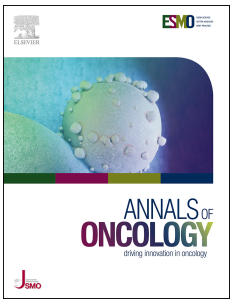

Oncogene-addicted metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up†

L.E. Hendriks, K. Kerr, J. Menis, T.S. Mok, U. Nestle, A. Passaro, S. Peters, D. Planchard, E.F. Smit, B.J. Solomon, G. Veronesi, M. Reck, on behalf of the ESMO Guidelines Committee

PII: S0923-7534(22)04781-0

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.12.009

Reference: ANNONC 1162

To appear in: *Annals of Oncology*

Received Date: 9 September 2022

Revised Date: 11 December 2022

Accepted Date: 12 December 2022

Please cite this article as: Hendriks LE, Kerr K, Menis J, Mok TS, Nestle U, Passaro A, Peters S, Planchard D, Smit EF, Solomon BJ, Veronesi G, Reck M, on behalf of the ESMO Guidelines Committee, Oncogene-addicted metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up†, *Annals of Oncology* (2023), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.12.009.

Oncogene-addicted metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up†

L. E. Hendriks[1], K. Kerr[2], J. Menis[3], T. S. Mok[4], U. Nestle[5,6], A. Passaro[7], S. Peters[8], D. Planchard[9], E.F Smit[10,11], B. J. Solomon[12], G. Veronesi[13,14] & M. Reck[15], on behalf of the ESMO Guidelines Committee*

[1]Department of Pulmonology, GROW School for Oncology and Reproduction, Maastricht University Medical Center, Maastricht, The Netherlands; [2]Aberdeen Royal Infirmary, Aberdeen University Medical School, Aberdeen, UK; [3]Medical Oncology Department, University and Hospital Trust of Verona, Verona; [4]Department of Clinical Oncology, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Prince of Wales Hospital, Hong Kong, China; [5]Department of Radiation Oncology, University Hospital Freiburg, Freiburg; [6]Department of Radiation Oncology, Kliniken Maria Hilf, Moenchengladbach, Germany; [7]Division of Thoracic Oncology, European Institute of Oncology IRCCS, Milan, Italy; [8]Department of Oncology, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Vaudois, Lausanne University, Lausanne, Switzerland; [9]Department of Medical Oncology, Thoracic Group, Gustave-Roussy Villejuif, France; [10]Thoracic Oncology Service, Netherlands Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; [11]Department of Pulmonary Diseases, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands; [12]Department of Medical Oncology, Peter MacCallum Cancer Centre, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia; [13]Faculty of Medicine and Surgery-Vita-Salute San Raffaele University, Milan; [14]Division of Thoracic Surgery, IRCCS San Raffaele Scientific Institute, Milan, Italy; [15]Department of Thoracic Oncology, Airway Research Center North, German Center for Lung Research, Lung Clinic, Grosshansdorf, Germany.

**Correspondence to:* ESMO Guidelines Committee, ESMO Head Office, Via Ginevra 4, CH-6900 Lugano, Switzerland. E-mail: clinicalguidelines@esmo.org (ESMO Guidelines Committee).

†Approved by the ESMO Guidelines Committee: February 2022, last update September 2022. This publication supersedes the previously published version—Ann Oncol 2018;27 (Suppl 4): iv192-iv237.

Running header: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline for Oncogene-addicted mNSCLC

Word count: 12,561 (count excludes title page, acknowledgements, funding and disclosure sections); References: 112; Figures: 5; Supplementary Material: 1.

Key words:

ESCAT, ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline, ESMO-MCBS, oncogene-addicted non-small-cell lung cancer, treatment

Highlights (online only):

- This ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline provides key recommendations and algorithms for managing oncogene-addicted mNSCLC.
- The guideline covers diagnosis, staging, risk assessment, treatment and disease monitoring.
- ESMO-MCBS scores are given to describe the levels of evidence for treatment choices.
- ESCAT scores are given to describe the evidence level for genomic alterations as biomarkers for using targeted therapies.
- Recommendations are based on available scientific data and the authors' collective expert opinion.
- In clinical practice, all recommendations provided need to be discussed with patients in a shared decision-making approach.

INCIDENCE AND EPIDEMIOLOGY

Details on incidence and epidemiology are covered in the **Supplementary Material Section 1**.

DIAGNOSIS, PATHOLOGY AND MOLECULAR BIOLOGY

Diagnostic procedures

Details on diagnostic procedures are covered in the **Supplementary Material Section 2**. See **Supplementary Figure S1** for a flow chart on diagnosis and testing biopsy/cytology samples in stage IV non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC).

Pathology and molecular biology

Biomarker testing is essential to identify subgroups of NSCLC with oncogenic drivers that can be therapeutically targeted. These drivers are mainly found in lung adenocarcinomas (LUADs). Demonstration of the specific molecular alteration is necessary to tailor treatment with the appropriate targeted therapy. The frequency of oncogenic drivers in NSCLC as well as general discussion of testing strategy and methodology, including the use of liquid biopsies, can be found in **the Supplementary Material Section 3**.

Many parameters might determine which tests are required; pre-eminent amongst them is access to appropriate drugs.[1] Testing is mandatory for oncogenic drivers for which drugs are approved for routine usage. Broader testing may be used to support early drug access or clinical trials.[2, 3] For personalised therapy approaches, European Society for Medical Oncology (ESMO) Scale for Clinical Actionability of molecular Targets (ESCAT) classifications[4] need to be considered (**Supplementary Table S1**).

Clinically-relevant *EGFR* gene mutations in NSCLC include substitutions, deletions and insertions in exons 18-21 that activate the tyrosine kinase and variably confer sensitivity or resistance to available EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) or other drugs.[3, 5] The most common alterations conferring sensitivity to first- to third-generation TKIs are the exon 21 L858R substitution and exon 19 deletion mutations. At a minimum when resources or material are limited, these mutations should be

evaluated. The next most common alteration is a large group of exon 20 insertions mostly resistant to current EGFR-TKIs but sensitive to some emerging agents (discussed in the treatment paragraph including *EGFR* exon 20 insertions). Other mutations, including in exon 18, variably sensitise, while some mutations confer resistance and may drive disease relapse. Complete sequencing of exons 18-21 by next-generation sequencing (NGS) is strongly recommended, to identify all possible sensitising mutations. Some allele-specific *EGFR* sequencing solutions do not provide complete coverage. EGFR FISH or immunohistochemistry (IHC) have no clinical utility and should not be tested.

Fusions (rearrangements) involving *ALK, ROS1, NTRK1-3* and *RET* genes are important oncogenic drivers in small groups of LUADs.[3, 5] Each target has several TKIs available. Furthermore, *NRG1* fusions are a potential emerging target in LUADs. Oncogenic fusion proteins result in constitutive activation of the kinase and may increase fusion gene protein levels, allowing for screening of tumours for some of these fusions by IHC. Positive ALK IHC with an appropriately validated assay may be used to prescribe ALK inhibitors. Cases positive by ROS1 or NTRK IHC must be confirmed by a molecular method; this may also be preferred for ALK IHC positive cases. Fusions can be detected by FISH, or multiplex RT-PCR panel assays, the latter requiring a tailored reaction for each potential fusion gene which makes this approach more complex. RNA-based NGS is preferred for identifying an expanding range of fusion genes. If NGS is used as the primary *NTRK* screening tool, IHC confirmation should be considered.[6]

Alterations in structure and/or expression of the *MET* gene drive oncogenesis in NSCLC.[3, 5] High *MET* protein levels may be detected by IHC. Increased *MET* signalling may result from high gene copy number (GCN), either due to polysomy or true gene amplification. Detection is reliable by *in situ* hybridisation (ISH) techniques, but NGS or comparative genomic hybridisation may also identify cases. Definitions of high GCN vary and, in absence of current standardisation, confound existing data. *MET* exon 14 skipping mutations may be detected by DNA-based NGS, but RNA-based NGS may also identify additional cases missed by DNA sequencing.[7] *MET* amplification is an important resistance mechanism driving acquired resistance to

EGFR (including osimertinib) and ALK inhibitors. MET kinase inhibitors are being investigated in several scenarios and approved in the MET exon 14 skipping setting.

KRAS mutations have become an important therapeutic target in LUADs and, unlike the other targets described here, are mostly smoking related.[5] Specific inhibitors for *KRAS* G12C are now available. DNA sequencing and multiplex RT-PCR panel assays are the best approach to detection; most likely incorporated into NGS panels, as is the case for *BRAF* mutations. TKIs for *BRAF* V600E mutations are available. *HER2* exon 20 insertion mutations are rare in LUADs, but promising targeted drugs and antibody drug conjugates are in development. Therefore, these mutations need to be covered with NGS panels.

Mutations coexisting with several of the above driver alterations may influence responses to targeted therapy and require additional treatment.[8] Comutations in *TP53* may be associated with lower efficacy of EGFR, ALK and ROS1 TKIs. Testing for comutations in an NGS panel may therefore become important.

Resistance to kinase inhibitors is almost inevitable and is variably due to the emergence of therapy-resistant tumour cell clones with target gene alteration, increased bypass pathway signalling and/or phenotypic transformation (small-cell, squamous cell carcinoma or sarcomatoid carcinoma).[9] As treatments to target resistance mechanisms emerge, so does testing to detect each mechanism, and a need either for rebiopsy or, if appropriate, cell-free DNA (cfDNA) testing. Widespread use of osimertinib in the first line for *EGFR*-mutant NSCLC has decreased the importance of *EGFR* T790M detection but increases the need for identifying *MET* amplification as treatments for the latter are being evaluated.

Recommendations

- Adequate tissue material for histological diagnosis and molecular testing should be obtained to allow for individual treatment decisions [IV, A]. For recommended methods to obtain tissue, please refer to the ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline (CPG) on non-oncogene addicted mNSCLC.[10]

- Pathological diagnosis should be made according to the 2015 World Health Organization classification of lung tumours [IV, A].
- Specific subtyping of all NSCLCs is necessary for therapeutic decision making and should be carried out wherever possible. IHC stains should be used to reduce the NSCLC-not otherwise specified rate to fewer than 10% of cases diagnosed [IV, A].
- The molecular tests below are recommended in patients with advanced non-squamous cell carcinoma, and not recommended in patients with a confident diagnosis of squamous cell carcinoma, except in unusual cases, e.g. young (<50 years) patients, never/former light smokers (≤15 packyears) or long-time ex-smokers (quit smoking >15 years ago) [IV, A].
- *EGFR* mutation status should be determined [I, A]. Test methodology should have adequate coverage of mutations in exons 18-21, including those associated with resistance to some therapies [III, A]. At a minimum, when resources or material are limited, the most common activating mutations (exon 19 deletion, exon 21 L858R point mutation) should be determined [I, A].
- The availability of TKIs effective against T790M-mutant recurrent disease makes T790M testing on disease relapse on first or second generation EGFR-TKI mandatory [I, A].
- Testing for *ALK* rearrangements should be carried out [I, A].
- Detection of the *ALK* translocation by FISH remains a standard, but IHC with high-performance ALK antibodies and validated assays may be used for screening [III, A] and have been accepted as an equivalent alternative to FISH for ALK testing.
- Testing for *ROS1*-rearrangements should be carried out [II, A]. Detection of the *ROS1* translocation by FISH remains a standard; IHC may be used as a screening approach [IV, A].
- *BRAF* V600 mutation status testing should be carried out [II, A].
- Testing for *NTRK* rearrangements should be carried out [II, A]. Screening for *NTRK* rearrangements may use IHC or NGS, with appropriate testing follow-up to validate a positive result [II, A].

- Testing for *MET* exon 14 skipping mutations, MET amplifications, *RET*-rearrangements, *KRAS* G12C mutations and *HER2* mutations should be carried out [II, A].
- If available, multiplex platforms (NGS) for molecular testing are preferable [III, A].
- RNA-based NGS is preferred for identifying an expanding range of fusion genes [III, B]. Whichever testing modality is used, it is mandatory that adequate internal validation and quality control measures are in place and that laboratories participate in, and perform adequately in, external quality assurance schemes for each biomarker test [III, A].
- cfDNA (liquid biopsy) can be used to test for oncogenic drivers as well as resistance mutations, but all patients with a negative cfDNA blood test still require tissue biopsy [II, A].

STAGING AND RISK ASSESSMENT

Details on staging and risk assessment are covered in the **Supplementary Material Section 4**.

Recommendations

- A complete history including a precise smoking history and comorbidities, weight loss, performance status (PS) and physical examination must be recorded [IV, A].
- Laboratory standard tests including routine haematology, renal and hepatic functions and bone biochemistry tests are required. Other tests [e.g. lipid spectrum and creatine kinase (CK) levels] depend on toxicity of the targeted therapy that will be used [IV, A].
- An electrocardiogram is required if the targeted therapy can cause adverse cardiac events, including rhythmic modifications (e.g. long QT) [IV, A].
- Contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT) scan of the chest and upper abdomen (including the liver and adrenal glands) should be carried out at diagnosis [IV, A].

- Imaging of the central nervous system (CNS) should be considered at diagnosis for all patients with metastatic disease [IV, B] and is required for patients with neurological symptoms or signs [IV, A]. If available, CNS imaging with gadolinium enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) should be considered for all patients [IV, B].
- If bone metastases are clinically suspected, bone imaging is required [IV, B].
- Bone scintigraphy, ideally coupled with CT, can be used for detection of bone metastasis [IV, B]. PET-CT is the most sensitive modality in detecting bone metastasis [III, B].
- FDG-PET-CT and brain imaging are recommended in patients suspected for oligometastatic disease [IV, A]. In the presence of a solitary metastatic site on imaging studies, efforts should be made to obtain a cytological or histological confirmation of stage IV disease [IV, A].
- For oligometastatic disease, mediastinal disease should be pathology proven if this potentially impacts the treatment plan [IV, A].
- NSCLC must be staged according to the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC)/Union for International Cancer Control (UICC) TNM (tumour–node–metastasis) 8th edition staging manual and must be grouped into the stage categories shown in **Supplementary Tables S2 and S3** [IV, A].
- Response evaluation is recommended after 8-12 weeks of treatment, using the same radiographic investigation that initially demonstrated the tumour lesions [IV, B]. Follow-up with a PET scan is not routinely recommended, due to its relatively low specificity despite a high sensitivity [IV, C].
- Measurements and response assessment should follow Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumours (RECIST) v1.1 [IV, A].[11] The clinical relevance of RECIST in evaluating the response remains debatable as patients can derive benefit from continuing the same TKI after RECIST v1.1 progression [III, A].

MANAGEMENT OF ADVANCED AND METASTATIC DISEASE

See **Figure 1** for a treatment algorithm after positive findings on molecular tests.

EGFR-mutated NSCLC

See **Figure 2** for a treatment algorithm for patients with *EGFR*-activating mutations.

