The landscape of selection in 551 Esophageal Adenocarcinomas defines genomic biomarkers for the clinic

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Abstract:

Esophageal Adenocarcinoma (EAC) is a poor prognosis cancer type with rapidly rising incidence. Our understanding of genetic events which drive EAC development is limited and there are few molecular biomarkers for prognostication or therapeutics. We have accumulated a cohort of 551 genomically characterised EACs (73% WGS and 27% WES) with clinical annotation and matched RNA-seq. Using a variety of driver gene detection methods, we discover 77 EAC driver genes (73% novel) and 21 non-coding driver elements (95% novel), and describe mutation and CNV types with specific functional impact. We identify a mean of 4.4 driver events per case derived from both copy number events and mutations. We compare driver mutation rates to the exome-wide mutational excess calculated using Non-synonymous vs Synonymous mutation rates (dNdS). We observe mutual exclusivity or co-occurrence of events within and between a number of EAC pathways (GATA factors, Core Cell cycle genes, TP53 regulators and the SWI/SNF complex) suggestive of important functional relationships. These driver variants correlate with tumour differentiation, sex and prognosis. Poor prognostic indicators (SMAD4, GATA4) are verified in independent cohorts with significant predictive value. Over

28   50% of EACs contain sensitising events for CDK4/6 inhibitors which are highly correlated with clinically

29   relevant sensitivity in a panel EAC cell lines and organoids.

Introduction

Esophageal cancer is the eighth most common form of cancer world-wide and the sixth most

common cause of cancer related death[1]. Esophageal Adenocarcinoma (EAC) is the predominant

subtype in the west, including the UK and the US. The incidence of EAC in such countries has been

rapidly rising, with a seven-fold increase in incidence over the last 35 years in the US[2]. EAC is a highly

aggressive neoplasm, usually presenting at a late stage and is generally resistant to chemotherapy,

leading to five-year survival rates below 15%[3]. It is characterised by very high mutation rates in

comparison to other cancer types[4] but also, paradoxically, there is a paucity of recurrently mutated

genes. EACs also display dramatic chromosomal instability and thus may be classified as a C-type

neoplasm which may be driven mainly by structural variation rather than mutations[5,6]. Currently our

understanding of precisely which genetic events drive the development of EAC is highly limited and

consequentially there is a paucity of molecular biomarkers for prognosis or targeted therapeutics

available in the clinic.

Driver events undergoing positive selection during cancer evolution are a small proportion

of total number of genetic events that occur in each tumour[7]. Methods to differentiate driver

mutations from passenger mutations use features associated with known driver events to detect

regions of the genome, often genes, in which mutations are enriched for these features[8]. The

simplest of these features is the tendency of a mutation to co-occur with other mutations in the

same gene at a high frequency, as detected by MutsigCV[9]. MutsigCV has been applied on several

occasions to EAC cohorts[6,10,11] and has identified ten known cancer genes as high confidence EAC

drivers (TP53, CDKN2A, SMAD4, ARID1A, ERBB2, KRAS, PIK3CA, SMARCA4, CTNNB1 and FBXW7).

Analysis of the non-coding genome has been performed by the PCAWG ICGC analysis and identified

a significantly mutated enhancer associated with TP53TG1[12]. However these analyses leave most

EAC cases with only one known driver mutation, usually TP53, due to the low frequency at which

other drivers occur. Equivalent analyses in other cancer types have identified three or four drivers

per case[13,14]. Similarly, detection of copy number driver events in EAC has relied on identifying

regions of the genome recurrently deleted or amplified, as detected by GISTIC[10,15-18]. However,

GISTIC identifies relatively large regions of the genome, often containing hundreds of genes, with

little indication of which specific gene-copy number aberrations (CNAs) may actually confer a

selective advantage. There are also several non-selection based mechanisms which can cause

recurrent CNAs, such as fragile sites where a low density of DNA replication origins causes frequent

structural events at a particular loci. These have not been differentiated properly from selection

based recurrent CNAs[19]. Epigenetic events, for example methylation, may also be important sources

of driver events in EAC but are much more difficult to assess formally for selection.

Without proper annotation of the genomic variants which drive the biology of EAC tumours

we are left with a very large number of events, most of which are likely to be inconsequential,

making it extremely difficult to detect statistical associations between genomic variants and various

biological and clinical parameters. To address these issues, we have accumulated a cohort of 551

genomically characterised EACs using our esophageal ICGC project, which have high quality clinical

annotation, associated whole genome sequencing (WGS) and RNA-seq on cases with sufficient

material. We have augmented our ICGC WGS cohort with publically available whole exome[20] and

whole genome sequencing[21] data. We have applied a number of complementary driver detection

tools to this cohort, using a range of driver associated features combined with analyses of RNA

expression to produce a comprehensive assessment and characterisation of mutations and CNAs

under selection in EAC. We then use these events to define functional cell processes that have been

selectively dysregulated in EAC and identify novel, clinically relevant biomarkers for prognostication,

which we have verified in independent cohorts. Finally, we have used this compendium of EAC

driver variants to provide an evidence base for targeted therapeutics, which we have tested *in vitro*.

Results

A Compendium of EAC driver events and their functional effects

In 551 EACs we called a total of 11,813,333 single nucleotide variants (SNVs) and small insertions or

deletions (Indels), with a median of 6.4 such mutations / Mb (supplementary figure 1), and 286,965

copy number aberrations (CNAs). We also identified 134,697 structural variants (SVs) in WGS cases.

Mutations or copy number variants under selection were detected using specific driver associated-

mutation features (Fig 1A). We use several complementary driver detection tools to detect each

feature, and each tool underwent quality control to ensure reliability of results (see methods). These

features include highly recurrent mutations within a gene (dNdScv[22], ActivedriverWGS[23],

MutsigCV2[9]), high functional impact mutations within a gene (OncodriveFM[24], ActivedriverWGS[23]),

mutation clustering (OncodriveClust[25], eDriver[26] and eDriver3D[27]) and recurrent amplification or

deletion of genes (GISTIC[15]) undergoing concurrent over or under-expression (see methods) (Fig

1A)[8].

These complementary methods produced highly significant agreement in calling EAC driver

genes, particularly within the same feature-type (supplementary figure 2) and on average more than

half of the genes identified by one feature were also identified by other features (Fig 1B). In total

seventy six EAC driver genes were discovered, 86% of which have not been detected in EAC

previously[10,11,16-18,20] and 69% are known drivers in pan-cancer analyses giving confidence in our

methods[22,28,29]. To detect driver elements in the non-coding genome we used ActiveDriverWGS[23] a

recently benchmarked[30] method using both function impact prediction and recurrence to determine

driver status (Fig 1C, supplementary figure 3). We discovered 21 non-coding driver elements using

this method. We have recovered several known non-coding driver elements from the pan-cancer

PCAWG analysis[12] including an enhancer on chr7 linked to TP53TG1, a gene required for TP53 action,

the only non-coding driver found in EAC in PCAWG and the promoter/5'UTR regions of PTDSS1 and

WRD74 which are novel in EAC but were found in other cancer types. We also identified completely

novel non-coding cancer driver elements including in the 5'UTR of MMP24 and promoters of two

related histones (HIST1H2BO and HIST1H2AM).

