

Patient Name: 황상호
Gender: M
Sample ID: N25-18
Primary Tumor Site: unknown
Collection Date: 2025.04.30

Sample Cancer Type: Unknown Primary Origin

Table of Contents	Page	Report Highlights
Variant Details	2	4 Relevant Biomarkers
Biomarker Descriptions	3	0 Therapies Available
Relevant Therapy Summary	8	4 Clinical Trials

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	<i>RAD50 deletion</i> RAD50 double strand break repair protein Locus: chr5:131892978	None*	None*	3
IIC	<i>TP53 p.(R273L) c.818G>T</i> tumor protein p53 Allele Frequency: 61.60% Locus: chr17:7577120 Transcript: NM_000546.6	None*	None*	3
IIC	<i>TMPRSS2::ERG fusion</i> transmembrane protease, serine 2 - ERG, ETS transcription factor Locus: chr21:42870046 - chr21:39817544	None*	None*	2
IIC	<i>PIK3R1 c.502+1G>T</i> phosphoinositide-3-kinase regulatory subunit 1 Allele Frequency: 20.37% Locus: chr5:67569842 Transcript: NM_181523.3	None*	None*	1

* Public data sources included in relevant therapies: FDA1, NCCN, EMA2, ESMO
Line of therapy: I: First-line therapy, II+: Other line of therapy
Tier Reference: Li et al. Standards and Guidelines for the Interpretation and Reporting of Sequence Variants in Cancer: A Joint Consensus Recommendation of the Association for Molecular Pathology, American Society of Clinical Oncology, and College of American Pathologists. J Mol Diagn. 2017 Jan;19(1):4-23.

Prevalent cancer biomarkers without relevant evidence based on included data sources

APC p.(L93Hfs*46) c.277_278insA, FAT1 p.(Q16*) c.46C>T, Microsatellite stable, NOTCH4 p.(L8Afs*52) c.21_23delGCTinsC, DICER1 p.(Q941Afs*8) c.2821_2822delCA, NQO1 p.(P187S) c.559C>T, PPM1D p.(S85*) c.254C>A, DSC3 p.(Y319*) c.957C>A, Tumor Mutational Burden

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants							
Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
FAT1	p.(Q16*)	c.46C>T	.	chr4:187630936	11.35%	NM_005245.4	nonsense
PIK3R1	p.(?)	c.502+1G>T	.	chr5:67569842	20.37%	NM_181523.3	unknown
APC	p.(L93Hfs*46)	c.277_278insA	.	chr5:112102942	19.43%	NM_000038.6	frameshift Insertion
NOTCH4	p.(L8Afs*52)	c.21_23delGCTinsC	.	chr6:32191683	100.00%	NM_004557.4	frameshift Block Substitution
DICER1	p.(Q941Afs*8)	c.2821_2822delCA	.	chr14:95572542	25.62%	NM_030621.4	frameshift Deletion
NQO1	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T	.	chr16:69745145	44.72%	NM_000903.3	missense
TP53	p.(R273L)	c.818G>T	COSM10779	chr17:7577120	61.60%	NM_000546.6	missense
PPM1D	p.(S85*)	c.254C>A	.	chr17:58678029	11.80%	NM_003620.4	nonsense
DSC3	p.(Y319*)	c.957C>A	.	chr18:28598752	3.14%	NM_001941.5	nonsense
BRINP3	p.(E322K)	c.964G>A	.	chr1:190130018	28.97%	NM_199051.3	missense
PARP1	p.(Q40H)	c.120G>T	.	chr1:226595511	27.61%	NM_001618.4	missense
OR2L8	p.(H158Q)	c.474C>A	.	chr1:248112633	25.29%	NM_001001963.1	missense
MYCN	p.(L440lfs*16)	c.1318_1319delCTinsA	.	chr2:16086142	9.87%	NM_005378.6	frameshift Block Substitution
RAF1	p.(I551M)	c.1653C>G	.	chr3:12626636	22.01%	NM_002880.4	missense
PROS1	p.(R69W)	c.205A>T	.	chr3:93646123	35.14%	NM_000313.4	missense
HCN1	p.(S811C)	c.2432C>G	.	chr5:45262264	40.00%	NM_021072.4	missense
NMUR2	p.(Q381K)	c.1141C>A	.	chr5:151771859	14.35%	NM_020167.5	missense
TNFAIP3	p.(E193K)	c.577G>A	.	chr6:138196915	18.10%	NM_001270507.2	missense
CSMD3	p.(P3680L)	c.11039C>T	.	chr8:113237085	21.65%	NM_198123.2	missense
CSMD3	p.(T2639K)	c.7916C>A	.	chr8:113318391	32.54%	NM_198123.2	missense
PTCH1	p.(E534Q)	c.1600G>C	.	chr9:98239043	14.66%	NM_000264.5	missense
SYT10	p.(T493S)	c.1477A>T	.	chr12:33532790	35.81%	NM_198992.4	missense
TMEM132D	p.(Q363H)	c.1089G>T	.	chr12:130015630	47.42%	NM_133448.3	missense
BRCA1	p.(E649Q)	c.1945G>C	.	chr17:41245603	13.85%	NM_007294.4	missense
SPOP	p.(E304K)	c.910G>A	.	chr17:47679297	10.18%	NM_001007228.2	missense
KEAP1	p.(G332C)	c.994G>T	.	chr19:10602584	61.24%	NM_203500.2	missense
KMT2B	p.(M1354I)	c.4062G>T	.	chr19:36218115	3.70%	NM_014727.3	missense
KIR3DL1	p.(G379W)	c.1135G>T	.	chr19:55341412	78.20%	NM_001322168.1	missense
EP300	p.(D1384N)	c.4150G>A	.	chr22:41564849	30.90%	NM_001429.4	missense
COL4A6	p.(G1147C)	c.3439G>T	.	chrX:107413893	62.17%	NM_033641.4	missense
STAG2	p.(L203F)	c.607C>T	.	chrX:123179158	54.92%	NM_001042749.2	missense

Variant Details (continued)

DNA Sequence Variants (continued)

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
NSDHL	p.(G44R)	c.130_132delGGTinsC GG		chrX:152018830	65.21%	NM_015922.3	missense

Gene Fusions

Genes	Variant ID	Locus
TMPRSS2::ERG	TMPRSS2-ERG.T2E4.COSF28	chr21:42870046 - chr21:39817544
TMPRSS2::ERG	TMPRSS2-ERG.T1E4.COSF25	chr21:42880008 - chr21:39817544

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
RAD50	chr5:131892978	0.87	0.69
PXDNL	chr8:52233342	0.65	0.63
RB1	chr13:48877953	4.37	1.64
RNASEH2B	chr13:51484145	5.56	1.96

