

Research Report

Tumor Subtyping: Making Sense of Heterogeneity with a Goal Toward Treatment

Joshua J. Meeks^{a,b,*}, Gottfrid Sjö Dahl^c, Seth P. Lerner^d, Arighno Das^a,
David J. McConkey^e and Peter C. Black^f

^a*Department of Urology and Biochemistry, and Molecular Genetics, Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, I*

^b*The Jesse Brown VAMC, Chicago IL*

^c*Department of Translational Medicine, Lund University, Lund, Sweden*

^d*Scott Department of Urology, Dan L Duncan Cancer Center, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas*

^e*Johns Hopkins Greenberg Bladder Cancer Institute, Brady Urological Institute, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA*

^f*Vancouver Prostate Centre, Univeristy of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC*

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Abstract.

BACKGROUND: Bladder cancers have high total mutation burdens resulting in genomic diversity and intra- and inter-tumor heterogeneity that may impact the diversity of gene expression, biologic aggressiveness, and potentially response to therapy. To compare bladder cancers among patients, an organizational structure is necessary that describes the tumor at the histologic and molecular level. These “molecular subtypes”, or “expression subtypes” of bladder cancer were originally described in 2010 and continue to evolve secondary to next generation sequencing (NGS) and an increasing public repository of well-annotated cohorts.

OBJECTIVE: To review the history and methodology of expression-based subtyping of non-muscle invasive (NMIBC) and muscle invasive bladder cancer (MIBC).

METHODS: A literature review was performed of primary papers from PubMed that described subtyping methods and their descriptive feature including search terms of “subtype”, and “bladder cancer”.

RESULTS: 21 papers were identified for review. Tumor subtyping developed from N=2 to N=6 subtyping schemes with most subtypes comprised of at least luminal and basal tumors. Most NMIBCs are luminal cancers and luminal MIBCs may be associated with less aggressive features, while one study of basal tumors identified a better clinical outcome with systemic chemotherapy. Tumors with a 53-like signature may have intrinsic resistance to chemotherapy. The heterogeneity of tumors, which is likely derived from stromal components and immune cell infiltration, affect subtype calls.

CONCLUSION: Subtyping, while still evolving, is ready for testing in clinical trials. Improved patient selection with tumor subtyping may help with tumor classification and potentially match patient or tumor to therapy.

Keywords: Bladder cancer, expression-based subtyping, stroma, immunology, systemic therapy

*Correspondence to: Joshua J. Meeks E-mail: joshua.meeks@northwestern.edu.

INTRODUCTION

Bladder cancer is the ninth most common cancer worldwide [1]. Despite improvements in local and systemic therapy, risk-stratification, and smoking cessation, there have been no improvements in survival for patients with bladder cancer since 2000 [2]. The high mortality rate among patients with muscle invasive bladder cancer (MIBC) is likely secondary to molecular heterogeneity and the lack of durable responses to broadly applied systemic therapies [3]. Patients with metastatic bladder cancer have very poor survival estimated at less than 5% at 5 years [4]. With widespread adoption of next-generation sequencing (NGS), solid tumor oncology has shifted from classic histopathologic classification towards molecular-based approaches [5]. Breast and lung cancers have been at the forefront of this movement with molecular testing to stratify prognosis and select therapeutics [5]. Despite one of the highest frequencies of mutations among cancers, bladder cancer has few subtype-defining oncogene alterations that can be targeted with systemic therapy, such as *ALK*, *BRAF*, *EGFR*, *Estrogen receptor (ER)* and *HER-2* [6]. As an alternative to classifying tumors by actionable DNA alterations, RNA-based tumor subtyping was developed to articulate the molecular features of the tumor, tumor microenvironment, and immune infiltrate (when present). While genomic alterations may be passed to daughter cells during mitosis and are the “blueprints” for tumors, gene signatures from the transcriptome summarize the expression landscape and are more dynamic, reflecting intracellular signaling, biologic processes, and cellular composition of the tumor epithelium and microenvironment. These gene signatures collectively can be summarized by tumor expression subtype [7]. *Therefore, the potential benefit of tumor subtyping is that subtype may be a more a more informative description of the tumor biology that may translate into improved risk stratification and clinical decision-making compared to grade and stage.* Herein, we will look back on the advances made in the molecular characterization of bladder cancer, review the clinical utility of RNA-based subtyping for decision making, and look to the future for clinical application.

HOW ARE SUBTYPES CREATED?

In this review we describe the results of gene expression-based subtyping. But how is this

performed? Most subtyping begins with an unsupervised clustering [8] approach in which a statistical model is applied to group samples by differential gene expression. Often, 2 to 7 subtypes can be generated depending on the number of patients in the cohort and the quality of RNA. What is the “right” number of subtypes? This topic is controversial [3, 9]. While we anticipate that most investigators would develop the same or a similar number of subtypes if the sample sizes were sufficiently large, there may be subjectivity in determining tumor subtypes. Validation of the stability of the subtypes can require repeat analysis, silhouette plots and evaluation of gene-ontology pathways that can help support the unique features of each subtype.

