

1 **Genetic and genomic learning needs of oncologists and oncology nurses in the era of**
2 **precision medicine: a scoping review**

3

4 **Abstract:**

5 Genetic and genomic data are increasingly guiding clinical care for cancer patients. To meet the
6 growing demand for precision medicine, patient-facing oncology staff will be a part of leading the
7 provision of genomic testing. A scoping review was undertaken to identify the range of genetic and
8 genomic learning needs of oncologists and oncology nurses. Learning needs were reported
9 relating to interpretation of genomic data, clinical decision-making, patient communication and
10 counselling, and fundamentals of genetics and genomics. There was a lack of empirical research
11 specific to oncology nurses and their learning needs in tumour sequencing. Our findings suggest
12 that oncologists and oncology nurses need tailored support, education and training to improve their
13 confidence and skills in adopting genomic testing into clinical practice.

14

15 (Word count: 121)

16

17 **Keywords:**

18 Genetic testing, genomic testing, oncology, learning needs, precision medicine, oncologists,
19 oncology nurses

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1 **Background**

2

3 The rapid expansion of genetic and genomic testing over the past five years, driven by
4 technological advances, decreasing costs and increasing demand, has seen genomics become
5 incorporated into routine clinical care. Genomics is now being used to inform clinical diagnosis and
6 treatment decision-making in oncology with the development of targeted therapies and a move
7 towards a precision medicine approach to cancer treatment. Genetic testing typically refers to
8 single- and multi-gene germline testing for inherited mutations, while genomic testing
9 encompasses large-scale DNA sequencing, including whole exome and genome sequencing. In
10 the context of oncology, genomic testing often involves sequencing of tumour tissue for somatic
11 mutations, which may be undertaken with or without a matched normal DNA sample (paired
12 testing).

13

14 Traditionally clinical genetics has largely operated as a distinct specialty. Genetic testing and/or
15 counselling was typically provided by health professionals with specialist training and expertise in
16 genetics, including clinical geneticists, genetic counsellors and nurses. However, the rapid growth
17 of testing amongst cancer patients is beyond the capacity of the traditional clinical genetics
18 workforce and care pathways. To meet this demand provision of genetic and/or genomic testing is
19 increasingly initiated by health professionals external to clinical genetics and integrated into cancer
20 care. In some cases formal 'mainstreaming genetic testing' programs, particularly in breast and/or
21 ovarian cancer, have been adopted in some oncology settings [1-5].

22

23 The oncology workforce involved in face-to-face patient care encompasses a varied group of
24 health professionals including nurses, surgeons, oncologists, pharmacists, pathologists, dieticians
25 and psychologists. However, in terms of genetic or genomic testing for cancer patients, provision
26 of testing is likely to fall to two key groups: nurses and oncologists – including surgeons, medical,
27 radiation and clinical oncologists. This shift in how genomic testing is provided and by whom
28 requires those involved to have sufficient knowledge, skills and confidence.

29

30 Worldwide, nurses form the largest group of health professionals. With their diverse roles
31 supporting cancer patients from diagnosis, through treatment, recovery or palliation, nurses are
32 ideally placed to facilitate the expansion of access to genetic testing [6]. In the United Kingdom
33 (UK) some oncology centres have already moved to nurse-led services for providing BRCA
34 germline testing in breast and ovarian cancers [2, 7]. In order to support this aspect of clinical
35 practice, oncology nurses need strong foundations in genetics and genomics for their clinical
36 practice. However, studies have reported low levels of genomic literacy and confidence in using
37 genomics [8, 9].

38

1 While some oncologists may already be familiar with providing genomic testing, particularly in
2 countries where tests can be ordered directly, a lack of confidence amongst oncologists about their
3 knowledge of genomics, and ability to make treatment recommendations based on genomic data,
4 has been reported [10, 11]. Furthermore, a survey of medical oncologists found a third did not feel
5 confident communicating personalised genomic results to their patients [12]. A further study found
6 that oncologists were most confident in using somatic single-gene tests, followed by multi-marker
7 tumour panel tests, and least confident in using whole genome or exome sequencing to guide
8 patient care [13].

