Integrative genomic analysis identifies unique immune environments associated with

immunotherapy response in diffuse large B cell lymphoma

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Abstract

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Most relapsed or refractory diffuse large B cell lymphoma (DLBCL) patients show primary

resistance, or relapse after receiving immunotherapies such as CAR T cells, bispecific antibodies,

or checkpoint blockade therapy, highlighting the need for a deeper understanding of mechanisms

that regulate the immune environment and response to immunotherapy. Therefore, we performed

bulk transcriptomic analysis of 862 diagnostic DLBCL specimens and segregated DLBCLs into

four unique quadrants defined by cell-of-origin and immune-related gene set expression scores,

termed DLBCL-immune quadrants (DLBCL-IQ). These quadrants consisted of activated B cell-

like (ABC) hot, ABC cold, germinal center B cell-like (GCB) hot, GCB cold DLBCLs. Unique

genomic alterations were enriched in each immune cluster, suggesting that lymphoma-intrinsic

alterations modulate the DLBCL immune environment. For instance, *SOCS1* loss-of-function

mutations were enriched among GCB hot DLBCLs, identifying a putative subset of inflamed

DLBCLs that may be inherently susceptible to immunotherapy. Finally, treatment with the CD20

x CD3 bispecific antibody, mosunetuzumab, was associated with significantly improved

progression-free survival of GCB hot DLBCL patients, underscoring the importance of our

DLBCL-IQs in predicting bispecific antibody efficacy in this disease.

Significance

This in-depth characterization of DLBCL immune landscapes and associated genomic alterations

should catalyze development of rationally designed, combinatorial studies of targeted and immune

therapies. Moreover, the association between the immune environment and clinical outcomes to a

bispecific antibody is important, and similar analyses can be employed to address how particular

DLBCL immune environments influence the efficacy of checkpoint blockade and CAR T cell

therapy.

Introduction

Although diffuse large B cell lymphoma (DLBCL) is often cured with R-CHOP (rituximab, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, vincristine, and prednisone) chemoimmunotherapy, approximately 40% of DLBCL patients will develop relapsed or refractory (r/r) disease, which is challenging to effectively treat (1,2). Recently, immunotherapies have revolutionized the treatment landscape of r/r DLBCL. For example, CD19-directed chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cell therapy induces durable responses in ~30-40% of patients with r/r DLBCL (3–6). Complete responses are also observed in up to 40% of r/r DLBCL patients who receive CD3 x CD20 bispecific antibodies (BsAbs) (7–9). However, in many r/r DLBCL patients, BsAbs and CAR T cell therapy either fail completely or confer only fleeting responses. Finally, checkpoint blockade therapy (CBT) with anti-PD-1 antibodies elicits responses in only a small subset (10-15%) of r/r DLBCL patients (10,11). Collectively, these clinical observations indicate that while immunotherapies can be effective against DLBCL, additional research is needed to understand the cellular and molecular features of the DLBCL environment that underlie immunotherapy responsiveness or resistance to enrich for the subset of patients who will derive maximal benefit and to identify strategies to overcome mechanisms driving intrinsic or acquired resistance.

The role of the tumor immune environment in mediating response to immunotherapy has been extensively explored in solid cancers, where numerous studies have demonstrated that a "T cell-inflamed" environment identifies cancers against which a spontaneous anti-tumor immune response has been raised and serves as a useful biomarker of response to CBT (12–15). Transcriptional and immune cell profiling of DLBCL has also revealed subsets enriched in immune cell infiltration and in expression of immune-related genes, which indicates that some DLBCLs exhibit evidence of having stimulated an endogenous anti-lymphoma immune response

(16–19). However, the critical factors that shape the DLBCL immune environment remain

unknown and the impact of the immune environment on promoting or preventing immunotherapy

response has yet to be fully defined (10,20).

While bulk transcriptional profiling and genetic sequencing have uncovered important

insights into the molecular heterogeneity and biology of DLBCL, less is understood regarding the

nature and complexity of the DLBCL immune environment. In this study, we utilized an

integrative approach to 1) broadly characterize the DLBCL immune landscape, 2) provide insight

into the contribution of genomic alterations in shaping the DLBCL immune environment, and 3)

define the extent to which transcriptionally based immune clustering of DLBCL informs

responsiveness to CD3 x CD20 BsAb immunotherapy. Through these analyses, we uncovered four

unique DLBCL immune environments, each enriched for several distinct oncogenic alterations,

suggesting that lymphoma cell-intrinsic factors play an important role in orchestrating the immune

environment in this disease. For example, we identified loss-of-function (LoF) mutations in

SOCS1 as significantly enriched in DLBCLs with inflamed environments. Moreover, we

demonstrate that genetic ablation of *Socs1* renders B cells more sensitive to the effects of T-cell

effector cytokines such as interferon-gamma (IFNγ). Finally, we associate the composition of the

immune environment with clinical outcomes to BsAb therapy in a retrospective analysis of tumor

samples collected from a large phase I/II clinical trial of r/r DLBCL patients.

Results

Transcriptomic analysis identifies four immune-related DLBCL clusters.

In solid cancers, a "T cell inflamed" gene signature identifies tumors against which a spontaneous anti-tumor immune response has been induced and enriches for a subset of cancers that are particularly vulnerable to immunotherapies, such as CBT (12–15). To determine if DLBCLs could be similarly segregated, we performed bulk transcriptional analyses focused specifically on immunological aspects of the lymphoma environment. Our discovery cohort consisted of bulk transcriptomic data from diagnostic DLBCL biopsies from the National Cancer Institute (NCI, n = 481) (21,22) and an internal dataset from the University of Chicago Medical Center (UCMC, n = 96) (23), comprising a total of 577 cases (*See Methods for details)*. Gene set variation analysis (GSVA) (24) was used to calculate sample-wise relative enrichment scores reflecting the collective expression of genes comprising 19 gene sets that fell into 2 functional groups: 1) immune-related signatures, and 2) COO-related signatures **(Supplementary Table 1)**. Twelve immune-related signatures that reflect the presence or activation state of immune cell subsets were manually curated from an extensive literature search and contained gene sets related to: IFNγ response (12), type I IFN response (15), CD8$^+$ T cell activation (15,25,26) and exhaustion (15), T helper subsets (T$_h$1 (25), T$_h$2 (25), T follicular helper (T$_{fh}$) (25), and regulatory T cells (T$_{reg}$) (15)), macrophages (15), and dendritic cells (27). COO-related signatures were also included in the GSVA because COO classification segregates DLBCLs into two subtypes - germinal center B-cell-like (GCB) and activated B-cell-like (ABC) - with distinct clinical, transcriptional, and genetic features (1,17,18,28–33). Therefore, we hypothesized that COO would significantly influence the immune environment of DLBCL. To control for potential heterogeneity in DLBCL immune landscapes related to COO, the second category of gene sets included in the GSVA were

derived from a validated gene expression-based COO classifier (34), as well as gene sets regulated

by IRF4 (35) and BCL6 (35), two transcription factors critical for COO classification. Altogether,

577 unique genes were included in the 19 gene sets selected for GSVA (<15% overlap between

individual gene sets).

GSVA scores for the 577 DLBCLs in the discovery cohort were next subjected to principal

component analysis (PCA), which revealed that the majority (69.8%) of variance in gene set

expression scores was explained by PC1 (45.38%) and PC2 (24.43%). Unsupervised k-means

clustering was performed on the PCA-transformed dataset and the optimal number of clusters was

determined to be four **(Supplementary Figure 1A)**. DLBCLs in our discovery cohort were then

assigned to one of four specific clusters as described below. Samples from NCI and UCMC

datasets were equally represented in each cluster, indicating the absence of significant batch effects

(Supplementary Figure 1B and C).