First-line EGFR-TKI for *EGFR* exon 19 deletion or exon 21 L858R.EGFR-TKIs have become the standard first-line therapy for patients with a classical activating *EGFR* mutation (exon 19 deletion or exon 21 L858R) since the confirmation of the superiority of first-generation EGFR-TKIs (gefitinib and erlotinib), over platinum-based doublet chemotherapy (ChT) in terms of tumour response rate, safety, quality of life and progression-free survival (PFS).[12, 13] Second-generation EGFR-TKIs (e.g. afatinib and dacomitinib) have a higher potency of *EGFR* inhibition via irreversible covalent binding and are pan-HER inhibitors. Afatinib compared with gefitinib improved PFS [hazard ratio (HR) 0.74, 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.57-0.95] but not overall survival (OS; HR 0.86, 95% CI 0.66-1.12) in the LUX-Lung 7 phase IIB randomised controlled trial (RCT) (*N* = 319).[14] In contrast, dacomitinib was superior to gefitinib in the ARCHER 1050 phase III RCT (*N* = 452) regarding PFS (HR 0.59, 95% CI 0.47-0.74) as well as OS, although the latter could not formally be tested due to hierarchical testing rules.[15, 16] Compared with first-generation EGFR-TKIs, second-generation TKIs are associated with more toxicities (acneiform rash, stomatitis, diarrhoea), leading to dose reduction. The third-generation EGFR-TKIs also inhibit the resistant *EGFR* exon 20 T790M mutation. Osimertinib has the largest international approval while others are approved only in South Korea and China (e.g. lazertinib and almonertinib, respectively). Osimertinib was compared with first-generation EGFR-TKIs in the FLAURA phase III RCT (*N* = 556), demonstrating a superior median PFS (mPFS) and median OS (mOS), with 18.9 versus 10.2 months (HR 0.46, 95% CI 0.37-0.57) and 38.6 versus 31.8 months (HR 0.80, 95% CI 0.64-1.00), respectively.[17, 18] Blood–brain–barrier penetration is higher for osimertinib compared with first- and second-generation EGFR-TKIs, resulting in CNS response rates over 60%.[19] Of note, patients with stable CNS metastases were allowed in the LUX-Lung 7 and FLAURA trials, while all CNS metastases were excluded from the ARCHER 1050 trial.[14, 15, 17]

Serious adverse event (AE) rates are also lower for osimertinib.[15, 17, 20] These positive outcomes have established osimertinib as a preferable first-line treatment of patients with advanced *EGFR* mutation-positive NSCLC, especially for patients with

CNS metastases. If osimertinib is not available in the first line, it is still acceptable to sequentially use first- or second-generation EGFR-TKIs (e.g. erlotinib, gefitinib, afatinib and dacomitinib) followed by osimertinib, specifically for T790M-positive resistant disease (occurring in approximately half of the patients). Other first-line strategy options are combinations of EGFR-TKIs and ChT [not European Medicines Agency (EMA) approved] or combination of EGFR-TKIs and anti-angiogenics, which have shown significant improvement in PFS in phase III RCTs (e.g. erlotinib–bevacizumab and erlotinib–ramucirumab).[21-25] However, for anti-angiogenics either no OS benefit was observed or OS data is not yet mature.[21-23] For ChT-gefitinib combinations, only superiority over first-generation EGFR-TKIs has been demonstrated for OS,[24, 25] while the benefit compared with osimertinib is not clear. Furthermore, with longer follow-up the OS benefit for ChT-gefitinib was not statistically significant anymore in the NEJ009 trial.[26] Moreover, toxicity, inconvenience for patients and costs increase with adding another treatment. Therefore, single-agent (third generation) EGFR-TKIs are still one standard first-line treatment.

First-line EGFR TKI for uncommon *EGFR* mutations. Although the majority of activating *EGFR* mutations are exon 19 deletions or the exon 21 L858R point mutation, 10% to 20% of patients present with an uncommon, non-exon 20 insertion mutation. In retrospective studies, first-generation EGFR-TKIs result in a lower overall response rate (ORR) and PFS compared with exon 19 deletions or exon 21 L858R.[27] In an analysis of several databases comprising also a pooled analysis of several Lux-Lung trials including major uncommon mutations, afatinib resulted in an ORR of 60% and a median time to treatment failure of 10.8 months.[28] Osimertinib resulted in an ORR of 53% and a mPFS of 8.2 months in a single arm phase II study.[29] Therefore, afatinib and osimertinib can be considered for uncommon *EGFR* mutations.

Management of EGFR-TKI resistance. Oligoprogression is discussed under ‘Special Populations: oligometastases’.

The *EGFR* exon 20 T790M mutation is the most common cause of resistance to first- and second-generation EGFR-TKIs, accounting for 50% to 60% of cases. In the

T790M setting, osimertinib was superior to platinum-doublet ChT in the AURA 3 phase III RCT (*N* = 419), with a mPFS of 10.1 versus 4.4 months (HR 0.30, 95% CI 0.23-0.41), respectively.[30] Therefore, the T790M status should be evaluated in all patients progressing on first- or second-generation EGFR-TKIs, either on tissue or in plasma, as also those with T790M in plasma benefit.[31] Osimertinib should be given to those with a T790M positive tumour, if not given in first line. As patients with a tumour negative for T790M obtain less benefit from osimertinib, platinum-based doublet ChT should be offered to these patients.[32]

With the increasing use of osimertinib either in first- or second-line therapy, management of resistance to osimertinib has become a major clinical issue. Resistance mechanisms are more diverse compared with first- and second-generation EGFR-TKIs, and frequency of a certain genomic finding also depends on whether osimertinib is given in first or second line.[33] The most common genomic findings include *EGFR* exon 20 C797X mutation, *MET* amplification, *ERBB2* amplification and other non-*EGFR* pathway aberrations.[33] A number of novel approaches are being developed to manage osimertinib resistance. Preferably, patients progressing on osimertinib are enrolled in a clinical trial, if possible (extensively discussed in an ESMO expert consensus paper),[34] standard treatment is platinum-doublet ChT. Patients who have moderate asymptomatic radiological progression with ongoing clinical benefit may continue with EGFR-TKIs.[35, 36] However, it is advisable to test for resistance mechanisms when feasible as tumour growth can become rapid with insufficient time to determine the resistance mechanism upon symptomatic progression.

The role of immunotherapy. Despite the tremendous success of immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) in lung cancer, the role of ICIs in the management of *EGFR* mutation-positive NSCLC remains controversial. These agents have a role in advanced-line settings after exhaustion of TKI treatment, preferably in combination with ChT and angiogenesis inhibition. The IMMUNOTARGET registry is a retrospective analysis on efficacy of single agent ICIs in patients with driver oncogenes.[37] Tumour response in patients with *EGFR* mutations was 12% and mPFS and mOS were 2.1 and 10.0 months, respectively. In a subgroup analysis (*n* =

91 patients with a sensitising *EGFR* mutation of which 78 EGFR TKI pre-treated) of the IMpower150 phase III RCT, the combination of paclitaxel–carboplatin–bevacizumab–atezolizumab compared with paclitaxel–carboplatin–bevacizumab, showed longer mOS for the quadruplet: 29.4 versus 18.1 months (HR 0.60, 95% CI 0.31-1.14). Similar results were found for the group pretreated with EGFR-TKIs.[38] Despite the limited sample size, this regimen has been widely adopted as a treatment option for patients with *EGFR* mutations after progression on EGFR-TKIs. The phase III ORIENT-31 trial (sintilimab plus the bevacizumab biosimilar IBI305 plus pemetrexed-cisplatin versus sintilimab plus pemetrexed-cisplatin versus pemetrexed-cisplatin) in which Chinese patients with a sensitizing *EGFR* mutation and progression on EGFR TKI were enrolled (N=444) supports the quadruplet regimen, as mPFS was significantly longer in the quadruplet versus ChT only arm: 6.9 versus 4.3 months (HR 0.46; 95% CI 0.34-0.64, P<0.001). OS data is not mature yet.[39]

ALK-rearranged NSCLC

See **Figure 3** for a treatment algorithm for patients with *ALK* translocations.

First-line treatment. Crizotinib, the first in class ALK-TKI,[40] improved outcomes (PFS, ORR and quality of life) compared with platinum-based ChT for the initial treatment of patients with newly diagnosed *ALK*-rearranged NSCLC in the phase III PROFILE 1014 trial,[41] establishing first-line ALK-TKIs as standard of care (SoC). Ceritinib, a second-generation ALK-TKI, was also superior to ChT in the first-line setting.[42] Newer generation ALK-TKIs, however, have been shown in phase III RCTs to be superior to crizotinib in the first-line setting, including alectinib,[43] brigatinib,[44] ensartinib (not EMA approved)[45] and lorlatinib.[46] Alectinib, brigatinib and lorlatinib are preferred for initial treatment.

Alectinib. In the ALEX phase III RCT (*N* = 303), alectinib compared with crizotinib[43] resulted in a superior investigator-assessed mPFS (34.8 versus 10.9 months, HR 0.43, 95% CI 0.32-0.58).[47] Grade 3-5 toxicities were similar in frequency for alectinib versus crizotinib (52% versus 56%). AEs that occurred more frequently

with alectinib included anaemia, myalgia, elevated bilirubin, weight gain and skin photosensitivity. CNS ORR and time to CNS progression were superior for alectinib.[48] Median OS was not reached with alectinib versus 57.4 months with crizotinib (HR 0.67, 95% CI 0.46-0.98), and the 5-year OS rates were 63% and 46%, respectively,[47] establishing a benchmark for OS in this population. Two other first-line phase III trials [J-ALEX (Japan).[49] and ALESIA (Asia)[50]] reported similar outcomes.

Brigatinib. In the ALTA-1L phase III RCT (*N* = 275), brigatinib was compared with crizotinib. The 3-year PFS by blinded, independent central review was superior for brigatinib compared with crizotinib (43% versus 19%). Median PFS was longer (24.0 versus 11.1 months; HR 0.48, 95% CI 0.35-0.66).[44] mOS was not reached in either group.

Benefit was seen across subgroups particularly in patients with brain metastases. AEs that occurred at a higher incidence with brigatinib included increased CK levels, cough, and hypertension. Interstitial lung disease (ILD)/pneumonitis occurred in 4% of patients.

Ensartinib (not EMA approved). The eXalt3 phase III RCT (*N* = 290) comparing ensartinib with crizotinib demonstrated improved mPFS with ensartinib (25.8 versus 12.7 months; HR 0.51, 95% CI 0.35-0.72).[45] Rash, elevated transaminases and pruritis were the most common AEs.

Lorlatinib. In the CROWN phase III RCT (*N* = 296) lorlatinib resulted in a significantly longer independently-determined mPFS than crizotinib [not reached (NR) versus 9.3 months; HR 0.28, 95% CI 0.19-0.41].[46] Intracranial ORR and time to intracranial progression were superior for lorlatinib. The most common AEs of any grade with lorlatinib were hyperlipidaemia, oedema, increased weight, peripheral neuropathy and cognitive effects. Lorlatinib was associated with more grade 3-4 AEs (mainly altered lipid levels) than crizotinib (72% versus 56%).

Of note, there have not been direct comparisons between the newer generation ALK-TKIs. The choice of drug will be influenced by factors including the extent of

CNS disease, patient preference and the need to manage the distinct toxicity profiles seen with these drugs.

Beyond first-line treatment. Oligoprogression is discussed under 'Special Populations: oligometastases'.

Progression on crizotinib. For patients who have had initial therapy with crizotinib, treatment with newer generation inhibitors has shown efficacy intracranially and extracranially.

In the ASCEND-5 phase III RCT (*N* = 231), ceritinib was superior to single-agent ChT (PFS HR 0.49, 95% CI 0.36-0.67) in patients with progression on crizotinib and platinum-doublet ChT.[51]

In the phase III RCT ALUR (*n* = 107), alectinib was superior to single-agent ChT (docetaxel or pemetrexed) in patients previously treated with platinum-based doublet ChT and crizotinib (PFS HR 0.32, 95% CI 0.17-0.59).[52] Grade ≥3 AEs were less frequent (27% versus 41%) and CNS efficacy was also improved with alectinib.

Activity of brigatinib in patients previously treated with crizotinib was confirmed in a phase II study where a 90 mg dose lead-in for 7 days followed by 180 mg was compared with 90 mg daily.[53] Improved results were seen with the 180 mg dosing compared with the 90 mg dosing, with mPFS of 16.7 months and intracranial ORR of 67%.

Although lorlatinib is active in patients progressing on crizotinib, with an ORR of 69%, intracranial ORR of 68% and mPFS not reached,[54] the EMA approval for lorlatinib post-crizotinib also requires prior second-generation TKI treatment.[55]

Progression on a second-generation ALK TKI. Lorlatinib has shown activity in a phase I/II study[54] in patients treated with prior second-generation TKIs. In patients treated with two or three prior ALK-TKIs (with or without previous ChT), ORR was 39%, mPFS was 6.9 months and intracranial ORR was 53%. Although response rates were higher in patients who had identified *ALK* mutations, lorlatinib remained active even in patients who did not have identified mutations. Brigatinib has also

been reported to have activity in patients progressing on alectinib in two single-arm studies with response rates of 34% to 40%.[56, 57] Rebiopsy of progressing tumour tissue or plasma circulating tumour DNA (ctDNA) analysis may identify resistance mutations or alternative mechanisms of resistance assisting selection of subsequent therapies.

Following progression on lorlatinib, ChT with a platinum-pemetrexed-based combination is recommended. The additional value of ICIs is uncertain as *ALK*-positive NSCLC has been excluded from most ICI trials with the exception of IMpower150 where benefit was observed in a small subgroup including *ALK*-positive NSCLC.[58]

Treatment of ROS1-rearranged NSCLC

See **Figure 4** for a treatment algorithm for patients with *ROS1* translocations.

Crizotinib was the first approved TKI for the treatment of *ROS1*-rearranged advanced NSCLC, based on the results of the *ROS1* expansion cohort of the phase I trial PROFILE 1001 study (*N* = 53), which included treatment-naïve patients and those who had received prior ChT. ORR was 72% and mPFS and mOS were 19.3 and 51.4 months, respectively. Four-year survival rate was 51%.[59] Based on these results, single-agent crizotinib is recommended in the first-line setting in this patient population. If patients have received crizotinib in the first-line setting, then they may be offered platinum-based ChT in the second-line setting.

Entrectinib is a next-generation ROS1 and NTRK TKI. In an updated analysis of three ongoing phase I or II trials (ALKA-372-001, STARTRK-1 and STARTRK-2), including 161 patients with *ROS1*-rearranged advanced NSCLC (60 treatment naïve, two previously treated with crizotinib), ORR was 67%, mPFS was 15.7 months and mOS was not reached. For the patients with baseline CNS metastases (*n* = 24), intracranial ORR was 79%, median intracranial PFS was 12 months and mOS was 28.3 months.[60] Entrectinib received Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approval (2019)[61] and EMA conditional marketing authorisation (2020)[62] for the treatment of *ROS1*-rearranged NSCLC not previously treated with ROS1 inhibitors. Entrectinib,

if available, based on these results, is preferred over crizotinib in patients with brain metastases.

