Erasmus MC Cancer Institute, University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The
Netherlands;
[15]Department of Immunology, Erasmus MC Cancer Institute, University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The
Netherlands;
[16]Departments of Radiology & Nuclear Medicine, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, The Netherlands

*Corresponding author(s)
Astrid A.M. van der Veldt, Departments of Medical Oncology and Radiology & Nuclear Medicine,
Erasmus MC Cancer Institute, Dr. Molewaterplein 40, 3015 GD Rotterdam, The Netherlands.
Tel: +31 (0)10 704 0 704. E-mail address: a.vanderveldt@erasmusmc.nl

36
37 Harmen J.G. van de Werken, Cancer Computational Bioldatogy Center, Erasmus MC Cancer Institute,
38 Erasmus University Medical Center Rotterdam, Department of Immunology and Department of Urology,
39 Internal Postal Address NA-1218-335, PO Box 2040, 3000 CA Rotterdam, the Netherlands.
40 Tel: +31 (0)10 703 1 829. Fax: +31 (0)10 704 4 731. E-mail address: h.vandewerken@erasmusmc.nl

Abstract

The genomic landscape of advanced renal cell cancer (RCC) was characterized for 91 patients to identify actionable targets and signatures by combining whole-genome sequencing (WGS) with matched RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq). WGS data were analyzed for somatic small variants, copy-number alterations (CNAs) and structural variants. Somatic aberrations were analyzed for driver genes, CNA drivers, mutational signatures, catastrophic events and fusion genes. For papillary and clear cell RCC, potential actionable drug targets were detected by WGS in 89% and 100% of the patients, respectively. RNA-Seq data of clear cell and papillary RCC were clustered according to a previously developed angio-immunogenic gene signature. WGS and RNA-Seq may improve therapeutic decision making for most patients with advanced RCC, including patients with non-clear cell RCC for whom no standard treatment is available to date. Prospective clinical trials are needed to evaluate the impact of genomic and transcriptomic diagnostics on survival outcome for advanced RCC patients.

Introduction

Renal cell carcinoma (RCC) consists of different histological subtypes [1,2]. The most common histological subtype is clear cell RCC (ccRCC), accounting for approximately 75% of the RCC cases [3]. The vast majority of ccRCC is characterized by the loss of the short arm of chromosome 3 (3p)[4], which harbors several tumor suppressor genes. The function of these genes - *VHL*, *BAP1*, *PBRM1*, and *SETD2* - is frequently inactivated due to additional somatic mutations or epigenetic changes of these genes on the other allele [4,5]. Although these genetic aberrations can be observed in most patients with ccRCC, the clinical behavior in individual patients differs significantly, from slowly progressive disease over years to rapidly progressive disease with fast clinical deterioration. Therefore, the management of advanced ccRCC varies from active surveillance to systemic therapy.

In the past years, the therapeutic landscape for patients with advanced ccRCC has changed significantly. The introduction of tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) [6,7], immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) [8,9], mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibitors [10], and combinations of these anti-cancer therapies [11-13], has significantly improved the outcome for patients with advanced ccRCC. However, there are considerable interindividual differences in outcome, and only a minority of patients experience durable responses [14]. For patients with advanced ccRCC, treatment decision making is nowadays guided by the International Metastatic RCC Database Consortium (IMDC) criteria [15-17]. These criteria include only clinical patient characteristics (i.e. hemoglobin level, time from diagnosis to start of systemic therapy, Karnofsky performance state, calcium level and neutrophil and platelets count).

Moreover, RCC with non-clear cell histology is a heterogeneous group of different subtypes, such

as papillary and chromophobe RCC [18]. As holds true for advanced ccRCC, the course of non-clear

cell RCC (nccRCC) differs significantly between patients [19,20]. Since the different nccRCC subtypes

are considered rare diseases, randomized phase three clinical trials are lacking for nccRCC [21]. As

a result, there is no clearly defined standard of care for patients with advanced nccRCC [20,22].

The development of RCC, including its metastatic potential and response to treatment, could

mainly be explained by the different genomics [2,4] and evolutionary pathways [5,23] of this disease.

Previous studies have focused on the molecular characterization of primary RCC [2,4,24] and the

genomic evolution of ccRCC [4,5,23]. For example, RNA expression analysis in ccRCC has identified

different immunogenic and angiogenic gene expression signatures [24,25], however, predictive

value for treatment efficacy has not been validated. To improve the individualized treatment

strategy and the survival outcomes for patients with ccRCC and nccRCC, more insight into the

genomic make-up of advanced RCC is required.

The objective of this study was to describe the genomic landscape of advanced RCC, by combining

whole-genome sequencing (WGS) with matched RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) data. First, WGS was

applied to characterize the genomic make-up of RCC and to identify potential actionable targets

for systemic treatment in individual patients with ccRCC and nccRCC. Next, both WGS and

matched RNA-Seq data were combined for patients with ccRCC and papillary RCC (pRCC). The

RNA-Seq data were applied to cluster RCC based on immunogenic and angiogenic gene

expression patterns, aiming to identify those patients who could benefit from either treatment

with anti-angiogenic drugs, immunogenic drugs or a combination of these therapies.

Results

Patient selection

In total, WGS data from 91 patients with histopathologically confirmed RCC were included in the analyses (**Figure 1A**). Additional RNA-Seq data were available for 28 patients (**Figure 1A**). Overall, 72 patients were diagnosed with ccRCC, nine patients with pRCC, one with chromophobe RCC, one with tubulocystic RCC, and one with collecting duct carcinoma. For the remaining seven patients with RCC, the subtype could not be further defined. The main biopsy sites were the kidney (N = 24), bone (N = 15), and lymph nodes (N = 14) (**Figure 1B**). The median age of patients at the time of biopsy was 65 years (range 40-83), 79% of the patients were male, and 78% of the patients did not receive any systemic treatment before biopsy (**Table 1**). Most patients (84/91, 92%) were treated with systemic therapy after biopsy was collected. This treatment consisted mostly of TKIs (61/84, 73%) or ICIs (19/84, 23%), whereas the remaining patients received combination treatment (4/84, 5%). For 68 out of 84 (81%) patients, the first tumor response (RECIST v1.1 [26]) to treatment (post tumor biopsy) could be established. Most patients had stable disease (SD) (46%), followed by progressive disease (PD) (14%) and partial response (PR) (14%).

Whole-genome sequencing analyses

Somatic small variants, copy-number alterations (CNAs) and structural variants (SVs) were

identified as described previously [27]. The median tumor mutational burden (TMB) of patients

with ccRCC was 2.8 [interquartile range (IQR) 1.1] (**Figure 2A**). Only two patients (one with ccRCC

and one with undefined subtype of RCC) had a TMB > 10 [28]. In both these samples with high TMB,

mutational signatures were related to defective DNA mismatch repair, covering more than 25%

of their single-nucleotide variants (SNVs) (**Figure 2A/E**). Interestingly, the lowest TMB (i.e. 0.16)

was found in a patient with tubulocystic RCC (N = 1) who had very little genomic aberrations in

general, and only two detectable SVs (**Figure 2C/D;** tandem duplication and break-end). In the

total cohort, SBS40 (unknown etiology) was the dominant mutational signature, with a mean

relative contribution of 74%. To assess the reliability of the SBS40 calling, the mutational

signature calling was bootstrapped, which revealed a very high variance (median difference in

assignment of 37%) in the relative contribution of SBS40 (Supplementary figure 1).

The frequency of genomic SNVs, multi-nucleotide variants (MNVs), InDels, and the collective

coding mutations showed a similar pattern across the different RCC subtypes (Supplementary

figure 2, supplementary data file). In total, 713,077 somatically acquired SNVs, 173,579 InDels

and 9,964 MNVs were detected in the RCC genomes. Transversions were more frequently found

than transitions in ccRCC, pRCC and undefined subtypes (Supplementary figure 2B and 2E).

