

# Supplement to “Mutational mechanisms shaping the coding and non-coding genome of germinal center-derived B-cell lymphomas”

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## Supplementary Information

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### Samples and cohorts

The data shown in the main text of this manuscript is based on whole genome sequencing (WGS) data from 181 lymphomas, of which 179 had matched normal controls, of a cohort of adult patients from the ICGC MMML-seq consortium. Fig. S1 gives an overview of small variant statistics for this cohort, Suppl. Table 1 summarizes sample specific and QC data, and Suppl. Table 3 displays further statistics on mutational load. Another subgroup of the ICGC MMML-seq consortium consists of 39 pediatric Burkitt lymphomas (BLs) and one adult BL, of which also WGS with matched normal controls is available [1]. The BLs are further subgrouped into BL\_solid (28 cases), BL\_leukemia (9 cases) and BL\_pleura (3 cases). In order to increase statistical power, some of the discovery analyses presented in this manuscript were performed on a merged cohort containing all 219 samples enumerated above (Suppl. Table 2).

In the following, we call the cohort presented in this manuscript the non-BL cohort. For the main figures of the manuscript, the results obtained from the merged cohort were then reduced to and displayed only for the non-BL cohort. Complementary and matching Suppl. Figures display the data for the merged original cohort of the ICGC MMML-seq. This applied to the following correspondences:

- Fig. 2C – Fig. S3
- Fig. 4A – Fig. S12A

### Definition of switch regions in the IGH locus

In order to study enrichment and depletion patterns of mutational processes in gcBCL, a comprehensive annotation of the different parts of the IG loci is mandatory. Yet, to date, no genomic coordinates for the

switch regions in the constant part if IGH are available. Therefore, combining information from different sources (contigs stored in IMGT [2], annotated repeats) and genomic information extracted from our cohort (genomic coordinates of breakpoints of hallmark events, i.e. IG-MYC, IG-BCL2 or IG-BCL6 translocations, recombinations inside the IG-loci, and Ka-ROIs as extracted from the analysis of SNV density), we derive and propose consensus coordinates for the switch regions (in the order of their genomic coordinates) in hg19:

- IGHA2 (switch  $\alpha$ 2): chr14:106,055,531-106,057,734
- IGHE (switch  $\epsilon$ ): chr14:106,069,016-106,072,047
- IGHG4 (switch  $\gamma$ 4): chr14:106,092,613-106,097,487
- IGHG2 (switch  $\gamma$ 2): chr14:106,111,338-106,115,104
- IGHA1 (switch  $\alpha$ 1): chr14:106,175,034-106,178,629
- IGHG1 (switch  $\gamma$ 1): chr14:106,209,614-106,214,314
- IGHG3 (switch  $\gamma$ 3): chr14:106,237,954-106,241,354
- IGHM (switch  $\mu$ ): chr14:106,322,324-106,326,978

The genomic coordinates will also be provided as BED-file and GRanges objects at zenodo.org; the switch regions and their genomic context are displayed in Figs. S6 and S7. A definition of a switch region 5' of IGHD was not possible. No contig from IMGT aligned to the intergenic region between IGHD and IGHM and no hallmark translocations (i.e. involving IGH and either *MYC*, *BCL2* or *BCL6*) nor any other translocation had a breakpoint in this genomic window.

### Definition of hypermutated cases

We defined as hypermutated those cases whose SNV mutational load is more than two standard deviations above the mean SNV mutational load over the whole cohort. With this criterion, the cases 4109808 ( $z = 9.06$ ), 4145528 ( $z = 7.18$ ), 4199714 ( $z = 3.82$ ) and 4163639 ( $z = 2.55$ ) were identified as hypermutated ( $z$ -scores indicated in parenthesis). All these cases were DLBCLs.

