

Subtype-specific and co-occurring genetic alterations in B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma

Running title: Patterns of genetic alterations in B-NHL

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40 **ABSTRACT**

41 B-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (B-NHL) encompasses multiple clinically and phenotypically
42 distinct subtypes of malignancy with unique molecular etiologies. Common subtypes of B-NHL
43 such as diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL) have been comprehensively interrogated at the
44 genomic level. But rarer subtypes such as mantle cell lymphoma (MCL) remain sparsely
45 characterized. Furthermore, multiple B-NHL subtypes have thus far not been comprehensively
46 compared using the same methodology to identify conserved or subtype-specific patterns of
47 genomic alterations. Here, we employed a large targeted hybrid-capture sequencing approach
48 encompassing 380 genes to interrogate the genomic landscapes of 685 B-NHL tumors at high
49 depth; including DLBCL, MCL, follicular lymphoma (FL), and Burkitt lymphoma (BL). We
50 identified conserved hallmarks of B-NHL that were deregulated in the majority of tumor from
51 each subtype, including the frequent genetic deregulation of the ubiquitin proteasome system
52 (UPS). In addition, we identified subtype-specific patterns of genetic alterations, including
53 clusters of co-occurring mutations and DNA copy number alterations. The cumulative burden of
54 mutations within a single cluster were more discriminatory of B-NHL subtypes than individual
55 mutations, implicating likely patterns of genetic cooperation that contribute to disease etiology.
56 We therefore provide the first cross-sectional analysis of mutations and DNA copy number
57 alterations across major B-NHL subtypes and a framework of co-occurring genetic alterations
58 that deregulate genetic hallmarks and likely cooperate in lymphomagenesis.

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64 INTRODUCTION

65 Non-Hodgkin's lymphomas (NHL) are a heterogeneous group of lymphoid malignancies that
66 predominantly arise from mature B-cells (B-NHL). Although mature B-cell neoplasms
67 encompass 38 unique diagnostic subtypes, over 85% of cases fall within only 7 histologies(1,
68 2). Recent next generation sequencing (NGS) studies have shed light onto the key driver
69 mutations in many of these B-NHL subtypes; for example, large studies of diffuse large B-cell
70 lymphoma (DLBCL) have led to proposed genomic subtypes that have unique etiologies(3-5).
71 However, many less common NHL subtypes such as mantle cell lymphoma (MCL) have not
72 been as extensively characterized(6, 7). Furthermore, until recently(3, 4) genetic alterations
73 have been considered in a binary fashion as either driver events, which directly promote
74 disease genesis or progression, or passenger events, which have little/no impact on disease
75 biology. In contrast to this principal, most B-NHLs do not result from a single dominant driver but
76 instead result from the serial acquisition of genetic alterations that cooperate in
77 lymphomagenesis(8). The genetic context of each mutation likely determines its oncogenic
78 potential, and groups of mutations should therefore be considered collectively rather than on as
79 singular events. For example, the 'C5' and 'MCD' clusters identified in DLBCL by Chapuy *et al.*
80 and Schmitz *et al.*, respectively, are characterized by the co-occurrence of *CD79B* and *MYD88*
81 mutations(3, 4). In animal models, the *Myd88* L252P mutation (equivalent to human L265P) was
82 found to promote down-regulation of surface IgM and a phenotype resembling B-cell anergy(9).
83 However, this effect could be rescued by *Cd79b* mutation, showing that these co-occurring
84 mutations cooperate(9). The characterization of other significantly co-occurring genetic
85 alterations are therefore likely to reveal additional important cooperative relationships. We
86 approached this challenge by performing genomic profiling of 685 B-NHLs across different
87 subtypes. Through this cross-sectional analysis we characterized genomic hallmarks of B-NHL
88 and sets of significantly co-associated events that likely represent subtype-specific cooperating

89 genetic alterations. This study therefore provides new insight into how co-occurring clusters of
90 genetic alterations may contribute to molecularly and phenotypically distinct subtypes of B-NHL.

91

92 **METHODS**

93 An overview of our approach is shown in Figure S1. For detailed methods, please refer to
94 supplementary information.

95

96 Tumor DNA samples

97 We collected DNA from 685 B-NHL tumors, including 199 follicular lymphoma (FL), 196 mantle
98 cell lymphoma (MCL), 148 diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 107 Burkitt's lymphoma
99 (BL), 21 high-grade B-cell lymphoma not otherwise specified (HGBL-NOS), and 14 high-grade
100 B-cell lymphoma with *MYC*, *BCL2* and/or *BCL6* rearrangement (DHL) (Table S1). A total of 462
101 samples were obtained from the University of Nebraska Medical Center, and were prioritized for
102 inclusion in this study if they had been previously undergone pathology review and been
103 interrogated by Affymetrix U133 Plus 2.0 gene expression microarrays(10-12) (n=284). An
104 additional series of 223 FFPE tumors were collected from other centers. Samples were de-
105 identified and accompanied by the diagnosis from the medical records, plus overall survival time
106 and status when available. Medical record diagnosis was used in all cases except for those with
107 fluorescence *in situ* hybridization showing translocations in *MYC* and *BCL2* and/or *BCL6*, which
108 were amended to DHL. Sequencing results for a subset of 52 BL tumors were described
109 previously(13). All MCL samples were either positive for *CCND1* translocation by FISH or
110 positive for *CCND1* protein expression by immunohistochemistry, depending on the diagnostic
111 practices of the contributing institution.

112

113 Next generation sequencing

114 A total of 500-1000ng of gDNA was sonicated using a Covaris S2 Ultrasonicator, and libraries
115 prepared using KAPA Hyper Prep Kits (Roche) with TruSeq Adapters (Bioo Scientific) and a
116 maximum of 8 cycles of PCR (average of 4 cycles). Libraries were qualified by TapeStation
117 4200, quantified by Qubit and 10- to 12-plexed for hybrid capture. Each multiplexed library was
118 enriched using our custom LymphoSeq panel encompassing the full coding sequences of 380
119 genes that were determined to be somatically mutated in B-cell lymphoma (Table S2,
120 Supplementary Methods), as well as tiling recurrent translocation breakpoints. Enrichments
121 were amplified with 4-8 cycles of PCR and sequenced on a single lane of an Illumina HiSeq
122 4000 with 100PE reads in high-output mode at the Hudson Alpha Institute for Biotechnology or
123 the MD Anderson Sequencing and Microarray Facility. Variants were called using our previously
124 validated ensemble approach(13, 14), germline polymorphisms were filtered using dbSNP
125 annotation and the EXAC dataset containing 60,706 healthy individuals(15), and significantly
126 mutated genes were defined by MutSig2CV(16). Copy number alterations identified by
127 CopyWriteR(17), which was validated using 3 FL tumors with matched Affymetrix 250K SNP
128 array (Figure S2), and significant DNA copy number alterations were determined by
129 GISTIC2(18). Translocations were called using FACTERA(19), which we previously validated
130 against MYC translocation status determined by FISH(20). Mutation and CNA data are publicly
131 viewable through cBioPortal: https://www.cbioportal.org/study/summary?id=mbn_mdacc_2013.
132 Matched gene expression microarray data are available through the Gene Expression Omnibus,
133 accession GSE132929. For further details, refer to supplementary methods.

