Original Article Genomic alterations in tumor tissue and ctDNA from Chinese pancreatic cancer patients

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Abstract: Though the genomic feature of pancreatic cancer has been comprehensively studied in western patients, the genetic feature of Chinese patients is poorly clarified. In this study, a total of 225 pancreatic cancer patients were enrolled, mainly pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC, 97.33%). 140 patients (62.22%) provided sufficient tumor tissues for genomic analysis, and the rest (37.78%) were provided serum instead. Utilizing target next-generation sequencing (NGS), we analyzed genomic alterations of 618 selected genes. Corresponding data in the TCGA database were also analyzed here. In total, 26 (11.61%) patients had pathogenic or likely pathogenic germline variants, mainly (84.62%) involved genes in the DNA damage repair (DDR) pathway. The mean and median counts of somatic alterations per sample were 6.28 and 5, respectively. The most frequently mutated genes in our cohort were KRAS, TP53, CDKN2A, SMAD4, FBXW7 and ARID1A, revealing a significantly different prevalence of genes including KRAS, CDKN2A, ARID1A, NOTCH1, ARID1B than the corresponding data in the TCGA database. 39.11% of patients were identified with actionable alteration and the ratio was not significantly different between tissue and serum samples. 22.67% of patients harbored DDR gene alterations, which were associated with a higher tumor mutation burden. We also found that all the DDR alterations were not correlated with the overall survival and immune and stroma score, but the changes in NK cells and follicular T cells were identified in samples with DDR changes according to TCGA database. In summary, we identified a distinct genomic feature of Chinese pancreatic cancer patients by comparing with the data in TCGA database, and suggested the role for genetic testing using tissue or ctDNA samples in decision-making process. DDR alterations were associated with a higher tumor mutation burden and the significantly higher counts of NK cells in DDR altered samples may raise the attention in future related drugs development.

Keywords: Pancreatic cancer, genetic alterations, DNA damage repair, germline, ctDNA

Introduction

Pancreatic cancer (PC) is one of most lethal malignancies globally, accounting for nearly 4.5% of cancer-related deaths in 2018 [1]. As reported by the Chinese national cancer center, the estimated newly-diagnosed and death cases of pancreatic cancer in China in 2015 were 4,292,000 and 2,814,000, respectively, which was regarded as the sixth most common lethal carcinoma in China [2]. Though the treat-

ments and survivals of cancer have been continuously improving in the past decade, the 5-year survival rate of pancreatic cancer patients in China is only around 7%, lower than the USA's corresponding data (approximately 10%) [3]. To date, surgical resection remains the only chance for pancreatic cancer patients to cure; for patients with advanced or metastatic disease, systemic chemotherapy was the primary treatment, but the overall survival was still less than a year (6.8 to 11.1 months). The genomic feature of western pancreatic cancer patients has been comprehensively studied [4]. Notably, up to 25% of advanced pancreatic cancer patients in western countries were found to have actionable genomic alterations [5]. Precision medicine-related studies in western pancreatic cancer patients, especially the Know Your Tumor (KYT) program, have demonstrated precision medicine based on personal genomic alterations had significantly improved both the patient's progressionfree survival and the overall survival [6, 7]. Among them, DNA damage repair (DDR) alterations, especially BRCA1/2, were the actionable alterations with the strongest evidence, as PARP inhibitor olaparib has been approved by the U.S. food and drug administration (FDA) as the maintenance therapy in metastatic pancreatic cancer patients with this deficiency [8]. Meanwhile, though many previous have suggested the positive correlation between alterations and immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs), whether this prediction role suits for PC patients remains vague, especially considering the specific tumor microenvironment of PC and previous poor performance of ICIs in it [9, 10]. Since this, the genomic landscape and potentially actionable alterations especially DDR pathways in Chinese pancreatic cancer patients have not been much clarified.

Meanwhile, genetic testing on the tumor tissue is the gold standard for valid genomic classification in multiple solid tumors. However, as nearly 50-60% of pancreatic cancer patients have advanced or metastatic disease at diagnosis, it is hard to achieve enough or validlyachieved tumor tissue for genetic profiling [11]. Circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA) has been comprehensively studied as an emerging source for early disease detection, prognosis and response prediction in pancreatic cancer [12, 13]. Though it is still full of controversy to determine whether ctDNA could substitute tumor tissue for genetic profiling, a recently-published study has found the utilization of ctDNA could significantly reduce two-thirds of screen duration but doubled the enrollment rate than the tissue in advanced gastrointestinal cancer, highlighting the value of ctDNA in precision medicine [14].

We designed this study to determine the genomic feature, especially DDR deficiency, in the tumor tissue and ctDNA sample from Chinese pancreatic cancer patients. A compari-

son of genomic features between tumor tissue and ctDNA samples would provide evidence for the application value of ctDNA in the future.

Materials and methods

Samples source and ethic data

A total of 225 pancreatic cancer patients were enrolled in our cohort from November 2017 to April 2020. The study was approved by Shanghai Pulmonary Hospital Ethics Committee and the study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All sample collection wasn't during the cycle of chemotherapy. target therapy and/or immunotherapy. 140 patients (62.22%) provided sufficient tumor tissues for genomic analysis, and the rest (37.78%) who didn't have valid tumor tissues provided serum for ctDNA collection instead. Among patients who provided tumor tissue samples, 16 of them provided additional matched serum sample for genetic testing. Utilizing target next-generation sequencing (NGS), we analyzed genomic alterations of 618 selected genes.