Ceritinib was tested in a single-arm phase II study (*N* = 32), ORR was 62%, mPFS was 19.3 months for crizotinib-naïve patients (the two crizotinib-pretreated patients died or withdrew before first response evaluation) and mOS was 24 months.[63]

Lorlatinib also targets *ROS1* with preclinical activity against most known resistance mutations in the gene, and was evaluated in an open-label, single-arm, phase I-II trial (*N* = 69, 40 patients had received crizotinib as their only previous TKI, eight had previously received a non-crizotinib ROS1 TKI or two or more ROS1 TKIs). ORR was 62% in TKI-naïve patients and 35% in crizotinib-pretreated patients. Intracranial ORR was 64% (7/11) and 50% (12/24) in TKI-naïve and crizotinib pretreated patients, respectively. The median duration of response (mDoR) was 25.3 and 13.8 months for the TKI-naïve and crizotinib pre-treated patients, respectively.[64] Both ceritinib and lorlatinib are not approved by EMA.

Repotrectinib, a novel next-generation ROS1/TRK/ALK-TKI showed promising activity in the early phase TRIDENT-1 trial.[65] Repotrectinib received FDA breakthrough designation for the treatment of ROS1 positive treatment-naïve as well as TKI pretreated NSCLC.

BRAF mutations

See **Figure 5** for a treatment algorithm for patients with *BRAF* V600 mutations.

Activating *BRAF* mutations are alternative oncogenic drivers in NSCLC that are generally mutually exclusive with *EGFR* mutations and *ALK* and *ROS1* rearrangements. In a vemurafenib basket trial (*N* = 62 *BRAF* V600 mutant NSCLC), ORR was 38% in previously untreated patients (*n* = 8) and 37% in previously treated patients (*n* = 54).[66, 67] In the AcSé vemurafenib trial, no responses were observed in patients with NSCLC and a non-*BRAF* V600 mutation (*n* = 17). ORR was 45%, mDoR 6.4 months, mPFS 5.2 months and mOS 10.0 months in the *BRAF* V600 cohort (*n* = 101).[68]

A prospective, multicentre, multicohort phase II study (BRF113928) of dabrafenib monotherapy (cohort A, *n* = 78), or combination therapy with a MEK inhibitor (trametinib) beyond first line (cohort B, *n* = 57) or in first line (cohort C, *n* = 36) in patients with *BRAF* V600E-mutant mNSCLC was reported. With dabrafenib monotherapy, the ORR was 33% and mPFS and mDoR were 5.5 and 9.6 months, respectively.[69] With the combination of dabrafenib–trametinib in pretreated patients, the ORR was 68% (54.8-80.1) and mPFS and mDoR were 10.2 months (95% CI 6.9-16.7 months) and 9.8 months (95% CI 6.9-18.3 months), respectively.[70] With combination dabrafenib–trametinib therapy in treatment-naive patients, the ORR was 64% (46% to 79%) and mPFS and mDoR were 10.8 months (95% CI 7.0-14.5 months) and 10.2 months (95% CI 8.3-15.2 months), respectively.[70] In pretreated and treatment-naïve patients, respectively, the mOS was 18.2 months (95% CI 14.3-28.6 months; 4- and 5-year survival rates: 34% and 22%, respectively) and 17.3 months (95% CI 12.3-40.2 months; 4- and 5-year survival rates: 26% and 19%, respectively).[70] These results represent a clinically-significant improvement over both single-agent dabrafenib and conventional ChT. Dabrafenib in combination with trametinib is recommended for the treatment of patients with *BRAF* V600-mutant advanced or metastatic NSCLC (trial only enrolled V600E-positive patients). Very few data on the benefit of single-agent ICI in the *BRAF*-mutant population are available. Results of the international IMMUNOTARGET study (43 patients with *BRAF*-mutant, 40% V600E) showed poor outcomes in *BRAF*-mutant patients, with an ORR of 24% and a mPFS of 3.1 months.[37] Consistent with this, another retrospective study investigating the efficacy of single-agent ICI in NSCLC with oncogene addiction, confirmed that patients with *BRAF* V600-mutant (*n* = 28 patients) showed a response rate of 26%.[71]

RET fusions

Selpercatinib, a RET-selective inhibitor, was evaluated in the phase I/II LIBRETTO-001 study in patients with *RET*-rearranged NSCLC.[72] The ORR was 64% (95% CI 54% to 73%) in 105 platinum-pretreated patients and 85% (95% CI 70% to 94%) in 39 treatment-naïve patients. The mDoR was 17.5 months in pretreated and NR for treatment-naïve patients. Pralsetinib, another RET-selective inhibitor, was evaluated in the ARROW study;[73] the ORR was 59% (95% CI 50% to 67%) in 136 platinum

pretreated patients and 72% (95% CI 60% to 82%) in 75 treatment-naïve patients. The mDoR was NR in treatment-naive patients and 22.3 months for pretreated patients. Importantly, both agents are associated with high intracranial response rates.[73, 74] Treatment with selpercatinib or pralsetinib (for both: EMA indication is for those not previously treated with a RET inhibitor)[75, 76] is recommended in patients with *RET* fusion-positive NSCLC.

Several additional oncogenic drivers which can be targeted by specific targeted therapies

For the oncogenic drivers discussed below, there are currently no EMA first-line targeted agents approved. For METexon 14 skipping mutations, capmatinib and tepotinib are approved by FDA but not EMA in first line. If no first line targeted options are available, treatments for non-oncogene addicted tumors are often extrapolated to those with an oncogenic driver. ICIs with or without ChT are the SoC first-line treatment for patients with non-oncogene addicted NSCLC.[10] However, except for *KRAS*, data regarding efficacy of ICI monotherapy are very limited for these drivers (and if available, efficacy is limited).[37] Even fewer data are available for ChT–ICI. A non-smoking history is associated with lower ICI efficacy.[77] Therefore, for the drivers discussed in this paragraph, unless otherwise stated, platinum-doublet ChT with or without ICI is recommended as first-line therapy, and ICI monotherapy is not recommended.

***MET* exon 14 skipping mutations and *MET* amplifications.** Two type Ib MET inhibitors have gained regulatory approval for patients with *cMET* exon 14 skipping mutations; capmatinib and tepotinib.[78, 79] Among the *MET* exon 14-positive patients treated with capmatinib in the GEOMETRY study, the ORR was 41% (95% CI 29% to 53%) in 69 pretreated patients and 68% (95% CI 48% to 84%) in 28 treatment-naïve patients; the mDoR was 9.7 months (95% CI 5.6-13.0 months) and 12.6 months (95% CI 5.5 months to NR), respectively.[80] Among patients with high *MET* amplification (≥10 copies), ORR was 29% (95% CI 19% to 41%) in previously-treated patients and 40% (95% CI 16% to 68%) in treatment-naive patients.[80] Among the 152 patients with a MET exon 14 skipping mutation that received tepotinib in the VISION study, where enrolment was either based on tissue or liquid biopsy results,

the ORR was 45% (95% CI 37% to 53%), with an mDoR of 11.1 months (95% CI 8.4-18.5 months) and mPFS of 8.9 months (95% CI 8.2-11.2 months) in the combined-biopsy group.[81] According to the EMA labels, both agents can be recommended following prior treatment with immunotherapy and/or platinum-based ChT in patients with *MET* exon 14 skipping mutations.[78, 79] Both agents have a first line label according to the FDA. Capmatinib can be given patients with high *MET* amplification (≥10 GCN) following prior treatment with immunotherapy and/or platinum-based ChT, but is not EMA nor FDA approved.

***HER2* exon 20 mutations.** Several pan-HER TKIs including afatinib, dacomitinib and neratinib, have been studied in small phase II studies with disappointing results, although some genotypes retain sensitivity.[82] Poziotinib resulted in an ORR of 28% (95% CI 19% to 38%), a mPFS of 5.5 months (95% CI 3.9-5.8 months) and mDoR of 5.1 months (95% CI 4.2-5.5 months) in a phase II trial enrolling pretreated patients with *HER2*-mutated NSCLC (*n* = 90).[83] The antibody–drug conjugates directed against *HER2* have generated more positive results. Trastuzumab–emtansine was evaluated in a basket study including 18 pretreated patients with *HER2*-mutated LUAD.[84] The ORR was 44% (95% CI 22% to 69%). Trastuzumab–deruxtecan was evaluated in the DESTINY LUNG01 study enrolling 91 *HER2*-mutated pretreated NSCLC patients.[85] The ORR was 55% (95% CI 44% to 65%) and mDoR was 9.3 months (95% CI 5.7-14.7 months). Of concern is drug-related ILD that occurred in 26% of patients and resulted in the death of two patients. Trastuzumab–deruxtecan (FDA approved), if available, can be recommended for patients following prior first-line therapy but is not EMA approved.

***NTRK* fusions.** Based on basket trials including a small number of *NTRK* fusion-positive NSCLC patients, larotrectinib and entrectinib have gained regulatory approval in the European Union. Due to the rarity of this alteration (<0.1%), both agents have been evaluated in basket trials containing small numbers of NSCLC patients, all pretreated. The ORR for entrectinib among 22 NSCLC patients (total 121 patients) enrolled in three ongoing phase I-II studies was 64% with a mPFS of 14.9 months and mDoR of 19.9 months.[86] Pooled results from two trials evaluating larotrectinib reported an ORR of 73% (95% CI 45% to 92%) for patients with NSCLC

(*n* = 20, 15 evaluable). Median DoR, PFS and OS were 33.9 months (95% CI 5.6-33.9 months), 35.4 months (95% CI 5.3-35.4 months) and 40.7 months (95% CI 17.2 months to NR), respectively.[87] Both agents are recommended to treat *NTRK* fusion-positive NSCLC that received prior SoC treatment.

***KRAS* G12C mutations.** *KRAS* is the most frequently mutated oncogene in NSCLC, and *KRAS* G12C is the most frequent mutation. For KRAS G12C it is recommended to follow the first line treatment algorithms in the ESMO CPG on non-oncogene addicted NSCLC (in writing).[10] Platinum-doublet ChT can be given as a second line option to patients treated in the first line with monotherapy ICI. The KRAS G12C specific inhibitor sotorasib has completed phase III testing in platinum- and ICI-pretreated patients.[88] In the CodeBreak200 trial (N=345), sotorasib was superior to docetaxel: mPFS was 5.6 versus 4.5 months (HR 0.66; 95% CI 0.51-0.86, p= 0.002). No difference in mOS was shown, but the study was not powered for OS. Grade ≥TRAE occurred less frequently in the sotorasib arm (33.1% versus 40.4%).. Sotorasib is therefore recommended for treatment of *KRAS* G12C-mutated NSCLC failing prior therapy. Adagrasib, which received FDA breakthrough designation, is another KRAS G12C inhibitor. In a registrational phase II cohort, ORR was 43% (95% CI 33.5% to 52.6%) in 112 evaluable patients. Median DoR was 8.5 months (95% CI 6.2-13.8 months), and mPFS was 6.5 months (95% CI 4.7-8.4 months).[89]

***EGFR* exon 20 insertions.** *EGFR* exon 20 insertions (*EGFR*ex20ins) confer limited sensitivity to EGFR-TKIs and ICIs. Therefore, the preferred first-line treatment is platinum-doublet ChT. Amivantamab, a bispecific antibody targeting *EGFR* and *MET* is approved by both the EMA and FDA for patients with tumours progressing on platinum-doublet ChT.[90, 91] In a phase I study (*n* = 81), ORR was 40% with an mDoR of 11.1 months and a mPFS of 8.3 months.[92] Amivantamab can be recommended for treatment of *EGFRex20ins*-mutated NSCLC failing prior therapy. Mobocertinib, an EGFR-TKI, showed activity in a phase I/II trial in patients with previously treated NSCLC (*n* = 114 platinum-pretreated), with an IRC-assessed ORR of 28%, an mDoR of 17.5 months and a mPFS of 7.3 months.[93] Mobocertinib is FDA but not EMA approved.[94]

Special populations

PS2 and beyond. Some of the randomised phase III TKI trials allowed entry to patients with PS2 (4% to 14% of patients). If subgroups analyses were presented for patients with PS2, a benefit of the TKI was generally seen in this patient population.[95] Although the data is limited for patients with PS>2, TKIs should be given to patients with a poor PS due to the cancer, as ORR is high and toxicity is manageable. Most trial data regarding poor PS is derived from EGFR- and ALK-TKI trials. In all trials, toxicity was mild, ORR high and most patients improved in PS.[96-98] It is reasonable to assume that efficacy data can be extrapolated to other oncogenic drivers.

Elderly. In all randomised phase III EGFR- and ALK-TKI trials, elderly patients (defined as ≥65 years) were enrolled and comprised 10% to 50% of the total patient population. Elderly patients derive the same, or even more benefit compared with younger patients, as PFS HR was generally lower in the elderly patient population.[95] In a pooled analysis of phase II and III gefitinib trials, a PFS benefit for gefitinib versus ChT was found for patients aged ≥70 years (*N* = 71).[99] Only limited trial data exists for patients aged ≥75 years, but these patients seem to derive the same benefit.[100, 101]

Oligometastases. Reliable data on the incidence of synchronous oligometastatic disease in patients with metastatic oncogene-addicted NSCLC do not exist. In a retrospective series (*N* = 266), 38% of patients with metastatic LUAD and an *EGFR* mutation, treated with first-generation TKIs, developed oligoprogression during TKI treatment.[102]

Data regarding the role of local ablative therapy (LAT) for oligometastatic oncogene-addicted NSCLC is scarce, mainly available for *EGFR*-mutated NSCLC, and mostly derived from retrospective series, subgroup analysis of phase II RCTs and one phase III RCT. A retrospective series evaluating patients with oligometastatic or oligoprogressive LUAD and an oncogenic driver (mainly *EGFR*) suggests that the addition of LAT improves OS and PFS compared with TKI treatment alone.[103]

Two small single-arm phase II trials also suggest that LAT improves survival.[104, 105] In the phase II trial of Gomez et al., enrolling patients with synchronous oligometastatic

NSCLC without progression on systemic therapy, patients with an *EGFR* mutation or *ALK* rearrangement were allowed (*n* = 8 out of 49 enrolled patients). The presence of an oncogenic driver was associated with a reduced risk of death but due to small numbers, no subgroup analyses according to the addition of LAT could be carried out.[106]

One open-label phase III RCT (SINDAS) reported interim results for patients with oligometastatic LUAD (*N* = 133, five or fewer metastases) and an *EGFR* mutation, patients with brain metastases were excluded.[107] The addition of radiotherapy (RT) (25-40 Gy in 5 fractions to all involved disease sites) to first-generation EGFR-TKIs significantly improved mPFS and mOS, [20.2 versus 12.5 months, (HR 0.68, *P* < 0.001) and 25.5 versus 17.4 months, (HR 0.68, P < 0.001), respectively]. Despite the PFS and OS advantages, a high screen-failure rate (78%) combined with a non-typical group of patients with *EGFR* mutations (brain metastases excluded and ~70% of all metastases being bone metastases) does not allow extrapolation of the results to routine clinical practice.

