

# **Original Article**

# Analysis of actionable gene fusions in a large cohort of Chinese patients with colorectal cancer

Fu-Rong Kou<sup>1,2</sup>, Jian Li<sup>1</sup>, Zheng-Hang Wang<sup>1</sup>, Ting Xu<sup>1</sup>, Juan-Juan Qian<sup>3</sup>, En-Li Zhang<sup>3</sup>, Li-Jun Zhang<sup>3</sup>, Lin Shen 1 and Xi-Cheng Wang<sup>1,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Key Laboratory of Carcinogenesis and Translational Research (Ministry of Education), Department of Gastrointestinal Oncology, Peking University Cancer Hospital & Institute, Beijing, P. R. China

<sup>2</sup>Key Laboratory of Carcinogenesis and Translational Research (Ministry of Education), Department of Comprehensive Clinical Trial Ward, Peking University Cancer Hospital & Institute, Beijing, P. R. China

<sup>3</sup>Department of Medicine, Genecast Biotechnology Co., Ltd., Wuxi, Jiangsu, P. R. China

\*Corresponding author. Key Laboratory of Carcinogenesis and Translational Research (Ministry of Education), Department of Gastrointestinal Oncology, Peking University Cancer Hospital & Institute, Fu-Cheng Road 52, Hai-Dian District, Beijing 100142, P. R. China. Tel: +86-10-88196561; Fax: +86-10-88196561; Email: xicheng\_wang@hotmail.com

### Abstract

**Background:** The prevalence of gene fusion is extremely low in unselected patients with colorectal cancer (CRC). Published data on gene fusions are limited by relatively small sample sizes, with a primary focus on Western populations. This study aimed to analyse actionable gene fusions in a large consecutive Chinese CRC population.

**Methods:** This study included 5,534 consecutive CRC patients from the Genecast database. Genomic profiling was performed using a panel of 769 cancer-related genes. Data for 34 CRC patients with actionable gene fusions were also collected from cBioPortal and ChimerSeq.

**Results:** Among 5,534 CRC patients, 54 (0.98%) had actionable gene fusions, with NTRK1/2/3 being the most common fusion (0.38%), accounting for 38.9% (21/54) of those with fusions. Actionable gene fusion enrichment was higher in patients with microsatellite instability-high (MSI-H) (6.7% vs. 0.5%, P < 0.001), RAS/BRAF wildtype (2.0% vs. 0.2%, P < 0.001) and RNF43 mutation (7.7% vs. 0.4%, P < 0.001) than in patients with microsatellite stability/MSI-low, RAS/BRAF mutation and RNF43 wildtype, respectively. When these markers were combined, the fusion detection rate increased. Among patients with RAS/BRAF wildtype and MSI-H, fusions were detected in 20.3% of patients. The fusion detection rate further increased to 37.5% when RNF43 mutation was added. The fusion detection rate was also higher in colon cancer than in rectal cancer. No significant differences in clinical or molecular features were found in patients with actionable gene fusions between the Genecast, cBioPortal, and ChimerSeq databases.

**Conclusions:** Approximately 1% of the unselected Chinese CRC population carries actionable gene fusions, mostly involving NTRK. Actionable gene fusions are more prevalent in MSI-H, RAS/BRAF wildtype, or RNF43-mutated CRC, as well as in colon cancer. Mapping of these molecular markers can markedly increase the fusion detection rate, which can help clinicians select candidates for fusion testing and targeted therapy.

Keywords: actionable gene fusions; colorectal cancer; Chinese population

### Introduction

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is one of the most commonly diagnosed cancers worldwide and is the third and fifth leading cause of cancer-related death in the United States and China, respectively [1]. The molecular characteristics of CRC have been emphasized in recent years, as they can significantly affect patient prognosis and determine therapeutic options [2]. In addition, the optimal therapeutic strategy for CRC depends on both patient characteristics and molecular features [3].