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137 **RESULTS**

138 Identification of significantly mutated genes and structural alterations.

139 We used a 380 gene custom targeted sequencing approach, LymphoSeq, to interrogate the
140 genomes of 685 mature B-NHLs, sequencing to an average depth of 578X (Min, 101X; Max,
141 1785X; Table S1) for a total yield of 1.81 Tbp. Somatic nucleotide variants (SNVs) and small
142 insertions/deletions (InDels) were identified using an ensemble approach that we have
143 previously validated(14) (Table S3) and significantly mutated genes were identified using
144 MutSig2CV (Table S4). Matched germline DNA was available from purified T-cells of 20 tumors
145 (11 FL and 9 MCL) and sequenced to validate the filtering of germline variants; 0/632 variants
146 called within these tumors were identified in the matched germline samples, which indicates that
147 the filtering of germline variants was effective. Genes that were significantly mutated in the full
148 cohort or in any one of the 4 subtypes with >100 tumors (BL, DLBCL, FL, MCL) were included,
149 as well as frequently mutated genes that are targets of AID (Table S5, **Figure 1**). Predictably,
150 AID-associated mutations were higher in frequency among GC-derived lymphomas (BL,
151 DLBCL, FL), but also accounted for 7.6% of all coding and non-coding mutations in MCL (Table
152 S6). The mutational burden calculated from our targeted region significantly correlated with that
153 from the whole exome (Figure S3A) and was significantly higher in DLBCL and other high-grade
154 tumors compared to FL and MCL (**Figure 1**; Figure S3B).

155

156 The hybrid capture probes utilized in our design also targeted recurrent breakpoint regions in
157 the immunoglobulin heavy- and light-chain loci, and recurrent breakpoints in or near the *BCL2*,
158 *MYC* and *BCL6* genes, and translocations were called using a method that detects discordantly
159 mapped reads(19) (**Figures 1 and 2A**). Our prior validation of this approach in cases with

160 matched fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) data for *MYC* showed that it is 100% specific,
161 but only ~40% sensitive for translocation detection(13). This limit of sensitivity likely varies for
162 different genes depending on how well the breakpoints are clustered into hotspots that are
163 targeted by our capture probes. Nonetheless, we observed a significantly higher fraction of
164 *BCL6* translocations (57% [27/47]) partnered to non-immunoglobulin loci (eg. *CIITA*, *RHOH*,
165 *EIF4A2*, *ST6GAL1*; Table S7) compared to *BCL2* (1% [1/114]) and *MYC* (5% [2/38])
166 translocations (Figure 2A; Fisher P-value <0.001). These were more frequent in FL (88%
167 [15/17] of *BCL6* translocations) as compared to DLBCL (39% [9/23] of *BCL6* translocations),
168 presumably because the two immunoglobulin loci in FL are either translocated with the *BCL2*
169 gene or functioning in immunoglobulin expression(21). We also employed off-target reads to
170 detect DNA copy number alterations (CNAs) in a manner akin to low-pass whole genome
171 sequencing, identified significant peaks of copy gain and losses using GISTIC2(18) (**Figures 1**
172 **and 2A**; Figure S4; Table S8-9), and defined the likely targets of these CNAs by integrative
173 analysis of matched gene expression profiling (GEP) data from 290 tumors (**Figure 2B-C**,
174 Figure S4, Table S10-11). This identified known CNA targets, including but not limited to
175 deletion of *TNFAIP3* (6q24.2)(22), *ATM* (11q22.3)(23), *B2M* (15q15.5)(24) and *PTEN*
176 (10q23.21)(25), and copy gain of *REL* and *BCL11A* (2p15), and *TCF4* (18q23)(26). In addition,
177 we identified novel targets such as deletion of *IBTK* (6q14.1), *UBE3A* (11q22.1) and *FBXO25*
178 (8p23.3), and copy gain of *ATF7* (12q13.13), *UCHL5* (1q31.3), and *KMT2A* (11q23.3).
179 Importantly, the frequency of DNA copy number alterations in the target genes identified by
180 NGS-based analysis significantly correlated with those derived from single nucleotide
181 polymorphism (SNP) microarray-based measurements in independent cohorts of BL, DLBCL,
182 FL and MCL tumors from previously published studies(6, 20, 26-30) (Figure S5), providing
183 validation for the accuracy of this approach. The CNA peaks, defined as the smallest and most
184 statistically significant region, included multiple genes that were significantly mutated (**Figure**
185 **2D**) as well as other genes for which we detected mutations at lower frequencies that were not

186 significant by MutSig2CV (*POU2AF1*, *TP53BP1*, *FAS*, *PTEN*). Deletions of *ATM*, *B2M*, *BIRC3*
187 and *TNFRSF14* significantly co-associated with mutations of these genes, suggesting that these
188 are complementary mechanisms contributing to biallelic inactivation.

189

190 Conserved functional hallmarks of B-NHL.

191 To understand key hallmarks that are deregulated by genetic alterations, we performed
192 hypergeometric enrichment analysis of genes targeted by recurrent mutations and DNA copy
193 number alterations using DAVID(31) (Table S12). This revealed a significant enrichment of
194 multiple overlapping gene sets that could be summarized into hallmark processes associated
195 with epigenetics and transcription (**Figure 3A**), apoptosis and proliferation (**Figure 3B**),
196 signaling (**Figure 3C**), and ubiquitination (**Figure 3D**). One or more genes within these
197 hallmarks was altered in the majority (>50%) of tumors from each of the 4 major histologies
198 included in this study. Genes annotated in epigenetic-associated gene sets were altered in 72%,
199 70%, 93% and 50% of BL, DLBCL, FL, and MCL, respectively, whereas genes annotated in
200 transcription-associated gene sets were altered in 94%, 91%, 95% and 88% of BL, DLBCL, FL,
201 and MCL, respectively. However, there is an extremely high degree of functional overlap
202 between epigenetics and transcriptional regulation, as well as overlapping gene set annotations
203 for many genes, leading us to consider these categories collectively as a single hallmark.
204 Collectively, genes involved in epigenetics and transcription were mutated in 94% of BL, 92% of
205 DLBCL, 96% of FL and 89% of MCL, and included those that encode proteins that catalyze
206 post-translational modifications of histones (*KMT2D*, *CREBBP*, *EZH2*, *EP300*, *WHSC1*,
207 *ASHL1L* and *KMT2A*), components of the BAF chromatin remodeling complex (*ARID1A*,
208 *SMARCA4*, *BCL7A*, *BCL11A*), linker histones (*HIST1H1E*, *HIST1H1C*, *HIST1H1B*), and
209 transcription factors (*BCL6*, *IRF4*, *IRF8*, *TCF3*, *TCF4*, *MYC*, *REL*, *PAX5*, *POU2AF2*, *FOXO1*,
210 *CIITA*). Genes with a role in signaling included those involved in B-cell receptor (*CD79B*, *ID3*,

211 *TCF3*, *TCF4*, *RFTN1*), NF κ B (*TNFAIP3*, *CARD11*, *NFKBIE*), NOTCH (*NOTCH1*, *NOTCH2*),
212 JAK/STAT (*SOCS1*, *STAT6*), PI3K/mTOR (*FOXO1*, *ATP6V1B2*, *APT6AP1*) and G-protein
213 (GNA13, GNAI2) signaling. The *CD79A* and *BCL10* genes were also mutated at a lower
214 frequency that was not significant by MutSig2CV (Figure S6A-B). Among these, the *RFTN1*
215 gene (Figure S6C) is a novel recurrently mutated gene that was mutated in 7.4% of DLBCL and
216 encodes a lipid raft protein that is critical for B-cell receptor signaling(32).