DNA isolation

The FFPE tissues and peripheral blood mononuclear cells were collected to extract DNA using DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Inc.) under the manufacturer's instructions. Cellfree DNA (cfDNA) was extracted from serum using the QIAamp Circulating Nucleic Acid Kit (Qiagen, Inc.) following the protocol of the manufacturer. The purified gDNA and cfDNA were quantified using the Qubit 3.0 Fluorometer (Life Technologies, Inc.) and StepOnePlus System (Life Technologies, Inc.).

Target next-generation sequencing

For the matched germline and tumor samples, 100 ng of DNA was sheared with a Covaris E210 system (Covaris, Inc.) to get 200 bp fragments. We performed next generation sequencing of tumor and gDNA matched germline DNA using Accel-NGS 2S DNA Library Kit (Swift Biosciences, Inc.) for library preparation and xGen Lockdown Probes kit (IDT, Inc.). The custom xGen Lockdown probe was synthesized by IDT, Inc. for the exons and selected intronic regions of 618 genes (Supplementary Table 1). The prepared library was quantified using the Qubit 3.0 Fluorometer (Life Technologies, Inc.), and quality and fragment size were measured using Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Inc.). Samples underwent paired-end sequencing on an Illumina Nextseq CN500 platform (Illumina Inc.) with a 150-bp read length. Mean coverage beyond 1250×, 3700× and 220× were achieved for tumor gDNA, blood cfDNA and peripheral blood mononuclear cells gDNA, respectively.

Data processing

Raw sequencing data were aligned to the reference human genome (UCSC hg19) through Burrows-Wheeler Aligner and producing a binary alignment/map (BAM) file. After the duplicate removal and local realignment, the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) was used for single nucleotide variation (SNV), short insertions/deletions (indels) calling. Variants were annotated using the ANNOVAR software tool. Variants identified in gDNA from buffy coat fraction aliquots with allele fraction (AF) bevond 25% were determined as germline variants, and variants were further removing with frequency ≥1% in ExAC (http://exac.broadinstitute.org), 1000 Genomes (http://www.1000genomes.org) or ESP6500 databases (https:// evs.gs.washington.edu/EVS). The interpretation of germline variants followed the standards and guidelines of American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics and the Association for Molecular Pathology (ACMG/AMP) and independently reviewed by two genetic consultants [15].

Somatic variants with AF beyond 1% in tumor tissue and 0.5% in ctDNA were generated from each tumor gDNA by removing the germline variants and further annotated according to the Catalog of Somatic Mutations in Cancer (COSMIC) database. The functional classification of each somatic mutation was followed the interpretation and reporting standards and guidelines recommended by the Association for Molecular Pathology, American Society of Clinical Oncology, and College of American Pathologists (ASCO/CAP) [16].

The tumor mutation burden of each sample was calculated according to a published and widely applied method [17]. Genomic alterations data of western pancreatic patients from The Cancer Genome Atlas database (TCGA) was downloaded from cBioPortal (http://www.cbioportal.org).

Tumor-infiltrating immune cells analysis

Tumor-infiltrating immune cells counts were analyzed based on RNA-seq data from the PC samples in TCGA by using a CIBERSORT R package [18].

Statistical analysis

Differential mutations analysis was performed using Chi-Square test or Fisher exact test under a dominant model. Two-sided *P* values less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant. All analyses were performed using SPSS 25.0 software.

Results

Patient characteristics

225 Chinese patients with pancreatic cancer were enrolled in this study with a median age of 63 (range, 35 to 93 years). Enrolled patients were mainly pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC, n=219, 97.33%), and the rest were pancreatic neuroendocrine carcinoma (PNEC, n=6). The clinical characteristics of all cases were listed in **Table 1**.

Pathogenic or likely pathogenic germline variants

26 patients (11.61%) carried pathogenic or likely pathogenic (P/LP) germline variants, mainly involving genes in DDR, RTK/MAPK and pancreatitis pathway (Table 2). 9.82% (22/225) of patients had deleterious germline variants in the DDR pathway, including 8 (3.56%) with BRCA2 variants, 4 (1.78%) with ATM, and one (0.44%) of each with BRCA1, BRIP1, FANCC, FANCG, FANCI, MSH6, MUTYH, PALB2, RAD50 and RAD51D, respectively. The median age at diagnosis of carriers of P/LP germline variants, DDR genes P/LP and BRCA1/2 P/LP were all 57 years old, which was significantly younger than the patients without any P/LP germline variants in our cohort (median 63 years old, P<0.05). Two rare and likely pathogenic germline variants, FGFR4 D127H and ERBB4 E542K, were identified in a specific individual, respectively, which had not been reported in PDAC before. Another two (0.88%) carriers of chronic pancreatitis related SPINK1 c.194+2T>C variant were identified. No carrier of P/LP germline variant in other previous-reported genes related to PDAC

Variable		N (%)
Total		225
Age	Median (range)	63 (35-93)
Gender	Male	26 (11.56%)
	Female	199 (88.44%)
Histologic type	PDAC	219 (97.33%)
	PNEC	6 (2.67%)
AJCC Prognostic Groups	I	15 (6.67%)
	II	66 (29.33%)
	III	22 (9.78%)
	IV	115 (51.11%)
	NE	7 (3.11%)
Distant metastasis status	MO	110 (48.89%)
	M1	115 (51.11%)
Sample Type	Serum	85 (37.78%)
	Tumor	140 (62.22%)

Table 1. Clinical characteristics	of 225 patients with
pancreatic cancer	

NE: none evaluation.