Approximately 40% of CRC patients carry KRAS gene mutations, whereas only approximately 4% of patients carry NRAS mutations. BRAF mutations are present in 10%–15% of patients. RAS mutations have been shown to be negative biomarkers for targeted anti-epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) therapies and are associated with shorter survival. Novel and specific BRAF and KRAS inhibitors appear to be promising for treating CRC [4]. A microsatellite instability-high (MSI-H) status is found in 3%–5% of metastatic CRCs, and patients with MSI-H CRC tend to have a favourable prognosis and a high rate of response to immunotherapy [5]. The major guidelines recommend testing for RAS and BRAF mutations as well as the microsatellite status. Emerging biomarkers, such as the HER2 and NTRK fusions, have also been proposed for testing in CRC [6, 7].

Rare gene fusions, which are considered diagnostic and prognostic markers, have been identified in various cancer types [8]. With the emergence of new targeted therapies, these fusions have become potential therapeutic targets [8]. For example, larotrectinib and entrectinib have received Food and Drug Administration approval for tumour-agnostic indications due to their remarkable

Received: 15 January 2024. Revised: 17 April 2024. Accepted: 18 September 2024

© The Author(s) 2024. Published by Oxford University Press and Sixth Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/ by-nc/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. For commercial reuse, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com clinical activity in a broad spectrum of advanced solid tumours harbouring NTRK gene fusions [9, 10]. In addition, other inhibitors for ALK, RET, or ROS1 fusions (initially developed for non-small cell lung cancers) are now available for patients with metastatic CRC through basket clinical trials [11, 12]. Therefore, efficient detection and comprehensive characterization of gene fusions are of critical clinical significance.

Gene fusions involving ALK, RET, and ROS1 may represent new targets for CRC therapy [13–15]. However, the prevalence of gene fusions in CRC is extremely low, accounting for less than 1% of unselected CRC cases [16]. Moreover, universal screening of CRC patients for gene fusion is impractical and expensive. Nevertheless, a significant percentage of patients in a selected population might harbour gene fusions. Recent research has revealed that gene fusions are significantly enriched in specific molecular subtypes of MSI-H and RAS/BRAF wildtype CRC [17–20]. Combining MSI and RAS/BRAF testing might narrow the population for gene fusion testing, making this approach feasible and cost-effective.

However, published data on gene fusions are limited by relatively small sample sizes, and studies have primarily focused on Western populations. Therefore, the objective of this study was to analyse gene fusions in a large consecutive Chinese CRC population using targeted next-generation sequencing (NGS). Additionally, clinicopathological and molecular genetic features were examined to identify the possible enrichment of fusions.

# Materials and methods Patient selection

We retrospectively analysed the genomic alteration data from 5,534 CRC patients who consecutively underwent genetic testing at Genecast Medical Laboratory (Wuxi, Jiangsu, China) between January 2020 and August 2023 (Genecast database). Clinicopathological data, including age at diagnosis, sex, and primary tumour site, were collected. In addition, 34 CRC patients with actionable gene fusions from the cBioPortal (https://www.cbioportal.org/) and ChimerSeq databases (https://www.kobic.re.kr/chimerdb/) were included to examine differences between the Chinese and Western populations [21, 22]. The study was conducted according to the ethics principles of the Declaration of Helsinki, and patients were informed of the study by each investigator and did not express opposition.

#### Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) extraction

Tumour DNA was extracted from formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) CRC specimens by using a Direct FFPE DNA Kit (Qiagen #A31133) according to the manufacturer's protocols.

#### DNA panel sequencing

The extracted tumour DNA was sheared with a Covaris LE220 instrument, and a KAPA Hyper Preparation Kit was used to prepare libraries with the fragmented DNA. Then, targeted region selection was performed with an IDT xGen Hybridization and Wash Kit. A customized DNA panel including 769 cancer-related genes was designed by Genecast Medical Laboratory and used for hybridization-based NGS to detect single-nucleotide variations, insertions and deletions, copy number alterations and rearrangements. This DNA panel also covers common genetic variations associated with CRC (Supplementary Table S1). The prepared libraries were sequenced by using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000. All the raw Illumina sequence data were demultiplexed and trimmed into clean data using Trimmomatic. Clean reads were aligned to the human reference genome (hg19) by using the bwa mem algorithm. The sequencing panel can detect four types of genomic alterations, including gene fusions using FusionMap, single-nucleotide variants and small insertions and deletions using VarDict and ANNOVAR, and copy number variations using CNVkit [23–26]. Moreover, NGSbased algorithms can be used to determine the microsatellite status, MSI-H status, microsatellite stability status, or microsatellite instability-low (MSS/MSI-L) status [27, 28].

