1   **Title Page**

2   Subclonal somatic copy number alterations emerge and dominate in recurrent osteosarcoma
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Abstract

Multiple large-scale tumor genomic profiling efforts have been undertaken in osteosarcoma,

however, little is known about the spatial and temporal intratumor heterogeneity and how it may

drive treatment resistance. We performed whole-genome sequencing of 37 tumor samples from

eight patients with relapsed or refractory osteosarcoma. Each patient had at least one sample

from a primary site and a metastatic or relapse site. We identified subclonal copy number

alterations in all but one patient. We observed that in five patients, a subclonal copy number

clone from the primary tumor emerged and dominated at subsequent relapses. *MYC*

gain/amplification was enriched in the treatment-resistant clone in 6 out of 7 patients with more

than one clone. Amplifications in other potential driver genes, such as *CCNE1*, *RAD21*, *VEGFA*,

and *IGF1R*, were also observed in the resistant copy number clones. Our study sheds light on

intratumor heterogeneity and the potential drivers of treatment resistance in osteosarcoma.

Significance

Subclonal copy number clones emerged and dominated in relapsed osteosarcoma, with *MYC*

gain/amplification being the defining characteristic in our cohort. Selective pressure from

neoadjuvant chemotherapy revealed this clone at the time of primary resection, highlighting that

genomic profiling at this time may identify clones that are selected for, or determine innate

resistance to primary chemotherapy.

Introduction

Osteosarcoma is an aggressive bone tumor which primarily affects children and young adults. Patients who present with metastatic disease at diagnosis have a poor overall prognosis and those with an inferior response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy have a high risk for recurrence[1–3]. Multiple large-scale tumor genomic profiling efforts have been undertaken to describe the genomic underpinnings and identify new potential therapeutic targets for osteosarcoma[4–9]. These studies revealed that osteosarcoma, typically characterized by a high degree of chromosomal instability, has a large number of chromosomal deletions, translocations, and amplifications. The common alterations present in osteosarcoma primarily involve tumor suppressor genes (e.g., *TP53*, *RB1*, *PTEN*), whereas targetable activating mutations are rare, making it challenging to link the mutational genotype to a broadly applicable treatment strategy[10,11]. However, recent studies have suggested that targeting focal gene amplifications in consensus driver genes may be an effective strategy for identifying precision-based therapies[4,12].

Recent genomic studies in osteosarcoma have suggested that metastatic clones do not correspond to the dominant clones present in the primary tumor,[13] and osteosarcoma may evolve via parallel evolution,[14] with evidence for both monoclonal[15] and polyclonal synchronous seeding of metastases[13,14]. Copy number alterations in consensus driver genes, such as *MYC* and *CDK4* were found to be likely early events[15]. Cisplatin-induced mutagenesis has also been highlighted as a potential driver of treatment resistance in recurrent osteosarcoma[15]. Despite these initial insights into the clonal heterogeneity of osteosarcoma, the extent to which neoadjuvant chemotherapy affects clonal selection in patients with a poor response to chemotherapy and the degree to which copy number alterations evolve from diagnosis to relapse remains unclear.

154   To address these open questions about clonal selection and heterogeneity in

155 osteosarcoma, we performed whole-genome sequencing of 37 spatially and temporally separated

156 tumor samples from eight patients with osteosarcoma who had a poor response to neoadjuvant

157 chemotherapy (<90% necrosis). We describe spatial intermetastatic heterogeneity and temporal

158 clonal evolutionary processes, with a focus on identifying and tracking unique copy number

159 clones from diagnosis through relapse.

Results

Analysis of Single Nucleotide Variants reveal limited driver gene heterogeneity in temporally and spatially distinct osteosarcoma sample

To analyze clonal evolution and intratumoral heterogeneity in osteosarcoma, we performed whole-genome sequencing (WGS) of tumor tissues from multiple spatially and temporally distinct samples from eight individuals with relapsed/refractory osteosarcoma. DNA was extracted from 84 samples collected from 10 patients. After initial quality control, we sequenced 62 unique tumor samples from eight patients with WGS to a target depth of 80x (Supplementary Fig. 1). Of these eight patients, four had localized disease at diagnosis (OSCE4, OSCE5, OSCE6, OSCE9) and four had metastatic disease at diagnosis (OSCE1, OSCE2, OSCE3, OSCE10) (Fig. 1A), and the age at diagnosis was 11-27 years (four girls and four boys, Fig. 1C). All patients were treated at the Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center and received methotrexate, cisplatin, and doxorubicin (MAP) chemotherapy (subsequent post-procedure treatment, Fig. 1A). Seven of the eight patients had a poor response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy (<90% necrosis at the time of primary resection, Fig. 1D), while OSCE5 had an upfront resection; therefore, the response to therapy could not be evaluated.

After sequencing was completed, we reviewed the quality of the sequencing data (purity, sequencing coverage) and determined that 37 of the 62 (59%) samples, similar to other studies[16], met our quality control requirements to proceed with further downstream analysis (Supplementary Fig. 1). Of these 37 samples, 17 came from primary sites, with seven of eight patients having a pretreatment sample, six of which were biopsies and one (OSCE5), which was a pretreatment primary resection (Fig. 1A/B). Of the seven patients who did not undergo an

Figure 1. Characteristics of the patients and samples included in the analysis cohort. **A,** Oncoprint of sample and patient level details for each patient. Samples from the same patient are connected by dots and lines on bottom of figure and are in chronological order of time obtained (earliest on left). Sample Name Key: Bx = biopsy, Rx = Resection, Sample Ending in 0 = metastatic site present at diagnosis, sample ending in a number >0 indicates number of relapses. L/R = laterality, d = distal, p=proximal, f=femur, t=tibia, cw=chest wall, H=heart, ul=upper lobe, ll=lower lobe, di=diaphragm, rp=retroperitoneal, l=lobe. **B,** Summary of the number of samples per timepoint for each patient, darker shades of blue represent higher number of samples at a respective time point. **C,** Age and sex assigned at birth for each patient, patient is on the x-axis, age is on the y-axis, and sex assigned at birth is plotted on the chart as blue for male and pink for female. **D,** Percent necrosis at time of primary resection for each patient (Note OSCE2/OSCE10 both have 45% necrosis). **E,** Patients are listed on the y-axis and are ordered from longest disease course at the top to shortest at the bottom of the figure. The light blue bars represent length of disease course in months. Events are marked as depicted in the legend with different shapes and colors and plotted along the disease course bar at the time in months that the event occurs.

upfront resection, all had at least one on-therapy resection sample, and one patient (OSCE10)

had multi-region sampling from the primary tumor (Fig. 1A/B). The other 20 samples came from

metastatic sites, 15 of which were from lung metastases, and 7 of the 20 were metastatic sites

that were present at diagnosis (Fig. 1A/B). Fresh frozen samples accounted for 15 of the 37

samples selected for downstream analysis, while the remaining 22 were formalin fixed paraffin

embedded (FFPE) samples (Fig. 1A). The median purity of fresh frozen samples was 0.75

compared to 0.46 of FFPE samples (Fig. 1A). All eight patients in this analysis had matched

normal blood samples sequenced at a target depth of 40x.

