

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



Report Date: 13 Aug 2025 1 of 9

Patient Name: 김대호 Gender: M Sample ID: N25-139 Primary Tumor Site: Bile duct Collection Date: 2024.11.25

Sample Cancer Type: Cholangiocarcinoma

Table of Contents	Page		
Variant Details	2		
Biomarker Descriptions	2		
Relevant Therapy Summary	6		

Report Highlights 2 Relevant Biomarkers 0 Therapies Available 4 Clinical Trials

Relevant Cholangiocarcinoma Findings

Gene	Finding		Gene	Finding
BRAF	None detected		NTRK1	None detected
ERBB2	None detected		NTRK2	None detected
FGFR2	None detected		NTRK3	None detected
IDH1	None detected		RET	None detected
KRAS	None detected			
Genomic Alt	eration	Finding		
Tumor Mu	ıtational Burden	5.68 Mut/Mb measured		

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	CDKN2A deletion cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A Locus: chr9:21968178	None*	None*	3
IIC	BARD1 p.(Q449*) c.1345C>T BRCA1 associated RING domain 1 Allele Frequency: 48.96% Locus: chr2:215634006 Transcript: NM_000465.4	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

DPYD p.(M166V) c.496A>G, MSH6 p.(K1358Dfs*2) c.4068_4071dup, Microsatellite stable, Tumor Mutational Burden

^{*} Public data sources included in prognostic and diagnostic significance: NCCN, ESMO

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
BARD1	p.(Q449*)	c.1345C>T		chr2:215634006	48.96%	NM_000465.4	nonsense
DPYD	p.(M166V)	c.496A>G		chr1:98165091	49.27%	NM_000110.4	missense
MSH6	p.(K1358Dfs*2)	c.4068_4071dup		chr2:48033981	44.93%	NM_000179.3	frameshift Insertion
REG1A	p.(N97K)	c.291T>A		chr2:79349221	50.72%	NM_002909.5	missense
EVC	p.(E563D)	c.1689G>C		chr4:5785404	11.61%	NM_153717.3	missense
KMT2D	p.(Q3910_Q3911del)	c.11729_11734delAGC AAC		chr12:49426753	47.50%	NM_003482.4	nonframeshift Deletion
STK11	p.(N181K)	c.543C>A		chr19:1220450	13.74%	NM_000455.5	missense
NOTCH3	p.(S2058L)	c.6173C>T		chr19:15272266	51.81%	NM_000435.3	missense

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
CDKN2A	chr9:21968178	0.43	0.69

Biomarker Descriptions

CDKN2A deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A

Background: CDKN2A encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression¹. CDKN2A, also known as p16/INK4A, belongs to a family of INK4 cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors, which also includes CDKN2B (p15/INK4B), CDKN2C (p18/INK4C), and CDKN2D (p19/INK4D)⁴⁸. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb^{49,50,51}. CDKN2A encodes two alternative transcript variants, namely p16 and p14ARF, both of which exhibit differential tumor suppressor functions⁵². Specifically, the CDKN2A/p16 transcript inhibits cell cycle kinases CDK4 and CDK6, whereas the CDKN2A/p14ARF transcript stabilizes the tumor suppressor protein p53 to prevent its degradation¹,52,53</sup>. CDKN2A aberrations commonly co-occur with CDKN2B⁴⁸. Loss of CDKN2A/p16 results in downstream inactivation of the Rb and p53 pathways, leading to uncontrolled cell proliferation⁵⁴. Germline mutations of CDKN2A are known to confer a predisposition to melanoma and pancreatic cancer^{55,56}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic alterations in CDKN2A often result in loss of function (LOF) which is attributed to copy number loss, truncating, or missense mutations⁵⁷. Somatic mutations in CDKN2A are observed in 20% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and pancreatic adenocarcinoma, 15% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 13% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 8% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 7% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 6% of cholangiocarcinoma, 4% of lung adenocarcinoma and stomach adenocarcinoma, and 2% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, and cervical squamous cell carcinoma^{4,5}. Biallelic deletion of CDKN2A is observed in 56% of glioblastoma multiforme, 45% of mesothelioma, 39% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 32% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 31% of skin cutaneous melanoma and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 28% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma, 27% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, 26% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 17% of lung adenocarcinoma and cholangiocarcinoma, 15% of sarcoma, 11% of stomach adenocarcinoma and of brain lower grade glioma, 7% of adrenocortical carcinoma, 6% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, 4% of breast invasive carcinoma, kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma and thymoma, 3% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma and kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, and 2% of uterine carcinosarcoma and kidney chromophobe^{4,5}. Alterations in CDKN2A are also observed in pediatric cancers⁵. Biallelic deletion of CDKN2A is observed in 68% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 40% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 25% of glioma, 19% of bone cancer, and 6% of embryonal tumors⁵. Somatic mutations in CDKN2A are observed in less that 1.5% of bone cancer (5 in 327 cases), B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (3 in 252 cases), and leukemia (1 in 354 cases)⁵.