Predisposition, including CDKN2A, TP53, MLH1 and MSH2, was identified in our cohort.

Somatic genomic alterations in Chinese pancreatic cancer patients

After removing the germline variants, 1,405 somatic variants were identified in our cohort. The mean and median counts of somatic alterations per sample were 6.28 and 5, respectively. The most frequently mutated genes in the patients were *KRAS* (64.60%), *TP53* (55.75%), *CDKN2A* (17.26%), *SMAD4* (17.26%), *FBXW7* (11%), and *ARID1A* (10.18%), respectively (**Figure 1A**). The most frequent mutated signaling pathway included RAS/RAF/MAPK (78.22%), cell cycle (63.56%), Epigenetic_modifiers/Chromatin_remodelers (37.78%) and DNA damage repair (DDR, 36.00%) and others (**Figure 1B**).

Differences of genetic alterations in pancreatic cancer patients between Chinese cohort and TCGA cohort

To determine the potential differences of genomic features between Chinese and Western pancreatic cancer patients, we compared the gene alterations data of the selected 618 genes between our cohort and western cohort (published by TCGA). The prevalence of alterations in *KRAS* was significantly higher in the TCGA database (78.57% vs. 90.67%, P< 0.001), while genes including CDKN2A (22.86% vs. 14.67%), ARID1A (11.43% vs. 5.33%), NOTCH1 (6.43% vs. 1.33%) and ARID1B (5.71% vs. 0.67%) were significantly more mutated in the tissues sample in our cohort (Figure 2A). Similarly, KRAS alterations were more prevalent in the TCGA database when comparing with the genetic alterations in the serum samples in our cohort (90.67% vs. 43.53%), along with a higher incidence of alterations in TP53 (69.33% vs. 45.88%) and SMAD4 gene (24.67% vs. 10.59%) (Figure 2B). The prevalence of specific KRAS alterations was similar between Chinese and TCGA cohort, both with dominant variants in Gly12Asp and Gly12Val (Supplementary Figure 1A, 1B). Notably, a higher prevalence of Gly12Arg was identified in the TCGA cohort (19.9% vs. 9.5%,

P<0.05) (Supplementary Figure 1C). There were only two patients (0.89%) identified with coexistence of *KRAS* alterations (one had Gly12Asp with Gly13Asp, and another had Ala146Val with Gly12Asp), which was also rare in the TCGA cohort (2.67%, P=0.2228).

Differences of genetic alterations between the tumor tissue and serum samples

According to the OncoKB Levels of Evidence V2 (12/20/2019), 88 patients (39.11%) with 27 actionable genes were identified in our cohort (Table 3). The frequency of samples with actionable alterations for tissue and blood was 43.57% and 30.59% (P=0.063), respectively. The actionable genes mainly confer sensitivity to PARP inhibitor (BRCA1/2, ATM and other homologous recombination repair genes), and meanwhile, rarely actionable alterations in EGFR, FGFR and BRAF may confer sensitivity in related RTK inhibitors. 82 patients with sufficient tumor tissues had microsatellite instability test, though none of them was microsatellite instability-high (MSI-H). Though eight patents (3.56%) were identified as having alterations in mismatch repair (MMR) genes, only one MLH1 variant (0.44%) was annotated as deleterious. The rare incidence of deficiency MMR in Chinese cohort was in concordance with the findings in the TCGA dataset, as only two patients harbored alterations in MMR genes

Sample ID	Age at diagnosis	Gene	Transcript ID	Mutation Type	Exon	Coding sequence change	Protein change	Heterozygous/Homozygous
CH165	44	ATM	NM_000051	Stopgain	38	c.5697C>A	p.Cys1899*	Heterozygous
CH017	62	ATM		Frameshift deletion	3	c.172delG	p.Asp58fs	Heterozygous
CH039	67	ATM		Stopgain	37	c.5644C>T	p.Arg1882*	Heterozygous
CH150	68	ATM		Splice	15	c.2377-2A>G	-	Heterozygous
CH220	60	BRCA1	NM_007294	Stopgain	9	c.607G>T	p.Glu203*	Heterozygous
CH038	45	BRCA2	NM_000059	Stopgain	11	c.4363G>T	p.Glu1455*	Heterozygous
CH213	45	BRCA2		Stopgain	11	c.5344C>T	p.Gln1782*	Heterozygous
CH202	51	BRCA2		Nonsynonymous	15	c.7522G>A	p.Gly2508Ser	Heterozygous
CH063	52	BRCA2		Stopgain	11	c.5682C>G	p.Tyr1894*	Heterozygous
CH118	57	BRCA2		Stopgain	11	c.3631G>T	p.Glu1211*	Heterozygous
CH143	57	BRCA2		Frameshift deletion	11	c.4380_4381delTT	p.Ser1461fs	Heterozygous
CH146	65	BRCA2		Stopgain	11	c.2484T>G	p.Tyr828*	Heterozygous
CH148	74	BRCA2		Frameshift deletion	11	c.5164_5165delAG	p.Ser1722fs	Heterozygous
CH078	78	BRIP1	NM_032043	Frameshift deletion	11	c.1609delC	p.Leu537fs	Heterozygous
CH200	53	ERBB4	NM_005235	Nonsynonymous	14	c.1624G>A	p.Glu542Lys	Heterozygous
CH065	50	FANCC	NM_000136	Splice	13	c.1330-1G>A	-	Heterozygous
CH061	51	FANCG	NM_004629	Stopgain	5	c.572T>G	p.Leu191*	Heterozygous
CH134	47	FANCI	NM_001113378	Frameshift deletion	34	c.3622dupC	p.Leu1208fs	Heterozygous
CH025	62	FGFR4	NM_213647	Nonsynonymous	4	c.379G>C	p.Asp127His	Heterozygous
CH012	52	MSH6	NM_000179	Frameshift deletion	4	c.1804_1805delTC	p.Ser602fs	Heterozygous
CH140	40	MUTYH	NM_012222	Nonsynonymous	9	c.704A>G	p.Asn235Ser	Heterozygous
CH044	65	PALB2	NM_024675	Frameshift deletion	4	c.472delC	p.Gln158fs	Heterozygous
CH054	68	RAD50	NM_005732	Stopgain	23	c.3592C>T	p.Arg1198*	Heterozygous
CH181	77	RAD51D	NM_002878	Stopgain	9	c.898C>T	p.Arg300*	Heterozygous
CH047	35	SPINK1	NM_003122	Splice	4	c.194+2T>C	-	Heterozygous
CH102	69	SPINK1		Splice	4	c.194+2T>C	-	Heterozygous

