

## Targeted molecular analysis in adrenocortical carcinomas

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# UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

## Research at Birmingham

### Targeted molecular analysis in adrenocortical carcinomas: a strategy towards improved personalized prognostication

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1 **Clinical Research Article**

2 **Targeted molecular analysis in adrenocortical carcinomas: a strategy towards improved**  
3 **personalized prognostication.**

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20

21 **Short title:** Precision medicine in ACC

22 **Key words:** adrenal cancer, endocrine-related cancer, molecular oncology, prognosis, drug targets,  
23 personalized medicine.

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33

34 **Precis:** We established a clinically applicable method to simultaneously improve disease risk  
35 assessment and identify drug targets paving the way to a precision medicine approach in  
36 adrenocortical carcinoma.

37 **Abstract**

38 **Context:** Adrenocortical carcinoma (ACC) has a heterogeneous prognosis and current medical  
39 therapies have limited efficacy in its advanced stages. Genome-wide multi-omics-studies identified  
40 molecular patterns associated with clinical outcome.

41 **Objective:** Here, we aimed at identifying a molecular signature useful for both personalized  
42 prognostic stratification and druggable targets, using methods applicable in clinical routine.

43 **Design:** 117 tumor samples from 107 ACC patients were analyzed. Targeted next-generation  
44 sequencing of 160 genes and pyrosequencing of 4 genes were applied to formalin-fixed paraffin-  
45 embedded (FFPE) specimens to detect point mutations, copy number alterations and promoter region  
46 methylation. Molecular results were combined with clinical/histopathological parameters (tumor stage,  
47 age, symptoms, resection status, and Ki67) to predict progression-free survival (PFS).

48 **Results:** In addition to known driver mutations, we detected recurrent alterations in genes not  
49 previously associated with ACC (e.g. *NOTCH1*, *CIC*, *KDM6A*, *BRCA1*, *BRCA2*). Best prediction of  
50 PFS was obtained integrating molecular results (>1 somatic mutation, alterations in Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin and  
51 p53 pathways, high methylation pattern) and clinical/histopathological parameters into a combined  
52 score ( $P < 0.0001$ , chi-square 68.6). Accuracy of prediction for early disease progress was 83.3% (area  
53 under the ROC curve: 0.872, 0.80-0.94). Furthermore, 17 potentially targetable alterations were found  
54 in 64 patients (e.g. in *CDK4*, *NOTCH1*, *NF1*, *MDM2*, *EGFR* and in DNA repair system).

55 **Conclusions:** This study demonstrates that molecular profiling of FFPE tumor samples improves  
56 prognostication of ACC beyond clinical/histopathological parameters and identifies new potential drug  
57 targets. These findings pave the way to precision medicine in this rare disease.

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## 65 **Introduction**

66 Adrenocortical carcinoma (ACC) is a rare tumor with a generally poor, but heterogeneous prognosis  
67 (5-year survival rate ranging from 13% to 80% [1 2]). Tumor stage according to the ENSAT  
68 (European Network for the Study of Adrenocortical Tumors) classification, which has now been used  
69 also by the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) TNM (tumor, nodes, metastasized)  
70 classification system (**Supplemental Table 1** [3], [https://www.cancer.org/cancer/adrenal-  
71 cancer/detection-diagnosis-staging/staging.html](https://www.cancer.org/cancer/adrenal-cancer/detection-diagnosis-staging/staging.html)), is one of the most relevant prognostic factors [1].  
72 However, about 10% of patients with metastatic disease at diagnosis are still alive after 10 years and  
73 more than 20% of patients with tumor stage I-III die within the first three years [1]. Resection (R)  
74 status of the primary tumor [4 5] and Ki67 index [6] represent additional prognostic factors. A recent  
75 study also proposed a combination of clinical/histopathological parameters (i.e. tumor grade, R status,  
76 age, symptoms=GRAS score) to improve prognostication in patients with advanced ACC [7].

77 Genome-wide studies have identified molecular patterns associated with clinical outcome [8  
78 9]. Among these, a specific gene expression pattern (i.e. high *BUB1B-PINK1* levels) [8 10], specific  
79 copy number (CN) alteration [9] and CpG islands methylation patterns [8 11] have been associated  
80 with a poor prognosis. However, these studies have been performed on fresh-frozen tumor samples  
81 that are difficult to collect in routine clinical settings. Moreover, cost-intensive genome-wide  
82 technologies and complex bioinformatics workup were required, which precludes the adoption of the  
83 proposed prognostic biomarkers in clinical practice.

84 At present, few effective pharmacological therapies are available for ACC[12]. Mitotane  
85 (Lysodren, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Princeton, New Jersey, USA) is the only approved drug, but an  
86 objective response is observed in only ~20% of cases and treatment is limited by severe adverse  
87 reactions [13 14]. Even combined therapies of mitotane and cytotoxic chemotherapies, like etoposide-  
88 doxorubicin-cisplatin (EDP) [15], streptozotocin [15] and gemcitabine plus capecitabine [16 17],  
89 exhibit response rates <25%. Although some studies provided some promising insights into potential  
90 pharmacological targets [18-20], effective targeted therapies have not been identified yet [2 21].

91 The main aim of the present study was to identify a molecular tumor signature for a prognostic  
92 classification of ACC patients that may be easily transferred into clinical practice. To this end, we

93 used 117 standard formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tumor tissue specimens to investigate the  
94 prognostic power of both previously proposed or new molecular markers and potential drug targets,  
95 which we evaluated by targeted next-generation sequencing (NGS).

96

## 97 **Patients and Methods**

98 *Study protocol:* This is a single-center retrospective study designed and conducted in accordance with  
99 the Declaration of Helsinki. We followed the recommendations for tumor prognostic markers studies  
100 reported in REMARK [22]. Moreover, we searched for known drug targets using the OncoKB website  
101 (<http://oncokb.org/#/> [23]). The study protocol was approved by local ethics committee (#88/11) and  
102 written informed consent was obtained from all subjects prior to study enrollment.

103

104 *Patient cohort and clinical data:* 107 patients were selected for the study. Inclusion criteria were  
105 histologically confirmed diagnosis of ACC and availability of FFPE tumor specimens collected  
106 between 2002 and 2016 and corresponding blood samples. Initial clinical/histopathological parameters  
107 and follow up data were collected through the ENSAT registry (<https://registry.ensat.org/>) (**Table 1**).

108 A modified version of the GRAS classification [7] (mGRAS score) was used to merge  
109 prognostically relevant clinical/histopathological data: tumor stage (ENSAT 1-2=0 points, 3=1 point,  
110 4=2 points), grading (Ki67 proliferation index 0-9=0 points, 10-19=1 point,  $\geq 20=2$  points), resection  
111 status (R0=0 points, RX=1 point, R1=2 points, R2=3 points), age (< 50 years=0 **points**,  $\geq 50$  years=1  
112 **point**) and symptoms due to steroid autonomous secretion or tumor mass (no=0 **points**, yes=1 **point**).

113 Progression-free survival (PFS) was the major outcome being defined as the time from tumor  
114 resection (**primary surgery**) to first radiological evidence of disease relapse or disease-related death.

115

116 *Material collection and DNA isolation:* The final series included 117 FFPE samples (89 primary  
117 tumors, 10 local recurrences and 18 distant metastases). In 10 cases, tumor tissues were available from  
118 consecutive surgeries of the same patients (7 with primary+metastasis, one with primary+local  
119 recurrence, one with local recurrence+metastasis, one with two metastases). For survival analyses only  
120 the chronologically first sample of a patient was used (**either primary tumor or local**

121 **recurrence/metastasis**). The tumor cell content in each FFPE slide was assessed by hematoxylin-eosin  
122 staining and reached a high fraction (median 90%, range 60-95%). DNA was isolated from tumors  
123 with the GeneRead DNA FFPE Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and from peripheral blood with the  
124 NucleoSpin Blood L Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Bethlehem, PA, USA) according to the manufacturer's  
125 instructions. Qualitative and quantitative evaluation of DNA fragmentation was assessed by the  
126 GeneRead DNA QuantiMIZE Assay Kit (384) (Qiagen). qPCRs were performed with a SYBRGreen  
127 mix according to the manufacturer's protocol and measured with a ViiA7 Real-Time PCR (RT-PCR)  
128 System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Manassas, VA, USA). Data were analyzed with QuantStudio™  
129 RT-PCR Software (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The quality of all DNA samples was  
130 calculated with GeneRead DNA QuantiMIZE\_384\_DataAnalysis (Qiagen) in comparison to a control  
131 DNA included in the kit. Only DNA with a QC Score (indicator of sample damage/fragmentation)  
132  $\leq 0.04$  was sequenced.

