Samkwang Medical Lab

Patient Name:	이장운	**Primary Tumor Site:**	lung
Gender:	M	**Collection Date:**	2025.05.22
Sample ID:	N25-36		

Sample Cancer Type: Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer

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Relevant Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Findings

Gene	Finding	Gene	Finding
ALK	None detected	MET	None detected
BRAF	None detected	NRG1	None detected
EGFR	None detected	NTRK1	None detected
ERBB2	None detected	NTRK2	None detected
FGFR1	None detected	NTRK3	None detected
FGFR2	None detected	RET	None detected
FGFR3	None detected	ROS1	None detected
KRAS	None detected		

Genomic Alteration	Finding
Tumor Mutational Burden	*6.66 Mut/Mb measured*

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	*CCND1 amplification* cyclin D1 Locus: chr11:69455949	None*	None*	3

* **Public data sources included in relevant therapies: FDA**[1], NCCN, **EMA**[2], 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

FGF19 amplification, FGF3 amplification, FGF4 amplification, MLH1 p.(V384D) c.1151T>A, Microsatellite stable, NFE2L2 p.([G31D;V32S]) c.92_95delGAGTinsACTC, TP53 c.375+1G>T, UGT1A1 p.(G71R) c.211G>A, HLA-B deletion, Tumor Mutational Burden

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
NFE2L2	p.([G31D;V32S])	c.92_95delGAGTinsACTC	.	chr2:178098950	34.43%	NM_006164.5	missense, missense
UGT1A1	p.(G71R)	c.211G>A	COSM4415616	chr2:234669144	67.70%	NM_000463.3	missense
MLH1	p.(V384D)	c.1151T>A	.	chr3:37067240	64.19%	NM_000249.4	missense
TP53	p.(?)	c.375+1G>T	.	chr17:7579311	30.25%	NM_000546.6	unknown
NTRK1	p.(G670D)	c.2009G>A	.	chr1:156849117	8.86%	NM_002529.3	missense
GATA2	p.(P267H)	c.800C>A	.	chr3:128204641	17.40%	NM_032638.5	missense
MSH3	p.(A57_A62del)	c.162_179delTGCAGCGGCCGCAGCGGC	.	chr5:79950707	67.30%	NM_002439.5	nonframeshift Deletion
HLA-C	p.([V328=;T329A;A330V;M331V;M332V])	c.984_994delCACCGCTATGAinsGGCTGTTGTGG	.	chr6:31237764	7.41%	NM_001243042.1	synonymous, missense, missense, missense, missense
CARD11	p.(R499S)	c.1497G>C	.	chr7:2974108	46.70%	NM_032415.7	missense
KMT2C	p.(Y4825C)	c.14474A>G	.	chr7:151836331	18.81%	NM_170606.3	missense
FAM135B	p.(Q330K)	c.988C>A	.	chr8:139190819	26.78%	NM_015912.4	missense
PTCH1	p.(R13G)	c.37C>G	.	chr9:98270607	75.67%	NM_000264.5	missense

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
HLA-B	chr6:31322252	0	0.54
CCND1	chr11:69455949	19.83	4.56
FGF19	chr11:69513948	21.85	4.97
FGF4	chr11:69588019	17.2	4.04
FGF3	chr11:69625020	20.68	4.74

Biomarker Descriptions

HLA-B deletion

major histocompatibility complex, class I, B

Background: The HLA-B gene encodes the major histocompatibility complex, class I, B[1]. MHC (major histocompatibility complex) class I molecules are located on the cell surface of nucleated cells and present antigens from within the cell for recognition by cytotoxic T cells[2]. MHC class I molecules are heterodimers composed of two polypeptide chains, α and B2M[3]. The classical MHC class I genes include HLA-A, HLA-B, and HLA-C and encode the α polypeptide chains, which present short polypeptide chains, of 7 to 11 amino acids, to the immune system to distinguish self from non-self[4,5,6]. Downregulation of MHC class I promotes tumor evasion of the immune system, suggesting a tumor suppressor role for HLA-B[7].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in HLA-B are observed in 10% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 5% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma and stomach adenocarcinoma, 4% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and colorectal

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

adenocarcinoma, 3% of uterine cancer, and 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma[8,9]. Biallelic loss of HLA-B is observed in 5% of DLBCL[8,9].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for HLA-B aberrations.