Individual immune-related gene set expression scores were highly correlated, trended in

the same direction along PC1 **(Figure 1A)**, and contributed minimally to the PC2 axis

(Supplementary Figure 1D and E). Conversely, COO-related gene sets offered the largest

contribution to PC2 and did not contribute significantly to PC1 **(Supplementary Figure 1D and**

E). ABC COO-related gene sets (ABCDLBCL-1, ABCDLBCL-2, IRF4Up-7) were highly

correlated and positively associated with PC2, while GCB COO-related gene sets (GCBDLBCL-

1, GCBDLBCL-2, IRF4Dn-1) were negatively associated with PC2 **(Figure 1A)**. Comparative

analyses of the transcriptomes of DLBCLs assigned to the ABC (PC2 > 0) and GCB (PC2 < 0)

clusters by GSVA identified 310 differentially expressed genes ($|log2FC| > 1.0$, adj p value < 0.05).

In line with previous reports, several genes (*BATF* and *IRF4)*, known to drive classification of

ABC DLBCLs using molecular clustering methods, were also upregulated in DLBCLs classified

as ABC by our GSVA platform (34). Differentially expressed genes in GSVA-classified GCB

DLBCLs (*MYBL1*, *SERPIN9A*, and *LMO2*) were also highly expressed in bona-fide GCB

DLBCLs **(Supplementary Figure 1F)** (34). Additionally, unclassified DLBCLs, with

transcriptional features intermediate between ABC and GCB subsets, were clustered around PC2

~ 0. This analysis indicated that two clusters within our dataset contained ABC DLBCLs and the

other two contained GCB DLBCLs. As an orthogonal validation of our COO-related PC2 axis, the

overlap between our GSVA-based COO calls with COO annotations defined through gene

expression-based (NCI) and RNAseq-based (UCMC) classifiers was compared (19,34). Molecular

COO calls were concordant with GSVA-based COO classifications in >95% of cases, indicating

that GSVA accurately clusters DLBCLs based on their true COO (**Figure 1B and C**).

As mentioned above, our GSVA model also segregated DLBCLs by distinct immune-

related gene set expression scores along PC1. Differential gene expression (DGE) analysis was

performed on these putative "hot" (PC1 > 0) and "cold" (PC1 < 0) DLBCLs. "Hot" DLBCLs were

characterized by significant upregulation of canonical genes related to immune cell infiltration and

activation (e.g. *CD2, CD3D, CD3E, GZMK, IFNG, CD8A, PRF1*) when compared to "cold"

DLBCLs **(Supplementary Figure 1G)**. Therefore, we determined that ABC DLBCLs could be

transcriptionally defined as "ABC hot" (n = 182, 31.5%, PC1 > 0, PC2 > 0), characterized by high

enrichment scores for ABC COO-related and immune-related gene sets, or "ABC cold" (n = 184,

31.9%, PC1 < 0, PC2 > 0). Similarly, GCB DLBCLs could be subdivided into "GCB hot" (n =122,

21.1%, PC1 >0, PC2 <0) and "GCB cold" (n = 89, 15.4%, PC1 < 0, PC2 < 0) clusters **(Figure**

1D). Immune-related and COO-related gene sets were orthogonal and segregated DLBCLs into a

quadrant-like structure that we termed DLBCL-immune quadrants (DLBCL-IQ). Interestingly,

DLBCLs assigned to the ABC hot cluster were, on average, associated with higher expression

scores of immune-related gene sets (PC1 scores) compared to DLBCLs assigned to the GCB hot

cluster, suggesting that ABC hot DLBCLs are overall slightly more inflamed than their GCB hot

counterparts **(Figure 1E)**. Collectively, these results demonstrate that bulk transcriptional analysis

can effectively segregate DLBCLs into four unique clusters, each characterized by a distinct

distribution of immune-related (PC1) and COO-related (PC2) scores.

When an identical GSVA was performed on an independent DLBCL dataset (British

Columbia Cancer, BCC, n = 285) (36,37), a similar clustering pattern emerged **(Supplementary**

Figure 2A), with immune-related gene sets contributing to PC1 and COO-related gene sets

contributing to PC2 **(Supplementary Figure 2B)**. Therefore, the NCI/UCMC and BCC datasets

were combined to power downstream analyses. In the combined dataset (n = 862), DLBCLs from

different sources (NCI/UCMC versus BCC) were similarly distributed among each of the four IQs

(Supplementary Figure 2C and D), and again, immune-related gene sets contributed to PC1 and

COO-related gene sets contributed to PC2 **(Supplementary Figure 2E)**. As expected, the

combined dataset again was distributed into four IQs, demonstrating the stability of GSVA-based

clustering in classifying DLBCLs by COO and their immune environment **(Supplementary**

Figure 2F).

Prognostic significance of DLBCL-IQs.

Next, the extent to which our IQs correlated with clinical outcomes to initial treatment with

R-CHOP was assessed. Consistent with the known association of COO with survival to R-CHOP

chemotherapy, lymphomas assigned to GCB DLBCL-IQs showed improved progression-free

survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS) compared to those assigned to ABC DLBCL-IQs (18,30).

However, further stratifying within ABC or GCB DLBCLs according to IQ assignment did not

impact survival outcomes to R-CHOP therapy **(Supplementary Figure 3A and B)**, indicating that

the unique DLBCL immune environments were not associated with differential outcomes to R-

CHOP chemotherapy.

Validation of transcriptionally defined DLBCL-IQs.

Immune cell deconvolution analysis using CIBERSORTx was performed to determine the

degree to which GSVA-based IQs correlated with inferred proportions of various immune cell

populations in the DLBCL environment (38). As expected, higher estimated fractions of numerous

immune cell subsets were observed among ABC and GCB hot DLBCLs **(Figure 2A)**. Specifically,

GCB and ABC hot DLBCLs showed higher inferred proportions of CD8$^+$ T cells **(Figure 2B)**,

CD4$^+$ T cells **(Figure 2C)**, FOXP3$^+$ T$_{regs}$ **(Supplementary Figure 4A)**, and macrophages

(Supplementary Figure 4B), when compared to GCB and ABC cold DLBCLs.

Next, to confirm that DLBCL-IQs accurately reflect the actual immune cell composition

of specific lymphoma environments, multispectral immunofluorescence (mIF) was performed on

a subset of DLBCLs (n = 65, UCMC) for which paired RNA-seq data were available. Staining was

performed using fluorescently labeled antibodies against T cell markers (CD4 and CD8),

macrophage markers (CD68), DAPI, and B cells (PAX5). Macrophage (CD68$^+$) to DLBCL

(PAX5$^+$) cell ratios were similar across immune clusters **(Supplementary Figure 4C)** and were

not significantly correlated with sample-wise hot/cold (PC1) axis scores **(Supplementary Figure**

4D). However, there were significant differences in T cell infiltration among the four DLBCL-

IQs. Representative images of a hot and cold DLBCL are shown in **Figure 2D**. DLBCLs

transcriptionally clustered by GSVA as ABC or GCB hot were characterized by significantly

higher ratios of CD8$^+$ T cells to DLBCL cells when compared to ABC and GCB cold counterparts

(Figure 2E). Furthermore, CD8^{+} T cell to DLBCL cell ratios were significantly correlated with

sample-wise hot/cold (PC1) axis scores **(Figure 2F)**. The same was true for CD4^{+} T cell to DLBCL

cell ratios (**Figure 2G and H**). These data validate the accuracy of GSVA-based clustering in

classifying DLBCLs as harboring hot or cold immune environments.

Immune environments of molecularly-defined DLBCL subtypes.

Recently, several novel DLBCL subsets and their associated immune environments have

been described. For example, we previously demonstrated that *PD-L1* gene alterations (copy gains,

amplifications, translocations), identified by fluorescent *in-situ* hybridization (FISH) in ~20% of

DLBCLs, were associated with a non-GCB COO and a T cell inflamed environment (23).

Therefore, we anticipated our GSVA model would identify *PD-L1* gene-altered DLBCLs as being

enriched in the ABC hot cluster. Since *PD-L1* FISH was not available for all datasets,

amplifications in the *PD-L1* locus were identified through analysis of paired whole exome

sequencing (WES) (UCMC and BCC) or comparative genomic hybridization data (NCI). The

analysis was restricted to identification of overt *PD-L1* amplifications – defined as ≥ 4 copies – to

reduce the likelihood of false-positive and -negative calls. *PD-L1* amplifications were found in

4.7% of all DLBCLs, and were enriched among ABC hot cases, confirming our hypothesis.