<u>Potential relevance:</u> Loss of CDKN2A can be useful in the diagnosis of mesothelioma, and mutations in CDKN2A are ancillary diagnostic markers of malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors^{58,59,60}. Additionally, deletion of CDKN2B is a molecular marker used in

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

staging Grade 4 pediatric IDH-mutant astrocytoma⁶¹. Currently, no therapies are approved for CDKN2A aberrations. However, CDKN2A LOF leading to CDK4/6 activation may confer sensitivity to CDK inhibitors such as palbociclib and abemaciclib^{62,63,64}. Alternatively, CDKN2A expression and Rb inactivation demonstrate resistance to palbociclib in cases of glioblastoma multiforme⁶⁵. CDKN2A (p16) expression is associated with a favorable prognosis for progression-free survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS) in p16/HPV positive head and neck cancer^{66,67,68,69}.

BARD1 p.(Q449*) c.1345C>T

BRCA1 associated RING domain 1

Background: The BARD1 gene encodes the BRCA1 associated RING domain 1 protein which binds to BRCA1 and contributes to the in vitro E3 ligase activity that is required for the tumor suppressor function of the BRCA1 gene^{1,24}. The cysteine-rich N-terminal RING finger domains of BARD1 and BRCA1 heterodimerize to regulate a diverse range of cellular pathways, such as ubiquitination, transcriptional regulation, and homologous recombination repair (HRR) of double-stranded DNA damage^{1,24,25,26}. Mutual stability between BARD1 and BRCA1 is essential in maintaining HRR functionality. Genetic alterations in either BARD1 or BRCA1 can disrupt the BARD1/BRCA1 interaction^{1,25,27,28}. BARD1 is a tumor suppressor and loss of function (LOF) mutations are implicated in the BRCAness phenotype, which is characterized by a defect in HRR mimicking BRCA1 or BRCA2 loss^{28,29}. Copy number deletion, nonsense or frameshift mutations attributed to BARD1 LOF and are associated with familial breast cancer susceptibility²⁷. Independent of BRCA1, BARD1 acts as a mediator of apoptosis by binding to p53³⁰. Specifically, the BARD1 Q564H germline mutation is associated with a decrease in pro-apoptotic activity and implicated in cases of breast and endometrial cancer^{30,31}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in BARD1 are found in 5% of uterine cancer, 3% of stomach cancer as well as melanoma, and 2% of bladder cancer as well as lung adenocarcinoma^{4,5}. BARD1 copy number loss is observed in 2% of mesothelioma, head and neck cancer, and esophageal cancer^{4,5}.

Potential relevance: The PARP inhibitor, olaparib³² is approved (2020) for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with deleterious or suspected deleterious, germline or somatic mutations in HRR genes that includes BARD1. In 2022, the FDA granted fast track designation to the small molecule inhibitor, pidnarulex³³, for BRCA1/2, PALB2, or other homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) mutations in breast and ovarian cancers.

DPYD p.(M166V) c.496A>G

dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase

Background: The DPYD gene (also known as DPD) encodes dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase, the initial and rate-limiting enzyme that catalyzes the reduction of uracil and thymidine in the pyrimidine catabolism pathway^{1,2}. DPYD is responsible for the inactivation and liver clearance of fluoropyrimidines (fluorouracil, capecitabine, and other analogs), which are the core chemotherapies used in the treatment of solid tumors, such as colorectal, pancreatic, gastric, breast, and head and neck cancers³. Inherited DPYD polymorphisms, including DPYD*2A, DPYD*13, DPYD c.2846A>T, and DPYD c.1129-5923T>G, can result in DPD deficiency, which is characterized by impaired enzymatic activity and confers an increased risk of severe toxicity to fluoropyrimidine drugs due to an increase in systemic drug exposure³.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in DPYD have been observed in 20% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 9% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 6% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 5% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma and colorectal adenocarcinoma, 4% of lung adenocarcinoma, 3% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and lung squamous cell carcinoma, and 2% of adrenocortical carcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, pancreatic adenocarcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, liver hepatocellular carcinoma, and sarcoma^{4,5}. Biallelic loss of DPYD has been observed in 4% of pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma and 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and lung squamous cell carcinoma^{4,5}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for DPYD.

