# Circulating tumour DNA sequencing identifies a genetic resistance-gap in colorectal cancers with acquired resistance to EGFR-antibodies and chemotherapy

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34 Abstract: Epidermal growth factor receptor antibodies (EGFR-Abs) confer survival 35 benefit in patients with RAS wild-type metastatic colorectal cancer (mCRC) but 36 resistance invariably occurs. Previous data showed that only a minority of cancer 37 cells harboured known genetic resistance drivers at the time clinical resistance to 38 single-agent EGFR-Abs had evolved, supporting the activity of non-genetic resistance 39 mechanisms. Here, we used error-corrected ctDNA-sequencing (ctDNA-Seq) of 40 40 cancer genes to identify drivers of resistance and whether a genetic resistance-gap 41 (a lack of detectable genetic resistance mechanisms in a large fraction of the cancer 42 cell population) also occurs in RAS wild-type mCRCs treated with a combination of 43 EGFR-Abs and chemotherapy. We detected one MAP2K1/MEK1 mutation and one 44 ERBB2 amplification in 2/3 patients with primary resistance and KRAS, NRAS, 45 MAP2K1/MEK1 mutations and ERBB2 aberrations in 6/7 patients with acquired 46 resistance. In vitro testing identified MAP2K1/MEK1 P124S as a novel driver of EGFR-47 Ab resistance. Mutation subclonality analyses confirmed a genetic resistance-gap in 48 mCRCs treated with EGFR-Abs and chemotherapy, with only 13.42% of cancer cells 49 harboring identifiable resistance drivers. Our results support the utility of ctDNA-Seq 50 to guide treatment allocation for patients with resistance and the importance to 51 further investigate non-canonical EGFR-Ab resistance mechanisms, such as 52 microenvironmentally-mediated resistance. The detection of MAP2K1 mutations 53 could inform trials of MEK-inhibitors in these tumours.

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55 Keywords: colorectal cancer, ctDNA-Sequencing, ctDNA-ddPCR, acquired resistance,

56 genetic resistance-gap, EGFR-antibodies

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#### 58 **1. Introduction**

59 KRAS and NRAS mutations are predictors of primary resistance to the EGFR 60 antibodies (EGFR-Abs) cetuximab and panitumumab in metastatic colorectal cancer 61 (mCRC) [1-5]. Furthermore, RAS mutations evolve in most mCRCs at the time they 62 acquire resistance to EGFR-Abs [6-8]. Other genetic aberrations that re-activate the 63 RAS/RAF pathway such as EGFR and BRAF mutations or ERBB2 amplifications also 64 confer primary and acquired resistance but are less common [9,10]. Analysing the 65 mutation status of these driver genes in the circulating tumour DNA (ctDNA) through 66 so-called 'liquid biopsies' can avoid the need for tumour re-biopsies, which are 67 associated with discomfort, a risk of complications and high costs. Furthermore, 68 early detection of evolving resistance drivers may help to monitor patients and to 69 guide personalized treatment switching to alternative therapies.

70 Application of liquid biopsies in mCRC patient's management is becoming 71 increasingly feasible through the development of ctDNA-sequencing (ctDNA-Seq) 72 technologies incorporating error correction [11,12], which enable mutation 73 detection in entire gene panels with high sensitivity and low false positive rates. We 74 developed a ctDNA-Seq assay for CRC patients that applies molecular barcodes 75 (MBC) and duplex DNA identification for error correction and can be performed from 76 25ng of ctDNA. We showed that this could call mutations with variant allele 77 frequencies (VAFs) of 0.15% in ctDNA [12].

78 Application of ctDNA-Seq to RAS wt mCRC patients who acquired resistance 79 to single-agent cetuximab in the third line setting showed the ability to identify 80 mutations and DNA amplifications that drive resistance [9]. Leveraging the ability of 81 this ctDNA-Seq technique to reconstruct genome wide copy number profiles [12], we 82 assessed the clonality of resistance driver mutations by first correcting VAFs for the 83 influence of copy-number states and by subsequently calculating the proportion of 84 cancer cells that harbored resistance driver mutations by comparing against TP53 or 85 APC mutations, which are likely clonal. This subclonality analysis revealed that only a 86 minority (36%) of cancer cells represented in the ctDNA did harbour resistance driver 87 mutations despite radiological progression. This defined a previously undiscovered 88 genetic resistance-gap at the time of acquired cetuximab resistance and led to the

discovered of a novel non-genetic mechanism of single-agent cetuximab resistance,driven by an increase in tumour associated fibroblasts [9].