### Kataegis and psichales

Using the same methodology as for our gcBCL cohort, we extracted kataegis and psichales clusters from SNV calls of eight data sets originating from different cancer entities (Fig. S4A and S4B). Across all entities, a highly significant enrichment of SNVs in the psichales clusters in late replicating regions was observed (Fig. S4A, S4B, Suppl. Table 4A). The link between increased mutation density and late replication timing prevails for mutation density in the range of psichales. The very focal phenomenon of kataegis, however, is not enriched in late replicating regions. 145/1,056 (13.7%) of all TSS-distant kataegis clusters and 28/39 (70.8%) of the recurrent TSS-distant kataegis clusters were in the vicinity of known fragile sites as compiled from different sources [3-5].

### Non-protein coding genes recurrently affected by mutations in gcBCL

Several non-protein coding genes of the genome were recurrently mutated (Fig. 5). Of these, the highest recurrence rates were observed for the long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) RP11-211G3.2, which is located within the first intron of *BCL6* and affected by *BCL6* hypermutation, the known target of aberrant hypermutation microRNA *MIR142* [6] (44%), and the lncRNA genes *MALAT1* (27%) and *NEAT1* (24%). These lncRNAs are adjacent (less than 70 kb distance) on chromosome 11 and affected by HbP with *MALAT1* being the subject and *NEAT1* being the object. *MALAT1* and *NEAT1* are described to play a role in nuclear body organization [7] and both have been implicated with cancers [8-13]. *MALAT1* has been identified as AID target [14].

### Addendum hypermutation by proxy

A pair of Kataegis-regions in a HbP relationship affects *S1PR2* and *DNMT1* (18 and 6 gcBCL with kataegis clusters, respectively), where *S1PR2* hosts the subject and *DNMT1* the object (Fig. 3B-D). Remarkably, these genes neighbouring head-to-tail in the genome have been reported to generate a chimeric transcript [15]. In line, we here detected various tandem RNA chimeras of these strongly coexpressed genes in both GC B cells and gcBCL (Fig. 3D) and confirmed the existence of various RNA chimeras in the DLBCL cell line SU-DHL-10 (Fig. S18). It is intriguing to speculate that the tight co-expression of these genes is a means to link *S1PR2*-mediated homing of B cells in the GC with the

widespread DNA methylation changes occurring in GC B cells [16,17]. Given the observation of the *S1PR2*/*DNMT1* RNA chimera we wondered whether there is an increased frequency of such transcript chimerism between genes prone to undergo kataegis. Remarkably, even after limiting the analysis to events affecting two different chromosomes, i.e., inter-chromosomal RNA chimera, we detected an increased number between pairs of kataegis regions as compared to a permutation of matched background regions (z-score 8.91,  $p = 2.67 \times 10^{-19}$ ). A possible explanation for the enrichment of these kataegis-associated RNA chimeras might be that regions undergoing such kataegis are more closely positioned to each other in the nuclear space of a (malignant) B cell than the background distribution. Expression of the two genes *S1PR2* and *DNMT1* was lower compared to GC B cells, but the fraction of reads supporting tandem RNA chimeras was comparable (Fig. 3B-D). The one case violating the *by proxy* relationship (i.e. with kataegis in *DNMT1* but not in *S1PR2*) had much less tandem RNA chimera abundance. In two cases bearing deletions of the intergenic region between the annotated transcripts of these two genes, the amount of tandem RNA chimeras was strongly increased.

### **Differential usage of mutational mechanisms between ABC- and GCB-DLBCL**

Ongoing immunoglobulin somatic mutation has been observed in GCB-DLBCL but not in ABC-DLBCL [18]. Although most ABC-DLBCLs express IgM, and hence do not have undergone successful CSR, many show clonal as well as subclonal internal switch region deletions and point mutations in the switch regions [19]. This indicates repeated and prolonged CSR activity in ABC-DLBCL and their precursor cells, which is not seen in GCB-DLBCL, where ongoing SHM is more prominent. Thus, as there is apparently more and continued activity of the CSR machinery in ABC-DLBCL acting on the IGH locus, we wondered whether this also leads to more CSR-like events in ABC-DLBCL in general and analyzed distributions of kataegis clusters by one-sided tests. Strikingly, ABC-DLBCLs had higher counts (n.s.) and higher fractions of SNVs in CSR-like kataegis clusters, whereas GCB-DLBCLs had higher counts of SNVs in SHM-like kataegis clusters. The ratio of SNVs in CSR-like over SHM-like kataegis clusters showed a strong trend towards higher values in ABC-DLBCLs. Differential usage of mutational mechanisms thus has a correlate in the gene expression derived ABC/GCB-classification (Fig. S2E).