Molecular subtypes are usually generated using mRNA expression (“transcriptome”) data, although the Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) and other groups have also used DNA alterations (mutations and copy number variations), micro RNA or lncRNA expression patterns, and even combinations of genomic data (“clusters of clusters”). The mRNA expression datasets are often “filtered” to select what the investigator thinks will be the most informative subset of genes (i.e., the top 10% most variable genes across the cohort), although this filtering is not necessary. The dataset is then subjected to an unsupervised analysis using an algorithm that groups tumors together based on shared gene expression. Mathematical formulas exist to define the number of clusters that fit best with the dataset. Importantly, the number of clusters that result is dependent on both the size of the dataset and its composition (i.e., its biological heterogeneity), and the results may also be sensitive to the type of tissue used to generate the transcriptome data (fresh, flash-frozen, or FFPE, for example) and the platform employed (i.e., RNAseq versus direct hybridization arrays). Therefore, the number of molecular subtypes observed in any discovery study will be dictated by all of these variables; however, once molecular subtypes are settled upon, tumors can be “fit” into any subtyping scheme using a supervised approach. Finally, molecular subtype assignments are typically made using only molecular data with no consideration of clinical covariates. The rationale for doing this is that clinical outcomes are probably influenced by a variety of different variables that are not directly related to underlying tumor biology. A summary of papers published on bladder cancer subtyping is included in Table 1.

Table 1

Original RNA-subtyping study	Publication year	n (tumors)	k (subtypes)	MIBC/NMIBC	Nomenclature	Study focus	Reference
Sjodahl et al.	2012	308	5	Mix	UroA, UroB, GU, Infiltrated, SCC-like	Biological characterization	14
Choi et al.	2014	73	3	MIBC	Lum, p53-like, Basal	Role of PPARG/TP63. Chemotherapy response	18
Damrauer et al.	2014	262	2	MIBC	Lum, Basal	Comparison to breast cancer subtypes	17
TCGA	2014	129	4	MIBC	Cluster I-IV	Associations to genomic data	19
Reboussou et al.	2014	85	2	MIBC	Basal and Non-Basal categories (MC1-MC7)	Role of EGFR in basal subtype	38
Hedgegaard et al.	2016	460	3	NMIBC	Class 1-3	NMIBC biology, Mutational signatures	39
Sjodahl et al.	2017	307	6	MIBC	Uro, GU, Epi-Inf, SCCL/Mes, SCCL/UroB, Sc/NE	Association to IHC-based subtyping	21
Robertson et al.	2017	408	5	MIBC	Lum-P, Lum-Inf, Lum, BASQ, Neuronal	Patient outcomes. Association to lncRNA and miRNA levels	23
Seiler et al.	2017	269	4	MIBC	Lum, Lum-Inf, Basal, Claudin-low	Outcome after chemotherapy treatment	30
Tan et al.	2019	2411	6	NMIBC/MIBC	Pap, Lum, HER2L, SCC, MES, NEURAL	Associations to pathological evaluation and signaling pathways	25
Kamoun et al.	2019	1750	6	MIBC	LumP, LumNS, LumU, Stroma-rich, BASQ, NE-like	Identify consensus subtypes. Clinical and biological associations	27

EARLY SUBTYPING SIGNATURES

Prior to the large-scale NGS transcriptome profiling performed by TCGA, there were multiple series that compared RNA profiling of invasive, locally advanced or metastatic tumors to identify occult signatures of aggressive cancers. These experiments applied hybridization technology to classify bladder cancers by cDNA microarrays [10–12]. These studies included 75 tumors on average, most of which were formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded (FFPE). To the credit of these authors, the results of the arrays were made publicly available and are still incorporated in meta-cohorts investigated today (see below). Yet, no reproducible gene lists were consistent between studies and gene profiles that differentiated MIBC from NMIBC were no more helpful than pathologic staging. Thus, the clinical utility of each genomic classifier remained dependent on the specific cohort from which it was created. This may have been secondary to the methods used for RNA extraction, batch-effects or the bioinformatic analysis applied to analyze each cohort.

In 2010, the group of Mattias Höglund of Lund University undertook the first effort to subtype bladder cancer that would evolve into the current molecular characterization of bladder cancer. Analyzing 99 NMIBC and 45 MIBC tumors, the group identified two intrinsic molecular subtypes of bladder cancer, MS1 (mainly NMIBC) and MS2 (mainly MIBC) [13] (Figure). In 2012, the Höglund group validated molecular subtypes with 215 NMIBC and 93 MIBC tumors [14]. The authors suggested a framework of classifying tumors based on their epithelial differentiation. They further expanded on the MS1 and MS2 subtypes resulting in a total of 7 tumor (MS1a, MS1b, MS2a1, MS2a2, MS2b1, MS2b2.1, MS2b2.2). Biological characterization of these clusters resulted in the definition of 5 major, reproducible molecular subtypes: UroA (MS1a, MS1b), genomically unstable (MS2a1, MS2a2), infiltrated (MS2b1), UroB (MS2b2.1), and SCC-like (MS2b2.2). Importantly, each subtype showed unique gene expression profiles, were enriched for different tumor stage categories, and showed differences in survival patterns. UroA tumors were primarily low grade, papillary NMIBCs and were associated with the best prognosis of the 5 subtypes. Biologically, these tumors were characterized by elevated levels of *FGFR3* and frequent mutations in *FGFR3*, suggesting that *FGFR3* may play an important role in the biological properties of these malignancies. SCC-like and UroB