EAC is notable among cancer types for harbouring a high degree of chromosomal

instability[21]. Using GISTIC we identified 149 recurrently deleted or amplified loci across the genome

(Fig 2A). To determine which genes within these loci confer a selective advantage when they

undergo CNAs we use a subset of 116 cases with matched RNA-seq to detect genes within these loci

in which homozygous deletion or amplification causes a significant under or over-expression

respectively, a prerequisite for selection of CNAs. The majority of genes in these regions showed no

significant CN associated expression change (74%), although work in larger cohorts suggests we may

be underpowered to detect small expression changes[31]. We observed highly significant expression

changes in 17 known cancer genes within GISTIC peaks such as ERBB2, KRAS and SMAD4 which we

designate high-confidence EAC drivers. We also found five tumour suppressor genes where copy

number loss was not necessarily associated with expression modulation but tightly associated with

presence of mutations leading to LOH, for example ARID1A and CDH11. CDH11 was not identified by

our driver gene detection methods but this would suggest it may be a promising candidate for

further validation. To determine whether copy number changes in genes not previously associated

with cancer may contribute to oncogenesis we searched for genes with similar expression-CN profile

as most of our high-confidence drivers (see methods). We found 140 such cases which we

designated "candidate copy number (CN) drivers" (supplementary tables 1-4). Not all candidate

drivers are likely to be true CN-drivers. However, several candidate drivers such as ZNF131, YES1 and

PIBF1 are not accompanied by other drivers in their GISTIC peak and contain extrachromosomal-like

events, hence are promising candidates for further study.

In a subset of GISTIC loci, we observed extremely high copy number amplification,

commonly greater than 100 copies, and these loci were highly correlated with presence of CN-

drivers (Ploidy adjusted Copy number >10, Wilcox test, $p<Ex10^{-6}$) (supplementary figure 4). We use

copy number adjusted ploidy to define amplifications as it produces superior correlation with

expression data than absolute CN alone. Ploidy of our samples varies from 2-6 (3.5 on average) and

hence Ploidy adjusted copy number of >10 cut off translates into >20-60 absolute copies (on average

35 copies). To discern a mechanism for these ultra-high amplifications we assessed structural

variants (SVs) associated with these events and the copy number steps surrounding them. For many

of these events the extreme amplification was produced largely from a single copy number step the

edges of which were supported by structural variants with ultra-high read support. Two examples

are shown in Fig 2B and further examples in supplementary figure 5. In the first example

circularisation and amplification initially occurred around MYC but subsequently incorporated ERBB2

from an entirely different chromosome and in the second an inversion has been followed by

circularisation and amplification of KRAS. A pattern of extrachromosomal amplification via double

minutes has been previously noted in EAC[21], and hence we refer to this amplification class with

ultra-high amplification (Ploidy adjusted Copy number >10) as 'extrachromosomal-like'. Several

deletion loci co-align with fragile sites (Fig 2A). Most deletion loci were dominated by heterozygous

deletions while a small subset had a far higher percentage of homozygous deletions including

CDKN2A and several associated with fragile site loci (Fig 2A). For some cases we may have been

unable to identify drivers in loci simply because the aberrations do not occur in the smaller RNA-seq

matched cohort.

We found extrachromosomal-like amplifications had an extreme and highly penetrant

effects on expression while moderate amplification (ploidy adjusted copy number > 2) and

homozygous deletion had highly significant (Wilcox test, $p<Ex10^{-4}$ and $p<Ex10^{-3}$ respectively) but less

dramatic effects on expression with a lower penetrance (Fig 2C). This lack of penetrance was

associated with low cellularity (fisher's exact test, expression cut off = 2.5 normalised FPKM, p<0.01)

in amplified cases but also likely reflects that genetic mechanisms other than gene-dosage can

modulate expression in a rearranged genome. We also detected several cases of over expression or

complete expression loss without associated CN changes which may reflect non-genetic mechanisms

for driver dysregulation. For example, one case overexpressed ERBB2 at 28-fold median expression

however had entirely diploid CN in and surrounding ERBB2 and a second case contained almost

complete loss of SMAD4 expression (0.008-fold median expression) despite possessing 5 copies of

SMAD4.

Landscape of driver Events in EAC

The overall landscape of driver gene mutations and copy number alterations per case is depicted in

Fig 3A. These comprise both oncogenes and tumour suppressor genes activated or repressed via

different mechanisms. Occasionally different types of events are selected for in the same gene, such

as KRAS and ERBB2 which both harbour activating mutations and amplifications in 19% and 18% of

cases respectively. Passenger mutations occur by chance in most driver genes. To quantify this we

have used the observed:expected mutation ratios (calculated by dNdScv) to estimate the percentage

of driver mutations in each gene and in different mutation classes. For many genes, only specific

mutation classes appear to be under selection. Many tumour suppressor genes; ARID2, RNF43,

ARID1B for example, are only under selection for truncating mutations; ie splice site, nonsense and

frameshift Indel mutations, but not missense mutations which are passengers. However, oncogenes,

like ERBB2, only contain missense drivers which form clusters to activate gene function in a specific

manner. Where a mutation class is <100% driver mutations, mutational clustering can help us define

the driver vs passenger status of a mutation (supplementary figure 6). Clusters of mutations

occurring in EAC or mutations on amino acids which are mutation hotspots in other cancer types[32]

(supplementary table 5) are indicated in Fig 3A. Novel EAC drivers of particular interest include B2M,

a core component of the MHC class I complex and resistance marker for Immunotherapy[33], MUC6 a

secreted glycoprotein involved in gastric acid resistance and ABCB1 a channel pump protein which is

associated with multiple instances of drug resistance[34]. We note that several of these drivers have

been previously associated with gastric and colorectal cancer (supplementary table 6)[14,35]. Lollipop

plots showing primary sequence distribution of mutations in these genes are provided

(supplementary data).

The identification of driver events provides a rich information about the molecular history of

each EAC tumour. We detect a median of five events in driver genes per tumour (IQR = 3-7, Mean =

5.6) and only a very small fraction of cases have no such events detected (6 cases, 1%). When we

remove the predicted percentage of passenger mutations using dnds ratios we find a mean of 4.4

true driver events per case which derive more commonly from mutations than CN events (Fig 3B).

