

1 Research Article

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3 **Gallbladder adenocarcinomas undergo subclonal diversification and**  
4 **selection from precancerous lesions to metastatic tumors**

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## 1    Abstract

2    We aimed to elucidate the evolutionary trajectories of gallbladder adenocarcinoma (GBAC)  
3    using multi-regional and longitudinal tumor samples. Using whole-exome sequencing data, we  
4    constructed phylogenetic trees in each patient, and analyzed mutational signatures. A total of  
5    11 patients including 2 rapid autopsy cases were enrolled. The most frequently altered gene in  
6    primary tumors was *ERBB2* (54.5%), followed by *TP53* (45.5%), and *FBXW7* (27.3%). Most  
7    mutations in frequently altered genes in primary tumors were detectable in concurrent  
8    precancerous lesions (biliary intraepithelial neoplasia, BilIN), but some of them were subclonal.  
9    Subclonal diversity was common in BilIN (n=4). However, among subclones in BilIN, a certain  
10   subclone commonly shrank in concurrent primary tumors. In addition, selected subclones  
11   underwent linear and branching evolution, maintaining subclonal diversity. In combined  
12   analysis with metastatic tumors (n=11), branching evolution was identified in 9 (81.8%)  
13   patients. Of these, 8 patients (88.9%) had a total of 11 subclones expanded at least 7-fold during  
14   metastasis. These subclones harbored putative metastasis-driving mutations in tumor  
15   suppressor genes such as *SMAD4*, *ROBO1*, and *DICER1*. In mutational signature analysis, 6  
16   mutational signatures were identified: 1, 3, 7, 13, 22, and 24 (cosine similarity >0.9). Signatures  
17   1 (age) and 13 (APOBEC) decreased during metastasis while signatures 22 (aristolochic acid)  
18   and 24 (aflatoxin) were relatively highlighted. Subclonal diversity arose early in precancerous  
19   lesions and the clonal selection was a common event during malignant transformation in GBAC.  
20   However, selected cancer clones continued to evolve and thus maintained subclonal diversity  
21   in metastatic tumors.

22

23    **Keywords:** Gallbladder adenocarcinoma, Clonal evolution, Carcinogenesis, Metastasis

24

## 1      **Introduction**

2      Gallbladder adenocarcinoma (GBAC) is a malignant neoplasm that has a high incidence rate  
3      in Chile, India, Poland, Pakistan, Japan, and Korea (1-3). Surgery is currently the only curative  
4      treatment modality for GBAC. However, because most patients are diagnosed at an advanced  
5      stage and thus inoperable, they receive palliative chemotherapy only. Therefore, the prognosis  
6      is poor with a median overall survival of only 11-15 months (3, 4).

7              The recent advancement of massively parallel sequencing technology has enabled us  
8      to deeply understand the genome of a variety of cancers. In GBAC, tumor suppressor genes  
9      such as *TP53*, *ARID1A*, and *SMAD4* and oncogenes such as *ERBB2 (HER2)*, *ERBB3*, and  
10     *PIK3CA* are significantly mutated (5-11). Of note, *ERBB2* amplification and overexpression  
11     occur in approximately 6.9-28.6% of GBAC (10, 12, 13) and may have therapeutic implications.

12              Cancer cells undergo clonal evolution by acquiring additional mutations and thus  
13      exhibit more aggressive phenotypes, including invasion and metastasis (14-16). Several large-  
14     scale studies have provided evidence of clonal evolution in some cancer types, including lung  
15     and kidney cancers (17, 18). However, there is no study so far that analyzed the patterns of  
16     clonal evolution from the initiation of carcinogenesis to distant metastasis in patients with  
17     GBAC.

18              This study aims to analyze the clonal evolutionary trajectories during carcinogenesis  
19      and metastasis of GBAC using multi-regional and longitudinal specimens including  
20     precancerous lesions (biliary intraepithelial neoplasia, BilIN), primary tumors, and metastatic  
21     tumors from patients who underwent biopsy, surgery, and rapid autopsy.

1    **Results**

2    ***Baseline characteristics of patients with GBAC***

3    A total of 11 patients, including 2 rapid autopsy cases (GB-A1 and GB-A2) and 9 surgery cases  
4    (GB-S1 – 9), were enrolled in this study (**Table 1** and **Figure 1A**). There were 5 male and 6  
5    female patients with the median age was 70 years (range, 59–75 years). Two patients had stage  
6    III and nine patients had IV disease at diagnosis. A total of 58 samples were analyzed, including  
7    11 pairs of matched primary tumors and normal tissues, 6 concurrent BiLiN, and 30 metastatic  
8    tumors: 15 were fresh frozen tissues and 43 were formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE)  
9    tissues (**Supplementary Table 1**). The median number of filtered somatic SNVs and small  
10   indels was 61 (range, 12–241). The number of metastatic tumors in each patient ranged from 1  
11   to 11.

12

13    ***Mutational landscape and ploidy of primary tumors***

14    The mutational landscape of the 11 primary tumors was analyzed and compared with previous  
15   literature (**Figure 1B**) (10, 11). The most frequently altered gene was *ERBB2* (54.5%), followed  
16   by *TP53* (45.5%) and *FBXW7* (27.3%). *ERBB2* amplification was defined as a copy number  $\geq$   
17   6 (19). Of the six *ERBB2* alterations, three were amplification and the other three were missense  
18   mutations listed in the COSMIC (Catalogue of Somatic Mutations in Cancer) v92 database. All  
19   *TP53* mutations found in 5 patients were accompanied by loss-of-heterozygosity (LOH). Three  
20   *ERBB2* SNVs and one *ERBB3* SNV were pathogenic or likely pathogenic in the ClinVar  
21   database (20).

22       Ploidy was analyzed in 15 tumors of 6 patients with purity  $> 0.4$  because ploidy  
23   estimation was inaccurate when tumor purity is  $\leq 0.4$  (21). In 2 patients (GB-S6 and GB-S9,

1 33.3%), WGD was detected in both the primary and metastatic tumors (**Figure 1B**). In GB-S5  
2 patient, WGD was found in distant metastasis, but not in primary GBAC.

3

4 ***Somatic mutations developed at the precancerous stage***

5 Multi-regional distribution and longitudinal evolution of clones were analyzed using PyClone  
6 (**Figure 1—figure supplement 1** and **Supplementary File 1**) (22) and CITUP (23) and then  
7 visualized using MapScape and TimeScape (24), respectively (**Figure 1C**). Among 6 patients  
8 having concurrent BilIN tissues, two patients were excluded from the further analysis because  
9 of low tumor purity in one patient and different mutational profiles between BilIN and primary  
10 GBAC in the other patient, suggesting different origins of the two tumors (**Figure 1—figure**  
11 **supplement 2**).

12 Most mutations in frequently altered genes in GBAC existed at the BilIN stage (10 of  
13 13, 76.9%), but some of them were subclonal. Mutations in representative oncogenes and tumor  
14 suppressor genes were described (**Figure 2**). In GB-A1 (**Figure 2A and B**), *TP53* C100Y with  
15 LOH, *KMT2C* R909K, *ERBB3* G284R, *ARID2* F575fs with LOH, and *CTNNB1* S37F with  
16 LOH were observed clonally in BilIN. In GB-S1 (**Figure 2C**), *SAMD9* E612K was clonal  
17 whereas *FBXW7* S18C, *ARID1A* S382N, and *NFI* R440X were subclonal. In GB-S2 (**Figure**  
18 **2D**), considering the cellular prevalence of mutations, it is speculated that the mutations  
19 developed in the order of *CDKN2A* R58fs with LOH, *TP53* H82R with LOH, *ERBB2* V777L,  
20 and *GNAS* G306R during carcinogenesis. In GB-S3 (**Figure 2E**), *ERBB3* E332K, which was  
21 listed in COSMIC v92, was dominant in BilIN, while *SMAD4* 539\_540del was not detected.

22

23 ***Subclonal diversity and 'selective sweep' phenomenon during the early stage of***

1 ***carcinogenesis***

2 Branching evolution and subclonal diversity were commonly observed in BilIN of the 4  
3 patients (**Figure 2A-E**). When compared with the concurrent primary tumors, one subclone  
4 commonly shrank in the primary tumors, while the other subclones that acquired additional  
5 mutations relatively expanded in the primary tumors, suggesting a selective sweep  
6 phenomenon (25). Selected subclones underwent linear and branching evolution, and thus  
7 subclonal diversity was maintained after the BilIN stage. In GB-A1 (**Figure 2B**), clone A  
8 underwent branching evolution into B and G, and clone B linearly evolved into C then D. Clone  
9 D, which acquired additional mutations, increased from 42.7% to 68.1% while clone G  
10 decreased from 55.7% to 2.8%. In GB-S1 (**Figure 2C**), clone D that acquired *KMT2D* E338K  
11 increased from 0.1% to 28.1%, while clone G decreased from 51.4% to 0%. In GB-S2 (**Figure**  
12 **2D**), clone D that acquired *ERBB2* V777L, clone E that acquired *GNAS* G306R, and clone G  
13 increased from 9.0%, 3.5%, and 0% to 45.5%, 22.3%, and 11.4%, respectively. In contrast,  
14 clone F decreased from 55.8% to 0.6%. In GB-S3 (**Figure 2E**), clone B that acquired *SMAD4*  
15 539\_540del increased from 0.1% to 65.6%, while clone D containing *ERBB3* E332K decreased  
16 from 81.1% to 0.6%.

17

18 ***Evolutionary trajectories and expansion of subclones during regional and distant metastasis***  
19 Combined analysis of regional and distant metastatic tumors revealed branching evolution in  
20 9 patients (81.8%) and linear evolution in 2 patients (18.2%). Of the 9 patients with branching  
21 evolution, eight (88.9%) had a total of 11 subclones expanded at least 7-fold in the regional or  
22 distant metastasis stage (**Table 2**). Of these 11 subclones, putative driver mutations in tumor  
23 suppressor genes were described in 8 subclones. In GB-A1 (**Figure 2A and B**), clone E, which  
24 acquired *JARID2* (26) K603Q with LOH, increased from 0.2% to 20.5% during common bile

1     duct (CBD) metastasis. In addition, clone F, which acquired *SMAD4* (10, 17, 27, 28) L414fs  
2     with LOH, expanded from 0.4% to 49.8% during omentum 1 metastasis and to 27.0% during  
3     omentum 2 metastasis. In GB-S1 (**Figure 2C**), clone B harboring *SLIT3* F843I mutation  
4     evolved into E by additionally acquiring *ROBO1* P1360Q mutation (29). In GB-A2 (**Figure**  
5     **3A-C**), clone F, which acquired *PRKCD* (30, 31) I153L, expanded from 0.3% to 73.1% and  
6     68.3% during metastasis to liver and mesentery, respectively. In addition, clone G acquired  
7     *DICER1* (32) T519A and expanded from 2.8% to 39.9% and 61.5% during metastasis to lung  
8     and chest wall, respectively. In the remaining 6 subclones in 5 patients (**Figure 2D** and **3D-I**),  
9     mutations in *FBXW2* (33), *KIAA0100* (34), *CSMD2* (34), and *OSCP1* (35) genes were observed.

10           In GB-S8 and GB-S9, linear evolution was identified (**Figure 3J** and **K**). In GB-S9  
11    (**Figure 3K**), which did not harbor any mutation in frequently altered genes in GBAC (**Figure**  
12    **1B**), amplification of cell cycle-related oncogenes *CDKN1B* and *CCNE1* was uniformly  
13    observed from primary GBAC to regional and distant metastatic tumors.

14

### 15 ***Polyclonal metastasis and intermetastatic heterogeneity***

16    The metastatic lesions were uniformly polyclonal. In GB-A1, GB-A2, and GB-S4, which  
17    contained two or more distant metastatic lesions, the clonal compositions of metastatic lesions  
18    were heterogeneous. However, metastatic lesions in one organ or adjacent organs showed  
19    similar clonal compositions. In GB-A1 (**Figure 2A**), abdominal wall 1-4 did not contain clone  
20    C, and liver 1-3 did not contain clone F. In addition, omentum 1-2 had a high prevalence of  
21    clone F of over 27.0%. Notably, clone F, which was not found in both BilIN and primary GBAC,  
22    first appeared in abdominal wall 1 (old) 8 months later, and then was observed in CBD 9  
23    months later and omentum 1-2, mesentery, and abdominal wall 2-4 lesions 32 months later. In  
24    GB-A2 (**Figure 3A-C**), the proportion of clone F was specifically high in liver and mesentery

1 lesions, while the proportion of clone G was specifically high in lung and chest wall lesions.  
2 In clinical information of the GB-A2 patient, mesentery and chest wall metastases developed  
3 later than liver and lung metastases. In GB-S4 (**Figure 3D-F**), proportions of clone G and H  
4 were specifically high in distant LN and colon wall metastasis, respectively.

5

6 ***Mutational signatures during clonal evolution***

7 We compared our mutational signature analysis results (**Figure 4—figure supplement 1**) with  
8 those of MSKCC and Shanghai datasets (10, 11), according to COSMIC Mutational Signatures  
9 v2 (36). While MSKCC and Shanghai datasets consist merely of primary tumors, our dataset  
10 includes precancerous and metastatic lesions. Signatures 1 (age), 3 (DNA double-strand break-  
11 repair), and 13 (APOBEC) were commonly dominant in all three datasets, while signatures 22  
12 (aristolochic acid) and 24 (aflatoxin) were exclusive in our dataset and signatures 2 (APOBEC),  
13 9 (DNA polymerase  $\eta$ ), and 29 (tobacco chewing) were found only in MSKCC or Shanghai  
14 datasets (cosine similarity  $> 0.9$  in all datasets) (**Figure 4A**). We then analyzed the mutations  
15 according to the developmental stages of cancer (**Figure 4B**) as follows: (1) BilIN, (2) primary  
16 GBAC, (3) regional LN metastasis, and (4) distant metastasis. In distant metastasis tumors,  
17 signatures 1, 7, and 13 relatively decreased, while signatures 22 and 24 increased, compared  
18 with the other 3 tumors. Next, we analyzed the mutations according to the timing of  
19 development during clonal evolution (**Figure 4C**): (1) early carcinogenesis (*i.e.* clone A in  
20 **Figure 2** and **3**), (2) late carcinogenesis (*i.e.* subclones which were not categorized in early  
21 carcinogenesis or metastasis), and (3) metastasis (*i.e.* subclones expanding during metastasis  
22 [Table 2]). At metastasis phase, signatures 1 and 13 decreased while signatures 22 and 24  
23 increased compared with early and late carcinogenesis.

24

1    **ERBB2 amplification during clonal evolution**

2    In GB-A1 (**Figure 5**), *ERBB2* copy number (**Figure 5A and B**) was 3 and 9 in concurrent BillN  
3    and primary tumors, respectively. The increased copy number of *ERBB2* was maintained after  
4    distant metastasis (**Figure 2B**). *HER2* (=*ERBB2*) SISH (**Figure 5C and D**) was conducted to  
5    evaluate the subclonal distribution of *ERBB2* amplification at the single BillN cell level.  
6    *ERBB2* copy number per cell ranged from 1 to 5 in BillN, and from 2 to 14 in primary GBAC.  
7    *ERBB2*/CEP17 ratio was 2.48 and 6.00 in BillN and primary GBAC, respectively (**Figure 5E**).  
8    In addition, *HER2* IHC (**Figure 5F and G**) was carried out to evaluate whether the *ERBB2*  
9    amplification was correlated to *HER2* protein expression levels on the membrane of tumor cells.  
10   The *HER2* IHC results were 2+/3 in the BillN and 3+/3 in primary GBAC. Therefore, *ERBB2*  
11   amplification might have initiated from the precancerous stage and further progressed during  
12   the malignant transformation of BillN, resulting in increased *HER2* protein expression levels.  
13   In GB-S6 and GB-S7 (**Figure 3H and I**), *ERBB2* amplification was maintained in primary  
14   tumors and regional and distant metastatic tumors.

15

1    **Discussion**

2    To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate clonal evolution from  
3    precancerous lesions to metastatic tumors in patients with GBAC. In this study, evolutionary  
4    trajectories of GBAC were inferred using multi-regional and longitudinal WES data from  
5    precancerous lesions (BilIN) to primary and metastatic tumors. Based on these results, we  
6    derived comprehensive models of carcinogenesis and metastasis in GBAC.

7        In our analysis of carcinogenesis, we discovered three common themes. First, most  
8    mutations in frequently altered genes in primary GBAC are detected in concurrent BilIN (10  
9    of 13, 76.9%), but some of them are subclonal. Second, branching evolution and subclonal  
10   diversity are commonly observed at the BilIN stage. Third, one subclone in BilIN commonly  
11   shrinks in the primary tumors, while the other subclones undergo linear and branching  
12   evolution, maintaining subclonal diversity after the BilIN stage. A previous study in colorectal  
13   cancer by Vogelstein and colleagues demonstrated a stepwise carcinogenesis model from the  
14   precancerous lesion, adenoma, to invasive carcinoma by the accumulation of mutations, called  
15   the adenoma-carcinoma sequence (37). In addition, recent studies on esophageal squamous cell  
16   carcinoma have reported that not only dysplasia but also histologically normal epithelia  
17   frequently harbor cancer-driving mutations (38, 39). A recent study on GBAC reported that  
18   *CTNNB1* mutation was frequently observed (5 out of 11) when BilIN and primary GBAC  
19   coexist (9). In our BilIN analysis, *CTNNB1* S37F with LOH was observed in 1 (GB-A1) of 4  
20   patients.

21        In the analysis of metastasis, the following three phenomena are observed. First,  
22   subclonal expansion is frequent (8 of 11 patients, 72.7%) and some subclones expand  
23   substantially in metastatic tumors, leading to increased subclonal diversity. Previous studies  
24   suggest that subclonal diversity increases through branching evolution during progression and

1 metastasis (40-43). Second, metastases are polyclonal but metastatic lesions in one organ or  
2 adjacent organs show similar clonal compositions. Previously, it was thought that metastasis is  
3 initiated by the migration of a single cell to another organ (44). However, recent data suggest  
4 that polyclonal seeding occurs due to the migration of a cluster of cancer cells (14, 45-47).  
5 Third, we found evidence of metastasis-to-metastasis spread. In recent studies on prostate and  
6 breast cancers, metastasis-to-metastasis spread was frequent (46, 48). In our study, of 7 patients  
7 with 2 or more metastatic lesions, evidence of metastasis-to-metastasis spread was found in 2  
8 patients (28.6%). In GB-A1 (**Figure 2A**), it appears that CBD, omentum 1-2, mesentery, and  
9 abdominal wall 2-4 lesions may originate from abdominal wall 1 (old) rather than from primary  
10 GBAC considering clone F. Similarly, in GB-A2 (**Figure 3A**), considering clinical information  
11 that mesentery and chest wall metastases occurred later than liver and lung metastases,  
12 mesentery and chest wall metastases may originate from liver and lung metastases, respectively.  
13 Although intratumoral heterogeneity of primary GBAC may make it difficult to draw a strong  
14 conclusion, our data may provide evidence of metastasis-to-metastasis spread.