### Determination of gene fusions

The detected gene fusions were classified into two categories: definite gene fusions without functional or available drugs and actionable gene fusions with available drugs. Only reported clinically actionable gene fusions were considered, mainly involving the following genes: NTRK1/2/3, RET, ALK, BRAF, ROS1, and FGFR1/2/3 [9, 29–33].

### Statistical analysis

Continuous variables are presented as the medians and interquartile ranges (IQRs) and were compared using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test. The distributions of categorical variables are presented as frequencies and percentages and were compared by using Fisher's exact test and the chi-square test. All the statistical analyses were performed by using SPSS version 24.0 software (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL). P < 0.05 (two-sided) was considered to indicate statistical significance.

### **Results**

# Prevalence and spectrum of actionable gene fusions in CRC

Our analysis of 5,534 consecutive unselected CRC patients revealed actionable gene fusions in 54 patients (0.98% of the total patients). The most commonly detected actionable gene fusions were NTRK1/2/3 in 21 patients (0.38%), accounting for 38.9% (21/ 54) of the patients with fusions. The other actionable fusion genes detected included RET in 14 patients (0.25%), ALK in 8 patients (0.14%), BRAF in 6 patients (0.11%), FGFR2/3 in 4 patients (0.07%), and ROS1 in 1 patient (0.02%) (Figure 1A). The distribution of actionable gene fusions in the 54 patients is presented in Figure 1B. All the fusion genes preserve the portion encoding the kinase domain of the cancer driver gene and are classified as tier I (variants with strong clinical significance) or tier II (variants with potential clinical significance) according to the Standards and Guidelines for the Interpretation and Reporting of Sequence Variants in Cancer [34]. The fusion breakpoints of the 54 actionable gene fusions are shown in Supplementary Table S2.

### Molecular genetic features of CRC patients with or without gene fusions

Among CRC patients with actionable gene fusions, the top 10 most frequently mutated genes were TP53 (74.1%), RNF43 (57.4%), KMT2D (42.6%), PTPRS (35.2%), ATR (31.5%), FBXW7 (31.5%), RAD50 (29.6%), MSH3 (29.6%), KMT2A (25.9%), and APC (25.9%). Among CRC patients without actionable gene fusions, the top 10 co-mutated genes were TP53 (77.4%), APC (72.2%), KRAS (49.8%), PIK3CA (20.5%), SMAD4 (17.6%), FBXW7 (16.9%), HMCN1 (11.8%), SOX9 (11.9%), ARID1A (10.5%), and ATM (10.4%) (Figure 2).

Notably, TP53 was the most commonly co-mutated gene in both groups. In addition, RNF43 was the second most common co-mutated gene, while the key receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK)-RAS driver genes KRAS, NRAS, and BRAF were not commonly mutated in CRC patients with actionable gene fusions.



Figure 1. Molecular profiling of actionable gene fusions in the 54 colorectal cancer patients displayed by number and proportions of patients. (A) Molecular profiling of different genes. (B) distribution of actionable gene fusions.

# Relationships between MSI, the RAS/BRAF status, RNF43 status, and actionable gene fusions

Of the 5,534 CRC patients, 406 (7.3%) presented with the MSI-H phenotype. Patients with MSI-H tumours were more likely to have actionable gene fusions than those with MSS/MSI-L tumours (6.7% vs. 0.5%, P < 0.001). In addition, among the 3,273 patients with RAS or BRAF mutations (accounting for 59.1% of the cohort), 0.2% (n=8) had actionable gene fusions, and 2.0% (n=46) of patients with wildtype RAS and BRAF carried actionable gene fusions (P < 0.001). Additionally, 404 (7.3%) of the CRC patients had RNF43 mutations, 7.7% (n=31) of them had actionable gene fusions, whereas 0.4% (n=23) of the CRC patients with wildtype RNF43 harboured actionable gene fusions (P < 0.001) (Figure 3, Table 1).