Missense variants were the most dominant protein variant type and accounted for > 60% of the

small variants in all subtypes (Supplementary figure 2G). The genome ploidy was mostly diploid,

and genome duplications were more frequent in ccRCC than in other subtypes (Supplementary

figure 2D). For 57% of ccRCC, the genome-wide ploidy was 2, while 32% had a genome doubling

with a ploidy of 3 or higher. Differences in DNA ploidy have been associated with tumor

differentiation and diploidy has been related to well-differentiated RCC [29]. Considering SVs, a

total of 3,121 deletions, 941 translocations, 2,196 tandem duplications, 4 insertions, 2,714

inversions and 641 break-ends were detected (Supplementary Fig 2F). When comparing the

mutational frequencies of ccRCC in our cohort to those in the TRACERx WGS cohort, a multicenter

prospective study analyzing the evolutionary features of ccRCC [5], the number of substitutions

was similar in both cohorts (7,224, Q1–Q3: [5648-8581] *vs*. 7,050, Q1–Q3: [6434-9504], *p*-value

= 0.45). The number of patients with events considered as chromothripsis was limited and

present in only five patients with ccRCC, two patients with pRCC and absent in the other subtypes.

Furthermore, these chromothriptic events mostly did not involve the classic t(3;5) event. Only

one of the samples with chromothripsis did have a t(3;5) translocation (Supplementary figure 3),

while these specific translocations were more frequently detected in the cohort of patients

without chromothriptic events (29.7%, Supplementary figure 4).

Next, the WGS data were analyzed on driver genes of the ccRCC samples using the dN/dS

algorithm and on CNAs by GISTIC 2.0. These driver gene analyses revealed that most driver genes

in ccRCC encompassed variations in the chromosome 3p region: *SETD2* (88.9%), *VHL* (73.6%),

PBRM1 (61.1%), and *BAP1* (16.7%) together with mutations in tumor suppressor genes on other

chromosomes, such as *CDKN2A* (68.1%) and *PTEN* (16.7%) (**Figure 3,** supplementary data file)*.* In

addition, a substantial number of patients with ccRCC had focal deletions in genes described as

possible tumor suppressor genes, e.g. *PTPRD* (59.7%) and *NEGR1* (36.1%) [4,30]. Deletions of *PTPRD*

have been described as a possible risk factor for the development of ccRCC [30,31]. Moreover,

amplifications were present in genes associated with cell proliferation and angiogenesis, such as

CDK6 (55.6%) and *CCNE1* (19.4%) [32,33]. In total, pathogenic germline mutations related to cancer

or Von Hippel-Lindau syndrome were found in nine patients in different RCC subtypes and

included *ATM, FLCN, CHEK2, FH, SDHA* and *MITF* (**Figure 3**).

In addition, genes which were previously described as frequently mutated somatically (*q*-value <

0.05) in (cc)RCC by Braun *et al*. [34] and in pRCC by Turajlic *et al*. [35], that were not statistically

significant in our driver gene analysis, were included to extend our analysis. Nevertheless, many

of these added genes showed a low mutational frequency in our cohort, similarly for genes

associated with poor prognosis ccRCC [4], such as the Krebs cycle genes (e.g. *SDHA*, *FH*).

Furthermore, previously validated fusion events [36] were detected, with *CLTC-VMP1* and *SFPQ-*

TFE3 both occurring once in the ccRCC group, along with a fusion event of *ASPSCR1-TFE3* in one

patient with pRCC*.* For both patients with a detected *TFE3* fusion, the histopathological diagnosis

had to be reconsidered. As a result, these patients were re-allocated in a different subcategory

of RCC, i.e. MiT family translocation renal cell carcinomas [1]. The previously described *TERT*

promoter hotspot variant (C228T) [5] was found in both ccRCC (*N* = 10) and pRCC (*N* = 2). Overall,

characteristic clear cell driver gene events — such as somatic *VHL* mutations/deletions — were

absent in nccRCC, except for *CDKN2A* deletions in pRCC.

In patients with ccRCC, both previously described and novel amplifications and deletions were

detected. Statistically significant CNA peaks and arm-level copy-number alterations in ccRCC are

presented in Supplementary figure 5. Previously described arm-level CNAs [37] included

amplifications of 1q, 5q, 7q, 8q, 12p and 20q, and deletions in 3p, 9p and 14q. Furthermore, in

the current cohort, amplifications of 5p, 7p, 12q, 16p and 20p, and deletions of 4p, 6p, 9q, 14p,

18p and 18q were also statistically significant. Next, we investigated if the tumors contained

targetable variants (**Figure 4**), which showed that most patients with RCC had one or more

variants indicated as potential targets or biomarkers for treatment. For example, for target-

specific variants encoded by *CDK4/6* or *EGFR*, specific drugs have been developed for other

cancer types [38-40]. This may result in off-label availability of these drugs for patients with similar

aberrations in RCC, e.g. in context of a clinical trial [41]. Furthermore, somatic aberrations in cancer

genes, e.g. *TP53*, are also considered biomarkers for targeted treatments [42]. Lastly, some variants

leading to specific mechanisms were also considered as targetable for treatment. For instance,

TKIs targeting VEGF signaling are known to be effective in patients with *VHL* mutations and are

on-label available for patients with RCC [43]. Overall, for the majority (96%) of patients in this cohort

actionable targets were detected, even for patients with nccRCC for whom no standard

treatment is available to date.

Transcriptome analyses of advanced RCC

Differential Expression Analysis (DEA) was performed on RNA-Seq data to discriminate the two

most frequently diagnosed histological subtypes, ccRCC (*N* = 24) and pRCC (*N* = 4). Next to the *t*-

distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (*t*-SNE), which showed a clear separation between

the two subtypes (Supplementary figure 6), the DEA resulted in 1,546 significantly (adjusted *p*-

value < 0.05) differentially expressed genes. The hundred genes with the smallest adjusted *p*-

value are shown in **Figure 5A.** In this top hundred list, several genes are known to be associated

with the development or course of RCC. For instance, *LOX* [44] and *MAPKAPK3* [45] correlate with

poor survival in RCC. In addition, various other genes were differentially expressed and have been

described in other malignancies, such as *TUSC2* [46], *CAPN1* [47], *PCSK6* [48], and *CD2* [49]. The differential

expression of these genes confirmed a clear distinction of pRCC and ccRCC at the transcriptomic

level.

Second, the pathway analysis (**Figure 5B**) of the significant differentially expressed genes

revealed cancer hallmarks such as oxidative phosphorylation and epithelial-mesenchymal

transition (EMT), among others [50]. Significant Reactome pathways [51] of differentially expressed

genes in ccRCC compared to pRCC samples, mainly showed pathways related to VEGF and

collagen formation. Pathways related to poor prognosis [4], such as the AMPK complex, the Krebs

cycle genes, the pentose phosphate pathway and fatty acid synthesis, were not found to be

differentially expressed between ccRCC and pRCC. A heatmap of the top differentially expressed

genes between ccRCC and pRCC and a *t*-SNE plot show that RCC samples of undefined subtype

cluster with either ccRCC or pRCC samples based on the differential gene expression of these

subtypes (Supplementary figure 7).

The 66 gene-signature has been based on previous data from the IMmotion150 trial [25]. High

expression of 'angiogenic' genes and certain 'invasion' genes is applied to sub-classify RCC as

'angiogenic', which would be predictive for response to TKIs targeting VEGF signaling. In case of

high expression in 'Ca^{2+}-Flux', 'T-Effector', and other 'invasion' genes, RCC is sub-classified as

'immunogenic', indicating a response to ICIs is likely. According to this gene signature, ccRCC

cases in the current cohort could be classified as either immunogenic or angiogenic (**Figure 5C**).

