

## Ultra-Sensitive Mutation Detection and Genome-Wide DNA Copy Number Reconstruction by Error-Corrected Circulating Tumor DNA Sequencing

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# 11 Ultra-sensitive mutation detection and genome-wide DNA copy

# number reconstruction by error corrected circulating tumor DNA sequencing

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## 24 Running title: Error corrected circulating tumor DNA sequencing

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 barcodes, sequencing error correction.

58

#### 59 Abstract

Background: Circulating free DNA sequencing (cfDNA-Seq) can portray cancer
 genome landscapes but highly sensitive and specific technologies are necessary to
 accurately detect mutations with often low variant frequencies.

Methods: We developed a customizable hybrid-capture cfDNA-Seq technology
 using off-the-shelf molecular barcodes and a novel duplex DNA-molecule
 identification tool for enhanced error correction.

**Results**: Modelling based on cfDNA-yields from 58 patients showed this technology, 66 requiring 25 ng cfDNA, could be applied to >95% of patients with metastatic 67 colorectal cancer (mCRC). cfDNA-Seg of a 32-gene/163.3kbp target region detected 68 100% of single nucleotide variants with 0.15% variant frequency in spike-in 69 experiments. Molecular barcode error correction reduced false positive mutation 70 calls by 97.5%. In 28 consecutively analyzed patients with mCRC, 80 out of 91 71 mutations previously detected by tumor tissue sequencing were called in the cfDNA. 72 73 Call rates were similar for point mutations and indels. cfDNA-Seq identified typical mCRC driver mutations in patients where biopsy sequencing had failed or did not 74 include key mCRC driver genes. Mutations only called in cfDNA but undetectable in 75 76 matched biopsies included a subclonal resistance driver mutation to anti-EGFR antibodies in *KRAS*, parallel evolution of multiple *PIK3CA* mutations in two cases,
and *TP53* mutations originating from clonal hematopoiesis. Furthermore, cfDNA-Seq
off-target read analysis allowed simultaneous genome-wide copy number profile
reconstruction in 20 of 28 cases. Copy number profiles were validated by lowcoverage whole genome sequencing.

Conclusions: This error-corrected ultra-deep cfDNA-Seq technology with a
 customizable target region and publicly available bioinformatics tools enables broad
 insights into cancer genomes and evolution.

#### 85 Introduction

Many tumors release cell free DNA (cfDNA) into the circulation, allowing the 86 analysis of cancer genetic aberrations from blood samples [1-6]. Such 'liquid 87 biopsies' can inform tailored therapies [7] or predict recurrences after surgery [8, 9]. 88 cfDNA analysis also permits subclonal mutation detection that is often missed by 89 biopsies due to spatial intratumor heterogeneity [10, 11]. Genetic techniques with 90 high analytical sensitivity and low false positive error rates are crucial for accurate 91 cfDNA-Seq due to low tumor-derived cfDNA fractions and low abundances of 92 subclonal mutations. Digital droplet PCR (ddPCR) and BEAMing assays can 93 accurately detect point mutations present at frequencies ≤0.1% but are restricted to 94 95 the analysis of a small number of genomic loci [8, 12]. Targeted next generation sequencing (NGS) can interrogate larger regions such as gene panels but the error 96 rate of NGS complicates the calling of mutations with variant allele frequencies 97 (VAFs) <5% [13]. Error correction through random molecular barcodes (MBC) has 98 been incorporated into NGS cfDNA assays to reduce this error rate [14, 15] and has 99 enabled mutation calling with VAFs ≤0.1%. However, these methods have often 100 used amplicon sequencing, which can hamper coverage of entire genes due to 101 primer design restrictions. Some methods have employed solution hybrid-capture, 102 which is ideal to target entire genes, but used bespoke or proprietary rather than off-103 the-shelf reagents and publicly available bioinformatics tools, limiting their broad 104 application for clinical or research purposes. 105

Here we assessed how novel, commercially available off-the-shelf MBC reagents combined with customized capture-based target enrichment technology could be optimized for ultra-deep error-corrected cfDNA-Seq. We developed a

duplex-DNA molecule calling tool to improve the calling accuracy and assessed
 concordance of mutation calls from cfDNA with clinical grade tumor tissue
 sequencing in patients with metastatic colorectal cancer (mCRC).