91 In this study, we first aimed to validate the ability of this ctDNA-Seq 92 technology using a targeted 40 gene panel to identify mutations in 10 patients who 93 initially showed RAS wild-type status in tumour tissue and either showed primary or 94 acquired resistance when treated with EGFR-Ab therapy predominantly in 95 combination with chemotherapy. Moreover, as most patients in this study received a 96 combination of EGFR-Abs and chemotherapy, we investigated what proportion of 97 the cancer cells harboured these drivers to assess if a genetic resistance-gap also 98 occurs in mCRCs that acquired resistance to chemotherapy and EGFR-Ab or if this 99 only arises with single-agent cetuximab.

### 101 **2. Results**

102 Plasma samples were collected after radiologically confirmed progression 103 from ten patients with mCRCs that were RAS wild-type based on clinical testing 104 (Table S1). Nine of them had received an EGFR-Ab (cetuximab or panitumumab) in 105 combination with chemotherapy and one single-agent EGFR-Ab (panitumumab) 106 (Table 1). Two (patients 3 and 4) were analyzed at the time they were re-challenged 107 with EGFR-Ab therapy. Analogous to previous work [9], we classified patients with 108 progressive disease (PD) within 12 weeks of EGFR-Ab initiation (n=3, median time to 109 progression: 9 weeks) as cases with primary resistance. Those that obtained benefit 110 for at least 12 weeks (n=7, median time to progression: 26 weeks) before they 111 progressed were considered as cases with acquired resistance.

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Patient ID	Age (years)	Gender	Histology	Primary location	Differentiation grade	EGFR-Ab therapy	Line of therapy for metastatic disease	Time on EGFR-Ab therapy	Resistance
1	80	Male	Adenocarcinoma	Right-colon	Moderate	Panitumumab + FOLFOX	2nd	2 weeks	Primary
2	79	Male	Adenocarcinoma	Rectum	Moderate	Moderate Panitumumab		9 weeks	Primary
3	57	Male	Adenocarcinoma	Sigmoid	Well	Cetuximab + Irinotecan (rechallenge with EGFR-Ab)	3rd	10 weeks	Primary
4	58	Female	Adenocarcinoma	Rectum	Well	Cetuximab + Irinotecan (rechallenge with EGFR-Ab)	3rd	16 weeks	Acquired
5	52	Male	Adenocarcinoma	Sigmoid	Moderate	Cetuximab + Irinotecan	2nd	20 weeks	Acquired
6	64	Male	Adenocarcinoma	Rectum	Moderate	Panitumumab + FOLFOX	1st	12 weeks	Acquired
7	41	Female	Adenocarcinoma	Sigmoid	Poor	Cetuximab + FOLFIRI	1st	27 weeks	Acquired
8	53	Female	Adenocarcinoma	Right-colon	Poor	Cetuximab + FOLFIRI	2nd	27 weeks	Acquired
9	46	Female	Adenocarcinoma	Sigmoid	Moderate	Panitumumab + FOLFOX	2nd	29 weeks	Acquired
10	30	Male	Adenocarcinoma	Rectum	Moderate	Panitumumab + FOLFIRI	5th	26 weeks	Acquired

Table 1. Clinical characterists of metastatic colorectal cancer patients.

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#### 115 **2.1 ctDNA sequencing results**

116 Up to 25ng of the ctDNA were sequenced with our error-corrected ctDNA-117 Seq panel (40 cancer genes, 221kb target region), which includes commonly mutated 118 CRC driver genes (APC, TP53, FBXW7, PIK3CA and SMAD2/4) and known EGFR-Ab 119 resistance driver genes (KRAS, NRAS, EGFR, BRAF, MAP2K1, MET, NF1, FGFR2 and 120 ERBB2) [1-10]. The average read depth in the analyzable target region after MBC 121 deduplication was 1388x (Figure 1A). Mutations in the CRC driver genes TP53 or APC 122 were identified in the ctDNA of 9 out of 10 patients (Figure 1A). Genome-wide DNA 123 copy number profiles were reconstructed for all cases to identify gene amplifications 124 (Figure S1).