217
218 Deregulation of the ubiquitin proteasome system is important in many cancers(33), but is not a
219 well-defined hallmark of B-NHL. However, one or more genes with a role in regulating
220 ubiquitination were genetically altered in 61% of BL, 79% of DLBCL, 61% of FL and 82% of
221 MCL (**Figure 3D**). These included previously described genetic alterations such as amplification
222 of *MDM2*(34), deletion of *TNFAIP3*(35) and *CUL4A*(36) and *RPL5*(36), and mutations of
223 *KLHL6*(37), *DTX1*(38), *UBR5*(39), *SOCS1*(40), and *BIRC3*(6). In addition, we identified novel
224 targets such as recurrent deletions of *IBTK*, a negative regulator of Bruton's tyrosine kinase
225 (BTK)(41), and somatic mutation of *CDC27* in 14% of MCL, which encodes an E3 ligase for
226 CCND1(42). Therefore, common hallmark processes are targeted by genetic alterations in the
227 majority of major B-NHL subtypes, including genes with a role in regulating protein
228 ubiquitination.

229
230 Subtype-specific patterns of genetic alterations.

231 We formally tested the over- or under-representation of recurrent genetic alterations in each of
232 the 4 subtypes with >100 tumors (BL, DLBCL, FL, MCL), compared to all other tumors in the
233 study (**Figure 4**; Table S13). We observed some interesting patterns within hallmark
234 characteristics that differ between subtypes. An illustrative example of this is the alternative

235 avenues for BAF complex perturbation between different histologies (**Figure 5**). Specifically,
236 mutations of the *SMARCA4* (aka. BRG1) component of the ATPase module were significantly
237 enriched in BL (24%) compared to other subtypes (4%, Q-value<0.001), while mutations of the
238 *BCL7A* component of the ATPase module were significantly enriched in FL (11%) compared to
239 other subtypes (4%, Q-value=0.007). In contrast, mutations of *ARID1A* were frequent in both BL
240 (19%) and FL (15%), and DNA copy number gains of *BCL11A* were frequent in both DLBCL
241 (28%) and FL (22%). The BAF complex is therefore a target of recurrent genetic alterations, as
242 previously suggested(43), but the manner in which this complex is perturbed varies between B-
243 NHL subtypes (**Figure 5**). Similar disease-specific patterns were also observed for signaling
244 genes; for example, *TCF3* and *ID3* have important functions in normal germinal center B-
245 cells(44), but mutations of these genes are specifically enriched within BL and are rarely found
246 in the other GCB-derived malignancies, DLBCL and FL. Similarly, the *ATP6AP1* and *ATP6V1B2*
247 genes that function in mTOR signaling(45, 46) are specifically mutated in FL, and the *DUSP2*
248 gene which inactivates ERK1/2(47) and STAT3(48) is specifically mutated in DLBCL. The
249 disease-specific patterns of genetic alterations therefore reveal subtle but important differences
250 in how each subtype of B-NHL perturbs hallmark features.

251

252 Clusters of co-associated genomic alterations in B-NHL subtypes

253 We next defined how each genetic alteration co-associated with or mutually-excluded other
254 genetic alterations by pairwise assessments using false-discovery rate (FDR)-corrected Fisher's
255 tests (Table S14). A matrix of the transformed FDR Q-values (-logQ) was used for unsupervised
256 hierarchical clustering to identify clusters of co-associated genetic alterations. Together with
257 patterns of disease-specificity, unsupervised clustering revealed clear groupings of co-
258 associated events for BL, DLBCL, FL and MCL (**Figure 4**). We identified a single cluster of
259 significantly co-associated genetic alterations that was specifically enriched in BL (Cluster 1),

260 including mutations and translocations of *MYC*, and mutations of *CCND3*, *SMARCA4*, *TCF3*
261 and *ID3* that have been previously reported in BL(4). A single cluster was significantly enriched
262 in MCL (Cluster 7), with a high frequency of *ATM* mutations and deletions, as well as other DNA
263 copy number alterations. Other mutations that were not significantly co-associated were also
264 enriched in MCL (Cluster 6), such as those in *WHSC1*, *NOTCH1*, *NOTCH2*, *BCOR* and *UBR5*,
265 though statistical assessment of co-association may be hampered in this context by the low
266 frequencies of mutations within these genes. A single cluster was also enriched in FL (Cluster
267 4), with a high prevalence of *KMT2D*, *BCL2*, *CREBBP*, *EZH2* and *TNFRSF14* mutations and
268 *BCL2* translocations. The genes within cluster 4 also significantly overlapped with the previously
269 reported C3, EZB and BCL2 clusters from prior whole exome sequencing studies of DLBCL (3,
270 49, 50) (Fisher test p-values = 0.0006, 0.0148 and 0.0173, respectively). Two clusters (Clusters
271 2 and 3) were enriched in DLBCL, with lower frequencies of mutations in a larger number of
272 genes, in line with the genetic heterogeneity of this disease (3, 4). Cluster 2 includes co-
273 associated genetic alterations that overlapped with the previously described C5, MCD, and
274 MYD88 clusters (3, 4) (Fisher p-values = 0.0004, 0.0002 and 0.0007, respectively) including
275 *CD79B*, *MYD88* and *TBL1XR1* mutations. Genes within cluster 3 significantly overlapped with
276 those in the previously described C4 and SOCS1/SGK1 clusters (Fisher p-values = 0.0002 and
277 0.0074, respectively), including *SGK1*, *TET2*, *SOCS1* and histone H1 genes. We also identified
278 a cluster consisting of TP53 mutations and multiple CNAs (Cluster 5) similar to the genetically
279 complex C2/A53 subtype reported in DLBCL (3, 49), however the overlap of features within
280 these clusters could not be formally assessed due to differing annotations. The CNAs captured
281 in this cluster were variably represented across B-NHL subtypes, but were most frequent in
282 DLBCL. B-NHL subtypes therefore harbor characteristic clusters of co-associated genetic
283 alterations that likely cooperate in disease etiology.