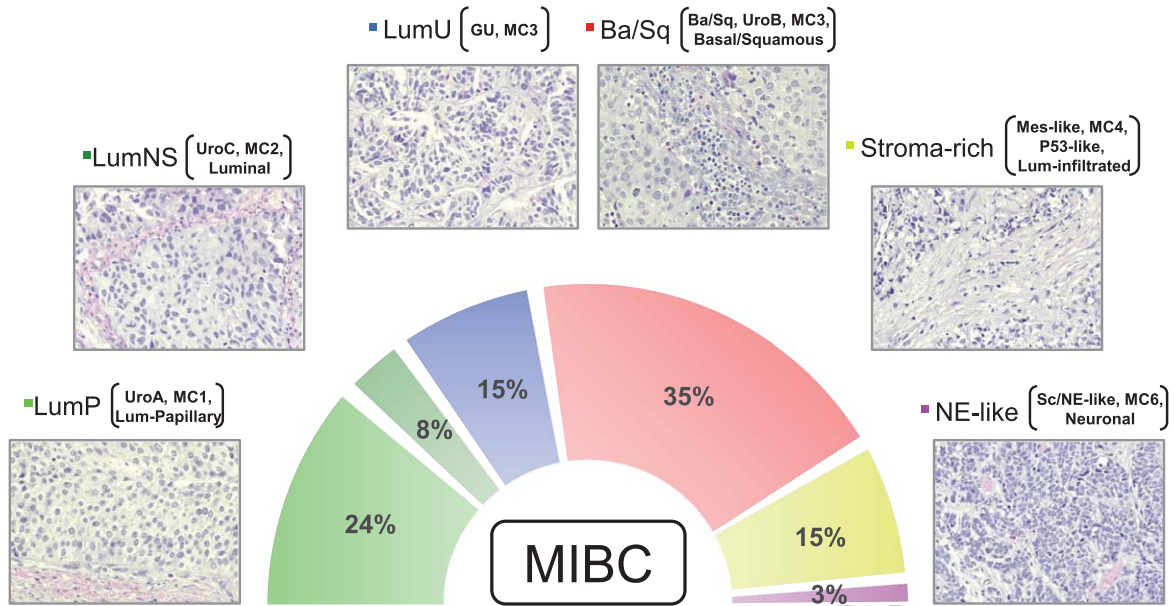


Fig. 1. Micrographs of one representative hematoxylin & eosin stained tumor for each consensus subtype is shown (200 \times). The figure exemplifies the typical histomorphological patterns for each consensus subtype: Luminal-papillary, relatively organized urothelial histology; LumNS, less organized urothelial histology; LumU, severely disorganized urothelial histology; Ba/Sq, squamous differentiation; Stroma rich, infiltrative growth pattern with stromal reaction; NE-like, Neuroendocrine differentiation. While the neuroendocrine tumors have neuroendocrine molecular features, they may not have neuroendocrine histology. Percentages show the proportion of MIBC tumors belonging to each subtype based on data in Kamoun et al. (2019). In addition to the consensus subtype nomenclature, subtypes from other classification systems (Lund, CIT-Curie, MDA, and TCGA) enriched in each of the consensus subtypes are shown in brackets.

tumors were predominantly MIBC, and patients with these tumors had the worst prognosis of the 5 subtypes. Both UroB and SCC subtypes shared similar expression of basal keratins not normally expressed in the urothelium. UroB tumors were notable for frequent co-existence of *TP53* and *FGFR3* mutations. Infiltrated tumors were found to be significantly enriched in several genes for collagens, proteoglycans, and basal laminal components. This would indicate that the gene expression profile of these tumors is heavily comprised of tumor-infiltrating stromal cells and endothelial cells. Genomically unstable tumors were found to have significantly higher frequency of *TP53* mutations but no *FGFR3* mutations and demonstrated grossly rearranged genomes.

AT LEAST TWO MIBC SUBTYPES: BASAL AND LUMINAL

Subtyping of breast cancers identified 5 molecular subtypes associated with distinct histologic and clinical outcomes including incidence, risk factors, prognosis, and treatment efficacy [15]. A similar stratification of bladder cancers was suggested by early molecular descriptions of basal and luminal

differentiation states [16]. The first subtyping study to apply these breast cancer-related subtypes to bladder cancer used a two-subtype system that classified tumors in either “luminal” or “basal” cancers [17]. At a minimum, these groupings parse tumors by similarity to either more stem-like cells that originate from the base of stratified epithelium (basal tumors) of the bladder or to more differentiated epithelial cell (luminal tumors). The Kim Lab combined four publicly available datasets to generate a meta-dataset of 262 MIBCs [17]. The classification system, named BASE47, that applied a minimal set of 47 genes, was able to accurately group tumors by RNA expression profile and differentiate luminal and basal tumors. Like the Lund UroB and SCC-like subtypes, the basal-like cluster was enriched in *KRT5*, *KRT14*, *KRT6B*, but also the stem cell marker *CD44* normally found in basal urothelial cells, suggesting a more poorly differentiated origin of these tumors [17, 18] with similarities in gene expression to basal breast tumors [17–19]. In addition to basal cellular markers, basal tumors had increased EMT signatures such as higher level of *TWIST1/2*, *SNAI2*, *ZEB* and *VIM* and epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) signaling pathways. Basal tumors tended to be more