The clinical courses of OSCE2, OSCE3, and OSCE10 were defined as refractory disease

with progression on MAP (methotrexate, doxorubicin, cisplatin) chemotherapy and extremely

virulent disease courses, with time from diagnosis to death of 1.08, 1.3, and 1.75 years

respectively (Fig. 1E). OSCE1 and OSCE5 had long protracted relapsing and remitting disease

courses, with a time from diagnosis to death of seven and six years, respectively (Fig. 1E).

OSCE4 also had a relapsing and remitting disease course but is currently in remission eight years

after diagnosis (Fig. 1E). OSCE6 is alive 4.5 years after diagnosis but has had a recent

recurrence (Fig. 1E). OSCE9 is 4 years out from the initial metastatic recurrence (Fig. 1E).

After filtering and germline subtraction, whole-genome sequencing data identified

between 1684 and 16,215 single nucleotide variants (SNVs) per sample (Fig. 1A). Of these, there

were between 12 and 181 coding nonsynonymous SNVs per sample (median = 54,

Supplementary Fig. 2A). The average number of nonsynonymous SNVs in primary site samples

was 42, compared to 73 in metastatic or relapsed samples. SNVs were clustered across all

samples for each patient using the DeCiFer[17] algorithm, which determines the descendant cell

fraction (DCF) of all SNVs for a given cluster in each patient (analogous to the cancer cell

fraction but accounting for potential mutation losses[17]). Following previous approaches[17], SNVs

were categorized as clonal if they belonged to a cluster in a sample with a DCF ≥ 90%, and

subclonal if they belonged to a cluster with a DCF < 90%. The proportion of clonal SNVs ranged

from 35.7-100% across all samples (median = 68.2%), with relapse samples having the highest

proportion (median = 92.7%) of clonal SNVs compared with biopsy, resection, and metastatic

samples (median = 66.1%, 64.7%, and 63.6%, respectively) (Fig. 1A and Supplementary Fig.

1B). Likely functional driver gene SNVs[18] were identified in five of the eight patients, including

genes known to be frequently mutated in osteosarcoma, such as *TP53*, *ATRX*, *RB1*, and *CDKN2A*

(Fig. 1A)[5–9]. These driver genes were clonal (shared) across all samples for each patient, and no

new SNVs were likely functional drivers that were unique to any metastatic or recurrent samples

(Fig. 1A, Supplementary Fig. 3A).

SNVs were clustered across all samples for each patient using the DeCiFer[17] algorithm,

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with biopsy, resection, and metastatic samples (median = 66.1%, 64.7%, and 63.6%,

respectively) (Fig. 1A and Supplementary Fig. 1B).

Since there were no new SNVs in consensus driver genes unique to relapse or metastatic

samples, we next examined structural variations and copy number alterations. Structural variants

(SVs) in consensus driver genes were shared across all samples for each patient. *TP53* structural

variants involving intron 1 were observed in 5/8 patients (OSCE2, OSCE3, OSCE6, OSCE9, and

OSCE10; Fig. 1A). A *TP53* intron 2 inversion was observed in OSCE4 (Fig. 1A). There was a

TP53 SNV in OSCE1 and while there was no *TP53* SNV or SV found in OSCE5 (Fig. 1B), there

was amplification of *MDM2*, an important negative regulator of *TP53*. In OSCE1, there was a

deletion event in *RB1* and an inversion in *ATRX* in the pretreatment sample (RdtBx) that was not

seen in the primary resection or relapse samples (Fig. 1A). Disruptions in *DLG2*, a bone tumor

supressor gene[19], were observed in 4 patients (OSCE2, OSCE6, OSCE9, and OSCE10; Fig. 1A).

Deletion events in *DMD*, a gene that has been linked to aggressive behavior in human cancers,

and is believed to have a potential role as a tumor suppressor, were observed in the three

refractory cases (OSCE2, OSCE3, and OSCE9) and were present in all samples for OSCE2 and

OSCE3; however, they were only detected in the relapse sample in OSCE10 (Fig. 1A). OSCE9

was found to have a deletion event in *PTEN* and an in-frame fusion event in *ALK* (Fig. 1A).

Subclonal Somatic Copy Number Alterations Emerge and Dominate in Recurrent

Osteosarcoma

A high prevalence of somatic copy number alterations (CNAs) in osteosarcoma has been

reported previously[5–9]. Therefore, we used the HATCHet[20] algorithm to infer both allele and

clone-specific CNAs as well as their relative proportions across multiple samples from the same

patient. The average tumor ploidy for each sample ranged from 1.7 in OSCE10 to 3.15 in

OSCE3 (Supplementary Fig. 2B). HATCHet[20] identified subclonal CNAs in all but one patient

(OSCE2) and whole genome duplications present at diagnosis in three of the eight patients

(OSCE1, OSCE2, and OSCE9; Fig. 1A). Among the seven patients with subclonal CNAs, six

were identified as having two major copy number clones (Fig. 2A-E, Supplementary Fig. 4A),

and one patient (OSCE10) had three distinct copy number clones (Fig. 2F). In four of the seven

patients (OSCE1, OSCE4, OSCE6, and OSCE10), multiple distinct copy-number clones were

identified to be simultaneously present in the primary tumor (Fig. 2A, 2B, 2D, 2F), but only one

of these subclones emerged and dominated at subsequent relapses. In two of these patients

(OSCE1, OSCE6), the emergence of this clone was observed in the primary resection sample

when compared to the pretreatment biopsy for each patient (Fig. 2A, 2D). In OSCE5, a new copy

number clone emerged in the late relapse samples, which was not identified as being present in

the pretreatment sample (Fig. 2C). However, when combining the analysis of mutations and

CNAs (see Online Methods), the dominant SNV-based clone (which shared the dominant copy

number profile of the late emerging copy number clone) in the relapse samples was found to be

sub-clonal in the pretreatment sample, providing evidence that the dominant copy number clone

in the relapse sample for OSCE5 was present at diagnosis (Supplementary Fig. 5A). In OSCE10,

no subclonal copy number aberrations were identified in the pretreatment sample; however, a

subclonal copy number clone was detected in the primary resection sample that emerged and

dominated at relapse in this patient (Fig. 2F). In summary, we found that in most cases, a minor

subclone present in the primary tumor emerged and dominated in patients with relapsed disease.

