

Figure 4. (Continued) F, transcriptional modulation of endogenous EGR2 target genes in transduced cells. Expression was normalized with respect to GAPDH and expression in empty vector (MSCV) transduction (****, $P < 0.0001$; ***, $P < 0.001$; **, $P < 0.01$; *, $P < 0.05$). Only significant differences (< 0.05) are shown.

mutations of the EGR2 transcription factor are associated with a negative prognostic impact on patient outcome and occurred as an early event in 2 patients with CLL.

Our functional data and global expression analyses also point at a common functional consequence of several mutations found in human CLL. EGR2 mutations alter the transcriptional activity of the protein to different extents depending on the mutation. A similar variability has also been observed for the EGR2 mutants observed in congenital neuropathies (34, 35). *EGR2* is a downstream target of the BCR and pre-BCR complexes, through an intracellular signaling cascade involving BRAF, ERK, ELK-SRF, and finally upregulation of *EGR2* transcription (19). EGR2 plays an important role in the fine-tuning of early B-cell differentiation (19, 24, 36, 37). Expression of a CLL BRAF mutant in murine progenitors induced abnormal B-cell maturation in mice, including low expression of IgM, a feature of human CLL. Abnormal BCR signaling and EGR2 deregulation are observed in CLL (7, 30, 38), and our observations provide a molecular basis for these observations. We have not been able to investigate the involvement of the progenitor fractions in our series of patients. In a different patient with CLL relapsing from allograft treatment, we have detected an acquired *SF3B1* mutation in the lymphoid-primed multipotent progenitor fraction (defined by expression of CD34⁺/CD38⁻/CD45RA⁺/CD90⁻; ref. 39; Supplementary Fig. S3B). Together with a previous report of differentiation bias of CLL progenitor cells in xenograft experiments (9), our results suggest that abnormalities in hematopoietic progenitors and early B-cell differentiation are an early step during CLL pathogenesis. They also support the hypothesis that early

CLL mutations, despite their diversity, show a convergent phenotype through the impairment of B-cell differentiation upon deregulation of (pre-)BCR signaling. CLL would then develop from progenitors undergoing aberrant B-cell differentiation.

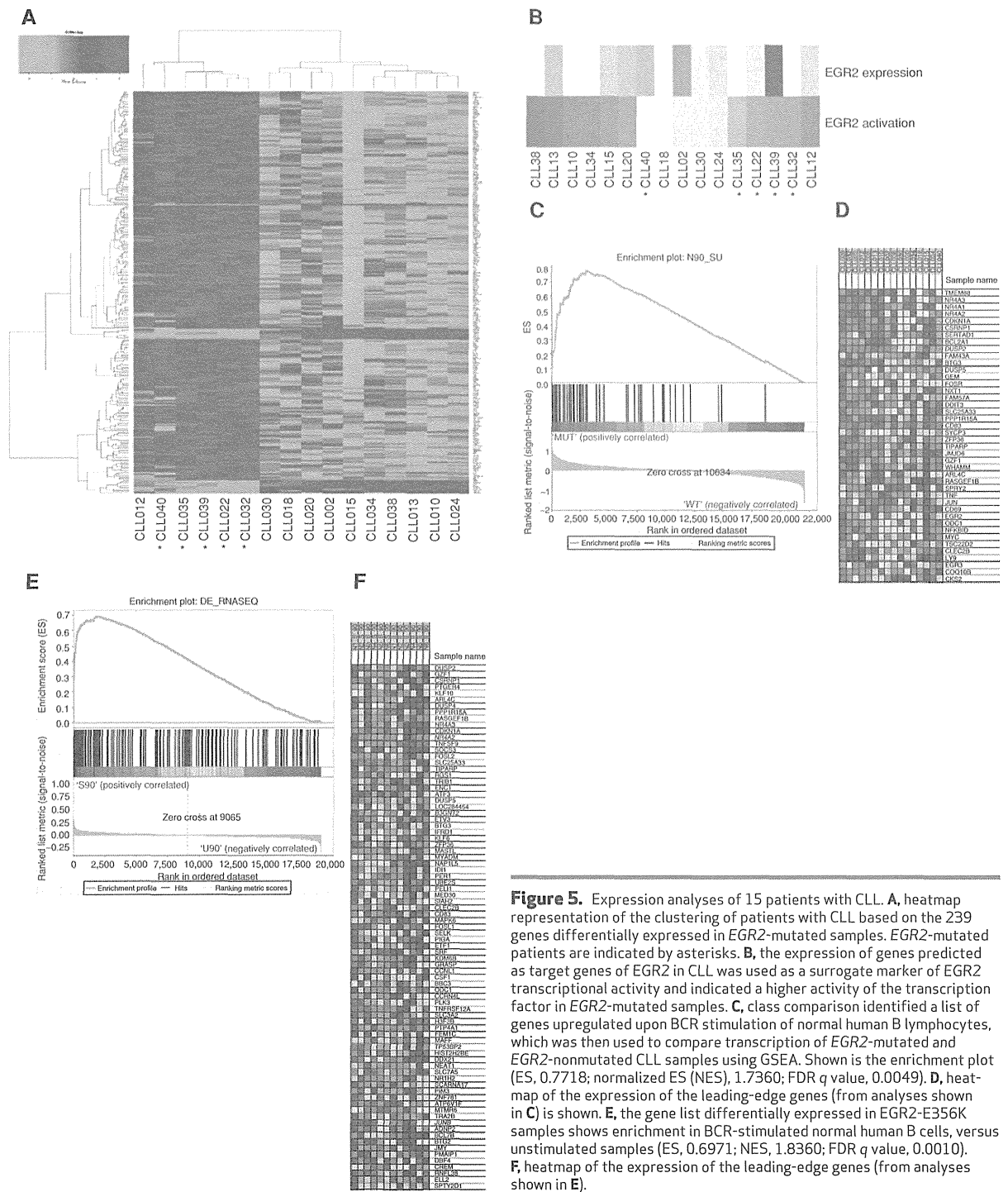
Finally, the diverse early CLL mutations may all induce a pre-leukemic stage devoid of overt clinical signs, conceptually similar to the one proposed for acute leukemia or observed in chronic myeloid neoplasms (1, 2). These observations may therefore have an impact on the follow-up and treatment of patients with CLL. It will therefore be important to understand how these findings relate to the clinical evolution of the patients and to what extent they also apply to other mature lymphoid malignancies (40–43).

