

삼광의료재단 서울특별시 서초구 바우뫼로41길 58 (양재동, 선화빌딩) 검사기관 11365200

Tel. 1661-5117 www.smlab.co.kr

Report Date: 03 Jul 2025 1 of 9

Patient Name: 정재만 Primary Tumor Site: Lung Gender: M Collection Date: 2025.06.17 Sample ID: N25-73

Sample Cancer Type: Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer

Table of Contents	Page
Variant Details	1
Biomarker Descriptions	2

Report Highlights

0 Relevant Biomarkers 0 Therapies Available

0 Clinical Trials

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 Alt	eration	Finding		
Tumor Mu	ıtational Burden	7.63 Mut/Mb measured		

Relevant Biomarkers

No biomarkers associated with relevant evidence found in this sample

Prevalent cancer biomarkers without relevant evidence based on included data sources

DNMT3A p.(R736L) c.2207G>T, Microsatellite stable, NF1 p.(G978Lfs*4) c.2932_2938delGGCAGCT, TP53 p.(E198*) c.592G>T, ERAP2 deletion, Tumor Mutational Burden

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants							
Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
DNMT3A	p.(R736L)	c.2207G>T	COSM5878665	chr2:25463286	2.05%	NM_022552.5	missense
NF1	p.(G978Lfs*4)	c.2932_2938delGGCA CT	G .	chr17:29556933	39.53%	NM_001042492.3	frameshift Deletion
TP53	p.(E198*)	c.592G>T		chr17:7578257	49.60%	NM_000546.6	nonsense

Variant Details (continued)

DNA Sequence Variants (continued)

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
PBRM1	p.(A293S)	c.877G>T		chr3:52678742	35.30%	NM_018313.5	missense
MSH3	p.(A61_P63dup)	c.189_190insGCAGCG CCC		chr5:79950735	44.21%	NM_002439.5	nonframeshift Insertion
CSMD3	p.(R3094K)	c.9281G>A		chr8:113299343	7.54%	NM_198123.2	missense
FAM135B	p.(N838Y)	c.2512A>T		chr8:139164206	11.53%	NM_015912.4	missense
AXIN2	p.(R326C)	c.976C>T		chr17:63537656	17.66%	NM_004655.4	missense
KDM5C	p.(P1479A)	c.4435C>G		chrX:53222397	99.34%	NM_004187.5	missense

Copy Number Variations				
Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio	
ERAP2	chr5:96219500	0	0.47	
MAP3K1	chr5:56111388	4.93	1.62	
ERCC4	chr16:14013959	4.98	1.63	

Biomarker Descriptions

DNMT3A p.(R736L) c.2207G>T

DNA methyltransferase 3 alpha

Background: The DNMT3A gene encodes the DNA methyltransferase 3 alpha which functions as a de novo methyltransferase (DNMT) with equal methylation efficiency for unmethylated and hemimethylated DNA³⁵. Methylation of DNA occurs at CpG islands, a region of DNA consisting of sequential cytosine/guanine dinucleotide pairs. CpG island methylation plays an important role in development as well as stem cell regulation. Alterations to global DNA methylation patterns are dependent on DNMTs, which are associated with cancer initiation and progression^{36,37}.

Alterations and prevalence: DNMT3A mutations are observed in approximately 25% of all acute myeloid leukemia (AML) including 29-34% of AML with normal karyotype (NK-AML)^{13,28,38,39,40,41,42}. Mutations in DNMT3A are also reported in 12-18% of myelodysplastic syndromes (MDS) as well as 4-6% of melanoma, lung adenocarcinoma, and uterine cancer^{4,13}. The majority of mutations in DNMT3A are missense however, frameshift, nonsense, and splice site mutations have also been reported^{13,38}. Missense mutations at R882 are most prevalent and are observed to coexist with NPM1 and FLT3 mutations^{43,44}. The R882 mutations occur at the dimer/tetramer interface within the catalytic domain, which leads to disruption of DNMT3A tetramerization and loss of CpG methylation^{45,46}. However, DNMT3A mutations observed in AML at positions other than R882 also contribute to pathogenesis by mechanisms that do not involve methyltransferase activity⁴⁷.

<u>Potential relevance:</u> DNMT3A mutations confer shorter overall survival (OS) in patients with AML including those with NK-AML^{38,41,42,44}. DNMT3A mutations are a useful in the diagnosis of angioimmunoblastic T-cell lymphoma (AITCL) when trying to differentiate from other peripheral T-cell lymphomas (PTCL)⁴⁸.

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 genome⁴⁹. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue^{50,51}. MSI is closely tied to the status of the mismatch repair (MMR) genes. In humans, the core MMR genes include MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, and PMS2⁵². 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 D17S250⁵³. 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)⁵³. Tumors classified as MSI-L are

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS^{54,55,56,57,58}. 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 genes⁵¹. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer^{50,51,55,59}.