9
10 *Learning needs of oncologists and cancer nurses in genetics/genomics*

11
12 Learning needs refers to the gap between current skills and knowledge, and the level of skills and
13 knowledge required to undertake a task. In the context of precision medicine and integrating
14 genomic testing, the 'tasks' and corresponding abilities required are not only vast but increasingly
15 complex. While there are likely to be shared learning needs about genomic testing amongst health
16 professionals without specific genetics or genomics training, oncologists and oncology nurses may
17 also have separate, specific learning needs relating to their clinical practice and the context of
18 cancer genomic medicine. The scope of genomic testing in cancer includes germline testing for
19 inherited cancers, tumour testing for somatic, non-inherited mutations and/or paired tumour and
20 germline samples. Testing modalities vary from single gene testing, multi-gene panel tests, whole
21 exome and genome sequencing, to novel genomic biomarkers such as mutation signatures and
22 tumour mutational burden. Classifying and interpreting the clinical significance of genomic
23 alterations identified from sequencing is key in determining eligibility for targeted therapies.
24 Oncologists will increasingly face complex treatment decisions based on the actionability of
25 genomic data [14]. Distilling and communicating relevant genomic information to patients likely to
26 become a crucial part of oncology health professionals' roles.

27
28 In some cases recognition of the skills and knowledge needed for genomic testing across medical
29 disciplines has been formalised as professional competencies; the European Society of Human
30 Genetics has published suggested core competencies for health professionals from non-genetics
31 specialties [15]. A set of core competencies in cancer genomics for clinicians and nurses has also
32 been published recently, which were selected by identifying core competencies from the published
33 literature and using a Delphi process to reach consensus [16]. However, whether, and how,
34 oncology health professionals are able meet these recommended competencies is still unclear.

35
36 A systematic review identified 44 studies of existing genetics/genomics education programs across
37 different specialties [17]. Despite the growing number of educational programs developed, the
38 content and quality of such courses may vary between disciplines, providers, health services and

1 countries and lack clear learning objectives or evidence-based teaching [18]. A systematic review
2 of genomic literacy and interventions reported overall low levels of oncogenomic knowledge
3 amongst health professionals in cancer care, concluding that the reviewed educational
4 interventions were limited in their ability to demonstrate sustained improvements in genomic
5 knowledge and use of genomic services [19].

6
7 Understanding the learning needs required for adoption of genomics into clinical care is particularly
8 pertinent in the context of integrating genomic testing in cancer where much of the 'up front'
9 information and counselling will be led by oncologists and oncology nurses. This makes the need
10 for further information about oncology health professionals' specific learning needs more urgent so
11 as to develop relevant, tailored education and training.

12
13 Our aim in this scoping review is to identify the genetic and genomic learning needs of oncologists
14 and oncology nurses in the context of cancer and precision medicine.

15
16 **Methods**

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18 Design

19
20 A scoping review aims 'to identify key characteristics or factors related to a concept' (p2)[20], in
21 this case specific learning needs for oncology health professionals. The scoping review
22 methodology of Arksey and O'Malley (2005) was adopted for this review. This review also follows
23 the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping
24 Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) checklist (Supplementary materials) and the Johanna Briggs Institute
25 (JBI) methodological guidance [21, 22]. The protocol for this scoping review has been published
26 on the Open Science Framework (link here).

27
28 A competency framework in genomics has been developed by the Genomics Education
29 Programme (GEP), part of the UK's National Health Service. Designed to be cross-disciplinary, the
30 framework can be used on an individual level to highlight personal learning needs or by educators
31 to identify training needs across groups of health professionals [23]. The framework captures eight
32 areas of proficiency for clinicians facilitating genomic testing, shown in Table 1. We used this
33 framework as a means to characterise the gaps in skills and knowledge in the delivery and
34 utilisation of genomic testing amongst oncologists and oncology nurses.