METHODS

Patient samples were provided by the tumor bank at Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital (Paris, France), and the study was performed under the supervision of Institutional Review Boards of the participating institutions. Samples were chosen on the basis of the availability of sufficient viable cells. Patients gave informed consent according to the declaration of Helsinki and most of them were enrolled in a clinical trial (www.clinicaltrials.gov, NCT00931645; ref. 17).

Statistical Analysis

Clinical and laboratory variables were compared across patients with or without mutation using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test (for quantitative variables) or the Fisher exact test (for qualitative variables). Time to treatment was defined as time between diagnosis and first treatment and compared across groups using the Wilcoxon



rank-sum test. Overall survival was defined as survival since study enrollment; a Kaplan–Meier estimator was used and survival curves were compared using the log-rank test. All tests were two-sided, with *P* value less than 0.05 considered as statistically significant. The SAS 9.3 (SAS, Inc.) and R 3.0.2 (R Development Core Team, 2006) software packages were used.

Exome Sequence Analyses

We used sorted CD19⁺ tumor cells (and CD5⁺ when appropriate) and nontumor (CD3⁺) cells to extract DNA for exome capture with the SureSelect V4 Mb All Exon Kit (Agilent Technologies) following the standard protocols. We performed paired-end sequencing (100 bp) using HiSeq2000 sequencing instruments at IGR or University of Tokyo. We mapped reads to the reference genome hg19 using the Burrows–Wheeler Aligner (BWA) alignment tool version 0.5.9. PCR duplicates were removed using SAMtools (0.1.18). The detection of candidate somatic mutations was performed according to the previously described algorithms with minor modifications (44). Briefly, the number of the reads containing single-nucleotide variations (SNV) and indels in both tumor and reference samples was enumerated using SAMtools, and the null hypothesis of equal allele frequencies between tumor and reference was tested using the two-tailed Fisher exact test. For candidate somatic mutations, those variants were adopted as candidate mutations whose *P* value was <0.01 and allele frequency was <0.1 in the reference sample. Finally, the list of candidate somatic mutations was generated by excluding synonymous SNVs and other variants registered in either dbSNP131 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/SNP/>) or an in-house SNP database constructed from 180 individual samples (Genomon-exome: <http://genomon.hgc.jp/exome/en/index.html>) as previously described (44).

RNA Sequencing, Mapping, and Identification of Differentially Expressed Genes

RNA was extracted from flow-sorted CD19⁺ fraction using Qiagen columns, based on material availability. The cDNA libraries were prepared using the ScriptSeq Complete Kit (Epicentre). We performed paired-end sequencing as described for exome analysis. We removed ribosomal RNA reads (average 2, 11% of total reads) using alignment to the GenBank database. We removed low-quality bases and adapters using Trimmomatic version 0.32. The remaining paired reads were mapped to the human reference genome hg19 using Tophat aligner version 2.0.9. The mapped reads were sorted according to their name using SAMtools version 0.1.18. We used the HTSeq python library version 0.5.4p5 to count the number of reads per gene based on the gtf annotation file from the UCSC browser (hg19; ref. 45). Genes with no count in all the samples were discarded and technical replicates were summed. Read numbers and normalization were performed using DESeq version 1.14.0 in the R environment version 3.0.2. To test for differential expression between EGR2 WT (10 samples) and EGR2-E356K (four samples), we used the R package DESeq with negative binomial distribution and a shrinkage estimator for the distribution's variance. *P* values (adjusted by the Benjamini and Hochberg procedure) lower than 1×10^{-2} and fold changes higher than 2 were considered significant. Genes located on sex chromosomes were not considered.