<u>Alterations and prevalence</u>: 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^{50,51,60,61}. 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^{60,61}.

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab⁶² (2014) and nivolumab⁶³ (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab⁶² 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 indication⁶². Dostarlimab⁶⁴ (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^{56,65}. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab⁶⁶ (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^{56,67,68}. 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 patients⁶⁸. 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^{69,70}. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers^{69,70}.

NF1 p.(G978Lfs*4) c.2932_2938delGGCAGCT

neurofibromin 1

Background: The NF1 gene encodes the neurofibromin protein, a tumor suppressor within the Ras-GTPase-activating protein (GAP) family¹. NF1 regulates cellular levels of activated RAS proteins including KRAS, NRAS, and HRAS, by down regulating the active GTP-bound state to an inactive GDP-bound state^{1,2}. Inactivation of NF1 due to missense mutations results in sustained intracellular levels of RAS-GTP and prolonged activation of the RAS/RAF/MAPK and PI3K/AKT/mTOR signaling pathways leading to increased proliferation and survival¹. Constitutional mutations in NF1 are associated with neurofibromatosis type 1, a RASopathy autosomal dominant tumor syndrome with predisposition to myeloid malignancies such as juvenile myelomonocytic leukemia (JMML) and myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN)^{1,3,4}.

Alterations and prevalence: NF1 aberrations include missense mutations, insertions, indels, aberrant splicing, microdeletions, and rearrangements¹. The majority of NF1 mutated tumors exhibit biallelic inactivation of NF1, supporting the 'two-hit' hypothesis of carcinogenesis^{1,5}. Somatic mutations in NF1 have been identified in over 30% of ovarian serous carcinoma, 12-30% of melanoma, 10-20% of chronic myelomonocytic leukemia (CMML), and 7% of acute myeloid leukemia (AML)^{1,4}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for NF1 aberrations. Somatic mutation of NF1 is useful as an ancillary diagnostic marker for malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor (MPNST)⁶.

TP53 p.(E198*) c.592G>T

tumor protein p53

Background: The TP53 gene encodes the tumor suppressor protein p53, which binds to DNA and activates transcription in response to diverse cellular stresses to induce cell cycle arrest, apoptosis, or DNA repair⁷. In unstressed cells, TP53 is kept inactive by targeted degradation via MDM2, a substrate recognition factor for ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis⁸. Alterations in TP53 are 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}.

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%)^{12,13,14,15,16,17}. 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^{12,13}. Invariably, recurrent missense mutations in TP53 inactivate its ability to bind DNA and activate transcription of target genes^{18,19,20,21}. Alterations in TP53 are also observed in pediatric cancers^{12,13}. Somatic mutations are observed in 53% of non-Hodgkin lymphoma, 24% of soft tissue sarcoma, 19% of glioma, 13% of bone cancer, 9% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 4% of embryonal tumors, 3% of Wilms tumor and leukemia,

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

2% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, and less than 1% of peripheral nervous system cancers (5 in 1158 cases)^{12,13}. Biallelic loss of TP53 is observed in 10% of bone cancer, 2% of Wilms tumor, and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases) and leukemia (1 in 250 cases)^{12,13}.

Potential relevance: The small molecule p53 reactivator, PC14586²² (2020), received a fast track designation by the FDA for advanced tumors harboring a TP53 Y220C mutation. The FDA has granted fast track designation to the p53 reactivator, eprenetapopt²³, (2019) and breakthrough designation²⁴ (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^{25,26}. TP53 mutation are a diagnostic marker of SHH-activated, TP53-mutant medulloblastoma²⁷. 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)^{4,28,29,30,31,32}. In mantle cell lymphoma, TP53 mutations are associated with poor prognosis when treated with conventional therapy including hematopoietic cell transplant³³. 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 system³⁴.

ERAP2 deletion

endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidase 2

<u>Background</u>: The ERAP2 gene encodes the endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidase 2 protein. ERAP2, and structurally related ERAP1, are zinc metallopeptidases which play a role in antigen processing within the immune response pathway^{71,72}. Upon uptake by an immune cell, antigens are first processed by the proteasome and then transported into the endoplasmic reticulum where ERAP1 and ERAP2 excise peptide N-terminal extensions to generate mature antigen peptides for presentation on MHC class I molecules^{71,73}. The polymorphic variability in ERAP2 is hypothesized to affect the severity of cytotoxic responses to transformed cells and potentially influence their chances to gain mutations that evade the immune system and become tumorigenic⁷¹.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in ERAP2 are observed in 7% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, and 2% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and stomach adenocarcinoma^{12,13}. Deletions are observed in 2% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, prostate adenocarcinoma, and 1% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, mesothelioma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, and lung squamous cell carcinoma^{12,13}.