112 METHODS

#### 113 Patients and samples

Plasma samples and clinical data were available from the FOrMAT trial 114 (Feasibility Of Molecular characterization Approach to Treatment [16], Chief 115 Investigator: N Starling ClinicalTrials.gov NCT02112357). Healthy donor (HD) cfDNA 116 was obtained through the Tissue Collection Framework to Improve Outcomes in 117 Solid Tumours (Chief Investigator: T Powles). Both trials were approved by UK 118 ethics committees and all patients provided written informed consent. Details of 119 clinical trials, patients, samples, sample processing and experimental techniques are 120 provided in the online Supplemental Methods file. 121

122

#### 123 cfDNA sequencing

<sup>124</sup>SureSelect<sup>XT-HS</sup> (Agilent) was used to prepare sequencing libraries using our <sup>125</sup>optimized protocol (online Supplemental Methods file) and a custom designed <sup>126</sup>SureSelect bait-library (online Supplemental Table 1). Sequencing libraries were <sup>127</sup>clustered using the cBot and sequenced with paired-end 75 reads on an Illumina <sup>128</sup>HiSeq2500 in rapid mode.

SureCall software (version 4.0.1.45, Agilent) was used to trim and align fastq reads to the hg19 reference genome with default parameters and for MBC deduplication, permitting one base mismatch within each MBC. Consensus families

comprising of single reads were removed, on-target depths were assessed andvariants were called with SureCall SNPPET.

To identify variants supported by duplexes we developed the freely availableduplexCaller bioinformatics tool [17].

All variant positions identified in patient cfDNA were assessed in six HD samples using bam-readcount [18]. Most called variants were absent in HD samples (online Supplemental Table 2) but mutations with VAF less than double that of an identical variant in HD were removed as false positives.

BAM files resulting from MBC de-duplication before removal of single-read consensus families were used to generate genome-wide DNA copy number profiles with CNVkit [19], with Antitarget average size set to 30 kb. HD samples were used as the normal reference pooled dataset.

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#### 145 Low coverage whole genome sequencing (IcWGS)

Genomic libraries were constructed from 10 ng cfDNA with the NEBNext Ultra II kit and sequenced with 100bp single-end reads on HiSeq2500 in rapid mode (0.42x median coverage). Data was aligned (hg19 reference genome) with Bowtie (v0.12.9), and processed as described [20]. logRatios were normalised against a gender-matched pooled dataset from HD cfDNA (9 male, 8 female) before segmentation and median centering.

152

153 **ddPCR** 

154 ddPCR was performed in case 8 (BRAF V600E) and to validate discordant 155 variants between cfDNA and tumor tissue. 4 of 11 such cases had sufficient 156 remaining cfDNA to validate subclonal variants (online Supplemental Methods file).

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## cfDNA sequencing with a commercial kit

159 25 ng, 17 ng and 25 ng cfDNA (cases 3, 15, and 23, respectively) were 160 processed using the Roche AVENIO Expanded kit as per the manufacturer's 161 protocol. Libraries were sequenced with 151 bp paired-end reads on Illumina 162 NextSeq500 to 2,689-6,420x depth after de-duplication. Data was analyzed using 163 the Roche AVENIO ctDNA Analysis Software v1.0.0 with default parameters.

164

#### 165 **RESULTS**

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## cfDNA sequencing optimization

Modelling based on cfDNA yields from 58 patients with mCRC showed that 25 167 ng of cfDNA could be extracted from 20-30 ml blood from >95% of cases (online 168 Supplemental Figure 2C). 25 ng was therefore chosen as our standard cfDNA input 169 quantity. We designed a solution hybrid-capture panel targeting 32 genes including 170 all major CRC driver genes, (163.3 kb, online Supplemental Table 1) and used 171 Agilent SureSelect<sup>XT-HS</sup> kit, which tags each DNA strand with a random 10-base 172 MBC, for sequencing library preparation. The SureSelect<sup>XT-HS</sup> protocol was optimized 173 to perform reliably with 25 ng cfDNA input (online Supplemental Methods file). The 174 fraction of on-target reads is usually low when using small targeted sequencing 175 panels and low input DNA, so we first assessed how the on-target fraction could be 176 optimized by varying the stringency of the post-capture wash. Two library 177