In 2/3 refractory cases (OSCE2, OSCE3), there was no subclonal copy number clone that

was identified in the primary that emerged and dominated in metastatic or relapse samples. In

OSCE2, only a single major copy number clone was identified; in OSCE3, two copy number

clones were identified in the pretreatment sample, with the copy number subclone emerging and

dominating in one of the metastatic sites but in mixed proportion in the three other metastatic

sites. OSCE9 did not have a pretreatment sample for comparison but did show two copy number

clones in mixed proportions in the primary resection sample and the two relapse sites.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Subclonal copy number clones emerge at relapse. **A, B, C, D, E, and F,** For each

patient there is a panel of three figures. The figure on the left is an oncoprint featuring clone

specific copy number alterations in recurrently altered genes of interest in osteosarcoma. The top

figure is a plot of allele specific copy number alterations for each clone with significant events

for each clone circled and highlighted (note y-axis scales are unique for each patient). Clone 1 is

the magenta clone, clone 2 is the teal clone, and clone 3 in OSCE10 is the gray clone. The major

allele is plotted above 0 and the minor allele is plotted below 0. The bottom figure in each panel

is a TimeScape plot of the prevalence of each clone at different timepoints throughout a patient's

disease course. **G,** Combined genome-wide copy number alterations across all patients in the

cohort with recurrently altered genes highlighted.

301   Determinations regarding branched vs. parallel evolution (depicted in the TimeScape

302 plots in Fig. 2A-F, Supplementary Fig. 4A) for patients with ≥2 copy number clones were based

303 on a review of loss of heterozygosity (LOH) events in the dominant metastatic or recurrent copy

304 number clone, using the rationale and methods outlined by Watkins et al[21]. Branched evolution

305 with the emergence of the treatment resistant copy number clone from the dominant pretreatment

306 copy number clone (clone 2 emerging from clone 1) was observed in three patients (OSCE4,

307 OSCE9, and OSCE10). Parallel evolution, where the pretreatment and treatment resistant copy

308 number clones share the same parent clone (clone 1 and clone 2 share the same parent clone) but

309 evolve in parallel, was seen in four patients (OSCE1, OSCE3, OSCE5, OSCE6). LOH events

310 were common in tumor suppressor genes such as *TP53, RB1,* and *PTEN* and were mostly shared

311 between clones for each patient, with a median of 77.95% of LOH events shared between all

312 clones (range 18.9%-86.82%, Supplementary Fig. 4C).

314 **Copy number amplifications in recurrently altered oncogenes in osteosarcoma characterize**

315 **chemoresistant copy number clones**

316   Cohort-wide copy number alterations reflected what has been previously described in

317 osteosarcoma[4], with gains and amplifications seen in *VEGFA*, *MYC*, *FOXM1*, *CDK4*, *AKT1*,

318 *AURKB*, and *CCNE1*, and loss/deletion events in *PTEN*, *RB1*, and *TP53* (Fig. 2G). In contrast to

319 previously identified SNV drivers, the relative proportions of alterations across tumor cells

320 changed with time. Clones were classified as chemoresistant if they were present in the primary

321 site and became dominant at relapse, and chemosensitive if it was the dominant clone in the

322 primary site and became subclonal or eliminated in metastatic or relapse sites. When comparing

323 the genomic alterations between copy number clones for each patient, deletion or LOH events in

tumor suppressor driver genes were often clonal in patients found to have ≥ 2 copy number

clones (Fig. 2A-F, Supplementary Fig. 4A). In the 5 patients with clear emergence of a

chemoresistant copy number clone (clone 2 in OSCE1, OSCE4, OSCE5, OSCE6 and clone 3 in

OSCE10), the resistant clone had a higher degree of *MYC* gain or amplification then the

dominant chemosensitive clone at diagnosis (Fig. 2A-F, Supplementary Fig. 5B). In OSCE10,

high-level (log2 ≥ 2) MYC-amplified clone 3 emerged at the time of primary resection and

dominated at relapse (Fig. 2F). Notably, this treatment-resistant clone was present in 4/5 multi-

region samples from the primary resection, suggesting intratumoral heterogeneity regarding copy

number alterations depending on the site sampled. In addition to *MYC*, amplification of

CCNE1/*CCND3* (OSCE1, OSCE6; Fig. 2A/D), *KRAS* (OSCE2, OSCE4; Supplementary Fig. 4B,

Fig. 2B), *IGF1R* (OSCE6, Fig. 2D), *CDK4* (OSCE10, Fig. 2F), *VEGFA* (OSCE1, OSCE6,

OSCE9; Fig. 2A/D/E), and LOH at HLA (OSCE4, Fig. 2B and Supplementary Fig. 4D) uniquely

characterized treatment-resistant or metastatic copy number clones in this cohort.

Subclonal selection/emergence evident at the time of primary resection

Three patients within our cohort had a pretreatment sample on therapy resection, and at

least one relapse sample (OSCE1, OSCE6, OSCE10), which provided an opportunity to analyze

the effect of neoadjuvant chemotherapy on subclonal copy number selection at the time of

primary resection and whether this selection is reflective of the dominant clone at the time of

relapse. OSCE1 and OSCE6 share a similar pattern, where a copy number subclone present at

diagnosis emerges as the dominant clone at the time of primary resection and continues to

dominate at the first and subsequent relapses. Chemoresistant clone 2 was characterized by mid-

level (log2=1.5-1.99) *CCNE1* amplification in OSCE1 (Fig. 2A) and mid-level *IGF1R*

amplification in OSCE6 (Fig. 2D). A slightly different pattern emerged in the refractory case of

OSCE10, in which only a single copy number clone was present at diagnosis. The primary

resection sample underwent multi-region sequencing of five spatially separated sites, which

revealed the emergence of two new copy number clones, with clone 2 present in all five samples

and clone 3 in 4/5 samples. Clone 3 then became the dominant clone in the first relapse

specimen, characterized by high-level *MYC* amplification.

Timing of Copy Number Gains Reveals Large Bursts of Copy Number Gains Before

Diagnosis

The HATCHet algorithm also infers whole-genome duplication (WGD) events jointly

across all samples for each patient. Of the five patients with average ploidy ≥ 2.5 (OSCE1,

OSCE2, OSCE3, OSCE4, OSCE9), WGD was identified in OSCE1, OSCE2, and OSCE9 (Fig.