<u>Potential relevance:</u> Currently, no therapies are approved for ERAP2 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, PIK3CG, 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, 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,

Genes Assayed (continued)

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

ERRFI1, ESR1, ETV6, EZH2, FAM135B, FANCA, FANCC, FANCD2, FANCE, FANCF, FANCG, FANCI, FANCI, FANCM, FAT1, FBXW7, FGF19, FGF23, FGF3, FGF4, FGF9, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3, FGFR4, FLT3, FLT4, F0XA1, 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, 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, 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, ERRF11, ETV6, FANCA, FANCC, FANCD2, FANCE, FANCE, FANCG, FANCI, FANCI, FANCH, FA

HRR Details

Gene/Genomic Alteration	Finding
LOH percentage	50.45%
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)x2
RAD51B	LOH, 14q24.1(68290164-69061406)x3
RAD51C	LOH, 17q22(56769933-56811619)x3
RAD51D	LOH, 17q12(33427950-33446720)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 lon 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 (6.1.1 data version 2025.05(007)). 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 2025-04-16. NCCN information was sourced from www.nccn.org and is current as of 2025-04-01. EMA information was sourced from www.ema.europa.eu and is current as of 2025-04-16. ESMO information was sourced from www.esmo.org and is current as of 2025-04-01. Clinical Trials information is current as of 2025-04-01. 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

- Philpott et al. The NF1 somatic mutational landscape in sporadic human cancers. 2017 Jun 21;11(1):13. doi: 10.1186/ s40246-017-0109-3. PMID: 28637487
- Scheffzek et al. The Ras-RasGAP complex: structural basis for GTPase activation and its loss in oncogenic Ras mutants. Science. 1997 Jul 18;277(5324):333-8. PMID: 9219684
- Fioretos et al. Isochromosome 17q in blast crisis of chronic myeloid leukemia and in other hematologic malignancies is the result of clustered breakpoints in 17p11 and is not associated with coding TP53 mutations. Blood. 1999 Jul 1;94(1):225-32. PMID: 10381517
- 4. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Myelodysplastic Syndromes [Version 2.2025]
- 5. Brems et al. Mechanisms in the pathogenesis of malignant tumours in neurofibromatosis type 1. Lancet Oncol. 2009 May;10(5):508-15. PMID: 19410195
- 6. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Soft Tissue Sarcoma [Version 5.2024]
- 7. 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
- 8. Nag et al. The MDM2-p53 pathway revisited. J Biomed Res. 2013 Jul;27(4):254-71. PMID: 23885265
- 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. Weinstein et al. The Cancer Genome Atlas Pan-Cancer analysis project. Nat. Genet. 2013 Oct;45(10):1113-20. PMID: 24071849
- 14. Peter et al. Comprehensive genomic characterization of squamous cell lung cancers. Nature. 2012 Sep 27;489(7417):519-25. PMID: 22960745
- 15. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. Nature. 2015 Jan 29;517(7536):576-82. PMID: 25631445
- 16. 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
- 17. 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
- 18. 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
- 19. 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
- 20. 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
- 21. 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
- 22. 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
- 23. https://ir.aprea.com//news-releases/news-release-details/aprea-therapeutics-receives-fda-fast-track-designation
- 24. http://vp280.alertir.com/en/pressreleases/karolinska-development%27s-portfolio-company-aprea-therapeutics-receives-fda-breakthrough-therapy-designation-1769167
- 25. 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
- 26. Zhao et al. Molecularly targeted therapies for p53-mutant cancers. Cell. Mol. Life Sci. 2017 Nov;74(22):4171-4187. PMID: 28643165
- 27. Louis et al. The 2021 WHO Classification of Tumors of the Central Nervous System: a summary. Neuro Oncol. 2021 Aug 2;23(8):1231-1251. PMID: 34185076
- 28. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Acute Myeloid Leukemia [Version 2.2025]

References (continued)