133

134 *Targeted DNA sequencing:* Tumor and leukocyte DNAs were enriched with the GeneRead DNaseq  
135 Human Comprehensive Cancer Panel V2 and GeneRead DNaseq Panel PCR Kit V2 (both Qiagen),  
136 according to the manufacturer's protocol. This panel includes coding regions of 160 genes (7951  
137 amplicons and 744835 bases of target regions), many of them known or suspected to be involved in  
138 adrenocortical tumorigenesis or known drug targets. NGS was performed on a NextSeq500 with  
139 NextSeq Mid Output Reagent Kit V2 and 150bp paired end reads (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA,  
140 USA). Raw data were aligned and analyzed with GensearchNGS (Phenosystems S.A., Belgium). For  
141 detection of somatic point mutations and small insertions and deletions (small Indels) in tumor  
142 samples the called variants were filtered as followed: coverage  $>100$ ; exon distance  $<21$ ; frequency of  
143 appearance  $>0.1$ ; Minor Allele Frequency (MAF)  $<0.02$ ; variant balance  $>0$ . Variants found also in the  
144 matched blood samples were excluded. Intronic and synonymous variants have been considered for  
145 calculating Tumor Mutational Burden (TMB) but not for further analysis, except of those with a  
146 predicted influence on splice sites.

147 Impact on splicing for intronic and synonymous variants was analyzed with Alamut software  
148 (Interactive Biosoftware, Rouen, France) using five prediction algorithms: SpliceSiteFinder-like,



149 MaxEntScan [24], NNSPLICE [25], GeneSplicer [26] and Human Splicing Finder [27]. All other  
150 variants were evaluated for predicted pathogenicity by Polymorphism Phenotyping v2 algorithm tool  
151 (PolyPhen-2) (<http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph2>) [28], SIFT (Sorting Tolerant From Intolerant)  
152 algorithm (<http://sift.jcvi.org/index.html>) and MutationTaster (<http://www.mutationtaster.org/>) [29].  
153 The Catalogue Of Somatic Mutations In Cancer (COSMIC) was used as a reference of cancer-related  
154 somatic variants (<http://cancer.sanger.ac.uk/cosmic>). InterVar was used as an additional tool for the  
155 interpretation of variants [30].

156 **ZNRF3**, which was previously reported to be involved in the pathogenesis of ACC [8 9 31], was  
157 evaluated separately by direct Sanger sequencing. PCR primers for the coding region of *ZNRF3*,  
158 except exon 1, were designed with Primer3 (version 4.0.0) software [32] (**Supplemental Table 2 [3]**).  
159 Sequencing data were generated with an ABI 3730 or an ABI 3130xl capillary sequencer under  
160 standard conditions and analyzed with Gensearch (Phenosystems S.A.).

161 TMB was calculated by summing up all detected somatic variants and dividing this number by the size  
162 of the target region. Values are specified in variations per megabase (Mb).

163 To analyze CNAs we used a combination of two different approaches: the CNV analysis tool from  
164 GensearchNGS and an in-house pipeline. Single CN gains or losses have been identified by comparing  
165 CN of matched tumor and blood samples. With GensearchNGS a fold change (FC) of 1 was  
166 considered as “normal”. Hence genes with all amplicons having a FC between 1.25 and 1.75 were  
167 considered as “heterozygous duplicated” and as “homozygous duplicated” with a FC >1.75. Genes  
168 were considered as deleted when all amplicons showed a FC <0.75. For the second approach an initial  
169 quality assessment was performed using FastQC, v0.11.3  
170 (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>). Adapters and low quality reads were  
171 trimmed using TrimGalore, v0.4.0 ([http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim\\_galore/](http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/))  
172 powered by Cutadapt, v1.8 (<https://cutadapt.readthedocs.io/en/stable/>). The reads were aligned against  
173 the UCSC hg19 human reference genome with BWA mem, v0.7.12 (<http://bio-bwa.sourceforge.net/>)  
174 using default parameters [33]. Sorted BAM-files were created using Picard v1.125  
175 (<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard>) and indexed using SAMtools v1.3 ([samtools.sourceforge.net/](http://samtools.sourceforge.net/))  
176 [34]. Local realignment around Indels was executed with GATK, v3.5

177 (<https://software.broadinstitute.org/gatk/>) [35]. For CNV calling the number of reads of each amplicon  
178 was determined using the multiBamCov-Tool in the BEDTools *suite*, v2.26.0  
179 ([bedtools.readthedocs.io/](http://bedtools.readthedocs.io/)) [36]. Only markers covered with an average of at least 200 reads in control  
180 samples in the respective panel were considered. For normalization, the reads for each amplicon were  
181 divided by the total number of reads for each sample. Log<sub>2</sub> FC was calculated for each amplicon  
182 passing QC using the corresponding amplicon in the matched control. A gene was considered  
183 amplified or deleted if at least 80% of all markers in a tumor covering the gene were amplified or  
184 deleted at least 1.5-fold. In both approaches, CNAs were only investigated for genes covered by at  
185 least 6 probes. Only CN alterations detected with both approaches were considered.

186

187 *Targeted DNA methylation analysis:* Bisulfite pyrosequencing was used for quantitative methylation  
188 analysis of four tumor suppressor genes *PAX5*, *PAX6*, *PYCARD* and *GSTPI* that have been  
189 demonstrated to play a significant prognostic role in ACC [11]. 500 ng of DNA from tumor and  
190 matched blood samples was used to perform bisulfite conversion and cleanup of converted DNA with  
191 the EpiTect®Fast 96 DNA Bisulfite Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Target  
192 regions of the assays were selected to include the regions accessible with the MLPA ME002 tumor  
193 suppressor-2 probe mix (MRC-Holland, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) (**Supplemental Figure 1 [3]**).  
194 PCR and sequencing primers were designed with PyroMark Assay Design 2.0 software (Qiagen)  
195 (**Supplemental Table 3 [3]**). Bisulfite-treated DNA was amplified in 25µl reactions containing 2.5µl  
196 10xPCR buffer with 20mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.5µl 10mM dNTP mix, 1.0µl (10pmol) of each forward and  
197 reverse Primer, 0.2µl FastStart Taq DNA Polymerase (5U/µl), 18.8µl PCR-grade H<sub>2</sub>O and 1µl  
198 bisulfite-converted DNA. PCR was carried out with an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 5 min,  
199 followed by 45 cycles 95°C for 30 seconds, primer-specific annealing temperature (58°C for *PAX5*  
200 and *PYCARD*, 59°C for *PAX6*, and 60°C for *GSTPI*) for 30 seconds and elongation at 72°C for 30  
201 seconds and a final extension step at 72°C for 7 min. Bisulfite pyrosequencing was performed on a  
202 PyroMark Q96 MD Pyrosequencing System with the PyroMark Gold Q96 CDT Reagents Kit  
203 (Qiagen). Pyro Q-CpG software (Biotage, Uppsala, Sweden) was used for data analysis.

204

205 *FISH analysis:* To validate *CDK4* CN gains, we investigated 6 representative 2 $\mu$ m-thick FFPE slides  
206 by FISH analysis (two samples with “homozygous” *CDK4* amplification, two with “heterozygous”  
207 *CDK4* amplification and two with normal *CDK4* allele status at NGS). *CDK4* gene amplification was  
208 visualized through hybridization of a Zytolight SPEC CDK4/CEN12 Dual Color Probe (ZytoVision  
209 GmbH, Germany) (D12Z3) according to the manufacturer’s recommendation. At least 200 non-  
210 overlapping nuclei per sample were evaluated by fluorescence microscopy (Zeiss Axioskop, Jena,  
211 Germany) using the appropriate filter sets. Only nuclei with a distinct nuclear border showing clear  
212 hybridization signals were evaluated. *CDK4* gene was considered heterozygous amplified when the  
213 FISH signal ratio of CDK4/CEN12 was between 1.0 and 2.0 or homozygous amplified when the ratio  
214 was  $\geq 2.0$ . Ratios may nevertheless differ when gains affect whole chromosome 12.