15 Of the 11 expanded subclones at the metastasis stage, we described putative driver  
16 mutations in tumor suppressor genes in 8 subclones based on the previous literature (Table 2).  
17 For example, *SMAD4* mutations expanded during metastasis in GB-A1 and GB-S3 (**Figure 2A**,  
18 **B**, and **E**) and have been associated with distant metastasis and poor prognosis in various  
19 cancers, including GBAC (10, 17, 27, 28). In GB-S1 (**Figure 2C**), clone B containing *SLIT3*  
20 F843I evolves into E during metastasis by acquiring *ROBO1* P1360Q. The SLIT/ROBO  
21 pathway suppresses tumor progression by regulating invasion, migration, and apoptosis (29).  
22 In GB-A2 (**Figure 3A-C**), *DICER1* T519A is found in lung and chest wall metastases. The  
23 *DICER1* gene is associated with pleuropulmonary blastoma in children (32). In GB-S5 (**Figure**  
24 **3G**), *KIAA0100* F5S and *CSMD2* E411K are found during metastasis. *KIAA0100* and *CSMD2*  
25 are frequently mutated during metastasis in adrenocortical carcinoma (34).

1 In mutational signature analysis, we identified six dominant mutational signatures: 1  
2 (age), 3 (DNA double-strand break-repair), 7 (ultraviolet), 13 (APOBEC), 22 (aristolochic  
3 acid), and 24 (aflatoxin). Among them, signatures 1, 3, and 13 were commonly found in  
4 MSKCC and Shanghai datasets (**Figure 4A**) (10, 11), and have also been reported in other  
5 studies (6-9). However, these previous studies merely analyzed primary tumors and did not  
6 include metastatic tumors while our study analyzed both as well as precancerous BiliN. In our  
7 study, the limited number of SNVs and small indels per sample (median 61, range 12–241)  
8 made it difficult to compare among individual tumors (**Figure 4—figure supplement 1**).  
9 Therefore, we classified the entire mutations according to (1) the developmental stages of  
10 cancer (**Figure 4B**) and (2) the timing of development during clonal evolution (**Figure 4C**).  
11 Considering the evolutionary trajectories in cancers, we suggest that the latter criteria would  
12 be better than the former in classifying mutations according to each step of carcinogenesis and  
13 metastasis. Our data indicate that the importance of signatures 1 and 13 decreased during  
14 metastasis while the roles of signatures 22 and 24 were relatively highlighted. However, due to  
15 a lack of clinical information, we could not identify whether patients were exposed to  
16 aristolochic acid or aflatoxin.

17 In this cancer precision medicine era, targeted sequencing data of a single specimen  
18 are not enough to determine whether the detected mutations are clonal or subclonal. This proof-  
19 of-concept study may enable us to deeply understand the clonal evolution in GBAC. Moreover,  
20 we found that some of the mutations were clonal while a substantial proportion was subclonal,  
21 which is usually not an effective druggable target. Therefore, we believe that our study  
22 highlights the importance of precise genomic analysis of multi-regional and longitudinal  
23 samples in individual cancer patients. However, one caveat is that we cannot easily apply this  
24 to real-world patients because multi-regional and longitudinal tumor biopsies may not be  
25 feasible in most patients unless they underwent surgery and repeated biopsies. Recent studies

1 using circulating tumor DNA have shown the possibility to easily detect mutations involved in  
2 cancer development and progression (49). By detecting clonal mutations from the  
3 carcinogenesis stage in healthy individuals, we can diagnose GBAC at an early stage. In  
4 addition, by detecting subclonal mutations in patients with GBAC, we can monitor the  
5 expanding subclones during follow-up, which enables us to detect cancer progression earlier.

6 This study has several limitations. First, it is not possible to obtain samples through  
7 frequent biopsy whenever desired. Thus, tumor samples were not acquired according to their  
8 developmental sequence. Second, due to intratumoral heterogeneity, the clonal composition of  
9 a small piece of the tumor may not reflect that of the entire lesion (50). Third, as the number  
10 of analyzed samples was different among patients, an accessibility bias was inevitable – the  
11 more samples the patient has, the more clones we can identify.

12 In conclusion, subclonal diversity developed early in precancerous lesions and the  
13 clonal selection was a common event during malignant transformation in GBAC. However,  
14 cancer clones continued to evolve in metastatic tumors and thus maintained subclonal diversity.  
15 Our novel approach may help us to understand the GBAC of individual patients and to move  
16 forward to precision medicine that enables early detection of carcinogenesis and metastasis,  
17 and effective targeted therapy in these patients.

18

1    **Methods**

2    ***Patients and tumor samples***

3    Patients were eligible for this study if they were diagnosed with GBAC and received surgery  
4    between 2013 and 2018 at Seoul National University Bundang Hospital (SNUBH), Seongnam,  
5    Korea. Among 11 enrolled patients, two patients underwent rapid autopsy after death. Patients'  
6    clinical information was obtained through retrospective medical record reviews. This study was  
7    approved by the institutional review board (IRB) of SNUBH (IRB No. B-1902/522-303).

8

9    ***Whole exome sequencing (WES) of GBAC***

10    DNA was extracted from fresh-frozen or FFPE tissues. Library preparation and exome capture  
11    was carried out using Agilent SureSelect<sup>XT</sup> Human All Exon V6 (Santa Clara, CA, USA). WES  
12    was conducted with a paired-end, 100-bp using Illumina NovaSeq 6000 (San Diego, CA, USA).  
13    The depth of coverage of tumors and normal control samples were at least 300 $\times$  and 200 $\times$ ,  
14    respectively.

15

16    ***Analysis of WES data***

17    WES data of GBAC and matched normal samples were analyzed using the Genomon2 pipeline  
18    (Institute of Medical Science, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan;  
19    <https://genomon.readthedocs.io/ja/latest/>, accessed on Feb. 1, 2022) as previously described  
20    (39). In brief, sequencing reads from adapter-trimmed .fastq files were aligned to the human  
21    reference genome GRCh37 (hg19) without the 'chr' prefix using Burrows-Wheeler Aligner  
22    version 0.7.12, with default settings. Somatic single nucleotide variants (SNVs) and small

1 indels were called by eliminating polymorphisms and sequencing errors and filtered by pre-  
2 specified criteria: (a) only exonic or splicing sites were included; (b) synonymous SNVs,  
3 unknown variants, or those without proper annotation were excluded; (c) polymorphisms in  
4 dbSNP 131 were excluded; (d) p-values < 0.01 from Fisher's exact test were included; (e)  
5 simple repeat sequences were excluded; (f) strand ratio between positive-strand and negative-  
6 strand should not be 0 or 1 in tumor samples; (g) the number of variant reads should exceed 4  
7 in tumor samples. For each patient, filtered variant lists of tumor samples were merged. Then,  
8 the merged list of target variants was manually called in each .bam file using bam-readcount  
9 version 0.8.0 (<https://github.com/genome/bam-readcount>, accessed on Feb. 1, 2022) with  
10 Phred score and mapping quality of more than 30 and 60, respectively.

11 For samples with the tumor purity > 0.4, the ploidy of tumor cells was estimated using  
12 Sequenza version 3.0.0 to identify whole genome doubling (WGD) (21). Copy number  
13 variations (CNVs) were analyzed using the Control-FREEC version 11.5 (51). In brief, the  
14 aligned .bam files were converted to .pileup.gz format using SAMtools version 1.9 (52).  
15 The .pileup.gz files of data from GBAC and matched normal samples were analyzed using  
16 Control-FREEC with default settings. These datasets were then used to statistically infer clonal  
17 population structure using PyClone version 0.13.0 with the 'pyclone\_beta\_binomial' model  
18 (22). Clonal phylogeny was inferred by CITUP version 0.1.0 (23) using cellular prevalence  
19 values of each cluster which were generated by PyClone. To ensure accurate tree construction,  
20 clusters containing only one mutation were excluded from the input to CITUP if the mutation's  
21 role is unclear from previous literature. This filter removed 42 mutations from a total of 1,577  
22 mutations, representing less than 2.7% of all clustered mutations. In addition, in GB-A2,  
23 clusters which limited to only one organ were excluded from the analysis because the  
24 calculation for the phylogenetic tree using CITUP took more than one month when the number  
25 of clusters was  $\geq 14$ . Analyzed results were visualized using MapScape for multi-regional

1 specimens and TimeScape for longitudinal or putative longitudinal datasets, as appropriate (24).

2 In all analysis steps, the data were adjusted for the tumor purity values of each tumor.

3 The mutational signatures of SNVs were analyzed using Mutalisk (53). To compare

4 with the other GBAC cohorts, we additionally analyzed two public datasets of GBAC from the

5 Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center (MSKCC) and the Shanghai group (10, 11), which

6 could be downloaded from the cBioPortal (<https://www.cbioportal.org/>, accessed on Feb. 1,

7 2022) (54).

8

9 **HER2 immunohistochemistry (IHC) and silver in situ hybridization (SISH)**

10 The histologic sections from individual FFPE tissues were deparaffinized and dehydrated. IHC

11 and SISH analysis of *HER2*-positive cells was conducted by the board-certified pathologist

12 using PATHWAY anti-*HER2*/neu antibody (4B5; rabbit monoclonal; Ventana Medical Systems,

13 Tucson, AZ, USA) and a staining device (BenchMark XT, Ventana Medical Systems, Tuscon,

14 AZ, USA), respectively, as previously described (55). Signals from 20 tumor cells were

15 counted and a *HER2*/CEP17 ratio  $\geq 2.0$  was defined as *HER2* amplification (19). Wilcoxon

16 rank-sum test is used to compare the mean *HER2*/CEP17 ratio of BilIN versus primary tumor.

17

1    **Acknowledgments**

2    This study was supported by a grant from Seoul National University Bundang Hospital  
3    Research Fund (No. 16-2021-001) and the Small Grant for Exploratory Research (SGER)  
4    program (NRF-2018R1D1A1A02086240) of National Research Foundation (NRF), Korea.  
5    The authors would like to express the deepest respect to the two patients who donated their  
6    bodies for this study after death.

7

8    **Competing interests statement**

9    All other authors declare no competing interests.

10

11    **Data availability statement**

12    The raw sequence data underlying this manuscript are available as fastq files at the NCBI SRA  
13    database under the BioProject number PRJNA821382.

14

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1 **Figure legends**

2 **Figure 1. Clinical history of patients, mutational landscape, and study workflow.**

3 (A) The swimmer plot showing the clinical history of 11 patients. (B) The mutational landscape  
4 of 11 primary tumors visualized according to the prevalence and compared with the results of  
5 two previous studies on GBAC. (C) Workflow for constructing clonal evolution trajectories  
6 using multiple tumor samples.

7 Adj, adjuvant; CCRT, concurrent chemoradiotherapy; CNVs, copy number variations; FL, 5-  
8 fluorouracil + leucovorin; FOLFIRI, 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + irinotecan; GB, gallbladder;  
9 GP, gemcitabine + cisplatin; iFAM, infusional 5-fluorouracil + doxorubicin + mitomycin-C;  
10 LOH, loss-of-heterozygosity; mFOLFOX, modified 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + oxaliplatin;  
11 NE, not evaluable; SNVs, single nucleotide variants; TSG, tumor suppressor gene; WGD,  
12 whole genome doubling; XP, capecitabine + cisplatin; 5-FU, 5-fluorouracil.

13

14 **Figure 2. Spatial and temporal clonal evolution of 4 patients with GBAC whose  
15 precancerous BillN tissues were analyzed.**

16 (A-E) The most probable phylogenetic trees were constructed for GB-A1 (A, MapScape), GB-  
17 A1 (B, TimeScape), GB-S1 (C, TimeScape), GB-S2 (D, TimeScape), and GB-S3 (E,  
18 TimeScape) using PyClone and CITUP. In MapScape visualization, spatially distinct tumor  
19 samples were indicated with an anatomical image. Colors represent distinct clones and clonal  
20 prevalences per site were proportional to the corresponding-colored area of the cellular  
21 aggregate representation. In TimeScape visualization, clonal prevalences (vertical axis) were  
22 plotted across timepoints (horizontal axis) for each clone (colors). Asterisks (\*) in the clonal  
23 phylogenetic tree denote subclones that constituted <5% in the primary tumor and expanded

1 more than 7-fold in the metastatic tumor. Notable events were marked with arrows. The time  
2 from diagnosis of GBAC to tissue acquisition was indicated under the sample name.  
3 Chemotherapy history was indicated in gray color, where '#' represents the number of  
4 chemotherapy cycles.

5 BilIN, biliary intraepithelial neoplasia; CBD, common bile duct; CN, copy number; GB,  
6 gallbladder; GP, gemcitabine + cisplatin; IHC, immunohistochemistry; LN, lymph node; LOH,  
7 loss-of-heterozygosity.

8

9 **Figure 3. Spatial and temporal clonal evolution of additional 7 patients with GBAC.**

10 (A-K) The most probable phylogenetic trees were constructed for GB-A2 (A, MapScape), GB-  
11 A2 (B, TimeScape), GB-A2 (C, TimeScape), GB-S4 (D, MapScape), GB-S4 (E, TimeScape),  
12 GB-S4 (F, TimeScape), GB-S5 (G, TimeScape), GB-S6 (H, TimeScape), GB-S7 (I,  
13 TimeScape), GB-S8 (J, TimeScape), and GB-S9 (K, TimeScape) using PyClone and CITUP.  
14 In MapScape visualization, spatially distinct tumor samples were indicated with an anatomical  
15 image. Colors represent distinct clones and clonal prevalences per site were proportional to the  
16 corresponding-colored area of the cellular aggregate representation. In TimeScape  
17 visualization, clonal prevalences (vertical axis) were plotted across timepoints (horizontal axis)  
18 for each clone (colors). Asterisks (\*) in the clonal phylogenetic tree denote subclones that  
19 constituted <5% in the primary tumor and expanded more than 7-fold in the metastatic tumor.  
20 Notable events were marked with arrows. The time from diagnosis of GBAC to tissue  
21 acquisition was indicated under the sample name. Chemotherapy history was indicated in gray  
22 color, where '#' represents the number of chemotherapy cycles.

23 Adj, adjuvant; BilIN, biliary intraepithelial neoplasia; CN, copy number; FL, 5-fluorouracil +

1 leucovorin; GB, gallbladder; GP, gemcitabine + cisplatin; IHC, immunohistochemistry; LN,  
2 lymph node; LOH, loss-of-heterozygosity; WGD, whole genome doubling.

3

4 **Figure 4. Mutational signature analysis.**

5 (A-C) The 100% stacked bar plots comparing the proportions of known COSMIC Mutational  
6 Signatures v2 within our dataset and two public (MSKCC and Shanghai) datasets (A), each  
7 category split according to the developmental stages of cancer (B) and each category split  
8 according to the timing of development during clonal evolution (C). The total number of  
9 mutations (N) and cosine similarity (CS) values of each category were noted.

10 BilIN, biliary intraepithelial neoplasia; COSMIC, catalogue of somatic mutations in cancer;  
11 GB, gallbladder; LN, lymph node.

12

13 **Figure 5. *ERBB2* copy number variation during neoplastic transformation of BilIN in  
14 GB-A1.**

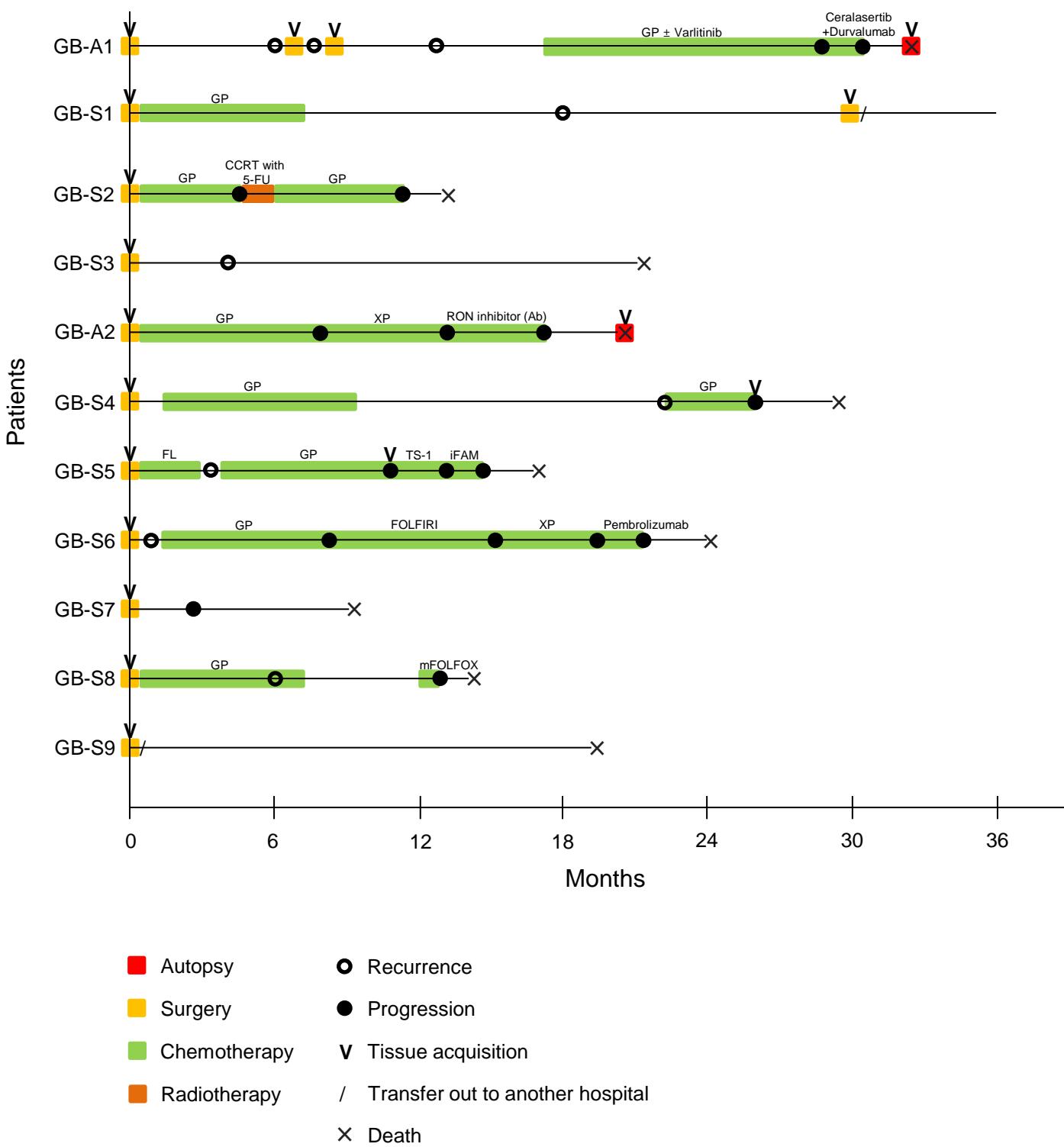
15 (A-G) *ERBB2* gene amplification (A and B), *HER2* SISH (C and D), and *HER2* IHC (F and  
16 G) were compared between BilIN (A, C, and F) and primary GBAC (B, D, and G) samples  
17 and the mean *ERBB2*/CEP17 ratio of BilIN and GB-A1 samples were compared by using the  
18 Wilcoxon rank-sum test (E). The copy number was 3, IHC result was 2+/3, and *ERBB2*/CEP17  
19 ratio was 2.48 in BilIN whereas the copy number was 9, IHC result was 3+/3, and the mean  
20 *ERBB2*/CEP17 ratio was 6.00 in primary GBAC.

