Relapse timing is associated with distinct evolutionary dynamics in DLBCL

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## Abstract

Diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL) is cured in over 60% of patients, but outcomes are poor for patients with relapsed or refractory disease (rrDLBCL). Here, we performed whole genome/exome sequencing (WGS/WES) on 73 serially-biopsied patients with rrDLBCL. Based on the observation that outcomes to salvage therapy/autologous stem cell transplant are related to time-to-relapse, we stratified patients into groups based on relapse timing to explore the relationship to genetic divergence and sensitivity to salvage immunochemotherapy. The degree of mutational divergence increased with time between biopsies, yet tumor pairs were mostly concordant for cell-of-origin, oncogene rearrangement status and genetics-based subgroup. In patients with highly divergent tumors, many of the same genes acquired new mutations independently in each tumor, which, along with concordance of genetics-based subgroups, suggests that the earliest mutations in a shared precursor cell constrain tumor evolution. These results suggest that late relapses commonly represent genetically distinct and chemotherapy-naïve disease.

## Introduction

DLBCL is an aggressive and heterogeneous lymphoma for which standard-of-care R-CHOP (rituximab with cyclophosphamide, vincristine, doxorubicin, and prednisone) immunochemotherapy results in long term remission in more than 60% of patients.1 However, outcomes are poor for the 30-40% of patients with primary refractory or relapsed disease (rrDLBCL) even after salvage therapy and autologous stem cell transplant (ASCT).2,3 The landscape of coding and non-coding somatic variants in diagnostic DLBCL is well established,4–8 and several studies have examined the mutational landscape of cohorts of rrDLBCL to compare the post-treatment genetic landscape to that of diagnostic DLBCL, identifying somatic variants that occur more frequently in rrDLBCL such as *MS4A1*, *TP53*, *NFKBIE*, *FOXO1*, *CREBBP*, and *KMT2D*.9–12 Although several of these mutations are prognostic with respect to likelihood of relapse, they are insufficient to explain the poor outcomes experienced by rrDLBCL patients.

Tumor evolution may follow one of two models: linear or branching evolution. In linear evolution, the relapse is directly descended from the diagnostic tumor and harbors a set of exclusive mutations. In branching evolution, both diagnostic and relapse tumors harbor exclusive mutations, consistent with the presence of a persistent common precursor cell (CPC) population with a small number of somatic mutations that arose early in oncogenesis. To-date, studies of DLBCL tumor evolution have leveraged circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA) and/or limited targeted capture space to examine the evolutionary dynamics of relapse, providing evidence of both linear and branching evolution leading to rrDLBCL.9,13–15 Importantly, none of these studies have examined how DLBCL evolves with respect to overall tumor biology, which can be evaluated through gene expression profiling (GEP)-based cell-of-origin (COO)16,17 and dark-zone signature (DZsig)18,19 classification.

More recently, genetics-based classifiers have been developed that leverage co-occurrence of somatic variants to identify shared biology within DLBCL. Intriguingly, the three studies that described genetics-based groups converged on 5-7 highly overlapping subgroups.7,8,20–22 The LymphGen algorithm is currently the only publicly-available tool for assigning genetics-based subgroups to an individual biopsy.20 These classification systems are becoming the foundation for precision medicine in DLBCL, and while the current assumption is that the features that underlie the classification of each tumor would be fixed over time, this requires formal testing.

We examined a large population-based cohort of rrDLBCL to validate the established relationship between timing of relapse and response rate and outcomes to salvage (immuno)chemotherapy and ASCT, and find that outcomes are superior for patients with late relapses relative to primary refractory or early relapse. To examine the genetic and evolutionary relationships between diagnostic and rrDLBCL underlying these differences, we assembled a cohort of 129 patients with multiple DLBCL biopsies, and interrogated them with a combination of fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) for recurrent rearrangements, GEP for COO and DZsig, and/or whole genome (WGS, 68 patients) or whole exome sequencing (WES, 5 patients) of two or more tumors per patient. We hypothesized that the degree of divergence between tumors would correlate with time between biopsies. Clonal evolution analyses support this hypothesis and demonstrate an unexpected pattern of convergent evolution in divergent tumor pairs. Our findings suggest that the divergent evolution in late relapses means these are effectively *de novo* disease, therefore retaining chemosensitivity and driving superior outcomes in this group.