Table 2. Pathogenic or likely pathogenic germline variants in 225 patients with pancreatic cancer



Figure 1. Genetic alterations in 225 Chinese pancreatic cancer patients. A. OncoPrint of the most frequently mutated genes; B. The prevalence of oncogenic and total alterations in specific signal pathway.

and only one deleterious *MSH6* alteration (0.67%) was identified. The median tumor mutation burden (TMB) for tumor tissue and serum samples was 6.39 and 9.33 mutations/ Mb, respectively. 36 (25.71%) of tumor tissue samples had a TMB value beyond 10 mutations/Mb, and 11 (12.94%) of serum tissue samples had a blood TMB value beyond 16 mutations/Mb.

To access the concordance of genetic alterations in tissue and serum samples, 15 patients who had tumor tissue testing provided additional matched serum samples. A total of 152 alterations were identified in all the tumor and serum samples (mean =5.06 alterations, median =4 alterations). Though the median concordance for all identified genetic alterations was only 12.12%, the concordance for *KRAS* and *TP53* alterations was 60% and 66.67%, respectively (**Figure 3**). As for the four most prevalent genes (*KRAS*, *TP53*, *SMAD4* and *CDKN2A*) in PDAC, the mean testing sensitivity was 31.55% (range, 0-50.00%), specificity was 87.69% (range, 72.73%-100.00%), and accuracy was 74.41% (64.29%-86.67%) for ctDNA testing.

DDR alterations significantly correlate with high TMB value in PC samples

A total of 51 patients (22.67%) harbored at least one somatic alteration in the selected 37 DNA damage repair genes. The distribution of



Figure 2. Comparison of the prevalence of mutated genes between the tumor tissue (A) and serum (B) ctDNA samples in Chinese cohort with the TCGA cohort.

specific genes was exhibited in Figure 4A, 4B. The most frequently mutated DDR genes were in Checkpoint (8.67%), Fanconi anemia (8.23%) and homologous recombination repair pathway (5.63%). Meanwhile, the most prevalent genes with deleterious variants were ATM (n=7, 31.82%), PALB2 (n=3, 13.64%) and BRCA2 (n=3, 13.64%) (Figure 4C). There was neither hotspot nor clustered alterations in the BRCA2 and ATM (Figure 4D, 4E). The TMB value was significantly higher in the samples with DDR alterations, regardless of the specific alteration's clinical significance. The median TMB value for samples with potentially deleterious DDR alteration (DelDDRmt), DDR alteration with uncertain significance (DDRmt) and without DDR alteration (DDRmt) was 6.72, 10.27 and 5.23 mutations/Mb, respectively (P<0.05, Figure 4F). The median TMB value for samples with any DDR alteration (DDRmt (total)) and without DDR alteration (DDRmt) was 9.01 and 5.23 mutations/Mb, respectively (P<0.001, Figure 4G). Similarly, in the TCGA cohort, samples with deleterious DDR alteration had significantly higher TMB value than samples without any DDR alteration (1.7 vs. 1.1 mutations/ Mb, P<0.001, Figure 4H, 4I).

DDR and tumor features

To evaluate if DDR alteration correlated with the prognosis in PDAC patients, we compared the overall survival (OS) and disease-free survival (DFS) between patients with and without DDR alterations in TCGA database. Interestingly, changes in DDR, including variants in DNA (Figure 5A) and downregulation in mRNA level (Figure 5B), were all associated with increasing lymph node metastasis in PC patients. However, instead of DDR alterations, only downregulation in DDR mRNA levels was significantly associated with a worse OS (Figure 5C, 5D). The unique features in enriched signaling pathways of DNA alteration and expression independently were found: more metabolism-related features, including multiple calcium and ion regulation pathways were identified in samples with DDR alterations (Figure 5E); otherwise, more immune regulated pathways were found in samples with downregulation in DDR mRNA (Figure 5F). DDR alterations were not significantly correlated with stromal score and immune score (Figure 5G); instead, downregulation in DDR expression was associated with a significantly lower stromal and immune score (Figure 5H). Finally, the tumor immune microenvironment is similar among patients with or without DDR alterations and downregulation. More activated NK cells were identified in DDR altered samples, but higher level of follicular helper T cells and lower-level resting NK cells were only found in samples with downregulation in DDR genes (Figure 5I, 5J).