There are fewer prospective data available for patients with oligoprogressive disease on TKI treatment. For recommendations regarding oligoprogression in the brain, please refer to the European Association of Neuro-Oncology (EANO)–ESMO CPG on Brain metastases from solid tumours for recommendations.[108] Based on a prematurely-closed, single-arm phase II trial it is suggested that patients with oligoprogression on erlotinib can benefit from LAT as mPFS after LAT was 6 months.[109] Retrospective data also suggest a survival benefit of LAT for oligoprogressive lesions with the continuation of the TKI.[103] Prospective trials are ongoing.

Currently, there is a lack of prospective data evaluating the use of a specific LAT (RT versus surgery). The role of minimally-invasive thoracic surgery, in particular with the use of modern technologies (robotic systems), is also becoming the new standard in pretreated complex surgical cases due to benefits compared with traditional open approaches.

Patients with synchronous or oligoprogressive, oncogene-driven NSCLC should be discussed at a multidisciplinary tumour board and, if possible, enrolled in a clinical trial.

Brain metastases. Therapeutic strategies for patients with brain metastases are discussed in the EANO–ESMO CPG on Brain metastases from solid tumours.[108]

Bone metastases. Therapeutic strategies for patients with bone metastases are discussed in the ESMO CPG on Bone health in cancer.[110]

Role of radiotherapy in stage IV

Details and recommendations on the role of RT are covered in the ESMO CPG on non-oncogene addicted metastatic NSCLC.[10]

Role of surgery in stage IV

Details and recommendations on the role of surgery are covered in the ESMO CPG on non-oncogene addicted metastatic NSCLC.[10]

Role of minimally-invasive procedures in stage IV

Details on the role of minimally-invasive procedures and recommendations are covered in the ESMO CPG on non-oncogene addicted metastatic NSCLC.[10]

Recommendations

EGFR-mutated NSCLC

- All patients with a sensitising *EGFR* mutation should receive first-line EGFR-TKIs irrespective of clinical parameters including PS, gender, tobacco exposure, histology [I, A].
- Osimertinib is the preferable first-line treatment option for patients with a classical activating *EGFR* mutation (exon 19 deletion or exon 21 L858R), especially for patients with CNS metastases [I, A; ESMO-Magnitude of Clinical Benefit (MCBS) v1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A].
- Erlotinib, gefitinib, afatinib and dacomitinib are other first-line single-agent treatment options [erlotinib and gefitinib: I, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4;

ESCAT: I-A; afatinib: I, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 5; ESCAT: I-A; dacomitinib: I, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-A].

- Another first-line option is gefitinib combined with carboplatin–pemetrexed [I, B; not EMA approved].
- EGFR-TKIs combined with anti-angiogenic therapy are additional first-line treatment options, erlotinib–bevacizumab [I, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 2; ESCAT: I-A], erlotinib–ramucirumab [I, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-A].
- Considering toxicity, cost increases with adding additional treatments and patient inconvenience, single-agent EGFR-TKIs are still a standard first-line treatment [I, A; ESCAT: I-A].
- Afatinib or osimertinib are a recommended treatment option for patients with a major uncommon, non-exon 20 insertion, sensitising *EGFR* mutation [III, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4 for afatinib; ESCAT: I-B].
- Patients who have moderate radiological progression with ongoing clinical benefit may continue with EGFR TKIs [III, A].
- Upon resistance to first-line first- or second-generation EGFR-TKIs, patients should be tested for the presence of the *EGFR* exon 20 T790M mutation from plasma cfDNA and/or tumour rebiopsy [I, A].
- Patients with T790M-positive resistance should receive osimertinib as second-line therapy [I, A; ESMO-MCBS v 1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A], while T790M-negative resistance should be treated with platinum-based ChT [III, A].
- Genomic analysis by NGS (tissue, or ctDNA followed by tissue if no target is found with ctDNA) should be made available to a patient who develops resistance to osimertinib [III, C].
- Platinum-doublet ChT is the SoC upon progression on osimertinib [III, A]. Clinical trial enrolment is encouraged, especially if a targetable resistance mechanism is identified [III, B].
- The combination of atezolizumab-bevacizumab-paclitaxel-carboplatin may be considered as a treatment option for patients with EGFR-TKI failure, PS 0-1 and no contraindication for ICIs [III, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3].

- Single-agent ICIs may be considered as a treatment option only after progression on EGFR-TKI and ChT [IV, C].

ALK-rearranged NSCLC

- Patients should be treated in the first-line setting with alectinib, brigatinib, or lorlatinib [I, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A]. These options are preferred over crizotinib [I, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A] or ceritinib [I, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A].
- Alectinib is recommended in patients who progress on treatment with, or are intolerant to, crizotinib [I, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A].
- Brigatinib and ceritinib represent additional treatment options at crizotinib resistance [brigatinib: III, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A; ceritinib: I, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A].
- In patients who progress after a second-generation ALK-TKI, the next-generation ALK inhibitor lorlatinib is an option [III, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4; ESCAT: I-A].
- Following progression on lorlatinib, ChT with a platinum-pemetrexed-based combination is recommended [III, A].
- Following progression on lorlatinib, atezolizumab-bevacizumab-paclitaxel-carboplatin can be considered [III, B; MCBS 3].

Treatment of *ROS1*-rearranged NSCLC

- Crizotinib is recommended in the first-line setting [III, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-B].
- Entrectinib, if available, is preferred above crizotinib in patients with brain metastases [III, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-B].
- Repotrectinib, if available, is an option in the first line-setting but is not EMA approved [III, B, ESCAT: I-B].
- If patients have received crizotinib in the first-line setting, they may be offered next generation TKI if available [III, A, no EMA approval] or platinum-based ChT in the second-line setting [IV, A].

***BRAF* mutations**

- BRAF–MEK inhibition using dabrafenib–trametinib is recommended [III, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 2; ESCAT: I-B].
- If patients have received BRAF–MEK inhibition in the first-line setting, they may be offered platinum-based ChT with or without immunotherapy in the second-line setting, if they do not have a smoking history [IV, A].
  For patients with a smoking history, immunotherapy with or without ChT should be considered as per the ESMO CPG on non-oncogene addicted metastatic NSCLC [IV, B].[10]

RET fusions

- Treatment with selpercatinib or pralsetinib is recommended as first-line therapy for patients with *RET* fusion-positive NSCLC [III, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-C].

Other oncogenic drivers for which targeted therapy is available

- Platinum-doublet ChT with or without ICIs is recommended as first-line therapy for patients with a *MET* amplification, *NTRK* gene fusion, HER2 mutation and *EGFR* exon 20 mutation [IV, B].
- Capmatinib and tepotinib are recommended in patients with a *MET* exon 14 skipping mutation, but are EMA approved only in pretreated NSCLC [III, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-B].
- If no MET-TKI is available in the first line, platinum-doublet ChT with or without ICIs is recommended as first-line therapy for patients with a MET exon 14 skipping mutation [IV, B].
- In patients with *HER2* exon 20 mutations, trastuzumab–deruxtecan if available is recommended for patients following prior first-line therapy but is not EMA approved [III, B; ESCAT: II-B].

- Larotrectinib and entrectinib are recommended for patients with NSCLC and an *NTRK* gene fusion and who have no satisfactory treatment options [III, A; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-C].
- For *KRAS* G12C, it is recommended to follow the first-line treatment algorithms in the ESMO CPG on non-oncogene addicted metastatic NSCLC [III, A].
- Platinum-doublet ChT can be given to patients with KRAS G12C mutated NSCLC and progression on first line monotherapy ICI [III, A].
- Sotorasib is recommended for treatment of *KRAS* G12C-mutated NSCLC failing prior therapy [I, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-B].
- Adagrasib is recommended for treatment of *KRAS* G12C-mutated NSCLC failing prior therapy but is not EMA approved [III, B; ESCAT: I-B]
- Amivantamab is recommended for treatment of *EGFRex20ins* mutated NSCLC failing prior therapy [III, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-B].
- Mobocertinib can be given as treatment for *EGFRex20ins* mutated NSCLC failing prior therapy [III, C; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 3; ESCAT: I-B].

Special populations

- TKIs should be given to patients with PS≥2 and an oncogenic driver [III, A].
- TKIs should be given to elderly patients [II, A].
- Patients with oligometastatic disease at diagnosis may experience long-term PFS following systemic therapy and LAT (high-dose RT or surgery) [II, B]. Due to limited available evidence, these patients should be discussed within a multidisciplinary tumour board [II, B], and inclusion in clinical trials is preferred. Patients with advanced NSCLC and a driver mutation, with oligoprogression while on molecular-targeted therapy, may be treated with a LAT (high-dose RT or surgery) and may experience long-term DFS [IV, C]. However, this is based mainly on retrospective data and inclusion in clinical trials is preferred.

FOLLOW-UP, LONG-TERM IMPLICATIONS AND SURVIVORSHIP

Details on follow-up, long-term implications and survivorship, as well as palliative care in stage IV NSCLC are covered in the **Supplementary Material Section 5**

Recommendations

Follow-up, long-term implications and survivorship

- Follow-up every 8-12 weeks should be carried out if there is an option for a next line of therapy [IV, A].
- Psychosocial support should be offered if needed [IV, A].
- Smoking cessation should be encouraged [IV, A].

Palliative care in stage IV

Early palliative care intervention is recommended, in parallel with standard oncological care [I, A].

METHODOLOGY

This CPG was developed in accordance with the ESMO standard operating procedures for CPG development (https://www.esmo.org/Guidelines/ESMO-Guidelines-Methodology). The relevant literature has been selected by the expert authors. An ESCAT table with ESCAT scores is included in **Supplementary Table S1**. ESCAT scores have been defined by the authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.[4] An ESMO-MCBS table with ESMO-MCBS scores is included in **Supplementary Table S4**. ESMO-MCBS v1.1[111] was used to calculate scores for new therapies/indications approved by the EMA or FDA (https://www.esmo.org/Guidelines/ESMO-MCBS). The scores have been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee. The FDA/EMA or other regulatory body approval status of new therapies/indications is reported at the time of writing this CPG. Levels of evidence and grades of recommendation have been applied using the system shown in **Supplementary Table S5**.[112, 113] Statements without grading were considered justified standard clinical practice by the authors. For future updates to this CPG, including Living Guidelines, please see the ESMO Guidelines website at https://www.esmo.org/guidelines/guidelines-by-topic/lung-and-chest-tumours/clinical-practice-living-guidelines-metastatic-non-small-cell-lung-cancer.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Manuscript editing support was provided by Richard Lutz, Fraser Simpson, Claire Bramley, and Catherine Evans (ESMO Guidelines staff) this support was funded by ESMO. Nathan Cherny, Chair of the ESMO-MCBS Working Group, Urania Dafni and Giota Zygoura of Frontier Science Foundation Hellas provided review and validation of the ESMO-MCBS scores. Nicola Latino (ESMO Scientific Affairs staff) provided coordination and support of the ESMO-MCBS scores and Angela Corstorphine of KMC provided medical writing and editing support in the preparation of the ESMO-MCBS table; this support was funded by ESMO. Dr Jordi Remón Masip (on behalf of the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group) and Dr Svetlana Jezdic (ESMO Medical Affairs Advisor) provided validation support for ESCAT scores. Matt Hellmann provided initial writing support during the conception of this guideline.

FUNDING

No external funding has been received for the preparation of these guidelines. Production costs have been covered by ESMO from central funds.

DISCLOSURE

LEH reports personal fees as an invited speaker from Benecke, Medtalks and VJOncology; personal fees for participation in mentorship programme funded by AstraZeneca; personal fees for travel support from Roche; personal fees as member of the committee that revised the Dutch guidelines on NSCLC, brain metastases and leptomeningeal metastases; fees paid to her institution for an educational webinar from Janssen; fees paid to her institution for advisory board membership from Amgen, BMS, Boehringer Ingelheim, Janssen, Lilly, Merck, MSD, Novartis, Pfizer, Roche and Takeda; fees paid to her institution as an invited speaker from AstraZeneca, Bayer, high5oncology, Lilly and Merck Sharp & Dohme (MSD); fees paid to her institution for interview sessions from Roche; fees paid to her institution for podcast appearance from Takeda; institutional research grants from AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim, Roche, Takeda, Pfizer and Merck; institutional funding as a local principal investigator (PI) from AbbVie, AstraZeneca, Blueprint Medicines, Gilead, GlaxoSmithKline (GSK), Merck Serono, Mirati, MSD, Novartis,

Roche and Takeda; non-remunerated roles as chair for metastatic NSCLC of the lung cancer group for EORTC (European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer) and as the secretary of the studies foundation for NVALT (Nederlandse Vereniging van Artsen voor Longziekten en Tuberculose).KK reports personal fees as an invited speaker from Amgen, AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim, Bristol-Myers Squibb (BMS), Eli Lilly, Medscape, Merck Serono, MSD, Novartis, Pfizer, Prime Oncology, Roche and Roche Diagnostics/Ventana; personal fees for consultancy and advisory board membership from AbbVie, Amgen, AstraZeneca, Bayer, Debiopharm, Diaceutics, Janssen, Merck Serono, MSD, Novartis, Pfizer, Regeneron, Roche and Roche Diagnostics/Ventana; non-remunerated roles as the past Pathology Committee Chair for IASLC (International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer) and member of the UK Lung Cancer Consortium.

JM reports fees paid to her institution as an invited speaker from AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim, BMS, MSD and Roche; fees paid to her institution for expert testimony from AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim and MSD; fees paid to her institution for travel expenses from Ipsen.