GSEA Analysis

The CEL files of the GSE39411 (30) and GSE22762 (28) sets have been normalized with a Robust Multi-Array Average (RMA) procedure. A list of 63 genes was obtained from normalized GSE39411 by a Class Comparison at a *P* value of 0.001 with BrB Array Tools (<http://linus.nci.nih.gov/BRB-ArrayTools.html>) by comparing IgM-stimulated and unstimulated normal B cells at 90 minutes.

A first GSEA analysis was performed by comparing this signature with the log₂ expression of RNA-seq data of patients with CLL with and without an EGR2-E356K mutation. Reciprocally, a second GSEA analysis was performed by comparing the 239 genes signature obtained by differential expression of genes (Supplementary Table S5) between samples with and without an EGR2-E356K mutation with the log₂ expression of IgM-stimulated and unstimulated normal B cells at 90 minutes.

EGR2 Activity Level

EGR2 targets were predicted using the reverse-engineering algorithm ARACNe (adaptive partitioning, 100 bootstraps; *P* < 1e-9; ref. 46) using CLL expression profiles from GSE22762 (28). EGR2 targets were used to compute the activity of the transcription factor across samples. For this purpose, we first defined activated and repressed targets of EGR2 using the Spearman correlation sign between EGR2 and each target using the GSE22762 dataset. The RNA-seq-CLL gene expression profiles were centered and scaled so as to define a comparable rank of expression of each gene across samples. Then, for each independent sample, we computed the activity level of EGR2 defined as the enrichment score (ES), as defined in GSEA (47), computed with EGR2 targets as the gene set and the ranked list of genes in the sample as the reference set. EGR2 activity will be high when EGR2-activated and EGR2-repressed targets are respectively among the most and the least expressed across samples. This will be reflected as a high ES, here computed as the subtraction of the ES of the activated and the ES of the repressed targets.

Peaks identified from an EGR2 ChIP-seq experiment on human monocytes [Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) accession GSM785503; ref. 27] were associated with neighbor transcripts (corresponding to 9,651 genes) and were obtained by annotation with the coordinates at -5/+5 kb around the transcription start site. Assuming a normal distribution of the peaks (16,558 total peaks), 1,000 tests sampling 224 genes within the 24,910 genes known in hg19 result in a distribution with an average of 80.6 ± 6.85 . A deviation from the average of 12.4 leads to a probability of $P = 9.86 \times 10^{-10}$ to identify 165 genes among the 9,596 genes detected in the ChIP-seq experiment.

Mutational Analyses in 168 CLL Patients

Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood mononuclear cells collected at the time of study enrollment using the DNA/RNA Kit (Qiagen) and amplified using the REPLI-G Kit (Qiagen). Genomic regions of *BRAF* (exons 11, 12, and 15), *EGR2* (total coding sequence), *MED12* (exons 1 and 2), *MYD88* (exons 4 and 5), *NFKB1E* (exons 1 and 2), *NOTCH1* (partially exon 34), *SF3B1* (exons 13–16), *TP53* (exons 4–10), and *XPO1* (exons 14 and 15) were amplified using intron-flanking primers tagged with M13 universal primers at the 3' or 5' ends. All abnormalities were validated on nonamplified DNA. The list of used primers can be provided upon request. Statistical analyses comparing patients' baseline characteristics, such as age, gender, Binet stage, blood counts, and cytogenetics analysis, have been performed as previously described (48).

Flow Cytometry and Cell Sorting or Cloning

Peripheral blood samples were stained with FITC anti-CD3, allophycocyanin (APC) anti-CD14, PerCP-Cy5.5 anti-CD5, PE-Cy7 anti-CD19, and phycoerythrin (PE) anti-CD34, all from BD Pharmingen, Inc. For patients with sufficient available material, additional fractions using FITC anti-CD56, PE anti-Igκ, and APC anti-Igλ were collected. A representative flow chart of the sorting procedure is shown in Supplementary Fig. S1. CD34⁺ cells were sorted as CD34⁺CD19⁻ and were then cloned at 1 cell per well in 96-well plates (Supplementary Fig. S1). Single-cell culture of CD34⁺ clones was performed as described (41) for 10 to 12 days in MEM-α milieu (Life Technologies)

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; STEMCELL Technologies, Inc.) and recombinant human cytokines: stem cell factor (SCF; 50 ng/mL); FLT3-Ligand (50 ng/mL); pegylated thrombopoietin (TPO; 10 ng/mL); IL3 (10 ng/mL); IL6 (10 ng/mL); granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF; 5 ng/mL); erythropoietin (EPO; 1 IU/mL); and G-CSF (10 ng/mL). All cytokines from Peprotech, Inc.

Targeted Resequencing and Mutation Validation

Sorted cell fractions were subjected to DNA/RNA extraction using the AllPrep DNA/RNA Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. We designed primers flanking exons containing candidate somatic variants using Primer3 (<http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/primer3/>). Short fragments of 100 to 200 bp were PCR-amplified from genomic DNA of sorted fractions and were subsequently pooled for library construction using the Ion Xpress Plus Fragment Library Kit (Life Technologies). Template preparation was performed with the OneTouch System v37 (Life Technologies). Bar-coded libraries were run on a 1-Gb chip on an Ion PGM Sequencer (Life Technologies). Analysis of acquired data was performed with the Ion Torrent v2.2 software (Life Technologies). Only high-quality reads with a phred score \geq Q20 were included for further analysis. At least 250 reads were obtained per PCR fragment.