However, given the low incidence of *PD-L1* gene-amplified DLBCLs, this result did not meet

statistical significance **(Figure 3A and B)**.

Dark zone signature positive (DZsig[pos]) DLBCLs – formerly double hit signature positive

(DHITsig[+]) DLBCLs – are a transcriptionally defined, high-risk GCB DLBCL subset associated

with a paucity of infiltrating immune cells (37,39). As expected, when the DZsig was applied to

our DLBCL immune clusters, DZsig[pos] DLBCLs were significantly enriched in the GCB cold

cluster. **(Figure 3C and D)**. Thus, these data suggest GSVA-based clustering accurately identifies

immune- and COO-associated features of established DLBCL subtypes, such as those harboring

PD-L1 gene amplifications and those expressing the DZsig.

Kotlov and colleagues recently classified DLBCLs based on functional gene expression

signatures (F^{GES}) that reflected the relative abundance and functional features of cellular

constituents (19). This analysis also identified four DLBCL clusters, termed "lymphoma

microenvironments" (LMEs), including: 1) mesenchymal (LME-ME), characterized by high

abundance of stromal and extracellular matrix components; 2) germinal center-like (LME-GC),

characterized by presence of cells found in germinal centers; 3) inflammatory (LME-IN),

harboring an inflammatory milieu; 4) depleted (LME-DE), characterized by decreased expression

of F^{GES} scores related to immune cells in the environment. To determine the concordance between

LME subtypes and our GSVA-defined immune clusters, LME cluster annotations were applied to

DLBCLs in our combined NCI/UCMC/BCC dataset. We found that the ABC hot cluster

overlapped significantly with an inflammatory microenvironment (LME-IN) **(Figure 3E)**. ABC

hot DLBCLs exhibited high F^{GES} scores for several gene sets that reflect the presence and

activation of T cell subsets, including tumor infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs), T_{reg}, T cell traffic,

and JAK-STAT signaling **(Supplementary Figure 5)**. GCB and ABC cold DLBCLs were

characterized by low expression of T cell and myeloid cell-related F^{GES} scores but demonstrated

higher F^{GES} scores for B cell signaling when compared to hot DLBCLs **(Supplementary Figure**

5), and strongly overlapped with LME-DE **(Figure 3E)**. LME-GC and LME-ME, however, did

not overlap significantly with any GSVA-defined immune clusters **(Figure 3E)**. Collectively,

these results suggest that LME and our GSVA clustering capture different aspects of the lymphoma

microenvironment.

Genomic features associated with DLBCL-IQs.

Emerging evidence indicates that specific oncogenic alterations and associated transcriptional programs can significantly impact the composition of the tumor immune environment and vulnerability to immunotherapies in solid tumors (40–48). Therefore, we analyzed paired WES for DLBCLs in the combined cohort to identify genetic features associated with each of our GSVA-based immune-related clusters.

In DLBCL, several landmark studies have developed genomic approaches to describe new DLBCL subtypes based on the presence of specific co-occurring genetic alterations (21,29,49). One such analysis classified DLBCLs into seven subtypes based on distinct genetic features using a probabilistic classifier called LymphGen (21). However, the association of specific LymphGen clusters with distinct immune environments has not been fully elucidated. LymphGen cluster annotations were available for 754 DLBCLs in our combined dataset. Broadly speaking, LymphGen classifications overlapped imperfectly with our DLBCL-IQs **(Figure 4A)**, with a few notable exceptions. For example, DLBCLs characterized by activating *NOTCH1* mutations (LymphGen N1 subtype), were significantly enriched in the ABC hot cluster, while DLBCLs with *TP53* loss and aneuploidy (LymphGen A53 subtype), were almost exclusively found in the ABC cold cluster. Lastly, DLBCLs with gain-of-function mutations in *EZH2*, *BCL2* translocations, and *MYC* activation (LymphGen EZB-MYC⁺ subtype), were enriched in the GCB cold cluster. Compared to other LymphGen subtypes, A53 and EZB-MYC⁺ DLBCLs have been shown to exhibit low expression of signatures related to immune cell subsets, including T cells, macrophages, and DCs, consistent with their assignment to ABC and GCB cold IQs, respectively (21). The remaining four LymphGen subtypes showed little correlation with specific GSVA-based

immune-related clusters, and LymphGen unclassified DLBCLs (~40% of all DLBCLs) were

broadly distributed among all four IQs **(Figure 4A)**.

To examine whether individual mutations or copy number alterations (CNAs) are

associated with particular DLBCL immune environments, we compared the genetic landscapes of

DLBCLs assigned to each of the four GSVA-defined IQs (n = 842). The analysis was restricted to

essential driver genes to identify those most relevant to DLBCL biology **(Supplementary Table**

2) (28,29). Comparative analysis of hot DLBCLs versus cold DLBCLs independent of COO

identified several genetic lesions associated with cold immune environments, including *FOXO1*,

MYD88, and *TMEM30A*. Comparatively fewer genetic alterations were significantly enriched in

hot DLBCLs, but included mutations in *SOCS1*, *TNFRSF14,* and *CD274* **(Supplementary Figure**

6A). As ABC and GCB DLBCLs arise in the context of distinct genetic alterations and oncogenic

pathways, we next compared oncogenic alterations specifically enriched in ABC hot versus ABC

cold DLBCLs, and GCB hot versus GCB cold DLBCLs. Alterations in genes such as *MYD88,*

KLHL14, CARD11, and *TMEM30A,* known to be potent drivers of chronic BCR signaling, were

strongly enriched in ABC cold DLBCLs (50–52) **(Figure 4B)**. Alterations in *CD274* (*PD-L1*) were

significantly enriched among ABC hot DLBCLs **(Figure 4B)**, concordant with our previous work

(23). Mutations in *RB1*, *FOXO1*, and *GNA13* were enriched in the GCB cold cluster, while those

in *TNFAIP3* and *SOCS1* were significantly associated with the GCB hot cluster **(Figure 4C)**.

To gain insight into the impact of oncogenic signaling pathways on DLBCL immune

environments, mutations and CNAs were grouped into functional pathways. Genetic alterations in

the BCR-dependent NF-κB signaling pathway were significantly enriched in ABC cold DLBCLs

compared to ABC hot DLBCLs **(Supplementary Figure 6B)** (52,53). ABC and GCB cold

DLBCLs were both significantly enriched for alterations in genes involved in p53 signaling and

cell cycle progression compared to ABC and GCB hot DLBCLs, respectively **(Supplementary**

Figure 6C) (54).

Finally, gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) showed upregulation of immune-related

gene sets, including IFNγ targets, IFNα response genes, and IL2-STAT5 signaling pathway genes

in ABC hot and GCB hot clusters (**Figure 4D**). In contrast, G2M target gene sets were enriched in

ABC and GCB cold DLBCL clusters, suggesting dysregulated lymphoma cell cycling might play

a role in orchestrating cold DLBCL immune environments **(Figure 4D and E)**. GSEA also

demonstrated that ABC and GCB cold DLBCLs were significantly enriched for expression of *MYC*

target genes compared to ABC and GCB hot DLBCLs (**Figure 4D and F)**. Taken together, these

data show that several genetic lesions and oncogenic pathways are recurrently associated with

specific GSVA-defined DLBCL-IQs, suggesting that lymphoma cell-intrinsic alterations may

impact the immune environment in DLBCL.

MYC activation is strongly associated with cold DLBCL immune environments.

Because GSEA showed striking upregulation of MYC targets in cold DLBCLs, the role of

MYC in orchestrating a cold immune environment was further interrogated. We devised a MYC

GSVA score using genes from a previously published target gene signature (MycUp-4) to assign

DLBCLs into "MYC-High," "MYC-Low", or "MYC-Int" groups (55). IHC for MYC expression

was performed on DLBCLs in the BCC cohort with paired transcriptomic data (n = 266). DLBCLs

with high MYC protein expression – defined as ≥ 40% of lymphoma cells expressing MYC by

IHC staining – were consistently classified as MYC-high transcriptionally (MYC-High).