Discussion

To date, the genomic landscape and potentially actionable alterations in Chinese pancreatic

Level of evidence based on OncoKB (12/20/2019)	Altered genes	Mutational type	No of patients (%)	No of tissue samples (%)	No of blood samples (%)	Related drugs
			88 (39.11%)	61 (43.57%)	26 (30.59%)	
1	BRCA1	Germline	1 (0.44%)	0	1 (1.18%)	Olaparib
1	BRCA2	Germline	8 (3.56%)	3 (5.71%)	5 (5.88%)	Olaparib
3	EGFR	19 exon del or L858R	3 (3.56%)	3 (5.71%)	0	Erlotinib, Afatinib, Gefitinib, Osimertinib, Dacomitinib
3	FGFR2	Fusions	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Erdafitinib, Pemigatinib
3	ATM	Oncogenic	12 (14.12%)	11 (7.86%)	1 (1.18%)	Olaparib
3	BRCA2	Oncogenic	2 (0.89%)	0	2 (2.35%)	Olaparib
3	BRIP1	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Olaparib
3	CHEK2	Oncogenic	2 (0.89%)	1 (0.71%)	1 (1.18%)	Olaparib
3	EZH2	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Tazemetostat
3	IDH1	Oncogenic	2 (0.89%)	1 (0.71%)	1 (1.18%)	Ivosidenib
3	IDH2	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Enasidenib
3	PALB2	Oncogenic	4 (1.78%)	2 (1.43%)	2 (2.35%)	Olaparib
3	PIK3CA	Oncogenic	8 (3.56%)	3 (5.71%)	5 (5.88%)	Alpelisib
3	RAD51B	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Olaparib
3	RAD51D	Oncogenic	2 (0.89%)	2 (1.43%)	0	Olaparib
4	AKT1	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	AZD5363
4	ARAF	Oncogenic	2 (0.89%)	0	2 (2.35%)	Sorafenib
4	BRAF	Oncogenic	2 (0.89%)	1 (0.71%)	1 (1.18%)	PLX8394
4	EGFR	Amplification	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Afatinib
4	FGFR1	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	AZD4547, BGJ398, Debio1347, Erdafitinib
4	FGFR2	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Erdafitinib, Debio1347, BGJ398, AZD4547
4	FGFR3	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Erdafitinib, AZD4547, Debio1347, BGJ398
4	EGFR	L747P	4 (1.78%)	4 (2.86%)	0	Afatinib
4	HRAS	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Tipifarnib
4	KDM6A	Oncogenic	7 (3.11%)	5 (3.57%)	2 (2.35%)	Tazemetostat
4	MAP2K1	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Cobimetinib, Trametinib
4	MTOR	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Everolimus, Temsirolimus
4	NF1	Oncogenic	1 (0.44%)	1 (0.71%)	0	Cobimetinib, Trametinib
4	KRAS	G12C	2 (0.89%)	1 (0.71%)	1 (1.18%)	AMG-510
4	PTEN	Oncogenic	5 (2.22%)	4 (2.86%)	1 (1.18%)	AZD8186, GSK2636771
4	CDKN2A	Oncogenic	37 (16.44%)	31 (22.14%)	6 (7.06%)	Palbociclib, Ribociclib, Abemaciclib

Table 3. Actionable Alterations identified in our cohort

cancer patients have not been clarified. We investigated the somatic and germline alterations profiles in Chinese patients with PDAC here. Overall, 39.11% of investigated patients had at least one actionable genomic alteration that may direct further therapeutic strategy. This ratio was close to the previous published results in the western cohorts [5, 19]. In this study, we also found a unique genetic feature of Chinese PC patients compared with Caucasian patients (Figure 2B). A lower incidence of KRAS alterations, and a significantly different prevalence of genes, involving CDKN2A, ARID1A, NOTCH1 and ARID1B, may represent the different pathogenesis and tumor microenvironment between eastern and western PC patients.

Previous studies found that approximately 10-20% of western PDAC patients have hereditary disease; however, the frequency of predisposing genes alteration in Chinese PDAC patients is still poorly clarified [20]. In this study, we identified 11.61% of Chinese PDAC patients had P/LP germline variants, and this ratio was relatively higher than what was found in western cohorts which utilized suggested genetic criteria with limited genes. For instance, researchers in Mayo Clinic identified that 8.2% of 3030 PDAC patients carried deleterious germline variants in 21 selected candidate PDAC predisposition genes [20]. Expanding the sequenced genes, more genes related to PDAC susceptibility may be identified. In 638 patients with familial pancreatic cancer, Roberts



Figure 3. The concordance of genetic alterations between matched tumor tissue and serum ctDNA in 15 PDAC patients.

and colleagues identified novel candidate PDAC predisposition genes, including POLN, POLQ and ASXL1, by using whole exome sequencing [21]. We also identified deleterious germline alterations in genes that were out of guidelines' recommendation and rarely reported before, including ERBB4 and FGFR4, and interestingly, all these two variants were in the RAS/RAF/MAPK pathway and activated the receptor tyrosine kinases [22, 23]. Furthermore, among those patients identified with germline alterations, we identified 36.36% of them carried germline alterations in BRCA1/2, which were the most prevalent predisposing and targetable genes in PDAC. This was similar to the frequency identified in the POLO trial, which found 5.9% of 2167 metastatic pancreatic cancer patients had deleterious germline BRCA1/2 alterations [24]. Meanwhile, we also found two of our patients (0.44%) had chronic pancreatitis-related SPINK1 c.194+2T>C whose function in the development of PC is still controversial, and our result is the also the first report on its frequency in Chinese PDAC patients [25].