## Results

### Late relapses have superior outcomes

In light of prior evidence that outcomes to salvage therapies are related to progression/relapse timing,23,24 we first sought to confirm this observation in a large population-based patient cohort. We identified 221 patients with de novo DLBCL treated with front line R-CHOP(-like) therapy with documented rrDLBCL (Table S1-2). All patients received salvage chemotherapy (89% received GDP (gemcitabine, dexamethasone, cisplatin) +/- rituximab)25 with intention-to-treat with consolidative autologous stem cell transplant (ASCT) in patients with (immuno)chemotherapy responsive tumors. Patients were categorized into three relapse timing categories. Primary refractory disease was defined as progression or relapse within 9 months of diagnosis, consistent with the definition provided by Hitz et al.26 Late relapses were defined as o more than 24 months after diagnosis, with this timing reflecting the definition of EFS24 – a validated end point in which patients event-free 24 months following immunochemotherapy collectively have superior disease-related outcomes.27 Early relapses were defined as those occurring between 9-24 months from diagnosis. We found significant differences in both response rates (Figure 1A) and the proportion of patients who ultimately received consolidative ASCT (Figure 1B), consistent with superior chemosensitivity in late relapses. demonstrating superior (immuno)chemosensitivity of tumors of patients experiencing late relapses. Patients with late relapses had significantly superior progression-free survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS) relative to patients that experienced primary refractory or early relapse when considering either time from first progression/relapse (Figure 1C-D) or from receipt of ASCT (Figure 1E-F). Outcome differences persisted after adjusting for age at diagnosis and IPI at relapse (Figure S1). Differences in outcomes were driven by both the proportion of patients receiving ASCT and the outcomes following ASCT. While there was no significant difference between the proportion of patients with early and late relapse receiving ASCT, post-ASCT outcomes were significantly superior in the late relapse group. Meanwhile, there was no difference in post-ASCT outcomes between patients with early relapse and primary refractory disease, indicating that the overall superior outcomes in the early relapse group was related to the greater proportion of patients receiving ASCT.

### Late relapses undergo branching evolution

To examine the underlying tumor biology and patterns of evolution driving the superior outcomes observed in late relapses, we assembled a cohort of patients that experienced relapse with available serial DLBCL biopsies. To identify enough patients meeting the requirements for sufficient material from multiple biopsies (and matched constitutional DNA for WGS/WES), we extended the criteria to include patients with prior indolent lymphoma and/or treatment histories inconsistent with the above outcomes analysis as long as multiple DLBCL biopsies were available. In total, 129 patients were identified, of which 30 had prior follicular lymphoma (FL; 20.5%), two had prior marginal zone lymphoma (MZL; 1.4%), and one had prior chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL; 0.7%). Among the 113 patients with apparently *de novo* DLBCL at diagnosis, 12 had a subsequent FL diagnosis (10.6%) and four had a subsequent MZL (including extranodal MZL of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissues (MALT); 3.5%). Six total patients had discordant low-grade bone marrow infiltrates at diagnosis and two at relapse. Depending on tissue availability, each pair of biopsies was interrogated with a combination of FISH for *MYC*, *BCL2*, and/or *BCL6* rearrangements, digital GEP (NanoString DLBCL90) for COO and DZsig classification,17,28 and/or WGS or WES (Figure S2 and Table S3-4). Of the 129 total patients, 73 had sufficient material for WGS (N=68) or WES (N=5) (Figure 2), and 21 were also included in the outcomes analysis above (4 primary refractory, 7 early relapses, and 10 late relapses). Of these 73 patients, two late relapse patients had prior DLBCL biopsies that were not available for sequencing, while the remainder of patients had the first and at least one subsequent DLBCL biopsy sequenced.