35
36 [Insert here: Table 1 Framework competencies]

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39

1 *Search strategy*

2

3 A systematic search was undertaken in key databases (Medline, EMBASE, CINAHL, SCOPUS) to
4 identify relevant articles. A predefined list of keywords and MeSH terms relating to genetics,
5 genomics, education, knowledge, skills and learning needs, and oncology health professional roles
6 was used for the database search (see supplementary materials). The search strategy and
7 keywords search was initially developed in Medline. Following review by an experienced research
8 librarian, the search strategy was revised and then translated across the remaining databases. The
9 reference lists of included articles were hand-searched to identify other potentially relevant
10 publications. The database search was undertaken in April 2021.

11

12 *Selection criteria*

13

14 The eligibility criteria were developed following the JBI scoping review guidelines and population,
15 concept and concept framework (Table 2). Only publications in English were included. Non-
16 empirical research publications (e.g. guidelines, editorials, commentaries, case reports) were
17 excluded. The screening and selection of records was undertaken in two stages using Covidence
18 software [24]: (i) title and abstracts, (ii) full texts. During the first stage of screening, articles
19 evaluating educational/training courses or tools that report baseline data in the abstract were
20 included, as were relevant literature reviews for the purposes of reviewing references. To focus the
21 study findings on literature about precision medicine, we further refined our search criteria after the
22 title and abstract screen to exclude studies about referral to clinical genetics services and family
23 history risk assessment. Articles published prior to 2010 were excluded to reflect this focus. At both
24 stages, two reviewers (BR and CJ) screened 20% of records until good agreement was reached
25 (Cohen's Kappa = 0.81) [25]; remaining records were screened by BR.

26

27 [Insert here: Table 2 Inclusion/exclusion criteria]

28

29 *Data extraction and synthesis*

30

31 A data extraction form was developed based on the JBI instrument and pilot tested by two
32 reviewers (BR and CJ). The form extracted relevant characteristics including: publication year,
33 publication type, study design, participants, setting/context, study design, genetic/genomic testing
34 type, and learning needs. A narrative synthesis was used to bring together findings from the
35 included studies and described how the results relate to the scoping review's objectives and
36 research question [26]. A quality assessment of included studies was undertaken using the
37 Qualyst tools [27] to provide insight into the quality of the papers, rather than as a threshold for
38 inclusion into this scoping review.

1 **Results**

2

3 *Document characteristics*

4

5 In total 22 publications describing 21 studies were included (Figure 1).

6

7 [Insert here: Figure 1 PRISMA flow diagram]

8

9 Included papers were published between 2010 and 2020, with the majority (n = 15) from the United
10 States or Canada; one study recruited participants across 37 countries. Most studies sampled
11 oncologists (n = 19), with only two studies focusing solely on oncology nurses. Two of the included
12 papers were conference abstracts. Almost all studies used a quantitative study design of self-
13 report surveys (n = 20), the majority of which were developed by the study authors. Most papers
14 were in the context of genomic sequencing of tumour tissue (n = 13) of which two specifically
15 reported using a paired tumour-germline testing strategy; three papers focused on
16 pharmacogenomic testing in oncology. Two papers reported data from both somatic and germline
17 testing scenarios. Eight papers reported a specific disease context, breast or ovarian cancer (n =
18 7) or colorectal and lung cancer (n = 1); the remaining studies were genomic sequencing for
19 advanced cancer in adults. Two other papers focused on paediatric cancer. Study characteristics
20 are presented in Table 3, with a more detailed description of included studies found in Table 4.

