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Physiologic and pathologic profiling of clonal variations

Wing Hing Wong Washington University in St. Louis

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WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY IN ST. LOUIS

Division of Biology and Biomedical Sciences Molecular Genetics and Genomics

Dissertation Examination Committee: Todd Druley, Chair Jamie Blundell Grant Challen Meagan Jacoby John Welch

Physiologic and Pathologic Profiling of Clonal Variations by Wing Hing Wong

> A dissertation presented to The Graduate School of Washington University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

> > December 2019 St. Louis, Missouri

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Acknowledgments

Finishing this thesis would not have been possible, first and foremost, without the continuing support and guidance from my PI, Todd Druley. His supervision, constant encouragement, logistical support and general advice have been instrumental in shaping my perspective of science, both the fun parts as well as the dreadful political aspects. I have matured a lot working with Todd in the laboratory, both scientifically and personally. Thank you for believing in my work and me when I doubted myself.

I would also like to thank my committee members: Grant Challen, John Welch, Meagan Jacoby and Jamie Blundell for their insightful comments on the projects. Thank you Andrew Young, from whom I learned most of my skills. Thank you Mark Valentine, for your guidance both scientifically and otherwise. Thank you Maggie Ferris for your encouragement, advice, and for coffee breaks. Thank you Spencer Tong for your scientific companionship as my aisle mate, our journey to explore science together was fun. Thank you Nitin Mahajan for your encouragement, for telling me not to worry when I worried too much. Thank you Minori Tamai for lunch break at Chick-fil-a and talking about science and Japanese culture. Thank you Shailendra Maurya for your encouragement. Thank you Kate Alexander for your contagious enthusiasm, and thank you Amelia Bystry for all your help with my science, and for being my first 'student'. Thank you James Skeath for your kind words, the speech you gave during my interview at WashU played a large part in shaping my decision to come to WashU. Thank you Melanie Relich for all you assistance with regards to graduate school chores. Thank you all my badminton and squash mates, for without you guys, I would probably be depressed. Just Kidding.

Thank you mom and bro for all your love and unwavering trust in me. These past 4.5 years have been really tough, for me and for the both of you. I hope I have not failed your expectations, and I hope I will not fail you in times to come. Thank you dad, even though you are no longer with us, your words were and will be remembered dearly.

Thank you Wuli YY, nuff said. I love you.

Wing Hing Wong (Ahlek)

Washington University in St. Louis December 2019

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Physiologic and Pathologic Profiling of Clonal Variations

by

Wing Hing Wong

Doctor of Philosophy in Biology and Biomedical Sciences Molecular Genetics and Genomics

> Washington University in St. Louis, 2019 Associate Professor Todd Druley (Chair)

This thesis sought to provide a better understanding of clonality in various malignant and non-malignant settings using a variety of genomic analytical tools. Clonality is pre-defined as the presence of a mixed population of cells in which each sub-population has distinct somatic mutation profile. It is a common feature in cancers where subpopulations of cells arise as a result of independent, yet continual acquisition of somatic mutations. The clonal architecture of cancers can be used as a diagnostic and prognostic biomarker as well as to monitor disease progression or resolution. Besides cancer, clonal variability and expansion is also implicated in various nonmalignant settings where somatically acquired mutations play a role in disease ontogeny and contribute to clinical morbidities. A prime example is clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP), which is associated with age-related, atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease due to aberrant inflammatory responses from *TET2* mutated hematopoietic clones. Specifically,

these clones increase the disease risk by modulating the interleukin- 1β secretion pathway presumably resulting in direct endothelial damage that acts as a nidus for an atherosclerotic plaque.

Given the clinical importance of clonal variability, clonal profiling is a powerful method to study diseases resulting from acquired somatic mutation. However, our understanding of clonal variability in disease is generally limited by, 1) the relatively high error rate of highthroughput, next-generation sequencing (NGS) methods (approximately 2%), which obfuscates the detection of somatic mutations at low variant allele frequencies, 2) a lack of longitudinal data that would allow one to track the evolutionary dynamics of these somatic mutations, and 3) a lack of comprehensive multi-regional sampling, especially in the case of solid tumors that would enable one to define clonal heterogeneity spatially.

In this thesis, we first optimized an error-corrected sequencing (ECS) strategy that has approximately 100-fold higher limit of detection than standard NGS. We then applied ECS to longitudinally survey physiologic clonal hematopoiesis in healthy individuals aged $0 - 24$. According to the thresholds defined by CHIP, which is limited to mutations at $\geq 2\%$ variant allele frequency (VAF), this age group would not be expected to harbor any clonal hematopoietic mutations, but many researchers, including our group considered this information to be the result of technical inability to detect mutations with low variant allele frequency rather than a true absence of mutations. As a result, our group previously used ECS to determine that clonal hematopoiesis (CH) <0.02 VAF was ubiquitous in individuals at middle age, causing us in this thesis to examine and characterize CH in newborns, children, adolescent and young adults. With ECS, we examined the evolutionary dynamics of clonal mutations during normal hematopoiesis

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from birth to young adulthood and established that 30% of healthy infants were born with clonal hematopoietic somatic mutations in genes associated with leukemia.

Second, after we found that many healthy young individuals harbored potentially pathogenic somatic mutations in blood, we moved on to examine clonal transfer and clonal dynamics in the context of unrelated allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT) where the majority of healthy HLA-matched, unrelated donors is between ages of 20 to 40. Our lab has previously shown that pre-existing hematopoietic progenitors with pathogenic mutations could be selected by chemotherapy and result in therapy-related AML, and as mentioned above, we have demonstrated that a significant percentage of healthy individuals of all ages harbored hematopoietic progenitors with pathogenic mutations. We therefore hypothesized that healthy donors would harbor mutated clones in blood that engraft the recipients, and the process of HSCT presents a potent selection pressure for donor clones. The most compelling finding was that 100% of the donor clones engrafted and the 84% of these clones harbored mutations that were pathogenic Our results also suggested a possible link between these engrafted pathogenic mutations and the development of chronic graft-versus-host disease in the recipients.

We next characterized clonal hematopoiesis in the background of Down Syndrome (DS) where individuals have approximately 150-fold increased risk of developing leukemia. This was done by comparing CH in DS children who were otherwise healthy with those that had developed myeloid leukemia of Down Syndreom (ML-DS). Besides trisomy 21, ML-DS is characterized by mutations in the X-linked transcription factor, *GATA1*, but GATA1 mutations have recently been demonstrated in about 30% of umbilical cord blood samples from DS children suggesting that additional lesions were required for leukemic transformation. We demonstrated that the clonal profiles in ML-DS differ from those in DS children without

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leukemia. Our results also suggest an alternative route in which *GATA1* mutated clones contribute to leukemogenesis via oligoclonal, cell extrinsic interactions.

Lastly, I investigated the tumor ontogeny of metastatic glioblastoma in a young adult (aged 27) with neurofibromatosis (NF1) using multi-region sequencing on widely disseminated tumor cells across different brain lesions. Glioblastoma in NF1 is rare, and has conventionally been thought to arise as a result of bi-allelic loss of the *NF1* gene. However, by examining the spatial genetic heterogeneity and the tumor phylogeny, our results suggested that the somatic loss of the second *NF1* allele occurred much later during disease progression, and pathogenic mutations in other genes such as *KMT2B* were involved in initial oncogenic transformation instead.

Collectively, these findings have augmented understanding of clonal hematopoiesis from birth through young adulthood, clonal variability in metastatic glioblastoma, and provide a foundational basis for further explorations in establishing causal links between clonal profiles and disease ontogenies.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Clonality in malignant diseases

In 1985, Secket-Walker¹ defined a clonal population as a group of cells arising from a single somatic cell via mitotic divisions. This phenomenon would consequently result in different lineages of cells harboring dissimilar genetic or cytogenetic abnormalities within the same individual. Based on this, clonality was thus further understood as the presence of mixed population of cells in which each sub-population has distinct profile of somatic alterations². Over the past several decades, different distinct clonal populations of cells had been empirically observed in the laboratory, primarily in cancers³, hence supporting the landmark perspective by Peter Nowell $(1976)^4$ on cancer as an evolutionary outcome driven by sequential acquisition of somatic alterations and clonal selection. Since then, clonality had been regarded as an important feature in cancers due to its direct influence in tumorigenesis. Some of the first demonstrations of clonality in cancers utilized differential patterns of X-chromosome inactivation in female cancer patients who displayed heterozygosity for certain X-linked polymorphisms such as the production of different glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (*G6PD*) isoenzymes by cancer cells in uterine leiomyomas and teratomas⁵⁻⁷. This approach was later used by Fialkow and colleagues⁸⁻¹⁰ in several classic works characterizing the monoclonal origin of chronic myelocytic leukemia (CML) and Burkitt's lymphoma, as well as the polyclonal origin of neurofibromas. These findings provided some of the first lines of evidence to suggest that cancer was a genetic disease likely driven by clonal selection of specific phenotype(s) and laid the foundation for the field of cancer genetics¹¹. The subsequent developments of Maxam-Gilbert¹² and Sanger¹³ sequencing methods further bolstered these concepts by providing researchers the initial means to begin asking questions about clonality and the evolutionary processes of

tumorigenesis at the level of individual nucleotides $14,15$. These foundational results, coupled with the completion of the first human reference genome^{16,17} in the early $21st$ century propelled us into an new era of cancer genomics. Some early large-scale Sanger sequencing studies leveraged the human reference genome to provide characterization of thousands of somatic alterations in colorectal and breast cancers^{18,19}, and demonstrated genetic heterogeneity in these cancers. It was also suggested then that each individual mutation in putative driver genes was associated with non-uniform fitness advantage, and cancer cells harboring specific mutations would experience clonal expansion to drive disease progression in a patient²⁰.

The subsequent advent of next-generation sequencing²¹ (NGS) in the following years reduced the cost of sequencing by approximately 100-fold, and democratized DNA sequencing by moving the technical capacity into small research laboratories. This technology enabled the first whole genome sequencing study of a cytogenetically normal adult *de novo* acute myeloid leukemia $(AML)^{22}$. These developments led to a subsequent boom of studies that characterized genetic heterogeneity and clonal variability in cancers²³⁻²⁶, and the field began to embrace and appreciate the clonal complexity of cancers. Focusing on liquid cancer, a recent study by Welch and colleagues $(2012)^{27}$ elegantly described the *in vitro* clonal architectures of M1 and M3 classified AML where they found that the AML samples were mostly oligoclonal at diagnosis with a majority of somatic mutations being benign and irrelevant for pathogenesis. In particular, they also showed that aged-matched healthy hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HPSCs) had similar mutation burden as the AML cells, suggesting that these *de novo* AML cases did not arise from an elevated intrinsic mutation rate but rather from positive selection on specific somatic alterations in genes such as *DNMT3A*, *TET2* and *IDH1*28-30. Similar findings were also

reported in therapy-related AML where pre-existing *TP53* mutated clones were positively selected following chemotherapy to treat various primary diseases in the patients 31 .

Unlike liquid cancers, solid cancers have an additional layer of clonal complexity in the form of spatial distributions, and this led to many studies examining the spatial heterogeneity and clonal diversity in these physically confined lesions via laser capture microdissection and sequencing³². One well-designed study sequenced multiple resected regions within single lesions of colon adenocarcinoma *in vivo* and evaluated different patterns of intra-tumoral heterogeneity³³. Using multi-region sequencing, they demonstrated that the these colorectal cancers primarily exhibited neutral evolution where tumor growth resulted from a single expansion from the primordial tumor cells producing an intermixed sub-populations with distinct mutation profiles that were not subjected to stringent selection, a phenomenon termed the "Big Bang" model of tumor growth^{34,35}. In other types of cancers such as renal cell carcinomas and multifocal lung cancers, distinct heterogeneous sub-populations of cancer cells often harbor different private mutations that map to a few specific key biological processes such as the MAPK and mTOR signaling pathways, suggesting a pattern of convergent evolution in malignant transformation in these cancers³⁶⁻³⁸.

Besides tumorigenesis, perhaps one of the other most important implications of clonality in cancers is that it would result in resistance to treatment^{3,39,40}. Regardless of the mode of evolution in treatment-naïve cancers, most therapies impose strong selective pressures that can lead to clonal selection and expansion of pre-existing resistant subclone³⁵. For example, recent deep sequencing studies of diagnosis/relapse pairs identified relapsed AML as having arisen from minor subclones that survived treatment^{23,41,42}, and these relapsed cases typically harbor mutations in epigenetic regulators such as *DNMT3A*, *TET2* and *IDH1*, again suggesting a

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potential evolutionary convergence in treatment resistance. These relapsed cells were later shown to have originated from either rare leukemia stem cells or immunophenotypically committed subclones that retained stemness properties⁴³. Other studies in *EGFR*-mutated solid cancers showed similar evolutionary processes $44,45$. Taken together, these results validated the fundamentals of cancers as an adaptive Darwinian system^{46,47}.

Due to its involvement in malignant transformation as well as disease progression, clonality has been proposed as a form of clinical assessment to stratify risk of disease and disease-related complications in cancer patients. The utility of clonality in the clinical setting is most markedly demonstrated in prognostic minimal/measurable residual disease (MRD) monitoring in leukemia patients after induction chemotherapy. As previously described, a growing body of evidence finds that certain subclonal mutations in leukemia survive treatment and spawn relapse^{23,41}. The central idea of MRD monitoring is to identify surviving leukemia cells, thereby predicting relapse and post-treatment survival. In light of this, different modalities of high and low resolution MRD detection in leukemia such as flow cytometry, qRT-PCR for known fusions or cytogenetics $48-50$ have been developed. In acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL), clonal B- or T-cell surface receptors enable flow cytometry to have a limit of detection of 1:10,000 leukemia cells, and for every order of magnitude more residual disease, the likelihood of overall survival decreases significantly⁵¹. The current gold standard modality for MRD detection in AML is multi-parameter flow cytometry (MPFC)⁴⁸ which identifies leukemic cells by either a leukemia-associated immunophenotype (LAIP) or a "different from normal" profile of surface markers not present in normal blood cells and leading to the inference of residual AML⁵². These methods offer a limit of detection of roughly 1:1000-2000. In pediatric AML, detecting residual disease above 1:1000 leukemic to normal cells after end-of-induction

treatment via MPFC was associated with a significantly increased risk of relapse and a lower overall survival^{53,54}. In general, flow cytometry – regardless of sensitivity – only offers a binary "yes/no" readout. For AML specifically, the limit of detection of MPFC is lower due to varying surface immunophenotypes in AML cells and a lack of genetic information that could facilitate detailed examination into clonal architecture^{55,56}. While not standard practice and not currently approved by the FDA, newer sequencing based molecular MRD approaches have been developed^{49,50}. Studies utilizing sequencing data had indeed demonstrated that relapse arose from a minor subclone in B-ALL⁵⁷. In AML, it was also shown that clonal clearance of mutations in genes such as *ASXL1*, *CEBPA*, *FLT3*, and *DNMT3A* was significantly associated with lower risk of relapse and better prospect of overall survival^{58,59}. Clonality assessment is similarly valuable to provide diagnostic information in patients, particularly those with leukemia. Several independent groups established that many cancer-free individuals, particularly those in their 60s, harbored a diverse array of leukemia-associated mutations in the hematopoietic compartments, and they were associated with a significant increase risk of developing hematologic malignancies later in life⁶⁰⁻⁶² – a condition called clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP)⁶³ or age-related clonal hematopoiesis $(ARCH)^{64}$. Follow-up studies showed that rare hematopoietic clones with specific mutations in genes such as *TP53*, *IDH1* and *DNMT3A* (in particular R882H, which acts as a dominant negative^{(65)} significantly increased the likelihood of developing AML in otherwise healthy individuals with a median latency of approximately 10 years $28-30$.

In contrast to leukemia, recent advances in sequencing of "liquid biopsies" via cell-free, circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA) for MRD have also been employed to monitor for relapse in solid cancers⁶⁶. One study in breast cancer used mutations identified in ctDNA to show that the cancer cells underwent constant clonal selection throughout treatment, resulting in subclonal

mutation in *RB1*, a potent cell cycle regulatory, which increased to relative high frequency at relapse⁶⁷. In general, MRD detection by ctDNA correlates with worse outcomes in patients with various solid cancers⁶⁶⁻⁶⁹. In addition, the clonal architecture of colorectal cancer has been examined via phylogenetic approaches to identify early from late metastases in lymph nodes and distant organs^{70,71}. The data showed that majority of distant metastatic lesions were not sequentially seeded by lymph node metastasis⁷⁰, but instead shared a common origin with lymph node metastasis^{70,72}. Metastasis-associated mutations were also identified in subclones at diagnosis and were found to collectively converge on a few key signaling pathways such as *WNT*, *TP53* and *EGFR*⁷¹. This has profound implications for improving clinical outcomes. Patients who harbor mutations that confer a high risk of metastasis may benefit from adjuvant therapies that target micro-metastatic disease⁷³. Likewise, malignancy-specific mutations found in ctDNA also offers a practical avenue as early detection markers in diagnosis 74.75 .

Taken together, the clonality of malignant diseases provides rich information that augments our understanding of disease etiology and serves as biomarkers to improve clinical detection, surveillance, therapeutic selection and ultimately, outcomes.

1.2 Clonality in non-malignant disease settings

Whereas clonality generally implies cancer⁷⁶, the concept of clonality has been historically associated with various non-malignant physiological processes and disorders in hematology^{77,78}. This is mainly due to the study of adaptive immunity, where active cycling of hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells gives rise to clonal populations of renewed stem cells or terminal cells with specific genotypes or phenotypes^{$79,80$}. For example, in cell-mediated adaptive immunity, clonal T-cells with unique surface receptors are produced in response to various

infectious or immunologic threats. The process of T-cell maturation involves directed somatic alterations of the T-cell receptor (TCR) in order to produce a TCR specific to a given antigen $81-$ ⁸³. Similarly, clonal expansion of B-cells with specific functional mutations in the B-cell receptor gene could result in viral-mediated lymphoma (e.g. Burkitt's lymphoma secondary to Epstein-Barr infection) or autoimmunity⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶. Overall, abundant evidence demonstrates that physiological immune responses are clonal⁷⁶, these processes are usually reactive in nature, and are rarely associated with malignancies.

As recent as 2014, CHIP as a benign physiological process was proposed and demonstrated in individuals without any form of detectable hematologic disorders via the use of NGS28-30. Along with *DNMT3A*, *TET2* followed by *ASXL1*, which are frequently found to be mutated in adult *de novo* AML, are the most recurrently mutated genes in CHIP and demonstrating that CHIP represents an early precursor of malignant leukemic transformation, forming a bridge between malignant disease and non-malignant precursors⁸⁷ by increasing the risk of AML by 0.5-1.0%/year⁶⁰⁻⁶². However, there is a growing list of pathophysiologic, nonmalignant implications of CHIP. Perhaps the most representative example entails the clonal expansion of *TET2* mutated hematopoietic clones and their contribution to cardiovascular diseases⁸⁷. Individuals with *TET2* mutations in hematopoietic cells are at a significantly higher risk of atherosclerosis, resulting in myocardial infarction and ischemic stroke^{88,89}, due to aberrant pro-inflammatory responses involving interactions between clonal leukocytes and vascular endothelium in the IL-1 β /NLRP3 pathway⁹⁰. Additionally, CHIP has been implicated to contribute to unexplained cytopenias⁹¹ and related-donor, allogeneic transplant-related morbidities⁹² during hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT). At the time of stem cell donation, otherwise healthy donors, without strong selective pressures other than aging, are

likely to possess hematopoietic clones⁹³. The recipient, however, has been subjected to months of systemic radiotherapy, chemotherapy, immunosuppression and antibiotics, which can result in strong selective pressures for a recovering bone marrow. Donor stem cells harboring mutations that confer self-renewal or growth advantages are unknowingly transferred from donor to the recipient, and the mutated donor-derived hematopoietic clones may be positively selected and preferentially engraft the recipient, contributing to various acute or chronic morbidities. Several retrospective studies looking at isolated cases of post-HSCT complications have indeed shown that donor HSC clones harboring low VAF mutations in *IDH2* and *DNMT3A* have undergone clonal expansion in the HSCT recipients, causing transplant-related leukemia after months to years of latency⁹⁴. And strikingly, a recent study by Frick and colleagues (2019)⁹² demonstrated that the presence of CHIP (in particular *DNMT3A* mutated clones) in related donors, who are typically older siblings aged 50-70 years, was correlated with chronic graft-versus-host-disease (GvHD) in recipients, possibly via inflammatory responses induced by the mutated clones engrafted from donors.