Using hierarchal clustering of drivers we noted that TP53 mutant cases had significantly more CN

drivers (Wilcox test, p = 0.0032, supplementary figure 7). dNdScv, one of the driver gene detection

methods used, also analyses the genome-wide excess of non-synonymous mutations based on

expected mutation rates to assess the total number of driver mutations across the exome which is

calculated at 5.4 (95% CIs: 3.5-7.3) in comparison to 2.7 driver mutations which we calculate in our

gene-centric analysis after passenger removal. This suggests low frequency driver genes may be

prevalent in the EAC mutational landscape (see discussion). Further analysis suggests these missing

mutations are mostly missense mutations and our gene-centric analysis captures almost all

predicted splice and nonsense drivers (supplementary figure 8). Some of our methods use

enrichment of nonsense and splice mutations as a marker of driver genes and hence have a higher

sensitivity for these mutations.

To better understand the functional impact of driver mutations we analysed expression of

driver genes with different mutation types and compared their expression to normal tissue RNA,

which was sequenced alongside our tumour samples (Fig 3C). Since surrounding squamous

epithelium is a fundamentally different tissue, from which EAC does not directly arise, we have used

duodenum and gastric cardia samples as gastrointestinal phenotype controls, likely to be similar to

the, as yet unconfirmed, tissue of origin in EAC. A large number of driver genes have upregulated

expression in comparison to normal controls, for example TP53 has upregulated RNA expression in

WT tumour tissue and in cases with missense (see non-truncating Fig 3C) mutations but RNA

expression is lost upon gene truncation. In depth analysis of different TP53 mutation types reveals

significant heterogeneity within non-truncating mutations, for example R175H mutations correlate

with low RNA expression (supplementary figure 9). Normal tissue expression of CDKN2A suggests

that CDKN2A is generally activated in EAC, likely due to genotoxic or other cancer-associated

stresses[36] and returns to physiologically normal levels when deleted. Heterogeneous expression in

WT CDKN2A cases suggest a different mechanism of inhibition such as methylation in some cases.

Overexpression of other genes in wild type tumours, such as SIN3A, may confer a selective

advantage due to their oncogenic properties, in this case cooperating with MYC, which is also

overexpressed in EACs (Fig 3C). A smaller number of driver genes are downregulated in EAC tissue-

3/4 of these (GATA4, GATA6 and MUC6) are involved in the differentiated phenotype of

gastrointestinal tissues and may be lost with tumour de-differentiation. Driving alterations in these

genes have been observed in other GI cancers[14,37,38] however their oncogenic mechanism is

unknown. In most genes we did not observe expression loss at the RNA level with truncation, for

instance ARID1A (supplementary figure 10).

Dysregulation of specific pathways and processes in EAC

It is known that selection preferentially dysregulates certain functionally related groups of genes and

biological pathways in cancer[39]. This phenomenon is highly evident in EAC, as shown in Fig 4 which

depicts the functional relationships between EAC drivers. This provides greater functional

homogeneity to the landscape of driver events.

While TP53 is the dominant driver in EAC, 28% of cases remain TP53 wildtype. MDM2 is a E3

ubiquitin ligase that targets TP53 for degradation. Its selective amplification and overexpression is

mutually exclusive with TP53 mutation suggesting it can functionally substitute the effect of TP53

mutation via its degradation. Similar mutually exclusive relationships are observed between; KRAS

and ERBB2, GATA4 and GATA6 and Cyclin genes (CCNE1, CCND1 and CCND3). Activation of the Wnt

pathway occurs in 19% of cases either by mutation of phospho-residues at the N terminus of β-

catenin, which prevent degradation, or loss of Wnt destruction complex components like APC. Many

different chromatin modifying genes, often belonging to the SWI/SNF complex, are also selectively

mutated (31% of cases). In contrast SWI/SNF genes are co-mutated significantly more often than we

would expect by chance (fisher's exact test, p<0.01 see methods), suggesting an increased advantage

to further mutations once one has been acquired. We also assessed mutual exclusivity and co-

occurrence in genes in different pathways and between pathways themselves (Fig 4B). Of particular

note are co-occurring relationships between TP53 and MYC, GATA6 and SMAD4, Wnt and Immune

pathways as well as mutually exclusive relationships between ARID1A and MYC, gastrointestinal (GI)

differentiation and RTK pathways and SWI-SNF and DNA-Damage response pathways. Wnt

dysregulation has been previously linked to immune escape[40] and interestingly was also associated

with hyper-mutated cases (> 50,000 SNVs or Indels, fisher's exact test, p = 0.021, OR= 2.4). We were

able to confirm some of these relationships in independent cohorts in different cancer types

(supplementary table 7) suggesting some of these may be pan-cancer phenomenon. As shown in Fig

4, all of these pathways interact to stimulate the G1 to S phase transition of the cell cycle via

promoting phosphorylation of Rb, although many of these pathways have multiple oncogenic or

tumour suppressive functions.

A number of other driver genes have highly related functional roles including core

transcriptional components (TAF1 and POLQ), drivers of immune escape (JAK1 and B2M[33]), cell

adhesion receptors (CDH1, CHDL and PCDH17), core ribosome components (ELF3 and RPL22), core

RNA processing components (GPATCH8 and COIL), ion channels (KCNQ3 and TRPA1) and Ephrin

type-A receptors (EPHA2 and EPHA3).

Clinical significance of driver variants

Events undergoing selection during cancer evolution influence tumour biology and thus impact

tumour aggressiveness, response to treatment and patient prognosis as well as other clinical

parameters. Clinical-genomic correlations can provide useful biomarkers but also give insights into

the biology of these events.

Univariate Cox regression was performed for events in each driver gene with driver events

occurring in greater than 5% of EACs (ie after removal of predicted passengers, 16 genes) to detect

prognostic biomarkers (Fig 5A). Events in two genes conferred significantly poorer prognosis after

multiple hypothesis correction, GATA4 amplification (HR : 0.54 , 95% CI : 0.38 – 0.78, *P* value =

0.0008) and SMAD4 mutation or homozygous deletion (HR : 0.60 , 95% CI : 0.42 – 0.84, *P* value =

0.003). Both genes remained significant in multivariate Cox regression including pathological TNM

staging, resection margin, curative vs palliative treatment intent and differentiation status (GATA4 =

HR adjusted : 0.47, 95% CIs adjusted : 0.29 - 0.76, *P* value = 0.002 and SMAD4 = HR adjusted : 0.61,

95% CI adjusted : 0.40 – 0.94, *P* value = 0.026). 31% of EACs contain either SMAD4 mutation or

homozygous deletion or GATA4 amplification and cases with both genes altered had a poorer

prognosis (Fig 5B). We validated the poor prognostic impact of SMAD4 events in an independent

TCGA gastroesophageal cohort (HR = 0.58, 95% CI = 0.37 – 0.90, *P* value =0.014) (Fig 5C) and we also

found GATA4 amplifications were prognostic in a cohort of TCGA pancreatic cancers (HR = 0.38 95%

CI: 0.18 – 0.80, *P* value = 0.011) (Fig 5D), the only available cohort containing a feasible number of

GATA4 amplifications. The prognostic impact of GATA4 has been suggested in previously published

independent EAC cohort[17] although it did not reach statistical significance after FDR correction and

SMAD4 expression loss has been previously linked to poor prognosis in EAC[41]. We also noted stark

survival differences between cases with SMAD4 events and cases in which TGFβ receptors were

mutated (Fig 5E, HR = 5.6, 95% CI : 1.7 – 18.2, *P* value = 0.005) in keeping with the biology of the

TGFβ pathway where non-SMAD TGFβ signalling is known to be oncogenic[42].