1A and Supplementary Fig. 2B). The timing of these WGD events as well as other chromosomal

duplications can be determined in "molecular time" using previously described methods[23,24]

which compares the number of duplicated vs non-duplicated mutations to estimate the timing of

each duplication (Supplementary Fig. 6). For the patients who were determined to have WGD

events, these appeared to be late events for each respective patient (median point mutation time

(pmt) range = 62-79%, Fig. 3F), compared to the two patients with ploidy ≥ 2.5 without WGD

(patients with ploidy < 2.5 did not have enough duplication or LOH events to analyze), which

appeared to have early synchronous duplications (median pmt range = 16-25%, Fig. 3F). The

two patients with the lowest ploidy (OSCE10 and OSCE6) also had the smallest primary tumors

(Fig. 3E), whereas all large primary tumors (≥ 300 cm^3) had ploidy ≥ 2.5 (OSCE2, OSCE9,

Figure 3. Chromosomal duplication timing analysis reconstructs evolutionary past of genomic instability events. **A, B, C,** Ridgeline plots of the density of duplication events over molecular time for each sample for the selected patients. Notably the highest peak in duplications occurs before diagnosis. **D,** Chromosomal duplication timing of 5 primary site samples. Whole genome duplication events as called by HATCHet appear to be a late event in our cohort. **E,** Plot of tumor size (by volume) verse ploidy called by HATCHet. Median size (y-axis) and ploidy (x-axis) values are plotted with dark black lines, with the shaded gray areas representing the range between the lower and upper quartile for each metric. **F,** Plot of duplication and rearrangement events in molecular time. Left side of figure is plot of duplication events in blue and LOH events in orange for select primary site samples. The median duplication time is highlighted for each sample. The plot on the right side of the figure are complex amplicon events in teal and complex rearrangement events in yellow. Y-axis for both plots is molecular time. The samples are in the same order for each plot. Each plotted event represents an affected chromosomal arm.

OSCE3). For the five patients with ploidy ≥ 2.5, we analyzed their earliest primary site samples

to assess the natural history of these duplication events in the context of tumorigenesis.

Most of these duplication/LOH events clustered in a single burst of events (Fig. 3D) and

were associated with complex rearrangement (chromoplexy, chromothripsis) or complex

amplicon[25] (Tyfonas, breakage fusion bridge, double minute) events (Fig. 3F). When comparing

longitudinal samples from the same patient (Fig. 3A-C), there was no subsequent burst that was

greater than the primary site burst. Across the cohort, duplication events appeared to be fixed

during tumorigenesis and had decreasing average molecular times when comparing

biopsy/resection samples with metastatic/relapse samples (Supplementary Fig. 7A/C). LOH

events were consistently "late" events, with a median molecular time of 82.16 across the cohort

(compared to 21.72 for duplication events, Supplementary Fig. 7B/D).

Heterogenous seeding patterns observed in metastatic and recurrent osteosarcoma

Clone-based phylogenies were created to explore the clonal architecture and track the

spatial and temporal patterns of evolution. The SNVs across all samples for each patient were

clustered using the DeCiFer[17] algorithm. After clustering, each SNV was assigned to a clone

with an estimated descendant cell fraction (DCF) per sample, and clone-based phylogenetic trees

were then constructed using the CALDER[26] algorithm, allowing for the assessment of modes of

metastatic seeding and dissemination. The median number of clones per patient was eight (range

= 5-12, Supplementary Fig. 8I). At the patient level, there was a heterogeneous mix of

dissemination patterns (Fig. 4A-D, Fig. 5A-D, and Supplementary Fig. 8A-H), with complete

agreement between clone and sample-based phylogenies (Supplementary Fig. 3A) regarding

whether metastatic dissemination was monophyletic (all metastatic clones shared a common

Figure 4

Figure 4. SNV based phylogenies highlighting temporal evolution with clonal mutational

signature composition. **A, B, C, and D,** Upper figure in each panel is a TimeScape plot of the

inferred evolutionary phylogeny, highlighting clonal proportions over time. The prevalence of

different clones is shown over time on the vertical axis, with the different clones represented by

different colors. The horizontal axis represents the timepoints, which are represented by gray

lines. The evolutionary relationships between the clones are shown on the phylogenetic tree and

in the TimeScape layout. The bottom right of each panel is a stacked bar plot of the total number

of mutations assigned to each clone. Colors represent total number of mutations attributed to

each mutational signature with color legend at bottom of figure. Patient level metastatic seeding

patterns are denoted by the brackets at the top of the page.

ancestral clone: Fig. 4A, 4C, 5E; Supplementary Fig. 6A, 6C, 6D, 6G, 6H)) vs. polyphyletic in

origin (where ≥2 clones are present from distinct branches of phylogeny whose common

ancestor represents the trunk of the primary tumor tree: Fig. 4B, 4D, 5B; Supplementary Fig. 6B,

6D, 6F). Of note, OSCE6 was the only patient among those with a monophyletic origin that had

monoclonal seeding (one clone present in the sample, Fig. 4C and Supplementary Fig. 6H). The

seeding and dissemination patterns were also assessed for each metastatic sample (Fig. 5E). In

two patients (OSCE3 and OSCE5), there were examples of different modes of metastatic

dissemination among spatially separated metastases from the same resection. In OSCE3 for

example, extra-pulmonary metastases (RcwM0, RdiM0) demonstrate polyclonal (≥2 clones

present in the sample) monophyletic patterns of dissemination, while the pulmonary metastases

(RllM0, RulM0) demonstrate monoclonal monophyletic dissemination, with both samples

sharing the same ancestral clone (Fig. 5C, Supplementary Fig. 6B, 6I).

Limited Heterogeneity after Induction Chemotherapy

For OSCE10, we obtained a section of the primary tumor sample for multi-region

sequencing after the patient had received 10 weeks of induction MAP chemotherapy. The

specimen was mapped (Fig. 5F), DNA was extracted from the sections with viable tumor, and

then five sections (E, D, M, O, P) with the highest DNA quantity/quality metrics underwent

WGS. When examining the clonal architecture of each section (Fig. 4D/5F), each section had the

same four clones (A, D, E, F), with truncal clone A dominating, except for FRx_M, which did

not have clone F, which later became the clone that dominated at relapse. This pattern was also

seen with the copy number clones, where clone 3 was present in all sections except for FRx_M

and then dominated at relapse (Fig. 2F). When comparing Jaccard similarity coefficients based

Figure 5

Figure 5. SNV based phylogenies highlighting spatial evolution and descriptions of metastatic seeding patterns at the sample and patient level. **A, B, C, and D,** Spatially and in some cases temporally distinct samples are indicated on the anatomic sites from where the sample originated. The colors represent different clones, and the phylogenetic trees show the evolutionary relationships between these clones. The prevalence of each clone at a particular site is proportional to the colored area of the cellular aggregate representation. **E,** Sample and patient level dissemination patterns are characterized in these charts. *Monoclonal dissemination*: single subclone within the primary tumor seeds one or more metastatic lesions, *polyclonal dissemination*: multiple distinct subclones from the primary tumor seed one or more metastatic lesions, *monophyletic origin*: all metastatic clones are derived from a recent common ancestor, *polyphyletic origin*: metastasizing clones are more similar to other subclones within the primary tumor than they are to each other. These descriptions can be considered at the sample level, focused on the clonal make up of a single metastatic site compared to the primary tumor, or taken as a whole, evaluating all spatially or temporally separated samples and how they relate back to the primary tumor. **F,** Multi-region sequencing was performed on a primary resection sample from OSCE10. Regions D, E, M, O, P were sequenced from the specimen grid depicted. A table of Jaccard similarity indexes based on shared SNVs for these samples is shown in the upper left inset.

on SNV composition across the different sections, adjoining sections shared the highest

coefficients (D/E=0.96, O/P=0.79, M/P=0.88, Fig. 5F), whereas non-adjoining sections had

similar coefficients, regardless of distance from each other (range = 0.67-0.69, Fig. 5F). As

highlighted previously, a single-sample sequencing strategy that sampled from FRx_M would

have missed detecting the metastatic subclone that was present in the other four sections.