Colony Genotyping

DNA from CD34⁺ colonies was prepared as described previously (49). Mutational status and VJ rearrangement were analyzed by Sanger sequencing. The complete list of primers will be provided upon request.

Cellular Methods

The IL3-dependent Ba/F3 cell line (from the American Type Culture Collection) is a kind gift from P. Dubreuil (INSERM U1068, Marseille, France); the SCF-dependent cell line EML is a kind gift from Guy Mouchiroud (CNRS U5534, Lyon, France). Cells were repeatedly tested for their growth factor dependency and checked to be of murine origin by FACS. EML cells were grown in Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium (IMDM), 20% horse serum, and 1% penicillin/streptomycin/glutamine, and supplemented with 10% of BHK cells supernatant. BaF3 cells were grown in RPMI medium, 10% bovine serum, and 1% penicillin/streptomycin/glutamine, and supplemented with 10 ng/mL of IL3. Retroviruses were produced and transduction was performed as described previously (50).

Growth Curve

Twelve hours after transduction, cells were washed and seeded at 5×10^6 cells per well. Cells were counted and analyzed by flow cytometry every 2 days. PE-conjugated antibodies were Gr1 (RB-8C5) and B220 (RA3-6B2) from eBioscience and Kit CD117 (2B8) from BD Pharmingen. Experiments were done at least twice in triplicate.

EMSA

The cDNA portion of *EGR2* encoding zinc-finger domain (AA 1-2) was amplified by PCR and cloned into PGEX vector (GE Healthcare Life Sciences). Protein production was induced by IPTG stimulation, and the fusion proteins were purified using Glutathione-Sepharose beads, and eluted from the beads with reduced glutathione following the manufacturer's instructions. SDS-PAGE gel migration followed by Coomassie blue staining and image scanning was used for qualitative and quantitative assessment.

Double-stranded probes were prepared by annealing complementary oligonucleotides harboring one *EGR2*-consensus binding site. To generate low-affinity and non-binding sites, base changes were

introduced in the core sequence (bold case) of the *EGR2* consensus site (underlined) of the strong binding probe 5'-CTCTG TACGCGGGGGCGGTTA-3'. Nonspecific competitor was 5'-CTCTG TACGCGCCCCGCGGTTA-3' (26). The LightShift Chemiluminescent EMSA Kit (Thermo Scientific; cat. no. 20148) was used to detect DNA-protein complexes, following the instructions of the manufacturer. Briefly, 2 μ L (~2 μ g) of purified GST-*EGR2* protein extracts were incubated with 50 fmol of double-stranded biotinylated probes in Binding Buffer supplemented with 50 mmol/L KCl, 10 mmol/L MgCl₂, 1 mmol/L EDTA, 1 mmol/L DTT, and 1 μ g poly dIdC for 10 minutes at room temperature. For competitive assays, a 200 \times excess of double-stranded nonlabeled probes was added to the mixture.

Binding reactions were loaded in 5% nondenaturing polyacrylamide gels and electrophoresed in 0.5 \times TBE buffer at 200 V for 30 minutes. DNA and protein complexes were transferred to HyBond N+ membranes (Amersham) in 0.5 \times TBE buffer at 300 mA for 30 minutes. After UV cross-linking, the membranes were blocked, hybridized with streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase (HRP) conjugated, and revealed following the manufacturer's instructions. Images were recorded using an ImageQuant detector (GE Healthcare Life Sciences).

Western Blot and Expression Analysis

Two days after transduction, GFP⁺ cells were flow-sorted and the RNA and protein were extracted using the RNA/DNA/Protein Purification Plus Kit (47700; Norgen Biotek Corp.). Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. Anti-*EGR2* (P100880; Aviva Systems Biology) and anti-Actin (A3853; Sigma), Phospho-p44/42 MAPK and p44/42 MAPK antibodies (Cell Signaling Technology), and Raf-B (C-19; Santa Cruz Biotechnology) were used as primary antibodies. Secondary HRP-conjugated antibodies [anti-rabbit IgG (NA934V, GE) and anti-mouse IgG (NA931V, GE)], and ECL Plus Kit (RPN2132, GE) were used for detection.

The following TaqMan probes were purchased from Applied Biosystems: *Abl1*: Mm00802038_g1, *Gadd45b*: Mm00435121_g1, *Csf1*: Mm00432686_m1, *Ccl1*: Mm00441236_m1, *Gapdh*: Mm999999_g1, *Gusb*: Mm00446956_m1, *Egr1*: Mm0065672_m1, *Dtx1*: Mm00492297_m1, and *EGR2*: Mm00456650_m1.

Retroviruses

All cDNAs (*EGR2*: NM_001136177; *BRAF*: NM_004333) were subcloned into MSCV-GFP backbone. Mutations were introduced using the Quick Change Kit, following the manufacturer's instructions. Every PCR-amplified or mutagenized fragment was checked by sequencing. Viral particles and transduction procedures were as described previously (50).