preparations were started in parallel from each of four cfDNA samples, using the 1.5 178 h fast-hybridization protocol. Then, post-capture washes were performed at 65°C in 179 one library and at 70°C in the other. Sequencing generated similar read numbers 180 (65°C: 92,820,887; 70°C: 102,582,694 median reads/sample) and the on-target 181 fraction significantly (p=0.0011) increased from 30-35% to 71-74% with the 70°C 182 protocol (Figure 1A). Hence, the more stringent conditions were chosen for our 183 standard protocol. Target exon coverage was even with this solution hybrid-capture 184 185 technique and was not subject to the gaps commonly seen with commercial amplicon sequencing designs (online Supplemental Figure 3). This would be 186 particularly advantageous for the analysis of tumor suppressor genes where driver 187 mutations often spread across large parts of the gene. 188

We next used MBCs to de-duplicate sequencing data and perform error 189 correction. SureCall creates families of reads with matched MBC that also align to 190 the same genomic position and then identifies the most likely consensus sequence 191 for each family (Figure 1B). This reduces random errors arising during PCR and 192 sequencing, as these are not common to all reads of a family. Consensus families 193 contained a median of 8 to 15 supporting reads in samples sequenced with the 194 optimized protocol (online Supplemental Figure 4), which was within the optimal 195 range for barcode error correction [21]. After MBC de-duplication, the median on-196 target depth with the 70°C protocol was 1,782x. This was theoretically sufficient to 197 achieve a detection limit as low as 1 mutated DNA fragment in 1,782 molecules 198 (0.056%). However, the analytical sensitivity for *de novo* mutation detection is lower 199 in practice since more than one read is required to support robust bioinformatics 200 calling. Thus, we designed a mixing experiment to test the ability to detect and 201 bioinformatically call mutations with low VAFs. 202

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#### Assay sensitivity and specificity

204 cfDNA from two donors that differed in 16 homozygous single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) within the targeted region were used to prepare a dilution 205 series with 0.15%, 0.075% and 0.0375% cfDNA from donor A spiked into cfDNA 206 from donor B. Sequencing a median of 74,030,118 reads/sample generated a 207 median on-target depth of 21,651x before de-duplication. Data from each sample 208 was then processed in two ways: first, we used MBCs for de-duplication and calling 209 of consensus sequences; second, we performed standard de-duplication using only 210 the genomic position of each read pair. The median on-target depth was higher after 211 212 MBC de-duplication (MBC 2,420x versus 1,587x with standard de-duplication; Figure 1C). This was anticipated as different MBCs tag distinct DNA fragments that would 213 otherwise be counted as duplicates. For example, the forward and reverse strands of 214 each original 'duplex' dsDNA molecule were separately tagged by MBC and so were 215 retained as independent consensus families (Figure 1D). Standard de-duplication 216 cannot distinguish these reads from PCR duplicates. 217

We first investigated whether the spiked-in SNPs could be re-identified in the 218 MBC de-duplicated BAM files using the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) [22] and 219 tried to understand patterns associated with true positive variants. All 16 SNPs were 220 detected in the 0.15% mix, 14/16 at 0.075% and 11/16 at 0.0375% mixing ratios 221 (Figure 1E). Thus, our ultra-deep cfDNA-Seq assay allowed robust detection of 222 variants at 0.15% and retained a high detection capability at 0.075%. We then 223 assessed if MBC error correction improved the bioinformatics calling accuracy of 224 ultra-low frequency variants, which is more challenging than re-identification of 225 known variants. While interrogating sequencing data manually in IGV, we had 226 227 observed that all true variants were at least supported by two consensus families

mapping to the same genomic position but differing in whether the variant was seen 228 in read 1 or read 2 in paired-end sequencing (Figure 1D). These were highly likely to 229 represent the forward and reverse strand of the double-stranded input cfDNA 230 molecule as observed previously [15]. Based on this observation, we developed the 231 duplexCaller bioinformatics tool that identified variants supported by duplex reads 232 (online Supplemental Methods file) and added the requirement for such a 'duplex-233 configuration' to be present to accept a mutation as genuine. The presence of a 234 variant in at least one additional family with a different alignment position was also 235 236 added to the post-call filters to assure high specificity. Thus, a variant had to be present in ≥3 consensus DNA families in order to be accepted as a mutation call in 237 the MBC de-duplicated data. For a meaningful comparison, mutations in the 238 standard de-duplicated data were also required to be present in  $\ge$ 3 reads. 239