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234 biologically aggressive, with alterations identified in
 235 pathways involved in tumorigenesis, cell survival,
 236 and cellular movement [17–19]. Clinically, basal
 237 tumors were associated with worse outcomes (over-
 238 all survival reduction by 14.9 months, $p=0.098$).
 239 Patients with basal tumors had an increased risk of
 240 metastasis at presentation and sarcomatoid differen-
 241 tiation on pathology [17–19]. “Luminal” tumors were
 242 named due to their similarities in gene expression to
 243 luminal breast tumors and positivity for markers of
 244 differentiated urothelium [17–19]. In contrast to basal
 245 tumors, luminal subtype cancers were enriched in
 246 low molecular weight keratins (KRT20), uroplakins
 247 (UPK1, UPK2, UPK3A), mutations in *FGFR3* and
 248 *TSC1*, and HER2 upregulation. Clinically, luminal
 249 tumors did significantly better than their basal tumor
 250 counterparts, with improved overall survival and
 251 disease-specific survival.

252 MOVING ON FROM TWO SUBTYPES

253 In 2014, two publications expanded on a two-
 254 subtype system and suggested at least three distinct
 255 MIBC subtypes were reasonable. The TCGA iden-
 256 tified two luminal subtypes (I and II) and two basal
 257 subtypes (III and IV) [11]. Within the luminal sub-
 258 types (subtype I and II by TCGA), the MD Anderson
 259 (MDA) group identified a subset of tumors char-
 260 acterized by a p53 gene expression signature that
 261 was associated with an “activated” P53 pathway
 262 (although not associated with *TP53* alterations [18,
 263 19]). So-called “P53-like” tumors were luminal archi-
 264 tecture, had some similar features to basal tumors,
 265 with low levels of luminal differentiation markers, yet
 266 were unstable on silhouette analysis suggesting these
 267 tumors could be misclassified on repeated testing
 268 (like TCGA subtype II). An important clinical feature
 269 of p53-like tumors was the poor response to cisplatin-
 270 based neoadjuvant chemotherapy (0/7 in the discov-
 271 ery cohort and 1/9 in the validation cohort responded
 272 to chemotherapy). This subset corresponded well to
 273 Cluster II identified by the 2014 TCGA [19].

274 While initially described in their 2014 BASE47
 275 manuscript, the University of North Carolina (UNC)
 276 group further investigated the claudin-low subtype
 277 in a follow-up study in 2015 aided by additional
 278 tumors from the 2014 TCGA [17]. “Claudin-low”
 279 tumors were named after the lower expression of the
 280 tight-junction proteins claudins 3, 4, and 7 but with
 281 a corresponding increase in pro-invasive pathways
 282 such as EMT and stem cell genes [20]. Claudin low

283 tumors represented 16% of the original UNC cohort,
 284 and clustered within the basal subtype with no dif-
 285 ference in disease-specific or overall survival from
 286 basal tumors. After the first TCGA publication in
 287 2014, a follow up description of claudin low tumors
 288 suggested this subtype corresponded to tumors
 289 classified within Clusters III and IV identified by the
 290 TCGA [19] with poor clinical outcomes similar to
 291 basal tumors. While broadly clustering with basal
 292 tumors, the smaller set of claudin low tumors (10%
 293 overall of the TCGA) had increased frequency of
 294 *TP53* (62%), *RBI* (46%), *NCOR1*(20%) and *EP300*
 295 (31%) mutations compared to both luminal and basal
 296 subtypes, with fewer mutations in *KDM6A* (11%)
 297 and *FGFR3* (2%). These tumors were enriched in
 298 genes involved in epithelial-to-mesenchymal tran-
 299 sition (EMT), claudins and immune cell signatures.
 300 Claudin-low tumors had a mixed immunologic
 301 phenotype with enrichment of T-cells (CD8, CD3,
 302 CD4), B-cells, and macrophages, but also enhanced
 303 expression of exhaustion markers PDL1 (CD274),
 304 CTLA4, TIM3, LAG3 and PD1. Thus, Kim sug-
 305 gested that claudin low tumors were primed tumors
 306 that could potentially respond to checkpoint therapy.

307 The initial Lund classification included both
 308 NMIBC and MIBC samples and was not directly
 309 comparable to the other MIBC-based classifiers. In
 310 2017, the Lund group updated their classification
 311 to the MIBC context by analysis of 307 tumors
 312 with matched RNA and immunohistochemistry
 313 data [21]. The analysis identified their previously
 314 described subtypes Uro (A/B), genomically unsta-
 315 ble, and Basal/SCC-like as well as a minor VIM+
 316 and ZEB2 + mesenchymal-like subtype and a minor
 317 TUBB2B+ small-cell/neuroendocrine subtype. In
 318 addition to describing these novel minor subtypes
 319 the Lund group used the immunostainings to dis-
 320 sect how tumor-cell intrinsic properties, versus tumor
 321 environment, drives samples to segregate or converge
 322 into gene expression clusters. The conclusion is that
 323 non-tumor cell molecular signals play a large role
 324 in determining the structure of gene expression clus-
 325 ters detected in MIBC. This work led to an updated
 326 Lund taxonomy that was later applied to the larger
 327 TCGA cohort where mutation and copy-number
 328 alterations were differentially distributed among the
 329 subtypes [22].