When these markers were combined, the detection rate of gene fusions increased. For RAS/BRAF wildtype and MSI-H patients, fusions were detected in 20.3% (24/118) of patients. Furthermore, when combined with the RNF43 mutation, the fusion detection rate further increased to 37.5% (24/64) (Figure 3).

### Comparison of clinicopathological and molecular features of CRC patients in the Genecast database versus those in the cBioPortal and ChimerSeq databases

Our analysis included 5,534 CRC patients, consisting of 54 patients with actionable gene fusion from the Chinese population in the Genecast database. In addition, 34 CRC patients with actionable gene fusions from the Western population in the





Figure 2. The top 10 most frequently co-mutated genes among 5,534 colorectal cancer patients with (A) or without (B) actionable gene fusions.



Figure 3. Detection rates of actionable gene fusions between different molecular groups among 5,534 colorectal cancer patients.

Table 1. Comparison of features in colorectal cancer patients between Genecast database and cBioPortal and ChimerSeq database

Characteristic	Genecast database		cBioPortal and ChimerSeq database	P1 value	P2 value
	Non-actionable gene fusion (n = 5,480)	Actionable gene fusion (n = 54)	Actionable gene fusion $(n=34)$		
Age, years, median (IQR) Gender, n (%)	62 (53–70)	67 (59–71)	67 (57–74)	0.005 0.035	0.777 0.195
Male	3,309 (60.4)	25 (46.3)	11 (32.4)		
Female	2,171 (39.6)	29 (53.7)	23 (67.6)		
Location, n (%)				< 0.001	0.167
Colon	3,295 (60.1)	49 (90.7)	21 (61.8)		
Rectum	2,167 (39.5)	5 (9.3)	6 (17.6)		
NA <sup>a</sup>	18 (0.3)	0``	7 (20.6)		
MSI status, n (%)	( )			< 0.001	0.105
MSI-H	379 (6.9)	27 (50.0)	9 (26.5)		
MSS/MSI-L	5,022 (91.6)	26 (48.1)	19 (55.9)		
Unknown	79 (1.4)	1 (1.9)	6 (17.6)		
RAS/BRAF, n (%)	( )			< 0.001	1.000
RAS and BRAF wildtype	2,215 (40.4)	46 (85.2)	29 (85.3)		
RAS or BRAF mutant	3,265 (59.6)	8 (14.8)	4 (11.8)		
Unknown	0 (0)	0```	1 (2.9)		
RNF43, n (%)	( )			< 0.001	0.224
Wildtype	5,107 (93.2)	23 (42.6)	19 (55.9)		
Mutant	373 (6.8)	31 (57.4)	15 (44.1)		

IQR = interquartile range, MSI-H = microsatellite instability-high, MSS/MSI-L = microsatellite stability/microsatellite instability-low, NA = not applicable.

P1 = Genecast database: Non-actionable gene fusion vs. Gene fusion.

P2 = Gene fusion in Gencast database vs. Gene fusion in cBioPortal and ChimerSeq database.

<sup>a</sup> Eighteen patients from the Genecast database have double primary cancer of the colon and rectum.

cBioPortal and ChimerSeq databases were included to examine differences between the Chinese and Western populations.

Clinical characteristics were similar between the two populations with actionable gene fusions. The median age was 67 years, and the patients were predominantly female in both populations. Actionable gene fusions were more commonly located in the colon than in the rectum (Genecast: 90.7% vs. 9.3%; cBioPortal and ChimerSeq: 61.8% vs. 17.6%) (Table 1).