Moreover, all patients with pRCC had low expression of these genes, except for one individual

patient with expression in *EDNRB* [52].

Discussion

In this study, the genomic and transcriptomic landscape of advanced RCC was characterized for 91 individual patients. First, genomic data showed that, next to *VHL* mutations (73.6%), most common driver gene mutations in ccRCC included alterations in tumor suppressor genes of different pathways such as *SETD2* (88.9%) and *PTEN* (16.7%). While TMB was comparable amongst the different subtypes of RCC, the driver gene analyses showed a distinctive pattern between patients with ccRCC and nccRCC. Furthermore, WGS revealed potential actionable targets for 87 out of 91 patients and WGS might therefore contribute to a more individualized treatment strategy for patients with advanced RCC.

For a subgroup of patients (*N* = 28), transcriptomic data were also available. RNA-Seq could be applied to distinguish ccRCC, pRCC and histologically undefined RCC based on the differential gene expression. The application of the 66-gene signature [25] on the RNA-Seq data, made it possible to sub-categorize ccRCC into immunogenic or angiogenic signatures, whereas classification in pRCC using these signatures was not feasible.

At genomic level, the findings for ccRCC corresponded mostly with previous findings [4,5,53]. The massive contribution of SBS40 to the mutational landscape of nearly all RCC subtypes in this cohort is remarkable. However, bootstrapping showed that SBS40 was the least robust signature, indicating that this signature could act as a sink for mutations that are difficult to fit. Since CPCT-02 cohorts with other tumor types did not show the high contribution of SBS40 [54,55], this is most certainly not a result of a bias in the sequencing or in our workflows. In contrast to other studies, the number of chromothriptic events was limited in this study and occurred in only five patients

with ccRCC. In previous studies, chromothripsis was defined as the combination of a

chromothriptic event together with a translocation event with concurrent 3p loss and 5q gain,

which were called "t(3;5) chromothripsis events" [5]. Although both chromothriptic and

translocation (t(3;5)) events occurred in our cohort, for most of the cases these events were

independent of each other (Supplementary figure 3 and 4).

At transcriptomic level, assigning ccRCC biopsies into either immunogenic or angiogenic

signatures may indicate which treatment could be most beneficial for individual patients. The

introduction of ICIs has significantly changed the therapeutic landscape for patients with

advanced ccRCC [56,57], resulting in a clinical need to select patients who will benefit either from

angiogenic or immunogenic treatment [17]. These data could assist clinical decision making when

choosing the optimal treatment strategy for the individual patient with advanced ccRCC. For

patients with high expression of genes annotated as immunogenic, first–line treatment with ICIs

should be considered, whereas for patients with high expression in angiogenic genes treatment

with a TKI should be taken into consideration. For those patients with low expression throughout

all these genes, combination treatment with TKI/ICI may be considered, although treatment

based on actionable targets identified by WGS could be the most effective option. Treatment

selection based on gene expression has already shown promising results for patients with RCC

[12,58], however, further research in a prospective setting is still warranted [59].

The distinctive mutational gene pattern between ccRCC and nccRCC clearly showed that these

tumors are different entities, while differences within the nccRCC subtypes were also evident.

For example, none of the patients with nccRCC had somatic *VHL* mutations and also other ccRCC

driver genes hardly showed mutations in nccRCC. This is of great importance, as the development

of targeted drugs is based on driver mutations or consequences downstream. For instance, the

frequently mutated *VHL* gene in ccRCC has been the basis for the development of angiogenesis

inhibitors for this disease. The mutations in this tumor-suppressor gene result in the

accumulation of *HIF1α/2α*, eventually leading to overexpression of *VEGF/PDGF*, *AXL*, and *MET*,

among others [43,60]. Several TKIs that have been approved for the treatment of advanced ccRCC

[6,7,43,61] interfere at different levels in this cascade [43,60]. More recently, Hypoxia Inducible Factor

(HIF) inhibition has also shown proven efficacy in patients with *VHL* mutations [62]. However, as

patients with nccRCC in our cohort showed no mutations in *VHL* or other related pathways, it is

questionable whether treatment directed against the *VHL* pathway would be the most effective

therapy for this particular group of patients.

In clinical practice, RCC is usually defined histopathologically. As a result, there is a large

dependency on experienced pathologists. However, discrepancies among these experts remain

[63,64]. In our cohort, nearly 8% of RCC cases could not be sub-classified through histopathological

assessment. Thereby, for two patients a fusion gene was detected by WGS which led to revision

of the original histological diagnosis and allocation to a different subgroup, i.e. MiT family

translocation renal cell carcinoma [1]. As the histopathological classification defines the treatment

strategy, this could have significant clinical impact. Since different subtypes and growth patterns

of RCC are driven by gene expression [65], a next generation sequencing-based classifier could be

feasible. Here, we showed that analyses of driver mutations (*VHL*, *PBRM1*, *SETD2)* and RNA-Seq

data reveal clear differences among the different RCC subtypes. As shown in Supplementary

Figures 6 and 7, clustering of the undefined RCC subtypes is feasible and could be useful to clarify

the histological subtype in clinical practice.

This study has some important limitations. First, the collected clinical data within the CPCT-02

study were limited. For instance, only the first tumor response (according to RECIST v1.1.) after

biopsy was available and the response rates in this cohort were relatively low when compared to

the clinical trials. On one hand, these lower tumor response rates could be due to the

unavailability of ICIs, as patients were included between 2016 and 2019, when ICIs were not yet

available in first-line setting for RCC in the Netherlands. In addition, patients within the CPCT-02

study were treated in a real-world setting, which is known for its lower response rates compared

to response rates of clinical trials. In addition, due to the limited clinical data collection, it was

not possible to reliably correlate genomic and transcriptomic findings to clinical data. A

correlation with clinical data could have confirmed whether patients with certain gene signatures

indeed had benefit from a specific treatment. Therefore, validation in a prospective trial is

needed prior to clinical implementation.

Second, the limited number of patients with nccRCC made it challenging to run separate

analyses for this group. Since the subgroup of patients with nccRCC consists of different less

common and heterogeneous subtypes, and very little is known about the genomics of nccRCC.

Therefore, we decided to include all patients with nccRCC, even subgroups containing only a

single patient. Finally, the collected data were heterogeneous. For instance, not only biopsies of

metastases, but also biopsies from the kidney (including primary tumors) were included for the

analyses. However, it is not conceivable that this has significantly impacted the analysis, since

previous studies have shown clear consistencies between primary tumors and their metastasis [5].

In addition, the heterogeneity in this cohort reflects daily clinical practice of patients who present

with advanced RCC, including primary metastatic disease. Despite this clinical heterogeneity, a

clear genomic and transcriptomic signal could be extracted, indicating that the genomic and

transcriptomic analyses are feasible for clinical implementation.

In conclusion, there are evident genomic and transcriptomic differences between RCC subtypes.

The analysis of driver mutations, in combination with clustering of RNA-Seq data, could assist the

histopathological subtyping of RCCs in clinical practice. In addition, RNA-Seq data could identify

patients with ccRCC who may benefit more from treatment with either ICIs, TKIs or a combination

of these drugs. Genomic and transcriptomic analyses are promising to identify actionable targets

and to individualize treatment strategies in the majority of patients with RCC, even for patients

with nccRCC. Although these results are promising, prospective clinical trials are still needed to

evaluate whether genomic and transcriptomic diagnostics indeed contribute to improved

survival outcomes in individual patients with advanced RCC.