215

216 *Targeted gene expression analysis:* The mRNA expression of *BUB1B* and *PINK1* was evaluated by  
217 quantitative real-time RT-PCR only in samples with high quality RNA and cDNA (n=38). All baseline  
218 clinical/histopathological characteristics as well as follow up data of this subgroup of patients did not  
219 differ from those of the entire series. RNA was isolated from tumors by miRNeasy FFPE (Qiagen).  
220 High RNA quality was tested using an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (RIN >7.5). RNA was reverse  
221 transcribed by the Quantitec Reverse Transcription Kit (Qiagen). A quantitative RT-PCR for  *$\beta$ -actin*  
222 and *GAPDH* was performed and only samples with cycle threshold of <35 were included from further  
223 analysis (n=38). The expression of *BUB1B* and *PINK1* was evaluated by qRT-PCR using Taqman®  
224 *BUB1B* (Hs01084828\_m1) and *PINK1* (Hs00260868\_m1) probes with expressed  *$\beta$ -actin*  
225 (Hs9999903\_m1) as reference (Applied Biosystems, Darmstadt, Germany). Each PCR reaction was  
226 done with 40 ng cDNA and each analysis was performed in duplicate. Transcript levels were  
227 determined using the TaqMan Gene Expression Master Mix (Applied Biosystems), the CFX96 real-  
228 time thermocycler (Biorad, Hercules, CA, USA), and the Bio-Rad CFX Manager 2.0 software.  
229 Cycling conditions were 95 °C for three min followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 30 sec, 60 °C for 30  
230 sec, and 72 °C for 30 sec. The  $\Delta$ CT method was applied for normalization of gene expression levels to  
231 those of  *$\beta$ -actin*. The  $\Delta$ CT(*BUB1B*)- $\Delta$ CT(*PINK1*) expression was then calculated [10]. **Statistical**  
232 **analysis with different cut-off values was performed. The best cut-off value for a high *BUB1B-PINK1***

233 differential expression was 6.3, which was already previously suggested by Bertherat and colleagues  
234 [10].

235

236 *Statistical analysis:* A Fisher's exact or Chi-square test was used to investigate dichotomic variables,  
237 while a two-sided *t* test (or Mann-Whitney non-parametric test) was used to compare two groups of  
238 continuous variables as appropriate. A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by Bonferroni  
239 *post-hoc* test, was used for comparison among several groups for non-normal distributed variables.  
240 Correlations and 95% confidence intervals (95%CI) between different parameters were evaluated by  
241 linear regression analysis. Survival curves were obtained by Kaplan-Meier estimates and the  
242 differences between two or more curves were assessed by the log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. Multivariate  
243 regression analysis was performed by Cox proportional hazard regression model to identify those  
244 factors that might independently influence survival.

245 To assess and compare the prognostic accurateness and performance of different markers or scores we  
246 used two approaches: 1) We utilized the chi-square (log-rank) values (deviance chi-square test) to  
247 determine the goodness-of-fit statistic of the regression model, representing a surrogate of a  
248 Likelihood Ratio Test. 2) We calculated sensitivity, specificity and accuracy of different models  
249 categorizing patients with or without disease recurrence/progress within 24 months from primary  
250 surgery as affected/non affected. Finally, we considered the area under the receiving operating  
251 characteristics (ROC) curve and 95% confidence interval for predicted probability of disease progress  
252 within 24 months from primary surgery.

253 Statistical analyses were made using GraphPad Prism (version 6.0, La Jolla, CA, USA) and SPSS  
254 Software (version 23, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). P values  $<0.05$  were considered as statistically  
255 significant.

## 256 Results

### 257 *Targeted molecular analysis of ACC: overview*

258 The clinical and histopathological characteristics of the 107 patients selected for the study are shown  
259 in the **Table 1** (see also Patients and Methods).

260 By performing targeted NGS in 117 ACC samples, we found a median **TMB** of 1.3/Mb (range: 0-  
261 22,8/Mb). Altogether, we found 237 somatic genetic variants (SNVs and small Indels). The complete  
262 list of alterations and their characteristics is shown in **Supplemental Data** [3]. Considering the 10  
263 cases with FFPE samples from consecutive surgical interventions, most variants in driver genes were  
264 conserved in samples obtained from same patient (**Supplemental Figure 2** [3]). Thus, we considered  
265 only the first available sample from each of the 107 ACC patients. Among them, 30 presented no  
266 mutations, 25 one mutation and 52 at least two mutations (median per sample: 1, range: 0-14,  $\geq 5$   
267 mutations in 13 cases). Overall, 215 protein-altering somatic variations were found, affecting 69/161  
268 evaluated genes. Among the affected genes, 40 were mutated in at least two samples and 17 in at least  
269 three samples (frequency  $\geq 2.8\%$ ) (**Supplemental Table 4** [3]). The frequency of recurrent mutations  
270 previously described in ACC [8 9 31] and in our series is shown in **Figure 1A**. The most frequently  
271 mutated genes were: *TP53* (22%), *CTNNB1* (17%), *NF1* (11%), *APC* (8.4%), *ZNRF3* (8.4%), *MEN1*  
272 (7.4%), *GNAS* (6.5%) and *ATRX* (6.5%). We also discovered novel recurrent mutations not clearly  
273 associated with ACC yet, such as in *NOTCH1*, *CIC*, *KDM6A*, *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* (all  $\geq 2.8\%$ ) (**Figure**  
274 **1A and Supplemental Table 4** [3]).

275 We then evaluated somatic CNVs in the same series. Most frequent CN gains were observed  
276 in *CDK4* (43%), *NOTCH1* (19%), *TERT* (12%), *FGFR3* (12%) and *MDM2* genes (7.4%) and CN  
277 losses at *RBI* (5.6%), as expected (**Figure 1B**). The presence of amplifications at *CDK4* locus was  
278 confirmed by FISH analysis (see **Figure 2**). We also found CN alterations that were not previously  
279 reported in ACC, such as gains in *STK11* (31%), *GNAI1* (17%) and losses in *TNFRSF14* (30%),  
280 *SMARCB1* (22%), *FLCN* (20%) and *CHEK2* (13%) (**Figure 1B**).

281 Using our targeted sequencing approach, we identified three different CN patterns, consistent  
282 with a previous report [9]. Accordingly, we defined them as “chromosomal” when at least three large  
283 chromosomal regions were affected by amplifications or deletions, “quiet” when less than three

284 regions were altered and “noisy” when several small regions were affected (modified from [9]). An  
 285 example of each CN pattern is reported in **Supplemental Figure 3** [3]). 38 ACC samples were  
 286 recognized to present a “chromosomal” pattern, 44 a “quiet” pattern and 25 a “noisy” pattern.

287 The two most frequently affected pathways were p53/Rb signaling (59.8%; including  
 288 alterations in *CDKN2A*, *CDK4*, *MDM2*, *RBI* and *TP53*) and Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin pathway (33.6%, including  
 289 alterations in *APC*, *CTNNB1*, *MED12*, *MEN1* and *ZNRF3*). In 22 of 107 samples (20.6%) both  
 290 pathways were involved. 3 of these patients (2.8%) had variations in *CTNNB1* and *TP53*. Another  
 291 frequently altered pathway was the chromatin remodeling pathway (29.9%) (Fig 1C). In a lower  
 292 percentage of cases, genetic variations in genes of the DNA repair (7.4%) or the mismatch repair  
 293 (MMR) systems (4.5%) were observed (**Figure 1C**).

294 The methylation pattern of promoter regions of four preselected genes was also evaluated. The  
 295 median percentage of methylated promoter regions in the tumor material was 11% at *PAX5* (range: 1-  
 296 98), 22% at *PAX6* (range: 2-97), 17% at *PYCARD* (range: 1-94) and 3% at *GSTP1* (range: 1-74).  
 297 Considering all genes, the median value of mean methylation was 21% (range: 2-77). 33 tumors  
 298 presented a promoter methylation status “high” (31% of cases).

299 A high *BUB1B-PINK1* differential expression is a known negative prognostic marker in ACC  
 300 [10]. Thus, we evaluated *BUB1B* and *PINK1* mRNA expression levels in a subgroup of 38 FFPE  
 301 tumor specimens with good RNA quality (32.5%). The analysis of this series revealed a high *BUB1B*-  
 302 *PINK1* differential expression in 16 cases (42%, **Supplemental Figure 4**).

303

### 304 *Prognostic stratification*

305 To evaluate the benefit of applying a molecular classification to prognosticate clinical outcome, we  
 306 first investigated prognostic effectiveness of ENSAT tumor staging classification in our series. As  
 307 expected, the median PFS was shorter for patients with metastatic disease (ENSAT 4, n=23) than for  
 308 those with intermediate (ENSAT 3, n=28) or early tumor stages (ENSAT 1 to 2, n=58) ( $P<0.0001$ ,  
 309 chi-square=35.6, **Figure 3A**). However, using the mGRAS score (see Methods), we obtained an  
 310 improved prognostic stratification by recognizing 4 subgroups with different clinical outcome, from

311 favorable prognosis (median PFS=54 months) to poor prognosis (median PFS=3 months) ( $P<0.0001$ ,  
 312 chi-square=49.0, **Figure 3B**).