330 With the second comprehensive analysis of the
 331 TCGA that included 408 MIBCs, unbiased non-
 332 negative matrix factorization (NMF) consensus
 333 clustering of RNA-seq profiling identified 5 unique
 334 MIBC subtypes: luminal, luminal-papillary, luminal-

335 infiltrated, basal-squamous, and neuronal [23]. The
336 luminal-papillary (35% of tumors) corresponded
337 with the luminal (UNC, MDA), Lund UroA and
338 TCGA 2014 Cluster I group enriched in papillary
339 tumors with high expression of FGFR3. The LP
340 tumors had the best prognosis of the 5 subtypes.
341 Luminal-infiltrated tumors (19%) were defined by
342 the presence of smooth muscle, myofibroblasts, and
343 lymphocytes and demonstrated enrichment of the
344 wildtype p53-gene signature, similar to the MDA
345 p53-like, Lund infiltrated and TCGA 2014 cluster
346 II group. The luminal subtype (6%) had the highest
347 expression of uroplakins (UPK1A and UPK2) and
348 other markers for terminal urothelial differentiation
349 suggestive of differentiation from a luminal umbrella
350 cell. The basal-squamous cluster (35%) was enriched
351 for squamous histology with high levels of basal and
352 stem cell markers and low levels of Sonic hedgehog
353 signaling.

354 A notable finding from the TCGA 2017 was the
355 addition of a neuronal subtype of MIBC (5%). In
356 their 2015 paper, the Lund group identified a subset
357 of poorly differentiated tumors defined by increased
358 expression of pluripotency-associated genes (*SOX2*
359 and *SOX21*) as well as an enrichment in altera-
360 tions to *RBI*. According to the Lund classification,
361 this cluster is termed small-cell/neuroendocrine-like
362 [24]. The TCGA confirmed a neuronal signature
363 identifying a subset of tumors with high expres-
364 sion of genes involved in neuronal differentiation
365 and development, yet only 3 of the 20 tumors had
366 histologic features suggestive of neuroendocrine his-
367 tology. Because they lack expression of luminal
368 urothelial differentiation genes, the neuronal tumors
369 cluster closer to the basal squamous subtype than to
370 luminal-like subtypes. The genetic hallmark of neu-
371 ronral tumors, consisting of mutation of both *TP53*
372 and *RBI*, was found in 85% of tumors. Notably, the
373 neuronal subtype had the worst prognosis of all the 5
374 subtypes.

375 EXPANDING THE COHORTS

376 As the number of tumors in each cohort increases,
377 the ability to identify subtle, but potentially impor-
378 tant biologic variations that distinguish each subtype
379 is possible. Most of the aforementioned studies were
380 smaller cohorts, with the 2017 TCGA cohort the
381 largest at 408 tumors [23]. With increased size of
382 the cohort, the detection of low frequency alterations
383 can be evaluated that can impact tumor subtype; more

384 than 3,000 samples would be needed to reliably detect
385 mutations in 2% of the samples that could identify an
386 independent subtype [25]. While all subtyping sys-
387 tems share agreement that at least basal and luminal
388 tumors are the anchor point of a subtype, the addi-
389 tion of more tumors could further distinguish the
390 main subtypes based on non tumor-cell expression
391 features such as immune cell infiltrate and stromal
392 cells [7]. Compiling multiple retrospective cohorts
393 to generate a large “meta-cohort” was a logical next
394 step to identify rare subtypes of MIBC. This “meta-
395 cohort” included 2411 unique bladder tumors (both
396 NMIBC and MIBC) from a total of 36 publicly avail-
397 able bladder cancer gene expression datasets [25].
398 One major challenge of this effort was the inter- and
399 intra-study variation between cohorts and platforms
400 (Illumina and Affymetrix) that required significant
401 batch-correction (by application of ComBat) twice
402 (once to combine studies on each platform and once
403 to combine platforms). The meta-cohort identified six
404 molecular subtypes (termed BOLD subtypes) which
405 demonstrated good concordance with prior subtypes
406 generated by the Lund, MDA, UNC, and TCGA
407 groups. This study identified 3 distinct luminal sub-
408 types (luminal, papillary, and HER2-like), a distinct
409 Basal/SCC-like subtype, a neuronal subtype, and a
410 stem-like mesenchymal (MES) subtype that resem-
411 bled claudin-low tumors. Similar to prior studies, the
412 subtypes demonstrated significantly different clinical
413 prognosis ($p < 0.0001$). In the entire meta-cohort
414 of NMIBC and MIBC, papillary tumors had the best
415 overall median survival (>135 months) while SCC-
416 like tumors demonstrated the poorest survival (20.6
417 months) as expected given the stage differences.