Recently, ctDNA has gained wide attention to overcome the difficulty in real-time collection of biopsy tumor tissue and genetic heterogeneity [26]. It has been proved that ctDNA can be utilized as a biomarker for dynamic monitoring of therapies and prognosis evaluation for both the localized and metastatic PC patients [27, 28]. There was no significant difference in the actionable alteration's identification between tissue and ctDNA samples in our cohort, although we found a relatively poor concordance (12.12%) in the genomic findings between 15 matched tissue-blood samples. Noticeably, Oliver and colleagues reported a 90.3% concordance of alterations in 54 selected genes in 17 advanced pancreatobiliary carcinomas patients all with metastatic disease [29]. The significant differences in concordance may attribute to the differences in detection method, candidate genes involved, disease stage and/or metastasis status. For example, analysis of KRAS alteration using digital droplet PCR and NGS, the concordance between matched tissue and ctDNA was 39%-77.3% [30, 31], which was close to our KRAS alteration result (60%). As limited by the sample sizes in all past studies, further studies with expanding sample sizes with more comprehensive clinical features should be taken to fully understand the accuracy of ctDNA in genotyping than tumor tissue in pancreatic cancer.

With decades of stagnation in the development of novel and effective treatments in PC,

Genomic alterations of Chinese pancreatic cancer



Figure 4. Somatic DNA damage repair (DDR) alteration in Chinese cohort. (A) The prevalence of DDR alterations from tissue (blue) and serum (yellow) samples in specific DDR pathway. (B) The combined prevalence of somatic alterations in different DDR pathways. (C) Number of patients with specific deleterious DDR alterations. The distribution of alterations in *BRCA2* (D) and *ATM* (E). The difference of the TMB value among samples with deleterious DDR alteration (delDDRmt), DDR alteration with uncertain significance (DDRmt) and samples without DDR alteration (DDRwt) in our cohort (F) and in the TCGA cohort (H). The difference of the TMB value between samples with any DDR alteration (DDRmt (total)) and samples witout DDR alteration (DDRwt) in our cohort (G) and in the TCGA cohort (I). *P<0.05; ***P<0.001.

it has been changed since the approval of PARPi for the maintenance therapy of germline

BRCA1/2-altered patients. Meanwhile, subsequent trials including know your tumor and

Genomic alterations of Chinese pancreatic cancer



Genomic alterations of Chinese pancreatic cancer



Figure 5. Correlation between tumor DNA damage repair (DDR) changes and tumor feature in PC samples from the TCGA database. The difference of multiple clinical features, including age at diagnosis, mutation count, alcohol use, neoplasm disease stage, histologic stage, Tumor (T) stage, lymph node metastasis (N) and distant metastasis (M) in samples with or without DDR alteration (A) and in samples with or without downregulation in DDR genes (B). The difference of overall survival among samples with or without DDR alteration (C) and in samples with or without downregulation in DDR genes (D). The difference in enriched signaling pathway in samples with or without DDR alteration (E) and in samples with or without downregulation in DDR genes (F). The stromal and immune score in samples with or without DDR alteration (G) and in samples with or without downregulation in DDR genes (H). The infiltrated immune cells status in samples with or without DDR alteration (I) and in samples with or without downregulation in DDR genes (J). *P<0.05; ***P<0.001.

Profound, have proved that except BRCA1/2, other genes involved in DDR are also biomarkers for benefit from PARPi treatment [32]. In this study, we identified 22.67% of patients harbored somatic DDR alterations near the findings in the western cohorts (19.1%) [33]. Similar to our findings, previous studies did not find a significant correlation between DDR alterations and the prognosis in PDAC [34]. With prolonging of overall survival by the development of platinum-based regimen-FOLFIRI-NOX, this trend would be changed due to except from PARPi, it is of note that DDR alteration may correlate with the better response to platinum-based therapy in PDAC [35]. Based on the retrospective study of platinum-based therapies treated PDAC patients, it was found the median progression-free survival (PFS) and/or OS were superior in those with DDR alterations than wild-type patients [36, 37]. Supporting results were also identified in Know your tumor trial, as PDAC patients with homologous recombination genes alterations, the major type of DDR, had a trend of better survival if they were treated with platinumbased therapy (median OS: 1.13 vs. 0.76 years, P=0.1535). Though FOLFIRINOX is the only approved first-line platinum-based therapy for metastatic PC patients, nearly 75% of patients are ineligible for this regimen because of the adverse effects. To select patients with more benefit from platinum-based therapy, especially FOLFIRINOX, the DDR status may contribute to the decision-making.