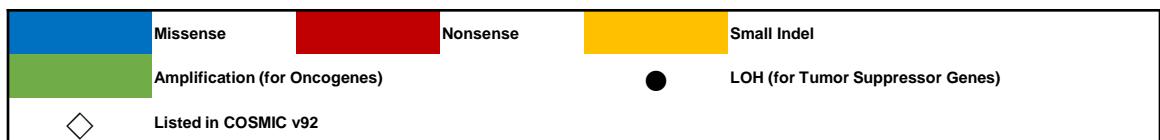
21 BilIN, biliary intraepithelial neoplasia; GBAC, gallbladder adenocarcinoma.

22

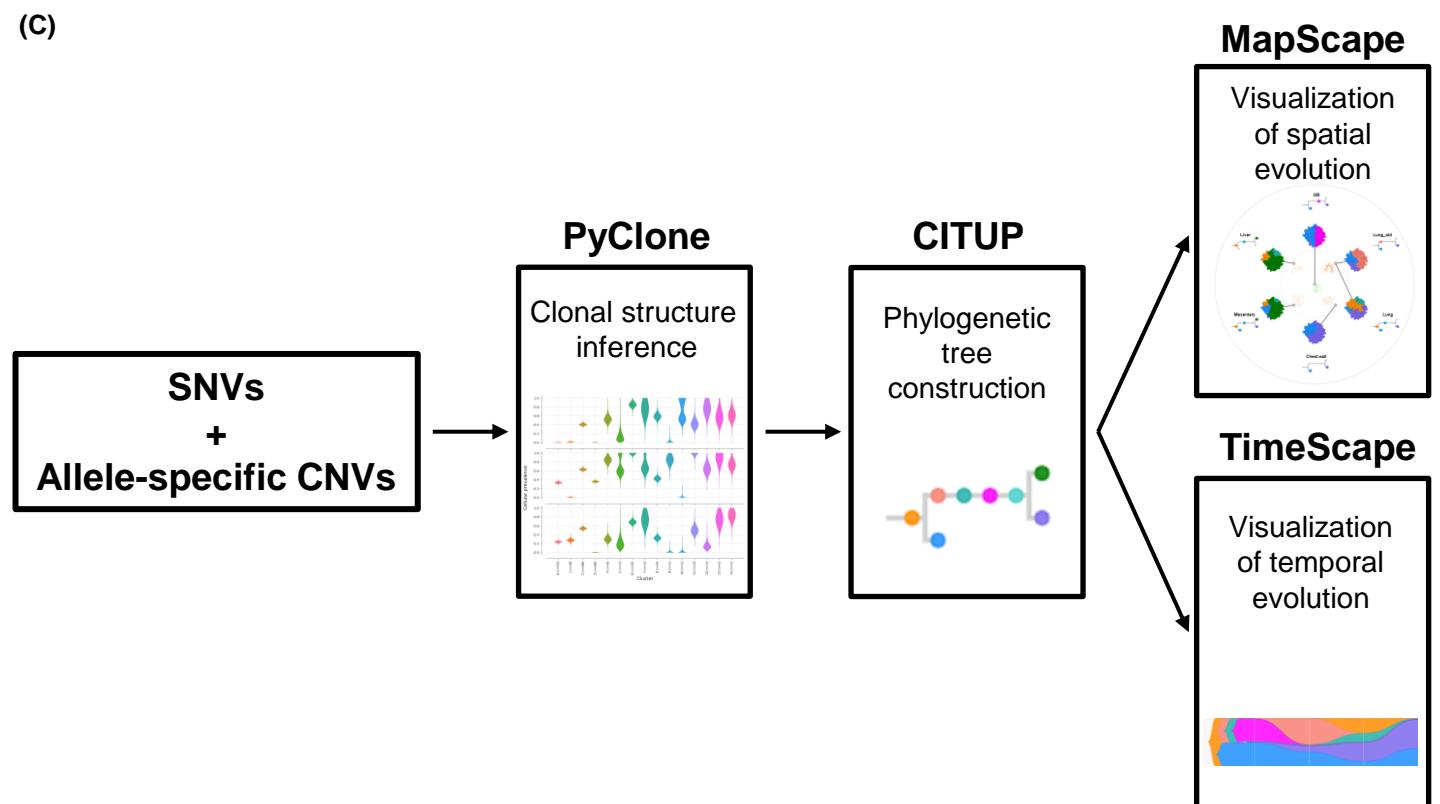
Fig. 1

(A)



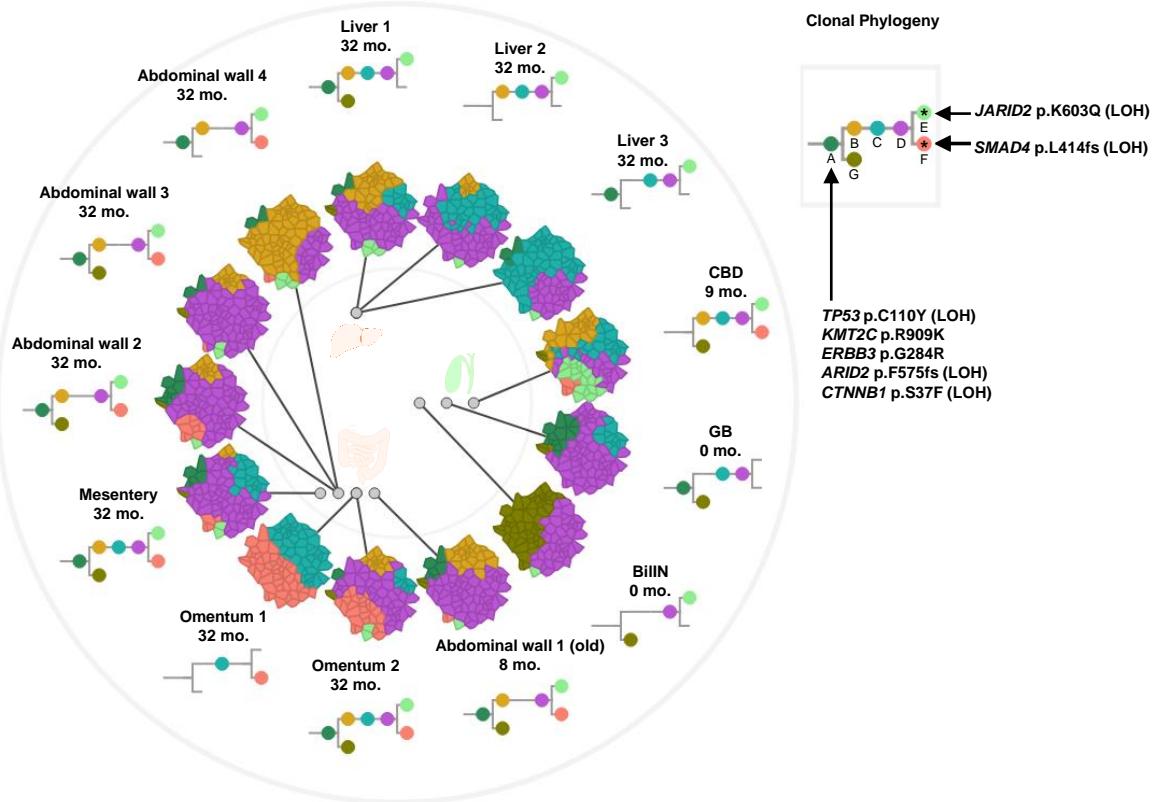
**Fig. 1****(B)**

Gene	Function	GB-S7	GB-S2	GB-A1	GB-A2	GB-S6	GB-S4	GB-S1	GB-S5	GB-S3	GB-S8	GB-S9	Mutational prevalence	MSKCC Cancer 2019	Shanghai group Nat. Genet. 2014
<i>ERBB2</i>	Oncogene												54.5%	7.9%	9.4%
<i>TP53</i>	TSG	●	●	●	●								45.5%	58.4%	25.0%
<i>FBXW7</i>	TSG	●											27.3%	4.0%	3.1%
<i>SMAD4</i>	TSG												18.2%	30.7%	3.1%
<i>CDKN2A</i>	TSG	●	●										18.2%	19.8%	0.0%
<i>KMT2C</i>	TSG												18.2%	5.0%	12.5%
<i>ARID1A</i>	TSG												9.1%	27.7%	6.3%
<i>ERBB3</i>	Oncogene				◇								9.1%	10.9%	9.4%
<i>KMT2D</i>	TSG												9.1%	8.9%	3.1%
<i>ARID2</i>	TSG				●								9.1%	6.9%	6.3%
<i>POLE</i>	TSG												9.1%	5.0%	0.0%
<i>GNAS</i>	Oncogene		◇										9.1%	4.0%	0.0%
<i>EP300</i>	TSG												9.1%	4.0%	0.0%
<i>KMT2A</i>	Oncogene												9.1%	3.0%	0.0%
<i>CSMD3</i>	TSG												9.1%	0.0%	3.1%
Ploidy		NE	NE	2n	2n	4n, WGD	NE	NE	2n	2n	NE	4n, WGD	33.3%	NE	NE