MLH1 p.(V384D) c.1151T>A

mutL homolog 1

Background: The MLH1 gene encodes the mutL homolog 1 protein[1]. MLH1 is a tumor suppressor gene that heterodimerizes with PMS2 to form the MutLα complex, PMS1 to form the MutLβ complex, and MLH3 to form the MutLγ complex[10]. The MutLα complex functions as an endonuclease that is specifically involved in the mismatch repair (MMR) process and mutations in MLH1 result in the inactivation of MutLα and degradation of PMS2[10,11]. Loss of MLH1 protein expression and MLH1 promoter hypermethylation correlates to mutations in these genes and are used to pre-screen colorectal cancer or endometrial hyperplasia[12,13]. MLH1, along with MSH6, MSH2, and PMS2 form the core components of the MMR pathway[10]. The MMR pathway is critical to the repair of mismatch errors which typically occur during DNA replication. Deficiency in MMR (dMMR) is characterized by mutations and loss of expression in these genes. dMMR is associated with microsatellite instability (MSI), which is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[14,15,16]. MSI-high (MSI-H) is a hallmark of Lynch Syndrome (LS), also known as hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer, which is caused by germline mutations in MMR genes[14,17]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[15,17,18,19]. Specifically, MLH1 mutations are associated with increased risk of ovarian and pancreatic cancer[20,21,22,23].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MLH1 are observed in 6% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 2-3% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and melanoma[8,9].

Potential relevance: The PARP inhibitor, talazoparib[24] in combination with enzalutamide is approved (2023) for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with mutations in HRR genes that includes MLH1. Additionally, pembrolizumab (2014) is an anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitor that is approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR solid tumors that have progressed on prior therapies[25]. Nivolumab (2015), an anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitor, is approved alone or in combination with the cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab (2011), for patients with dMMR colorectal cancer that have progressed on prior treatment[26,27].

FGF3 amplification

fibroblast growth factor 3

Background: The FGF3 gene encodes the fibroblast growth factor 3 protein, a member of the FGF protein family composed of twenty-two members[28,29]. With the exception of four non-signaling FGF memebers (FGF11-14), FGF proteins function as ligands and mediate the activation of the fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR) family of tyrosine kinases[28,29]. Upon FGF-mediated stimulation, FGFRs activate several oncogenic signaling pathways, including the RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK, PI3K/AKT/MTOR, PLC/PKC, and JAK/STAT pathways thereby influencing cell proliferation, migration, and survival[30,31,32]. Specifically, FGF3 has been shown to bind to both FGFR1 and FGFR2[33,34]. Overexpression of FGF3 has been associated with certain tumor types including lung and liver cancers[35,36]. Additionally, constitutive ectopic expression has been suggested to promote tumorigenesis in vitro, supporting an oncogenic role for FGF3[34].

Alterations and prevalence: FGF3 amplification is observed in about 35% of esophageal cancer, 24% of head and neck cancer, 10-15% of invasive breast carcinoma, squamous lung, and bladder cancers as well as 5-10% of cholangiocarcinoma, melanoma, liver, ovarian and stomach cancers[8]. FGF3 overexpression is correlated with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) development as well as tumor metastasis and recurrence in hepatocellular carcinoma[35,36].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for FGF3 aberrations.

TP53 c.375+1G>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 potential[37]. Germline mutations in TP53 are the underlying cause of Li-Fraumeni syndrome, a complex hereditary cancer predisposition disorder associated with early-onset cancers[38,39].

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%)[8,9,40,41,42,43]. 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[8,9]. Invariably, recurrent missense mutations in TP53 inactivate its ability to bind DNA and activate transcription of target genes[44,45,46,47].