In additional to survival analyses we also assessed driver gene events for correlation with

various other clinical factors including differentiation status, sex, age and treatment response. We

found Wnt pathway mutations had a strong association with well differentiated tumours (p=0.001,

OR = 2.9, fisher's test, see methods, Fig 5F). We noted interesting differences between female

(n=81) and male (n=470) cases. Female cases were enriched for KRAS mutation (p = 0.001, fisher's

exact test) and TP53 wildtype status (p = 0.006, fisher's exact test) (Fig 5G). This is of particular

interest given the male predominance of EAC[3].

Targeted therapeutics using EAC driver events.

The biological distinctions between normal and cancer cells provided by driver events can be used to

derive clinical strategies for selective cancer cell killing. To investigate whether the driver events in

particular genes and/or pathways might sensitise EAC cells to certain targeted therapeutic agents

we used the Cancer Biomarkers database[43]. We calculated the percentage of our cases which

contain EAC-driver biomarkers of response to each drug class in the database (summary shown Fig

6A, and full data supplementary table 8). Aside from TP53, which has been problematic to target

clinically so far, we found a number of drugs with predicted sensitivity in >10% of EACs including

EZH2 inhibitors for SWI/SNF mutant cancers (23%, and 33% including other SWI/SNF EAC

drivers), and BET inhibitors which target KRAS activated and MYC amplified cases (25%). However,

by far the most significantly effective drug was predicted to be CDK4/6 inhibitors where >50% of

cases harboured sensitivity causing events in the receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) and core cell cycle

pathways (eg in CCND1, CCND3 and KRAS).

To verify that these driver events would also sensitise EAC tumours to such inhibitors we

used a panel of thirteen EAC or Barrett's HGD cell lines, which share similar genomic changes and

driver events[44,45], which have undergone whole genome sequencing[46] and assessed them for

presence of EAC driver events (Fig 6B). The mutational landscape of these lines was broadly

representative of EAC tumours. We found that the presence of cell cycle and or RTK activating driver

events was highly correlated with response to two FDA approved CDK4/6 inhibitors, Ribociclib and

Palbociclib and several cell lines were sensitive below maximum tolerated blood concentrations in

humans (Fig 6B, supplementary table 9, supplementary figure 11)[47]. Such EAC cell lines had

comparable sensitivity to T47D which is derived from an ER +ve breast cancer where CDK4/6

inhibitors have been FDA approved. We noted three cell lines without sensitising events which were

highly resistant, with little drug effect even at 4000 nanomolar concentrations, similar to a known Rb

mutant resistant line breast cancer cell line (MDA-MB-468). Two of these three cell lines harbour

amplification of CCNE1 which is known to drive resistance to CDK4/6 inhibitors by bypassing CDK4/6

and causing Rb phosphorylation via CDK2 activation[48]. To verify these effects in a more

representative model of EAC we treated three whole genome sequenced EAC organoid cultures[49]

with Palbociclib and Ribociclib as well as a more recently approved CDK4/6 inhibitor, Abemaciclib. As

was observed in cell lines, Cell cycle and RTK driver events were present only in the more sensitive

organoids and CCNE1 activation in the most resistant (Fig 6C). We found Abemaciclib to be

significantly more potent in comparison to both other CDK4/6 inhibitors, both in organoids and cell

lines (supplementary figure 10). We note that the maximum tolerated blood doses of Abermaciclib

achieved in the clinic were also higher than the other CDK4/6 inhibitors[50], within the range of

sensitivity achieved in several cell lines and organoids cultures.

Discussion

We present here a detailed catalogue of coding and non-coding genomic events that have been selected for during the evolution of esophageal adenocarcinoma. These events have been characterised in terms of their relative impact, related functions, mutual exclusivity and co-occurrence and expression in comparison to normal tissues, producing insights into EAC biology. We have used this set of biologically important gene alterations to identify prognostic biomarkers and actionable genomic events for personalised medicine.

While clinical annotation and matched RNA data is a strength of this study, in some cases we may have been unable to assess selected variants for survival associations or expression changes which were detected in the full 551 cohort, due to lack of representation in clinically annotated or RNA matched sub cohorts. Despite rigorous analyses to detect selected events, assessment of the global excess of mutations by dNdScv suggests we are unable to detect all events selected in EAC, similar to many other cancer types[22]. All driver gene detection methods which we have used rely on driver mutation re-occurrence in a gene to some degree. Many of these undetected driver mutations are hence likely to be spread across a large number of genes whereby each is mutated at low frequency across EAC patients. This tendency for low frequency EAC drivers may be responsible for the low yield of MutsigCV in previous cohorts and may suggests that C-type cancers such as EAC, are not less 'mutation-driven' than M-type cancers but rather that their mutational drivers are spread across a larger number of genes[5]. The identification of these very low frequency mutations will require substantially different detection techniques to those which are currently in wide spread use and such methods are in development[51] although they require validation. Undoubtedly many copy number drivers are also left undiscovered and validation of candidates identified here is an important avenue of future work.

While a number of previous reports have attempted to detect EAC drivers, they have had a limited yield per case for a variety of reasons. The first such study[20] used methods which, despite

being well regarded at the time, were subsequently discredited[9]. Hence a number of known false

positive genes (EYS, SYNE1 and CNTTAP5) were erroneously reported as drivers, along with an

additional unknown number of genes. Since then a number of reports, including our own, on

medium and large cohort sizes using MutsigCV[10,11,18] were only able to detect a small number of

mutational driver genes (7, 5 and 15 in each study). By using both a large cohort and more

comprehensive methodologies we have significantly increased this figure to 66 mutational driver

genes (excluding CN drivers). Detection of driver CNAs has previously relied on GISTIC to detect

recurrently mutated regions[10,15-18] but no analyses have been performed to evidence which genes in

these large regions are true drivers. Many of the genes annotated by such papers are unlikely to be

CN drivers from this analysis due to their lack of expression modulation with CNAs (eg YEATS4 and

MCL1), the role of recurrent heterozygous losses to drive LOH in some mutational drivers (ARID1A

and CDH11) or their association with fragile sites (PDE4D, WWOX, FHIT). Conversely, we have been

able to identify novel EAC copy number drivers (eg CCND3, AXIN1, PPM1D and APC).