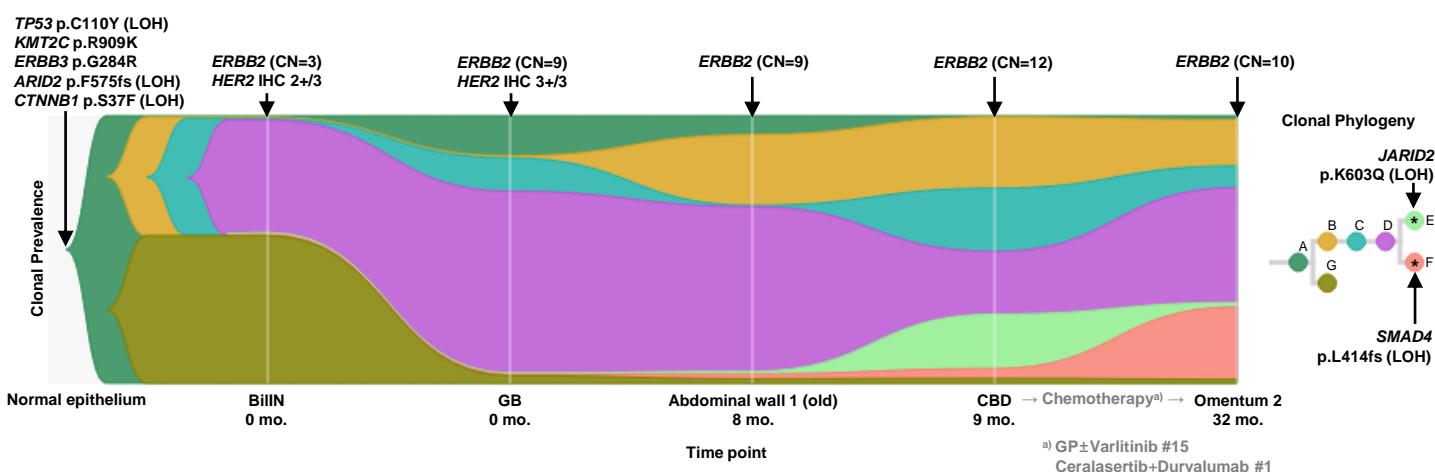
**(C)**

**Fig. 2**

**(A) GB-A1**

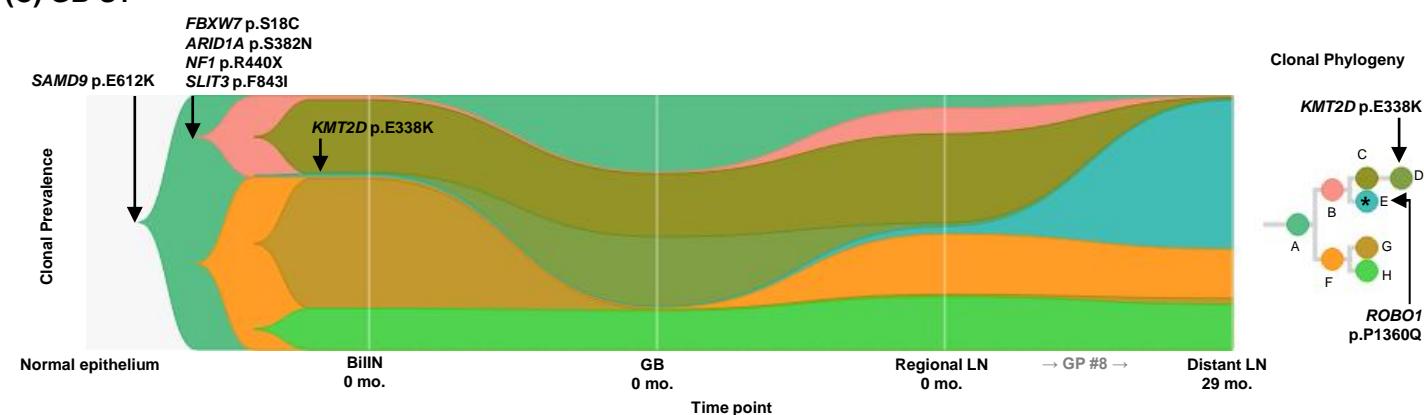


**(B) GB-A1**

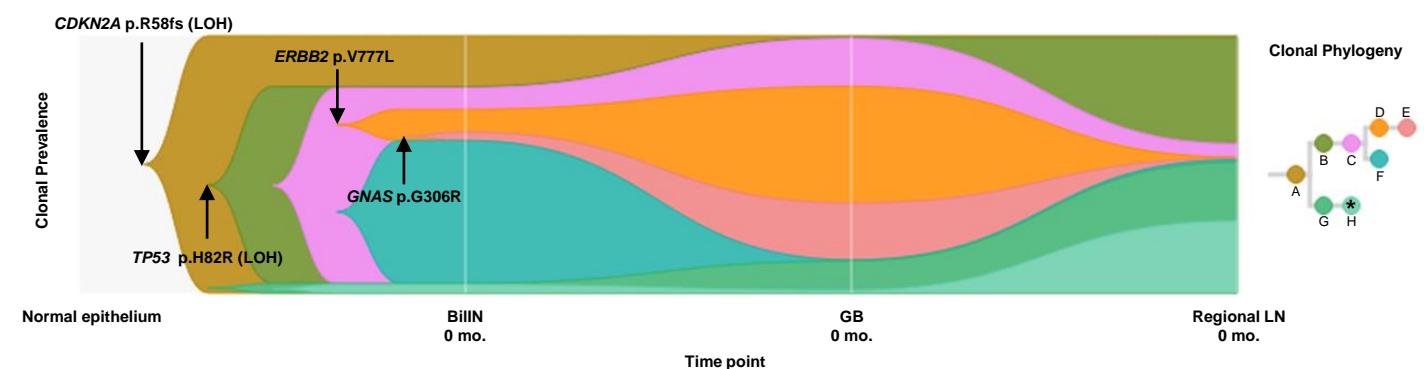


**Fig. 2**

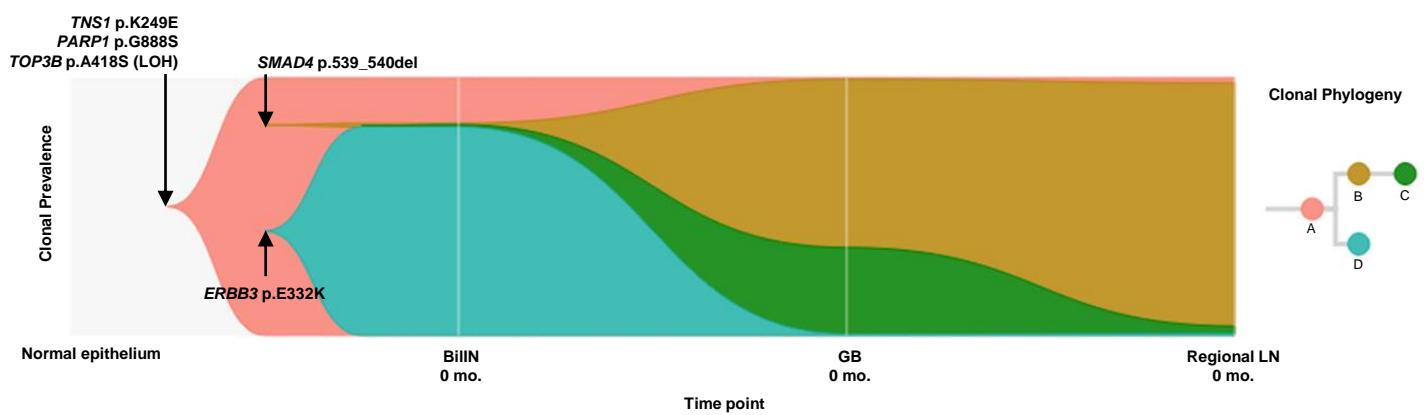
**(C) GB-S1**



**(D) GB-S2**

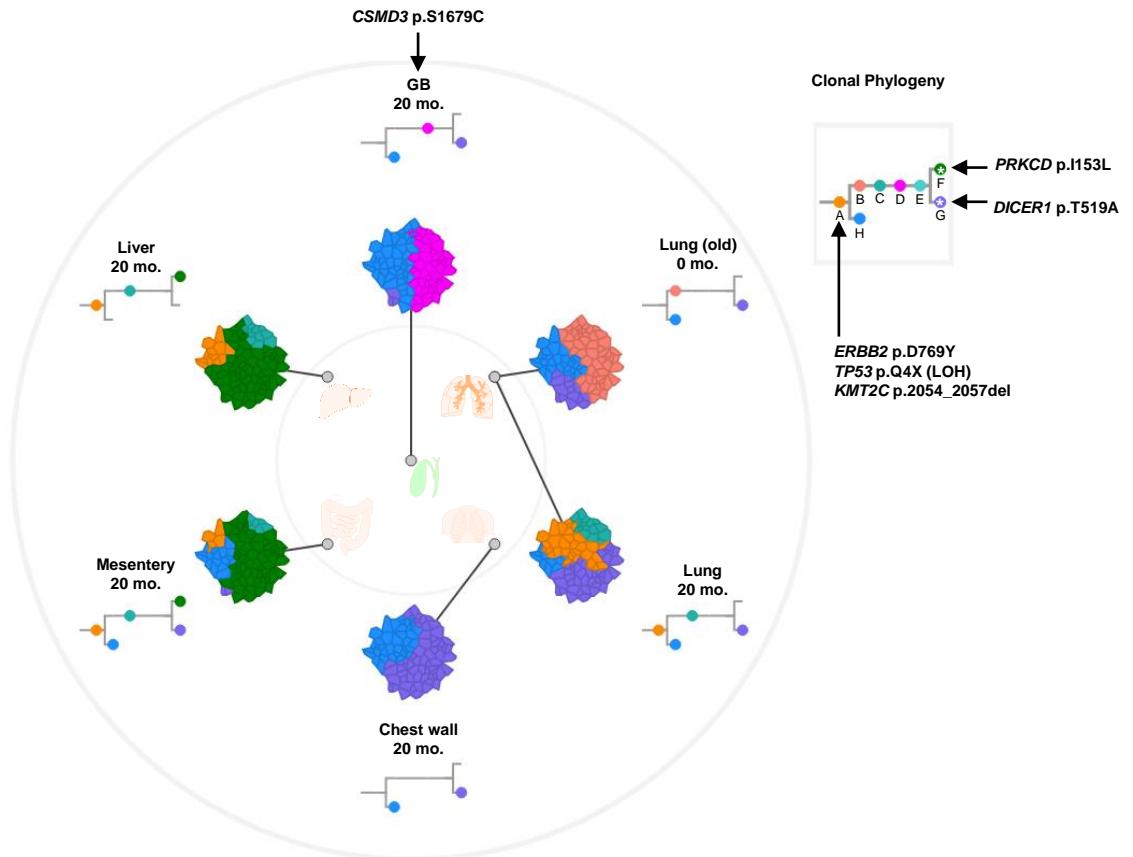


**(E) GB-S3**

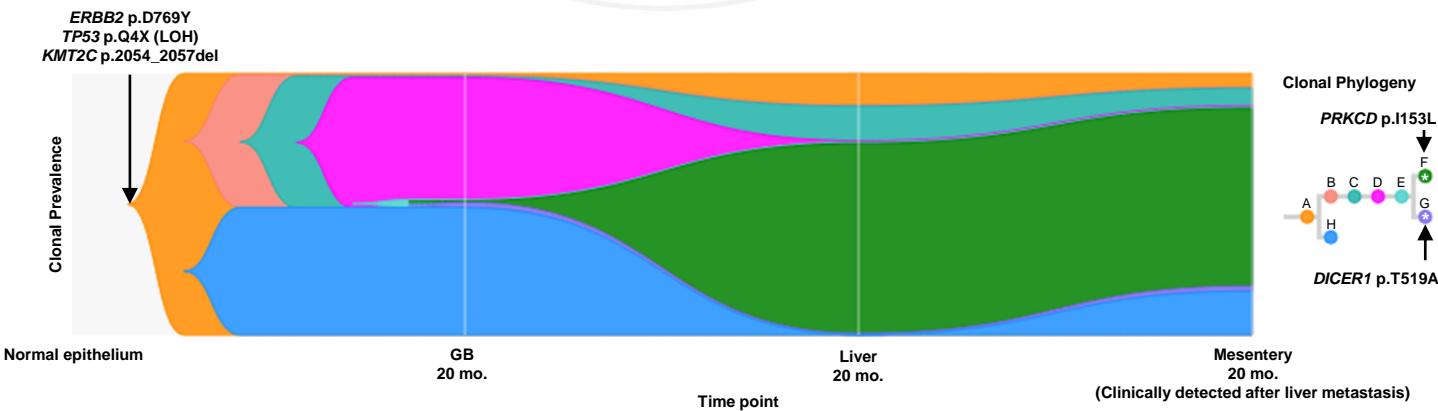


**Fig. 3**

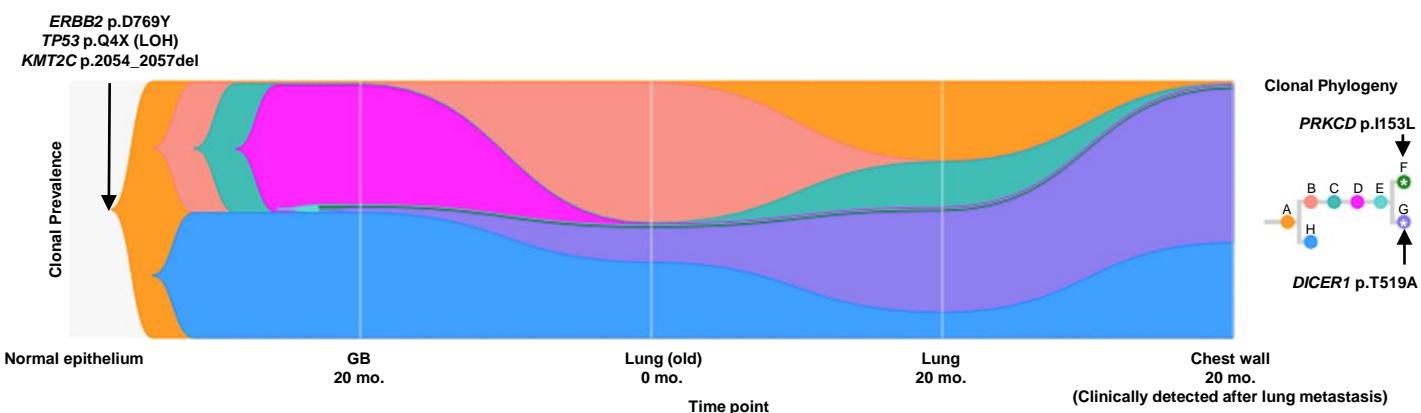
**(A) GB-A2**



**(B) GB-A2**

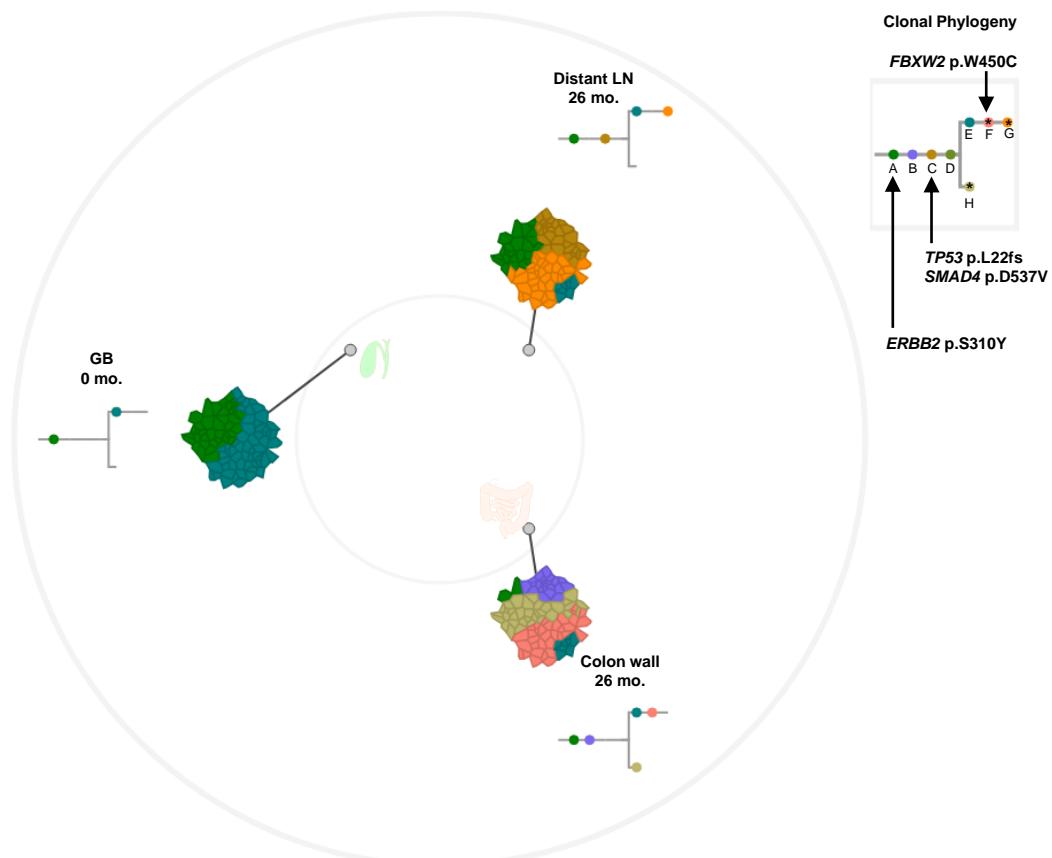


**(C) GB-A2**

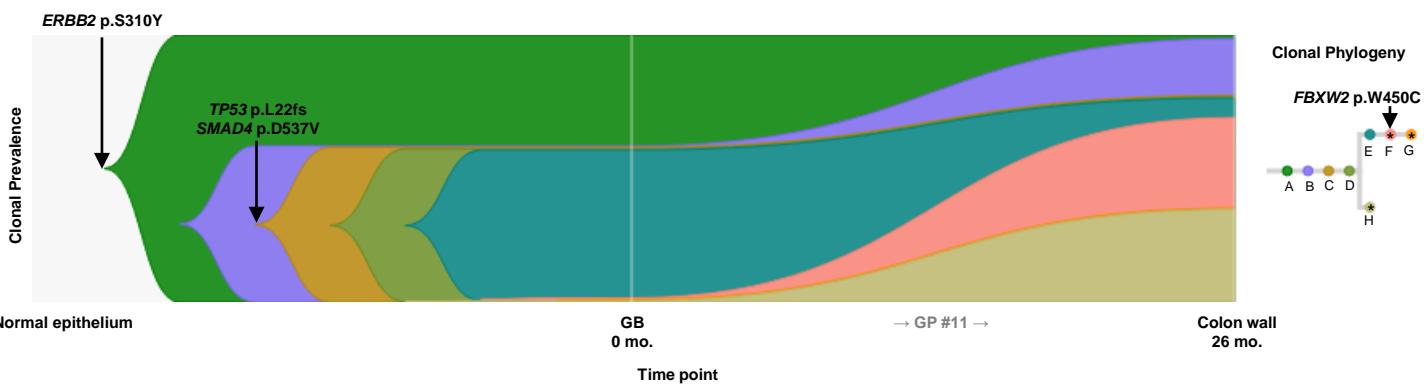


**Fig. 3**

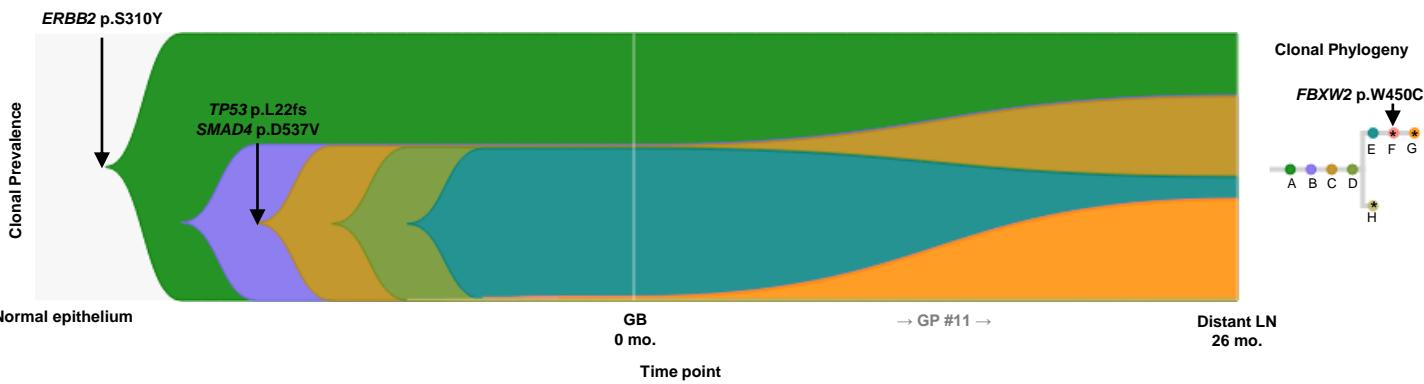
**(D) GB-S4**



**(E) GB-S4**

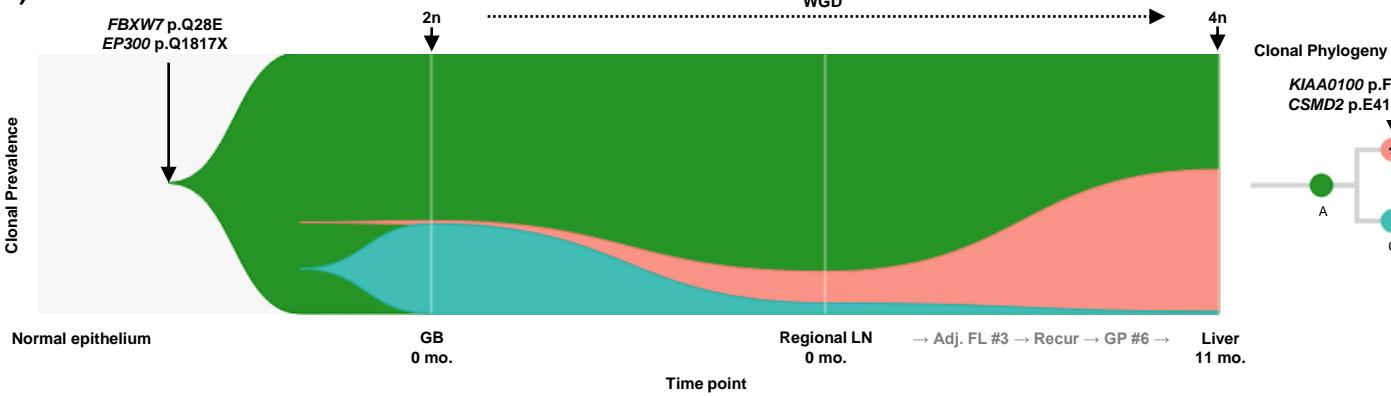


**(F) GB-S4**

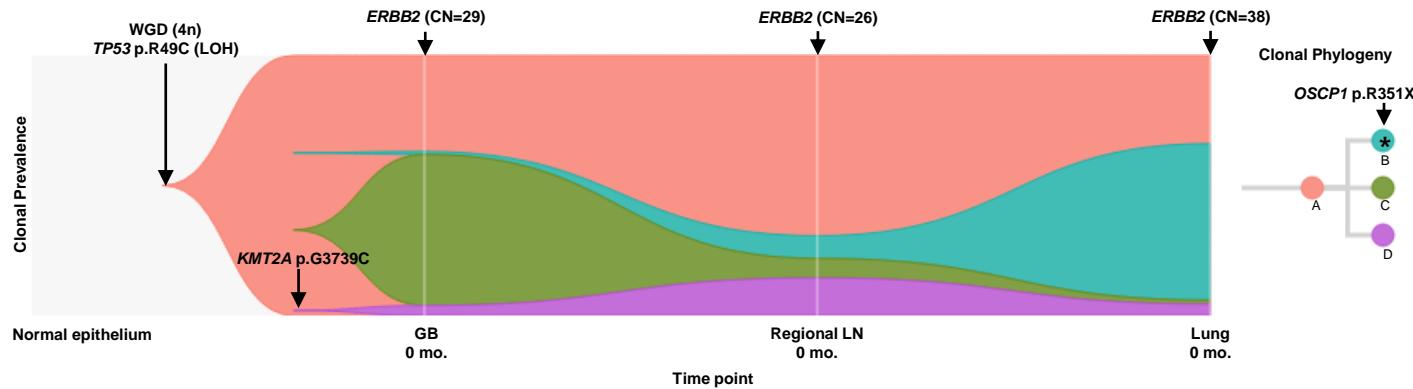


**Fig. 3**

**(G) GB-S5**



**(H) GB-S6**



**(I) GB-S7**

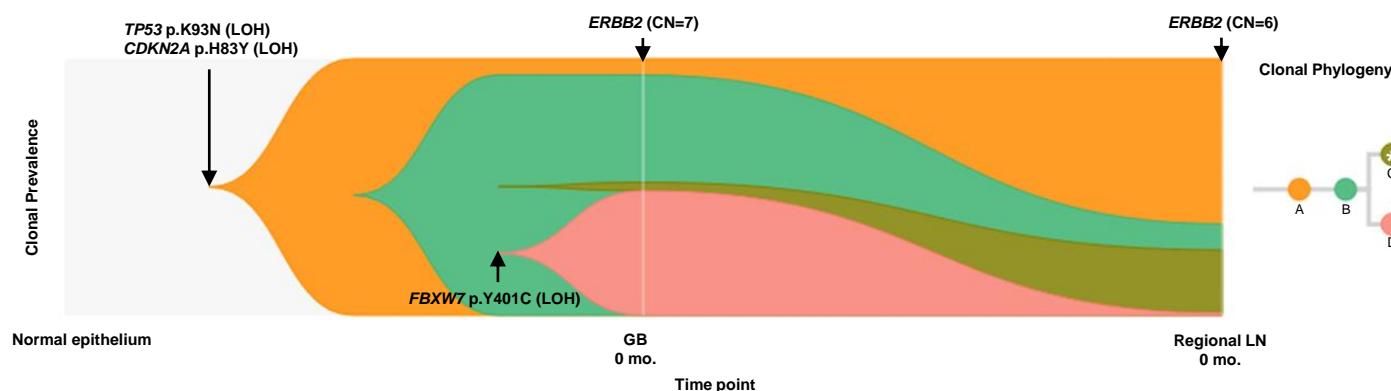
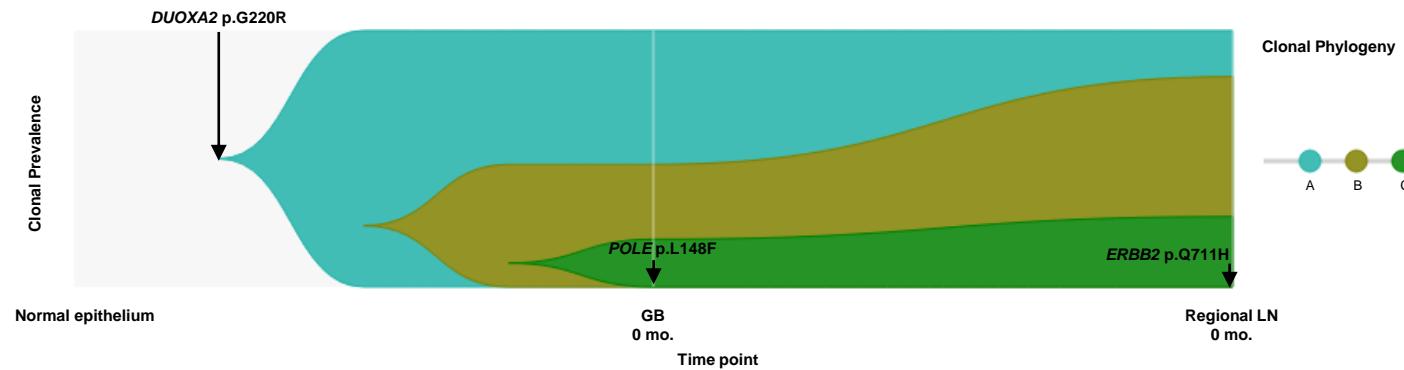
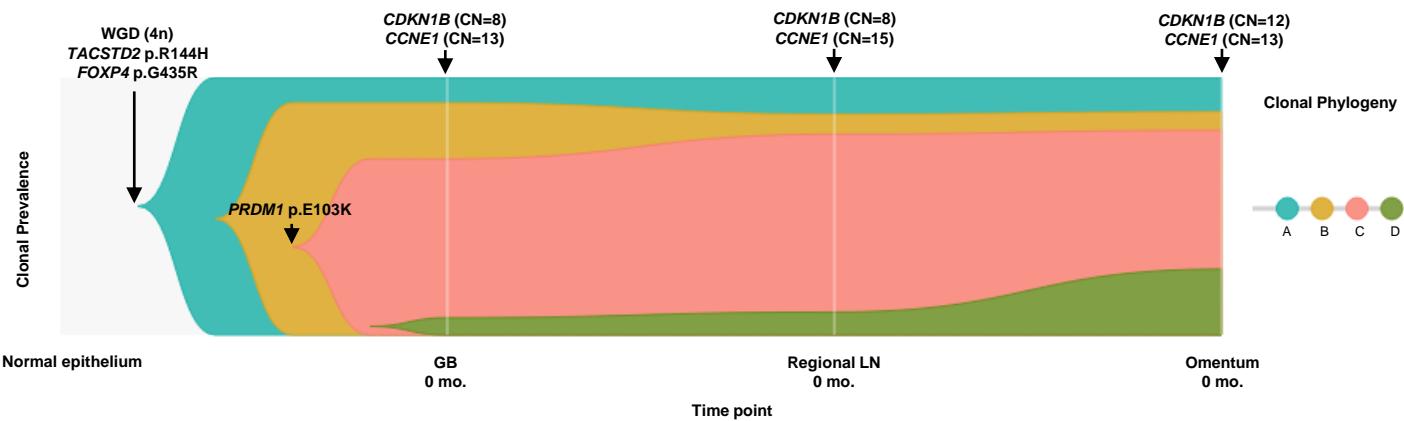