Potential relevance: The small molecule p53 reactivator, PC14586, received a fast track designation (2020) by the FDA for advanced tumors harboring a TP53 Y220C mutation[48]. The FDA has granted fast track designation (2019) to the p53 reactivator, eprenetapopt,[49] and breakthrough designation[50] (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[51,52]. 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)[53,54,55,56,57,58]. In mantle cell lymphoma, TP53 mutations are associated with poor prognosis when treated with conventional therapy including hematopoietic cell transplant[59]. Mono- and bi-allelic mutations in TP53 confer unique characteristics in MDS, with multi-hit patients also experiencing associations with complex karyotype, few co-occuring mutations, and high-risk disease presentation as well as predicted death and leukemic transformation independent of the IPSS-R staging system[60].

FGF19 amplification

fibroblast growth factor 19

Background: The FGF19 gene encodes the fibroblast growth factor 19 protein, a member of the FGF protein family composed of twenty-two members[28,29]. With the exception of four non-signaling FGF memebers (FGF11-14), FGF proteins function as ligands and mediate the activation of the fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR) family of tyrosine kinases[28,29]. Upon FGF-mediated stimulation, FGFRs activate several oncogenic signaling pathways, including the RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK, PI3K/AKT/MTOR, PLC/PKC, and JAK/STAT pathways thereby influencing cell proliferation, migration, and survival[30,31,32]. FGF19 is specifically observed to bind FGFR4 with increased affinity in the presence of the transmembrane protein klotho beta (KLB) which functions as a cofactor in FGF19 mediated FGFR4 activation[61,62]. FGF19-mediated aberrant signaling has been identified as an oncogenic driver in hepatocellular carcinoma[61,63].

Alterations and prevalence: FGF19 amplification is observed in about 35% of esophageal cancer, 23% of head and neck cancer, 10-15% of invasive breast carcinoma, cholangiocarcinoma, squamous lung, and bladder cancers as well as 5-7% of melanoma, liver, ovarian, and stomach cancers[8]. FGF19 overexpression is correlated with the development and tumor progression in hepatocellular carcinoma[64].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for FGF19 aberrations. Selective, irreversible FGFR4 inhibitors, including fisogatinib (BLU-554), are under current clinical trial evaluation. In a phase-I clinical study of fisogatinib in patients with advanced hepatocellular carcinoma, 63% of the 115 patients enrolled were FGF19-positive by IHC[65]. Additionally, in 53 patients with tissue available for evaluation, 96% also exhibited mRNA-expression of FGFR4 and KLB. The total overall response rate observed for fisogatinib in FGF19-positive patients evaluable for response was 17% (11/66)[65].

NFE2L2 p.([G31D;V32S]) c.92_95delGAGTinsACTC

nuclear factor, erythroid 2 like 2

Background: The NFE2L2 gene encodes the nuclear factor, erythroid 2 like 2 transcription factor, a member of the basic leucine zipper protein family[1]. NFE2L2, also known as NRF2, is a proto-oncogene that activates transcription of genes with antioxidant response elements (ARE)[66]. NFE2L2 targets include genes involved in antioxidant response, drug metabolism, DNA repair, autophagy, cell survival, and proliferation[66,67]. NFE2L2 is negatively regulated by KEAP1, a Cul3 adaptor protein, that ubiquitinates NFE2L2[67].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations in NFE2L2 are observed in 14% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 9% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, and 5% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[8,9]. Deletion of NFE2L2 exon 2 or exon 2 and 3 result in an isoform leading to the lack of the KEAP1 interacting domain, NFE2L2 stabilization, and expression of NFE2L2 targets such as HMOX1, G6PD, PDGFC, FGF2, and NQO1[66,68].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for NFE2L2 aberrations. The FDA has granted fast track designation (2022) to the mTORC 1/2 inhibitor, sapanisertib (CB-228)[69], for patients with NFE2L2 mutated, unresectable or metastatic squamous non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) who have received prior platinum-based chemotherapy and immune checkpoint inhibitor therapy.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

FGF4 amplification

fibroblast growth factor 4

Background: The FGF4 gene encodes the fibroblast growth factor 4 protein, a member of the FGF protein family, which is composed of 22 members[1,29]. With the exception of four non-signaling FGF members (FGF11-14), FGF proteins function as ligands and mediate the activation of the fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR) family of tyrosine kinases[28,29]. Upon FGF-mediated stimulation, FGFRs activate several oncogenic signaling pathways, including the RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK, PI3K/AKT/MTOR, PLC/PKC, and JAK/STAT pathways, thereby influencing cell proliferation, migration, and survival[30,31,32].