Biomarker Descriptions

PIK3R1 c.502+1G>T

phosphoinositide-3-kinase regulatory subunit 1

Background: The PIK3R1 gene encodes the phosphoinositide-3-kinase regulatory subunit 1 of the class I phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) enzyme¹. PI3K is a heterodimer that contains a p85 regulatory subunit and a p110 catalytic subunit². Specifically, PIK3R1 encodes the p85α protein, one of five p85 isoforms². p85α is responsible for the binding, stabilization, and inhibition of the p110 catalytic subunit, thereby regulating PI3K activity². PI3K catalyzes the conversion of phosphatidylinositol (4,5)-bisphosphate (PIP2) into phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-trisphosphate (PIP3) while the phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) catalyzes the reverse reaction^{3,4}. The reversible phosphorylation of inositol lipids regulates diverse aspects of cell growth and metabolism^{3,4,5,6}. p85 is also capable of binding PTEN thereby preventing ubiquitination and increasing PTEN stability⁷. Loss of function mutations in PIK3R1 results in the inability of p85 to bind p110 or PTEN resulting in aberrant activation of the PI3K/AKT/MTOR pathway, a common driver event in several cancer types which supports a tumor suppressor role for PIK3R1².

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in PIK3R1 are predominantly truncating or missense and are observed in about 31% of uterine cancer, 10% of uterine carcinosarcoma and glioblastoma, 6% of colorectal cancer, and 3-4% of melanoma, low grade glioma (LGG), stomach, and cervical cancers⁸. Additionally, biallelic loss of PIK3R1 is observed in 3-4% of ovarian and prostate cancers⁸.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for PIK3R1 aberrations.

TP53 p.(R273L) c.818G>T

tumor protein p53

Background: The TP53 gene encodes the p53 tumor suppressor protein that binds to DNA and activates transcription in response to diverse cellular stresses to induce cell cycle arrest, apoptosis, or DNA repair. In unstressed cells, TP53 is kept inactive by targeted degradation via MDM2, a substrate recognition factor for ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis. Alterations in TP53 is required for oncogenesis as they result in loss of protein function and gain of transforming potential⁹. Germline mutations in TP53 are the underlying cause of Li-Fraumeni syndrome, a complex hereditary cancer predisposition disorder associated with early-onset cancers^{10,11}.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Alterations and prevalence: TP53 is the most frequently mutated gene in the cancer genome with approximately half of all cancers experiencing TP53 mutations. Ovarian, head and neck, esophageal, and lung squamous cancers have particularly high TP53 mutation rates (60-90%)^{8,12,13,14,15,16}. Approximately two-thirds of TP53 mutations are missense mutations and several recurrent missense mutations are common including substitutions at codons R158, R175, Y220, R248, R273, and R282^{8,12}. Invariably, recurrent missense mutations in TP53 inactivate its ability to bind DNA and activate transcription of target genes^{17,18,19,20}.

Potential relevance: The small molecule p53 reactivator, PC14586, received a fast track designation (2020) by the FDA for advanced tumors harboring a TP53 Y220C mutation²¹. The FDA has granted fast track designation (2019) to the p53 reactivator, eprenetapopt,²² and breakthrough designation²³ (2020) in combination with azacitidine or azacitidine and venetoclax for acute myeloid leukemia patients (AML) and myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS) harboring a TP53 mutation, respectively. In addition to investigational therapies aimed at restoring wild-type TP53 activity, compounds that induce synthetic lethality are also under clinical evaluation^{24,25}. TP53 mutations confer poor prognosis and poor risk in multiple blood cancers including AML, MDS, myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN), and chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), and acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL)^{26,27,28,29,30,31}. In mantle cell lymphoma, TP53 mutations are associated with poor prognosis when treated with conventional therapy including hematopoietic cell transplant³². Mono- and bi-allelic mutations in TP53 confer unique characteristics in MDS, with multi-hit patients also experiencing associations with complex karyotype, few co-occurring mutations, and high-risk disease presentation as well as predicted death and leukemic transformation independent of the IPSS-R staging system³³.

DSC3 p.(Y319*) c.957C>A

desmocollin 3

Background: The DSC3 gene encodes desmocollin 3, a member of the desmocollin (DSC) subfamily of the cadherin superfamily, which also includes DSC1 and DSC2¹. DSCs along with desmogleins (DSGs) function as membrane-spanning constituents of the desmosomes³⁴. Desmosomes are protein complexes in the intracellular junctions that confer stability and strengthen cell-cell adhesion³⁵. Deregulation of DSC expression is suggested to impact β -catenin signaling and has been observed in a number of cancer types, supporting a potential role for DSC3 in tumorigenesis^{34,36,37,38}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in DSC3 are observed in 19% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 8% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 5% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, 4% of lung adenocarcinoma, and 3% of bladder urothelial carcinoma^{8,12}. Biallelic deletion of DSC3 is observed in 2% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma and esophageal adenocarcinoma^{8,12}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for DSC3 aberrations.

NOTCH4 p.(L8Afs*52) c.21_23delGCTinsC

notch 4

Background: The NOTCH4 gene encodes the notch receptor 4 protein, a type 1 transmembrane protein and member of the NOTCH family of genes, which also includes NOTCH1, NOTCH2, and NOTCH3. NOTCH proteins contain multiple epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like repeats in their extracellular domain, which are responsible for ligand binding and homodimerization, thereby promoting NOTCH signaling³⁹. Following ligand binding, the NOTCH intracellular domain is released, which activates the transcription of several genes involved in regulation of cell proliferation, differentiation, growth, and metabolism^{40,41}. In cancer, depending on the tumor type, aberrations in the NOTCH family can be gain of function or loss of function suggesting both oncogenic and tumor suppressor roles for NOTCH family members^{42,43,44,45}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations observed in NOTCH4 are primarily missense or truncating and are found in about 16% of melanoma, 9% of lung adenocarcinoma and uterine cancer, as well as 3-6% of bladder colorectal, squamous lung and stomach cancers⁸.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for NOTCH4 aberrations.

FAT1 p.(Q16*) c.46C>T

FAT atypical cadherin 1

Background: FAT1 encodes the FAT atypical cadherin 1 protein, a member of the cadherin superfamily characterized by the presence of cadherin-type repeats^{1,46}. FAT cadherins, which also include FAT2, FAT3, and FAT4, are transmembrane proteins containing a cytoplasmic domain and a number of extracellular laminin G-like motifs and EGF-like motifs, which contributes to their individual functions⁴⁶. The cytoplasmic tail of FAT1 is known to interact with a number of protein targets involved in cell adhesion, proliferation, migration, and invasion⁴⁶. FAT1 has been observed to influence the regulation of several oncogenic pathways, including the WNT/ β -

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

catenin, Hippo, and MAPK/ERK signaling pathways, as well as epithelial to mesenchymal transition⁴⁶. Alterations of FAT1 lead to down-regulation or loss of function, supporting a tumor suppressor role for FAT1⁴⁶.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in FAT1 are predominantly truncating although, the R1627Q mutation has been identified as a recurrent hotspot^{8,12}. Mutations in FAT1 are observed in 22% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 20% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 14% of lung squamous cell carcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, and 12% diffuse large b-cell lymphoma and bladder urothelial carcinoma^{8,12}. Biallelic loss of FAT1 is observed in 7% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 6% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 5% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, and 4% of diffuse large b-cell lymphoma, stomach adenocarcinoma and uterine carcinosarcoma^{8,12}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for FAT1 aberrations.