Materials and Methods

Center for Personalized Medicine: Patient cohort, study procedures, sample collection, clinical

data

In accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, all patients within this study provided written

informed consent for participation in the Center for Personalized Cancer Treatment (CPCT-02)

study (NCT01855477) before study procedures started. The CPCT-02 study was approved by the

medical ethical committee of the University Medical Center Utrecht, as well as the Netherlands

Cancer Institute and local approval was provided for each participating site. Details regarding

inclusion criteria, the study protocol, sampling, and sequencing have been previously described

[27]. In summary, core needle biopsies from the tumor lesion, peripheral whole blood samples and

clinical data were collected across hospitals in the Netherlands. The response to treatment was

determined according to RECIST v1.1 [26]. WGS data from 103 biopsies of 101 patients with

advanced RCC were made available. Only one sample per patient was selected for the genomic

analyses. When multiple biopsies of one patient were available, the sample covering the most

clinical information and/or the sample with the highest estimated tumor cell percentage was

selected. The selection resulted in 91 WGS samples (51 previously described by Priestley *et al.* [27])

and 35 RNA samples.

Pathological diagnosis

To confirm the histopathological diagnosis of RCC, pathology reports were requested via PALGA,

the nationwide network and registry of histo- and cytopathology in the Netherlands [66]. Slides and

tissue blocks were not available for pathological revision. Alternatively, the pathology reports

were reviewed by a genito-urinary pathologist (GvL) to determine whether the microscopic

348 description and immunohistochemistry were compatible with the original diagnosis. The

349 following subtypes were annotated: clear cell, papillary, chromophobe, tubulocystic, and

350 collecting duct carcinoma. Histopathologically confirmed RCC of which the subtype remained

351 unclear was categorized as undefined subtype.

352 **Whole genome sequencing and preprocessing**

353 Between the 8th of August 2016 and the 3rd of October 2019, tumor and whole-blood pairs were

354 whole-genome sequenced at the Hartwig Medical Foundation (HMF) central sequencing center.

355 A HiSeqX system was applied and 2 × 150 base read pairs were generated using standard settings

356 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Preprocessing was performed as described by Priestley *et al* [27].

357 Briefly, read pair mapping was performed using BWA-mem [67] to the reference genome GRCh37

358 (human) with subsequent systematic variant calling and several quality control and/or correction

359 steps. The Genome Rearrangement IDentification Software Suite (GRIDSS) [68] was used for

360 structural variant (SV) calling and LINX (v1.11) [68] for gene fusion event calling. Computational

361 ploidy estimation and copy-number (CN) assessment was performed using the PURPLE (PURity &

362 PLoidy Estimator) pipeline [68], estimating tumor purity and CN profile by combining B-allele

363 frequency (BAF), read depth, and SVs.

364 **Somatic variant annotation and filtering**

365 Somatic variants were determined using Strelka and provided by the HMF as part of the data

366 request. Variant Call Format (VCF) files with somatic variants were annotated based on GRCh37

367 with HUGO gene symbols, HGVS notations, gnomAD [69] frequencies using VEP [70] (database release

368 95, merged cache), with setting "--per_gene". Exclusively somatic single-nucleotide variants

(SNVs), small InDels, multi-nucleotide variants (MNVs) with ≥ 3 alternative read observations and

passing variant caller quality control were included in the analyses. Furthermore, population

variants were removed to prevent germline leakage, based on the gnomAD database (v2.0.2) [69]:

gnomAD exome (ALL) allele frequency ≥ 0.001; and gnomAD genome (ALL) ≥ 0.005. Variants

specific for the Dutch CPCT cohort were removed based on a panel-of-normals from 1,762

representative normal blood HMF samples. The most deleterious mutation was used to annotate

the overlapping gene for each sample.

Tumor Mutational Burden calculation

The number of mutations per megabase pair was calculated as the amount of somatic genome-

wide SNVs, MNVs, and InDels divided by the number of callable nucleotides in the human

reference genome (GRCh37) FASTA file:

$$TMB = \frac{\left(SNVs_g + MNVs_g + InDels_g\right)}{\left(\frac{2858674662}{10^6}\right)}$$

Ploidy and copy-number analysis

Broad and focal somatic CN alterations in ccRCC were identified by GISTIC2.0 [71] (v2.0.23), using

the following parameters: genegistic 1, gcm extreme, maxseg 4000, broad 1, brlen 0.98, conf

0.95, rx 0, cap 3, saveseg 0, armpeel 1, smallmem 0, res 0.01, ta 0.1, td 0.1, savedata 0, savegene

1, qvt 0.1. Distinction between shallow and deep CN events per region was based on thresholding

performed by GISTIC2.0. The alterations were assigned a score taking both the amplitude and

the frequency of its occurrence across samples into account (G-score). Thresholding was divided

into five CN categories; two for deletions (-2 = deep, possibly homozygous loss, -1 = shallow,

possibly heterozygous loss), one for diploid (0 = diploid) and two for amplifications (1 = few

additional copies, often broad gain, 2 = more copies, often focal gain). Annotation of GISTIC2.0

peaks was performed as follows: A) Wide peaks were annotated with all overlapping canonical

UCSC genes within the genomic limits of said peak. B) Focal peaks were annotated based on

overlapping genomic coordinates, using custom R scripts and UCSC gene annotations.

Structural variant analysis

395 SVs affecting genes were imported using custom R scripts, overlapping genes on at least one

396 breakpoint, using GRCh37 genomic coordinates. SVs with an upstream or downstream Tumor

397 Allele frequency (TAF) below 0.1 as determined by PURPLE and GRIDSS [68] were discarded along

398 with SVs that affected all exons of a gene. In the case of both (multiple) mutations and/or SVs in

399 the same gene, these were annotated as 'multiple mutations'.

Fusion gene analysis

WGS-based LINX TSV files were imported using R and overlapped with the three pillars of

ChimerDB [36]; deep sequencing data (ChimerSeq), text mining of PubMed publications

(ChimerPub), with extensive manual annotations (ChimerKB). Events that were not present in

any pillar of ChimerDB and intra-gene fusions were filtered out. RNA-Seq based fusion genes

detected with Isofox (https://github.com/hartwigmedical/hmftools/tree/master/isofox) were

imported using R and overlapped with the fusion events detected in the DNA sequencing.

Somatic Driver Genes Analysis

We utilized the dN/dS model (192 Poisson rate parameters; under the full trinucleotide model)

to identify genes undergoing mutational selection in the ccRCC patients with the R package

dndscv [72] (v0.0.1.0). Both the substitution model and InDel model were used and were corrected

for sequence composition, gene length and mutational signatures. These models test the ratio

between nonsynonymous (missense, nonsense and essential splice site) and background

(synonymous) mutations. To identify genes that drive selection, a *q*-value < 0.05 (both including

and excluding the InDel model) was used.

Mutational signatures analysis

Mutational signatures analysis was performed using the MutationalPatterns R package (v3.2.0)[73].

The mutational signatures based on single base substitutions (*N* = 90 v3 signatures) were

downloaded from COSMIC [74]. SNVs were categorized according to their respective trinucleotide

context (GRCh37) into a mutational spectrum matrix M_{ij} (where *i* represents 1:96 trinucleotide

contexts and *j* represents the number of 1:91 samples) and subsequently, a constrained linear

combination of the ninety mutational signatures was constructed per sample using non-negative

least squares regression implemented in the R package pracma (v2.2.9). Mutational signatures

were bootstrapped (*N* = 100) with MutationalPatterns and argument 'method' set to "strict" to

assess calling stability. Signature contribution for each sample was determined per 100

samplings, per signature.