According to the Genecast database, compared with patients without actionable gene fusions, patients with actionable gene fusions were older (P = 0.005) and more frequently female (P = 0.035). Furthermore, the tumours were more predominantly located in the colon (P < 0.001) and were more likely to have MSI-H, RAS/BRAF wildtype, or RNF43 mutation (all Ps < 0.001) (Table 1).

Among the molecular features identified in the cBioPortal and ChimerSeq database, the most commonly detected actionable gene fusions involved NTRK in 17 patients (accounting for 50.0% of the fusion-positive patients), followed by BRAF (n = 4, 11.7%), ERBB2 (n = 4, 11.7%), RET (n = 2, 5.9%), ALK (n = 2, 5.9%), ERBB3 (n = 2, 5.9%), FGFR2 (n = 2, 5.9%), and ROS1 (n = 1, 2.9%) (Figure 4). The molecular features, including the MSI-H status, RAS/BRAF status, and RNF43 mutation status, were comparable between the two populations with actionable gene fusions (Table 1).

### Discussion

We investigated the prevalence of actionable gene fusions in 5,534 Chinese CRC patients from the Genecast database, the largest cohort reported to date. We found an overall actionable gene fusion incidence of 0.98% among unselected patients with CRC. Interestingly, a greater incidence of actionable gene fusions was detected in the MSI-H, RAS/BRAF wildtype, or RNF43-mutated CRC populations, and the fusion detection rate increased significantly to 37.5% when these molecular markers were combined.

A recent comprehensive analysis revealed that gene fusions were present in 0.9% of 2,314 CRC patients, which is consistent with the prevalence rate of 0.98% found in our study [16]. Our findings combined with those of prior studies confirmed the low frequency of these genomic alterations in an unselected CRC population. Among the actionable gene fusions detected, the most common alteration involved NTRK, accounting for 38.9% of the patients with actionable gene fusions. This finding aligns with a study of 295,000 patients with solid tumours in which NTRK fusions were detected in 0.22% of 34,590 patients [35].

Previous studies have documented the significant enrichment of gene fusions in MSI-H and RAS/BRAF wildtype CRC, with rates ranging from 26% to 67% [17–20]. We found a similar pattern of enrichment in our study, which further supports the role of gene fusions as important oncogenic drivers in CRC. We speculate that gene fusions might serve as a major mechanism of RTK-RAS oncogenic activation and that they are mutually exclusive with RAS and BRAF mutations [3, 17]. Notably, the fusion rates of NTRK (the most commonly detected actionable gene fusion in our study) in patients with MSI-H and MSS/MSI-L were 3.69% (15/406) and 0.12% (6/5,048), respectively (P < 0.0001). Hence, identifying NTRK fusions in MSI-H patients could offer a new approach, particularly for those who do not respond to immunotherapy.

We observed that among CRC patients with actionable gene fusions, RNF43 was the second most frequently co-mutated gene. Accordingly, patients with RNF43 mutations had a greater frequency of gene fusion (7.7%). The possibility of using this single molecular biomarker to select gene fusions even exceeds that of MSI-H or RAS/BRAF wildtype, with detection rates of 6.7% and 2.0%, respectively. Additionally, the combination of MSI-H and wildtype RAS/BRAF increased the gene fusion detection rate to 20%. When RNF43 was added, the detection rate further increased to 37%. Therefore, RNF43 is a potentially valuable biomarker for selecting among CRC patients with actionable gene fusions.

Previous studies have reported that RNF43 is the most commonly mutated gene in mismatch repair-deficient CRC tumours harbouring gene fusions [17]. Consistent with this result, another study documented a high incidence of RNF43 mutations in CRC



Figure 4. Actionable gene fusion in the 34 colorectal cancer patients from the public cancer database displayed by number and proportions of patients. (A) Molecular profiling of different genes; (B) distribution of actionable gene fusions.

tumours with ALK, ROS1, and NTRK rearrangements in the absence of concomitant BRAF V600E mutations. In addition, RNF43 mutation enrichment in MSI-H CRC has been reported (64.7% vs. 5.9%, P < 0.001) [15]. RNF43 is a key gene involved in the Wnt signalling pathway [36]. We hypothesized that a correlation might exist between the Wnt pathway and positive gene fusions in CRC. Further studies should be conducted to clarify the intrinsic molecular mechanism involved.