Microsatellite stable

Background: Microsatellites are short tandem repeats (STR) of 1 to 6 bases of DNA between 5 to 50 repeat units in length. There are approximately 0.5 million STRs that occupy 3% of the human genome⁴⁷. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue^{48,49}. MSI is closely tied to the status of the mismatch repair (MMR) genes. In humans, the core MMR genes include MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, and PMS2⁵⁰. Mutations and loss of expression in MMR genes, known as defective MMR (dMMR), lead to MSI. In contrast, when MMR genes lack alterations, they are referred to as MMR proficient (pMMR). Consensus criteria were first described in 1998 and defined MSI-high (MSI-H) as instability in two or more of the following five markers: BAT25, BAT26, D5S346, D2S123, and D17S250⁵¹. Tumors with instability in one of the five markers were defined as MSI-low (MSI-L) whereas, those with instability in zero markers were defined as MS-stable (MSS)⁵¹. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS^{52,53,54,55,56}. MSI-H is a hallmark of Lynch syndrome (LS), also known as hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer, which is caused by germline mutations in the MMR genes⁴⁹. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer^{48,49,53,57}.

Alterations and prevalence: The MSI-H phenotype is observed in 30% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 20% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 15-20% of colon adenocarcinoma, and 5-10% of rectal adenocarcinoma^{48,49,58,59}. MSI-H is also observed in 5% of adrenal cortical carcinoma and at lower frequencies in other cancers such as esophageal, liver, and ovarian cancers^{58,59}.

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab⁶⁰ (2014) and nivolumab⁶¹ (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab⁶⁰ is also approved as a single agent, for the treatment of patients with advanced endometrial carcinoma that is MSI-H or dMMR with disease progression on prior therapy who are not candidates for surgery or radiation. Importantly, pembrolizumab is approved for the treatment of MSI-H or dMMR solid tumors that have progressed following treatment, with no alternative option and is the first anti-PD-1 inhibitor to be approved with a tumor agnostic indication⁶⁰. Dostarlimab⁶² (2021) is also approved for dMMR recurrent or advanced endometrial carcinoma or solid tumors that have progressed on prior treatment and is recommended as a subsequent therapy option in dMMR/MSI-H advanced or metastatic colon or rectal cancer^{54,63}. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab⁶⁴ (2011), is approved alone or in combination with nivolumab in MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer that has progressed following treatment with chemotherapy. MSI-H may confer a favorable prognosis in colorectal cancer although outcomes vary depending on stage and tumor location^{54,65,66}. Specifically, MSI-H is a strong prognostic indicator of better overall survival (OS) and relapse free survival (RFS) in stage II as compared to stage III colorectal cancer patients⁶⁶. The majority of patients with tumors classified as either MSS or pMMR do not benefit from treatment with single-agent immune checkpoint inhibitors as compared to those with MSI-H tumors^{67,68}. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers^{67,68}.

APC p.(L93Hfs*46) c.277_278insA

APC, WNT signaling pathway regulator

Background: The APC gene encodes the adenomatous polyposis coli tumor suppressor protein that plays a crucial role in regulating the β -catenin/WNT signaling pathway which is involved in cell migration, adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation⁶⁹. APC is an antagonist of WNT signaling as it targets β -catenin for proteasomal degradation^{70,71}. Germline mutations in APC are predominantly inactivating and result in an autosomal dominant predisposition for familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) which is characterized by numerous polyps in the intestine^{69,72}. Acquiring a somatic mutation in APC is considered to be an early and possibly initiating event in colorectal cancer⁷³.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in APC are observed in up to 65% of colorectal cancer, and in up to 15% of stomach adenocarcinoma and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma^{8,12,74}. In colorectal cancer, ~60% of somatic APC mutations have been reported to occur in a mutation cluster region (MCR) resulting in C-terminal protein truncation and APC inactivation^{75,76}.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for APC aberrations.

TMPRSS2::ERG fusion

ERG, ETS transcription factor, transmembrane protease, serine 2

Background: The ERG gene encodes the erythroblast transformation-specific (ETS) transcription factor ERG, which belongs to the ETS family of transcriptional regulators that are involved in embryonic development, cell proliferation, differentiation, angiogenesis, inflammation, and apoptosis¹.

Alterations and prevalence: ERG gene fusions are the most common molecular subtype of prostate cancer and are present in over 30% of cases^{12,77,78}. ERG fusions to the androgen-regulated TMPRSS2 promoter occur in over 90% of prostate cancer with ERG rearrangements. The fusion of ERG to EWSR1 is a common abnormality in Ewing sarcoma and is observed in 5% of cases⁷⁹.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for ERG aberrations. The t(21;22)(q22;q12) and t(16;21)(p11;q22) translocations resulting in EWSR1::ERG and FUS::ERG fusions, respectively, are useful as ancillary diagnostic markers in Ewing sarcoma/peripheral neuroectodermal tumors^{80,81}. TMPRSS2::ERG fusions overexpress ERG and are associated with poor prognosis as well as tumor aggressiveness in prostate cancer^{77,82}. Because TMPRSS2 is involved in androgen regulation, TMPRSS2::ERG expression in prostate cancer tends to be positively correlated with androgen receptor (AR) overexpression⁸³. Therapies for treating advanced prostate cancer often involve androgen deprivation, which in turn leads to a reduction of TMPRSS2::ERG expression. However, acquired resistance to these therapies restores androgen signaling and TMPRSS2::ERG expression⁸⁴.

DICER1 p.(Q941Afs*8) c.2821_2822delCA

dicer 1, ribonuclease III

Background: The DICER1 gene encodes the dicer 1, ribonuclease III protein¹. DICER1 is a member of the ribonuclease (RNase) III family that also includes DROSHA⁸⁵. Both DICER1 and DROSHA are responsible for the processing of precursor non-coding RNA (primary miRNA) into micro-RNA (miRNA)^{85,86}. Following primary miRNA processing to hairpin precursor miRNA (pre-miRNA) by DROSHA and DGCR8, pre-miRNA is then cleaved by DICER1 resulting in the production of mature miRNA⁸⁵. Once processed, mature miRNA is capable of post-transcriptional gene repression by recognizing complementary target sites on messenger RNA (mRNA)^{85,86}. miRNAs are frequently dysregulated in cancer, potentially through DGCR8, DICER1, or DROSHA aberrations that impact miRNA processing^{86,87,88,89}. Germline DICER1 mutations result in DICER1 syndrome, a rare genetic disorder that predisposes affected individuals to tumor development⁹⁰.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in DICER1 are observed in 13% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 11% of skin cutaneous melanoma, and 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, and uterine carcinosarcoma^{8,12}. Biallelic loss of DICER1 is observed in 3% of cholangiocarcinoma and 2% kidney chromophobe^{8,12}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for DICER1 aberrations.