Α								
	Patient Average ID Depth - Seg		TP53	AA change	APC	AA change		
	1	1756	3.23%	R248Q	1.0%; 2.67%	M891Kfs*27; I1418Yfs*5		
	2	758	-	-	0.67%	S1344*		
	3	821	-	-	0.53%	R1450*		
	4	1479	42.86%	Y163Sfs*8	26.92%; 41.60%	S1398Efs*11; p.R858*		
	5	2429	1.17%	A129Cfs*20	1.32%	R805*		
	6	1549	28.89%	P278A	17.31%	E1309Dfs*4		
	7	2260	2.49%	P191del	-	-		
	8	950	6.28%; 6.56%	R280G; R273H	-	-		
	9	1348	1.01%	Q192*	1.33%	Q1367*		
	10	525	-	-	-	-		



D

	Patient ID	Therapy	KRAS G12D	KRAS G13F	KRAS Q61H	NRAS G12S	NRAS G13D	EGFR K467E	MAP2K1 K57N	MAP2K1 K57T	MAP2K1 P124S	ERBB2 R143Q	ERBB2
Primary resistance	1	Panitumuab + FOLFOX											amp
	2	Panitumumab							0.47%				
	3	Cetuximab + Irinotecan											
Acquired resistance	4	Cetuximab + Irinotecan					0.49%	1.11%					
	5	Cetuximab + Irinotecan									0.10%		
	6	Panitumuab + FOLFOX			0.11%	0.68%				0.25%			
	7	Cetuximab + FOLFIRI										0.19%	
	8	Cetuximab + FOLFIRI		0.28%									
	9	Panitumumab + FOLFOX											amp
	10	Panitumumab + FOLFIRI											



Figure 1. Resistance drivers identified by ctDNA-Seq in mCRC patients at PD to anti-EGFR-Abs. (A) Non-silent mutations in the CRC driver genes *TP53* or *APC* identified in the ctDNA and average read depth in ctDNA-Seq. The Variant Allele Frequencies for each mutation are shown. (B) Chromosome 17 copy number profile for patient 1 (C) and for patient 9. (D) Drivers mutations/amplifications identified by ctDNA-Seq. Numbers represent the Variant Allele Frequencies of detected mutations.

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## 134 **2.1.1** Identification of drivers of primary resistance by ctDNA sequencing

We next identified likely drivers of resistance to EGFR-Ab in the three patients with primary resistant mCRCs. An *ERBB2* amplification was detected in the copy number profile of patient 1 (Figure 1B). *ERBB2* amplifications have previously been shown to confer primary EGFR-Ab resistance [13]. Furthermore, a mutation in the tumoursuppressor gene *NF1* (F1247L) was called in this sample but this has not been seen in the Cosmic cancer mutation database and it was not an inactivating mutation (Table S2). No further resistance driver mutations were detected in this patient. In addition, we identified a *MAP2K1/MEK1* K57N mutation in patient 2 (Figure 1D). K57N is known to constitutively activate MEK1 in colorectal cancer cell lines [14] and we and others previously showed a role in EGFR-Ab resistance [9,13]. No resistance mechanism was identified in patient 3. Thus, ctDNA-Seq identified an explanation for primary resistance in 2/3 cases (67%).

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#### 148 **2.1.2** Identification of drivers of acquired resistance by ctDNA sequencing

149 We then analysed ctDNA-Seq results from the 7 patients with acquired EGFR-150 Ab resistance. Genetic aberrations that were likely responsible for acquired 151 resistance were detected in 6/7 patients (Figure 1D). Two patients harboured more 152 than one aberration. NRAS G13D and EGFR K467E mutations were found in patient 153 4, in addition to a NF1 A2511V mutation reported in ClinVar as likely benign [15] 154 (Table S2). NRAS G12S, KRAS Q61H and MAP2K1/MEK1 K57T mutations were 155 detected in patient 6. A KRAS G13F mutation was identified in patient 8 and a 156 MAP2K1/MEK1 P124S mutation in patient 5 (Figure 1D). P124S is located in the 157 MEK1 protein kinase domain and has previously been showed to confer resistance to 158 BRAF- and MEK-inhibitor therapy in melanoma [16] but its role in EGFR-Ab resistance 159 in CRC was unknown. Expression of MAP2K1/MEK1 P124S and wild-type 160 MAP2K1/MEK1 in the cetuximab sensitive CRC cell line DiFi showed that the 161 mutation rescued ERK phosphorylation and confirmed it as a new driver of acquired 162 cetuximab resistance (Figure 2).

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Figure 2. Western blot analysis of parental, *MAP2K1/MEK1* wild-type transduced and
 *MAP2K1/MEK1* P124S transduced DiFi cell line treated with cetuximab for 2 hours.