1.3 Clonality with respect to various disease states in pediatric and adolescent/young adult

Notwithstanding the usefulness of clonality assessment, there are several extrinsic limitations that prevent us from harnessing the full potential of clonality to derive insights into disease ontogenies, and to inform clinical practices especially in the pediatric and adolescent/young adult (AYA) age groups. Even with the advances in NGS, most of our current understanding of clonal architecture in genetic diseases, particularly in cancers, is limited to subclones with >0.02 VAF (or 1 in 100 cells for heterozygous mutations), which is derived due

to the inherent error rates of 0.005 -0.02 of most sequencing platforms⁹⁵. In other words, wholegenome or whole-exome sequencings would not be able to reliably reveal clones with VAF <0.02. Recognizing this issue, several modified sequencing strategies had been developed to circumvent the sequencing error rate⁹⁶⁻⁹⁸. These methods, collectively termed error-corrected sequencing (ECS), utilize molecular indexing: each molecule or genomic fragment in the sequencing library would be tagged with a unique molecular identifier (UMI) that is specific to that molecule. Raw sequencing reads sharing the same UMIs would be grouped together in order to create a consensus sequence, and sequencing artifacts would be removed in the process. ECS enables us to detect somatic mutations at 2 orders of magnitude below the sequencing error rate. Using ECS, Young and colleagues $(2016)^{93}$ found that clonal hematopoiesis with low VAF mutations was ubiquitously present in almost every individual in their 50s-60s. Given the establishment of 0.02 as the benchmark of CHIP, several investigators openly doubted whether finding such rare events was clinically significant. However, several follow-up studies using ECS showed that hematopoietic mutations as rare as 0.005 VAF are clinically informative as risk factors for subsequent leukemia transformation and relapse^{30,99}, reinforcing the conclusion that the threshold of 0.02 for CHIP was not a biological tipping point, but rather a technical limitation of the methodology utilized. As a result, adoption of ECS in cancer research and early detection of diseases is gaining traction^{100,101} among the scientific community, but there is still a large gap in knowledge with regards to our current understanding in the true complexity of clonality. And since more research emphasis in the field in general have been placed in the older adult cohorts where incidence of cancers is the highest, our understanding of clonality in various disease states in younger individuals is wholly inadequate. As the clinical significance of rare clonal mutations continues to be demonstrated and technologies continually improve detection of more rare clonal

and subclonal events, a distinction between normal, physiologic clonal variability and diseaseassociated clonal mutation and selection is imperative for clinical progress.

Against that context, much of the work presented in this thesis is aimed at characterizing the physiologic clonal hematopoietic profile in various subsets of individuals and compare against cancer in those populations. Hence, in this thesis, we first examined and characterized clonal hematopoiesis in individuals who were aged 0 through 24 using ECS. With this information, we further aimed to gain an understanding of the clonal architecture in AYA individuals as they are involved in several clinically important practices such as hematopoietic stem cell donation for transplantation⁹² where there is strong clonal selection, and risk stratification for pediatric diseases by serving as baseline background profiles. In addition, we examined the hematopoietic clonal architecture in Down syndrome children with or without myeloid leukemia because these children were at higher risk of developing myeloid malignancies. Lastly, using multi-region intra-tumoral sampling as advocated previously, we examined the disease ontogeny of neurofibromatosis type 1 (NF1) associated glioblastoma. In summary, this thesis sought to gain a better understanding of physiologic and pathologic clonality of various disease states in the pediatric and AYA cohorts using appropriate techniques, an undertaking which is imperative, but often overlooked.

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Chapter 2: Error-corrected sequencing for rare event detection

Note: This chapter has been published in *Journal of Visualized Experiments* as of thesis submission (Wong *et al.* 2018)¹⁰². I conceptualized the manuscript with the help of Mr. R. Spencer Tong and Dr. Todd Druley. I wrote approximately 85% of the published manuscript, which included two-third of Methods, whole of Introduction, Results and Discussions, and I generated the figures. Materials from the manuscript were re-formatted and re-used in writing this chapter. Parts that were not written by me have been removed from my thesis.

2.1 Introduction

As we age, exposure to mutagens and stochastic errors during cell division result in the accumulation of somatic aberrations in the genome, and this underlies the fundamental pathogenesis of malignant transformation, neuro-developmental diseases, pediatric disorders and normal aging $103,104$. Somatic mutations with disease driving potential are important diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers for early detection and risk management¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁷. In order to better understand physiologic clonogenesis, which will inform clinical and research decisions, the accurate quantification and characterization of these mutations is of primary importance. In this regard, the advent of next-generation sequencing (NGS) has revolutionized life science research over the past decade by providing various means for high-throughput genomic and epigenomic characterization. Specifically in biomedical research, NGS has been extensively used to examine germline (mosaicism) and clonal somatic variants in heterogeneous DNA samples 108,109 ;

however, NGS is limited to identifying mutations at >0.02 variant allele fraction (VAF) — due to the inherent error-rate of $\leq 2.0\%$ (or 0.02) of most sequencing platforms⁹⁵. As a result, tracking diagnostically and prognostically significant somatic variants at lower VAF cannot be achieved using standard NGS. The clinical significance of rare mutations with low VAF (i.e. 0.005) has recently been demonstrated in AML prediction³⁰, monitoring of minimal residual disease (MRD) and detection of chimerism in hematopoietic stem cell transplantation $(HSCT)^{99}$, thus highlighting a need to increase the sensitivity of high-throughput sequencing detection techniques for somatic mutations.

In light of this, various methods have been developed over the last few years in order to circumvent the error rate of NGS^{96-98} . These methods utilize some form of molecular tagging, which enables computational error correction of the resultant sequencing reads. Collectively, these strategies were termed error-corrected sequencing (ECS). In essence, each molecule or genomic fragment in the sequencing library is tagged with a random Unique Molecular Identifier (UMI) that is specific to that molecule. The UMIs are constructed by permutations of a string of randomized nucleotides (usually $8 - 16$ N) that are built into standard NGS adapter sequences or added through sequential PCR reactions. A second sample-specific barcode is also integrated into the workflow that enables multiplexing of multiple samples into the same NGS sequencing run. PCR amplification is performed on the molecularly tagged library, and subsequently the library is sequenced. During library preparation, it is expected that errors will be randomly introduced to amplicons during PCR amplification and additional errors (predominantly due to de-phasing of bridge amplification) will be introduced during sequencing. To remove random sequencing errors, raw sequencing reads are first computationally grouped according to individual UMIs. Artifacts from sequencing are not expected to be present in all reads or the

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same type of mutation with the same UMI at the same genomic position due to the stochastic nature of introduction. True variants will be faithfully recapitulated at the same relative position in all reads that share the same UMI. The artifacts are bioinformatically removed (Figure. 2.1).

Previously, the laboratory had used several different versions of ECS to answer various scientific questions pertaining to $CH^{30,31,93,98}$. In this chapter, I built upon previous work and further optimized the protocol to combine ECS with a custom gene panel using Illumina TruSeq Custom Amplicon chemistry. I put forth a standardized pipeline. I will also discuss ways various parameters could be changed by other users to achieve their desired specificity and limit of detection. The optimized ECS from this chapter was subsequently used to characterize clonality in various physiologic and disease settings in the pediatric and adolescent/young adult (AYA) population in the following Chapters $3 - 5$.

2.2 Materials and Methods

2.2.1 Customizing an ECS gene panel for pediatric and AYA

Due to the age-related linear model of somatic mutation acquisition and prior work demonstrating the difference in genes commonly mutated in pediatric versus adult $AML¹¹⁰$, we hypothesized that pediatric and AYA individuals would have different clonal hematopoietic profiles compared to older adults. And since genes (i.e. *DNMT3A* and *TET2*) commonly associated with adult *de novo* AML were also recurrently mutated in asymptomatic individuals with clonal hematopoiesis 93 , we therefore theorized that genes implicated in pediatric leukemia would be relevant in studying clonal hematopoiesis in the healthy or asymptomatic individuals from the pediatric and AYA groups. To our knowledge, we are presenting the first candidate gene panel designed to quantify clonal and subclonal events in genes associated with pediatric

leukemia. Therefore, to design a gene panel that would allow us to query somatic mutations across the relevant age spectrum, we worked closely with the Children's Oncology Group (COG) and the TARGET project to identify genes that were recurrently mutated in pediatric $AML¹¹⁰$. We then created a custom panel combining these pediatric genes with adult AML genes (taken from Illumina TruSight Myeloid Sequencing kit) via the Illumina Concierge service. The resulting panel consisted of 1063 amplicons enriching all or some exons of 80 genes that were applicable to a wide age range (Table 2.1). We opted to include the adult genes because it was then unknown if these genes were as commonly mutated in pediatric AML samples at <0.02 VAF as in adult AML samples⁹³. Quality-check experiments with a mean coverage per amplicon of approximately 3000x showed a low dropout rate of 0.19%, and a 96% uniformity (with 0.2x of mean coverage).

2.2.2 Standardized step-by-step protocol

The Illumina panels do not offer UMI that would facilitate error correction, so we have incorporated our own ECS strategy to these panels. Therefore, we made substantial modifications to Illumina's commercial protocol, and the modified protocol was based closely upon a previously published manuscript from the laboratory⁹³. Here, I standardized the previous protocol in a step-by-step manner, and provided recommendations on different changes other users could make at various steps to achieve the desired specificity and limit of detection.

- 1. Hybridization of oligos from gene panels
	- a. Hybridize oligos onto genomic fragments following manufacturer's protocol. Use 100 ng – 250 ng of DNA template.
- b. Remove unbound oligos following manufacturer's protocol.
- c. Perform extention-ligation following manufacturer's protocol.

Note: Modifications to the manufacturer's protocol begin below.

- 2. Incorporation of UMIs via PCR.
	- a. Replace the standard i5 8-nucleotide index sequence with a random string of 16 nucleotides (16N) which serve as the UMI. The Illumina i5 adapter sequences were retained. The 16N UMI i5 adapter sequences can be manufactured through Integrated DNA Technologies using the following input: AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACAC(N1:25252525)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N 1)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N1)(N1)ACACTCTTTCCCTACAC GACGCTCTTCCGATCT.
	- b. Prepare PCR mastermix by pipetting the following reagents into a tube of appropriate volume size: $37.5 \mu L$ of Q5 Hot Start High-Fideliy 2X Mastermix, 6 μ L of 10 μ M 16N i5 adapters, 6 μ L of i7 adapters (Use different i7 adapters for separate samples for multiplexing), and $22 \mu L$ of extension-ligation solution *Note*: The Q5 mastermix replaces the polymerase mastermix provided in the Illumina kit. The Q5 polymerase amplifies the genomic fragment with higher fidelity and fewer introduced errors.
	- c. Run PCR program on a thermal cycler using the following parameters: 30 s at 98 $^{\circ}$ C, 4-6 cycles of 10 s at 98 $^{\circ}$ C, 30 s at 66 $^{\circ}$ C, 30 s at 72 $^{\circ}$ C; 2 minutes at 72 $^{\circ}$ C, and then hold at 4°C.

Note: The number of cycles depends on the panel size. From our experience, a 4cycle PCR is sufficient if the gene panel has about 1500 different pairs of gene

specific oligos, whereas a panel with 500 - 600 pairs of oligos requires 6 cycles of PCR.

- d. Clean up PCR reactions with magnetic beads (i.e. AMPure XP Beads): Add the PCR reaction to magnetic beads in a modified 1 PCR reaction: 0.75 magnetic bead ratio. Proceed with clean-up protocol following manufacturer's recommendations.
- 3. Quantify molecules in the amplified libraries using a QX200 ddPCR platform with EvaGreen, and follow manufacturer's manual.

Note: A primer pair of the standard P5 and P7 is required. Molecules that can be detected using P5 and P7 primers are UMI-tagged. Precise mutation quantification requires strict observance of the number of molecules of each library that are loaded onto the sequencer. To achieve this, quantifying the number of molecules for individual libraries per unit volume is performed using the $QX200$ droplet digital PCR (ddPCR) platform $$ quantitative PCR is an alternative option. Following ddPCR analysis, the readout will specify the number of molecules per μ L per library.

- 4. Perform second amplification and then normalize the libraries for sequencing.
	- a. After quantification of the number of molecules that are UMI-tagged, calculate the desired number of molecules that should be sent for sequencing. This number will directly influence the limit of detection. The limit of detection can be calculated using the following equation:

$L = S/CNA$

where L represents limit of detection, S represents sequencing output (e.g. 400 millions reads of a NextSeq High Output run), C represents constant (10), N

represents number of samples to be pooled per sequencing run, and A represents number of amplicons in the gene panel. To calculate the number of molecules, multiply L by A.

- b. Amplify the desired number of molecules using the following mastermix for the second PCR totaling 50 μ L: 25 μ L of Q5 Mastermix, 2 μ L of P5 Primer (1 μ M), 2 μ L of P7 Primer (1 μ M), and 21 μ L of DNA molecules.
- c. Run PCR program on a thermal cycler using the following parameter: 30 s at 98 °C; 16 cycles of 10 s at 98 °C, 30 s at 66 °C, 30 s at 72 °C; 2 min at 72 °C; and then hold at 4° C.
- d. Clean up sequencing libraries using magnetic beads (i.e. AMPure XP Beads): Add the PCR reaction to magnetic beads in a modified 1 PCR reaction: 0.75 magnetic bead ratio. Proceed with clean-up protocol following manufacturer's recommendations.
- e. Quantify concentration of DNA using a bioanalyzer to determine concentration of the ECS libraries.
- f. Pool the libraries in equimolar amounts for sequencing. Refer to Step 4.a.
- g. Provide the following sequencing settings to Illumina sequencing platforms (MiSeq, HiSeq, NextSeq or NovaSeq): 2x144 paired-end reads, 8 cycles Index 1 and 16 cycles Index 2.
- 5. ECS bioinformatics processing and analysis.
	- a. Obtain the sample-demultiplexed reads from the sequencer or perform demultiplexing of raw sequence reads into different samples using i7 adapter sequences bioinformatically with a custom script.

b. Trim off the first 30 nucleotides of each demultiplexed read to remove oligo sequences from the gene panel.

Note: this step is optional. The first 30 nucleotides are usually of low Phred quality, thus removal is recommended.

- c. Align reads that share the same UMIs to one another to form read families. *Note*: Researchers can use UMI-aware software such as MAGERI¹¹¹ to extract read families. No hamming distance was allowed within the UMI sequence in this experiment to increase the specificity of the method.
- d. Perform de-duplication and error-correction using \geq 5 read pairs in the same read family. A minimum of 3 read pairs is recommended.
- e. During error-correction, compare nucleotide at every position across all reads in the same read family, and generate a consensus nucleotide if there is at least 90% concordance among the reads for the particular nucleotide. Call an N if there is less than 90% agreement for the nucleotide position.
- f. Discard consensus reads that have >10% of the total number of consensus nucleotides being called as N.
- g. Align all retained consensus reads locally to either hg19 or hg38 human reference genome using researcher's preferred aligner(s) such as Bowtie2 and BWA.
- h. Process aligned reads with Mpileup using parameters –BQ0 –d 10,000,000,000,000 to remove coverage thresholds to ensure a proper pileup output regardless of VAF.
- i. Filter out positions with less than 1000x consensus read coverage.

Note: Researcher determines the minimum coverage for each nucleotide position arbitrarily, it is recommended to have at least 500x consensus read coverage for downstream analysis

- j. Use binomial distribution to call single nucleotide variants (SNVs) in retained data from previous. The binomial statistic will be based on a genomic positionspecific error model. Each genomic position is modeled independently after summing out the error rates of all samples for that particular position. Following the example (refer to Sample K in Table 2.2):
	- i. Probability of nucleotide profile, $P = \sum Variant \, RF / \sum Total \, RF$
	- ii. P-value of observation with binomial distribution

$$
= 1 - binomial(24, 25911, P)
$$

Note: For each genomic position queried, there would be three possible mutational changes (*i.e.,*A>T, A>C, A>G), and each of which would be represented as background artifact. Somatic events that are significantly different from the background after Bonferroni correction are retained. In the example shown in Table 2.2, the number of tests performed was 11, hence a Bonferroni corrected *p*-value $\leq 0.00454545 (0.05/11)$ was required to call an event as statistically significant.

2.3 Discussion

To characterize physiologic and disease-associated clonality in the pediatric and AYA populations, we designed a custom candidate gene panel that included genes implicated in both adult and pediatric AML. Here, we demonstrate a method for combining our UMI-tagging

strategy with the Illumina TruSeq gene panel to survey for clonal mutations and small insertions/deletions (Indels) as rare as 0.0001 VAF. We should note that our ECS strategy is is robust with various chemistries and not limited to integration with the Illumina kit. We merely started with this kit due to its existing adult AML content.

By mitigating the NGS error rate, ECS enables quantification of somatic mutations at a level of detection 100-fold lower than standard NGS. For instance, detection of the new presence of pathogenic mutations (therefore having low VAF) is imperative to inform early intervention of disease^{31,112}. In the clinical management of leukemia, which has been done via flow cytometry to date, the detection of MRD (residual leukemic cells post-treatment) informs risk stratification and is used to inform non-targeted treatment options. Given the binary "yes/no" flow cytometric assessments of MRD, an NGS approach could not only match flow in terms of limit of detection but also provide gene-specific data that further informs the use of targeted therapies. In addition, ECS is applicable to detecting circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), so-called "liquid biopsy", and evaluate therapeutic response and potential relapse in solid tumor patients by assessing for the presence/absence of ctDNA as well as the burden of specific clonal or subclonal mutations that can inform salvage therapy¹¹³.

As demonstrated in Table 2.2, the power of using binomial distribution-based positionspecific error model to call variants depends largely on the number of sequenced libraries as well as the depth of sequencing used to build the error model. The robustness of the error model increases with higher number of samples and more sequencing depth. It is recommended to use at least 10 sequenced samples with an average error-corrected read coverage of 3000x per genome position per sample to build an error profile for each sample. The position-specific approach is similar to $MAGERI¹¹¹$, but instead of using an aggregate error rate for all six

different substitution types (A>C/T>G, A>G/T>C, A>T/T>A, C>A/G>T, C>G/G>C,

C>T/G>A), we model each substitution independently at every position. For instance, an error rate of C>T at a given genomic position is different from another position. Our approach also takes into account a sequencing batch effect, as the base substitution rate observed in one sequencing run is different from another run. Hence, it is important to model each position for all substitution types especially when samples from different sequencing runs are pooled to build the model.

An important consideration when designing an ECS experiment is the desired detection threshold. The beauty of NGS studies is that they can be readily scaled in terms of genes/targets of interest, detection threshold (dictated by depth of sequencing), and number of individuals queried. For example, if the researchers are interested to find rare mutations in two amplicons with a detection threshold of 0.0001, they can pool maximally 75 samples in a single sequencing run using MiSeq V2 chemistry which outputs up to 15 million reads (2 amplicons * 10,000 molecules * 10 reads for error-correction * 75 samples = 15 million sequencing reads). Researchers can vary the number of molecules going into sequencing or the number of pooled samples in a single sequencing run to adjust the detection threshold. In our studies, we aimed to find mutations with a detection threshold of 0.0001 VAF (1:10,000) using the Illumina gene panel. We routinely use 250 ng of starting DNA to ensure that sufficient molecules are captured in order to achieve the aforementioned detection threshold. Researchers can opt to start with lower amount of DNA (>50 ng is recommended) if the desired detection limit is >0.001 VAF.

As the UMIs are appended onto the i5 indexes, sequencing settings have to be amended accordingly. For example, we used 16 N UMIs, and the sequencing settings were 2x144 paired end reads, 8 cycles of Index 1 and 16 cycles of Index 2 as opposed to the usual 8 cycles of Index 2. The increase in the Index 2 cycle is compensated by a decrease in the total number of cycles allocated to the reads. If researchers opt to use $12N$ UMIs^{114}, the settings should be changed to 12 cycles of Index 2.