Fig. 3

(J) GB-S8



(K) GB-S9



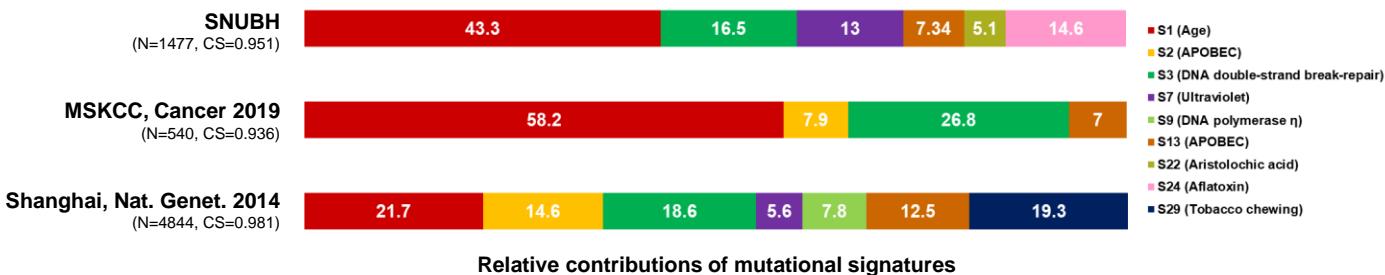
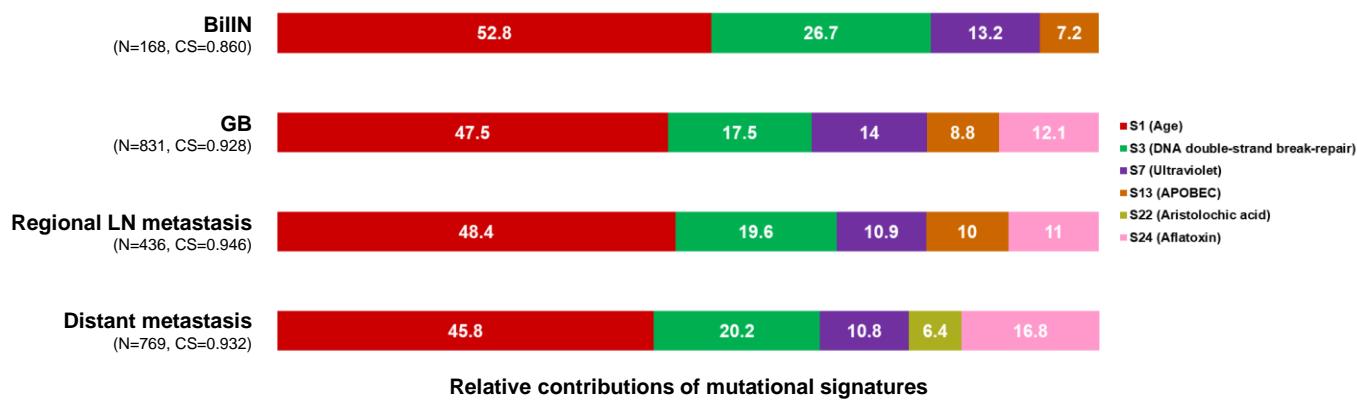
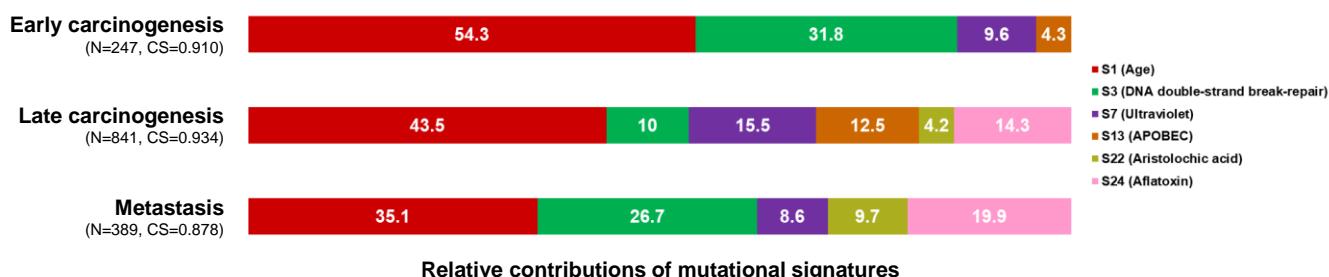
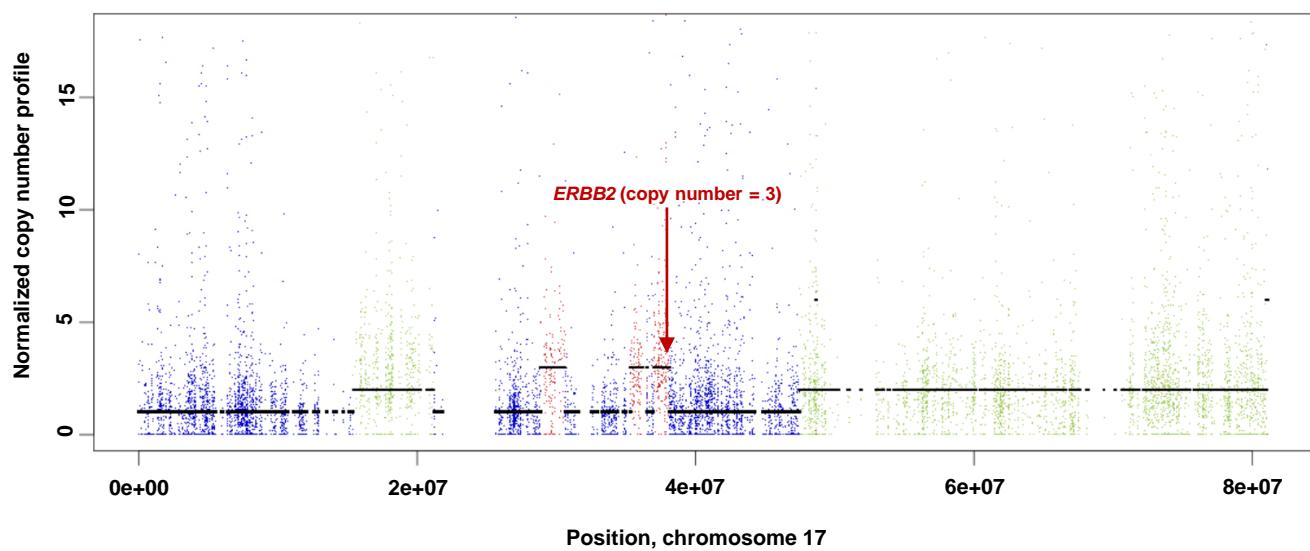
**Fig. 4****(A)****(B)****(C)**

Fig. 5

(A)



(B)

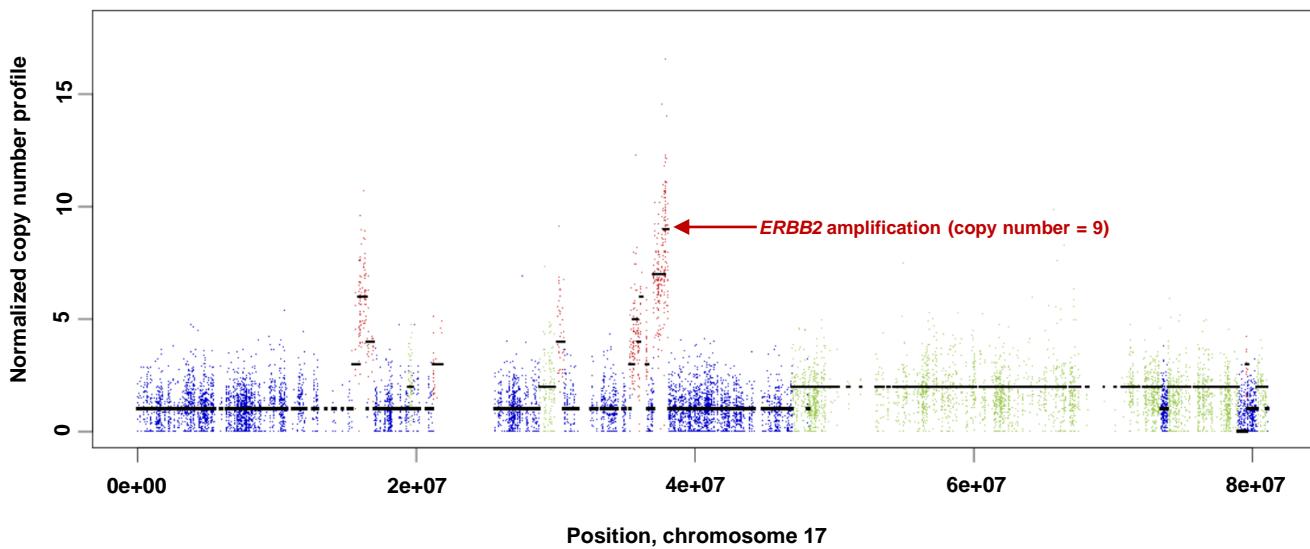
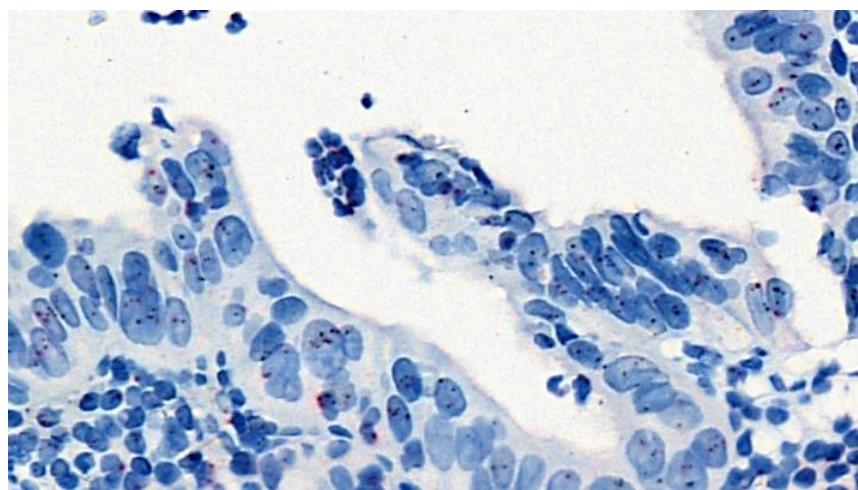
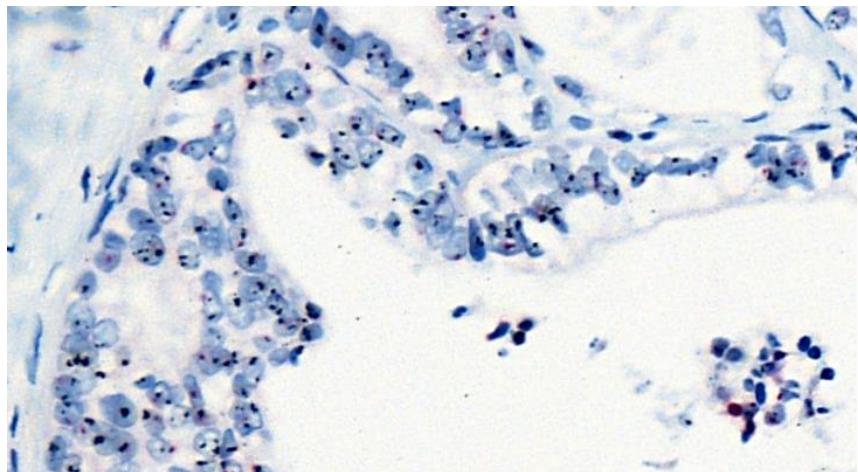


Fig. 5

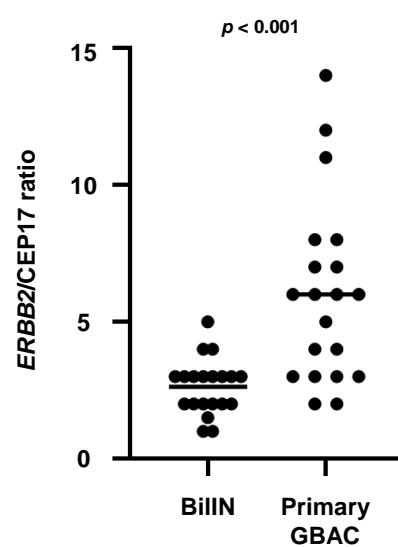
(C)



(D)

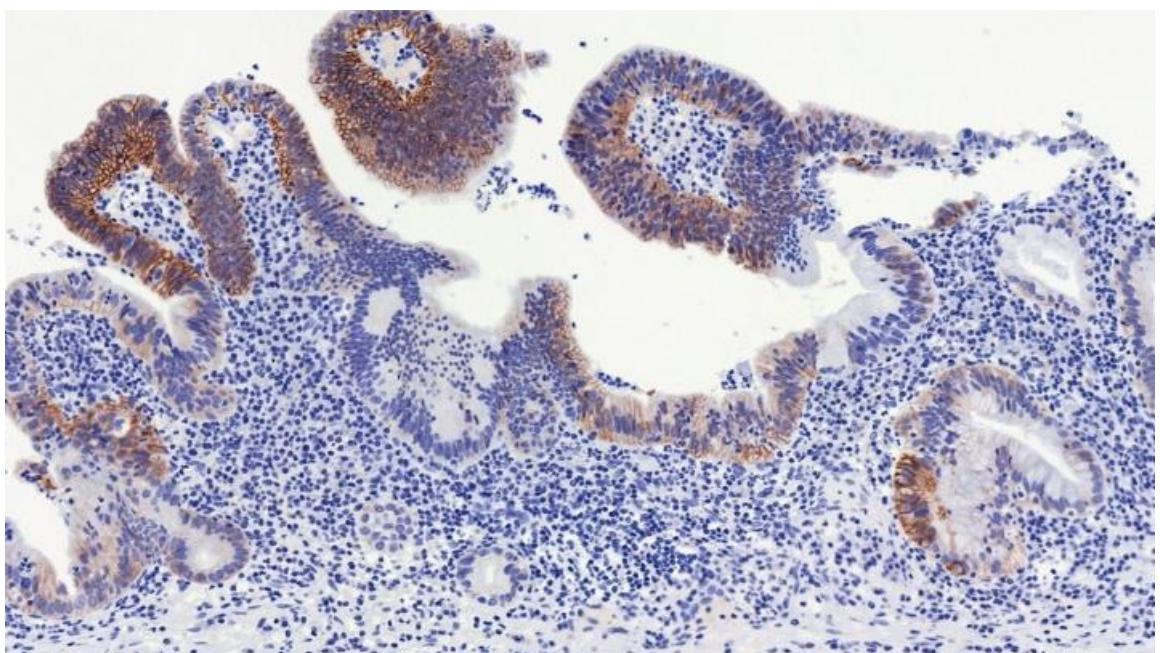


(E)

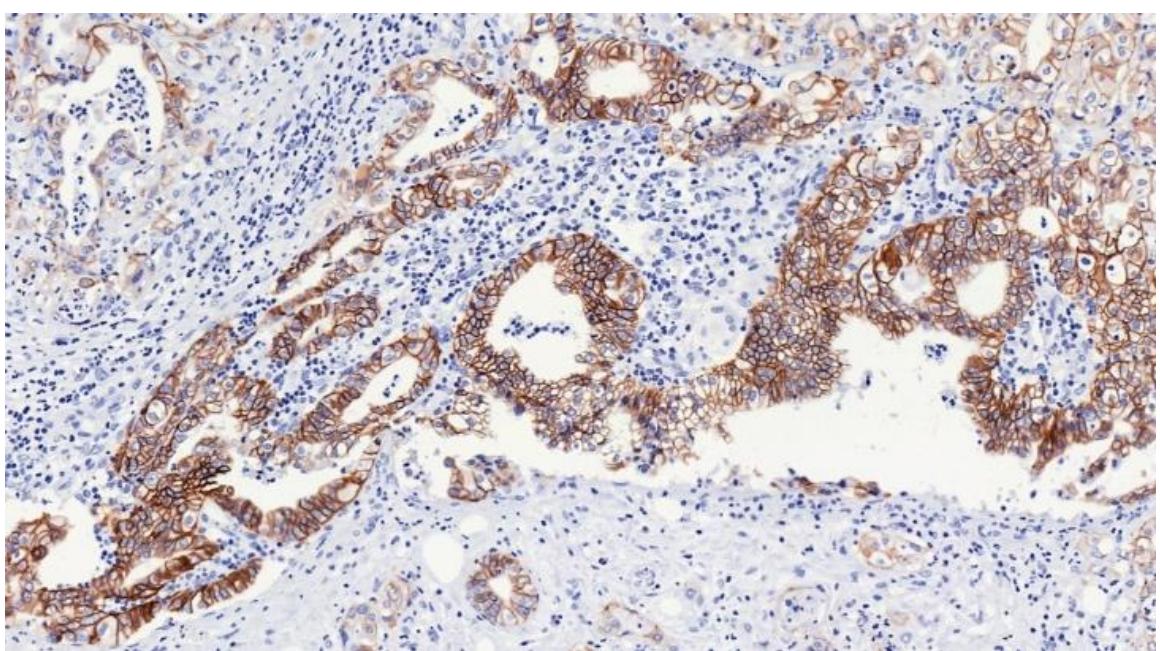


**Fig. 5**

**(F)**



**(G)**



**Table 1. Baseline characteristics of 11 patients with GBAC.**

Patient ID*	Sex	Age at diagnosis	ECOG PS at diagnosis	Stage at diagnosis	Differentiation
GB-A1	F	70	1	IV	PD
GB-S1	F	66	1	IV	MD
GB-S2	F	66	1	IV	MD
GB-S3	F	75	1	III	MD
GB-A2	M	61	1	IV	MD
GB-S4	M	72	1	IV	MD
GB-S5	F	70	1	IV	PD
GB-S6	M	70	0	IV	MD
GB-S7	F	74	1	IV	PD
GB-S8	M	67	1	III	WD
GB-S9	M	59	0	IV	MD

\* In patient ID, “A” indicates autopsy cases whereas “S” indicates surgery cases.