Conversely, DLBCLs identified as MYC-Low transcriptionally were characterized by low MYC

protein expression. Thus, expression of the transcriptional MYC signature accurately identifies

DLBCLs with high versus low MYC protein expression **(Supplementary Figure 7A)**.

ABC cold and GCB cold DLBCLs showed significantly higher expression of the MYC

activation signature compared to ABC hot or GCB hot DLBCLs **(Supplementary Figure 7B)** and

MYC-High DLBCLs were equally distributed between ABC cold (40%) and GCB cold (40%)

clusters **(Supplementary Figure 7C)**. Moreover, compared to their MYC-Low counterparts,

MYC-High DLBCLs in both ABC and GCB clusters contained significantly lower inferred

proportions of immune cell subsets when analyzed by CIBERSORTx **(Supplementary Figure**

7D-F), suggesting a negative correlation between MYC activation and an inflamed environment.

DLBCLs in the MYC-High group were characterized by lower CD8$^+$ T cell to DLBCL cell ratios

compared to MYC-Low DLBCLs when assessed by mIF **(Supplementary Figure 7G)**. CD8$^+$ T

cell to DLBCL cell ratios were also negatively correlated with a sample wise MYC GSVA score

(Supplementary Figure 7H). Similar findings were also observed for CD4$^+$ T cells

(Supplementary Figure 7I and J).

The molecular mechanisms underlying MYC activation differ in ABC and GCB DLBCLs

(56–58). For example, *MYC* translocations to the immunoglobulin heavy chain (*IGH*) locus are

commonly found in GCB DLBCLs, while in ABC DLBCLs, MYC is more commonly activated

downstream of other oncogenic events such as BCR-dependent NF-κB signaling (56–58).

Interestingly, ABC cold DLBCLs had significantly higher MYC signature scores when compared

to GCB cold DLBCLs **(Supplementary Figure 7B)**, suggesting that ABC DLBCLs use distinct

mechanisms to drive more potent *MYC* activation. Comparative analysis of the genomes of GCB

MYC-High and GCB MYC-Low groups showed MYC-High GCB DLBCLs were enriched for

alterations in *MYC* and *DDX3X*, consistent with published reports of the oncogenic profiles of

DZsig^pos and EZB-MYC⁺ DLBCLs which share considerable overlap with our GSVA-defined

GCB MYC-High DLBCL group **(Supplementary Figure 7K)** (21,37,39). Conversely, ABC

MYC-High DLBCLs showed recurrent alterations in *MYD88^{L265P}, CD79B,* and *PRDM1* compared

to ABC MYC-Low DLBCLs **(Supplementary Fig 7L).** Interestingly, several genes enriched in

ABC *MYC*-high DLBCLs fell into the "BCR-dependent NF-κB" pathway, suggesting that

activation of this signaling pathway may drive MYC activity in ABC DLBCLs and promote a cold

immune environment (52,53).

***SOCS1* mutations are enriched among GCB hot DLBCLs and enhance B-cell sensitivity to**

IFNγ.

We were particularly intrigued by the strong association between GCB hot DLBCLs and

putative LoF *SOCS1* mutations as SOCS1 is also frequently mutated in classical Hodgkin

lymphoma (cHL) (59–61) and primary mediastinal B cell lymphoma (PMBL) (59,62–64) – two

lymphoma subtypes associated with inflamed immune environments and sensitivity to CBT

(10,20,65–68). SOCS1 is a tumor suppressor and potent negative regulator of JAK/STAT

signaling, and LoF mutations in *SOCS1* have been implicated in enhancing oncogenic JAK/STAT

signaling in lymphoma downstream of cytokines such as IL-4 and IL-13 (69–73). However, as T

cell effector cytokines such as IFNγ also signal through the JAK/STAT pathway, we hypothesized

that LoF *SOCS1* mutations may render DLBCLs more sensitive to the effects of IFNγ (74–76).

SOCS1 LoF alterations were identified in 16.2% of DLBCLs in our combined cohort and

were significantly associated with a GCB COO **(Figure 5A and B)**. As expected, the incidence of

SOCS1 mutations was significantly higher in the GCB hot cluster (30.3%) compared to other

clusters **(Figure 5A and B)**. *SOCS1* mutations were often missense or nonsense (82.3%) and

occurred with similar frequencies across the *SOCS1* gene **(Figure 5B),** consistent with the role of

SOCS1 as a tumor suppressor. Immune cell deconvolution revealed an increased inferred fraction

of several immune cell subsets, including CD8$^+$ T cells and CD4$^+$ T cells, in *SOCS1* mutant

compared to *SOCS1* wildtype GCB DLBCLs suggesting that GCB DLBCLs with *SOCS1*

mutations are more inflamed than their *SOCS1* wildtype counterparts **(Figure 5C)**. Moreover,

among GCB DLBCLs, GSEA demonstrated increased expression of IFNγ and IFNα signaling

pathway associated genes in *SOCS1* mutant DLBCLs compared to *SOCS1* WT DLBCLs **(Figure**

5D).

To directly test the hypothesis that loss of Socs1 function would render B cells more

sensitive to IFNγ, splenocytes from *Socs1*-deficient (*Cd19*$^{Cre/+}$*Socs1*$^{fl/fl}$) or *Socs1*-sufficient mice

(*Cd19*$^{Cre/+}$) were subjected to IFNγ stimulation. Representative gating of CD19$^+$ B cells and CD3$^+$

T cells is shown in **Supplementary Figure 8A**. As hypothesized, IFNγ response genes, such as

MHC-II, and PD-L1, were significantly more inducible by IFNγ in a dose-dependent manner in

splenic CD19$^+$ B cells from mice lacking *Socs1* compared to wildtype controls **(Figure 5E,**

Supplementary Figure 8B). This effect was specific to CD19$^+$ cells in which *Socs1* had been

deleted, as MHC-II and PD-L1 were similarly inducible in CD3$^+$ T cells isolated from spleens of

conditional *Socs1*-sufficient and *Socs1*-deficient mice **(Supplementary Figure 8C)**. These data

demonstrate that DLBCLs with *SOCS1* mutations represent a novel subset of inflamed lymphomas

that may be particularly vulnerable to T cell-based immunotherapies due to enhanced IFNγ

sensitivity.

DLBCL-IQs are associated with differential benefit to BsAb therapy.

The presence of activated T cells in the tumor environment has been associated with response to CBT in solid cancers (12–15,77,78). However, the extent to which the local immune environment impacts the effectiveness of immunotherapies, such as BsAbs, has not been well characterized in DLBCL. Therefore, we sought to define the degree to which pre-existing DLBCL immune environments correlated with clinical benefit following treatment with mosunetuzumab, a CD3 x CD20 BsAb.

First, using the immune- and COO-related gene sets described above, GSVA was performed on transcriptomes of pre-treatment r/r DLBCL biopsies (n=74) from patients enrolled on a phase I/II dose-escalation study of mosunetuzumab (7). Similar to our training and validation datasets, PCA again revealed that PC1 reflected an immune-related axis and PC2 reflected a COO-related axis **(Figure 6A)**. We also observed that r/r DLBCLs were segregated into the same quadrant structure identified in our training and validation cohorts that were derived from treatment-naïve DLBCLs. Each IQ was of a relatively similar size (ABC cold, n = 21, 28.3%; ABC hot, n = 18, 24.3%; GCB cold, n = 19, 25.7%; GCB hot, n = 16, 21.6%), and was defined by the distribution of PC1 and PC2 scores **(Figure 6B)**. The identification of comparable IQs in this r/r dataset suggests that immune environments associated with r/r DLBCL may are similar to those in the treatment naïve setting.