313 Considering the results of the targeted molecular analysis, five events predicted a shorter PFS  
 314 in univariate analysis: 1. Presence of more than one mutation ( $P=0.0015$ , HR=2.12, 95%CI=1.3-3.4);  
 315 2. Noisy CNA pattern ( $P=0.0038$ , HR=2.46, 95%CI=1.3-4.5); 3. Presence of alterations in Wnt/ $\beta$ -  
 316 catenin signaling alone or together with p53/Rb ( $P<0.0001$ ); 4. Promoter methylation status “high”  
 317 ( $P=0.0002$ , HR=2.9, 95%CI=1.7-5.0); 5. High *BUB1B-PINK1* differential expression (n=38,  
 318  $P=0.0037$ , HR=2.56, 95%CI=1.16-5.67). To investigate the applicability of a molecular prognostic  
 319 classification in a clinical setting, we developed a simplified score excluding parameters that cannot be  
 320 reliably and easily analyzed by targeted analysis in FFPE samples (i.e. CNA pattern and mRNA  
 321 expression). At multivariate analysis including clinical/histopathological parameters, presence of  
 322 alterations at Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin alone or with p53/Rb signaling and promoter methylation status “high”  
 323 remained significant ( $P=0.026$ , HR=1.39, 95%CI=1.04-1.87, and  $P=0.003$ , HR=2.03, 95%CI=1.27-  
 324 3.25, respectively). We then combined genetic items in a molecular score as follows: number of  
 325 somatic mutations (0-1=0 points, >1=1 point), alterations in the Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin and p53/Rb pathways  
 326 (none=0 points, only Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin=1 point, Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin+ p53/Rb=2 points) and promoter regions  
 327 methylation pattern ( $\leq 25\%=0$  points,  $>25\%=1$  point) (overall points 0 to 4). This allowed us to  
 328 separate four groups with PFS as endpoint: score 0 (n=35, median PFS=36 months), score 1 (n=30,  
 329 median PFS=9 months), score 2 (n=22, median PFS=6 months) and score 3-4 (n=20, median PFS=4  
 330 months) ( $P<0.0001$ , chi-square=34.4; for definition see **Figure 3C**).

331 By merging mGRAS and molecular score into a combined (COMBI) score, we obtained a  
 332 further improvement in the progression risk stratification. In particular, we better distinguished a  
 333 group of patients with a really favorable prognosis (median PFS=54 months) and further three groups  
 334 with good (median PFS=13 months), intermediate (median PFS=6 months) and poor prognosis  
 335 (median PFS=3 months) ( $P<0.0001$ , chi-square=68.6; for definition see **Figure 3D**). When we tested  
 336 the superiority of COMBI in respect to mGRAS score by discriminating patients with the best clinical  
 337 outcome (at least 24 months free of disease progression), COMBI score showed a better prognostic  
 338 performance, proven by superior specificity (58.6 vs 31.0%) and accuracy (83.3% vs 74.5%).

339 Moreover, the area under the ROC curve was higher for COMBI than for mGRAS score (0.872,  
340 95%CI=0.800-0.943, vs 0.780, 95%CI=0.689-0.871) (**Supplemental Figure 5A-B** [3]).

341 A heatmap sorted for prognosis including mGRAS score, molecular parameters and COMBI  
342 score is shown in **Figure 4**.

343 We then decided to compare the prognostic power of mGRAS and COMBI score evaluating  
344 the disease-free survival (DFS) in those 74 ACC patients that were successfully operated (R0). In this  
345 subgroup, only COMBI score was able to identify a category of patients with an extremely longer  
346 DFS: median DFS for COMBI 0-2 (n=23)=243 months, COMBI 3-4 (n=30)=13 months, COMBI 5-7  
347 (n=18)=5.5 months, COMBI 8-13 (n=3)=3 months ( $P < 0.0001$ , Chi-Square 50.98, see **Supplemental**  
348 **Figure 6**).

349

### 350 *Prediction of response to therapy*

351 In patients treated with adjuvant mitotane (n=39), a low COMBI score (0-2) was slightly more  
352 powerful to predict a longer disease-free survival than a low mGRAS (0-1) ( $P=0.0001$ , chi-  
353 square=21.5, vs  $P=0.0058$ , chi-square=12.5). However, similar results were obtained considering  
354 patients with superimposable disease stages that did not receive adjuvant mitotane (n=49) (COMBI  
355 score:  $P=0.0001$ , chi-square=27.5, mGRAS:  $P=0.0008$ , chi-square=16.8), thus suggesting no specific  
356 relationship between molecular alterations and response to mitotane.

357 In patients with advanced ACC, none of the single molecular events showed a significant  
358 predictive role for response to mitotane monotherapy (n=34), EDP-M (n=52), gemcitabine plus  
359 capecitabine (n=36) and/or streptozotocin (n=44). These analyses were performed by considering both  
360 objective response to the investigated drugs and time to progression during treatment.

361

### 362 *Actionable molecular alterations*

363 Having chosen a NGS panel that includes several known pharmacologically targetable genetic  
364 alterations allowed us to directly look for their presence in ACC. According to the level of evidence  
365 (OncoKB website), we found at least one alteration in a drug targetable gene in 64 of our 107 patients.  
366 The list and specifics of 17 actionable genetic alterations are reported in **Table 2**. Most interesting



367 ones are CN gains at gene *CDK4* (43% of cases) that are accessible by different CDK4/6 inhibitors  
368 already approved for other types of solid tumors. Moreover, recurrent alterations at *NOTCH1*, targeted  
369 by gamma secretase inhibitors, *NF1*, targeted by MEK inhibitors, or at *MDM2*, targeted by MDM2  
370 inhibitors, were recognized. Mutations in other known druggable genes, such as those coding for  
371 receptor tyrosine kinases (*EGFR*, *KIT*, and *RET*), members of the DNA repair system (*ATM*, *BRCA1*,  
372 and *BRCA2*), *PTCH1* and *TSC1/TSC2* were detected in a small percentage of samples (<3%). In two  
373 ACC samples we identified the well-known Val600Gly activating mutation in the gene *BRAF*, which  
374 is found in approximately 50% of papillary thyroid carcinomas and is directly actioned by BRAF  
375 and/or MEK inhibitors. Finally, mutations and/or CN losses were also observed in MMR genes  
376 *MLH1*, *MSH2*, and *MSH6*, which are associated with response to immune checkpoint inhibitors such  
377 as PD1/PDL1 inhibitors.  
378

## 379 Discussion

380 The present study represents the largest study combining targeted NGS and methylation analysis on  
381 ACC samples (n=117) using FFPE tissue specimens that are easily obtainable during routine  
382 histopathological workup. Our results clearly demonstrate that these analyses are feasible on FFPE  
383 material. Furthermore, we propose a new combined histological, clinical, and molecular score that  
384 improves the prognostic stratification in this rare disease (COMBI score). Finally, we identify  
385 actionable molecular events in 60% of patients.

386 Interestingly, we could evaluate the genetic profile of consecutive tumors from 10 patients. In  
387 these cases, we found a good concordance between primary and recurrent tumors in terms of both  
388 TMB and mutated genes, similarly to what is described for other cancer types [37]. Thus, we  
389 considered only the first available tumor sample for each single patient (n=107). Overall, we  
390 confirmed the presence of frequent ACC-associated alterations (**Figure 1A**). Notably, we also detected  
391 in a smaller percentage of cases alterations previously not clearly associated with ACC (>2.5%, i.e.  
392 mutations at *NOTCH1*, *CIC*, and *BRCA1/2*, amplifications in *STK11*, *GNA11* and deletions in  
393 *TNFRSF14*, *SMARCB1*). In terms of signaling pathways, the most frequently involved were p53/Rb  
394 and Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin, as expected. In 22 samples (20.6%) we observed alterations in both signaling  
395 pathways representing an important negative prognostic marker - a rate that was already reported in  
396 literature [8 9]. In the group with worst prognosis also 3 patients (2.8%) with alterations in *CTNNB1*  
397 and *TP53* were observed. While Ragazzon et al. found alterations in *CTNNB1* and *TP53* mutually  
398 exclusive, a small number of patients in the cohort of Assié et al. and Zheng et al. had variants in both  
399 genes, thus also supporting our data. We also found alterations in genes involved in chromatin  
400 remodeling, as expected [8 9 31 38]. More surprisingly, we also observed recurrent genetic alterations  
401 affecting members of the MMR (i.e. *MLH1*, *MSH2*, *MSH6*) or homologous recombination DNA repair  
402 [system](#) (i.e. *ATM*, *BRCA1*, *BRCA2*).