PPM1D p.(S85*) c.254C>A

protein phosphatase, Mg2+/Mn2+ dependent 1D

Background: The PPM1D gene encodes the protein phosphatase, Mg2+/Mn2+ dependent 1D, which is a member of the PP2C family of Ser/Thr protein phosphatases¹. Upon cellular stress, p53-induced PPM1D dephosphorylates and downregulates target CHK1 and P53, which are involved in DNA repair pathways and cell cycle checkpoints^{91,92}. PPM1D function leads to the inhibition of apoptosis, cancer cell proliferation, migration, and invasion^{91,92}. Mutations of PPM1D are associated with a predisposition to breast and ovarian cancer⁹¹.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in PPM1D are predominantly truncating or missense and are observed in 6% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 2% of stomach adenocarcinoma, skin cutaneous melanoma, and colorectal adenocarcinoma^{8,12}. Amplification of PPM1D is observed in 8% of breast invasive carcinoma, 5% of mesothelioma, 4% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, and 3% of bladder urothelial carcinoma and stomach adenocarcinoma^{8,12}. Biallelic deletion of PPM1D is observed in 2% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma and less than 1% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, glioblastoma multiforme, brain lower grade glioma, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and colorectal adenocarcinoma^{8,12}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for PPM1D aberrations.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

RAD50 deletion

RAD50 double strand break repair protein

Background: The RAD50 gene encodes the RAD50 double-strand break repair protein and belongs to the adenosine triphosphate (ATP) binding cassette (ABC) transporter family of ATPases^{93,94}. RAD50 is an important structural maintenance of chromosome (SMC) protein and mutations in this gene are associated with genomic instability^{94,95}. RAD50 is a tumor suppressor gene and part of the multisubunit MRE11/RAD50/NBN (MRN) complex^{95,96}. The MRN complex is involved in the repair of double-stranded breaks (DSB) through homologous recombination repair (HRR) and non-homologous end joining (NHEJ)^{95,96}. RAD50 contains long coiled-coil regions that link the ATPase domain, as well as a zinc hook domain that interacts with MRE11 and bridges DNA ends together during the DNA damage response^{95,97}. RAD50 is a tumor suppressor gene. Loss of function mutations in RAD50 are implicated in the BRCAness phenotype, characterized by a defect in HRR, mimicking BRCA1 or BRCA2 loss^{98,99}. The presence of germline mutations in RAD50 is associated with unfavorable recurrence free-survival in BRCA1/2 negative breast cancer patients, although there is no association with increased risk of breast cancer¹⁰⁰.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in RAD50 are observed in up to 8% of uterine cancer, 5% of melanoma, and 4% of colorectal cancer^{8,12}. Lack of MRN complex proteins are observed in 41% (55/134) of epithelial ovarian cancer patients¹⁰¹.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for RAD50 aberrations. RAD50 expression is a predictor of clinical outcomes in patients who receive postoperative radiotherapy¹⁰². Specifically, tissue microarray (TMA) analysis of tumors from 127 NSCLC patients demonstrated that patients with low RAD50 expression had better clinical outcomes including overall survival (OS), distant-metastasis free survival (DMFS), disease-free survival (DFS), and local-regional recurrence-free survival (LRRFS) in comparison to patients with high RAD50 expression¹⁰². Another study identified RAD50 copy number deletion as a candidate marker for survival and response to PARP inhibitors in BRCA wild-type ovarian cancer with the BRCAness phenotype¹⁰³.

Genes Assayed

Genes Assayed for the Detection of DNA Sequence Variants

ABL1, ABL2, ACVR1, AKT1, AKT2, AKT3, ALK, AR, ARAF, ATP1A1, AURKA, AURKB, AURKC, AXL, BCL2, BCL2L12, BCL6, BCR, BMP5, BRAF, BTK, CACNA1D, CARD11, CBL, CCND1, CCND2, CCND3, CCNE1, CD79B, CDK4, CDK6, CHD4, CSF1R, CTNNA1, CUL1, CYSLTR2, DDR2, DGCR8, DROSHA, E2F1, EGFR, EIF1AX, EPAS1, ERBB2, ERBB3, ERBB4, ESR1, EZH2, FAM135B, FGF7, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3, FGFR4, FLT3, FLT4, FOXA1, FOXL2, FOXO1, GATA2, GLI1, GNA11, GNAQ, GNAS, HIF1A, HRAS, IDH1, IDH2, IKBKB, IL6ST, IL7R, IRF4, IRS4, KCNJ5, KDR, KIT, KLF4, KLF5, KNSTRN, KRAS, MAGOH, MAP2K1, MAP2K2, MAPK1, MAX, MDM4, MECOM, MED12, MEF2B, MET, MITF, MPL, MTOR, MYC, MYCN, MYD88, MYO1, NFE2L2, NRAS, NSD2, NT5C2, NTRK1, NTRK2, NTRK3, NUP93, PAX5, PCBP1, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, PIK3C2B, PIK3CA, PIK3CB, PIK3CD, PIK3CG, PIK3R2, PIM1, PLCG1, PPP2R1A, PPP6C, PRKACA, PTPN11, PTPRD, PXDN, RAC1, RAF1, RARA, RET, RGS7, RHEB, RHOA, RICTOR, RIT1, ROS1, RPL10, SETBP1, SF3B1, SIX1, SIX2, SLC1B3, SMC1A, SMO, SNCAIP, SOS1, SOX2, SPOP, SRC, SRSF2, STAT3, STAT5B, STAT6, TAF1, TERT, TGFB1, TOP1, TOP2A, TPMT, TRRAP, TSHR, U2AF1, USP8, WAS, XPO1, ZNF217, ZNF429