284

285 Combinations of genetic alterations define molecular subtypes of B-NHL

286 Our data have revealed statistical enrichment of individual genetic alterations in subtypes of B-
287 NHL, and pairwise relationships between different genetic alterations that define clusters of
288 subtype-specific events. To validate and expand upon these observations we leveraged gene
289 expression microarray data from 284 tumors that underwent pathology review and were profiled
290 as part of prior studies(10-12). We utilized BL, DHL, HGBL-NOS and DLBCL tumors to perform
291 classification into molecular-defined BL (mBL) and non-mBL using a Bayesian classifier with
292 previously described marker genes(51), and subclassified non-mBL into activated B-cell (ABC)-
293 like and germinal center B-cell (GCB)-like subtypes as we have described previously(26)
294 (Figure S7). We evaluated the frequency of cumulative (≥ 2) genetic alterations within each
295 cluster among mBL, ABC-like DLBCL, GCB-like DLBCL, FL and MCL (**Figure 6**). This showed
296 that Cluster 1 genetic alterations that were individually enriched in BL are cumulatively acquired
297 in molecularly-defined BL (mBL), with 87% of tumors having ≥ 2 of these alterations compared to
298 only 22% of GCB-like DLBCL. Similarly, Cluster 4 and Cluster 7 alterations were cumulatively in
299 77% and 72% of molecularly-annotated FL and MCL, respectively. Cluster 4 mutations were
300 also cumulatively acquired in 51% of GCB-like DLBCL, likely capturing the C3/EZB/BCL2
301 subtype that has genetic similarities to FL(3, 4, 50). Furthermore, Cluster 2 and Cluster 4
302 alterations were cumulatively acquired in 58% of ABC-like DLBCL and 60% of GCB-like DLBCL,
303 respectively, further supporting their respective overlap with the C5/MCD/MYD88 and C4/ST2
304 subtypes of DLBCL. CNAs within the Cluster 5 were cumulatively acquired at high but variable
305 frequencies in all of the subtypes, but showed subtype-specific patterns within this cluster such
306 as higher frequencies of 18q21 and 18q23 gains in ABC-like DLBCL, and higher frequencies of
307 chromosome 7 gains in GCB-like DLBCL and FL. B-NHL tumors therefore cumulatively acquire
308 co-associated sets of genetic alterations in a manner that is characteristically associated with
309 histologically- and molecularly-defined subsets of disease.

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311

312

313 **DISCUSSION**

314 By performing cross-sectional genomic profiling of a large cohort of tumors, we have developed
315 a resource of genes and functional hallmarks that are recurrently targeted by genetic alterations
316 in B-NHL, and shown that the cumulative acquisition of combinations of genetic alterations are
317 characteristic of histological and molecular subtypes of disease. Some of the functional
318 hallmarks that we identified have been previously appreciated, with a few exceptions. For
319 example, the mutation of genes with roles in epigenetic and transcriptional control of gene
320 expression are known to be a hallmark of FL(52) and we observed that 96% of FL tumors
321 possessed mutations in one or more of the genes in this category. However, mutations within
322 these genes were also observed in the majority of BL, DLBCL and MCL tumors, highlighting the
323 conservation of this functional hallmark across B-NHL subtypes. There are subtype-specific
324 patterns of chromatin modifying gene alterations, such as those that we highlighted for BAF
325 complex mutations, but we suggest that the genetic deregulation of epigenetic and
326 transcriptional control of gene expression should be considered a general hallmark of B-NHL. In
327 addition, we suggest that the deregulation of the ubiquitin proteasome system is a hallmark of
328 B-NHL that requires further investigation. Mutations in genes such as *KLHL6*(37) and *UBR5*(39)
329 have been recently shown to play an important role in B-cell lymphoma, while the roles of other
330 frequently mutated genes such as *DTX1* and *SOCS1* have not yet been functionally dissected.
331 Furthermore, while the nature of AID-driven mutations in genes such as *DTX1* and *SOCS1*
332 remain to be defined, other genes that are recurrently mutated by AID such as *BCL7A* (53) and
333 linker histone genes (54) have been shown to play driving role in lymphomagenesis. Genetic

334 deregulation of the ubiquitin proteasome system has the potential to influence the activity or
335 abundance of a range of substrate proteins, and represents a current gap in our knowledge of
336 B-NHL etiology.

337

338 The role of cooperative interactions between co-occurring genetic alterations is also an
339 emerging field that requires further investigation. These interactions are not uncommon in
340 cancer(55), and have been recently highlighted in DLBCL(3, 4), but our data show that they are
341 pervasive and characteristic features of the B-NHL genetic landscape. Cooperation between co-
342 associated genetic alterations identified in this study requires formal validation in cell line and/or
343 animal models. However, there are many instances in which co-occurring genetic alterations
344 that we observed have already been shown to cooperate in lymphomagenesis. In addition to the
345 aforementioned example of *MYD88* and *CD79B* mutations, transgenic mouse models of *Ezh2*
346 activating mutations or conditional deletion of *Crebbp* or *Kmt2d* have shown that these events
347 are not alone sufficient for lymphomagenesis(56-61). We and others have observed a co-
348 association between the mutation of these genes and *BCL2* translocations(14, 62), and the
349 addition of a *Bcl2* transgene to these murine models indeed promoted lymphoma at a
350 significantly higher rate than that observed with the *Bcl2* transgene alone(56-61). These genetic
351 alterations are therefore significantly more lymphomagenic in combination than they are alone,
352 which provides proof of principal that a cooperative relationship exists between these co-
353 occurring genetic alterations. Future studies focusing on other co-occurring mutations, such as
354 *MYC* translocation and *SMARCA4* mutation in BL, *CREBBP* and *KMT2D* mutation in FL, *TCF4*
355 copy gain and *MYD88* mutation in DLBCL, and *ATM* mutation and *RPL5* deletion in MCL,
356 should therefore be performed to further explore these concepts and define their underlying
357 functional relationship. We suggest that combinations of genetic alterations are likely to more
358 accurately recapitulate the biology of B-NHL than single gene models, and may reveal

359 contextually different functional roles of genetic alterations depending on the co-occurring
360 events.

361

362 The caveats of this study include the targeted nature of the LymphoSeq platform which may
363 preclude consideration of a subset of important genes, the lack of germline DNA for the majority
364 of samples that may lead to a small number of germ-line variants being falsely assigned as
365 somatic, and the sample size for any given histological subtype being below that required to
366 identify genes that are mutated at low frequency. Nonetheless, these data represent the first
367 broad cross-sectional analysis of multiple histological and molecular subtypes of B-NHL using
368 the same methodology and provide a framework of functional hallmarks and co-occurring
369 genetic alterations that are enriched within these subtypes of B-NHL. These functional
370 hallmarks are genetically perturbed in the majority of B-NHLs, but our cross-sectional approach
371 enabled us to elucidate subtype-specific preferences for genetic alterations within each
372 functional hallmark. Furthermore, the subtype-specific clusters of co-occurring genetic
373 alterations likely represent cooperative interactions that underpin the biology of different
374 subtypes of B-NHL. These combinations identify opportunities for moving from single-allele to
375 multi-allele designs in cell line or animal models to better understand the molecular etiology of
376 B-NHL subtypes. Together, these hallmarks and clusters of co-associated genetic alterations
377 represent processes that are potentially drugable with targeted therapies (63-66), but that are
378 likely influenced in a non-binary fashion by different combinations of genetic alterations.
379 Deciphering the relationships between complex sets of genetic alterations and targetable
380 dependencies will be a next step towards developing new rationally targeted therapeutic
381 strategies in B-NHL.