Most new SNVs in relapsed disease are attributed to HRD-related SBS3 and cisplatin

mutational signatures

To further characterize the potential drivers of clonal evolution, mutational signature

analysis was performed for each clone (Fig. 4A-D, Supplementary Fig. 6A-D). In three patients,

the largest clone by number of SNVs (OSCE5 – clone C, OSCE6 – clone G, and OSCE10 –

clone C) had over half of the SNVs attributed to the DNA-damaging effects of cisplatin

chemotherapy (Supplementary Fig. 9A). In four patients, the largest clone by number of SNVs

(OSCE1 – clone H, OSCE3 – clone A, OSCE4 – clone D, and OSCE9 – clone G) had a plurality

of SNVs in each clone attributed to single base substitution (SBS) 3, a genomic signature that

has been associated with homologous repair deficiency (HRD, Supplementary Fig. 9A). Tumors

with this signature are thought to have a BRCAness phenotype and exhibit features similar to

those cancers with germline BRCA1 or BRCA2 mutations, even though no mutations in those

genes have been identified. In OSCE2 and OSCE3, both refractory cases, the largest number of

SNVs was assigned to the truncal clone, clone A, which had a high number of SNVs (OSCE2 –

1731/2234, OSCE3 – 2464/4022) associated with HRD-related SBS3 and late replication errors

(Sig. 8). In patients with patient-level monophyletic seeding of metastases (OSCE1, OSCE2,

OSCE5, OSCE6), where a single ancestral metastatic clone could be identified (OSCE1–clone

D, OSCE2–clone D, OSCE5–clone C, OSCE6–clone C), there were no clear patterns regarding

the signature composition identified (Supplementary Fig. 9B). OSCE1–clone D and OSCE2-

clone D had a plurality of SNVs attributed to HRD-related SBS3, whereas OSCE5-clone C had

the majority of SNVs attributed to cisplatin, and OSCE6 had the majority of its SNVs attributed

to reactive oxygen species damage (Sig. 18). When looking at doublet base substitution (DBS)

signatures at the clonal level, in clones with ≥10 DBS SNVs, cisplatin-associated DBS 5 was the

largest contributor of DBS SNVs, accounting for 50% or more of the total SNVs in 17/26 clones

(Supplementary Fig. 9C).

Emergence of cisplatin and alkylator signatures helps time the formation of metastases

A simple method for ascertaining whether a given metastasis arose before or after

treatment with cisplatin or an alkylator is to find clonal SNVs attributed to the respective

signature in a metastatic tumor sample[27]. When looking at the dominant clone in the first relapse

sample for patients with recurrent disease (OSCE1-Clone D, OSCE4-Clone E/I, OSCE5-Clone

C, OSCE6-Clone C/F/G, OSCE9-Clone C/G, OSCE10-Clone C/F), there was a cisplatin

signature present in each of these respective clones/clades, indicating that the metastases arose

after therapy (Fig. 4A-D, Supplementary Fig. 6C, 6D). Additionally, in OSCE1, after the patient

received chemotherapy with ifosfamide and etoposide, OSCE1-Clone H and OSCE1-Clone F

had mutations attributed to the alkylator signature, SBS11 (Fig. 4A). In the three patients with

refractory disease (OSCE2, OSCE3, and OSCE10), we can demonstrate which metastatic

samples were present at diagnosis and which developed while on therapy. Within OSCE2, Clone

F and Clone G were the dominant subclones in RllM0 and RulM0 respectively in OSCE2 (Fig.

5A, Supplementary Fig. 6A). Clone F had 181/614 mutations attributed to cisplatin and Clone G

had no mutations attributed to cisplatin, evidence Clone F was seeded on therapy as opposed to

prior to therapy. In OSCE3, there was no evidence of a cisplatin signature in any of the

subclones (Supplementary Fig. 6B), indicating that all metastatic sites had developed prior to

initiating therapy. In OSCE10, the metastatic sample (RulM0), which has polyphyletic and

polyclonal seeding (Fig. 4D, 5D), showed that the dominant clone/subclone pair of D/G likely

seeded on therapy, given that there is a cisplatin signature attributed to approximately half of the

mutations (1027/2644) and in all the mutations in subclone G (2727/2727).

HRD-related SBS3 and Reactive Oxygen Species Damage Linked to Driver Gene

Mutagenesis

To identify the mutational processes most likely to be the origin of truncal driver gene

SNVs, we calculated the likelihood that each individual SNV was caused by each signature,

considering the mutation category and proportion of each mutational signature in the tumor

genome[24]. To minimize the effect of treatment-related mutagenesis, we limited this analysis to

the earliest primary site sample available for patients with truncal driver SNVs. Similar to the

observations across all samples, HRD-related SBS3 had the highest probability of attribution in

the *TP53* driven OSCE1 sample and the *RB1* driven OSCE4 samples (OSCE1 probability=0.49,

OSCE4 probability=0.44, Fig. 6D), and a slightly lower attribution probability than the clock-

like signature in OSCE9 (HRD-related SBS3 probability=0.32, clock-like probability=0.34, Fig.

6D). Both OSCE3 and OSCE10 had truncal *ATRX* SNVs, with reactive oxygen series damage

accounting for the highest probability of attribution in both samples (OSCE3 probability=0.54,

OSCE10 probability=0.42, Fig. 6D).

Figure 6

A

Mutatational Signatures Across Samples

B

% Contibution of HRD & Cisplatin Signatures in Metastatic and Relapse Samples

C

Top Signatures in Primary Site Samples (% Contribution)

D

Driver Gene Signature Attributions

Figure 6. Mutational signature patterns across the cohort. **A,** Stacked line chart of mutational

signature contribution by total number of mutations attributed to each signature. Colors represent

the different signatures. **B,** Stacked bar chart of the relative contribution of HRD-related SBS3

(green) & cisplatin (blue) signature in metastatic and relapse samples. **C,** Stacked bar chart of the

relative contribution of HRD (green), clock-like (pink), reactive oxygen species damage (red),

late replication errors (beige), somatic hypermutation (orange), and APOBEC (teal), in primary

site samples. **D,** Stacked bar chart of the probability that driver gene SNVs were attributed to a

mutational signature. Pretreatment samples from patients with driver SNVs were included and

the primary resection sample from OSCE9 since no pretreatment sample was available. Colors

represent the different signatures.