Bone marrow transplantation assays and hematopoietic differentiation analyses were performed as described previously (41), except that the mice were analyzed 5 weeks after transplantation. Antibodies used for analyzing B-cell differentiation are anti-mouse CD45.2 V450 (BD Horizon); anti-mouse CD19 APC-eFluor 780, anti-mouse CD43 PE, and anti-mouse IgM PerCP-eFluor 710 (eBioscience); and anti-mouse CD45R/B220 PE-Cy7 and anti-mouse IgD APC (BD Pharmingen).

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

No potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

Authors' Contributions

Conception and design: F. Damm, Y. Kikushige, K. Akashi, F. Nguyen-Khac, O.A. Bernard

Development of methodology: F. Damm, V. Della Valle, W. Vainchenker, T. Mercher, N. Droin, S. Ogawa

Acquisition of data (provided animals, acquired and managed patients, provided facilities, etc.): F. Damm, E. Mylonas, K. Yoshida,

V. Della Valle, E. Mouly, L. Scourzic, F. Davi, H. Merle-Béral, L. Sutton, W. Vainchenker, N. Droin, S. Ogawa, F. Nguyen-Khac

Analysis and interpretation of data (e.g., statistical analysis, biostatistics, computational analysis): F. Damm, A. Cosson, K. Yoshida, E. Mouly, M. Diop, L. Scourzic, Y. Shiraiishi, K. Chiba, H. Tanaka, S. Miyano, J. Lambert, D. Gautheret, P. Dessen, T. Mercher, S. Ogawa, O.A. Bernard

Writing, review, and/or revision of the manuscript: F. Damm, E. Mylonas, Y. Kikushige, P. Dessen, E. Solary, K. Akashi, F. Nguyen-Khac, O.A. Bernard

Administrative, technical, or material support (i.e., reporting or organizing data, constructing databases): V. Della Valle, H. Merle-Béral, L. Sutton, E. Solary

Study supervision: O.A. Bernard

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Frederik Damm, Elena Mylonas, Adrien Cosson, et al.

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Deep sequencing reveals stepwise mutation acquisition in paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria

Wenyi Shen,^{1,2} Michael J. Clemente,¹ Naoko Hosono,¹ Kenichi Yoshida,³ Bartłomiej Przychodzen,¹ Tetsuichi Yoshizato,³ Yuichi Shiraishi,⁴ Satoru Miyano,^{4,5} Seishi Ogawa,³ Jaroslaw P. Maciejewski,¹ and Hideki Makishima¹

¹Department of Translational Hematology and Oncology Research, Taussig Cancer Institute, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, Ohio, USA. ²Department of Hematology, The First Affiliated Hospital of Nanjing Medical University, Nanjing, Jiangsu, China. ³Department of Pathology and Tumor Biology, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan. ⁴Laboratory of DNA Information Analysis, Human Genome Center and ⁵Laboratory of Sequence Analysis, Human Genome Center, Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan.

Paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria (PNH) is a nonmalignant clonal disease of hematopoietic stem cells that is associated with hemolysis, marrow failure, and thrombophilia. PNH has been considered a monogenic disease that results from somatic mutations in the gene encoding *PIGA*, which is required for biosynthesis of glycosylphosphatidylinositol-anchored (GPI-anchored) proteins. The loss of certain GPI-anchored proteins is hypothesized to provide the mutant clone with an extrinsic growth advantage, but some features of PNH argue that there are intrinsic drivers of clonal expansion. Here, we performed whole-exome sequencing of paired PNH⁺ and PNH⁻ fractions on samples taken from 12 patients as well as targeted deep sequencing of an additional 36 PNH patients. We identified additional somatic mutations that resulted in a complex hierarchical clonal architecture, similar to that observed in myeloid neoplasms. In addition to mutations in *PIGA*, mutations were found in genes known to be involved in myeloid neoplasm pathogenesis, including *TET2*, *SUZ12*, *U2AF1*, and *JAK2*. Clonal analysis indicated that these additional mutations arose either as a subclone within the *PIGA*-mutant population, or prior to *PIGA* mutation. Together, our data indicate that in addition to *PIGA* mutations, accessory genetic events are frequent in PNH, suggesting a stepwise clonal evolution derived from a singular stem cell clone.

Introduction

Paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria (PNH), a prototypical disease of hematopoietic stem cells, is characterized by the clinical triad of intravascular hemolysis, thrombophilia, and bone marrow failure (1). While clonal, PNH has not been considered a malignancy. However, PNH does exhibit similarities to myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS), a chronic preleukemic myeloid neoplasm, including clonal hematopoiesis, persistence of an aberrant stem cell clone, and frequent derivation as a late complication of immune-mediated aplastic anemia (AA). The presence of a singular somatic mutation of the *PIGA* gene in hematopoietic stem cells leads to the defective biosynthesis of glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchors, resulting in the deficiency and absence of GPI-anchored proteins on the cell surface, a hallmark of the PNH phenotype (2). These phenotypic features of affected PNH stem cells are believed to be responsible for an extrinsic growth advantage, which occurs in the context of immune-mediated hematopoietic suppression of hematopoiesis, as seen in AA (3). While immune privilege leading to clonal escape is plausible, it does not completely explain the evolution of PNH. Various observations suggest that intrinsic factors are also involved. For example, PNH often persists for many years after successful immunosuppression in AA, or PNH can present in a pure form without AA. Furthermore, the detection of tiny *PIGA* mutant clones in