Genes Assayed for the Detection of Copy Number Variations

ABCB1, ABL1, ABL2, ABRAXAS1, ACVR1B, ACVR2A, ADAMTS12, ADAMTS2, AKT1, AKT2, AKT3, ALK, AMER1, APC, AR, ARAF, ARHGAP35, ARID1A, ARID1B, ARID2, ARID5B, ASXL1, ASXL2, ATM, ATR, ATRX, AURKA, AURKB, AURKC, AXIN1, AXIN2, AXL, B2M, BAP1, BARD1, BCL2, BCL2L12, BCL6, BCOR, BLM, BMPR2, BRAF, BRCA1, BRCA2, BRIP1, CARD11, CASP8, CBFB, CBL, CCND1, CCND2, CCND3, CCNE1, CD274, CD276, CDC73, CDH1, CDH10, CDK12, CDK4, CDK6, CDKN1A, CDKN1B, CDKN2A, CDKN2B, CDKN2C, CHD4, CHEK1, CHEK2, CIC, CREBBP, CSMD3, CTCF, CTLA4, CTNND2, CUL3, CUL4A, CUL4B, CYLD, CYP2C9, DAXX, DDR1, DDR2, DDX3X, DICER1, DNMT3A, DOCK3, DPYD, DSC1, DSC3, EGFR, EIF1AX, ELF3, EMSY, ENO1, EP300, EPCAM, EPHA2, ERAP1, ERAP2, ERBB2, ERBB3, ERBB4, ERCC2, ERCC4, ERFF1, ESR1, ETV6, EZH2, FAM135B, FANCA, FANCC, FANCD2, FANCE, FANCF, FANCG, FANCI, FANCL, FANCM, FAT1, FBXW7, FGF19, FGF23, FGF3, FGF4, FGF9, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3, FGFR4, FLT3, FLT4, FOXA1, FUBP1, FYN, GATA2, GATA3, GLI3, GNA13, GNAS, GPS2, HDAC2, HDAC9, HLA-A, HLA-B, HNF1A, IDH2, IGF1R, IKBKB, IL7R, INPP4B, JAK1, JAK2, JAK3, KDM5C, KDM6A, KDR, KEAP1, KIT, KLF5, KMT2A, KMT2B, KMT2C, KMT2D, KRAS, LARP4B, LATS1, LATS2, MAGOH, MAP2K1, MAP2K4, MAP2K7, MAP3K1, MAP3K4, MAPK1, MAPK8, MAX, MCL1, MDM2, MDM4, MECOM, MEF2B, MEN1, MET, MGA, MITF, MLH1, MLH3, MPL, MRE11, MSH2, MSH3, MSH6, MTAP, MTOR, MUTYH, MYC, MYCL, MYCN, MYD88, NBN, NCOR1, NF1, NF2, NFE2L2, NOTCH1, NOTCH2, NOTCH3, NOTCH4, NRAS, NTRK1, NTRK3, PALB2, PARP1, PARP2, PARP3, PARP4, PBRM1, PCBP1, PDCD1, PDCD1LG2, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, PDIA3, PGD, PHF6, PIK3C2B, PIK3CA, PIK3CB, PIK3R1, PIK3R2, PIM1, PLCG1, PMS1, PMS2, POLD1, POLE, POT1, PPM1D, PPP2R1A, PPP2R2A, PPP6C, PRDM1, PRDM9, PRKACA, PRKAR1A, PTCH1, PTEN, PTPN11, PTPRT, PXDN, RAC1, RAD50, RAD51, RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D,

Genes Assayed (continued)

Genes Assayed for the Detection of Copy Number Variations (continued)

RAD52, RAD54L, RAF1, RARA, RASA1, RASA2, RB1, RBM10, RECQL4, RET, RHEB, RICTOR, RIT1, RNASEH2A, RNASEH2B, RNF43, ROS1, RPA1, RPS6KB1, RPTOR, RUNX1, SDHA, SDHB, SDHD, SETBP1, SETD2, SF3B1, SLC01B3, SLX4, SMAD2, SMAD4, SMARCA4, SMARCB1, SMC1A, SMO, SOX9, SPEN, SPOP, SRC, STAG2, STAT3, STAT6, STK11, SUFU, TAP1, TAP2, TBX3, TCF7L2, TERT, TET2, TGFB2, TNFAIP3, TNFRSF14, TOP1, TP53, TP63, TPMT, TPP2, TSC1, TSC2, U2AF1, USP8, USP9X, VHL, WT1, XPO1, XRCC2, XRCC3, YAP1, YES1, ZFH3, ZMYM3, ZNF217, ZNF429, ZRSR2

Genes Assayed for the Detection of Fusions

AKT2, ALK, AR, AXL, BRAF, BRCA1, BRCA2, CDKN2A, EGFR, ERBB2, ERBB4, ERG, ESR1, ETV1, ETV4, ETV5, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3, FGR, FLT3, JAK2, KRAS, MDM4, MET, MYB, MYBL1, NF1, NOTCH1, NOTCH4, NRG1, NTRK1, NTRK2, NTRK3, NUTM1, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, PIK3CA, PPARG, PRKACA, PRKACB, PTEN, RAD51B, RAF1, RB1, REL, RET, ROS1, RSPO2, RSPO3, TERT

Genes Assayed with Full Exon Coverage

ABRAXAS1, ACVR1B, ACVR2A, ADAMTS12, ADAMTS2, AMER1, APC, ARHGAP35, ARID1A, ARID1B, ARID2, ARID5B, ASXL1, ASXL2, ATM, ATR, ATRX, AXIN1, AXIN2, B2M, BAP1, BARD1, BCOR, BLM, BMPR2, BRCA1, BRCA2, BRIP1, CALR, CASP8, CBF, CD274, CD276, CDC73, CDH1, CDH10, CDK12, CDKN1A, CDKN1B, CDKN2A, CDKN2B, CDKN2C, CHEK1, CHEK2, CIC, CIITA, CREBBP, CSMD3, CTCF, CTLA4, CUL3, CUL4A, CUL4B, CYLD, CYP2C9, CYP2D6, DAXX, DDX3X, DICER1, DNMT3A, DOCK3, DPYD, DSC1, DSC3, ELF3, ENO1, EP300, EPCAM, EPHA2, ERAP1, ERAP2, ERCC2, ERCC4, ERCC5, ERRF1, ETV6, FANCA, FANCC, FANCD2, FANCE, FANCF, FANCG, FANCI, FANCL, FANCM, FAS, FAT1, FBXW7, FUBP1, GATA3, GNA13, GPS2, HDAC2, HDAC9, HLA-A, HLA-B, HNF1A, ID3, INPP4B, JAK1, JAK2, JAK3, KDM5C, KDM6A, KEAP1, KLHL13, KMT2A, KMT2B, KMT2C, KMT2D, LARP4B, LATS1, LATS2, MAP2K4, MAP2K7, MAP3K1, MAP3K4, MAPK8, MEN1, MGA, MLH1, MLH3, MRE11, MSH2, MSH3, MSH6, MTAP, MTUS2, MUTYH, NBN, NCOR1, NF1, NF2, NOTCH1, NOTCH2, NOTCH3, NOTCH4, PALB2, PARP1, PARP2, PARP3, PARP4, PBRM1, PDCD1, PDCD1LG2, PDIA3, PGD, PHF6, PIK3R1, PMS1, PMS2, POLD1, POLE, POT1, PPM1D, PPP2R2A, PRDM1, PRDM9, PRKAR1A, PSMB10, PSMB8, PSMB9, PTCH1, PTEN, PTPRT, RAD50, RAD51, RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D, RAD52, RAD54L, RASA1, RASA2, RB1, RBM10, RECQL4, RNASEH2A, RNASEH2B, RNASEH2C, RNF43, RPA1, RPL22, RPL5, RUNX1, RUNX1T1, SDHA, SDHB, SDHC, SDHD, SETD2, SLX4, SMAD2, SMAD4, SMARCA4, SMARCB1, SOCS1, SOX9, SPEN, STAG2, STAT1, STK11, SUFU, TAP1, TAP2, TBX3, TCF7L2, TET2, TGFB2, TMEM132D, TNFAIP3, TNFRSF14, TP53, TP63, TPP2, TSC1, TSC2, UGT1A1, USP9X, VHL, WT1, XRCC2, XRCC3, ZBTB20, ZFH3, ZMYM3, ZRSR2