Chromothripsis

Chromothripsis (CT), also known as chromosomal shattering, followed by seemingly random re-

ligation, was detected using Shatterseek [75] (v0.4) with default settings. The following definition

of CT was employed: (1) ≥25 intrachromosomal SVs involved in the event; (2) ≥7 oscillating CN

segments (2 CN states) or ≥14 oscillating CN segments (3 CN states); (3) CT event involving ≥20

Mb; (4) satisfying the test of equal distribution of SV types (p-value > 0.05); and (5) satisfying the

test of nonrandom SV distribution within the cluster region or chromosome (p-value ≤ 0.05).

Actionable targets

iClusion (https://iclusion.com) data, which connects specific or gene-level aberrations to clinical

cancer studies, were provided by HMF. This integrates clinical interpretations from Precision

Oncology Knowledge Base (OncoKB) [76], Clinical Interpretation of Variants in Cancer (CIViC) [77] and

Cancer Genome Interpreter (CGI) [78]. All targets and biomarkers were overlapped with filtered

molecular data to verify presence. Targets marked as "gene-level" were generalized for other

variation in those genes, not listed in the iClusion data. The identified targets were assessed and

manually categorized in the following three categories: on-label drugs for RCC, off-label available,

investigational drugs. Drugs were considered on-label when approval was given for any subtype

of RCC in the Netherlands. Whether drugs were on- or off-label available in the Netherlands is

defined by the Dutch Medicines Evaluation Board ("College ter Beoordeling van

Geneesmiddelen") [79]. This evaluation board takes previous approvals by the U.S. Food and Drug

Administration (FDA) and/or European Medicines Agency (EMA) in consideration.

Germline analysis

Known pathogenic germline variants (GRCh37) related to cancer and/or Von Hippel-Lindau

syndrome were retrieved from ClinVar [80] that were less than 51 bp long, with a review status of

"practice guideline", "expert panel", "multiple submitters" or "at least one star". These ClinVar

variants were used as filter for the import of germline variants from VCF files of our cohort.

Variants with at least 2 reads and passing variant caller quality control were included.

Furthermore, variants that were annotated with "high" impact, in genes with known germline

variation in RCC (*FH*, *SDHA*, *SDHB*, *SDHC*, *SDHD*, *TCEB1*, *FLCN*, *CHEK2*) were included.

RNA sequencing

RNA was isolated from biopsy using the QIAsymphony RNA Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) for

tissue and quantified on the Qubit. Between 50 and 100 ng of RNA was used as input for the

KAPA RNA HyperPrep Kit with RiboErase (Human/Mouse/Rat) library preparation (Roche) on an

automated liquid handling platform (Beckman Coulter). RNA was fragmented (high temperature

in the presence of magnesium) to a target length of 300 bp. Barcoded libraries were sequenced

as pools on either a NextSeq 500 (V2.5 reagents) generating 2 x 75 base read pairs or on a

NovaSeq 6000 generating 2 x 150 base read pairs using standard settings (Illumina, San Diego,

CA, USA). BCL output from the sequencing platform was converted to FASTQ using Illumina's

bcl2fastq tool (versions 2.17 to 2.20) using default parameters. RNA-Seq data was aligned using

STAR [81] to GRCh37 resulting in unsorted BAMs including chimeric reads as output. Gene and

transcript counts were generated and used for subsequent fusion detection using Isofox

(https://github.com/hartwigmedical/hmftools/tree/master/isofox).

RNA sequencing analyses

Raw read counts were imported in R and filtered on protein coding genes based on Ensembl GTF

file [82] (Homo sapiens GRCh37, version 87). *t*-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (*t*-SNE)

was performed on variance stabilized read counts (generated by DESeq2

varianceStabilizingTransformation) of all protein coding genes. Differential expression analysis

between ccRCC and pRCC was performed on raw read counts using DESeq2 [83] and the Wald-test.

Statistical significant results with Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted *p*-value < 0.05 were further

filtered to base mean > 100 counts and absolute $\log_2$ fold change ≥ 1. The heatmap with the top

most significantly differentially expressed genes (based on lowest adjusted *p*-value) was made

using variance stabilized read counts and euclidean distances on scaled data. Gene signature

heatmap was produced with centered Z-Scores with Euclidean distances. Gene set enrichment

analyses were performed using fgsea [84] (Monte Carlo approach with Adaptive Multilevel Splitting)

with MSigDB [85] Hallmarks and Reactome pathways [51] as gene sets. Reproduction of the D'Costa

et al. gene signature [25] was done using 65 of 66 original genes, since *PECAM1* was on a genome

patch not included in the RNA-Seq mapping supplied by HMF. Heatmaps were produced using

pheatmap with Ward.D clustering.

Data and material availability

Data was provided by HMF, which were used under data request number DR-088 for the current

study. Both WGS, RNA-Seq and clinical data are freely available for academic use from the HMF

through standardized procedures and request forms can be found at

https://www.hartwigmedicalfoundation.nl. All tools and scripts used for processing of the WGS

data are available at https://github.com/hartwigmedical/ and/or can be provided by authors

upon request.

Tables

Table 1. Overview of patients' characteristics

	Frequency	Percentage
Sex		
Male	**72**	**79%**
Female	**19**	**21%**
Median age 65 years [range 40-83]	---------	---------
Histological subtype		
Clear cell RCC (ccRCC)	**72**	**79%**
Non-clear cell RCC (nccRCC)	**12**	**13%**
Papillary RCC (pRCC)	9	75%
Chromophobe RCC (chRCC)	1	8%
Collecting duct carcinoma (CDC)	1	8%
Tubulocystic RCC (tRCC)	1	8%
Undefined subtype	**7**	**8%**
Prior treatment (n=number of lines)		
No	**71**	**78%**
Yes (1)	**10**	**11%**
Yes (≥2)	**10**	**11%**
Treatment after biopsy (N = 84)		
Tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs)	**61**	**73%**
Pazopanib	36	59%
Sunitinib	23	38%
Cabozantinib	1	1.6%
Lenvatinib	1	1.6%
Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs)	**19**	**23%**
Nivolumab monotherapy	13	68%
Nivolumab + ipilimumab	6	32%
Combination treatment	**4**	**5%**
Avelumab + axitinib	4	100%

 Figure legends

Figure 1 Overview of sample selection and biopsy sites

1A illustrates the selection of samples for both the WGS (*N* = 91) and matched RNA-Seq (*N* = 28)

analyses. In **1B**, the main biopsy sites are shown. Next to the illustrated biopsy sites, other biopsy

sites (*N* = 20) include for instance biopsies from subcutaneous tissue. **1B** was created with

biorender.

Figure 2 Overview of genomic characteristics of whole-genome sequenced advanced RCC

cohort (*N* = 91)

Track **A** shows the tumor mutational burden (mutations per Mb; yellow for low (0-5), orange for

medium (5-10) and red for high (> 10)). Track **B** shows the mean genome-wide ploidy, with white

representing diploidy. Tracks **C** and **D** illustrate the abundance of structural variants and the

relative frequency of the types of these variants. Tracks **E** and **F** show the relative mutational

signature contribution (COSMIC signatures v3) and the relative frequency of mutational changes

at base level. Track **G** shows the presence of chromothripsis. Track **H** shows whether patients

were treatment naive at time of biopsy. Tracks **I** and **J** indicate the first treatment given after

biopsy (if any) and the first tumor response according to RECIST v1.1, respectively. On the x-axis

the figure is arranged in descending order by tumor mutational burden per RCC subtype. ccRCC

= clear cell renal cell carcinoma. pRCC = papillary renal cell carcinoma. Undefined subtype = renal

cell carcinoma, with undefined subtype. chRCC = chromophobe renal cell carcinoma. CDC =

collecting duct carcinoma. tRCC = tubulocystic renal cell carcinoma. NA = not available.