The use of FFPE tissues for most samples resulted in variable sequencing depth (mean 48.6X across WGS samples and 97X in exomes; Figure S3A and Table S5). Although tumors in the late relapse category had significantly lower depth of coverage on average, there was no correlation of total mutation burden with coverage (Figure S3B) indicating that sequencing depth was sufficient to detect clonal variants. We also performed deep targeted DNA sequencing of a panel of genes relevant for LymphGen classification (“LySeqST”, Table S6) on two or more biopsies subjected to WGS from 47 patients and on one biopsy from another 15 patients. The LySeqST assay achieved a mean depth of 812X across its capture space (Figure S4A and Table S7). The lower variant allele frequencies (VAFs) of variants detected by LySeqST alone vs. genomes demonstrates that it enhanced detection of subclonal variants that fall below the limit of detection of WGS (Figure S4B).

Next, we explored the overall divergence of mutations by comparing the number of shared (common between both biopsies) and exclusive (present in only one biopsy) mutations between the first two DLBCL biopsies in each patient. For this and all subsequent analyses, we pooled the LySeqST and WGS variant calls and only retained variants at positions with a sequencing depth of at least 10 unique molecules in all tumors from the same patient. While primary refractory and early relapse tumors have a rich landscape of variants shared between tumors (Figure 3A middle), many late relapses have few, with the majority of mutations unique to either the diagnostic or relapse biopsy (Figure 3A top and bottom). In both primary refractory and early relapse disease, the number of mutations shared between tumors is strongly correlated with the total number of variants identified at either diagnosis or relapse with slopes nearing unity, demonstrating that the vast majority of variants are shared between tumors (Figure 3B). In contrast, the number of shared variants in late relapses is only weakly correlated to the total mutation burden in either tumor (Figure 3B). Comparing the percentage of unique variants in each tumor to the time between biopsies reveals a clear linear trend, where tumor pairs separated by many years have very few shared variants (Figure 3C and Table S8). This trend is consistent when considering time to relapse as a categorical variable (Figure S5), when the absolute number of unique mutations is considered (Figure S6), and is independent of genome coverage (Table S9). The linear relationship between unique variants and relapse timing was also consistent when transformed FL tumors were considered separately from *de novo* DLBCL (Figure S7). Overall these data are consistent with a branching evolution model of evolution, where late relapse tumor pairs arise from a distant common ancestor with few lymphoma-defining mutations.

Given the high degree of divergence observed in some late relapse tumors, we used RNAseq data to identify functional expressed IG receptor rearrangements and confirm clonal relatedness of tumor pairs (Table S8). All 4 primary refractory and 9 early relapse patients had concordant IGHV gene usage, while one of 8 late relapses was discordant (Figure 3D). Light chain rearrangements were more frequently discordant, which may suggest ongoing receptor editing (Figure 3E).29 The lone patient with discordant heavy chain rearrangements also had discordant light chain rearrangements, suggesting these tumors are not clonally related and the second DLBCL is effectively *de novo*.

### Temporal dynamics of structural variants

Rearrangements of *MYC*, *BCL2*, and *BCL6* are important drivers of aggressive lymphoma biology and contribute to disease and genetics-based classification.20,30,31 *BCL2* rearrangement status was concordant in all patients tested (Figure 4A and Table S3), consistent with the established origin of *BCL2* rearrangements during V(D)J recombination in early B cell differentiation.32 In 26 patients where WGS identified *BCL2* breakpoints in two or more tumors, the breakpoints were always identical (Table S11).