21

22 [Insert here: Table 3 Study characteristics]

23

24 [Insert here: Table 4 Description of included studies]

25

26

27 Ongoing Care

28

29 Learning needs in the context of continuing care post-genomic testing related mostly to
30 interpretation of genomic data and use of data to make clinical decisions. Eleven papers
31 highlighted learning needs in interpreting genomic data from sequencing results or reports [11, 12,
32 28-36]. More than 40% of oncologists from tumour sequencing clinical trials cited the need for
33 further education or training to interpret genomic reports [28], or identified a lack of information and
34 knowledge to interpret genomic results [12]. Amongst studies of oncologists, low confidence in
35 interpreting results from somatic testing ranged from nearly two thirds to 20% of participants [11,
36 32, 34, 36]. In a national survey of cancer physicians in the USA, while half of respondents were
37 confident in their ability to interpret results from next generation sequencing (NGS), the remainder
38 reported this was often difficult (11%) or difficult some of the time (40%) [31]. Challenges with
39 interpreting genomic results were also found in specific contexts of genomic testing. In a sample of
40 breast cancer physicians, the majority (71%) were unsure or lacked the ability to interpret genomic

1 reports with variants of unknown significance [30]. In a comparison of genomic reports between
2 traditional static documents and interactive web-based genomic reports, regardless of the type of
3 report 28% physicians found genomic testing results difficult to understand [33]. Lack of confidence
4 in interpreting results was also reported in the context of pharmacogenomics, with 36% of
5 oncologists reporting discomfort in interpreting results from testing [29]. Determining actionability of
6 reported genomic variants was also identified as a potential learning need [35].

7
8 Five studies highlighted difficulty in using genomic testing data to make clinical decisions amongst
9 oncologists [10, 11, 28, 33, 34]. Nearly one quarter of oncologists (26%) [10] reported low
10 confidence in their ability to make treatment recommendations based on tumour sequencing
11 results; in another study 34% of oncologists found it often or sometimes difficult [33]. Oncologists
12 also struggled with using genomic results in clinical care for germline testing results, with two
13 studies reporting low confidence in making treatment recommendations for both somatic and
14 germline testing [11, 34]. Nearly half of oncologists (48%) from a tumour profiling trial reported that
15 they needed additional educational materials or training in order to use the results of tumour
16 testing to guide treatment decisions [28].

17 Purpose and Process

18
19
20 How to discuss or explain genomic sequencing tests, processes and outcomes with oncology
21 patients emerged as a learning need in nine studies [10-12, 28, 34, 36-39]. In one study focusing
22 on germline *BRCA1/2* testing amongst breast surgeons, nearly 12% of participants reported
23 lacking confidence in providing appropriate pre- and post-testing counselling [37]. In the context of
24 a tumour profiling clinical trial, more oncologists cited the need for further training or education in
25 order to explain genomic testing results (40%), compared to purpose and concept of tumour
26 profiling (37%), and genomic testing procedures (20%) to patients [28]. Explaining genomic
27 concepts to patients was also identified as an area where oncologists' lacked confidence [10]. In
28 the context of a targeted therapy and tumour testing trial, although participants were confident in
29 their knowledge of genomic testing and ability to make treatment recommendations, only a minority
30 discussed the possibility of germline findings with patients prior to testing [38].

31
32 In two studies of precision medicine trials, a third of oncologists reported a lack of confidence in
33 communicating genomic results to patients [12, 34]. In a study of genomic sequencing in paediatric
34 cancer, slightly more participants reported not being confident in discussing results with patients
35 for germline testing (63%) compared to somatic testing (54%) [11]. Similarly, in a study of tumour
36 molecular profiling, oncologists reported being less confident discussing germline findings and their
37 implications [36]. A larger proportion of oncologists reported lacking confidence in providing

1 psychosocial support related to germline testing where an inherited cancer predisposition was
2 identified (48%), compared to somatic testing with adverse prognostic implications (26%) [39].