403 Concerning the prognostic role of molecular markers, we could confirm in our FFPE series the  
404 impact of already proposed molecular markers already proposed in studies on fresh-frozen material [8  
405 9 31]. However, the investigation of the CN pattern was not easily achievable starting from targeted  
406 analysis in FFPE material. Similarly, the isolation of high quality RNA from FFPE tissue was

407 successful in only 32.5% of samples, allowing investigation of mRNA expression in only a subset of  
408 patients. Therefore, we excluded these markers from further analysis. A simplified molecular  
409 prognostic score was then devised which includes mutational load, alterations in p53/Rb and Wnt/ $\beta$ -  
410 catenin pathway and promoter methylation status “high”. However, importantly, only by merging  
411 molecular alterations with clinical/histopathological parameters included in mGRAS into a COMBI  
412 score, we obtained the best discrimination among ACC patients with different prognostication.  
413 COMBI score was particularly supportive to identify patients with an extremely favorable clinical  
414 outcome, showing the best predictive accuracy for discriminating patients without disease  
415 recurrence/progress within the first 24 months after primary surgery **when compared to mGRAS score.**  
416 **The superiority of COMBI score was even more evident when considering the capability to predict**  
417 **DFS in patients successfully operated.** These findings might play a key role in clinical practice,  
418 helping to better select patients that do not need aggressive treatment, thus sparing unnecessary side  
419 effects to patients and costs for the community.

420 A targeted approach to molecular analysis has been recently proposed by Assie and colleagues  
421 [39], who validated targeted NGS for calling simultaneously mutations, chromosome alterations and  
422 DNA methylation status. Such analysis might have clinical benefits, but still needs to be validated in  
423 FFPE material. **Considering other cancer types, genetic analysis by targeted NGS and methylation**  
424 **analysis by pyrosequencing have been performed in FFPE tumour specimens obtaining good results**  
425 **[40-42]. Nevertheless, this kind of approach had not been tested in ACC samples until now.** In general,  
426 it is now the task to prove that proposed molecular-driven scores are clinically helpful to guide  
427 clinicians in patient care. To this end, only a multicenter, prospective and randomized trial will  
428 provide reliable answers, but the international ACC community seems to be well connected to perform  
429 such effort.

430 Furthermore, we intended to investigate the potential predictive role of molecular alterations  
431 for response to systemic chemotherapies. However, none of the evaluated alterations were associated  
432 with the response to any standard pharmacological therapy in ACC. This might have different  
433 explanations, including the heterogeneity of treatments usually used in this kind of patients and the  
434 complexity of the molecular background of ACC.

435 Finally, we intended to identify potentially druggable molecular events. A similar approach  
436 has been used in few previous studies in small series of patients (up to 40) demonstrating the presence  
437 of potentially actionable genomic alterations in a subset of ACC [19 20]. In our study, we concentrated  
438 on molecular events targeted by drugs already available for solid tumors (OncoKB). Based on our  
439 analysis, the most promising candidate is the gene *CDK4*. Specifically, CN gains at the *CDK4* locus  
440 are already reported in the literature on ACC [8 19 20], but we observed them in an even higher  
441 percentage of cases (>40%). These alterations were confirmed with FISH analysis. Our findings may  
442 be clinically relevant because selective CDK4/6 inhibitors palbociclib and ribociclib have been  
443 approved by FDA for treatment of breast cancer [43]. Phase I-III studies are now ongoing with other  
444 CDK4/6 inhibitors in solid tumors (<https://clinicaltrials.gov/>) [44]. Moreover, although they have not  
445 been tested in ACC patients yet, CDK4/6 inhibitors have been shown to reduce cell viability in ACC  
446 cell lines [45 46].

447 Another promising drug target is *NOTCH1* gene, which was gained in >20% of cases in  
448 present series and in >40% in a previous study [47]. Notch pathway might represent an interesting  
449 target as it was reported to be activated in ACC [48] and can be actioned by different gamma secretase  
450 inhibitors (GSI) or monoclonal antibodies [49]. For instance, the GSI PF-03084014 has already been  
451 tested in Phase I study in patients with advanced solid tumors [50]. Presence of copy number gains at  
452 MDM2 (7% of cases) might also be considered encouraging targets as MDM2 inhibitors such as DS-  
453 3032b or RG7112 have been reported to reduce cell proliferation in MDM-amplified liposarcoma [51].  
454 An interesting therapeutic option is also represented by targeting the BRCA-related DNA repair  
455 system (altered in >7% of cases) by PARP inhibitors (i.e. olaparib, nirapanib and rucaparib) [52] that  
456 are approved for treatment of BRCA-mutant ovarian. Moreover, mutations in targetable genes coding  
457 for receptor tyrosine kinases (*EGFR*, *KIT*, *RET*), members of mTOR pathway (*TSC1/2*) and *BRAF*  
458 were detected in rare cases. Finally, in 4.5% of cases, we observed mutations or CN losses in members  
459 of the MMR system (*MSH2*, *MSH6*, *MLH1*), which have been reported as predictive biomarkers for  
460 antitumor effects of checkpoint PD1/PDL1 inhibitors (i.e. pembrolizumab or novolumab [53 54]). Our  
461 findings on actionable targets open up new therapeutic avenue for subsets of ACC patients.

462 In conclusion, our study demonstrates that molecular classification based on targeted genetic analysis  
463 is able to improve the prognostication of ACC patients when combined with clinical/histopathological  
464 parameters. This approach paves the way to a personalized management of ACC, allowing better  
465 decisions about need for adjuvant therapies and/or frequency of periodical post-operative monitoring.  
466 Additionally, our targeted panel can at the same time identify druggable targets. In some cases, these  
467 results may be used to select patients for clinical trials or off-label use of specific anti-cancer drugs.  
468 The fact that all this is possible in readily available FFPE material is a major step towards precision  
469 medicine in this rare disease.

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641 **Legend to figures**

642

643 **Figure 1. Recurrent genetic alterations observed by targeted next generation sequencing and**  
 644 **Sanger sequencing (*ZNRF3*) in adrenocortical carcinoma.** A) Somatic protein-altering mutations  
 645 detected in the present series of FFPE tumors (n=107) and in the series of snap-frozen tumors  
 646 available in the literature (n=182); B) Copy number (CN) alterations (gains and losses) detected in the  
 647 present series of FFPE tumors (n=107). Heterozygosis=duplicated with a fold change between 1.25  
 648 and 1.75, homozygosis=duplicated with a fold change > 1.75. C) Altered signaling pathways identified  
 649 by curated analysis. Alterations are defined by somatic mutations and copy number gains or losses.

650

651 **Figure 2. Example of CDK4 copy number (CN) gains.** A) CN analysis by targeted next generation  
 652 sequencing in one FFPE tumor slide with homozygous CDK4 amplification (view of all genes covered  
 653 in the panel); B) zoom view of the CDK4 locus at chr. 12); and C) validation by FISH analysis in the  
 654 same FFPE tumor slide (Dual Color Probe: CDK4 in green and CEN12 in red). D) CN analysis by  
 655 targeted next generation sequencing in one FFPE tumor slide with homozygous CDK4 amplification  
 656 (view of all genes covered in the panel); E) zoom view of the CDK4 locus at chr. 12); and F)  
 657 validation by FISH analysis, respectively. G) CN analysis by targeted next generation sequencing in  
 658 one FFPE tumor slide without CDK4 amplification (view of all genes covered in the panel); H) zoom  
 659 view of the CDK4 locus at chr. 12); and I) validation by FISH analysis, respectively.

660

661 **Figure 3. Prognostication of clinical outcome (progression-free survival) in 107 patients with**  
 662 **adrenocortical carcinoma according to different parameters.** A) Initial ENSAT tumor stage (1 to  
 663 4); B) Modified GRAS score including ENSAT tumor stage (1 or 2=0, 3=1, 4=2), Ki67 index (0-9=0,  
 664 10-19=1,  $\geq 20=2$ ), R status (R0=0, RX=1, R1=2, R2=3), age (<50 years=0,  $\geq 50$  years=1) and  
 665 symptoms (no=0, yes=1) (overall points 0-9); C) Molecular score including number of somatic  
 666 mutations (0-1=0, >1=1), alterations in the Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin and p53/Rb pathways (none=0, only Wnt/ $\beta$ -  
 667 catenin=1, Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin+ p53/Rb=2) and promoter regions methylation pattern ( $\leq 25\%=0$ ,  $>25\%=1$ )  
 668 (overall points 0 to 4); D) COMBI score including mGRAS and molecular score (overall points 0 to  
 669 13).

670 **Figure 4. Heatmap representing the clinical outcome of the 107 patients with adrenocortical**  
671 **carcinoma in relationship with the evaluated clinical/histopathological score (mGRAS), the most**  
672 **relevant and “easy-to-apply” molecular parameters and the calculated COMBI score.** Patients  
673 are subdivided into four different “prognosis” subgroups according to PFS: favorable prognosis by  
674 PFS >24 months (n=29), good prognosis by PFS 12-24 months (n=13), intermediate prognosis by PFS  
675 6-11 months (n=20) and bad prognosis by PFS <6 months (n=40). The remaining 5 patients who were  
676 still alive at the last follow up were considered as “not applicable” in terms of prognosis classification  
677 because of an insufficient time-span of follow up.