TSM reports personal fees as an invited speaker from AbbVie, ACEA Pharma, Alpha Biopharma, Amgen, Amoy Diagnostics, BeiGene, Boehringer Ingelheim, BMS, Daiichi Sankyo, Daz Group, Eli Lilly, Fishawack Facilitate, InMed Medical Communication,Janssen, Jiahui Holdings Co., LiangYiHui Healthcare, Lucene Health Inc., Lunit USA, Inc., MD Health, Medscape/WebMD, Merck Serono, MSD, MiRXES, Novartis, OrigiMed, PeerVoice, PER, Permanyer SL, Pfizer, Prime Oncology, Research to Practice, Roche, Sanofi-Aventis, Shanghai BeBirds Translation & Consulting Co., Taiho Pharmaceutical Co., Takeda and Touch Medical Media; personal fees for advisory board membership from AbbVie, ACEA Pharma, Alpha Biopharma, Amgen, Amoy Diagnostics, BeiGene, Berry Oncology, Blueprint Medicines, Boehringer Ingelheim, BMS, C4 Therapeutics, Cirina Ltd., Covidien LP, CStone Pharma, Curio Science, D3 Bio Ltd., Da Volterra, Daiichi Sankyo, Eisai, Eli Lilly, Fishawack Facilitate, G1 Therapeutics, Gilead Sciences, Gritstone Oncology, Guardant Health, Hengrui, Ignyta, Incyte, Inivata, IQVIA, Janssen, Lakeshore Biotech, Loxo Oncology, Lucene Health Inc., Lunit USA, Inc., Medscape/WebMD,

Merck Serono, Mirati Therapeutics, MiRXES, MoreHealth, MSD, Novartis, OrigiMed, OSE Immunotherapeutics, Pfizer, Puma Tech, Qiming Development, Roche, Roche/Genentech, Sanofi-Aventis, SFJ Pharmaceutical Ltd., Synergy Research, Takeda, Tigermed, Vertex Pharmaceuticals, Virtus Medical and Yuhan; personal fees as the Chairman for ACT Genomics-Sanomics Group; personal fees as a member of the board of directors from AstraZeneca and HutchMed; holds stocks/shares from AstraZeneca, Aurora Tele-Oncology, Biolidics Ltd., HutchMed and Sanomics Ltd.; institutional funding from AstraZeneca, BMS, Clovis Oncology, G1 Therapeutics, Merck Serono, MSD, Novartis, Pfizer, Roche, SFJ Pharmaceuticals, Takeda and XCovery; non-remunerated roles as an invited speaker with AstraZeneca, Aurora Tele-Oncology, Lunit USA, Inc. and Sanomics Ltd. and for an advisory role with geneDecode; non-remunerated leadership roles with ASCO (American Society of Clinical Oncology), ATORG (Asian Thoracic Oncology Research Group), CLCRF (Chinese Lung Cancer Research Foundation Limited), CSCO (Chinese Society of Clinical Oncology), HKCF (Hong Kong Cancer Fund), HKCTS (Hong Kong Cancer Therapy Society), IASLC and St. Stephen's College & Prep School (Hong Kong).

UN reports fees paid to her institution as an invited speaker from MSD; fees paid to her institution for advisory board membership and a writing engagement from AstraZeneca; institutional funding as a coordinating PI for Bayer; non-remunerated roles as a PI for clinical trials funded by Deutsche Krebshilfe and as a member of the board of directors and vice-chair of "Strahlenschutzkommission" from the German Commission on Radiological Protection.

AP reports personal fees as an invited speaker from AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim, Eli Lilly, Janssen, Mundipharma and Takeda; personal fees for advisory board membership from AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim, BMS, Eli Lilly, Janssen, MSD, Pfizer and Roche; non-remunerated activities with AIOM (Italian Association of Medical Oncology) as member of the Scientific Committee for lung cancer guidelines.

SP reports personal fees for an editorial role as an Associate Editor for *Annals of Oncology*; fees paid to her institution as an invited speaker from AstraZeneca, BMS,

Boehringer Ingelheim, e-cancer, Eli Lilly, Fishawack, Illumina, Imedex, Medscape, Mirati, MSD, Novartis, OncologyEducation, PER, Pfizer, PRIME, RMEI, Roche/Genentech, RTP, Sanofi and Takeda; fees paid to her institution for advisory board membership from AbbVie, Amgen, Arcus, AstraZeneca, Bayer, BeiGene, Bio Invent, Biocartis, Blueprint Medicines, BMS, Boehringer Ingelheim, Daiichi Sankyo, Debiopharm, Eli Lilly, F-Star, Foundation Medicine, Genzyme, Gilead, GSK, Illumina, Incyte, IQVIA, iTeos, Janssen, Merck Serono, Mirati, MSD, Novartis, Novocure, Pfizer, Pharma Mar, Phosplatin Therapeutics, Regeneron, Roche/Genentech, Sanofi, Seattle Genetics, Takeda and Vaccibody; institutional funding as a steering committee member from AstraZeneca, BeiGene, BMS, iTeos, Mirati, MSD, Pharma Mar, Phosplatin Therapeutics and Roche/Genentech; institutional funding as a coordinating PI from AstraZeneca; institutional funding as a trial chair from GSK and Roche/Genentech; non-remunerated role as President and Council Member for the Ballet Béjart Lausanne Foundation; non-remunerated leadership roles as President of ESMO (2020-2022), Vice-President of SAMO (Swiss Academy of Multidisciplinary Oncology), Vice-President of Lung Group for SAKK (Swiss Group for Clinical Cancer Research); non-remunerated role as PI involved in academic trials for ETOP (European Thoracic Oncology Platform)/EORTC/SAKK; non-remunerated role as Council Member and Scientific Committee Chair for ETOP/IBCSG Partners (International Breast Cancer Study Group); member of AACR (American Association for Cancer Research), ASCO, ASMAC/VSAO (Association of Swiss Interns and Residents), FMH (Association of Swiss Physicians) and IASLC.

DP reports personal fees as an invited speaker from AbbVie, AstraZeneca, Janssen, Novartis, Peer CME, Pfizer, priME Oncology and Samsung; personal fees for advisory board membership from AbbVie, AstraZeneca, BMS, Celgene, Daiichi Sankyo, Janssen, Merck, Novartis, Pfizer, Roche and Samsung; institutional funding as a PI from AbbVie, AstraZeneca, BMS, Daiichi Sankyo, Janssen, Merck, Novartis, Pfizer, Pierre Fabre, Roche, Sanofi and Sanofi-Aventis.

ES reports personal fees as an invited speaker from Boehringer Ingelheim and Daiichi Sankyo; personal fees for advisory board membership from Merck Serono; fees paid to his institution for advisory board membership from AstraZeneca, BMS,

Boehringer Ingelheim, Daiichi Sankyo, Eli Lilly, Janssen, MSD, Roche, Sanofi and Takeda; institutional funding as a local PI from AstraZeneca, Genmab, Gilead and Pfizer.

BJS reports personal fees as an invited speaker from AstraZeneca, Pfizer and Roche/Genentech; personal fees for advisory board membership from Amgen and Roche/Genentech; fees paid to his institution for advisory board membership from AstraZeneca, BMS, Merck and Novartis; fees paid to his institution for steering committee membership from Novartis, Pfizer and Roche/Genentech; personal fees as a member of the board of directors from Cancer Council Victoria and Thoracic Oncology Group of Australasia; personal fees as a consultant from Peter MacCallum Cancer Centre; royalties from UpToDate.

GV reports personal fees as an invited speaker and for advisory board membership from Roche; personal fees as a consultant from Ab Medica; institutional funding as a PI from AIRC (Fondazione AIRC per la ricerca sul cancro ETS) and the Italian Ministry of Health.

MR reports personal fees as an invited speaker from Amgen, AstraZeneca, BMS, Boehringer Ingelheim, Lilly, Merck, MSD, Novartis, Roche and Sanofi; personal fees for advisory board membership from Amgen, AstraZeneca, BMS, Boehringer Ingelheim, Mirati, MSD, Pfizer, Roche and Sanofi.

REFERENCES

1 Horgan D, Ciliberto G, Conte P et al. Bringing Onco-Innovation to Europe's Healthcare Systems: The Potential of Biomarker Testing, Real World Evidence, Tumour Agnostic Therapies to Empower Personalised Medicine. Cancers (Basel) 2021; 13 (3).

2 Popat S, Navani N, Kerr KM et al. Navigating Diagnostic and Treatment Decisions in Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer: Expert Commentary on the Multidisciplinary Team Approach. Oncologist 2021; 26 (2): e306-e315.

3 Lindeman NI, Cagle PT, Aisner DL et al. Updated Molecular Testing Guideline for the Selection of Lung Cancer Patients for Treatment With Targeted Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors: Guideline From the College of American Pathologists, the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer, and the Association for Molecular Pathology. J Thorac Oncol 2018; 13 (3): 323-358.

4 Mateo J, Chakravarty D, Dienstmann R et al. A framework to rank genomic alterations as targets for cancer precision medicine: the ESMO Scale for Clinical Actionability of molecular Targets (ESCAT). Ann Oncol 2018; 29 (9): 1895-1902.

5 Kerr KM, Bibeau F, Thunnissen E et al. The evolving landscape of biomarker testing for non-small cell lung cancer in Europe. Lung Cancer 2021; 154: 161-175.

6 Marchiò C, Scaltriti M, Ladanyi M et al. ESMO recommendations on the standard methods to detect NTRK fusions in daily practice and clinical research. Ann Oncol 2019; 30 (9): 1417-1427.

7 Davies KD, Lomboy A, Lawrence CA et al. DNA-Based versus RNA-Based Detection of MET Exon 14 Skipping Events in Lung Cancer. J Thorac Oncol 2019; 14 (4): 737-741.

8 Skoulidis F, Heymach JV. Co-occurring genomic alterations in non-small-cell lung cancer biology and therapy. Nat Rev Cancer 2019; 19 (9): 495-509.

9 Yaghmaie M, Yeung CC. Molecular Mechanisms of Resistance to Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors. Curr Hematol Malig Rep 2019; 14 (5): 395-404.

10 Hendriks LE, Kerr K., Menis J et al. Non-oncogene-addicted metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up†. In Writing 2022.

11 Eisenhauer EA, Therasse P, Bogaerts J et al. New response evaluation criteria in solid tumours: revised RECIST guideline (version 1.1). Eur J Cancer 2009; 45 (2): 228-247.

12 Mok TS, Wu YL, Thongprasert S et al. Gefitinib or carboplatin-paclitaxel in pulmonary adenocarcinoma. N Engl J Med 2009; 361 (10): 947-957.

13 Rosell R, Carcereny E, Gervais R et al. Erlotinib versus standard chemotherapy as first-line treatment for European patients with advanced EGFR mutation-positive non-small-cell lung cancer (EURTAC): a multicentre, open-label, randomised phase 3 trial. Lancet Oncol 2012; 13 (3): 239-246.

14 Paz-Ares L, Tan EH, O'Byrne K et al. Afatinib versus gefitinib in patients with EGFR mutation-positive advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: overall survival data from the phase IIb LUX-Lung 7 trial. Ann Oncol 2017; 28 (2): 270-277.

15 Wu YL, Cheng Y, Zhou X et al. Dacomitinib versus gefitinib as first-line treatment for patients with EGFR-mutation-positive non-small-cell lung cancer (ARCHER 1050): a randomised, open-label, phase 3 trial. Lancet Oncol 2017; 18 (11): 1454-1466.

16 Mok TS, Cheng Y, Zhou X et al. Improvement in Overall Survival in a Randomized Study That Compared Dacomitinib With Gefitinib in Patients With Advanced Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer and EGFR-Activating Mutations. J Clin Oncol 2018; 36 (22): 2244-2250.

17 Soria JC, Ohe Y, Vansteenkiste J et al. Osimertinib in Untreated EGFR-Mutated Advanced Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer. N Engl J Med 2018; 378 (2): 113-125.

18 Ramalingam SS, Vansteenkiste J, Planchard D et al. Overall Survival with Osimertinib in Untreated, EGFR-Mutated Advanced NSCLC. N Engl J Med 2020; 382 (1): 41-50.

19 Reungwetwattana T, Nakagawa K, Cho BC et al. CNS Response to Osimertinib Versus Standard Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor Tyrosine

Kinase Inhibitors in Patients With Untreated EGFR-Mutated Advanced Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer. J Clin Oncol 2018: JCO2018783118.

20 Park K, Tan EH, O'Byrne K et al. Afatinib versus gefitinib as first-line treatment of patients with EGFR mutation-positive non-small-cell lung cancer (LUX-Lung 7): a phase 2B, open-label, randomised controlled trial. Lancet Oncol 2016; 17 (5): 577-589.

21 Kawashima Y, Fukuhara T, Saito H et al. Bevacizumab plus erlotinib versus erlotinib alone in Japanese patients with advanced, metastatic, EGFR-mutant non-small-cell lung cancer (NEJ026): overall survival analysis of an open-label, randomised, multicentre, phase 3 trial. Lancet Respir Med 2022; 10 (1): 72-82.

22 Zhou Q, Xu CR, Cheng Y et al. Bevacizumab plus erlotinib in Chinese patients with untreated, EGFR-mutated, advanced NSCLC (ARTEMIS-CTONG1509): A multicenter phase 3 study. Cancer Cell 2021; 39 (9): 1279-1291 e1273.

23 Nakagawa K, Garon EB, Seto T et al. Ramucirumab plus erlotinib in patients with untreated, EGFR-mutated, advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (RELAY): a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial. Lancet Oncol 2019; 20 (12): 1655-1669.

24 Noronha V, Patil VM, Joshi A et al. Gefitinib Versus Gefitinib Plus Pemetrexed and Carboplatin Chemotherapy in EGFR-Mutated Lung Cancer. J Clin Oncol 2020; 38 (2): 124-136.

25 Hosomi Y, Morita S, Sugawara S et al. Gefitinib Alone Versus Gefitinib Plus Chemotherapy for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer With Mutated Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor: NEJ009 Study. J Clin Oncol 2020; 38 (2): 115-123.

26 Miyauchi E, Morita S, Nakamura A et al. Updated Analysis of NEJ009: Gefitinib-Alone Versus Gefitinib Plus Chemotherapy for Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer With Mutated EGFR. J Clin Oncol 2022: Jco2102911.

27 Passaro A, Mok T, Peters S et al. Recent Advances on the Role of EGFR Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors in the Management of NSCLC With Uncommon, Non Exon 20 Insertions, EGFR Mutations. J Thorac Oncol 2021; 16 (5): 764-773.

28 Yang JC, Schuler M, Popat S et al. Afatinib for the Treatment of NSCLC Harboring Uncommon EGFR Mutations: A Database of 693 Cases. J Thorac Oncol 2020; 15 (5): 803-815.

29 Cho JH, Lim SH, An HJ et al. Osimertinib for Patients With Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer Harboring Uncommon EGFR Mutations: A Multicenter, Open-Label, Phase II Trial (KCSG-LU15-09). J Clin Oncol 2020; 38 (5): 488-495.

30 Mok TS, Wu YL, Ahn MJ et al. Osimertinib or Platinum-Pemetrexed in EGFR T790M-Positive Lung Cancer. N Engl J Med 2017; 376 (7): 629-640.

31 Oxnard GR, Thress KS, Alden RS et al. Association Between Plasma Genotyping and Outcomes of Treatment With Osimertinib (AZD9291) in Advanced Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer. J Clin Oncol 2016; 34 (28): 3375-3382.

32 Janne PA, Yang JC, Kim DW et al. AZD9291 in EGFR inhibitor-resistant non-small-cell lung cancer. N Engl J Med 2015; 372 (18): 1689-1699.

33 Passaro A, Janne PA, Mok T et al. Overcoming therapy resistance in EGFR-mutant lung cancer. Nature Cancer 2021; 2: 377–391.

34 Passaro A, Leighl N, Blackhall F et al. ESMO expert consensus statements on the management of EGFR mutant non-small-cell lung cancer. Ann Oncol 2022; 33 (5): 466-487.

35 Le X, Puri S, Negrao MV et al. Landscape of EGFR-Dependent and -Independent Resistance Mechanisms to Osimertinib and Continuation Therapy Beyond Progression in EGFR-Mutant NSCLC. Clin Cancer Res 2018; 24 (24): 6195-6203.