418 One strength of BOLD was the inclusion of
419 NMIBC tumors (20%) suggesting a common sub-
420 typing classification that could potentially be applied
421 across urothelial carcinoma, regardless of stage.
422 Contributing studies ranged from stage-Ta NMIBC,
423 pelleted urine samples, formalin fixed, fresh frozen
424 samples, metastatic tumors, and even normal sam-
425 ples. Merging data from such diverse sources leads
426 to batch effects that cannot be overcome by in-silico
427 adjustments. Indeed, the identified BOLD classes
428 were significantly enriched for technical variables
429 beyond what could be explained by inclusion cri-
430 teria of the contributing studies, and thus we could
431 not compare BOLD to the other subtype classifica-
432 tion systems without a high risk for bias. The most
433 significant drawbacks of the meta-cohort were the
434 lack of annotation of treatment response (including
435 intravesical and systemic therapy), and the strong

436 heterogeneity of the included studies leading to a per-
 437 sisting association between subtypes and variability
 438 even after batch adjustments (see commentary [26]).
 439 To date, BOLD has not been applied prospectively
 440 in randomized trials. These consensus studies repre-
 441 sent an important step in the right direction towards a
 442 consolidation of the multiple subtyping schemas and
 443 utilization of this data towards clinical decision mak-
 444 ing, but careful examination of the patients (stage,
 445 tissue type and preparation) could add further granu-
 446 larity to the analysis.

447 **CONSENSUS MIBC SUBTYPING: ONE** 448 **METHOD TO UNIFY ALL SUBTYPING**

449 As more subtyping schemes emerged, it became
 450 apparent that achieving a standard subtyping platform
 451 could improve tumor clustering across clinical trials
 452 and move subtyping from a descriptor to a biomarker.
 453 Therefore, the Bladder Cancer Molecular Taxonomy
 454 Group developed a consensus molecular classifica-
 455 tion schema in 2019 [27] that combined 18 publicly
 456 available MIBC mRNA datasets to assemble a cohort
 457 of 1,750 tumors. Each tumor was MIBC, and aggre-
 458 gated from 29 subtypes that was processed into six
 459 consensus subtypes by a Markov clustering algo-
 460 rithm. Six distinct biologically relevant consensus
 461 molecular subtypes were identified using consen-
 462 sus based clustering: luminal papillary (LumP),
 463 luminal non-specified (LumNS), luminal unstable
 464 (LumU), Stroma-rich, Basal/Squamous (Ba/Sq), and
 465 Neuroendocrine-like (NE-like) (Figure). Consistent
 466 with prior investigations, the three luminal subtypes
 467 (LumP, LumNS, and LumU) overexpressed urothe-
 468 lial differentiation genes while the Ba/Sq and NE-like
 469 tumors were found to have high levels of genes
 470 associated with basal and neuroendocrine differentia-
 471 tion, respectively. LumP had the highest frequency
 472 of mutations in *FGFR3* (40%) and *KDM6A* (38%),
 473 as well as papillary morphology and the best median
 474 survival (4 years). LumNS occurred more in elderly
 475 patients, was enriched in *ELF3* mutations (35%) and
 476 fibroblast stromal infiltration, and 36% of tumors
 477 demonstrated micropapillary variant histology with
 478 a 1.8 year median survival. LumU tumors had a
 479 high cell cycle enrichment, frequent *TP53* (76%)
 480 and *ERCC2* mutations (22%), a high mutation bur-
 481 den and APOBEC signature with a median survival
 482 of 2.9 years. Stroma-rich tumors had significant
 483 smooth muscle, fibroblast and B cell infiltrate with
 484 a median survival of 3.8 years. Basal tumors had

485 increased mutations in *TP53* (61%) and *RBI* (25%)
 486 with EGFR activation, CD8+ and NK-cell infiltra-
 487 tion. Basal tumors were more common in women
 488 and presented with advanced stage and a median sur-
 489 vival of 1.2 years. Finally, neuroendocrine tumors had
 490 both mutations in *TP53* (94%) and *RBI* (39%) with
 491 neuroendocrine differentiation on histology and the
 492 lowest median survival at 1 year.

493 **ROLE OF MOLECULAR SUBTYPES ON** 494 **THERAPEUTIC RESPONSE**

495 The first seminal papers on tumor subtyping were
 496 descriptive, assigning each tumor to a subtype and
 497 attempting to identify functional or gene ontology
 498 pathways that were distinct among subtypes. Most
 499 of the clinical outcomes differentiating the subtypes
 500 were based on recurrence and/or survival, with possi-
 501 ble systemic therapy limited to adjuvant chemother-
 502 apy. Ideally, subtyping could be applied *before*
 503 surgery to help select tumors for decisions involv-
 504 ing systemic therapy. For example, in breast cancer,
 505 the molecular subtype can help determine the benefit
 506 of neoadjuvant chemotherapy as patients with basal-
 507 like and HER2-positive tumors benefit most from
 508 neoadjuvant systemic therapy [28]. While the exact
 509 subtypes of MIBC remain debated, limited studies
 510 have investigated the subtype-specific responses to
 511 surgery, chemotherapy and immunotherapy.