A number of discoveries made in this work require further investigation. Functional

characterisation of many of the driver genes described is needed to understand why they are

advantageous to EAC tumours and how they modify EAC biology. Particularly interesting are the GI

specific genes GATA4, GATA6 and MUC6 which modulate prognosis and have expression loss during

the transition from normal to tumour tissue. Biological pathways and processes that are selectively

dysregulated deserve particular attention in this regard as do the gene pairs or groups with mutually

exclusive or co-occurring relationships such as MYC and TP53 or SWI/SNF factors, suggestive of

particular functional relationships. Prospective clinical work to verify and implement SMAD4 and

GATA4 biomarkers in this study would be worthwhile. While EAC is a poor prognosis cancer type,

significant heterogeneity of survival outcome makes triaging patients in treatment groups an

important part of clinic practice which could be improve using better prognostication. Whole

genome or whole exome sequencing may be impractical for use in the clinic, however targeted NGS

panels to detect mutations and copy number alterations have been implemented to detect genomic

biomarkers in a cost effective and sensitive manner for some cancer types[52]. In EAC development of

a customised panel is likely to be required on the basis of this analysis. A number of targeted

therapeutics may provide clinic benefit to EAC cases based on their individual genomic profile. In

particular CDK4/6 inhibitors deserve considerable attention as an option for EAC treatment as they

are, by a significant margin, the treatment to which the most EACs harbour sensitivity-causing driver

events, excluding TP53 as an unlikely therapeutic biomarker. The in vitro validation of these

biomarkers for CDK4/6 inhibitors in EAC is also persuasive of possible clinical benefit using a targeted

approach.

In summary this work provides a detailed compendium of mutations and copy number

alterations undergoing selection in EAC which have functional and clinical impact on tumour

behaviour. This comprehensive study provides us with useful insights into the nature of EAC tumours

and should pave the way for evidence based clinical trials in this poor prognosis disease.

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RCF and AMF conceived the overall study. AMF and SJ analysed the genomic data and performed

statistical analyses. RCF, AMF and XL designed the experiments. AMF, XL and JM performed the

experiments. GC contributed to the Structural variant analysis and data visualisation. SK helped

compile the clinical data and aided statistical analyses. JP and SA produced and QC'ed the RNA-seq

data. EO aided the whole genome sequencing of EAC cell lines. SM and NG coordinated the clinical

centres and were responsible for sample collections. ME benchmarked our mutation calling

pipelines. MO led the pathological sample QC for sequencing. LB and GD ran variant calling

pipelines. RCF and ST supervised the research. RCF and ST obtained funding. AMF and RCF wrote the

manuscript. All authors approved the manuscript.

The authors declare no competing interests.

Sequencing data will be deposited in a publicly assessable database before publication

Code associated with the analysis is available upon request.

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of this data allowed augmentation of our ICGC cohort and a greater sensitivity for the detection of

EAC driver genes.

Figure Legends:

Figure 1 Detection of EAC driver Genes. a. Types of driver-associated features used to detect

positive selection in mutations and copy number events with examples of genes containing such

features b. Coding driver genes identified and their driver-associated features. c. Non-coding driver

elements detected and their element types.

Figure 2. Copy number variation under positive selection. a. Recurrent copy number changes across

the genome identified by GISTIC. Frequency of different CNV types are indicated as well as the position

of CNV high confidence driver genes and candidate driver genes. The q value for expression correlation

with amplification and homozygous deletion is shown for each gene within each amplification and

deletion peaks respectively and occasions of significant association between LOH and mutation are

indicated in green. Purple deletion peaks indicate fragile sites. **b.** Examples of Extrachromosomal-like

amplifications suggested by very high read support SVs at the boundaries of highly amplified regions

produced from a single copy number step. In the first example (bi) two populations of

extrachromosomal DNA are apparent (biii), one amplifying only MYC and the second also

incorporating ERBB2 from a different chromosome. In the second example (bii) an inversion has

occurred before circularization and amplification around KRAS (biv). **c.** Relationship between copy

number and expression in CN driver genes.

Figure 3. The driver gene landscape of Esophageal Adenocarcinoma. a. Driver mutations or CNVs are

shown for each patient. Amplification is defined as >2 Copy number adjusted ploidy (2 x ploidy of that

case) and extrachromosomal amplification as >10 Copy number adjusted ploidy (10 x ploidy for that

case). Driver associated features for each driver gene are displayed to the left. On the right the

percentages of different mutation and copy number changes are displayed, differentiating between

driver and passenger mutations using dNdScv, and the % of predicted drivers by mutation type is

shown. Above the plot are the number of driver mutations per sample with an indication of the mean

(red line = 5). **b.** Assessment of driver event types per case and comparison to exome-wide excess of

mutations generated by dNdScv. **c.** Expression changes in EAC driver genes in comparison to normal

intestinal tissues. Genes with expression changes of note are shown**.**

Figure 4. Biological pathways undergoing selective dysregulation in EAC. a. Biological Pathways

dysregulated by driver gene mutation and/or CNVs. WT cases for a pathway are not shown. Inter

and intra-pathway interactions are described and mutual exclusivities and/or associations between

genes in a pathway are annotated. GATA4/6 amplifications have a mutually exclusive relationship

although this does not reach statistical significance (fisher's exact test p=0.07 OR =0.52). **b.** Pairwise

assessment of mutual exclusivity and association in EAC driver genes and pathways.

Figure 5. Clinical significance of Driver events in EAC. a. Hazard rations and 95% confidence

intervals for Cox regression analysis across all drivers genes with at least a 5% frequency of driver

alterations * = q < 0.05 after BH adjustment. **b.** Kaplan-Meier curves for EACs with different status of

significant prognostic indicators (GATA4 and SMAD4). **c.** Kaplan-Meier curves for different

alterations in the TGFbeta pathway. **d.** Kaplan-Meier curves showing verification GATA4 prognostic

value in GI cancers using a pancreatic TCGA cohort**. e.** Kaplan-Meier curves showing verification

SMAD4 prognostic value in Gastroesophageal cancers using a gastroesophageal TCGA cohort. **f.**

Differentiation bias in tumours containing events in Wnt pathway driver genes**. g.** Relative frequency

of KRAS mutations and TP53 mutations driver gene events in females vs males (fishers exact test).