382

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390

391 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

392 MCJMA and ST performed experiments, analyzed data and wrote the manuscript. AB analyzed
393 data. TH, HY, QD, DM, KH, NJ, JS, and SG performed experiments. AA, LS, MD, CC, JT, DP,
394 KMV, MAL, ARS, BJC, RB, SN, LN, RED, JW, SP, MG, DS, KB, JI, SR, and AM provided
395 samples and/or clinical data. MRG conceived and supervised the study, performed experiments,
396 analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the manuscript.

397

398 **DISCLOSURES OF CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

399 The authors have no conflicts of interest related to this work.

400

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603 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

604 **Figure 1: Recurrently mutated genes in B-NHL subtypes.** An oncoplot shows significantly
605 mutated genes, DNA copy number alterations and translocations (Tx.) across our cohort of 685
606 B-NHL tumors. Mutation types and frequencies are summarized for each gene/CNA on the
607 right, and the mutational burden for each case are shown at the top.

608

609 **Figure 2: Structural alterations in B-NHL subtypes. A)** A circos plot shows translocations of
610 the MYC (purple), BCL2 (orange) and BCL6 (green) genes, and GISTIC tracks of DNA copy
611 number gains (red) and losses (blue). **B-C)** Volcano plots of integrative analysis results showing
612 the changes in gene expression of genes within peaks of DNA copy number gain (B) or loss (C).
613 Positive T-test score indicate increased expression in tumors with a given CNA, and vice versa.
614 Significant genes with the correct directionality are highlighted in the shaded areas. **D)**
615 Oncoplots show the overlap of structural alterations and mutations that target the same genes.
616 P-values are derived from a Fisher's exact test (ns, not significant).

617

618 **Figure 3: Functional enrichment of targets of somatic mutations and DNA copy number**
619 **alterations.** Genes targeted by somatic mutation and/or DNA copy number alteration were
620 evaluated for enrichment in curated gene sets, and significant gene sets subsequently grouped
621 according to overlapping gene set membership and functional similarity. In addition to genes
622 assigned by DAVID (purple), some genes were manually curated into hallmark processes by
623 literature review of their function (pink). Enriched gene sets could be summarized into 4 major
624 hallmark processes, including (A) epigenetic and transcriptional control of gene expression, (B)
625 regulation of apoptosis and proliferation, (C) regulation of signaling pathway activity, and (D)
626 regulation of protein ubiquitination. The frequency of each genetic alteration is shown for each
627 of the 4 major histologies included in this study, and the fraction of tumors in each histology
628 bearing genetic alterations of one or more of the genes is summarized by a pie graph at the
629 bottom for each hallmark. HMT, histone methyltransferase. HAT, histone acetyltransferase.
630 DDR, DNA damage response. BCR, B-cell receptor.

631
632 **Figure 4: Subtype-specific clusters of co-occurring genetic alterations.** The frequency (bar
633 graph) and over/under-representation (blue to red scale) of mutations and structural alterations
634 is shown on the left for BL, DLBCL, FL and MCL. The correlation matrix of co-associated
635 (green) and mutually-exclusive (purple) relationships was clustered to identify 7 groups of co-
636 occurring genetic alterations that were predominantly over-represented in a single B-NHL
637 subtype.

638
639 **Figure 5: Subtype-specific patterns of BAF complex mutations. A)** An oncoplot shows the
640 frequency of genetic alterations in genes that encode components of the BAF complex. **B)** A
641 schematic of the BAF complex shows recurrently mutated genes, *ARID1A*, *SMARCA4* and

642 *BCL7A*, and the *BCL11A* gene that is targeted by 2p15 DNA copy number gains. **C-E)** Lollipop
643 plots show the distribution of mutations in the BAF components *ARID1A* (C), *SMARCA4* (D),
644 and *BCL7A* (E). **F)** A heatplot shows the location of chromosome 2p DNA copy number gains
645 (red) ordered from highest DNA copy number (top) to lowest (bottom, copy number = 2.2). The
646 *BCL11A* gene is in the peak focal copy gain.

647

648 **Figure 6: Cumulative acquisition of co-occurring genetic alterations.** **A)** An oncoplot shows
649 the presence or absence of genetic alterations according to their clusters of co-association in
650 molecularly-defined Burkitt Lymphoma (mBL), activated B-cell (ABC)-like DLBCL, germinal
651 center B-cell (GCB)-like DLBCL, FL and MCL with available gene expression microarray data.
652 Shading shows histological or molecular subtypes with $\geq 50\%$ of tumors bearing ≥ 2 genetic
653 alterations within a given cluster. **B)** Bar plots shows the frequency of tumors with ≥ 2 genetic
654 alterations from each cluster.