GBAC, gallbladder adenocarcinoma; ECOG PS, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group performance status; M, male; F, female; PD, poorly differentiated; MD, moderately differentiated; WD, well-differentiated.

**Table 2. List of subclones expanding during metastasis.**

Patient ID	Subclone	No. of mutations	Putative driver mutations	Clonal prevalence in primary tumor	Clonal prevalence in metastasis	Metastatic organ
GB-A1	E	121	<i>JARID2</i> p.K603Q (LOH)	0.2%	20.5%	CBD
	F	54	<i>SMAD4</i> p.L414fs (LOH)	0.4%	49.8% 27.0%	Omentum 1 Omentum 2
GB-S1	E	6	<i>ROBO1</i> p.P1360Q	0.0%	59.2%	Distant LN
GB-S2	H	6	-	1.2%	28.1%	Regional LN
GB-A2	F	14	<i>PRKCD</i> p.I153L	0.3%	73.1%	Liver
	G	3	<i>DICER1</i> p.T519A	2.8%	68.3%	Mesentery
					39.9%	Lung
GB-S4	F	32	<i>FBXW2</i> p.W450C	0.0%	34.1%	Colon wall
	H	36	-	0.0%	34.9%	Distant LN
GB-S5	B	28	<i>KIAA0100</i> p.F5S <i>CSMD2</i> p.E411K	1.2%	54.4%	Liver

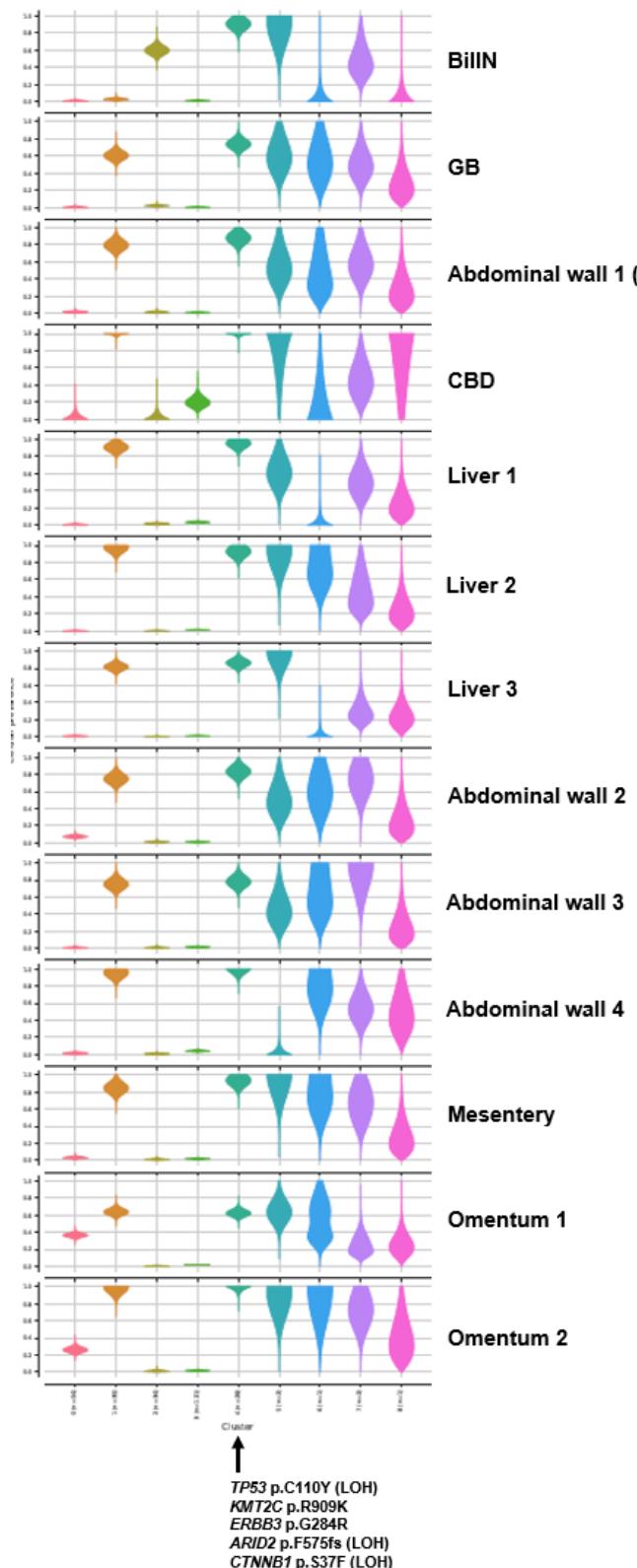
Patient ID	Subclone	No. of mutations	Putative driver mutations	Clonal prevalence in primary tumor	Clonal prevalence in metastasis	Metastatic organ
GB-S6	B	7	<i>OSCP1</i> p.R351X	1.1%	60.2%	Lung
GB-S7	C	5	-	3.3%	24.7%	Regional LN

Putative driver mutations in tumor suppressor genes are indicated, and a full list of mutated genes is specified in Supplementary File 1.

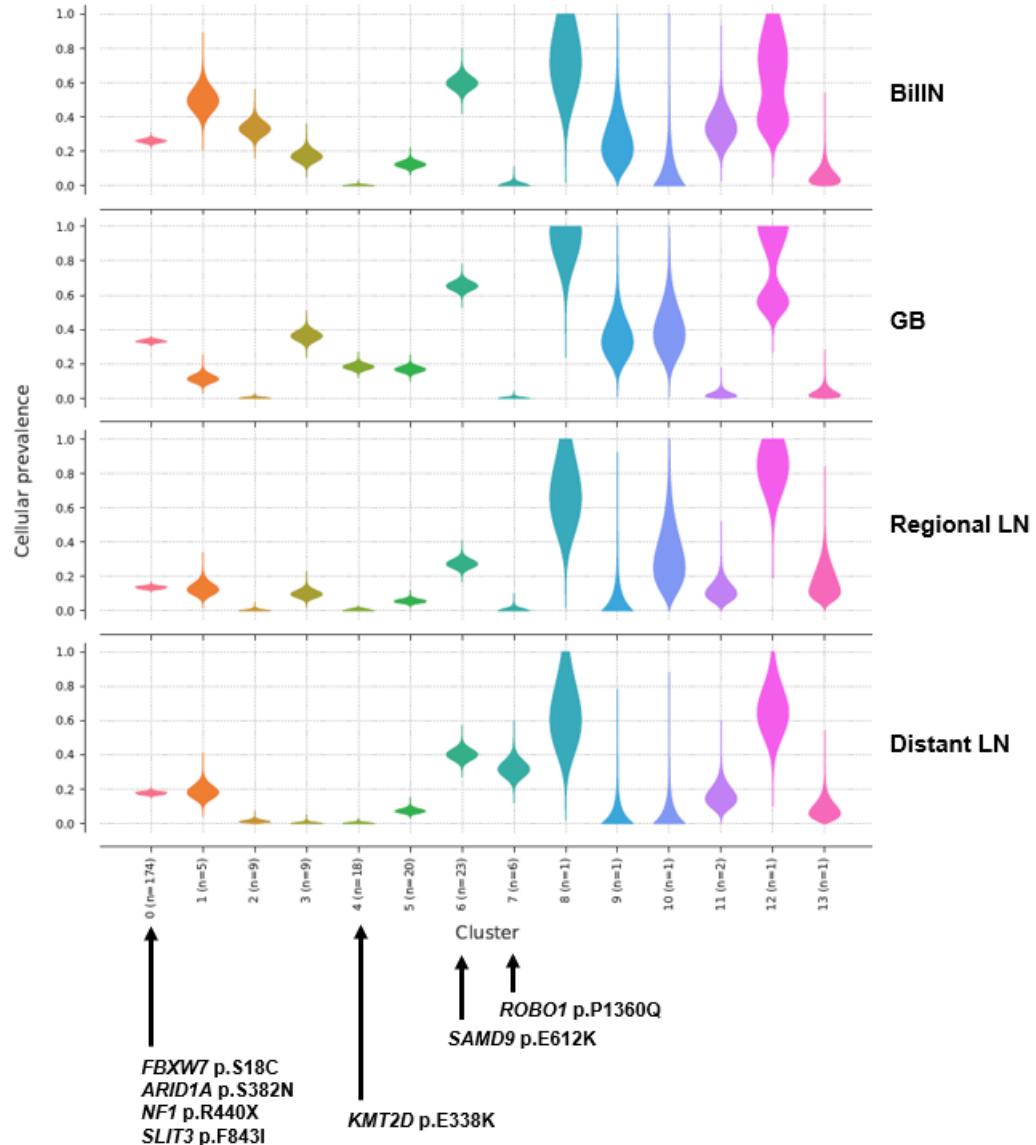
GB, gallbladder; LN, lymph node; CBD, common bile duct.

**Figure 1—figure supplement 1. Inference of clonal structure by PyClone algorithm.**

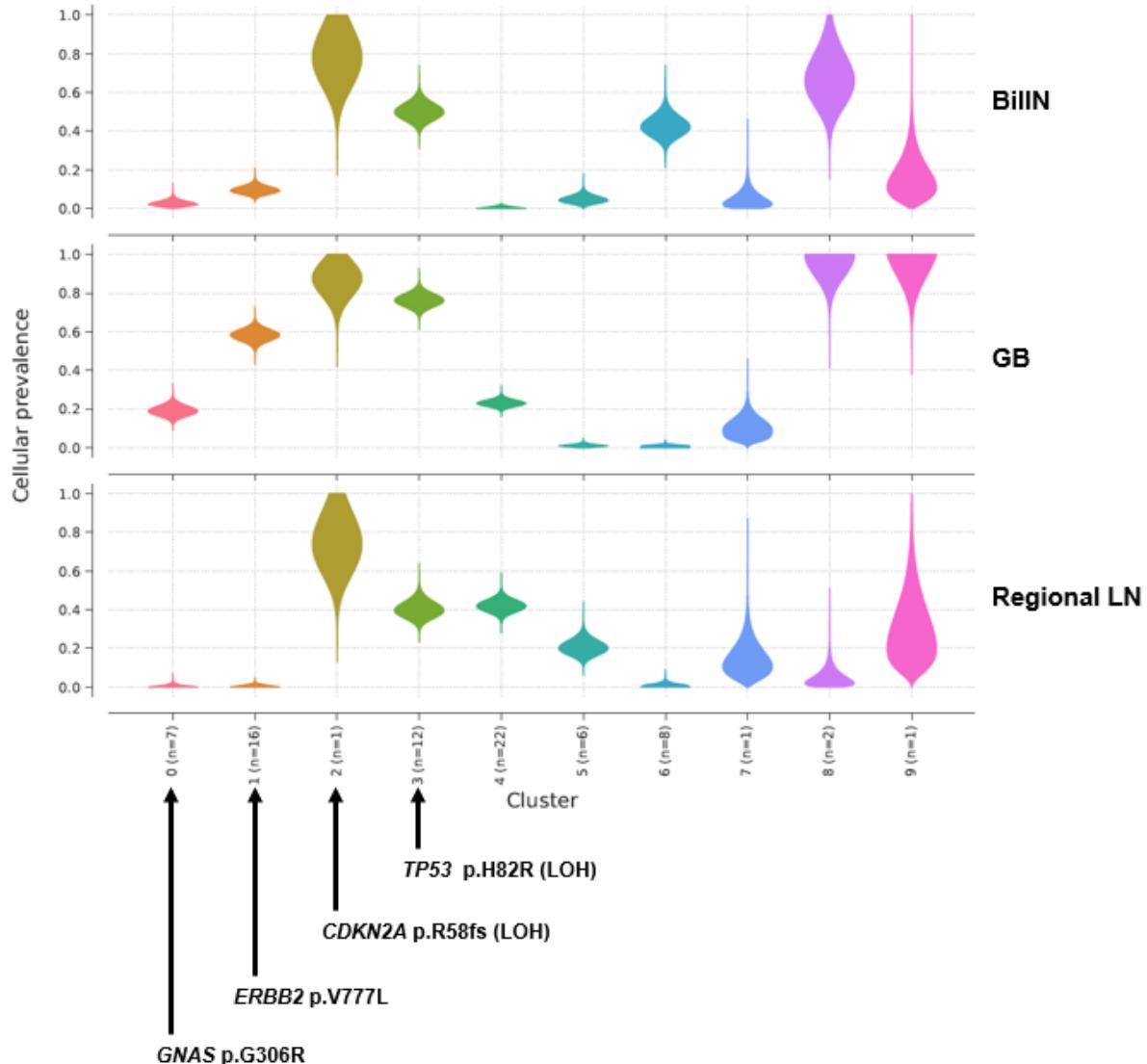
(A) GB-A1 patient.



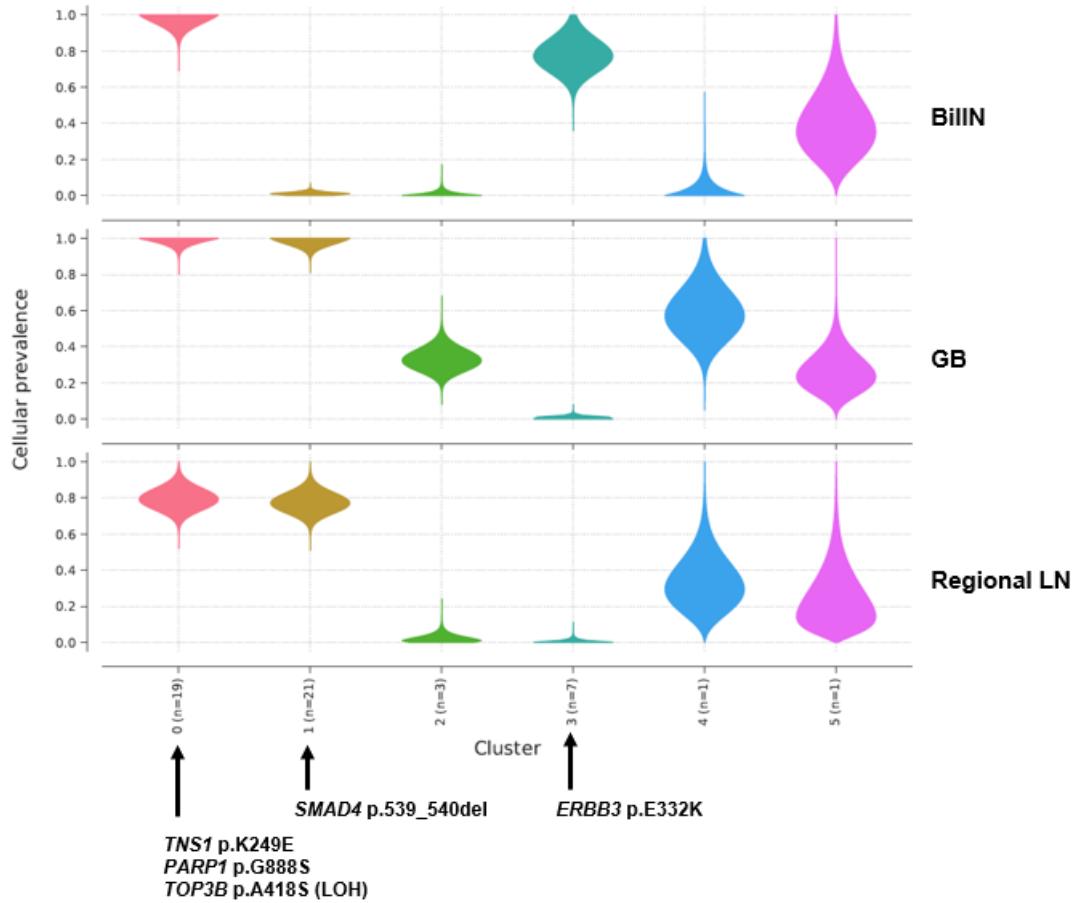
(B) GB-S1 patient.