Figure 2.1: An illustration of ECS workflow. Starting on the left, each molecule in the library is tagged with a unique molecular index (UMI), color-coded as red and green bars. The true mutation is colored in yellow. During sequencing, random errors will be introduced across the genomic fragment of interest, whereas the true mutations will be faithfully amplified in all daughter strands (yellow square). After sequencing, reads that share the same UMI will be group together, and a consensus sequence is obtain by removing nucleotide change(s) not observed in all reads. After that, all consensus sequences are aligned to one another, enabling the calculation the VAF of a given nucleotide change (right).

Table 2.1: Recurrently mutated genes in adult and pediatric AML included in the custom gene panel. Genes listed as Adult were taken from the Illumina TruSight Myeloid Sequencing Panel, while the genes listed as Pediatrics were obtained from the studies of pediatric leukemia at Children's Oncology Group.

Table 2.2: Example demonstrating the way to construct a position-specific binomial error model. 1) take the sum of Variant RFs (read families); 2) take the sum of Total RFs; 3) Calculate probability of observing a nucleotide change (in this case G to A) in the study cohort by dividing the sum of Total RFs by the sum of Variant RFs; 4) Using the probability obtained in step 3, for each sample, calculate the p-value of observing the number of Variants RFs using binomial distribution. In the above example, the p-value of observing 24 Variants RFs out of 35911 Total RFs in Sample K was $2.265E^{-13}$.

Chapter 3: Longitudinal clonal hematopoiesis in healthy individuals from birth to young adulthood

3.1 Introduction

Clonal hematopoiesis (CH) describes an asymptomatic expansion of blood cells from a HSPC carrying one or more unique mutations, while clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP), also known as age-related clonal hematopoiesis (ARCH), is further defined by age-related the presence and expansion of AML-associated hematopoietic somatic mutations at >0.02 VAF in the blood of asymptomatic individuals who are without hematologic diseases⁸⁷. CHIP has been shown to increase the risk of hematologic malignancies by approximately 0.5- 1.0% per year⁶⁰⁻⁶². The 0.02 VAF threshold for CHIP was not a biological marker, and was largely defined based on the limit of detection for standard NGS without unique molecular indexing (UMIs), which generates systematic sequencing errors at a rate of around 2% (or 0.02 VAF $9⁹⁵$. Our laboratory has a long-standing interest in investigating rare clonal mutations below this 0.02 VAF threshold for various reasons such as detection of pre-leukemic clones, and surveillance monitoring of leukemia after therapy, so called minimal residual disease (MRD). In light of this, the Druley laboratory had optimized and implemented an ECS strategy that can be coupled seamlessly with Illumina TruSight⁹³ or TruSeq gene panels to mitigate the error rate of NGS through the introduction of UMIs that would offer a limit of detection of 0.0001 as validated by droplet digital PCR (ddPCR). Three observations using ECS led to the conceptualization of this chapter. First, in adults with *TP53*-mutated therapy-related AML (tAML) who developed their leukemia as much as 12 years after their initial diagnosis and treatment for a primary malignancy, the laboratory demonstrated from archived blood and marrow samples that the *TP53*-mutated hematopoietic progenitors pre-existed treatment and were selected by chemotherapy³¹. This is in contrast to the long-held perception that chemotherapy introduces these mutations with leukemogenesis potential. In the same study, it was demonstrated that 40% of healthy senior citizens in their 80s harbored cancer-associated clonal hematopoietic *TP53* mutations without any evidence of hematologic disease. Second, the laboratory expanded this observation by surveying longitudinal blood samples from healthy elderly participants who were in their 50s – 60s in the Nurses' Health Study and found that 95% of these healthy adults possessed mutations in AML-associated genes by their $50s^{93}$. Third, we also found that rare pre-leukemic mutations with as low a VAF as 0.005 were informative to future risk of leukemia development 30 .

Previous studies have focused on elderly individuals in their 50s – 60s or older since CHIP was virtually undetectable in younger populations by standard NGS^{60-62} . Therefore, it was presumed that younger populations rarely harbor clonal mutations in their blood. To date, there has not been a longitudinal, systematic characterization of CH below the 0.02 VAF threshold using an ECS approach from birth through young adulthood. Thus our current knowledge of physiological CH below 0.02 VAF in the pediatric and AYA groups is critically lacking. Here, we used our optimized ECS approach as described in Chapter 2 to characterize longitudinal clonal dynamics in 80 genes that are recurrently mutated in adult and pediatric leukemia¹¹⁰ in 30 random healthy individuals from birth through young adulthood. We expected to see a lower prevalence of CH and different mutation profile of genes compared to older adults¹¹⁰. We found CH in 30% of healthy individuals at birth, and we did not identify any recurrently mutated genes across the 30 individuals. Notably, the genes associated with CHIP/ARCH in older adults were not preferentially mutated at young age. In addition, we did not observe any enrichment in C to T transitions which is a characteristic of aged-related mutagenesis^{115,116} over all four time points. Many mutations were quiescent either by ages 17 or 24, suggesting that the clones or stem cells harboring these mutations were inactive during hematopoiesis at that specific age¹¹⁷.

3.2 Materials and Methods

3.2.1 Study population

Longitudinal samples of 30 healthy individuals spanning 4 time points (birth, age 7, 17 and 24) were obtained from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC) at University of Bristol, United Kingdom (total 120 samples). The study was approved under the Institutional Review Board (IRB) #201710007. The ALSPAC enrolled more than 14,000 pregnant women from 1991 to 1992, and longitudinally follows the general health of these women and their children over two decades, and it is still ongoing. The study curates detailed information pertaining to environmental and genetic factors that would affect the health and development of both mothers and children, and it has collected saliva and blood DNA (from white blood cells) samples from the participants at multiple time points. We obtained a total of 250 ng of blood DNA per sample from ALSPAC. The DNA samples were randomized in a 96 well plate. Upon receipt, the DNA samples were stored in -80C freezer until ECS library preparation.

3.2.2 ECS library preparation

A total of 100 ng of DNA per sample was used to prepare an ECS library with a custom-

made Illumina TruSeq Custom Amplicon gene panel designed to enrich for 1063 amplicons in some or all exons from 80 genes that are recurrently mutated in adult and pediatric AML, and are also commonly associated with CHIP in adults. The libraries were prepared by following the protocol detailed in Chapter 2^{102} . We made several modifications to the protocol for this study. First, after ddPCR quantification (Step 3 in Chapter 2), each library was normalized to 7.1 million UMI-tagged molecules, giving a theoretical mean error-corrected consensus coverage of approximately 6680x per genomic position. Second, at the end of library preparation, six purified libraries were normalized to equimolarity, pooled and sequenced per lane in an Illumina NovaSeq S4 flowcell with the following settings: 2x144 paired-end, 8 cycles Index 1, 16 cycles Index 2 (account for 16N random bases used as UMI). In total, 120 samples were processed.

3.2.3 ECS bioinformatics processing

The data processing follows the pipeline outline in Chapter 2 closely with several modifications. First, after read alignment, the output was filtered to include bases with $\geq 700x$ consensus read coverage and within the target regions of the Illumina TruSeq panel and are not common variants $(≥0.01$ minor allele fraction) identified by the 1,000 Genomes Project¹¹⁸. For single nucleotide variants (SNVs), a position-specific binomial background error model was implemented in variant calling. Each genomic position is modeled independently by compiling the background error rate of all samples for that specific genomic position (sum of all variant bases relative to the sum of reference bases). A sample with a number of variant bases at genomic position that is significantly different from the background error-rate based on binomial distribution after Bonferroni correction is considered a positive for that position. Typically, the p-value (after Bonferroni correction) for calling a variant as positive was <0.00000001. After

variant-calling, manual curation and several other filters were applied to remove potential artifacts in order to obtain high-confidence variants: 1) germline variants were removed, 2) variants called due to sequencing batch effect were removed, 3) variants identified in more than one individuals at any time point were removed, 4) variants that were present in less than 3 time points of an individual were removed, 5) variants that were deemed alignment artifacts by manual curation via IGV browser¹¹⁹ were removed. In the end, we retained a set of highconfidence variants by removing potential false-positive calls and common variants that are observed in the general population. $VarScan2^{120}$ was used to call insertions/deletions (Indels) with the mpileup2indel setting.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Variant characterization in rare hematopoietic clones

Our study population consisted of 30 healthy individuals with 4 longitudinal samples collected each from birth, and ages 7, 17 and 24 (120 samples in total). ECS facilitated the investigation of CH at <0.02 VAF in age groups that were previously demonstrated to have essentially no CHIP above 0.02 VAF, and were presumed to have no clinically relevant CH below 0.02 VAF $^{60-62}$. We identified a total of 27 clonal single nucleotide variants (SNVs) that were present in at least 3 time points in 30% (9 of 30) of individuals. We further observed that all of these SNVs were present at birth, and none of these SNVs were associated with malignancies as annotated with the COSMIC database (Table 3.1). We did not detect any Indels that passed our bioinformatics pipeline at any time point in all individuals. The VAFs of the detected SNVs ranged from 0.00054 – 0.02381 with a median of 0.00096 at birth, from 0.00063 – 0.33779 with a median of 0.00119 at age 7, from 0.00052 – 0.35925 with a median of 0.00079 at age 17, and

from 0.00061 – 0.32585 with a median of 0.00074 at age 24. When we quantified the different types of mutations called, we detected 5 intronic and 22 exonic clonal mutations with 18 missense, 1 nonsense, and 3 silent SNVs in 21 genes (Figure 3.1). With the exception of the *DNAH2* mutation with >0.3 VAF from age 7 onwards in individual als14, all other SNVs remained at <0.02 VAFs at later time points. One particular individual (als27) displayed a hypermutated phenotype, and several genes including *ASXL1*, *BCOR*, *FAT1*, *IKZF1* and *KDM6A* were mutated twice in this individual, but we did not observe any recurrently mutated genes amongst the studied cohort as a whole. In addition, we found that the most commonly observed substitution type in previous studies of CH in older individuals – cytosine to thymine (C to T) transition^{60-62,93,} was not enriched in our studied cohort of young individuals. Instead, the SNVs were evenly distributed across substitution types (Figure 3.2).

3.3.2 Temporal dynamics of rare clonal mutations

With longitudinal samples collected at 4 different time points, we were able to examine the temporal dynamics of these detected rare clonal SNVs. All detected SNVs were present at birth among the 9 individuals, and some of these SNVs were undetectable via ECS (with a limit of detection of 0.0005 in this study) at a later time point. Of the 27 SNVs, only 4 SNVs were present in all 4 time points while the rest were present in 3 time points. Of those present in 3 time points, 11 SNVs were stable from birth through age 7, became undetectable via ECS at age 17 but resurfaced at age 24; 11 SNVs were stable from birth through age 17, and became undetectable via ECS at age 24; and 1 was undetectable at age 7 but present in other time points (Figure 3.3). All except 1 of these mutations were relatively stable in terms of VAF across

different time points. The exception was a missense SNV in *DNAH2* which saw an increase in VAF from 0.0026 at birth to 0.3378 at age 7, and remained at approximately 0.3 thereafter.

3.4 Discussion

Our findings suggest that low-VAF CH harboring somatic mutations in AML-associated genes is much more prevalent in young populations than previously appreciated. The individuals in our studied age group were previously presumed not to (or rarely) harbor somatic clonal mutations in blood cells at >0.02 VAF⁶⁰⁻⁶², but using ECS, which offers a limit of detection 2 orders of magnitude lower, we detected somatic mutations present since birth in 30% of individuals, indicating that a substantial proportion of the population were born carrying somatically mutated hematopoietic clones. Although these SNVs were present in genes known to be recurrently mutated in adult and pediatric leukemia, none of the SNVs were mutated at specific genomic positions associated with malignancies. In addition, contrary to studies in adults, we also did not observe an enrichment of mutations in *DNMT3A* or *TET2* that were canonically associated with CHIP/ARCH in adults and future risk of AML development. These results are suggestive that leukemia specific mutations are generally acquired at a later age^{64,121}. The corollary to this conclusion, which remains to be further studied, is whether children who develop pediatric leukemia, the most common form of malignancy in childhood, derive their disease from stochastic clonal mutations at base positions that confer a functional impact on the resulting proteins. We observed that the most common mutation signature of CHIP in older adults – spontaneous deamination of methylated cytosine into thymine (C to T) was not enriched in the young individuals, and the mutation types were evenly distributed. The C to T signature reflects a cell-cycle dependent mutation clock and is associated with the rate of replicative

turnover $116,122$. Due to the young age of the individuals in this study, the number of cell cycle that a given number of stem cells have undergone is presumably low.

Notably, we showed that these SNVs were stable longitudinally, and were present at multiple time points at relatively consistent VAFs across a period of 20 years. This suggests that the SNVs were likely present in the long-term $HSCs⁹³$. The clonal dynamics in the form of 'disappearance' and subsequent resurfacing of clonal mutations likely indicates that the HSCs underwent entry into and exit out of cell cycle over time¹²³. With the exception of the *DNAH2* mutation in individual als14 that underwent a rapid expansion, increasing its VAF from 0.0026 at birth to 0.3378 at age 7 and thereafter, the other SNVs did not show strong evidence that they were selected for since their VAFs stayed relatively flat across 20 years. The gene *DNAH2* encodes for a heavy chain of axonemal dynein which is part of the microtubule-associated motor protein complex. Since this individual was recorded as healthy at the time of sample collections at all 4 time points, the sudden and rapid expansion of *DNAH2* has unknown implications in the health and development of this individual at the conclusion of this study. Previously in another study, it was shown that *PPM1D*-mutated clones expanded in response cytotoxic treatment, and these clones had little leukemogenic potential¹²⁴. It is possible that the expansion of this *DNAH2*mutated clone was in response to an extrinsic stressor perhaps in the form of infection or inflammatory response not unlike *PPM1D*-mutated clones, but the expansion itself had little implication in leukemia development.

Due to the technical limitations of our ECS pipeline, we likely under-called the number of SNVs in our studied cohort⁹³. Specifically, we required that a SNV be observed in at least 3 time points of an individual to be considered positive. This increased the specificity of our pipeline, but we had potentially missed true biological mutation(s) that were present in two time points or less. Lowering the stringency of the pipeline was not desirable as we observed a high number of potential false positive calls. In order to mitigate this issue, an independent library should be prepared and sequenced, and we should retain SNVs called in both replicates.

In summary, we demonstrated that the prevalence of CH in young populations was much higher than previously appreciated, and a sizable proportion of babies were born carrying mutated hematopoietic clones. The clinical significance of these mutations were not known, though at this stage they were presumably benign since the studied individuals were healthy at the time of sample collection. However, these mutated clones might contribute to future risk of diseases including leukemia and inflammatory disorders. Previous studies had correlated the risk of leukemia development with CH of any mutations at >0.005 VAF in older individuals who were in their $50s^{29,30}$. Although the mutations detected in individuals below 20s in this study were relatively lower in VAF compared to older adults, one would expect clonal outgrowth either by drift or selection given sufficient time¹²⁵. Our results warrant a further study to detail the eventual clinical outcomes of these young individuals, and to correlate the outcomes with the mutation profiles detected at young age or even at birth. If these two variables were to be positively and significantly correlated, we could then look into establishing a CH clinic to identify the individuals most at risk for certain hematologic diseases decades before clinical diagnosis, and to take preventive steps¹²⁶. The ALSPAC study which will soon have another longitudinal sample collection at age 30 of enrolled participants as of this thesis submission, is well positioned to provide the necessary resources and sample cohorts to answer this question. In addition, the absence of enrichment of *DNMT3A* and *TET2* mutated clones with known leukemogenesis potential raises questions regarding the age window in which these genes are mutated and the developmental significance of that age window. Future research should focus on identifying this age window (likely between ages 20 to 40), and the factors contributing to mutations in *DNMT3A* and *TET2* (e.g. Are the individuals born with CH more prone to further mutations?). For individuals who had CH at birth, it is presumed that mutagenesis happened *in utero*¹²⁷. One utility stemming from this information is genetic counseling for couples hoping to have children by surveying fetal blood for possible disease-associated somatic mutations. Furthermore, the presence of CH in a substantial proportion of healthy young individuals may have an impact in clinical settings such as hematopoietic stem cell transplantation where the majority of unrelated blood donors are relatively young at ages 18-44¹²⁸. Physicians might unwittingly transfer mutated hematopoietic clones of unknown clinical significance from otherwise healthy donors to the recipients. Since the process of transplantation itself could act as a potent selection pressure, certain mutated hematopoietic clones might be conferred an advantage at survival proliferation, and these clones might consequently cause donor-derived complications in recipients. The clinical impacts of the presence of mutated donor clone(s) in HSCT, especially in unrelated HSCT are poorly known, and this was probably due to the technical limitations of standard NGS that precluded comprehensive examination of CH in young healthy donors. With the availability of an ECS approach, it now seems ripe to explore this question of clinical importance.

Figure 3.1: Mutation spectrum of CH in ALSPAC samples at birth. A total of 30% individuals (9 of 30) were found to have at least one somatic mutation in the blood cells in the 80 genes queried. Most mutations were found to be missense. An individual (als27) displayed a hypermutated phenotype in the hematopoietic compartment.

Figure 3.2: Distribution of types of nucleotide changes. The canonical enrichment of C to T transitions in CHIP of adults was not observed in the ALSPAC individuals at birth. Different types of nucleotide changes were evenly distributed.

Figure 3.3: Longitudinal detection of somatic mutations in blood cells in the ALSPAC individuals. Somatic mutations were detected in at least 3 time points in 9 individuals. The VAFs of the detected mutations were plotted on the y-axis, and the corresponding time points were plotted on the x-axis. Individual als27 displayed a hypermutated phenotype. With the exception of DNAH2 mutation in als14 which increased from 0.002 VAF (birth) to 0.3 VAF (age 7 and thereafter), all other mutations remained fairly consistent in terms of VAFs.

patientID	Time	VAF	Chr	Start	Stop	Ref	Mut	Gene	Type
als27	age0	0.0022	chr20	31024434	31024434	$\mathbf T$	\mathbf{A}	ASXL1	missense
als27	age7	0.001457	chr20	31024434	31024434	T	A	ASXL1	missense
als27	age17	0.00246	chr20	31024434	31024434	T	A	ASXL1	missense
als3	age0	0.000899	chr2	198267645	198267645	T	$\mathbf C$	SF3B1	intronic
als3	age7	0.001008	chr2	198267645	198267645	T	\mathcal{C}	SF3B1	intronic
als3	age24	0.002721	chr2	198267645	198267645	$\mathbf T$	\mathcal{C}	SF3B1	intronic
als27	age ₀	0.000917	chr4	187629162	187629162	T	\mathcal{C}	FAT1	missense
als27	age7	0.000629	chr4	187629162	187629162	T	$\mathbf C$	FAT1	missense
als27	age17	0.0029	chr4	187629162	187629162	T	\mathcal{C}	FAT1	missense
als27	age ₀	0.000588	chr11	32413596	32413596	$\mathbf G$	A	WT1	nonsense
als27	age7	0.000669	chr11	32413596	32413596	$\mathbf G$	A	WT1	nonsense
als27	age24	0.000607	chr11	32413596	32413596	${\bf G}$	A	WT1	nonsense
als27	age ₀	0.005533	chrX	44941911	44941911	$\mathbf G$	A	KDM6A	intronic
als27	age7	0.006403	chrX	44941911	44941911	$\mathbf G$	A	KDM6A	intronic
als27	age17	0.001133	chrX	44941911	44941911	$\mathbf G$	A	KDM6A	intronic
als27	age0	0.000768	chr2	100217924	100217924	G	$\mathbf C$	AFF3	missense
als27	age7	0.000806	chr2	100217924	100217924	$\mathbf G$	\mathcal{C}	AFF3	missense
als27	age17	0.001542	chr2	100217924	100217924	$\mathbf G$	\mathcal{C}	AFF3	missense
als2	age ₀	0.000921	chr7	135285705	135285705	$\mathbf G$	$\mathbf C$	NUP205	missense
als2	age17	0.00939	chr7	135285705	135285705	$\mathbf G$	$\mathbf C$	NUP205	missense
als2	age24	0.001364	chr7	135285705	135285705	$\mathbf G$	\mathcal{C}	NUP205	missense
als19	age ₀	0.000958	chr18	6958484	6958484	$\mathbf G$	$\mathbf C$	LAMA1	missense
als19	age7	0.001194	chr18	6958484	6958484	$\mathbf G$	\mathcal{C}	LAMA1	missense
als19	age24	0.001202	chr18	6958484	6958484	G	\mathcal{C}	LAMA1	missense
als27	age ₀	0.001896	chrX	39933273	39933273	$\mathbf G$	$\mathbf T$	BCOR	missense
als27	age7	0.001678	chrX	39933273	39933273	$\mathbf G$	$\mathbf T$	BCOR	missense
als27	age17	0.000867	chrX	39933273	39933273	$\mathbf G$	$\mathbf T$	BCOR	missense
als27	age ₀	0.000951	chr3	47163685	47163685	G	$\mathbf T$	SETD ₂	missense
als27	age7	0.000798	chr3	47163685	47163685	G	T	SETD ₂	missense
als27	age17	0.001082	chr3	47163685	47163685	${\bf G}$	$\mathbf T$	SETD ₂	missense
als27	age0	0.001706	chrX	39923753	39923753	$\mathsf C$	A	BCOR	missense
als27	age7	0.000872	chrX	39923753	39923753	$\mathbf C$	$\mathbf A$	BCOR	missense
als27	age17	0.000518	chrX	39923753	39923753	$\mathbf C$	A	BCOR	missense
als27	age0	0.000725	chr20	31022999	31022999	$\mathbf C$	${\bf G}$	ASXL1	silent
als27	age7	0.000888	chr20	31022999	31022999	$\mathbf C$	G	ASXL1	silent
als27	age17	0.000775	chr20	31022999	31022999	C	${\bf G}$	ASXL1	silent
als19	age0	0.000653	chr7	148529782	148529782	$\mathsf C$	$\mathbf T$	EZH ₂	missense

Table 3.1: Somatic mutations identified in the ALSPAC individuals by ECS using the 80-gene targeted sequencing panel.