Previous studies have indicated that CRC patients with gene fusions are typically older and have poorly differentiated and right-sided colon tumours [15, 16]. Similarly, our study revealed that fusion-positive CRC patients tended to be older (P = 0.005) and had tumours predominantly located in the colon (P < 0.001).

Notably, the fusion detection rate was greater for colon cancer than for rectal cancer (1.5% vs. 0.23%). Nevertheless, due to missing data, our study did not distinguish between right-sided and left-sided colon tumours. Moreover, no significant differences in clinical or molecular features were observed between Chinese and Western populations.

Gene fusions have been suggested to be associated with poor clinical outcomes [15]. Preclinical and preliminary clinical data suggest that patients with CRC tumours harbouring gene fusions might represent a population unlikely to respond to anti-EGFR treatment but might benefit from selective targeted agents [15, 20, 37]. Several clinical trials have reported the favourable efficacy of targeted therapies for patients with gene fusions, such as entrectinib for NTRK fusion and selpercatinib for *RET* fusion, which might reverse the poor prognosis [9, 12]. Further prospective clinical trials are warranted to confirm this evidence, leading to a possible change in the treatment mode for these selected populations.

Currently, testing for RAS/BRAF mutations and the MSI status is recommended for patients with CRC by major guidelines. With the recognition of the predictive value of RNF43 mutations in BRAF V600E metastatic CRC receiving anti-BRAF/EGFR combinatory therapies, routine testing for RNF43 mutations would be acceptable [38]. Our findings showed that actionable gene fusions are more prevalent in MSI-H, RAS/BRAF wildtype, or RNF43-mutated CRC. For patients who have failed to traditionally chemotherapy or targeted therapy and have limited therapeutic options, their mutational status of RAS, BRAF, and RNF43 along with MSI status might indicate the possibility of carrying actionable gene fusions and the necessity for additional RNA sequencing. Therefore, conducting RAS/BRAF and RNF43 testing for actionable gene fusions is rational, as our findings suggest potential candidates for positive actionable gene fusions.

Our study has several limitations. The NGS data from the Genecast database included 796 cancer-related genes, and gene fusions may have been missed via whole-exome/genome sequencing. Furthermore, we did not collect data on treatments or outcomes. Therefore, we were unable to analyse the therapeutic and prognostic value of the gene fusions in our cohort. Despite these limitations, our study includes the largest number of patients to date and provides insights into the genomic landscape of gene fusions in the Chinese CRC population.

# Conclusions

Approximately 1% of the unselected Chinese CRC population carries actionable gene fusions, the most common of which involve alterations in NTRK. A higher frequency of actionable gene fusions is observed in the MSI-H, RAS/BRAF wildtype, or RNF43mutated CRC population, as well as in those with colon cancer. Mapping of these molecular markers can markedly increase the fusion detection rate, which can help clinicians select candidates for fusion testing and targeted therapy.

#### Supplementary Data

Supplementary data is available at Gastroenterology Report online.

### **Authors' Contributions**

L.S. and X.-C.W. directed, conceived of, and designed the project. J.-J.Q., E.-L.Z., and L.-J.Z. collected the data. J.-J.Q., F.-R.K., J.L., Z.-H.W., and T.X. performed the analysis. F.-R.K. drafted the manuscript. X.-C.W. supervised the study and revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

### Funding

This work was financially supported by the capital health research and development of special (2022-2-7083).

# Acknowledgements

We thank AJE (https://www.aje.cn) for its linguistic assistance during the writing of this manuscript.

# **Conflicts of Interest**

J.-J.Q.,~ E.-L.Z., and L.-J.Z. are employees of Genecast Biotechnology Co., Ltd. The other authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest in this study.