36 Park K, Yu CJ, Kim SW et al. First-Line Erlotinib Therapy Until and Beyond Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors Progression in Asian Patients With Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor Mutation-Positive Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer: The ASPIRATION Study. JAMA Oncol 2016; 2 (3): 305-312.

37 Mazieres J, Drilon A, Lusque A et al. Immune checkpoint inhibitors for patients with advanced lung cancer and oncogenic driver alterations: results from the IMMUNOTARGET registry. Ann Oncol 2019; 30 (8): 1321-1328.

38 Nogami N, Barlesi F, Socinski MA et al. IMpower150 Final Exploratory Analyses for Atezolizumab Plus Bevacizumab and Chemotherapy in Key

NSCLC Patient Subgroups With EGFR Mutations or Metastases in the Liver or Brain. J Thorac Oncol 2022; 17: 309-323.

39 Lu S, Wu L, Jian H et al. Sintilimab plus bevacizumab biosimilar IBI305 and chemotherapy for patients with *EGFR*-mutated non-squamous non-small-cell lung cancer who progressed on EGFR tyrosine-kinase inhibitor therapy (ORIENT-31): first interim results from a randomised, double-blind, multicentre, phase 3 trial. The Lancet Oncology.

40 Kwak EL, Bang YJ, Camidge DR et al. Anaplastic lymphoma kinase inhibition in non-small-cell lung cancer. N Engl J Med 2010; 363 (18): 1693-1703.

41 Solomon BJ, Mok T, Kim DW et al. First-line crizotinib versus chemotherapy in ALK-positive lung cancer. N Engl J Med 2014; 371 (23): 2167-2177.

42 Soria JC, Tan DSW, Chiari R et al. First-line ceritinib versus platinum-based chemotherapy in advanced ALK-rearranged non-small-cell lung cancer (ASCEND-4): a randomised, open-label, phase 3 study. Lancet 2017; 389 (10072): 917-929.

43 Peters S, Camidge DR, Shaw AT et al. Alectinib versus Crizotinib in Untreated ALK-Positive Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer. N Engl J Med 2017; 377 (9): 829-838.

44 Camidge DR, Kim HR, Ahn MJ et al. Brigatinib Versus Crizotinib in ALK Inhibitor-Naive Advanced ALK-Positive NSCLC: Final Results of Phase 3 ALTA-1L Trial. J Thorac Oncol 2021; 16 (12): 2091-2108.

45 Horn L, Wang Z, Wu G et al. Ensartinib vs Crizotinib for Patients With Anaplastic Lymphoma Kinase-Positive Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer: A Randomized Clinical Trial. JAMA Oncol 2021; 7 (11): 1617-1625.

46 Shaw AT, Bauer TM, de Marinis F et al. First-Line Lorlatinib or Crizotinib in Advanced ALK-Positive Lung Cancer. N Engl J Med 2020; 383 (21): 2018-2029.

47 Mok T, Camidge DR, Gadgeel SM et al. Updated overall survival and final progression-free survival data for patients with treatment-naive advanced ALK-positive non-small-cell lung cancer in the ALEX study. Ann Oncol 2020; 31 (8): 1056-1064.

48 Gadgeel S, Peters S, Mok T et al. Alectinib versus crizotinib in treatment-naive anaplastic lymphoma kinase-positive (ALK+) non-small-cell lung cancer: CNS efficacy results from the ALEX study. Ann Oncol 2018; 29 (11): 2214-2222.

49 Nakagawa K, Hida T, Nokihara H et al. Final progression-free survival results from the J-ALEX study of alectinib versus crizotinib in ALK-positive non-small-cell lung cancer. Lung Cancer 2020; 139: 195-199.

50 Zhou C, Kim SW, Reungwetwattana T et al. Alectinib versus crizotinib in untreated Asian patients with anaplastic lymphoma kinase-positive non-small-cell lung cancer (ALESIA): a randomised phase 3 study. Lancet Respir Med 2019; 7 (5): 437-446.

51 Shaw AT, Kim TM, Crino L et al. Ceritinib versus chemotherapy in patients with ALK-rearranged non-small-cell lung cancer previously given chemotherapy and crizotinib (ASCEND-5): a randomised, controlled, open-label, phase 3 trial. Lancet Oncol 2017; 18 (7): 874-886.

52 Novello S, Mazieres J, Oh IJ et al. Alectinib versus chemotherapy in crizotinib-pretreated anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK)-positive non-small-cell lung cancer: results from the phase III ALUR study. Ann Oncol 2018; 29 (6): 1409-1416.

53 Huber RM, Hansen KH, Paz-Ares Rodriguez L et al. Brigatinib in Crizotinib-Refractory ALK+ NSCLC: 2-Year Follow-up on Systemic and Intracranial Outcomes in the Phase 2 ALTA Trial. J Thorac Oncol 2020; 15 (3): 404-415.

54 Solomon BJ, Besse B, Bauer TM et al. Lorlatinib in patients with ALK-positive non-small-cell lung cancer: results from a global phase 2 study. Lancet Oncol 2018; 19 (12): 1654-1667.

55 EMA. Lorviqua - Summary of Product Characteristics 2022.

56 Stinchcombe TE, Doebele RC, Wang X et al. Preliminary Clinical and Molecular Analysis Results From a Single-Arm Phase 2 Trial of Brigatinib in Patients With Disease Progression After Next-Generation ALK Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors in Advanced ALK+ NSCLC. J Thorac Oncol 2021; 16 (1): 156-161.

57 Nishio M, Yoshida T, Kumagai T et al. Brigatinib in Japanese Patients With ALK-Positive NSCLC Previously Treated With Alectinib and Other Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors: Outcomes of the Phase 2 J-ALTA Trial. J Thorac Oncol 2021; 16 (3): 452-463.

58 Socinski MA, Jotte RM, Cappuzzo F et al. Atezolizumab for First-Line Treatment of Metastatic Nonsquamous NSCLC. N Engl J Med 2018; 378 (24): 2288-2301.

59 Shaw AT, Riely GJ, Bang YJ et al. Crizotinib in ROS1-rearranged advanced non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC): updated results, including overall survival, from PROFILE 1001. Ann Oncol 2019; 30 (7): 1121-1126.

60 Dziadziuszko R, Krebs MG, De Braud F et al. Updated Integrated Analysis of the Efficacy and Safety of Entrectinib in Locally Advanced or Metastatic ROS1 Fusion-Positive Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer. J Clin Oncol 2021; 39 (11): 1253-1263.

61 FDA. Prescribing Information - ROZLYTREK (entrectinib) capsules, for oral use 2019.

62 EMA. Rozlytrek - Summary of Product Characteristics 2022.

63 Lim SM, Kim HR, Lee JS et al. Open-Label, Multicenter, Phase II Study of Ceritinib in Patients With Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer Harboring ROS1 Rearrangement. J Clin Oncol 2017; 35 (23): 2613-2618.

64 Shaw AT, Solomon BJ, Chiari R et al. Lorlatinib in advanced ROS1-positive non-small-cell lung cancer: a multicentre, open-label, single-arm, phase 1-2 trial. Lancet Oncol 2019; 20 (12): 1691-1701.

65 Yun MR, Kim DH, Kim SY et al. Repotrectinib Exhibits Potent Antitumor Activity in Treatment-Naïve and Solvent-Front-Mutant ROS1-Rearranged Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer. Clin Cancer Res 2020; 26 (13): 3287-3295.

66 Hyman DM, Puzanov I, Subbiah V et al. Vemurafenib in Multiple Nonmelanoma Cancers with BRAF V600 Mutations. N Engl J Med 2015; 373 (8): 726-736.

67 Subbiah V, Gervais R, Riely G et al. Efficacy of Vemurafenib in Patients With Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer With BRAF V600 Mutation: An Open-Label,

Single-Arm Cohort of the Histology-Independent VE-BASKET Study. JCO Precis Oncol 2019; 3.

68 Mazieres J, Cropet C, Montané L et al. Vemurafenib in non-small-cell lung cancer patients with BRAF(V600) and BRAF(nonV600) mutations. Ann Oncol 2020; 31 (2): 289-294.

69 Planchard D, Kim TM, Mazieres J et al. Dabrafenib in patients with BRAF(V600E)-positive advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: a single-arm, multicentre, open-label, phase 2 trial. Lancet Oncol 2016; 17 (5): 642-650.

70 Planchard D, Besse B, Groen HJM et al. Phase 2 Study of Dabrafenib Plus Trametinib in Patients With BRAF V600E-Mutant Metastatic NSCLC: Updated 5-Year Survival Rates and Genomic Analysis. J Thorac Oncol 2022; 17 (1): 103-115.

71 Guisier F, Dubos-Arvis C, Vinas F et al. Efficacy and Safety of Anti-PD-1 Immunotherapy in Patients With Advanced NSCLC With BRAF, HER2, or MET Mutations or RET Translocation: GFPC 01-2018. J Thorac Oncol 2020; 15 (4): 628-636.

72 Drilon A, Oxnard GR, Tan DSW et al. Efficacy of Selpercatinib in RET Fusion-Positive Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer. N Engl J Med 2020; 383 (9): 813-824.

73 Griesinger F, Curigliano G, Thomas M et al. Safety and efficacy of pralsetinib in RET fusion–positive non-small cell lung cancer including as first-line therapy: update from the ARROW trial. [published online ahead of print, 2022 Aug 13]. Ann Oncol 2022: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.1008.1002.

74 Subbiah V, Gainor JF, Oxnard GR et al. Intracranial Efficacy of Selpercatinib in RET Fusion-Positive Non-Small Cell Lung Cancers on the LIBRETTO-001 Trial. Clin Cancer Res 2021; 27 (15): 4160-4167.

75 EMA. Retsevmo - Summary of opinion (CHMP) 2022.

76 EMA. Gavreto - Summary of Product Characteristics. 2022.

77 Huang Q, Zhang H, Hai J et al. Impact of PD-L1 expression, driver mutations and clinical characteristics on survival after anti-PD-1/PD-L1 immunotherapy versus chemotherapy in non-small-cell lung cancer: A meta-analysis of randomized trials. Oncoimmunology 2018; 7 (12): e1396403.

78 EMA. Tabrecta - Summary of opinion (CHMP). 2022.

79 EMA. Tepmetko - Summary of Product Characteristics 2022.

80 Wolf J, Seto T, Han JY et al. Capmatinib in MET Exon 14-Mutated or MET-Amplified Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer. N Engl J Med 2020; 383 (10): 944-957.

81 Le X, Sakai H, Felip E et al. Tepotinib Efficacy and Safety in Patients with MET Exon 14 Skipping NSCLC: Outcomes in Patient Subgroups from the VISION Study with Relevance for Clinical Practice. Clinical Cancer Research 2022; 28 (6): 1117-1126.

82 Jebbink M, de Langen AJ, Boelens MC et al. The force of HER2 - A druggable target in NSCLC? Cancer Treat Rev 2020; 86: 101996.

83 Le X, Cornelissen R, Garassino M et al. Poziotinib in Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer Harboring HER2 Exon 20 Insertion Mutations After Prior Therapies: ZENITH20-2 Trial. J Clin Oncol 2022; 40 (7): 710-718.

84 Li BT, Shen R, Buonocore D et al. Ado-Trastuzumab Emtansine for Patients With HER2-Mutant Lung Cancers: Results From a Phase II Basket Trial. J Clin Oncol 2018; 36 (24): 2532-2537.

85 Li BT, Smit EF, Goto Y et al. Trastuzumab Deruxtecan in HER2-Mutant Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer. N Engl J Med 2022; 386 (3): 241-251.

86 Demetri GD, De Braud F, Drilon A et al. Updated Integrated Analysis of the Efficacy and Safety of Entrectinib in Patients With NTRK Fusion-Positive Solid Tumors. Clin Cancer Res 2022; 28 (7): 1302-1312.

87 Drilon A, Tan DSW, Lassen UN et al. Efficacy and Safety of Larotrectinib in Patients With Tropomyosin Receptor Kinase Fusion-Positive Lung Cancers. JCO Precis Oncol 2022; 6: e2100418.

88 Johnson ML, De Langen J, Waterhouse DM et al. LBA10 - Sotorasib versus docetaxel for previously treated non-small cell lung cancer with KRAS G12C mutation: CodeBreaK 200 phase III study. Ann Oncol 2022 (33): S808-S869.

89 Jänne PA, Riely GJ, Gadgeel SM et al. Adagrasib in Non–Small-Cell Lung Cancer Harboring a KRASG12C Mutation. New England Journal of Medicine 2022; 387 (2): 120-131.

90 EMA. Rybrevant - Summary of Product Characteristics 2022.

91 FDA. Prescribing Information - RYBREVANT (amivantamab-vmjw) injection, for intravenous use 2021.

92 Park K, Haura EB, Leighl NB et al. Amivantamab in EGFR Exon 20 Insertion-Mutated Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer Progressing on Platinum Chemotherapy: Initial Results From the CHRYSALIS Phase I Study. J Clin Oncol 2021; 39 (30): 3391-3402.

93 Riely GJ, Neal JW, Camidge DR et al. Activity and Safety of Mobocertinib (TAK-788) in Previously Treated Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer with EGFR Exon 20 Insertion Mutations from a Phase I/II Trial. Cancer Discov 2021; 11 (7): 1688-1699.

94 FDA. Prescribing Information - EXKIVITY™ (mobocertinib) capsules, for oral use. 2021.

95 Carmichael JA, Wing-San Mak D, O'Brien M. A Review of Recent Advances in the Treatment of Elderly and Poor Performance NSCLC. Cancers (Basel) 2018; 10 (7).

96 Inoue A, Kobayashi K, Usui K et al. First-line gefitinib for patients with advanced non-small-cell lung cancer harboring epidermal growth factor receptor mutations without indication for chemotherapy. J Clin Oncol 2009; 27 (9): 1394-1400.

97 Nakashima K, Ozawa Y, Daga H et al. Osimertinib for patients with poor performance status and EGFR T790M mutation-positive advanced non-small cell lung cancer: a phase II clinical trial. Invest New Drugs 2020; 38 (6): 1854-1861.

98 Iwama E, Goto Y, Murakami H et al. Alectinib for Patients with ALK Rearrangement-Positive Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer and a Poor Performance Status (Lung Oncology Group in Kyushu 1401). J Thorac Oncol 2017; 12 (7): 1161-1166.

99 Morikawa N, Minegishi Y, Inoue A et al. First-line gefitinib for elderly patients with advanced NSCLC harboring EGFR mutations. A combined analysis of North-East Japan Study Group studies. Expert Opin Pharmacother 2015; 16 (4): 465-472.

100 Maemondo M, Minegishi Y, Inoue A et al. First-line gefitinib in patients aged 75 or older with advanced non-small cell lung cancer harboring epidermal growth factor receptor mutations: NEJ 003 study. J Thorac Oncol 2012; 7 (9): 1417-1422.

101 Nakao A, Hiranuma O, Uchino J et al. Osimertinib in Elderly Patients with Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor T790M-Positive Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer Who Progressed During Prior Treatment: A Phase II Trial. Oncologist 2019; 24 (5): 593-e170.