Chapter 4: Engraftment of rare, pathogenic donor hematopoietic clones in unrelated allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation

Note: At the time of my thesis defense, the work presented in this chapter is in press at *Science Translational Medicine* (Wong WH *et al.* 2019)¹²⁹. I conceptualized the manuscript with the help of Dr. Todd Druley. I developed the original idea, proposed the study to our collaborators (John DiPersio, MD, PhD and the Center for International Bone Marrow Transplant Research, CIBMTR), generated, processed, and analyzed the data. I wrote the accepted manuscript in its entirety with guidance from Todd Druley and editorial comments from co-authors, and generated the figures. Materials from the manuscript were re-formatted and re-used in writing this chapter.

4.1 Introduction

Allogeneic hematopoietic stem-cell transplantation (HSCT) is a curative therapy for a variety of hematologic disorders such as non-malignant beta-globinopathies¹³⁰, constitutional enzyme deficiencies and hematologic malignancies¹³¹. However, beyond pre-HSCT primary disease progression, HSCT recipients often suffer multiple early and late post-HSCT morbidities¹³² such as cardiac dysfunction, coronary artery disease¹³³, graft-versus-host-disease $(GvHD)^{92}$, immune dysfunction/infection, cytopenias, myelodysplasia and donor-cell leukemia¹³⁴. Many of these common morbidities have been anecdotally attributed to donor clone(s) with pathogenic mutations in a discrete panel of candidate genes^{91,92,135}. These anecdotal

clones would qualify as clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP; with $\geq 2\%$ variant allele frequency or VAF) in an otherwise healthy person⁶³, and about 5% of healthy individuals above 50 years harbor CHIP clones⁶⁰⁻⁶². However, this definition of CHIP is not based on biology, but rather the limit of detection of standard next-generation sequencing (NGS), hence the age-related prevalence takes decades of selection for some clones to expand to the level of this detection. In contrast, error-corrected sequencing (ECS) has a limit of detection of 0.0001 and has revealed that nearly everyone older than 50 years harbors hematopoietic clones with acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and atherosclerotic-associated mutations^{31,93}, and there are very few differences in clonal variability and frequency between those that stay healthy and those that actually develop AML^{30} . The clinical relevance of hematopoietic clones <2% VAF was recently demonstrated in AML prediction²⁹ and mutation clearance following allogeneic HSCT for myelodysplastic syndrome⁹⁹, where clones as rare as 0.005 VAF were clinically relevant for disease progression.

Recently, Frick and colleagues⁹² studied common clonal mutations in the context of CHIP from older, matched, related HSCT donors > 55 years old where approximately \geq 5% of this population would be expected to harbor CHIP clones based on prior studies⁶⁰⁻⁶². This study found that the presence of CHIP correlated with the development of chronic GvHD. However, that study is limited by only examining older, related donors and mutations above 0.02 VAF.

Unlike older related HSCT donors who are expected to have CHIP, 86% of eligible unrelated donors are adolescents and young adults (AYA) aged 18-44¹²⁸, an age group where CHIP is virtually non-detectable $60-62$ via standard NGS but recipient morbidity generally exceeds that seen in related HSCT. Despite not having CHIP, it has been hypothesized that the AYA population harbors hematopoietic somatic mutations of low VAF below 0.02 VAF (as CH),

otherwise undetectable via standard NGS^{125} , and these mutations could serve as a reservoir for future disease development when relevant selective pressure is present¹³⁶. Hence, the appropriate way to study CH with low VAFs in the AYA group and the effects thereof in HSCT recipients is via ultra-sensitive sequencing techniques that could circumvent the error rate of standard NGS, such as $ECS^{93,102}$. Indeed, as previously demonstrated in Chapter 3, 30% of healthy individuals were born with clonal mutations at low VAFs in their blood using ECS.

In addition, the genes frequently mutated in AYA leukemia¹¹⁰ differ substantially from leukemia in older adults¹³⁷, suggesting that the AYA population may harbor a different clonal hematopoietic mutation spectrum than that seen in the CHIP literature. However, the physiologic prevalence and mutation spectrum of hematopoietic clones with mutations <0.02 VAF in the AYA population has not been quantitatively characterized. Thus, as shown in Chapter 2, our 80 gene targeted panel also included genes that are frequently mutated in pediatric/AYA and older adult AML.

In sum, this caused us to hypothesize that, a) unrelated, AYA HSCT donors may harbor hematopoietic clones with mutations <0.02 VAF in genes other than those associated with CHIP, and b) these mutations may confer a growth or survival advantage and are therefore selected and engraft recipients. In this model, prior and ongoing chemotherapy, radiotherapy and immunosuppression can act as potent selective pressures on any cell with a survival or proliferation advantage. In fact, ECS has previously demonstrated a comparable process in therapy-related AML $(t$ -AML $)^{31}$ where pre-existing *TP53*-mutated hematopoietic progenitors, as rare as 0.0003 VAF, are selected by treatment of the primary malignancy and lead to t-AML months to years later. To interrogate this hypothesis, our primary goal was to find retrospectively banked, matched unrelated donor:recipient samples with as many longitudinal time points as

possible. For each pair, five samples were evaluated: donor pre-HSCT, recipient pre-HSCT, recipient at 30 (D30), 100 (D100) and 360 days (D360 or 1-year) post-HSCT. We asked the following questions: a) what is the clonal hematopoietic spectrum in younger, healthy donors, b) how many donor clones are typically transferred to recipients, and c) what happens to these clones longitudinally in recipients. Given that the presence of clonal hematopoiesis is unexpected in this donor age group and there may have been little to no clonal transfer to recipients, this study was not designed to correlate clinical outcomes with donor clonal hematopoiesis, but the results indicate that such a study is warranted.

4.2 Materials and Methods

4.2.1 Overall study design

This retrospective pilot study was designed to interrogate donor-derived clonal dynamics post-HSCT. From the adult AML specimen repository at Washington University, a total of 25 patients were identified that had banked samples prior to transplant and at days 30, 100 and 360 post-HSCT (Figure 4.1). There were no other selection criteria. From that group, the CIBMTR was able to provide the matched donor pre-HSCT specimens, again without any additional selection. The institutional review board at Washington University in St. Louis approved the study (IRB #201710007), and patient consent had been obtained.

4.2.2 Sample collection

Four longitudinally-collected peripheral blood and/or bone marrow samples per recipient were acquired for 25 recipients with primary hematological malignancies who had undergone matched, unrelated donor allogeneic HSCT at Barnes-Jewish Hospital/ Siteman Cancer

Center/Washington University School of Medicine (Table 4.1). 64% of the patients were transplanted for myeloid malignancies. For each patient, samples were collected prior to HSCT conditioning (pre-HSCT), 30-days (D30), 100-days (D100) and 1-year post-HSCT (D360). In addition, aliquots from 25 corresponding unrelated donor leukocyte samples collected prior to HSCT were obtained from the Center for International Blood and Marrow Transplant Research (CIBMTR) repository. Upon receipt, the samples were stored in -80°C until library preparation. In total, 125 unique samples (100 patient samples from four time points and 25 donor samples) were collected and processed.

4.2.3 ECS library preparation and mutation analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted from the blood/marrow samples using DNease Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen) following manufacturer's recommendations. The final DNA elution volume was 50 μl. The concentration of the extracted DNA was determined with the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay (Life Technologies). Following quantification of DNA concentration, 200-250 ng of DNA per sample was used to make ultra-deep error-corrected sequencing libraries via the custommade Illumina TruSeq Custom Amplicon kit specified in Chapter 2. The library preparation followed the protocol outlined in Chapter 2 closely with several modifications. First, following ddPCR quantification step, each library was then normalized to 6.3 million UMI-tagged molecules, and a second round of PCR (14 cycles) was performed in a 50 μl reaction: 25 µL of Q5 master mix, $2 \mu L$ of P5 Primer (1 μ M), $2 \mu L$ of P7 Primer (1 μ M), and 21 μ L of DNA molecules. After that, the amplified libraries were purified, and the libraries were normalized. Six purified libraries were pooled and sequenced per lane in an Illumina HiSeq 4000 instrument with the following settings: $2x144$ PE, 8 cycles Index 1, 16 cycles Index 2 (account for 16N

random bases used as UMI). For each sample, a technical replicate library was prepared via the same protocol. In total, 125 samples were processed, and 250 ECS libraries were prepared.

The bioinformatics processing followed the pipeline outlined in Chapter 2 closely with additional filters. First, a minimum of three raw reads sharing the same UMI were errorcorrected to give error-corrected consensus sequence (ECCS). Each library was deep-sequenced to an average ECCS depth of 9200× (Figure 4.2). Second, after variant-calling using binomial error model, several other filters were applied to remove artifacts and to obtain high-confidence variants: 1) variants that were only called in one technical sequencing replicate but not in the other were removed, 2) variants called due to sequencing batch effect were removed, 3) nonhotspot variants identified in more than one donor-recipient matched pair were removed, 4) variants with <0.001 VAF were removed unless the variants were observed in multiple time points in the matched sample set, 5) variants that had a coefficient of variation >15% between 3 reads and 5-reads error-corrections were removed. Following the filters, we retained a set of high-confidence variants by removing false-positive calls and common variants that are observed in the general population. Indels were called with $VarScan2^{120}$ mpileup2indel setting using the aligned consensus reads. Third, Two independent replicate sequencing libraries were made and sequenced separately (DNA was extracted from different aliquots of leukocytes from the same sample). Variants that passed the established filters in all available libraries for that sample were retained for further analysis. Variants present in pre-HSCT recipient samples represented the clonal hematopoietic profile of the recipient and, potentially, any remaining primary leukemia. These pre-HSCT germline variants in recipients were used to evaluate the degree of mixed chimerism in the recipient post-HSCT. Engraftment of donor hematopoietic clone(s) was evaluated based on the presence of variants from donor pre-HSCT observed in recipient post-

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HSCT samples post-HSCT. Persistent engraftment was further defined as having donor-derived mutation(s) that persist through 1-year (D360) post-HSCT.

4.2.4 Validation of observed mutations via droplet digital PCR and triplicate sequencing

A possibility remained that somatic variants observed in a single time point were false positives. In order to further rule out potential false positives, we performed droplet digital PCR (ddPCR) using Bio-Rad QX200 platform or triplicate sequencing on these observed variants. For ddPCR, a primer/probe set specific to the variant of interest was designed by Bio-Rad according to MIQE guidelines for quantitative PCR (Table 4.2). Probes target both reference and mutated nucleotide at the same genomic position via different fluorophores. All ddPCR reactions were performed in accordance to manufacturer's recommendations using "ddPCR Supermix for Probe (no dUTP)". For triplicate sequencing, we considered only those variants observed in all three independent sequencing runs to be true positives.

4.2.5 Statistical analysis of clinical correlates

Categorical variables (donor gender, recipient gender, primary disease=AML/MDS or others, disease status before transplant=remission, conditioning=myeloablative or reduced intensity, and HLA mismatch=No) are compared using Fisher's exact test. A nonparametric Wilcoxon rank-sum test is used to compare continuous, non-Gaussian variables (duration of cytopenia, age of donor and age of recipient). Cytopenia is defined as white blood cell count $\langle 2 \times 10^9 / L$, hemoglobin $\langle 10g/dL$ and platelets $\langle 100 \times 10^9 / L$. Cumulative incidence of chronic GvHD is modeled because several patients died without chronic GvHD, making death a

competing risk for this endpoint. The start time for chronic GvHD is D100 post-transplant. Leukemia free survival is compared using a Kaplan-Meier model. Mixed chimerism is measured repeatedly as a presence/absence, and it is compared using a repeated measures logistic regression. The analysis is intended to be exploratory, so no attempt was made to adjust the pvalues for multiple tests.

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Engraftment of pathogenic somatic variants of donor origin

Given that the prevalence of hematopoietic clones at <0.02 VAF in the healthy AYA population has not been quantified, we first characterized the prevalence and genetic spectrum of clonal hematopoietic mutations in donors prior to transplantation. Because clonal hematopoiesis is associated with multiple complex health problems and all cause mortality⁶¹, we are not solely interested in mutations associated with hematologic malignancies, but rather any mutation that would confer a growth or survival advantage to a cell due to altered molecular functions.

The donor pool consisted of 25 individuals with a median age of 26 years (range 20-58). Only one donor, aged 23 (4% of donors), harbored a CHIP clone at >0.02 VAF (*SRCAP* frame shift Indel). In total, we identified 19 somatic mutations in 11 donors, aged 20-58 (44% of donors) (Figure 4.3A; Table 4.3). The median VAF of these somatic mutations was 0.00247 (an order of magnitude rarer than the definition of CHIP) with a range of 0.00058 – 0.0274. Fourteen donors had no clonal mutations in the 80 target genes. Consistent with previous studies, despite a younger cohort, donors possessed mutations most frequently in *DNMT3A* and *TET2* (Figure 4.3B). None of the mutations detected in donors were observed in the pre-HSCT samples of recipients. Each mutation was annotated using the Combined Annotation-Dependent Depletion

(CADD) scoring system. Mutations with a scaled CADD score ≥ 20 represent the top 1% of mutations expected to be most pathogenic to any cellular function¹³⁸, and were thus labeled as "pathogenic" mutations in this study. We found that 84.2% of the detected mutations were pathogenic (Figure 4.3B; Table 4.1) and all detected somatic mutations engrafted in recipients. The most common mutations were cytosine to thymine transitions (Figure 4.3C) as previously seen in healthy, elderly adults⁹³. The median age for the donors with clonal hematopoiesis and those without was 36 and 24, respectively, which was a significant difference (Figure 4.3D; pvalue=0.03; two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

Notably, of the 19 engrafted mutations, 14 (74%) clones persisted through D365 post-HSCT, and 13 of these possessed pathogenic mutations (Figure 4.3E; Figure 4.4). The likelihood of persistent engraftment was not dependent on the initial VAF in donors (p-value=0.105; twosided Wilcoxon rank-sum test). Despite an initially low VAF, 3 recipients (12%) had engrafted clones that expanded beyond the defined CHIP threshold of ≥0.02 VAF post-HSCT at D100 and D360 (Figure 4.5). All mutations that expanded to \geq 0.02 VAF were scored as pathogenic, and the mutated genes were *TP53* p.R150W (COSMIC ID: COSM99925; CADD=25.7), *DNMT3A* p.Q222P (CADD=26.1) and *CREBBP* p.R445* (COSMIC ID: COSM255965; CADD=38).

4.3.2 Presence of de novo pathogenic somatic mutations in recipients post-HSCT

Next, we examined longitudinal differences in the mutational spectrum of engrafted clones. By comparing the recipient's clonal profile pre-HSCT and post-HSCT, we accounted for residual physiologic hematopoietic clones and residual primary disease (Table 4.4 – 4.5). These recipient clones were filtered out accordingly.

As expected, given their high prevalence, *DNMT3A* mutations were most commonly observed after HSCT across all time points (Figure 4.6A), and the majority of these were engrafted from donors. In addition, 39 of the detected mutations in recipients after HSCT were new mutations not previously observed in donors. These newly detected mutations were called in different genes from those observed in donors and in previous CHIP studies $60-62$. For instance, *TET2*, *CREBBP* and *FAT1* were more commonly mutated in recipients after HSCT than in donors before HSCT (Figure 4.6B). The most common type of nucleotide change was cytosine to thymine (Figure 4.6C). We also found that the mutation burden across the entire cohort significantly increased from pre-HSCT (19 total somatic mutations) in donors to D100 (33 total somatic mutations) (p-value $= 0.048$, one-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test; Figure 4.6C). The presence of these mutations was not due to differences in sequencing metrics. In addition, when comparing the presence of these mutations in recipients who were transplanted from donors with $(n=11)$ or without $(n=14)$ detectable clonal mutations, we found no difference in this observation (n.s., p-value =0.44, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

Potential explanations for the presence of these mutations were either that they were 1) present in donors prior to transplant with a VAF below the limit of ECS detection, or 2) arose *de novo* after engraftment. To distinguish between these two possibilities, we performed ddPCR on a subset of mutations in all five samples from matched pairs. We found that these mutations were a mixture of few extremely rare donor mutations that engrafted in recipients and underwent clonal expansion, and a majority of *de novo* mutations that appear post-HSCT (Figure 4.7A-C; Figure 4.8). Some *de novo* mutations persist or expanded (Figure 4.7A) over time, while some were transient and vanished by later time points (Figure 4.7B). With respect to exceedingly rare pre-existing clones, one recipient (PID_0450) was found to have a *CREBBP* nonsense mutation,

which was not detected in the donor pre-HSCT sample via ECS. By ddPCR, the same mutation was detected in the donor pre-HSCT (Figure 4.7C) and underwent an approximate 500-fold expansion with an increase in VAF from 0.000046 to 0.027 by D360 post-HSCT. The prevalence of these mutations was associated with gene length (p-value $\langle 0.00001,$ Pearson correlation = 0.5136; Figure 4.9) suggesting a stochastic mechanism of mutation.

4.3.3 Persistent engraftment of donor-derived mutations and clinical descriptors

While this study was not designed nor powered to establish clinical correlations to clonal hematopoiesis, we nevertheless explored the relationships between engrafted donor-derived mutations and clinical outcomes as a descriptive and exploratory pilot analysis. We were particularly interested in chronic GvHD, which was recently associated with CHIP clones engrafted from older, related donors⁹². Since young, unrelated donors with CHIP are rare (we detected CHIP in one donor), we examined the effect of persistent engraftment (up to one year) of these donor-derived mutations. We found that 75% of recipients who had at least one persistently engrafted, pathogenic mutation developed chronic GvHD versus roughly 50% of those without any persistently engrafted mutated clones. However, given the sample size, the difference is not statistically significant (p-value=0.17, Gray's test; Figure 4.10 – 4.11). Descriptive results for other clinical outcome measures for donors with and without clonal mutations (as well as pathogenic or non-pathogenic) are listed in Table 4.6.