Figure 1

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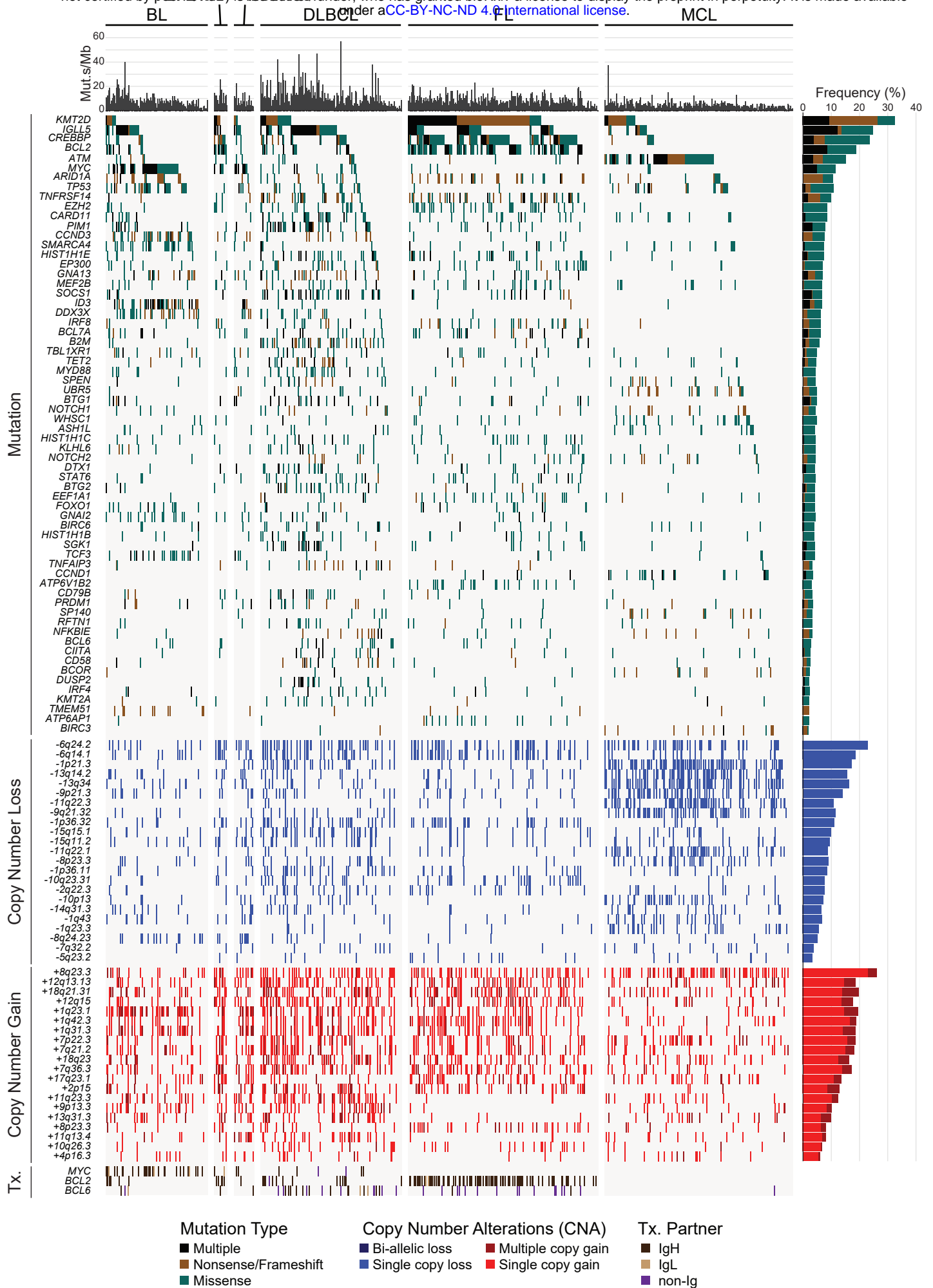


Figure 2

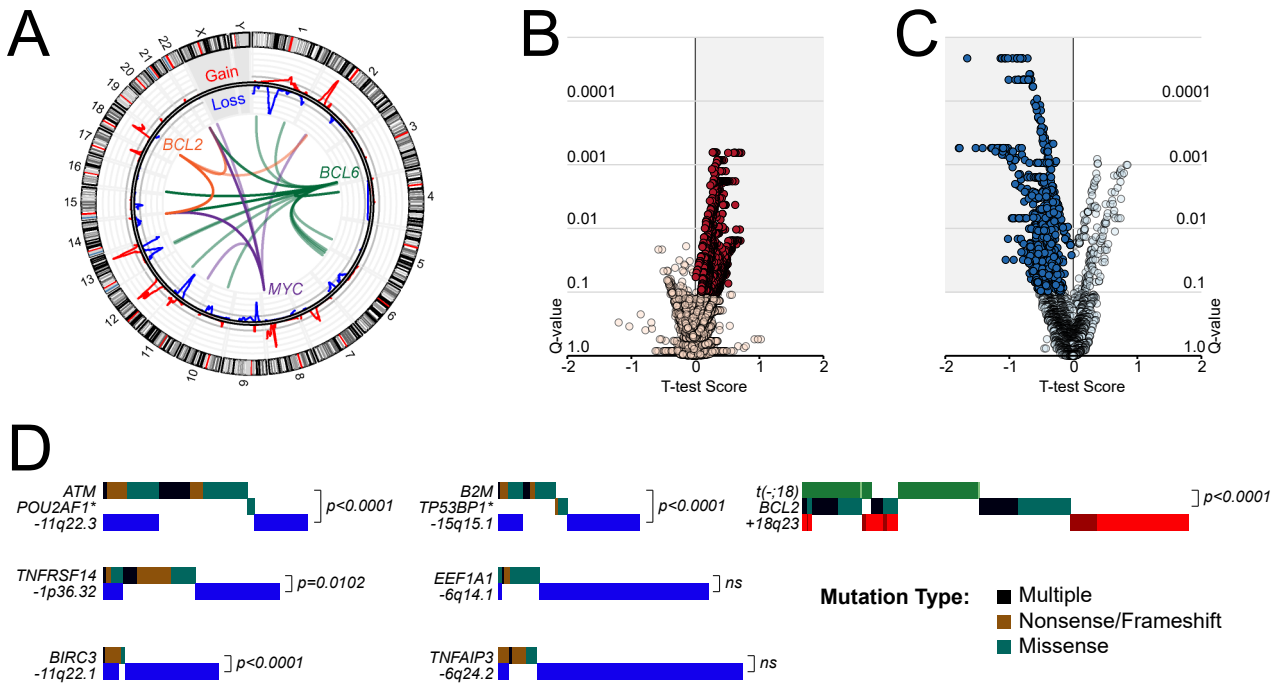
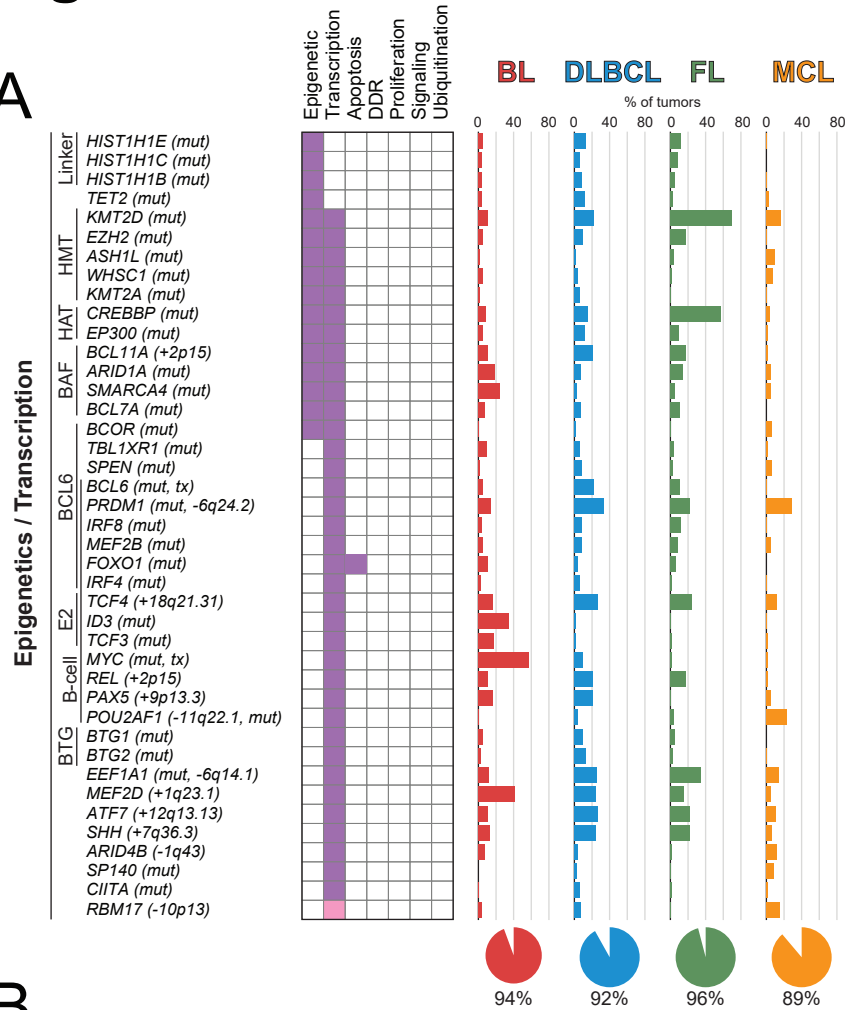
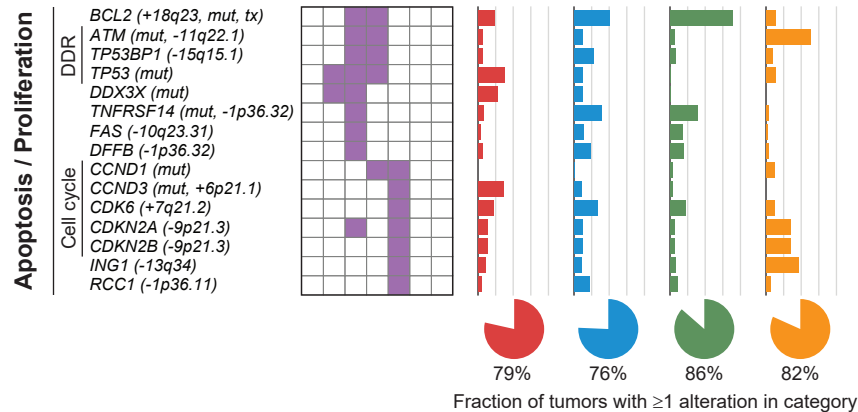