healthy individuals suggests a need for additional putative intrinsic factors that promote the expansion of GPI-deficient cells within the hematopoietic compartment (4, 5). These factors may include secondary genetic events such as somatic mutations. In support of this hypothesis, chromosomal abnormalities in the form of microdeletions involving the *PIGA* locus have been identified in a small proportion of cases of otherwise classical PNH (6, 7). Occasional clonal chromosomal abnormalities and somatic mutations including *NRAS* and *JAK2* mutations have also been reported in PNH (8, 9), supporting the notion that *PIGA* mutations and additional somatic events correlate with each other and may be responsible for maintenance and expansion of the PNH clone.

Recently, the application of next-generation sequencing (NGS) to study malignant clonal diseases has revealed clonal architecture at a much higher level of complexity than previously anticipated, demonstrating both the stepwise acquisition of mutations and expansion of the most permissive subclones. In this study, we present data from whole-exome sequencing (WES) of clonal (GPI-deficient) and nonclonal cells from PNH patients to examine the mutational history of PNH. We hypothesized that the evolution of a PNH clone may be associated with additional somatic mutational events and that such events may be either of an ancestral or a facilitating nature. These additional somatic mutations, if present, may help to further clarify the mechanism of clonal expansion and persistence of the mutated PNH stem cell, as well as explain the clinical diversity of PNH and distinct behavior of the PNH clones. Our data suggest that PNH, a nonmalignant yet clonal disorder, displays clonal architecture in a manner similar to that of leukemia (10, 11).

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Table 1. Patient characteristics

	Variable	Whole cohort (n = 60)	WES cohort (n = 12)
Age	Median, yr	44	43
	Range, yr	10–77	20–72
Sex	Male	27	6
	Female	33	6
Symptoms at diagnosis		30 (50%)	5 (42%)
Neutropenia		15 (25%)	3 (25%)
Anemia		35 (58%)	8 (67%)
Thrombocytopenia		15 (25%)	4 (33%)
Hemolysis		31 (52%)	9 (75%)
Thrombosis		12 (20%)	4 (33%)
PNH clone size	Mean	61%	87%
	Range, %	0.8–99.8	60–99

Neutropenia: absolute neutrophil count (ANC) $\leq 1.5 \times 10^3/l$; anemia: Hg $\leq 10g/dl$; thrombocytopenia: platelets $\leq 100 \times 10^3/l$.

Results

Mutational search using WES. We analyzed a total of 60 patients with PNH (Table 1). After immunomagnetic sorting of wbc into PNH (CD59⁻) and non-PNH (CD59⁺) fractions, we verified purity by flow cytometry (Supplemental Table 1; supplemental material available online with this article; doi:10.1172/JCI74747DS1) and performed WES on 12 patients. Application of a bioanalytic algorithm designed to detect somatic mutations led to the selection of a total of 107 nonsilent alterations (98 were single nucleotide variants [SNVs] and 9 were indels). Through validation by Sanger sequencing and targeted deep NGS of candidate alterations (61 genes, Supplemental Table 2), we confirmed the presence of 38 somatic events in a total of 31 genes in PNH-derived DNA. The average coverage of exome sequencing and targeted deep NGS was 103 times and 316 times, respectively. Our stringent bioanalytic platform favored avoidance of false-negatives, and, consequently, the accuracy of the initial calling algorithm was 22% for SNVs and 89% for indels. In addition to 3 cases with Xp22.2 *PIGA* microdeletions, we identified a total of 31 missense, 8 nonsense, 26 frameshift, and 13 splice site mutations in cases analyzed by WES (n = 12) and targeted (n = 36) NGS sequencing (Table 2).

***PIGA* mutations and deletions.** We detected somatic *PIGA* mutations (3 SNVs and 10 indels) in the PNH fractions of 9 of 12 cases analyzed by WES, while paired non-PNH CD59⁺ DNA samples were negative, although a small cross-contamination artifact was detected in some samples. For example, in PNH patient 5 (PNH5), we identified a single splice site mutation with a high variant allelic frequency in sorted PNH⁺ (CD59⁻) cells that was generally absent in normal (CD59⁺) cells (Figure 1A). To further explore the frequency of *PIGA* mutations in our cohort aside from the WES cases (n = 12), we used Sanger sequencing (n = 36) and targeted *PIGA* (n = 10) deep sequencing. Overall, *PIGA* mutations were detected in 60% (36 of 60) of patients (Table 2). As reported previously in the literature (12), some PNH patients harbor more than 1 *PIGA* mutation. In 14% (5 of 36) of *PIGA*-mutated cases, 2 independent mutations were