Figure 3 Overview of coding mutations and copy-number alterations in driver genes in whole-

genome sequenced advanced renal cell carcinoma cohort (*N* = 91)

The oncoplot in track **A** shows mutations (filled center) and copy-number alterations (grid cell

background) of driver genes determined by dN/dS and GISTIC2.0. Track **B** also shows an oncoplot,

but on selected genes, not passing any statistical threshold. Germline pathogenic mutations are

indicated with a capital letter 'G' (and red border), utilizing the same color coding as the somatic

mutations. Consequential fusion genes are indicated in yellow, with a red border. Track **C** shows

the tumor mutational burden (mutations per Mb; yellow for low (0-5), orange for medium (5-10)

and red for high (> 10)). Tracks **D**, **E** and **F** show whether patients were treatment naive at time of
biopsy, if systemic treatment was given after time of biopsy, and the first tumor response after
systemic treatment according to RECIST v1.1, respectively. Bold sample names with asterisks
indicate MiT family translocation RCC. Figure is arranged in descending order by tumor mutational
burden per RCC subtype on the x-axis.

Figure 4 Overview of DNA-based biomarkers and potential treatment options in the whole-
genome sequenced advanced renal cell carcinoma cohort (_N_ = 91)
Track **A** Percentage of potential available treatment options based on genomic characteristics.
Treatment options are categorized according to the highest level of drug availability in clinical
practice (on label available – off label available – investigational drugs). Track **B** Potentially
actionable alterations at gene-level with each column representing a sample, ordered
descendingly by tumor mutational burden per subtype on the x-axis. Detailed description of
actionable targets can be found in Supplementary Data file 1.

Figure 5 RNA sequencing cohort and differential expression analysis between clear cell renal
cell carcinoma (ccRCC) and papillary RCC (pRCC) with classification according to gene
signatures[25]
Track **A** shows a heatmap of Z-scores of variance stabilized values with unsupervised clustering of
the top 100 transcripts based on smallest adjusted _p_-value and colored according to Z-scores.
Tracks **B** shows gene set enrichments based on sets (y-axis) from the molecular signatures
database hallmarks and Reactome pathways, with the normalized enrichment score (NES) on the
x-axis. Bar charts are visualized with ccRCC taken as reference (_N_ = 24) (positive NES equals
expression up in ccRCC and down in pRCC (_N_ = 4)). Track **C** shows unsupervised clustering on the
rows (patients) with color coding indicating the RCC subtype (purple for ccRCC and pink for pRCC)
and colored according to Z-scores. The x-axis has been cut into several gene groups related to
angiogenesis, invasion, Ca^{2+}flux and T-effector cells, as defined by D'Costa _et al_. [25] and by their
stated order.

550
551

Acknowledgements

This publication and the underlying study have been made possible partly on the basis of the data that Hartwig Medical Foundation and the Center of Personalized Cancer Treatment (CPCT) have made available to the study. Furthermore, we would like to thank the nationwide network and registry of histo- and cytopathology in the Netherlands (PALGA) for their assistance on retrieving and storing the pathological records of the included patients with RCC. Figure 1 was created with BioRender (https://biorender.com/).

Author contributions

K.J., W.S.G., H.J.G.W. and A.A.M.V. wrote the manuscript which all authors have reviewed critically. W.S.G. and H.J.G.W. performed the bioinformatical analyses. K.J. and A.A.M.V. assessed the clinical data. G.J.L.H.L. reviewed and assessed the histopathological data. P.H., H.M.W., A.B., S.F.O, J.M.R., L.V.B., M.L. and R.H.J.M. are clinical contributors. M.P.L. and S.S. participated in the board of the CPCT-02 study. E.C. coordinated the sequencing of samples and contributed to the bioinformatical analyses.

Conflicts of interest

P.H. declares consultancy roles for Astellas, MSD, Ipsen, Pfizer, AstraZeneca, and Bristol-Myers Squibb, all outside the submitted work; H.M.W. declares honoraria from Roche and Astellas and travel expenses from Ipsen and Astellas, all outside the submitted work; S.F.O declares research grants from Novartis, Pfizer and Celldex Therapeutics and advisory board for Bristol Myers Squibb (all paid to the institution); M.L. declares speakers fee of BMS and advisory board of MSD, both paid to institution; R.H.J.M. declares speakers fee from Novartis and advisory role for Servier, patency from Pamgene, and investigator-initiated research (paid to institution) from Astellas, Bayer, Boehringer-Ingelheim, Cristal Therapeutics, Pamgene, Pfizer, Novartis, Roche, Sanofi, Servier, all outside the submitted work; M.P.L. declares advisory board for Amgen, Astellas, Astra Zeneca, Bayer, INCa, Janssen Cilag BV, MSD, Novartis, Pfizer, Roche, Sanofi, Servier, consulting role for Julius Clinical and Research Grants (paid to institution) from Astellas, Janssen, MSD, Sanofi, all outside the submitted work; H.J.G.W. declares speakers honoraria from Bayer,

Depository receipts for shares from Cergentis B.V. all outside the submitted work; A.A.M.V.

reports advisory board (all paid to institution) of BMS, MSD, Merck, Pfizer, Ipsen, Eisai, Pierre

Fabre, Roche, Novartis, Sanofi, all outside the submitted work. All other authors declare no

competing interests.

References

1. Moch, H., Cubilla, A.L., Humphrey, P.A., Reuter, V.E. & Ulbright, T.M. The 2016 WHO
Classification of Tumours of the Urinary System and Male Genital Organs-Part A: Renal, Penile,
and Testicular Tumours. *Eur Urol* **70**, 93-105 (2016).
2. Cancer Genome Atlas Research, N. *et al.* Comprehensive Molecular Characterization of Papillary
Renal-Cell Carcinoma. *N Engl J Med* **374**, 135-45 (2016).
3. Padala, S.A. *et al.* Epidemiology of Renal Cell Carcinoma. *World J Oncol* **11**, 79-87 (2020).
4. Cancer Genome Atlas Research, N. Comprehensive molecular characterization of clear cell renal
cell carcinoma. *Nature* **499**, 43-9 (2013).
5. Mitchell, T.J. *et al.* Timing the Landmark Events in the Evolution of Clear Cell Renal Cell Cancer:
TRACERx Renal. *Cell* **173**, 611-623 e17 (2018).
6. Motzer, R.J. *et al.* Sunitinib versus interferon alfa in metastatic renal-cell carcinoma. *N Engl J*
Med **356**, 115-24 (2007).
7. Mendez-Vidal, M.J. *et al.* Pazopanib: Evidence review and clinical practice in the management of
advanced renal cell carcinoma. *BMC Pharmacol Toxicol* **19**, 77 (2018).
8. Motzer, R.J. *et al.* Nivolumab versus Everolimus in Advanced Renal-Cell Carcinoma. *N Engl J Med*
373, 1803-13 (2015).
9. Motzer, R.J. *et al.* Nivolumab plus ipilimumab versus sunitinib in first-line treatment for
advanced renal cell carcinoma: extended follow-up of efficacy and safety results from a
randomised, controlled, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol* (2019).
10. Motzer, R.J. *et al.* Efficacy of everolimus in advanced renal cell carcinoma: a double-blind,
randomised, placebo-controlled phase III trial. *Lancet* **372**, 449-56 (2008).
11. Powles, T. *et al.* Pembrolizumab plus axitinib versus sunitinib monotherapy as first-line
treatment of advanced renal cell carcinoma (KEYNOTE-426): extended follow-up from a
randomised, open-label, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol* **21**, 1563-1573 (2020).
12. Choueiri, T.K. *et al.* Updated efficacy results from the JAVELIN Renal 101 trial: first-line avelumab
plus axitinib versus sunitinib in patients with advanced renal cell carcinoma. *Ann Oncol* **31**, 1030-
1039 (2020).
13. Rini, B.I. *et al.* Atezolizumab plus bevacizumab versus sunitinib in patients with previously
untreated metastatic renal cell carcinoma (IMmotion151): a multicentre, open-label, phase 3,
randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* **393**, 2404-2415 (2019).
14. Flippot, R., Escudier, B. & Albiges, L. Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors: Toward New Paradigms in
Renal Cell Carcinoma. *Drugs* **78**, 1443-1457 (2018).
15. Heng, D.Y. *et al.* External validation and comparison with other models of the International
Metastatic Renal-Cell Carcinoma Database Consortium prognostic model: a population-based
study. *Lancet Oncol* **14**, 141-8 (2013).
16. Guida, A. *et al.* Identification of international metastatic renal cell carcinoma database
consortium (IMDC) intermediate-risk subgroups in patients with metastatic clear-cell renal cell
carcinoma. *Oncotarget* **11**, 4582-4592 (2020).
17. Vano, Y.A. *et al.* First-Line Treatment of Metastatic Clear Cell Renal Cell Carcinoma: What Are
the Most Appropriate Combination Therapies? *Cancers (Basel)* **13**(2021).
18. Truong, L.D. & Shen, S.S. Immunohistochemical diagnosis of renal neoplasms. *Arch Pathol Lab*
Med **135**, 92-109 (2011).
19. Hong, B. *et al.* The Clinicopathological Features and Prognosis in Patients With Papillary Renal
Cell Carcinoma: A Multicenter Retrospective Study in Chinese Population. *Front Oncol* **11**,
753690 (2021).