Next, we addressed whether GSVA-defined DLBCL-IQs were associated with differential outcomes to mosunetuzumab treatment. Independent of COO, r/r DLBCLs characterized as "hot" (n = 37) demonstrated significantly improved PFS with mosunetuzumab treatment (HR = 0.74 (0.59-0.94), p = 0.012) compared to those classified as "cold" (n = 37) **(Figure 6C)**. Outcomes to mosunetuzumab treatment were next compared between ABC hot and ABC cold, as well as GCB hot and GCB cold DLBCLs. Interestingly, patients with GCB hot DLBCLs demonstrated

significantly improved PFS compared to those with GCB cold DLBCLs (HR = 0.31 (0.14-0.67),

p = 0.0033) **(Figure 6D).** Patients with GCB cold DLBCLs demonstrated extremely poor outcomes

after treatment with mosunetuzumab, with a median PFS of only 2.3 months. Conversely, PFS

following mosunetuzumab treatment was similar among patients with ABC hot and ABC cold

DLBCLs **(Supplementary Figure 9A)**. Taken together, these data indicate that the pre-treatment

immune environment can significantly influence response to mosunetuzumab immunotherapy in

patients with r/r GCB DLBCL.

Discussion

Here, we curated immune- and COO-related gene sets and performed GSVA to analyze

bulk transcriptomes of 862 diagnostic DLBCL samples across three large datasets, which

effectively segregated DLBCLs into four immune-related clusters: GCB cold, GCB hot, ABC cold,

and ABC hot. The accuracy of transcriptional clustering was validated by mIF, which confirmed

ABC and GCB hot DLBCLs had significantly more tumor-infiltrating T cells compared to their

ABC and GCB cold DLBCL counterparts. In addition to characterizing the spectrum of immune

environments present in DLBCL, we identified strong associations between recurrent genetic

alterations and each GSVA-defined IQ, and showed how *SOCS1* LoF mutations, enriched in GCB

hot DLBCLs, functioned to increase B cell sensitivity to IFNγ. Finally, we uncovered a striking

relationship between the pre-existing immune landscape and response to CD3 x CD20 BsAb

immunotherapy in patients with r/r GCB DLBCL.

Previous transcriptional analyses have revealed significant upregulation of immune-related

genes in a fraction of DLBCLs. For example, using consensus clustering, Monti and colleagues

identified a "host response" subset of DLBCLs characterized by increased expression of immune-

related genes and robust T cell and dendritic cell infiltration (16). More recently, Kotlov and

colleagues employed Functional Gene Expression Signatures (F[GES]) to analyze the transcriptomes

of over 4000 DLBCL specimens, revealing that roughly one quarter of DLBCLs harbored an

inflammatory microenvironment (LME-IN) (19). Thus, akin to solid cancers, there exists a

population of DLBCLs against which an endogenous anti-lymphoma immune response has been

activated. However, the mechanisms that orchestrate unique DLBCL immune environments, and

the potential association between the immune environment and immunotherapy response in

DLBCL, have not been well-explored. To address these important questions, we characterized

DLBCLs based on immune environmental features.

A central hypothesis underlying our analyses was that lymphoma cell-intrinsic alterations

significantly influence the composition of the DLBCL immune environment. Supporting this

notion, we found that each GSVA-defined immune cluster was significantly enriched for distinct

genetic lesions and oncogenic pathways. Far more recurrent genetic alterations were associated

with cold DLBCLs than with hot DLBCLs, suggesting that lymphomas may leverage numerous

oncogenic pathways to facilitate immune evasion. For example, among ABC DLBCLs, mutations

culminating in enhanced BCR activation and downstream NF-κB signaling, such as *MYD88*^{L265P}*,*

CARD11, and *KLHL14*, were significantly associated with cold immune environments

(35,53,79,80). Additionally, LoF alterations in *TMEM30A* – a flippase enzyme that maintains

asymmetric phosphatidylserine distribution on the internal leaflet of the cell membrane – were also

significantly enriched among ABC cold DLBCLs, which is interesting since *TMEM30A* loss also

drives enhanced BCR signaling (50). The potential mechanism(s) by which oncogenic BCR

signaling in lymphoma cells leads to decreased T cell infiltration and/or activation remains

unknown but is an active area of investigation in our laboratory.

Among GCB DLBCLs, we identified several genes associated with "cold" environments.

These included *FOXO1* and *GNA13*, which are interestingly frequently mutated in Burkitt

lymphoma (BL) (81–83). While the immune environment of BL has not yet been fully

characterized, BL often exhibits low expression scores of immune-related gene sets when

compared to DLBCL (26,84,85). Thus, it is interesting to speculate that the presence of BL-like

mutations may also drive a cold immune environment in DLBCL.

Conversely, GCB hot DLBCLs were significantly enriched for *SOCS1* LoF mutations,

which are highly prevalent in cHL and PMBL, diseases with inflamed environments that are highly

susceptible to CBT. *SOCS1* is a potent negative regulator of IFNγ signaling – an effector cytokine

critical for anti-tumor immune responses (12,13,72–74,86). Supporting this notion, genetic

alterations that blunt IFNγ sensing in tumors, such as LoF mutations in *JAK1/2*, lead to resistance

to T cell-based immunotherapies (43,78,87–90). In contrast, loss of negative regulators of the IFNγ

signaling, for example *PTPN2, PBRM1,* and *ARID2*, sensitize tumor cells to IFNγ and T cell

mediated cytolysis, are associated with inflamed tumor environments, and have been linked with

CBT responsiveness in solid tumors (45,46,91,92). Although the extent to which LoF mutations

in *SOCS1* directly mediate sensitivity to CBT in lymphomas such as cHL and PMBL remains to

be elucidated, we hypothesize that *SOCS1* inactivation renders lymphoma cells more sensitive to

IFNγ signaling, as we find that genetic ablation of *Socs1* sensitizes B cells to IFNγ. Therefore,

these data suggest that *SOCS1*-altered DLBCLs may be inherently vulnerable to T cell-based

immunotherapies that rely on this key effector cytokine.

A shared feature of many cold DLBCLs was robust MYC pathway activation. These data

are supported by previous studies demonstrating strong associations between MYC activity and

decreased T cell infiltration in DLBCL (37,79,85). Interestingly, ABC cold DLBCLs showed

higher expression of MYC target genes compared to GCB cold DLBCLs, which was surprising

given that MYC activity in GCB DLBCL is frequently driven by the acquisition of *MYC*

translocations to the *IGH* locus that result in constitutive *MYC* expression (56–58). We hypothesize

that ABC DLBCL-associated oncogenic pathways, namely BCR-dependent NF-κB signaling, may

drive particularly potent MYC activity. Thus, while the mechanism(s) by which MYC activation

leads to a cold environment in DLBCL requires additional investigation, these data suggest that

therapies that indirectly modulate MYC activity by acting on upstream regulators, such as BCR

signaling, may restore T cell infiltration in a subset of DLBCLs and improve their sensitivity to T

cell-dependent immunotherapies.

Important from a translational perspective was our observation that GCB hot DLBCLs

were associated with improved PFS following treatment with the BsAb, mosunetuzumab, whereas

patients with GCB cold DLBCLs were less likely to benefit from this immunotherapy. Thus, for

r/r GCB DLBCLs, the pre-existing immune environment is clearly an important factor associated

with benefit from BsAb immunotherapy. Consistent with these findings, correlative analyses

performed on pre-treatment biopsies of r/r DLBCL patients treated with glofitamab, another CD3

x CD20 BsAb, demonstrated a trend toward higher effector $CD8^+$ T cell transcripts in DLBCL

patients who achieved a complete response (93). The finding that ABC hot and ABC cold DLBCLs

derive similar benefit from mosunetuzumab treatment, suggests there are likely qualitative COO-

related immune environmental differences not captured by our analysis and/or the existence of

other factors that could impact BsAb response.

While these results represent an important advance in our understanding of the DLBCL

immune environment, there are some limitations to our study. Our analysis utilized bulk

transcriptomic data from diagnostic DLBCL samples, and it is unclear how prior therapies impact

the immune landscape in this disease. We sought to address this caveat by applying our GSVA-

based clustering to the transcriptomes of a cohort of heavily pre-treated patients with r/r DLBCL.