found, and 1 case (PNH45) contained 3 mutations (Table 2 and representative patients depicted in Figure 1C and Supplemental Figure 1). In an index female PNH case (PNH1), the somatic nature of 2 *PIGA* mutations (p.G68E and intron 5 splice site) was confirmed, since deep sequencing indicated that both were confined to the PNH fraction (Figure 1C). The 2 mutations were located 431 nucleotides apart, and bacterial subcloning analysis demonstrated that they were not present in the same clone (Figure 1D). Two independent experiments involving Sanger sequencing of single colonies further validated the biclonal nature of the 2 *PIGA* mutations, as no colony contained both mutations (Figure 1E). Deep sequencing provided variant allelic frequencies (VAFs) of 18% (p.G68E) and 12% (intron 5 splice site) with a corresponding clonal size of 36% and 24%, respectively, as the mutations were heterozygous. Overall, in each of the 6 PNH cases with 2 or more *PIGA* mutations, we identified 2 (or 3) independent PNH clones with 1 unique *PIGA* mutation per clone, and all were codominant.

In total, 9 of 12 (75%) WES, 9 of 10 (90%) targeted deep sequencing, and 15 of 36 (42%) Sanger sequencing cases were positive for *PIGA* defects, including 3 nonsense, 21 frameshift, 5 missense, and 11 splice site mutations (Figure 2A). One WES case and an additional 2 cases contained a microdeletion involving the *PIGA* locus (delXp22.2, spanning an average of 559 kb, range 506–616 kb) as detected by SNP array. These microdeletions were confined to PNH cells and were not found in non-PNH fractions. In summary, we were able to detect either *PIGA* mutations or microdeletions in 60% (36 of 60) of patients studied, with 3% (1 of 36) triclonal, 14% (5 of 36) biclonal, 75% (27 of 36) monoclonal, and 8% (3 of 36) microdeletions (Figure 2B). We found no mutations or microdeletions in 40% (24 of 60) of the cases studied, with Sanger sequencing demonstrating a much lower detection rate than WES or targeted deep sequencing. Flow cytometric analysis of PNH clone size using Alexa 488 Proaerolysin Variant (FLAER) indicated that the only patient with 3 *PIGA* mutations also had a significant (>3%) wbc type II PNH clone (Figure 2C). Based on the evolution of PNH clone size as assessed longitudinally by flow cytometry in patients with at least a 4-year follow-up and a detected *PIGA* mutation (n = 16), the vast majority of patients tended to equilibrate at a clone size greater than 80% of all leukocytes regardless of the nature of the *PIGA* mutation (Figure 2D).

Additional somatic mutations in PNH. In addition to the pathogenic *PIGA* mutations, 21 somatic mutations in 21 other genes were found in 83% (10 of 12) of cases tested by WES (Table 2). All of these mutations were confirmed by independent testing using both Sanger and targeted NGS. In contrast to what would be expected from a benign condition, the number of such novel gene mutations other than *PIGA* ranged between 0 and 6 per case, with an average of 2 additional events. In an index case of PNH with thrombocytopenia (PNH1), we detected a novel somatic heterozygous mutation primarily in the PNH fraction in the *NTNG1* gene (Figure 1C). While *NTNG1* mutations or dysregulation of receptor ligand inter-