Relevant Therapy Summary

In this cancer type In other cancer type In this cancer type and other cancer types No evidence

RAD50 deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
pamiparib, tislelizumab					(II)
niraparib + hormone therapy					(II)
olaparib, pembrolizumab					(II)

TP53 p.(R273L) c.818G>T

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
hormone therapy, chemotherapy					(III)
hormone therapy, hormone therapy + chemotherapy					(II)
olaparib, pembrolizumab					(II)

* Most advanced phase (IV, III, II/III, II, I/II, I) is shown and multiple clinical trials may be available.

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

In this cancer type

In other cancer type

In this cancer type and other cancer types

No evidence

TMPRSS2::ERG fusion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
hormone therapy, chemotherapy	×	×	×	×	○ (III)
hormone therapy	×	×	×	×	○ (II)

PIK3R1 c.502+1G>T

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
chemotherapy, capivasertib	×	×	×	×	○ (III)

* Most advanced phase (IV, III, II/III, II, I/II, I) is shown and multiple clinical trials may be available.

HRR Details

Gene/Genomic Alteration	Finding
LOH percentage	47.31%
BRCA1	SNV, E649Q, AF:0.14
BRCA2	LOH, 13q13.1(32890491-32972932)x2
ATM	LOH, 11q22.3(108098341-108236285)x3
CHEK1	LOH, 11q24.2(125496639-125525271)x3

Homologous recombination repair (HRR) genes were defined from published evidence in relevant therapies, clinical guidelines, as well as clinical trials, and include - BRCA1, BRCA2, ATM, BARD1, BRIP1, CDK12, CHEK1, CHEK2, FANCL, PALB2, RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D, and RAD54L.

Thermo Fisher Scientific's Ion Torrent OncoPrint Reporter software was used in generation of this report. Software was developed and designed internally by Thermo Fisher Scientific. The analysis was based on OncoPrint Reporter (6.0.2 data version 2025.04(004)). The data presented here are from a curated knowledge base of publicly available information, but may not be exhaustive. FDA information was sourced from www.fda.gov and is current as of 2025-03-19. NCCN information was sourced from www.nccn.org and is current as of 2025-03-03. EMA information was sourced from www.ema.europa.eu and is current as of 2025-03-19. ESMO information was sourced from www.esmo.org and is current as of 2025-03-03. Clinical Trials information is current as of 2025-03-03. For the most up-to-date information regarding a particular trial, search www.clinicaltrials.gov by NCT ID or search local clinical trials authority website by local identifier listed in 'Other identifiers.' Variants are reported according to HGVS nomenclature and classified following AMP/ASCO/CAP guidelines (Li et al. 2017). Based on the data sources selected, variants, therapies, and trials listed in this report are listed in order of potential clinical significance but not for predicted efficacy of the therapies.

References

1. O'Leary et al. Reference sequence (RefSeq) database at NCBI: current status, taxonomic expansion, and functional annotation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2016 Jan 4;44(D1):D733-45. PMID: 26553804
2. Cheung et al. Targeting therapeutic liabilities engendered by PIK3R1 mutations for cancer treatment. *Pharmacogenomics.* 2016 Feb;17(3):297-307. PMID: 26807692
3. Cantley. The phosphoinositide 3-kinase pathway. *Science.* 2002 May 31;296(5573):1655-7. PMID: 12040186
4. Fruman et al. The PI3K Pathway in Human Disease. *Cell.* 2017 Aug 10;170(4):605-635. PMID: 28802037
5. Engelman et al. The evolution of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinases as regulators of growth and metabolism. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* 2006 Aug;7(8):606-19. PMID: 16847462
6. Vanhaesebroeck et al. PI3K signalling: the path to discovery and understanding. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* 2012 Feb 23;13(3):195-203. PMID: 22358332
7. Chagpar et al. Direct positive regulation of PTEN by the p85 subunit of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 2010 Mar 23;107(12):5471-6. PMID: 20212113
8. Weinstein et al. The Cancer Genome Atlas Pan-Cancer analysis project. *Nat. Genet.* 2013 Oct;45(10):1113-20. PMID: 24071849
9. Muller et al. Mutant p53 in cancer: new functions and therapeutic opportunities. *Cancer Cell.* 2014 Mar 17;25(3):304-17. PMID: 24651012
10. Olivier et al. TP53 mutations in human cancers: origins, consequences, and clinical use. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol.* 2010 Jan;2(1):a001008. PMID: 20182602
11. Guha et al. Inherited TP53 Mutations and the Li-Fraumeni Syndrome. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med.* 2017 Apr 3;7(4). PMID: 28270529
12. Cerami et al. The cBio cancer genomics portal: an open platform for exploring multidimensional cancer genomics data. *Cancer Discov.* 2012 May;2(5):401-4. PMID: 22588877
13. Peter et al. Comprehensive genomic characterization of squamous cell lung cancers. *Nature.* 2012 Sep 27;489(7417):519-25. PMID: 22960745
14. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. *Nature.* 2015 Jan 29;517(7536):576-82. PMID: 25631445
15. Campbell et al. Distinct patterns of somatic genome alterations in lung adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas. *Nat. Genet.* 2016 Jun;48(6):607-16. PMID: 27158780
16. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Integrated genomic characterization of oesophageal carcinoma. *Nature.* 2017 Jan 12;541(7636):169-175. doi: 10.1038/nature20805. Epub 2017 Jan 4. PMID: 28052061
17. Olivier et al. The IARC TP53 database: new online mutation analysis and recommendations to users. *Hum. Mutat.* 2002 Jun;19(6):607-14. PMID: 12007217
18. Rivlin et al. Mutations in the p53 Tumor Suppressor Gene: Important Milestones at the Various Steps of Tumorigenesis. *Genes Cancer.* 2011 Apr;2(4):466-74. PMID: 21779514
19. Petitjean et al. TP53 mutations in human cancers: functional selection and impact on cancer prognosis and outcomes. *Oncogene.* 2007 Apr 2;26(15):2157-65. PMID: 17401424
20. Soussi et al. Recommendations for analyzing and reporting TP53 gene variants in the high-throughput sequencing era. *Hum. Mutat.* 2014 Jun;35(6):766-78. PMID: 24729566
21. <https://www.globenewswire.com/news-release/2020/10/13/2107498/0/en/PMV-Pharma-Granted-FDA-Fast-Track-Designation-of-PC14586-for-the-Treatment-of-Advanced-Cancer-Patients-that-have-Tumors-with-a-p53-Y220C-Mutation.html>
22. <https://ir.aprea.com//news-releases/news-release-details/aprea-therapeutics-receives-fda-fast-track-designation>
23. <http://vp280.alertir.com/en/pressreleases/karolinska-development%27s-portfolio-company-aprea-therapeutics-receives-fda-breakthrough-therapy-designation-1769167>
24. Parrales et al. Targeting Oncogenic Mutant p53 for Cancer Therapy. *Front Oncol.* 2015 Dec 21;5:288. doi: 10.3389/fonc.2015.00288. eCollection 2015. PMID: 26732534
25. Zhao et al. Molecularly targeted therapies for p53-mutant cancers. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* 2017 Nov;74(22):4171-4187. PMID: 28643165
26. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Acute Myeloid Leukemia [Version 2.2025]
27. Döhner et al. Diagnosis and management of AML in adults: 2022 recommendations from an international expert panel on behalf of the ELN. *Blood.* 2022 Sep 22;140(12):1345-1377. PMID: 35797463
28. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Myelodysplastic Syndromes [Version 2.2025]
29. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Myeloproliferative Neoplasms [Version 1.2025]