Alterations and prevalence: Amplifications in FGF4 are observed in various tumor types, but most frequently are found in up to 35% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 24% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 14% of breast invasive carcinoma, 12% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 11% of cholangiocarcinoma, 10% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 7% of stomach adenocarcinoma, and 5% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma[8,9]. FGF4 overexpression has been associated with Kaposi sarcoma lesions as well as testicular cancer[70,71].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for FGF4 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 genome[72]. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[15,17]. MSI is closely tied to the status of the mismatch repair (MMR) genes. In humans, the core MMR genes include MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, and PMS2[16]. 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 D17S250[73]. 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)[73]. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS[18,74,75,76,77]. 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 genes[17]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[15,17,18,19].

Alterations and prevalence: The MSI-H phenotype is observed in 30% of uterine corpus endothelial carcinoma, 20% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 15-20% of colon adenocarcinoma, and 5-10% of rectal adenocarcinoma[15,17,78,79]. 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[78,79].

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab[25] (2014) and nivolumab[26] (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab[25] 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 indication[25]. Dostarlimab[80] (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[75,81]. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab[27] (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[75,82,83]. 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 patients[83]. 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[84,85]. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers[84,85].

CCND1 amplification

cyclin D1

Background: The CCND1 gene encodes the cyclin D1 protein, a member of the highly conserved D-cyclin family that also includes CCND2 and CCND3[86,87,88]. D-type cyclins are known to regulate cell cycle progression by binding to and activating cyclin dependent kinases (CDKs), specifically CDK4 and CDK6, which leads to the phosphorylation and inactivation of the retinoblastoma (RB1) protein[86,87]. Consequently, RB1 inactivation results in E2F transcription factor activation and cellular G1/S phase transition thereby

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

resulting in cell cycle progression, a common event observed in tumorigenesis[86,87,89]. Aberrations in the D-type cyclins have been observed to promote tumor progression suggesting an oncogenic role for CCND1[88,90].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic alterations to CCND1, including mutations, amplifications, and chromosomal translocations, are observed in many cancer types. A common mechanism of these alterations is to increase the expression and nuclear localization of the cyclin D1 protein. Recurrent somatic mutations include missense mutations at codons T286 and P287 and c-terminal truncating mutations that are enriched in about 33% of uterine cancer, and missense mutations at Y44 that are enriched in about 50% of Mantle cell lymphoma (MCL)[8,9,91,92]. These mutations block phosphorylation-dependent nuclear export and proteolysis[93,94,95,96]. CCND1 is recurrently amplified in many cancer types, including up to 35% of esophageal cancer, 20-30% of head and neck cancer, and 10-20% of breast, squamous lung, and bladder cancers[8,9,41]. MCL is genetically characterized by the t(11;14) (q13;q13) translocation, a rearrangement that juxtaposes CCND1 to the immunoglobulin heavy (IgH) chain gene. This rearrangement leads to constitutive expression of cyclin D1 and plays an important role in MCL pathogenesis[97,98].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for CCND1 aberrations. The t(11;14) translocation involving CCND1 can be used to help diagnose some lymphoma subtypes including non-gastric MALT lymphoma, splenic marginal cell lymphoma, and mantle cell lymphoma[59].