102 Li XY, Zhu XR, Zhang CC et al. Analysis of Progression Patterns and Failure Sites of Patients With Metastatic Lung Adenocarcinoma With EGFR Mutations Receiving First-line Treatment of Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors. Clin Lung Cancer 2020; 21 (6): 534-544.

103 Fallet V, Matton L, Schernberg A et al. Local ablative therapy in oncogenic-driven oligometastatic non-small cell lung cancer: present and ongoing strategies-a narrative review. Transl Lung Cancer Res 2021; 10 (7): 3457-3472.

104 Chan OSH, Lam KC, Li JYC et al. ATOM: A phase II study to assess efficacy of preemptive local ablative therapy to residual oligometastases of NSCLC after EGFR TKI. Lung Cancer 2020; 142: 41-46.

105 Blake-Cerda M, Lozano-Ruiz F, Maldonado-Magos F et al. Consolidative stereotactic ablative radiotherapy (SABR) to intrapulmonary lesions is associated with prolonged progression-free survival and overall survival in oligometastatic NSCLC patients: A prospective phase 2 study. Lung Cancer 2021; 152: 119-126.

106 Gomez DR, Tang C, Zhang J et al. Local Consolidative Therapy Vs. Maintenance Therapy or Observation for Patients With Oligometastatic Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer: Long-Term Results of a Multi-Institutional, Phase II, Randomized Study. J Clin Oncol 2019; 37 (18): 1558-1565.

107 Wang XS, Bai YF, Verma V et al. Randomized Trial of First-Line Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitor With or Without Radiotherapy for Synchronous Oligometastatic EGFR-Mutated NSCLC. J Natl Cancer Inst 2022.

108 Le Rhun E, Guckenberger M, Smits M et al. EANO-ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up of patients with brain metastasis from solid tumours. Ann Oncol 2021; 32 (11): 1332-1347.

109 Weiss J, Kavanagh B, Deal A et al. Phase II study of stereotactic radiosurgery for the treatment of patients with oligoprogression on erlotinib. Cancer Treat Res Commun 2019; 19: 100126.

110 Coleman R, Hadji P, Body JJ et al. Bone health in cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines. Ann Oncol 2020; 31 (12): 1650-1663.

111 Cherny NI, Dafni U, Bogaerts J et al. ESMO-Magnitude of Clinical Benefit Scale version 1.1. Ann Oncol 2017; 28 (10): 2340-2366.

112 Dykewicz CA. Summary of the Guidelines for Preventing Opportunistic Infections among Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplant Recipients. Clinical Infectious Diseases 2001; 33 (2): 139-144.

113 Gross PA, Barrett TL, Dellinger EP et al. Purpose of quality standards for infectious diseases. Infectious Diseases Society of America. Clin Infect Dis 1994; 18 (3): 421.

FIGURES

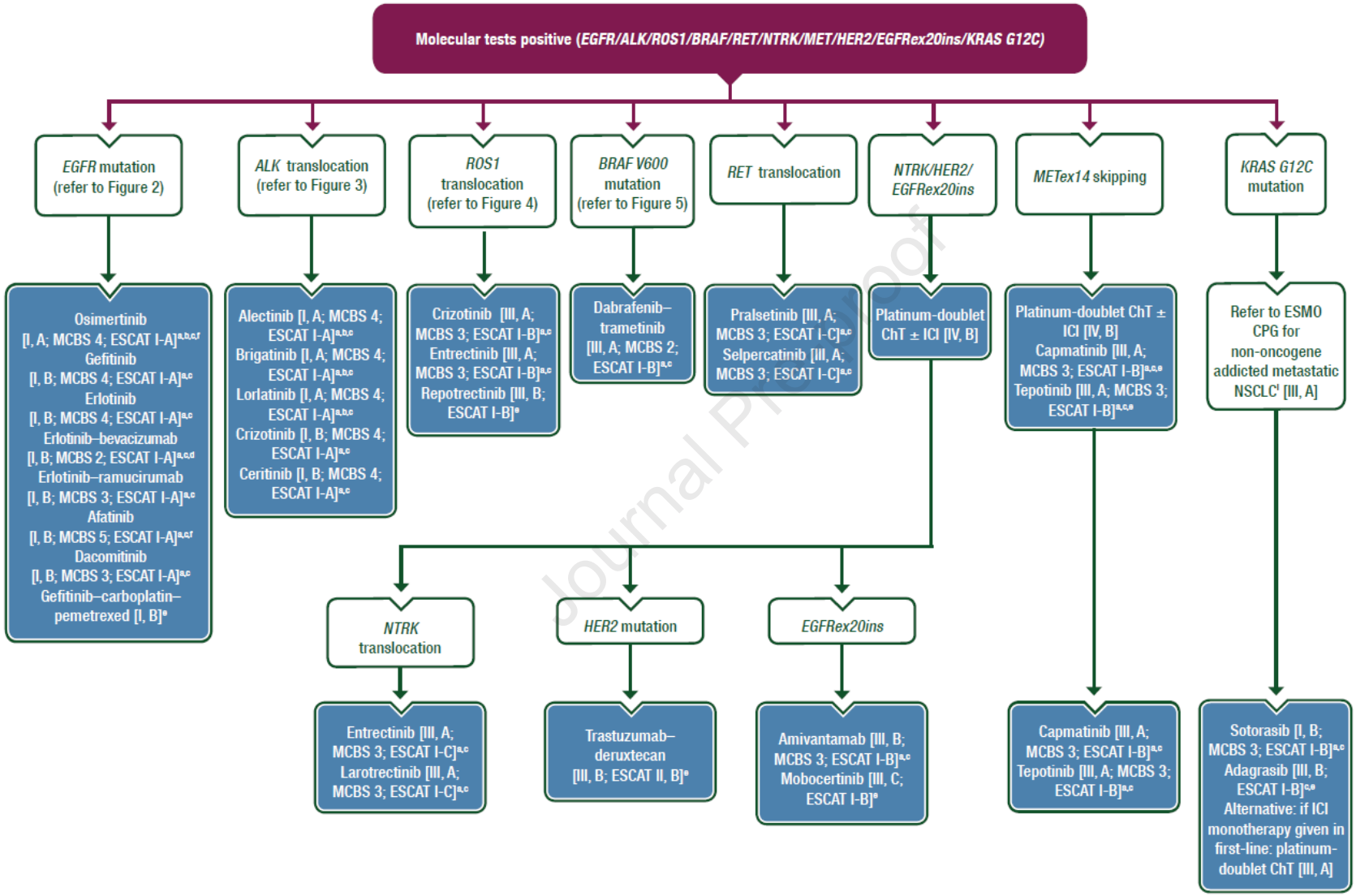
Molecular tests positive (EGFR/ALK/ROS1/BRAF/RET/NTRK/MET/HER2/EGFRex20ins/KRAS G12C)
EGFR mutation (refer to Figure 2)
ALK translocation (refer to Figure 3)
ROS1 translocation (refer to Figure 4)
BRAF V600 mutation (refer to Figure 5)
RET translocation
NTRK/HER2/ EGFRex20ins
METex14 skipping
KRAS G12C mutation
Osimertinib [I, A; MCBS 4; ESCAT I-A][a,b,c,f]
Gefitinib [I, B; MCBS 4; ESCAT I-A][a,c]
Erlotinib [I, B; MCBS 4; ESCAT I-A][a,c]
Erlotinib–bevacizumab [I, B; MCBS 2; ESCAT I-A][a,c,d]
Erlotinib–ramucirumab [I, B; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-A][a,c]
Afatinib [I, B; MCBS 5; ESCAT I-A][a,c,f]
Dacomitinib [I, B; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-A][a,c]
Gefitinib–carboplatin–pemetrexed [I, B][e]
Alectinib [I, A; MCBS 4; ESCAT I-A][a,b,c]
Brigatinib [I, A; MCBS 4; ESCAT I-A][a,b,c]
Lorlatinib [I, A; MCBS 4; ESCAT I-A][a,b,c]
Crizotinib [I, B; MCBS 4; ESCAT I-A][a,c]
Ceritinib [I, B; MCBS 4; ESCAT I-A][a,c]
Crizotinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-B][a,c]
Entrectinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-B][a,c]
Repotrectinib [III, B; ESCAT I-B][e]
Dabrafenib–trametinib [III, A; MCBS 2; ESCAT I-B][a,c]
Pralsetinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-C][a,c]
Selpercatinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-C][a,c]
Platinum-doublet ChT ± ICI [IV, B]
Platinum-doublet ChT ± ICI [IV, B]
Capmatinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-B][a,c,e]
Tepotinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-B][a,c,e]
Refer to ESMO CPG for non-oncogene addicted metastatic NSCLC[i] [III, A]
NTRK translocation
HER2 mutation
EGFRex20ins
Entrectinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-C][a,c]
Larotrectinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-C][a,c]
Trastuzumab–deruxtecan [III, B; ESCAT II, B][e]
Amivantamab [III, B; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-B][a,c]
Mobocertinib [III, C; ESCAT I-B][e]
Capmatinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-B][a,c]
Tepotinib [III, A; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-B][a,c]
Sotorasib [I, B; MCBS 3; ESCAT I-B][a,c]
Adagrasib [III, B; ESCAT I-B][c,e]
Alternative: if ICI monotherapy given in first-line: platinum-doublet ChT [III, A]

Figure 1: Treatment algorithm for stage IV mNSCLC after positive findings on molecular tests.

Purple: general categories or stratification; blue: systemic anticancer therapy.

ChT, chemotherapy; CPG, clinical practice guideline; ESCAT, ESMO Scale for Clinical Actionability of molecular Targets; ICI, immune checkpoint inhibitor; MCBS, ESMO-Magnitude of Clinical Benefit Scale; mNSCLC, metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer.

[a] ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score for new therapy/indication approved by the EMA since 1 January 2016. The score has been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee.

[b] Preferred option(s).

[c] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.

[d] ESMO-MCBS score for the combination of bevacizumab with gefitinib or erlotinib.

[e] Not EMA-approved.

[f] Option for major uncommon sensitizing EGFR mutation [III, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4 for afatinib; ESCAT: I-B].

[g] ESMO-MCBS v1.1[111] was used to calculate scores for new therapies/indications approved by the EMA or FDA. The scores have been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee (https://www.esmo.org/guidelines/esmo-mcbs/esmo-mcbs-evaluation-forms).

[h] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.[4] See Table S1 for more information on ESCAT scores.

[i] A parallel ESMO CPG for non-oncogene-addicted mNSCLC has been submitted for publication.[10]

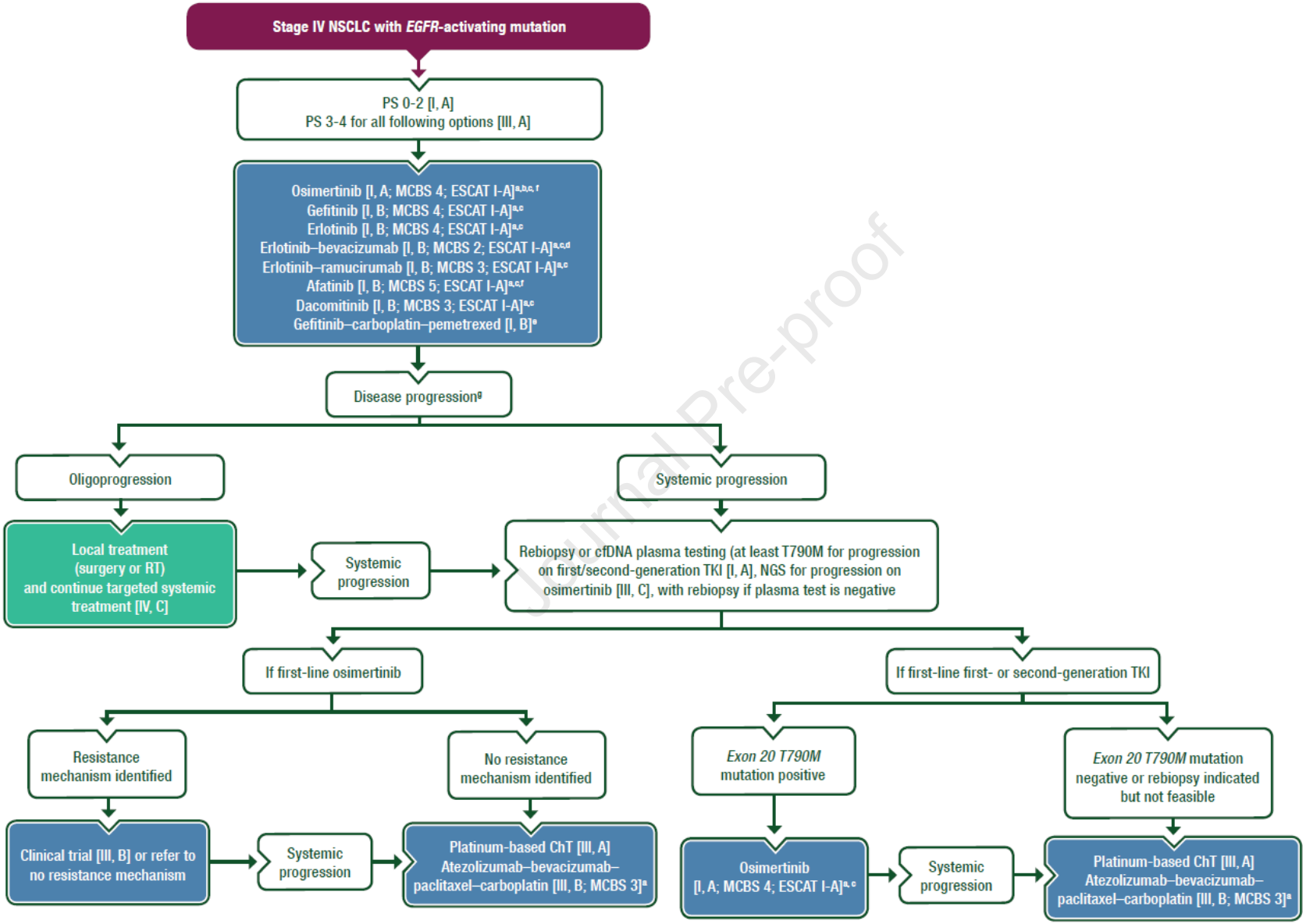

Figure 2: Treatment algorithm for stage IV mNSCLC with *EGFR*-activating mutation

Purple: general categories or stratification; blue: systemic anticancer therapy; turquoise: combination of treatments or other systemic treatments; white: other aspects of management.

cfDNA, cell-free DNA; ChT, chemotherapy; EMA, European Medicines Agency; ESCAT, ESMO Scale for Clinical Actionability of Molecular Targets; MCBS, ESMO-Magnitude of Clinical Benefit Scale; mNSCLC, metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer; NSCLC, non-small-cell lung cancer; PS, performance status; RT, radiotherapy; TKI, tyrosine kinase inhibitor.

[a] ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score for new therapy/indication approved by the EMA since 1 January 2016. The score has been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee.