512 The first group to investigate treatment response
 513 associated with each subtype was the MDA group
 514 in 2014. In their initial discovery cohort, Choi
 515 and colleagues noted that the p53-like tumors were
 516 mostly resistant to neoadjuvant chemotherapy [18].
 517 The group was able to replicate this chemoresis-
 518 tance *in vitro* in eight bladder cancer cell lines with
 519 the p53-like gene signature that were resistant to
 520 cisplatin-induced apoptosis. While luminal tumors
 521 did not have a signature that affected response to
 522 chemotherapy, the authors found that two cohorts
 523 of chemotherapy-treated basal tumors had patho-
 524 logic response only when they co-expressed immune
 525 infiltrated markers. In a follow-up study, the MDA
 526 group investigated the response of 60 patients in
 527 a neoadjuvant trial of dose-dense MVAC (DDM-
 528 VAC) and bevacizumab [29]. Using a three-subtype
 529 panel, (basal, luminal and p53-like) 38 pre-treatment
 530 TUR specimens were profiled. Tumors with a p53-
 531 like signature again had the worst survival following
 532 treatment with a 5-year survival of 36%, consistent
 533 with prior data that p53-like tumors have intrinsic

chemoresistance, compared to luminal tumors (73%) and a surprisingly high survival for basal tumors (91% at 5 years). Bone metastasis, with a median overall survival of only 15 months, occurred only in p53-like tumors (9/16 p53-like patients). A confirmatory cohort treated with MVAC NAC again demonstrated improved 5-year survival for basal subtype tumors (77%) compared to luminal (56%) or p53-like (56%), $p < 0.021$). While p53-like tumors did not have worse survival in this confirmatory cohort, the validation cohort confirmed improved survival in basal tumors treated with NAC. While the basal subtype was relatively small ($n = 11$), an improvement in survival due may have been associated with bevacizumab targeting the HIF-like hypoxia signature identified in basal tumors. Thus, luminal tumors seemed to have the best clinical outcome regardless of treatment, basal tumors had the worst in absence of NAC, but were potentially responsive to NAC, and the p53-like tumors were unresponsive to cisplatin-chemotherapy.

A major limitation to subtyping is that subtyping strategies compare relative gene expression patterns among tumors in a cohort of patients. To apply subtyping to individual patients, a single-patient classifier would need to be developed in which individual patients could be evaluated and assigned to a subtype. Seiler et al. developed a single-patient classifier in a retrospective cohort of 269 consecutive MIBC patients from 5 institutions treated with at least three cycles of NAC. The outcomes by subtype were compared to 397 MIBC patients from other cohorts who did not receive NAC [30]. The single-patient genomic subtyping classifier (GSC) was trained to classify tumors into one of four subtypes: claudin-low, basal, luminal-infiltrated, and luminal. Luminal tumors had the best overall survival across subtyping methods regardless of NAC. Overall survival of patients with basal tumors was worst in the non-NAC cohort, but similar to the luminal tumors in the NAC cohort, even though there was no difference in pathologic response to chemotherapy. A notable limitation in this study was the lack of correlation of pathologic response with overall survival, which contrasts with most of the established literature. Consistent with prior studies, patients with luminal-infiltrated tumors (TCGA 2014 Cluster II, p53-like) fared poorly compared to other luminal subtypes. A major limitation of this study was the comparison of patient outcomes by subtype across multiple different and separate patient cohorts, in addition to the retrospective nature of the study.

Some studies have not been able to demonstrate a difference in survival across subtypes treated

with chemotherapy. A 2018 Phase II trial of dose-dense gemcitabine and cisplatin (DDGC) ($n = 28$) and accelerated MVAC (AMVAC) ($n = 43$) compared survival based on the three MDA subtypes [31]. While p53-like tumors had a trend to worse survival in the DDGC cohort, a combined analysis found no significant differences in survival or response by subtype. The Bladder Cancer Molecular Taxonomy Group evaluated the association between their novel classification schema and were unable to identify any significant association of consensus class with pathologic response to NAC. [27].

Three clinical trials of immunotherapy have investigated if subtype has an impact on the clinical response of both metastatic and localized bladder cancer. IMvigor 210 was a phase II trial of metastatic platinum refractory or cisplatin-ineligible patients treated with the PD-L1 inhibitor, atezolizumab [32]. The study team sought to determine TCGA subtypes ($K = 4$) using a curated gene list of 8 genes and suggested that cluster II tumors, had a significantly higher clinical response compared to other subtypes. The investigators found enrichment of PD-L1 expression and immune cell infiltration in the basal subtype versus the luminal subtype, although the increased PD-L1 expression did not correlate with the objective response rate.