168 An amplification of ERBB2 was identified in patient 9 (Figure 1C) and an 169 ERBB2 R143Q mutation (0.19%) in patient 7 (Figure 1D). The latter has previously 170 been described in bladder cancer cell lines as a potential activating mutation, which 171 sensitizes to the pan-EGFR inhibitor lapatinib in-vitro [17]. No driver of acquired 172 resistance was identified by ctDNA-Seq in patient 10 (Figure 1D). This is likely due to 173 low tumour content in the ctDNA as indicated by the absence of clear DNA copy 174 number aberrations in this sample (Figure S1) and of APC or TP53 mutations, which 175 had been detected in all other samples.

Together, likely drivers of acquired EGFR-Ab resistance were detected in 86% (6/7) of patients using ctDNA-Seq (Figure 1D). Consistent with prior studies that showed that acquired resistance is often polyclonal [8,9], more than one resistance driver was detected in 2/7 (29%) patients.

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#### 181 **2.1.3** Clonality of drivers of primary and acquired resistance

182 We recently showed that the majority of cancer cells did not harbor any 183 resistance mutations at the time CRCs acquired resistance and progressed on single-184 agent cetuximab [9]. Whether a similar genetic resistance-gap occurs at acquired resistance in mCRCs treated with a combination of chemotherapy and EGFR-Ab is 185 186 unknown. Using our established method [9], we assessed the clonality of resistance 187 driver mutations by first correcting VAFs for the influence copy-number states and 188 by subsequently calculating the proportion of cancer cells that harbored resistance 189 driver mutations by comparing against TP53 or APC mutations, which are likely 190 clonal (Table S3). This also corrects for variable tumour contents in different ctDNA 191 samples. Clonality assessment was not possible for patient 9 where an amplification 192 had been detected as the absolute number of amplified DNA copies in such 193 subclones cannot be assessed, and for patient 10 where no resistance drivers were 194 identified.

The 8 driver mutations found in the remaining five tumours with acquired resistance were only present in a median of 7.65% (range 1.14%-17.24%) of the cancer cells sampled by ctDNA-Seq, and were therefore subclonal (Table S3). When all the mutations in each individual patient were added together, still only a median of 13.42% (range 8.91%-17.24%) of all cancer cells represented in the ctDNA were

200 mutated (Figure 3A). In comparison, when we applied the same analysis to patient 2, 201 which showed primary resistance and a *MAP2K1/MEK1* mutation, this was estimated

- to be present in 100% of the ctDNA and hence clonal (Figure 3A).
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Figure 3. Clonality analysis of EGFR-Ab resistance driver mutations in ctDNA by comparison to truncal CRC driver mutations in *TP53* or *APC*. (A) Fraction of cancer cells sampled by ctDNA that harbored EGFR-Ab resistance driver mutations when VAFs are corrected for the influence of copy number aberrations. (B) Ratio of the VAF of all resistance drivers combined to the VAF of truncal mutations. 210

211 We used a conservative estimate to define the highest likely cancer cell 212 fraction (see methods) but a potential limitation of this analysis is that the copy 213 number states are estimates as allele specific copy number data cannot be 214 generated from off-target reads, and this can lead to inaccuracies. We therefore also 215 applied a published approach to estimate clonality, which uses the ratio of resistance 216 mutation VAFs to the highest VAF of likely truncal drivers without any correction for 217 copy number status [18]. All drivers of acquired resistance combined per case had a 218 median ratio of 4.37% (range 3.60%-8.55%) compared to truncal mutations in either 219 TP53 or APC (Figure 3B). Thus, both approaches support the presence of a 220 considerable genetic resistance-gap at acquired resistance to combination EGFR-Ab 221 and chemotherapy.

#### **3. Discussion**

224 We identified MAP2K1/MEK1 mutations in 3 and RAS mutations in 4 of 10 225 patients. MAP2K1/MEK1 mutations were hence the second most common driver of 226 resistance in this small series that was predominated by tumours with acquired 227 resistance. While MAP2K1/MEK1 codon K57 mutations have previously been 228 associated with EGFR-Ab resistance [9,13,14] we provide the first evidence that 229 P124S mutations contribute to resistance to EGFR-Ab therapy in mCRC. Together, 230 our results highlight the importance to use ctDNA analysis panels that include a 231 broad range of resistance driver genes beyond RAS and BRAF such as MAP2K1 and 232 ERBB2 [12,19] to optimally stratify patients to EGFR-Abs. The detection of ERBB2 233 amplifications and activating MAPK2K1 through ctDNA-Seq could furthermore 234 stratify these patients for treatment with trastuzumab or treatment with MEK-235 inhibitors in clinical trials [20]. The ability of ctDNA-Seq to assess mutation clonality 236 may help to select tumours with clonal drivers to avoid targeting subclonal drivers 237 which will likely be futile [21].