Encouragingly, similar to untreated DLBCL samples, we observed four immune-related clusters

in this dataset, which preliminarily suggests a relatively limited effect of cytotoxic therapy on the

composition of DLBCL immune environments. Another limitation of the study was that the

association between our immune-related clusters and response to mosunetuzumab was

retrospective in nature. Finally, the utility of our GSVA-based clustering method in identifying

DLBCL immune environments sensitive to other immunotherapies such as CAR-T cell therapy or

CBT, was not investigated. However, a recent study of DLBCLs treated with CAR-T cell therapy

demonstrated that increased baseline T cell infiltration was associated with improved survival after

CAR-T cell treatment, implicating the pre-existing immune environment as an important factor in

CAR-T response in DLBCL (94).

In conclusion, this study advances our understanding of the spectrum of immune

landscapes present in DLBCL and is the first to identify a specific subset of inflamed DLBCLs

that exhibit improved outcomes with mosunetuzumab. We also identified several oncogenic

drivers of DLBCL that are associated with distinct immune landscapes in this disease, which

suggests that lymphoma cell-intrinsic alterations may significantly influence the composition of

the immune environment. Several genes and pathways that we identified as recurrently altered in

cold DLBCLs may represent novel therapeutic targets that could be modulated to restore T cell

infiltration into the DLBCL environment and potentially improve immunotherapy sensitivity.

Collectively, these results expand our knowledge of DLBCL biology, identify four unique

DLBCL-IQs, and implicate the pre-treatment lymphoma immune environment as a major factor

influencing survival of DLBCL patients treated with BsAb therapy.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Transcriptomic analysis identifies four unique DLBCL immune environments. A. Principal component analysis (PCA) biplot showing the contribution of immune-related gene sets and COO-related gene sets to PC1 and PC2, respectively. **B**. Confusion matrix showing the concordance between GSVA-based COO classification and molecularly-defined COO designations for all DLBCLs in the discovery cohort (NCI/UCMC, n = 577). **C.** PCA plot showing concordance between sample-wise GSVA COO scores and molecularly-defined COO calls for all DLBCLs in the discovery cohort. Clusters are defined by the dashed line. **D.** PCA plot showing sample-wise GSVA enrichment scores for DLBCLs in the discovery cohort, labeled by immune quadrant (IQ) name (ABC Cold – dark blue, ABC Hot – red, GCB Cold – light blue, GCB Hot – yellow). **E.** Heatmap showing sample-wise GSVA enrichment scores for all 19 gene sets.

Figure 2. Validation of transcriptionally defined DLBCL-IQs. **A.** Heatmap showing estimated fraction of immune cell subtypes in each of the GSVA-based IQ as assessed by CIBERSORTx. **B-C.** Violin plots showing absolute inferred proportions of $CD8^+$ T cells **(B)** and conventional $CD4^+$ T cells **(C)** in each IQ. Statistical analysis by Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a post-hoc Dunn's test with Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) adjusted p values **D.** Representative multispectral immunofluorescence (mIF) images showing $Pax5^+$ lymphoma cells (green), $CD8^+$ T cells (red), $CD4^+$ T cells (blue) for a cold (left) and hot (right) DLBCL. **E.** Box plot showing average $CD8^+$ T cell : DLBCL cell ratios in immune-related clusters (n = 45). **F.** Scatter plot showing correlation of hot/cold axis score (PC1) and $CD8^+$ T cell : DLBCL cell ratio (n = 45). **G.** Box plot showing average $CD4^+$ T cell : DLBCL cell ratios in immune-related clusters (n = 45). **H.** Scatter plot showing correlation of hot/cold axis score (PC1) and $CD4^+$ T cell : DLBCL cell ratio (n = 45).

Figure 3. Immune environments of molecularly-defined DLBCL subtypes. A-B. PCA plot **(A)** and bar plot **(B)** showing frequency of *PD-L1* gene-amplified DLBCLs across GSVA-defined immune clusters. **C-D.** PCA plot **(C)** and bar plot **(D)** showing the frequency of DZsig^{pos} DLBCLs across GSVA-defined immune clusters. **E.** Alluvial plot demonstrating overlap between LME clusters and GSVA-defined immune clusters. (DZsig^{pos} – dark zone signature positive; LME – Lymphoma microenvironment; GC – germinal center; ME – mesenchymal; IN – inflamed; DE – depleted). Fisher's exact test with BH-adjusted p values.

Figure 4. Genomic features associated with DLBCL-IQs. A. Alluvial plot showing overlap between LymphGen subtypes and DLBC-IQs. **B.** Forest plot showing genetic alterations recurrently associated with ABC Hot or ABC Cold DLBCLs. **C.** Forest plot showing genetic alterations recurrently associated with GCB Hot or GCB Cold DLBCLs. **D.** Bar plot of gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) showing gene sets significantly enriched in each immune-related cluster. **E.** GSEA plots showing upregulation of MYC target gene sets in ABC cold and GCB cold DLBCLs. **F.** GSEA plots showing upregulation of G2M checkpoint related genes in ABC cold and GCB cold DLBCLs. OR – odds ratio; ES – enrichment score; NES – normalized enrichment score. Fisher's exact test with BH-adjusted p values displayed. (* adj. p < 0.1, ** adj. p < 0.05, *** adj. p < 0.01).

Figure 5. *SOCS1* mutations are enriched among GCB Hot DLBCLs and enhance B-cell sensitivity to IFNγ signaling. A. PCA plot (left) and bar plot (right) showing the frequency of *SOCS1* loss of function (LoF) alterations in each immune-related cluster. **B.** Lollipop plots

showing frequency and distribution of mutations in *SOCS1* in GCB Hot (top) and GCB cold

(bottom) DLBCLs. **C.** Immune cell deconvolution (CIBERSORTx) showing absolute inferred

proportions of indicated immune cell subsets in *SOCS1* LoF DLBCLs compared to *SOCS1*

wildtype (WT) DLBCLs. **D.** GSEA plots showing upregulation of IFNγ response genes and IFNα

response genes in *SOCS1* LoF DLBCLs compared to *SOCS1* WT DLBCLs. Fisher's exact test

with BH-adjusted p values for categorical variables. Kruskal-Wallis test followed by post-hoc

Dunn's test with adjusted p values for continuous variables. **E.** Fold change in mean fluorescence

intensity (MFI) of H-2^b, I-A/I-E^b, and PD-L1 on CD19$^+$ splenocytes. CD19$^+$ splenocytes from

Cd19$^{Cre/+}$ (n = 6) or *Cd19$^{Cre/+}$ Socs1$^{fl/fl}$* mice (n = 6) were cultured with media or the indicated

concentrations of IFNγ for 48 hours and expression levels of H-2^b, I-A/I-E^b, and PD-L1 were

measured. Mice were pooled from 3 independent biological replicates. Two-way ANOVA with

Bonferroni correction, adj. p values displayed (* adj. $p < 0.05$, ** adj. $p < 0.01$, *** adj. $p < 0.001$,

**** adj. $p < 0.0001$).

Figure 6. R/R DLBCL-IQs are associated with differential benefit to BsAb therapy. A. PCA

biplot showing the contribution of immune-related gene sets and COO-related gene sets to PC1

and PC2, respectively, for pre-treatment r/r DLBCL biopsies (n = 74) from patients treated with

mosunetuzumab. **B.** PCA plot showing sample-wise GSVA enrichment scores for DLBCL

biopsies from patients treated with mosunetuzumab. **C.** PFS for patients assigned to "hot" or

"cold" DLBCL immune clusters and treated with mosunetuzumab (top) and forest plot showing

hazard ratio of the association between PC1 score and PFS (bottom). **D.** PFS for patients assigned

to GCB Hot and GCB Cold DLBCL-IQs and treated with mosunetuzumab. Log-rank test with p

value displayed.

FIGURES

Figure 1. Transcriptomic analysis identifies four unique DLBCL immune environments.