In contrast, *MYC* rearrangement status was discordant between timepoints in 14/114 patients (12%), and for *BCL6* in 17/108 patients (16%) based on BA FISH (Figure 4A). As a proportion of patients in which any tumor harbored a rearrangement, the rate of discordance is substantial, with 70% of 20 *MYC*-translocated patients discordant between tumors and 65% of 26 *BCL6*-translocated patients. WGS identified *BCL6* breakpoints at multiple timepoints from 10 patients and all had identical breakpoints between biopsies. *MYC* breakpoints were identified by WGS in multiple tumors from 6 patients, one of which was cryptic to FISH.33 Two patients, both late relapses, had different translocation partners at diagnosis and relapse (Figure 3B and Table S8), demonstrating independent acquisition of *MYC* translocations in each tumor on the background of the existing *BCL2* translocation in both of these patients, making all of these double-hit lymphomas. A third late relapse patient had an identical *MYC-BCL6* translocation in both tumors, and two patients with early relapse and one with primary refractory disease also had identical breakpoints in both tumors. These findings suggest that in patients experiencing late relapse, the *MYC*-translocated aggressive lymphoma is effectively eradicated by treatment, while the indolent CPC harboring a *BCL2* translocation or other variants can persist for many years, and new *MYC* translocations may occur on re-acquisition of an aggressive lymphoma at subsequent relapse. That these discordant late relapse patients both had *MYC*-IGH translocations at diagnosis, while the one concordant late relapse had a persistent *MYC-BCL6* translocation, is consistent with previous studies suggesting that *MYC* rearrangements involving the immunoglobulin (IG) loci have a more aggressive phenotype than those with non-IG rearrangements,19,34 indicating that a CPC may harbor such non-IG rearrangements and acquire additional variants at relapse to reproduce the aggressive phenotype.

### Biological consistency of tumor pairs

We next evaluated the consistency of molecular subgroups using GEP and LymphGen over time. First, using digital GEP (the NanoString DLBCL90 assay17,18) to compare COO and DZsig from 91 patients and considering only frank changes in COO classification (*i.e.* a switch from GCB to ABC or *vice versa*), we observed a high level of concordance between diagnosis and relapse (Table S3). None of 21 primary refractory patients, only one of 24 early relapse patients (4.2%), and only 5 of 46 late relapses (10.9%) were frankly discordant (Figure 4C). Comparison of the NanoString linear predictor scores (LPS) between timepoints revealed a weaker correlation in late relapse patients, possibly indicating additional biological divergence not captured by this binary classification (Figure 4D). A similar trend was observed in DZsig scores applied to GCB or COO-unclassified tumors (Figure S8).

To evaluate consistency in genetic subgroup assignment, we compared LymphGen classifications across diagnostic/relapse tumor pairs. In total, this yielded a genetic classification for 80% of tumors. In all relapse timing categories, LymphGen classifications were highly concordant, with most discordance occurring in patients with overlapping composite or “Other” (not assigned to any subgroup with sufficient confidence) classifications (Figure 4E, Table S12). However, there was a single early relapse patient out of 18 (5.6%) with a frank discordance (BN2 to MCD), and 4 discordant cases among 41 late relapses (9.8%). Thus, there was high consistency of both GEP and genetic classification despite the mutational divergence observed with in late relapses.

### Convergent evolution in divergent pairs

The relative consistency of molecular subgroups as proxies for tumor biology is at odds with our observation that late relapses share relatively few mutations with the diagnostic tumor. To reconcile these differences, we performed phylogenetic analyses of all available tumors from each patient, leveraging all coding mutations alongside non-coding mutations in regions known to be affected by aberrant somatic hypermutation (aSHM; Table S13).6 In primary refractory tumors, the vast majority of somatic variants are found in the shared trunk (clonal in both tumors; Figure 5A). In early relapse tumors, the trunk is smaller and branching evolution gives rise to unique mutations in both diagnostic and relapse tumors (Figure 5B). In late relapses, few mutations are in the trunk, with substantial divergence on each branch (Figure 5C-D). In one patient described earlier, the trunk comprised a single shared coding mutation (Figure 5E). This patient had 7.5 years between diagnosis and relapse, is among only 5 tumors with frankly discordant LymphGen and COO classifications, and has different inferred IGH and IGK/L rearrangements (Figure 3D-E), together providing strong evidence that these tumors arose independently and are not clonally related.