MSH6 p.(K1358Dfs*2) c.4068_4071dup

mutS homolog 6

Background: The MSH6 gene encodes the mutS homolog 6 protein¹. MSH6 is a tumor suppressor gene that heterodimerizes with MSH2 to form the MutSa complex⁶. The MutSa complex functions in the DNA damage recognition of base-base mismatches or insertion/deletion (indels) of 1-2 nucleotides⁶. DNA damage recognition initiates the mismatch repair (MMR) process that repairs mismatch errors which typically occur during DNA replication⁶. Mutations in MSH2 result in the degradation of MSH6⁷. MSH6, along with MLH1, MSH2, and PMS2, form the core components of the MMR pathway⁶. The MMR pathway is critical to the repair of mismatch errors which typically occur during DNA replication⁶. Deficiency in MMR (dMMR) is characterized by mutations and loss of expression in these genes⁸. dMMR is associated with microsatellite instability (MSI), which is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

in a tumor as compared to normal tissue^{9,10,11}. 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^{9,12}. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer^{10,12,13,14}. Specifically, MSH6 mutations are associated with an increased risk of ovarian and pancreatic cancer^{15,16,17,18}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MSH6 are observed in 11% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 3% skin cutaneous melanoma^{4,5}. Alterations in MSH6 are observed in pediatric cancers^{4,5}. Somatic mutations are observed in 9% of hepatobiliary cancer, 2% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, and less than 1% of glioma (2 in 297 cases) and bone cancer (2 in 327 cases)^{4,5}.

Potential relevance: Pembrolizumab (2014) is an anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitor that is approved for patients with dMMR solid tumors that have progressed on prior therapies¹⁹. 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^{20,21}. MSH6 mutations are consistent with high grade in pediatric diffuse gliomas^{22,23}.

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 genome³⁴. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue^{10,12}. MSI is closely tied to the status of the mismatch repair (MMR) genes. In humans, the core MMR genes include MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, and PMS2¹¹. 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 D17S250³⁵. 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)³⁵. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS^{13,36,37,38,39}. 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 genes¹². LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer^{10,12,13,14}.

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^{10,12,40,41}. 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^{40,41}.

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab¹⁹ (2014) and nivolumab²⁰ (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab¹⁹ 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 indication¹⁹. Dostarlimab⁴² (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^{37,43}. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab²¹ (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^{37,44,45}. 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 patients⁴⁵. 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^{46,47}. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers^{46,47}.

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,

Genes Assayed (continued)

Genes Assayed for the Detection of DNA Sequence Variants (continued)

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, SLC01B3, 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, 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, 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, FANCF, FANCG, FANCI, FANCH, 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, 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
O In other cancer type
In this cancer type and other cancer types
X No evidence

CDKN2A deletion					
Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
palbociclib	×	×	×	×	(II)
palbociclib, abemaciclib	×	×	×	×	(II)
AMG 193	×	×	×	×	(I/II)

BARD1 p.(Q449*) c.1345C>T

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
talazoparib	×	×	×	×	(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	0.0%
Not Detected	Not Applicable

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 2025.06(006)). 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 2025-05-14. NCCN information was sourced from www.nccn.org and is current as of 2025-05-01. EMA information was sourced from www.ema.europa.eu and is current as of 2025-05-14. ESMO information was sourced from www.esmo.org and is current as of 2025-05-01. Clinical Trials information is current as of 2025-05-01. 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