### **Addendum mutational signatures**

In an unsupervised analysis of mutational signatures with NMF, the optimal factorization rank was found to be 11, corresponding to 11 mutational signatures. Eight of those were described before [20] (labeled “AC” for “Alexandrov COSMIC”), including four of six signatures previously identified in gcBCL (Suppl. Table 9). In addition to known signatures, 3 new mutational signatures were discovered in this unsupervised analysis, termed L1, L2 and L3 (Fig. 4A-B). Fig. S11A visualizes the signatures extracted at varying factorization ranks and their similarities in a Sankey diagram. Fig. S11B illustrates the quality criteria for the determination of the optimal factorization rank.

Following the unsupervised analysis, a supervised analysis with signature specific cutoffs using the software package YAPSA was performed (similar to the analysis as described in Sahm et al. [21]) [22]. Making use of the signature-specific cutoffs, which were trained on the same dataset as the initial discovery of the mutational signatures by Alexandrov et al. [20], adds sensitivity to the analysis and offers the potential to analyze smaller cohorts or single samples. In the supervised analysis, additional mutational signatures were identified, increasing the total number to 14 signatures. This fixed set of 14 mutational signatures and the exposures determined by the supervised analysis were used throughout all subsequent analyses presented here.

### **NMF consensus clustering**

Recently, Chapuy et al. [23] performed non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) on merged binarized data from different sources in order to achieve a consensus clustering, which identified five robust clusters. Their analysis was based on 158 genetic driver alterations identified from 304 DLBCL cases by Whole Exome Sequencing (WES). In another analysis, Schmitz et al. [24] found four different prominent genetic subtypes of DLBCL were identified using a custom algorithm. Even though there exists some overlap between the genomic classifications described in the two publications, there are discrepancies between both reports as groups C2 and C4 by Chapuy et al. do not have a counterpart in the classification by Schmitz et al. Additionally, roughly half of the cases are not genomically classified

in the latter article.

In order to compare our data to these results, we also binarized the different classes of mutations (SNVs, small Indels, SVs and CNAs) identified in driver genes and recurrently mutated genes and ran an NMF analysis. In a first step, this analysis was restricted to the DLBCL cases of our gcBCL cohort (initially 76 cases but 72 after excluding four hypermutated cases, defined by mutational load more than two standard deviations above mean SNV mutational load). The results of this analysis are shown in Fig. S15. Based on the criteria for the determination of the optimal factorization rank described in the methods section of our manuscript, the optimal number of clusters was determined to be four in our analysis of DLBCL cases. In analogy to Chapuy et al. and Schmitz et al., these clusters were labelled by the most informative representative of the genes recurrently affected in the respective clusters (Fig. S15A). Our first cluster was thus labelled “MYD88-like”, it is dominated by ABC-DLBCL and corresponds to Cluster 5 in Chapuy et al. and the “MCD” subtype in Schmitz et al. (of note, CD79B is also part of the genes characterizing this cluster); our second cluster is labelled “BCL2-like”, samples belonging to this cluster are mainly GCB-DLBCL and this cluster corresponds to Cluster 3 in Chapuy et al. and the “EZB” subtype in Schmitz et al. (of note, EZH2 is also among the genes mutated in this cluster); our third cluster is labelled “BCL6-like”, samples belonging to this cluster are mixed between the ABC and GCB subtypes with a slight dominance of ABC, this cluster potentially corresponds to Cluster 1 in Chapuy et al. and the “BN2” subtype in Schmitz et al.; and finally a “TP53-like” cluster, dominated by the GCB subtype, overlapping with Clusters 4 and 2 in Chapuy et al. Of note, the genetic subtype termed “N1” in Schmitz et al. was retrieved neither in the analysis by Chapuy et al., nor in our analysis.