[b] Preferred option.

[c] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group

[d] ESMO-MCBS score for the combination of bevacizumab with gefitinib or erlotinib.

[e] Not EMA-approved.

[f] Recommended treatment option for patients with a major uncommon, non-exon 20 insertion, sensitising EGFR mutation [III, B; ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score: 4 for afatinib; ESCAT: I-B]

[g] Patients who have moderate radiological progression with ongoing clinical benefit may continue with EGFR TKIs [III, A].

[h] ESMO-MCBS v1.1[111] was used to calculate scores for new therapies/indications approved by the EMA or FDA. The scores have been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee (https://www.esmo.org/guidelines/esmo-mcbs/esmo-mcbs-evaluation-forms).

[i] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.[4] See Table S1 for more information on ESCAT scores.

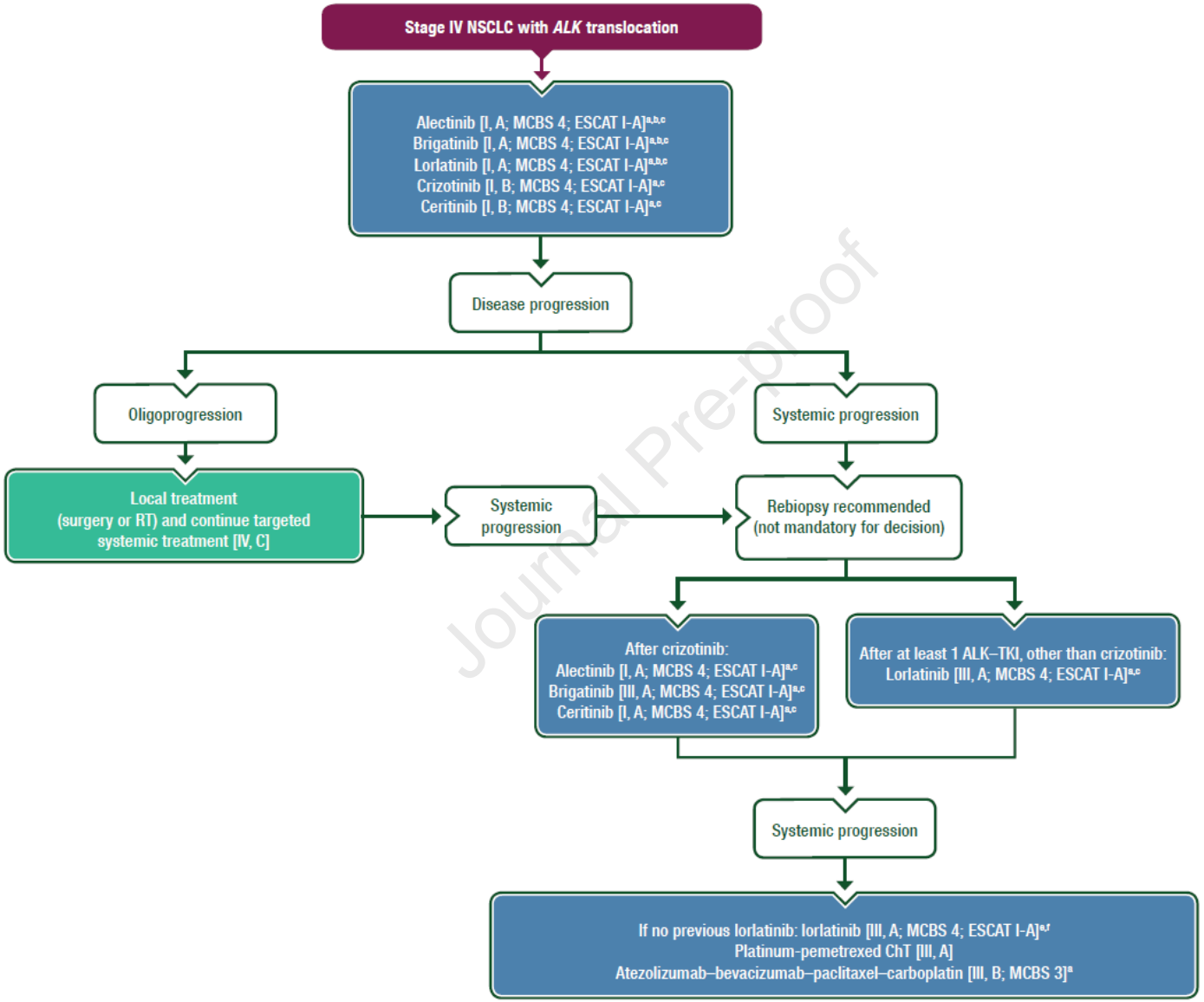

Figure 3: Treatment algorithm for stage IV mNSCLC with *ALK* translocation

Purple: general categories or stratification; blue: systemic anticancer therapy; turquoise: combination of treatments or other systemic treatments; white: other aspects of management.

ChT, chemotherapy; EMA, European Medicines Agency; ESCAT, ESMO Scale for Clinical Actionability of Molecular Targets; MCBS, ESMO-Magnitude of Clinical Benefit Scale; mNSCLC, metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer; NSCLC, non-small-cell lung cancer; RT, radiotherapy; TKI, tyrosine kinase inhibitor.

[a] ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score for new therapy/indication approved by the EMA since 1 January 2016. The score has been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee.

[b] Preferred option.

[c] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.

[d] Not EMA approved.

[e] ESMO-MCBS v1.1[111] was used to calculate scores for new therapies/indications approved by the EMA or FDA. The scores have been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee (https://www.esmo.org/guidelines/esmo-mcbs/esmo-mcbs-evaluation-forms).

[f] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.[4] See Table S1 for more information on ESCAT scores.

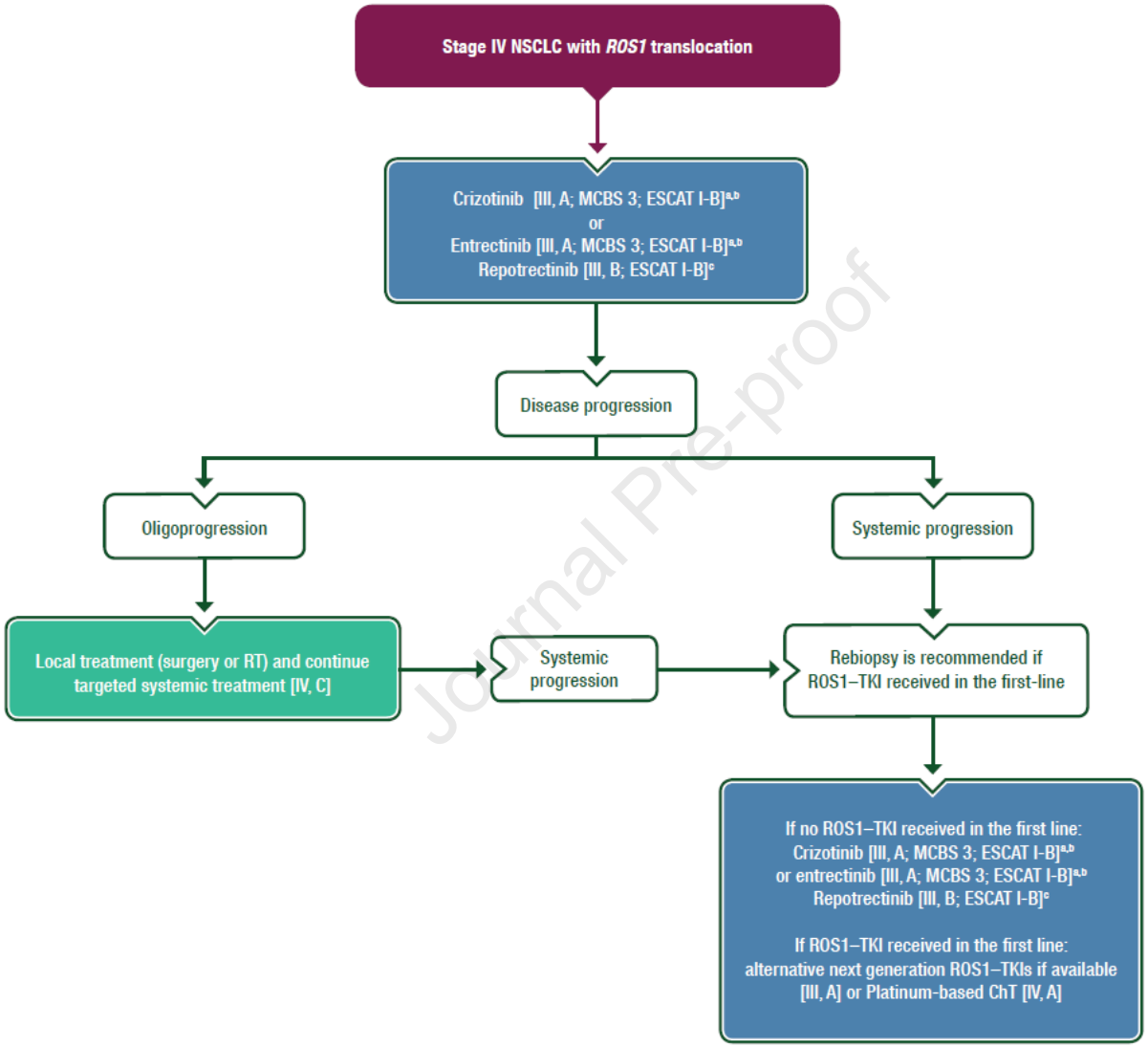

Figure 4: Treatment algorithm for stage IV mNSCLC with *ROS1* translocation

Purple: general categories or stratification; blue: systemic anticancer therapy; turquoise: combination of treatments or other systemic treatments; white: other aspects of management.

ChT, chemotherapy; EMA, European Medicines Agency; ESCAT, ESMO Scale for Clinical Actionability of Molecular Targets; MCBS, ESMO-Magnitude of Clinical Benefit Scale; mNSCLC, metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer; NSCLC, non-small-cell lung cancer; TKI, tyrosine kinase inhibitors.

[a] ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score for new therapy/indication approved by the EMA since 1 January 2016. The score has been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee.

[b] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group**.**

[c] Not EMA approved.

[d] ESMO-MCBS v1.1[111] was used to calculate scores for new therapies/indications approved by the EMA or FDA. The scores have been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee (https://www.esmo.org/guidelines/esmo-mcbs/esmo-mcbs-evaluation-forms).

[e] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.[4] See Table S1 for more information on ESCAT scores.

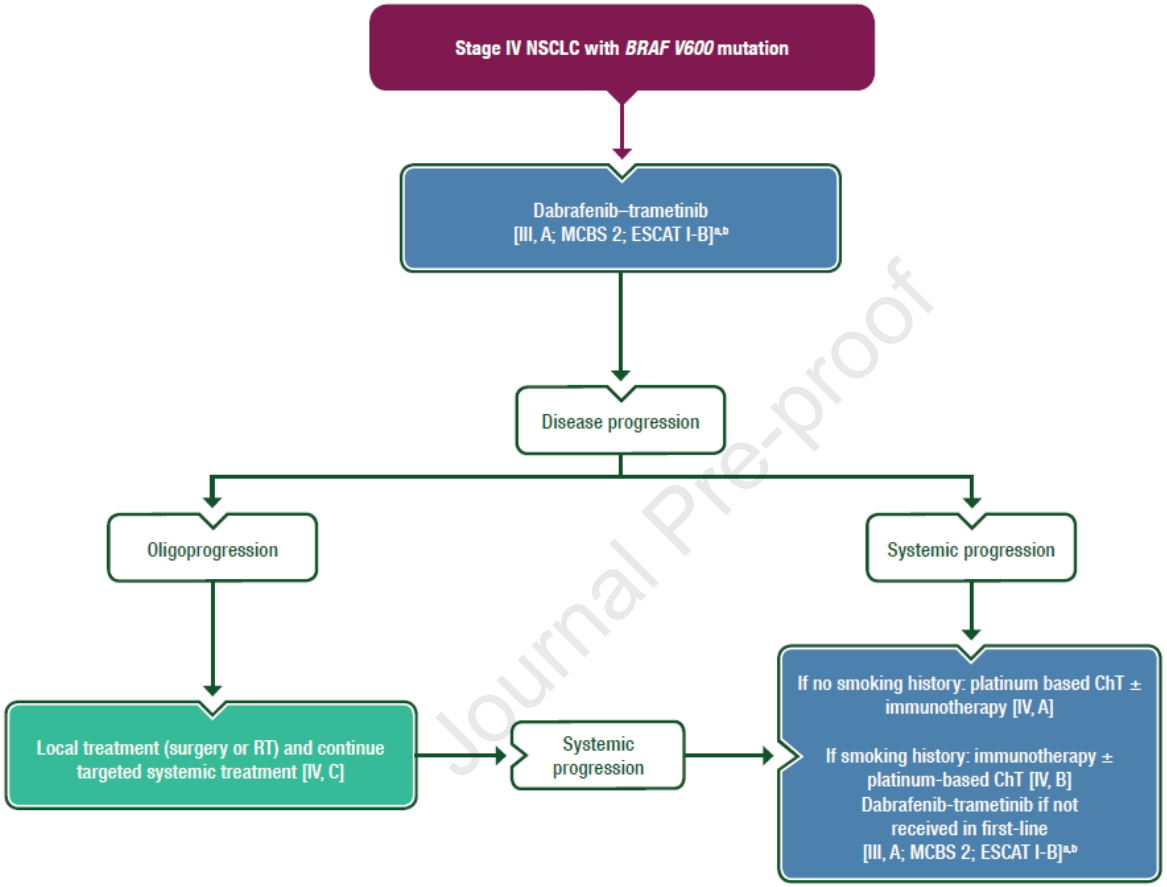

Figure 5: Treatment algorithm for stage IV mNSCLC with *BRAF V600 mutation*

Purple: general categories or stratification; blue: systemic anticancer therapy; turquoise: combination of treatments or other systemic treatments; white: other aspects of management.

ChT, chemotherapy, CPG, Clinical Practice Guideline; EMA, European Medicines Agency; ESCAT, ESMO Scale for Clinical Actionability of Molecular Targets; MCBS, ESMO-Magnitude of Clinical Benefit Scale; NSCLC, non-small-cell lung cancer; mNSCLC, metastatic non-small-cell lung cancer.

[a] ESMO-MCBS v1.1 score for new therapy/indication approved by the EMA since 1 January 2016. The score has been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee.

[b] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.

[c] ESMO-MCBS v1.1[111] was used to calculate scores for new therapies/indications approved by the EMA or FDA. The scores have been calculated by the ESMO-MCBS Working Group and validated by the ESMO Guidelines Committee (https://www.esmo.org/guidelines/esmo-mcbs/esmo-mcbs-evaluation-forms).

[d] ESCAT scores apply to genomic alterations only. These scores have been defined by the guideline authors and validated by the ESMO Translational Research and Precision Medicine Working Group.[4] See Table S1 for more information on ESCAT scores.