Cisplatin associated hypermutation in a case of refractory osteosarcoma

When evaluating mutational signatures at the sample level, the two most prevalent SBS signatures across all samples were HRD-related SBS3 and cisplatin (Fig. 6A). In the 13 relapse samples, HRD-related SBS3 and cisplatin accounted for more than half of all the SNVs (Fig. 6B). In the 17 primary site samples, the HRD-related SBS3, clock-like (Sig. 5), late replications errors (Sig. 8), ROS damage (Sig. 18), and APOBEC (Sig. 2,13) accounted for 75%–100% of all mutations (Fig. 6C). In 6/7 metastatic samples, HRD-related SBS3, clock-like, late replication errors, somatic hypermutation, ROS damage, and APOBEC accounted for all SNVs (Supplementary Fig. 10A). In the metastatic sample thought to have emerged on therapy for OSCE10 (RulM0) and the subsequent relapse sample (LllM1), SNVs attributed to cisplatin accounted for 6226/7724 (86%) and 14276/18216 (78%) SNVs, respectively (Fig. 10A). In the six patients with relapsed disease, the number of mutations attributed to HRD-related SBS3 consistently increased from diagnosis to subsequent relapses, with at least 1000 new SNVs attributed to HRD-related SBS3 when comparing diagnostic and relapse samples (Supplementary Fig. 10C).

Doublet base substitution (DBS) signatures were also evaluated across the cohort (Supplementary Fig. 10B). DBS signature 5, which is associated with cisplatin, was detected in 21 samples; however, to filter out false positives, a threshold of ≥ 5 DBS signature 5 SNVs was used to confirm the absence of the signature. Using this filter, DBS signature 5 was present in 15 samples, all metastatic or relapse samples, with complete overlap with the 14 samples that had SBS cisplatin signatures 31 or 35. Only OSCE3_RdiM0 had a DBS cisplatin signature but not an SBS cisplatin signature (Supplementary Fig. 10D).

Discussion

Tumor evolution and clonal heterogeneity have been increasingly recognized as major causes of therapeutic resistance to current anti-neoplastic therapies[28]. These findings extend our understanding of therapeutic resistance in spatially and temporally separated tumor samples from 8 patients with recurrent or refractory osteosarcoma. We found that while clonal driver gene SNVs and structural variants remain largely unchanged over the course of tumor progression, subclonal tumor populations with unique driver gene amplifications are present at diagnosis, emerge after treatment, and persist as the major clone at subsequent relapses.

Somatic copy number alterations are now increasingly recognized for their prognostic value over SNVs in multiple cancer types[29]. Oncogenic copy number alterations, while heterogeneous across osteosarcoma, represent potential therapeutic targets, given the lack of recurrent targetable SNVs or structural variants[4-8]. Our study revealed that in our four patients who had relapsed osteosarcoma with a matched pretreatment sample (OSCE1, OSCE4, OSCE5, OSCE6), there was a subclonal treatment resistant copy number clone that emerged as the dominant clone in the relapsed setting. Furthermore, in the two patients with both a pre-treatment sample and on-therapy primary resection (OSCE1, OSCE6), this treatment resistant clone clonally expanded after 10 weeks of neoadjuvant chemotherapy. We believe this finding has important implications for molecular profiling strategies in osteosarcoma, as it suggests that the primary resection sample, and not the pretreatment biopsy, is more reflective of the metastatic potential for a tumor than the pretreatment biopsy, due to the selection pressure of neoadjuvant chemotherapy. Achieving a cure in osteosarcoma requires the extinction of all cancer cells with a successful "first-strike' strategy with maximum tolerated doses of cisplatin, doxorubicin, and methotrexate[30]. For patients for whom this first strike fails (poor necrosis at the

time of primary resection), characterizing and targeting the treatment-resistant population of

cancer cells using a second-strike strategy may prove to be an effective treatment strategy[30]. Our

work highlights that molecular profiling of primary resection samples could allow for a more

precise "genome-informed" approach[4], aimed at targeting resistant copy number alterations, to

augment MAP chemotherapy.

The emergence of subclonal copy number alterations in primary tumors to fully clonal

alterations in metastatic or recurrent samples, as demonstrated in our study in 6/7 patients with

recurrent/refractory disease and pretreatment samples, has been previously described in a subset

of adult cancers where analysis of matched primary and metastasis was performed[21]. We found

MYC gain/amplification to be enriched in the treatment-resistant clone in 6/7 patients with more

than one clone. Previous studies have shown that *MYC* amplification is often enriched in

metastatic sites[21] and has been previously associated with poor outcomes and increased cell

proliferation in osteosarcoma;[31–35] however, a recent study questioned its prognostic

significance[36]. Our study demonstrated that in patients with localized and metastatic disease at

diagnosis, *MYC* amplification is subclonal in pretreatment samples and emerges after 10 weeks

of neoadjuvant chemotherapy, highlighting the importance of sample timing when considering

the prognostic value of *MYC* amplification. Furthermore, as we begin to define molecular risk

categories within osteosarcoma, our work demonstrates that profiling of post-treatment primary

resection samples may reveal previous subclonal amplifications in driver oncogenes; thus, this

time point would be more informative when assessing metastatic potential. While multi-region

profiling of post-treatment resection from OSCE10 revealed limited heterogeneity among the

different sites, there was one site where the metastatic clone was not present, highlighting the

potential risk of failing to profile the metastatic clone with single-sample strategies. When

considering future sequencing approaches, pooling DNA/RNA extracts from

multiple anatomically distinct tumor regions of the primary tumor could be a cost-effective way

to improve DNA yield and variant detection, while providing a more complete picture of

intratumoral heterogeneity[37].

Our chromosomal duplication timing analysis revealed that gains for the same patient

often clustered around the same time point, regardless of whether whole-genome duplication was

present. These bursts of duplications occurred prior to diagnosis, and there were no comparable

bursts of duplications in resection, metastatic, or recurrent samples that would reflect ongoing

instability. In a pan-cancer cohort, synchronous bursts of copy number gain were found to occur

in 57% of diploid samples and 78% of WGD samples[38]. We found that these clustered

duplication events were associated with catastrophic complex genomic rearrangement and

amplicon events that occurred before diagnosis, such as chromothripsis and tyfonas. In contrast

to a previous multi-region osteosarcoma study[15], we demonstrated that tumor ploidy remained

consistent across all samples for each patient, which is likely because our copy number calls

were inferred jointly across all samples for each patient, which can improve ploidy estimation in

sample sets with wide ranges of purity[20]. These findings of pre-diagnostic duplication events

followed by relative genomic stability support recent work that demonstrated that early

catastrophic events are responsible for the structural complexity in the osteosarcoma genome, as

opposed to sustained evolution and instability over time[39]. Whole-genome duplication was

confirmed in a subset of patients and was found to be a late event in all three cases. Previous

pan-cancer studies have found that WGD events are typically early events in a tumor's molecular

time history, but are often preceded by *TP53* inactivation[21,38,40]. Late WGD events have been

described in a cohort of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), and they are typically

associated with larger tumors, leading to the conclusion that they may be the last step prior to

rapid growth and expansion[24]. Our data support a macroevolutionary model of evolution in

osteosarcoma[41], with a large number of genomic aberrations acquired over a short period of time

secondary to chromosomal instability events, followed by clonal selection, as opposed to

ongoing evolution.