An integrated biomarker analysis was performed that included immunohistochemistry, tumor mutation profiling and transcriptome analysis in a more extensive evaluation of the 298 patients from the IMvigor 210 cohort. While the investigators did not identify an association with tumor subtyping using a reduced TCGA subtyping method, tumors classified as genomically unstable (GU) by the Lund Taxonomy had improved response to atezolizumab. The first version of the Lund subtyping applied here did not include a Sc/NE subtype and this subset of tumors was likely classified as GU, the closest subtyping neighbor. Their initial TCGA subtyping was likely affected by the classification methodology applied to each tumor using only a limited gene set. The TCGA single-patient classifier by Kim and colleagues using the TCGA 2017 classification identified a significantly improved response in neuronal tumors [33]. While associated with the worst survival in the TCGA 2017, the 11 neuronal tumors identified in IMVigor210 were found to have the best survival among the 5 subtypes (2 complete response, 6 partial response, and 3 unknown). The neuronal subtype was small in IMVigor210, but the results were confirmed by The Bladder Cancer Molecular Taxonomy

Group with consensus MIBC subtyping that identified an enhanced response in NE-like, LumNS and LumU tumors [27]. Further investigation of improved response of neuronal tumors should be investigated in clinical trials.

In an analysis of 177 second line metastatic UC patients treated with the anti-PD1 antibody Nivolumab in Checkmate 275, greater response was identified in basal (TCGA III) tumors compared to other subtypes (30% response). The methodology applied to perform subtyping was not discussed in the methods section of the manuscript, but the basal tumors were also enriched for chemokines CXCL9 and CXCL10 and CD8 expression, which was independently associated with response to Nivolumab [34]. Powles et al found no difference in pathologic response of tumors subtyped by the Lund Taxonomy when treated with two cycles of neoadjuvant atezolizumab in the ABACUS trial. The subtyping analysis in ABACUS may have been limited by the relatively small numbers of patients ($n=95$ patients) and 5 subtype groups in the Lund Taxonomy. In contrast, an evaluation of the PURE01 neoadjuvant immunotherapy cohort that included 84 patients identified an enhanced response of basal tumors (63–65% partial or complete response) and luminal infiltrated tumors (68%) [35].

Most analyses of treatment response stratified by subtype have focused on the poor outcomes at radical cystectomy for basal tumors. Yet, luminal tumors were described to have lower clinical stage in the TCGA 2017 (T2, 55% versus 23% for non-luminal, $p < 10^{-8}$), suggesting that luminal tumors might be managed with radical cystectomy alone, thereby potentially avoiding NAC. Lotan et al evaluated 206 patients with clinical T1 and T2 tumors who underwent cystectomy and compared pathologic upstaging rates between luminal ($n=100$) and non-luminal tumors ($n=106$) grouped into subtype by Decipher Bioscience's GSC platform [36]. Upstaging to pT3-4 was found in only 24% of luminal tumors compared to 47% of non-luminal tumors ($p < 0.001$), but there was no difference in the rates of node metastasis (21% vs 26%). The improved pathologic staging in luminal tumors may be secondary to higher inclusion of T1 tumors (87), of which 47 (54%) were luminal cancers.

Bladder preservation with chemoradiotherapy (CRT) is increasingly offered for MIBC and has become a category I treatment recommendation by the NCCN. Efstathiou et al. evaluated molecular subtypes of 136 patients treated with CRT, but did not

identify significant differences in complete response, disease specific survival, and overall survival among four subtypes using the Decipher Bioscience's GSC platform [37]. The investigators identified that T-cell infiltration and a stromal signature were both positively associated with survival after CRT, but not after NAC and radical cystectomy.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

While we have reached a point in which most contributors to subtyping feel we have sufficient subtypes to describe the biology of MIBC, future efforts to apply tumor subtyping will likely involve the application of subtyping to prospective trials of chemo and/or immunotherapy. A major improvement in the application of subtyping is the common ground provided by the consensus classification. The subtyping work of the UNC, MDA, Lund, CIT (Cartes d'Identité des Tumeurs) [38] and TCGA groups all directly relates to this common ground. Among the commonly used classifiers it is only the GSC-classifier that remains to be compared to the consensus subtypes and hopefully this will be achieved in the near future. Hopefully, this will improve the accuracy of tumor subtyping across trials and formats that will involve FFPE specimens. Trials, such as COXEN (S1314; NCT 02177695) in which RNA is available, may validate the response of different subtypes to NAC. To apply subtyping prospectively, a relatively agile platform with reproducible results will be essential. Prospective evaluation of treatment response may include tumor subtype and/or other biomarkers such as DNA damage repair gene alterations, TMB, and PDL1 status to help guide treatment decisions. While most studies have focused on MIBC, a thorough investigation of NMIBC [39] will be essential to better understand the genesis of bladder cancer.

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Interpretation or analysis of data: AD, JM, PM, SL, GS

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ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study, as a literature review is exempt from any requirement for Institutional Review Board approval.

Peer review and the editorial decision making process have been conducted shielded from Editor-in-Chief SL.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS:

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PB is a member of an advisory board or equivalent with a commercial organization: AbbVie, Asieris, AstraZeneca, Astellas, Bayer, Biosyent, BMS, EMD-Serono, Ferring, Fergene, H3-Biomedicine, Janssen, Merck, Roche, Sanofi, Urogen, Speakers bureau for AbbVie, Biosyent, Janssen, Ferring, TerSera, Pfizer, received honoraria from: iProgen, Sanofi, Bayer, GSK and is currently participating in or have participated in a clinical trial within the past two years. Genentech, Janssen, BMS, Astellas, Sitka, MDx Health, AstraZeneca, Therelase, Pacific Edge. PB share a patent with Decipher Biosciences

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