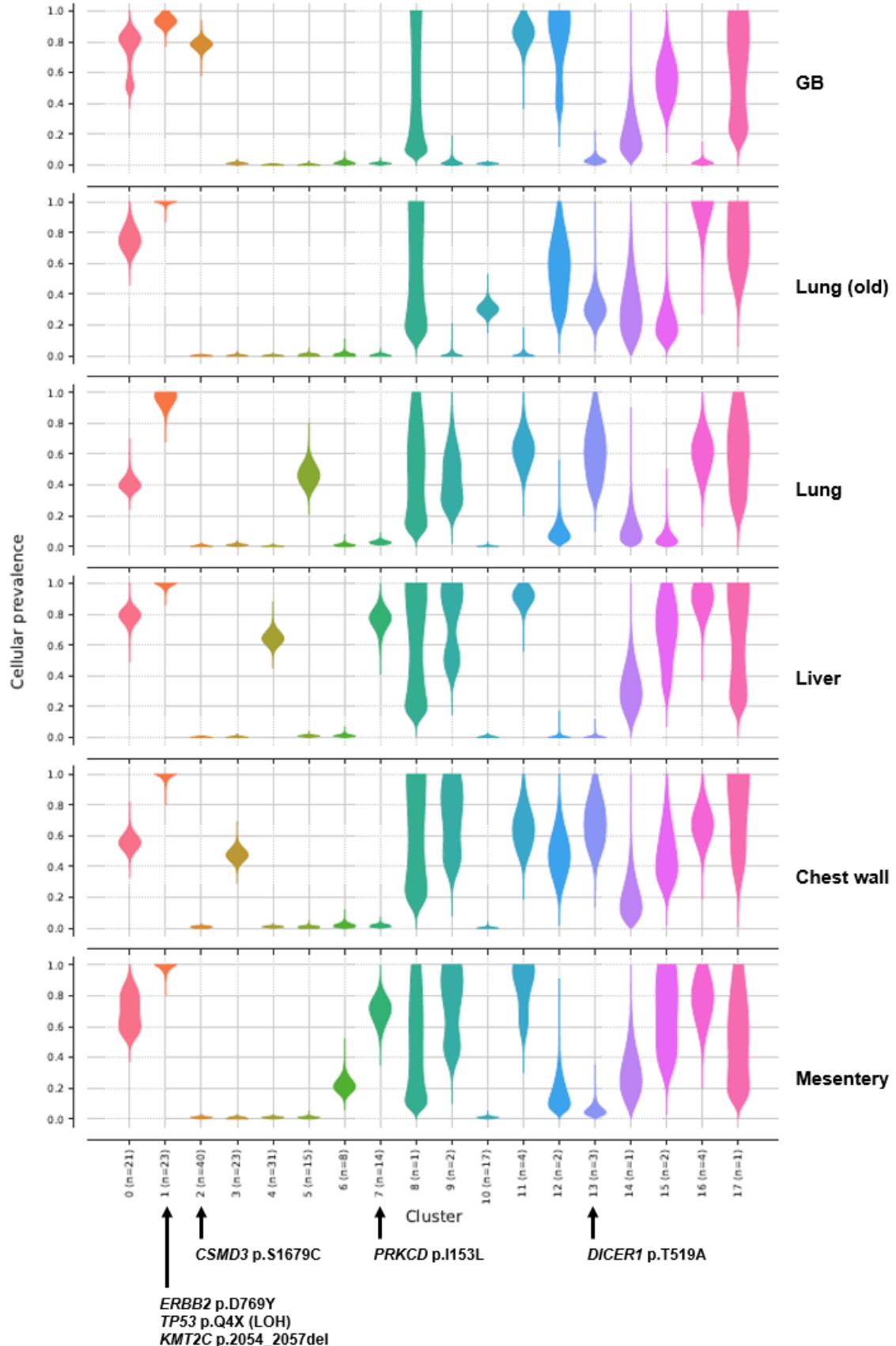
(C) GB-S2 patient.



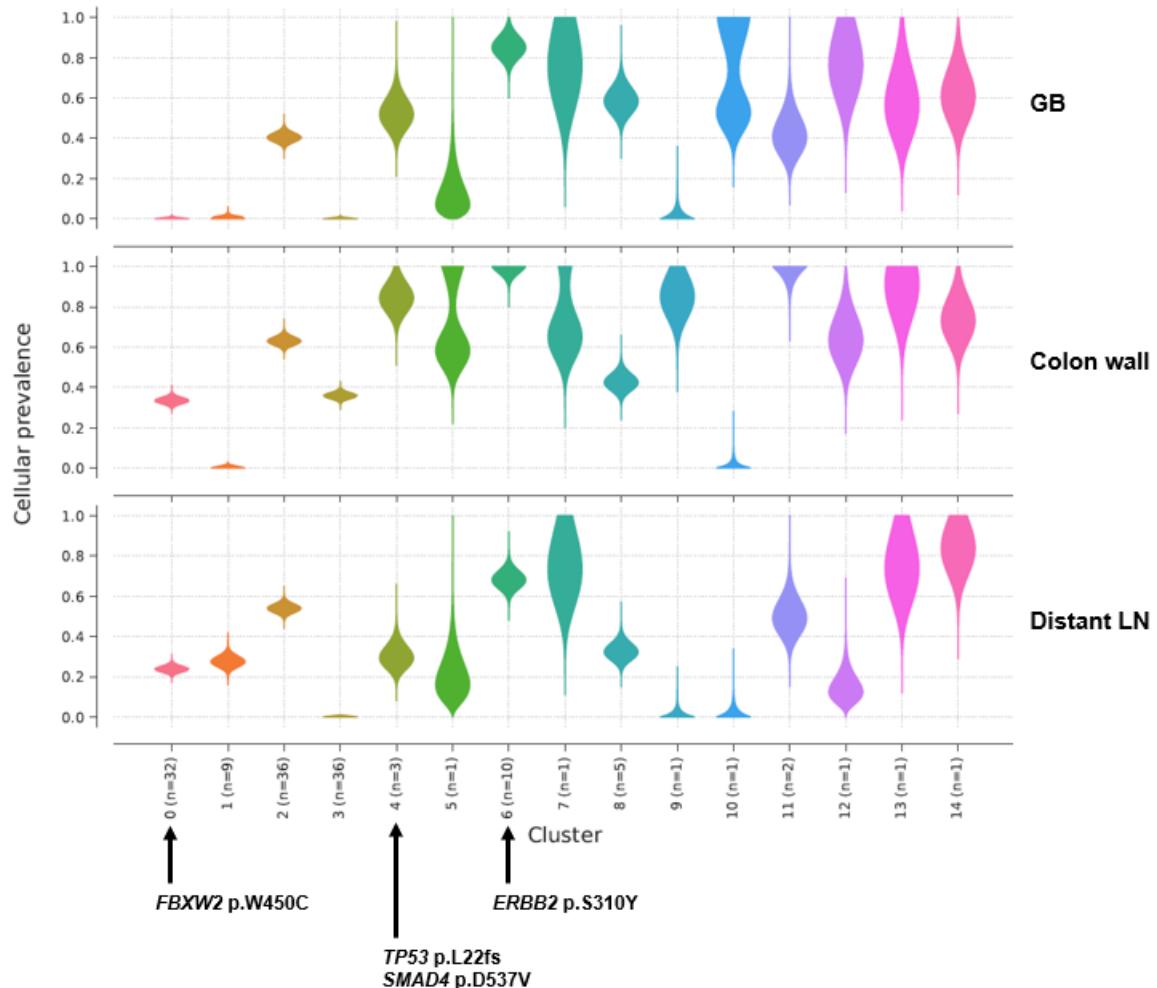
(D) GB-S3 patient.



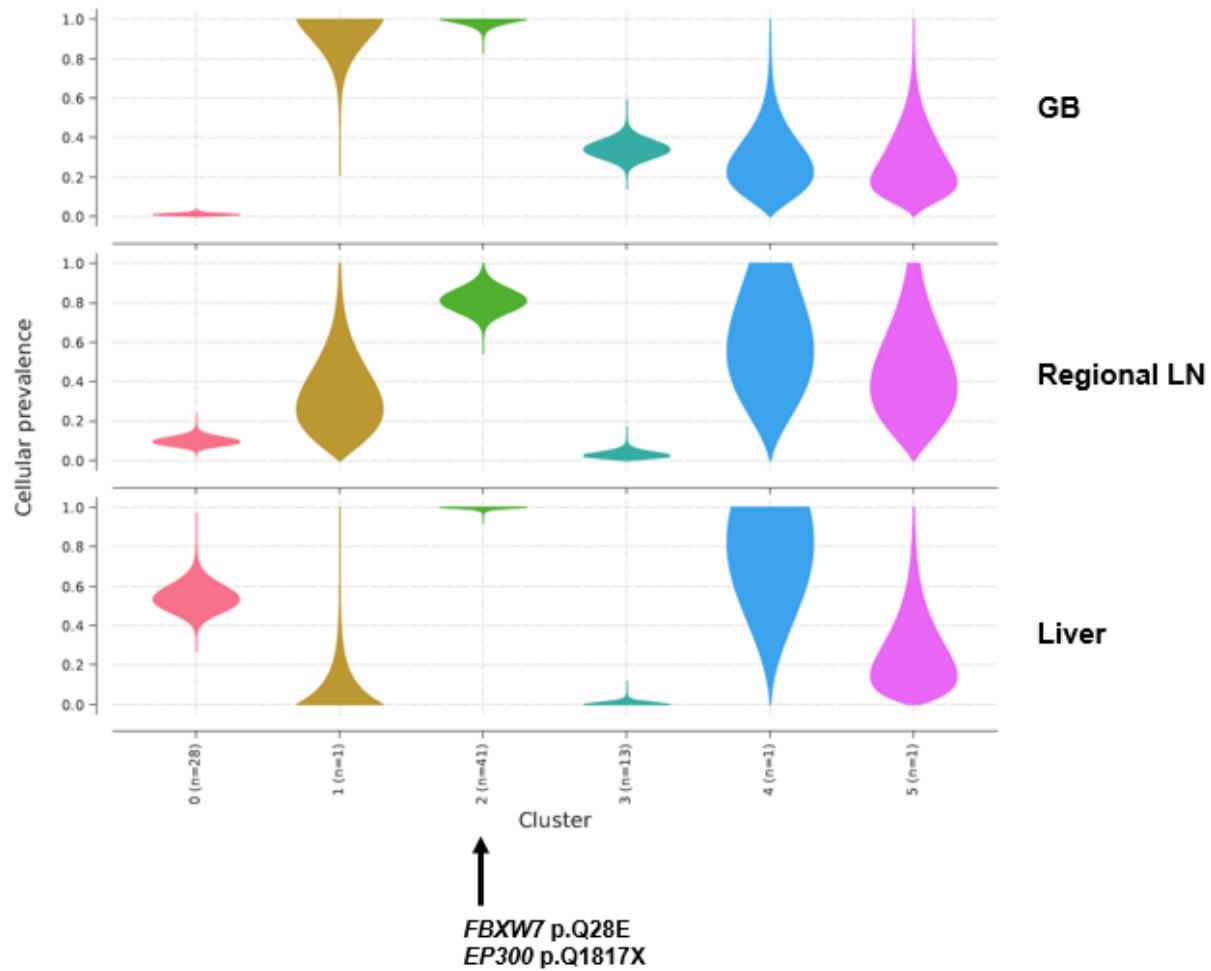
(E) GB-A2 patient.



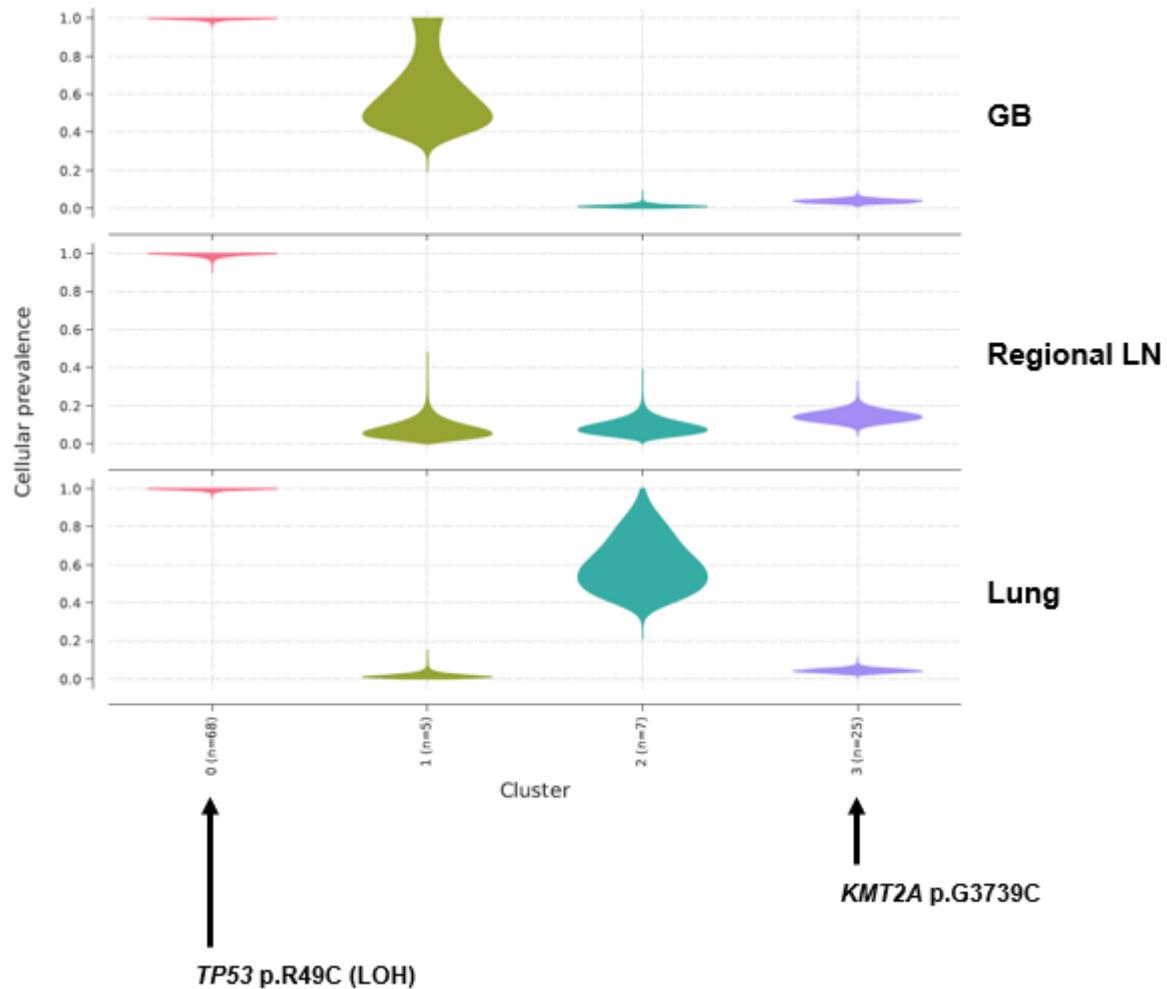
(F) GB-S4 patient.



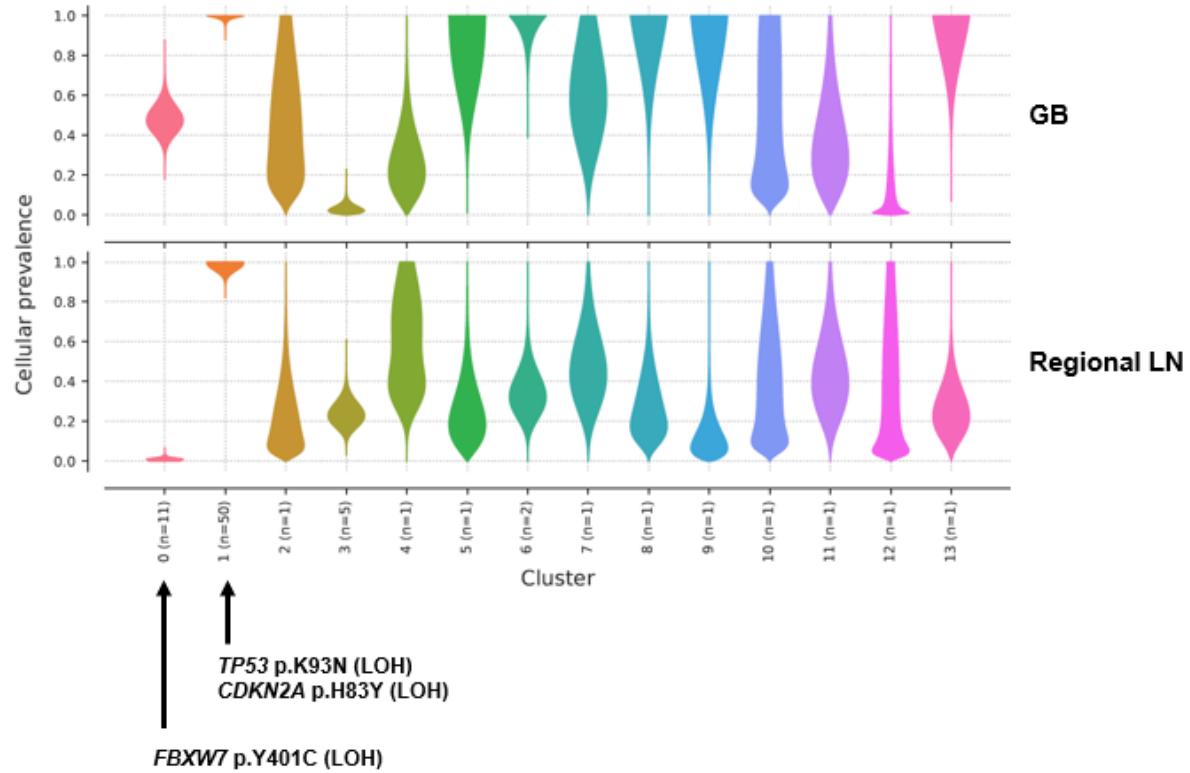
(G) GB-S5 patient.



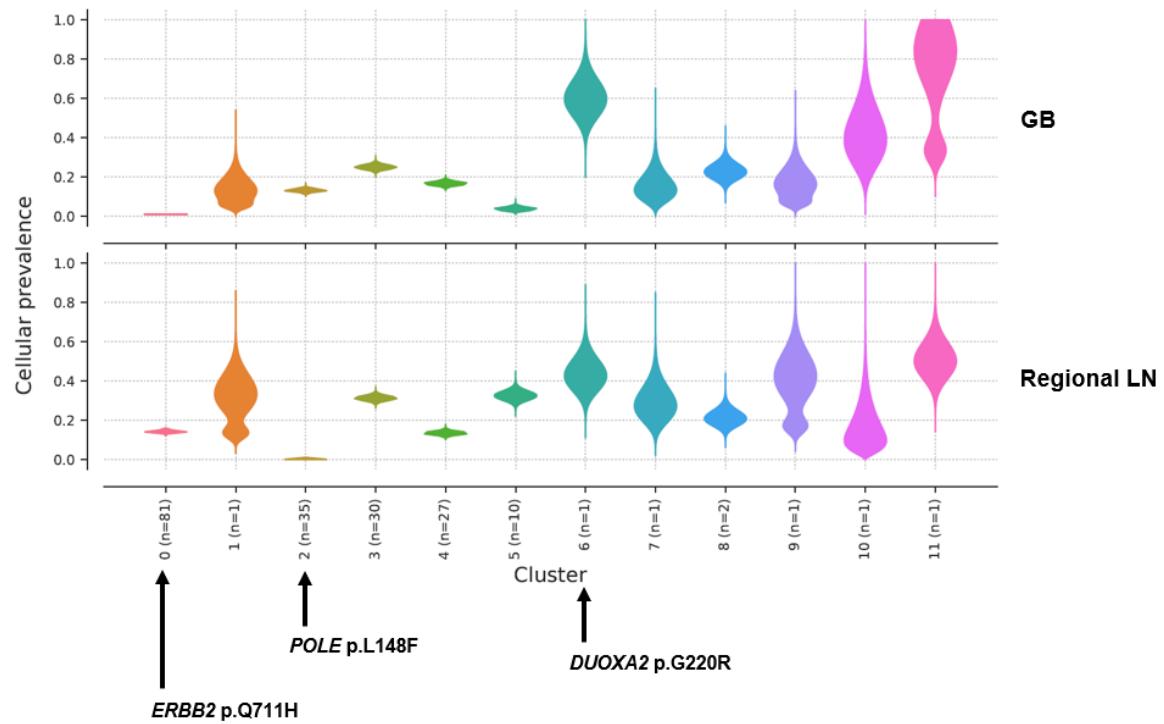
(H) GB-S6 patient.