3 4 Clinical Knowledge

5
6 In five studies, the need to improve knowledge and understanding of the fundamentals of genetics
7 and genomics was reported [10, 40-43]. One study of oncologists found 22% reported being 'not
8 very' or 'not confident at all' in their knowledge of genomics [10]. Using a validated measure of
9 genetic knowledge, overall oncologists scored highly indicating good knowledge, although
10 struggled with specific items related to inheritance of germline mutations [43]. The majority of
11 oncology nurses self-reported poor knowledge of general genetic principles [40], with 69%
12 reporting fair or poor genetic knowledge [41]. This was also reflected in objective knowledge
13 measures with nurses scoring just over half of questions correctly [41, 42]. In the context of
14 pharmacogenomics testing, 67% of nurses described their knowledge as poor or fair [41].

15
16 Learning needs associated with variants of unknown significance (VUS) were also reported in four
17 studies [30, 34, 35, 44]. In the context of germline *BRCA1/2* testing for ovarian cancer, although
18 oncology health professionals demonstrated good knowledge overall, more than 20% of
19 participants answered items relating to VUS incorrectly including testing recommendations for
20 unaffected relatives [44]. Amongst breast cancer physicians 42.6% did not fully understand VUS
21 results, with 21.3% reporting no understanding or awareness of VUS [30]. From this study, only
22 half of participants were able to appropriately interpret a genomics report where the result was
23 reported as 'clinical significance unknown', in contrast to a report with a description of an
24 'unclassified variant' where almost all participants interpreted this correctly. In the context of
25 tumour sequencing, including somatic and germline testing, 38.7% of oncologists reported poor or
26 very poor knowledge of the meaning of a VUS [34]. Interpretation of tumour sequencing results
27 was found to be more discrepant in cases with a VUS in an 'actionable' gene [35].

28 29 Test Factors

30
31 In a tumour genetic testing trial, oncologists reported uncertainty about which test to order as a
32 barrier to testing use [38]. Two studies reported that participants lacked knowledge of genomic
33 tests in terms of test capability, technology and processes [12, 45]. Oncologists had little
34 knowledge of new genetic and genomic technologies, including the process of whole genome
35 sequencing [12]. From a qualitative study of oncologists involved in a precision medicine clinical
36 trial, five participants expressed a lack of understanding of genomic sequencing technology, with
37 two participants expressing misconceptions related to its capabilities as a result [45].

1 Knowledge of genetic testing guidelines emerged from three studies [34, 37, 46]. In a survey of
2 breast cancer surgeons, 61% of participants reported following national guidelines for *BRCA1/2*
3 germline testing [37]. Two other studies reported some knowledge of national or professional
4 guidelines for genetic testing as 73.2% [46] and 54.9% [34] amongst oncologists.

5

6 Amongst the studies included in this review, no learning needs were identified for the GEP
7 framework competencies of Recording Consent, Consent Conversations or Support Routes.

8

9 **Discussion**

10

11 The purpose of this scoping review was to identify key characteristics of genomic testing learning
12 needs for oncologists and oncology nurses. In this review, 22 papers which reported data or
13 outcomes related to learning needs in this participant cohort were included. 'Learning needs' –
14 areas where oncologists or oncology nurses were found to lack ability or confidence in specific
15 knowledge and/or skills related to genetic and/or genomic testing – were identified across four of
16 the framework competencies: Ongoing Care, Purpose and Process, Clinical Knowledge and Test
17 Factors.

18

19 As testing expands beyond a single gene approach for inherited cancers to genomic testing for
20 somatic mutations, so too do the skills and knowledge needed to deliver testing in the context of
21 precision medicine. Previously these skills related to assessing and recording family history,
22 recognising features of hereditary cancers, determining eligibility for genetic testing and making
23 referrals to clinical genetics services. With testing now focusing on identifying genomic changes
24 which can be targeted with novel treatments, not surprisingly, the most frequently reported learning
25 needs from this scoping review related to specific clinical skills after genomic testing, such as
26 interpretation of genomic data and use of genomic data for making treatment decisions.