20. Sepe, P. *et al.* Characteristics and Treatment Challenges of Non-Clear Cell Renal Cell Carcinoma.
Cancers (Basel) **13**(2021).
21. Powles, T. *et al.* ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline update on the use of immunotherapy in early
stage and advanced renal cell carcinoma. *Annals of Oncology* **32**, 1511-1519 (2021).
22. Osterman, C.K. & Rose, T.L. A Systematic Review of Systemic Treatment Options for Advanced
Non-Clear Cell Renal Cell Carcinoma. *Kidney Cancer* **4**, 15-27 (2020).
23. Turajlic, S. *et al.* Tracking Cancer Evolution Reveals Constrained Routes to Metastases: TRACERx
Renal. *Cell* **173**, 581-594 e12 (2018).
24. Ricketts, C.J. *et al.* The Cancer Genome Atlas Comprehensive Molecular Characterization of
Renal Cell Carcinoma. *Cell Rep* **23**, 313-326 e5 (2018).
25. D'Costa, N.M. *et al.* Identification of gene signature for treatment response to guide precision
oncology in clear-cell renal cell carcinoma. *Sci Rep* **10**, 2026 (2020).
26. Eisenhauer, E.A. *et al.* New response evaluation criteria in solid tumours: revised RECIST
guideline (version 1.1). *Eur J Cancer* **45**, 228-47 (2009).
27. Priestley, P. *et al.* Pan-cancer whole-genome analyses of metastatic solid tumours. *Nature* **575**,
210-216 (2019).
28. Alexandrov, L.B. *et al.* Signatures of mutational processes in human cancer. *Nature* **500**, 415-21
(2013).
29. Abou-Rebyeh, H., Borgmann, V., Nagel, R. & Al-Abadi, H. DNA ploidy is a valuable predictor for
prognosis of patients with resected renal cell carcinoma. *Cancer* **92**, 2280-5 (2001).
30. Ortiz, B., White, J.R., Wu, W.H. & Chan, T.A. Deletion of Ptprd and Cdkn2a cooperate to
accelerate tumorigenesis. *Oncotarget* **5**, 6976-82 (2014).
31. Du, Y. *et al.* Polymorphism in protein tyrosine phosphatase receptor delta is associated with the
risk of clear cell renal cell carcinoma. *Gene* **512**, 64-9 (2013).
32. Tadesse, S., Yu, M., Kumarasiri, M., Le, B.T. & Wang, S. Targeting CDK6 in cancer: State of the art
and new insights. *Cell Cycle* **14**, 3220-30 (2015).
33. Li, Y., Shen, Y., Zhu, Z., Wen, H. & Feng, C. Comprehensive analysis of copy number variance and
sensitivity to common targeted therapy in clear cell renal cell carcinoma: In silico analysis with in
vitro validation. *Cancer Med* **9**, 6020-6029 (2020).
34. Braun, D.A. *et al.* Interplay of somatic alterations and immune infiltration modulates response to
PD-1 blockade in advanced clear cell renal cell carcinoma. *Nat Med* **26**, 909-918 (2020).
35. Turajlic, S., Larkin, J. & Swanton, C. SnapShot: Renal Cell Carcinoma. *Cell* **163**, 1556-1556 e1
(2015).
36. Jang, Y.E. *et al.* ChimerDB 4.0: an updated and expanded database of fusion genes. *Nucleic Acids
Research* **48**, D817-D824 (2019).
37. Beroukhim, R. *et al.* Patterns of gene expression and copy-number alterations in von-hippel
lindau disease-associated and sporadic clear cell carcinoma of the kidney. *Cancer Res* **69**, 4674-
81 (2009).
38. Du, Z. *et al.* Structure-function analysis of oncogenic EGFR Kinase Domain Duplication reveals
insights into activation and a potential approach for therapeutic targeting. *Nat Commun* **12**,
1382 (2021).
39. Ho, G.F. *et al.* Real-world experience of first-line afatinib in patients with EGFR-mutant advanced
NSCLC: a multicenter observational study. *BMC Cancer* **19**, 896 (2019).
40. Braal, C.L. *et al.* Inhibiting CDK4/6 in Breast Cancer with Palbociclib, Ribociclib, and Abemaciclib:
Similarities and Differences. *Drugs* **81**, 317-331 (2021).
41. van der Velden, D.L. *et al.* The Drug Rediscovery protocol facilitates the expanded use of existing
anticancer drugs. *Nature* **574**, 127-131 (2019).