Large-scale genomic sequencing studies in osteosarcoma have revealed that there is

significant inter-tumoral heterogeneity in osteosarcoma, with shared mutations typically in tumor

suppressor genes rather than in targetable oncogenes[5–8]. We observed a heterogeneous mix of

metastatic and recurrent seeding patterns in our cohort. We observed only one example of

monoclonal, monophyletic dissemination in OSCE6, which is typically a result of a treatment-

induced bottle-necking effect. There were three cases of polyclonal/monophyletic dissemination,

in which multiple clones were present in the metastatic/recurrent samples, but they all shared a

common ancestor, and there were four cases of polyclonal polyphyletic dissemination where

multiple distinct clones from the primary tumor seeded a metastatic site. In previous studies, a *de*

novo induced murine model of osteosarcoma demonstrated polyclonal seeding of metastases

with ongoing parallel evolution[14], while studies using longitudinal and spatially separated

samples have yielded mixed results, demonstrating both polyclonal seeding with parallel

evolution[13] and monoclonal monophyletic seeding[15] in a majority of the respective cases from

each study. These studies were limited by the lack of pretreatment primary tumors; therefore, the

analysis relied on comparing metastatic and recurrent samples to post-treated primaries in many

cases.

We demonstrate that while cisplatin and HRD-related SBS3 are active mutagenic

processes in osteosarcoma, accounting for most new mutations in relapsed disease, we found no

new driver SNVs attributable to these signatures that could account for treatment resistance. The

HRD-related SBS3 signature was conserved across all samples in our cohort, consistent with a

recent pan-pediatric cancer study that found that 18/19 (95%) patients with osteosarcoma had

mutations attributed to HRD-related SBS3[42]. The prevalence of the HRD-related SBS3 signature

in osteosarcoma is comparable to BRCA1 deficient cancers, suggesting that drugs that target

homologous recombination deficient cells, such as PARP inhibitors, may have therapeutic value

in osteosarcoma, a concept currently being evaluated in a phase II clinical trial

(NCT04417062)[43]. A commonly cited limitation of using signature-based assays to assess HRD

is that they reflect the HRD state prior to sample acquisition and may not reflect the current state,

where HRD may have been restored[44]. Our study demonstrated that in osteosarcoma, the number

of mutations attributed to HRD-related SBS3 increases at each time point in patients with

recurrent disease, suggesting that HRD continues to be an active mutagenic process after

diagnosis.

The cisplatin signature was present in all relapse samples and metastatic sites that were

thought to have developed during upfront therapy. The extent of cisplatin-induced mutagenesis

has been previously described in osteosarcoma, where it was found that cisplatin therapy could

potentially increase the mutational burden by two-fold[15]. Although we also found that cisplatin

therapy led to large increases in mutational burden in recurrent samples, none of these mutations

were likely drivers of treatment resistance, which is consistent with previous studies in patients

with platinum-resistant ovarian cancer[45] and osteosarcoma[15]. Although we cannot account for

copy number alterations or structural variants induced by cisplatin, recent cell line work in

cisplatin exposed esophageal and liver tumors, found few copy number alterations or structural

variants, suggesting that cisplatin does not contribute significantly to genomic instability[46].

Our findings highlight that the chemoresistant population of tumor cells in osteosarcoma

is subclonal at diagnosis and is characterized by unique oncogenic amplifications. As our ability

to target these oncogenic amplifications improves, future studies aimed at identifying these

oncogenic drivers during upfront therapy may be an effective strategy to eliminate

chemoresistant tumor cells and improve survival.

Methods

Patient consent and tissue processing

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Memorial Sloan

Kettering Cancer Center (New York, NY, USA) and conducted in accordance with the

Declaration of Helsinki. Informed written consent was obtained from each subject or guardian.

Tumor samples and matched normal samples were collected from 10 patients with a

pathologically confirmed diagnosis of osteosarcoma, who were identified both retrospectively

and prospectively for those who had their tumor banked at diagnosis and at least one other time

point. Only patients who consented to an IRB-approved blood and tumor collection protocol

were eligible for tumor sequencing. Fresh tumor samples were procured from the operating room

in a sterile container. The tissue was processed using scalpels and divided into pea-sized pieces

before being stored at -80°C. Frozen tissue samples from several patients were also available

through our Precision Pathology Biobanking Center and were acquired using the same protocol.

Additionally, in several patients, archival tumor specimens in the form of formalin-fixed

paraffin-embedded (FFPE) specimens were obtained from both the internal and external

pathology departments using the same protocol. Only FFPE samples that were not subjected to

harsh decalcification techniques were selected. FFPE samples that had been decalcified using

EDTA were deemed appropriate for further downstream analysis.

Each frozen tissue sample was submitted to our pathology core, where it was embedded

in Tissue-Tek optimum cutting temperature compound and sectioned at 5–10 mm on a Leica

Cryostat to create a hematoxylin and eosin–stained (H&E) slide for review. Each FFPE sample

was sectioned using a Leica Microtome. H&E slides were evaluated by a trained pathologist to

determine tumor content. After pathologic review, tumor samples were isolated via a 21-gauge

punch, curl biopsy, or macro-dissected from sectioned slides to remove non-neoplastic

components. The neoplastic component of each tumor underwent genomic DNA extraction using

a Qiagen DNAeasy Blood and Tissue Kit and protocol, whereas the FFPE samples were

extracted using a QIAamp DNA FFPE Tissue Kit and protocol.

PBMCs utilized for matched normal sequencing were brought up to 15mL volume in

cold PBS and isolated with the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (QIAGEN catalog # 69504)

according to the manufacturer's protocol and incubated at 55°C for digestion. DNA was eluted in

0.5X Buffer AE.

Whole-genome sequencing and alignment

DNA quantification, library preparation, and whole-genome sequencing were performed

using the Integrated Genomics Operation at the Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center (New

York, NY). After PicoGreen quantification and quality control using an Agilent BioAnalyzer,

131-500ng of genomic DNA was sheared using an LE220-plus Focused-ultrasonicator (Covaris

catalog # 500569), and sequencing libraries were prepared using the KAPA Hyper Prep Kit

(Kapa Biosystems KK8504) with modifications. Briefly, libraries were subjected to a 0.5 × size

selection using aMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter catalog # A63882) after post-ligation

cleanup. Libraries with < 500 ng of genomic DNA were amplified using 5-6 cycles of PCR and

pooled equimolar amounts. Libraries containing at least 500 ng of genomic DNA were not

amplified. Samples were run on a NovaSeq 6000 in a 150bp/150bp paired end run, using the

NovaSeq 6000 SBS v1 Kit and an S1, S2, or S4 flow cell (Illumina). The average number of read

pairs per normal was 614 million and the average number of read pairs per tumor was 1.3 billion.