27

28 Overall, there was uncertainty amongst oncologists about their ability or confidence to interpret
29 sequencing results from genomic testing. This may ultimately have potential clinical implications as
30 noted by Brusco et al (2018), 'The clinical impact of genomic testing may be limited by clinicians'
31 ability to appropriately order testing and correctly interpret results' [47]. Genomic testing results
32 and their accompanying reports are complex and can vary significantly between institutions.
33 Despite the challenges associated with genomic results interpretation, there are data to suggest
34 that oncologists do not want simplified reports; instead expressing a preference for more detailed
35 information to link reported mutations with patient carcinogenesis or actionable mutations with
36 relevant clinical trials [45].

37

1 The lack of confidence amongst oncologists in making clinical decisions and recommendations
2 from genomic data may also be attributed to uncertainty surrounding the clinical utility of genomic
3 testing. Studies have reported that oncologists have little confidence that tumour profiling guides
4 useful treatment decisions [36], or that it factored little into treatment decision-making [48]. The
5 ability to identify therapeutic targets from genomic testing is still emerging, with a small but growing
6 number of targeted therapies for a range of tumour types including metastatic colorectal cancer,
7 serous ovarian cancer, non-small cell lung cancer and melanoma [49]. The impetus to develop
8 skills to use genomic data for patient management needs to be founded upon robust clinical
9 evidence. Clinicians are unlikely to embrace genomic testing in the absence of clinical impact [50].
10 In the context of cancer genomic testing, oncologists may undertake the bulk of the testing
11 process, including providing pre- and post-test counselling for patients and disclosing results. This
12 review identified that oncologists' lacked confidence or self-perceived ability in communicating
13 results of testing to patients and providing psychosocial support post-testing. Oncologists
14 appeared to report more difficulty with patient communication in relation to germline testing and its
15 implications, perhaps indicating better understanding and/or increased familiarity with discussing
16 and managing somatic testing. This was also reflected in poorer knowledge regarding inheritance
17 patterns of germline mutations [43], and failure to discuss the potential of germline mutations from
18 tumour sequencing with patients [38]. As up to 12% of patients will have germline mutation
19 identified as a result of tumour sequencing [51], oncologists need to have the skills and confidence
20 to initially disclose and discuss these results with their patients and a clear and accessible referral
21 pathway to clinical genetics services.

22
23 This scoping review identified a paucity of research studies specific to oncology nurses and their
24 genomic learning needs. Despite a growing number of published commentaries and editorials
25 describing the crucial role oncology nurses will play in genomic testing for cancer care, there is a
26 lack of empirical research regarding their knowledge and skills; in particular no studies were
27 identified in the context of tumour sequencing and learning needs for oncology nurses. Oncology
28 nurses care for cancer patients through diagnosis and treatment, providing support, education and
29 information. In the context of precision medicine nurses need to have sufficient knowledge of
30 current clinical evidence [52]. Two studies of oncology nurses found poor self-reported and
31 objective knowledge of the fundamentals of genetics and genomics and pharmacogenomics.
32 These studies however did not address the many other skills and knowledge oncology nurses may
33 require in the context of precision medicine.

34
35 The findings of this scoping review suggest a need for greater understanding of both objective and
36 self-perceived learning needs in tumour sequencing for oncology nurses. In a recent publication of
37 core curriculum in cancer genomics for health professionals, the knowledge and abilities
38 competencies for nurses related primarily to inherited cancer predispositions testing [16]. In

1 contrast, physician competencies included competencies specific to somatic testing such as
2 'Knowledge of the concept of somatic genetic change' and 'Awareness of incidental and secondary
3 findings from somatic tumor profiling'.
4