Figure 2. Validation of transcriptionally defined DLBCL-IQs.

628 **Figure 2. Validation of transcriptionally defined DLBCL-IQs.**

Figure 3. Immune environments of molecularly defined DLBCL subtypes.

Figure 4. Genomic features associated with DLBCL-IQs.

Figure 5. *SOCS1* **mutations are enriched among GCB Hot DLBCLs and enhance B-cell**

641   **sensitivity to IFNγ signaling.**

Figure 6. R/R DLBCL-IQs are associated with differential benefit to BsAb therapy.

Methods

Data sets

NCI cohort: Pre-processed RNA-sequencing for 481 DLBCL biopsies were downloaded from

dbGaP (phs001444) (21). All patients had variants calls from whole exome sequencing and copy

number arrays.

UCMC cohort: RNA-sequencing was performed on 96 DLBCL biopsies (84 treatment-naïve, 12-

relapsed/refractory, 2 unknown). Paired whole exome sequencing was successful for 76 cases.

BCC cohort: Pre-processed RNA-sequencing for 285 treatment-naive DLBCL biopsies was

provided by BCC (36,37). Of these, 283 patients had available variant calls from targeted

sequencing and copy number arrays.

Molecular and genetic subtype classifications

Cell of origin: COO classifications were compiled from previously described gene expression-

based classifiers. For the NCI cohort, all DLBCLs had COO calls from a DGE-based classifier

(34). For the BCC cohort, 283 DLBCLs had COO calls from Lymph3Cx (36). For the UCMC

cohort, all samples had COO calls from an RNAseq-based classifier from BostonGene (19).

LME classifications: Lymphoma Microenvironment (LME) classifications for DLBCLs in the

NCI, BCC, and UCMC cohorts were provided by BostonGene (19).

Dark zone signature: DZsig (formerly known as double hit signature) classifications for the BCC

and NCI cohorts were obtained from Ennishi et al. (37) and Wright et al. (21), respectively. DZsig

classifications for the UCMC cohort were provided by BostonGene from an RNAseq-based

classifier (21).

***LymphGen* classifications:** LymphGen classifications for the BCC and NCI cohorts were obtained

from Wright et al. (21).

Generation and processing of sequencing data

Quality control: FastQC and FastQ Screen were used to assess read quality and other species

contamination (www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk). SNP (single nucleotide polyphorism)-

calling using pileup in FACETS was used to assess sample mix-ups and contamination (95).

Mutation-calling and annotation: Whole exome sequencing data for the UCMC cohort was

generated as previously described (23). Mutation-calling for whole exome sequencing data for the

UCMC cohort was performed similarly to the analysis in Kotlov et al (19). Reads were trimmed

using fastp to eliminate low-quality reads and then were aligned to the GRCh38 reference genome

using BWA (v0.7.17) (96,97). Duplicate reads were removed using Picard's MarkDuplicates

(v2.6.0) ("Picard Toolkit", 2019. Broad Institute, GitHub Repository) and recalibrated by

BaseRecalibrator and ApplyBQSR from GATK4 (98). For samples with a paired normal reference,

short variants were called using Strelka (99). For tumor-only samples, Pisces (v5.2) was used

(100). Variants were annotated using Variant Effect Predictor (VEP) (101). For all data sets,

variants were restricted to these predicted to be deleterious.

Copy number analysis: Copy number variation (CNV) was assessed using Sequenza with

modifications from FACETS (95,102). CNV analysis was performed in the space of genes listed

in **Supplementary Table 2.** Sequenza input reference was modified to match FACETS, calculated

using facets-pileup. For tumor-only samples, calling versus average normal or tumor sample was

performed using a modified version of Sequenza. Average normal/tumor pileup files were

prepared to average normalized coverage and variant allele fraction (VAF) at each position. Some

samples were excluded due to low coverage and/or tumor content. For all data sets, heterozygous

deletions and low-level copy gains were excluded.

PD-L1 gene alterations: *PD-L1* amplifications were defined by FISH when available but were

otherwise by sequencing. When assessed by sequencing, *PD-L1* amplifications were defined as $\geq$

4 copies.

RNA-seq processing and normalization: Paired-end and single-end RNA-seq data for the UCMC

cohort was generated as previously described (23). RNA-seq reads were aligned using kallisto

v0.42.4 to GENCODE v23 transcripts with default parameters (103). The protein-coding

transcripts, immunoglobulin heavy, kappa and lambda light chains, and TCR-related transcripts

were retained; noncoding RNA, histone, and mitochondria-related transcripts were removed.

Counts were processed using limma (v3.52.4) and edgeR (v3.38.4). Genes with low counts were

removed using a threshold of a 0.5 log2CPM average across all samples, as previously described

(24). Then, TMM (trimmed mean of M-values) normalization was performed, and counts were

quantified as log2CPM. Batch correction was performed using the removeBatchEffect function in

limma.

For DLBCLs in the mosunetuzumab cohort, robust library sizes were estimated using DESeq2,

and raw RNASeq counts were normalized via limma-voom.

Differential gene expression (DGE) and gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA):

DGE was performed using voom, and differentially expressed genes were generally defined as

those with $|log2FC| \geq 1$ and adjusted p value < 0.05 (104). GSEA was performed using the Desktop

client (v4.2.3) with default settings (105).

Comparing variants between groups

Variants were restricted to previously described DLBCL driver genes (28,29), listed in

Supplementary Table 2. Maftools (v2.12.0) was used to compare alterations between groups,

where additional filtering was performed to filter to genes altered in at least 10% of samples of the

smaller group (106).

Mutational pathway analysis

Genes in the BCR-dependent NFKB pathway (53,54) and cell cycle pathway-related genes (54)

were curated from previously published studies. The proportion of patients with an alteration in at

least one gene in the pathway was calculated and compared across clusters. Alterations for a given

gene were filtered to reflect their putative role as an oncogene or as a tumor suppressor gene.

CIBERSORTx

Immune cell deconvolution was performed using CIBERSORTx using the LM22 signature

matrix(38,107). The software was run on bulk-mode and absolute mode. For the input mixture file,

RNA-seq counts were first batch corrected using ComBat-Seq followed by quantification to

transcripts per million (TPM) (108). Cell types were condensed as such:

T.cells = "T cells CD8" + "T cells follicular helper (T_{fh})" + "T cells regulatory (Tregs)" + "T cells

CD4 naïve" + "T cells CD4 memory resting" + "T cells CD4 memory activated"+ "T cells gamma

delta"

NK.cells = "NK cells activated" + "NK cells resting"

Memory.CD4.T.cells = "T cells CD4 memory resting" + "T cells CD4 memory activated"

Conv.CD4.T.cells = "Memory.CD4.T.cells" + "T cells CD4 naïve" + "T cells follicular helper"

CD4.T.cells = "Memory.CD4.T.cells" + "T cells CD4 naïve" + "T cells follicular helper" + "T

cells regulatory (T_{regs})"

Dendritic.cells = "Dendritic cells activated" + "Dendritic cells resting"

B.cells = "B cells naïve" + "B cells memory" + "Plasma cells"

Macrophages = "Macrophages M0" + "Macrophages M1" + "Macrophages M2"

Gene set compilation

Gene sets were manually curated following an extensive literature search and focused on genes

related to 1) immune cell infiltration and activation, 2) cell-of-origin and 3) key transcription

factors related to cell-of-origin. Gene sets were excluded if they had fewer than 3 or more than 200

genes. Genes included in each gene set are listed in **Supplementary Table 1**.

Immune-related gene sets: Twelve immune-related gene sets were included, known to be

associated with immune activity in other cancer types. Gene sets were related to activation state of

T cells (t.cell.activation (15), t.cell.exhaustion (15), IFNγ_ayers (12)), non-cellular mediators of

immune responses (ifn1_rooney (15), cytolytic.score (26)), and presence of immune cell subsets

(tfh_charoentong (25), th1_charoentong (25), th2_charoentong (25), treg_rooney (15),

cd8t_charoentong (25), macrophage_rooney (15), dc_xcell_total (27)). In general, immune-related

gene sets had less than 15% overlap based on pairwise comparisons.