References (continued)

30. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia/Small Lymphocytic Lymphoma [Version 2.2025]
31. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia [Version 3.2024]
32. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-B-Cell Lymphomas [Version 2.2025]
33. Bernard et al. Implications of TP53 allelic state for genome stability, clinical presentation and outcomes in myelodysplastic syndromes. *Nat. Med.* 2020 Aug 3. PMID: 32747829
34. Chidgey et al. Desmosomes: a role in cancer?. *Br J Cancer.* 2007 Jun 18;96(12):1783-7. PMID: 17519903
35. Dubash et al. Desmosomes. *Curr Biol.* 2011 Jul 26;21(14):R529-31. PMID: 21783027
36. Hardman et al. Desmosomal cadherin misexpression alters beta-catenin stability and epidermal differentiation. *Mol Cell Biol.* 2005 Feb;25(3):969-78. PMID: 15657425
37. Wang et al. Lower DSC1 expression is related to the poor differentiation and prognosis of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC). *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol.* 2016 Dec;142(12):2461-2468. PMID: 27601166
38. Oshiro et al. Epigenetic silencing of DSC3 is a common event in human breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res.* 2005;7(5):R669-80. PMID: 16168112
39. Sakamoto et al. Distinct roles of EGF repeats for the Notch signaling system. *Exp. Cell Res.* 2005 Jan 15;302(2):281-91. PMID: 15561108
40. Bray. Notch signalling in context. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* 2016 Nov;17(11):722-735. PMID: 27507209
41. Kopan et al. The canonical Notch signaling pathway: unfolding the activation mechanism. *Cell.* 2009 Apr 17;137(2):216-33. PMID: 19379690
42. Lobry et al. Oncogenic and tumor suppressor functions of Notch in cancer: it's NOTCH what you think. *J. Exp. Med.* 2011 Sep 26;208(10):1931-5. PMID: 21948802
43. Goriki et al. Unravelling disparate roles of NOTCH in bladder cancer. *Nat Rev Urol.* 2018 Jun;15(6):345-357. PMID: 29643502
44. Wang et al. Loss-of-function mutations in Notch receptors in cutaneous and lung squamous cell carcinoma. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 2011 Oct 25;108(43):17761-6. PMID: 22006338
45. Xiu et al. The role of oncogenic Notch2 signaling in cancer: a novel therapeutic target. *Am J Cancer Res.* 2019;9(5):837-854. PMID: 31218097
46. Peng et al. Role of FAT1 in health and disease. *Oncol Lett.* 2021 May;21(5):398. PMID: 33777221
47. Lander et al. Initial sequencing and analysis of the human genome. *Nature.* 2001 Feb 15;409(6822):860-921. PMID: 11237011
48. Baudrin et al. Molecular and Computational Methods for the Detection of Microsatellite Instability in Cancer. *Front Oncol.* 2018 Dec 12;8:621. doi: 10.3389/fonc.2018.00621. eCollection 2018. PMID: 30631754
49. Nojadeh et al. Microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. *EXCLI J.* 2018;17:159-168. PMID: 29743854
50. Saeed et al. Microsatellites in Pursuit of Microbial Genome Evolution. *Front Microbiol.* 2016 Jan 5;6:1462. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2015.01462. eCollection 2015. PMID: 26779133
51. Boland et al. A National Cancer Institute Workshop on Microsatellite Instability for cancer detection and familial predisposition: development of international criteria for the determination of microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. *Cancer Res.* 1998 Nov 15;58(22):5248-57. PMID: 9823339
52. Halford et al. Low-level microsatellite instability occurs in most colorectal cancers and is a nonrandomly distributed quantitative trait. *Cancer Res.* 2002 Jan 1;62(1):53-7. PMID: 11782358
53. Imai et al. Carcinogenesis and microsatellite instability: the interrelationship between genetics and epigenetics. *Carcinogenesis.* 2008 Apr;29(4):673-80. PMID: 17942460
54. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Colon Cancer [Version 1.2025]
55. Pawlik et al. Colorectal carcinogenesis: MSI-H versus MSI-L. *Dis. Markers.* 2004;20(4-5):199-206. PMID: 15528785
56. Lee et al. Low-Level Microsatellite Instability as a Potential Prognostic Factor in Sporadic Colorectal Cancer. *Medicine (Baltimore).* 2015 Dec;94(50):e2260. PMID: 26683947
57. Latham et al. Microsatellite Instability Is Associated With the Presence of Lynch Syndrome Pan-Cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol.* 2019 Feb 1;37(4):286-295. PMID: 30376427
58. Cortes-Ciriano et al. A molecular portrait of microsatellite instability across multiple cancers. *Nat Commun.* 2017 Jun 6;8:15180. doi: 10.1038/ncomms15180. PMID: 28585546
59. Bonneville et al. Landscape of Microsatellite Instability Across 39 Cancer Types. *JCO Precis Oncol.* 2017;2017. PMID: 29850653
60. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125514s172lbl.pdf
61. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/125554s127lbl.pdf

References (continued)

62. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/761174s009lbl.pdf
63. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Rectal Cancer [Version 1.2025]
64. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125377s132lbl.pdf
65. Ribic et al. Tumor microsatellite-instability status as a predictor of benefit from fluorouracil-based adjuvant chemotherapy for colon cancer. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2003 Jul 17;349(3):247-57. PMID: 12867608
66. Klingbiel et al. Prognosis of stage II and III colon cancer treated with adjuvant 5-fluorouracil or FOLFIRI in relation to microsatellite status: results of the PETACC-3 trial. *Ann. Oncol.* 2015 Jan;26(1):126-32. PMID: 25361982
67. Hermel et al. The Emerging Role of Checkpoint Inhibition in Microsatellite Stable Colorectal Cancer. *J Pers Med.* 2019 Jan 16;9(1). PMID: 30654522
68. Ciardiello et al. Immunotherapy of colorectal cancer: Challenges for therapeutic efficacy. *Cancer Treat. Rev.* 2019 Jun;76:22-32. PMID: 31079031
69. Wang et al. Loss of Tumor Suppressor Gene Function in Human Cancer: An Overview. *Cell. Physiol. Biochem.* 2018;51(6):2647-2693. PMID: 30562755
70. Stamos et al. The β -catenin destruction complex. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol.* 2013 Jan 1;5(1):a007898. PMID: 23169527
71. Minde et al. Messing up disorder: how do missense mutations in the tumor suppressor protein APC lead to cancer?. *Mol Cancer.* 2011 Aug 22;10:101. doi: 10.1186/1476-4598-10-101. PMID: 21859464
72. Aoki et al. Adenomatous polyposis coli (APC): a multi-functional tumor suppressor gene. *J. Cell. Sci.* 2007 Oct 1;120(Pt 19):3327-35. PMID: 17881494
73. Miyoshi et al. Somatic mutations of the APC gene in colorectal tumors: mutation cluster region in the APC gene. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* 1992 Jul;1(4):229-33. PMID: 1338904
74. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Comprehensive molecular characterization of gastric adenocarcinoma. *Nature.* 2014 Sep 11;513(7517):202-9. doi: 10.1038/nature13480. Epub 2014 Jul 23. PMID: 25079317
75. Rowan et al. APC mutations in sporadic colorectal tumors: A mutational "hotspot" and interdependence of the "two hits". *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 2000 Mar 28;97(7):3352-7. PMID: 10737795
76. Laurent-Puig et al. APC gene: database of germline and somatic mutations in human tumors and cell lines. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 1998 Jan 1;26(1):269-70. PMID: 9399850
77. Tomlins et al. Role of the TMPRSS2-ERG gene fusion in prostate cancer. *Neoplasia.* 2008 Feb;10(2):177-88. PMID: 18283340
78. Nikolaus et al. The Molecular Taxonomy of Primary Prostate Cancer. *Cell.* 2015 Nov 5;163(4):1011-25. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2015.10.025. PMID: 26544944
79. Chen et al. Ewing sarcoma with ERG gene rearrangements: A molecular study focusing on the prevalence of FUS-ERG and common pitfalls in detecting EWSR1-ERG fusions by FISH. *Genes Chromosomes Cancer.* 2016 Apr;55(4):340-9. PMID: 26690869
80. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Soft Tissue Sarcoma [Version 4.2024]
81. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Bone Cancer [Version 2.2025]
82. Häggblöf et al. TMPRSS2-ERG expression predicts prostate cancer survival and associates with stromal biomarkers. *PLoS ONE.* 2014;9(2):e86824. PMID: 24505269
83. Yu et al. An integrated network of androgen receptor, polycomb, and TMPRSS2-ERG gene fusions in prostate cancer progression. *Cancer Cell.* 2010 May 18;17(5):443-54. PMID: 20478527
84. Wang et al. Development of Peptidomimetic Inhibitors of the ERG Gene Fusion Product in Prostate Cancer. *Cancer Cell.* 2017 Jun 12;31(6):844-847. doi: 10.1016/j.ccell.2017.05.001. PMID: 28609659
85. Aharoni et al. Dynamical comparison between Drosha and Dicer reveals functional motion similarities and dissimilarities. *PLoS One.* 2019;14(12):e0226147. PMID: 31821368
86. Lee et al. MicroRNAs in cancer. *Annu Rev Pathol.* 2009;4:199-227. PMID: 18817506
87. Hammond. An overview of microRNAs. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2015 Jun 29;87:3-14. PMID: 25979468
88. Wen et al. *Biosci Rep.* 2018 Jun 29;38(3). PMID: 29654164
89. Kumar et al. Impaired microRNA processing enhances cellular transformation and tumorigenesis. *Nat Genet.* 2007 May;39(5):673-7. PMID: 17401365
90. Robertson et al. DICER1 Syndrome: DICER1 Mutations in Rare Cancers. *Cancers (Basel).* 2018 May 15;10(5). PMID: 29762508
91. Ruark et al. Mosaic PPM1D mutations are associated with predisposition to breast and ovarian cancer. *Nature.* 2013 Jan 17;493(7432):406-10. PMID: 23242139

References (continued)

92. Lu et al. PPM1D dephosphorylates Chk1 and p53 and abrogates cell cycle checkpoints. *Genes Dev.* 2005 May 15;19(10):1162-74. PMID: 15870257
93. Deshpande et al. Rad50 ATPase activity is regulated by DNA ends and requires coordination of both active sites. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2017 May 19;45(9):5255-5268. PMID: 28369545
94. Kinoshita et al. RAD50, an SMC family member with multiple roles in DNA break repair: how does ATP affect function?. *Chromosome Res.* 2009;17(2):277-88. PMID: 19308707
95. Rupnik et al. The MRN complex. *Curr. Biol.* 2008 Jun 3;18(11):R455-7. PMID: 18522810
96. Assenmacher et al. MRE11/RAD50/NBS1: complex activities. *Chromosoma.* 2004 Oct;113(4):157-66. PMID: 15309560
97. Hopfner et al. The Rad50 zinc-hook is a structure joining Mre11 complexes in DNA recombination and repair. *Nature.* 2002 Aug 1;418(6897):562-6. PMID: 12152085
98. Lim et al. Evaluation of the methods to identify patients who may benefit from PARP inhibitor use. *Endocr. Relat. Cancer.* 2016 Jun;23(6):R267-85. PMID: 27226207
99. Lord et al. BRCAness revisited. *Nat. Rev. Cancer.* 2016 Feb;16(2):110-20. PMID: 26775620
100. Fan et al. RAD50 germline mutations are associated with poor survival in BRCA1/2-negative breast cancer patients. *Int. J. Cancer.* 2018 Oct 15;143(8):1935-1942. PMID: 29726012
101. Brandt et al. Lack of MRE11-RAD50-NBS1 (MRN) complex detection occurs frequently in low-grade epithelial ovarian cancer. *BMC Cancer.* 2017 Jan 10;17(1):44. PMID: 28073364
102. Wang et al. RAD50 Expression Is Associated with Poor Clinical Outcomes after Radiotherapy for Resected Non-small Cell Lung Cancer. *Clin. Cancer Res.* 2018 Jan 15;24(2):341-350. PMID: 29030353
103. Zhang et al. Copy number deletion of RAD50 as predictive marker of BRCAness and PARP inhibitor response in BRCA wild type ovarian cancer. *Gynecol. Oncol.* 2016 Apr;141(1):57-64. PMID: 27016230