- 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. Lohkamp et al. Insights into the mechanism of dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase from site-directed mutagenesis targeting the active site loop and redox cofactor coordination. Biochim Biophys Acta. 2010 Dec;1804(12):2198-206. PMID: 20831907
- 3. Innocenti et al. All You Need to Know About DPYD Genetic Testing for Patients Treated With Fluorouracil and Capecitabine: A Practitioner-Friendly Guide. JCO Oncol Pract. 2020 Dec;16(12):793-798. PMID: 33197222
- 4. Weinstein et al. The Cancer Genome Atlas Pan-Cancer analysis project. Nat. Genet. 2013 Oct;45(10):1113-20. PMID: 24071849
- 5. 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
- 6. Li. Mechanisms and functions of DNA mismatch repair. Cell Res. 2008 Jan;18(1):85-98. PMID: 18157157
- 7. Zhao et al. Mismatch Repair Deficiency/Microsatellite Instability-High as a Predictor for anti-PD-1/PD-L1 Immunotherapy Efficacy. J Hematol Oncol. 12(1),54. PMID: 31151482
- 8. Martin et al. Therapeutic targeting of the DNA mismatch repair pathway. Clin Cancer Res. 2010 Nov 1;16(21):5107-13. PMID: 20823149
- Lynch et al. Review of the Lynch syndrome: history, molecular genetics, screening, differential diagnosis, and medicolegal ramifications. Clin. Genet. 2009 Jul;76(1):1-18. PMID: 19659756
- 10. 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
- 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
- 12. Nojadeh et al. Microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. EXCLI J. 2018;17:159-168. PMID: 29743854
- 13. Imai et al. Carcinogenesis and microsatellite instability: the interrelationship between genetics and epigenetics. Carcinogenesis. 2008 Apr;29(4):673-80. PMID: 17942460
- 14. 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
- 15. Bonadona et al. Cancer risks associated with germline mutations in MLH1, MSH2, and MSH6 genes in Lynch syndrome. JAMA. 2011 Jun 8;305(22):2304-10. PMID: 21642682
- 16. Engel et al. Risks of less common cancers in proven mutation carriers with lynch syndrome. J Clin Oncol. 2012 Dec 10;30(35):4409-15. PMID: 23091106
- 17. Grant et al. Prevalence of germline mutations in cancer predisposition genes in patients with pancreatic cancer. Gastroenterology. 2015 Mar;148(3):556-64. PMID: 25479140
- 18. Hu et al. Association Between Inherited Germline Mutations in Cancer Predisposition Genes and Risk of Pancreatic Cancer. JAMA. 2018 Jun 19;319(23):2401-2409. PMID: 29922827
- 19. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125514s174lbl.pdf
- 20. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125554s129lbl.pdf
- 21. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125377s133lbl.pdf
- 22. Buccoliero et al. Pediatric High Grade Glioma Classification Criteria and Molecular Features of a Case Series. Genes (Basel). 2022 Mar 31:13(4). PMID: 35456430
- 23. Friker et al. MSH2, MSH6, MLH1, and PMS2 immunohistochemistry as highly sensitive screening method for DNA mismatch repair deficiency syndromes in pediatric high-grade glioma. Acta Neuropathol. 2025 Feb 2;149(1):11. PMID: 39894875
- 24. Morris et al. BRCA1: BARD1 induces the formation of conjugated ubiquitin structures, dependent on K6 of ubiquitin, in cells during DNA replication and repair. Hum. Mol. Genet. 2004 Apr 15;13(8):807-17. PMID: 14976165
- 25. Baer et al. The BRCA1/BARD1 heterodimer, a tumor suppressor complex with ubiquitin E3 ligase activity. Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev. 2002 Feb;12(1):86-91. PMID: 11790560
- 26. Zhao et al. BRCA1-BARD1 promotes RAD51-mediated homologous DNA pairing. Nature. 2017 Oct 19;550(7676):360-365. PMID: 28976962
- 27. Cimmino et al. Dualistic Role of BARD1 in Cancer. Genes (Basel). 2017 Dec 8;8(12). PMID: 29292755
- 28. De et al. BRCAness: a deeper insight into basal-like breast tumors. Ann. Oncol. 2013 Nov;24 Suppl 8:viii13-viii21. PMID: 24131964
- 29. Prakash et al. Homologous recombination and human health: the roles of BRCA1, BRCA2, and associated proteins. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol. 2015 Apr 1;7(4):a016600. PMID: 25833843

8 of 9

Report Date: 13 Aug 2025

References (continued)