Furthermore, immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) have made revolutionary improvements in multi-kinds of cancers; nevertheless, they have a poor response rate beyond 10% in PD-AC patients except for dMMR/MSI-H positive tumor. The incidence of dMMR/MSI-H was rare in PDAC (0.8% of 833 patients) and not found in our cohort [38]. Meanwhile, patients with DDR alterations, regardless of their specific clinical significance, may have improved response rate to the combined therapy of PARP inhibitor with ICIs, which had shown promising effects in other types of cancer [39]. Whether this correlation suited for PC patients remained unclear, but our findings may provide a clue suggesting the invalid role for DDR changes in predicting the efficacy of ICIs in PC patients. Though TMB value which was another ICIsresponse biomarker in pan-cancer was significantly associated with DDR alteration in both

our and TCGA cohort, we found relatively lower immune score in patients with changes in DDR genes. Moreover, unlike other cancers, samples with DDR alterations were not presented a higher immune infiltrated immune cell, especially CD8 positive T cells in PC patients, which highlighted the unique immune-suppressed microenvironment of PC. This was also supported by a recently finding that there was no significantly association between MMR/homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) status and CD8 positive T cell infiltrate in PC samples from COMPASS trial [40]. Furthermore, we found a significantly higher counts of activated NK cells in DDR changed samples, shed a light in the application of developing therapies based on NK cells, including NK cell-recruiting protein-conjugated antibody and allogeneic NK cell immunotherapy, which had already showed promising antitumor effects in treating PDAC [41, 42]. Previous studies mainly focused the genetic alterations, and although deleterious alterations in DDR were mainly nonsense or truncating which may mediate mRNA decay, there is no direct correlation between alteration and change of mRNA level [43]. We're the first to identify the expression level of DDR and tumor characteristics in PC. Instead of alterations, we only found the association between PC patients' survival and changes in DDR expression level, suggesting the different function of these two change types. As there was no public data about the genomic feature of PC patients who took ICI therapies, and the limited sample size of our cohort, the potential relationship between DDR and ICI efficacy needs additional studies.

In summary, in this genetic analysis of 225 Chinese PC patients, a different genomic feature was revealed by comparison with western cohort. The prevalence of germline and actionable alterations may suggest that genetic testing in tissue or ctDNA will both provide important guide for further management in Chinese PC patients. Different to other cancers, DDR changes were not associated with a more immune-prone microenvironment in PC but shed a light on therapy relating to NK cells instead.

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Disclosure of conflict of interest

None.

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regions of 6	rs genes		
Gene		 	
ABL1			
ABL2			
ACVR1			
ACVR1B			
ADGRA2			
AGO2			
AIP			
AKT1			
AKT2			
AKT3			
ALK			
ALOX12B			
AMER1			
ANKRD11			
APC			
AR			
ARAF			
ARFRP1			
ARID1A			
ARID1B			
ARID2			
ARID5B			
ASXL1			
ASXL2			
AXIN2			
B2M			
BABAM1			
BAP1			
BARD1			
BAX			
BBC3			
BCL10			
BCL11A			
BCL2			
BCL2L1			
BCL2L11			
BCL2L2			
BCL6			
BCOR			

Supplementary Table 1. The selected intronic regions of 618 genes

BCORL1 BIRC3 BIRC5 BLCAP BLK BLM BMPR1A BRAF BRCA1 BRCA2 BRD3 BRD4 BRIP1 BTG1 BTK BUB1 BUB1B BUB3 CALR CARD11 CARM1 CASP8 CBFB CBL CCND1 CCND2 CCND3 CCNE1 CD274 CD276 CD74 CD79A CD79B CDC25C CDC42 CDC73 CDH1 CDK1 CDK12 CDK2 CDK4 CDK5 CDK6 CDK7 CDK8 CDK9 CDKN1A CDKN1B CDKN1C

CDKN2A CDKN2B CDKN2C CEBPA CENPA CHD1 CHD2 CHD3 CHD4 CHEK1 CHEK2 CIC CREBBP CRLF2 CSDE1 CSF1R CSF3R CTCF CTLA4 CTNNA1 CTNNB1 CUL3 CXCL8 CXCR4 CYLD CYSLTR2 DAXX DCUN1D1 DDB2 DDR2 DICER1 DIRAS3 DIS3 DIS3L2 DNAJB1 DNMT1 **DNMT3A** DNMT3B DOT1L DROSHA DUSP4 E2F1 E2F3 EED EGF EGFL7 EGFR EIF1AX EIF4A2

EIF4E ELF3 EMSY EP300 EPAS1 EPCAM EPHA3 EPHA5 EPHA7 EPHB1 ERBB2 ERBB3 ERBB4 ERCC1 ERCC2 ERCC3 ERCC4 ERCC5 ERF ERG ERRFI1 ESR1 ETV1 ETV4 ETV5 ETV6 EWSR1 EXT1 EXT2 EZH1 EZH2 FAM175A FAM46C FAM58A FANCA FANCB FANCC FANCD2 FANCE FANCF FANCG FANCI FANCL FANCM FAS FAT1 FAT4 FBXW7 FGF10

FGF14 FGF19 FGF23 FGF3 FGF4 FGF6 FGFR1 FGFR2 FGFR3 FGFR4 FH FLCN FLT1 FLT3 FLT4 FOLR3 FOXA1 FOXA2 FOXL2 FOX01 FOXP1 FRS2 FUBP1 FYN GABRA6 GALNT12 GATA1 GATA2 **GATA3** GATA4 GATA6 GEN1 GID4 GLI1 GLI2 GNA11 GNA13 GNAQ GNAS GOPC GPC3 GPS2 GRB2 GREM1 GRIN2A **GRM3** GSK3B H3F3A H3F3B