### References

- Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2020. CA Cancer J Clin 2020;70:7–30.
- Tsilimigras DI, Ntanasis-Stathopoulos I, Bagante F et al. Clinical significance and prognostic relevance of KRAS, BRAF, PI3K and TP53 genetic mutation analysis for resectable and unresectable colorectal liver metastases: a systematic review of the current evidence. Surg Oncol 2018;27:280–8.
- Modest DP, Pant S, Sartore-Bianchi A. Treatment sequencing in metastatic colorectal cancer. Eur J Cancer 2019;109:70–83.
- Bellio H, Fumet JD, Ghiringhelli F. Targeting BRAF and RAS in colorectal cancer. Cancers (Basel) 2021;13: 2201–17.
- Le DT, Durham JN, Smith KN et al. Mismatch repair deficiency predicts response of solid tumors to PD-1 blockade. Science 2017; 357:409–13.
- Van Cutsem E, Cervantes A, Adam R et al. ESMO consensus guidelines for the management of patients with metastatic colorectal cancer. Ann Oncol 2016;27:1386–422.
- Messersmith WA. NCCN guidelines updates: management of metastatic colorectal cancer. J Natl Compr Canc Netw 2019; 17:599–601.
- Mertens F, Johansson B, Fioretos T et al. The emerging complexity of gene fusions in cancer. Nat Rev Cancer 2015;15:371–81.
- Doebele RC, Drilon A, Paz-Ares L, trial investigators et al. Entrectinib in patients with advanced or metastatic NTRK fusion-positive solid tumours: integrated analysis of three phase 1-2 trials. *Lancet Oncol* 2020;**21**:271–82.
- Hong DS, DuBois SG, Kummar S et al. Larotrectinib in patients with TRK fusion-positive solid tumours: a pooled analysis of three phase 1/2 clinical trials. *Lancet Oncol* 2020;**21**:531–40.
- Flaherty KT, Gray RJ, Chen AP et al. NCI-MATCH team. Molecular landscape and actionable alterations in a genomically guided cancer clinical trial: National Cancer Institute Molecular Analysis for Therapy Choice (NCI-MATCH). J Clin Oncol 2020;38:3883–94.
- Subbiah V, Wolf J, Konda B et al. Tumour-agnostic efficacy and safety of selpercatinib in patients with RET fusion-positive solid tumours other than lung or thyroid tumours (LIBRETTO-001): a phase 1/2, open-label, basket trial. Lancet Oncol 2022;23:1261–73.
- Aisner DL, Nguyen TT, Paskulin DD et al. ROS1 and ALK fusions in colorectal cancer, with evidence of intratumoral heterogeneity for molecular drivers. Mol Cancer Res 2014;12:111–8.
- Amatu A, Sartore-Bianchi A, Siena S. NTRK gene fusions as novel targets of cancer therapy across multiple tumour types. ESMO Open 2016;1:e000023.
- Pietrantonio F, Di Nicolantonio F, Schrock AB et al. ALK, ROS1, and NTRK rearrangements in metastatic colorectal cancer. J Natl Cancer Inst 2017;109: 1–10.
- Cocco E, Benhamida J, Middha S et al. Colorectal carcinomas containing hypermethylated MLH1 promoter and wild-type BRAF/KRAS are enriched for targetable kinase fusions. *Cancer* Res 2019;**79**:1047–53.
- Wang J, Li R, Li J et al. Comprehensive analysis of oncogenic fusions in mismatch repair deficient colorectal carcinomas by sequential DNA and RNA next generation sequencing. J Transl Med 2021;19:433.