Figure 6. CDK4/6 inhibitors in EAC. a. Drug classes for which sensitivity is indicated by EAC driver

genes with data from the Cancer Biomarkers database[36]. **b.** Area under the curve (AUC) of sensitivity

is shown in a panel of 13 EAC and Be high grade dysplasia cell lines with associated WGS and their

corresponding driver events, based on primary tumour analysis. Also AUC is shown for two control

lines T47D, an ER +ve breast cancer line (+ve control) and MDA-MB-468 a Rb negative breast cancer

(-ve control). *CCNE1 is a known marker of resistance to CDK4/6 inhibitors due to its regulation of

Rb downstream of CDK4/6 hence bypassing the need for CDK4/6 activity (see figure 4). c. Response

of organoid cultures to three FDA approved CDK4/6 inhibitors and corresponding driver events.

Supplementary figure legends

Supplementary figure 1. Distribution of small scale mutations (SNVs and Indels) across the 551 EAC

cohort. Red line indicates the median mutations per case (6.4)

Supplementary Figure 2. Concordance between driver gene detection methods. A. Hierarchical

clustering between tools based on gene identified**. B** Genes identified by each tool**.**

Supplementary Figure 3. Frequency and significance of EAC non-coding drivers from

ActiveDriverWGS. **a.** The observed and expected mutation counts found on each element in

ActiveDriverWGS. **b.** The fdr for each element in ActiveDriverWGS.

Supplementary Figure 4. Frequency of Extrachromosomal like events (CN adjusted Ploidy >10)

in GISTIC amplification peaks and presence of high confidence drivers in those peaks indicated**.**

Supplementary figure 5. Examples of Normal amplification (PLiody-adjusted CN >2 & <10) and

Extrachromosomal-like amplification (ploidy-adjusted CN >10) events. 1-10 = Extrachromosomal-

like amplification and 11-20 = Normal amplification events. Events were picked at random using

runif() function in R. SV and CNAs surrounding events are shown. Features indicative of

extrachromosomal double minute (DM) formations include sharp, large CN steps, SVs with high read

support at the edges of these steps and when not derived from a continuous region of the genome

CN regions in the DM may have the same CN status (taking into account other additional events

which may have occurred in that region). These features are enriched in the extrachromosomal-like

events, although example 20 may be a low-copy number extrachromosomal event. It should be

noted that SV calling using short read sequencing techniques such as in this study has a relatively

low sensitivity and accuracy for the precise localisation of many SV break points. Examples continue

over four pages.

Supplementary Figure 6. A scheme demonstrating how to use mutational clustering along with dnds

ratios to estimate the probability of a particular mutation being a driver. In this case the dnds ratio

suggests 2/3 of missense mutations are drivers hence 10/15. 8 missense mutation lie in a mutational

cluster, in this case of known significance in the N-terminal of B-Catenin, making it likely that these

are drivers and hence most (2/7) other mutations are passengers. Similarly, mutations on amino

acids known to be hyper mutated in other cancer types (see Supplementary table 5, for instance if

we found a single KRAS G12 mutation) can be considered likely drivers.

Supplementary Figure 7. Hierarchical Clustering of samples based on presence of driver variants

with genes ordered by pathway membership.

Supplementary Figure 8. A detailed breakdown of mutation and copy number types per case and a

breakdown of exome wide dnds excess for different mutation types (note that exome wide indel

cannot be calculated excess as they have no synonymous mutation equivalent, although a null

model is used in the per gene dnds method to use them to detect driver genes). Error bars indicate

95% confidence intervals for exome-wide dnds mutation excess assessment.

Supplementary Figure 9. TP53 expression in different TP53 mutation types in comparison to TP53

WT tumours and normal duodenum and gastric cardia tissues.

Supplementary Figure 10. Expression of all EAC driver genes across different genomic states for the

gene in question in 116 EAC tumours, and in comparison to duodenum and gastric cardia tissues.

Supplementary Figure 11. Growth inhibition responses of EAC cell lines and control lines to CDK4/6

inhibitors Palbociclib and Ribociclib. A subset of cell lines also received treatment with Abemaciclib

which shows efficacy in such cell lines as well as in organoids (Fig 6C).

Methods

Cohort, sequencing and calling of genomic events

380 cases (69%) of our EAC cohort were derived from the esophageal adenocarcinoma WGS ICGC

study, for which samples are collected through the UK wide OCCAMS (Oesophageal Cancer

Classification and Molecular Stratification) consortium. The procedures for obtaining the samples,

quality control processes, extractions and whole genome sequencing are as previously described[18].

Strict pathology consensus review was observed for these samples with a 70% cellularity

requirement before inclusion. Comprehensive clinical information was available for the ICGC-

OCCAMS cases. In addition, previously published samples were included in the analysis from Dulak

et al 2013[20] – 139 WES and 10 WGS (total 27%) and Nones et al 2014[21] with 22 WGS samples (4%) to

total 551 genome characterised EACs. RNA-seq data was available from our ICGC WGS samples

(116/380). BAM files for all samples (include those from Dulak et al 2013 and Nones et al 2014) were

run through our alignment (BWA-MEM), mutation (Strelka), copy number (ASCAT) and structural

variant (Manta) calling pipelines, as previously described[18]. Our methods were benchmarked against

various other available methods and have among the best sensitivity and specificity for variant

calling (ICGC benchmarking excerise[53]). Mutation and copy number calling on cell lines was

performed as previously described[46].

Total RNA was extracted using All Prep DNA/RNA kit from Qiagen and the quality was checked on

Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer using RNA 6000 nano kit (Agilent). Qubit High sensitivity RNA assay kit from

thermo fisher was used for quantification. Libraries were prepared from 250ng RNA, using TruSeq

Stranded Total RNA Library Prep Gold (Ribo-zero) kit and ribosomal RNA (nuclear, cytoplasmic and

mitochondrial rRNA) was depleted, whereby biotinylated probes selectively bind to ribosomal RNA

molecules forming probe-rRNA hybrids. These hybrids were pulled down using magnetic beads and

rRNA depleted total RNA was reverse transcribed. The libraries were prepared according to Illumina

protocol[54]. Paired end 75bp sequencing on HiSeq4000 generated the paired end reads. For normal

expression controls we chose gastric cardia tissue, from which some hypothesise Barrett's may arise,

and duodenum which contains intestinal histology, including goblet cells, which mimics that of

Barrett's. We did not use Barrett's tissue itself as a normal control given the heterogeneous and

plentiful phenotypic and genomic changes which it undergoes early in its pathogenesis.