4.4 Discussion

In this pilot study intended to quantify the presence of rare hematopoietic clones in the healthy AYA population and observe the dynamics of these clones over time in an unrelated allogeneic HSCT context, we have made five observations, which address several outstanding questions. First, we showed that clonal hematopoietic mutations ≥ 0.0005 VAF are common (44%) in the AYA population – an age group where CHIP is virtually non-detectable in previous studies⁶⁰⁻⁶², but constitutes 86% of eligible unrelated HSPC donors. While not demonstrated here, prior data suggests that these mutations, which were present at 10-fold lesser VAF than CHIP, are likely to occur in hematopoietic progenitors due to their presence in myeloid and lymphoid lineages in comparable frequencies as well as their persistent nature over time $93,139$. A substantial proportion of these clones harbor mutations that could confer a survival or proliferative advantage upon selective pressures. If we simply examine common mutations at or above the defined CHIP threshold of 0.02 VAF without considering rare clones, we would miss most, if not all, of these mutations in unrelated donors that might have as yet unknown clinical impacts, as acknowledged by Frick and colleagues⁹². Given the many indications for unrelated, allogeneic HSCT and recent associations of clonal hematopoiesis with risks for developing leukemia^{29,30}, atherosclerosis⁸⁹ and chronic GvHD after $HSCT^{92}$, and that under selective pressures these pre-existing clones can emerge to clinical relevance years after their selection³¹, it is crucial to understand how putatively pathogenic clones in this age group can be transferred from healthy donors to recipients who have undergone combinations of radiation, chemotherapy and immunosuppression.

Second, we find that donor hematopoietic clones harbor mutations that are mostly pathogenic (84.2%) and have a seemingly strong predilection for engraftment (100% in this cohort). Third, rare clones with pathogenic mutations are likely to persist/expand for at least oneyear post-HSCT, regardless of initial VAF. These two observations support the hypothesis that pathogenic mutations confer a variable fitness advantage to the donor cells¹⁴⁰ and would also explain why these engrafted rare, pathogenic mutations persist/expand in recipients post-HSCT. Fourth, the fact that there was no difference in the pre-HSCT VAF of clones with and without persistent engraftment argues for quantifying the presence of rare clones with mutations conferring a strong effect over time and against recent reports attributing clinical relevance solely to "clone size"¹⁴¹. An example of this is the recipient with a rare donor-derived *CREBBP*mutated clone expanding 500-fold in the recipient one-year post-HSCT. *CREBBP* mutations have been shown to adversely impact hematopoietic development and are associated with malignant lymphoid stem-like properties 142 . Thus, in an advantageous context, rare clones with mutations conferring a strong effect size or selective advantage can expand relatively rapidly regardless of their initial VAF.

Fifth, we found that the clonal hematopoietic spectrum of recipients post-HSCT transiently changes over time, revealing mutations within the first year post-HSCT less commonly seen in physiologic CHIP and apparently developing from *de novo* mutations gained post-HSCT. The positive association between post-HSCT mutations and gene length suggests clonal drift. Under this scenario, the rapid proliferation of donor hematopoietic progenitors would introduce stochastic mutations across the genome, and only clones with an advantage would persist over time. In light of this, we suggest that there are many rare hematopoietic progenitors with pathogenic mutations in unrelated, otherwise-healthy AYA donors that are otherwise neutral in the donor, due to a lack of selective pressure, but in recipients, the selective pressures previously mentioned would enable preferential expansion.

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Alternatively, donor cells may experience a transient hypermutative phase upon encountering an unfamiliar microenvironment. Transient hypermutation of cellular subpopulations has been shown to give rise to adaptive mutations that allows new cellular phenotypes to emerge^{143,144}, and the process selectively mutates epigenetic modifier genes as they promote cell phenotypic heterogeneity¹⁴⁵. Such a hypothesis would be consistent with the observed increase in clonal mutation burden as a function of time post-HSCT, as well as the observation that some *de novo* mutations disappear and some expand by D365, meaning only the clones with a selective advantage persist. In addition, most of *DNMT3A* mutations observed in recipients were engrafted from donors, supporting the hypothesis that *DNMT3A* mutated clones, or more broadly - clones with mutations in epigenetic modifiers, such as *CREBBP*, or *TET2*, harbor a competitive advantage^{146,147}.

In summary, we have shown that extremely rare, pre-existing clones with pathogenic mutations are preferentially engrafted over clones with benign mutations. Our sample size and only one-year of post-HSCT follow-up prevented us from establishing clinical correlations. It would stand to reason that our demonstration of engraftment of clones at 10-fold lower VAF than CHIP would require a longer time to manifestation of clinical consequences. Thus, this pilot study interrogating the prevalence of rare clonal hematopoiesis in the AYA population and what happens to these clones in unrelated HSCT recipients merits a much larger study with longer follow up to correlate post-HSCT morbidities with transfer and persistence of donor clones. Such correlations could enable clinicians to survey the clonal hematopoietic profile of potential donors to improve post-HSCT surveillance and mitigate potential long-term morbidity.

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Figure 4.1: Samples collected at different time points in this study. 25 recipient samples were collected 30 days, 100 days and 1 year post-HSCT from the Siteman Cancer Center at Washington University School of Medicine. The disease samples prior to HSCT were also collected. Matched, unrelated donor samples were obtained from the National Marrow Donor Program.

Figure 4.2: Error-corrected consensus sequencing depths (mean 9200x) of individual libraries at all time points (no difference in sequencing depth, p-values >0.05, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

Figure 4.3: Mutation burden and spectrum in donors. (A) Number and types of somatic mutations detected in donors. 44% of the donor cohort harbored at least one somatic mutation. (B) Mutation spectrum of detected mutations in donors. *DNMT3A* and *TET2* are most recurrently mutated. (C) Types of nucleotide changes. (D) Older donors are significantly more likely to harbor detectable mutation(s). Boxes showed the $25th$ and $75th$ percentiles, as well as median. (pvalue = 0.03, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test). (E) Clonal dynamics of engrafted mutations in recipients post-HSCT.

Figure 4.4: Engrafted donor mutations in recipients. Dots connected by a line indicate a mutation that was observed at multiple time points. A total of 19 mutations from 11 donors engrafted in the recipients, with 14 mutations persisted through 1-year post-HSCT in recipients. Four donors harbored more than one somatic mutation in these genes.

Figure 4.5: Clonal expansion of mutations reaching CHIP level $(\geq 0.02 \text{ VAF})$ in three patients post-HSCT. Engraftment of *DNMT3A* and *TP53* mutations were identified by ECS while engraftment of *CREBBP* mutation was identified by ddPCR that has higher sensitivity compared to ECS to detect rare mutations.

PIDD
PIDD \overline{AB} **6** Mutation burden and spectrum of donor cells engrafted in the recipients (A) detected in recipients but not in pre-HSCT donors. (C) Violin plot showing mutation burden at **0.010 1.010 1.010 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 VAF (log−scale)** test. μ only points post μ . **Considered** by μ and ∞ Figure 4.6: Mutation burden and spectrum of donor cells engrafted in the recipients. (A) post-HSCT. * denotes p-value <0.05 with one-sided Wilcoxon rank-su 1 O Mutation spectrum in donor cells in recipients at different time point. (B) New mutations different time points post-HSCT. * denotes p-value <0.05 with one-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum ts¹ $\frac{1}{1}$ mutant $\frac{1}{1}$

Figure 4.7: Droplet digital PCR validations of identified somatic mutations in donors. (A and B) ddPCR results of *de novo* mutations. (A) the mutation first arose in D100 post-HSCT, and experienced a slight expansion by 1-year post-HSCT. (B) the mutation first arose in D100 post-HSCT, but decreased in frequency by 1-year post-HSCT, and was undetected via ECS. (C) ddPCR results of an engrafted donor-derived mutation that was extremely rare in the donor, and was undetected via ECS. For the panels, blue dots indicate positive mutant droplets, green dots indicate positive wild-type droplets, and gray dots indicate empty droplets.

Figure 4.8: ECS calls validated by ddPCR (Positive correlation with Pearson correlation $coefficient = 0.9003, p-value = 0.002296.$

Figure 4.9: Number of detected mutations in genes according to gene length. (Positive correlation with Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.5131 , p-value <0.00001).

Figure 4.10: Leukemia-free survival of recipients with or without persistent engraftment of

donor-derived mutations. (n.s., p-value $= 0.7636$).

Figure 4.11: Cumulative incidence of chronic GvHD in recipients with or without persistent engraftment of donor-derived mutations. (n.s., p-value = 0.1755).

Table 4.1: Demographical information of recipients and the corresponding matched donors in relation to engraftment of donor-derived mutations.

Table 4.2: ddPCR probe sequences.

Chr	Start	Ref	Alt	Gene	Type	AA	COSMIC ID	CADD	Deleterious	VAF1	VAF2	patientID	Engrafted	Age
chr11	32456672	G	A	WT1	missense	p.R74W	NA	28.7	Yes	0.011304	0.011202	PID 0589	Yes	30
chr2	25469138	C	T	DNMT3A	nonsense	p.W288X	COSM1130818	40	Yes	0.0004	0.001268	PID 0489	Yes	58
chr2	25470498	G	T	DNMT3A	missense	p.R174S	NA	26.5	Yes	0.011218	0.008888	PID 0489	Yes	58
chr ₆	75893069	T	A	COL12A1	missense	p.I530L	COSM271996	22.1	Yes	0.000843	0.002573	PID 0489	Yes	58
chr2	25467428	$\mathbf C$	T	DNMT3A	missense	p.G398R	COSM256035	30	Yes	0.00142	0.00182	PID 0459	Yes	28
chr2	25965982	C	T	ASXL2	missense	p.R1075Q	COSM6494820	10.77	N ₀	0.004005	0.004873	PID 0450	Yes	26
chr2	61492689	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	USP34	missense	p.H1874R	NA	22.5	Yes	0.002401	0.002433	PID 0450	Yes	26
chr2	25470544	А	C	DNMT3A	missense	p.I158M	NA	23.6	Yes	0.000541	0.000614	PID 0655	Yes	36
chr4	106180927	G	A	TET ₂	splicing	NA	COSM87141	34	Yes	0.000185805	0.001074009	PID 0421	Yes	38
chrX	123179113	T	${\bf G}$	STAG2	missense	p.Y188D	NA	26.3	Yes	0.00164	0.004084	PID 0394	Yes	40
chr2	25469921	T	G	DNMT3A	missense	p.Q222P	NA	26.1	Yes	0.012781	0.01809	PID 0373	Yes	51
chr4	106182995	A	G	TET ₂	missense	p.Y1345C	NA	32	Yes	0.00133	0.001933	PID_0373	Yes	51
chr16	30721283	T	TGCTTCGCC	SRCAP	indel	NA	NA	29	Yes	0.029	0.0258	PID 0372	Yes	23
chr17	11556271	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	DNAH9	silent	p.Y849Y	NA	6.417	No	0.003965	0.000986	PID 0314	Yes	20
chr ₆	75818737	G	A	COL12A1	silent	p.A1535A	NA	1.438	No	0.001792	0.00254	PID 0268	Yes	53
chr16	3801781	G	A	CREBBP	missense	p.T1204I	NA	25.5	Yes	0.002441	0.001158	PID 0268	Yes	53
chr17	7577094	G	A	TP53	missense	p.R150W	COSM99925	25.7	Yes	0.013423	0.017781	PID 0268	Yes	53
chr2	25459821	$\mathbf T$	G	DNMT3A	missense	p.H669P	NA	23.3	Yes	0.005147	0.004734	PID 0268	Yes	53
chr4	187549458	$\mathbf C$	T	FAT1	missense	p.D1554N	COSM1429043	25.8	Yes	0.007042	0.004139	PID 0268	Yes	53

Table 4.3: Detected somatic mutations in donors via ECS

Chr	Start	Ref	Alt	Gene	Type	AA	COSMIC ID	CADD	VAF1	VAF ₂	Timepoint	patientID
chr16	3801781	${\bf G}$	A	CREBBP	missense	p.T1204I	NA	25.5	0.00088	0.001588	D30	PID 0268
chr16	3801781	${\bf G}$	A	CREBBP	missense	p.T1204I	NA	25.5	0.001788	0.001573	D ₁₀₀	PID_0268
chr16	3801781	${\bf G}$	A	CREBBP	missense	p.T1204I	NA	25.5	0.001285	0.001304	D365	PID_0268
chr17	7577094	${\bf G}$	A	TP53	missense	p.R150W	COSM99925	25.7	0.018132	0.018873	D30	PID_0268
chr17	7577094	${\bf G}$	A	TP53	missense	p.R150W	COSM99925	25.7	0.023088	0.018078	D ₁₀₀	PID_0268
chr17	7577094	${\bf G}$	A	TP53	missense	p.R150W	COSM99925	25.7	0.023448	0.022782	D365	PID_0268
chr2	25459821	$\mathbf T$	${\bf G}$	DNMT3A	missense	p.H669P	NA	23.3	0.004792	0.00754	D30	PID_0268
chr2	25459821	T	${\bf G}$	DNMT3A	missense	p.H669P	NA	23.3	0.00522	0.001862	D ₁₀₀	PID_0268
chr2	25459821	$\mathbf T$	${\bf G}$	DNMT3A	missense	p.H669P	NA	23.3	0.004636	0.005898	D365	PID_0268
chr2	25462044	${\bf G}$	A	DNMT3A	missense	p.A636V	NA	26.9	0.001243	0.001637	D30	PID_0268
chr2	25462044	${\bf G}$	A	DNMT3A	missense	p.A636V	NA.	26.9	0.001319	0.000832	D ₁₀₀	PID_0268
chr ₆	75818737	${\bf G}$	A	COL12A1	silent	p.A1535A	NA	1.438	0.001169	0.001683	D ₃₀	PID_0268
chr ₆	75818737	${\bf G}$	A	COL12A1	silent	p.A1535A	NA	1.438	0.00164	0.002633	D ₁₀₀	PID_0268
chr ₆	75818737	${\bf G}$	A	COL12A1	silent	p.A1535A	NA	1.438	0.002188	0.000939	D365	PID_0268
chr4	106157471	ATT	A	TET ₂	indel	NA	NA	27.2	0.004	0.0027	D365	PID_0268
chr4	187549458	${\bf C}$	$\mathbf T$	FAT1	missense	p.D1554N	COSM1429043	25.8	0.003422	0.006051	D30	PID_0268
chr4	187549458	$\mathbf C$	$\mathbf T$	FAT1	missense	p.D1554N	COSM1429043	25.8	0.004722	0.00372	D ₁₀₀	PID_0268
chr4	187549458	$\mathbf C$	$\mathbf T$	FAT1	missense	p.D1554N	COSM1429043	25.8	0.005821	0.005068	D365	PID_0268
chr17	11556271	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	DNAH9	silent	p.Y849Y	NA	6.417	0.002639	0.001049	D30	PID_0314
chr17	11556271	$\mathbf T$	${\bf C}$	DNAH9	silent	p.Y849Y	NA	6.417	0.010758	0.001891	D ₁₀₀	PID_0314
chr17	10427979	$\mathbf T$	${\bf C}$	MYH ₂	missense	p.01660R	NA	23.8	0.001193	0.001827	D365	PID_0318
chr4	187630237	${\bf G}$	$\mathbf T$	FAT1	missense	p.Q249K	NA	22.7	0.004705	0.006863	D ₁₀₀	PID_0318
chr4	187630237	${\bf G}$	$\mathbf T$	FAT1	missense	p.Q249K	NA	22.7	0.002002	0.003591	D365	PID_0318
chr7	50450427	$\mathbf C$	$\mathbf T$	IKZF1	intronic	NA	NA	0.256	0.003137	0.00269	D365	PID_0335
chr7	135322646	A	${\bf G}$	NUP205	intronic	NA	NA	11.51	0.001635	0.001371	D ₁₀₀	PID_0335
chr9	139391938	$\mathbf C$	A	NOTCH1	missense	p.A2085S	NA	25.1	0.010538	0.011864	D ₁₀₀	PID_0335
chr9	139391938	$\mathbf C$	A	NOTCH1	missense	p.A2085S	NA	25.1	0.004486	0.002006	D365	PID_0335

Table 4.4: Detected somatic mutations in recipients post-HSCT after removing recipient's hematopoietic clones using ECS.

chr2 25470544 A C DNMT3A missense p.I158M NA 23.6 0.00058 0.000579 D100 PID_0655

Chr	Start	Ref	Alt	Gene	Type	AA	COSMIC ID	VAF1	VAF2	Timepoint	patientID
chr18	7002407	A	C	LAMA1	intronic	NA	NA	0.434713	0.356371	Pre	PID_0576
chr18	7002407	A	C	LAMA1	intronic	NA	NA	0.021635	0.024166	D30	PID_0576
chr18	7002407	A	C	LAMA1	intronic	NA	NA	0.013414	0.018904	D ₁₀₀	PID_0576
chr7	135285707	G	A	NUP205	silent	p.V430V	COSM40403	0.505976	0.512114	Pre	PID_0499
chr7	135285707	G	A	NUP205	silent	p.V430V	COSM40403	0.019954	0.021033	D30	PID_0499
chr7	135285707	G	A	NUP205	silent	p.V430V	COSM40403	0.022706	0.025451	D ₁₀₀	PID 0499
chr11	32456726	G	A	WT1	missense	p.R56W	NA	0.404366	0.403446	Pre	PID_0495
chr11	32456726	G	A	WT1	missense	p.R56W	NA	0.000908	0.000609	D30	PID_0495
chr16	30736222	C	T	SRCAP	missense	p.S1826L	COSM5850742	0.507346	0.496049	Pre	PID_0495
chr16	30736222	C	T	SRCAP	missense	p.S1826L	COSM5850742	0.04389	0.039401	D30	PID_0495
chr16	30736222	C	T	SRCAP	missense	p.S1826L	COSM5850742	0.006037	0.003924	D100	PID_0495
chr17	11550421	G	A	DNAH9	missense	p.R668Q	COSM1236009	0.910698	0.90111	Pre	PID_0495
chr17	11550421	G	A	DNAH9	missense	p.R668Q	COSM1236009	0.042462	0.055456	D30	PID_0495
chr17	7669761	G	A	DNAH ₂	missense	p.E1213K	NA	0.912955	0.915971	Pre	PID_0495
chr17	7669761	G	A	DNAH ₂	missense	p.E1213K	NA	0.052973	0.051185	D30	PID_0495
chr ⁸	128750945	C	T	MYC	missense	p.S161L	COSM1454792	0.40811	0.402829	Pre	PID_0495
chr ⁸	128750945	C	T	MYC	missense	p.S161L	COSM1454792	0.002216	0.001834	D30	PID_0495
chr9	134072817	C	G	NUP214	silent	p.T138T	NA	0.507812	0.506112	Pre	PID_0495
chr9	134072817	C	G	NUP214	silent	p.T138T	NA	0.042121	0.039321	D30	PID_0495
chr9	134072817	C	G	NUP214	silent	p.T138T	NA	0.001785	0.004946	D ₁₀₀	PID_0495
chr17	7697727	G	A	DNAH ₂	intronic	NA	NA	0.491119	0.492356	Pre	PID_0489
chr17	7697727	G	A	DNAH ₂	intronic	NA	NA	0.001426	0.00106	D30	PID_0489
chr9	134074118	G	С	NUP214	missense	p.S572T	NA	0.507816	0.517495	Pre	PID_0489
chr9	134074118	G	С	NUP214	missense	p.S572T	NA	0.001387	0.001787	D30	PID_0489
chr17	7577644	C	G	TP53	intronic	NA	COSN26958754	0.507881	0.508418	Pre	PID_0475
chr17	7577644	C	G	TP53	intronic	NA	COSN26958754	0.000881	0.000709	D30	PID_0475
chr5	180057843	A	G	FLT4	intronic	NA	NA	0.519392	0.502796	Pre	PID_0475
chr5	180057843	A	G	FLT4	intronic	NA	NA	0.001027	0.001216	D30	PID_0475
chr13	28608020	G	С	FLT3	intronic	NA	NA	0.505227	0.483484	Pre	PID_0459
chr13	28608020	G	С	FLT3	intronic	NA	NA	0.032958	0.028085	D30	PID_0459
chr13	28608020	G	С	FLT3	intronic	NA	NA	0.056743	0.058917	D ₁₀₀	PID_0459
chr4	106180845	G	T	TET ₂	missense	p.W1291C	COSM4383925	0.175306	0.185252	Pre	PID_0459
chr4	106180845	G	T	TET ₂	missense	p.W1291C	COSM4383925	0.007234	0.00947	D30	PID_0459
chr4	106180845	G	T	TET ₂	missense	p.W1291C	COSM4383925	0.004535	0.003971	D ₁₀₀	PID_0459
chr4	106157845	C	T	TET2	nonsense	p.Q916X	COSM3733079	0.171096	0.191542	Pre	PID_0459
chr4	106157845	C	T	TET2	nonsense	p.Q916X	COSM3733079	0.004234	0.003035	D30	PID_0459
chr4	106157845	C	T	TET ₂	nonsense	p.Q916X	COSM3733079	0.007722	0.004722	D ₁₀₀	PID_0459

Table 4.5: Shared variants in pre-HSCT and post-HSCT recipient samples due to incomplete clearance of recipient's hematopoietic clones post-HSCT via ECS.