240 We then compared SureCall calls for the mixing experiment on standardversus MBC-deduplicated data and quantified how many of the homozygous SNPs 241 from sample A that were present at 0.15% in the cfDNA mixture were called. 242 Although samples A and B differed at 16 homozygous SNP positions, only the 9 243 variant SNPs in spiked-in sample A could be assessed for capability to call at low 244 245 frequency against the reference genome. The other 7 SNPs were reference wildtype in spiked-in sample A and so could not be called. Mutation calling after standard 246 de-duplication with low stringency caller settings (variant call quality threshold 247 [VCQT]=40) detected 5/9 homozygous SNPs (Figure 1F) but also generated 156 248 additional calls. These additional variants were likely false positives, since they had 249 not been identified by deep sequencing of the individual cfDNA samples used in the 250 mixing experiment. Stepwise increase of the VCQT reduced false positives but this 251 was accompanied by a loss of analytical sensitivity. When the same data were called 252

using MBCs and a low stringency VCQT=40 (Figure 1F), 4 of the spiked-in SNPs 253 were called with only 2 likely false positive variants. We assessed why calling with 254 MBC error correction failed to identify the 5 other SNPs. Each of these had VAFs 255 <0.1% when visualized in IGV [23], which was below the minimum VAF of 0.1% that 256 can be called by SureCall. We also assessed the number of false positive calls in 257 standard de-duplicated data at the maximum VCQT that identified the same four true 258 positive variants detected with MBC: 81 likely false positives were called compared 259 to just 2 using MBC. Hence at the same analytical sensitivity, de-duplication using 260 the MBCs dramatically decreased false positives by 97.5%. Mutation calling in 6 HD 261 samples subjected to cfDNA-Seq only identified heterozygous and homozygous 262 SNPs but no mutations with lower frequency (online Supplemental Table 3), further 263 264 supporting the high analytical specificity of this MBC technology.

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## Concordance of cfDNA- and tumor-sequencing in mCRC patients

cfDNA from 28 patients with mCRC were consecutively analyzed. Seven were sequenced with the 65°C protocol and 21 with the 70°C protocol. The median sequencing depth was higher with 70°C (2,087x) than 65°C (1,205x) (Figure 2A).

We then analyzed the concordance and discordance of mutation calls within the target regions common to the tumor biopsy sequencing assay and our cfDNA-Seq panel. Biopsies of 23 cases had been sequenced with the FOrMAT NGS panel (online Supplemental Table 4) and four biopsies had been subjected to routine clinical amplicon sequencing of 5 genes (*BRAF*, *KRAS*, *NRAS*, *PIK3CA* and *TP53*). One case had failed tissue sequencing.

275 88% (80/91) of all mutations that had been found by tumor sequencing were
276 called in the cfDNA (Figure 2A). All 11 mutations not called in cfDNA were from only

3 cases. Inspection of the sequencing data on IGV revealed that 5/11 mutations were present in cfDNA at VAFs below the SureCall detection limit (Figure 2B). Sufficient cfDNA remained from case 8 for orthogonal analysis by ddPCR. Using manufacturer-validated ddPCR-probes for the *BRAF* V600E mutation we identified 2,830 wild type DNA fragments but no mutated fragments (data not shown). This confirmed that the absence of sufficiently abundant tumor-derived cfDNA molecules, rather than technical failure, explained the inability to detect mutations.