Analysing EAC mutations for selection

To detect positively selected mutations in our EAC cohort, a multi-tool approach across various

selection related 'Features' (Recurrance, Functional impact, Clustering) was implemented in order to

provide a comprehensive analysis. This is broadly similar to several previous approaches[8,12].

dNdScv[22], MutsigCV[9], e-Driver[26], ActivedriverWGS and e-Driver3D[27] were run using the default

parameters. To run OncodriverFM[24], Polyphen[55] and SIFT[56] were used to score the functional impact

of each missense non-synonomous mutation (from 0, non-impactful to 1 highly impactful),

synonymous mutation were given a score of 0 impact and truncating mutations (Non-sense and

frameshift mutations) were given a score of 1. Any gene with less than 7 mutations, unlikely to

contain detectable drivers using this method, was not considered to decrease the false discovery

rate. OncodriveClust was run using a minimum cluster distance of 3, minimum number of mutations

for a gene to be considered of 7 and with a stringent probability cut off to find cluster seeds of $p =$

$Ex10^{-13}$ to prevent infiltration of large numbers of, likely, false positive genes. For all tool outputs we

undertook quality control including Q-Q plots to ensure no tool produces inflated q-values and each

tool produced at least 30% known cancer genes. Two tools were removed from the analysis due to

failure for both of these parameters at quality control (Activedriver[57] and Hotspot[32]). For three of the

QC-approved tools (dNdScv, OncodriveFM, MutsigCV) where this was possible we also undertook an

additional fdr reducing analysis by re-calculating q values based on analysis of known cancer genes

only[22,28,29] as has been previously implemented[22,58]. Significance cut offs were set at q<0.1 for coding

genes. Tool outputs were then put through various filters to remove any further possible false

positive genes. Specifically, genes where <50% of EAC cases had no expression (TPM<0.1) in our

matched RNA-seq cohort were removed and, using dNdScv, genes with no significant mutation

excess (observed: expected ratio > 1.5:1) of any single mutation type were also removed. We also

removed two (MT-MD2, MT-MD4) mitochondrial genes which were highly enriched for truncating

mutations and were frequently called in OncodriveFM as well as other tools. This is may be due to

the different mutational dynamics, caused by ROS from the mitochondrial electron transport chain,

and the high number of mitochondrial genomes per cell which enables significantly more

heterogeneity. These factors prevent the tools used from calculating an accurate null model for

these genes however they may be worthy of functional investigation. For non-coding elements

called by ActivedriverWGS filtering for expression or dnds was not possible and dispite recent

benchmarking[30] are not so well established. Hence we took a more cautious approach with general

significance cut offs of q < 0.001 and q < 0.1 for previously identified elements in PCAWG[12]. Q values

were not recalculated for Driver elements only but q < 0.1 for known elements was based on all

elements. To calculate exome-wide mutational excess hypermutated cases (>500 exonic mutations)

were removed and the global non-synonymous dnds ratios were applied to all dndscv annotated

mutations excluding "synonymous" and "no SNV" annotations as described in Martincorena et al[22].

Detecting selection in CNVs

ASCAT raw CN values were used to detected frequently deleted or amplified regions of the genome

using GISTIC2.0[15]. To determine which genes in these regions confer a selective advantage, CNVs

from each gene within a GISTIC identified loci were correlated with TPM from matched RNA-seq in a

sub-cohort of 116 samples and with mutations across all 551 samples. To call copy number in genes

which spanned multiple copy number segments in ASCAT we considered the total number of full

copies of the gene (ie the lowest total copy number). Occasionally ASCAT is unable to confidently call

the copy number in a highly aberrant genomic regions. We found that the expression of genes in

such regions matched well what we would expect given the surrounding copy number and hence we

used the mean of the two adjacent copy number fragments to call copy number in the gene in

question. We found amplification peak regions identified by GISTIC2.0 varied significantly in precise

location both in analysis of different sub-cohorts and when comparing to published GISTIC data from

EACs[10,16,17]. A peak would often sit next to but not overlapping a well characterised oncogene or

tumour suppressor. To account for this, we widened the amplification peak sizes upstream and

downstream by twice the size of each peak to ensure we captured all possible drivers. Our

expression analysis allows us to then remove false positives from this wider region and called drivers

were still highly enriched for genes closer to the centre of GISTIC peak regions.

To detect genes in which amplification correlated with increased expression we compared

expression of samples with a high CN for that gene (above 10th percentile CN/Ploidy) with those

which have a normal CN (median +/- 1) using the Wilcox rank-sum test and using the specific

alternative hypothesis that high CN would lead to increased expression. Q-values were then

generated based on Benjamini & Hochberg method, not considering genes without significant

expression in amplified samples (at least 75% amplified samples with TPM > 0.1) and considering

q<0.001 as significant. We also included an additional known driver gene only FDR reduction analysis

as previously described for mutational drivers with q<0.1 considered as significant given the

additional evidence for these genes in other cancer types. We also included MYC despite its q= 0.11

for expression correlation. This is due to frequent non-amplification associated overexpression of

MYC when compared to normal controls and otherwise MYC is well evidence by a very close

proximity to the peak centre (top 4 genes) and its high rate of amplification (19%). We took the

same approach to detect genes in which homozygous deletion correlated with expression loss.

Expression modulation was a highly specific marker for known CN driver genes and was not a

widespread feature in most recurrently copy number variant genes. However, while expression

modulation is a requirement for selection of CNV only drivers, it is not sufficient evidence alone and

hence we grouped such genes into those which have been characterised as drivers previously in

other cancer types (high confidence EAC CN drivers) and other genes (Candidate EAC CN drivers)

which await functional validation. We used fragile site regions detected in Wala et al 2017[59]. We also

defined regions which may be recurrently heterozygous deleted, without any significant expression

modulations, to allow LOH of tumour suppressor gene mutations. To do this we analysed genes with

at least 5 mutations in the matched RNA cohort for association between LOH (ASCAT minor allele =

0) and mutation using fisher's exact test and generated q values using the Benjamini & Hochberg

method. The analysis was repeated on known cancer genes only for reduced FDR and q < 0.05

considered significant for both analyses. For those high confidence drivers we chose to define

amplification as CN/ploidy (referred to as Ploidy adjusted copy number) this produces superior

correlation with expression. We chose a cut off for amplification at CN/ploidy = 2 as has been

previously used, and as causes a highly significant increase in expression in our CN-driver genes.

Pathways and relative distributions of genomic events

The relative distribution of driver events in each pathway was analysed using a fisher's exact test in

the case of pair-wise comparisons including WT cases. In the case of multi-gene comparisons such as

the Cyclins we calculate the p value and odds ratio for each pair in the group by fisher's exact test

and combine p values using the Fisher method, Genes without comparable Odds ratios to the rest of

the genes in question were removed. For this analysis we also remove highly mutated cases (>500

exonic mutations, 41/551) as they bias distribution of genes towards co-occurrence. We repeated

this analyses across all pairs of driver genes using BH multiple hypothesis correction. We validated

these relationships in independent TGCA cohorts of other GI cancers where we could find cohorts

with reasonable numbers of the genomic events in question (not possible for GATA4/6 for instance)

using the cBioportal web interface tool[60].