In addition, we noted a tendency for divergent tumor pairs to harbor independently-acquired mutations in the same genes. In the representative MCD-classified early relapse tumor pair, each tumor has independently acquired mutations in *BTG1*, *PIM1*, and *ETV6* (Figure 5B); the representative late relapse BN2 tumor pair in *CD70* and *STAT3* (Figure 5C); and the representative late relapse EZB tumor pair in *FOXO1*, *KLHL6*, *BTG2*, and *MYC* (Figure 5D). To examine this phenomenon more broadly, we used variant calls from 28 patients (2 early relapse, 26 late relapse) with divergent branching patterns of evolution (at least 25% of mutations unique to each tumor), and identified truncal (shared among all tumors from the same patient) and unique mutations. In total, 28 genes had two or more truncal mutations (Figure 6A and Table S14). Some genetic subgroup-defining mutations are among these, including *MYD88*L265P mutations in 4/5 mutated patients and *CREBBP* KAT domain mutations in 5/5 mutated patients. Loci affected by aberrant somatic hypermutation (aSHM), including *BCL2*, *IGLL5*, and *BTG2* had a high number of both truncal and unique mutations, suggesting that aSHM can be an early shared event but continues after divergence. Other genetic subgroup-defining mutations were less frequently clonal, including *NOTCH2* PEST domain truncating mutations (1/3), *EZH2*Y646 (0/2), and *TET2* mutations (2/7).

In total, 16 of 28 patients with divergent patterns of tumor evolution had tumors that independently acquired mutations in two or more of the same lymphoma-related genes (Table S15-16). *KMT2D*, *PIM1*, *ACTB*, and *ETV6* were among genes most frequently recurrently mutated in tumor pairs (Figure 6B). We compared LymphGen classifications of patients in which these mutations recurred to the LymphGen class with which each feature is associated. Some features, such as MCD-related *PIM1* and *ETV6*, recurred in patients with MCD-classified tumors, while *ACTB*, associated with the ST2 LymphGen class, only recurred in patients without ST2-classified tumors (Figure 6B). Lastly, we examined the relationship between LymphGen classifications and prior or subsequent low-grade disease. The genetic similarities between different LymphGen classes and different low-grade mature B-cell lymphomas has been noted previously, and it has been speculated that this similarity reflects shared evolutionary history and CPC features in each LymphGen-indolent pairing.20,22 As expected based on this model, patients with FL at any time in their disease course had DLBCL tumors predominantly classified as EZB, while the few MZL/MALT lymphomas occurred in patients with BN2- and ST2-classified DLBCLs (Figure 6C). Overall, our findings are consistent with a shared CPC origin for DLBCL at diagnosis and relapse and any prior or subsequent indolent disease, and indicate that the few mutations in the CPC population constrain the possible genetic features acquired in each tumor, resulting in biologically consistent disease even in patients with very late relapses sharing few somatic variants.

## Discussion

By leveraging multiple metrics of tumor evolution including cytogenetics, GEP, and unbiased genome- and exome-wide sequencing, we have established distinct patterns of tumor evolution that correlate strongly with the timing of DLBCL relapse. The high rate of mutations unique to both diagnostic and relapse biopsies shows that branching evolution predominates in late relapses, strongly supporting the existence of persistent CPC populations capable of giving rise to multiple DLBCL over time. However, GEP- and genetic-based classifications remained largely consistent, suggesting that the earliest clonal mutations in a CPC constrain the biology of the subsequent DLBCL. This constrained evolution may be the basis for the remarkable convergence of the three studies that have defined the genetic subgroups of DLBCL.7,8,21,22 Subgroup-defining mutations used in the LymphGen classification were sometimes among the inferred CPC mutations identified, while others were not consistently clonal, suggesting that additional genomic aberrations or other non-genetic features, such as DNA methylation or tumor microenvironment, that are responsible for establishing genetically distinct CPC populations are still to be discovered. Furthermore, these CPC mutations appear to constrain the set of loci that acquire mutations during tumorigenesis. As some of these constrained loci include regions affected by aSHM, it is clear that not all constrained mutations are drivers. However, aSHM is well known to target the transcriptional start sites of highly actively transcribed genes, including in normal memory B cells,35,36 and many aSHM loci have strong associations to genetic subgroups20, and therefore provide footprints of the phenotypic states malignant cells have passed through *en route* to DLBCL.