We next assessed mutations called by cfDNA-Seg in genes that had not been 284 sequenced in corresponding tumor tissue. APC mutations were detected in each of 4 285 cases whose tumors had only been analyzed with the 5-gene amplicon panel (Figure 286 2A). Furthermore, one mutation was found in each of FBXW7, CTNNB1, TCF7L2, 287 ATM and SMAD4. We also detected mutations in APC, TP53 and KRAS in case 28 288 that had failed prior tumor tissue sequencing attempts. In total, 11 of these 13 289 mutations (85%) encoded protein changes previously reported in the COSMIC 290 cancer mutation database [24] and all variants in the tumour suppressor genes APC 291 and FBXW7 were truncating and hence likely driver mutations. This demonstrated 292 that our assay could detect biologically and clinically important cancer mutations 293 294 directly from cfDNA.

We then investigated mutations that had been called in cfDNA but were absent when the same gene had been analyzed in tumor tissue: 7 in *TP53*, 7 in *ATM*, 3 in *PIK3CA*, 2 in *SMAD4* and one each in *KRAS*, *FBXW7* and *TCF7L2*. All four mutations called in the oncogenes *KRAS* and *PIK3CA* were canonical cancer driver mutations. 8/18 mutations (44%) located in tumor suppressor genes were nonsense mutations or encoded for amino acid changes found recurrently in cancer [24], suggesting that these were also driver mutations. Together, 54.5% (12/22) of

variants detected only in cfDNA were likely cancer driver mutations. The VAFs of 302 mutations that were only detected in cfDNA but not in tumor tissue were a mean 303 105-fold lower than the VAF of the most abundant mutation detected in the same 304 cfDNA sample (online Supplemental Figure 1); these variants likely originated from 305 small cancer subclones. However, two TP53 mutations present in cfDNA but not in 306 matched tumor tissue (Cases 9, 13) were also detected with similar VAF in DNA 307 from blood cells (online Supplemental Table 5). These TP53 mutations hence 308 originated from a clonal expansion of blood cells [9], termed clonal hematopoiesis 309 310 [25, 26].

311 An activating mutation in KRAS (Q61H) was detected with a VAF of 0.37% in cfDNA but not in the matched tumor (case 10). This was the only patient that had 312 received treatment with the anti-EGFR antibody cetuximab prior to blood collection 313 and the KRAS mutation was likely a driver of acquired resistance that evolved during 314 therapy [27]. ddPCR testing of cfDNA provided orthogonal validation (Figure 2C), 315 showing that our technology is suitable for the detection of subclonal resistance 316 driver mutations. Suspected driver mutations in *PIK3CA* were frequently discordant 317 with 3/7 mutations only detectable in cfDNA (E545K, H1046R, R1023\*). Two cases 318 (17,26) harbored parallel evolution events, as further activating *PIK3CA* mutations 319 were present in the tumors and the cfDNA. These results are consistent with studies 320 showing that intratumor heterogeneity of *PIK3CA* mutations is common in mCRCs 321 whereas heterogeneity is rare for mutations in APC and, in tumors not previously 322 treated with anti-EGFR antibodies, for KRAS, NRAS and BRAF mutations [28]. 323

Mutations in *ATM* tumor suppressor gene were called in 8/28 cfDNA samples. Sequencing of matched tumor showed wild-type sequence in seven of these and one tumor had only been sequenced with the 5-gene panel. All *ATM* mutations had

low VAFs (median: 0.17%) and only 2/8 encode protein changes previously
 catalogued in cancer [24], making it difficult to interpret their functional relevance. No
 *ATM* mutations were called in 6 healthy donors, indicating that the mutation calls in
 cfDNA from mCRC patients are unlikely the result of a high false positive call rate in
 this gene.

Next, we used ddPCR to validate further subclonal mutations called in cfDNA but not in tumor tissue. All subclonal variants with VAF <2% from samples where sufficient cfDNA material was available and where a custom ddPCR-assay could be designed were assessed (online Supplemental Methods file). ddPCR validated all 6 tested mutations and VAFs were similar to those found by our error-corrected cfDNA technology (Figure 2D, online Supplemental Table 6).