5 The GEP competency framework is a useful tool developed in the context of a national genomic
6 testing program and designed to be cross-disciplinary. Education and training strategies could be
7 tailored to address learning needs of key competencies, facilitating the utilisation and delivery of
8 genomic testing in the context of cancer care and precision medicine. The absence of identifiable
9 learning needs for three framework competencies – Recording Consent, Consent Conversations
10 and Support Roles – likely reflects that oncologists and oncology nurses may already be familiar
11 with complex consent conversations, for example consenting patients for clinical trial participation.
12 In some contexts tumour analysis is undertaken as part of standard care and diagnostic work-up
13 and may not require explicit consent. However genomic testing of tumour has the potential to
14 identify germline mutations; patients need to be informed of this and provide consent to testing as
15 well as indicate their preferences to receive such findings [53]. Management of germline findings
16 should also be supported by knowledge of and access to hereditary cancer services; in the context
17 of germline testing, data has shown variable referral rates amongst oncologists both pre- and post-
18 testing ranging from 7-100% [4, 54].
19

20 In general, the papers included in this review were not designed to specifically measure learning
21 needs or gaps in participants' skills and knowledge. Only a minority of papers used objective
22 measures of knowledge, with most papers relying on self-report measures of confidence or ability
23 related to specific genomic testing topics. There was a lack of clarity of the genomic knowledge or
24 skills measured due to the use of general terms such as 'genomic literacy' or 'genomic concepts'.
25 Thus it is difficult to establish whether reported self-confidence and understanding is reflective of
26 actual abilities amongst oncologists and oncology nurses [11]. Excluding studies where
27 participants were physicians treating cancer patients, but not explicitly described as oncologists,
28 may have meant some relevant publications were missed. There was some lack of clarity in the
29 reporting of the genomic testing mode undertaken, with only two studies specifically reporting
30 paired tumour-germline testing strategies. While a quality assessment of included papers was
31 undertaken, it was not used as a means to reject studies of lower quality.
32

33 **Future perspectives**

34

35 In this era of cancer precision medicine, genomic testing is likely to become standard of care for
36 cancer patients, utilised by oncology clinicians to inform treatment decisions. Harnessing the
37 potential of genomic cancer will not only depend on treatment and technological advances, but
38 also on the skills and knowledge of the health professionals involved [55]. Recently published

1 competencies are an important step in defining relevant cancer genomic skills and knowledge,
2 however further research is needed to determine how these competencies will be met. Tailored
3 educational interventions with a shift away from self-perceived measures of ability to objective
4 measures and outcomes are also needed. Oncology nurses play a significant role in the care of
5 cancer patients and their capacity in the provision of somatic testing should not be neglected.

6

7 **Word count: 4199**

8

1 **Executive summary**

- 2 • Using the Genomics Education Programme (GEP) framework of proficiency in genomic
3 testing identified learning needs in four areas: Ongoing Care, Purpose and Process,
4 Clinical Knowledge and Test Factors
- 5 • The most cited learning needs for oncologists related to interpretation of genomic data,
6 patient communication and counselling, use of genomic data to make clinical decisions and
7 knowledge of fundamentals of genetics and genomics
- 8 • Most research was conducted in the context of somatic testing for molecular tumour
9 profiling, reflecting a shift in testing mode in the clinical setting
- 10 • There is a dearth of empirical research focusing on oncology nurses and knowledge of
11 tumour profiling
- 12 • Tailored education interventions specific to the learning needs of oncology clinicians is
13 needed
- 14 • Objective measures of genetic and genomic skills and knowledge are key to ensure
15 professional competencies are met

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1 **Table legends**

2

3 Table 1 Genomics Education Programme cross-disciplinary competency framework for genomic
4 testing and corresponding learning needs

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6 Table 2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria used for screening articles

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8 Table 3 Study characteristics in alphabetical order (n=22)

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10 Table 4 Details of included studies

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13 **Figure legends**

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15 Figure 1 PRISMA flow diagram

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18 **Supplementary materials**

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20 Table 1 Medline search terms and search strategy

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22 Table 2 PRISMA-ScR Checklist

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