Correlating genomics with the clinical phenotype

To find genomic markers for prognosis we undertook univariate Cox regression for those driver

genes present in >5% of cases (16) along with Benjamini & Hochberg false discovery correction. We

considered only these genes to reduce our false discover rate and because other genes were unlikely

to impact on clinical practise given their low frequency in EAC. We validated SMAD4, in the TCGA

gastroesophageal cohort which had a comparable frequency of these events, but notably is

composed mainly of gastric cancers, and GATA4 in the TCGA pancreatic cohort using the cBioportal

web interface tool. We also validated these markers as independent predictors of survival both in

respect of each other and stage using a multivariate Cox regression in our 551 case cohort. When

assessing for genomic correlates with differentiation phenotypes we found only very few cases with

well differentiated phenotypes (<5% cases) and hence for statistical analyses we collapse these cases

with moderate differentiation to allow a binary fisher's exact test to compare poorly differentiated

with well-moderate differentiated phenotypes.

Therapeutics

The cancer biomarker database was filtered for drugs linked to biomarkers found in EAC drivers and

supplementary table 6 constructed using the cohort frequencies of EAC biomarkers. 10 EAC cell lines

(SKGT4, OACP4C, OACM5.1, ESO26, ESO51, OE33, MFD, OE19, Flo-1 and JHesoAD) and 3 BE high

grade dysplasia cell lines (CP-B, CP-C and CP-D) with WGS data[46] were used in proliferation assays to

determine drug sensitivity to CDK4/6 inhibitors, Palbociclib (Biovision) and Ribociclib (Selleckchem).

Cell lines were grown in their normal growth media (methods table 1). Proliferation was measured

using the Incucyte live cell analysis system (Incucyte ZOOM Essen biosciences). Each cell line was

plated at a starting confluency of 10% and growth rate measured across 4-7 days depending on basal

proliferation rate. For each cell-line drug combination concentrations of 16, 64, 250, 1000 and 4000

nanomolar were used each in 0.3% DMSO and compared to 0.3% DMSO only. Each condition was

performed in at least triplicate. The time period of the exponential growth phase in the untreated

(0.3% DMSO) condition was used to calculate GI50 and AUC. Accurate GI50s could not be calculated

in cases where a cell line had >50% proliferation inhibition even with the highest drug concentration

and hence AUC was used to compare cell line sensitivity. T47D had a highly similar GI50 for

Palbociclib to that previously calculated in other studies (112 nM vs 127 nM)[61]. Primary organoid

cultures were derived from EAC cases included in the OCCAMS/ICGC sequencing study. Detailed

organoid culture and derivation method have been previously described (cite nat comms Li et al).

Regarding the drug treatment, the seeding density for each line was optimised to ensure cell growth

in the logarithmic growth phase. Cells were seeded in complete medium for 24 hours then treated

with compounds at a 5-point 4-fold serial dilutions for 6 days or 12 days. Cell viability was assessed

using CellTiter-Glo (Promega) after drug incubation.

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Figure 1 Detection of EAC Driver Genes. **a**. Types of driver-associated features used to detect positive selection in mutations and copy number events with examples of genes containing such features **b**. Coding driver genes identified and their driver-associated features. c. Non-coding driver elements detected and thier element types.

Figure 2. Copy number variation under positive selection.
a. Recurrent copy number changes across the genome identified by GISTIC. Frequency of different CNV types are indicated as well as the position of CNV high confidence driver genes and candidate driver genes. The q value for expression correlation with amplification and homozygous deletion is shown for each gene within each amplification and deletion peaks respectively and occasions of significant association between LOH and mutation are indicated in green. Purple deletion peaks indicate fragile sites. **b**. Examples of extrachromosomal-like amplifications suggested by very high read support SVs at the boundaries of highly amplified regions produced from a single copy number step. In the first example (bi) two populations of extrachromosomal DNA are apparent (biii), one amplifying only MYC and the second also incorporating ERBB2 from a different chromosome. In the second example (bii) an inversion has occurred before circularization and amplification around KRAS (biv). **c**. Relationship between copy number and expression in CN driver genes.

Figure 3. The driver gene landscape of Esophageal Adenocarcinoma. a. Driver mutations or CNVs are shown for each patient. Amplification is defined as >2 Copy number adjusted ploidy (2 x ploidy of that case) and extrachromosomal amplification as >10 Copy number adjusted ploidy (10 x ploidy for that case). Driver associated features for each driver gene are displayed to the left. On the right the percentages of different mutation and copy number changes are displayed, differentiating between driver and passenger mutations using dNdScv, and the % of predicted drivers by mutation type is shown. Above the plot are the number of driver mutations per sample with an indication of the median (red line = 5). **b.** Assessment of driver event types per case and comparison to exome-wide excess of mutations generated by dNdScv. **c.** Expression changes in EAC driver genes in comparison to normal intestinal tissues. Only genes with significant expression changes of note are shown.

Figure 4. Biological pathways undergoing selective dysregulation in EAC. a. Biological Pathways dysregulated by driver gene mutation and/or CNVs. WT cases for a pathway are not shown. Mutual exclusivities and/or associations between genes in a pathway are annotated. GATA4/6 amplifications have a mutually exclusive relationship (ie GATA4 ampification is more common in GATA6 WT cases) although this does not reach statistical significance (fisher's exact test p=0.07 OR =0.52). **b.** Pairwise assessment of mutual exclusivity and association in EAC driver genes and pathways.

Figure 5. Clinical significance of Driver events in EAC. a. Hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals for Cox regression analysis across all drivers genes with at least a 5% frequency of driver alterations. P values are generated from the wald test and q values generated using BH correction. **b.** Kaplan-Meier curves for EACs with different status of significant prognostic indicators (GATA4 and SMAD4). **c.** Kaplan-Meier curves for different alterations in the TGFbeta pathway. **d.** Kaplan-Meier curves showing verification GATA4 prognostic value in GI cancers using a pancreatic TCGA cohort. **e.** Kaplan-Meier curves showing verification SMAD4 prognostic value in gastroesophageal cancers using a gastroesophageal TCGA cohort. **f.** Differentiation bias in tumours containing events in Wnt pathway driver genes. **g.** Relative frequency of KRAS mutations and TP53 mutations driver gene events in females vs males (fisher's exact test).

Figure 6. CDK4/6 inhibitors in EAC. a. Drug classes for which sensitivity is indicated by EAC driver genes with data from the Cancer Biomarkers database. **b**. Sensitivity (1-AUC) for FDA approved CDK4/6 inhibtors is shown for a panel of 13 EAC or BE high grade dysplasia cell lines with thier corresponding driver events, based on primary tumour analysis. Also AUC is shown for two control lines T47D, an ER +ve breast cancer line (+ve control) and MDA-MB-468 a Rb negative breast cancer (-ve control). *CCNE1 is a known marker of resistance to CDK4/6 inhibitors due to its regulation of Rb downstream of CDK4/6 hence bypassing the need for CDK4/6 activity (see figure 4). **c**. Reponse of organiod cultures to three FDA approved CDK4/6 inhibitors and corresponding driver events.