678

#### 679 **Legend to Tables**

680

681 **Table 1. Baseline clinical/histopathological characteristics of 107 patients with adrenocortical**  
682 **carcinoma included in the study.**

683

684 **Table 2. Potential drug targets identified by next-generation sequencing in 107 patients with**  
685 **adrenocortical carcinomas.**

686

**Table 1. Baseline clinical/histopathological characteristics of 107 patients with adrenocortical carcinoma included in the study.**

Parameter	
N	107
Sex (M/F)	46/61
<b>Baseline (at time of diagnosis)</b>	
Age – yrs (median, range)	49 (18-87)
- <50 years – n (%)	57 (53.3)
- ≥50 years – n (%)	50 (46.7)
Clinical presentation (available data)	107
- Incidentally – n (%)	31 (29.0)
- Tumor-related – n (%)	45 (42.0)
- Hormone-related – n (%)	31 (29.0)
Hormone secretion (available data)	81
- Glucocorticoids alone – n (%)	24 (29.6)
- Mixed secretion – n (%)	25 (30.8)
- Endocrine inactive – n (%)	25 (30.8)
- Others (androgens, mineralcorticoids, estrogens) – n (%)	7 (8.6)
- Unknown – n	26
Initial ENSAT tumor stage (available data)	107
1-2 – n (%)	56 (52.3)
3 – n (%)	28 (26.2)
4 (metastatic) – n (%)	23 (21.5)
Resection status (available data)	104
R0 – n (%)	74 (71.1)
RX – n (%)	16 (15.4)
R1 – n (%)	5 (4.8)
R2 – n (%)	9 (8.6)
Unknown - n	3
Ki67 proliferation index (median, range)	12 (1-90)
- 0-9 – n (%)	31 (29.0)
- 10-19 - n (%)	33 (30.8)
- ≥20 – n (%)	43 (40.2)
<b>Type of tumor</b>	
Primary – n (%)	89 (83.2)
Local recurrence – n (%)	9 (8.4)
Metastasis – n (%)	9 (8.4)
<b>During follow up</b>	
Duration of follow up – months (median, range)	31 (3-274)
Deaths – n (%)	54 (50.5)
Local therapeutic approaches	
Additional surgeries – n (%)	26 (24.3)
Radiotherapy (tumor bed or metastasis) – n (%)	19 (17.8)
Iodometomidate – n (%)	7 (6.5)
Mitotane	73 (68.2)
Adjuvant setting – n (%)	39 (36.4)
Palliative setting – n (%)	34 (31.8)
Cytotoxic chemotherapies	
None – n (%)	45 (42.1)
Platinum-compounds – n (%)	52 (48.6)
Streptozotocin – n (%)	44 (41.1)
Gemcitabin plus Capecitabin – n (%)	36 (33.6)

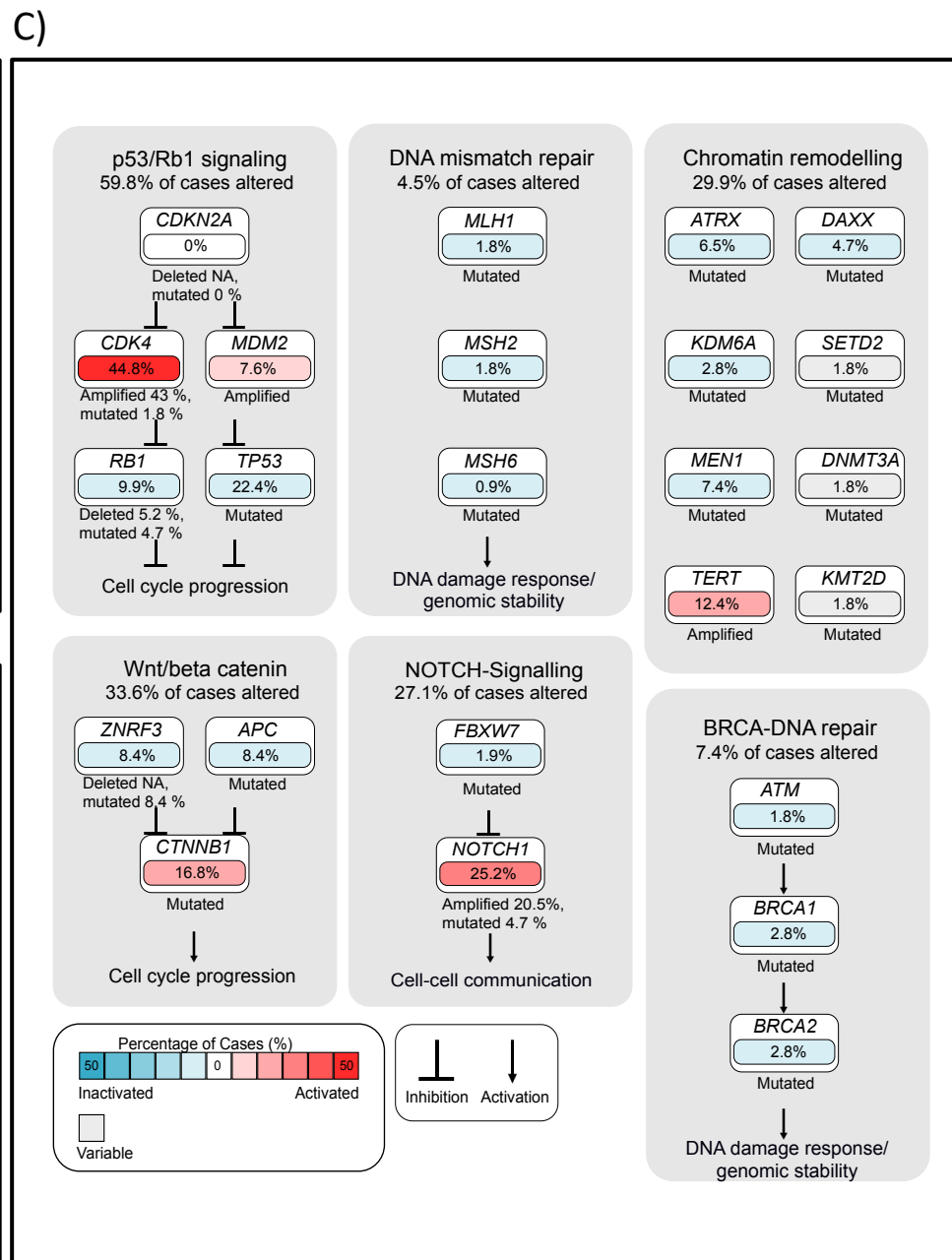
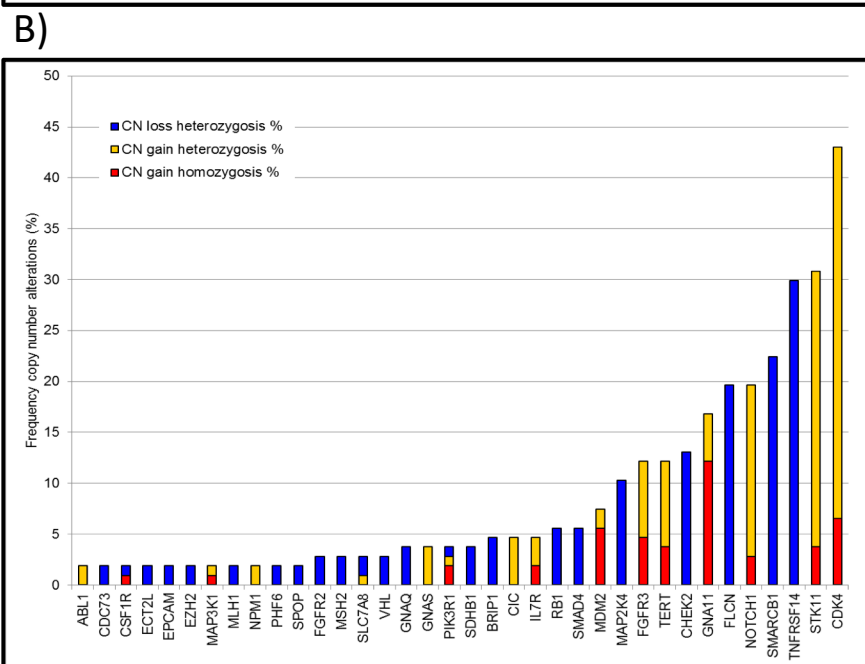
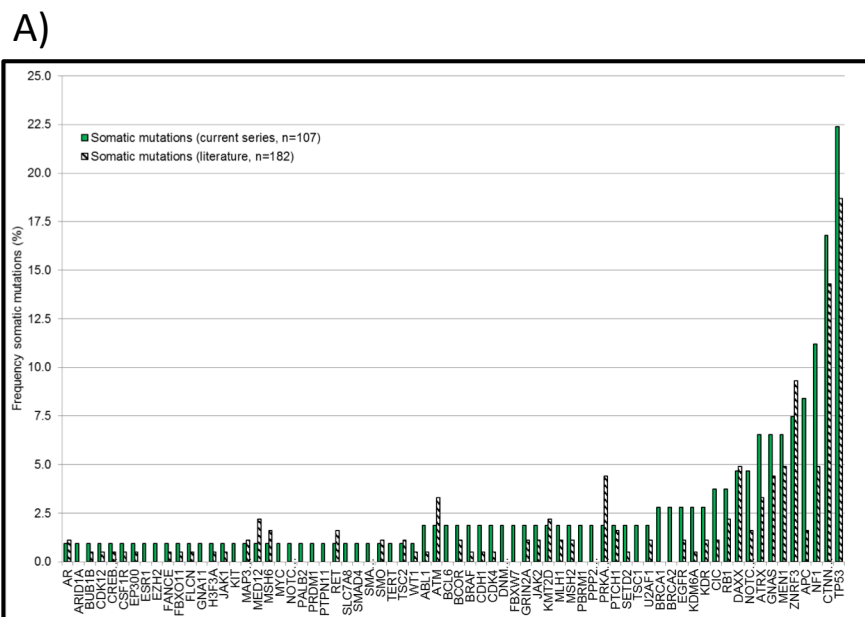
**Abbreviations:** F=female; M=male; n=number of patients; n.a= not available; ns=not significant; R0=complete resection; R1=microscopic incomplete resection; R2=macroscopic incomplete resection; RX=uncertain resection; yrs=years.