238 Importantly, subclonality analyses demonstrated that mutations driving 239 acquired resistance to EGFR-Ab in combination with chemotherapy were confined to 240 small subclones. No genetic resistance drivers were detected in a median of 86.58% 241 of the cancer-derived ctDNA. This defines a genetic resistance-gap in patients with 242 acquired resistance to chemotherapy and EGFR-Abs which is similar to the 64% of 243 the cancer cells sampled by ctDNA had no detectable genetic resistance drivers 244 observed in patients treated with single-agent cetuximab [9]. The clonality estimates 245 are based on published approaches [9,18] but some inaccuracies are possible as 246 these technologies are relatively novel and not all sources of bias may have been 247 identified. Importantly, the average sequencing depth of our assay is similar to other 248 current ctDNA sequencing technologies [22,23,24] and we have previously shown 249 that the sensitivity of this assay is comparable to other technologies with error 250 correction [12]. Thus, it is unlikely that poor assay sensitivity explains these results.

251 Moreover, we previously showed that tumours with a cetuximab-sensitive 252 transcriptomic subtype before single-agent EGFR-Ab treatment changed to a 253 fibroblast- and growth factor-rich subtype at progression and that this stromal 254 remodeling enables non-genetic cetuximab resistance, likely explaining the genetic

255 resistance-gap [9]. Confirming a similar resistance-gap in mCRCs treated with EGFR-256 Ab and chemotherapy now suggests that non-genetic resistance mechanisms may 257 also be relevant when combination therapy is used. This will require confirmation 258 through studies of tumour biopsies in the future, particularly as several other 259 candidate mechanisms for non-genetic resistance have been described, including myeloid derived suppressor cells infiltrates [25] or paracrine growth factor secretion 260 261 by cancer cells [26]. Several of the non-genetic resistance mechanisms that were identified depend on secreted growth factors and may be clinically targetable 262 263 through blocking agents. Dissection these mechanisms may therefore inform 264 rational combination treatments with EGFR-Abs and chemotherapy. Minimally 265 invasive technologies to assess the cancer microenvironment compositions or 266 growth factor secretion in the microenvironment are an unmet need. Developing 267 these could accelerate the interrogation of such understudied resistance 268 mechanisms.

An alternative explanation for this resistance-gap could be that EGFR-Ab resistance is the consequence of genetic drivers scattered across a large number of genes that are rarely mutated individually and therefore remained unidentified to date. However, our previous finding that cancer associated fibroblasts increased in PD biopsies without detectable genetic resistance drivers, and that these can mechanistically rescue cancer cell growth, supported the non-genetic resistance model [9].

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#### **4. Materials and Methods**

**4.1 Patients** 

Ten patients with *RAS* wild-type status mCRCs who received treatment with EGFR-Ab (cetuximab/panitumumab) containing therapy were included in this study. The study has been approved by Hospital Sírio Libanês Ethics Committee (Study # HSL 2015-22) and all patients provided written informed consent before study inclusion. Information from clinical *RAS* mutation tests of tumour tissue form each patient was available for this study.

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# **4.2** Plasma samples

Blood samples (15ml) were collected in EDTA-tubes at the time of clinical progression to EGFR-Ab. Plasma was separated by centrifugation at 800g for 10min at 4°C within 2h after collection. Plasma was spun again at 11,000g for 10min at 4°C and stored at -80°C. ctDNA was isolated using the QIAamp MinElute Virus Vacuum Kit (Qiagen).

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#### 307 **4.3 ctDNA-Sequencing**

308 Between 17.6ng and 25ng of ctDNA were sequenced per sample using 309 Agilent SureSelect<sup>XT-HS</sup> library preparation and target enrichment of 40 genes as 310 described [9,12]. Sequencing library pools were clustered using an Illumina cBot and 311 sequenced with 75pb paired-end reads on an Illumina HiSeq2500 in rapid-output 312 mode.