Table 4.6: Analysis of recipient clinical outcomes in relation to engraftment of donor-derived mutations.

Chapter 5: The clonal hematopoietic spectrum of Down syndrome with and without myeloid leukemia

5.1 Introduction

Down syndrome (DS) is a genetic disorder characterized by the presence of an extra copy of chromosome 21 (Trisomy 21). Approximately 1 in 800 newborns are affected by this $disorder¹⁴⁸$, and these newborns suffer from several cognitive and physical abnormalities during development such as having a flattened face, almond-shape eyes, poor muscle tone and intellectual disability¹⁴⁹. Children with Down syndrome are also associated with several perinatal clinical conditions such as gastrointestinal malfunctions¹⁵⁰, spinal defects¹⁵¹, endocrine disorders¹⁵², and heart defects¹⁵³. In addition, children with Down syndrome (DS) have a 150fold higher risk of developing myeloid leukemia (ML-DS), often of the megakaryocyte lineage almost exclusively $\langle 4 \rangle$ years of age¹⁵⁴, despite having lower incidence of other solid malignancies¹⁵⁵. It has been postulated that the higher risk of ML-DS is the consequence stemming from genomic instability in DS blood cells caused by a disturbance in the metabolism of oxygen radicals¹⁵⁶. This in turn increases the cells' sensitivity to various forms of somatic mutagenesis^{157,158}. Expectedly, the blasts of ML-DS are typically characterized by truncating somatic mutations in the X-linked transcription factor, *GATA1*, which is involved in regulating normal blood formation and differentiation^{159,160}, and the affected children with *GATA1* mutations often display an inhibited ability to drive terminal erythroid and megakaryocytic differentiation in definitive hematopoiesis 161 .

ML-DS is subsequently found to be preceded by transient abnormal myelopoiesis (TAM) which is a pre-leukemic condition that is self-remitting by 6 months of age in most cases $162,163$. However, approximately 20% of DS children with TAM would eventually develop ML-DS, and these children are characterized by a positive mutation status for *GATA1*164,165 . Recently, Roberts and colleagues¹⁶⁶ showed that approximately 30% of healthy DS (HDS) neonates (i.e. without leukemia or any discernable hematologic features) would also acquire truncated *GATA1* mutations at low VAFs in the fetal hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs) consistent with clonal events, suggesting inherently perturbed hematopoiesis in these children as a prerequisite for subsequent ML-DS development. Along with *GATA1* mutations, children with TAM and ML-DS also have a distinct mutation landscape implicating putatively driver events in cohesin complex genes such as *RAD21* and *STAG2*¹⁶⁷. However, very little is known about the physiologic clonal hematopoiesis (CH) in HDS or even the leukemia-associated clonal hematopoiesis in ML-DS beyond these genes. We hypothesize that CH in ML-DS differs from HDS, and that the differences would not only inform risk stratification in disease surveillance, but also add insight into how trisomy 21 impacts the acquisition of selection of various mutations in DS hematopoietic progenitors.

Given recent observations that rare hematopoietic clonal mutations with variant allele frequency (VAF) \geq 0.005 are clinically informative^{30,99}, we opted to use targeted error-corrected sequencing (ECS) enriching for 80 genes frequently mutated in adult and pediatric AML as previously described in Chapter 2^{102} in order to detect and compare clonal mutations at ≥ 0.0005 variant allele frequency (VAF) in ML-DS and HDS cohorts. We found that ML-DS children in our study had higher mutation burden than HDS, and mutations in genes such as *GATA1*, *EZH2*, *RAD21* and *STAG2* were enriched in ML-DS, supporting previous observations. Interestingly,

despite their prevalence, many *GATA1* mutations in ML-DS had low VAFs relative to the blast counts such that these *GATA1*-mutated clones would be considered subclonal¹⁶⁸. In addition, we found that the mutation landscape between younger and older HDS children was different (demarcated at age 4 – the age at which the risk of developing ML-DS decreases significantly¹⁵⁵), and older HDS children were shown to display a more 'adult-like' signature as demonstrated in clonal hematopoiesis in adults at age $50s - 60s^{93}$.

5.2 Materials and Methods

5.2.1 Study Population

A total of 46 ML-DS patients from the Children's Oncology Group (COG) AAML1531 trial (all <4 years old), and 63 non-leukemia HDS patients (23 <4 years old and $40 \ge 4$ years old) were included in this study. The ML-DS samples were collected at diagnosis of leukemia, and the white blood cell DNA were shipped to the laboratory. Upon receipt, the DNA samples were kept in -20°C freezer until library preparation. The HDS peripheral blood samples were collected at St. Louis Children's Hospital with informed consent from the parents of the patients. Upon collection, genomic DNA was extracted from the white blood cells of HDS samples using Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit following manufacturer's recommendations. The final DNA elution volume was 50 μl, and the DNA were stored in -20°C until library preparation.

5.2.2 ECS library preparation and mutation analysis

Approximately 200-250 ng of DNA per sample was used to make ultra-deep errorcorrected sequencing libraries via the custom-made Illumina TruSeq Custom Amplicon kit described in Chapter 2. The library preparation followed the protocol outlined in Chapter 2 closely with several modifications. First, following ddPCR quantification step, each library was then normalized to 6.3 million UMI-tagged molecules, and a second round of PCR (14 cycles) was performed in a 50 µl reaction: $25 \mu L$ of Q5 master mix, $2 \mu L$ of P5 Primer (1 μ M), $2 \mu L$ of P7 Primer (1 μ M), and 21 μ L of DNA molecules. After that, the amplified libraries were purified, and the libraries were normalized. Six purified libraries were pooled and sequenced in an Illumina NextSeq 550 High-Output Kit with the following settings: 2x144 PE, 8 cycles Index 1, 16 cycles Index 2 (account for 16N random bases used as UMI). For each sample, a technical replicate library was prepared via the same protocol. In total, 109 samples were processed, and 218 ECS libraries were prepared.

The bioinformatics processing followed the pipeline outlined in Chapter 2 closely with additional filters. The retained single nucleotide variants (SNVs) after Bonferroni correction¹⁰² were further curated in a stepwise manner to remove potential false positive calls: 1) SNVs called due to batch effect were removed, 2) non-hotspot variants identified in more than one sample were removed, 3) SNVs that had a coefficient of variation >15% between 5-reads and 3 reads error-correction were removed. Indels were called via VarScan2 with the aligned consensus reads using mpileup2indel setting, and were further curated as described above. Additional adjustment was to survey the genomic region of *GATA1*. Some samples had low coverage at the *GATA1* region (~300x consensus coverage), and the coverage filter was lowered from 700x to 200x specifically at this locus in order to more accurately capture the signals. The SNVs and/or Indels identified would still be required to pass the statistical frameworks outlined above. Since majority of *GATA1* variants were Indels spanning from exon 2 to exon 3 (including the intronic region)¹⁶⁰, we further customized a single-amplicon ECS approach to survey these regions for additional variants that were possibly missed by the gene panel approach.

5.2.3 Sequencing of ML-DS at end-of-induction treatment to verify somatic nature of *GATA1* **mutations detected at diagnosis.**

GATA1 mutations with VAFs at approximately 0.3 – 0.6 could be germline variants inherited from either parent. In order to ascertain the somatic nature of these high VAF variants, we sequenced the DNA of corresponding ML-DS children collected at end-of-induction using our ECS approach described previously. We reasoned that somatic *GATA1* mutations present in blast cells would display a decrease in VAF after end-of-induction treatment.

5.3 Results

5.3.1 Difference in mutation landscape between ML-DS and age-matched HDS

First, given the age-related risk of ML-DS $(<$ 4 years)¹⁵⁵, we compared CH in 46 ML-DS patients (median: 1.77 years; range: 0.78 – 3.54 years) from the Children's Oncology Group AAML1531 trial to 23 age-matched HDS children from St. Louis Children's Hospital (median: 1.42 years; range: 0.18 – 3.15). We detected CH in 84.8% of ML-DS patients and 52.2% of agematched HDS children at median VAFs of 0.0023 and 0.002 (range: 0.0005 – 0.61175 and $0.0005 - 0.0716$) respectively by ECS gene panel sequencing (Table 5.1 – 5.2). The prevalence of somatic mutations was significantly higher in ML-DS (p-value=0.0075, two-sided Fisher's exact test; Figure 5.1A). *GATA1* mutations were detected in 80.5% of the ML-DS cohort (Figure 5.1B), and a majority of these mutations were frameshift Indels (Figure 5.1C), supporting previous observations in ML-DS¹⁶⁰. In addition to *GATA1* mutations, ML-DS was also enriched for mutations in histone modifiers, particularly in *EZH2* (p-value=0.025, two-sided Fisher's exact test) and in cohesin complex genes such as *STAG2* and *RAD21* (p-value=0.0059, two-sided Fisher's exact test) (Figure 5.1C). There was a possibility that *GATA1* mutations detected at

VAFs ranging approximately from 0.3 – 0.6 were germline variants. Sequencing of end-ofinduction samples showed that these *GATA1* mutations displayed a marked decrease in VAF (Figure 5.2), definitively proving that these were somatic mutations. We also observed that mutations in tumor suppressors were only present in ML-DS and not in the age-matched HDS<4 group. The mutation burden per individual and the mutation VAFs were also significantly higher in ML-DS (Figure 5.3). In contrast, the epigenetic modifiers *DNMT3A* and *TET2*, commonly mutated in adult CH, were rarely mutated in either cohort.

5.3.2 Subclonal nature of *GATA1***-mutated clones in ML-DS**

When we examined the VAFs in further detail, we noted that the *GATA1* mutations had a wide VAF range $(0.0013 - 0.6117 \text{ VAF})$, with 57.1% of all detected variants being <0.1 VAF (median: 0.046). In this ML-DS cohort that consisted entirely of diagnosis samples, a cognate driver mutation in the founding clone (i.e. heterozygous in female and hemizygous in male for a X-linked *GATA1* mutation)^{159,160} would be expected to have a hemizgosity-adjusted VAF at \geq 0.8 of the total blast count in a patient¹⁶⁸ if the disease progression follows a linear clonal acquisition model. Our data, however, suggests that many *GATA1* mutations were maintained at low frequency as minor clones after they were acquired (Figure 5.4A, green dots). When we examined if there could be another major clone besides these *GATA1*-mutated minor clones, we found that a majority of patients with minor *GATA1* clone (70.6%) did not have any other cooccurring somatic mutations with high VAF in other candidate genes included in our sequencing panel. However, they were significantly enriched for specific germline variants associated with hematologic malignancies in genes such as *TP53* and *CSF3R* (p-value=0.035, one-sided Fisher's exact test; Figure 5.4B; Table 5.3).

5.3.3 Difference in mutation landscape between younger and older HDS

Next, we compared CH between younger and older HDS children (HDS<4yo; n=23 and HDS≥4yo; n=40) to characterize physiologic CH in DS as well as delineation of ML-DS risk at 4 years of age. We detected CH in 70% of HDS≥4 versus 52.2% of HDS<4 at median VAFs of 0.001 and 0.002 (range: $0.0005 - 0.01047$ and $0.0005 - 0.0716$) respectively (Table 5.4), a difference that was not statistically different. However, the genes implicated in CH in HDS≥4 were distinct from those in HDS<4. Although statistically insignificant (p-value=0.08, one-sided Fisher's exact test), the HDS≥4 cohort possessed more mutations in canonical adult CH genes64,169 (Figure 5.5). These adult CH genes, such as *ASXL1* and *TET2*, were also not recurrently mutated in ML-DS. Overall, our results also revealed that clonal mutations with >0.0005 VAF are common (an overall prevalence of 63.5%) amongst HDS children <20s (median age 6.49), an age group where even CH \geq 0.02 VAF was virtually non-detectable in non-DS individuals in previous studies using standard NGS^{60-62} .

5.4 Discussion

Our data corroborated with the findings in previous studies where *GATA1*, other genes involved in epigenetic modifications and cohesin complex were recurrently mutated in the blood of ML-DS^{167,170}. Importantly, the same set of genes was not recurrently mutated in age-matched HDS individuals, demonstrating a divergence in mutation landscape of CH between ML-DS and HDS. This supports the hypothesis that neonatal hematopoietic clones must acquire additional somatic mutations beyond *GATA1* in a defined set of putative driver genes for ML-DS transformation during a strict postnatal developmental window before 4 years of age¹⁵⁵, such that

clones not harboring mutations that are contextually important within the critical developmental window would not be sustained¹⁷¹. This is further substantiated by a previous finding that showed approximately 95% of HDS (17 of 18) neonates with low VAF *GATA1* mutations did not eventually developed ML-DS¹⁶⁶, suggesting that additional mutations must be acquired for clonal expansion and malignant transformation.

We noted that many previous studies rarely discuss the actual VAF of *GATA1* mutations in ML-DS patients due to the fact that enrichment of *GATA1* mutations was done by denaturing high-performance liquid chromatography followed by direct Sanger sequencing, which reveals the presence or absence of a mutation with a detection limit of \sim 5%, but offers relatively low sensitivity to the true diagnostic VAF estimation^{159,160,166}. Other studies used whole-genome or whole-exome sequencing approaches^{167,172}, that have a limit of detection at around 0.02 VAF, therefore also precluding comprehensive examination of low VAF mutations. Our ECS approach enabled us to estimate VAF of rare subclonal mutations in an unbiased fashion. With this, we showed that more than half of the *GATA1*-mutated clones were minor subclones. This is consistent with prior data suggesting that minor *GATA1* mutated clones might exert their impact in malignant transformation via non-cell-autonomous regulation¹⁷³. Specifically, we posit that the minor *GATA1* mutated clones create a perturbed hematopoietic clonal architecture by modulating the production and secretion of cytokines¹⁷⁴. This would in turn promote oligoclonal cooperation175,176. In fact, these *GATA1*-mutated minor clones were significantly enriched for germline variants associated with hematologic malignancies in genes such as *TP53* and *CSF3R*, suggesting a potential mechanism of functional cooperativity in malignant transformation. Recently, Labuhn and colleages (2019)¹⁷² demonstrated the cooperative nature between *Gata1*

mutations and several other clonal variants in genes such as *Trp53* in murine models to promote oncogenic transformation from transient abnormal myelopoiesis to ML-DS.

When we examined the mutation landscape of CH between younger and older HDS individuals, we found that older HDS individuals displayed a more 'adult-like' CH signature. Interestingly, this shift in mutation landscape seemed to coincide with the age-related change in ML-DS risk in DS children, suggesting that the hematopoietic clones present during the risk window of ML-DS has either become quiescent or been exhausted by age 4. These results also support the notion that certain genes exert varying effect sizes during different developmental time windows¹⁷⁷, and mutations in genes that are functionally relevant during a specific context would be more prone to selection pressures. In addition, it has been previously demonstrated DS patients exhibit an accelerated aging phenotype in blood cells¹⁷⁸. A separate study that examined CH in healthy blood donors (median age 26) using the same gene panel found that 44% of their cohort harbored at least one somatic mutation¹²⁹. Despite a much younger cohort, CH was found in approximately 20% higher number of individuals in the HDS group. Therefore, it stands to reason that the higher-than-expected prevalence of CH could partially be the result of this accelerated aging where mutations would be more frequent.

In summary, we presented a comprehensive characterization of the leukemia-associated and physiologic CH in DS children with or without ML-DS. Our data provide insight into the role of *GATA1* mutated clones in ML-DS and age-related leukemia risk in DS based on CH. As such, detailed molecular and mechanistic studies are warranted to assess the utility of detecting ML-DS specific mutations as early detection biomarkers, and to elucidate the pathogenicity of oligoclonal interactions.

Figure 5.1: Characteristics of clonal mutations detected by ECS in ML-DS and HDS \leq 4yo. Proportion of individuals with detected SNVs. ML-DS cohort was significantly more likely to arbor somatic mutations(s) compared to HDS \leq 4yo. (B) Prevalence of GATAT mutations in \mathbf{F} below the FISH \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{F} also were significantly enriched in complex \mathbf{F} ML-DS using different ECS methods. (C) Mutation spectrum of ML-DS and HDS ≤4yo as \mathcal{L} **b** and **count to blast count to VAF of detections in** \mathcal{L} **music in** \mathcal{L} **mutations in** \mathcal{L} detected by ECS-panel. *EZH2* mutations were significantly enriched in ML-DS (denoted as *; p-Figure 5.1: Characteristics of clonal mutations detected by ECS in ML-DS and HDS \leq 4yo. (A) harbor somatic mutations(s) compared to HDS \leq 4yo. (B) Prevalence of *GATA1* mutations in Figure 5.1: Characteristics
Proportion of individuals w
harbor somatic mutations(s value=0.025; two-sided Fisher's exact test). Mutations in cohesin complex genes also were significantly enriched in ML-DS compared to HDS ≤4yo (denoted as **; p-value=0.0059; twosided Fisher's exact Test).

Figure 5.2: *GATA1* mutations detected at diagnosis with $0.3 - 0.6$ VAF decreased in frequency at end-of-induction (EO1).

Figure 5.3: Mutation burden and mutation VAFs were significantly higher in ML-DS relative to age-matched HDS. (A) Number of somatic mutations per individual in ML-DS and HDS<4. ML-DS patients had significantly higher number of somatic mutations compared to HDS<4 patients (p-value=0.0024, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test). (B) Log2-tranformed VAFs of somatic mutations in ML-DS and HDS<4. Mutations in ML-DS had significantly higher VAFs compared to those in HDS<4 (p-value=0.0007, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

Figure 5.4: Characterization of *GATA1*-mutated clones in ML-DS. (A) Log2 ratio of blast count to VAF of detected *GATA1* mutations in ML-DS. *GATA1* mutations with hemizygosity-adjusted VAF at ≥0.8 of blast count were considered somatic drivers. (B) Presence or absence of germline variants associated hematological malignancies in ML-DS patients with either minor or major *GATA1* clones. Patients with minor *GATA1* clone were significantly enriched for pathological germline variants in hematological malignancies (one-sided Fisher's exact test).

Figure 5.5: Characteristics of clonal mutations detected by ECS in HDS >4yo and HDS ≤4yo.