Additionally, we re-sequenced three cfDNA samples containing low VAF 338 (<2%) mutations (cases 3, 15, 23) with the commercially available AVENIO ctDNA 339 340 kit. 9/10 point mutations in genes targeted by both panels were concordant (online Supplemental Table 7). The low frequency TP53 R175H variant in case 3 was not 341 called by AVENIO software but was seen to be present upon manual review of the 342 BAM file. Three indels in APC (cases 3,23) were not called by AVENIO analysis. 343 This comparison further confirmed the reliable performance of our customizable 344 cfDNA assay. 345

## 346 Genome wide DNA copy number aberration analysis

We finally assessed if we could maximise the information gain from a targeted cfDNA assay through simultaneous reconstruction of genome-wide copy number aberration (CNA) profiles. Applying the CNVkit-package [19] that uses off-target reads to infer copy number changes, we generated genome-wide CNA profiles for

20/28 cases (71%) (Figure 3A-B). Chromosome arm losses (Chr17p and 18q) and 351 gains (Chr1q, 7, 8q, 13 and 20), which are typical for mCRC, were observed [29]. All 352 8 samples with a flat CNA profile had very low maximum VAFs ≤5.6%. A high-level 353 targetable amplification involving the ERBB2 oncogene was detected despite a low 354 tumor-derived cfDNA fraction (8.6% VAF) in case 11 (Figure 3C). This amplification 355 had also been detected in the matched tumor, validating the ability to profile CNAs 356 with our cfDNA-Seq technology. No other amplifications had been detected in tumor 357 biopsies with the FOrMAT NGS panel. Low-coverage whole genome sequencing is 358 an established approach for genome wide copy number profiling and we applied this 359 to 18 samples with sufficient cfDNA. This independent validation showed a median 360 weighted Spearman correlation of 0.886 with the profiles generated from cfDNA-Seq 361 362 using CNVkit (online Supplemental Figure 5).

#### 363 **DISCUSSION**

Our ultra-deep and error-corrected cfDNA-Seg protocol that uses off-the-shelf 364 MBCs in combination with a custom-designed solution hybrid capture panel detected 365 100% of the known variants with VAFs of 0.15% in a mixing experiment. The use of 366 MBC error correction and the requirement for variants to be supported by a duplex-367 pair of consensus families reduced false positive mutation calls by 97.5% while 368 maintaining true positives. We developed the DuplexCaller bioinformatics tool, which 369 can be run directly after MBC de-duplication to facilitate mutation calling; all 370 bioinformatics tools for the analysis of data generated with this technology are hence 371 freely available. Our approach did not rely on background error correction models 372 that are constructed from large numbers of healthy donor samples and are therefore 373 impractical for applications requiring frequently changing custom gene panels, 374 375 including clinical assay development.

Importantly, the 1.5 h fast-hybridization step (standard protocol: 16h) used in our assay dramatically reduces library preparation time which is advantageous when fast turnaround is critical. Increasing the wash temperature after capture dramatically reduced off target reads. The higher temperature likely relaxes the target/bait-bond in hybridised molecules with a higher number of mismatches, reducing the nonspecific carry over of DNA fragments into the library.

cfDNA-Seq of 28 mCRC patients demonstrated that 88% of mutations 382 detected by clinical grade tumor tissue sequencing were also called in cfDNA. This 383 detection capability is similar to that reported for MBC-error corrected cfDNA-Seq 384 385 with a 5-gene assay using amplicons (87.2%) [1] and a 54-gene assay using targetcapture (85%) [14, 30]. Furthermore, indels are more difficult to call than point 386 mutations. Yet, our cfDNA assay called 23/26 indels (88.5%) that were known based 387 388 on tumor sequencing, showing a similar performance to point mutation detection (87.7% called). 389

390 cfDNA-Seq detected several additional driver mutations not reported by tumor sequencing. Seven were in TP53. Two were also observed in the matched blood 391 cells, indicating that they originated from clonal hematopoiesis. The discovery of 392 clonal hematopoiesis in 7% of our cohort demonstrates the importance of 393 sequencing DNA extracted from blood cells to avoid misinterpreting such variants as 394 cancer-associated mutations. In one patient who received cetuximab therapy, we 395 detected a KRAS Q61H variant that was absent from the matched tumor and likely 396 represents the evolution of a drug resistant subclone. Multiple PIK3CA activating 397 mutations detected in two anti-EGFR therapy naive patients represent parallel 398 evolution events. These examples show that our cfDNA assay can provide insights 399 into cancer evolution. Because the minimally invasive nature of cfDNA-Seq allows 400