H3F3C HDAC1 HDAC2 HDAC3 HDAC4 HDAC6 HDAC8 HGF HIF1A HIST1H1C HIST1H2BD HIST1H3A HIST1H3B HIST1H3C HIST1H3D HIST1H3E HIST1H3F HIST1H3G HIST1H3H HIST1H3I HIST1H3J HIST2H3C HIST2H3D HIST3H3 HLA-A HLA-B HNF1A HOXB13 HRAS HSD3B1 ICOSLG ID3 IDH1 IDH2 IFNGR1 IGF1 IGF1R IGF2 IGF2R IKBKE IKZF1 IL10 IL7R INHA INHBA INPP4A INPP4B INPPL1 INSR

IRF2 IRF4 IRS1 IRS2 JAK1 JAK2 JAK3 JUN KAT6A KDM5A KDM5C KDM6A KDR KEAP1 KEL KIT KLF4 KLHL6 KMT2A KMT2B KMT2C KMT2D KMT5A KNSTRN KRAS LATS1 LATS2 LM01 LRP1B LRRK2 LYN LZTR1 MAGI2 MALT1 MAP2K1 MAP2K2 MAP2K4 MAP3K1 MAP3K13 MAP3K14 MAP4K1 MAPK1 MAPK3 MAPKAP1 MAX MCL1 MDC1 MDH2 MDM2 MDM4

MED12 MEF2B MEN1 MET MGA MITF MLH1 MLH3 MPL MRE11A MSH2 MSH3 MSH6 MSI1 MSI2 MST1 MST1R MTOR MUTYH MYC MYCL MYCN MYD88 MY01B MYOD1 NAT1 NAT2 NBN NCOA3 NCOR1 NEGR1 NF1 NF2 NFE2L2 NFKBIA NKX2-1 NKX3-1 NOTCH1 NOTCH2 NOTCH3 NOTCH4 NPM1 NRAS NRG1 NSD1 NTHL1 NTRK1 NTRK2 NTRK3 NUF2

NUP93 OPRM1 PAK1 PAK3 PAK5 PALB2 PARK2 PARP1 PARP2 PARP3 PAX5 PBRM1 PDCD1 PDCD1LG2 PDGFRA PDGFRB PDK1 PDPK1 PEG3 PGR PHOX2B PIK3C2B PIK3C2G PIK3C3 **PIK3CA** PIK3CB **PIK3CD PIK3CG** PIK3R1 PIK3R2 PIK3R3 PIM1 PLCG2 PLK1 PLK2 PMAIP1 PMS1 PMS2 PNRC1 POLD1 POLE PPARG PPM1D PPP2R1A PPP2R2A PPP4R2 PPP6C PRDM1 PRDM14 PREX2

PRKAR1A PRKCE PRKCG PRKCI PRKD1 PRKDC PRRT2 PRSS8 PTCH1 PTCH2 PTEN PTK2 PTP4A1 PTPN11 PTPRD PTPRS PTPRT RAB35 RAC1 RAC2 RAD21 RAD50 RAD51 RAD51B RAD51C RAD51D RAD52 RAD54L RAF1 RARA RARB RASA1 RASSF1 RASSF8 RB1 RBM10 RECQL RECQL4 REL RET RFWD2 RHBDF2 RHEB RHOA RICTOR RIT1 RNF43 ROCK1 ROS1 RPS6KA1

RPS6KA4 RPS6KB1 RPS6KB2 RPTOR RRAGC RRAS RRAS2 RTEL1 RUNX1 RUNX1T1 RUNX2 RXRA RYBP SDHA SDHAF2 SDHB SDHC SDHD SERPINB3 SERPINB4 SESN1 SESN2 SESN3 SETD2 SF3B1 SH2B3 SH2D1A SHH SHOC2 SHQ1 SLC16A7 SLIT2 SLX4 SMAD2 SMAD3 SMAD4 SMARCA1 SMARCA4 SMARCB1 SMARCD1 SM0 SMYD3 SNAI1 SNAI2 SNCAIP SOCS1 SOS1 SOX10 SOX17 SOX2

SOX9 SPEN SPINK1 SPOP SPRED1 SPTA1 SRC SRSF2 STAG2 STAT3 STAT4 STAT5A STAT5B STK11 STK19 STK40 SUFU SUZ12 SYK TAF1 TAP1 TAP2 ТВХЗ TCEB1 TCF3 TCF7L2 TEK TERT TET1 TET2 TFE3 TGFBR1 TGFBR2 TMEM127 TMPRSS2 TNF **TNFAIP3** TNFRSF14 TNFSF11 TOP1 TOP2A TP53 TP53BP1 TP63 TPX2 TRAF2 TRAF7 TSC1 TSC2 TSHR

TUBB TWIST1 U2AF1 UPF1 VEGFA VEGFB VHL WEE1 WHSC1 WHSC1L1 WISP3 WNT1 WNT5A WNT6 WRN WT1 WWTR1 XIAP XPA XPO1 XRCC2 YAP1 YES1 ZBTB2 ZFHX3 ZNF217 ZNF703

Genomic alterations of Chinese pancreatic cancer



Supplementary Figure 1. Distribution of *KRAS* alterations in Chinese (A) and TCGA cohort (B). (C) Enrichment of specific *KRAS* alterations in Chinese (x axis, n=225) and TCGA cohort (y axis, n=150).