Chr	Start	Ref	Alt	Gene	Type	AA_change	cosmic84	VAF1	VAF2	SampleID
chrX	15838398	${\bf G}$	$\mathbf T$	ZRSR2	missense	p.C299F	NA	0.003407	0.001749	PAYMAA
chrX	15826455	${\bf G}$	$\mathbf T$	ZRSR2	intronic	NA	NA	0.001391	0.001754	PAXDWD
chr11	32414263	${\bf G}$	A	WT1	nonsense	p.R413X	COSM5879212	0.02517	0.024555	PAYEDK
chr11	32414268	$\mathbf C$	$\mathbf T$	WT1	missense	p.C411Y	NA	0.019362	0.018562	PAXFXA
chr2	61456161	$\mathbf T$	A	USP34	intronic	NA	NA	0.001348	0.001288	PAYESF
chr2	61434005	$\mathbf T$	${\bf G}$	USP34	missense	p.H2979P	NA	0.000655	0.001632	PAXWGU
chr2	61416091	$\mathbf C$	$\mathbf T$	USP34	silent	p.Q3329Q	NA	0.002099	0.002442	PAXWGU
chr7	98555680	$\mathbf C$	$\mathbf T$	TRRAP	missense	p.T2078I	NA	0.001249	0.001712	PAXWWR
chr7	138263867	A	${\bf G}$	TRIM24	intronic	NA	NA	0.016851	0.008269	PAYDAB2
chr17	7577058	C	T	TP53	missense	p.E162K	COSM44127	0.001689	0.001571	PAYFBR
chr17	7577556	$\mathbf C$	G	TP53	missense	p.C110S	COSM1610838	0.001573	0.003146	PAXVDU
chr4	106155325	C	T	TET ₂	missense	p.P76S	NA	0.00084	0.000639	PAYFXP
chr4	106157266	$\mathbf C$	A	TET ₂	missense	p.P723T	NA	0.000515	0.00051	PAYALA
chrX	123210285	G	T	STAG2	missense	p.M879I	NA	0.002242	0.001761	PAYUHP
chrX	123197045	${\bf G}$	$\mathbf C$	STAG2	missense	p.R604P	NA	0.08064	0.090841	PAYTYB
chrX	123179197	$\mathbf C$	T	STAG2	nonsense	p.R216X	COSM1315170	0.224804	0.242605	PAYFYM
chrX	123196997	$\mathbf T$	A	STAG2	nonsense	p.L588X	COSM164630	0.001765	0.001812	PAXWGU
chrX	123220692	T	A	STAG2	intronic	NA	NA	0.002255	0.002548	PAXDWD
chr17	74732959	${\bf G}$	$\mathbf C$	SRSF ₂	missense	p.P95R	COSM211661	0.057782	0.05022	PAYDAB1
chr16	30734891	C	T	SRCAP	intronic	NA	NA	0.001657	0.001249	PAXWGU
chr16	30734639	T	A	SRCAP	intronic	NA	NA	0.001169	0.001539	PAXWGU
chr16	30735969	$\mathbf C$	A	SRCAP	missense	p.P1742T	NA	0.00061	0.001069	PAXWGU
chr16	30735315	$\mathbf C$	A	SRCAP	missense	p.P1524T	NA	0.000541	0.000626	PAXDWD
chr11	47381625	T	A	SPI1	intronic	NA	NA	0.001436	0.002198	PAYESF
chr3	47144958	A	T	SETD ₂	intronic	NA	NA	0.001299	0.001402	PAXWGU
chr3	47158212	$\mathbf C$	T	SETD ₂	missense	p.R1452Q	COSM1045469	0.00136	0.001805	PAXWGU
chr3	47125361	A	$\mathbf T$	SETD ₂	missense	p.L1926Q	NA	0.002687	0.0039	PAXWGU

Table 5.1: Detected somatic mutations in ML-DS via ECS in the 80-gene panel.

Chr	Start	Ref	Alt	Gene	Type	AA change	cosmic84	VAF1	VAF ₂	SampleID
chr7	103131160	\mathcal{C}	T	RELN	missense	p.S3187N	NA	0.001188	0.001468	HDS18
chr4	187538996	G	A	FAT1	missense	p.P2915L	NA	0.000924	0.000776	HDS2
chr7	103389876	A	G	RELN	missense	p.I218T	NA	0.004488	0.005849	HDS30
chr3	128206002	G	A	GATA2	intronic	NA	NA	0.005278	0.007939	HDS35
chr17	15971493	T	A	NCOR1	intronic	NA	NA	0.000926	0.000732	HDS35
chr7	50468074	C	A	IKZF1	missense	p.L437M	NA	0.00117	0.00273	HDS36
chrX	15818060	\mathcal{C}	T	ZRSR2	silent	p.L63L	NA	0.002199	0.002697	HDS36
chr4	187542884	A	T	FAT1	missense	p.I1619N	NA	0.000636	0.001024	HDS9
chr7	138252230	C	T	TRIM24	missense	p.P512L	COSM2859869	0.016165	0.014275	HDS9
chrX	76888771	A	$\mathbf T$	ATRX	nonsense	p.Y1686X	NA	0.001206	0.001461	HDS9
chr2	25965069	G	A	ASXL2	silent	p.G1379G	NA	0.001173	0.000978	HDS69
chr4	187541362	G	A	FAT1	silent	p.H2126H	NA	0.001148	0.000902	HDS69
chr2	25467492	G	A	DNMT3A	silent	p.Y528Y	NA	0.003418	0.008104	HDS80
chr5	180056186	G	A	FLT4	intronic	NA	NA	0.000741	0.000621	HDS69
chr11	119169197	\mathcal{C}	A	CBL	missense	p.S794Y	NA	0.002097	0.002268	HDS60
chr2	198267442	G	A	SF3B1	silent	p.L639L	NA	0.000992	0.007003	HDS79
chr16	30750051	G	A	SRCAP	missense	p.G2897E	NA	0.001582	0.005455	HDS79
chrX	15833881	G	A	ZRSR2	silent	p.02130	NA	0.001338	0.001003	HDS69
chr17	10354146	G	A	MYH4	missense	p.A1311V	NA	0.000727	0.000683	HDS69
chr17	7689552	$\mathbf C$	T	DNAH ₂	silent	p.T2080T	NA	0.001261	0.002762	HDS60
chr ₂	25966728	А	G	ASXL2	silent	p.S826S	NA	0.000502	0.00057	HDS69
chr ₂	25965659	C	A	ASXL2	nonsense	p.E1183X	NA	0.002808	0.003299	HDS60
chrX	48649831	T	$\mathbf C$	GATA1	intronic	NA	NA	0.000632	0.00082	HDS18
chrX	48649706	AG	A	GATA1	frame_shift_del	NA	NA	0.002	0.0025	HDS23

Table 5.2: Detected somatic mutations in HDS ≤4yo via ECS in the 80-gene panel.

Chr	Start	Ref	Alt	Gene	Type AA_change cosmic84		VAF1	VAF2	SampleID	
chr13	28608283	G	A	FLT3	silent	p.Y591Y	COSM6494228	0.500339	0.490453	PAVZTK
chr1	36932047	C	$\mathbf T$	CSF3R	missense	p.E835K	COSM5762855	0.481907	0.478406	PAXCGV
chr12	11905432	G	$\mathbf C$	ETV ₆	missense	p.A28P	COSM5945248	0.492006	0.507824	PAXFXA
chr2	25470960	G	A	DNMT3A	silent	p.S267S	COSM6495452	0.503858	0.487982	PAXUDJ
chr17	7579579	C	T	TP53	silent	p.P36P	COSM6474190	0.528612	0.470927	PAXUTK
chr6	41908122	G	A	CCND ₃	missense	p.P134S	COSM6495114	0.999773	1	PAXVDP
chr21	36259308	C	$\mathbf T$	RUNX1	silent	p.P61P	COSM6494711	0.325572	0.290361	PAXVDP
chr ₆	41903706	G	A	CCND ₃	missense	p.P284L	COSM220537	0.422444	0.432896	PAXVEZ
chr6	41903706	G	A	CCND ₃	missense	p.P284L	COSM220537	0.422444	0.432896	PAXVEZ
chr12	25378562	C	T	KRAS	missense	p.A146T	COSM1165198	0.377026	0.374139	PAXVEZ
chr4	187628248	C	T	FAT1	missense	p.V912I	COSM1717643	0.485451	0.48827	PAXWWR
chr12	25378561	G	A	KRAS	missense	p.A146V	COSM19900	0.416401	0.424791	PAXZJL
chr6	41903798	C	A	CCND ₃	missense	p.E253D	COSM5019335	0.463646	0.521831	PAYACG
chr11	32456784	C	G	WT1	silent	p.P36P	COSM6494045	0.492644	0.506854	PAYFXP
chr9	139399132	C	$\mathbf T$	NOTCH1	missense	p.V1671I	COSM33750	0.564286	0.553021	PAYFXP
chr1	36932047	C	T	CSF3R	missense	p.E835K	COSM5762855	0.459792	0.470022	PAYLBLS
chr3	128200072	C	T	GATA2	silent	p.A411A	COSM5019736	0.527926	0.502423	PAYTYB
chr16	3779115	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	CREBBP	missense	p.N1978S	COSM96469	0.482854	0.506611	PAYWJJ
chr2	25470960	G	A	DNMT3A	silent	p.S267S	COSM6495452	0.496782	0.493492	PAYWJJ
chr17	29483108	C	T	NF1	silent	p.S56S	COSM6494460	0.505213	0.494312	PAYWKB
chr17	7578210	T	\mathcal{C}	TP53	silent	p.R174R	COSM1741225	0.502452	0.484384	PAYWKB
chr17	29483108	C	T	NF1	silent	p.S56S	COSM6494460	0.486188	0.500268	PAYXGX
chr6	41903798	C	A	CCND ₃	missense	p.E253D	COSM5019335	0.495353	0.478406	PAYXGX

Table 5.3: Germline variants in ML-DS that were associated with hematologic malignancies.

Chr	Start	Ref	Alt	Gene	Type	AA_change cosmic84		VAF1	VAF2	SampleID
chr7	138263948	G	A	TRIM24	splicing	NA NA		0.000804	0.000768	HDS12
chr4	187541859	С	T	FAT1	missense	p.G1961S	COSM6476268	0.002297	0.001839	HDS13
chr4	187539902	G	А	FAT1	missense	p.T2613I	NA		0.001794	HDS13
chr7	148523620	A	T	EZH ₂	nonsense	p.L278X	NA	0.000623	0.001059	HDS13
chr9	139399592	С	T	NOTCH1	intronic	NA	NA 0.001253		0.001624	HDS13
chr11	118343104	С	T	KMT2A	silent	p.I410I NA		0.000552	0.000653	HDS13
chr7	98548005	T	А	TRRAP	intronic	NA	NA	0.002158	0.001269	HDS13
chr4	55575653	A	T	KIT	silent	p.L393L	NA	0.000838	0.001198	HDS13
chr18	42531941	С	A	SETBP1	missense	p.S879Y	NA	0.001055	0.001616	HDS13
chr1	36932392	T	A	CSF3R	missense	p.I693F	NA	0.001723	0.002951	HDS13
chr19	13414459	C	T	CACNA1A	intronic	NA	NA	0.000923	0.001184	HDS13
chr17	10353805	G	А	MYH4	silent	p.D1382D	COSM6719421	0.002608	0.00205	HDS14
chr2	198267794	A	G	SF3B1	intronic	NA	NA	0.000589	0.001035	HDS16
chr5	180056395	G	А	FLT4	silent	p.R283R	NA	0.000603	0.000984	HDS16
chr7	135333248	T	C	NUP205	missense	p.F1995L	NA	0.000568	0.000862	HDS16
chrX	123179279	T	А	STAG2	intronic	NA	NA	0.000972	0.001371	HDS16
chr12	112915556	G	C	PTPN11	intronic	NA	NA	0.001572	0.002603	HDS16
chr4	106155246	T	A	TET ₂	missense	p.N49K	NA	0.001049	0.001938	HDS16
chr7	103205782	G	А	RELN	missense	p.T1718I	NA		0.000902	HDS16
chrX	76939099	С	T	ATRX	missense	p.S550N	NA		0.001585	HDS16
chrX	76938808	A	T	ATRX	missense	p.L647H	NA	0.000516	0.001844	HDS16
chrX	76938295	T	C	ATRX	missense	p.D818G	NA		0.000682	HDS16
chr3	47147554	G	C	SETD ₂	missense	p.A1591G	NA		0.001179	HDS16
chr ₆	41908193	G	C	CCND ₃	missense	p.A110G	NA		0.001078	HDS16
chr20	31023553	G	T	ASXL1	missense	p.S1013I	NA	0.000524	0.001676	HDS16
chr16	30750189	С	A	SRCAP	missense	p.P2943H	NA	0.000503	0.001026	HDS16
chr16	15835387	A	T	MYH11	missense	p.L938Q	NA	0.000536	0.000865	HDS16
chrX	15827423	С	T	ZRSR2	missense	p.A180V	NA	0.000745	0.001205	HDS16
chr12	11803214	G	A	ETV6	intronic	NA	NA	0.000701	0.001298	HDS16
chr17	11592972	C	T	DNAH9	missense	p.S1278F	COSM3514081	0.003148	0.010101	HDS16
chr17	7667524	C	T	DNAH ₂	missense	p.T1090I	NA	0.000506	0.001007	HDS16
chr4	187540946	G	A	FAT1	missense	p.A2265V	NA		0.000591	HDS17
chr4	187540339	C	T	FAT1	silent	p.V2467V	NA	0.001098	0.001416	HDS17
chr4	153249452	T	C	FBXW7	silent	p.T442T	NA	0.000705	0.00079	HDS17
chr7	103214814	C	G	RELN	intronic	NA	NA	0.00074	0.001029	HDS17
chr4	106162534	С	T	TET ₂	missense	p.H1150Y	NA	0.000933	0.001044	HDS22
chrX	44921863	A	T	KDM6A	intronic	NA	NA	0.001962	0.001361	HDS22
chr13	28592669	T	C	FLT3	missense	p.K826E	NA	0.000685	0.000521	HDS27
chr2	198267820	G	A	SF3B1	intronic	NA	NA	0.001187	0.001046	HDS29

Table 5.4: Detected somatic mutations in HDS >4yo via ECS in the 80-gene panel.

Chapter 6: NF1-glioblastoma multi-region clonal profiling

Note: This chapter is published at *Neurology* as of thesis submission (Wong *et al.* 2019)¹⁷⁹. I conceptualized the manuscript together with Drs. David Gutmann and Todd Druley. I generated, processed, and analyzed the data. I wrote the published manuscript in its entirety with comments from co-authors, and generated the figures. Materials from the manuscript were re-formatted and re-used in writing this chapter.

6.1 Introduction

Neurofibromatosis Type 1 (NF1) is an inherited autosomal dominant cancer predisposition syndrome¹⁸⁰, and it is generally diagnosed in children by age 8 years¹⁸¹. Patients with NF1 are characterized genetically by a germline mutation in the *NF1* tumor suppressor gene which encodes a cytoplasmic protein called neurofibromin. This protein acts as a negative regulator of RAS oncogene^{182,183}. The germline loss of this gene leads to an increase in oncogenic RAS activity, thereby causing unopposed cell proliferation via activation of downstream MAPK and mTOR signaling pathways^{184,185}. Affected children typically present with multiple café-au-lait macules, intertriginous freckling, osseous lesions and Lisch nodules^{182,183}. When these children reach adulthood, nearly all of them would develop benign neurofibromas on the peripheral nerve sheath¹⁸⁶. Children and adults with NF1 are also more prone to developing malignant low-grade neoplasms such as optic and brainstem gliomas^{187,188}. Among these NF1-associated neoplasms, high-grade glioblastoma (GBM) is rare, as it constitutes only approximately 2% of all malignant gliomas reported in NF1 patients^{189,190}.

While thus rare, the incidence of GBM is at least 5-folds higher in NF1 patients than in individuals without NF1 in the general population¹⁹¹. Notably, NF1-GBM tends to arise decades earlier relative to its sporadic counterparts¹⁸⁰. In addition, in contrast to its non-syndromic GBM, NF1-GBM is presumed to arise in the setting of bi-allelic *NF1* inactivation (germline variant and a subsequent somatic mutation) $192,193$.

Since GBM are rare in patients with NF1, the limited number of cases reported has precluded a comprehensive analysis of tumor ontogeny and evolution. Most cases were reported as a single case study detailing the clinical features, but these reports generally lacked disease ontogeny analysis based on genetics or genomics¹⁹⁴⁻¹⁹⁶. The largest cohort study with genomics analysis to date included 13 cases of $NFI-GBM¹⁹²$, and the authors performed whole-exome sequencing on a single neoplastic sample for each of these cases. However, single-region sequencing generally lacks the resolution needed to uncover intra-tumor genetic diversity on a spatial scale in solid cancers¹⁹⁷. Herein, we leveraged a unique opportunity in which intratumoral samples from multiple brain lesions were obtained at autopsy from a 27-year-old young adult male with a clinical diagnosis of generalized NF1 (established at 3 years of age) who subsequently died from GBM. Specifically, we performed multi-region samplings within the same lesions in order to facilitate investigation into the spatial heterogeneity and genetic diversity. Contrary to the "2-hit hypothesis" of malignant gliomagenesis in the NFI gene^{182,193}, we found that the *NF1* somatic mutation was acquired subclonally at a later stage of disease progression. On the other hand, mutations in *KMT2B* were implicated in the founding clone.

6.2 Materials and Methods

6.2.1 Patient information

The patient was a 27-year-old male who had his NF1 diagnosed at the age of 3. When this patient initially presented with behavioral changes, neuroimaging revealed a bi-thalamic tumor (Figure 6.1), which was pathologically classified as a World Health Organization (WHO) grade IV astrocytoma (GBM) by stereotactic biopsy. This patient was then treated with concurrent temozolomide and cranial radiation, followed by temozolomide and Bevacizumab chemotherapy. Within two years, he exhibited progressive tumor growth, and developed a new enhancing lesion in the right parietal lobe and increased tumor infiltration in the cerebellum, and subsequently in the cerebral hemispheres and brainstem. The patient died 39 months after initial diagnosis.

6.2.2 Whole-exome sequencing analysis

Multi-region intra-tumoral samples were obtained wherever possible at autopsy, from different brain regions with neoplastic involvement, including thalamus (four independent samples), anterior commissure (two independent samples), septum pellucidum (two independent samples), amygdala (two independent samples), and cerebellum (one sample). One representative non-malignant brain sample was also harvested to serve as a non-neoplastic tissue control to distinguish somatic mutations from germline variants. Following DNA extraction, whole-exome sequencing libraries were generated using Agilent SureSelect Clinical Research Exome V2 chemistry and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 3000 platform.

Both somatic and germline variants were independently called using two programs, VarScan 2^{120} and Strelka¹⁹⁸, using default parameters. Genomic positions with less than 20x coverage were filtered. High-confidence variants independently called by both callers were retained for further analysis. For variants identified by both methods only in subsets of

sequenced samples, further manual curation was performed to check for the presence of these variants in all other samples using bam files and filtered calls (Figure 6.2). This secondary screen was performed in order to ascertain whether the absence of variants in some samples was not due to technical issues in variant calling. In many cases, variants were excluded by one program, but not by the other, due to different statistical frameworks applied, as well as the relatively low coverage of the genomic position. These variants were further checked against the data from the normal tissue sample for absence of alternate supporting reads. Variants curated in this fashion were added to the final dataset for downstream analysis. Copy number analysis was performed with VarScan2 and titanCNA¹⁹⁹ using recommended parameters. Tumor purity was estimated with titanCNA, and the variant allele frequency (VAF) of somatic mutations was adjusted for tumor purity. Evolutionary history of tumor subpopulations was reconstructed using PhyloWGS²⁰⁰ with the variant outputs in Strelka and titanCNA VCF format. A total of 1000 trees per iteration were generated in four separate iterations, and the best tree identified by the program was selected for downstream analysis. Evolutionary trajectories of tumor subpopulations with cellular contribution \geq 0.05 were examined²⁰¹. The reconstructed trees were then heuristically processed, such that the intermediate parent/daughter nodes containing the same exact tumor sites with cellular contribution ≥ 0.05 were merged. Putative pathogenicity of variants was assessed using CADD score¹³⁸. Mutations with CADD score $>$ 20 are considered to be top 1% most deleterious across the genome.

6.3 Results

Whole-exome sequencing (mean depth 131.7x after data processing) was performed, revealing pathogenic germline variants in the *IDH1* (c.G532A; p.V178I; COSM97131; CADD

score $= 25.1$) and *NF1* (c.C7285T; p.R2429^{*}) genes, the latter confirming a diagnosis of NF1. Additionally, non-synonymous somatic mutations, not seen in non-neoplastic tissue, were identified in six pan-cancer driver genes²⁰² (Figure 6.3; Table 6.1). Of these, only the nonsense and missense *KMT2B* mutations (NM_014727; p.E1799*, CADD score = 47; and p.Q1683H, CADD score = 22.2) were shared across all tumor samples at estimated mean variant allele frequencies (VAF) of 0.31 and 0.25, respectively, after adjusting for tumor purity (Figure 6.3). In addition, the *KMT2B* locus was also amplified in all neoplastic samples (Figure 6.4). Importantly, the somatic *NF1* mutation (p.Y2141H) was only found in samples from the anterior commissure, septum pellucidum, amygdala and one specific thalamic site (T4) (Figure 6.3).