- 30. Irminger-Finger et al. Identification of BARD1 as mediator between proapoptotic stress and p53-dependent apoptosis. Mol. Cell. 2001 Dec;8(6):1255-66. PMID: 11779501
- 31. Thai et al. Mutations in the BRCA1-associated RING domain (BARD1) gene in primary breast, ovarian and uterine cancers. Hum. Mol. Genet. 1998 Feb;7(2):195-202. PMID: 9425226
- 32. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2023/208558s028lbl.pdf
- 33. https://www.senhwabio.com//en/news/20220125
- 34. Lander et al. Initial sequencing and analysis of the human genome. Nature. 2001 Feb 15;409(6822):860-921. PMID: 11237011
- 35. 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
- 36. 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
- 37. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Colon Cancer [Version 3.2025]
- 38. Pawlik et al. Colorectal carcinogenesis: MSI-H versus MSI-L. Dis. Markers. 2004;20(4-5):199-206. PMID: 15528785
- 39. 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
- 40. 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
- 41. Bonneville et al. Landscape of Microsatellite Instability Across 39 Cancer Types. JCO Precis Oncol. 2017;2017. PMID: 29850653
- 42. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/761174s009lbl.pdf
- 43. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Rectal Cancer [Version 2.2025]
- 44. 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
- 45. 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
- 47. Ciardiello et al. Immunotherapy of colorectal cancer: Challenges for therapeutic efficacy. Cancer Treat. Rev. 2019 Jun;76:22-32. PMID: 31079031
- 48. Xia et al. Dominant role of CDKN2B/p15INK4B of 9p21.3 tumor suppressor hub in inhibition of cell-cycle and glycolysis. Nat Commun. 2021 Apr 6;12(1):2047. PMID: 33824349
- 49. Scruggs et al. Loss of CDKN2B Promotes Fibrosis via Increased Fibroblast Differentiation Rather Than Proliferation. Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol. 2018 Aug;59(2):200-214. PMID: 29420051
- 50. Roussel. The INK4 family of cell cycle inhibitors in cancer. Oncogene. 1999 Sep 20;18(38):5311-7. PMID: 10498883
- 51. Aytac et al. Rb independent inhibition of cell growth by p15(INK4B). Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 1999 Aug 27;262(2):534-8. PMID: 10462509
- 52. Hill et al. The genetics of melanoma: recent advances. Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet. 2013;14:257-79. PMID: 23875803
- 53. Kim et al. The regulation of INK4/ARF in cancer and aging. Cell. 2006 Oct 20;127(2):265-75. PMID: 17055429
- 54. Sekulic et al. Malignant melanoma in the 21st century: the emerging molecular landscape. Mayo Clin. Proc. 2008 Jul;83(7):825-46. PMID: 18613999
- 55. Orlow et al. CDKN2A germline mutations in individuals with cutaneous malignant melanoma. J. Invest. Dermatol. 2007 May;127(5):1234-43. PMID: 17218939
- 56. Bartsch et al. CDKN2A germline mutations in familial pancreatic cancer. Ann. Surg. 2002 Dec;236(6):730-7. PMID: 12454511
- 57. Adib et al. CDKN2A Alterations and Response to Immunotherapy in Solid Tumors. Clin Cancer Res. 2021 Jul 15;27(14):4025-4035. PMID: 34074656
- 58. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Mesothelioma: Peritoneal [Version 2.2025]
- 59. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Mesothelioma: Pleural [Version 2.2025]
- 60. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Soft Tissue Sarcoma [Version 5.2024]
- 61. Louis et al. cIMPACT-NOW update 6: new entity and diagnostic principle recommendations of the cIMPACT-Utrecht meeting on future CNS tumor classification and grading. Brain Pathol. 2020 Jul;30(4):844-856. PMID: 32307792

Report Date: 13 Aug 2025 9 of 9

References (continued)

- 62. Longwen et al. Frequent genetic aberrations in the cell cycle related genes in mucosal melanoma indicate the potential for targeted therapy. J Transl Med. 2019 Jul 29;17(1):245. PMID: 31358010
- 63. Logan et al. PD-0332991, a potent and selective inhibitor of cyclin-dependent kinase 4/6, demonstrates inhibition of proliferation in renal cell carcinoma at nanomolar concentrations and molecular markers predict for sensitivity. Anticancer Res. 2013 Aug;33(8):2997-3004. PMID: 23898052
- 64. von et al. Preclinical Characterization of Novel Chordoma Cell Systems and Their Targeting by Pharmocological Inhibitors of the CDK4/6 Cell-Cycle Pathway. Cancer Res. 2015 Sep 15;75(18):3823-31. PMID: 26183925
- 65. Cen et al. p16-Cdk4-Rb axis controls sensitivity to a cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor PD0332991 in glioblastoma xenograft cells. Neuro-oncology. 2012 Jul;14(7):870-81. PMID: 22711607
- 66. Vitzthum et al. The role of p16 as a biomarker in nonoropharyngeal head and neck cancer. Oncotarget. 2018 Sep 7;9(70):33247-33248. PMID: 30279955
- 67. Chung et al. p16 protein expression and human papillomavirus status as prognostic biomarkers of nonoropharyngeal head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. J. Clin. Oncol. 2014 Dec 10;32(35):3930-8. PMID: 25267748
- 68. Bryant et al. Prognostic Role of p16 in Nonoropharyngeal Head and Neck Cancer. J. Natl. Cancer Inst. 2018 Dec 1;110(12):1393-1399. PMID: 29878161
- 69. Stephen et al. Significance of p16 in Site-specific HPV Positive and HPV Negative Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma. Cancer Clin Oncol. 2013;2(1):51-61. PMID: 23935769