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#### 314 **4.4 Variant calling**

315 SureCall (version 4.0.1.46, Agilent) was used to trim and align fastq reads to 316 the hg19 reference genome with default parameters and for Molecular Barcode 317 error Correction (MBC) deduplication, permitting one base mismatch within each 318 MBC. Consensus families comprising single reads were removed. The SureCall 319 software (Agilent) was used to determine the average on-target read depth (the 320 average number of reads at each position of the analyzable target regions) and for 321 variant calls using the SNPPET function. The DuplexCaller [12] was used to identify 322 mutations supported by duplex reads in the common CRC driver genes TP53, APC,

323 *SMAD2/4, FBXW7, PIK3CA* and in the known resistance driver genes *KRAS, NRAS,* 324 *BRAF, MAP2K1, EGFR, FGFR2, ERBB2, NF1*. Mutations supported by reads with this 325 duplex configuration were inferred to come from double stranded DNA molecules.

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#### 327 **4.5 Genome-wide DNA copy number analysis**

BAM files from MBC-deduplication before removal of single-read consensus families were used to generate genome-wide DNA copy number profiles with CNVkit [27] (v0.8.1). CNVkit was run in non-batch mode with antitarget average size set to 30 kb. Data from healthy donor samples were used as the normal reference pooled dataset [12]. We then assessed each profile for amplifications of the known resistance driver genes *ERBB2*, *MET*, *FGFR2* and *NRAS/KRAS*.

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#### **4.6 Mutation clonality analysis**

336 Absolute copy number data was estimated from the genome wide copy 337 number profiles using the following assumptions: the lowest arm level loss 338 corresponds to copy number 1, the modal chromosome number has a copy number 339 between 2 and 4 and copy number states are approximately equally spaced. For the 340 most conservative clonality estimate, we assumed that only one copy of resistance 341 driver genes is mutated and that all copies of the tumour suppressor genes TP53 and 342 APC harbor the detected mutations as this leads to the highest clonality estimate for 343 resistance drivers. The fraction of cancer cells sampled by ctDNA that harbored a resistance driver mutation at PD was calculated by first correcting VAFs for the 344 345 influence of copy-number states and by then dividing the corrected VAF of 346 resistance drivers by the corrected VAF of clonal TP53/APC mutations. Referencing 347 the resistance driver mutations against clonal mutations corrects for differences in 348 the admixed DNA from normal cells, which varies between patients. The clonality 349 calculations were performed with formulas from [9].

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#### **4.7 Generation of MAP2K1 transgenic DiFi cell lines and Western blot analysis**

352 HEK293T cells were transfected with pHAGE-MAP2K1 and pHAGE-MAP2K1-353 P124S (Addgene plasmids #116757, #116427 and #116428 respectively, kindly gifted 354 by Gordon Mills & Kenneth Scott ) lentiviral constructs in combination with

packaging plasmids psPAX and pMD2.G (a gift from Didier Trono, Addgene #12260
and #12259 respectively) using TransIT-LT1 (Mirus). DiFi cells were transduced with
the resultant viral supernatants in the presence of Polybrene (8 μg/mL). Transduced
wildtype MAP2K1 overexpressing cells were selected using 5 μg/mL Puromycin.
Mutant MAP2K1 cells (P124S) were selected by fluorescence-activating cell sorting
for GFP-high cells on a Sony SH800.

361 Cells were treated for 4 hours with 6.25, 25, or 100 µg/mL cetuximab, or with 362 vehicle control GCTS buffer. Total cell lysates were prepared with NP-40 buffer 363 supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Sigma). Western blotting 364 used primary antibodies p-ERK (Cell Signalling Technologies #9101) and ERK (Cell 365 Signalling Technologies #9102). HRP-conjugated anti-beta Tubulin antibody (Abcam 366 #ab21058) was used as a loading control. Bands were detected using ECL Prime (GE 367 Healthcare), and visualised on an Azure Biosystems C300 detection system.

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#### 369 **5.** Conclusion

370 Error corrected ctDNA-sequencing with a targeted panel allows the detection 371 of broad genetic resistance mechanisms in CRCs treated with EGFR-Abs and 372 chemotherapy. This may inform patient stratification to novel therapies and help to 373 avoid ineffective treatment with EGFR-Abs. Our data furthermore shows a genetic 374 resistance-gap after treatment with EGFR-Abs in combination with chemotherapy, 375 indicating a need to investigate resistance mechanisms beyond the well described 376 genetic point mutations and amplifications in receptor tyrosine kinases and RAS/RAF 377 pathway members.

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