Figure 3

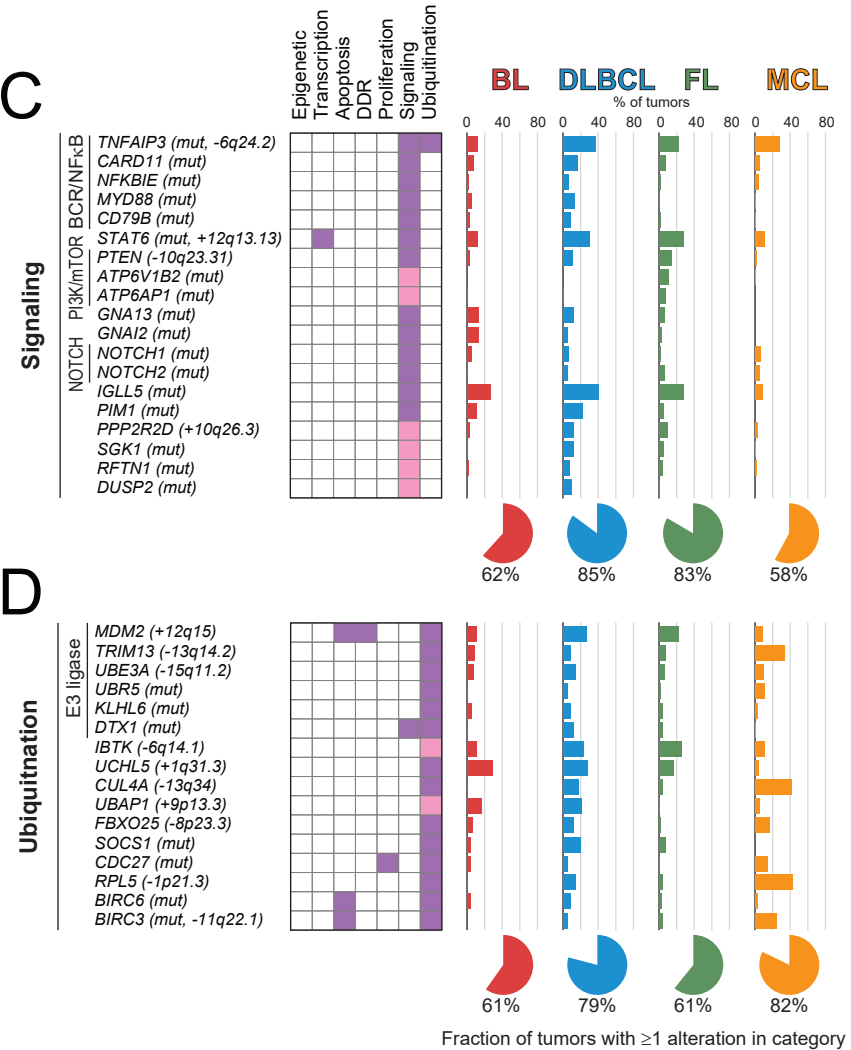
A



B



C



D

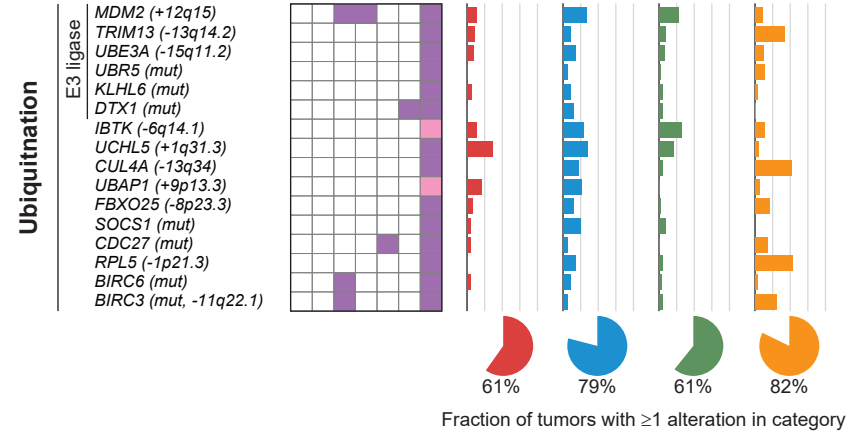