727   *Whole Genome Sequencing Pipeline*

728    Whole genome sequencing data were analyzed using the ISABL[47] platform, with

729   methods previously described in detail[48]. The additional downstream analyses are described

730   below.

732   *Single Nucleotide Variant Filtering*

733    For all eight patients, single nucleotide variants (SNV) were called in triplicate by

734   MuTect[49], Strelka[50], and Caveman[51]. Only mutations that had a "PASS" flag, were called by at

735   least two mutation callers and observed in less than 2% of the reads of the matched normal

736   sample with 10x coverage were considered for further analysis. It is notoriously difficult to

737   extract high quality DNA from the osteoid matrix that surrounds viable tumor cells, often leading

738   to sequenced samples with low purity. Across the eight patients, a mix of samples was prepared

739   as either fresh-frozen or FFPE. FFPE samples are thought to be inferior to fresh frozen samples,

740   as the formalin fixation process results in nucleic acid fragmentation, DNA crosslinks, and

741   deamination, leading to C>T mutation artifacts. As a result, downstream analysis of FFPE can be

742   challenging when filtering out artifacts from a true positive. Aggressive filtering of low-allele

743   frequency variants has been shown to increase SNV overlap when comparing matched FFPE and

744   FF samples[52]. Given these assumptions, a custom filtering approach was utilized to maximize the

745   ability to utilize low-purity FFPE samples within a mix of higher-quality FFPE samples and

746   fresh frozen samples for each patient. For fresh frozen samples with an estimated purity of 20%,

747   mutations with a variant allele frequency (VAF) less than 5 were filtered out. If a frozen sample

748   had a purity of less than 20%, no additional filtering was applied, given the potential for filtering

749   out subclonal mutations in an otherwise high-quality frozen tissue sample. For FFPE samples,

we filtered out mutations with a VAF less than 20%. These thresholds for FFPE samples were

then further purity adjusted, for example a sample with an estimated purity of 80%, would have

mutations below a VAF of 0.16 (0.8 purity * 0.2 VAF filter) initially filtered out. Although this

initial filtering for FFPE is strict, the advantage of having multiple samples per patient allows us

to utilize the mutation calls in other high-quality samples for a patient to rescue mutations that

may have been initially filtered in a low-quality sample. This is accomplished through a pile-up

rescue, where all filtered mutations for a patient are combined and then specifically searched in

the BAM file that was generated for each sample.

Driver Gene Analysis

All somatic variants that led to a frameshift insertion, frameshift deletion, in-frame

insertion, in-frame deletion, missense, nonsense, nonstop, or splice site/region mutation, or a

translation start site were considered. For variants identified as missense or nonsense, we

required the variant to be considered a likely functional driver using the LiFD tool[18], which is a

two-phase algorithm that pulls from various databases and bioinformatic methods to determine

whether a given mutation is likely to be functional. We also considered genes that were

significantly mutated in large pediatric cancer and osteosarcoma sequencing studies[4–9,53]. The

final list consisted of 639 genes.

Evolutionary Analysis

To determine the spatial and temporal dynamics of subclonal diversity within a patient,

we first used Treeomics v1.9.2[54] to derive phylogenies. Treeomics reconstructs the phylogeny of

metastatic lesions and maps subclones to their anatomical locations. Treeomics utilizes a

Bayesian inference model to account for error-prone sequencing and differing neoplastic cell

contents to calculate the likelihood that a specific variant is present or absent. Treeomics then

infers a global optimal tree based on mixed-integer linear programming[54].

The HATCHet[20] v1.0.1 algorithm was used to infer allele and clone-specific copy-

number aberrations, clone proportions, and whole-genome duplications (WGD) for each patient.

HATCHet was run using the GATK4-CNV custom pipeline, with Battenberg copy number calls

fitted to meet the input requirements for running the tool. Solutions were manually reviewed

with the creator of the tool, Simone Zaccaria PhD, to allow for advanced fine-tuning and ensure

that the most accurate solutions were selected.

The DeCiFer[17] v1.1.5 algorithm was used to cluster mutations across all samples for each

patient, providing descendant cell fractions (DCF) and cancer cell fractions for each cluster. The

copy number input for this algorithm is the output of the HATCHet algorithm. Custom state trees

were generated utilizing a maximum copy number between 6-8 for each patient (lower maximum

copy number states were selected if the runtime exceeded 48 h). After clustering of mutations,

the CALDER[26] v0.11 algorithm was used to infer evolutionary phylogenies. To run the DeCiFer

output through CALDER, the inferred cluster DCF was converted to a read count by multiplying

the DCF by 1000 and then dividing by 2 (because CALDER assumes that all mutations are in

heterozygous diploid regions). Therefore, if a mutation has 1000 reads and an inferred DCF of

40%, the corresponding input will have 200 variant reads and 800 reference reads. Longitudinal

constraints were lifted when analyzing OSCE2 and OSCE3, because all analyzed samples were

present at diagnosis.

The Palimpest[23] algorithm (version = github commit 4795da2) was used to characterize

and visualize mutational signatures (using Cosmic SBS/DBS v3.2) at both clone and sample

levels. This algorithm also provided information regarding the timing of duplication and loss of

heterozygosity events using previously described methods[24].

Structural Variant Analysis

Structural variants were annotated using iAnnotateSV software[55]. We used svpluscnv[56]

and ShatterSeek[57] to identify regions of chromothripsis. The JaBba tool[25] was used to identify

regions with complex rearrangements or amplicon events. The calls from all tools were

combined for further downstream analysis.

Data Visualizations

Oncoprint was created using the CoMut[58] tool Timescape[59]

(https://github.com/shahcompbio/timescape) and Mapscape[59]

(https://github.com/shahcompbio/mapscape) were used to visualize temporal and spatial clonal

evolution. Tableau Desktop (v2021.4) was used to analyze and visualize the data with charts,

bars, and line graphs. Ridgeline graphs were created using R utilizing the ggridges package

(https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/ggridges/vignettes/introduction.html). Sankey plots

were created using SankeyMATIC (https://sankeymatic.com/build/). Anatomic cartoons were

created using BioRender (https://biorender.com/).

Data Availability

Sequence data will be deposited at the European Genomephenome Archive (EGA), which is

hosted by the European Bioinformatics Institute and the Centre for Genomic Regulation. Further

information about EGA can be found at https://ega-archive.org and "The European Genome-

phenome Archive of human data consented for biomedical research"

(http://www.nature.com/ng/journal/v47/n7/full/ng.3312.html).

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