- 29. 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
- 30. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Myeloproliferative Neoplasms [Version 1.2025]
- 31. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia/Small Lymphocytic Lymphoma [Version 2.2025]
- 32. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia [Version 3.2024]
- 33. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-B-Cell Lymphomas [Version 2.2025]
- 34. 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
- 35. Okano et al. Cloning and characterization of a family of novel mammalian DNA (cytosine-5) methyltransferases. Nat Genet. 1998 Jul;19(3):219-20. PMID: 9662389
- 36. Fernandez et al. A DNA methylation fingerprint of 1628 human samples. Genome Res. 2012 Feb;22(2):407-19. PMID: 21613409
- 37. Jones et al. The epigenomics of cancer. Cell. 2007 Feb 23;128(4):683-92. PMID: 17320506
- 38. Ley et al. DNMT3A mutations in acute myeloid leukemia. N. Engl. J. Med. 2010 Dec 16;363(25):2424-33. PMID: 21067377
- 39. Marková et al. Prognostic impact of DNMT3A mutations in patients with intermediate cytogenetic risk profile acute myeloid leukemia. Eur. J. Haematol. 2012 Feb;88(2):128-35. PMID: 21967546
- 40. Yang et al. DNMT3A in haematological malignancies. Nat. Rev. Cancer. 2015 Mar;15(3):152-65. PMID: 25693834
- 41. Renneville et al. Prognostic significance of DNA methyltransferase 3A mutations in cytogenetically normal acute myeloid leukemia: a study by the Acute Leukemia French Association. Leukemia. 2012 Jun;26(6):1247-54. PMID: 22289988
- 42. Marcucci et al. Age-related prognostic impact of different types of DNMT3A mutations in adults with primary cytogenetically normal acute myeloid leukemia. J. Clin. Oncol. 2012 Mar 1;30(7):742-50. PMID: 22291079
- 43. Kumar et al. DNMT3A (R882) mutation features and prognostic effect in acute myeloid leukemia in Coexistent with NPM1 and FLT3 mutations. Hematol Oncol Stem Cell Ther. 2018 Jun;11(2):82-89. PMID: 29079128
- 44. Thol et al. Incidence and prognostic influence of DNMT3A mutations in acute myeloid leukemia. J. Clin. Oncol. 2011 Jul 20;29(21):2889-96. PMID: 21670448
- 45. Sandoval et al. Mutations in the DNMT3A DNA methyltransferase in acute myeloid leukemia patients cause both loss and gain of function and differential regulation by protein partners. J. Biol. Chem. 2019 Mar 29;294(13):4898-4910. PMID: 30705090
- 46. Holz-Schietinger et al. Mutations in DNA methyltransferase (DNMT3A) observed in acute myeloid leukemia patients disrupt processive methylation. J. Biol. Chem. 2012 Sep 7;287(37):30941-51. PMID: 22722925
- 47. Russler-Germain et al. The R882H DNMT3A mutation associated with AML dominantly inhibits wild-type DNMT3A by blocking its ability to form active tetramers. Cancer Cell. 2014 Apr 14;25(4):442-54. PMID: 24656771
- 48. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-T-Cell Lymphomas [Version 1.2025]
- 49. Lander et al. Initial sequencing and analysis of the human genome. Nature. 2001 Feb 15;409(6822):860-921. PMID: 11237011
- 50. 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
- 51. Nojadeh et al. Microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. EXCLI J. 2018;17:159-168. PMID: 29743854
- 52. 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
- 53. 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
- 54. 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
- 55. Imai et al. Carcinogenesis and microsatellite instability: the interrelationship between genetics and epigenetics. Carcinogenesis. 2008 Apr;29(4):673-80. PMID: 17942460
- 56. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Colon Cancer [Version 2.2025]
- 57. Pawlik et al. Colorectal carcinogenesis: MSI-H versus MSI-L. Dis. Markers. 2004;20(4-5):199-206. PMID: 15528785
- 58. 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
- 59. 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

Report Date: 03 Jul 2025 9 of 9

References (continued)

- 60. 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
- 61. Bonneville et al. Landscape of Microsatellite Instability Across 39 Cancer Types. JCO Precis Oncol. 2017;2017. PMID: 29850653
- 62. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125514s174lbl.pdf
- 63. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/125554s127lbl.pdf
- 64. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/761174s009lbl.pdf
- 65. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Rectal Cancer [Version 2.2025]
- 66. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125377s132lbl.pdf
- 67. 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
- 68. 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
- Hermel et al. The Emerging Role of Checkpoint Inhibition in Microsatellite Stable Colorectal Cancer. J Pers Med. 2019 Jan 16;9(1).
 PMID: 30654522
- 70. Ciardiello et al. Immunotherapy of colorectal cancer: Challenges for therapeutic efficacy. Cancer Treat. Rev. 2019 Jun;76:22-32. PMID: 31079031
- 71. Stratikos et al. A role for naturally occurring alleles of endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidases in tumor immunity and cancer predisposition. Front Oncol. 2014;4:363. PMID: 25566501
- 72. López. How ERAP1 and ERAP2 Shape the Peptidomes of Disease-Associated MHC-I Proteins. Front Immunol. 2018;9:2463. PMID: 30425713
- 73. Serwold et al. ERAAP customizes peptides for MHC class I molecules in the endoplasmic reticulum. Nature. 2002 Oct 3;419(6906):480-3. PMID: 12368856