Cell of origin gene sets: A total of four COO gene sets - 2 ABC DLBCL (ABCDLBC-1,

ABCDLBCL-2) specific gene sets and 2 GCB DLBCL specific gene sets (GCBDLBCL-1,

GCBDLBCL-2) - were included. Gene sets are derived from the seminal gene expression classifier

(34), found in SignatureDB (SigDB)(55). (https://lymphochip.nih.gov/signaturedb/index.html).

Transcription factor gene sets: Three transcription factor related gene sets – related to IRF4

(IRF4Up-7 and IRF4Dn-1) and BCL6 (BCL6Dn-1) targets – were included from SigDB (55).

Immune signature clustering model

Gene set variation analysis (GSVA) using the 19 curated gene sets was performed on bulk

transcriptomes from 2 genomic datasets (NCI, n = 481; UCMC, n = 96) (21,23). The resulting

GSVA scores were resolved using principal component analysis (PCA). Unsupervised k-means

clustering was utilized to assign samples into unique clusters, where k = 4 clusters was optimally

selected using an elbow plot. Subsequent analyses using the third independent BCC dataset as well

as the 3-dataset combination were performed in the same structured steps, where equivalent

clustering was observed.

Generation of MYCUp4 expression groups

GSVA scores for the MYCUp-4 gene set (from SigDB (55)) were generated for all DLBCLs in

UCMC, NCI, and BCC datasets. DLBCLs were then split into ABC and GCB groups based on

their immune-related cluster membership, and a 25-75 percentile split within each COO group was

used to assign DLBCLs to "MYC-High" and "MYC-Low" groups. All other DLBCLs were

assigned to the "MYC-Int" group.

Multispectral immunofluorescence

Multi-spectral immunofluorescence (mIF) microscopy was performed on 65 DLBCLs (UCMC)

for which paired RNA-seq and GSVA data were available. mIF analysis was performed after

staining with fluorescence-labeled antibodies against a T cell panel and myeloid cell panel *(see*

antibodies for mIF section). Each slide was scanned using the Vectra Polaris (Akoya Biosciences)

imaging platform and the Phenochart software (PerkinElmer). Through Phenochart, at least 5

representative regions of interest per tissue section were acquired as multispectral images at 40x

magnification. Watershed segmentation was used to identify nuclei using DAPI staining and cell

borders of individual cells in each ROI. The supervised machine-learning algorithm in the inForm

software (v. 2.3) was used to classify each cell into specific phenotypes.

1. Slides were divided by panel and by specific features determined during the initial

watershed segmentation, including cell border detection, average cell size,

autofluorescence, and DAPI strength.

2. Samples were divided into 4 separate groups for each panel. 2 ROIs were chosen per

sample to train the machine-learning algorithm in inForm to identify the following

phenotypes with the associated markers:

1. **T cells** : CD8^{+} T cell, CD4^{+} T cell, PAX5^{+} DLBCL cell

2. **Myeloid cells** : CD68^{+} Macrophage, CD11c^{+} dendritic cell

3. Once the initial training groups were processed, all ROIs in each group of samples were

classified using the matching training cohort.

4. Results of per-slide frequencies of each phenotype were tabulated in R using exported

values from inForm using the `phenoptr` package and the representative mIF images were

also exported through inForm. Given heterogeneity of tumor and microenvironment

composition in each ROI, comparisons were made between total number of each TME cell

population/phenotype normalized against the number of DLBCL cells present across all

ROIs per slide.

Antibodies for mIF

Panel 1 -- Myeloid	Location	Opal	Primary Ab Info	Clone	Ag retrieval	Primary Ab Diluent
PAX5	nucleus	620	BioCare Medical,CM 207	BC/24, mouse mAb	AR9	1:50 in Da Vinci Green
CD68	membrane+cytoplasmic	570	BioCare Medical, CM033A	KP1, mouse mAb	AR9	1:50 in Da Vinci Green
CD11c	membrane	540	BioCare Medical, ACI3122A	5D11, mouse mAB	AR9	1:100 in Renoir Red

Panel 2 – T cell	Location	Opal	Primary Ab Info	Clone	Ag retrieval	Primary Ab Diluent
CD4	membrane	520	BioCare Medical, ACI3148A	4B12, mouse mAb	AR9	1:50 in Van Gogh Yellow
PAX5	nucleus	620	BioCare Medical,CM 207	BC/24, mouse mAb	AR9	1:50 in Da Vinci Green
CD8	membrane	690	R&D, NBP232836B	C8/144B, mouse mAb	AR9	1:50

***In vitro* IFNγ stimulation of splenocytes**

Spleens from *CD19^(Cre/wt)* and *CD19^(Cre/wt)* ; *Socs1^(fl/fl)* mice were obtained from Ari Melnick (Weill

Cornell Medicine). Spleens were passed through a 70 µm cell strainer (Corning, 352350) and

ground using the plunger of a syringe with 10 mL of PBS to yield single cell suspensions.

Splenocytes were then washed twice in 10mL of PBS, followed by lysis of red blood cells in a

hypotonic solution and three washes in 10 mL of PBS. 5×10^5 splenocytes from single cell

suspensions were incubated with increasing concentrations of recombinant mouse IFNγ (0, 0.1, 1,

10, 100 ng/mL) for 48 hours (Peprotech, 315-05). Cells were then harvested and incubated with a

panel of antibodies containing anti-mouse CD19 (Biolegend,115504), anti-mouse CD3d

(Biolegend, 100244), anti-mouse H-2 (Biolegend, 125506), anti-mouse I-A/I-E (Biolegend,

107619), and anti-mouse PD-L1 (Biolegend, 124311). Splenocytes were analyzed by flow

cytometry for expression of H-2, I-A/I-E, and PD-L1 on $CD19^+$ and $CD3^+$ cell populations. Mean

fluorescence intensity (MFI) fold change for H-2, H-2, I-A/I-E, and PD-L1 was computed by

comparing treatment with IFNγ compared to media-only control. Data shown are the average of at

least 3 independent biological replicates. Statistical testing was conducted using a 2-way ANOVA

with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.

Statistical methods

All statistical analyses were performed in R (v4.2.1). Statistical significance for categorical

variables was assessed with a Fisher's exact test for two-group comparisons; a multi-way Fisher's

exact test followed by post-hoc individual pairwise testing was used for comparisons of three or

more groups. Statistical significance of continuous variables was performed with a Mann-Whitney

U test for two-group comparisons and a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a post-hoc Dunn's test

for comparisons across three or more groups. Survival analysis was performed using the survival

package (v3.4.0), and the log-rank test was used to determine significance. A p value threshold of

0.05 was used to assess univariate statistical significance. Adjustment for multiple hypothesis

testing was performed using the Benjamini-Hochberg method unless indicated otherwise.

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Author Contributions

J.K. designed and supervised the study, obtained funding, and wrote the manuscript. S.T., J.G., A.C., and J.Y., designed the study, wrote the manuscript, and performed all data analyses. Y.Z. performed and assisted with the analysis of the multispectral immunofluorescence imaging data. X.C., B.W.M., J.S., B.P., G.D., and C.S., assisted with data collection and provision of study materials. G.V. assisted with the collection of tumor samples from the University of Chicago Hoogland Lymphoma Biobank. G.D., E.P., N.K., A.B., and N.F. assisted with genomic analyses. C.B. and E.P. assisted with the analysis and interpretation of the mosunetuzumab data. All authors reviewed and edited the manuscript.

Disclosure of Conflicts of Interest

S.T., J.G., A.C., X.C., B.W.M., B.P., Y.Z., G.V., J.S., and G.D. have no conflicts of interest to

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896   Data and Code Availability

897   Raw sequencing data from UCMC will be available at gene expression omnibus (GEO). This

898   paper does not report original code. Code to reproduce the GSVA clustering pipeline is available

899   at https://github.com/kline-lab-group/immune-quadrant.

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