401 application at multiple time-points, this could be used to monitor the evolution of subclonal drug resistance driver mutations without prior knowledge of specific loci 402 where resistance mutations will occur. We finally demonstrate that cfDNA-Seq allows 403 genome-wide CNA reconstruction and validate this against low-coverage genome 404 sequencing. As the number of targeted therapies increases, custom target 405 enrichment panels that can be readily adapted and scaled for the tumor type and 406 therapeutic agent in question could be used to investigate the full tumor genomic 407 landscape of point mutations, indels and CNAs. This would facilitate the identification 408 of novel resistance mechanisms. Importantly, this ultra-sensitive cfDNA-Seq 409 technology can also address the subset of 20% of patients with mCRC who cannot 410 be molecularly profiled due to unobtainable or inadequate biopsy tissues [16, 31]. 411

In conclusion, this cfDNA-Seq approach with customizable and off-the-shelf reagents showed a similar performance to published techniques that use bespoke reagents and more complex analyses.

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#### 422 Data access

423 Sequencing fastq files have been deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read
424 Archive (SRA submission code SUB3510375).

425

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436

## 437 **Disclosure Declaration**

The authors had pre-marketing access to Agilent SureSelect<sup>XT-HS</sup> reagents. BH is an
employee of Agilent. The other authors received no financial support or
compensation from Agilent.

441

#### 442 Statement of Author Contributions

SM, LJB and MG conceived the study and wrote the manuscript; SM, LJB and BG

444 processed samples; SM, LJB and BH developed the cfDNA-Seq assay; DK and SL

developed the DuplexCaller tool; SM, LJB, DK, AW, MND and MG analyzed the

data; SYM, MD, AP, AO, IR, RB, DW, AWoth, KvL, IC, DC, NS and TP provided

- clinical data and samples. KF and NM sequenced the cfDNA libraries, PZP, DGDC,
  SH and MH provided tumor biopsy sequencing data from the FORMAT panel and
  ran the Avenio analysis, NT and BOL provided support for ddPCR.
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## References

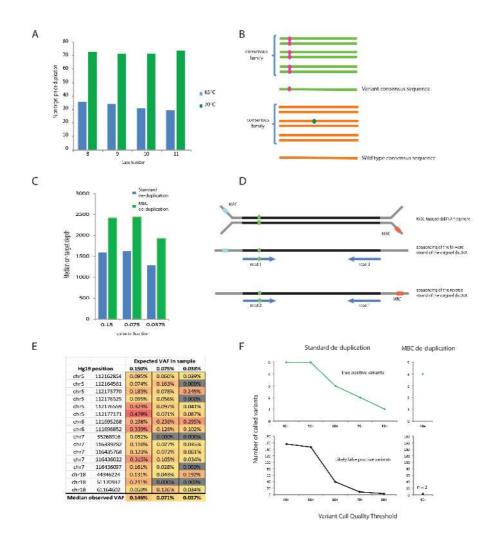
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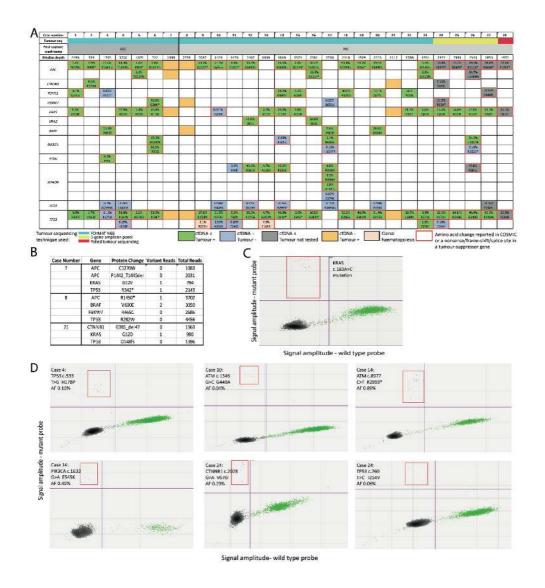
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#### **Figures**