- Delaye M, Ibadioune S, Julié C et al. Rational testing for gene fusion in colorectal cancer: MSI and RAS-BRAF wild-type metastatic colorectal cancer as target population for systematic screening. Eur J Cancer 2022;170:85–90.
- Bocciarelli C, Caumont C, Samaison L et al. MSI-High RAS-BRAF wild-type colorectal adenocarcinomas with MLH1 loss have a high frequency of targetable oncogenic gene fusions whose diagnoses are feasible using methods easy-to-implement in pathology laboratories. Hum Pathol 2021;114:99–109.
- Vaňková B, Vaněček T, Ptáková N et al. Targeted next generation sequencing of MLH1-deficient, MLH1 promoter hypermethylated, and BRAF/RAS-wild-type colorectal adenocarcinomas is effective in detecting tumors with actionable oncogenic gene fusions. Genes Chromosomes Cancer 2020;59:562–8.
- Cerami E, Gao J, Dogrusoz U et al. The cBio cancer genomics portal: an open platform for exploring multidimensional cancer genomics data. Cancer Discov 2012;2:401–4.
- Jang YE, Jang I, Kim S et al. ChimerDB 4.0: an updated and expanded database of fusion genes. Nucleic Acids Res 2020; 48:D817–D824.
- Ge H, Liu K, Juan T et al. FusionMap: detecting fusion genes from next-generation sequencing data at base-pair resolution. Bioinformatics 2011;27:1922–8.
- Lai Z, Markovets A, Ahdesmaki M et al. VarDict: a novel and versatile variant caller for next-generation sequencing in cancer research. Nucleic Acids Res 2016;44:e108.
- Wang K, Li M, Hakonarson H. ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic variants from high-throughput sequencing data. Nucleic Acids Res 2010;38:e164.
- Talevich E, Shain AH, Botton T et al. CNVkit: genome-wide copy number detection and visualization from targeted DNA sequencing. PLoS Comput Biol 2016;12:e1004873.
- Buhard O, Cattaneo F, Wong YF et al. Multipopulation analysis of polymorphisms in five mononucleotide repeats used to determine the microsatellite instability status of human tumors. J Clin Oncol 2006;24:241–51.

- Salipante SJ, Scroggins SM, Hampel HL et al. Microsatellite instability detection by next generation sequencing. Clin Chem 2014; 60:1192–9.
- Kloosterman WP, Coebergh van den Braak RRJ, Pieterse M et al. A systematic analysis of oncogenic gene fusions in primary colon cancer. Cancer Res 2017;77:3814–22.
- Mosele F, Remon J, Mateo J et al. Recommendations for the use of next-generation sequencing (NGS) for patients with metastatic cancers: a report from the ESMO Precision Medicine Working Group. Ann Oncol 2020;31:1491–505.
- Yakirevich E, Resnick MB, Mangray S et al. Oncogenic ALK fusion in rare and aggressive subtype of colorectal adenocarcinoma as a potential therapeutic target. Clin Cancer Res 2016;22:3831–40.
- Akhoundova D, Hussung S, Sivakumar S et al. ROS1 genomic rearrangements are rare actionable drivers in microsatellite stable colorectal cancer. Int J Cancer 2022;151:2161–71.
- Pagani F, Randon G, Guarini V et al. The landscape of actionable gene fusions in colorectal cancer. Int J Mol Sci 2019;20:5319–36.
- 34. Li MM, Datto M, Duncavage EJ et al. Standards and guidelines for the interpretation and reporting of sequence variants in cancer: a Joint Consensus Recommendation of the Association for Molecular Pathology, American Society of Clinical Oncology, and College of American Pathologists. J Mol Diagn 2017;19:4–23.
- Westphalen CB, Krebs MG, Le Tourneau C et al. Genomic context of NTRK1/2/3 fusion-positive tumours from a large realworld population. NPJ Precis Oncol 2021;5:69.
- Yu J, Yusoff PAM, Woutersen DTJ et al. The functional landscape of patient-derived RNF43 mutations predicts sensitivity to Wnt inhibition. *Cancer Res* 2020;**80**:5619–32.
- Russo M, Misale S, Wei G et al. Acquired resistance to the TRK inhibitor entrectinib in colorectal cancer. Cancer Discov 2016; 6:36–44.
- Elez E, Ros J, Fernández J et al. RNF43 mutations predict response to anti-BRAF/EGFR combinatory therapies in BRAF<sup>V600E</sup> metastatic colorectal cancer. Nat Med 2022;28:2162–70.

© The Author(s) 2024. Published by Oxford University Press and Sixth Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License (https://creativecommons. org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com

Gastroenterology Report, 2024, 12, – https://doi.org/10.1093/gastro/goae092