Our observations of tumor evolution in DLBCL have both similarities to and differences from those made previously in studies of the transformation of indolent lymphomas, including CLL and FL. In Richter’s transformation (RT) of CLL, evolution follows a more linear pattern, and evidence for subclones that will eventually seed RT have been observed at diagnosis.37 Parry *et al.* compared RT to DLBCL using the Harvard classification system and found that, while RTs clonally-unrelated to the preceding CLL clustered with *de novo* DLBCLs, the clonally-related RTs clustered separately, demonstrating a genetic uniformity to DLBCLs originating from a CLL-like CPC.8,38 However, the Harvard classification lacks a *NOTCH1*-driven subgroup, which is hypothesized to be most similar to CLL, so the relationship between RT and DLBCL genetic subgroups remains underexplored. In contrast, several studies of FL transformation have demonstrated branching patterns of evolution similar to what we have observed in DLBCL, where FL and tFL originate from a shared ancestral CPC, and no evidence of the eventual tFL-seeding subclone has been found in diagnostic FL samples.39,40 As expected based on genetic similarities and the proposed CPC origin of indolent and aggressive lymphomas, we demonstrated for the first time that DLBCLs were classified into the genetic subgroups with the most similarity to any indolent entity diagnosed in each patient. However, even late relapse patients without any history of indolent disease had tumors representing the entire spectrum of genetic classifications, demonstrating that a CPC does not have to manifest in overt indolent disease in order for the DLBCL relapse to exhibit constrained evolution.

The patterns of DLBCL tumor evolution observed here explain the responses to salvage (immuno)chemotherapy observed at disease relapse in DLBCL. In primary refractory disease, the pattern of tumor evolution indicates that chemoresistance is innate at diagnosis, with little change in the composition of mutations upon treatment (Figure 6D). The search for mechanisms of resistance to front-line immunochemotherapy, both genetic and non-genetic, should therefore be focused on this population of tumors. In this study and others, these tumors do not typically respond to further (immuno)chemotherapy-based salvage regimens and outcomes are poor,3 while alternatives to chemotherapy have been shown to produce superior outcomes in this patient population.41,42

In contrast, our observations of the biology of late relapse are consistent with elimination of the original DLBCL but persistence of a CPC harboring a very small number of mutations. These CPC populations subsequently give rise to an independent DLBCL with a large number of newly-acquired mutations (Figure 6D). These data suggest a need for genomic analysis of the tumor at relapse, particularly where precision medicine approaches are being considered. As these late relapses are effectively chemotherapy naïve, immunochemotherapy-based regimens may remain a rational treatment option.

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## Figure Legends

**Figure 1. Relationship between relapse timing and outcomes to salvage therapy.** **A, B.** The percent of patients in each relapse timing category whose relapse responded to salvage therapy (**A**) and who received ASCT (**B**). Groups were compared with pairwise Fisher’s exact tests. **C-F.** Kaplan-Meier curves showing PFS and OS from the time of progression or ASCT. P-values were determined with a log-rank test. \* P < 0.05; \*\* P < 0.01; \*\*\* P < 0.001.

**Figure 2. Sequencing cohort and shared mutations.** Disease and treatment histories for all known biopsies and progressions for patients for which WGS/WES data were generated, distributed according to relapse timing categories. Five patients were omitted due to incomplete histories. DLBCL tumors are colored according to NanoString COO where available or are otherwise labeled DLBCL-NOS (not otherwise specified). COMFL, composite lymphoma with areas of DLBCL and FL morphology; FL, follicular lymphoma; MZL, marginal zone lymphoma; MALT, extranodal MZL mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue; HGBL, high-grade B-cell lymphoma; PROG, clinical progression without a biopsy.