42. Zhu, G. *et al.* Mutant p53 in Cancer Progression and Targeted Therapies. *Front Oncol* **10**, 595187
(2020).
43. Alonso-Gordoa, T. *et al.* Targeting Tyrosine kinases in Renal Cell Carcinoma: "New Bullets against
Old Guys". *Int J Mol Sci* **20**(2019).
44. Lin, S. *et al.* Comprehensive analysis on the expression levels and prognostic values of LOX
family genes in kidney renal clear cell carcinoma. *Cancer Med* **9**, 8624-8638 (2020).
45. Oh, E. *et al.* Genome-Wide Transcriptomic Analysis of Non-Tumorigenic Tissues Reveals Aging-
Related Prognostic Markers and Drug Targets in Renal Cell Carcinoma. *Cancers (Basel)* **13**(2021).
46. Rimkus, T., Sirkisoon, S., Harrison, A. & Lo, H.W. Tumor suppressor candidate 2 (TUSC2, FUS-1)
and human cancers. *Discov Med* **23**, 325-330 (2017).
47. Pan, X.Q., Huang, W., Jin, L.W., Lin, H.Z. & Xu, X.Y. A Novel Pyroptosis-Related Prognostic
Signature for Risk Stratification and Clinical Prognosis in Clear Cell Renal Cell Carcinoma. *Dis*
Markers **2022**, 8093837 (2022).
48. Wang, P., Wang, F., Wang, L. & Pan, J. Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 6 activates the
extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 and Wnt family member 3A pathways and promotes in
vitro proliferation, migration and invasion of breast cancer MDA-MB-231 cells. *Oncol Lett* **16**,
145-150 (2018).
49. Han, J. *et al.* MMP11 and CD2 as novel prognostic factors in hormone receptor-negative, HER2-
positive breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* **164**, 41-56 (2017).
50. Ding, X.F., Zhou, J., Hu, Q.Y., Liu, S.C. & Chen, G. The tumor suppressor pVHL down-regulates
never-in-mitosis A-related kinase 8 via hypoxia-inducible factors to maintain cilia in human renal
cancer cells. *J Biol Chem* **290**, 1389-94 (2015).
51. Jassal, B. *et al.* The reactome pathway knowledgebase. *Nucleic Acids Res* **48**, D498-D503 (2020).
52. Wuttig, D. *et al.* CD31, EDNRB and TSPAN7 are promising prognostic markers in clear-cell renal
cell carcinoma revealed by genome-wide expression analyses of primary tumors and
metastases. *Int J Cancer* **131**, E693-704 (2012).
53. Carlo, M.I. *et al.* Prevalence of Germline Mutations in Cancer Susceptibility Genes in Patients
With Advanced Renal Cell Carcinoma. *JAMA Oncol* **4**, 1228-1235 (2018).
54. van Riet, J. *et al.* The genomic landscape of 85 advanced neuroendocrine neoplasms reveals
subtype-heterogeneity and potential therapeutic targets. *Nat Commun* **12**, 4612 (2021).
55. Angus, L. *et al.* The genomic landscape of metastatic breast cancer highlights changes in
mutation and signature frequencies. *Nat Genet* **51**, 1450-1458 (2019).
56. Motzer, R.J. *et al.* Nivolumab plus Ipilimumab versus Sunitinib in Advanced Renal-Cell
Carcinoma. *N Engl J Med* **378**, 1277-1290 (2018).
57. Motzer, R.J. *et al.* Survival outcomes and independent response assessment with nivolumab plus
ipilimumab versus sunitinib in patients with advanced renal cell carcinoma: 42-month follow-up
of a randomized phase 3 clinical trial. *J Immunother Cancer* **8**(2020).
58. Motzer, R.J. *et al.* Final Overall Survival and Molecular Analysis in IMmotion151, a Phase 3 Trial
Comparing Atezolizumab Plus Bevacizumab vs Sunitinib in Patients With Previously Untreated
Metastatic Renal Cell Carcinoma. *JAMA Oncol* (2021).
59. Epaillard, N. *et al.* BIONIKK: A phase 2 biomarker driven trial with nivolumab and ipilimumab or
VEGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI) in naive metastatic kidney cancer. *Bull Cancer* **107**, eS22-
eS27 (2020).
60. Choueiri, T.K. & Kaelin, W.G., Jr. Targeting the HIF2-VEGF axis in renal cell carcinoma. *Nat Med*
26, 1519-1530 (2020).
61. van der Veldt, A.A. *et al.* Sunitinib for treatment of advanced renal cell cancer: primary tumor
response. *Clin Cancer Res* **14**, 2431-6 (2008).

62.   Jonasch, E. *et al.* Belzutifan for Renal Cell Carcinoma in von Hippel-Lindau Disease. *N Engl J Med*
385, 2036-2046 (2021).
63.   Nyk, L. *et al.* Interobserver Variability in Assessment of Renal Mass Biopsies. *Urol J* **18**, 400-403
(2020).
64.   Haas, M. Donor kidney biopsies: pathology matters, and so does the pathologist. *Kidney Int* **85**,
1016-9 (2014).
65.   Osunkoya, A.O., Young, A.N., Wang, W., Netto, G.J. & Epstein, J.I. Comparison of gene
expression profiles in tubulocystic carcinoma and collecting duct carcinoma of the kidney. *Am J*
Surg Pathol **33**, 1103-6 (2009).
66.   Casparie, M. *et al.* Pathology databanking and biobanking in The Netherlands, a central role for
PALGA, the nationwide histopathology and cytopathology data network and archive. *Cell Oncol*
29, 19-24 (2007).
67.   Vasimuddin, M., Misra, S., Li, H. & Aluru, S. Efficient Architecture-Aware Acceleration of BWA-
MEM for Multicore Systems,. *2019 IEEE International Parallel and Distributed Processing*
Symposium (IPDPS) 314-324 (2019).

68.   Cameron, D.L. *et al.* GRIDSS, PURPLE, LINX: Unscrambling the tumor genome via integrated
analysis of structural variation and copy number. *bioRxiv*, 781013 (2019).
69.   Karczewski, K.J. *et al.* The mutational constraint spectrum quantified from variation in 141,456
humans. *Nature* **581**, 434-443 (2020).
70.   McLaren, W. *et al.* The Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor. *Genome Biology* **17**, 122 (2016).
71.   Mermel, C.H. *et al.* GISTIC2.0 facilitates sensitive and confident localization of the targets of
focal somatic copy-number alteration in human cancers. *Genome Biology* **12**, R41 (2011).
72.   Martincorena, I. *et al.* Universal Patterns of Selection in Cancer and Somatic Tissues. *Cell* **171**,
1029-1041 e21 (2017).
73.   Blokzijl, F., Janssen, R., van Boxtel, R. & Cuppen, E. MutationalPatterns: comprehensive genome-
wide analysis of mutational processes. *Genome Medicine* **10**, 33 (2018).
74.   Alexandrov, L.B. *et al.* The repertoire of mutational signatures in human cancer. *Nature* **578**, 94-
101 (2020).
75.   Cortés-Ciriano, I. *et al.* Comprehensive analysis of chromothripsis in 2,658 human cancers using
whole-genome sequencing. *Nature Genetics* **52**, 331-341 (2020).
76.   Debyani, C. *et al.* OncoKB: A Precision Oncology Knowledge Base. *JCO Precision Oncology*, 1-16
(2017).
77.   Griffith, M. *et al.* CIViC is a community knowledgebase for expert crowdsourcing the clinical
interpretation of variants in cancer. *Nature Genetics* **49**, 170-174 (2017).
78.   Tamborero, D. *et al.* Cancer Genome Interpreter annotates the biological and clinical relevance
of tumor alterations. *Genome Medicine* **10**, 25 (2018).
79.   College ter Beoordeling van Geneesmiddelen. https://www.cbg-meb.nl/.
80.   Landrum, M.J. *et al.* ClinVar: improvements to accessing data. *Nucleic Acids Research* **48**, D835-
D844 (2019).
81.   Dobin, A. *et al.* STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. *Bioinformatics* **29**, 15-21 (2012).
82.   Yates, A.D. *et al.* Ensembl 2020. *Nucleic Acids Research* **48**, D682-D688 (2019).
83.   Love, M.I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-
seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biology* **15**, 550 (2014).
84.   Korotkevich, G. *et al.* Fast gene set enrichment analysis. *bioRxiv*, 060012 (2021).
85.   Liberzon, A. *et al.* The Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) hallmark gene set collection. *Cell*
Syst **1**, 417-425 (2015).

N = 103 WGS data of 101 patients made available

Double biopsies
For 2 patients >1 biopsy was sequenced, double biopsies were excluded from analysis

N = 101 samples

No informed consent
One patient excluded: informed consent was withdrawn

N = 100 samples

Histopathologically confirmation

9 patients excluded
- 6 patients: no pathology report available
- 3 patients: RCC diagnosis not confirmed

N = 91
WGS data from 91 patients with histopathologically confirmed RCC available

N = 72 patients
Clear cell RCC

N = 12 patients
Non-clear cell RCC

N = 7 patients
Subtype undefined

N = 9 patients
Papillary RCC

N = 1 patient
Chromophobe RCC

N = 1 patient
Tubulocystic RCC

N = 1 patient
Collecting duct carcnoma

N = 24 patients
RNA Seq data available

N = 4 patients
RNA Seq data available

Lung (+ pleura) N=7

Liver N=11

Lymph node N=14

Other N=20

Kidney N=24

Bone N =15

Figure 3

Actionable targets
iClusion Data