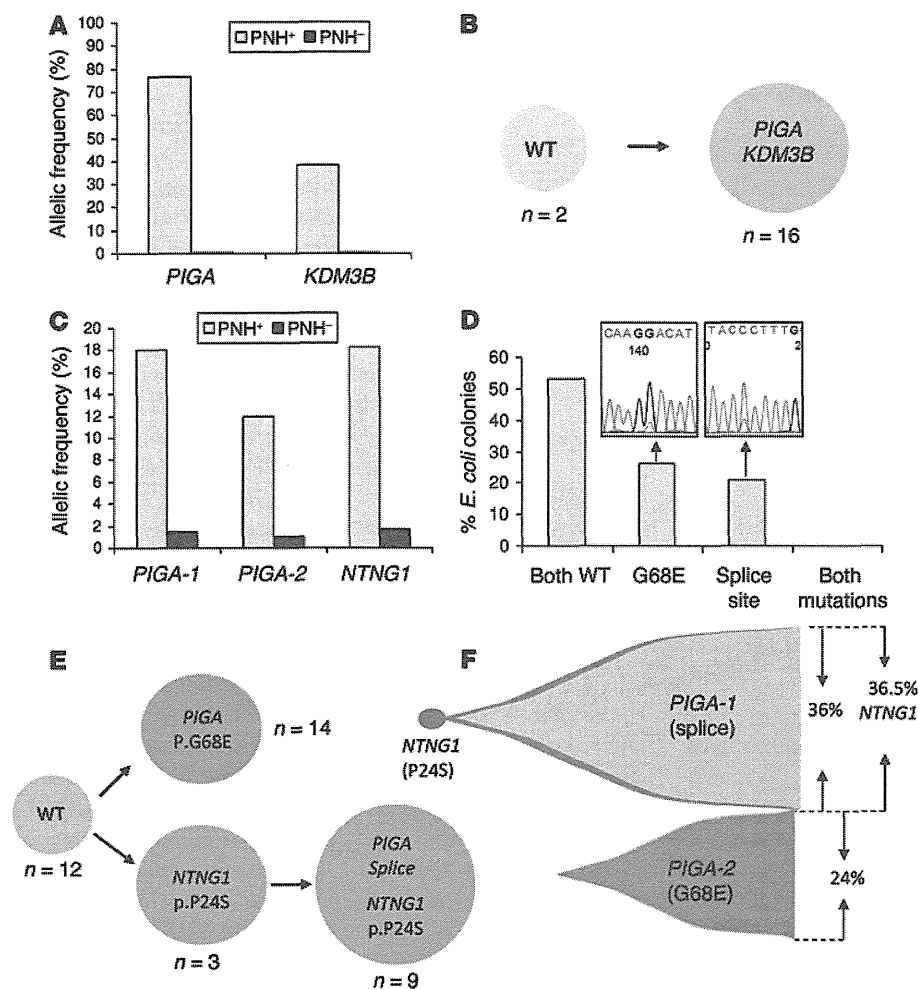


Figure 1. *PIGA* mutations can be either primary or secondary events. The primary event (PNH5) is represented in A and B; the secondary event (PNH1) is represented in C–F. (A) Analysis of VAFs of the mutations identified in case PNH5 indicated that the *KDM3B* mutation was present at a lower frequency than the *PIGA* mutation, and both mutations were almost exclusively confined to the sorted PNH⁺ (CD59⁻) fraction. (B) Single-colony sequencing results confirmed that the *PIGA* and *KDM3B* mutations were present in the same cell population. (C) Deep sequencing VAFs for *PIGA*-1 (G68E), *PIGA*-2 (splice site), and *NTNG1* (P24S) mutations, all of which were primarily present in the PNH fraction in the PNH1 case. (D) Bacterial subcloning and Sanger sequencing results demonstrated that the *PIGA* mutations in this case were independent, suggesting the presence of 2 separate PNH clones. (E) Single-colony sequencing further confirmed that 2 independent PNH clones were present and also suggested that the *PIGA* splice site mutation appeared to be a secondary event preceded by a *NTNG1* mutation. (F) The combination of deep sequencing data with single-colony sequencing allowed for a representation of the clonal architecture in PNH1.

actions have been described in various disorders including colorectal cancer (13–16), the p.P24S mutation has not been previously reported. Other somatic mutations discovered in PNH include those in *TET2*, *MAGEC1*, *BRPF1*, *KDM3B*, and *STAC3* genes, all found in the PNH fraction and not in phenotypically normal cells (Table 2). All of these mutations were heterozygous without loss of heterozygosity (LOH) encompassing the affected gene locus. To assess whether these gene mutations were frequently recurrent in PNH, we screened an additional 36 cases by targeted deep sequencing, including a variety of genes ($n = 61$) that are frequently affected in MDS (Supplemental Table 2). In addition to 2 somatic homozygous *JAK2* (p.V617F) mutations, both of which were present in PNH cases with microdeletions of Xp22.2, *SUZ12*, *DHX29*, *MECOM*, *BCOR*, *U2AF1*, *ASXL1*, *BRCC3*, *ETV6*, *KDM6A*, *NTNG1*, *BRPF1*, *MAGEC1*, *CCR9*, *ALDH1B1*, *WDR96*, *TMCI*, *CPD*, *NRXN3*, *CELSRI*, *KDM3B*, *STAC3*, *SLC20A1*, *MUC7*, *RBP3*, *C11orf34*, *MAN1A2*, *PEX14*, *SYNE*, and *FBN1* mutations were found in a single PNH case each, with *RITI* and *MECOM* in 2 cases and *TET2* in 3 cases, one of which harbored 2 different *TET2* mutations (Table 2).

Clonal architecture. In order to evaluate the clonal composition of each patient, we used single-colony sequencing assays, bacterial subcloning, and analysis of VAF data obtained from targeted deep sequencing. For example, in PNH5, a *KDM3B* mutation was

also discovered, albeit at a lower frequency than that of the *PIGA* mutations (Figure 1A). Clonogenic assays were used to determine whether the mutations were independent (biclonal) or co-occurring (subclonal, Figure 1B). In this case, all colonies were either wild-type or had both mutations. Taken in context with allelic frequency data indicating that the *KDM3B* mutation was present at a lower frequency than the *PIGA* mutation, these results suggest that the *PIGA* mutation was the initial event.

Our first indication that a *PIGA* mutation may not always be the initial event in PNH came during our analysis of the WES data from PNH1. VAF of the *NTNG1* mutation (18.3%) was slightly greater than that of either of the *PIGA* mutations (18% vs. 12%) detected (Figure 1C), prompting subcloning and single-colony sequencing experiments to determine the clonal composition of the observed mutations. These experiments confirmed the suspicion that the *NTNG1* mutation preceded the *PIGA* intron 5 splice site mutation, as we observed a number of colonies with a *NTNG1* mutation but without a *PIGA* mutation (Figure 1C). Furthermore, no colonies demonstrated the presence of a *PIGA* intron 5 splice site mutation in the absence of a concurrent *NTNG1* mutation, leading to our current understanding of clonal architecture in this patient (Figure 1D), who clearly has 2 independent *PIGA* mutations, one of which evolved as a secondary event subsequent to the initial *NTNG1* alteration.