Chapuy et al. also investigated overall mutational density and found that Cluster 4 (corresponding to a subcluster of our “TP53-like” cluster) had the highest mutational density. In our analysis, the “TP53-like” and the “BCL6-like” clusters do not have a significantly different mutational density, but both have a significantly higher mutational density than the “MYD88-like” cluster (Fig. S15B). The WGS data (in contrast to the WES data obtained by Chapuy et al. and Schmitz et al.) additionally allows to compare the fraction of aberrant copy number states across the whole genome (see Fig. S15C). By this approach we can show that the “MYD88-like cluster” also has the lowest fraction of genomic imbalances.

In contrast to Chapuy et al. and Schmitz et al., our cohort offers the potential to analyze the merged cohort of different gcBCL entities (other than BL). In our view this adds important information because – as also discussed by Chapuy et al. – some DLBCL genomic subgroups resemble genomic features of e.g. follicular lymphoma. We thus performed an NMF-based consensus clustering on binarized data also on our merged cohort. Results of this analysis are shown in Fig. S16.

In this merged analysis the optimal number of clusters was determined to be nine, thereby revealing a more detailed substructure of gcBCL entities. Again, clusters were labelled by the most informative representative of the recurrently affected genes inside the cluster. The “MYD88-like”, “BCL2-like”, “BCL6-like” and “TP53-like” clusters identified in only DLBCL were also retrieved in this larger and more heterogeneous cohort.

In addition, new clusters, which were either completely or at least in their majority driven by FLs, were identified: a “CSMD1-like” cluster, a “PAX5-like” and a “SOCS1-like” cluster. Furthermore, as expected, the “BCL2-like” cluster already discovered in DLBCL was populated by a majority of FLs in this pooled analysis. However, also additional mixed clusters were discovered: a “B2M-like” cluster and a “PIM1-like” cluster, the latter being populated by a high fraction of FL-DLBCL cases.

In order to link these clusters to the mutational mechanisms identified in our manuscript, we performed enrichment and depletion analyses. Results are shown in Fig. 4G-H. This analysis revealed that L1 (CSR) was enriched in the “PIM1-like”, “BCL2-like” and “MYD88-like” clusters, whereas L2 (SHM) was enriched in “B2M-like” and “BCL2-like” clusters. Of note, AC9 was depleted in “BCL2-like”, “PAX5-like”, “BCL6-like” and “PIM1-like” clusters but had high contributions in the “B2M-like”, “SOCS1-like” and “MYD88-like” clusters. The ageing signature AC1 was enriched in the “BCL2-like” consensus cluster. Significant differences in total SNV load were found among the different consensus clusters (Kruskal-Wallis discovery test  $p = 4.56 \times 10^{-8}$ ), with pairwise post-hoc tests (Wilcoxon rank sum tests) revealing significantly lower SNV load in the “BCL2-like” consensus cluster than in all others except “CSMD1-like” and “MYD88-like” (Suppl. Table S12A). Furthermore, the “MYD88-like” consensus cluster had significantly less SNV load than the “PIM1-like” and “PAX5-like” clusters and a trend towards less SNV load than the “TP53-like” and the “B2M-like” consensus clusters (p-values are shown in Suppl. Table

S12A). Similarly, significant differences in the aberrant fraction of the genome were found among the different consensus clusters (Kruskal-Wallis discovery test  $p = 1.50 \times 10^{-3}$ ), with pairwise post-hoc tests (Wilcoxon rank sum tests) revealing significantly lower aberrant fractions in the “BCL2-like” consensus cluster than in the “PIM1-like” and the “SOCS1-like” consensus clusters (Fig S16C and Suppl. Table S12B). Furthermore, the “BCL2-like” consensus cluster had a trend towards lower aberrant fraction than the “TP53-like” consensus cluster. We furthermore investigated congruence and cross-over of the DLBCL cases in our gcBCL cohort between the consensus clusters extracted only among the DLBCLs (Fig. S15) and those consensus clusters extracted among all gcBCL cases (Fig. S16). Numbers are displayed in Suppl. S12C.

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