To interrogate the temporal sequence of somatic mutations acquisition, the evolutionary history of tumor subpopulations was reconstructed using PhyloWGS²⁰⁰. The *KMT2B* mutations were inferred to be the founding somatic events in this individual (Figure 6.5). Consistent with the patient's initial clinical presentation, the thalamus was inferred to be the site of origin. We identified intra-tumoral heterogeneity amongst the four thalamic samples, with only thalamus site 4 (T4) being mainly responsible for the spread of tumor cells to the amygdala, anterior commissure and septum pellucidum. The tumor at T4 secondarily acquired additional missense somatic mutations in other pan-cancer driver genes, including *NF1* and *PIK3R1* (Figure 6.5), demonstrating that *NF1* somatic mutation occur late in the progression of this individual's GBM.

6.4 Discussion

Our data diverged from the commonly held "2-hit hypothesis" in NF1 gliomagenesis^{182,193}. Since NF1 patients already have a germline loss of function variant in the *NF1* gene, the second hit in the "2-hit hypothesis" refers to an acquired somatic mutation in *NF1* on the other allele that leads to a *NF1*-null clone. This loss of heterozygosity leads to increased RAS oncogenic activity, which in turn drives malignant transformation. However, we demonstrated that somatic *NF1* mutation was only present in a subset of neoplastic samples at relatively low VAFs, suggesting that *NF1* bi-allelic loss was not the primary molecular alteration, but rather a late subclonal event. This observation was further substantiated by the tumor phylogenetic analysis that showed the thalamic tumor at site T4 had secondarily acquired the somatic *NF1* mutation, demonstrating that the somatic *NF1* mutation was acquired subclonally during disease progression of this patient's GBM, and was likely responsible for tumor spreading rather than initial transformation. This molecular ontology analysis provides a proof-of-concept demonstration that some gliomagenesis-associated events (*i.e*., *KMT2B* mutation/amplification) occur prior to *NF1* bi-allelic inactivation, and may be sufficient to drive gliomagenesis in a *NF1* heterozygous background. Consistent with this conclusion, mouse modeling experiments have suggested that *Tp53* loss precedes *Nf1* loss, such that *Nf1* loss before *Tp53* inactivation does not result in malignant glioma formation²⁰³.

KMT2B (Lysine Methyltransferase 2B) is a chromatin remodeling protein that catalyzes H3K4 mono-methylation primarily at promoters. While recurrently mutated in several different tumor types, including grade II and III gliomas²⁰⁴, only eleven *KMT2B* mutations have been reported in TCGA GBM samples (\sim 2% of cases), scattered across the coding region²⁰⁵ (Figure 6.6), and none were detected in the largest series of GBM from adults with NF1. Recently, there have been discussions about the implications of chromatin remodeling defects in tumorigenesis of glioblastoma^{176,206,207}. It has been suggested that even a small subpopulation of cells $(\langle 1\% \rangle)$ with inactivating defect in another histone methyltransferase *KMT5B* could exert profound effects on tumorigenesis of pediatric glioblastoma by modulating non-cell autonomous

chemokine releases via epigenetic regulation of certain gene expressions¹⁷⁶. It therefore stands to reason that a loss of *KMT2B* as presented in this case may have similar effects by altering the chromatin landscape and changing gene expression patterns. It is also important to note that this patient had an *IDH1* germline variant that is associated with malignancies. Although the precise role of *IDH1* variants in tumorigenesis remains uncertain²⁰⁸, it has been previously shown that some *IDH1* mutations promote the production of the oncogenic metabolite R-2 hydroxyglutarate, which is involved in chromatin remodeling²⁰⁹. Taken together, this case alludes to the importance of chromatin dysregulation in gliomagenesis, and that a loss of chromatin remodeling protein (i.e. *KMT2B*) could drive initial transformation and promote tumor instability. Future mechanistic studies will be required to determine whether *KMT2B* alterations drive gliomagenesis by themselves or in the setting of heterozygous *NF1* genetic background.

We acknowledge that our study was limited to a single anecdotal case, although the results were compelling and relevant to those working on NF1-associated tumors. In all likelihood, this patient's tumor ontogeny pathway may be a rare exception rather than a general rule. However, we posit that the fraction of NF1-associated gliomas driven by non-*NF1* somatic alterations is, at the very least, not low. It is generally difficult to obtain post-mortem brain autopsy samples especially from rare diseases 210 , and there has not been any comprehensive and systematic study examining spatial heterogeneity of these GBM brain lesions due to a lack of multi-region intra-tumoral samples. When these obstacles are overcome, we believe we would begin to observe alternative route to NF1 gliomagenesis at a relatively high frequency.

In summary, we demonstrated that somatic *KMT2B* alterations were likely the primary oncogenic events in a young man with NF1-GBM, and that *NF1* bi-allelic loss was not required for initial malignant transformation. This case also highlights the importance of establishing

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tumor ontogeny by multi-region clonal profiling, because the temporal sequence and spatial divergence of somatic events could influence gliomagenesis and progression respectively.

Figure 6.1: MRI neuroimaging of the 27 years old patient revealed bi-thalamic tumors which were subsequently classified as glioblastoma upon biopsy.

Figure 6.2: The presence and absence of *NF1* somatic mutations in the sequenced samples. The aligned bam file for each sample was manually checked, and viewed in the IGV browser to confirm the status of the mutation in all samples. Gray-colored bars indicate wild type (without mutation) alleles. Red- and blue-colored bars indicate the presence of mutant allele, with red representing wild type thymine and blue representing mutant cytosine.

somatic mutation was present in all tumor samples, but not in the non-neoplastic brain control. non-synon<u>y</u> *KMT2B* mutation (\bullet). Somatic non-synonymous mutations in other known GBM driver genes somatic mutation was present in all tumor samples, but not in the non-neoplastic brain contro
All sequenced tumor samples also harbored a missense (p.Q1683H) and a silent (p.L1645L) (i.e., *NF1* and *PIK3R1* mutations), were present only in some of the tumor samples.

Figure 6.4: Copy number status of *KMT2B* gene locus. The gene locus has been amplified in all malignant samples (blue arrow). The y-axis represents copy number log2-ratio of tumor over normal samples. The x-axis represents genomic positions along chromosome 19. Note that the copy number gain status is not obvious in cerebellum sample given the resizing of the images, but the gain status is indicated by the copy number segment median above a log2-ratio of zero (red color lines in the plot). Cerebellum sample also has a normal cell contamination rate of 77% (as measured by titanCNA), which would have diluted the copy number gain signal.

Figure 6.5: Phylogenetic tree depicting the evolutionary trajectory of different tumor subpopulations. Each node denotes a tumor subpopulation. Thalamic tumors contained only subpopulations that form the higher nodes, indicating an ancestral relationship with other subpopulations. The nonsense and missense *KMT2B* mutations were inferred to be the founding events, while somatic missense mutations in other pan-cancer driver genes were subclonally acquired in thalamic site 4 (T4) lineage. Tumor subpopulations at amygdala (Am), anterior commissure (AC) and septum pellucidum (SP) were similar in terms of mutation profiles, suggesting spread from T4. Only amino acid-changing mutations are shown.

Figure 6.6: Non-synonymous *KMT2B* mutations present in this patient (top) and in non-*NF1*mutant TCGA GBM (bottom) are depicted. This individual harbored a premature stop codon before the SET domain of *KMT2B*, presumably inactivating its histone methytransferase activity, and resulting in epigenetic dysregulation.

Chr	Start	End	Ref	Mut	Gene	Type	AA_change	VAF	ID	
chr14	105236497	105236497	C	G	AKT1	UTR3	NA	0.379029079	Amygdala_1	
chr14	105236497	105236497	С	G	AKT1	UTR3	NA	0.425139086	Septum Pellucidum_2	
chr14	105236497	105236497	С	G	AKT1	UTR3	NA	0.125372536	Thalamus_4	
chr14	105236497	105236497	С	G	AKT1	UTR3	NA	0.466999918	Anterior Commissure 2	
chr14	105236497	105236497	C	G	AKT1	UTR3	NA	0.395225112	Septum Pellucidum_1	
chr14	105236497	105236497	C	G	AKT1	UTR3	NA	0.347559265	Anterior Commissure_1	
chr ₂	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.379029079	Amygdala_1	
chr2	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.383123717	Thalamus_1	
chr ₂	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.19221086	Amygdala_2	
chr2	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.259084761	Septum Pellucidum_2	
chr2	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.297439944	Thalamus 4	
chr2	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.09271428	Thalamus _{_3}	
chr ₂	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.337543196	Anterior Commissure_2	
chr2	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.238882378	Septum Pellucidum_1	
chr2	202134155	202134155	T	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.264211938	Thalamus ₂	
chr2	202134155	202134155	Τ	G	CASP8	intronic	NA	0.233496823	Anterior Commissure 1	
chr12	56488328	56488328	Α	G	ERBB3	missense	p.N616S	0.262999769	Amygdala_1	
chr12	56488328	56488328	Α	G	ERBB3	missense	p.N616S	0.164011003	Septum Pellucidum_2	
chr12	56488328	56488328	Α	G	ERBB3	missense	p.N616S	0.248443956	Anterior Commissure 2	
chr12	56488328	56488328	Α	G	ERBB3	missense	p.N616S	0.169931538	Septum Pellucidum_1	
chr12	56488328	56488328	Α	G	ERBB3	missense	p.N616S	0.187212214	Anterior Commissure_1	
chr1	65321304	65321304	С	Τ	JAK1	silent	NA	0.140956747	Thalamus_1	
chr1	65321304	65321304	C	Τ	JAK1	silent	NA	0.039800805	Thalamus ₄	
chr1	65321304	65321304	C	Τ	JAK1	silent	NA	0.096436386	Thalamus _{_3}	
chr1	65321304	65321304	C	Τ	JAK1	silent	NA	0.324822355	Thalamus ₂	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	C	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.285290705	Amygdala_1	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	C	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.351452156	Thalamus_1	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	C	KMT2B	silent	ΝA	0.281962212	Amygdala_2	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	С	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.210816392	Septum Pellucidum 2	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	C	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.192690794	Thalamus 4	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	C	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.656354699	Thalamus 3	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	С	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.237745413	Anterior Commissure 2	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	С	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.709044692	Cerebellum	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	С	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.22609042	Septum Pellucidum 1	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	С	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.271607183	Thalamus 2	
chr19	36220885	36220885	G	С	KMT2B	silent	NA	0.179337617	Anterior Commissure 1	
chr19	36220999	36220999	G	C	KMT2B	missense	p.Q1683H	0.29156083	Amygdala 1	
chr19	36220999	36220999	G	C	KMT2B	missense	p.Q1683H	0.422049533	Thalamus_1	
chr19	36220999	36220999	G	$\mathsf C$	KMT2B	missense	p.Q1683H	0.26817192	Amygdala_2	

Table 6.1: Pan-cancer driver somatic mutations observed in this patient at different tumor sites.

Chapter 7: Summary and conclusion

7.1 Future explorations in clonality of disease

The bulk of this thesis concerns clonal hematopoiesis in malignant and non-malignant settings. We demonstrated that clonal profiling; especially via longitudinal sampling is a powerful and informative way to quantitatively characterize the evolutionary trajectories of relevant somatic mutations implicated in various hematopoietic disorders and complex aging phenotypes. By correlating clonal profiles with clinical outcomes, we would gain further insights into disease ontogenies and associated pathogenic mechanisms. However, beyond what we have presented in this thesis, the causes and effects of clonal hematopoiesis in many other scenarios remain unclear.

An intriguing example for future investigation into hematopoietic clonality is sickle cell disease. Over the past few decades, improvements in treatment have led to an increased life expectancy among sickle cell anemia patients, such that many patients could now survive to an age where they are at risk for malignancies²¹¹. Recently, it has been demonstrated that AYA and, in general, female sickle cell patients have a 3-fold higher risk of developing myeloid leukemia relative to age-matched, non-sickle cell populations²¹². The clonality in these cases as well as the functional mechanism implicating a female-biased risk profile is not currently known. It is very likely that these sickle cell patients have vastly different clonal profiles such that certain clonal mutations could serve as biomarkers for early detection and risk stratification. The female-biased leukemia risk profile in sickle cell patients could also be associated with a X-linked genetic factor. It is therefore fascinating to think that there could be multiple seemingly different mechanisms converging into common pathways that drive leukemogenesis in patients with

different hematologic pre-conditions (i.e. dysregulated hematopoietic differentiation in DS versus sickle cell anemia).

In addition, our candidate gene data suggests that clonal hematopoiesis is present in approximately 30% of newborns, indicating that mutagenesis also occurs *in utero*. Given the limited number of genes studied in these experiments, the absolute number of newborns with CH is likely much higher. It is unknown if the DNA mutations were caused by mothers' exposure to environmental mutagens or are simply a by-product of stochastic errors during rapid developmental growth. More importantly, we do not know if newborns with clonal hematopoiesis are associated with a higher life-long risk of developing hematologic disorders relative to those born without clonal hematopoiesis. Collecting enough longitudinal samples to build a case control study would prove to be difficult because many hematologic diseases implicated by clonal hematopoiesis develop in individuals in their 50s – 70s, but it is essential as it would allow us to uncover the discrete steps that transform benign hematopoietic clones into pathogenic entities. One interesting observation made in our studies was that somatic mutations in *DNMT3A* and *TET2* seem to first arise in blood cells after 20 years of age. It is unclear why this is the case. One possibility is that the DNA changes in these epigenetic modifiers are the consequences stemming from exposure to specific external and environmental mutagens that are relevant to individuals during age $20s - 40s^{213}$. The mutated epigenetic modifiers would then change the epigenetic landscape, thus allowing an adaptive long-term phenotype to be established as a form of cellular plasticity without the cells having to incur too many permanent somatic alterations across the entire genome²¹⁴. This would also explain why there seems to be a positive selection for mutations in the epigenetic modifiers in older individuals. Identifying what

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these mutagens are would enable the population to reduce the exposure and the risk of further DNA alterations, and ultimately, the risk of leukemia development.

So far, although our approach enables us to characterize clonality with high sensitivity, it does not allow us to examine if multiple mutations present within the same individuals are colocalized within the same cell. Given that individuals without or without leukemia have similar mutation burden²⁷, and that some individuals with *DNMT3A* mutation at leukemogenic R882 amino acid residue do not develop leukemia³⁰, it is reasonable to conclude that multiple pathogenic mutations have to co-localize within the same cell to drive leukemogenesis. In order to do this, single-cell sequencing approaches have to be used. Despite, recent advances in singlecell sequencing technologies, RNA expression profiles are generally limited to sequencing of a small amount of the 5' or 3' end of the mRNA molecule, making allele-specific expression quantification untenable. For single cell DNA sequencing, the current number of target genes that can be sequenced simultaneously are quite limited, and single cell profiling of epigenetic changes are still nascent technologies^{$215,216$}. Thus, using a single cell approach to establish cancer ontology is not yet mature enough to address the necessary questions.

The hematopoietic system is ideal for studying clonal evolution since blood samples are routinely acquired from even healthy individuals during medical checkups. Conversely, it is more difficult to study clonality in other solid organs, and hence our understanding of clonality in normal solid tissues remains obscure. Following the concept of clonal hematopoiesis and with the advances in sequencing technologies, it has been shown that normal breast tissues in healthy individuals serially acquire somatic mutations, but the effects of these seemingly benign mutations in malignant transformation remained unclear²¹⁷. In another recent study, normal uterine endometrial epithelium samples were shown to share somatic mutations in *KRAS* and

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ARID1A with endometriotic epithelium that is widely considered to be the precursor of endometrial carcinoma²¹⁸. It is postulated that the cell of origin or the site of origin with these mutations determines the evolutionary trajectory of malignant transformation. Therefore, the characterization of clonality in solid organ systems is an important undertaking, and there are much more remain to be discovered.

7.2 Mathematical modeling of clonal trajectories

The democratization of sequencing has resulted in an explosion of sequencing data available to the general public and research community. Ironically, this did not immediately lead to cures for many human diseases, but instead it exposed the complexity of these diseases. Sequencing generally provides a static 'snapshot' perspective¹²⁵, and it is difficult to infer the evolutionary history of certain disease relevant genetic alterations without examining longitudinally collected samples, which is a challenge in itself. In light of this, mathematical modeling of disease pathogenicity has increasingly become relevant, and it enables us to examine complex biological and evolutionary processes when used in tandem with patient outcome data35,219. Recently, a model incorporating VAFs of somatic mutations in blood cells as a way to measure clonal fitness found that clonal hematopoiesis is shaped by positive selection, not drift 125 . This model will be a powerful starting point to investigate evolutionary trajectory of mutations found normal hematopoiesis over a longitudinal time window, and to possibly predict the risk future risk of leukemia with improved accuracy decades before diagnosis. Models that examined metastatic patterns in solid tumors via circulating tumor cell seeding pressure have also been attempted although these models did not take non-uniform fitness landscape into $account^{220,221}$. However, challenges remain with regards to modeling clonality in diseases. For

example, many models assume that tumors are composed of well-mixed populations of cells 222 . This is generally true in the hematopoietic system, but the solid malignancies are complicated by spatial intra-tumoral heterogeneity that has been demonstrated to influence tumor clonal dynamics²²³. As such, mathematical models that account for this feature would be particularly informative, especially if they are derived in tandem with multi-region intra-tumoral sequencing¹⁹⁷. In addition to the fitness landscape of genetic alterations, future models should also account for extrinsic and microenvironmental factors such as hypnosia and angiogenesis that are implicated in tumor progression²²⁴. Moreover, as many recent studies have shown, oligoclonal cooperation plays an important role in tumorigenesis in many cancer types. Modeling oligoclonal cooperation at this juncture might be difficult because we do not yet know a lot about this phenomenon, but one would expect that this is the logical next step to take once we could accurately account for clonal fitness in modeling disease trajectory.

7.3 Cell-tagging to investigate clonal evolution

The advances in single-cell sequencing technologies over the recent years have enabled the research community to interrogate complex biological processes with unparalleled resolution²²⁵. Earlier optimizations of the technology focused on eliminating batch effects, and increasing the number of cells that could be sequenced in a single run. With these, we are now able to examine the RNA profiles, DNA damages, and epigenetic changes within a single cell. However, the results from these single-cell sequencing were essentially still a 'snapshot' capture of the evolutionary trajectories of the cells, because it was hard to discern if the cells sequenced at a later time point came from the same clonal populations of cells sequenced prior²²⁵. Over the recent 2 years, an interesting development has emerged – tagging individual cells with some

forms of barcode (not unlike UMI in ECS)²²⁶⁻²²⁸ that would allow researchers to trace the cell fate of tagged cells *in vitro* or *in vivo* over a longitudinal timeline. In essence, cells sharing the same barcode is presumed to have arisen from the same ancestral cell. With this new development, it opens new doors to investigate clonal evolution of diseases. For example, one could tagged every cells in a heterogynous 3D tumor organoid model, and examine the clonal trajectories of cells with distinct genetic profiles. Does a minor clone accumulate more mutations in response to treatment as part of the biological processes in resistance development? If so, what genetic alterations were acquired? These are some of the questions that can be asked now, given the resolution afforded by single-cell sequencing in tandem with cell barcoding.

7.4 Conclusion

Upon reflection, it has been a humbling journey that we could study these questions that were previously thought to be either untenable or clinically insignificant, of course this is due to generous support from the patients and the agencies responsible for them. This work has enabled new knowledge pertaining to clonality in various disease states in the pediatric and AYA cohorts. In summary, we found that 1) clonal hematopoiesis was common among neonates and young adults; 2) clonal hematopoietic mutations were stable over time and could engraft recipients during hematopoietic stem cell transplantation; 3) Down syndrome children with or without leukemia had distinct clonal mutation profiles; 4) disease ontogeny in NF1-glioblastoma was not due to bi-allelic loss of the *NF1* gene in a patient whom we examined. We hope that others would continue to expand on our findings. The dissertation is the beginning of my future scientific adventure to study clonality with more depth.

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