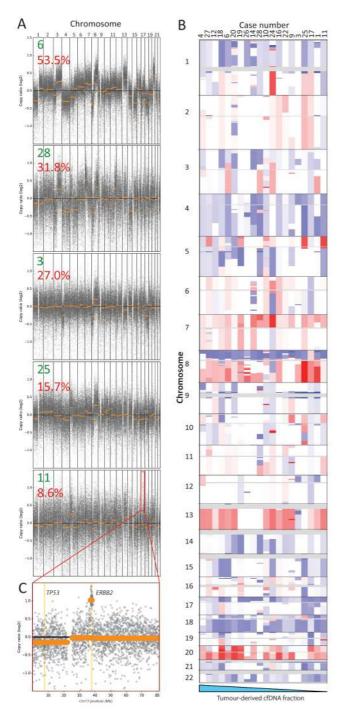
**Figure 1. (A)** Percentage of reads on-target before de-duplication in samples prepared with 65°C vs 70°C post-capture washes. **(B)** Graphic depicting the principles of MBC error correction. Reads with the same MBC that map to the identical genomic location are grouped into a consensus family. If a variant (pink) occurs in all reads then the consensus read sequence will be variant for that base (top). However if a variant (green) is only detected in a small fraction of the reads in the family, it will be disregarded and the consensus read sequence will be wild-type (bottom). **(C)** cfDNA mixing experiment: 25 ng mixes of donor A spiked into donor B at 0.15%, 0.075% and 0.0375%. **(D)** Illustration of duplex read pair detection. A double stranded cfDNA fragment (black) containing a variant (green) is depicted, ligated to Y-shaped MBC-tagged adapters (grey). **(E)** Expected and observed variant allele frequencies (VAF) and genomic positions for the 16 SNPs in the cfDNA mixing

experiment. **(F)** Impact of MBC error correction on true positive and false positive calls. The top panels show the number of true positive variants (expected SNPs) that were bioinformatically called in the mixing experiment with standard de-duplication (left) and MBC de-duplication (right) using different variant call quality thresholds. The lower panel shows the number of likely false positive variant calls (not observed in the deep sequencing of either cfDNA sample used in the mix) for standard de-duplication (left) and MBC de-duplication (right).



**Figure 2 (A)** Concordance of mutations identified by cfDNA-Seq and by sequencing of tumor material. Mutations identified in both cfDNA-Seq and tumor sequencing are colored green. Novel variants called by cfDNA-Seq and not by tumor sequencing are colored blue. Variants not detected by cfDNA-Seq that were detected in tumor sequencing are colored orange. Pink indicates clonal hematopoiesis. Red outlines indicate mutations reported as tumorigenic in COSMIC. Variants in grey have been identified in the cfDNA of patients that either had been sequenced using the limited 5-gene amplicon panel or failed FOrMAT sequencing. Percentages indicate VAF in cfDNA. **(B)** Read depth and number of consensus family reads supporting each of the 11 variants in cases 7, 8, and 21 that had not been called in cfDNA but had previously been detected in tumor tissue. Median VAF 0.066%. **(C)** ddPCR validation

of the *KRAS* c.183A>C mutation that results in the amino acid change Q61H in case 10. Green dots: droplets with wild-type DNA, blue dots (outlined by the red quadrant): droplets with mutant DNA, black dots: droplets that have no incorporated DNA. **(D)** ddPCR validation of 6 subclonal mutations called in cfDNA but not in tumor tissue.



**Figure 3 (A)** Genome wide copy number aberrations can be detected from targeted cfDNA-Seq, even where tumor content is low. Representative log copy ratio plots for five cases (green number) in our cohort with tumor content ranging from 53.5% to 8.6% (red number indicates max VAF) are shown. **(B)** Genome wide heat map of segmented copy number raw log ratio data after amplitude normalization. Gains are red and losses are blue. Profiles are ordered (left to right) from highest to lowest tumor content (based on maximum VAF) for all 20 cases that had a visible CNA

profile. **(C)** Focused log copy ratio plot of chromosome 17 for case 11 which had a high level amplification of *ERBB2*.