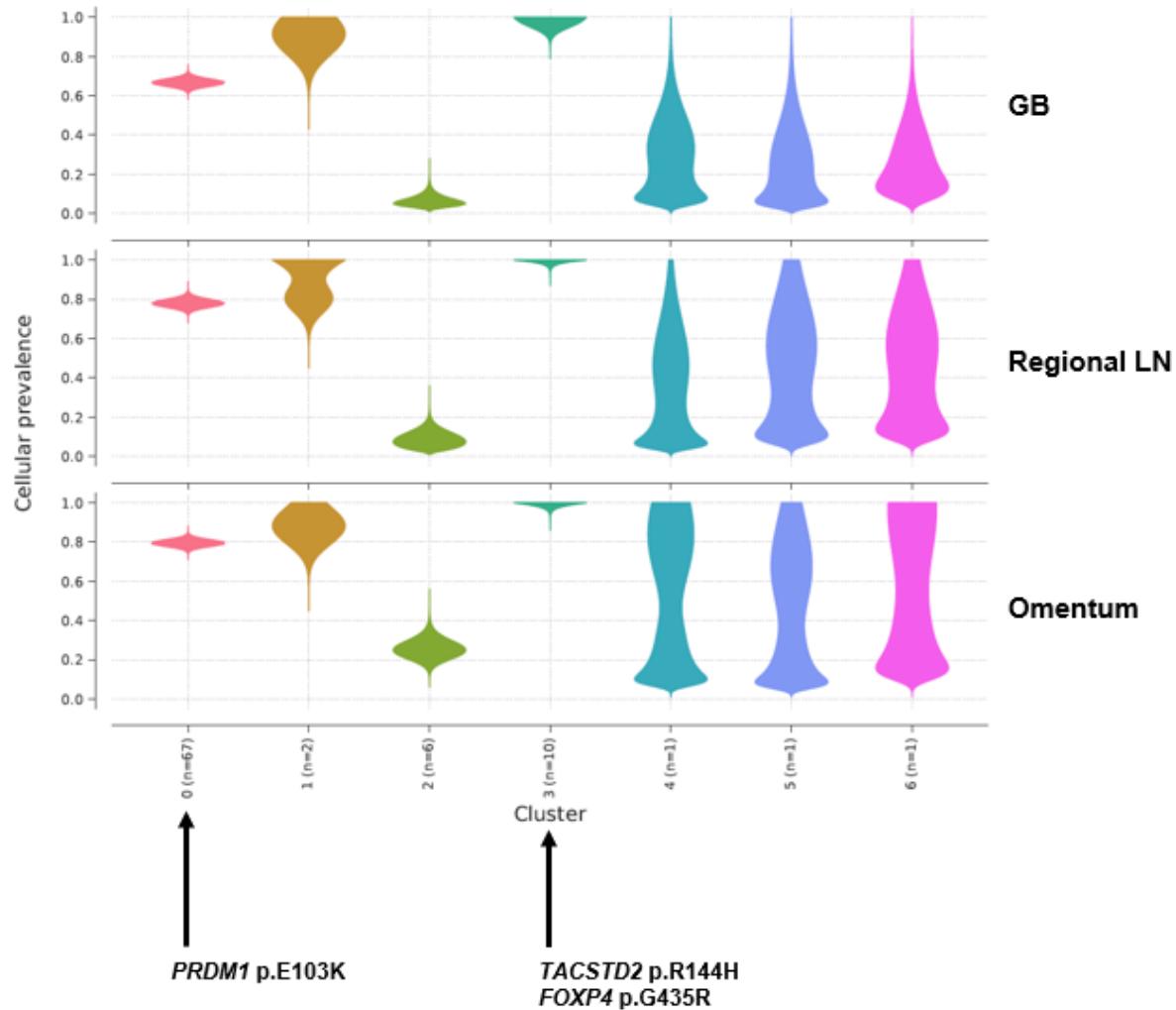
(I) GB-S7 patient.



(J) GB-S8 patient.

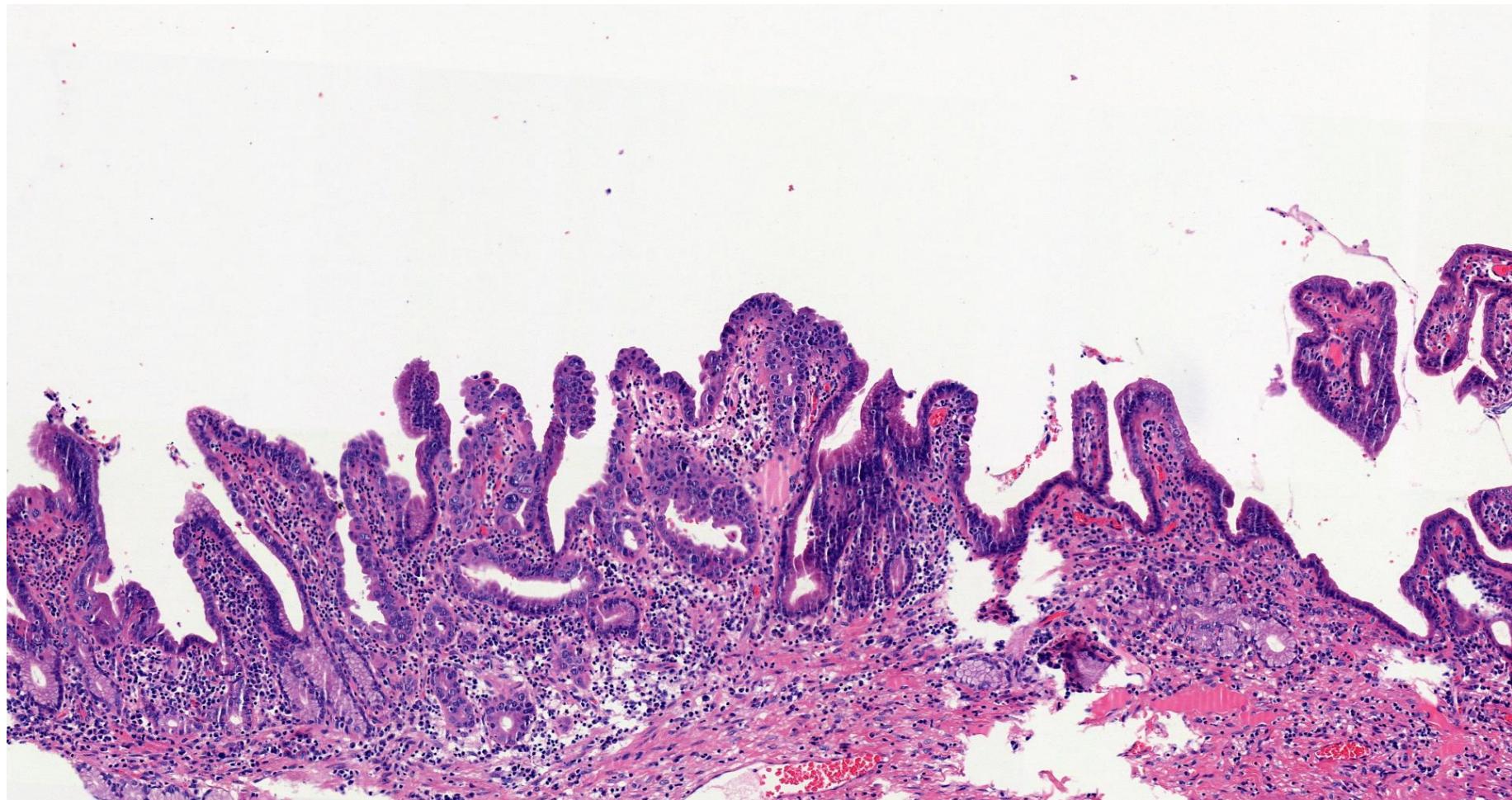


(K) GB-S9 patient.

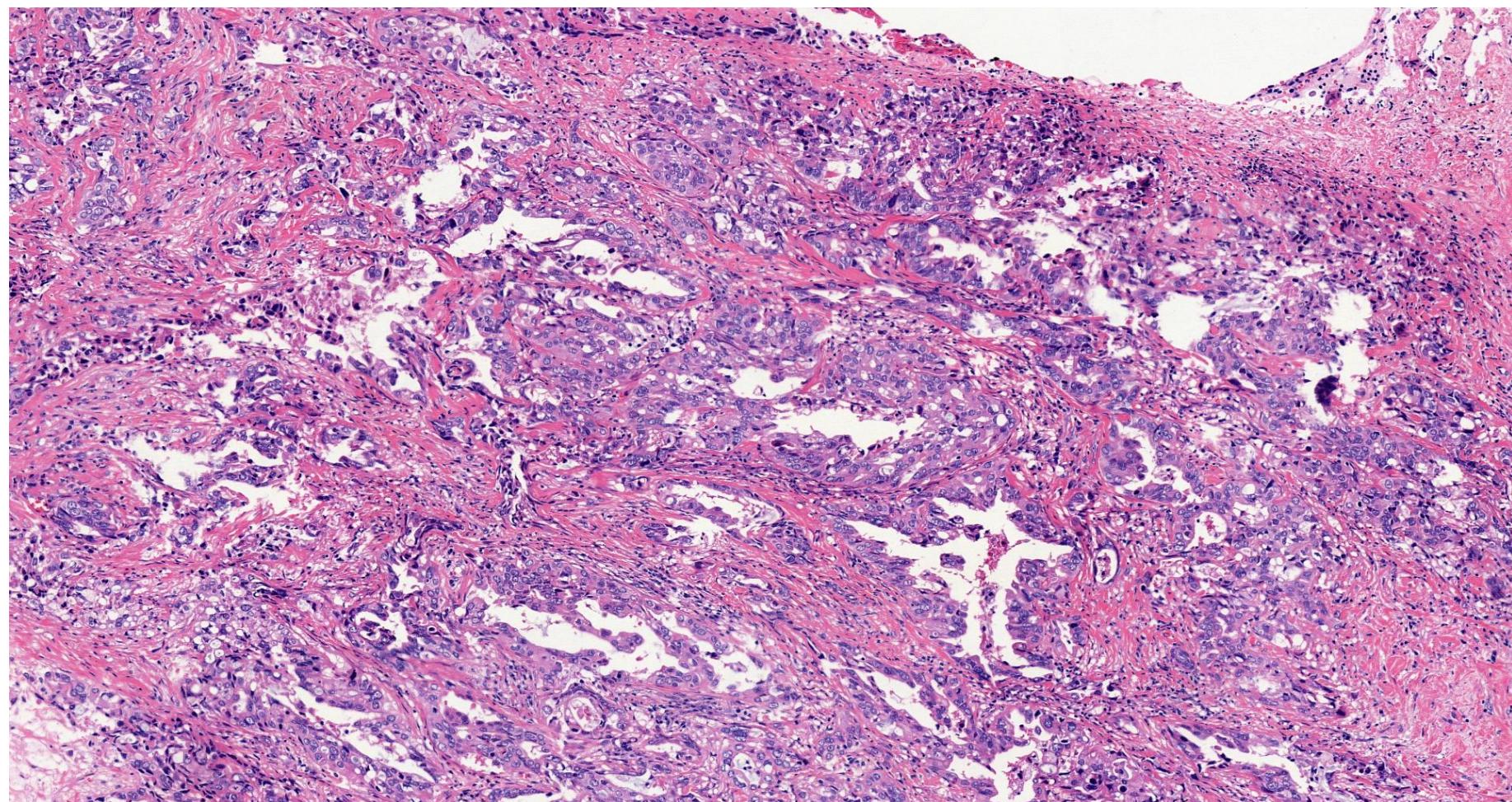


**Figure 1—figure supplement 2. BiIN and primary GBAC of the GB-S7 patient presumed to be derived from different origins.**

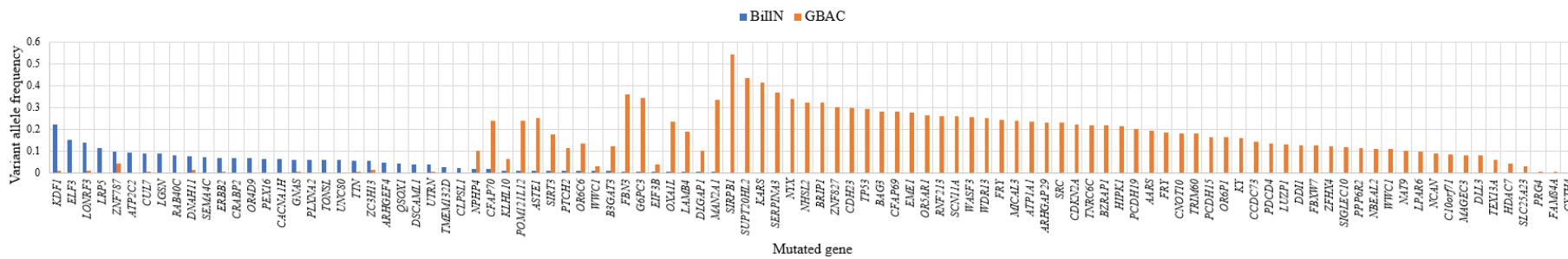
(A) H&E staining of BiIN.



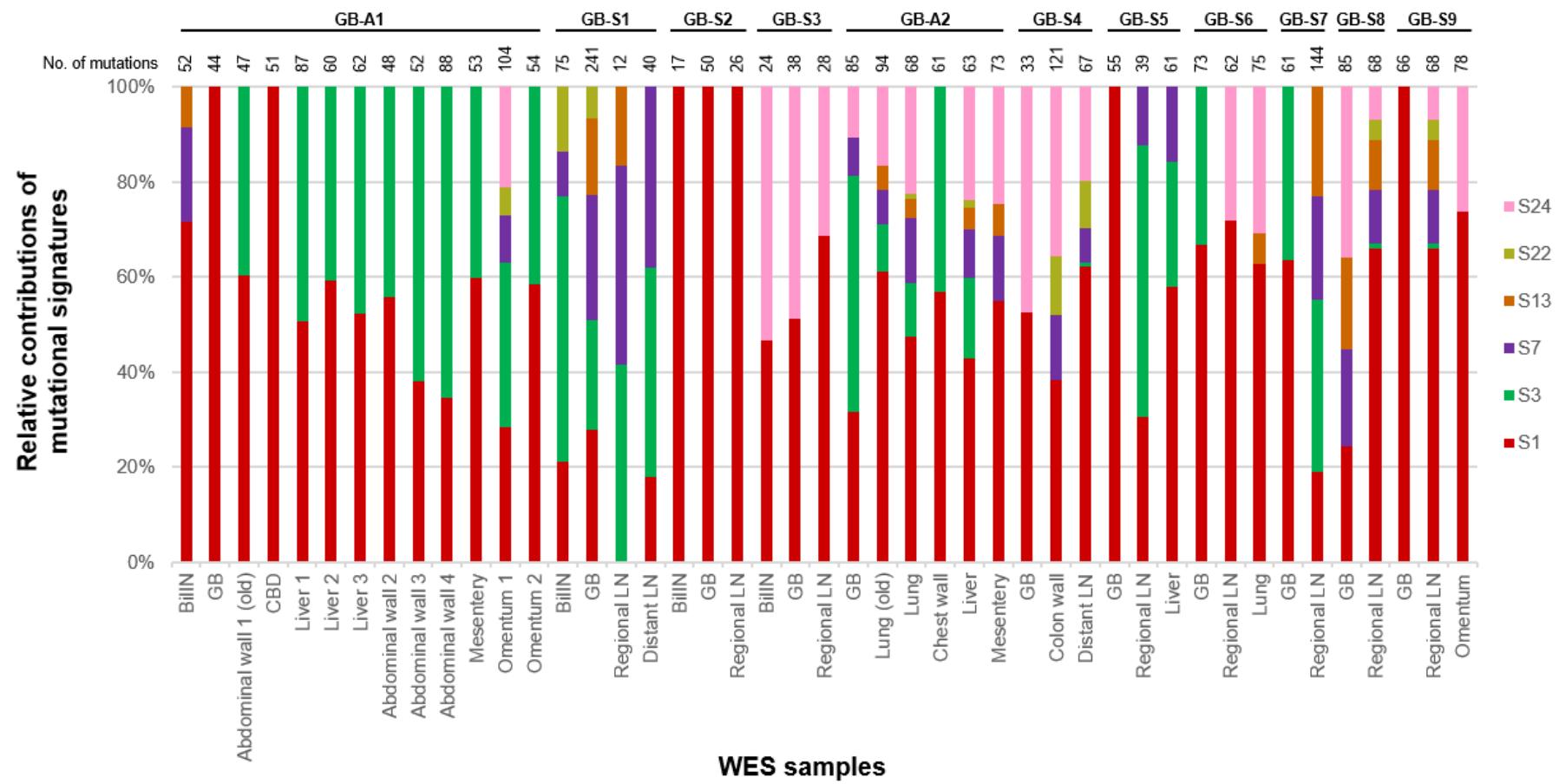
(B) H&E staining of GBAC.



(C) Variant allele frequency of mutated genes in BilIN and primary GBAC.



**Figure 4—figure supplement 1. The 100% stacked bar plots comparing the proportions of known COSMIC mutational signatures within each sample from 11 GBAC patients.**



## Supplementary figure legends

### **Figure 1—figure supplement 1. Inference of clonal structure by PyClone algorithm.**

**(A-K)** The Clonal population structure was statistically inferred for GB-A1 **(A)**, GB-S1 **(B)**, GB-S2 **(C)**, GB-S3 **(D)**, GB-A2 **(E)**, GB-S4 **(F)**, GB-S5 **(G)**, GB-S6 **(H)**, GB-S7 **(I)**, GB-S8 **(J)**, and GB-S9 **(K)** using PyClone.

BilIN, biliary intraepithelial neoplasia; GB, gallbladder; CBD, common bile duct; LN, lymph node.

### **Figure 1—figure supplement 2. BilIN and primary GBAC of the GB-S7 patient presumed to be derived from different origins.**

**(A)** H&E staining of BilIN. **(B)** H&E staining of GBAC. **(C)** Variant allele frequency of mutated genes in BilIN and primary GBAC.

BilIN, biliary intraepithelial neoplasia; H&E, hematoxylin, and eosin.

### **Figure 4—figure supplement 1. The 100% stacked bar plots comparing the proportions of known COSMIC mutational signatures within each sample from 11 GBAC patients.**

BilIN, biliary intraepithelial neoplasia; COSMIC, catalogue of somatic mutations in cancer; GB, gallbladder; LN, lymph node.