**Figure 3. Branching evolution in diagnostic and relapse tumor pairs.** **A** Oncoplots of variants identified exclusively at diagnosis (top), relapse (bottom), or shared between biopsies (middle), highlighting the most frequently mutated genes involved in LymphGen classification. Patients are stratified by relapse timing and ordered by the mean percentage of unique variants. Barplots indicate the number of coding mutations present per patient in each mutation subset. **B** The relationship between total variants (all or coding only) at diagnosis or relapse vs. the number of mutations shared between tumors. The dashed grey line represents the line of unity. **C** The percent of variants unique to either diagnostic or relapse tumors as a function of time between biopsies. R represents the Pearson correlation coefficient. **D, E.** Concordance of heavy chain (**D**) and light chain (**E**) V gene usage derived from RNAseq data for tumor pairs colored by V gene subgroup. In all plots, alluvia connecting each tumor pair are opaque for discordant pairs and translucent for concordant pairs. *N.B.* Where V gene usage was discordant but both V genes belong to the same subgroup, the color is consistent across timepoints.

**Figure 4. Comparison of structural variants and GEP and genetic classifications between biopsies.** **A.** Concordance of BA-FISH results between diagnosis and first relapse for *MYC*, *BCL2*, and *BCL6* translocations. **B.** Circos plots showing discordant *MYC* translocations in two patients who experienced late relapse. Top: a tumor pair that was positive for BA-FISH at both timepoints; bottom: a tumor pair that was BA-FISH postive at diagnosis and negative at relapse. **C.** Alluvial comparison of COO classifications in diagnostic/relapse pairs stratified by relapse timing. Frank discordance (ABC to GCB or *vice versa*) is indicated by opaque alluvia. **D.** A scatter plot comparing DLBCL90 COO scores across tumor pairs. Red circles highlight frank discordance in COO classification. R values indicate Pearson correlation coefficient. **E.** Comparison of LymphGen classifications between tumor pairs. Frank discordance (a switch between two mutually exclusive non-Other classifications) is emphasized with opaque alluvia.

**Figure 5. Representative phylogenetic reconstructions.** Each row of plots displays data for a single patient. Tumors are labeled according to order of occurrence and LymphGen classification. Subclones are colored consistently across all plots for each patient. From left to right: Cancer cell fraction of subclones estimated by PhyClone; VAF of each variant as a scatter plot with the diagnostic tumor on the x-axis and relapse tumor on the y-axis with selected genes labeled; the fraction of mutations shared between both tumors (*i.e.* all mutations in a cluster with a CCF > 0.1); and the inferred phylogenetic relationship between tumors. Hotspot mutations at *MYD88* L265P and *CD79B* Y179 and missense mutations in the *CREBBP* lysine acetyltransferase (KAT) domain are indicated with an asterisk.

**Figure 6. Classification features in divergent tumor pairs.** **A.** LymphGen classification features that were mutated in two or more tumors from the same patient. Clonal variants (darkest) are identical in all tumors from the same patient; branch clonal are variants not shared across all tumors but are common between at least two; and unique are those found in only one tumor. Numbers on each bar represent the total number of variants considered in each feature. **B.** LymphGen classification features that acquired unique variants in two or more tumors from the same patient. Class informing indicates that the mutations arose in patients in which LymphGen classification matched the class association of the acquired variants. **C.** Patient LymphGen classifications stratified according to associated low-grade lymphoma entities. Transformed indicates low-grade disease preceded the first DLBCL diagnosis, while *de novo* indicates that the low-grade diagnosis was made after DLBCL diagnosis. **D.** A model of the relationship between relapse timing, evolutionary patterns, and outcomes. Created with BioRender.com

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