Figure 4

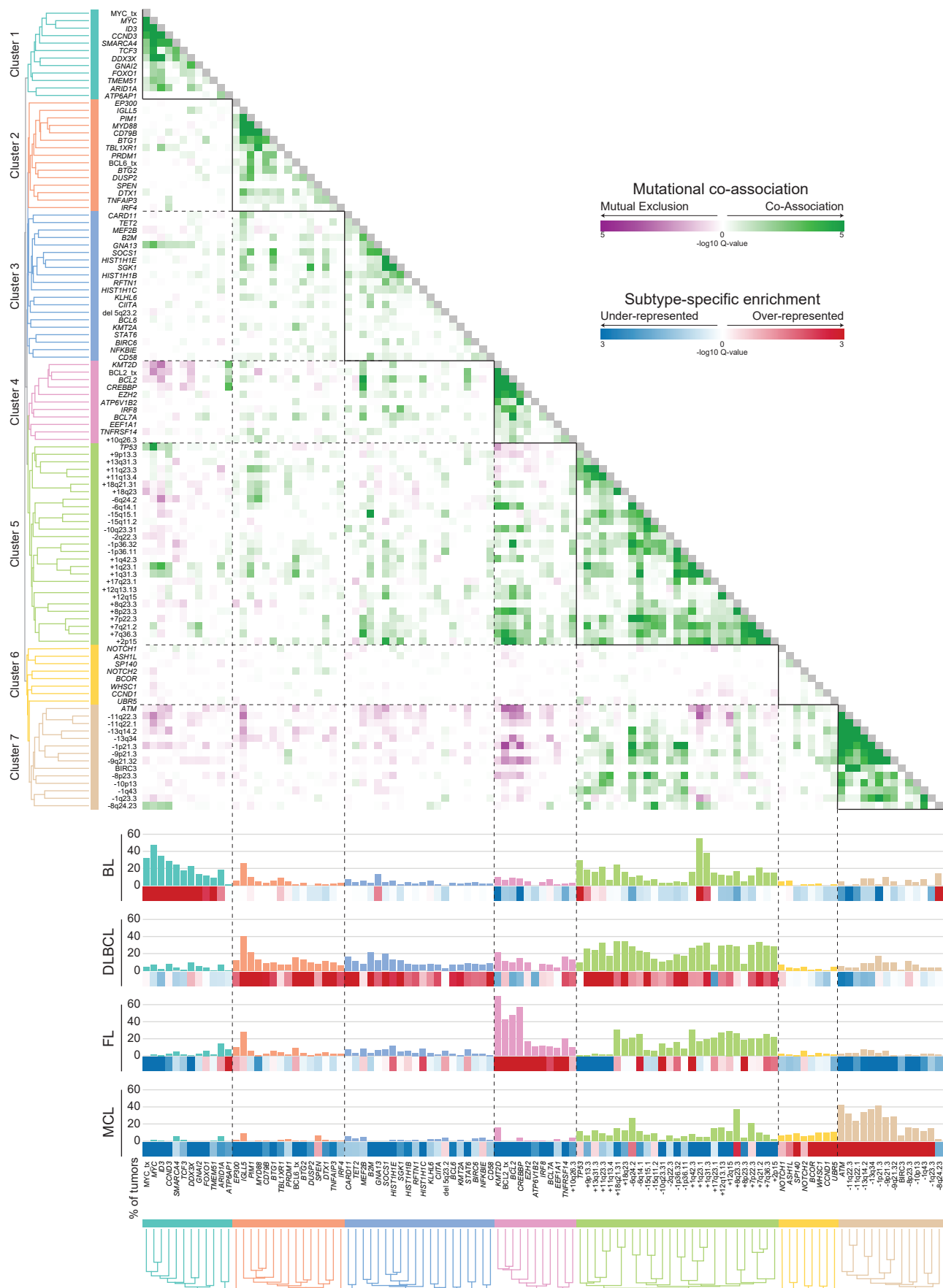


Figure 5

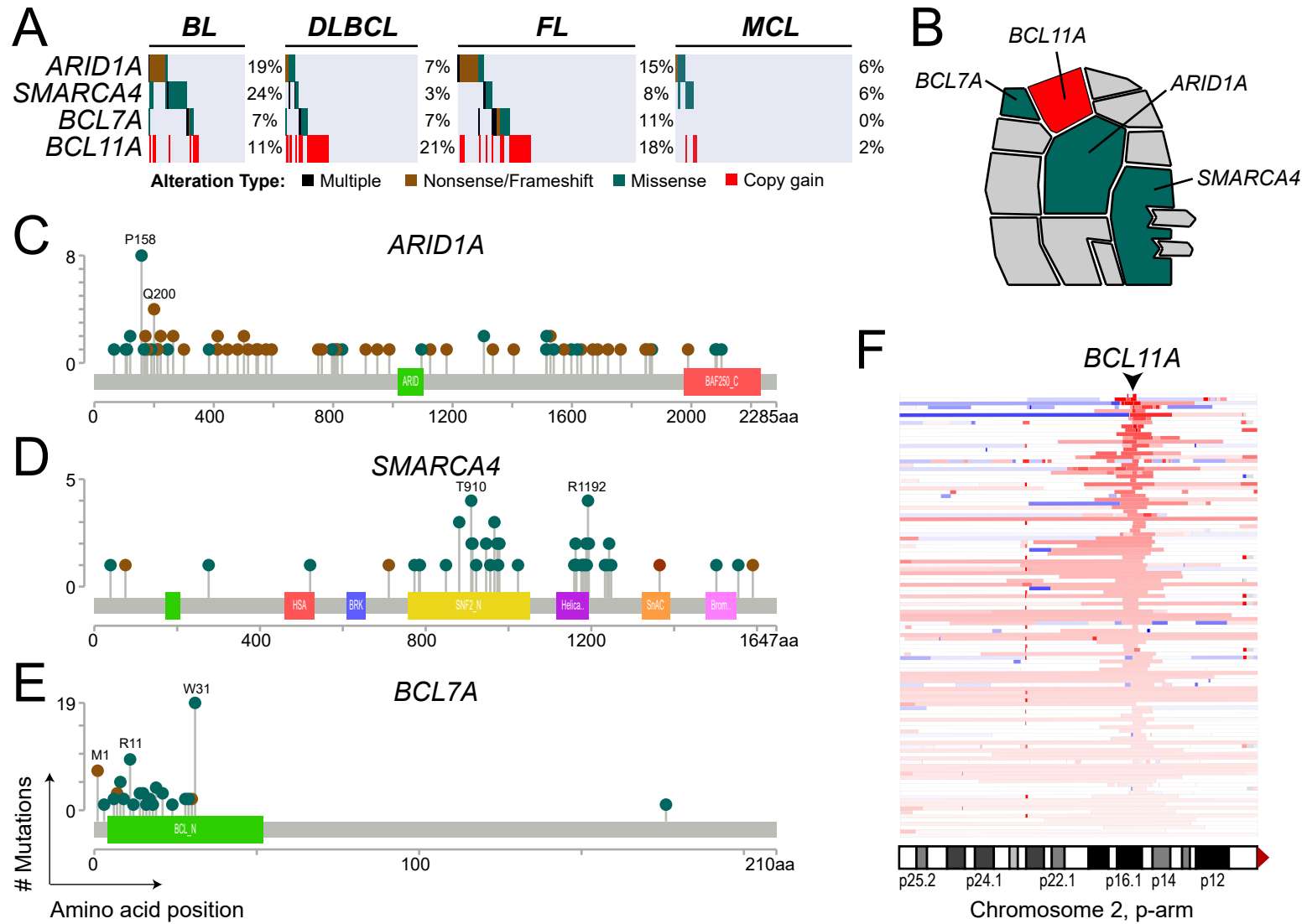


Figure 5