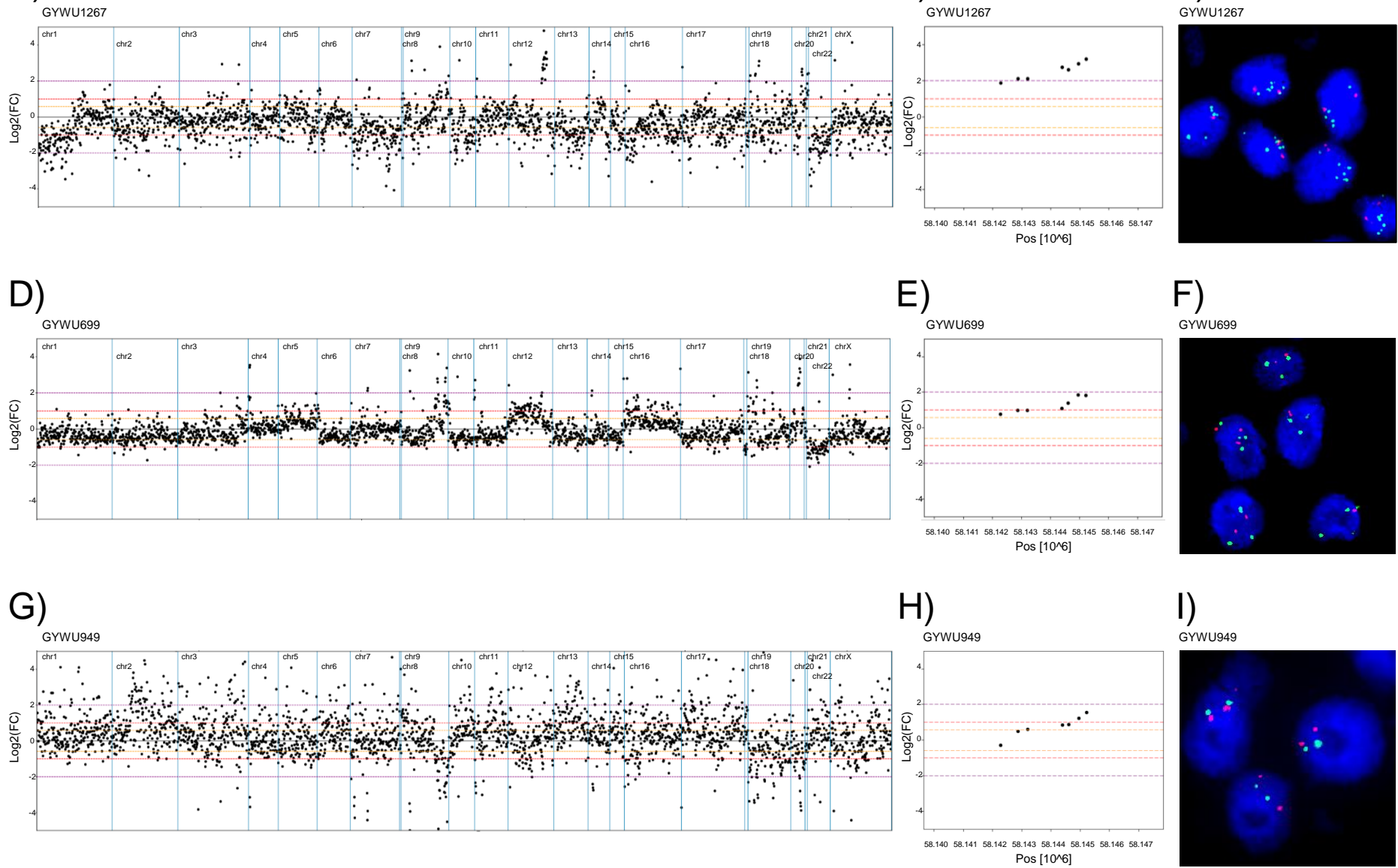
**Table 2. Potential drug targets identified by next-generation sequencing in 107 patients with adrenocortical carcinomas.**

Gene symbol	Description	Type of observed alteration	% samples	Potential targeted therapy	Level of evidence <sup>A</sup>
<b>DNA level</b>					
<i>CDK4</i>	Cyclin dependent kinase	CN gains	43	CDK4/6 inhibitor (palbociclib/abemaciclib/ribociclib)	2A (liposarcoma)
		Missense mutation	1.8		
<i>NOTCH1</i>	NOTCH signaling	CN gains	20.5	Gamma secretase inhibitor (PF-03084014)	4 (all tumours)
		Missense mutation	4.7		
<i>NF1</i>	RAS/MAPK regulation	Del/Dup or missense mutation	11.2	MEK inhibitor (trametinib/cobimetinib)	4 (glioblastoma/melanoma) <sup>B</sup>
<i>MDM2</i>	P53 pathway	CN gain	7.0	MDM2 inhibitors (DS-3032b, RG7112)	3A (liposarcoma)
<i>EGFR</i>	Receptor tyrosin kinase	Missense mutation	2.8	TKI (afatinib/erlotinib,/gefitinib)	1 (NSCLC) <sup>B</sup>
<i>BRCA1</i>	DNA repair system	Del or missense mutation	2.8	PARP inhibitor (rucaparib/olaparib/nirapanib)	1-2A (ovary ca) <sup>B</sup>
<i>BRCA2</i>		Missense mutation	2.8	(synthetic lethality)	
<i>ATM</i>	DNA repair system	Missense mutation or delins	1.8	PARP inhibitor (olaparib) (synthetic lethality)	4 (prostate ca) <sup>B</sup>
<i>BRAF</i>	Ser/thr kinase	Missense mutation	1.8	BRAF inhibitor (vemurafenib/dabrafenib) MEK inhibitor (trametinib/cobimetinib)	1 (cutaneous melanoma) 2A (NCSLC) 4 (thyroid ca)
<i>PTCH1</i>	Sonic hedgehog receptor	Missense mutation	1.8	Hedgehog inhibitor (sonidegib)	3A (skin ca) <sup>B</sup>
<i>TSC1</i>	mTOR pathway	Del (frameshift)	1.8	mTOR inhibitor (everolimus)	2A (CNS + renal ca) <sup>B</sup>
<i>TSC2</i>		Missense mutation	0.9		
<i>KIT</i>	Receptor tyrosin kinase	Missense mutation	0.9	TKI (imatinib/sunitinib)	1 (GIST) <sup>B</sup> 2A (melanoma)
<i>RET</i>	Receptor tyrosin kinase	Missense mutation	0.9	TKI (cabozantinib)	2A (NSCLC) <sup>B</sup>
<i>ESR1</i>	Estrogen receptor	Missense mutation	0.9	AZD9496 (fulvestrant)	3A (breast ca) <sup>B</sup>
<i>EZH2</i>	Histone N-methyl-trasferase	Nonsense mutation	0.9	GSK126 (tazemetostat)	4 (B-cell lymphoma) <sup>B</sup>

Abbreviations: CN=copy number; NCSLC=non-small cell lung cancer; TKI=tyrosine kinase inhibitor.