UGT1A1 p.(G71R) c.211G>A

UDP glucuronosyltransferase family 1 member A1

Background: The UGT1A1 gene encodes UDP glucuronosyltransferase family 1 member A1, a member of the UDP-glucuronosyltransferase 1A (UGT1A) subfamily of the UGT protein superfamily[1,99]. UGTs are microsomal membrane-bound enzymes that catalyze the glucuronidation of endogenous and xenobiotic compounds and transform the lipophilic molecules into excretable, hydrophilic metabolites[99,100]. UGTs play an important role in drug metabolism, detoxification, and metabolite homeostasis. Differential expression of UGTs can promote cancer development, disease progression, as well as drug resistance[101]. Specifically, elevated expression of UGT1As are associated with resistance to many anti-cancer drugs due to drug inactivation and lower active drug concentrations. However, reduced expression and downregulation of UGT1As are implicated in bladder and hepatocellular tumorigenesis and progression due to toxin accumulation[101,102,103,104]. Furthermore, UGT1A1 polymorphisms, such as UGT1A1*28, UGT1A1*93, and UGT1A1*6, confer an increased risk of severe toxicity to irinotecan-based chemotherapy treatment of solid tumors, due to reduced glucuronidation of the irinotecan metabolite, SN-38[105].

Alterations and prevalence: Biallelic deletion of UGT1A1 has been observed in 6% of sarcoma, 3% of brain lower grade glioma and uveal melanoma, and 2% of thymoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and esophageal adenocarcinoma[8,9].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for UGT1A1 aberrations.

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, CTNNB1, 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, MYOD1, 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, PXDNL, RAC1, RAF1, RARA, RET, RGS7, RHEB, RHOA, RICTOR, RIT1, ROS1, RPL10, SETBP1, SF3B1, SIX1, SIX2, SLCO1B3, SMC1A, SMO, SNCAIP, SOS1, SOX2, SPOP, SRC, SRSF2, STAT3, STAT5B, STAT6, TAF1, TERT, TGFBR1, 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, AURKC, AXIN1, AXIN2, AXL, B2M, BAP1, BARD1,

Genes Assayed (continued)

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

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, ERRFI1, 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, PXDNL, RAC1, RAD50, RAD51, RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D, 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, SLCO1B3, SLX4, SMAD2, SMAD4, SMARCA4, SMARCB1, SMC1A, SMO, SOX9, SPEN, SPOP, SRC, STAG2, STAT3, STAT6, STK11, SUFU, TAP1, TAP2, TBX3, TCF7L2, TERT, TET2, TGFBR2, TNFAIP3, TNFRSF14, TOP1, TP53, TP63, TPMT, TPP2, TSC1, TSC2, U2AF1, USP8, USP9X, VHL, WT1, XPO1, XRCC2, XRCC3, YAP1, YES1, ZFHX3, 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, RELA, 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, CBFB, 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, ERRFI1, 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, 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, TGFBR2, TMEM132D, TNFAIP3, TNFRSF14, TP53, TP63, TPP2, TSC1, TSC2, UGT1A1, USP9X, VHL, WT1, XRCC2, XRCC3, ZBTB20, ZFHX3, ZMYM3, ZRSR2

Relevant Therapy Summary

⬤ In this cancer type   ◯ In other cancer type   ◑ In this cancer type and other cancer types   ✖ No evidence

CCND1 amplification

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
abemaciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	⬤ (II)
palbociclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	⬤ (II)

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

Disclaimer: The data presented here are from a curated knowledge base of publicly available information, but may not be exhaustive. The data version is 2025.04(004).

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

● In this cancer type   ○ In other cancer type   ◐ In this cancer type and other cancer types   ✖ No evidence

CCND1 amplification (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
PF-07220060, midazolam	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)

* 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	*42.82%*
BRCA1	*LOH, 17q21.31(41197602-41276231)x3*
BARD1	*LOH, 2q35(215593375-215674382)x3*
BRIP1	*LOH, 17q23.2(59760627-59938976)x3*
CDK12	*LOH, 17q12(37618286-37687611)x3*
FANCL	*LOH, 2p16.1(58386886-58468467)x3*
RAD51B	*LOH, 14q24.1(68290164-69061406)x2*
RAD51C	*LOH, 17q22(56769933-56811619)x3*
RAD51D	*LOH, 17q12(33427950-33434433)x2*
RAD51D	*LOH, 17q12(33434421-33446720)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 Oncomine Reporter software was used in generation of this report. Software was developed and designed internally by Thermo Fisher Scientific. The analysis was based on Oncomine 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.

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