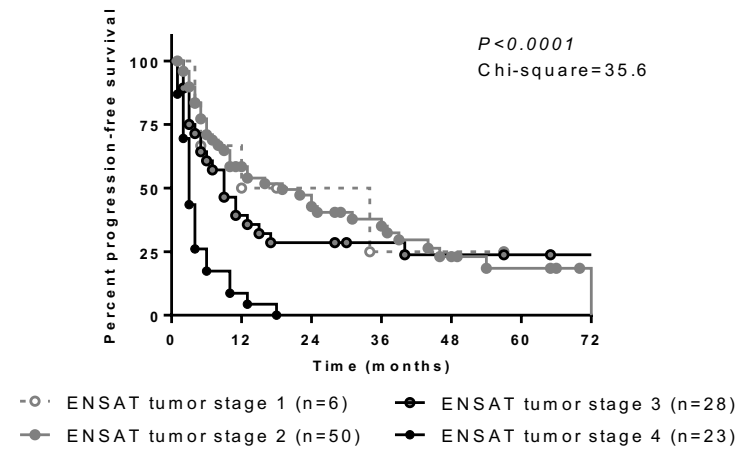
<sup>A</sup>Evidence by OncoKB website (<http://oncokb.org/#/>, (21)): Level 1=FDA-approved biomarker; Level 2A= standard care biomarker in this indication; Level 2B: Standard care biomarker in another indication, Level 3A= predictive biomarker according to clinical evidence in this indication; Level 3B= predictive biomarker according to clinical evidence in another indication Level 4= predictive biomarker according to biological evidence. <sup>B</sup>not the same molecular alteration.



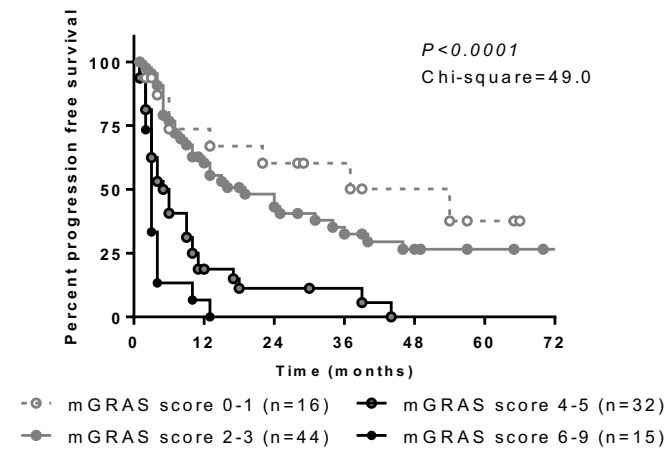
**Figure 2**[Click here to access/download;Figure;Lippert\\_Figure2.pdf](#)



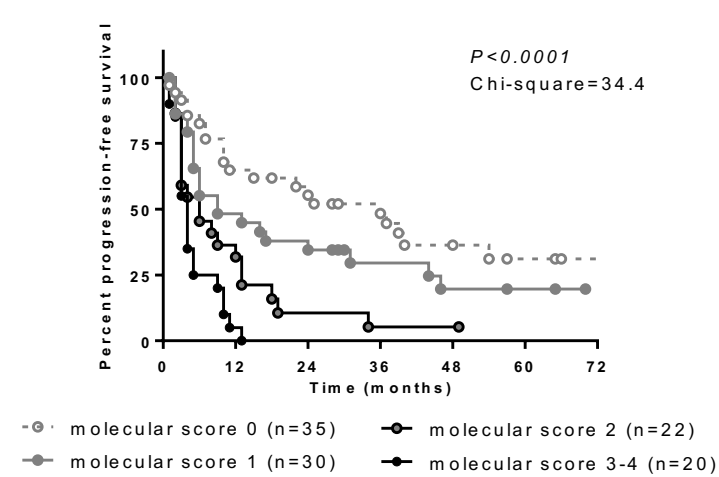
A)



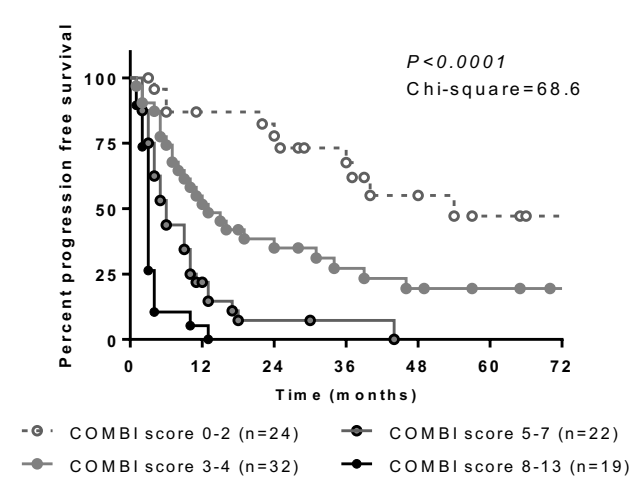
B)

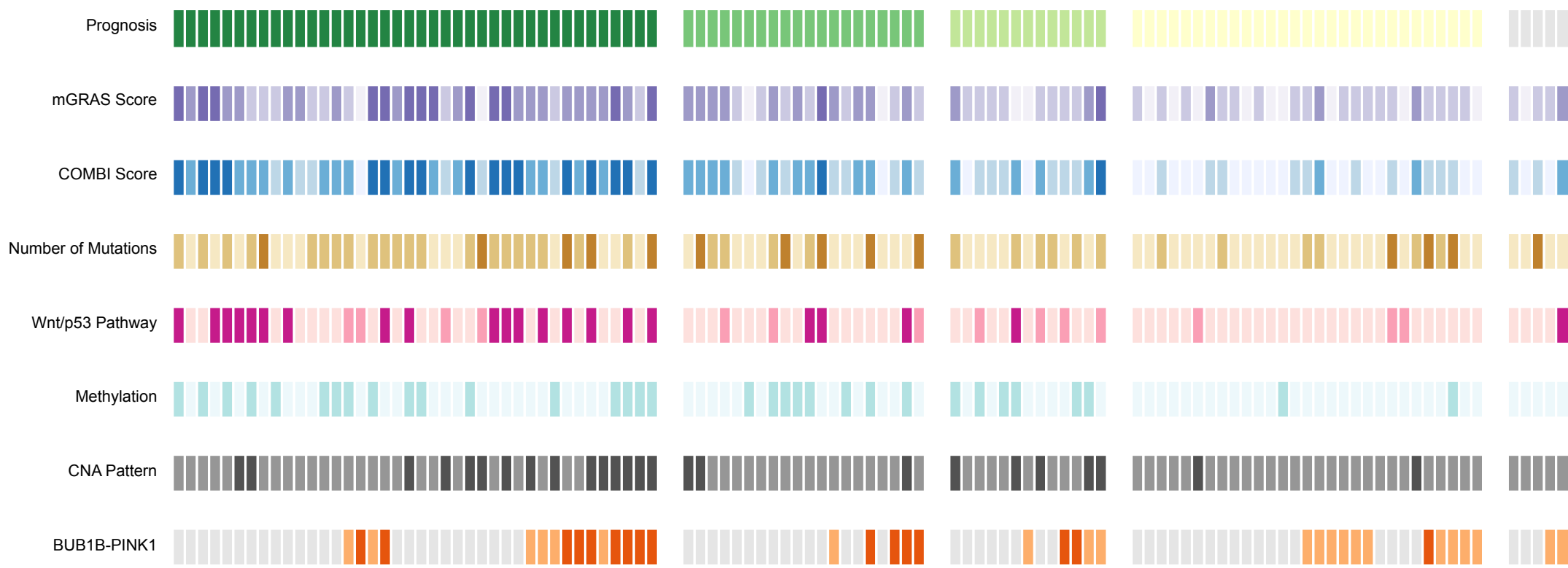


C)



D)





**Legend:**

- Prognosis:
  - bad
  - intermediate
  - good
  - best
  - not applicable
- mGRAS Score:
  - 0-1
  - 2-3
  - 4-5
  - 6-8
- COMBI Score:
  - 0-2
  - 3-4
  - 5-7
  - >7
- Number of Mutations:
  - 0-1
  - 2-4
  - >4
- Wnt/p53 Pathway:
  - none
  - Wnt only
  - Wnt and p53
- Methylation:
  - <= 25 %
  - > 25 %
- CNA Pattern:
  - noisy
  - chromosomal/quiet
- BUB1B-PINK1:
  - <= 6.3
  - >6.3
  - not available



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